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**Aeolian–fluvial interaction within a fault-controlled basin: Late Cretaceous
Chaling Basin, South China**

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Abstract: The Upper Cretaceous Daijiaping Formation of the Chaling Basin, southeast
China, is a mixed aeolian–fluvial succession accumulated in an erg-margin setting. The
roles of climate and tectonics in governing the temporal and spatial arrangement of
aeolian and fluvial strata are investigated using lithofacies and architectural-element
analyses of outcrops in the eastern part of the basin. Architectural elements of aeolian
origin record the preserved expression of dunes, sandsheets, damp and wet interdunes,
and sand pods. Architectural elements of alluvial origin record channelized bedload
streams and cobble-sand sheetflow units. Distinctive deflation lags and desert
pavements are also recognized. The alternating nature of deposition via aeolian and

aqueous processes is marked by a series of sand-drift surfaces that form a record of repeated shifts from aeolian to water-lain depositional conditions. Ephemeral water influx to the desert-margin system likely occurred in response to exceptional rainfall caused by monsoonal water discharge and meltwaters from glaciated mountain ranges that bordered the basin. The vertical arrangements of alternating facies associations define stacked wetting-upward cycles, each 0.4–14.2 m thick. Each cycle commences with simple or compound crescentic dune deposits, else with aeolian sandsheet deposits. These are overlain by bedload stream or conglomerate sheetflow deposits. The vertical stacking of these different architectural elements records the contraction and expansion of erg-margin systems in response to climate-controlled variations in the groundwater level, sand availability for aeolian transport, and fluvial and aeolian sediment transport capacity. The stratigraphic evolution was controlled by exceptional rainfall events at the basin margin, consequent floods into the dune-field margin and associated fluctuations in the water-table level. Orogenic uplift, a subtropical high-pressure system, and variable groundwater level controlled by a monsoon climate and ongoing tectonic subsidence resulted in the development of extensive aeolian desert depositional systems in the South China hinterland during the Late Cretaceous.

Keywords: Daijiaping Formation, wind-water interaction, erg-margin, interdune, water table, bounding surface

1. Introduction

Dryland depositional systems are commonly characterized by diverse types of aeolian–fluvial interaction (Al-Masrahy and Mountney, 2015). Numerous prior studies

have documented types of interplay between aeolian and fluvial processes in both modern (e.g. Langford, 1989; Stanistreet and Stollhofen, 2002; Al-Farraj and Harvey, 2004) and ancient (e.g. Glennie, 1970; Langford and Chan, 1989; Veiga et al., 2002; Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Rodríguez-López et al., 2010; Reis et al., 2019; Jiao et al., 2020; Priddy and Clarke, 2020; Yu et al., 2020; Lacotte and Mountney, 2022) dryland sedimentary systems and their preserved successions. In the outer marginal regions of aeolian dune fields (henceforth erg margins), the combined effects of allogenic processes (i.e. tectonism, climate change, eustasy, water-table level) commonly generate vertical sedimentary successions that are characterized by cyclically alternating packages of strata of mixed aeolian and fluvial origin (e.g. Clemmensen et al., 1989; Mountney et al., 1999; Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Rodríguez-López et al., 2012). Recent studies have demonstrated how heavy monsoon rains were responsible for generating widespread soft-sediment deformation of aeolian dune strata in desert margin regions in the Late Cretaceous Xinjiang and Liyou basins (S China) (Rodríguez-López and Wu, 2020; Yu et al., 2021a). Slow but ongoing tectonic basin subsidence is the primary mechanism responsible for generating the accommodation required for long-term preservation of the accumulating succession. Superimposed shorter-term fluctuations of water-table level induced by climate changes may determine alternations in aeolian and alluvial processes, and resultant sedimentary facies evolution in erg-margin sedimentary systems (Cosgrove et al., 2022). Ultimately, spatial and temporal variations of ancient aeolian–fluvial successions record the combined effects of both external (i.e. allogenic) and intrinsic (i.e. autogenic) sedimentary processes.

Determining the respective roles of basin subsidence, water-table fluctuations, climate change and intrinsic sedimentary processes is challenging because of the overlapping nature of these controls and their convolved signature in the preserved sedimentary record. Detailed facies analysis and mapping is used to constrain lateral and vertical stratigraphic changes of sedimentary facies units. This approach is applied to determine how the various controls operated to give rise to the preserved erg-margin stratigraphic expression.

The aim of this study is to determine how allogenic and autogenic factors interact to govern the resultant palaeogeographic and stratigraphic evolution of sedimentary successions of mixed aeolian–fluvial origin developed in erg-margin settings. This aim is achieved through examination of the Upper Cretaceous Daijiaping Formation, which is well exposed in the fault-bounded Chaling Basin, China. The specific research objectives are as follows: (i) to describe the sedimentary architecture of the ephemeral fluvial and aeolian Daijiaping Formation; (ii) to characterize the sedimentary expression of the temporal and spatial interactions between aeolian and ephemeral fluvial processes by developing and presenting a genetic facies model; (iii) to explain the origin of ephemeral water flows into the erg-margin depositional system and to demonstrate how such flows episodically overwhelmed and reworked aeolian deposits; (iv) to evaluate how the water table varied in an actively subsiding fault-bounded basin and to explain its role in governing resultant aeolian stratigraphy; and (v) to compare this aeolian system with counterparts known from other similar settings. The outcomes of this study enhance models to explain the paleoclimatic and paleogeographic

evolution of East Asia during the Late Cretaceous.

2. Geological setting

The South China Block is characterized by an extensional Basin-and-Range province, covering an area of more than 260,000 km² (Shu et al., 2009). It is separated by the Qinling–Dabie orogen to the north from the North China Craton (Li et al., 2013). It is connected to the Songpan–Ganzi Block to the west and to the Philippine Sea Plate to the east (Fig. 1A). The block was created by the Early Neo-Proterozoic amalgamation of the Cathaysia Block and Yangtze Block along the Jiangnan orogenic belt (e.g. Chen et al., 1991; Zhao and Cawood, 1999; Zhao et al., 2011) (Fig. 1B). During the Phanerozoic, the South China Block was influenced by a series of complex tectonic events, including the Caledonian, Indosinian and Yanshanian orogenies (e.g. Charvet et al., 1996; Zhou et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2007; Shu et al., 2008). Extension occurred during the Cretaceous, associated with paleo-Pacific plate subduction (Li et al., 2019 and references therein). This generated numerous extensional basins (Shu et al., 2009; Li et al., 2014a, b). The Cretaceous Chaling Basin is located in the north-western part of the Cathaysian Block (Fig. 1B). This basin is developed upon a basement comprising a Neoproterozoic to Ordovician metamorphic series, a Devonian to Lower Triassic marine sedimentary rock series, and an Upper Triassic to Jurassic continental sedimentary rock series (BGMHRH, 1984).

The Upper Cretaceous in the Chaling Basin comprises the Shenhuangshan Formation, the Daijiaping Formation and the Dongtang Formation, from bottom to top (Fig. 1C, Table 1). The Daijiaping Formation is separated from the underlying

Shenhuangshan Formation and from the overlying Dongtang Formation by two paraconformities (Chu, 1978).

The Shenhuangshan Formation consists of red siltstones and mudstones with conglomerates at the base. Collectively, these lithotypes are representative of fluvial and lacustrine deposits (Duan et al., 1978; BGMRH, 1984). Based on the occurrence of charophyta (e.g. *Aclistochara* sp., *Obtusochara* sp.), ostracods (e.g. *Limnocypridea* sp., *Cypridea* sp., *Eucypris* sp.) and sporopollen assemblages (e.g. *Exesipollenites*, *Schizaeoisporites*, *Pagiophyllum pollenites*), a Late Cretaceous age is demonstrated (BGMRH, 1984; Zhao, 1985). Zhao et al. (1998) proposed a K-Ar isotopic age of basalt in the Shenhuangshan Formation of 81 Ma, implying a Late Cretaceous age.

The Daijiaping Formation consists mainly of fine-grained, red sandstones and coarse sandy conglomerates of mixed aeolian and alluvial origin (Liu, 2018) (Fig. 2, Table 2). The uppermost beds within the Daijiaping Formation comprise interbedded sandstones and mudstones. Liu (2018) proposed that the succession represents an aeolian-dominated desert depositional system, but no prior attempt has been made to produce a detailed description of the nature of aeolian–fluvial interactions recorded by the succession; no prior consideration has been made of the stratigraphic evolution of this unit. The presence of dinosaur eggs (*Oolithes elongatus* Young), ostracods (e.g. *Mongolianella* sp., *Eucypris muricata*, *Talicypridea amoena*), charophyta (e.g. *Latochara brevis*, *Amblyochara* sp., *Sphaerochara brevis*), and sporopollen assemblages (e.g. *Schizaeoisporites* sp., *Pinus* sp., *Castanopsis* sp.) indicates a Late Cretaceous age (BGMRH, 1984; Zhao, 1985). The unit developed in a wider

paleogeographic context of intense aridification in eastern China, with associated intense rainfalls due to monsoon climatic seasonal changes (Chen et al., 2009; Farnsworth et al., 2019; Rodríguez-López and Wu, 2020; Yu et al., 2021a). The preserved stratigraphic record of interaction between aeolian and fluvial processes in the Daijiaping Formation demonstrates climatic and tectonic controls on aeolian–fluvial sedimentation.

The Dongtang Formation is mainly composed of red sandstones, siltstones and mudstones with sandy conglomerates, all attributed to fluvial environments (Duan et al., 1978; BGMRH, 1984). The succession contains Late Cretaceous ostracods (e.g. *Candona declivis*, *Talicypridea amoena*, *Cypridea cavernosa*), charophyta (e.g. *Maedlerisphaera minuscula*, *M. teretis*) and dinosaur eggs (*Elongatoolithus* sp.) (BGMRH, 1984).

Xi et al. (2019) proposed that the Shenhuangshan, Daijiaping and Dongtang formations are Cenomanian–Campanian, Campanian–Maastrichtian and Maastrichtian in age, respectively, according to the comprehensive analysis of biostratigraphy, chronostratigraphy and magnetostratigraphy of the Cretaceous regional stratigraphy.

3. Methodology

The data reported in this work were acquired from the examination of thirteen stratigraphic sections of the Daijiaping Formation in the Chaling Basin, China. Analysis of the depositional architecture of the continental fluvial–aeolian successions was conducted in September 2019 and November 2020. The sedimentological descriptions of field outcrops included analyses of lithofacies and facies associations and

identification and classification of bounding surfaces according to Brookfield (1977), Langford and Chan (1988), Clemmensen and Tirsgaard (1990), Kocurek (1996), Mountney (2006) and Rodríguez-López et al. (2010, 2013). Thirteen sedimentary graphic logs were measured to record the vertical stratigraphic succession of the Daijiaping Formation. Three architectural panels were constructed from photomontages and visual drawings in which lithofacies associations, sedimentary structures and stratification types were delineated.

The dip azimuths of large-scale aeolian cross-bedded dune foresets, oriented and imbricated clasts in gravel deposits, and foresets of cross-bedded sets of aqueous origin were measured to reconstruct the paleocurrents (n=138). These data were corrected to remove post-Cretaceous crustal rotation on the basis of paleomagnetic data (Sun et al., 2006), before plotted on rose diagrams. Twenty-eight thin sections were examined under a polarized light microscope to identify the grain size and the grain fabrics of the lithofacies. These procedures enabled the processes of sedimentation to be determined.

4. Lithofacies and facies associations

The Daijiaping Formation is dominated by coarse conglomerates at the basin margin and by relatively fine sediments in its central part. Fourteen lithofacies were identified based on the lithological textures and sedimentary structures present in the outcropping sections. Nine facies associations were defined in terms of the sedimentary processes. Tables 2 and 3 summarize the lithofacies and facies associations, respectively.

4.1. FA-1: Cobble to sand bedload streamflow deposits

Description. This facies association comprises matrix- and clast-supported

177 conglomerates (lithofacies Gmd, Gmp and Gct) and pebbly sandstones (Spm) with
178 minor planar cross-stratified sandstones (Spx) (Fig. 3). The conglomerates occur as
179 sheet-like bodies, bounded by erosive bases. Matrix- to clast-supported, disorganized
180 to poorly organized conglomerates (Gmd) comprise cobble to pebble clasts and granule
181 to sand matrices (Fig. 3A, B). Some elongate gravel clasts are imbricated. Clast-
182 supported, trough or planar cross-bedded conglomerates (Gct) comprise cobble to
183 pebble clasts and granule to sand matrix (Fig. 3C, D). Imbricated clasts and normal
184 grading are distinctive features of this lithofacies. Facies Gmp consists of fine pebble
185 to granule clasts in a sand matrix (Fig. 3E, F). The moderately to well-sorted gravel
186 clasts are weakly imbricated or crudely stratified. The sandstones are chiefly massive
187 (Spm) (Fig. 3D, E). Some sandstone units are crudely planar cross-stratified (Spx) (Fig.
188 3F). These sandstones are interbedded with the above conglomerates and together these
189 deposits form fining-upward units (Fig. 3D–F). The tabular unit is dm- to m-thick and
190 extends laterally for several meters to tens of meters.

191 Interpretation. The tabular conglomeratic bodies with channelized erosional bases,
192 interlayered with massive or planar cross-stratified sandstones, suggest characteristics
193 of bedload streamflow deposits (Todd, 1989; Blair, 1999). The sheet-like and
194 disorganized to poorly organized conglomerates indicate deposition of gravel sheets
195 emplaced by high-magnitude flood flows (Todd, 1989; Nemec and Postma, 1993). The
196 presence of trough cross-bedded conglomerates implies migration of gravel bars with
197 well-developed slipfaces (Blair, 1999). The normally graded units composed of
198 conglomerates and sandstones are indicative of sedimentation during waning floods

(Nemec and Postma, 1993). The deposits of successive streams are represented by stacked fining-upward units bounded by erosive bases (Todd, 1989).

4.2. FA-2: Cobble to sand sheetflood deposits

Description. This facies association comprises clast-supported planar or horizontal to low-angle cross-bedded conglomerates (Gch) and pebbly sandstones (Spm) (Fig. 4). Facies Gch is characterized by an alternation of cobble and pebble conglomerate beds or coarse pebble and sandy fine pebble conglomerate beds. These rhythmical beds show well-developed couplets. Laterally variable pinch-out of the couplet beds is observed in this lithofacies. Amalgamated conglomerate beds (meters to tens of meters thick) commonly contain massive sandstone lenses (Fig. 4). The pebbly sandstones (Spm) are interbedded with lithofacies Gch showing fining-upward units (Fig. 4F). Units of this facies association are meters to tens of meters thick and several tens of meters wide, forming sheet-like conglomeratic bodies. The base of these conglomerate beds shows flat surfaces or low-relief scoured features of the underlying sediments.

Interpretation. The characteristic alternating conglomerate beds bounded by flat or low-relief bases are interpreted as sediment-charged, upper-flow-regime sheetflood deposits under high-energy flashy flooding (Turner, 1980; Todd, 1989; Malmgren et al., 2004; Wakelin-King and Webb, 2007). This process might record catastrophic flood events (Blair and McPherson, 2009). The couplets in lithofacies Gch are usually the result of breaking and downslope destruction process of supercritical standing waves by violent washout (Blair, 2000; Blair and McPherson, 2009). Multistory stacked depositional lobes are indicated by the broad and thick sheet-like bodies and the

occurrence of prominent scoured basal surfaces with only low-relief (Blair, 2000). The alternating pebbly sandstones and conglomerates formed under conditions of waning floods (Todd, 1989).

4.3. FA-3: Meandering fluvial channel deposits

Description. This facies association comprises matrix-supported conglomerates (Gmi), ripple cross-bedded sandstones (Sr), massive tabular sandstones (Sm) and lenticular or laminated silty mudstones (Fl) (Fig. 5A–C). The unit is present in the north-central part of the basin. These lithofacies types form fining-upward depositional cycles bounded by low-relief basal erosion surfaces. Each cycle is decimeters thick and extends laterally for tens of meters. The basal conglomerates (lithofacies Gmi) consist of fine pebble to granule clasts in a fine sand matrix. The pebble clasts are dominantly of purple mudstone of intraformational origin (Fig. 5C).

Interpretation. The presence of tabular deposits arranged into cycles, each with an erosive base and internally recording a fining-upward grainsize trend (i.e. normal grading), might indicate accumulation within meandering fluvial channels (Miall, 1996; Scherer et al., 2007; Ghazi and Mountney, 2009). The basal conglomerates with erosive bases represent channel lag deposits generated by erosion of the basal channel (Ghazi and Mountney, 2009). The dominance of mud intraclasts implies the localized reworking fine sediments, possibly from a nearby floodplain (Scherer et al., 2007; Ghazi and Mountney, 2009). The thin sand bodies composed of horizontal and massive sandstones with ripple cross-lamination represent deposits of relatively shallow fluvial channels under conditions of fast and intermittent sheet-like flow (Miall, 1996). The

cm-thick silty sediments at the top of each cycle are products of setting of fine suspended loads under decreasing flow velocity (Smith et al., 1989; Bridge, 2003).

4.4. FA-4: Overbank flood and floodplain deposits

Description. This facies association comprises packages of tabular fine-grained sandstones (Sm) and laminated silty mudstones (Fl) with no erosive bases (Fig. 5A, D). The tabular packages are decimeter to meter thick and extend laterally for tens of meters. Pale grey-green mottling, slickensides and silty aggregates are notable in the meter-scale thick massive mudstone beds (Fig. 5E).

Interpretation. The tabular and laterally continuous packages of alternating mudstones and sandstones without evident erosional features suggest deposition from unconfined flows that characterize overbank regains lateral to fluvial channels (Smith et al., 1989; Miall, 1996), especially where splays are developed (Burns et al 2019; Colombero and Mountney, 2022). The vertical stacking of such cycles indicates flash-flood events of short duration and rapid flow deceleration in the aftermath of the flooding (Miall, 1996; Bridge, 2003). The presence of red coloration, mottling and slickensides in mudstones suggests oxidizing conditions and pedogenic alteration, accompanied by episodic waterlogging and localized decomposition (Retallack, 1994; Soares et al., 2020; Basilici et al., 2022). Pedogenic calcretes are characteristic features of the paleosols (Liu, 2008). The occurrence of stacked paleosol levels indicates floodplain deposits featured by episodes of sediment aggradation along with subaerial exposure (Bridge, 2003; Basilici et al., 2024). The presence of meter-scale massive mudstones suggests that floodplain environments could have formed during high-

magnitude flood conditions (Scherer et al., 2007).

4.5. FA-5: Deflation lags and desert pavements

Description. This facies association is characterized by discrete lags (Gc(e)) of limestone and quartzite pebbles and cobbles that extend laterally for several or tens of meters (Fig. 6). Pebble- to cobble-grade lags form horizontal and planar lineations with the thickness of one pebble or cobble. The pebbles are mostly 1–5 cm long and the cobbles have lengths of ~7–10 cm, with some individual boulders >26 cm. These lags are represented by isolated or juxtaposed arrangement along the lineation and contain pyramid-shaped pebbles and cobbles with polished surfaces and sharp faceted edges (Fig. 6B). Pebble and cobble lags are covered by aeolian sandstones (Sl(e) or St(e)) (Fig. 6).

Locally, deflation lags of limestone and quartzite pebbles and cobbles show decimeter-thick vertical stacking of tabular clast-supported conglomerates (Gc(e)) (Fig. 6C, D). They are bounded by flat top and base surfaces and display large cobbles in the upper part. Beds of tabular lithofacies Gc(e) are covered by aeolian sands that penetrated into and filled the space between the gravel below. Matrices consist of fine sand and granules.

Interpretation. These discrete and laterally persistent pebble to cobble lags are similar to deposits recognized by previous studies as deflation lag by wind (e.g. Clemmensen and Abrahamsen, 1983; Dávila and Astini, 2003; Li et al., 2006; Rodríguez-López et al., 2010). These deflation lags represent distinct ventifacts with polished surfaces and sharp edges, indicating strong abrasion under the effect of

windblown sand (e.g. Glennie, 1970; Knight, 2008). Such deflation lags are normally closely associated with aeolian deposits of desert systems. They are formed by intense wind deflation and reworking of ephemeral fluvial deposits.

The long-lasting and repeated wind deflation of ephemeral fluvial deposits to form stacked deflation lags leads to the formation of desert pavements (Dorn, 1990; Al-Farraj and Harvey, 2000). The concentration of pebbles upon such surfaces generates an armored surface that prevents further deflation of underlying sandy sediments. Desert pavements are several pebbles or cobbles thick, whereas deflation lags are characterized by a lineation with the thickness of one pebble or cobble (Dorn, 1990; Al-Farraj and Harvey, 2000).

4.6. FA-6: Aeolian sandsheet

Description. This facies association comprises well-sorted fine- to coarse-grained sandstones (Sl(e)) arranged into tabular units (Figs. 7, 8). It forms 0.08 to 9 m thick sets that extend laterally more than 50 m (the maximum extent). Sets occur intercalated with deflation lags. Internally, deposits are characterized by stacked horizontal or low-angle laminae 0.2 to 2.5 cm thick with inverse grading. Laminae are distinguished by variations in granularity and color (Figs. 7C, 9A). Facies Sl(e) occurs interbedded with aeolian cross-stratified sandstones (St(e)) (Fig. 7A) or water-lain conglomerates (Gch) (Fig. 8). Locally, thick intervals appear alone marked by the interlayer of lags of granules and wind-ripple deposits (Fig. 7D, E).

Interpretation. These tabular intervals of well-sorted fine-grained laminated sandstones represented by low-angle or horizontal to subhorizontal wind-ripple laminae

are indicative of deposition in aeolian sandsheets (Hunter, 1977; Fryberger et al., 1983, 1992). The persistent lateral extension of this facies without significant variation implies relatively steady aeolian transport and deposition. The thick intervals formed of subcritically climbing translational strata (*sensu* Hunter, 1977) and composed by flat and discrete laminae of texturally and compositionally fine sand, granules and small pebbles accumulations are very similar to deflation lags described by Clemmensen and Abrahamsen (1983) and Rodríguez-López et al. (2010, 2012). The armoring is a consequence of the partial deflation of the bimodal deposits to leave the coarser grains at the surface. In conditions of high wind velocities, lag granules and small pebbles from adjacent water-lain gravels are incorporated into well-sorted windblown sands (Glennie, 1970; Clemmensen and Abrahamsen, 1983).

4.7. FA-7: Aeolian dune

Description. This facies association comprises light pink very fine- to fine-grained sandstones (St(e)) (Figs. 8, 10–15). These sandstones are formed by tabular bodies 0.3–6.8 m thick, arranged in trough-tangential cross-stratified sets that can be extended up to tens of meters laterally. Concave-up foresets are represented by massive or inversely graded laminae (Figs. 9B, 10), showing a unidirectional dip spread in a single set. A clear surface hierarchy (marked ‘R’, ‘S’ and ‘IS’ in Figs. 11–14) is observed in the cross-bedded sets. Continuous lag deposits of granule and small pebbles are distributed along the bounding surfaces (Fig. 11E, F). Trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) bounded by relatively flat surfaces (marked ‘SDS’ and ‘FS’) are interbedded with water-lain conglomerates (Gch) (Figs. 11A, C, 12 and 13), else are completely

embedded in the lithofacies Gch (Figs. 12, 14). Abundant poikilotopic calcite cementation is observed in the cross-bedded sandstones (Fig. 9C, D).

Interpretation. The large-scale cross-bedded sets with grainflow strata consisting of well-sorted sandstones are interpreted as the deposits of aeolian dunes with slipfaces (Hunter, 1977; Kocurek, 1991, 1996; Mountney, 2006). The different hierarchies of bounding surfaces presented in these aeolian dunes are consistent with those defined by Brookfield (1977) and Kocurek (1981), indicating different aeolian processes (Rubin, 1987; Kocurek, 1991, 1996). The subhorizontal surfaces (marked 'IS') overlain by lenticular or tabular muddy sand bodies are equivalent to the interdune surfaces described by Jones et al. (2016) in the Permian Santa Brígida Formation, Brazil. These interdune surfaces are formed by the migration and climbing of dune and interdune deposits (Kocurek, 1981, 1991). The subhorizontal concave-up surfaces (marked 'S') separating aeolian cross-bedded sets are interpreted as superimposition surfaces (Kocurek, 1991; Scherer, 2000). The downwind-dipping and concave-up surfaces (marked 'R') occurring in the dune forests are interpreted as reactivation surfaces (Kocurek, 1991; Mountney and Thompson, 2002). The formation of these reactivation surfaces is the result of erosion and reworking of aeolian dune foresets owing to changes in wind directions and/or bedform migration directions (Kocurek, 1981; Mountney, 2006). The relatively flat surfaces (marked 'SDS') that separate the overlying aeolian facies from the underlying water-lain deposits are interpreted as sand-drift surfaces (Clemmensen and Tirsgaard, 1990); they record aeolian deflation of fluvial deposits as indicated by the occurrence of the ventifacts (Fig. 6A, B). The subhorizontal surfaces

(marked 'FS') atop the aeolian sandstones are erosive flood surfaces; they record an increase in the superficial runoff promoting accumulation of fluvial deposits (Langford and Chan, 1988; Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Rodríguez-López et al., 2013).

Laterally continuous granule lags on bounding surfaces demonstrate deflation of the underlying bimodal aeolian deposits (Clemmensen and Abrahamsen, 1983; Kocurek and Nielson, 1986). The presence of fine pebbles in the toesets of aeolian dunes indicates the presence of wadis or similar dryland channels adjacent to the toes of aeolian sand dunes (Tanner and Hubert, 1992; Turner and Makhoulf, 2002; Rodríguez-López et al., 2010). Glennie (1970) reported aeolian dunes containing pebbles and cobbles, similar to the units observed here; these pebbles and cobbles are reworked by sliding and rolling from the banks of adjacent wadis. Similar examples of aeolian dunes containing extraformational granules, pebbles and cobbles were described by Clemmensen and Abrahamsen (1983) for Permian desert deposits in the Arran Basin of Scotland, by Turner and Makhoulf (2005) for Pliocene to Pleistocene desert systems in northeast Jordan, and by Rodríguez-López et al. (2010) for the mid-Cretaceous back-erg margin system in eastern Iberia.

The remnants of aeolian deposits that are reworked by water are interpreted as aeolian pods (*sensu* Porter, 1987). Similar aeolian pods have been reported from the erg-margin system of the Lower Jurassic Aztec Sandstone in USA (Porter, 1987), and from the Early Albian to Early Cenomanian Iberian desert system close to the Variscan Massif in eastern Iberia (Rodríguez-López et al., 2010). Clark and Rendell (1998) described the wind-water interaction occurring in the Mojave Desert in USA, where

alluvial sheet-wash processes close to a cliff led to the episodic erosion and removal of encroaching aeolian sands. The aeolian pods studied here may have formed via a similar process. The presence of poikilotopic calcite cementation, widespread in some aeolian sandstones (Worden and Burley, 2003; Henares et al., 2014; Bertolini et al., 2021), may be generated in response to water percolation and evaporation after flooding (Bertolini et al., 2021).

4.8. FA-8: Damp interdune

Description. This facies association is characterized by lenticular or tabular decimeter-thick intervals of structureless fine-grained sandstones (Ss) (Figs. 13–14). These units pinch out against sets of cross-bedded aeolian dunes laterally. The architectural arrangement commonly records an interfingering relationship with the toesets of the overlying aeolian dune cross-strata.

Interpretation. The occurrence of decimeter-thick lens-shaped units interlayered with aeolian dune cross-stratification suggests interdune deposits (Kocurek, 1981; Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Dias and Scherer, 2008). The lenticular bodies of massive, fine-grained sandstones define deposition in a damp interdune where the capillary fringe of the groundwater level reached the depositional surface that captured windblown dust and sand grains. The intertonguing of overlying aeolian dune toesets with interdune deposits indicates simultaneous advance of both the interdunes and the neighboring dunes (Pulvertaft, 1985; Mountney and Thompson, 2002; Jones et al., 2016). Meanwhile, high rates of cannibalization of interdune deposits during dune migration are indicated by the small thickness and the lens-shaped geometry of the units

(Mountney, 2012).

4.9. FA-9: Wet interdune

Description. This facies association comprises interbedded very fine-grained sandstones (Sm) and silty mudstones (Fl) (Fig. 15). It forms a decimeter-thick lenticular geometry and pinches out between the cross-bedded aeolian dunes. The unit passes laterally to cobble and pebble deflation lags (Fig. 15E, F). The intertonguing contact between this architectural element and the toesets of the overlying cross-strata of aeolian dunes are observed.

Interpretation. The presence of the decimeter-thick lenticular geometry consisting of interbedded sandstones and mudstones, and the intertonguing with the toesets of the overlying aeolian dune cross-strata indicates a wet overbank-interdune element that developed in areas where the interdune depressions were flooded (Kocurek, 1981; Langford and Chan, 1989; Mountney and Thompson, 2002). The occurrence of cobble to pebble deflation lags on the interdune surface may imply contemporaneous flooding by fluvial incursion and dune migration (Langford and Chan, 1989).

5. Depositional model

The combined lithofacies and architectural-element analysis allows identification of changes in the depositional systems over time. The facies successions of the Daijiaping Formation exhibit a clear spatial zonation that records an alternation of aeolian and alluvial deposits in the alluvial fan setting in the eastern part of the basin (Fig. 2). The fluvial and floodplain deposits are distributed in the north-central portion. The lower part of the Daijiaping Formation is characterized by thick conglomerates that

unconformably overlie the Paleozoic strata in the eastern basin (Gao, 1975; Chu, 1978).

The upper part of this formation is represented by silty mudstones and sandstones with sandy conglomerates that are bounded at their top by a regional paraconformity (Gao, 1975; Chu, 1978).

The thick cobble to sand bedload stream deposits constitutes the basal interval of the Daijiaping Formation (Fig. 2). These gravelly streamflow deposits are indicative of deposition in the medial part of an alluvial fan system; the sandstone sheet-like deposits are typical of the deposits of the distal portion of an alluvial fan (Blair, 1999). The paleocurrents indicate an overall westward transport direction for the alluvial deposits (Fig. 16A). These streamflow and sheetflow deposits, which dominantly comprise cobbles to sand, are likely the accumulated deposits of high rainfall events that originated in the highland that bounded the basin to the east (cf. Clemmensen et al., 1989; Rodríguez-López et al., 2010). Meanwhile, a poorly confined ephemeral fluvial system comprising fluvial channel and overbank flood deposits developed in the north-central part of the basin. The floodplains were supplied with sediment during high-magnitude flood events.

The water-lain sediments pass upward into interbedded aeolian and fluvial deposits, accumulated units of which are bounded by sand-drift surfaces (Fig. 2). The sandy sediments in the alluvial deposits were a major source for the subsequent construction of the aeolian deposits.

These alternating aeolian and fluvial deposits indicate the occurrence of an arid to semi-arid climate regime (Mountney et al., 1998). They are common in erg margins

subject to periodic or episodic flooding and dune accumulation. They develop in response to fluctuations in sediment supply and water-table level (Langford and Chan, 1989; Mountney et al., 1998; Mountney and Jagger, 2004). The vertical changes in sedimentary architecture of the aeolian–fluvial successions recorded repeated expansion and contraction of the aeolian system.

During deposition of the aeolian–fluvial unit, aeolian dunes, damp and wet interdunes, aeolian sandsheets, deflation lags and desert pavements represent the wind-related facies associations. These occur interbedded with streamflow or sheetflow deposits. The preserved aeolian dune architecture is typical of simple and compound crescentic dunes without appreciable dry interdune deposits. This stratal arrangement indicates a dry aeolian system where the water table lay significantly below the level of the depositional surface (Fig. 16B). Elsewhere, the presence of both damp- and wet-interdune deposits records oscillations in the water table developed within an overall wet aeolian systems (*sensu* Kocurek and Havholm, 1993) (Fig. 16C).

The dune foreset dip-azimuth data recorded in the aeolian sandstones (Fig. 2) suggest dominant westerlies followed by northeasterlies and minor northwest and southeast winds, which agree with Late Cretaceous global circulation models and paleowind pattern that existed in the middle and low latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere (Jiang et al., 2008; Hagegawa et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2021b). The ephemeral fluvial deposits are represented by episodic, channelized cobble to sand bedload streams and sheet floods. The long-lasting wind deflation of these ephemeral fluvial deposits led to the occurrence of deflation lags and desert pavements.

Overall, the fluvial–aeolian succession comprises water-lain deposits passing upward to arid to semi-arid cyclic deposits of mixed aeolian and fluvial origin. The inferred arid and semi-arid climate regime favored the development of an alluvial system generated by episodic flooding followed by intense erosion and subsequent wind accumulation. The described aeolian and fluvial sedimentary systems are typical of erg-margins settings (Mountney and Jagger, 2004; Mountney, 2006). The vertical arrangement of these sedimentary architectures is the most obviously stratigraphic expression of the contraction and expansion of erg-margin systems in response to allogenic variations of climate, with accommodation and long-term preservation of the overall accumulation enabled by tectonic subsidence.

6. Discussion

6.1. Stratigraphic model and controlling factor of aeolian–fluvial sedimentation

The aeolian–fluvial deposits in the Daijiaping Formation represent alternating aeolian and fluvial units, bounded by erosive surfaces (flood surfaces and sand-drift surfaces) that divide the sedimentary succession into different facies associations (Fig. 17). Sedimentological characteristics and the contacts between these sedimentary facies indicate that the aeolian dune, damp and wet interdune, aeolian sandsheet and fluvial deposits show episodes of flooding and aeolian accumulation.

The vertical stacking of aeolian–fluvial deposits reveals a series of ‘wetting-upward’ cycles, each 0.4–14.2 m thick. Each of these cycles is characterized by simple or compound crescentic dune or aeolian sandsheet deposits, overlain by bedload streamflow or conglomerate sheetflow deposits. The development of the bounding

surfaces occurring in these cycles is function of fluvial and aeolian sediment transport capacity, dry sand availability and relative water table (Kocurek, 1988; Kocurek and Lancaster, 1999).

The aeolian deposits in the aeolian–fluvial unit mainly consist of two types of aeolian deposits: dry and wet aeolian systems (*sensu* Kocurek and Havholm, 1993) (Fig. 17). The typical sedimentary successions of these aeolian systems record oscillations in water-table level. The dry aeolian system encompasses superimposed aeolian dune cross-sets without appreciable intervening interdunes, indicating that sedimentation developed in settings with a water table below the depositional surface and a high sediment availability and aeolian transport capacity. The wet aeolian system is characterized by damp interdune facies consisting of massive muddy sandstones and wet interdune facies composed of interbedded very fine sandstones and silty mudstones, indicating a water table close to or above the depositional surface, respectively. Aeolian accumulation commenced atop sand-drift surfaces. The limited availability of dry sand suitable for aeolian transport prevented widespread aeolian dune construction, but was sufficient for the formation and development of aeolian sandsheets (Fig. 17).

The flood surface represents an interruption in aeolian accumulation and forms when the rising groundwater level is accompanied by an increase in the surface runoff. Thus, it can aid the accumulation of streamflow deposits atop the aeolian deposits, especially given an associated decrease in downstream aeolian transport capacity. A gradual but progressive increase in the surface runoff limits sand availability for aeolian transport and ultimately favors the accumulation of streamflow deposits.

The aeolian deposits of the next (i.e. overlying) cycle rest above a sand-drift surface with deflation down to the water-table level during periods of water table fall (Fig. 17). The availability of dry sand for aeolian transport is high at the end of the fall, allowing aeolian system accumulation to resume at the onset of accumulation of the next cycle.

The occurrence of these alternating aeolian and fluvial deposits in an intracontinental basin is likely associated with fault-controlled subsidence and combined with episodic fluctuations in the climate regime. These factors acted to influence sand availability, sediment supply, aeolian and fluvial transport capacity and water-table level (Kocurek, 1988, 1999; Kocurek and Lancaster, 1999).

The fault-dominated basin subsidence can cause a relative water-table rise, promoting the accumulation and preservation of the aeolian and fluvial sedimentary succession (Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Cosgrove et al., 2022). However, the interbedded aeolian and fluvial units and the development of flood surfaces and sand-drift surfaces indicate that the water table rise in the Daijiaping Formation was not a uniform process, and that frequent fluctuations of water-table position and sediment supply resulted from climate changes (Fig. 18). Similar wetting-upward cycles in the fluvio-aeolian successions driven by climate forcing are also confirmed by previous studies (e.g. Clemmensen et al., 1989, 1994; Howell and Mountney, 1997; Mountney et al., 1998; Veiga et al., 2002; Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Mayoral et al., 2021).

6.2. Causes of sudden water fluxes and subsequent mass transport

The presence of cobble to sand bedload stream and pebble-sand sheetflood

deposits and aeolian pods in the aeolian–fluvial succession indicates the great fluxes of ephemeral waters (Porter, 1987; Rodríguez-López et al., 2010, 2012). Large flood events can occur in an arid to semi-arid climate setting. Floodwaters can erode aeolian deposits catastrophically (Svendsen et al., 2003; Mack et al., 2008), as reported from the mid-Cretaceous back-erg margin system in the eastern Iberia of Spain (Rodríguez-López et al., 2010). This effect results in the reworking of wind-related deposits (dunes, sandsheets, deflation lags and desert pavements), as corroborated by the presence of distinct aeolian pods (Figs. 12, 15; see section 4.7 for interpretation).

Possible mechanisms responsible for sudden water influx into the Chaling desert margin system include (i) monsoonal rainfall discharge and (ii) meltwater drainage from adjacent glaciated mountain ranges.

Monsoonal water discharge in aeolian deserts can trigger associated deformation processes of aeolian dune deposits (Loope et al., 2001). These soft-sediment deformation structures associated with monsoon rainfall have been reported from the Upper Cretaceous aeolian dune deposits of South China (Rodríguez-López and Wu, 2020; Yu et al., 2021a). The East Asian annual rainfall during the Late Cretaceous occurred during the summer monsoon from June to August (Chen et al., 2009; Farnsworth et al., 2019). The Chaling desert streams fed by intense monsoon rainfall likely carried floodwaters to the erg-margin system leading to episodic erosion and reworking of aeolian deposits and the emplacement of ephemeral fluvial deposits.

Meltwater fluxes from the surrounding glaciated mountains in desert basins have been documented from the Quaternary Taklamakan desert in western China (Yang et

al., 2006) and the mid-Cretaceous Iberian desert in eastern Spain (Rodríguez-López et al., 2010). The fluvio-aeolian deposits in the Late Cretaceous Chaling desert system bear similarity to these examples with respect to the presence of interbedded aeolian and streamflow deposits, deflation lags and desert pavements. Meltwater flows from alpine glaciers of the Wanyang mountain range to the east of the Chaling Basin may have discharged the Chaling desert system leading to the input of coarse streamflow deposits and the reworking of previous aeolian deposits (Xiao et al., 2019). The Cretaceous South China is characterized by alternating episodes of shortening and extension in response to the subduction and rollback of the paleo-Pacific Plate (Li et al., 2014b, 2020). In the Late Cretaceous, a coastal mountain range with a paleoelevation of ≥ 2000 m existed along the South China margin due to the collision between the Okhotomorsk Block and the South China Block (Chen, 2000; Yang, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016, 2021; Chen et al., 2021). Meanwhile, intra-continental orogens manifest in South China as mountain ranges with high elevation and extensional fault basin (Yang, 2003; Li et al., 2014b, 2020). Combined with the clockwise rotation of the South China (Sun et al., 2006), the Wanyang mountains close the Chaling desert margin should have sufficient altitudes for orographic rains, snow showers and the accumulation of ice at subtropical latitudes (Wang et al., 1998).

Considering the geological background of the Late Cretaceous South China, the input of water influx in the Chaling Basin is a result of one or a combination of the two hypotheses: a glaciated Wanyang mountain range in conjunction with monsoonal rainfall.

6.3. Aeolian–fluvial interaction in modern and ancient sedimentary systems

Aeolian and fluvial processes in ancient and modern desert-margin settings exhibit diverse interaction types, notably fluvial incursions into aeolian dune fields by various processes and flooding within aeolian dune fields due to the elevation of groundwater levels to the surface in response to intense precipitation and associated fluvial run off (Langford and Chan, 1989; Langford, 1989; Al-Masrahy and Mountney, 2015). The primary factors that govern the nature of flooding in modern fluvial–aeolian systems are aeolian dune morphology, the length of time during which the interdune is exposed and the water-table level (Langford, 1989). Within the fluvial–aeolian systems, sub-environments within which flood-related deposition occurs include wet interdunes, playas within interdunes and ephemeral fluvial channels and sheets. The irregular flood surfaces level dune topographic relief, whereas aeolian dunes generate positive topographic relief. Distinct types of fluvial–aeolian interactions arise in response to the variable nature of how fluvial incursions occur within aeolian dune fields. Based on the analysis of sedimentary characteristics and geometric properties of the preserved deposits of aeolian–fluvial interaction system in the Permian Culter Group, Paradox Basin, USA, a classification scheme for ancient aeolian–fluvial architectural elements is introduced to characterize sedimentary variability in three dimensions (Lacotte and Mountney, 2022). To classify and understand the nature of aeolian–fluvial interaction process that operated in the fluvial-aeolian system represented by the Daijiaping Formation, available study-cases on similar units are here compiled to draw comparisons (Table 4). Three distinct types of fluvial–aeolian interactions are

595 recognized: (1) short-term aeolian–fluvial interaction characterized by the dominance
596 of fluvial activity over small-scale aeolian activity; (2) fluvial incursions into aeolian
597 dune fields without elevated water-table levels; and (3) fluvial incursions into aeolian
598 dune fields associated with elevated groundwater levels.

599 The sedimentological record of short-term aeolian–fluvial interaction
600 characterized by the dominance of fluvial activity over small-scale aeolian activity is
601 represented by centimeter- to meter-thick sets of aeolian wind-ripple strata or cross-
602 bedding of aeolian dune origin that occur within a succession of strata that is otherwise
603 of fluvial origin. Localised aeolian reworking of fluvial deposits is the main fluvial-
604 aeolian interaction type. Accumulation and preservation of aeolian deposits is
605 controlled by the architecture of the fluvial system. The resulting change from fluvial
606 to aeolian is related to short-term shifts in aridity (semi-arid to arid climate), possibly
607 on a seasonal basis, as in the Proterozoic Mancheral Quartzite, India (Chakraborty and
608 Chaudhuri, 1993), Middle Proterozoic Eriksfjord Formation, southwest Greenland
609 (Tirsgaard and Øxnevad, 1998), the Upper Silurian Tumblagooda Sandstone, western
610 Australia (Trewin, 1993), the Siluro-Devonian Swanshaw Sandstone Formation, SW
611 Scotland (Smith et al., 2006), and the Upper Cretaceous capping sandstone,
612 Kaiparowits Basin, USA (Simpson et al., 2008).

613 The sedimentological record of fluvial incursions into aeolian dune fields without
614 elevated water-table levels is represented by deposits of aeolian dunes, aeolian
615 sandsheets, fluvial channels, sheet-like flows, and floodplains. Water-lain deposits
616 within the fluvial–aeolian system are characterized by deposits of ephemeral fluvial

origin that overlie erosive flood surfaces. Aeolian deflation surfaces (sand-drift surfaces) are common in the resultant succession. Aeolian strata mostly comprise deposits of a dry-aeolian setting, without damp, wet or fluvially flooded interdunes. Unconfined sheetflood deposition, fluvial breaching of aeolian dune topography and amalgamated channel-forms arising from long-lasting confined flooding are dominant in the aeolian–fluvial interaction type. The alternating fluvial and aeolian deposits produce distinct dry-wet cycles, each several meters to tens of meters thick, as is the case for the Upper Permian Dawlish Sandstone Formation of the Wessex Basin, UK (Newell et al., 2001), the Permian Brodick Beds, UK (Clemmensen and Abrahamsen, 1983; Frederiksen et al., 1998), the Upper Jurassic Tianchihe Formation, Ningwu–Jingle Basin, China (Xu et al., 2019), the Upper Jurassic–Lower Cretaceous Guará Formation of the Paraná Basin, southern Brazil (Scherer and Lavina, 2005, 2006) and Batoví Member of the Norte Basin, Uruguay (Amarante et al., 2019), the Lower Cretaceous Avilé Member of the Neuquén Basin, Argentina (Veiga et al., 2002), and Lower Cretaceous São Sebastião Formation of the Jatobá Basin, Brazil (Ferronato et al., 2019). The vertical variations from fluvial to aeolian deposits record cyclical climatic changes from relatively humid to semi-arid to arid conditions.

The sedimentological record of fluvial incursions into aeolian dune fields associated with elevated groundwater levels is mainly represented by the deposits of aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, dry, damp and wet interdunes, braided and ephemeral fluvial channels, and unconfined fluvial sheet-like flows. Sheet-like water-lain deposits within these fluvial–aeolian successions are characterized by wet interdunes, playas

with interdunes and ephemeral fluvial deposits bounded by flood surfaces and sand-
 drift surfaces. The geometric properties of the sedimentary architectural elements are
 diverse, as defined by Lacotte and Mountney (2022) as seven types of aeolian–fluvial
 interaction. The occurrence of variably dry to wet interdune architectural elements
 indicates a changing water-table level as sedimentation was ongoing. Vertical drying-
 wetting cycles, each up to tens of meters thick, are common, as in the Pennsylvanian
 Piauí Formation of the Parnaíba Basin, Brazil (Vieira and Scherer, 2017; Kifumbi et al.,
 2022), the Permian Cutler Group of the Paradox Basin, USA (Langford and Chan, 1989;
 Mountney and Jagger, 2004; Jordan and Mountney, 2010; Cain and Mountney, 2011),
 the Permian De La Cuesta Formation of the Paganzo Basin, NW Argentina (Spalletti et
 al., 2010), the Permian Upper Rotliegend Group, North Sea (Ellis, 1993; Sweet, 1999),
 the Triassic Helsby Sandstone Formation and Ormskirk Sandstone, UK (Mountney and
 Thompson, 2002; Cowan, 1993; Herries and Cowan, 1997), the Lower Jurassic Kayenta
 and Navajo Sandstone formations of the Colorado Plateau, USA (Herries, 1993; Hassan
 et al., 2018; Priddy and Clarke, 2020), the Upper Jurassic Quebrada del Sapo Formation
 of the Neuquén Basin, Argentina (Veiga and Spalletti, 2007; Spalletti and Veiga, 2007),
 the Lower Cretaceous Twyfelfontein Formation of the Huab Basin, northwest Namibia
 (Mountney et al., 1998, 1999), the Upper Cretaceous Barun Goyot Formation of the
 Gobi Basin, Mongolia (Gradzinski and Jerzykiewicz, 1974), and the Upper Cretaceous
 Daijiaping Formation of the Chaling Basin, China. Basin- and Larger-scale fluvial–
 aeolian sedimentary cycles of basin-wide extent record region-wide, longer-term
 climatic variations. Smaller-scale fluvial–aeolian sedimentary cycles mostly record

individual localized fluvial flood events into the margins of aeolian dune fields (Almasrahy and Mountney, 2015; Lacotte and Mountney, 2022).

Overall, the fluvial–aeolian interaction styles proposed here are expressed as preserved depositional cycles that can be related to episodes of heightened aridity within an evolving basin. The changes in aridity are particularly important as controls on the aeolian deposition (e.g. dry- to wet-interdunes). Although climate is considered the dominant control on the style of fluvial and aeolian deposition, tectonic basin subsidence generates the long-term accommodation necessary for preservation of successive cycles. Variations in the background rates of subsidence, for example as might be induced by episodic movement of basin-bounding faults, may induce fluctuations in the water-table level (Mountney, 2004; Lancaster and Mountney, 2021).

The accumulation and preservation of sedimentary cycles associated with these aeolian–fluvial depositional systems indicates that an arid climate prevailed, periodically recharged by surface flooding and groundwater. Within each cycle, the arid episode is characterized by the formation of extensive aeolian deflation surfaces and subsequently by aeolian-dune construction and accumulation. Short-term arid episodes preserved only thin accumulations of aeolian deposits. During humid episode, fluvial flooding into the margins of aeolian dune fields occurred. Such flooding might have occasionally extended into dune-field interiors, resulting in the formation of distinctive flood surfaces (*sensu* Langford and Chan, 1988). This is recorded by the presence of widespread tabular ephemeral fluvial deposits and damp and wet interdunes, which are comparable to those examples of fluvial incursions into aeolian dune fields associated

with variable groundwater levels. The resulting dry-wet cycles in the aeolian–fluvial interaction system are a direct indicator of basin-scale climate variability, which dominates the development, expansion and contraction of erg-margin depositional systems. In addition, the rate of tectonic subsidence dictates the preservation of the overall sedimentary stratal architecture (Howell and Mountney, 1997; Mountney et al., 1999; Cosgrove et al., 2022). The presence of wet interdunes and relatively thick sedimentary cycles in the third type of fluvial–aeolian interaction possibly indicates a relatively rapid subsidence rate, which facilitates the accumulation and preservation of sedimentary successions into stratigraphic record. This is similar to other examples, such as the Piauí Formation (Kifumbi et al., 2022).

The Chaling fluvial–aeolian depositional system is characterized by alternating ephemeral fluvial channels and aeolian deposits. They display similarities to the Permian Cutler Group of the Paradox Basin (Langford and Chan, 1989; Mountney and Jagger, 2004; Jordan and Mountney, 2010; Cain and Mountney, 2011), the Lower Jurassic Kayenta and Navajo Sandstone formations on the Colorado Plateau (Herries, 1993; Hassan et al., 2018), and the Lower Cretaceous Twyfelfontein Formation of the Huab Basin (Mountney et al., 1998, 1999), in which periodic flooding led to erosion of aeolian deposits and variable groundwater levels. Damp and wet interdune deposits and drying- or wetting-upwards cycles bounded by flood surfaces and sand-drift surfaces developed in these units. The variations in depositional styles reflect climatic and tectonic controlling mechanisms. The main difference among these basins is that the Permian Cutler Group and the Lower Jurassic Kayenta and Navajo Sandstone

formations developed in a foreland basin setting, whereas the Upper Cretaceous Daijiaping Formation accumulated in a rift environment. All record basin-scale tectono-stratigraphic architectural relationship.

6.4. Implications for East Asian paleoclimate and paleogeography

The Cretaceous in South China Block is characterized by large-scale taphrogeny and magmatism, generating significant extensional basins and igneous provinces (Li et al., 2014b, 2019, 2020). Some models propose a notable distinct compression event during the early Late Cretaceous (100–89 Ma) (Charvet et al., 2013; Yang, 2013; Song et al., 2015) and the formation of the Cathaysian coastal mountains along the South China margin by crustal thickening (Chen, 2000; Yang, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018; Suo et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2021). This compressional event is also evidenced by the occurrence of significant westward provenance in the Danxia, Hengyang and Yuanma hinterland basins (Yan et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2020), which is also recorded in the Chaling alluvial deposits (Fig. 2). Simultaneously, some salars (saline lakes) and aeolian deserts developed in the intermontane basins at the South China margin (Fig. 19). The tectonic and paleoenvironmental characteristics indicate an Andean-type continental margin (Suo et al., 2019). The altitudes of the salars of Atacama, Uyuni and Hombre Muerto in the Andean Plateau of South America are 2300 m, 3663 m and 3970 m, respectively (López-Steinmetz et al., 2018). Salar in the coastal mountain ranges along the East Asian continental margin could have developed at a comparable paleoelevation.

The extensive aeolian desert depositional systems in South China were constructed

and preserved during the Late Cretaceous; the uplifts along the East Asian margin caused the rain-shadow effect and led to the desertification in the South China hinterland combined with sub-tropical highs in the middle and low latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere (Fig. 19), as supported by the divergent paleowind pattern recorded in the aeolian cross-bedded sandstones (Fig. 2). Furthermore, monsoonal water or meltwater discharge carried extra-formational clasts into receiving desert basins and led to variations in the groundwater level, characteristic of dry and wet aeolian dune-field margin systems (Fig. 16). Periodic water influx to the Late Cretaceous Chaling desert margins created a cyclic aeolian–fluvial interaction system (Figs. 17, 18). Overall, the formation and development of Late Cretaceous aeolian desert systems in East Asia reflects the entanglement of subtropical highs, epi- and intra-continental orogeny, and variable groundwater level controlled by a monsoon climate and ongoing tectonic basin subsidence.

7. Conclusions

The Upper Cretaceous Daijiaping Formation exposed in the Chaling Basin of southeast China can be subdivided into two distinct sedimentary units on the basis of sedimentological and facies architectural analyses. The base of this formation consists of (i) pebble-cobble conglomerate and sandstone of streamflow origin accumulated in fluvial channels, and (ii) sand to clay sheetflow deposits and floodplain deposits, all associated with a wadi system that drained from the highland to the east. This succession is overlain by a unit of mixed aeolian and fluvial origin that records simple and compound crescentic aeolian dunes and aeolian sandsheets, deposits of which occur

interbedded with restricted channelized bedload stream and cobble-sand sheetflow deposits. In addition, deflation lags, desert pavements, aeolian pods, and damp and wet interdunes developed in this unit.

The alternating activity of wind and water resulted in the vertically repeating occurrences of these facies associations. Aeolian deflation of the water-lain sediments is recorded by the presence of deflation lags and desert pavements. Sudden water influxes eroded and reworked aeolian dunes and sandsheets and produced aeolian pods. The presence of damp and wet interdunes records fluctuations of the phreatic water-table level. Two hypotheses are proposed to explain the presence of sudden water influxes into the Chaling erg-margin system: monsoonal water discharge and meltwater fluxes from the eastern highland to the desert margin system. Through the entire aeolian–fluvial unit, numerous wetting-upward cycles are identified. The abrupt nature of transitions between different facies associations and the presence of erosive surfaces (flood surfaces and sand-drift surfaces) together indicate climate-controlled variations in the relative water-table position, sand availability, sediment supply, aeolian and fluvial transport capacity. Cycle preservation indicates the long-term relative rise of the groundwater level as a consequence of long-term fault-driven basin subsidence.

Aeolian and fluvial deposition in this erg-margin sedimentary system was dominantly controlled by the climate. Tectonic subsidence enabled the long-term preservation of the accumulated succession. The presence of extensively developed aeolian desert depositional systems in East Asia during the Late Cretaceous is the result of the regional climate; their long-term preservation is enabled by tectonic basin

subsidence associated with paleo-Pacific Plate subduction and rollback.

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Figure captions

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Inversely graded laminae in the large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). (C) and (D) Distinct poikilotopic calcite cementation in the aeolian sandstones. Cal, calcite.

Fig. 10. (A) and (B) Inversely graded aeolian grainflow strata in the large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). (C) and (D) Massive grainflow deposits bounded by pin-stripe lamination (white arrows) in the trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)).

Fig. 11. (A) Large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) interbedded with low-angle cross-bedded cobble to pebble conglomerates (Gch). (B) Close-up of (A). Distinct grainflow strata (gf) can be observed in the trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). (C) Matrix-supported conglomerates (Gmd) are interbedded with trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). Normal grading occurs in the conglomerates. These trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) are bounded by flat sand-drift surfaces and flood surfaces. (D) Granule lags develop along the bounding surface. (E) Close-up of (D). (F) Scattered pebbles occur in the toesets of aeolian dune cross-strata. Scale: the geologist is 1.7 m long; the diameter of the camera lens cap is 7.7 cm.

Fig. 12. (A) Field photograph and (B) line drawing of large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) interbedded with low-angle cross-bedded cobble to pebble conglomerates (Gch). Aeolian pods (remnants of aeolian dunes) show sharp contact, a flat base (sand-drift surface) and an erosional top surface (upper erosive flood surface). Superimposition and reactivation surfaces are developed in the trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). Geologist for scale is 1.7 m tall.

Fig. 13. (A) Field photograph and (B) line drawing of large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) intercalated with matrix-supported cobble to pebble conglomerates

(Gmd). Lenticular muddy sandstones (Ss) interfinger with the toeset of the overlying trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). Superimposition and reactivation surfaces in the trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) are abundant. These aeolian dune deposits are bounded by sand-drift and flood surfaces. Geologist for scale is 1.7 m tall.

Fig. 14. (A) Large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) interbedded with low-angle cross-bedded cobble to pebble conglomerates (Gch). Reactivation surfaces in the aeolian dune cross-strata are dominant. (B) Close-up of (A). Lenticular sandstones (Ss) show an intertonguing with the toeset of the overlying trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). Geologist for scale is 1.7 m tall.

Fig. 15. (A) Large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) are covered by thick low-angle cross-bedded cobble to pebble conglomerates (Gch). Aeolian pods are preserved in the water-lain sandy conglomerates. (B) and (C) Alternating very fine-grained sandstones (Sm) and silty mudstones (Fl) show an intertonguing with the toeset of the overlying aeolian dune cross-strata. (D) and (E) Mud gravels and pebble and cobble deflation lags occur at the base of the overlying trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). The hammer is 38 cm long.

Fig. 16. Depositional model of the aeolian desert system for the Chaling Basin during deposition of the Daijiaping Formation. Spatial and temporal distribution of different facies associations is shown. Based on the analysis of these facies associations, alluvial system (A), dry aeolian system (B) and wet aeolian system (C) are identified.

Fig. 17. Stratigraphic model accounting for the facies succession and surface development in the aeolian–fluvial unit of the Daijiaping Formation. Variations in

aridity degree, sand supply and water table are indicated on the right.

Fig. 18. Correlation between facies associations, depositional surfaces, water table oscillations and basin subsidence in the fluvial–aeolian unit (cf. Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Jones et al., 2016). The alternating aeolian and fluvial deposits and the development of sand-drift and flood surfaces are interpreted as high-frequency fluctuations of the water table and sediment supply driven by climate change. The long-term relative water-table rise is associated with basin subsidence.

Fig. 19. Schematic geological map showing the spatial distribution of aeolian deposits, evaporites and calcretes in the Upper Cretaceous (Coniacian to Maastrichtian) terrestrial red beds in East Asia (modified from Xi et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2022). The location of coastal mountains refers to Tan et al. (2020). Jl, Jiayin Basin; Hl, Hailar Basin; Sl, Songliao Basin; El, Erlian Basin; Gb, Gobi Basin; Zg, Junggar Basin; Th, Tuha Basin; Kq, Kuqa Basin; Tr, Tarim Basin; Zl, Zoulang Basin; Jq, Jiuquan Basin; Xn-Lz, Xining-Lanzhou Basin; Or, Ordos Basin; Jl, Jiaolai Basin; Nh, Nanhua Basin; Hf, Heifei Basin; Sb, Subei Basin; Sc, Sichuan Basin; Js, Jianshi Basin; Jh, Jianghan Basin; Xj, Xinjiang Basin; Ym, Yuanma Basin; Hy, Hengyang Basin; Cl, Chaling Basin; Jt, Jitai Basin; Gz, Ganzhou Basin; Hc, Huichang Basin; Nx, Nanxiong Basin; Dx, Danxia Basin; Ss, Sanshui Basin; Cx, Chuxiong Basin; Lp-Sm, Lanping-Sima Basin.

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1377 **Table captions**

1378 **Table 1** Cretaceous stratigraphic sequences of the Chaling Basin, South China. The
1379 subdivision of the Stage of the Upper Cretaceous is based on the study of Xi et al.
1380 (2019). The dashed line indicates a paraconformity. The shaded region indicates the
1381 stratigraphic succession examined as part of this study.

1382 **Table 2** Summary of lithofacies observed in the Daijiaping Formation.

1383 **Table 3** Facies associations identified in the Daijiaping Formation.

1384 **Table 4** Classification, feature and interpretation of ancient aeolian–fluvial interaction
1385 types.

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Figure captions

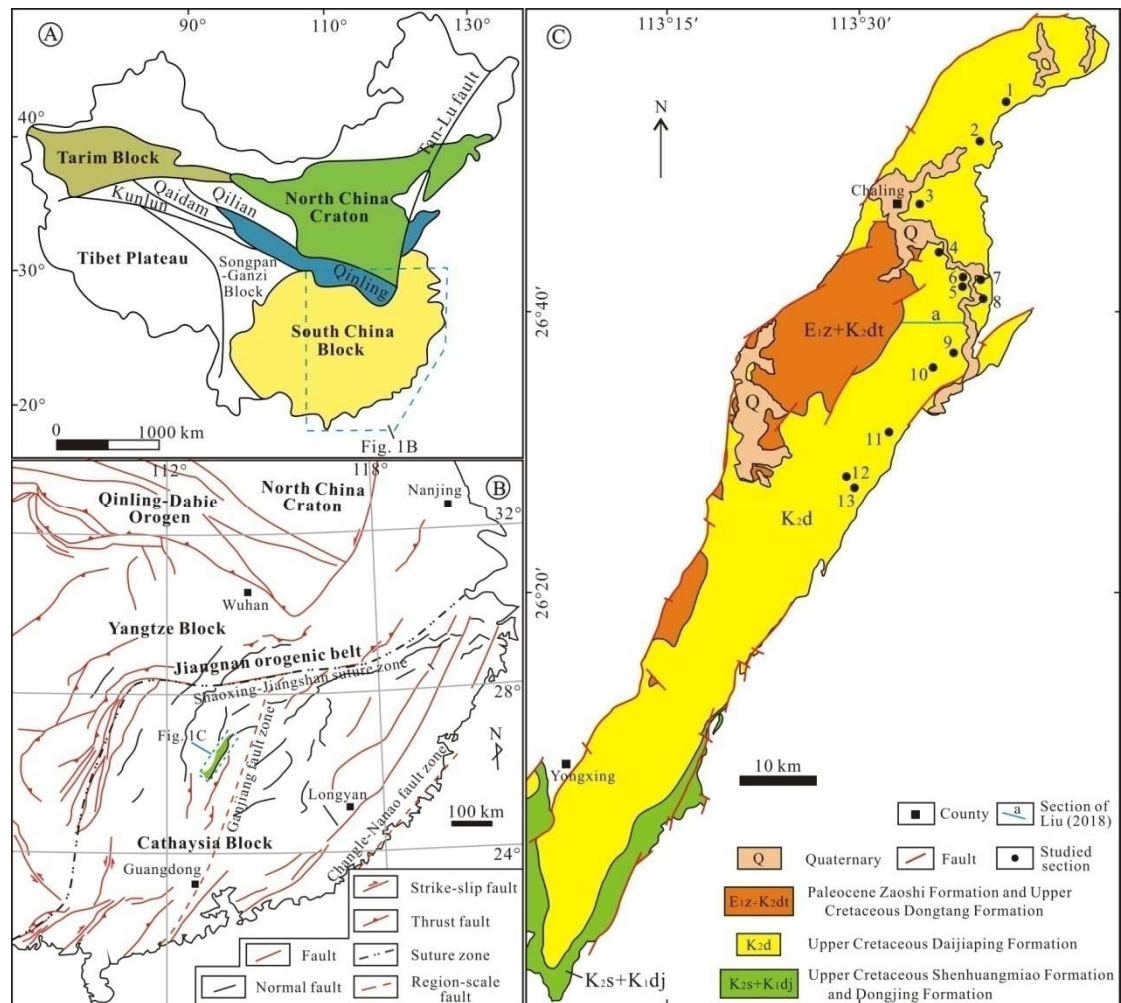


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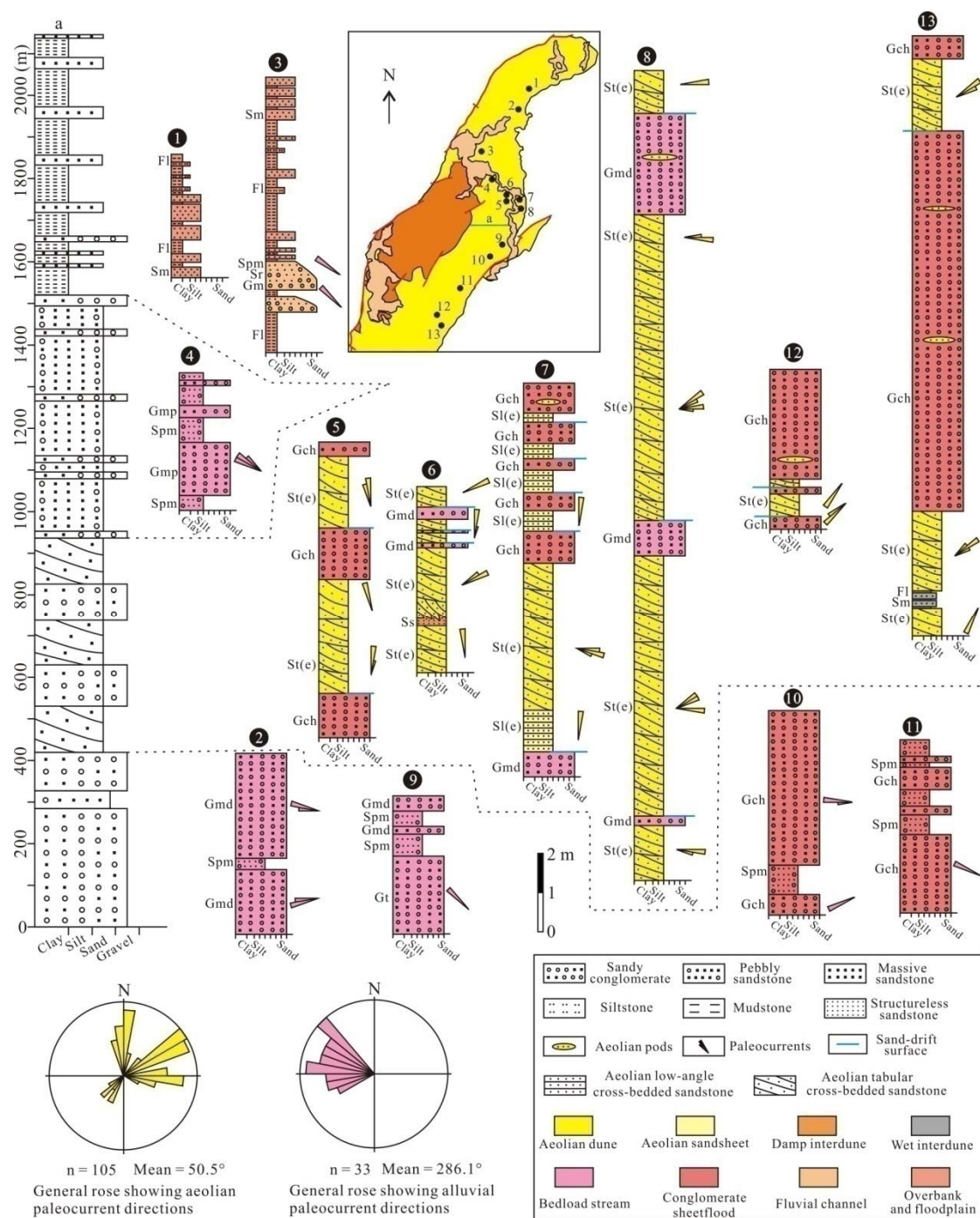


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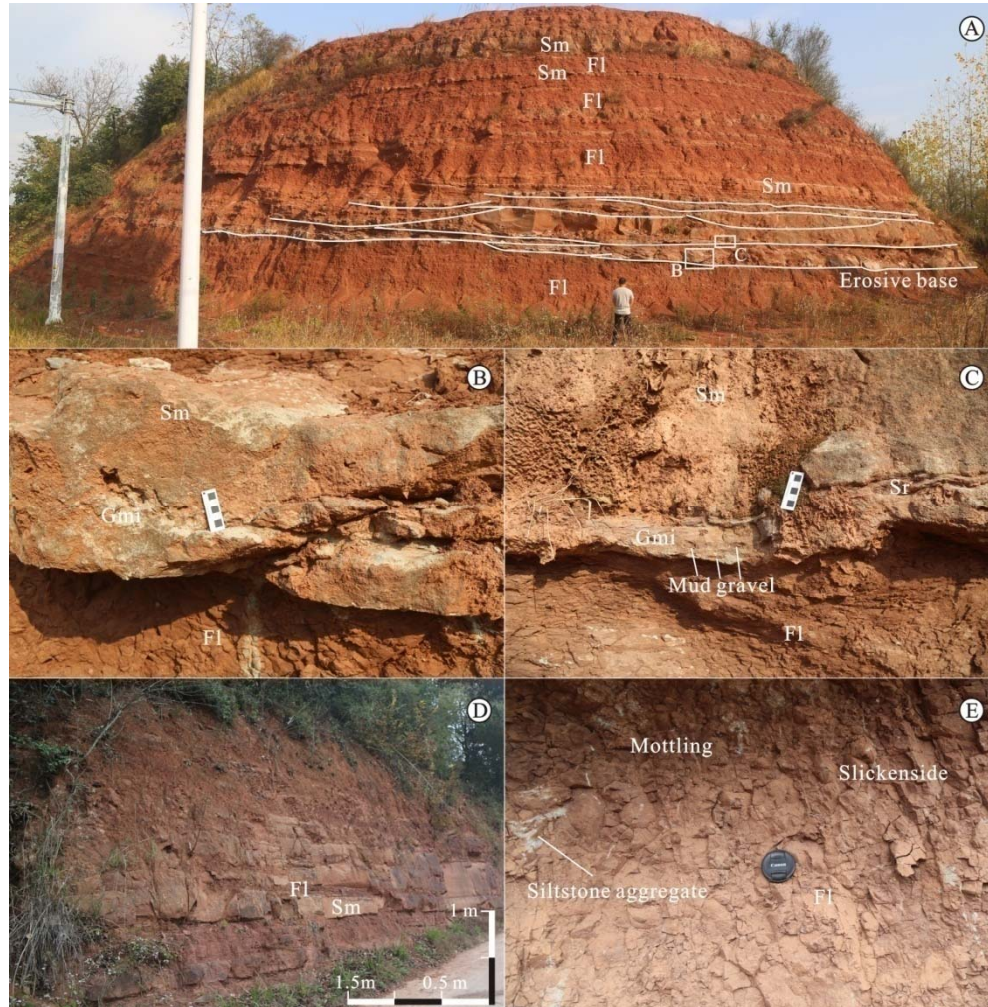


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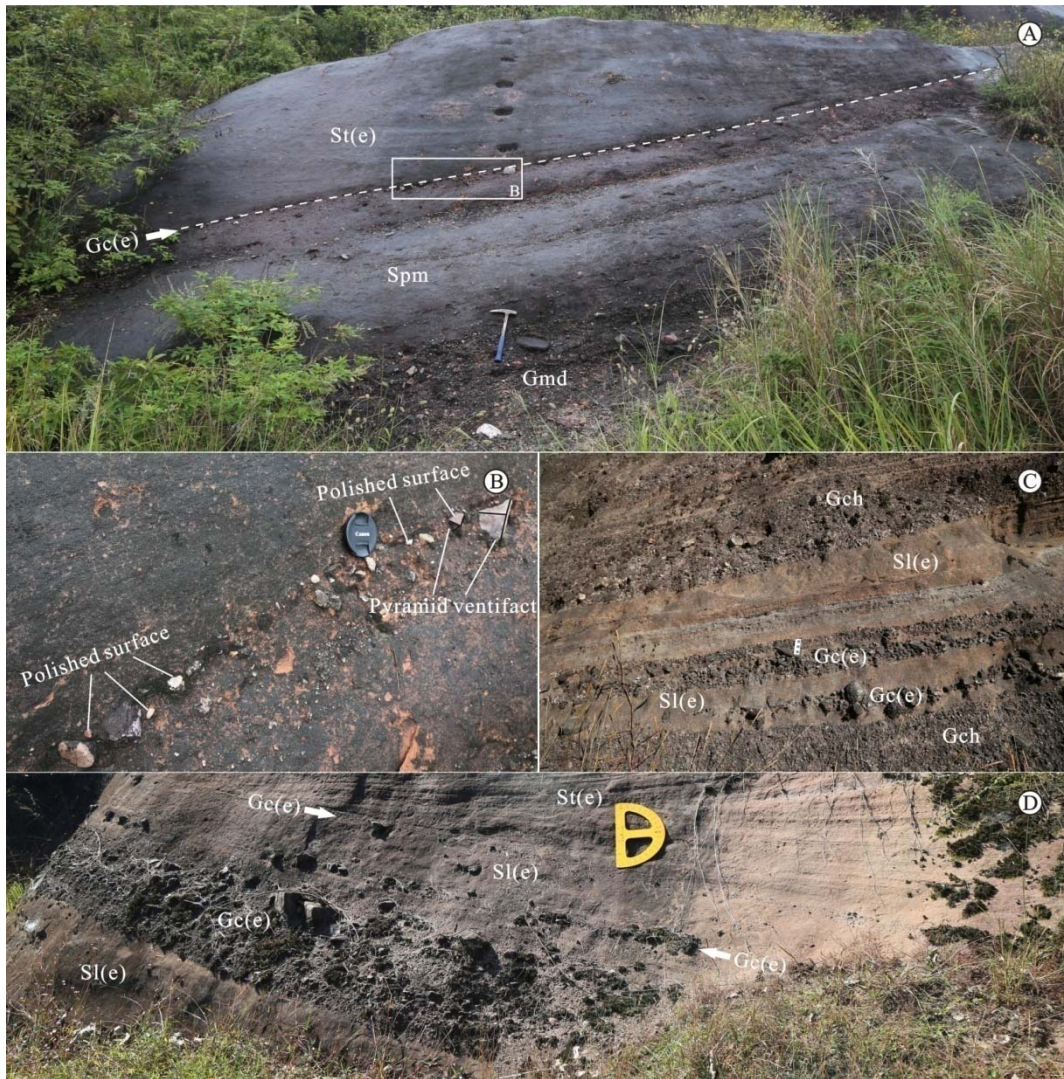


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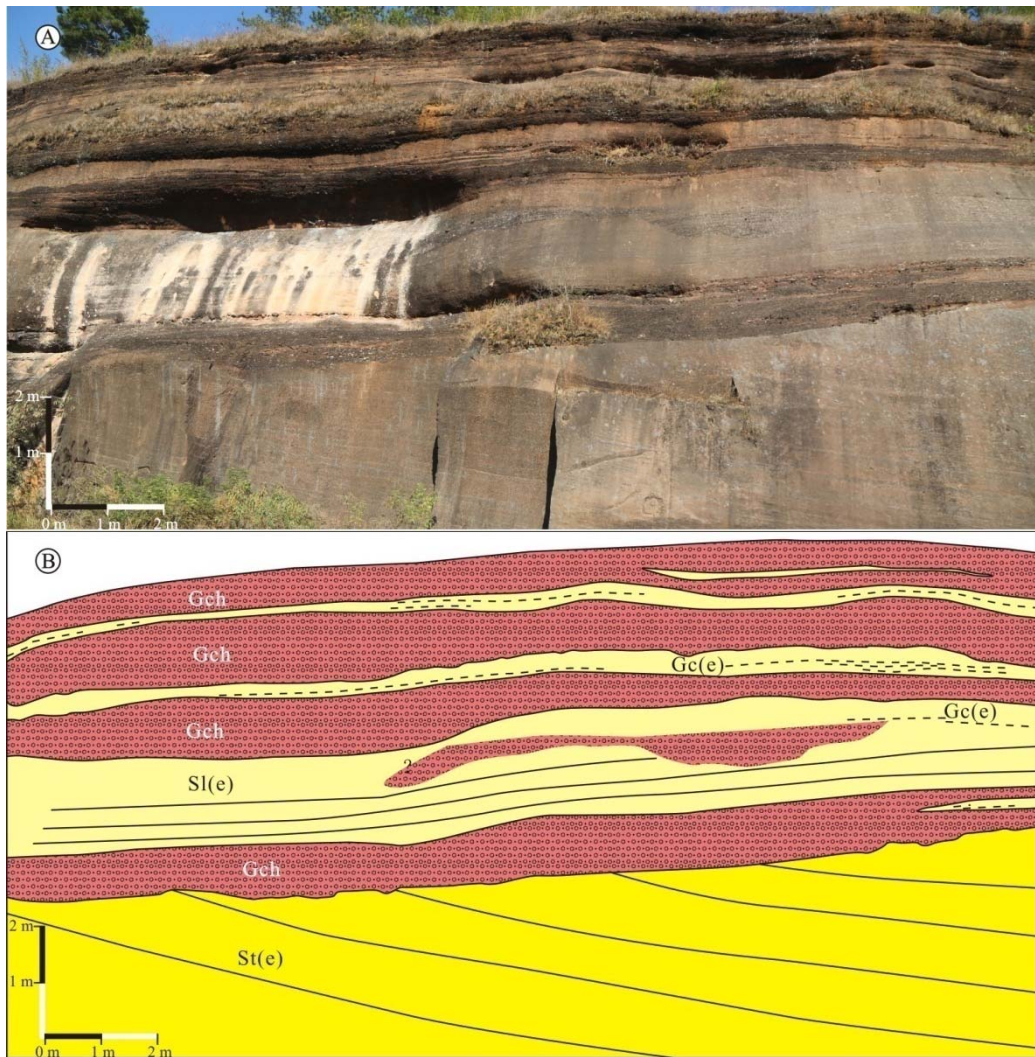


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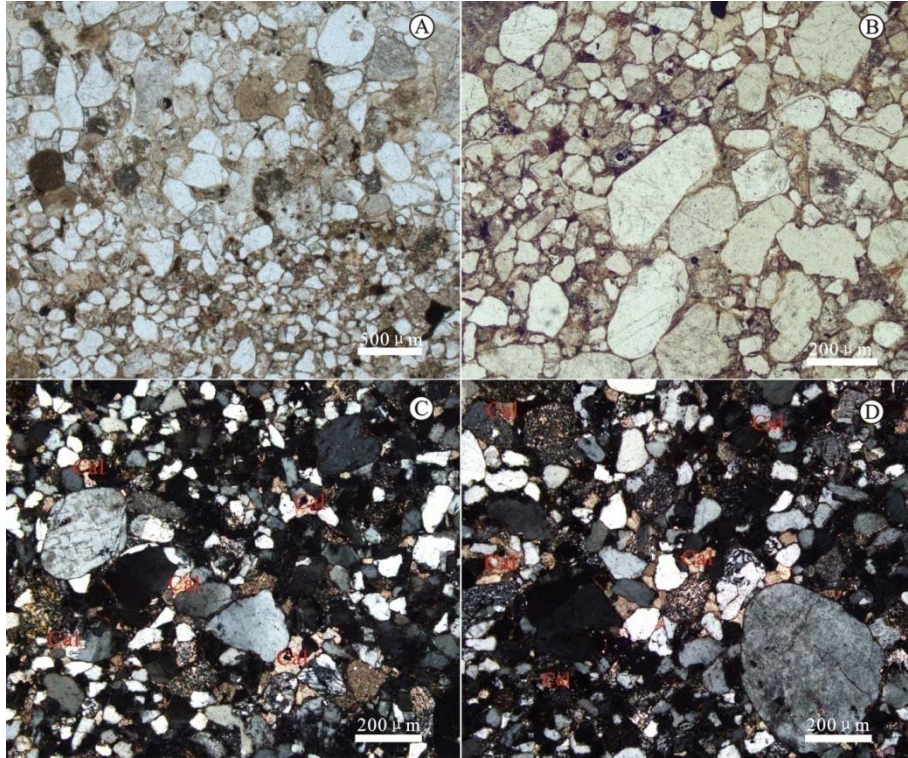


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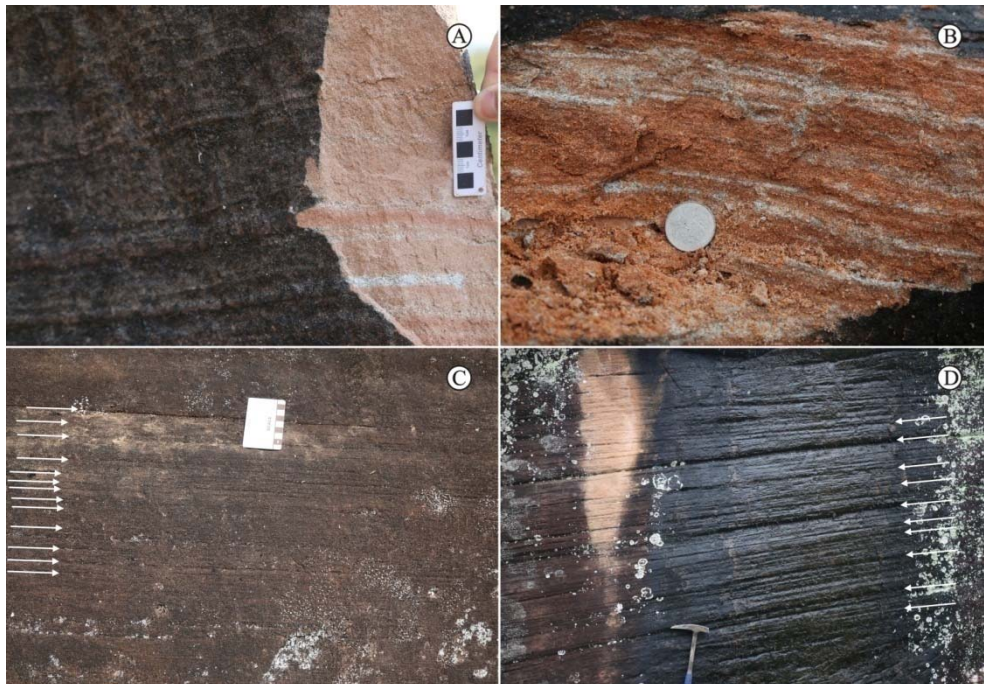


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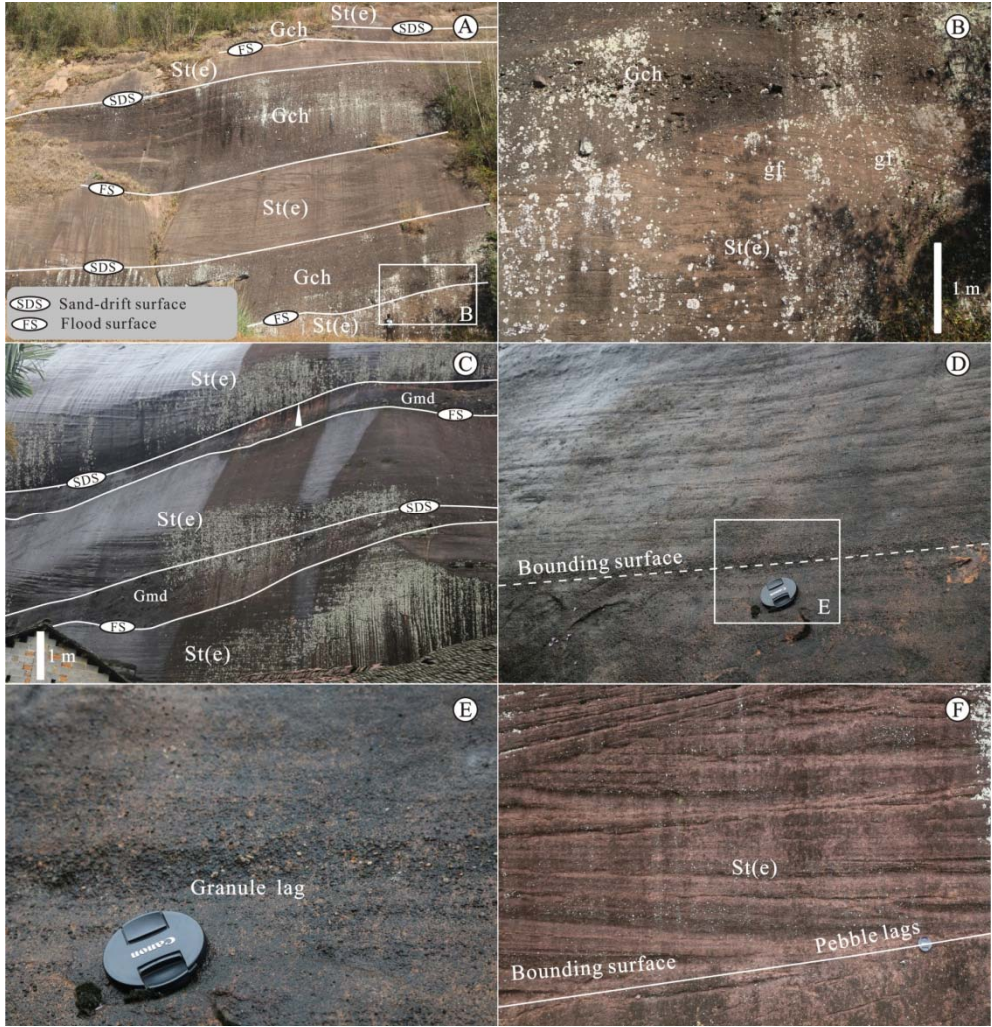


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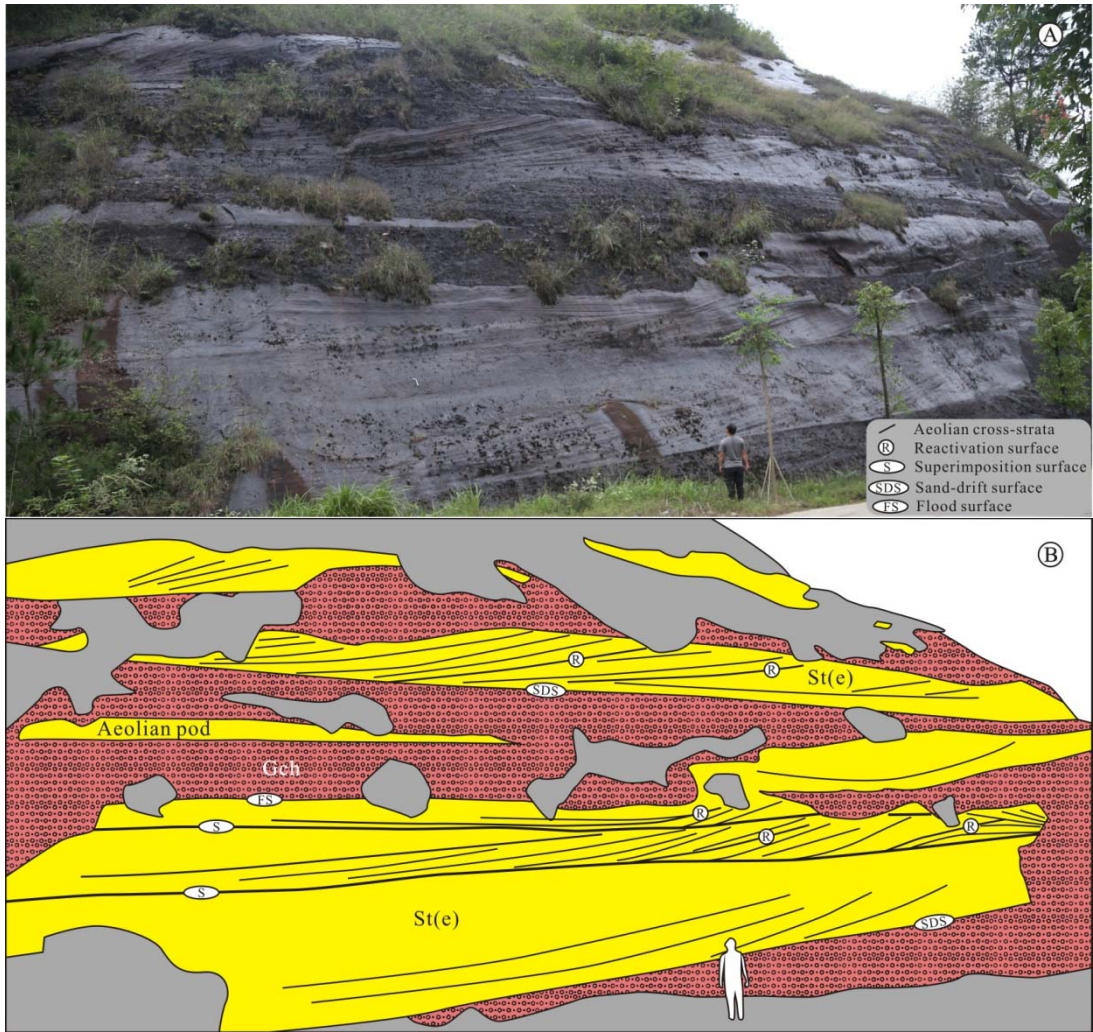


Fig. 12. (A) Field photograph and (B) line drawing of large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) interbedded with low-angle cross-bedded cobble to pebble conglomerates (Gch). Aeolian pods (remnants of aeolian dunes) show sharp contact, a flat base (sand-drift surface) and an erosional topsurface (upper erosive flood surface). Superimposition and reactivation surfaces are developed in the trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). Geologist for scale is 1.7 m tall.

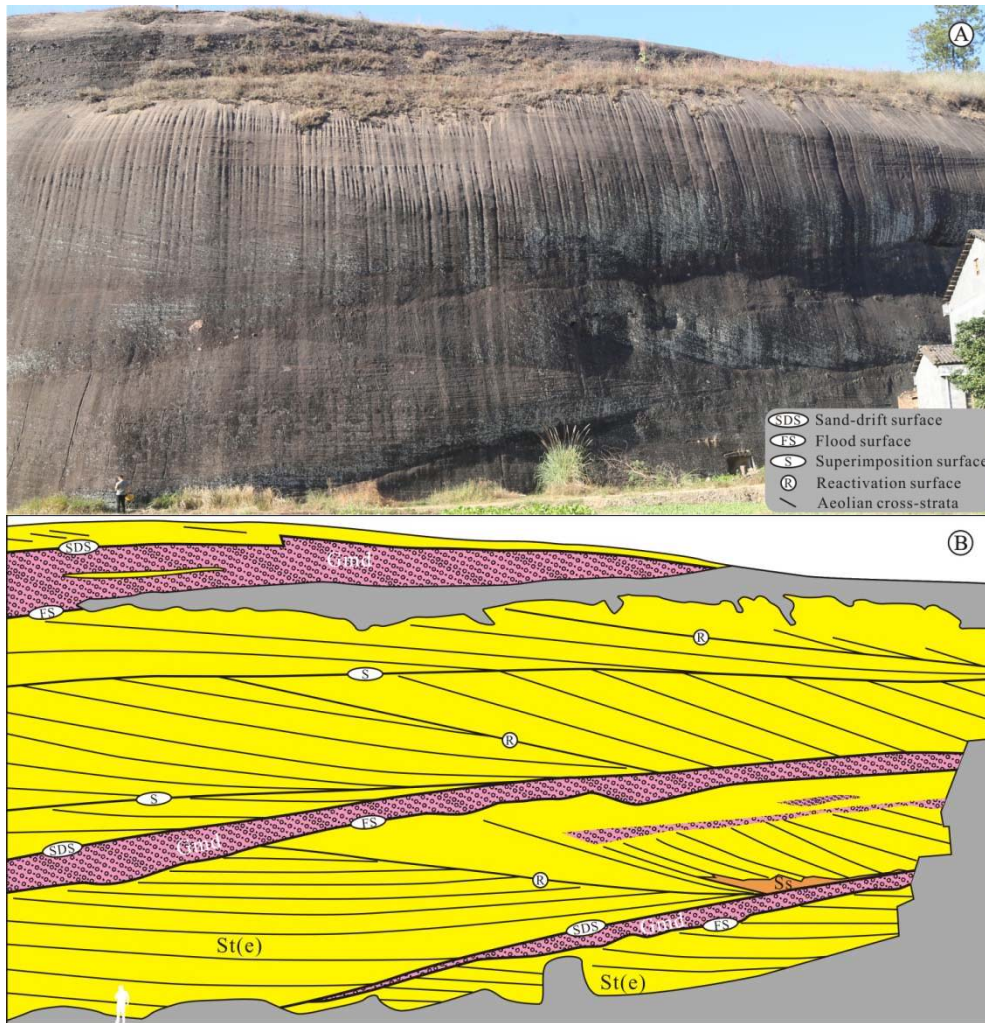


Fig. 13. (A) Field photograph and (B) line drawing of large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) intercalated with matrix-supported cobble to pebble conglomerates (Gmd). Lenticular muddy sandstones (Ss) interfinger with the toeset of the overlying trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). Superimposition and reactivation surfaces in the trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) are abundant. These aeolian dune deposits are bounded by sand-drift and flood surfaces. Geologist for scale is 1.7 m tall.



Fig. 14. (A) Large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) interbedded with low-angle cross-bedded cobbleto pebble conglomerates (Gch). Reactivation surfaces in the aeolian dune cross-strata are dominant. (B) Close-up of (A). Lenticular sandstones (Ss) show an intertonguing with the toeset of the overlying trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). Geologist for scale is 1.7 m tall.



Fig. 15. (A) Large-scale trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)) are covered by thick low-angle cross-bedded cobble to pebble conglomerates (Gch). Aeolian pods are preserved in the water-lain sandy conglomerates. (B) and (C) Alternating very fine-grained sandstones (Sm) and silty mudstones (Fl) show an intertonguing with the toeset of the overlying aeolian dune cross-strata. (D) and (E) Mud gravels and pebble and cobble deflation lags occur at the base of the overlying trough cross-bedded sandstones (St(e)). The hammer is 38 cm long.

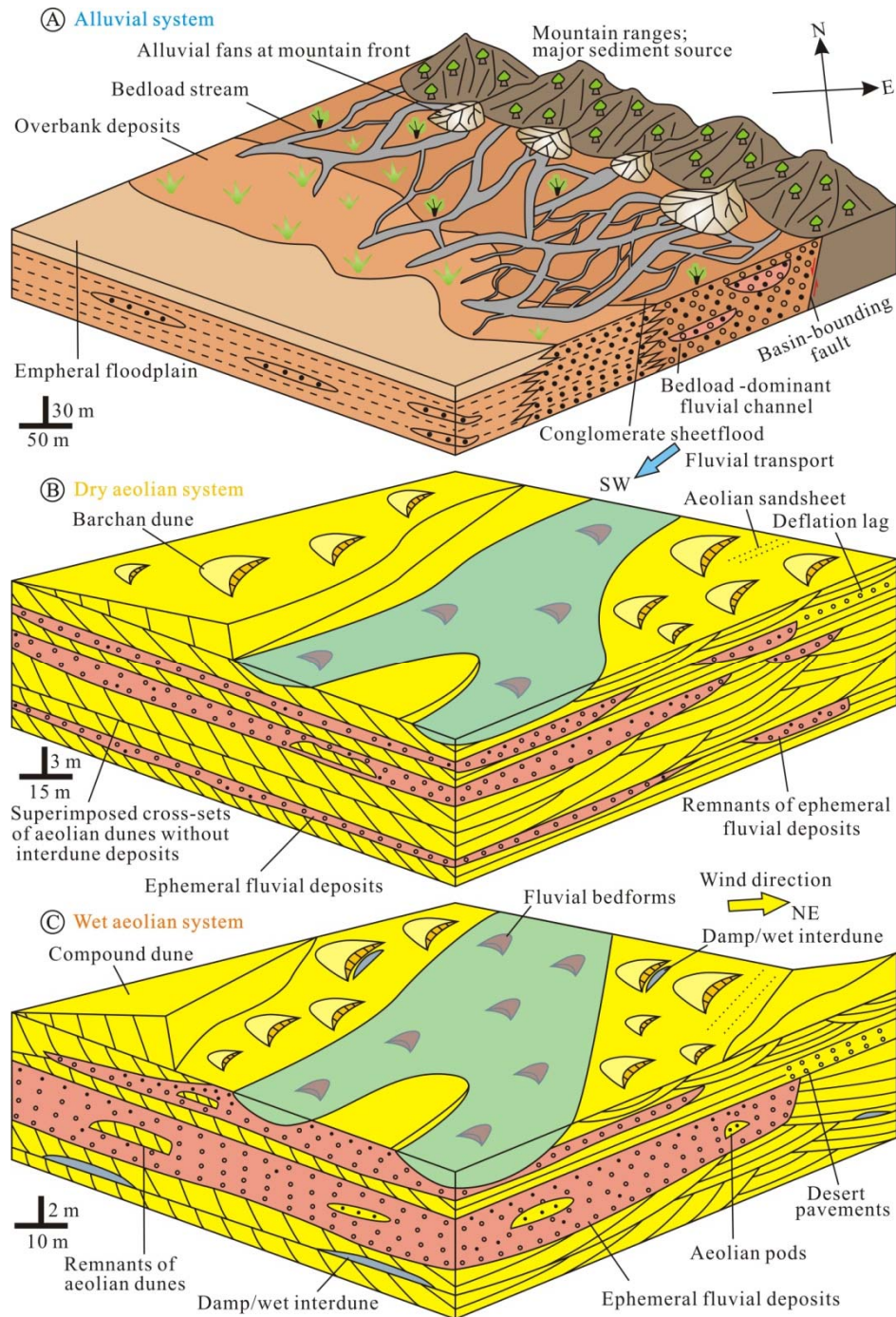


Fig. 16. Depositional model of the aeolian desert system for the Chaling Basin during deposition of the Daijiaping Formation. Spatial and temporal distribution of different facies associations is shown. Based on the analysis of these facies associations, alluvial system (A), dry aeolian system (B) and wet aeolian system (C) are identified.

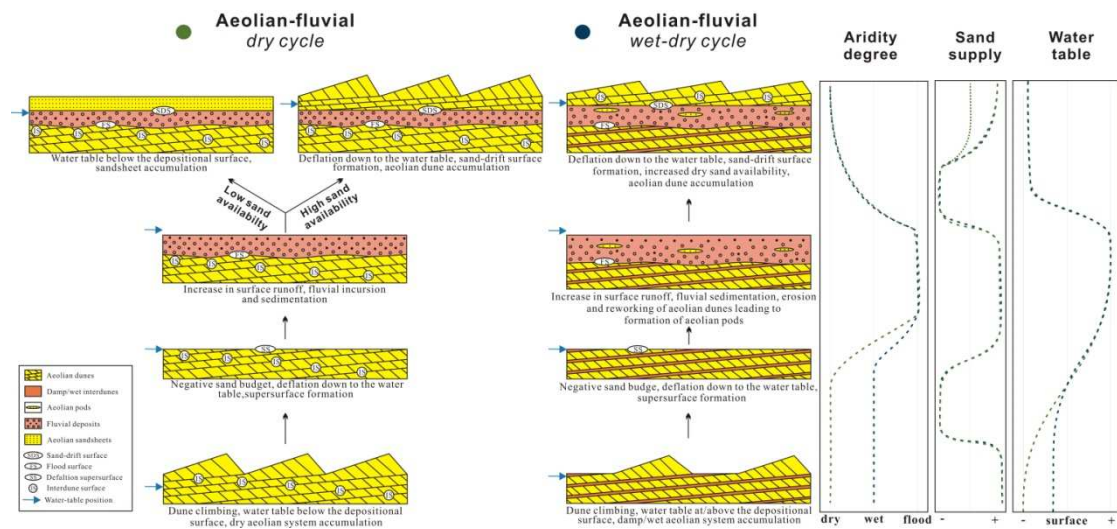


Fig. 17. Stratigraphic model accounting for the facies succession and surface development in the aeolian–fluvial unit of the Daijiaping Formation. Variations in aridity degree, sand supply and water table are indicated on the right.

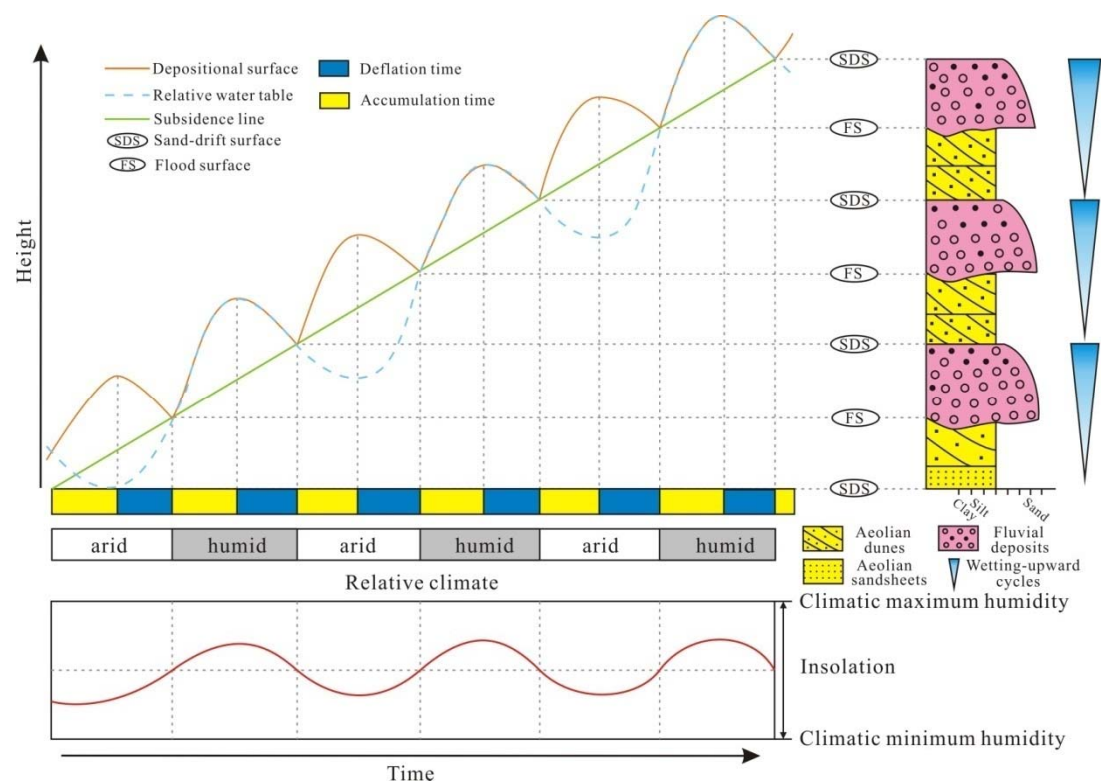


Fig. 18. Correlation between facies associations, depositional surfaces, water table oscillations and basin subsidence in the fluvial–aeolian unit (cf. Scherer and Lavina, 2005; Jones et al., 2016). The alternating aeolian and fluvial deposits and the

development of sand-drift and flood surfaces are interpreted as high-frequency fluctuations of the water table and sediment supply driven by climate change. The long-term relative water-table rise is associated with basin subsidence.

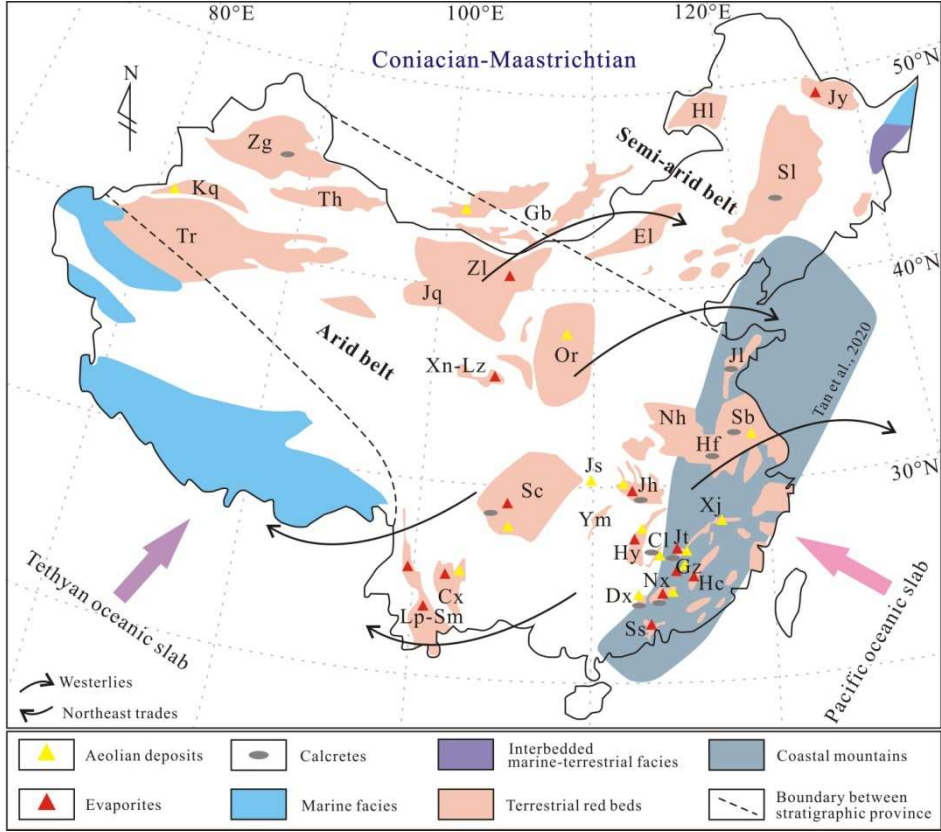


Fig. 19. Schematic geological map showing the spatial distribution of aeolian deposits, evaporites and calcretes in the Upper Cretaceous (Coniacian to Maastrichtian) terrestrial red beds in East Asia (modified from Xi et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2022). The location of coastal mountains refers to Tan et al. (2020). JI, Jiayin Basin; HI, Hailar Basin; SI, Songliao Basin; EI, Erlian Basin; GB, Gobi Basin; ZG, Junggar Basin; TH, Tuha Basin; KQ, Kuqa Basin; TR, Tarim Basin; ZL, Zoulang Basin; JQ, Jiuquan Basin; XN-LZ, Xining-Lanzhou Basin; OR, Ordos Basin; JI, Jiaolai Basin; NH, Nanhua Basin; HF, Heifei Basin; SB, Subei Basin; SC, Sichuan Basin; JS, Jianshi Basin; JH, Jiangnan Basin; XJ, Xinjiang Basin; YM, Yuanma Basin; HY, Hengyang Basin; CL,

1517 Chaling Basin; Jt, Jitai Basin; Gz, Ganzhou Basin; Hc, Huichang Basin; Nx, Nanxiong
1518 Basin; Dx, Danxia Basin, Ss, Sanshui Basin; Cx, Chuxiong Basin; Lp-Sm, Lanping-
1519 Simao Basin.
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1539 **Table captions**

1540 **Table 1** Cretaceousstratigraphic sequences of the Chaling Basin, South China. The subdivision of the Stage of the Upper Cretaceous is based on
1541 the study of Xi et al. (2019). The dashed line indicates a paraconformity. The shaded region indicates the stratigraphic succession examined as
1542 part of this study.

Series	Formation	Unit	Stage	Thickness (m)	Lithology	Facies association	Climate
Upper Cretaceous	Dongtang	K ₂ dt	Maastrichtian	779	Sandstone, siltstone and silty mudstone with conglomerate	Fluvial deposits	wet
	Daijiaping	K ₂ d	Campanian- Maastrichtian	2356	Conglomerate, quartz sandstone , siltstone and mudstone	Aeolian–fluvial deposits	dry
	Shenhuang shan	K ₂ s	Cenomanian- Campanian	1116	Muddy siltstone and silty mudstonewith conglomerate	Fluvial and lacustrine deposits	wet
Lower Cretaceous	Dongjing	K ₁ dj	Aptian-Albian	135–478	Conglomerate and sandy conglomerate with silty mudstone	Alluvial fan	wet

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Table 2 Summary of lithofacies observed in the Daijiaping Formation.

Facies code	Description	Interpretation
Gmd	Matrix to clast-supported, disorganized to poorly organized cobble and pebble conglomerate, subrounded to rounded, poorly sorted, granule to sand matrix, weak imbrication, erosional base, sheet-like or wedge-shaped units	Hyperconcentrated flood flow with high sediment load
Gmp	Matrix-supported, disorganized to moderately organized fine pebble and granule conglomerate, sand matrix, subrounded to rounded, moderately to well-sorted, weak imbrication, crudely stratified, ungraded or normally graded, erosional or irregular base, sheet-like units	Deposits of gravel sheets emplaced by high-magnitude flood flows.
Gmi	Matrix-supported, disorganized fine pebble and granule conglomerate with mud intraclasts, sand matrix, poorly sorted, subrounded to rounded, low-relief scouring base, overlain by ripple cross-bedded sandstone (Sr)	Channel lags caused by erosion of the basal channel or by channel bank collapse
Gct	Clast-supported, trough cross-bedded cobble and pebble conglomerate, granule to sand matrix, subrounded to rounded, normally graded, imbrication, sharp and low-relief scouring base	Migration of gravel bars with well-developed slipfaces
Gch	Clast-supported, planar or horizontal to low-angle cross-bedded cobble and pebble conglomerate, alternation of coarse and finer gravel or gravel-rich and sand-rich strata, subrounded to rounded, normally graded, imbrication, sheet-like units	Sediment-charged, upper-flow regime sheetflood
Gc(e)	Discrete limestone and quartzite pebbles and cobbles or decimeter-thick tabular clast-supported conglomerates with matrix of sand and granule, flat base and top surfaces	Long-lasting wind deflation of water-lain deposits and stacking of deflation lags.
St(e)	Very fine- to fine sandstone, well to very well-sorted, large-scale trough cross-bedding, presence of reactivation and superimposition surfaces, several meter to decameter-thick cross-sets formed by inversely graded foresets	Migration and climbing of aeolian dunes.
Sl(e)	Fine- to coarse sandstones, well-sorted, centimeter to several meter-thick tabular units, horizontal bedding or low angle cross-bedding, inverse grading	Migration and subcritical climbing of wind ripples on dry depositional surfaces.
Ss	Structureless sandstones arranged in lens-shape beds, an intertonguing with the toeset of the overlying trough cross-stratified sandstone	Deposition on a damp bounding surface where the capillary fringe of the groundwater level reached

		the depositional surface.
Spx	Fine sandstone, crudely planar cross-bedding, meter-thick tabular units, interbedded with matrix-supported fine pebble conglomerate (Gmp)	Migration of channel sand bars with well-developed slipfaces
Sr	Fine-grained sandstone, ripple cross-bedding, centimeter-thick lamination	Migration of ripple-scale bedforms
Spm	Fine sandstone (scattered pebbles), poorly to moderately sorted, presence of small pebbles, interbedded with matrix-supported small pebble conglomerate (Gmp) or clast-supported cobble and pebble conglomerate (Gmd)	Rapid deposition from sand-laden flows during waning flows
Sm	very fine- to fine massive sandstone, moderately sorted, decimeter-thick tabular units	Rapid deposition from subaqueous high-energy flows
Fl	Purple laminated or massive silty mudstones, irregular mottles, pedogenic slickensides	Deposition of suspended load in standing water

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1549 **Table 3** Facies associations identified in the Daijiaping Formation.

Facies associations	Lithofacies types	Sedimentary structures and geometry
FA-1: Bedload streamflow deposits	Gmd, Gmp, Gct, Spm, Spx	Tabular body or lens-shaped units with sharp erosive bases, fining-upward units
FA-2: Sheetflood deposits	Gch	Tabular intervals with flat or low-relief bases, normally graded
FA-3: Meandering fluvial channel deposits	Gmi, Sr, Sm, Fl	Fining-upward units, decimeter-thick tabular bodies with concave-up erosional bases
FA-4: Overbank flood and floodplain deposits	Sm, Fl	Fining-upward cycles, non-erosional bases
FA-5: Deflation lags/ Desert pavements	Gc(e)	Lineation of pebbles and cobbles or tabular bodies with ventifacts
FA-6: Aeolian sandsheet	Sl(e)	Inverse grading, wind-ripple lamination
FA-7: Aeolian dune	St(e)	Large-scale tangential tabular cross-strata, grainflow deposits
FA-8: Damp interdune	Ss	Structureless lenses
FA-9: Wet interdune	Sm, Fl	Tabular body, fining-upward cycles

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1551 **Table 4** Classification, feature and interpretation of ancient aeolian–fluvial interaction types.

Interaction type	Stratigraphic units	Facies associations	Depositional feature and interpretation	Size of cycles	References
Short-term aeolian–fluvial interaction	The Proterozoic Mancheral Quartzite, Pranhita-Godavari Vally, India	Aeolian sandsheets, in-channel coarse lag deposits, braid bars and proximal floodplain.	Aeolian deposits developed in the distal floodplain or inter-channel area. Accumulation of aeolian deposits was controlled by the architecture of the fluvial system.	10–30 cm thick wind-ripple strata	Chakraborty and Chaudhuri, 1993
	The Middle Proterozoic Eriksfjord Formation, southwest Greenland	Stream and channel deposits, ephemeral flash floods and wind ripple laminae.	Aeolian deposits occurred as drapes or continuous beds within fluvial deposits. The preservation of aeolian deposits was optimal in fluvial systems formed in a humid climate.	A few centimeters to 0.4 m thick wind ripple laminae	Tirsgaard and Øxnevad, 1998
	The Upper Silurian Tumblagooda Sandstone, western Australia	Aeolian sandsheets, small aeolian dunes, interdune ponds and braided fluvial deposits.	Mixed fluvial and aeolian sandsheet deposits were bounded by thick fluvial sandstones. Aeolian sandsheet deposits were dominated by the architecture of the fluvial system.	<2 m thick aeolian sandsheets and aeolian dunes	Trewin, 1993
	The Siluro-Devonian Swanshaw Sandstone Formation, SW Scotland	Aeolian sandsheets, small aeolian dunes, braided channels and floodplain, mudflat.	Aeolian deposits formed on the floodplain during dry periods. They were closely associated with the architecture of a semi-arid proximal alluvial plain.	0.02–0.1 m thick wind-ripple strata and 0.06–0.13 m thick aeolian dunes	Smith et al., 2006
	The Upper Cretaceous capping sandstone, Kaiparowits Basin, USA	Wind ripple laminae, small aeolian dunes and braided stream systems.	Aeolian deposits occurred as lamina at the top of fluvial bar deposits, and as small dunes located amid braided stream systems. The resulting change from fluvial to aeolian was a short-term shift to a more semi-arid to arid climate over a seasonal timeframe.	Thin wind-ripple strata and 0.3–1.2 m thick aeolian dunes	Simpson et al., 2008

Fluvial incursions into aeolian dune fields without elevated water-table level	The Upper Permian Dawlish Sandstone Formation, Wessex Basin, UK	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets and fluvial channels	The succession is represented by the alternating fluvial conglomerate and aeolian dune sandstone. The drying-wetting cycles developed. The variability of aeolian and fluvial sedimentary architecture was related to a local climatic change.	~2.6–6.2 m	Newell et al., 2001
	The Permian Brodick Beds, UK	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, dry interdunes, fluvial and lacustrine deposits.	The wetting- and drying-upward cycles developed. The sedimentary cycles reflected climatic oscillations.	~7–62 m	Clemmensen and Abrahamsen, 1983; Frederiksen et al., 1998
	The Upper Jurassic Sergi Formation, Recôncavo Basin, Brazil	Lacustrine mudstones, aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, ephemeral fluvial systems, braided channel belt deposits and sheetfloods.	The formation consists of three depositional sequences bounded by regional unconformities. The vertical changes between fluvial and aeolian depositional systems were caused by tectonic and climate factors.	~5–7 m	Scherer et al., 2007
	The Upper Jurassic Tianchihe Formation, Ningwu–Jingle Basin, China	Meandering fluvial channel, levee and overbank, aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, ephemeral fluvial channel, floodplain.	Small-scale drying-wetting cycles occurred in the erg systems. The vertical changes from fluvial to aeolian deposits indicated a local variation from relatively humid to arid conditions.	~1.4–21.7 m	Xu et al., 2019
	The Upper Jurassic–Lower Cretaceous	Distal floodflows, ephemeral fluvial	The fluvial facies was intertongued with aeolian deposits. The wetting-upward cycles resulted	5–14 m	Scherer and Lavina, 2005,

	GuaráFormation of the Paraná Basin, southern Brazil and Batoví Member, Norte Basin, Uruguay	channels, perennial braided fluvial channels aeolian dunes and aeolian sandsheets.	from erg expansion and contraction probably triggered by climatic changes.		2006; Amarante et al., 2019; Reis et al., 2019, 2022
	The Lower CretaceousSão Sebastião Formation, JatobáBasin, Brazil	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, sheet floods and ephemeral fluvial channels	Interactions between aeolian and fluvial systems are due to autocyclic influences related to seasonal climatic oscillations.	<4 m	Ferronato et al., 2019
Fluvial incursions into aeolian dune fields associated with elevated groundwater levels	The Pennsylvanian Piauí Formation, Parnaíba Basin, Brazil	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, dry to damp interdunes, fluvial channels, shoreface, shoreface-shelf transition, floodplains and lacustrine margin.	The formation recorded the deposition of aeolian, fluvial, lacustrine and shallow marine systems. The main controls on the sedimentation were attributed to glacio-eustasy and climate.	<13 m	Vieira and Scherer, 2017; Kifumbi et al., 2022
	The Permian Cutler Group, Paradox Basin, USA	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, wet interdunes, fluvial channels and sheetflood and overbank deposits.	Aeolian deposits occurred in the medial and distal parts of the succession. Fluvial deposits were intertongued with aeolian deposits. The drying-wetting cycles developed. Basin- and small-scale interaction types recorded region-wide, longer-term climatic variations and autocyclic flood events within the dune field, respectively.	<8 m (small-scale interaction types)	Langford and Chan, 1989; Mountney and Jagger, 2004; Jordan and Mountney, 2010; Cain and Mountney, 2011
	The Permian De La Cuesta Formation,	Aeolian dunes, dry and wet interdunes, aeolian	The formation is characterized by erg deposits interbedded with terminal alluvial fan deposits.	~2.5–37.5 m	Spalletti et al., 2010

Paganzo Basin, NW Argentina	sandsheets, mudflat and ephemeral fluvial deposits.	Alternating aeolian and ephemeral fluvial systems resulted from cyclical climatic changes.			
The Permian Upper Rotliegend Group, North Sea	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, dry/wet indunes, ephemeral fluvial deposits and playa and lacustrine deposits.	The relative dominance of water and winddeposition in this formation was a function of fluctuations in the discharge of ephemeral fluvial systems and changes in water table/playa level driven by a combination of climatic change and syndepositional tectonics.	~10–50 m	Ellis, 1993; Sweet, 1999	
The Triassic Helsby Sandstone Formation, UK	Aeolian dunes, dry/damp/wet indunes and minor fluvial channels	Downwind changes in the geometry and facies of the interdune units indicate periodic expansion and contraction of the interdunes in response to changes in the elevation of the groundwater table and episodic flooding.	<4 m	Mountney and Thompson, 2002	
The Triassic Ormskirk Sandstone, Irish Sea and UK	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, damp interdunes and fluvial channels, sheetflood and overbank deposits	The small aeolian deposits developed within a dominantly fluvial setting. The drying-upward units recorded climate-controlled variations in the groundwater table and episodic flooding.	<6 m	Cowan, 1993; Herries and Cowan, 1997	
The Lower Jurassic Kayenta and Navajo Sandstone formations, Colorado Plateau, USA	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, dry, damp and wet interdunes and braided and ephemeral fluvial deposits.	Three distinct fluvial–aeolian cycles with many subordinated ones were recognized. These large-scale interaction types reflected allogenic control. Small-scale interactions resulted from interdunal flooding during periods of erg activity.	20 m on average	Herries, 1993; Hassan et al., 2018; Priddy and Clarke, 2020	
The Upper Jurassic	Fluvial channels,	The vertical transition from fluvial to aeolian	~4–18 m	Veiga and	

Quebrada del Sapo Formation, Neuquén Basin, Argentina	sheetfloods, distal ephemeral fluvial systems, aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets and dry and wet interdunes.	deposits reflected a local climatic change or a lowering of the water table during periods of low sea level.		Spalletti, 2007; Spalletti and Veiga, 2007
The Lower Cretaceous Twyfelfontein Formation, Huab Basin, northwest Namibia	Ephemeral fluvial channels, sheetfloods, aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets and dry and damp interdunes.	The drying-wetting cycles developed. The vertical transition from ephemeral fluvial to aeolian units recorded climate or subsidence controlled fluctuations on the groundwater level relative to the depositional surface.	5–10 m	Mountney et al., 1998, 1999
The Upper Cretaceous Candeleros Formation, Neuquén Basin, Argentina	Aeolian dunes, wet interdunes, channelized and non-channelized fluvial deposits	The vertical fluvial–aeolian interaction units represent the contraction/expansion of an erg-margin system as a result of variations of the water table position to climatic conditions.	~2–21 m	Mayoral et al., 2021
The Upper Cretaceous Barun Goyot Formation, Gobi Basin, Mongolia	Aeolian dunes, wet interdunes, intermittent streams,	The succession was deposited under conditions of hot and semi-arid climate. The drying-wetting cycles recorded climate controlled variations in the water level.		Gradzinski and Jerzykiewicz, 1974
The Upper Cretaceous Daijiaping Formation, Chaling Basin, China	Aeolian dunes, aeolian sandsheets, damp and wet interdunes, bedload streamflows, fluvial channels, sheetfloods and floodplains.	The distinct fluvial–aeolian interaction system was recognized. The wetting-upwards cycles developed. The vertical stacking of fluvial and aeolian deposits bounded by erosive supersurfaces reflected the contraction and expansion of erg-margin systems in response to climate changes.	0.4–14.2 m	This study

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