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1 **Intra-clinothem variability in sedimentary texture and process regime recorded**
2 **down slope profiles**

3 **LIST OF AUTHORS:** GRACE I.E. COSGROVE^{1*}, MIQUEL POYATOS-MORÉ², DAVID LEE¹, DAVID M.
4 HODGSON¹, WILLIAM D. McCAFFREY¹, NIGEL P. MOUNTNEY¹

5 **LIST OF ADDRESSES:**

6 ¹School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, United Kingdom

7 ²Department of Geosciences, University of Oslo, 0371 Oslo, Norway

8 ***CORRESPONDING AUTHOR:** eeגיע@leeds.ac.uk

9

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12

13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Shelf-margin clinothem successions can archive process interactions at the shelf to slope transition, and
15 their architecture provides constraints on the interplay of factors that control basin-margin evolution.
16 However, detailed textural analysis and facies distributions from shelf to slope transitions remain poorly
17 documented. This study uses quantitative grain-size and sorting data from coeval shelf and slope
18 deposits of a single clinothem that crops out along a 5 km long, dip-parallel transect of the Eocene
19 Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex (Ainsa Basin, south-central Pyrenees, Spain). Systematic sampling of
20 sandstone beds tied to measured sections has captured vertical and basinward changes in sedimentary
21 texture and facies distributions at an intra-clinothem scale. Two types of hyperpycnal flow, related slope
22 deposits, both rich in mica and terrestrial organic matter, are differentiated according to grain size,
23 sorting and bed geometry: (i) sustained hyperpycnal flow deposits, which are physically linked to coarse
24 channelised sediments in the shelf setting and which deposit sand down the complete slope profile; (ii)

25 episodic hyperpycnal flow deposits, which are disconnected from, and incise into, shelf sands and which
26 are associated with sediment bypass of the proximal slope and coarse-grained sand deposition on the
27 medial and distal slope. Both types of hyperpycnites are interbedded with relatively homogenous,
28 organic-free and mica-free, well-sorted, very fine-grained sandstones, which are interpreted to be
29 remobilised from wave-dominated shelf environments; these wave-dominated deposits are found only
30 on the proximal and medial slope. Coarse-grained sediment bypass into the deeper-water slope settings
31 is therefore dominated by episodic hyperpycnal flows, whilst sustained hyperpycnal flows and turbidity
32 currents remobilizing wave-dominated shelf deposits are responsible for the full range of grain-sizes in
33 the proximal and medial slope, thus facilitating clinof orm progradation. This novel dataset highlights
34 previously undocumented intra-clinothem variability related to updip changes in the shelf process-
35 regime, which is therefore a key factor controlling downdip architecture and resulting sedimentary
36 texture.

37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 Clinothems typically form progradational basin margin successions (e.g. Gilbert, 1885; Rich, 1951;
39 Asquith, 1970; Mitchum et al., 1977; Pirmez et al., 1998; Adams & Schlager, 2000; Bhattacharya, 2006;
40 Patruno et al., 2015). Seismic reflection and well-log data have been used extensively to study
41 subsurface clinothem successions (e.g. Ross et al., 1995; Pinous et al., 2001; Donovan, 2003; Jennette et
42 al., 2003; Hadler-Jacobsen et al., 2005). However, outcrop examples of clinothems offer a higher-
43 resolution record of stratigraphic and downslope clinothem evolution (e.g. Helland-Hansen, 1992;
44 Dreyer et al., 1999; Pyles & Slatt, 2007; Pontén & Plink-Björklund, 2009; Hubbard et al., 2010; Dixon et
45 al., 2012a; Jones et al., 2013; Poyatos-Moré et al., 2019). Exhumed clinothem successions provide the
46 opportunity to document patterns of facies distribution and sedimentary texture. This information can
47 be used to help constrain the interplay of controls on clinothem evolution (e.g. Mellere et al., 2002;
48 Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2003; Carvajal & Steel, 2006; Pyles & Slatt, 2007; Jones et al., 2015; Laugier &
49 Plink-Björklund, 2016). However, predicting facies distributions and sedimentary textures within
50 individual clinothems, both vertically and along depositional dip, remains challenging (Cosgrove et al.,
51 2018). In part, this is due to the lack of detailed, quantitative grain size and sorting datasets recovered
52 from clinothem sequences, which has left down-clinothem changes in grain size and sorting as poorly
53 constrained and largely unquantified parameters (Catuneanu et al., 2009).

54 Prediction of sedimentary texture along a continuous clinothem depositional profile is further
55 complicated by changes in the dominant shelf process-regime (cf. Dixon et al., 2012b; Laugier & Plink-
56 Björklund, 2016; Cosgrove et al., 2018). Process-regime affects how and when sediment of different
57 calibre and maturity is transferred downdip (Dixon et al., 2012b; Cosgrove et al., 2018). Sudden changes
58 in shelf process-regime can occur over intra-clinotem timescales (Ta et al., 2002; Ainsworth et al.,
59 2008; Plink-Björklund, 2008; Carvajal & Steel, 2009; Vakarelov & Ainsworth, 2013; Jones et al., 2015).
60 Despite this, mixed-energy clinothems systems are under-represented in the literature (see Ainsworth et
61 al., 2011; Olariu, 2014; Rossi & Steel, 2016) and clinothems are therefore commonly designated as being
62 end-member types (i.e. river-dominated, wave-dominated or tide-dominated, systems) (e.g. Dreyer et
63 al., 1999; Plink-Björklund et al., 2001; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2002; Deibert et al., 2003; Crabaugh &
64 Steel, 2004; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2004; Johannessen & Steel, 2005; Petter & Steel, 2006; Sylvester et
65 al., 2012). As such, the impact of mixed process-regime conditions on downslope sedimentary texture
66 remains relatively understudied (e.g. Cosgrove et al., 2019).

67 To improve understanding of process and textural variability within individual clinotem sequences, this
68 study focuses on the Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex, an outcrop example of well-constrained clinothems,
69 located in the Eocene Ainsa Basin, south-central Pyrenees, Spain (Fig. 1). This system is ideal for studying
70 quantitative changes in grain size and sorting at high spatial resolution, due to the presence of a series
71 of well-exposed and accessible clinotem sequences, which can be directly correlated from coeval
72 fluvio-deltaic shelf to distal slope deposits (Dreyer et al., 1999). This investigation uses detailed facies
73 analyses and quantitative changes in grain size and sorting to address three overarching questions: (i)
74 how do changes in the dominant shelf process regime affect facies distribution within an individual
75 clinotem sequence; (ii) how do changes in sedimentary texture (including grain size and sorting) vary
76 up-stratigraphy and along depositional dip; and (iii) can quantitative grain-size data be used to identify
77 sediment bypass at the clinofrom rollover? This outcrop-based study provides new insights into the
78 evolution of individual clinothems and may be used as a predictive reference for subsurface exploration
79 and basin evolution models.

80 **GEOLOGICAL SETTING**

81 The Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex crops out in the western part of the Eocene Ainsa Basin, north-eastern
82 Spain (Fig. 1). The Ainsa Basin in the Upper Eocene is a piggyback basin, located in and on top of the
83 easternmost portion of the Gavarnie thrust-sheet-complex, and forms the central sector of the South

84 Pyrenean foreland basin (Vergés & Muñoz, 1990; Muñoz, 1992; Fernández et al., 2004). The Ainsa Basin
85 is bordered to the west by the Jaca-Pamplona Basin and to the east by the Tremp-Graus Basin
86 (Puigdefàbregas, 1975; Brunet, 1986). The western part of the basin is characterised by several fold
87 structures that were active during deposition: the Añisclo anticline to the north; the Peña Montañesa
88 thrust to the north-east; the Mediano anticline to the east; the Boltaña anticline to the west (Fig. 2;
89 Poblet et al., 1998; Dreyer et al., 1999; Fernández et al., 2004; 2012).

90 The fill of the western Ainsa Basin is dominated by a *ca* 5 km thick succession of Upper Eocene
91 sediments. As part of these, the Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex (typically *ca* 800 m thick) comprises the
92 uppermost part of the San Vicente Formation (marly slope deposits and turbiditic sandstones), the
93 Sobrarbe Formation (shallow-marine deposits), and up to the middle part of Mondot Member of the
94 Escanilla Formation (alluvial red-bed succession) (Van Lunsen, 1970; DeFrederico, 1981; Dreyer et al.,
95 1993; Wadsworth, 1994). These deltaic successions accumulated over a period of *ca* 3 Myr during the
96 middle Lutetian to lower Bartonian, reaching a maximum thickness of *ca* 1 km (Muñoz et al., 1998).

97 The Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex comprises a series of well-exposed, *ca* 100 m thick clinothems, which
98 crop-out in a >5 km long transect, in an approximately dip-parallel orientation. These clinothems show
99 the transition from fluvio-deltaic deposits (Escanilla Formation) in the south to progressively deeper
100 shelf- and slope-deposits (Sobrarbe and San Vicente formations) in the north (Dreyer et al., 1999).
101 Dreyer et al. (1999) subdivided the Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex into five composite sequences: the
102 Comaron, the Las Gorgas, the Barranco el Solano, the Buil and the Mondot Member of the Escanilla
103 Formation (Fig. 3). These composite sequences are separated by major unconformities, which represent
104 fluctuations in relative sea-level (Dreyer et al., 1999).

105 The composite sequences are in turn subdivided into 'minor sequences' (Dreyer et al., 1999), which
106 comprise sandstones units interbedded with mudstones and marls. The minor sequences are described
107 as genetic sequences, bounded by transgressive surfaces (*sensu* Galloway, 1989). The first minor
108 sequence of the Las Gorgas composite sequence is the specific focus of this study (Fig. 3).

109 **METHODS AND TERMINOLOGY**

110 The term clinoform is used to describe sinusoidal basinward-dipping chronostratigraphic stratal
111 surfaces, whereas the term clinothem is used to describe the sedimentary packages that occur between
112 these surfaces (e.g. Gilbert, 1885; Rich, 1951; Mitchum et al., 1977; Pirmez et al., 1998; Patruno et al.,

113 2015). Clinothems are typically composed of three constituent parts: a geometric shelf (topset deposits;
114 updip, gently basinward dipping), a geometric slope (foreset deposits; central component, seaward -
115 dipping typically at *ca* 1 to 3°) and a geometric basin-floor (bottomset deposits; downdip, gently dipping)
116 (Gilbert, 1885; Steel & Olsen, 2002). The zone of the clinoform rollover denotes an area of gradient
117 increase and is the site of the uppermost break-in-slope between the shelf and slope segments (Van
118 Wagoner et al., 1990; Pirmez et al., 1998; Plink-Björklund et al., 2001; Glørstad-Clark et al., 2010,
119 Glørstad-Clark et al., 2011; Anell & Midtkandal, 2015; Jones et al., 2015). Clinothems develop at scales
120 ranging from subaerial delta clinothems (*ca* tens of metres in height), to basin-margin clinothems
121 (ranging from *ca* hundreds of metres to >1 km in height) (e.g. Pirmez et al., 1998; Steel & Olsen, 2002;
122 Helland-Hansen & Hampson 2009; Henriksen et al., 2009; Anell & Midtkandal, 2015; Patruno et al.,
123 2015; Patruno & Helland Hansen, 2018).

124 The rock samples used in this investigation were acquired from the oldest clinothem of the Las Gorgas
125 composite sequence (Figs 2 and 3), hereafter referred to as Cycle LG-1 (Fig. 4), which is continuously
126 exposed in depositional dip for *ca* 5 km and which reveals a shelf to slope transect. In Cycle LG-1, seven
127 sample locations were chosen along the continuous depositional profile to provide even down-dip
128 coverage of the shelf to slope transition (Fig. 4).

129 At each sampling site, detailed sedimentary logs were collected, and between four and seven rock
130 samples were recovered. In total, 36 samples were recovered from Cycle LG-1. The locations of the rock
131 samples were recorded using a handheld GPS and photographed; georeferenced sample locations are
132 included in the Supplementary Material. To ensure consistency and repeatability, and to avoid impact of
133 mudstone clasts, rock samples were recovered from *ca* 0.1 m above the base of each sandstone-
134 package.

135 Small blocks (*ca* 25 mm x 25 mm x 10 mm) were cut from each rock sample; samples were then polished
136 and impregnated with epoxy resin, carbon-coated and placed on a scanning electron microscope (SEM)
137 mount using conductive copper tape. Photomicrographs of samples were taken using a Tescan SEM
138 (Tescan, Brno–Kohoutovice, Czech Republic) at the University of Leeds Electron Microscopy and
139 Spectroscopy Centre. All SEM photomicrographs were taken in backscatter mode at a similar contrast to
140 ensure comparability. The photomicrographs were imported into the image processing and analysis
141 program ImageJ, which was used to identify grain boundaries and to calculate grain diameters (e.g.
142 Sumner et al., 2012). Measured grain-diameters ascertained from thin section, or photomicrographs, are

143 smaller than the true maximum grain diameter (e.g. Chayes, 1950, Greenman, 1951; Kellerhals et al.,
144 1975). However, due to the fully-lithified nature of the recovered rock-samples, photomicrograph
145 analysis was deemed to be the most effective grain-sizing methodology. The statistical analysis of all
146 ImageJ results was completed using GRADISTAT computer software (Blott & Pye 2001), which enables
147 the rapid analysis of grain-size and sorting statistics (e.g. St-Onge et al., 2004; Gammon et al., 2017).

148 Extensive unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) photography was collected. Using georeferenced photographs,
149 acquired using a DJI Phantom 3, a photorealistic three-dimensional outcrop model was constructed
150 using the photogrammetric software Agisoft PhotoScan. The resulting model was analysed using the
151 LIME visualisation software (www.virtualoutcrop.com). UVA-footage has enabled the construction of a
152 high-resolution outcrop model, in which Cycle LG-1 can be traced laterally and the sampling locations
153 can be illustrated (Fig. 4).

154 **CLINOTHEM GEOMETRY**

155 The large-scale and well-exposed nature of the Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex allows the palaeo-bathymetric
156 position of the shelf, clinoform rollover and slope to be constrained (Fig. 4). Clinotthem gradients, as
157 outlined below, are averaged from UAV digital outcrop models (Fig. 4), which represent compacted
158 stratigraphy.

159 **Description**

160 From Location 1 to 2, Cycle LG-1 has sub-horizontal geometry. From Location 2 to 3, there is an increase
161 in average clinoform gradient, from sub-horizontal to $ca\ 4^\circ$, associated with an increase in clinotthem
162 thickness (Fig. 4). From Location 3 to 4 there is an increase in average clinotthem gradient to $ca\ 8^\circ$. From
163 Location 4 to 6 there is a decrease in average clinotthem gradient to $ca\ 5^\circ$. From Location 6 to 7, average
164 clinotthem gradient decreases to $ca\ 2^\circ$ (Fig. 4).

165 **Interpretation**

166 The relatively flat clinotthem geometry observed from Location 1 to 2 suggests a shelf (topset)
167 environment (e.g. Steel & Olsen, 2002; Patruno et al., 2015; Laugier & Plink-Björklund, 2016). The
168 prominent increase in gradient from Location 2 to 3 is interpreted to define the zone of clinotthem
169 rollover (e.g. Pirmez et al., 1998; Glørstad-Clark et al., 2010; Anell & Midtkandal, 2015); this is further

170 supported by the prominent stratigraphic thickening (Fig 4B; cf. Dixon et al., 2012b). Thus, Locations 4
171 to 7, associated with a basinward-dipping profile, represent slope deposits (e.g. Van Wagoner et al.,
172 1990; Pirmez et al., 1998; Plink-Björklund et al., 2001; Glørstad-Clark et al., 2010). The slope is further
173 sub-divided into proximal, medial and distal locations, based on proximity to the clinoform rollover and
174 slope gradient. The most steeply-dipping portion of the clinothem (represented by Location 4), is
175 therefore interpreted as the proximal slope; the medial slope is represented by Locations 5 and 6, and is
176 associated with a minor gradient-decrease; the distal slope (represented by Location 7) is associated
177 with a further gradient decrease (e.g. Steel & Olsen, 2002; Glørstad-Clark et al., 2010; Anell &
178 Midtkandal, 2015). This clinoform geometry interpretation is supported by the distribution of facies, as
179 outlined below.

180 **FACIES ASSOCIATIONS AND DISTRIBUTION**

181 Five facies associations have been determined within Cycle LG-1, which are distinguishable by
182 differences in sedimentary structure, bed-scale architecture, bed geometry and quantitative differences
183 in grain size and sorting.

184 **Shelf Deposits**

185 ***Facies Association A: fluvial channel-fill deposits***

186 *Description (see Table 1)*

187 Facies Association A (FA A) is predominantly composed of fine-grained and medium-grained sandstone
188 (34% and 31%, respectively, Fig. 5A) with a mean grain size of 0.34 mm (medium-grained sand; Fig. 6A).
189 This FA has a large intra-facies grain-size variability, and can be locally very coarse-grained, although it is
190 generally moderately well-sorted (1.50σ mean sorting; Fig. 6B). Typically, grains are subangular to
191 rounded. FA A varies from 0.25 to 18.0 m in thickness (Fig. 7), and has a highly discontinuous, lenticular
192 geometry (Fig. 8A). The base of FA A is erosional, cutting up to 0.5 m deep into underlying siltstones (Fig.
193 8B). The base of FA A is often associated with mudstone rip-up clasts. Facies Association A typically
194 shows a fining-upward trend and is bounded by flat to concave-up surfaces. Sedimentary structures
195 include planar and trough cross-stratification; rare asymmetrical current ripple cross-lamination is
196 observed. Typically, cross-strata sets are 0.5 to 1.0 m thick, and dip uniformly; sets are bounded by flat
197 surfaces, which dip in the same direction as the cross-beds (Fig. 8C). Sandstones can contain sub-

198 rounded granules and pebbles (20 to 50 mm in size) of extraformational origin concentrated at the base
199 of FA A, or parallel to stratification, which are dominantly quartz, with subordinate feldspar and lithic
200 clasts (Fig. 8D). Locally, plant matter is present as detritus. Disarticulated and fragmented bivalve shells
201 form a hash that is found as scour-fill. Facies Association A crops out in Locations 1 and 2,
202 stratigraphically thickening towards Location 2 (Figs 4 and 7).

203 *Interpretation*

204 The presence of lenticular sand bodies, bounded by basal erosion surfaces and containing decimetre-
205 scale cross-bedding with dominant unidirectional palaeocurrents indicates a channel-fill environment for
206 FA A (Farrell, 1987; Collinson et al., 2006); the fluvial nature of the infill is further supported by the
207 presence of terrestrial plant fragments and detritus. The bivalve hash is interpreted to be reworked
208 from underlying deposits. The planar and trough cross-stratified sedimentary structures record the
209 migration of dune-scale bedforms, and the occurrence of basal granules and pebbles indicates relative
210 high-energy conditions. The fining-upward trends suggest progressive flow velocity decrease during the
211 channel infill (e.g. Williams & Rust, 1969; Bridge et al., 1986). The channel-fill interpretation is further
212 supported by the location of FA A within the geometric shelf-environment.

213 ***Facies Association B: delta top overbank deposits***

214 *Description (see Table 1)*

215 Facies Association B (FA B) is predominantly composed of very fine and fine-grained sandstone (54% and
216 32%, respectively, Fig. 5B), and has a mean grain size of 0.10 mm (very fine-grained sand; Fig. 6A). This
217 FA is moderately sorted (1.73σ mean sorting; Fig. 6B), with subrounded grains. Bedsets are 1 to 2 m
218 thick, and composed of 0.05 to 0.1 m thick and relatively tabular sandstone beds, interbedded with thin
219 (0.05 to 0.2 m thickness) structureless siltstones (Fig. 8E). The sandstone and siltstone units are found
220 interbedded with organic-rich mudstones (0.2 to 1.0 m thick). Tabular sandstone beds have sharp bases
221 and are parallel-laminated (Fig. 8E), passing upward into very fine-grained ripple-bedded tops. Facies
222 Association B contains finely comminuted plant detritus. Facies Association B crops out only in Location
223 1 and thins towards Location 2 (Figs 4 and 7).

224 *Interpretation*

225 Facies Association B was deposited by low velocity, unidirectional currents. The planar and current
 226 ripple lamination and siltstone interbeds indicate changes in velocity and sediment load. The fine-
 227 grained nature of FA B and the sharp bases of the sandstone elements may support an interpretation as
 228 crevasse splay deposits (Ethridge et al., 1981; Gersib & McCabe, 1981; Bridge, 1984) or crevasse
 229 subdeltas (Gugliotta et al., 2015). The presence of organic-rich mudstones interbedded with the
 230 sandstone and siltstone elements represent a local hiatus in crevasse splay deposition (e.g. Slingerland
 231 & Smith, 2004). No definitive terrestrial indicators, such as rootlets or palaeosols are observed in FA B,
 232 which may suggest that FA B represents subaqueous overbank deposition, perhaps in interdistributary
 233 bay areas (e.g. Elliott, 1974). However, the topset deposits of underlying clinotherm units (for example,
 234 Cycle 2 of the Comaron Composite Sequence, see Dreyer et al., 1999), contain reddened floodplain
 235 palaeosols (Labourdette & Jones, 2007). A subaerial/subaqueous overbank interpretation is
 236 strengthened by the location of FA B within the geometric shelf-environment, suggesting a lower delta-
 237 plain environment.

238 **Slope Deposits**

239 ***Facies Association C: very fine-grained clean turbidites***

240 *Description (see Table 1)*

241 Facies Association C (FA C) is predominantly composed of very fine-grained and fine-grained sandstone
 242 (44% and 47%, respectively, Fig. 7C) and has a mean grain size of 0.12 mm (very fine-grained sand; Fig.
 243 6A). This FA is moderately well sorted (1.51σ mean sorting; Fig. 6B). Grains are rounded to well-rounded
 244 and predominantly quartz. Facies Association C varies in thickness from 0.5 to 10.0 m, and individual
 245 beds are 0.05 to 0.4 m thick with a tabular appearance (Fig. 9A). Typically, bed bases are flat (Fig. 9A),
 246 although some are erosional, cutting up to 0.2 m deep into underlying siltstones. Typically, beds are
 247 ungraded, with local weak normal grading. The dominant sedimentary structures are current-ripple and
 248 plane-parallel lamination. Facies Association C has a 'clean' appearance, lacks observable plant detritus
 249 or organic matter, and is mica-poor (Fig. 9A). The very fine-grained sandstone beds are interbedded with
 250 bioclastic sandstone beds (0.5 to 2.0 m thick) dominated by Nummulites (Fig. 9B to D) (see Mateu-
 251 Vicens et al., 2012). In Location 2 (Figs 4 and 7), bioclastic sandstones are dominantly structureless (Fig.
 252 9B), but in Locations 3 to 6 (Figs 4 and 7) they are normally graded (Fig. 9C); foraminifera are also found
 253 aligned parallel to internal laminations (Fig. 9D). Basinward, the mean grain-size of FA C varies slightly
 254 from 0.084 mm (very fine-grained sand) in Location 2, to 0.10 mm (very fine-grained sand) in Location 6

255 (Fig. 10A). Sorting shows an overall basinward decrease from 1.26 σ (very well sorted) in Location 2, to
256 1.59 σ (moderately well sorted) and 1.52 σ (moderately well sorted) in Locations 5 and 6, respectively
257 (Fig. 10B). Facies Association C crops out from Location 2 to Location 6 (Fig. 7), showing an overall
258 basinward-thinning. Facies Association C pinches out and terminates at Location 6, and shows no
259 obvious vertical stratigraphic thickening or thinning trend.

260 *Interpretation*

261 The presence of both flat and erosive bed bases and abundant traction structures (including plane-
262 parallel and current-ripple lamination) is consistent with deposition by turbidity currents (e.g. Lowe,
263 1982; Mutti et al., 2003; Hiscott et al., 1997; Plink-Björklund et al., 2001). The turbiditic nature of FA C is
264 supported by its deposition on the geometric slope. The significant basinward thinning of FA C suggests
265 deposition by gradual aggradation from decelerating turbidity currents (Kneller, 1995). The normal
266 grading observed in FA C is also characteristic of waning turbidity currents (Bouma 1962, Walker 1967,
267 Lowe 1982, Middleton 1993, Kneller 1995), which are deposited from transient, surge-type turbidity
268 currents that progressively lose sediment carrying-capacity downslope (Lowe 1982, Hiscott 1994, Kneller
269 & Branney 1995). These turbidites would be expected to show a basinward-fining trend (e.g. Lowe,
270 1982; Kneller, 1995; Mutti et al., 1999). However, the grain size of FA C shows minimal basinward
271 change (<0.016 mm) from the zone of the clinofold rollover (Location 2) to the medial slope (Location
272 6) (Fig. 10A); this almost constant grain-size profile may reflect the original narrow grain-size range
273 available for remobilisation and basinward transport. The 'clean' appearance of FA C (i.e. its negligible
274 mica and terrestrial organic matter content), in combination with its high textural maturity (i.e. FA C is
275 very fine-grained, well-sorted, well-rounded and quartz-rich) suggests sediment remobilisation from a
276 wave-dominated shallow marine shelf deposit (e.g. Cosgrove et al., 2018). This is supported by the direct
277 correlation of outer shelf to shelf-edge (Location 2) structureless foraminifera-bearing bioclastic
278 sandstones with normally-graded bioclastic sandstones in the proximal and medial slope (Locations 3 to
279 6) (Figs 4 and 7). The structureless bioclastic sandstones represent *in situ* wave-dominated shallow-
280 marine shelf deposits (Mateu-Vicens et al., 2012) and their basinward-equivalent, normally-graded
281 bioclastic sandstones suggest the reworking and basinward transport of foraminifera-rich sands from
282 the contemporaneous shelf.

283 ***Facies Association D: fine-grained micaceous turbidites***

284 *Description (see Table 1)*

285 Facies Association D (FA D) is predominantly composed of very fine-grained and fine-grained sandstone
286 (45% and 43%, respectively, Fig. 5D) with a mean grain size of 0.12 mm (very fine-grained sand; Fig. 6A).
287 This FA is moderately well sorted (1.50σ mean sorting; Fig. 6B). Facies Association D varies in thickness
288 from 1.75 to 10.0 m (Fig. 7); individual beds are typically 0.4 to 2.5 m thick (Fig. 11A) and interbedded
289 with 0.25 m thick siltstone beds (Fig. 11B). Typically, the base of FA D is erosional and contains abundant
290 rip-up clasts (Fig. 11C). The FA D deposits typically thin and fine upward. Beds show normal, inverse and
291 inverse to normal grading, and can be structureless, but most commonly display traction structures,
292 including plane-parallel and current-ripple lamination (Fig. 11D). Facies Association D has a 'dirty'
293 appearance, i.e. it has a high observable mica-content and contains finely comminuted plant detritus.
294 Basinward, grain size shows a prominent fining trend, with mean grain diameter decreasing from 0.34
295 mm (medium-grained sand; Location 2) to 0.10 mm (very fine-grained sand; Location 7) (Fig. 10A).
296 Sorting shows an overall downdip decrease from 1.35σ (well-sorted; Location 2) to 1.5σ (moderately
297 well sorted; Location 7) (Fig. 10B). Facies Association D crops out from Location 2 to Location 7 (Figs 4
298 and 7). At Location 2, FA D can be correlated updip to the fluvial channel-fill associated with FA A. Facies
299 Association D shows a marked basinward thinning trend (Fig. 7) and is commonly interbedded with FA C
300 throughout the study area. Stratigraphically, FA D tends to thicken up-section.

301 *Interpretation*

302 The erosive bases of FA D, with aligned mudstone clasts and abundance of traction structures (including
303 plane-parallel and current-ripple laminations) support an interpretation of deposition by turbidity
304 currents (e.g. Lowe, 1982; Mutti et al., 2003; Hiscott et al., 1997; Plink-Björklund et al., 2001). The
305 turbiditic nature of FA D is supported by its deposition on the geometric slope. The thick beds (up to 2.5
306 m) with traction structures are indicative of deposition from sustained turbidity currents, through
307 gradual aggradation (Kneller, 1995). The significant thickness of individual turbidites may be indicative of
308 deposition via hyperpycnal flows (e.g. Piper & Savoye, 1993; Mulder et al., 1998; Kneller & Buckee;
309 2000, Mulder & Alexander; 2001; Plink-Björklund & Steel; 2004), as river discharge can be sustained at a
310 quasi-constant rate for hours, days or weeks (e.g. Wright et al., 1986; Hay, 1987; Prior et al., 1987;
311 Wright et al., 1988; Nemeč, 1990; Wright et al., 1990; Chikita, 1990; Zeng et al., 1991; Mulder et al.,
312 1998; Piper et al., 1999). However, bed thickness cannot be used as a diagnostic criterion alone, as
313 sustained flows can be triggered by various other mechanisms than river discharge (including volcanic
314 eruptions, seismic activity and storm surges).

315 The physical connection from fluvial channel-fill (FA A) into slope deposits (FA D) suggests that the fluvial
316 feeder system was directly depositing sediment onto the slope (e.g. Steel et al., 2000; Plink-Björklund et
317 al., 2001; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2002; Mellere et al., 2002; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2004); this
318 supports an interpretation of river-discharge-generated hyperpycnal flows that deposited their
319 sediment load across the proximal to distal slope.

320 The presence of high amounts of plant debris and mica within FA D also supports a direct linkage
321 between the fluvial and marine depositional environment (e.g. Mulder et al., 2003; Mutti et al., 2003;
322 Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2004; Lamb et al., 2008; Zavala & Arcuri, 2016). Terrestrial organic matter and
323 high concentrations of mica are widely used as indicators of hyperpycnal flows (e.g. Normark & Piper,
324 1991; Mulder & Syvitski, 1995; Mulder et al., 2003; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2004; Zavala et al., 2011,
325 2012; Hodgson et al., 2018), associated with sustained river-derived flows during periods of high river
326 discharge.

327 The basinward thinning and fining of FA D also supports deposition via hyperpycnal flows. As discussed
328 in Plink-Björklund & Steel (2004), following flood termination coarser grain-size fractions are
329 progressively deposited in a landward direction, and finer grain-size fractions are progressively
330 deposited in a basinward direction, as flow velocity and sediment concentration decrease.

331 Repeated transitions between inverse and normal grading at intra-bed-scale, suggests the presence of
332 accelerating (waxing) and decelerating (waning) flow regimes (cf. Kneller, 1995). As hyperpycnal flow
333 beds are suggested to record variations in the flood hydrograph (e.g. Mulder & Alexander, 2001), the
334 waxing episode of river-mouth discharge deposits an inversely graded division and a waning episode
335 deposits a normally graded division, although these trends will not be present across an entire deposit
336 (Mulder et al., 2001). However, inverse and normal grading at bed-scale may also reflect autogenic
337 process, such as fluctuations in plunge-point position, which shred river discharge signals (Lamb et al.,
338 2008, 2010).

339 ***Facies Association E: medium-grained, deformed turbidites***

340 *Description (see Table 1)*

341 Facies Association E (FA E) is predominantly composed of medium-grained and coarse-grained
342 sandstone (33% and 31%, respectively, Fig. 5E) and has a mean grain size of 0.39 mm (medium-grained

343 sand; Fig. 6A). This FA is moderately well-sorted (1.43σ mean sorting; Fig. 6B). Facies Association E
344 varies in thickness from 0.5 to 10.0 m; individual beds are 0.5 to 6.0 m thick (Fig. 12A). Bed-bases are
345 commonly sharp and flat. However, erosional bed-bases are observed, cutting up to 0.3 m deep into
346 underlying siltstone deposits; these surfaces are overlain directly by beds containing mudstone rip-up
347 clasts. Beds show normal and inverse grading or may be ungraded. Facies Association E also shows
348 extensive folding and 'ball and pillow' structures (Fig. 12B and C). Where deformation is less intense
349 primary sedimentary structures are preserved including trough cross-stratification (Fig. 12D), parallel
350 and ripple lamination and abundant internal amalgamation surfaces. Facies Association A has a 'dirty'
351 appearance, and contains abundant finely comminuted plant detritus and is highly micaceous. Facies
352 Association E exhibits a basinward coarsening trend from Locations 3 to 6 (Fig. 10A), where grain size
353 increases from 0.33 mm (medium-grained sand) to 0.45 mm (medium grained sand); at Location 7,
354 grain-size decreases to 0.31 (medium-grained sand). The basinward sorting trend of FA E across the
355 sampled profile shows an initial increase from 1.5σ (moderately well-sorted) to 1.3σ (well-sorted) at
356 Locations 3 and 4, respectively, and then decreases to 1.44σ (moderately well-sorted) in Locations 6
357 and 7 (Fig. 10b). FA E crops out from Locations 2 to 7 (Figs 4 and 7) and can either thin in a basinward
358 direction or remain at approximately the same thickness (Fig. 7). At Location 2, FA E cuts into and
359 truncates FA A. Facies Association E is interbedded with FA C and FA D throughout the study area; FA E
360 becomes thicker and more common up-section.

361 *Interpretation*

362 Erosional bases with aligned mudstone clasts, and the abundance of traction structures (including plane-
363 parallel and ripple lamination) suggest deposition via turbidity currents (e.g. Lowe, 1982; Mutti et al.,
364 2003; Hiscott et al., 1997; Plink-Björklund et al., 2001). The turbiditic nature of FA E is supported by its
365 deposition on the geometric slope. The unidirectional cross-stratification suggests that current velocities
366 were relatively high (Plink-Björklund et al., 2001). Trough cross-stratification is associated with migration
367 of 3D dunes (Plink-Björklund et al., 2001; Stevenson et al., 2015; Hodgson et al., 2018). Similar to FA D,
368 the significant thickness of individual turbidites (up to 6 m thick) may be indicative of deposition via
369 hyperpycnal flows (e.g. Piper & Savoye, 1993; Mulder et al., 1998; Kneller & Buckee, 2000; Mulder &
370 Alexander, 2001; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2004; Tinterri, 2007). The presence of abundant terrestrial
371 organic matter and high concentrations of mica might also support the interpretation of these deposits
372 as hyperpycnites (e.g. Normark & Piper, 1991; Mulder & Syvitski, 1995; Mulder et al., 2003; Plink-
373 Björklund & Steel, 2004; Zavala et al., 2011, 2012). Facies Association E shows repeated transitions

374 between inverse and normal grading at bed-scale (similarly to FA D, see above), suggesting the presence
375 of accelerating (waxing) and decelerating (waning) flow regimes (cf. Kneller, 1995).

376 The folds and extensive contorted units indicate slope-induced deformation or slumping. The rapid
377 deposition of sediment associated with hyperpycnal flows can lead to liquefaction processes, resulting in
378 soft sediment deformation (e.g. Pontén & Plink-Björklund 2009; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2004).

379 Unlike FA D, FA E deposits cannot be directly correlated updip to coeval fluvial channel-fill deposits (FA
380 A), as FA E deposits start in the clinofold rollover zone (Location 2) and erodes into underlying fluvial
381 channelized facies (FA A) (Fig. 7). This suggests strong bypass of the contemporaneous shelf and the
382 active erosion and entrainment of underlying deposits, which may correspond with individual surges in
383 river discharge (e.g. Talling, 2014). Additionally, the overall basinward-coarsening trend and general lack
384 of obvious thinning suggests significant proximal bypass, flow acceleration (cf. Kneller et al., 1995), and
385 preferential sediment deposition in the medial and distal slope setting. The erosive nature of FA E and
386 significant shelf-edge bypass suggests that flow velocity of FA E may have been higher, relative to FA D
387 and supports a more catastrophic input of sediment associated with major river flooding events, rather
388 than the sustained hyperpycnal flows associated with FA D.

389 ***Facies F: basinal mudstones***

390 *Description (see Table 1)*

391 Facies Association F (FA F) is very fine- to fine-grained moderately sorted siltstone and varies
392 significantly in thickness (0.5 m to 14.0 m). Typically, FA F is structureless or parallel-laminated, with 1 to
393 2 mm thick laminae. Bioturbation is highly variable in FA F (BI 0 to 4; see bioturbation index of Taylor &
394 Goldring, 1993), but most commonly low (BI 1). Horizontal and vertical burrows are observed (60 mm
395 long; 10 to 40 mm diameter). Facies Association F crops out across the complete depositional profile
396 from Locations 1 to 7 (Figs 4 and 7) and becomes thicker in a basinward direction.

397 *Interpretation*

398 Facies Association F is interpreted to be the background sediment, accumulated mainly as a product of
399 waning downslope-decelerating dilute turbidity currents (Kneller, 1995).

400 **PROCESS-REGIME VARIABILITY**

401 The distribution of slope facies within Cycle LG-1 shows the stratigraphic alternation between FA C, FA D
402 and FA E. The sedimentary texture and structure of FA D and FA E suggest deposition under river-
403 dominated shelf conditions. This is consistent with the interpretation of Dreyer et al. (1999) who
404 interpreted the Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex overall to record a river-dominated system. However, the
405 'clean' and texturally mature nature of FA C is suggestive of a wave-dominated shelf process-regime. As
406 such, this new dataset documents intra-clinothem process-regime variability, in which river-dominated
407 conditions are episodically punctuated by wave-dominated conditions.

408 **DOWNDIP CHANGES IN GRAIN SIZE AND SORTING**

409 Grain size and sorting have been averaged for each sampling location to illustrate basin-scale changes in
410 grain character (Figs 13 and 14). The grain-size variability in Cycle LG-1 is shown in Figs 13 and 14A. From
411 Locations 1 to 3, there is a decrease in mean grain size from 0.46 mm (medium-grained sand; Location 1)
412 to 0.21 mm (fine-grained sand; Location 3; Fig 14A). Location 1 has the highest inter-quartile grain-size
413 variability (Fig. 14A). From Locations 4 to 7, mean grain size varies between sampling locations; mean
414 grain-size is 0.25 mm (medium-grained sand), 0.10 mm (very fine-grained sand), 0.21 mm (fine-grained
415 sand) and 0.18 mm (fine-grained sand) in Locations 4, 5, 6 and 7, respectively (Fig. 14A). The variation in
416 sorting is illustrated by the box and whisker plots in Fig. 14B; it has a limited range from 1.4 (well-sorted,
417 Location 1) to 1.58 (moderately well-sorted, Location 4), with a weak overall basinward decrease in
418 sorting (Fig. 14B).

419 **DISCUSSION**

420 **Mixed-process clinothem evolution**

421 All clinothems within the Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex, including Cycle LG-1, have been previously
422 interpreted to be 'river-dominated' (see Dreyer et al., 1999). However, detailed analysis of facies reveals
423 a more complicated stratigraphic evolution of process-regime at an intra-clinothem scale. Changes in
424 shelf process-regime result in prominent internal variability in sedimentary texture and structure across
425 the complete depositional profile.

426 The documented process-regime change between river-dominated and wave-dominated affects the
427 downdip geometric distribution of sedimentary bodies; in this case, sedimentary packages associated
428 with a river-dominated process-regime (FA D and FA E), are distributed across the complete sampled

429 profile, from the shelf (topset) to the distal slope (foreset). In contrast, sand-dominated sedimentary
430 packages associated with a wave-dominated process-regime (FA C), are deposited only in the proximal
431 and medial slope environments. As such, distal slope deposits show prominent stratigraphic variability in
432 grain-size; sand-rich packages are interbedded with >10 m silt-rich deposits. The termination, and
433 downlap, of the wave-dominated, sand-facies on the medial slope results in the coeval deposition of silt
434 in the lower slope setting. As such, only silt-grade sediment fractions are transported into the distal
435 slope setting under a wave-dominated process-regime; intra-clinothem variability in shelf process-
436 regime thus directly influences the architecture and sand-content of downdip deposits. The maximum
437 basinward extent of FA C on the medial slope may reflect the maximum down-slope distance at which
438 turbidity currents associated with coeval wave-dominated process regimes can transport their sand-
439 fraction and illustrates their attenuated coarse-grained sediment transport capacity relative to turbidity
440 currents associated with a river-dominated shelf.

441 Many clinothem systems are designated as being river-dominated, wave-dominated or tide-dominated
442 (e.g. Dreyer et al., 1999; Plink-Björklund et al., 2001; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2002; Deibert et al., 2003;
443 Crabaugh & Steel, 2004; Plink-Björklund & Steel, 2004; Johannessen & Steel, 2005; Petter & Steel, 2006;
444 Sylvester et al., 2012; Ryan et al., 2015). The use of end-member descriptors (i.e. river-dominated, wave-
445 dominated or tide-dominated) has led to the under-recognition of mixed-energy clinothem systems in
446 the ancient record (see Ainsworth et al., 2011; Olariu, 2014; Rossi & Steel, 2016). As such, relatively few
447 ancient clinothems have been interpreted to document spatial and temporal variability in shelf (topset)
448 process-regime (e.g. Ta et al., 2002; Ainsworth et al., 2008; Plink-Björklund, 2008; Carvajal & Steel, 2009;
449 Vakarelov & Ainsworth, 2013; Jones et al., 2015; Gomis-Cartesio et al., 2017). Assigning a clinothem with
450 a dominant shelf (topset) process-regime is also associated with discrete sedimentary processes and
451 facies associations, which are used to inform archetypal river-dominated, wave-dominated or tide-
452 dominated clinothem models (e.g. Elliott, 1986; Bhattacharya & Walker, 1992; Dalrymple, 1992; Walker
453 & Plint, 1992). A traditional model of a prograding river-dominated clinothem is associated with a
454 broadly coarsening-upward grain-size trends in shelf, slope and basin-floor deposits (Bhattacharya &
455 Walker, 1992; Steel et al., 2008; Carvajal & Steel, 2009; Dixon et al., 2012b). However, as it is clearly
456 documented in this case, applying an end-member shelf process-regime classification system to
457 clinothem classification systems fails to adequately account for internal vertical and downdip variability
458 in sedimentary texture associated with variability in topset process-regime conditions. This study
459 highlights the internal textural variability of an individual clinothem, using detailed grain

460 characterisation, with potential implications for future studies of basin-margin successions. An
461 additional factor to consider is lateral variability in shelf process regime, which will influence the along-
462 strike distribution of facies and their associated grain character and stratigraphic thicknesses on the
463 clinothem slope.

464 **Sediment bypass at the clinoform rollover**

465 In Cycle LG-1, the clinothem rollover (Locations 2 and 3) marks a prominent zone of grain-size fining (Figs
466 13 and 14A). Beyond the clinoform rollover zone, there is a basinward coarsening trend (Location 4),
467 suggesting the presence of strongly bypassing flows across the shelf-edge. However, the bypass of
468 coarse-grained sediment varies prominently between facies, according to: (i) the dominant process-
469 regime in operation at the coeval shelf; and (ii) the hyperpycnal flow-style.

470 Turbidite beds of FA C (associated with wave-dominated shelf process-regime conditions), do not bypass
471 coarse-grained sand downdip (Fig. 10A); in FA C grain size does not vary significantly at the clinoform
472 rollover or along the depositional profile. The uniformity in grain size observed in FA C across the
473 depositional profile reflects the well-sorted sediment source, possibly associated with previous
474 reworking and winnowing processes at the shelf-edge under wave-dominated conditions (e.g. Roy et al.,
475 1994; Bowman & Johnson, 2014; Cosgrove et al., 2018).

476 Although FA D and FA E are both associated with river-dominated shelf process-regimes, sediment
477 bypass styles beyond the clinoform rollover vary between the two facies. This is attributed to their
478 variable flow-styles. FA D (interpreted to represent sustained hyperpycnal flows) shows a general fining
479 trend beyond the clinoform rollover and does not bypass large volumes of coarse-grained sand into the
480 distal slope setting. The calibre of sand available at the river-mouth is likely to be a dominant factor
481 controlling grain-size uniformity in FA D. Additionally, the lack of shelf incision associated with FA D
482 indicates a low erosion and entrainment capacity, which attenuates the ability of sustained hyperpycnal
483 flow deposits to incorporate coarser-grained sand-fractions from underlying deposits. In contrast, FA E
484 bypasses the shelf setting and deposits coarse-grained sand in the medial and distal slope setting. The
485 high-energy nature of the episodic hyperpycnal flows of FA E promotes bypass of the shelf and clinoform
486 rollover (e.g. Petter & Steel, 2006), associated with erosion and entrainment of coarser-grained sand
487 from underlying shelf deposits; this is evidenced by the incision of FA E into the underlying shelf deposits
488 of FA A. In FA E, deposition of the coarsest sediment fractions occurs on the proximal and medial slope;

489 at the distal slope there is a decrease in mean grain size, associated with slope-gradient decrease and
490 consequent flow deceleration (Figs 8 and 15).

491 In addition to influencing grain size across the depositional profile, the hyperpycnal flow type also
492 influences the stratigraphic thicknesses of the resulting deposits. Episodic hyperpycnal flow deposits (FA
493 E) are generally thicker, relative to their sustained hyperpycnal flow counterparts (FA D); this potentially
494 implies that episodic hyperpycnal flows, associated with major flooding events, are able to transport and
495 deposit higher sediment volumes relative to sustained hyperpycnal flows. However, this might seem
496 counter-intuitive, as sustained hyperpycnal flows are likely to last longer and should thus result in
497 greater stratigraphic bed-thicknesses compared to episodic hyperpycnal flows (e.g. Piper & Savoye;
498 1993; Mulder et al., 1998; Kneller & Buckee, 2000; Mulder & Alexander, 2001; Plink-Björklund & Steel,
499 2004). However, the relative thickness of FA E (episodic) relative to FA D (sustained) may be localised
500 and represent an artefact of sampling along a 2D depositional profile. Additionally, this may imply that
501 some of the sediment volume associated with FA D is bypassed further downslope into the basin-floor
502 environment, which does not crop-out in this locality (Fig. 15).

503 **Allogenic and autogenic process regime variability**

504 Intra-clinothem process-regime variability may be driven by allogenic or autogenic forcings (e.g. Muto &
505 Steel, 1997; Muto & Steel, 2014; Olariu, 2014). The duration of each cycle within the Sobrarbe Deltaic
506 Complex is on the order of hundreds of thousands of years (Dreyer et al., 1999); as such within Cycle LG-
507 1, intra-clinothem process regime variability occurred over timescales of tens of thousands of years.
508 Allogenic variability, associated with small-scale relative sea-level variations, may account for the
509 observed process-regime change in Cycle LG-1; this possibility is supported by the interpretations of
510 Dreyer et al. (1999), who attribute intra-clinothem unconformities in the underlying Comaron composite
511 sequences to high-frequency episodes of forced regression, associated with repeated small-scale
512 tectonic tilting of the basin-floor. Variations in sediment supply rate provide an alternative allogenic
513 cause of intra-clinothem process regime change. The river-dominated facies (FA D and FA E) may
514 potentially be the result of climatically-activated river floods; as such, periods of heightened
515 precipitation would have resulted in enhanced physical and chemical weathering, associated with
516 increased terrestrial run-off (Schmitz, 1987; Peterson, et al., 2000). In contrast, wave-dominated facies
517 (FA C) would be associated with periods of reduced sediment influx, associated with relatively drier
518 climatic conditions. Variations in Eocene orbital cyclicity, related to the precessional (*ca* 25 kyr period

519 cycles) influence on precipitation patterns (e.g. Berger, 1978; Kutzbach & Otto-Bliesner, 1982), provide
520 another potential allogenic mechanism of regulating sediment transport over the timescales observed in
521 Cycle LG-1 (cf. Middle Eocene, Ainsa Basin; Cantalejo & Pickering, 2014).

522 Alternatively, autogenic processes such as river-channel avulsion, can result in a transient along-strike
523 shut-down of the direct connectivity between the river-dominated shelf and deep-water system.
524 Immediately downdip of the delta lobe switching and abandonment, a temporary shift to wave -
525 dominated conditions at the shelf-edge may occur. The case for an autogenic cause of process regime
526 variability is strengthened by the apparent rapidity (10 to 20 kyr) at which alternating river-dominated
527 and wave-dominated conditions are recorded in the stratigraphic record (e.g. Amorosi & Milli, 2001;
528 Amorosi et al., 2003; 2005; Correggiari et al., 2005; Olariu, 2014).

529 Both allogenic and autogenic drivers of process regime change are plausible for Cycle LG-1 and are
530 difficult to distinguish in the absence of additional strike-parallel exposure. However, based on the
531 abrupt intra-clinothem facies changes, and the localised preservation of wave-dominated facies (i.e.
532 wave-dominated conditions are not documented at intra-clinothem scales in other minor sequences;
533 Dreyer et al., 1999), autogenic river-avulsion is the favoured mechanism of intra-clinothem process
534 regime variability in this case.

535 **CONCLUSIONS**

536 This study integrates quantitative analysis of grain size and sorting with a traditional outcrop-based
537 study of a single topset-to-bottomset clinothem within the Las Gorgas composite sequence of the
538 Eocene Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex. In the oldest clinothem of the Las Gorgas composite sequence
539 (named here Cycle LG-1), five sandstone-dominated facies have been identified, based on sedimentary
540 texture and structure, and bed geometry. The sandstone-dominated facies associations show
541 quantitative differences in grain size and sorting. Slope deposits are dominated by organic-rich and
542 micaceous hyperpycnal flow deposits (Facies Association D and Facies Association E); these are
543 associated with coeval river-dominated topset deposits (Facies Association A and Facies Association B).
544 Two depositional styles are observed in FA D and FA E, related to the nature of the hyperpycnal flooding
545 events: sustained (FA D), versus episodic (FA E). Sustained hyperpycnal flow deposits show direct river
546 connectivity between the outer-shelf and proximal slope and result in the deposition of fine-grained
547 sand across the complete depositional profile. Episodic hyperpycnal flows mostly bypass the clinoform

548 rollover and incise underlying shelf deposits; deposition of medium-grained and coarse-grained sand
549 occurs mostly on the proximal to distal slope. Episodic flows are interpreted to have higher flux rates,
550 and ultimately may transport more sediment into distal slope settings than lower flux rate sustained
551 flows of longer duration.

552 Hyperpycnal-flow deposits are interbedded with much cleaner (terrestrial organic matter-poor and
553 mica-poor), finer-grained turbidites (FA C), which do not show characteristics consistent with their
554 hyperpycnal counterparts. The clean and relatively fine-grained nature of FA C suggests strong
555 reworking or deposition under a wave-dominated process regime, under which clean shelf-edge sands
556 are remobilised as turbidity currents. The wave-dominated regime deposits are entirely absent from the
557 distal slope. The facies distributions documented in Cycle LG-1 are therefore the result of rapid temporal
558 changes in the dominant process regime, occurring over timescales of tens of thousands of years; these
559 transitions are interpreted to be the result of autogenic variability at an intra-clinothem scale, and
560 mostly associated with river-avulsion processes.

561 Quantitatively-documented basinward changes in grain size, alongside facies distributions, indicate that
562 coarse-grained sediment bypass at the clinoform rollover varies according to both the dominant
563 process-regime in operation at the shelf-edge (i.e. wave-dominated versus river-dominated) and the
564 flow-style of river-dominated deposits (i.e. sustained versus episodic hyperpycnal flows). In Cycle LG-1,
565 bypass into the deeper-water setting is driven by episodic hyperpycnal flows; sustained hyperpycnal
566 flows and turbidity currents associated with a wave-dominated shelf do not bypass coarse-grained
567 sediment downdip. Instead, all grain sizes are deposited across the slope setting, facilitating clinoform
568 progradation. As such, heterogeneity in grain size is documented not only at a process-regime scale, but
569 variability in coarse-grained sand bypass can be introduced based on the dominant flow-style.

570 This study applies integrated quantitative grain size and sorting data and sedimentology in order
571 understand the evolution of an individual clinothem sequence. This novel dataset highlights hitherto
572 undocumented intra-clinothem variability, which is directly related to changes in the shelf process-
573 regime. Updip shelf process-regime is a fundamental factor controlling downdip architecture and
574 sedimentary texture. The outcrop example from Cycle LG-1, also highlights the complexity and
575 heterogeneity of different flow-types, such that flows associated with sustained and episodic
576 hyperpycnal flows also modulate the distribution, calibre and maturity of sediment transported

577 down dip. This novel outcrop-based study of grain character may be used as a predictive reference for
578 subsurface exploration and provides new insights into the evolution of individual clinotherm sequences.

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933 TABLE AND FIGURE CAPTIONS

934 Table Captions

935 Table 1: Descriptions and interpretations of shelf and slope facies associations (Facies Association A to
936 Facies Association F).

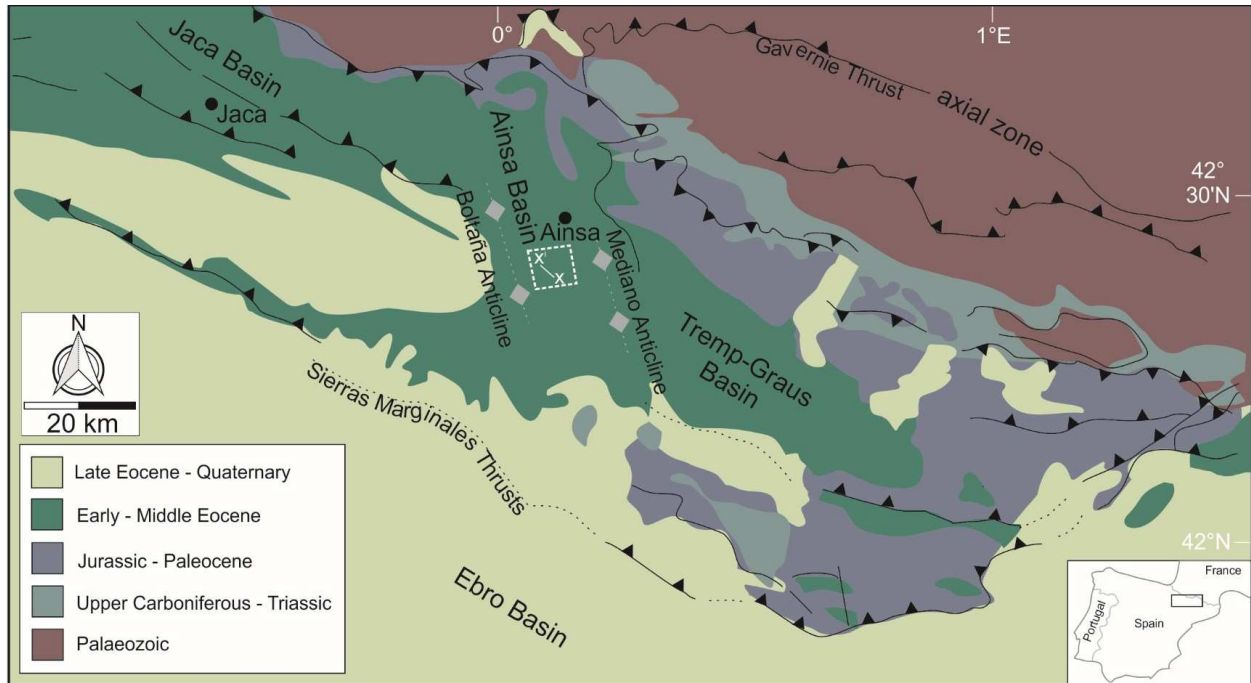
937 Figure Captions

- 938 1. Map showing the location of the Ainsa Basin and the key neighbouring structural features,
939 within the geological setting of the northern-Spanish South Pyrenean Foreland Basin. The
940 dashed box shown in white, located in the Ainsa Basin, illustrates the area of study within the
941 Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex. Line X–X' indicates the location of the approximately dip-parallel
942 outcrop transect sampled in this investigation. Adapted from Dreyer *et al.* (1999).
- 943 2. Simplified geological map of the study area. Line X–X' shows the location of Las Gorgas Cycle 1
944 (Cycle LG-1), which is the dip-parallel outcrop transect sampled in this investigation. Line A–A'
945 shows a regional dip-parallel cross-section as shown in Fig. 3.
- 946 3. Regional cross-section showing the Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex stratigraphy (Line A–A'; Fig. 2).
947 The Sobrarbe Deltaic Complex is comprised of the uppermost part of the San Vicente Formation,
948 the Sobrarbe Formation and up to the middle part of Mondot Member of the Escanilla
949 Formation. The Sobrarbe Formation comprises several composite sequences: Comaron, Las
950 Gorgas, Baranco el Solano and Buil. Highlighted in the burgundy box is line X–X' (see Fig. 4),
951 which is the study site of this investigation (Cycle LG-1). A simplified facies distribution is
952 overlain. Adapted from Dreyer *et al.* (1999).
- 953 4. (A) Outcrop model constructed from unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) photographs showing the
954 study site (line X–X' in Fig. 3); the upper and lower bounding surfaces of Cycle LG-1 are
955 highlighted in yellow. The sedimentary log locations and sampling transects are highlighted in
956 blue and are numbered. (B) Total log thickness at each logging and sampling location.
- 957 5. Pie charts illustrating differences in grain-size composition between Facies A to E. Sample
958 numbers for each facies are shown in Fig. 6A. Facies A = fluvial channel-fill deposits; Facies B =
959 delta top overbank deposits; Facies C = very fine-grained clean turbidites; Facies D = fine-grained
960 micaceous turbidites; Facies E = medium-grained, deformed turbidites.

- 961 **6.** Grain size and sorting for Facies A to E. (A) Box and whisker plot illustrating differences in grain
962 size between Facies A to E. (B) Box and whisker plot illustrating differences in sorting between
963 Facies A to E. Sample numbers for each facies are shown are in shown in (A). Facies A = fluvial
964 channel-fill deposits; Facies B = delta top overbank deposits; Facies C = very fine-grained clean
965 turbidites; Facies D = fine-grained micaceous turbidites; Facies E = medium-grained, deformed
966 turbidites.
- 967 **7.** Sedimentary logs showing stratigraphic and dip-parallel facies distributions in Cycle LG-1. The
968 inset shows an enlarged grain-size scale: c = clay; s = silt; vf = very fine-grained sand; f = fine-
969 grained sand; m = medium-grained sand; c = coarse-grained sand; vc = very coarse-grained sand;
970 g = gravel; b = boulders.
- 971 **8.** Representative facies photographs. (A) Lenticular sand-body geometry (Facies Association A –
972 FA A). (B) Close-up of channel-fill within lenticular sand-body (FA A). (C) Trough cross-bedding
973 with uniformly dipping foresets (FA A); 0.32 m hammer for scale. (D) Sub-rounded granules and
974 pebbles of extraformational origin aligned parallel to stratification (FA A); marks on Jacob’s Staff
975 denote 10 cm intervals. (E) Tabular sandstone beds, interbedded with structureless silt (Facies
976 Association B – FA B).
- 977 **9.** Representative facies photographs (Facies Association C – FA C). (A) Tabular beds of plane-
978 parallel laminated, very fine-grained, quartz-rich, clean sandstone. (B) Structureless
979 Foraminifera-dominated bioclastic sandstone (found in Location 2; see Figs 4 and 7); lens cap for
980 scale. (C) Normally graded Foraminifera-dominated bioclastic sandstone (found in Locations 3 to
981 6; see Figs 4 and 7); arrow indicates fining direction. (D) Foraminifera aligned parallel to
982 laminations (found in Locations 3 to 6; see Figs 4 and 7); 50 mm diameter lens cap for scale.
- 983 **10.** Basinward trends in grain size and sorting for Facies A to E of Cycle LG-1. Sampling locations are
984 illustrated in the numbered boxes. Sample numbers for each facies are shown in Fig. 6A.
- 985 **11.** Representative facies photographs (Facies Association D – FA D). (A) 0.75 to 1.5 m thick fine-
986 grained sandstone beds, note the micaceous appearance; hammer for scale. (B) 0.5 m thick beds
987 of Facies Association E – FA E, interbedded with 0.25 m thick siltstone beds. (C) Concave upward
988 bed-base with aligned mudstone rip-up clasts; lens cap for scale (50 mm diameter). D) Plane-
989 parallel laminated sandstone.

- 990 **12.** Representative facies photographs (Facies Association E – FA E). (A) 4 m thick medium-grained
991 sandstone bed, with erosive base cutting into underlying deposits; human for scale, *ca* 1.8 m
992 tall. (B) Contorted units; 1.5 m Jacob’s Staff for scale. (C) Ball and pillow deformation structures;
993 marks on Jacob’s Staff denote 10 cm intervals. (D) Trough cross-stratification; 0.2 m notebook
994 for scale.
- 995 **13.** Grain-size cumulative frequency plot showing basinward changes in grain size at each sampling
996 location.
- 997 **14.** Basinward trends in grain-size and sorting data. (A) Box and whisker plots showing basinward
998 changes in grain size at each sampling location. (B) Box and whisker plots showing basinward
999 changes in sorting at each sampling location.
- 1000 **15.** Clinothem model based on Cycle LG-1, including schematic grain-size logs; both grain size and
1001 the distribution of sand and mud vary downdip and through the stratigraphy at an intra-
1002 clinothem scale. Variability occurs according processes operating in the shelf, including the
1003 dominant process-regime in operation at the shelf-edge (interpreted to relate to autogenic river
1004 avulsion), and the flow style (i.e. sustained versus episodic hyperpycnal flows). Inferred bypass
1005 of the sustained hyperpycnal flows (Facies Association D – FA D) further downslope into the
1006 deep-water (basin-floor) environment is also illustrated.
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1015 Figure 1



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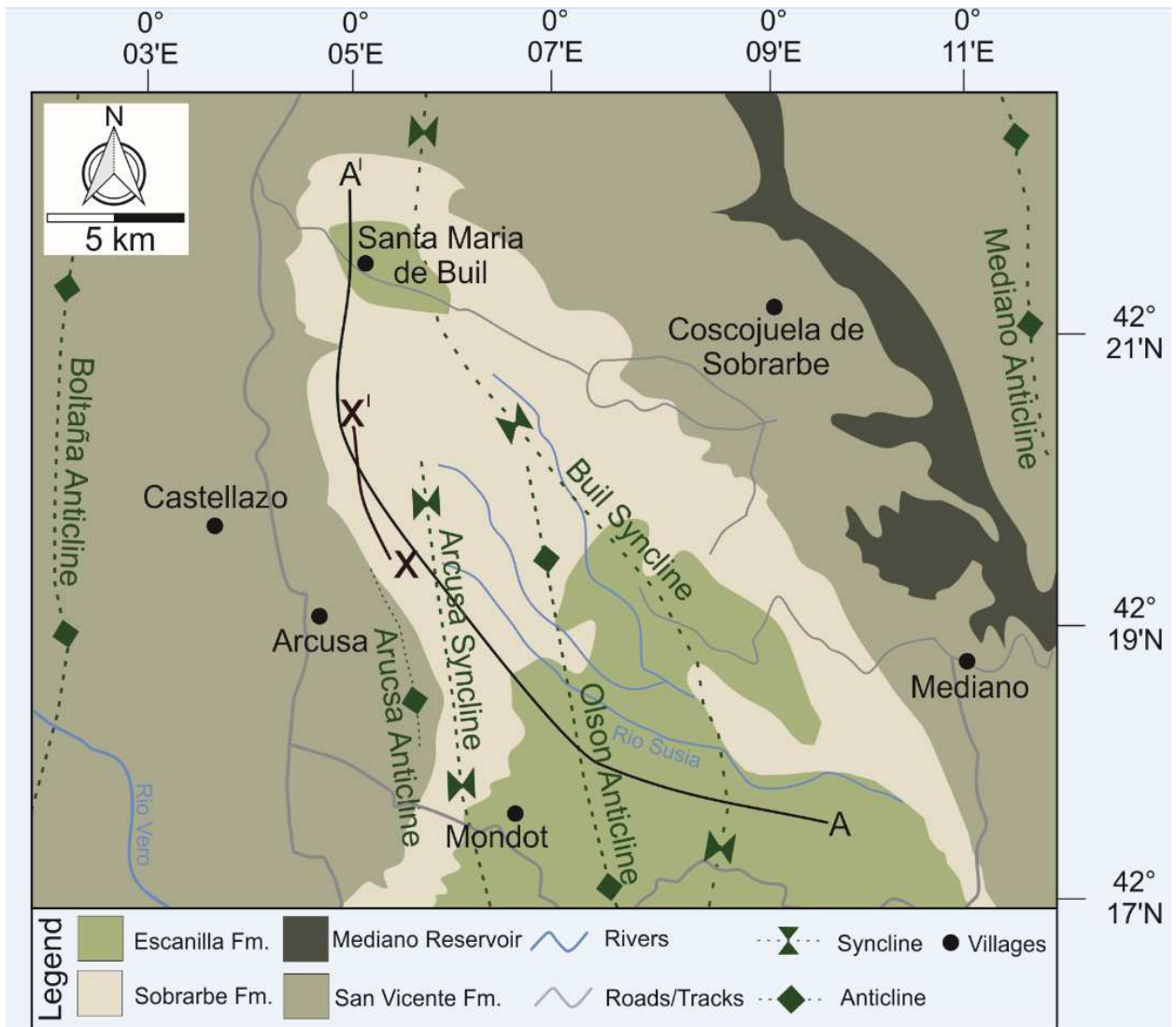
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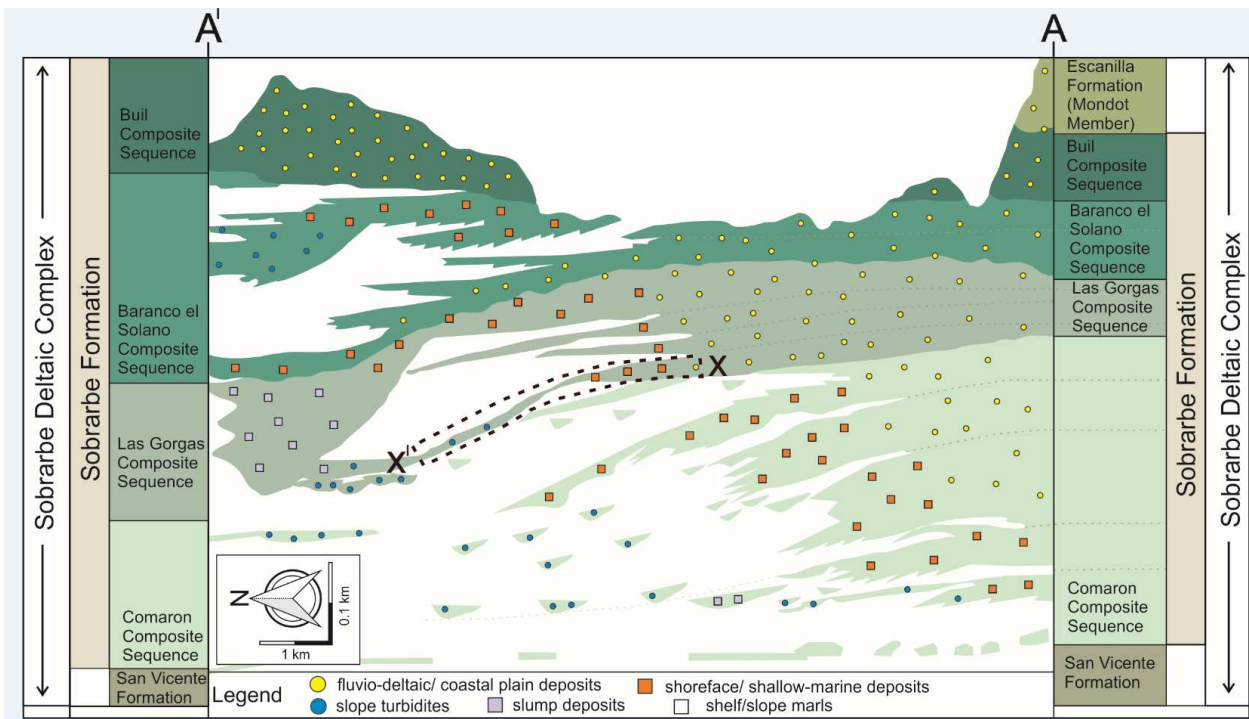
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1033 Figure 2



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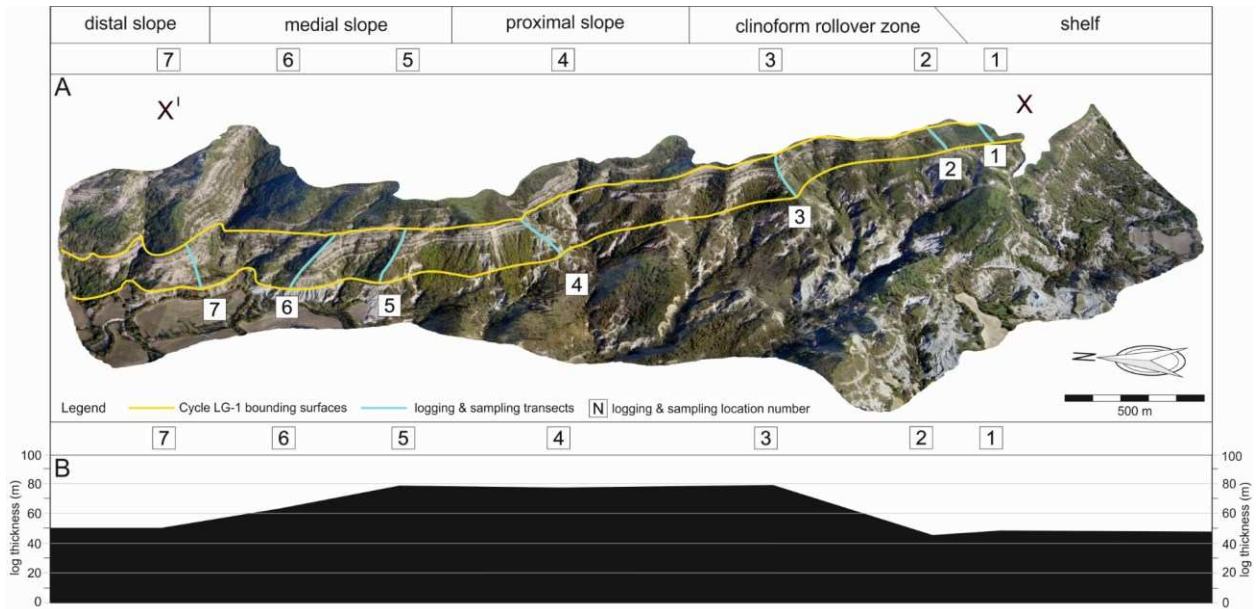
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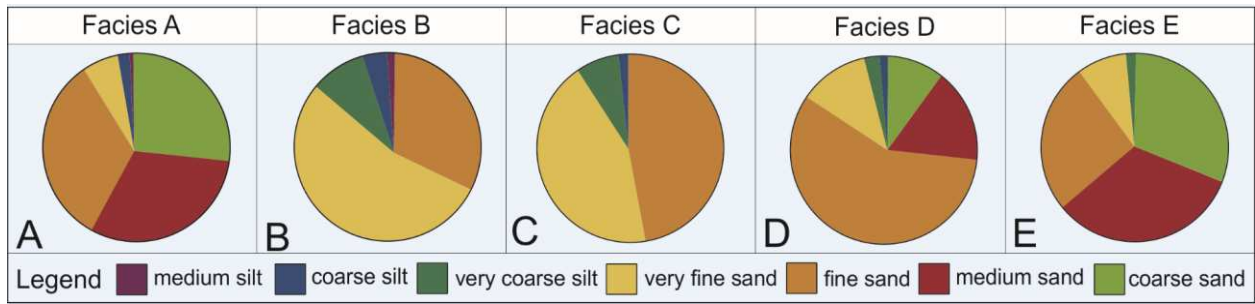
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1061 Figure 4



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1080 Figure 5



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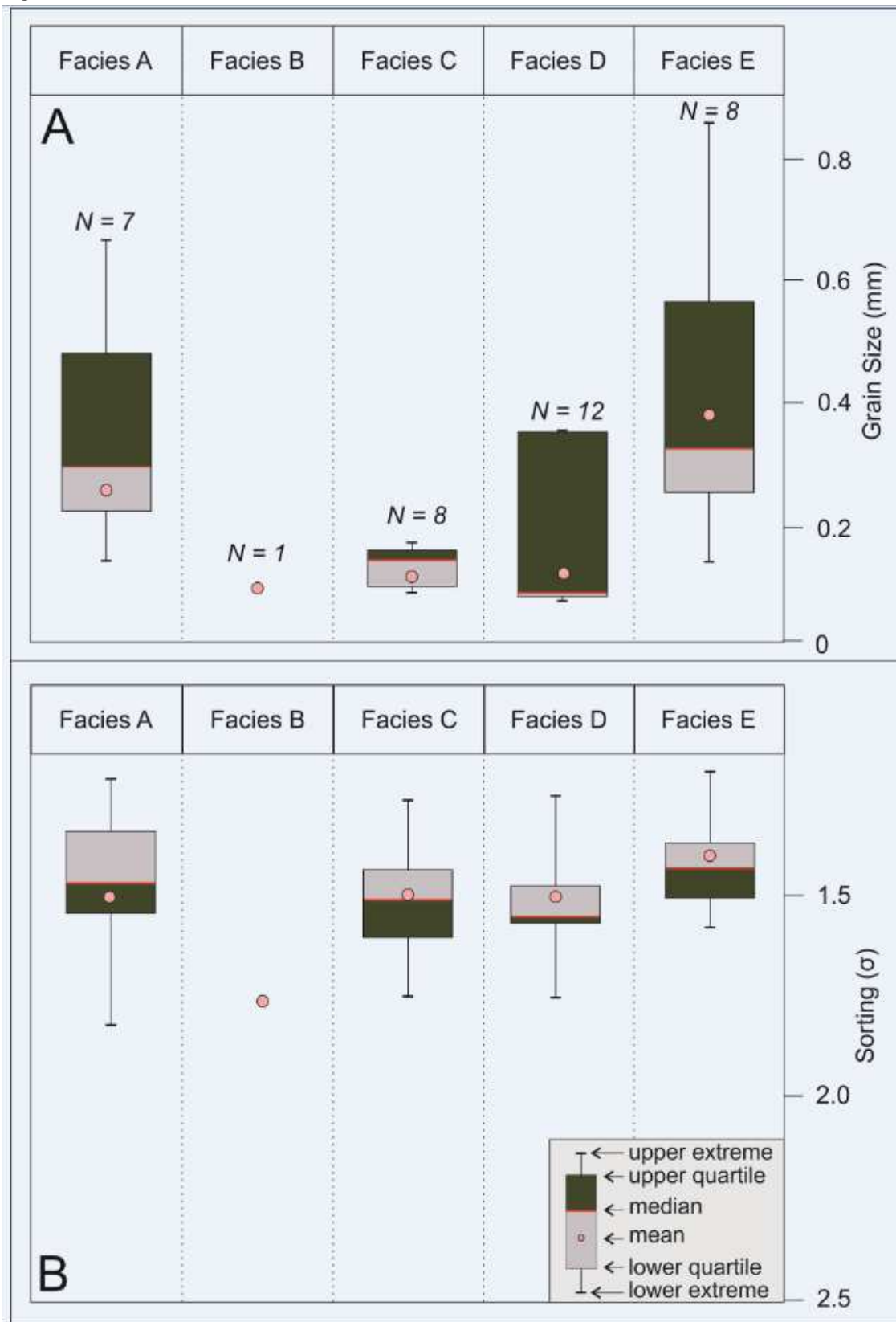
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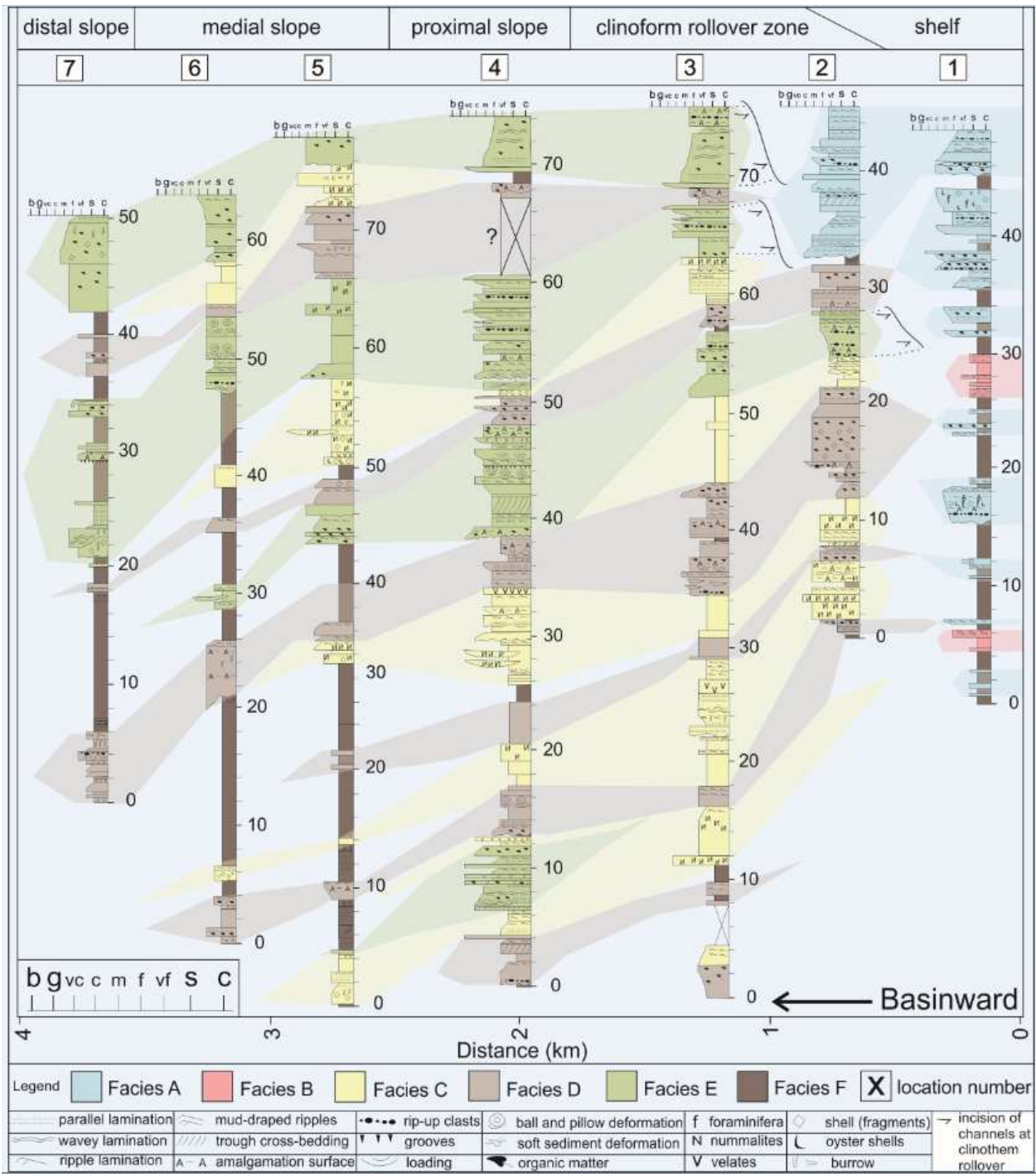
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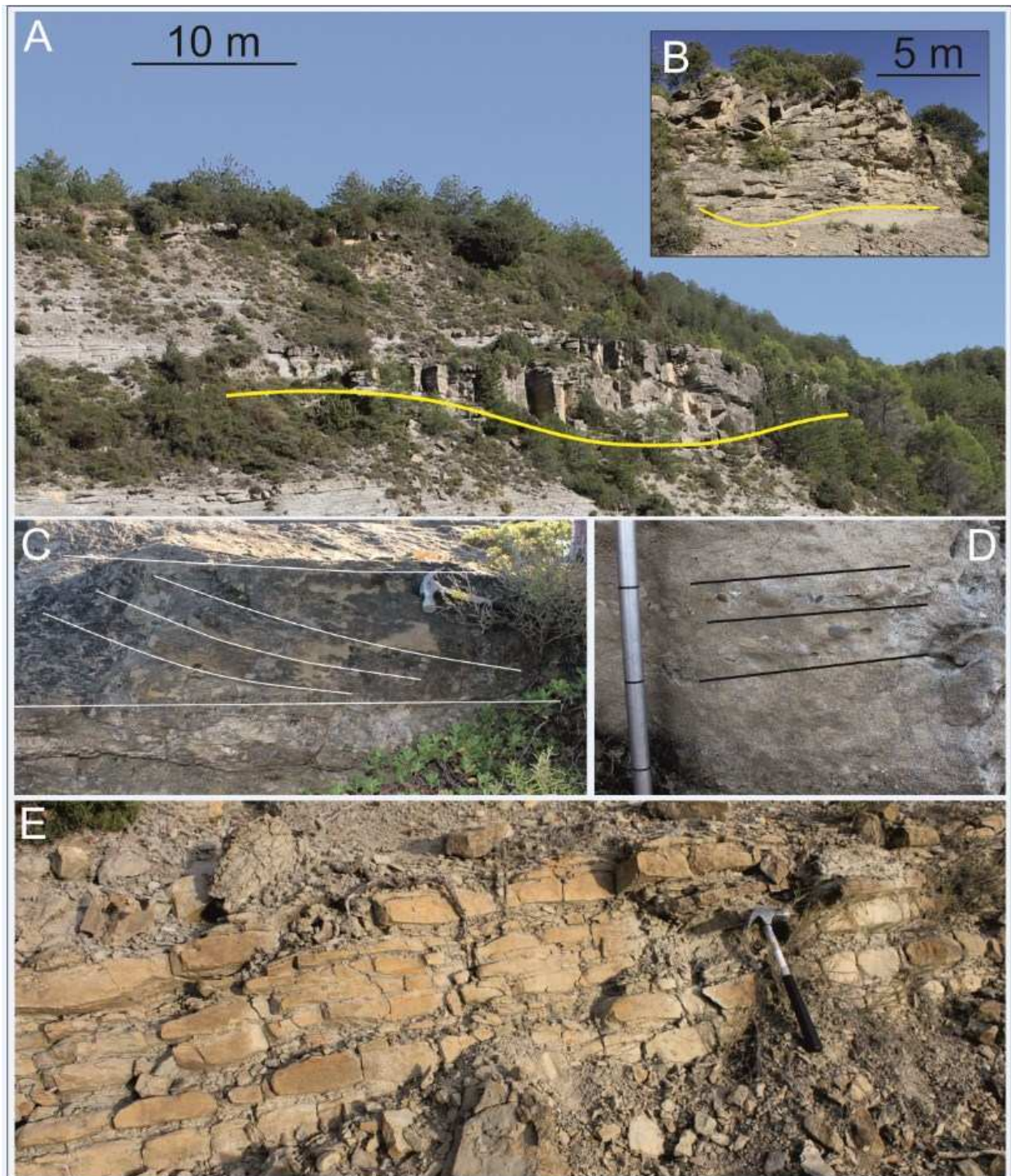
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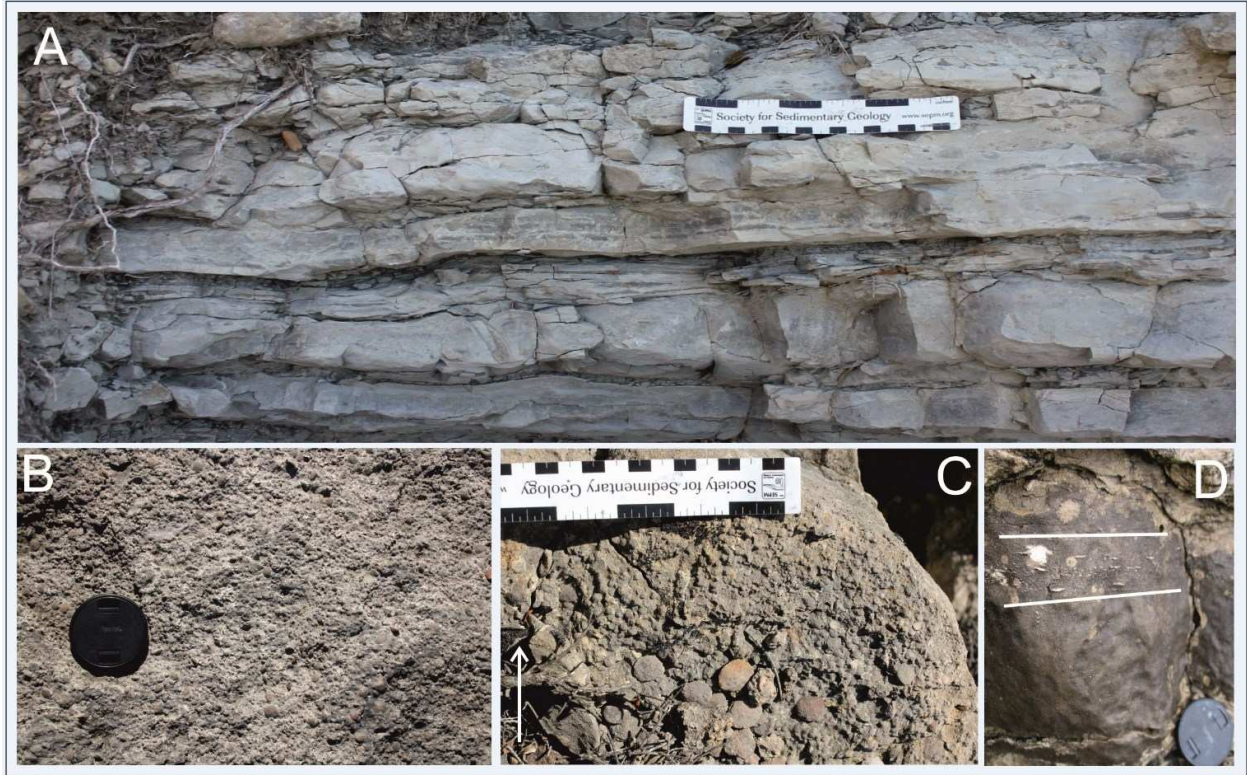
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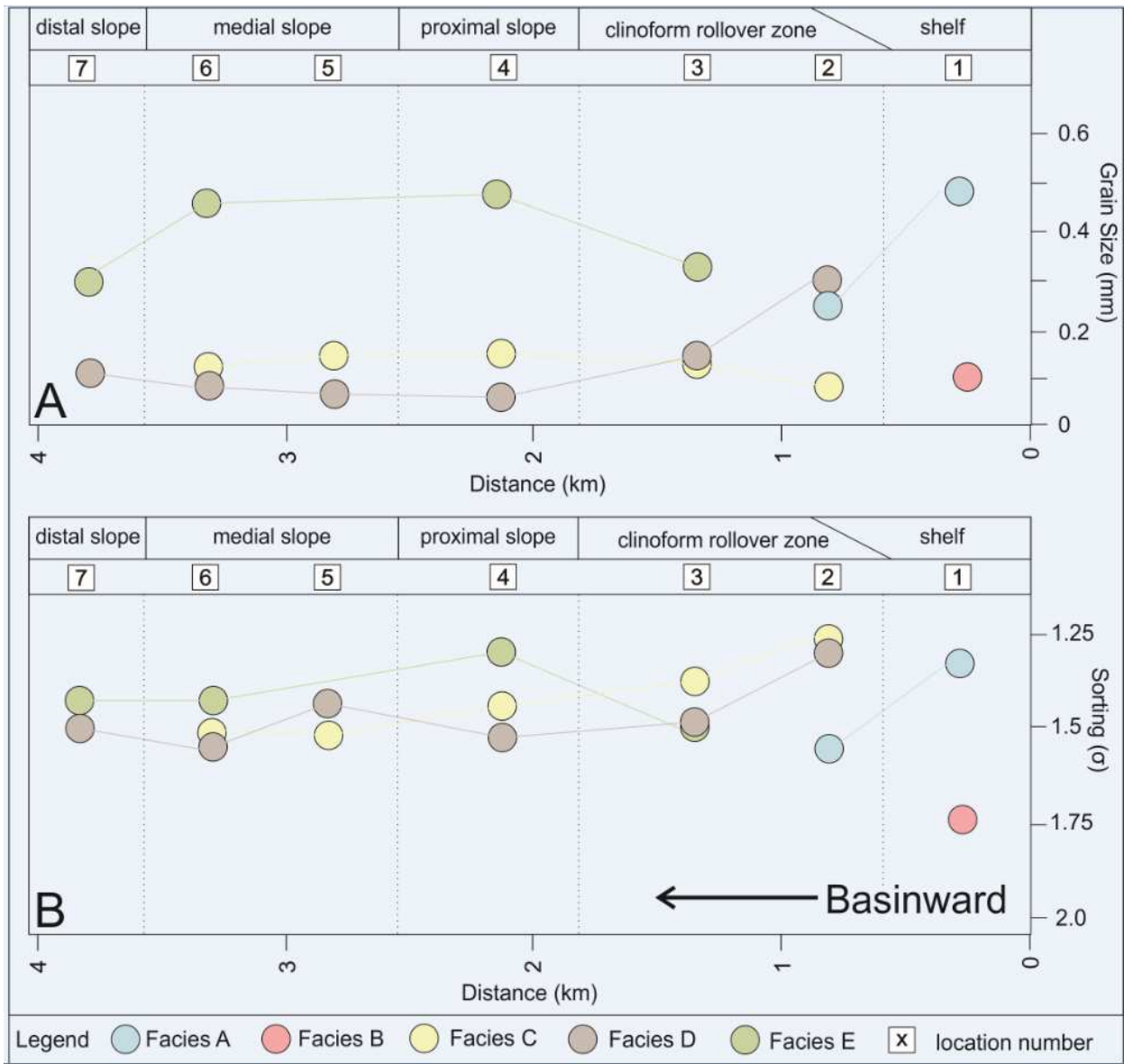
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1133 Figure 10



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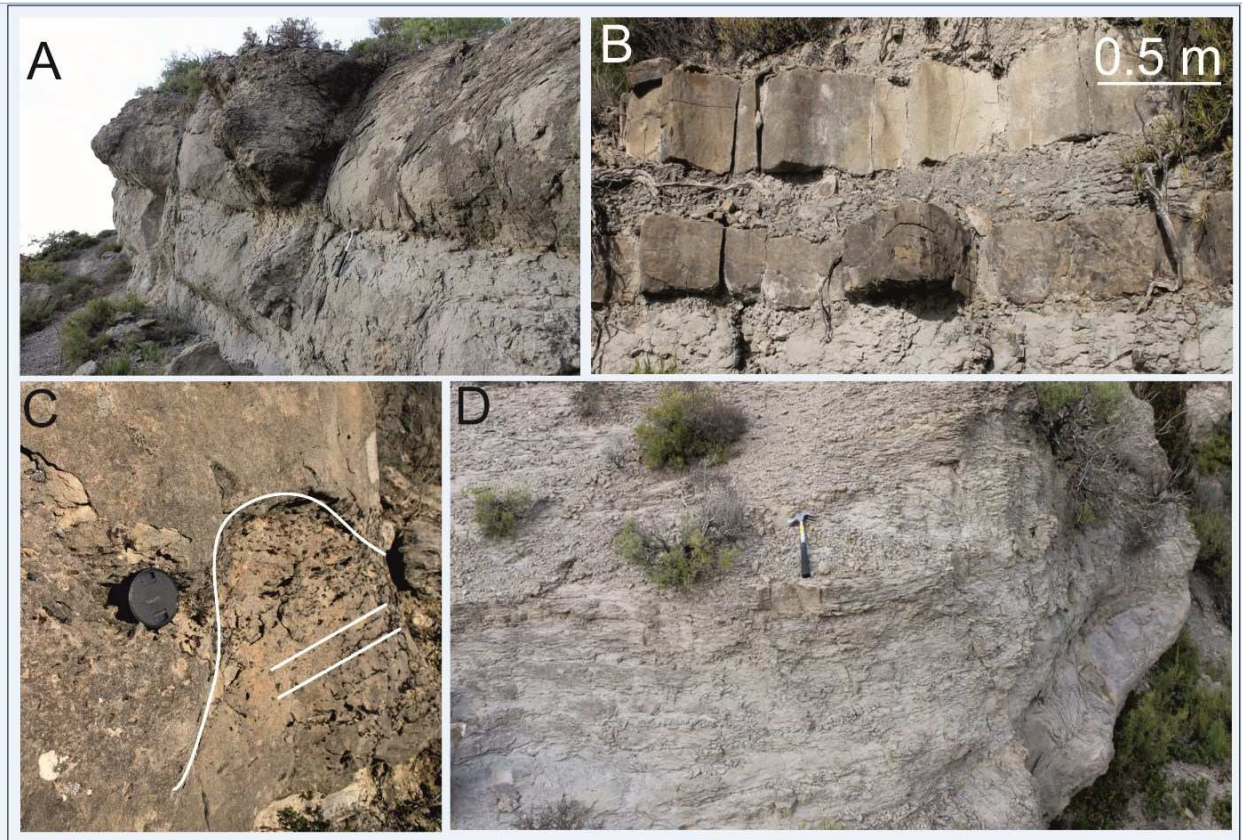
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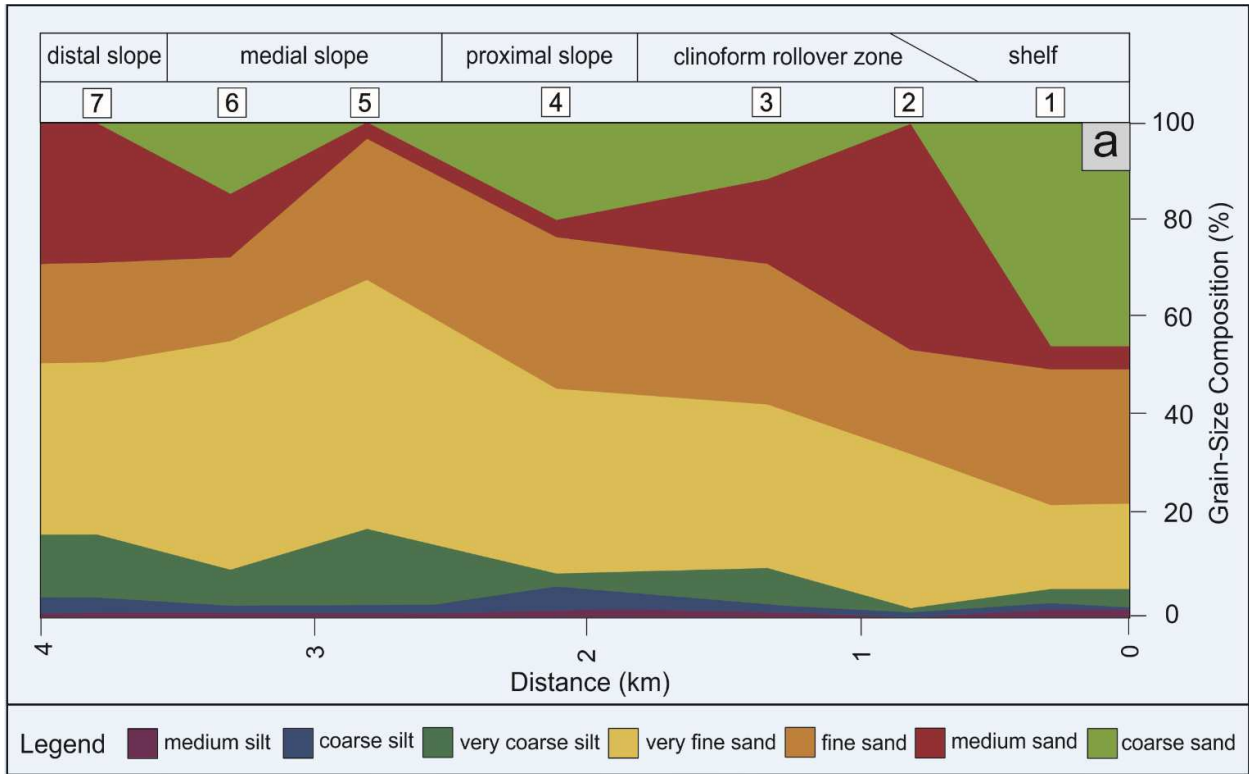
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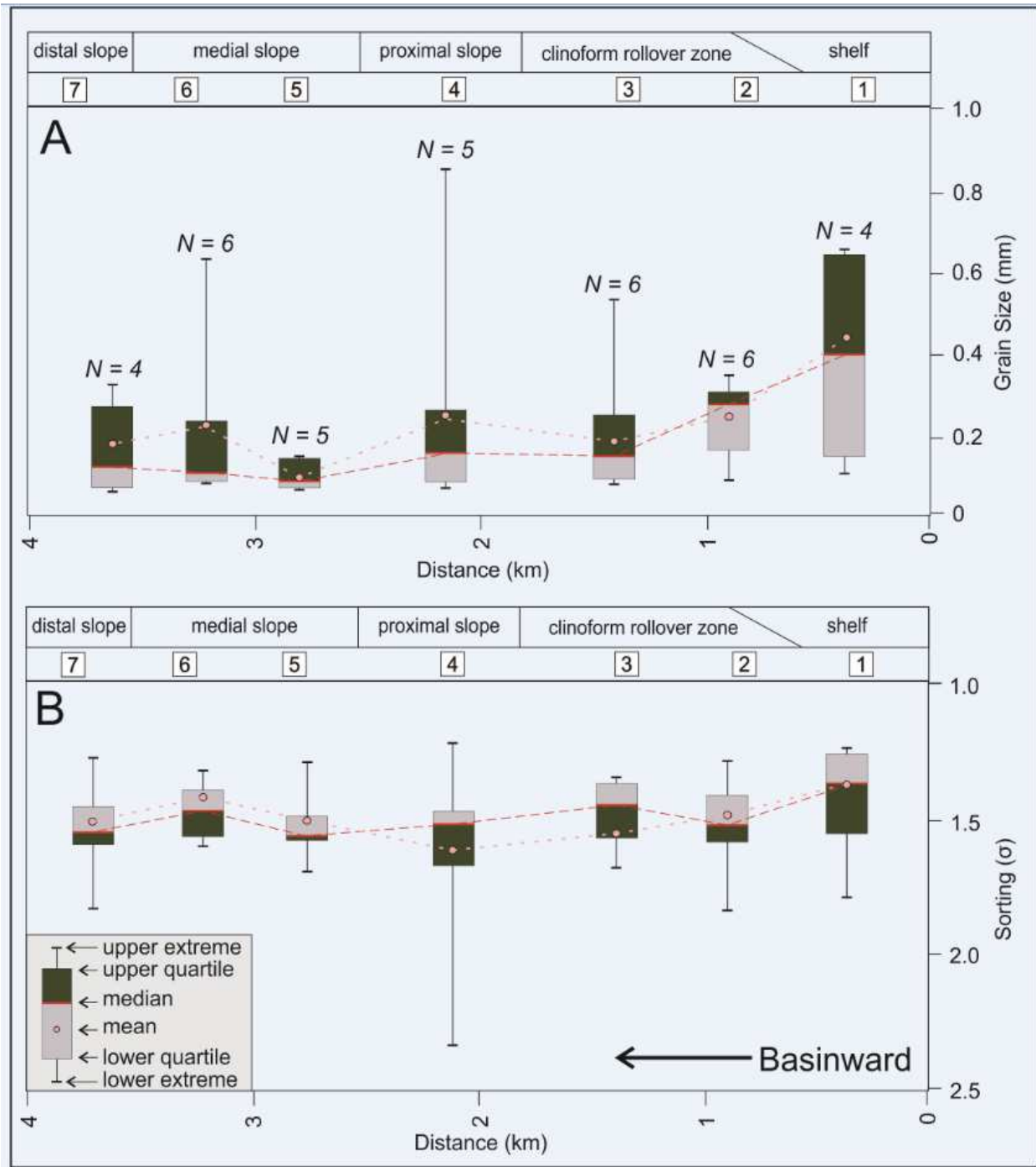
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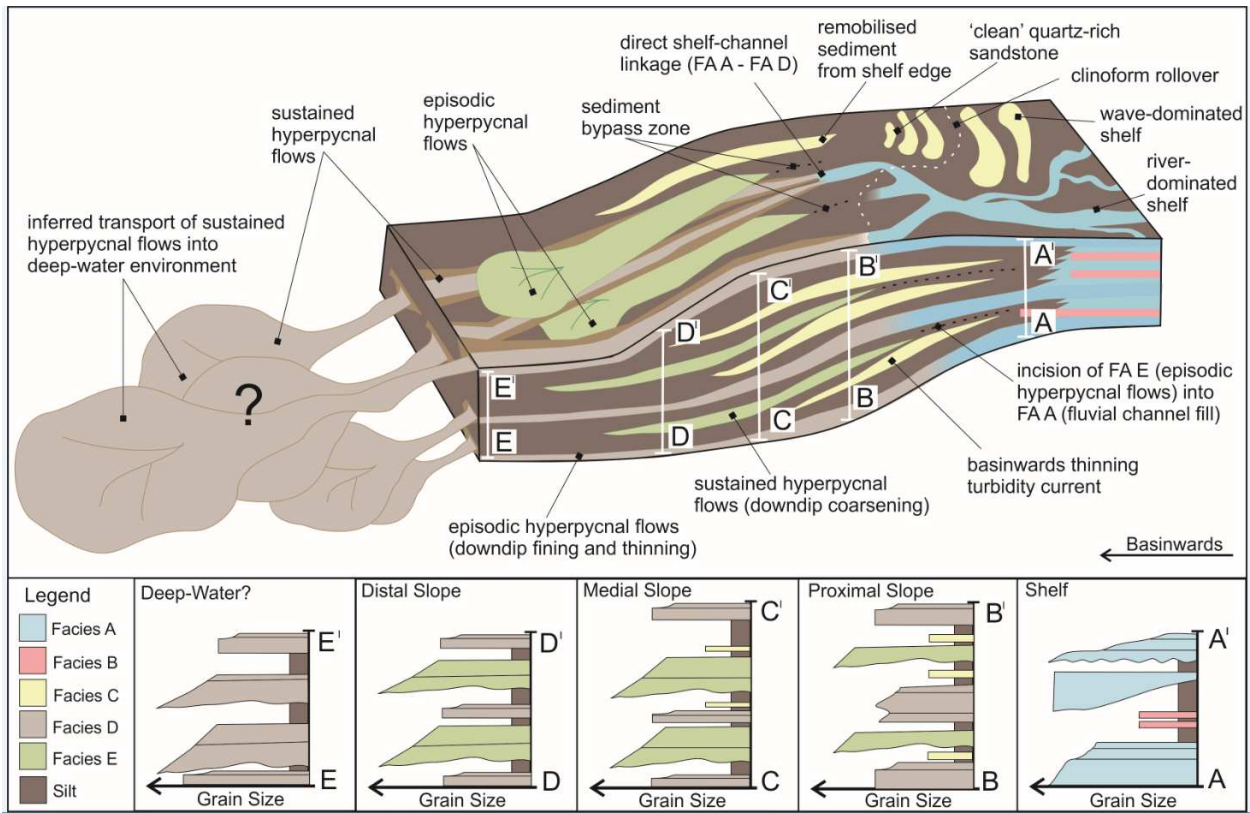
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1211 Figure 15



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