

11-26-2012

Variability of Pennsylvanian-Permian Carbonate Associations and Implications for NW Pangea Palaeogeography, East-Central British Columbia, Canada

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36 5,943 Words, 72 References, 1 Table, 10 Figures

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39 Abstract

40 Different stages of Pennsylvanian-Permian carbonate sedimentation in east-central
41 British Columbia record a complex history of changing environments influenced by
42 evolving palaeogeography and climate. Newly recognized tectonically controlled features
43 affected the distribution and variability of carbonate associations, providing new
44 interpretations for this portion of the west coast of Pangea. Both a heterozoan (cool-
45 water) and photozoan (warm-water) association were identified on either side of a
46 palaeogeographic high here informally termed “Tipinahokan Peninsula”. Cool water
47 carbonates were located outboard, or to the west of this high, an area influenced by
48 upwelling waters. Inboard of this high, a warm, protected sea developed, here termed
49 “Kisosowin Sea”. This configuration and palaeolatitude is similar to that of Baja
50 California, Mexico and the Sea of Cortéz, providing a good modern analog for these
51 deposits where warm water carbonates grow at latitudes otherwise dominated by cool
52 water deposits. The warm sea provided a place for a photozoan association to develop
53 during the Permian when the low latitude NW coast of Pangea was dominated by cool
54 water carbonates.

55

56 Key Words: Palaeoclimate, carbonate associations, western Pangea, ocean circulation,
57 Pennsylvanian, Permian, upwelling, biostratigraphy.

58

59 Pennsylvanian-Permian strata in east-central British Columbia, western Canada,
60 consist of carbonate rocks with a small siliciclastic component and are predominantly
61 skeletal wackestone and packstone (Bamber & Macqueen 1979). Localized occurrences
62 of grainstone and boundstone that record warm water carbonate deposition also occur in
63 the eastern and southern portion of the area. This occurrence is unusual because it is
64 present in an area that is otherwise dominated by cool water limestone, dolostone and
65 phosphatic siltstone. This aspect of western Pangean sedimentation has not been
66 addressed in previous studies (Bamber & Macqueen 1979; McGugan & Rapson-
67 McGugan 1976). This paper explains the anomalous occurrence of these warm water
68 carbonates by the emergence of a Late Pennsylvanian topographic high that separated and
69 protected a warm inland sea to the east from a significantly cooler open ocean affected by
70 upwelling to the west.

71 Pennsylvanian and Lower Permian carbonate reefs and mounds typical of tropical to
72 sub-tropical settings have been well documented in the Western United States and the
73 Canadian Arctic (Davies *et al.* 1989; Beauchamp & Desrochers 1997; Morin *et al.* 1994;
74 Wahlman 2002). The Pennsylvanian-Permian basins of the western U.S. were located
75 near the palaeo-equator where warm shallow water prevailed (Blakey 2008). At higher
76 latitudes, tropical to sub-tropical seas also developed, such as in the Sverdrup Basin of
77 the Canadian Arctic, an area that was bathed by warm waters originating from the
78 Tethyan Ocean prior to the closure of the Uralian seaway (Reid *et al.* 2007). The reef-
79 building organism *Palaeoaplysina*, as well as colonial rugose corals and calcareous green
80 algae have been documented in British Columbia (Bamber & Macqueen 1979). These

81 fossils form a photozoan biotic association, which is typical of shallow warm water
82 tropical-like conditions (James 1997).

83 This paper documents the facies variability of Pennsylvanian-Lower Permian
84 carbonates in east-central British Columbia focusing on differences in biotic associations
85 and other sedimentological attributes. Such differences are often attributed to climate
86 change over time (e.g. Beauchamp 1994). However, this study shows that distinctive
87 warm and cool water shallow water shelf deposits accumulated at the same time while
88 remaining unaffected by the major climatic shift that occurred across the Asselian-
89 Sakmarian boundary associated with the thawing of Gondwana glaciers. We here present
90 an alternative interpretation whereby the significant difference in carbonate associations
91 is explained by the existence of a protected sea that allowed warm water carbonates to
92 grow in the western portion of the Peace River Basin. The name Kisosowin Sea
93 (Kisosowin means “warm” in Cree) is here informally ascribed to this palaeogeographic
94 feature. The Kisosowin Sea was protected by a Late Pennsylvanian-Early Permian
95 topographic high, herein termed the Tipinahokan Peninsula (Tipinahokan means “shelter
96 from the cold” in Cree), that acted as a barrier sheltering the area of warm water
97 sedimentation to the east from an area cooled by upwelling to the west.

98

99

Geological Setting

Study Area and Methods

101 Pennsylvanian-Permian strata from the westernmost portion of the Western Canada
102 Sedimentary Basin (WCSB) crop out in a NW-SE trending belt in eastern British

103 Columbia and western Alberta. This study focuses on outcrops in map sheets 93I, P, O
104 and 94B where the succession is relatively well exposed in a series of Laramide thrust
105 sheets of the Rocky Mountains (Fig. 1). The eight measured sections include Peck
106 Creek, Mountain Creek, Watson Peak, Mount Palsson, Mount Crum, Fellers Creek,
107 Mount Cornock and Ganoid Ridge. In addition to new outcrop data collected in 2009 and
108 2010, our study incorporates published field descriptions of Bamber & Macqueen (1979)
109 and McGugan & Rapson-McGugan (1976). Mountain Creek and Fellers Creek, which are
110 the most complete sections we measured, are described in greater detail. Exploration
111 wells are also used for correlation to the eastern Peace River Basin where the
112 biostratigraphy and sedimentology is better understood.

113 In total, 116 conodont samples and 203 thin sections were processed from the eight
114 measured sections. This paper relies on biostratigraphic data and age interpretations
115 outlined in Zubin-Stathopoulos (2011). Facies analysis was conducted using thin
116 sections, cut slabs, outcrop photographs and field notes. Standard procedures for
117 petrographic analysis were used for identifying and imaging carbonate constituents.
118 Gamma readings were taken at Fellers Creek, Mountain Creek, Ganoid Ridge, Watson
119 Peak, Mount Crum and Mount Palsson using a hand held scintillometer. The carbonate
120 classification scheme of Dunham (1962) is used as well as modifiers for carbonate
121 associations including the terms “photozoan” and “heterozoan” to qualify the
122 environmental controls (temperature, nutrients, etc.) of carbonate constituents (James
123 1997). In addition, assemblages specific to late Palaeozoic biota (bryonoderm,
124 bryonoderm-extended) were used (Beauchamp 1994).

125

126 *Stratigraphic Setting*

127 Compared to the Mississippian succession, which consistently ranges in the hundreds
128 of metres from the US-Canada border to the Northwest Territory, the Pennsylvanian-
129 Permian succession of Alberta and eastern British Columbia is relatively thin, quite
130 variable in composition and recorded a complex stratigraphic-sedimentological history at
131 a time of ongoing tectonic activity in the WCSB. In east-central British Columbia,
132 Pennsylvanian-Permian rocks are dominated by shallow water carbonate and chert with
133 varying siliciclastic proportions that generally increase upward (Bamber & Macqueen,
134 1979). This succession comprises eight relatively thin unconformity-bounded low order
135 sequences that can be correlated from the Rocky Mountains in the west to the subsurface
136 areas in the east (Fig. 2) (Bamber & Macqueen 1979; McGugan & Rapson-McGugan
137 1976; Zubin-Stathopoulos 2011). In the study area, these sequences are represented by
138 the Kindle, Belcourt, Fantasque and Mowitch formations (Bamber & Macqueen 1979).
139 Pennsylvanian strata in the area are equivalent to the Ksituan Formation of Henderson *et*
140 *al.* (1994). The Upper Pennsylvanian-Lower Permian sequences in east-central BC are
141 equivalent to part of the Belloy Formation in the subsurface to the east (Dunn 2003;
142 Naqvi 1972) while the Middle Permian units are equivalent to the upper Belloy
143 Formation (Dunn 2003). While they differ lithologically, these units are equivalent in age
144 to formations in southeast British Columbia and southwest Alberta (MacRae & McGugan
145 1977; McGugan & Rapson 1962 1963).

146 The studied succession is part of three low-order sequences of Moscovian,
147 Kasimovian-Gzhelian and Asselian-Sakmarian respectively (Figs. 2 and 3). The three
148 sequences are contained within the Belcourt Formation. The sequence boundaries are

149 sharp, erosive and unconformable surfaces associated with intraformational
150 conglomerates of probable near-shore origin (Fig. 4). The Pennsylvanian portion of the
151 Belcourt Formation (Moscovian) is correlative to the Ksituan Formation. The Belcourt
152 Formation is a unit of fossiliferous carbonate that recorded moderately deep water to
153 shallow shelf or ramp cyclic sedimentation (Bamber & Macqueen 1979). In the study
154 area, the formation varies in thickness (Fig. 3), ranging from zero at Mt. Cornock up to
155 127 m at Mountain Creek (Fig. 3). Southern and eastern outcrops display typical Belcourt
156 facies, *i.e.* grainstone (ooid and skeletal), boundstone and lesser amounts of skeletal
157 wackestone and packstone, a suite of facies that is best preserved at Fellers Creek (Fig.
158 4). The western section displays a different composition, which consists dominantly of
159 lime-mudstone, skeletal wackestone and packstone, and minor amounts of skeletal
160 grainstone. This succession is best exemplified at Mountain Creek (Fig. 5). We are of the
161 opinion that a new formation could be erected to reflect this basic and mappable
162 lithological difference within the Belcourt Formation. For the purpose of this paper,
163 however, we will refer to the Fellers Creek Assemblage (FCA) (eastern and southern
164 area) and the Mountain Creek Assemblage facies (MCA) (western area) of the Belcourt
165 Formation as shown in Figure 2.

166

167 *Peace River Basin and Tectonic Highs*

168 The deposits described in this study are located in the western part of the Peace River
169 Basin. The Peace River Basin is a down-warped and down-faulted portion of the interior
170 cratonic platform (Henderson *et al.* 2002) of North America that became an area of

171 carbonate and clastic deposition during the Pennsylvanian-Permian interval (Henderson
172 *et al.* 1994). The Peace River Basin is a complex tectono-stratigraphic element at the
173 convergence of multiple tectonic interactions and was the locus of both differential
174 subsidence and uplift that occurred at varying rates and time in different areas. The
175 location of the Peace River Basin was in part determined by tectonically-controlled
176 palaeogeographic elements such as the Beatton High and Sukunka Uplift (Henderson *et*
177 *al.* 2002). In addition, it is now apparent that the Peace River Basin and adjacent Ishbel
178 Trough to the west (Richards *et al.* 1993) are divided into discrete sub-basins (Henderson
179 *et al.* 2002).

180 In the study area, a prominent tectonic high, the NW-SE axis of which is intersected
181 at Mt. Cornock (Fig. 3), separated two distinct depositional areas to the west and east.
182 While the Belcourt Formation is absent on the crest of the high, such as Mt. Cornock
183 (Fig. 3), it thickens markedly to the east and west of the high. The high also constitutes
184 the physical boundary between the area dominated by the Mountain Creek facies
185 assemblage of the Belcourt Formation to the west and the Fellers Creek facies
186 assemblage to the east (Fig. 3). Evidence of recurrent tectonic activity along the high is
187 shown by several horizons with intraformational conglomerates, some of which contain
188 clasts derived from the immediately underlying succession (Fig. 4).

189

190 *Palaeolatitudinal Setting*

191 Various palaeogeographic reconstructions of Pangea places the study area in eastern
192 British Columbia between 20 and 25° N during the Moscovian-Kasimovian and 25 to 30°

193 N during the Asselian-Kungurian (Blakey 2008; Golonka & Ford 2000; Vai 2003). These
194 estimates are based on published reconstructions that rely on palaeomagnetism,
195 palaeobiogeography, best global fit of tectonic plates and comparisons with modern
196 latitudinal gradients and corresponding facies (Golonka & Ford 2000). Contemporaneous
197 deposits in the southwestern United States (Texas to Utah) are interpreted to be
198 equatorial, ranging from 0 to 10° N and having migrated 10° northward during the
199 Kasimovian to Kungurian interval (Tabor *et al.* 2008). The Sverdrup Basin of the
200 Canadian Arctic is interpreted as being located at about 25-30° N in the latest
201 Pennsylvanian (Gzhelian) to Early Permian (Asselian-Sakmarian), based on extensive
202 warm-water photozoan carbonates, and to have migrated to approximately 40° N by the
203 Middle Permian as suggested by dominance of cool- to cold-water heterozoan carbonates
204 (Beauchamp 1994; Bensing *et al.* 2008). This significant oceanic cooling has been
205 associated with the closure of Uralian seaway during the Artinskian that prevented warm
206 Tethyan-derived waters from reaching NW Pangea (Reid *et al.* 2007). Based on these
207 considerations, east-central British Columbia may have been at a slightly lower latitude
208 than suggested by some global reconstructions, possibly ranging from 15 to 20° N during
209 the Early Permian, which would coincide with the modern distribution of warm water
210 carbonates (Halfar *et al.* 2004a) and place the area well within the range of Coriolis-
211 driven Ekman transport and upwelling along the western margin of Pangea.

212

213 *Shelf Cyclicality and Palaeoclimatic Setting*

214 The Pennsylvanian-Early Permian interval was characterized by relatively high sea
215 level with cyclic influence from glacial eustasy (Golonka & Ford 2000) at a time of
216 widespread glaciation in Gondwana (Wanless & Shepard, 1936). Cyclothems are well
217 known and described from the western United States where the climate was wet-
218 equatorial (Heckel 1986; Wanless & Shepard 1936). These cyclothems classically consist
219 of deep marine shale, followed by regressive marine limestone and capped by shallow
220 marine or terrestrial (coal) deposits (Heckel 2008). Arid cyclothems are less well known,
221 but are shown to be present in higher latitude deposits of western and northern Canada
222 (Ford *et al.* 2009; Heckel 2002; Moore 2002; Morin *et al.* 1994). Some of these
223 cyclothems commonly contain evaporites as their capping unit (ex. sabkha-type
224 dolostone and sulfate evaporites). Aeolian-sourced silt is pervasive throughout these
225 deposits (Heckel 2002).

226 Arid conditions persisted throughout the Pennsylvanian in the Western United States,
227 Canada and Russia (Francis 1994) and continued during the Permian resulting in
228 widespread evaporitic and desert environments. These conditions also led to abundant
229 aeolian silt deposition within Pennsylvanian to Middle Permian marine carbonates
230 (Francis 1994; Soreghan *et al.* 2008). The end of widespread Gondwana glaciation
231 roughly coincides with the Asselian-Sakmarian boundary, above which high amplitude-
232 high frequency sequences or cycles are not as well developed as in older Pennsylvanian-
233 Early Permian sediments (Beauchamp & Henderson 1994). Sea level was at a near
234 minimum toward the end of the Kungurian (Golonka & Ford 2000; Soreghan *et al.* 2008).
235 During the Middle Permian, arid conditions coupled with cool water deposition prevailed

236 all along the northwestern margin of Pangea at a time of global warming (Beauchamp &
237 Baud 2002; Clapham 2010).

238 As observed around the world, the Pennsylvanian-Lower Permian succession of east-
239 central British Columbia displays a series of high-order cycles as recorded by fluctuations
240 in carbonate facies representing environments ranging from outer shelf (or ramp) to
241 shoreline (see descriptions below). This is shown by fluctuations from lime mudstone to
242 packstone to grainstone in the Asselian succession at Fellers Creek (Fig. 4), and from
243 lime mudstone to wackstone and packstone in the Moscovian to Asselian succession at
244 Mountain Creek (Fig. 5). Cycles average 5-10 m in thickness, which is similar to
245 contemporaneous cyclothems in the mid-continent (Heckel 2002) and in the Arctic
246 (Morin *et al.* 1994). However, the number of observed cycles varies greatly from section
247 to section and is considerably smaller than the number of cycles observed elsewhere. This
248 reflects the incomplete nature and highly variable preservation of the Pennsylvanian-
249 Permian succession in east-central British Columbia, which attests for erosion and/or
250 non-deposition at time of active differential tectonic uplift and subsidence. The
251 Sakmarian succession at Fellers Creek displays only 2-3 shelf cycles, which may also
252 reflect an incomplete stratigraphic record. However, only a few shelf cycles are observed
253 in the Sakmarian succession of the Sverdrup Basin, at a time of widespread global
254 transgression contemporaneous with the thawing of Gondwana glaciers.

255

256 Facies Descriptions, Interpretations and Depositional Models

257 The Moscovian to Sakmarian succession of east-central British Columbia comprises
258 12 carbonate microfacies (MF), the content and interpretation of which is summarized in
259 Table 1. The microfacies are illustrated in Figs. 6 and 7. The interpreted depositional
260 environments range from relatively deep (below storm wave base) low energy outer shelf
261 or ramp (MF-09), to storm-influenced middle ramp (MF-03, MF-08), to high energy
262 shallow inner ramp/shoreface (above fair weather wave base) (MF-01 to MF-03; MF-07,
263 MF-10, MF-12). Most facies represent open marine sedimentation, except for MF-05
264 (protected inner ramp), and MF-04 that represents potentially inter- to supra-tidal, back-
265 ramp deposition.

266 Both photozoan and heterozoan biotic associations were observed. Photozoan biota
267 includes telltale indicators of shallow, warm-water tropical-like conditions such as
268 dasycladacean algae, colonial rugose corals, *Palaeoaplysina* and ooids. *Palaeoaplysina* is
269 an organism with unknown biological affinity that may belong to the class hydrozoa
270 (Davies & Nassichuk, 1973), though it has also been interpreted to be closely related to
271 calcareous algae (Watkins & Wilson, 1989). It is usually found in shallow water, high
272 productivity environments where photosynthesizing organisms are common (Davies &
273 Nassichuk, 1973). It is considered to be part of the photozoan association and formed
274 bioherms in a moderate to low energy environment on the inner to outer ramp.

275 Heterozoan biota are far less diversified and dominated by sponge spicules, bryozoan,
276 echinoderm and brachiopods, a typical Late Palaeozoic cool-water assemblage also
277 known as Bryonoderm (Beauchamp 1994). Cool-water conditions reflect deeper
278 depositional settings (MF-08 and MF-09) or shallow –water deposition in an area bathed
279 by cool to cold waters (MF-10 to MF-12). In the latter case, it is not the biota that

280 indicates shallow water deposition, but different lines of evidence such as the dominance
281 of grainstones or presence of cross-beddings or ripples. One of the most distinctive
282 aspects of the studied succession is the dominance of photozoan carbonates in the eastern
283 and southern sections, as seen at Fellers Creek (Fig. 4) (Fellers Creek facies assemblage).
284 In contrast, heterozoan carbonates dominate the western sections as exemplified at
285 Mountain Creek (Fig. 5) (Mountain Creek facies assemblage).

286 Various combinations of the twelve facies occur recurrently in the study area and can
287 be found at various stratigraphic levels of the Belcourt Formation. The recurrence of
288 facies sets attest for shifts in relative sea level in response to ongoing high-frequency
289 glacio-eustatic fluctuations. While the entire spectrum of facies is never present within a
290 single vertical cycle, facies variations do suggest bathymetric shifts in the order of 30 to
291 50 m on average for each cycle as environments shifted from offshore, distal outer shelf
292 sedimentation below storm wave base to high energy nearshore, shoreline and even
293 supra-tidal sedimentation and erosion.

294 While it is impossible to correlate individual cycles from section to section due to the
295 extreme lateral and vertical variations in the number of cycles, we can analyze the
296 spectrum of microfacies through the prism of the three low-order sequences in the area,
297 the Moscovian, Kasimovian-Gzhelian, and the Asselian-Sakmarian sequences. Each of
298 these sequences, which represent the grouping of an undetermined number of high-order
299 cycles, has its own set of depositional characteristics as described below (Fig. 8).

300

301 *Moscovian*

302 The Moscovian portion of the Belcourt Formation consists of bioturbated silty
303 mudstone (MF-08), bryozoan-brachiopod wackestone-packstone (MF-09) and fine
304 grained packstone/grainstone (MF-12) (Fig. 4). These three facies alternate in a cyclic
305 fashion, shallowing up from MF-09 to MF-08 and capped by MF-12. The capping facies
306 progressively gets muddier upwards, and the mudstone portion of the cycle becomes
307 thicker indicating overall deepening upward succession for these cycles. The Moscovian
308 portion of the Fellers Creek section consists of conglomerate-containing chert and
309 carbonate clasts (Fig. 4). The bryozoans and brachiopods require normal marine salinity
310 and circulation in order to develop indicating that these sediments represent deposition in
311 an open marine environment (Fig. 8A). The Moscovian found elsewhere in the Peace
312 River Basin is mostly assigned to the Ksituan Formation, which is predominantly
313 composed of finely crystalline dolostone and is interpreted as shallow tidal flat deposits
314 in sabkhas and lagoons (Dunn 2003; Wamsteeker 2007).

315 Conodont taxa recovered from the Moscovian interval include *Adetognathus lautus*,
316 *Diplognathodus edentulus*, *Neognathodus bothrops* and *Idiognathodus expanses* (Zubin-
317 Stathopoulos 2011). This sequence starts at the conglomerate at the base of the Belcourt
318 Formation at Fellers Creek and Mountain Creek section (Figs. 4 and 5). The sequence
319 displays extreme thickness variations ranging from zero at some outcrops (Mount
320 Palsson, Mount Cornock, etc.) to 164 m in the subsurface in the Peace River Basin. The
321 Moscovian portion of the Mountain Creek section coarsens upward (shallowing upward)
322 with up to 6 shallowing-upward cycles (Fig. 4).

323 Thicknesses are controlled in part by palaeogeographic features that caused both
324 erosion and non-deposition of this sequence (Zubin-Stathopoulos 2011). Localized

325 palaeogeographic highs were present, which resulted in the deposition of Moscovian aged
326 conglomerates containing Mississippian clasts at Fellers Creek. Palaeogeographic highs
327 that were uplifted from the Late Pennsylvanian through Early Permian resulted in the
328 erosion of this sequence, but the preservation of Moscovian aged conodonts
329 (*Neognathodus bothrops*) within carbonate clasts found in a lag indicates that Moscovian
330 rocks were more pervasive than what is seen at many outcrops (Zubin-Stathopoulos
331 2011).

332 This sequence is characterized by overall open marine conditions (Fig. 8A) with no
333 indication of a restricted or protected marine environment, except in back ramp
334 environments suggested by facies of the Ksituan Formation. The alternation of
335 dominantly lime mudstone beds with periodic wackestone and packstone beds containing
336 chaotically organized brachiopod and bryozoan fragments indicates an overall deep, low
337 energy environment below storm wave base with shallowing upward cycles that end in
338 storm influenced beds at the tops. Mountain Creek is located in the westernmost thrust
339 sheet of all of the outcrops studied. The facies and location within this thrust sheet imply
340 that these are the most distal sediments. The carbonate association indicates deposition on
341 a relatively deep to shallow cool water carbonate ramp (Fig. 8A).

342

343 *Kasimovian-Gzhelian*

344 Rocks representing these two Late Pennsylvanian stages are not prominent in the
345 study area, but are present at Mountain Creek and West Sukunka. The Kasimovian-
346 Gzhelian portion of the Belcourt Formation consists of bioturbated silty mudstone (MF-

347 04) and bryozoan-brachiopod wackestone-packstone (MF-09). The carbonate association
348 indicates cool, moderately deep water. The facies and location within the westernmost
349 thrust sheet imply that these are the most distal sediments deposited on the outer ramp.
350 The correlation of these stages is based on the occurrence of *Adetognathus lautus* and
351 *New Genus A sp.* (Kasimovian) (Zubin-Stathopoulos 2011). This succession is up to 70 m
352 in the outcrop belt, though it is usually not present. Our limited data set for this sequence
353 prevents us from suggesting a sequence-specific interpretation. The range of depositional
354 environments was likely similar to that of the Moscovian (Fig. 8A).

355

356 *Asselian-Sakmarian*

357 The Asselian-Sakmarian succession is bounded by prominent unconformities and is
358 therefore believed to constitute a single low-order sequence. However, an additional
359 erosion surface associated with conglomerates and potentially representing an
360 unconformity occurs at Fellers Creek and is viewed as representing the Asselian-
361 Sakmarian boundary (Fig. 4). It also likely represents the boundary between two higher-
362 order sequences within the lower order Asselian-Sakmarian sequence. Because of this,
363 we here describe the Asselian part of this sequence first, and then the Sakmarian part
364 below. This makes sense considering that the Asselian was still a time of Gondwana
365 glaciations while glacial thaw and retreat occurred during the Sakmarian.

366 The Asselian portion of the Belcourt Formation consists of ooid-foraminifer
367 grainstone (MF-01), *Palaeoaplysina* packstone/boundstone (MF-06), algal-bioclastic
368 grainstone (MF-02), rugose coral wackestone-packstone (MF-05), microbial

369 mudstone/dolostone (MF-04) and bryozoan-echinoderm packstone-grainstone (MF-03).
370 These light- and warm temperature-dependent organisms constitute a Photozoan
371 Association (James 1997). The Asselian portion of the Mountain Creek section consists
372 largely of MF-02 (bryozoan-brachiopod wackestone-packstone) with some alternation
373 with MF-01 (silty bioturbated mudstone). Some levels contain brachiopod hash in a lime-
374 mud matrix and represent brachiopod banks.

375 Conodont taxa in this sequence include *Adetognathus n.sp. B*, *Streptognathodus*
376 *verus*, and *Streptognathodus fusus* (Zubin-Stathopoulos 2011). The Asselian part of the
377 sequence ranges from 0 to 20 m in the outcrop belt. It is not recognized in the eastern
378 Peace River Basin, possibly due to low global sea level resulting in non-deposition or
379 poor preservation (Golonka & Ford 2000). Distinct shallowing-upward cycles are present
380 at both the Fellers Creek (Fig. 4) and Mountain Creek sections (Fig. 5). Active
381 tectonism during this interval created a palaeogeographic high between the western
382 sections and the eastern sections (Fig. 3). This high formed during the Asselian just to the
383 west of Fellers Creek. Deposits at the Fellers Creek section represent a photozoan
384 carbonate ramp that fostered the growth of temperature dependent organisms such as
385 *Palaeoaplysina* and fusulinaceans as well as abiotic constituents such as ooids (Fig. 8B).
386 Deposits at the Mountain Creek section represent a heterozoan carbonate ramp that
387 contained only heterozoan elements including brachiopod and bryozoan (Fig. 8B). The
388 Sakmarian facies (Fig. 8C) found at Fellers Creek include *Palaeoaplysina* boundstone
389 (MF-06), colonial rugose coral boundstone (MF-07) algal-bioclastic grainstone (MF-02),
390 and echinoderm-brachiopod packstone-grainstone (MF-03). These facies are part of the
391 photozoan carbonate association (James 1997; Reid *et al.* 2007). Facies found at

392 Mountain Creek include bryozoan-brachiopod wackestone-packstone (MF-08), cross
393 bedded silty mudstone-wackestone (MF-11), and hummocky cross-stratified mudstone
394 (MF-10). These belong to a heterozoan carbonate association (James 1997; Reid *et al.*
395 2007) of the bryonoderm variety (Beauchamp & Desrochers 1997).

396 Biostratigraphically significant fossils in this sequence include the conodont
397 *Sweetognathus binodosus* (Zubin-Stathopoulos 2011) and the coral *Protowentzelella*
398 *kunthi* (E.W. Bamber, pers. comm. 2010). Two closely spaced samples with
399 fusulinaceans at 37.5 and 39.5 were recovered in the Fellers Creek section. The
400 fusulinaceans are quite abundant in the samples, but their taxonomy is rather poor. Three
401 species are identified in both samples (Fig. 9): *Schubertella ex gr. kingi* Dunbar &
402 Skinner, *Pseudofusulina attenuata* Skinner & Wilde and *Ps. acuta* Skinner & Wilde. The
403 first species is an opportunistic schubertellid that is widely distributed globally and
404 occurs in latest Gzhelian through entire Lower Permian (Davydov, 2011). The other two
405 species were originally described from the McCloud Limestone in Shasta Lake area
406 (Skinner & Wilde, 1965). *Pseudofusulina attenuata* has also been found in Nevada in a
407 stratigraphically very narrow horizon (Stevens *et al.*, 1979; Davydov *et al.*, 1997). In
408 Nevada the horizon with *Pseudofusulina attenuata* yields the conodonts *Mesogondolella*
409 *aff. striata* Chernykh near the bottom and *Sweetognathus aff. merrilli* Kozur near the top
410 (Wang 1993; V. Chernykh 2008 pers. comm.) suggesting late Asselian to early
411 Sakmarian age for this unit (Chernykh, 2005). The Sakmarian is not recognized in the
412 subsurface of the eastern Peace River Basin. Only a 15 m thick interval occurs at Fellers
413 Creek (Fig. 4), which is correlated to other Sakmarian occurrences at Kinuseo Creek and

414 Meosin Mountain. Sakmarian aged rocks are also found at Mountain Creek. This part of
415 the sequence developed at a time of global sea level rise and active tectonism.

416 The palaeogeographic high that was present during the Asselian persisted through the
417 Sakmarian (Figs. 8B-C) and probably into the Artinskian and Kungurian. This high
418 continued to separate photozoan carbonates to the east from heterozoan carbonates to the
419 west throughout the Sakmarian. Sediments on the flanks of this high were deposited on a
420 carbonate ramp with bioherms. Sediment more distal to the flanks were deposited on a
421 ramp that more closely resembles a siliciclastic ramp, where carbonate producing
422 organisms did not build mounds or wave resistant structures (Figs. 8B-C).

423

424 Discussion: Significance of Distribution of Carbonate Associations

425 *Western Pangean Climate and Oceanic Currents*

426 The occurrence of warm-water photozoan associations in east-central British
427 Columbia could be attributed to a climatic warming event. However, it has been
428 suggested that a southward cool boundary current existed along the entire west coast of
429 Pangea creating increasing cool water conditions starting in the Early Permian with most
430 pronounced effects in the Middle Permian (Beauchamp & Baud 2002; Clapham 2010).
431 Northern and northwestern Pangea was cooling and decoupled from a broader global
432 warming trend (Clapham 2010). The Middle Permian basin of west Texas was
433 experiencing warmer water temperatures, while just north in the Phosphoria Sea, cool
434 water deposits prevailed (Clapham 2010). The Guadalupian of east central British
435 Columbia also records a similar climatic story to that of the Sverdrup Basin and the

436 basins of the western United States. Cool water deposits are recorded along the entire
437 western coast of Pangea, dominantly consisting of spiculite and chert indicative of this
438 cooling episode (Beauchamp & Baud, 2002; Clapham, 2010).

439 Carbonate reefs that are typical of photozoan associations are well documented in the
440 western United States within tectonically controlled sub-basins such as the Wood River
441 Basin (Wahlman 2002). There is an abundance of cool water deposits in British
442 Columbia including the spiculitic and phosphatic siltstone of the Johnston Canyon
443 Formation in southeastern British Columbia and southwestern Alberta located within the
444 southern portion of the Ishbel Trough (MacRae & McGugan 1977). This also indicates
445 that this cool boundary current had a control on the fauna of the Early Permian in east-
446 central British Columbia. In addition, the palaeolatitude indicates that at least seasonal
447 upwelling influenced these deposits, creating an environment conducive only to a
448 heterozoan carbonate production. Despite the existence of a cool boundary current that
449 became progressively more pronounced through the Permian, patch reefs and mounds
450 typical of the photozoan or warm water carbonate associations were able to develop in
451 this isolated area on the northwestern coast of Pangea.

452

453 *Warm to cool carbonate deposition and palaeogeography*

454 Warm water carbonate associations (photozoan) are defined as a group of benthic
455 carbonate particles including light dependent organisms and/or non-skeletal particles
456 (ooids) plus or minus non-light dependent components (James 1997). Other examples of
457 constituents found within the photozoan association include warm water corals, green

458 algae and fusulinaceans. The Fellers Creek facies assemblage of the Belcourt Formation
459 predominantly consists of skeletal packstone and grainstone containing many of these
460 constituents. It occurs in an isolated area within the outcrop belt in the central and
461 southern portion of the study area. The Belcourt Formation can generally be
462 characterized as deposited in a warm shallow sea where carbonate producing organisms
463 were protected from cool upwelling ocean currents that would have prevented photozoan
464 carbonates from growing. These organisms would have also required clear, oligotrophic
465 waters in order to develop (Halfar *et al.* 2004a).

466 Several outcrops within the study area have no Pennsylvanian to Early Permian
467 deposits. In contrast, the Fantasque Formation (Middle Permian) is present nearly
468 everywhere, though it is missing at Watson Peak. This series of outcrops are interpreted
469 as the location of a tectonic high that was active from the Late Pennsylvanian through the
470 Early Permian, located to the west of outcrops that represent deposition in the Kisosowin
471 Sea (Fig. 10). This high developed during the Kasimovian C6 tectonic episode (Fig. 2)
472 and may have extended into the Early Permian P1 event, described from Nevada (Snyder
473 *et al.* 2002; Trexler *et al.* 2004) and outlined in detail in Zubin-Stathopoulos (2011) for
474 east-central British Columbia (Fig. 10). *Microcodium* found in shallow water deposits
475 within the Asselian and Sakmarian sequences indicates that this high may have been host
476 to the development of soil and vegetation (Kosir 2004). It was centred approximately at
477 20° N palaeolatitude.

478 The fusulinacean assemblage with *Pseudofusulina attenuata* and *Ps. acuta* can be
479 attributed to the McCloud province (Ross, 1995), where the fusulinaceans and coral
480 faunas at certain horizons include significant Tethyan warm-water elements (Ross, 1995;

481 Fedorowsky et al., 2007). The occurrence of this exotic for North American province
482 assemblage in central Nevada and in east-central British Columbia 1800 km to the north
483 suggests a warming episode along the North American margin during early Sakmarian
484 time as well as a linkage with Klamath/Quesnel arc rocks (Fig. 10) to the west. Belasky et
485 al. (2002) suggested, based on faunal similarities that the Quesnel and Klamath terranes
486 must have been 2000-3000 km away from their latitudinal equivalents on the NA craton
487 during the Early Permian. Models developed by Nelson et al. (2006) suggest that the
488 Slide Mountain Ocean (and therefore also the Havallah Basin) was the locus for back-arc
489 sea floor spreading and would have been distant from the NA craton. Henderson et al. (in
490 press) highlighted the importance of timing and suggested the development of a
491 peripheral bulge that closed the Kisosowin Sea in the early Artinskian points to terrane
492 interaction with the NA craton. This would suggest a narrower Slide Mountain Ocean and
493 Havallah Basin, which seems to be supported by the fusulinacean assemblage. It is
494 apparent that the climatic warming suggested by the occurrence of these McCloud
495 tethyan warm-water elements in east-central British Columbia is insufficient by itself to
496 account for this association given the prevailing cool-water currents affecting the margin
497 at these palaeolatitudes. The Kisosowin Sea clearly represents a protected embayment
498 that was able to foster these warm water organisms during the Early Permian (Fig. 10).

499 Cool-water carbonate associations, or heterozoan associations, are defined as a group
500 of benthic carbonate particles produced by organisms that are light-independent plus or
501 minus red calcareous algae (James 1997). Common carbonate producing organisms
502 found within this association include brachiopods, bryozoans, mollusks, echinoderms and
503 some foraminifers. The Mountain Creek facies assemblage of the Belcourt Formation

504 predominantly consists of wackestone and packstone with minor grainstone that are part
505 of the Heterozoan association with no indication of photozoan elements. This assemblage
506 occurs at outcrops in the westernmost thrust sheet in the study area located west of
507 outcrops that represent the Tipinahokan Peninsula.

508

509 *Baja California: Modern Analogue for the Tipinahokan Peninsula*

510 Baja California is a southward extending peninsula on the west coast of Mexico that
511 protects a gulf, or sea (Sea of Cortéz/Gulf of California) with the opening to this
512 embayment to the south. The peninsula is located between 22 and 32° N latitude and
513 experiences seasonal upwelling along the Pacific coast (Walsh *et al.* 1977). Upwelling
514 directly affects food chain dynamics, with marked changes when upwelling is slow or
515 even at times when the current reverses and downwelling occurs along this coast (Walsh
516 *et al.* 1977). Upwelling is at its maximum from February to June. The Sea of Cortéz is
517 considered to be “a mostly isolated, distinct body of water” with different biological
518 populations on the Pacific coast of the Baja peninsula (Lluch-Belda *et al.* 2003). Despite
519 this, the California Current reaches the mouth of the Sea of Cortéz, allowing some
520 interchange between the Pacific Ocean and the opening of the gulf (Lluch-Belda *et al.*
521 2003). This brings not only cool water, but nutrients to the sediments at the mouth of the
522 Sea of Cortéz.

523 The most northern occurrence of reef-forming hermatypic corals occur within the
524 southern portion of the Sea of Cortéz near an area called La Paz, which is at 24° N
525 latitude (Halfar *et al.* 2004a). This area is characterized as a warm-temperate carbonate

526 realm with a mixed heterozoan-photozoan association (Halfar *et al.* 2004b). Mean sea
527 surface temperature is at 24° C, allowing the growth of photozoan carbonates (James
528 1997). Farther north in the Sea of Cortéz, the majority of carbonate producing organisms
529 consists of mollusks and rodoliths, with occasional, and often older, reworked coral
530 indicating a heterozoan carbonate association (Halfar *et al.* 2004b). This occurrence of
531 reef-forming corals is due to the protected oceanographic conditions that allow for warm
532 water and oligotrophic to mesotrophic conditions necessary for photozoan carbonate
533 production (Halfar *et al.* 2004b).

534 The configuration of the Sea of Cortéz with protected photozoan carbonates on the
535 inside of the peninsula is a good analogue for the late Palaeozoic of east-central British
536 Columbia. It not only occurs at comparable latitude on the west coast of a continent, but
537 modern climate is representative of an interglacial period, similar to that of the many
538 interglacials during the Asselian-Sakmarian. This presence of a palaeogeographic high
539 with warm-water carbonates to the east and cool water carbonates to the west within
540 latitudes that experiences at least seasonal upwelling resembles the geographic
541 configuration and biotic distribution of Baja California (see inset in Fig. 2). Photozoan
542 carbonates within the Sea of Cortéz are characterized as warm-temperate because of the
543 lack of green algae and extensive reef-forming carbonates (Halfar *et al.* 2004b).
544 Photozoan carbonates within the Kisosowin Sea can be characterized as subtropical
545 because of the presence of calcareous green algae, hermatypic coral and ooids (James *et*
546 *al.* 1999). This difference in the carbonate organisms between the Sea of Cortéz and the
547 Kisosowin Sea despite the similarity in latitude and geography may be due to several
548 factors including warmer global temperatures during the Permian and basin configuration

549 that would promote more oligotrophic conditions allowing photozoan carbonates to
550 develop.

551

552

Conclusions

553 The emergence of the Tipinahokan Peninsula during the Late Pennsylvanian created a
554 protected sea that emulated the conditions found in tropical to subtropical Pennsylvanian-
555 Permian basins of the western United States such as the Midland, Orogrande, Paradox
556 and Wood River basins as well as the tethyan McCloud limestone of the Klamath arc.
557 The warm-water carbonates of the Kisosowin Sea were situated in a palaeolatitude that
558 should have experienced cool water sedimentation from upwelling, indicating important
559 linkages between climate, oceanic currents and tectonically controlled basins. In
560 particular, our study demonstrates the existence of a Moscovian open ocean embayment
561 with little restriction except in back-ramp lagoon and sabkha environments. This was
562 followed by the emergence of the Tipinahokan Peninsula, which began during the Late
563 Pennsylvanian C6 event and later climaxed during the Early Permian P1 event. The
564 Tipinahokan Peninsula was fully emergent by the Asselian through the Sakmarian
565 allowing a photozoan carbonate ramp to develop in the protected Kisosowin Sea to the
566 east. A cool-water heterozoan carbonate ramp influenced by nutrient-rich upwelling
567 waters existed to the west of the Tipinahokan Peninsula.

568 This study thus demonstrates the presence of a cool upwelling system along the
569 northwest margin of Pangea at a time when substantially warmer water carbonate
570 sedimentation occurred well over a 1000 kms to the north in the Sverdrup Basin (Arctic

571 Canada) and to the south in Nevada. Finally, our study shows that the major global
572 climatic shift across the Asselian-Sakmarian boundary, which is associated with the
573 thawing of Gondwana ice sheets, did not solely affect carbonate sedimentation in our
574 study area.

575

576 **Acknowledgements:** Geoscience BC and Talisman Energy Inc. provided financial
577 support that made this research in a remote area possible. This project was also
578 financially supported by Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada
579 (NSERC) Discovery grants held by Charles M. Henderson and Benoit Beauchamp.

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1 Figure captions

2

3 Fig. 1. Study area, east-central British Columbia. The line of cross sections of figures 3
4 and 8 are also indicated. Modified from Zubin-Stathopoulos et al., 2011.

5

6 Fig. 2. Stratigraphy and tectonostratigraphic sequences of east-central British Columbia,
7 Peace River Basin and the 'Banff Region' of the southwestern Alberta Rockies. The
8 focus of this study is highlighted in grey. Colours represent primary lithology.

9 Blue=limestone, purple=dolostone, orange=chert, yellow=quartz arenite,

10 green=bioturbated/bioclastic sandstone and grey=silty shale. C=Carboniferous,

11 P=Permian. Tectonostratigraphic sequences modified from Snyder et al., 2002 and

12 Trexler et al., 2004. Stratigraphy modified from Zubin-Stathopoulos et al., 2011.

13

14 Fig. 3. Cross section A-A' as indicated on Figs. 1 and 9. Correlations are based on ages
15 obtained from conodonts, foraminifers and coral.

16

17 Fig. 4. (a) Fellers Creek litholog indicating age based on conodont biostratigraphy,
18 formations, conglomerates (red areas) and microfacies (MF) occurrence, modified from
19 Zubin-Stathopoulos et al., 2011. Key to symbols and lithologies is shown in Fig. 5. (b)

20 Conglomerate within the Sakmarian sequence containing reworked Pennsylvanian

21 conodonts; 36.45 m. (c) 2.85 m. Second Belcourt Conglomerate. (d) Basal Belcourt

22 conglomerate; 0 m.

23

24 Fig. 5. (a) Mountain Creek litholog indicating age based on conodont biostratigraphy,
 25 formations present and facies occurrence. The upper portion was re-measured at a
 26 slightly different location and logged as a separate section; the equivalent level is
 27 indicated by a red line. Field occurrences of (b) MF-11 (49.5 m), (c) MF-08 (43.7 m) and
 28 (d) MF-10 (41.0 m) are shown.

29

30 Fig. 6. Belcourt Formation microfacies (Fellers Creek Facies Assemblage)
 31 photomicrographs taken in plain polarized light. All measurements are from the base of
 32 the Belcourt Formation (basal conglomerate) at the Fellers Creek section. (a) MF-01,
 33 Fellers Creek at 12.35 m (b) MF-01, 11.25 m. (c) MF-02, 18.15 m. (d) MF-03, 40.95 m.
 34 (e) MF-04, 27.75 m. (f) Outcrop photograph, knife is 10 cm long, MF-05, 26.25 m. (g)
 35 MF-06, 5.9 m. (H) MF-07, 39.1 m. Ech=echinoderm, Bch=brachiopod, Bry=bryozoan,
 36 Fus=Fusulinacean, Da=Dasycladacean algae, Paleo=*Palaeoaplysina*.

37

38 Fig. 7. Belcourt Formation microfacies (Mountain Creek Facies Assemblage)
 39 photomicrographs taken in plain polarized light. All measurements are from the base of
 40 the Mountain Creek section. (a) MF-08, 9 m. (b) MF-08, 104.5 m (c) MF-09, abundant
 41 sponge spicules at 107 m (d) MF-10, 140 m (e) MF-10, 140 m, from the same thin
 42 section indicating possible storm event (f) Outcrop photograph, finger tips for scale, MF-
 43 11. (g) MF-12, 80.7 m. (h) MF-12, 6.35 m. Ech=echinoderm, Bch=brachiopod,
 44 Bry=bryozoan

45

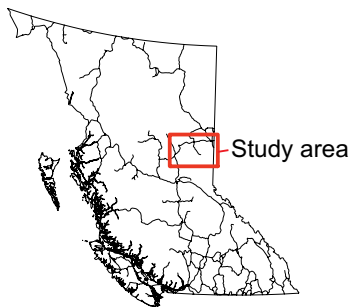
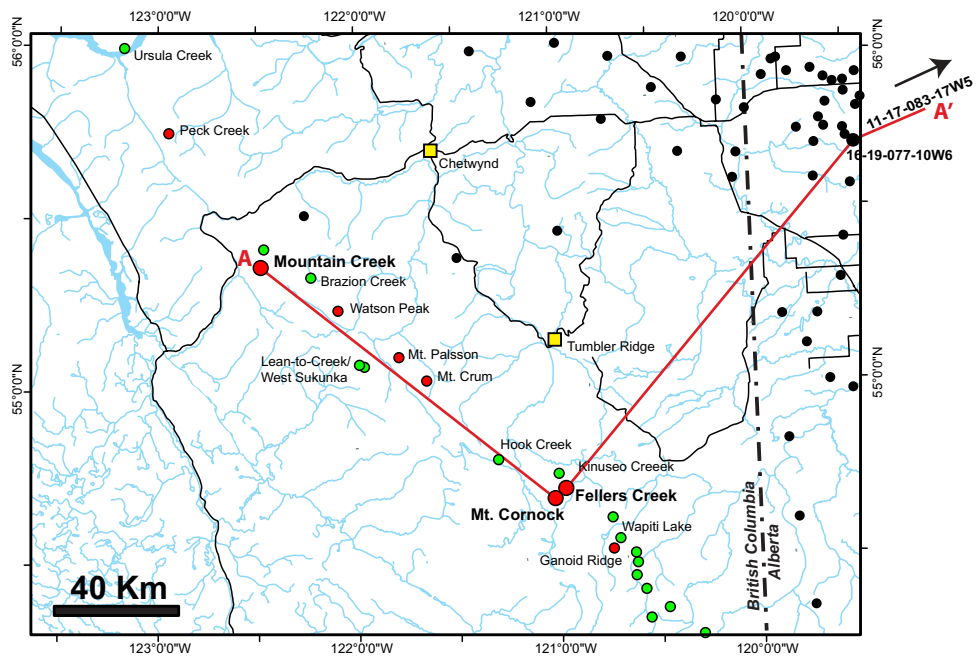
46 Fig. 8. Deposition model of time slices roughly based on cross section of Fig. 1 as shown
 47 in inset map. FWWB=Fair weather wave base, SWB=Storm wave base. Facies locations
 48 are indicated by facies number. (a) Moscovian profile. The occurrence and distribution of
 49 shallow water deposits on the right side of the diagram are based on data from
 50 Wamsteeker (2007). K=Extensive supratidal to shallow subtidal dolostone succession
 51 (Ksituan Formation) occurs east of the back-ramp setting. (b) Asselian profile showing
 52 the Tipinahokan Peninsula and Kisosowin Sea. Known facies are shaded in solid colours
 53 (see legend) and interpreted location of facies are slightly transparent. (c) Sakmarian
 54 profile. Known facies are shaded in solid colours (see legend) and interpreted location of
 55 facies are slightly transparent.

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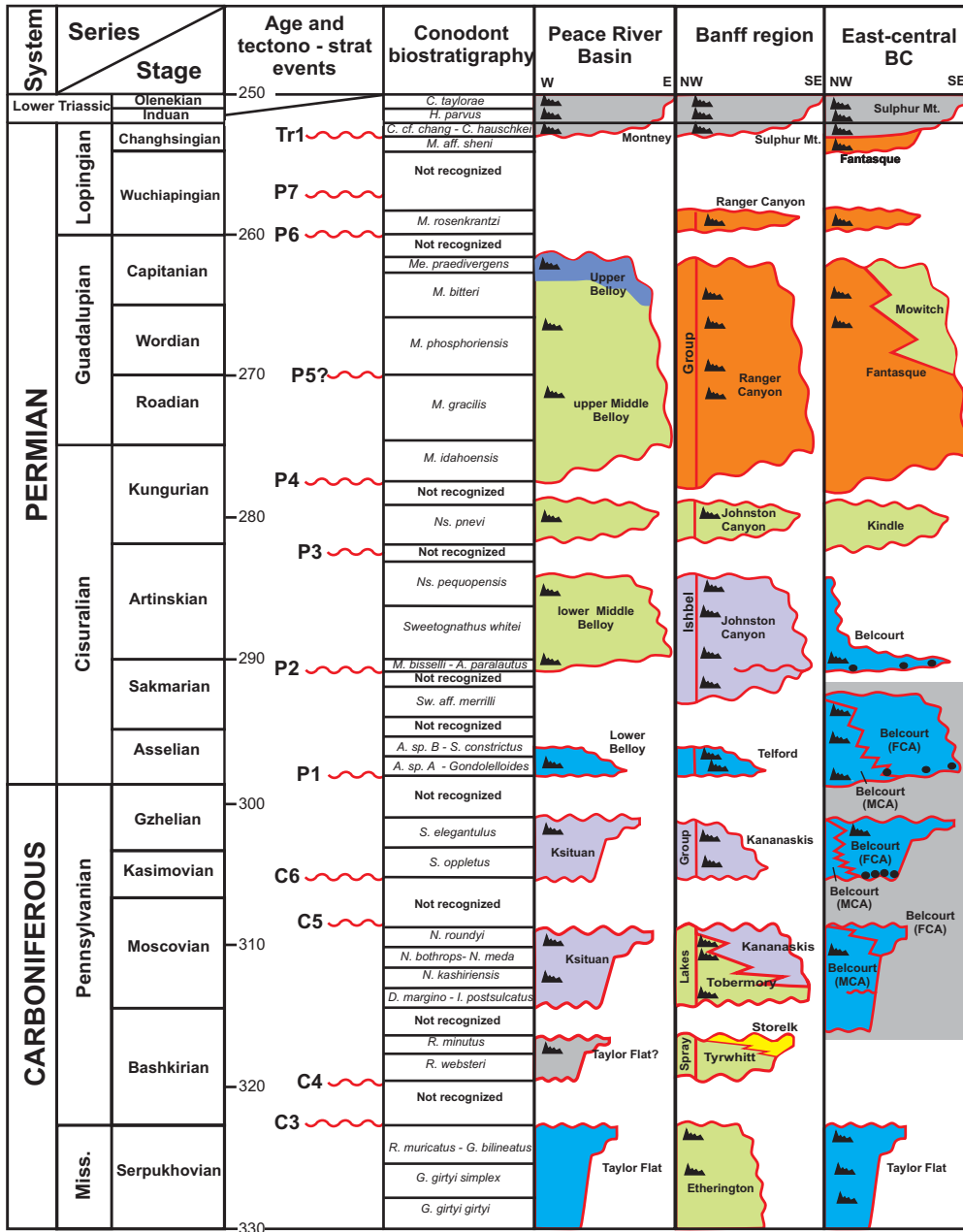
57 Fig. 9. Fusulinaceans from Fellers Creek section. 1, *Schubertella* sp. Fel_37.5_6c,
 58 0.1mm. 2, *Schubertella* ex gr. *kingi* Fel_39.5_1d, 0.1mm. 3, *Pseudofusulina attenuata*
 59 Skinner and Wilde Fel_37.5_1a, 1mm. 4, *Pseudofusulina attenuata* Skinner and Wilde
 60 Fel_37.5_2b, 1mm. 5, *Pseudofusulina attenuata* Skinner and Wilde Fel_37.5_8a, 1mm.
 61 6, *Pseudofusulina attenuata* Skinner and Wilde Fel_37.5_1b, 1mm. 7, *Pseudofusulina*
 62 *attenuata* Skinner and Wilde Fel_39.5_1a, 1mm. 8, *Pseudofusulina attenuata* Skinner
 63 and Wilde Fel_37.5_5a, 1mm. 9, *Pseudofusulina acuta* Skinner and Wilde Fel_37.5_4a,
 64 1mm. 10, *Pseudofusulina acuta* Skinner and Wilde Fel_37.5_1d, 1mm. 11,
 65 *Pseudofusulina acuta* Skinner and Wilde, Fel_37.5_5b, 1mm.

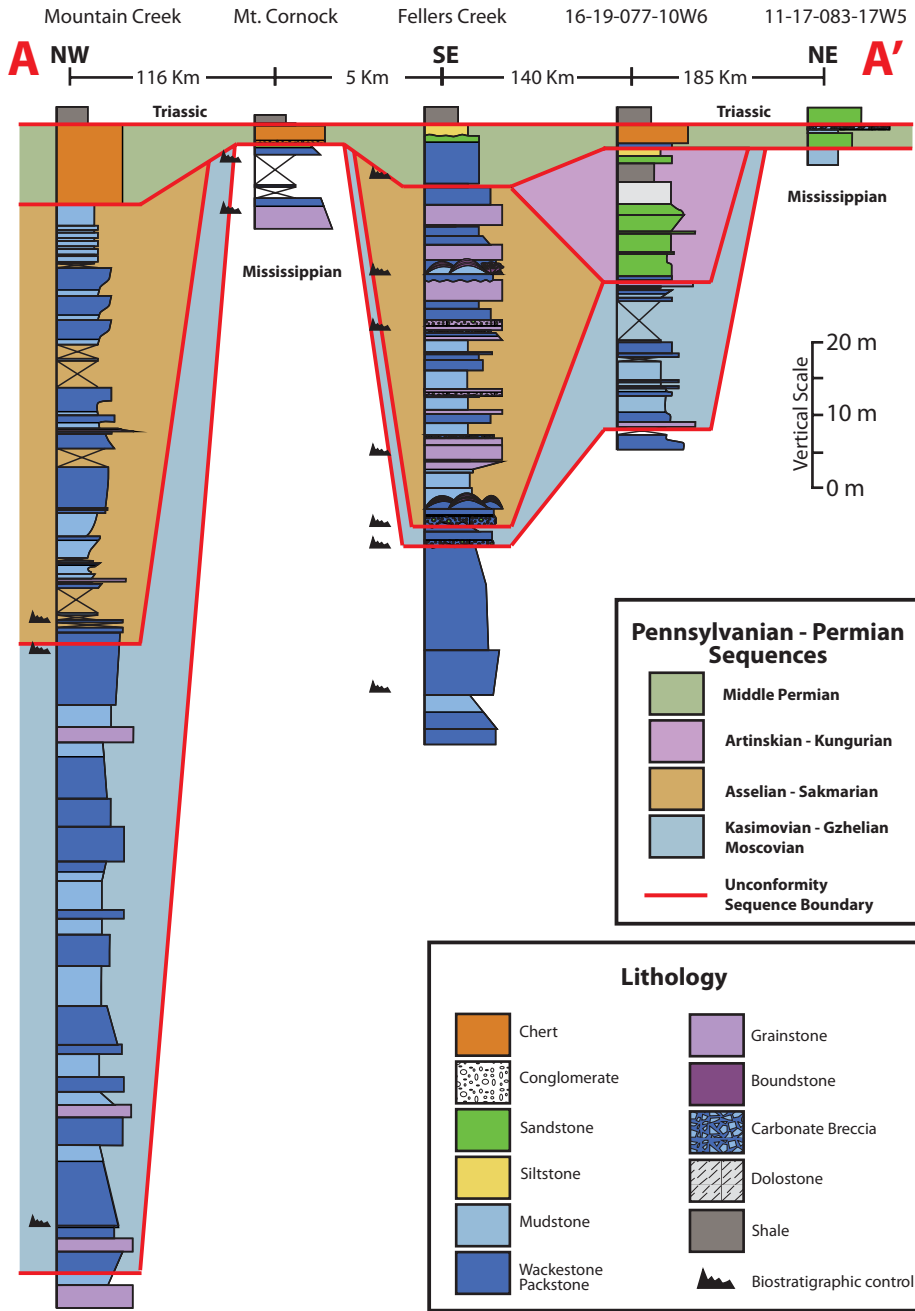
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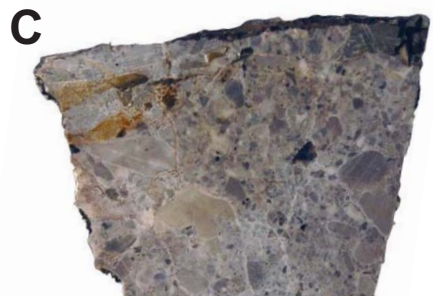
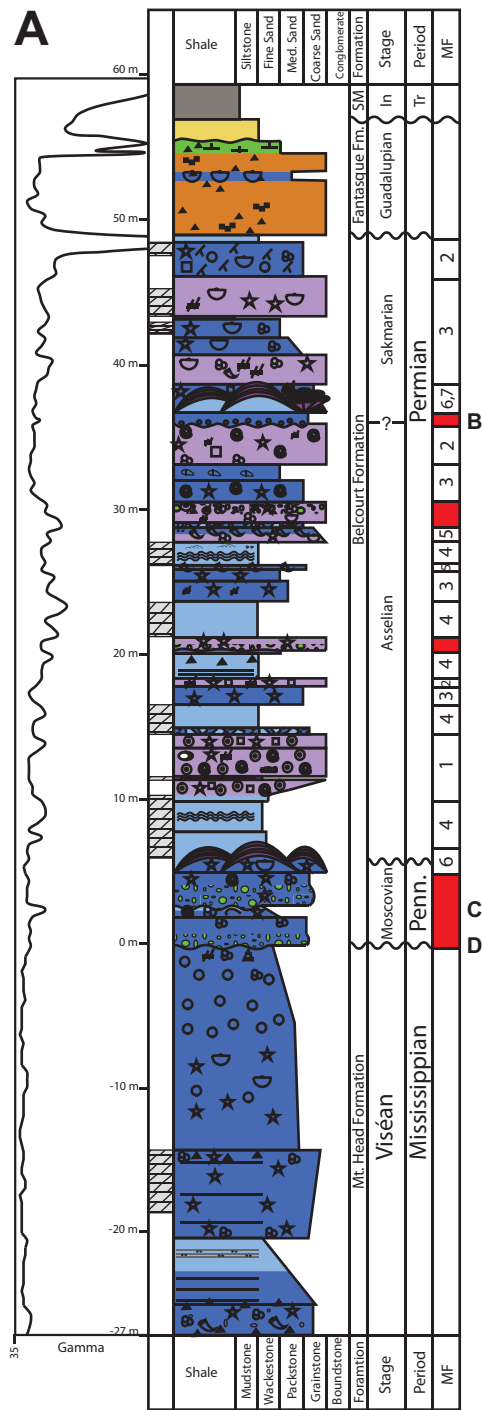
67 Fig. 10. Asselian-Sakmarian paleogeography and tectonic elements for British Columbia,
68 Alberta and western United States, modified from Henderson et al. (2001). Configuration
69 is based on the contouring function in ArcGIS and the predicted thickness distribution.
70 This is a non-palinspastic reconstruction, so the Kisosowin Sea would be approximately
71 20 km wider than shown (Richards et al., 1994). The width of the Slide Mountain Ocean
72 and Havallah Basin is speculative. F1 to F3 indicates the location of Fusulinacean
73 assemblages discussed in the text.

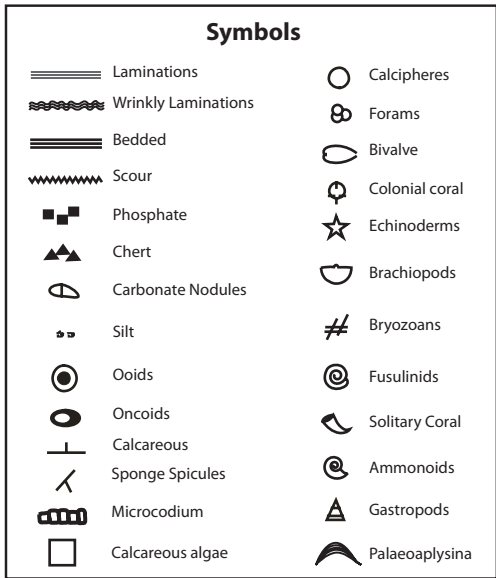
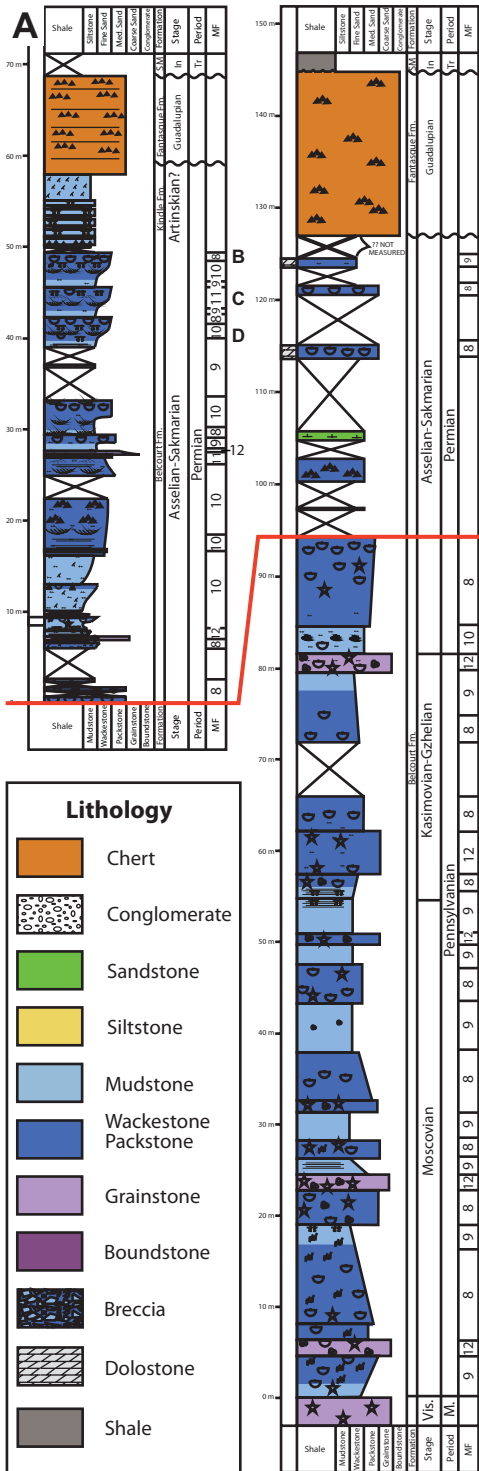


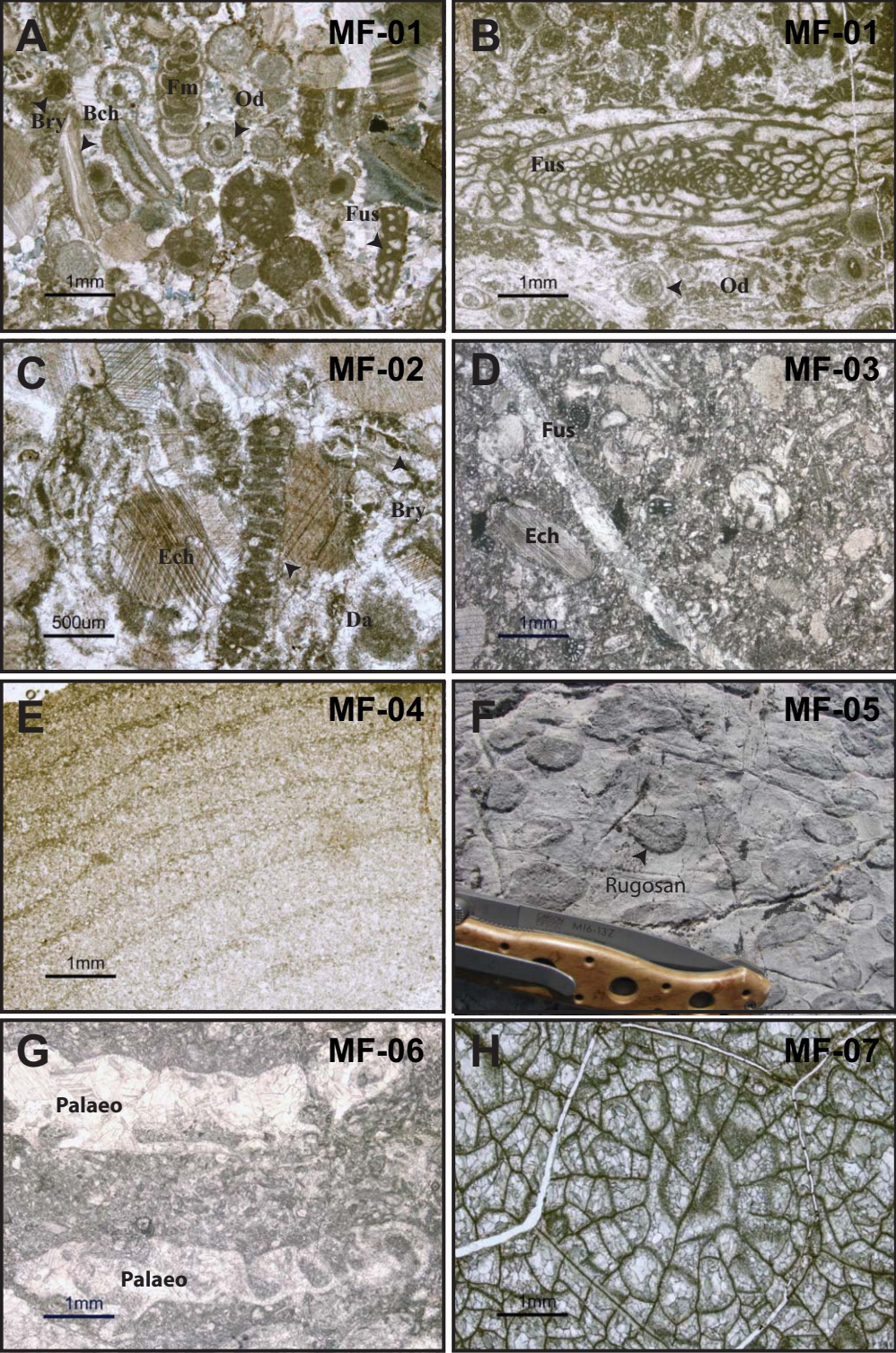
- Outcrop - Previous work
- Outcrop - New Data
- Well
- Drainage
- Roads
- A — A' Line of x-section

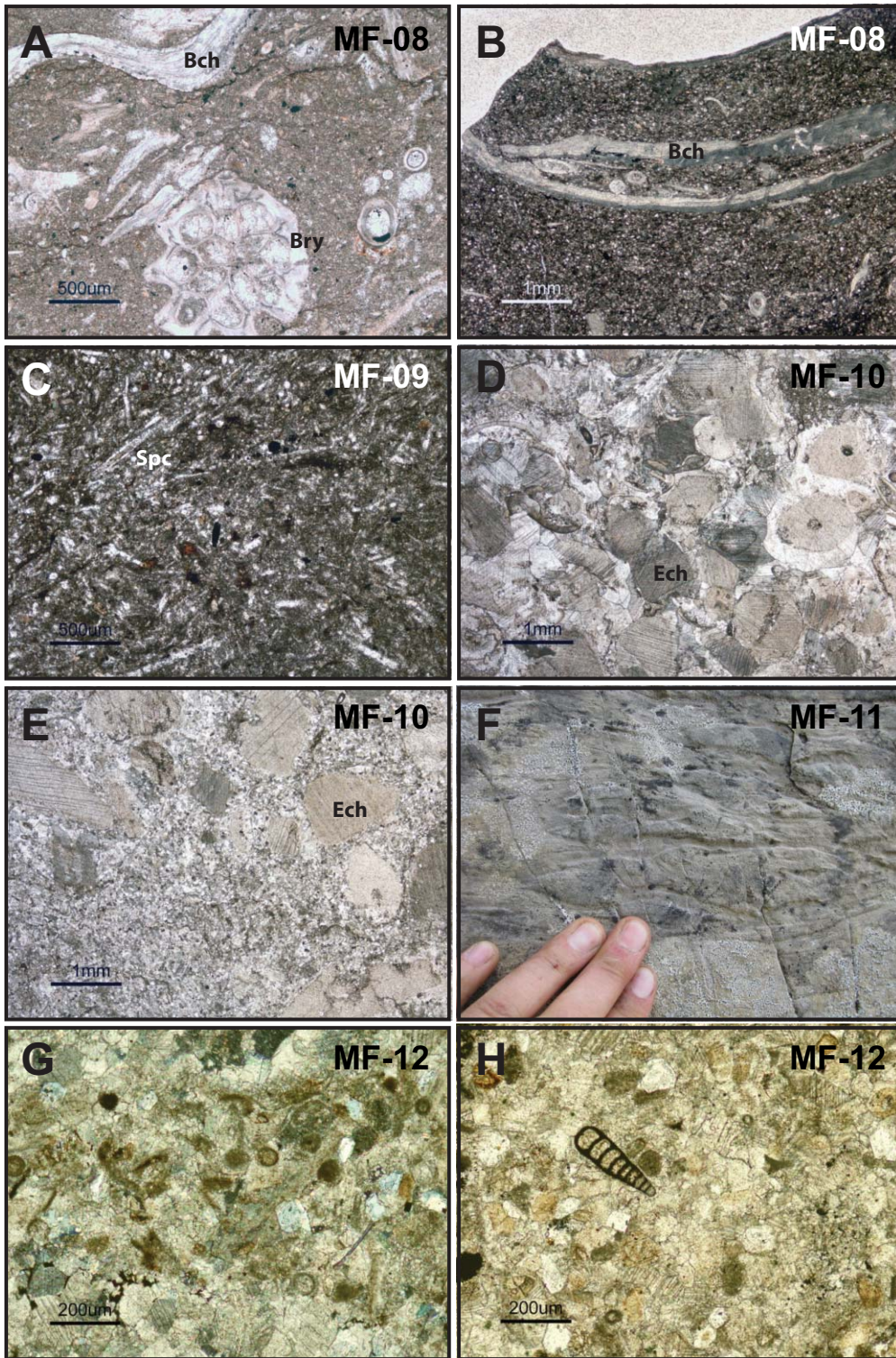




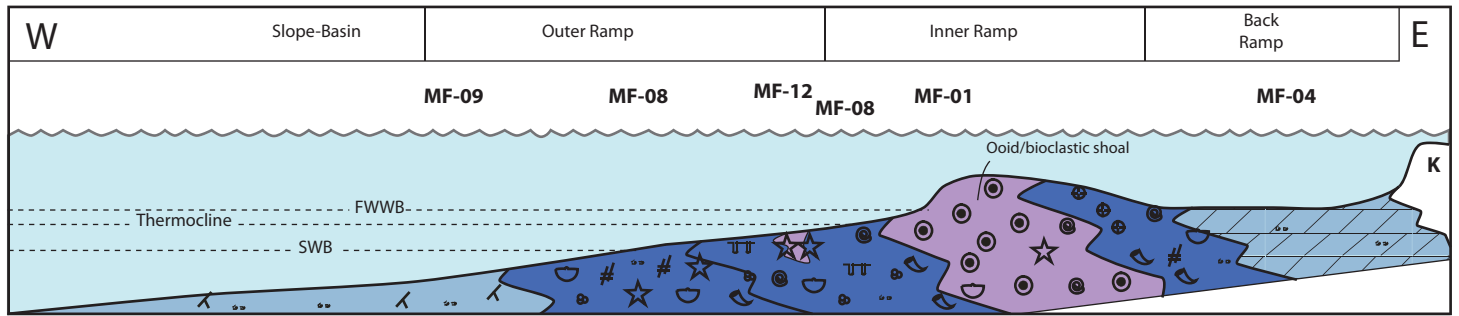




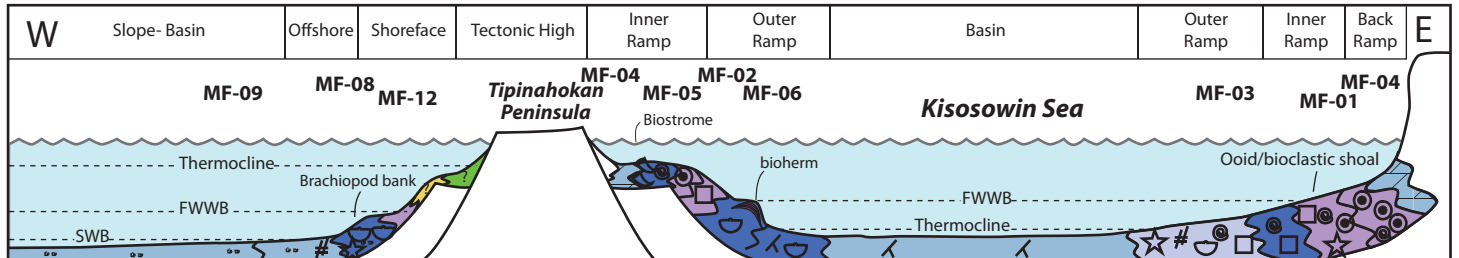




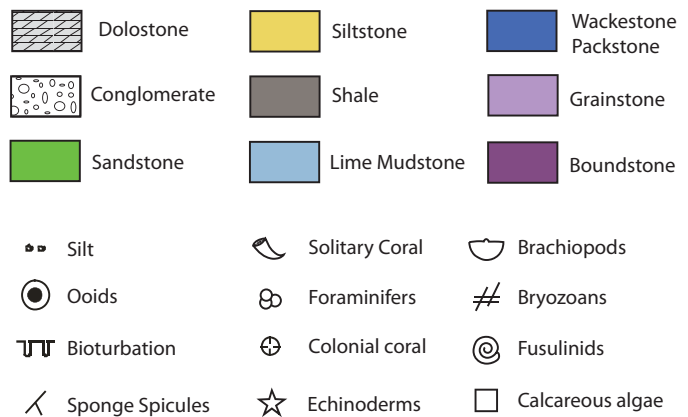
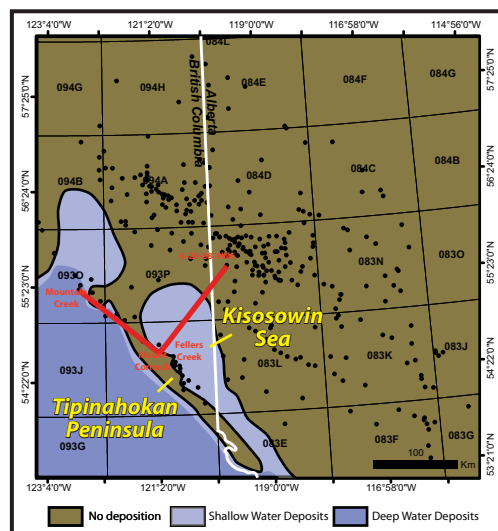
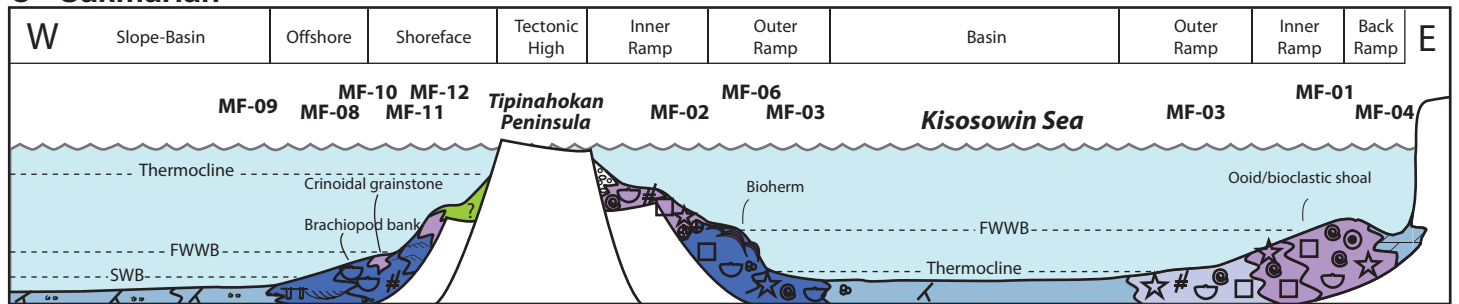
A Moscovian

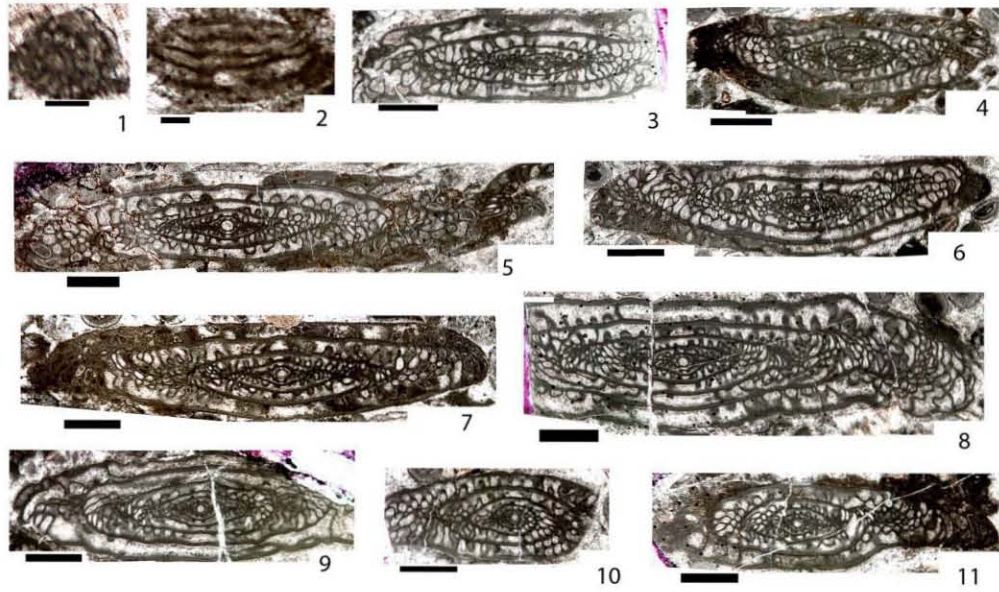


B Asselian



C Sakmarian





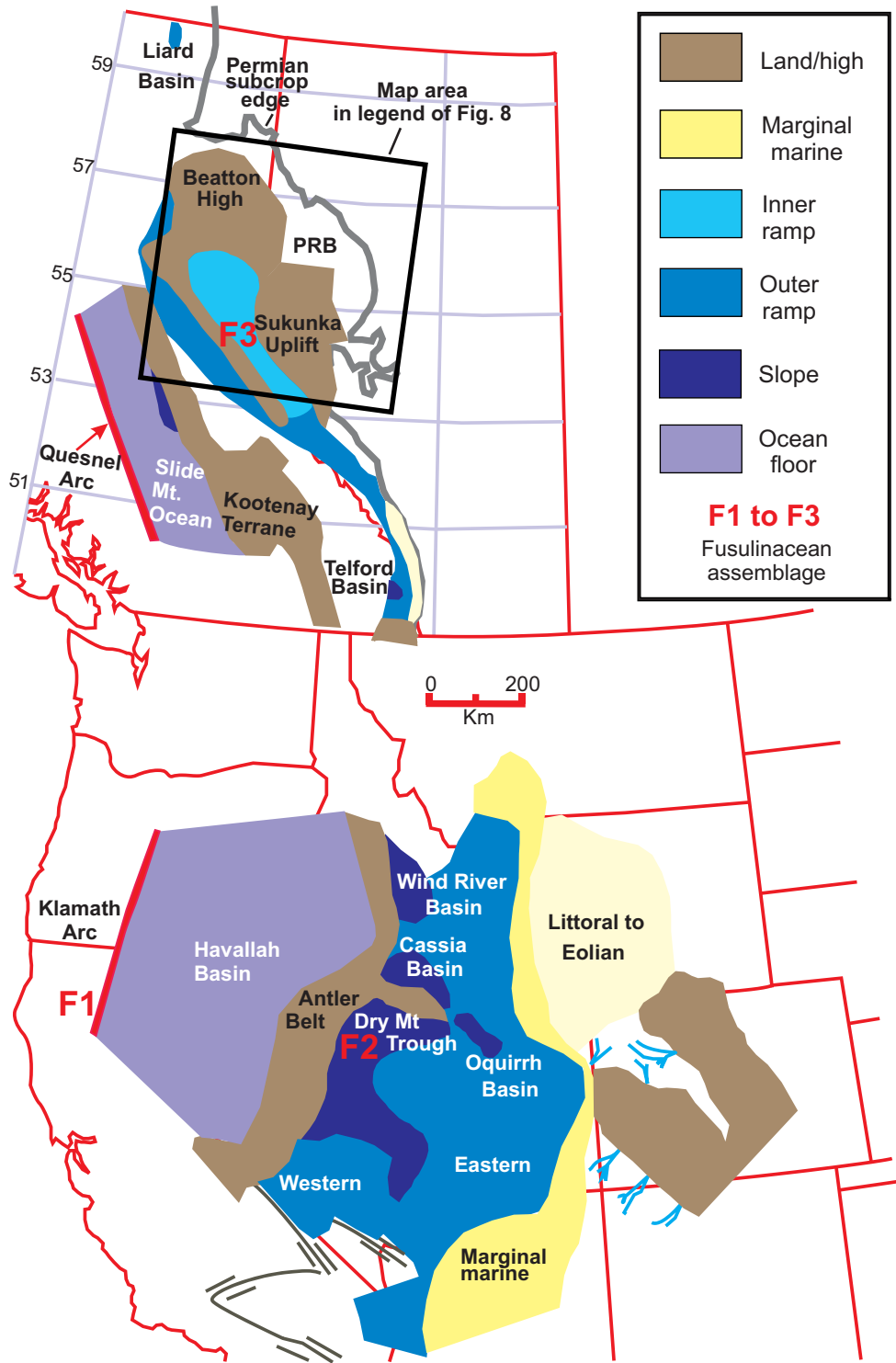


Table 01. Carbonate microfacies of Moscovian to Sakmarian Belcourt Formation, east-central British Columbia, Canada.

FWB=Fairweather Wave Base. SWB=Storm Wave Base. FCA=Fellers Creek facies assemblage. MCA=Mountain Creek facies assemblage. References are: (1) Bamber and Macqueen, 1979, (2) Wamstecker, 2007 (3) McGugan and Rapson-McGugan, 1976, (4) Kepper, 1966, (5) Mastandrea et al., 2006, (6) Frisia, 1994, (7) Aretz et al., 2010, (8) Coates and Jackson, 1987, (9) Wells, 1963, (10) Mastandrea et al., 2006, (11) *Protowentzelella kunthi* (pers. comm., E.W. Bamber 2010), (12) Soreghan et al., 2008, (13) Sun et al., 2002, (14) Frey, 1990, (15) Boyd, 2010, (16) Jones, 2010, (17) James et al., 2009, (18) Saxena and Betzler, 2003

Name	ASSOCIATION Main biota	Figured elements	Petrographic attributes	Relevant field observations	Occurrence	Depositional environment
MF-01 Ooid- Foraminifer Grainstone (Fig. 6A, 6B)	PHOTOZOAN foraminifera Fusulinid Endothyrid paleotextularid echinoderm brachiopod	ooids (60-90%) bioclasts (10-40%) broken fossils <i>Microcodium</i>	Tangential ooids former aragonite recrystallization		east & south outcrops (FCA) Fellers Creek Kinuseo Creek Meosin Mountain Mount Hanington well c-52-K/93-O-8 ⁽¹⁾ surface-subsurface NE BC ⁽²⁾	INNER RAMP (SHOAL) proximity to shoreline warm shallow high energy (FWB) oligotrophic subaerial exposure
MF-02 Algal-Bioclasic Grainstone (Fig. 6C)	PHOTOZOAN Calcareous alga Dasycladacean phyllid foraminifera echinoderm brachiopod bryozoan	broken fossils (30-70%) bioclasts (30-70%)	Little to no mud		east & south outcrops (FCA) Fellers Creek Kinuseo Creek Meosin Mountain Mount Hanington ⁽¹⁾	INNER RAMP proximity to shoal warm shallow high energy (>FWB) oligotrophic
MF-03 Bryozoan- Echinoderm Packstone- Grainstone (Fig. 6D)	HETEROZOAN- EXTENDED Bryonoderm-ext. foraminifera Fusulinid paleotextularid rugose coral solitary echinoderm brachiopod bryozoan trepostome fenestrate	bioclasts (0-30%) fossils whole & broken (0-100%)	Bryozoans branches intact <1 cm in diameter		east & south outcrops (FCA) Fellers Creek Kinuseo Creek ^(1,3) Meosin Mountain ^(1,3) Mount Hanington ^(1,3)	INNER TO MIDDLE RAMP cool shallow moderate to high energy (<FWB) oligotrophic
MF-04 Microbial Lime- to Dolomudstone (Fig. 6E)		chert clasts Rare 1-2 cm Sub-angular	Dolomitization Partial to complete Uniform Finely crystalline 5-10 μ m rhombs Laminations Light & dark bands Grade into one another	Recessive >0.5 m units Poorly exposed Laminated	east & south outcrops (FCA) Fellers Creek Kinuseo Creek (?)	INTERTIDAL BACK-RAMP low energy suspension settling high energy events microbial stabilization ^(4,5) stressed environment evaporative arid climate ^(6,7) primary to early diagenetic dolomitization

			Fabric Patchy Locally brecciated			
MF-05 Rugose Coral Wackestone Packstone (Fig. 6F)	PHOTOZOAN(?) rugose coral colonial solitary	whole fossils (100%)	dark micritic matrix	30-50 cm beds Rugose corals distribution not uniform along bedding plane not in life position not broken or abraded corallite diameter: 1-3cm	east & south outcrops (FCA) Fellers Creek	INNER RAMP (PROTECTED) biostromes protected areas >FWB rugose corals knocked over & buried quickly photic zone limitation (⁶⁻¹⁶) no Zooxanthellae-type symbionts light and depth dependent because photic zone food source (⁷⁻⁹)
MF-06 <i>Palaeoaplysina</i> Packstone Boundstone (Fig. 6G)	PHOTOZOAN Calcareous alga <i>Tubiphytes</i> Foraminifera encrusting echinoderm brachiopod bryozoan	fossils whole & broken (100%)	heavy recrystallization of <i>Palaeoaplysina</i> plates Lime mudstone and wackestone matrix fills space in between <i>Palaeoaplysina</i> plates	massively bedded units beds are 0.2-1 m thick irregular upper and lower contacts <i>Palaeoaplysina</i> plates are 2-5 mm thick and 2-5 cm long Plates parallel to bedding	east & south outcrops (FCA) Fellers Creek (two levels) Kinuseo Creek (¹) western outcrops (MCA) West Sukunka (¹)	OUTER RAMP bioherms moderate to low energy Associated with colonial rugose coral bioherms and grainstone (MF-07 and MF- 03) that formed within high-energy environments
MF-07 Colonial Rugose Boundstone (Fig. 6H)	PHOTOZOAN rugose coral colonial (¹¹)	fossils whole (100%)		Irregular patches on top of and in sharp contact with <i>Palaeoaplysina</i> Boundstone Coralites approx. 1 cm in diameter Ceroid growth form	east & south outcrops (FCA) Fellers Creek (one level)	INNER RAMP isolated bioherms high-energy environment constant wave agitation photic zone hard (lithified) substrate
MF-08 Bryozoan- Brachiopod Wackestone Packstone (Fig. 7A, 7B)	HETEROZOAN Bryonoderm echinoderm brachiopod bryozoan trepostome fenestrate foraminifera endothyrid paleotextularid	fossils broken (100%)	matrix mixed argillaceous – lime mud sometimes dolomitic	Broken fossils preserved in multiple different orientations	western outcrops (MCA) Mountain Creek West Sukunka (¹)	MIDDLE RAMP Relatively shallow Just below FWB Low energy (most of the time) Cool water
MF-09 Bioturbated Silty Lime Mudstone (Fig. 7C)	HETEROZOAN Bryonoderm sponge spicule brachiopod bryozoan foraminifera protonodosarid	fossils whole & broken (100%)	Terrigenous component is sub-angular coarse, quartz silt up to 20%. Sponge spicules commonly found in burrow fills.	Variably bioturbated feeding and dwelling traces <i>Chondrites</i> <i>Helminthopsis</i> <i>Palaeophycus</i> Planar laminae	western outcrops (MCA) Mountain Creek West Sukunka (¹)	OUTER RAMP Relatively deep Below FWB and SWB Low energy Sporadic high-energy events Suspension settling Aeolian silt in arid climate (¹²⁻¹³) Oxic sea floor conditions Cool to cold water

				often disrupted by bioturbation		
MF-10 Hummocky Cross-Stratified Silty Packstone Grainstone (Fig. 7D, 7E)	HETEROZOAN Bryonoderm echinoderm brachiopod bryozoan ostracod	fossils broken silt-size (100%)	Microgranular fabric	Small-scale hummocky cross-stratified silty Crinoidal packstone/grains tone single bed grades upwards from grainstone to a packstone overlain by <i>Zoophycos</i> (?)- rich beds	western outcrops (MCA) Mountain Creek West Sukunka(?) (¹)	SHOREFACE TO OFFSHORE TRANSITION Relatively shallow water below FWB, above SWB Regular storms Storm-related lag deposition Cool water Opportunistic organisms (¹⁴)
MF-11 Silty Cross- Bedded Packstone Grainstone (Fig. 7F)	HETEROZOAN Bryonoderm brachiopod bryozoan	fossils bioclasts silt-size (100%)	silty (as least 20%) and argillaceous microgranular	Ripples	western outcrops (MCA) Mountain Creek West Sukunka(?) (¹)	SHOREFACE shallow water above FWB Cool, eutrophic(?) water (^{15,16})
MF-12 Bioclastic Grainstone Packstone (Fig. 7G, 7H)	HETEROZOAN Bryonoderm echinoderm brachiopod (rare) bryozoan (rare) foraminifera endothyrid paleotextularid	fossils bioclasts silt-size (70-100%) Broken (10-30%) peloid	Matrix is mixed argillaceous and micrite		western outcrops (MCA) Mountain Creek (upper part) West Sukunka(?) (¹)	INNER RAMP Relatively shallow water > FWB, above SWB High energy, constant agitation Periodic storms Cool water Sediment-starved environment(?) (^{17,18})