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Abstract: Triassic basins of England developed under a regime of largely W-E extension and progressed from non-marine fluvial and aeolian sedimentation (Sherwood Sandstone Group), through semi-marine playa lacustrine deposits (Mercia Mudstone Group) to fully marine environments (Blue Anchor Formation and Penarth Group). A new tectono-stratigraphic model for the Sherwood Sandstone Group is proposed in which two major long-distance river systems developed under conditions of relative fault inactivity in the Early Triassic (Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds and equivalent) and Middle Triassic (Otter Sandstone and equivalent). These are separated by a late Early Triassic syn-rift succession of fluvioaeolian sandstones (Wildmoor and Wilmslow sandstone formations) and playa lacustrine muds (Nettlecombe Formation) which show major thickness variation and localisation with hanging wall basins. The partitioning of syn-rift deposits into mudstones in upstream basins (close to the source of water and sediment) and clean aeolian or fluvio-aeolian sandstones in downstream basins is similar to the pattern observed in the underlying Late Permian. Under conditions of rapid tectonic subsidence chains of extensional basins may become disconnected with upstream basins (Wessex Basin) acting as traps for fines and water permitting more aeolian activity in temporarily unlinked downstream basins (Worcester and Cheshire basins). In addition to tectonic controls, fluctuating climate, relief related to limestone resilience in arid settings, the smoothing effect of fill and spill sedimentation and Tethyan sea-level change all contributed toward the observed Triassic stratigraphy in England.

Suggested Reviewers: Alaistair Ruffell a.ruffell@qub.ac.uk Triassic expert Dear Editors Please find a new manuscript attached. There is a lot of new data in the paper and a lot of large colour figures which I hope can all be included.

Kind regards Andrew Newell

1 Rifts, rivers and climate recovery: a new model for the Triassic of England

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6 Abstract

7 Triassic basins of England developed under a regime of largely W-E extension and progressed from 8 non-marine fluvial and aeolian sedimentation (Sherwood Sandstone Group), through semi-marine 9 playa lacustrine deposits (Mercia Mudstone Group) to fully marine environments (Blue Anchor 10 Formation and Penarth Group). A new tectono-stratigraphic model for the Sherwood Sandstone 11 Group is proposed in which two major long-distance river systems developed under conditions of 12 relative fault inactivity in the Early Triassic (Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds and equivalent) and 13 Middle Triassic (Otter Sandstone and equivalent). These are separated by a late Early Triassic syn-rift 14 succession of fluvio-aeolian sandstones (Wildmoor and Wilmslow sandstone formations) and playa 15 lacustrine muds (Nettlecombe Formation) which show major thickness variation and localisation 16 with hanging wall basins. The partitioning of syn-rift deposits into mudstones in upstream basins 17 (close to the source of water and sediment) and clean aeolian or fluvio-aeolian sandstones in 18 downstream basins is similar to the pattern observed in the underlying Late Permian. Under 19 conditions of rapid tectonic subsidence chains of extensional basins may become disconnected with 20 upstream basins (Wessex Basin) acting as traps for fines and water permitting more aeolian activity 21 in temporarily unlinked downstream basins (Worcester and Cheshire basins). In addition to tectonic 22 controls, fluctuating climate, relief related to limestone resilience in arid settings, the smoothing 23 effect of fill and spill sedimentation and Tethyan sea-level change all contributed toward the 24 observed Triassic stratigraphy in England.

25 Keywords

26 Permian, Triassic, England, Sherwood Sandstone, Mercia Mudstone

27 1 Introduction

28 The Triassic represents a pivotal time in the geological record, both globally and within the 29 stratigraphy of England. Throughout much of the preceding Palaeozoic the continents of the world 30 had been progressively amalgamating into the supercontinent Pangaea ('all Earth'), a single 31 landmass that extended virtually from pole to pole (Stampfli et al., 2013) (Figure 1). The Triassic 32 represents an important turnaround point. Pangaea showed signs of instability almost as soon as it 33 had coalesced in the Permian and began to break apart in a process which would eventually lead to 34 the formation of the North Atlantic Ocean. In England and adjoining areas the initial rifting of 35 Pangaea was marked by the development of fault-bounded basins which acted as conduits for rivers 36 which mostly flowed away from eroding Carboniferous (Variscan) mountain belts around the 37 periphery of the Tethys Ocean (Bourquin et al., 2007; Hounslow and Ruffell, 2006; McKie and 38 Williams, 2009). As North Atlantic rifting progressed, these terrestrial basins would eventually

become marine at the end of the Triassic and into the Early Jurassic (Hesselbo et al., 2004).
However, the initial continental clastic Triassic basin fills would later assume huge economic
importance as subsurface stores for water and hydrocarbons. Triassic sandstones host western
Europe's largest onshore oilfield at Wytch Farm (Bowman et al., 1993) and together with underlying
Permian deposits represents England's second most important aquifer (Tellam, 1994).

The Triassic also marks the start of the Mesozoic which began in the wake of the end Permian mass extinction and ended with the Cretaceous-Tertiary mass extinction (Benton, 2016). The end Permian mass extinction at around 252.3 Ma was the largest of all time and had a devastating effect on marine life and terrestrial plants and animals, wiping out approximately ninety percent of all living organisms (Benton and Newell, 2014; Chen and Benton, 2012). The Triassic lasting from 252 to 201 million years was a time of gradual recovery during which time modern ecosystems and all of the key modern vertebrate groups originated (Benton, 2016).

51 The Triassic stratigraphy of England thus needs to be considered against a very dynamic background 52 of tectonic and climatic instability. Events in the Triassic are fundamental to understanding the 53 evolution of England throughout the Mesozoic and how it arrived at its current position on the 54 eastern seaboard of the North Atlantic Ocean.

55 2 Aim and methods

A great deal has been published on the structure, stratigraphy, dating and depositional systems of 56 57 the Triassic of England (Benton et al., 2002; Bourquin et al., 2007; Chadwick and Evans, 1995; 58 Hounslow and Ruffell, 2006; McKie and Williams, 2009; Warrington et al., 1980; Wills, 1970). The 59 aim of this paper is not only to summarize some of this work but to introduce as much new data as 60 possible in a very graphical form. The paper makes particular use of deep boreholes and geophysical 61 logs which have been obtained over many decades of oil, coal and hydrogeological exploration and 62 production in onshore England. Boreholes have an advantage over outcrops in that they provide a 63 continuous stratigraphic record through the often extremely thick (up to 3 km) Permo-Triassic 64 successions of England's onshore basins. Geophysical logging is a form of remote sensing where the 65 properties of rocks are determined indirectly by measuring attributes such as resistivity, radioactivity 66 and sonic velocity (Asquith and Gibson, 1982). Geophysical logs have long been used as tools for 67 high resolution stratigraphic subdivision and correlation (Whittaker et al., 1985). This study is based 68 largely on a database of 56 geophysically-logged boreholes distributed across the onshore Triassic 69 basins of England and adjacent offshore areas.

70 The paper will cover all of the Triassic, but the primary focus is on the Early and Middle Triassic 71 Sherwood Sandstone Group: a fining upward succession of fluvial conglomerates and fluvio-aeolian 72 sandstones which ranges up to around 1.2 km thick (Figure 2). The Sherwood Sandstone Group 73 represents a relatively short time span (around 10 million years) relative to the overall duration of 74 the Triassic (50.9 million years) but has long attracted the most attention because of its economic 75 importance, well-exposed sedimentary structures and tetrapod faunas (Benton et al., 2002). 76 However, it is of course impossible to understand the Sherwood Sandstone Group without 77 considering underlying Permian deposits and the overlying Middle to Late Triassic Mercia Mudstone 78 Group (Figure 2). Late Permian deposits are very much part of the Triassic story because they 79 represent the initial fill of sedimentary basins formed during orogenic collapse and regional 80 extension of the Variscan mountain belt and its foreland (McCann et al., 2006). In England and

adjacent parts of western Europe, major unconformities related to thermal uplift and erosion of the 81 82 Variscan foreland separate late Permian syn-rift deposits from early Permian molasse formed during 83 the closing stages of Variscan mountain building (Edwards et al., 1997; Glennie, 1997; Glover and Powell, 1996). The Mercia Mudstone Group must be included in the discussion because of the great 84 85 thickness (up to around 1.3 km) of this succession of playa lacustrine mudstones and evaporites, the large amount of Triassic time it occupies, and its diachronous relationship with the Sherwood 86 87 Sandstone Group (Warrington et al., 1980). An understanding of thickness changes within the 88 Mercia Mudstone Group has an important role to play in understanding the extent to which 89 tectonics controlled the deposition of the Sherwood Sandstone (Ruffell and Shelton, 1999).

90 3 Triassic palaeogeographic and palaeoclimatic context

During the Triassic, England was located on the eastern part of the Pangaean Supercontinent at a 91 92 palaeolatitude of around 20°N (Figure 1). While it was relatively close to the oceanic areas of 93 Palaeotethys and Neotethys it was largely isolated from marine influence by a chain of upland areas 94 which included the Iberian, Armorican, Vindelician and Bohemian massifs (Figure 3). In the Triassic 95 marine influence in northwest Europe was limited to incursions through narrow gateways which 96 mostly did not extend far beyond the Middle Triassic Muschelkalk Sea of the Central European Basin 97 (Franz et al., 2015; Ziegler, 1991) and the western extension of Tethys between Iberia and Africa 98 (Ziegler, 1991). The narrow fault-bounded Triassic basins of England were separated from the 99 German Basin by the London-Brabant Massif and remained an area of largely terrestrial fluvial, 100 aeolian and playa lacustrine sedimentation throughout most of the Triassic until marine 101 transgression in the Rhaetian (Blue Anchor Formation), which marked the start of long-term sea-102 level rise into the Early Jurassic (Hesselbo et al., 2004). This is not to say that the Triassic of England 103 was totally immune from marine influence. Organic-walled microplankton provide evidence of 104 marine influence in the Mid Triassic Tarporley Siltstone, coincident with the Muschelkalk 105 transgression (2008; Warrington, 1970; Williams and Whittaker, 1974). Marginal marine influence 106 continued throughout the Late Triassic with stable isotopic signatures of sulphates and dolomites 107 (Taylor, 1983) and magnesian-rich clays (Leslie et al., 1993) showing that marine and continental 108 derived waters mixed during the deposition of the Mercia Mudstone Group.

109 The bulk of the Lower to Middle Sherwood Sandstone Group is fluvial in origin and the general 110 configuration of the drainage system in the onshore Triassic basins of England has long been 111 established through the use of various sediment provenance indicators and palaeocurrent analysis 112 (Audley-Charles, 1970; Wills, 1951). The Early Triassic Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds contains 113 guartzite clasts with Ordovician and Devonian body and trace fossils that were derived from sources 114 in Brittany and Normandy (Cocks, 1993; Radley and Coram, 2015) and the presence of comparable 115 quartzite clasts in the English Midlands lead to the concept of the Budleighensis River: a major 116 drainage system which flowed for some 400 km northward from the Armorican Massif through the 117 Worcester Basin into Cheshire and NE England (Audley-Charles, 1970; Wills, 1951) (Figure 3). 118 Isotopic age determinations on detrital micas (Fitch et al., 1966), heavy minerals (Morton et al., 119 2013), zircon-age constraints (Morton et al., 2013) and the Pb isotopic composition of feldspars 120 (Tyrrell et al., 2012) largely confirm the Armorican source and concept of long-distance fluvial 121 transport paths for younger sandstone-dominated parts of the Sherwood Sandstone, although 122 Morton et al. (2013) highlight the potential for the development of multiple distinct sub-catchments 123 with local sources.

The presence of aeolian dune deposits and calcretes within the Sherwood Sandstone Group and 124 125 extensive evaporite bodies within the Mercia Mudstone Group indicate a generally warm and dry climate during the Triassic, consistent with the low palaeolatitude and relatively interior position of 126 127 England within Pangaea, where the clustering of continents is thought to have increased temperatures relative to the more dispersed pattern of today (Roscher et al., 2011). Most of the 128 129 large rivers draining northward from the Armorican Massif are believed to have been endorheic: 130 terminating within flood basins in the southern North Sea and East Irish Sea basins as discharge 131 decreased through infiltration, evaporation and channel bifurcation (McKie and Williams, 2009; 132 McKie, 2014). There must have been considerable rainfall in source areas to sustain rivers flowing 133 for large distances through arid terrain and this probably resulted from intense monsoonal precipitation falling on Armorican source areas which lay within a humid maritime climatic zone 134 close to the Tethys Ocean (Roscher et al., 2011). Further north, cross-bed orientations within 135 136 Permian and Triassic aeolian dune sandstones show that England lay within a north-easterly trade-137 wind belt (Glennie, 1997).

138 The potential for abnormal climatic conditions during the first five million years of the Triassic needs to be carefully considered when interpreting the stratigraphic record in England (Radley and Coram, 139 2016). Carbon isotope curves show that high amplitude fluctuations that are synchronous with the 140 End Permian mass extinction continued into the Early Triassic before ending abruptly early in the 141 142 Middle Triassic (Payne and Kump, 2007) (Figure 4). The disruption of the carbon cycle in the Early Triassic may have been driven by the sustained eruption of the Siberian Traps and coincides with 143 144 other indicators of abnormal terrestrial and marine conditions including a gap in coal deposition, an 145 absence of coral reefs and generally low biological diversity (Benton and Newell, 2014; Chen and Benton, 2012). 146

147 4 Tectonic framework of Triassic basins

During the Triassic, England was located at the centre of a highly complex stress and strain system 148 149 (Chadwick and Evans, 1995; Chadwick et al., 2005; Peacock, 2004). To the north of Britain was a zone 150 of major rifting which extended southwards from the Barents Sea via the Norwegian-Greenland Rift 151 into the North Sea. Rift systems were also propagating northwards from the Central Atlantic and 152 westwards across the Bay of Biscay and NW Africa (Figure 1) (Coward, 1995). A large number of 153 smaller rift basins developed across England in response to the regional tensional stress field and 154 these basins became sites for the deposition of continental clastic sediments and evaporites during 155 the late Permian and Triassic. In most cases Permo-Triassic extensional faults formed through the 156 reactivation of pre-existing Precambrian, Caledonian and Variscan faults, which cross-cut the 157 extremely anisotropic crust of the British Isles (Chadwick and Evans, 1995). Because faults are 158 reactivated rather than newly formed, it is challenging to determine the direction of the overall 159 regional tensional stress field. Using plate-tectonic reconstructions and studies of basin geometry 160 and fault kinematics Chadwick et al. (1989) proposed that Permo-Triassic extension was orientated 161 approximately E-W. This is supported by regionally extensive Pb-Zn-F mineralised fracture systems in 162 SW England, which have a predominantly N-S orientation and have been dated at 236±3 Ma at around the Ladinian-Carnian boundary (Scrivener et al., 1994). 163

Figure 5 shows the major Permo-Triassic basins and faults of England and adjacent offshore regions (Pharaoh et al., 1996), the distribution of Permo-Triassic outcrop and the approximate area of

subcrop where Permo-Triassic deposits are concealed beneath younger strata around the flanks of 166 the London-Brabant Massif (Sumbler, 1996). The Cheshire Basin contains the thickest Permo-Triassic 167 fill in England (at around 4 km) and in general terms is a south-east dipping half graben controlled by 168 the Wem-Red Rock Fault System, a reactivation of the easterly part of the extremely long-lived 169 170 Pontesfont Lineament (Woodcock, 1984). The Cheshire Basin links to the south to the relatively 171 shallow Stafford Basin and Needwood Basin, which are located to the west and east of the structural 172 high which includes the exposed Carboniferous block of the South Staffordshire Coalfield. To the 173 south is the Worcester Basin (or Worcester Graben) which, together with the smaller Knowle Basin, 174 comprises a graben system whose overall structural trend is N-S, parallel to the Malvernoid 175 structural trend of the underlying basement rocks (Chadwick and Evans, 1995). The Worcester Basin 176 is controlled by Clopton-Clapton-Northleach Fault system along its eastern margin and the East 177 Malvern Fault on the west. The Worcester Basin represents a particularly spectacular example of 178 negative basin inversion, with the area having been thrust-faulted into a structural high and area of 179 erosion during the late Carboniferous and Early Permian but switching to a subsiding extensional 180 basin in the Late Permian and Triassic, accumulating some 3 km of Permo-Triassic deposits which 181 rest unconformably on Precambrian basement rocks (Barclay et al., 1997). The development of the 182 Worcester Graben was fundamental to the development of long-distance 'Budleighensis-type' river 183 systems in the Triassic because it created a conduit through the formerly continuous Welsh-London-Brabant Massif (Glover and Powell, 1996) allowing the transit of water and sediments from sources 184 185 in the Armorican Massif of northern France toward sinks in the East Irish Sea Basin and the Southern 186 North Sea (Figure 3).

187 The deepest part of the Worcester Graben lies within the Severn Valley around Worcester (Barclay 188 et al., 1997) and to the south of this area Permo-Triassic rocks thin (Figure 7) and occur at shallower 189 elevations across the Mendip High (Figure 6). To the south of the Mendip High, is the Wessex Basin 190 which has a long history of Permian to Cretaceous extension and subsidence, followed by basin 191 inversion related to Cenozoic Alpine compression (Newell and Evans, 2011; Underhill and Stoneley, 192 1998). In its present configuration, the Wessex Basin comprises a number of typically W-E trending 193 sub-basins which include the Pewsey Basin, Mere Basin, Winterborne-Kingston Trough (or Dorset 194 Basin) and Portland Wight Basin. The Wessex Basin links eastward into the Weald Basin which lies to 195 the south of the London Platform (Figure 6). Most of the basins and sub-basins to the south of the 196 Variscan Front are related to down-to-the-south movement on predominantly W-E trending 197 extensionally-reactivated Variscan thrusts (Chadwick, 1986). However, many of these faults and 198 basins had not come into play at the relatively early Permo-Triassic stage in the extensional history 199 of southern England. As will be discussed in greater detail below, Permo-Triassic sedimentation 200 appears to have been controlled by a small sub-set of NW and N-S trending structures such as the 201 Quantocks-Coker-Cranborne fault system (Miliorizos and Ruffell, 1998). Most major west-east faults 202 and associated basins such as the Weald were inactive until the Jurassic and Cretaceous, probably 203 reflecting a change in the orientation of the regional stress field, from W-E extension in the Triassic (Scrivener et al., 1994) related to North Atlantic rifting, toward N-S extension in the Jurassic and 204 205 Cretaceous related to the rotation of Iberia and the opening of the Bay of Biscay (Chadwick et al., 206 1989).

207 Maps such as Figure 5 show that Permo-Triassic faulting was concentrated along the western part of 208 England, in a broadly north-south belt extending from SW England to the East Irish Sea; however, to 209 the east of the Pennines and to the north of the London-Brabant Massif, the East England Shelf also 210 formed an important Permo-Triassic depocentre (Figure 5). The structure of this area differs in that it has the form of a relatively undeformed NE-dipping ramp that flanked the North Sea Basin (Figure 211 212 6). On this ramp Permo-Triassic strata show gradual thickening from Nottingham toward NE Yorkshire (Figure 7 and see also Figure 15). In comparison to the fault-bounded basins of the west, 213 214 the Sherwood Sandstone of the East England Shelf is a relatively thin, uniform fluvial sandstone (Wakefield et al., 2015), which contains large stratigraphic gaps and evidence for slow rates of 215 216 vertical accretion (Medici et al., 2015). There is a marked thinning in Permo-Triassic strata between 217 the Needwood-Hinckley basin and the East England Shelf, across what Wills (1970) termed the 218 Pennine-Charnwood Sill (Figure 7).

Since the earliest structural and palaeogeographic reconstructions (Wills, 1951), areas that are 219 220 presently without a cover of Permo-Triassic deposits such as the Pennines, Wales, SW England and 221 the London-Brabant massif have been regarded as areas of non-deposition or erosion during the 222 Triassic. In reality, we can only be certain that the London-Brabant Massif was a structural high and area of non-deposition. The London-Brabant Massif had formed a positive structural element since 223 the Acadian orogenic phase in the mid Devonian (Pharaoh et al., 1993) and during the Triassic was 224 progressively onlapped, but not entirely covered (Sumbler, 1996). It remains possible that SW 225 England, Wales and the Pennines formerly had some Permo-Triassic cover that could have been 226 eroded during phases of uplift and inversion during the Early Cretaceous (McMahon and Turner, 227 1998) and Cenozoic (Brodie and White, 1994). 228

The key point from the above summary, and one that is graphically illustrated by the 3D 229 230 reconstruction of the Variscan unconformity in Figure 6, is that, with the exception of the East 231 England Shelf, the Triassic landscape is likely to have had considerable tectonically-induced 232 topography, comprising a series of deep pocket-like basins and intervening highs. At first glance this 233 tectonic configuration would not appear to be conducive for the development of long-distance 234 fluvial transport networks moving material from northern France to sediment sinks in the East Irish 235 Sea Basin and Southern North Sea (Figure 6). How such river systems, for which the Triassic is 236 renowned, could have developed on a landscape of such potentially high topographic roughness will 237 be explored in following sections.

238 5 Permo-Triassic Stratigraphy

239 5.1 The application of geophysical logs

Figure 8 shows five boreholes which are representative of the late Permian to mid Triassic 240 241 stratigraphy within the major fault-bounded basins of western England. Each borehole provides a 242 continuous record of the stratigraphy from close to the base of the Mercia Mudstone Group into 243 rocks of variable age beneath the Variscan Unconformity. The boreholes are shown with two vertical 244 geophysical log tracks, the left track contains a gamma-ray log and the right track contains a log of 245 sonic interval travel time. Gamma-ray logs are a measurement of the natural radioactivity of a rock 246 that is mostly derived from the elements uranium, thorium and potassium and the minerals that 247 contain them (Asquith and Gibson, 1982). In the Triassic terrestrial deposits of England (and 248 elsewhere) gamma-ray logs are a useful indicator of lithology because clean quartz-rich 249 conglomerates and sandstones have low gamma-ray values (typically in American Petroleum 250 Institute or API units) while mudstones rich in clay minerals have higher values. Evaporites such as 251 halite and anhydrite will also have low gamma-ray values. Careful cross-checking against borehole

252 cuttings returns needs to be undertaken because sandstones that are micaceous, such as the Triassic 253 Tarporley Siltstone Formation, or those that contain a high proportion of potassium feldspar will 254 have elevated values. The sonic log measures the interval transit time (the reciprocal of velocity) of a 255 compressional sound wave travelling through one foot of formation. The interval travel time, 256 generally shown in units of microseconds per foot (μ s/ft.), is dependent on both lithology and 257 porosity. In the Triassic of England the sonic log is particularly useful for subdividing thick sequences 258 of Permo-Triassic sandstone into those that have low porosity (short interval travel time) and those 259 that have high porosity (long interval travel time). High porosity sandstone in the Triassic of England 260 is commonly of aeolian origin while well-cemented, low porosity sandstone is generally fluvial (Meadows, 2006). 261

262 5.2 Illustrating the tectono-stratigraphic framework

In the following discussion two figures are used to illustrate the tectono-stratigraphic framework of 263 Permo-Triassic deposits in England (Figure 9 and Figure 10). The diagrams incorporate data from 264 265 geophysically logged boreholes and a semi-schematic structural model (restored to a level at around 266 the top of the Sherwood Sandstone) along the tract of extensional basins from SW England to the E 267 Irish Sea (Figure 5). The East English Shelf which, as discussed above, represents a different structural province is excluded for now. Figure 8, Figure 9 and Figure 10 are related but illustrate 268 different aspects of the stratigraphy. Figure 8 provides greater detail on the lithology and 269 270 geophysical log character of the Permian and Sherwood Sandstone Group; Figure 9 shows the 271 structural context of the lithostratigraphy and includes additional boreholes and information on the 272 stratigraphy of the Mercia Mudstone Group; Figure 10 is a semi-schematic view of lithofacies 273 distribution in the Permian and Sherwood Sandstone of the major basins.

274 5.3 Late Permian stratigraphy

275 Late Permian deposits overlie the Variscan Unconformity and may rest on rocks of highly variable 276 age from Precambrian to Early Permian (Smith, 1985). The well-exposed Permian stratigraphy in SW 277 England is complex but shows a broadly fining upward trend from basal fan breccias and aeolian 278 sandstones (Newell, 2001) into thick playa lacustrine mudstones (with local aeolian sandstones) of 279 the Aylesbeare Group, which are latest Permian (Capitanian to Wuchiapingian) in age (Hounslow et 280 al., 2017). A comparable stratigraphy, marked by a progressive upwards increase in gamma-ray 281 values as thick mudstone deposits are entered (Figure 8), is seen in concealed parts of the Wessex 282 Basin (Hamblin et al., 1992). In basins to the north of the Wessex Basin, the Late Permian 283 stratigraphy is markedly different. In the Worcester Basin almost 1 km of clean aeolian sandstone 284 characterised by uniformly low gamma-ray value and a high sonic interval travel time (Figure 8) was 285 proved by the Kempsey borehole (Barclay et al., 1997). These aeolian sandstones are correlated with 286 the Bridgnorth Sandstone Formation at outcrop which were deposited by a combination of 287 transverse and barchanoid draas under the influence of winds which predominantly blew from the 288 east (Karpeta, 1990). Aeolian sandstones with similar gamma and sonic log characteristics are 289 present in the Stafford Basin but here are much thinner (Figure 8). In the Cheshire Basin and East 290 Irish Sea Basin thick correlative sequences of aeolian sandstone are termed the Collyhurst 291 Sandstone (Jackson and Mulholland, 1993). In the East Irish Sea Basin the Permian stratigraphy is 292 distinguished by the presence of the Manchester Marls which overlie the Collyhurst Sandstone. The 293 Manchester Marls is mostly a fine-grained unit of mudstones, carbonates and evaporites and is a 294 general correlative of the St Bees Evaporites, which are coeval with Zechstein Cycles EZ1 and EZ2 on

the Eastern England Shelf (Smith, 1995). The Manchester Marls can be traced for a short distance
into north Cheshire toward the Knutsford and Prees boreholes but are much thinner and less
conspicuous in geophysical logs (Figure 9).

In summary, the stratigraphic pattern for the Permian is relatively simple. In the Wessex Basin there is a predominance of muddy playa lacustrine deposits, while basins to the north are filled almost entirely by thick intervals of aeolian sandstone. The aeolian sandstones show marked changes in thickness and toward the margins of the East Irish Sea Basin start to show evidence of the Zechstein/Bakevellia margin transgression through the inclusion of mudstones of the Manchester Marls (Smith, 1995).

304 5.4 Triassic Stratigraphy

305 There has always been considerable uncertainty over the position of the Permo-Triassic boundary in 306 the English Triassic because it generally lies within a thick succession of terrestrial mudstones, 307 sandstones and conglomerates with extremely sparse biostratigraphical control (Warrington et al., 308 1980). New palaeomagnetic data from SW England, however, provides evidence that the base of the 309 Sherwood Sandstone Group is broadly coincident with the Permo-Triassic boundary (Hounslow and 310 McIntosh, 2003; Hounslow et al., 2017), and the lowermost, conglomeratic, part of the Sherwood 311 Sandstone Group (Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds in SW England) is likely to be Olenekian in age. 312 Hounslow et al. (2017) indicate a 7 Ma hiatus between the Budleigh Salterton Pebble Bed and the 313 underlying Late Permian Aylesbeare Mudstone Group in SW England. In most places this boundary is 314 a sharp erosion surface and may show evidence of considerable topography (Steel and Thompson, 315 1983).

316 The magnetostratigraphy and correlation of conglomerate units at the base of the Sherwood 317 Sandstone (Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds, Kidderminster Formation, Cannock Chase Formation, 318 Chester Pebble Beds) is far from complete (Hounslow et al., 2017) but these units are united by a 319 strong similarity in quartzite-dominated clast composition and sedimentology when traced from the 320 Wessex Basin in the south, through the Worcester Graben and into the Midlands: observations 321 which lead to the concept that they were deposited in a large, connected 'Budleighensis' river 322 system flowing northward from the Armorican Massif (Wills, 1951). In the Wessex Basin and in the 323 Midlands, the planar, trough and horizontally bedded conglomerates are interpreted as the product 324 of gravel bars within substantial but poorly confined braided channels (Smith and Edwards, 1991; 325 Steel and Thompson, 1983). The conglomerates are typically only a few tens of metres thick and are 326 readily identified on geophysical logs by their low gamma-ray values and low sonic travel times suggesting extensive cementation (Figure 8). Further to the NW in the Cheshire Basin the Chester 327 328 Pebble Beds become finer grained and pass laterally into correlative fluvial sandstones of the St Bees 329 Sandstones of the East Irish Sea Basin (Jones and Ambrose, 1994; Medici et al., 2015). Interestingly 330 there is evidence that the Early Triassic gravelly braided rivers of the Midland also flowed to the NE, 331 correlating with the pebbly Nottingham Castle Sandstone which fines and thickens toward NE 332 England (see Figure 15) (Wakefield et al., 2015).

While the base of the Sherwood Sandstone conglomerates is a sharp erosion surface, the top is generally a gradual transition into fluvial pebbly sandstones, sandstones and thin mudstones (Ambrose et al., 2014). This unit of overlying fluvial sandstones tends to be highly variable in thickness relative to the underlying fluvial conglomerates. The top of the fluvial sandstones is 337 typically marked by an abrupt shift on sonic logs toward longer interval travel times, generally accompanied by a shift toward lower and less variable gamma-ray values. This geophysical log 338 339 character is most clearly illustrated in Figure 8 by boreholes at Ranton, Knutsford and 110/10-1 in the East Irish Sea Basin. The geophysical log shift marks an important change in lithofacies toward an 340 341 interval of mixed aeolian and fluvial deposits, which in the Cheshire Basin is termed the Wilmslow Sandstone Formation, a lateral correlative of the Wildmoor Sandstone in the Worcester Basin and 342 343 Calder Sandstone of the East Irish Sea Basin. In marked contrast to the underlying fluvial deposits, 344 these sandstones are typically silty, micaeous and very poorly cemented, leading to their former use 345 as naturally-bonded moulding sands in the foundries of the Midlands (Highley and Cameron, 1995). 346 Intra-formational sandstone and mudstone clasts predominate in the fluvio-aeolian deposits over extra-formation clasts such as quartzite (Bouch et al., 2006). The Wildmoor and Wilmslow sandstone 347 348 formations typically show a range of cross-bedding, cross-lamination, low-angle lamination and wavy 349 lamination and appear to have been deposited in both fluvial and relatively wet aeolian 350 environments (Bloomfield et al., 2006; Bouch et al., 2006). Thicker aeolian dune deposits with highangle cross-bedding (Thurstaston Sandstone) are locally developed at the top of the Wilmslow 351 352 Sandstone in the Cheshire Basin (Howard et al., 2007; Thompson, 1970). The Wilmslow and 353 Wildmoor sandstone formations shows very large thickness variation and in the Cheshire Basin 354 seismic data shows an angular discordance and major unconformity with the overlying Helsby 355 Formation (Evans et al., 1993).

356 In the Wessex Basin, strata equivalent to the Wildmoor and Wilmslow Sandstone are often assumed to be absent (Ambrose et al., 2014). This interpretation is based on observations from outcrop in S 357 358 Devon where the Otter Sandstone Formation appears to rest directly on a ventifact layer developed 359 on the upper surface of the Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds (Wright et al., 1991). However, in 360 concealed parts of the Sherwood Sandstone Group to the east, the Nettlecombe borehole shows an 361 approximately 65 m thick layer of mudstone and anhydrite between the Budleigh Salterton Pebble 362 Beds and the Otter Sandstone Formation (Figure 8). On the Nettlecombe borehole completion log 363 this unit was called the 'Bunter Anhydrite and Shales' while Holloway et al. (1989) termed this 364 interval SS2 in their Sherwood Sandstone stratigraphic scheme. In this paper it is called the 365 Nettlecombe Formation and, despite the major difference in lithology, is considered a lateral 366 correlative of the Wildmoor-Wilmslow-Calder formations (Figure 8). The reasons for this are explored in greater detail in a following section. 367

The uppermost part of the Sherwood Sandstone Group includes the Otter Sandstone Formation in 368 the Wessex Basin, the Bromsgove Sandstone Formation in the Midlands, the Helsby Sandstone 369 370 Formation in the Cheshire Basin and the Ormskirk Sandstone Formation of the East Irish Sea Basin. In 371 comparison to other parts of the Permo-Triassic of England, this slice of the stratigraphy is relatively 372 well constrained by biostratigraphy and magnetostratigraphy (Benton et al., 1994; Hounslow and 373 McIntosh, 2003; Seyfullah et al., 2013; Warrington et al., 1980). The Otter Sandstone Formation 374 contains a varied tetrapod fauna dominated by rhynchosaurs and has generally been considered 375 Anisian in age (Benton et al., 1994), a conclusion now supported by magnetostratigraphy (Hounslow 376 and McIntosh, 2003). Plants, palynomorphs and tetrapods also indicate an Anisian age for the 377 Bromsgrove Sandstone and Helsby Sandstone (Benton et al., 1994; Seyfullah et al., 2013). In the 378 Cheshire Basin, palynomorphs indicate that part of the Mercia Mudstone Group up to the level of 379 the Byley Mudstone is also of Anisian age; showing that the boundary between the Sherwood 380 Sandstone Group and Mercia Mudstone Group is diachronous, becoming younger southwards as

the limit of sand deposition was pushed closer to source areas, coincident with (part) of theMuschelkalk transgression in the German Basin (Franz et al., 2015).

383 The basal part of the Otter-Bromsgrove-Helsby sandstone formations represents a resurgence in the 384 input of extra-formational quartzite clasts, which occur within cross-bedded fluvial sandstones (Ambrose et al., 2014; Old et al., 1991). In most places the base of these Mid Triassic sandstones is 385 an erosion surface which cuts across different parts of the underlying Sherwood Sandstone 386 387 stratigraphy. In the Cheshire Basin, an angular unconformity between the Wilmslow Sandstone and the Helsby Sandstone is discernible in seismic reflection data (Evans et al., 1993). This major intra-388 389 Triassic unconformity has long been correlated with, and indeed named after, the Hardesgen 390 Unconformity of the German Basin (Audley-Charles, 1970; Warrington, 1970; Wills, 1970). However, 391 while there is no dispute regarding the existence of an unconformity at this level in the stratigraphy, 392 Hounslow and McIntosh (2003) suggest that it may not be the exact correlative of the Hardesgen 393 Unconformity of the German Basin. For this reason a more generalised term such as mid-Triassic 394 unconformity may be preferable.

In the Wessex Basin (Otter Sandstone Formation), Worcester Graben (Bromsgrove Sandstone 395 396 Formation) and Cheshire Basin (Delamere Member of the Helsby Sandstone) the sandstones 397 overlying the mid-Triassic unconformity are predominantly fluvial (Newell, 2006; Old et al., 1991), 398 with broadly northward-directed palaeocurrents and provenance indicators which suggest the re-399 emergence of a Budleighensis-type river system with long-distance transport of sediment from 400 sources in the Armorican massif northward into the East Irish Sea Basin (Tyrrell et al., 2012) (Figure 401 10). In contrast to the first (Early Triassic) development of this long-distance river system it appears 402 that no sediment was delivered across the Pennine-Charnwood Sill onto the East England Shelf: here 403 an unconformity exists between the Nottingham Castle Sandstone Formation and the Mercia 404 Mudstone Group. Instead all of the sediment was diverted into the Cheshire Basin and onward into 405 the East Irish Sea Basin. Here the Helsby Sandstone (Mountney and Thompson, 2002; Thompson, 406 1970) and Ormskirk Sandstone (Meadows, 2006) show complex interbedding of aeolian and fluvial 407 deposits in an area which must have been close to the terminus of these major endorheic rivers.

408 The Mid Triassic sandy river systems of England were relatively short-lived as coincident with the 409 Muschelkalk transgression into the German Basin they began a process of back-stepping toward 410 their sources in the Armorican Massif of northern France. By the Anisian playa lacustrine mudstones 411 and evaporites of the Mercia Mudstone Group were already accumulating in the Cheshire Basin and 412 had advanced into the Wessex Basin by the Ladinian. Base-level rise and back-stepping was marked 413 by the development of transitional tidally-influenced facies such as those seen in the Tarporley 414 Siltstone of the Midlands (McKie and Williams, 2009; Williams and Whittaker, 1974). In the Wessex 415 Basin the Otter Sandstone Formation shows an upward change from amalgamated fluvial sheet 416 sandstones into heterolithic point-bar deposits and overbank or frontal splays (Newell and 417 Shariatipour, 2016). By the Ladinian major sandy fluvial sedimentation was largely extinguished 418 across England and the Triassic basins became sites of fine-grained playa lacustrine and marginal 419 marine deposition, marked by the localised development of evaporitic lake deposits within the 420 Mercia Mudstone Group (Simms and Ruffell, 1989). With continued subsidence and sea-level rise 421 the terrestrial and quasi-marine environments of the Mercia Mudstone Group would shift to fully 422 marine at the end of the Triassic and into the Early Jurassic (Hesselbo et al., 2004).

423 In summary, while facies patterns are locally complex, the Triassic Sherwood Sandstone Group can 424 be broadly considered in terms of the development of two major through-going fluvial systems 425 (labelled 1 and 2 on Figure 10). These are separated by sequence of mixed fluvio-aeolian sandstones 426 in the Worcester and Cheshire basins (Wildmoor and Wilmslow sandstone formations) and 427 mudstones and evaporites (Nettlecombe Formation) in the Wessex Basin. At this stratigraphic level 428 the partitioning of mud and sand either side of the Mendip High is comparable to that seen in the 429 late Permian. Deposits of the through-going river systems (Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds and Otter 430 Sandstone and their lateral equivalents) are typically pebbly toward the base, overlie a major erosive 431 unconformity and tend to form thin, laterally extensive units which cross basin-bounding faults. By 432 contrast intervening deposits (Nettlecombe-Wildmoor-Wilmslow formations) tend to be localised 433 and are rotated within fault-bounded basins. This suggests variable extension-related subsidence 434 during the Triassic, a concept that is explored in greater detail below using the Wessex Basin as an 435 example.

436 6 Variable rift activity: an example from the Wessex Basin

In many rift-basins, subsidence related to extension and normal faulting is not a continuous process 437 438 but consists of discrete episodes of fault activity separated by periods of tectonic quiescence (Leeder 439 and Gawthorpe, 1987; Newell, 2000). Evidence for variable fault activity can be found in the 440 stratigraphic record, using for example relative changes in thickness across a fault, and has already 441 been demonstrated from the Triassic of England and adjacent areas (Miliorizos and Ruffell, 1998; 442 Ruffell and Shelton, 1999). Here we consider an example from the Wessex Basin, expanding on some 443 of the discussion in previous parts of the paper. The Wessex Basin contains a number of major fault 444 structures which appear to have had an important control on Triassic depositional patterns. These 445 include the Quantocks Fault (Miliorizos and Ruffell, 1998), the Wynford-Hooke Fault, the Beer-446 Musbury fault zone and, to a lesser extent, the Cranborne Fault (Figure 11). The area to the west of 447 the Wynford-Hooke Fault around Nettlecombe appears to have formed a particularly important 448 Triassic depocentre (Butler, 1998; Holloway et al., 1989) and is here termed the south Dorset sub-449 basin. The area to the west of the Beer-Musbury fault zones was a subsidiary Triassic basin and is 450 here termed the south Devon sub-basin. The evidence for these basins and their variable subsidence 451 rates throughout the Triassic is provided by thickness and facies patterns in deep boreholes.

452 Figure 12 shows a correlation panel of six deep boreholes which extends from immediately behind 453 the coastal outcrop of the Sherwood Sandstone Group near Sidmouth in south Devon eastwards 454 toward Cranborne. The correlation panel crosses the Beer-Musbury fault zone, the Wynford-Hooke 455 Fault and the Cranborne Fault and is restored (flattened) to a stratigraphic level at the top of the 456 Sherwood Sandstone Group. The main lithostratigraphic units are correlated for the Triassic interval. In the Wessex Basin, the lowermost of these, the Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds, is readily identified 457 458 in geophysical logs (and cuttings returns) by a low blocky gamma ray response and low sonic interval 459 travel time (Figure 12). Traced from coastal outcrop, across the Musbury high and toward 460 Nettlecombe the Budleigh Salterton Pebble shows some, but relatively minor, thickening into the 461 south Dorset sub-basin. The conglomerates are not present to the east of the Wynford-Hooke Fault. Above the conglomerates are an interval of mudstones and evaporites which are here called the 462 463 Nettlecombe Formation. Holloway et al. (1989) included these within their SS2 unit of the Sherwood 464 Sandstone Group. These show very marked thickening and localisation within the south Dorset sub-465 basin suggesting strong movement on the Wynford-Hooke Fault. A comparable unit of mudstone

466 and evaporite is not present at the much-visited outcrops at Budleigh Salterton in south Devon. The presence of a ventifact layer and palaeosol at the top of the Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds may 467 468 indicate a lengthy hiatus at this level (Wright et al., 1991). Based on our general understanding of 469 sedimentation within active extensional half-graben (Leeder and Gawthorpe, 1987) it is possible that 470 deposition had moved eastwards toward an active depocentre in the hanging wall of the Beer-471 Musbury fault zone. Alternatively, the Nettlecombe Formation may correlate with the thin (15 m) 472 package of aeolian sandstones (see Figure 16) which overlie the Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds and 473 are eroded by the overlying fluvial Otter Sandstone Formation (Newell, 2006). Evidence from the 474 Monk's Wall borehole to the east of Budleigh Salterton indicates that the aeolian sandstones pass 475 laterally into reddish brown mudstones with a high gamma-ray response (Figure 12), a possible thin 476 lateral equivalent of the Nettlecombe Formation. The overlying Otter Sandstone Formation forms a 477 sheet of relatively consistent thickness between outcrop in south Devon and Nettlecombe. It also 478 marks a considerable expansion in the area of deposition as it crosses the Wynford-Hooke Fault and 479 thins and onlaps the Mid-Dorset Platform and parts of the Cranborne-Fordingbridge High (Figure 480 11).

481 During the deposition of the overlying Mercia Mudstone Group the major Quantock-Coker-482 Cranborne Fault appears to have a major control on the deposition of Late Triassic playa lacustrine mudstones and evaporites (Miliorizos and Ruffell, 1998). There is marked thinning of the Mercia 483 484 Mudstone Group across the Cranborne Fault, particularly at the level of the Dorset Halite (and correlative Arden Sandstone) of Carnian age (Warrington et al., 1980) (Figure 12). It is notable that 485 this phase of extension-driven subsidence correlates with the development of numerous N-S 486 487 orientated mineralised veins in SW England (Scrivener et al., 1994) and indeed what appears to have 488 been a major phase of extension across western Europe during the Carnian (Arche and López-489 Gómez, 2014).

490 In summary then, it would appear that in the Wessex Basin the coarse-grained deposits of the 491 Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds and Otter Sandstone Formation formed during episodes of relatively 492 low fault activity, supporting the conclusions of Ruffell and Shelton (1999). It might indeed be 493 expected that major long-range fluvial drainage systems flowing across the structural grain of 494 extensional basins required relative tectonic quiescence to develop (Smith and Edwards, 1991). In 495 the Wessex Basin there is evidence for two particularly marked phases of active extension and 496 subsidence in the Triassic, during the later parts of the Olenekian (Nettlecombe Formation) and in 497 the Carnian (Dorset Halite). These were marked by the development of saline lakes captured within 498 the rapidly subsiding footwalls of active extensional faults.

499 7 The importance of inherited topography

Tectonics is not the only mechanism of creating topography. The late Permo-Triassic extensional 500 501 basins of England are flanked and underlain by a wide range of bedrock types, ranging from early 502 Permian sedimentary deposits to Precambrian metamorphic rocks, brought together during several 503 orogenic cycles (Pharaoh et al., 1993; Smith, 1985). Different bedrock types weather and erode at 504 different rates and it is likely that during the lengthy phase of post-Variscan uplift and erosion in the 505 mid Permian associated with the Saalian and Altmark unconformities (see Figure 2), that 506 considerable surface topography was generated by differential denudation. In particular, Simms 507 (2004) highlights the marked difference in the denudation rates of limestone relative to silicate rocks

508 and how this can vary under different climates. Silicates are removed largely by mechanical erosion 509 processes but limestone is removed primarily by chemical dissolution at a rate that is directly 510 proportional to runoff and the prolonged availability of water (Simms, 2004). Under the generally hot and arid climate that existed during the Permian and Triassic in England it is likely that low 511 rainfall and a sparse vegetation cover would have enhanced the mechanical degradation of silicates 512 while inhibiting the denudation of limestone (Simms, 2004). Limestones would therefore have 513 514 tended to form topographic highs, a point that is graphically illustrated by Variscan fold structures in 515 the Mendip Hills of southwest England (Figure 13) where Triassic breccia and mudstone drapes a 516 recently exhumed Permo-Triassic landscape that preserves large Carboniferous limestone ridges 517 adjacent to troughs underlain by Devonian sandstone (Simms, 2004).

518 Carboniferous limestone is not restricted to the Mendip Hills, but occurs at subcrop in a broad belt 519 which extends across the northern parts of the Wessex Basin and into the Weald Basin: the former 520 Dinantion carbonate shelf on the southern flanks of the Wales-Brabant High (Waters and Davies, 521 2006) (Figure 13). This belt of limestone lay across the path of Triassic rivers attempting to flow 522 northward from the Wessex Basin into the Worcester Graben. A north-south transect of boreholes 523 from Cranborne to Cooles Farm show that it probably had a strong influence on Permo-Triassic 524 depositional patterns (Figure 14). The Sherwood Sandstone shows severe attenuation over the 525 Carboniferous limestone in the Farley South borehole and thickens to the south and north into the 526 adjacent basins which are underlain by shales and sandstone. The Carboniferous limestone is 527 associated with localised limestone-clast breccias which overlie the Carboniferous limestone in the 528 Farley South borehole and form a relatively thick succession at the base of the Lockerley borehole 529 around 7 km to the east (Figure 14). The breccias occur in association with red-brown mudstone and 530 while the age of these facies is unknown they appear broadly analogous to those developed around 531 limestone ridges in the Mendip Hills (Simms, 2004). Limestone-related topography could of course 532 not be due entirely to the particularly slow denudation rate of this lithology under arid conditions. In 533 some cases limestones could have formed, what would be under arid conditions, extremely robust 534 footwall blocks to active extensional faults (Goldsworthy and Jackson, 2000).

A second ridge of Lower Carboniferous limestone extends SE from the Derbyshire Dome and along the NE flanks of the Leicestershire Coalfield (Figure 15). This limestone ridge is also associated with anomalously thin Permo-Triassic successions, with only a few metres of sandstone found beneath the Mercia Mudstone Group in the Etwall borehole before entering Carboniferous limestone (Figure 15). It is possible that the Pennine-Charnwood Sill of Wills (1970) had at least a partial origin as an exposed block of limestone that was resistant to denudation under Permo-Triassic climates.

541 8 Climate change and vegetation cover

Tectonics is rarely the only control on the stratigraphic record and the importance of climate change on Triassic continental sedimentation in England and adjacent basins has already been shown (McKie, 2014; Simms and Ruffell, 1990). Climate change could have driven shifts in episodes of aeolian and fluvial sedimentation within the Sherwood Sandstone and the water balance of playa lakes during the deposition of the Mercia Mudstone Group.

The Early Triassic is particularly notable for marked instability in the carbon cycle which appears to have been associated with the massive flood volcanism of the Siberian Traps (Figure 4). Volatility in levels of greenhouse gases may have caused severe instability in the earth's atmospheric and marine systems, accounting for the anomalous absence of coals, coral reefs and other biological products in
the Early Triassic stratigraphical record (Chen and Benton, 2012; Corsetti et al., 2005). The Early
Triassic of England (and elsewhere) is well known for its paucity of body and trace fossils (Bourquin
et al., 2007; Seyfullah et al., 2013).

554 In western Europe, plant fossils show an initial Early Triassic survival period dominated by the lycopsids, and it was not until the Early Anisian that there was a resurgence of conifers (e.g. within 555 556 the 'Grès á Voltzia' Formation in NE France) followed by pteridosperms and cycadophytes in the Late Anisian, typical of the Dont Formation of NE Italy (Seyfullah et al., 2013). The likelihood of relatively 557 558 sparse plant cover within Early Triassic drainage basins could have had a major influence on the size 559 and behaviour of rivers: possibly analogous to pre-Silurian environments where uncontrolled runoff 560 and erosion and a lack of biological sediment binding favoured the development of large braided river systems (Eriksson et al., 2006; Radley and Coram, 2016). Moreover, analogous to what is 561 projected under modern global warming (IPCC, 2014), rainfall may have been of low frequency but 562 extremely high intensity: driving the development of large 'Budleighensis-type' river systems, which 563 564 under semi-arid conditions would tend to scale to the largest flood event rather than average 565 discharge (Newell et al., 1999).

566 Toward the end of the Lower Triassic (Olenekian) the mixed aeolian and fluvial sandstones of the 567 Wildmoor and Wilmslow sandstone formations and the evaporitic lake deposits of the Nettlecombe 568 Formation point toward a phase of increasing aridity in England. However, in the Anisian fluvial 569 sandstones return which, relative to those of the Early Triassic, shows a marked increase in the 570 abundance of plants, as shown by root traces (rhizocretions) in the Otter Sandstone Formation 571 (Purvis and Wright, 1991) and plant fossils in the Bromsgrove Sandstone (Seyfullah et al., 2013). 572 Invertebrate and vertebrate fossils are also found within most middle Triassic formations of England 573 (Benton et al., 2002; Benton et al., 1994). Both the Otter Sandstone Formation and the Bromsgrove 574 Sandstone Formation show evidence that humidity may have been increasing throughout the Middle 575 Triassic (Figure 16). Calcrete or early diagenetic carbonate, which is typically (but not exclusively) 576 associated with warm and seasonally to mostly dry climates (Tanner, 2010), predominates in the 577 lower half of the formations and shows a marked decrease toward the top, while in the Bromsgrove 578 Sandstone plant remains become common toward the top of the formation (Old et al., 1991). This 579 was concurrent with the Muschelkalk transgression of the German basin and it is possible that the 580 apparent increase in humidity may be related to the local ingress of marine waters bringing 581 moisture-laden air into the formerly dry continental interior of Pangaea. This local effect may have 582 enhanced climatic amelioration related to the abrupt stabilisation of the global carbon cycle in the Middle Triassic (Payne and Kump, 2007) (Figure 4). 583

584 In England the relatively biologically-diverse river systems of the 'Mid Triassic optimum' were 585 severely disrupted by the transgression of the Mercia Mudstone Group, whose playa lacustrine 586 environments and semi-marine saline pans had extended across all of the English basins by the 587 Ladinian (Leslie et al., 1993). The climate was generally hot and arid throughout most of the Late Triassic (and into the Early Jurassic) with the exception of a widespread and well-constrained pluvial 588 589 event in the Carnian, which may have been related to the rifting of Pangaea through disruption of 590 atmospheric and marine circulation, sea-level change, or the effects of rift-related volcanism (Arche 591 and López-Gómez, 2014; Simms and Ruffell, 1989).

592 9 A new tectono-stratigraphic model for the Sherwood593 Sandstone

594 While climate was clearly an important control on Triassic stratigraphy, it seems possible to 595 rationalise the Sherwood Sandstone Group (and it is useful here to include related Late Permian 596 deposits) into two general tectono-stratigraphic models which emphasise variable rates of fault 597 activity and differential subsidence (Figure 17).

598 The first model (Figure 17A) illustrates a phase of active extensional faulting with strong differential 599 subsidence between basins and highs. During this phase upstream basins (i.e. those close to sources 600 of water and sediment) accumulate evaporitic playa lacustrine deposits while downstream basins 601 (disconnected from sources across intra-basinal highs) because depocentres for aeolian or mixed 602 fluvio-aeolian sand. This happened at two main time intervals. First during the Upper Permian when 603 the upstream Wessex Basin was infilled by heterolithic breccias, sandstones and mudstones of the 604 Aylesbeare Mudstone Group (and associated units), while to the north (downstream) thick piles of 605 clean aeolian sand (Bridgnorth and Collyhurst formations) were trapped within the Worcester and 606 Cheshire under the influence of NE trade winds. Second, toward the end of the Early Triassic when 607 the upstream Wessex Basin again became a site for muddy and evaporitic playa lacustrine deposits 608 (Nettlecombe Formation) trapped within rapidly subsiding hanging wall basins. Meanwhile to the 609 north in the downstream Worcester and Cheshire Basin the basins were primarily filled with mixed 610 fluvio-aeolian deposits of the Wildmoor and Wilmslow sandstone formations. The upper sandstone-611 dominated part of the fluvial Chester Formation (and correlative strata) should probably be included 612 in this syn-rift stratigraphy because it tends to show substantial thickness variation. In both cases 613 therefore the upstream Wessex Basin appears to have acted as a 'silt-trap' intercepting water and fine-grained sediments derived from Armorican sources to the south and allowing clean aeolian 614 615 sandstones to accumulate in relatively dry, tectonically-disconnected downstream basins to the 616 north.

The second model (Figure 17B) illustrates a phase of relative tectonic quiescent phases where there 617 618 was little topography related to differential tectonic subsidence of fault blocks and topography 619 related to previous episodes of tectonism had been smoothed by a sedimentary fill and spill process 620 during waning fault activity. Under these conditions long-distance river systems were able to 621 transport water and sediment across the chain of basins and highs. This happened at two separate 622 times during the deposition of the Sherwood Sandstone Group. First during the Early Triassic when 623 the main gravelly 'Budleighensis' river system developed and second during the Mid Triassic when 624 the Otter Sandstone-Bromsgrove Sandstone-Helsby Sandstone formations formed a major linked 625 northward-flowing drainage system. The deposits of these long-range fluvial systems share the 626 characteristics of being relatively thin and uniform in thickness, having a major erosive unconformity 627 at the base and overstepping basin-bounding faults. Intrabasinal highs still had a major control on 628 thickness patterns. For example, across the Mendip High underlain by Carboniferous limestone the 629 Otter Sandstone Formation shows considerable thinning while the Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds 630 appear to be entirely absent. Such intrabasinal highs may therefore have been areas of sediment 631 bypass, which left no, or an extremely localised, sedimentary record. Alternatively sediments 632 deposited on these highs could have been reworked and eroded during subsequent episodes of 633 rifting.

Episodes of extensional fault activity continued throughout the Late Triassic and appear to have been particularly marked in the Carnian where they are associated with thick halites and sandstones in the Mercia Mudstone Group (Simms and Ruffell, 1989) and the development of numerous N-S trending mineralised veins in SW England (Scrivener et al., 1994).

638 10 Conclusions

639 Triassic basins of England developed under a regime of largely W-E extension and progressed from 640 non-marine fluvial and aeolian sedimentation (Sherwood Sandstone Group), through semi-marine 641 playa lacustrine deposits (Mercia Mudstone Group) to fully marine environments (Blue Anchor 642 Formation and Penarth Group). A new tectono-stratigraphic model for the Sherwood Sandstone 643 Group is proposed in which two major long-distance river systems developed under conditions of 644 relative fault inactivity in the Early Triassic (Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds and equivalent) and 645 Middle Triassic (Otter Sandstone and equivalent). These are separated by a late Early Triassic syn-rift 646 succession of fluvio-aeolian sandstones (Wildmoor and Wilmslow sandstone formations) and playa 647 lacustrine muds (Nettlecombe Formation) which show major thickness variation and localisation with hanging wall basins. The partitioning of syn-rift deposits into mudstones in upstream basins 648 649 (close to the source of water and sediment) and clean aeolian or fluvio-aeolian sandstones in 650 downstream basins is similar to the pattern observed in the underlying Late Permian. Under 651 conditions of rapid tectonic subsidence chains of extensional basins may become disconnected with upstream basins (Wessex Basin) acting as traps for fines and water permitting more aeolian activity 652 in temporarily unlinked downstream basins (Worcester and Cheshire basins). Fluctuating climate, 653 relief related to limestone resilience in arid settings, the smoothing effect of fill and spill 654 655 sedimentation and Tethyan sea-level change all contributed toward the observed Triassic 656 stratigraphy in England.

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660 List of Figures

Figure 1 Reconstruction of Pangea at around the Permo-Triassic boundary (250 ma). The position of England is shown and the lines of crustal separation in the future Atlantic are indicated. The plate tectonic reconstruction was produced using GPlates software using the datasets of Matthews et al. (2016).

Figure 2 Generalised chronostratigraphy of the English Permian and Triassic showing selected 665 666 lithostratigraphical units and major tectonic and climatic events. At the scale of the diagram the relationship of the lithostratigraphical units to the time scale and stages is approximate and 667 original sources should be consulted for details (Benton et al., 1994; Glennie, 1997; Hounslow and 668 669 McIntosh, 2003; Hounslow et al., 2017; Hounslow and Ruffell, 2006; Warrington et al., 1980). (BSP=Budleigh Salterton Pebble Beds, NCF=Nettlecombe Formation; KDM=Kidderminster 670 Conglomerate; WMS=Wildmoor Sandstone Formation; CF=Chester Pebble Beds Formation; 671 WLS=Wilmslow Sandstone Formation; OMS=Ormskirk Sandstone Formation). Time scale 672 generated using TimeScale Creator software. 673

Figure 3 Palaeogeographical sketch map showing England within the context of western Europe at around the Middle Triassic (WH=Welsh High). Reconstruction based on Matthews et al. (2016);

676 (Ziegler, 1991)

Figure 4 Carbon isotope curve for the Early and Middle Triassic (Payne et al., 2004) showing large
 perturbations synchronous with the deposition of the lower part of the Sherwood Sandstone
 Group.

Figure 5 Map showing the distribution of Permian and Triassic outcrop, the approximate area of subcrop and the main faults and basins (DEB=Devon Basin, DoB=Dorset Basin, PB=Pewsey Basin, WG=Worcester Graben, KB=Knowle Basin, HB=Hinckley Basin; NB=Needwood Basin, SB=Stafford Basin, CB=Cheshire Basin, EISB=East Irish Sea Basin, EMS=Eastern Midlands Shelf, BF=Beer Fault, QCCF=Quantock-Coker-Cranborne Fault, PF=Pewsey Fault, CCNF=Clopton-Clapton-Northleach Fault IBF=Inkberrow Fault, EMF=East Malvern Fault, WRRF=Wem-Red Rock Fault). Red line linking white circles shows the boreholes and section shown in Figure 9.

Figure 6 Simplified 3D geological model showing the form and depth of the Variscan ('top
 Carboniferous') Unconformity in its present configuration. The model was generated in SKUA GOCAD 15.5 and is based primarily on borehole data and a highly-simplified fault network.

Figure 7 Map showing the thickness of Permian strata (above the Variscan unconformity) plus the overlying Sherwood Sandstone Group. The thickness map is based on borehole data (black circles indicate borehole position) interpolated on a 5 km grid using Discrete Smooth Interpolation (Mallet, 1989). Faults and other barriers, such as the exposed Carboniferous coal-field blocks in the English Midlands, are omitted.

Figure 8 Correlation of geophysical logs across selected major Permo-Triassic depocentres in England (inset map shows borehole location). The logs focus on the stratigraphic interval between pre-Permian basement and the top of the Triassic Sherwood Sandstone Goup. An interval of broadly correlative Mercia Mudstone Group is included in the Cheshire and East Irish Sea basins. A gamma-ray log is shown in the left track and a sonic interval travel time log is shown in the right track. The logs are coloured for generalised lithofacies based on geophysical log response and borehole cuttings returns.

702 Figure 9 Semi-schematic lithostratigrapical-structural model for the Permo-Triassic from the 703 Wessex Basin to the East Irish Sea Basin (see Figure 5 for location of boreholes and line of 704 section). The correlation is flattened on the top of the Sherwood Sandstone and broadly 705 correlative parts of the Mercia Mudstone Group in basins to the north of the Wem-Red Rock Fault. 706 (From left to right and base to top the abbreviations are:, AYB=Aylesbeare Mudstone Group, 707 NF=Nettlecome Formation, OS=Otter Sandstone Formation, PTU=Permo-Triassic undifferentiated, 708 BNS=Bridgnorth Sandstone Formation, KDM=Kidderminster Conglomerate, WRS=Wildmoor 709 Sandstone Formation, BMS=Bromsgrove Sandstone Formation, CS=Collyhurst Sandstone 710 Formation, MM=Manchester Marls, KNSF=Kinnerton Sandstone, CHES=Chester Formation; WLSF= 711 Wilmslow Sandstone Formation, HEY=Helsby Sandstone Formation, TS=Tarporley Siltstone 712 Formation, SBS=St Bees Sandstone Formation, CSA=Calder Sandstone Formation, OMS=Ormskirk 713 **Sandstone Formation.**

Figure 10 Semi-schematic facies model for the Permian and Sherwood Sandstone from the Wessex Basin to the East Irish Sea Basin (see Figure 5 for location of boreholes and line of section). The correlation is flattened on the top of the Sherwood Sandstone and broadly correlative parts of the Mercia Mudstone Group in basins to the north of the Wem-Red Rock Fault (PTU=Permo-Triassic undifferentiated, TSZ=Top Silicified Zone).

- 719 Figure 11 Map of the Wessex Basin showing the location of major Triassic faults, selected outcrop areas and the location of boreholes shown in Figure 12. 720
- Figure 12 Correlation of boreholes which include the Sherwood Sandstone Group and Mercia 721 Mudstone Group from west to east across the Wessex Basin. See Figure 11 for location of the 722 boreholes. 723
- 724 Figure 13 Map showing the distribution of Lower Carboniferous (Dinantian) limestones at outcrop 725 and at subcrop below the Variscan unconformity (Smith, 1985).
- 726 Figure 14 Log correlation across the Dinantian limestone belt between the Worcester Basin and Wessex Basin. See Figure 13 for the location of the boreholes. 727
- 728 Figure 15 Log correlation from the Stafford Basin, the Needwood Basin and onto the East Midlands 729 shelf. Logs are flattened on the Mid-Triassic unconformity.
- 730 Figure 16 Comparison of the stratigraphy of the Otter Sandstone Formation at coastal outcrop in
- 731 south Devon (Newell in prep.) and the Bromsgrove Sandstone Formation in the Sugarbrook
- 732 borehole near Bromsgrove (Old et al., 1991).
- Figure 17 Simplified models for the deposition of Late Permian to Middle Triassic coarse clastic 733
- 734 deposits in the rift basins of England under conditions of (A) active extension and rifting and (B)
- 735 slow thermal subsidence when major long-distance river systems could develop.
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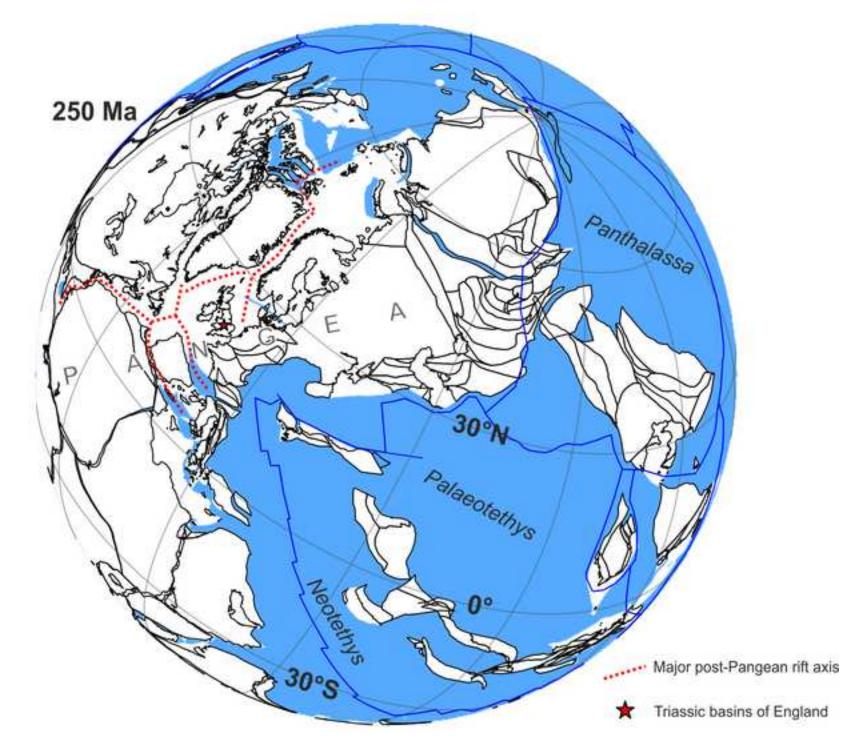
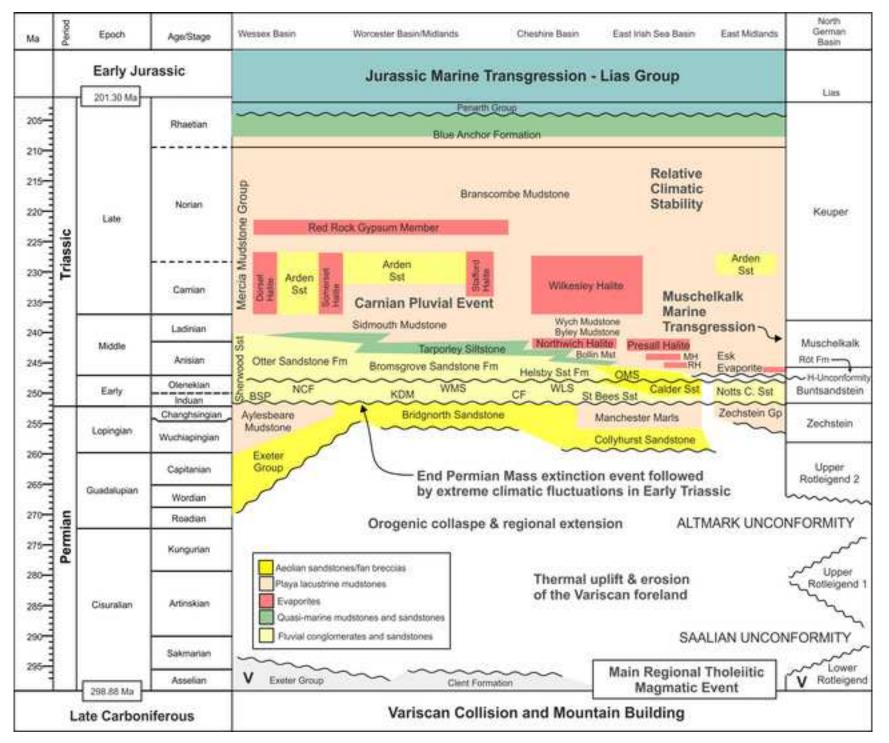


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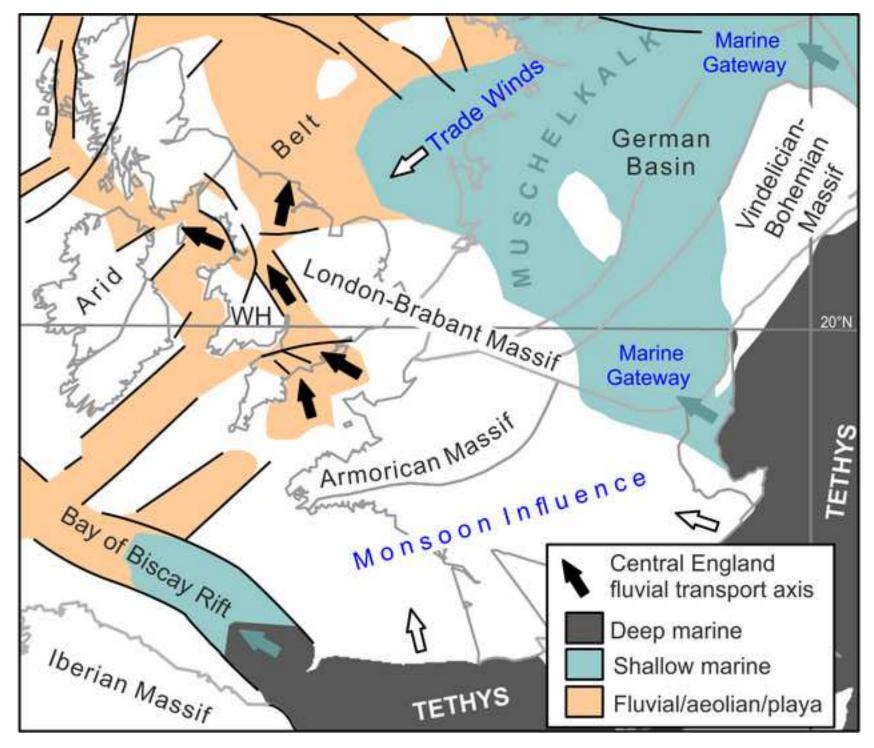


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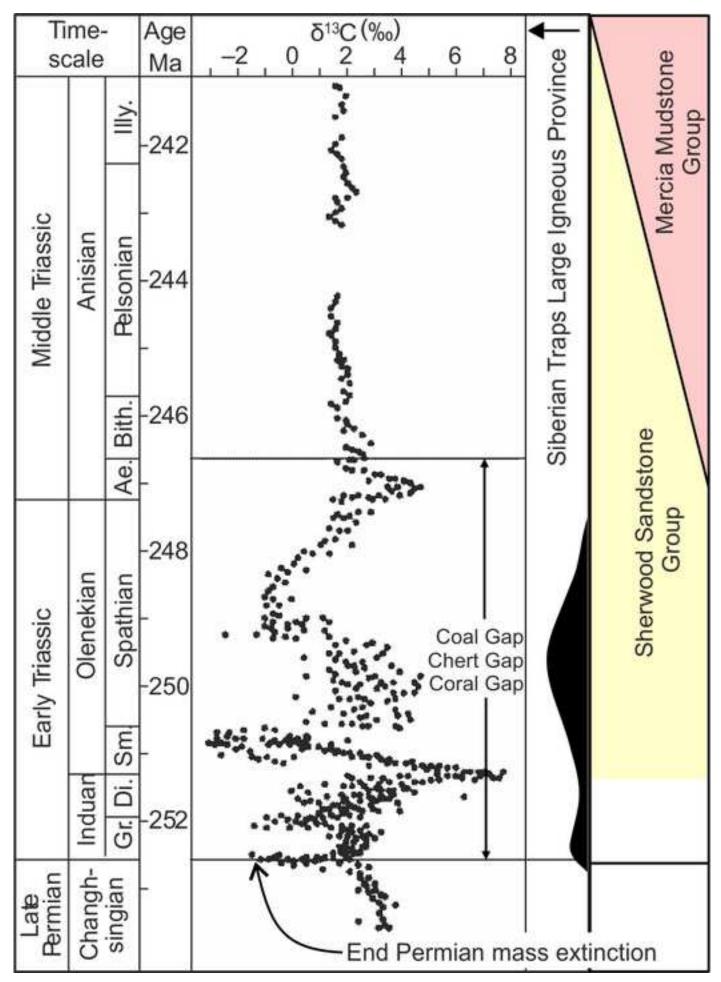
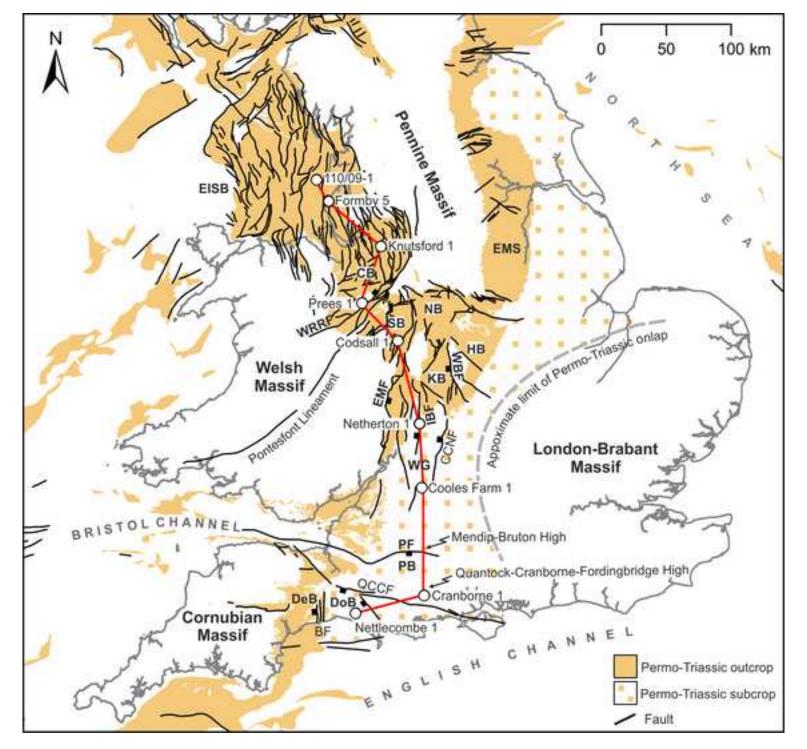
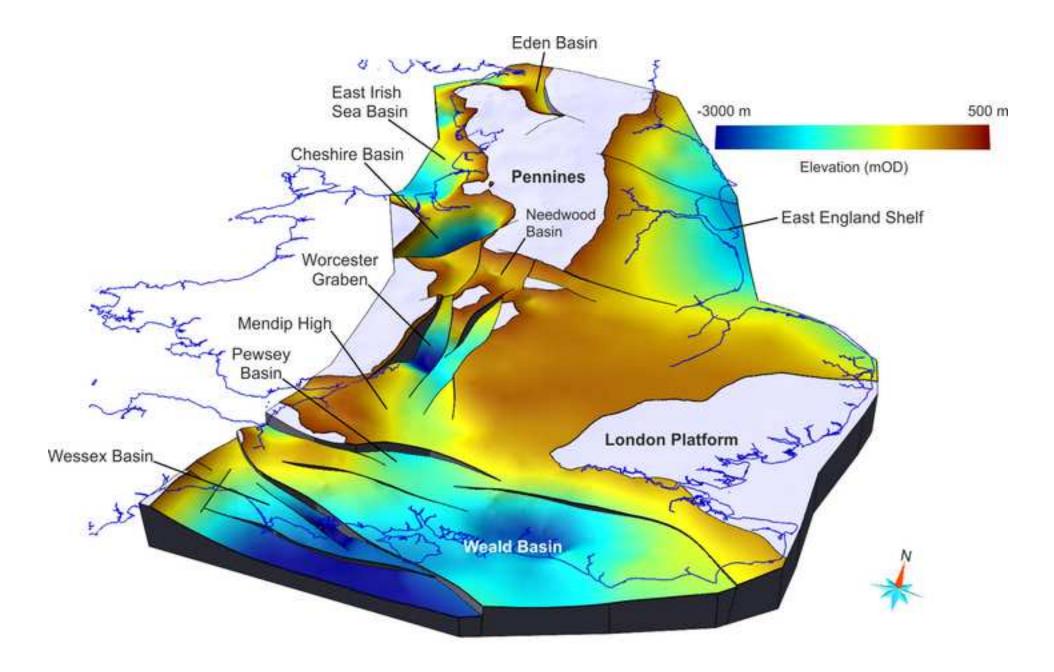
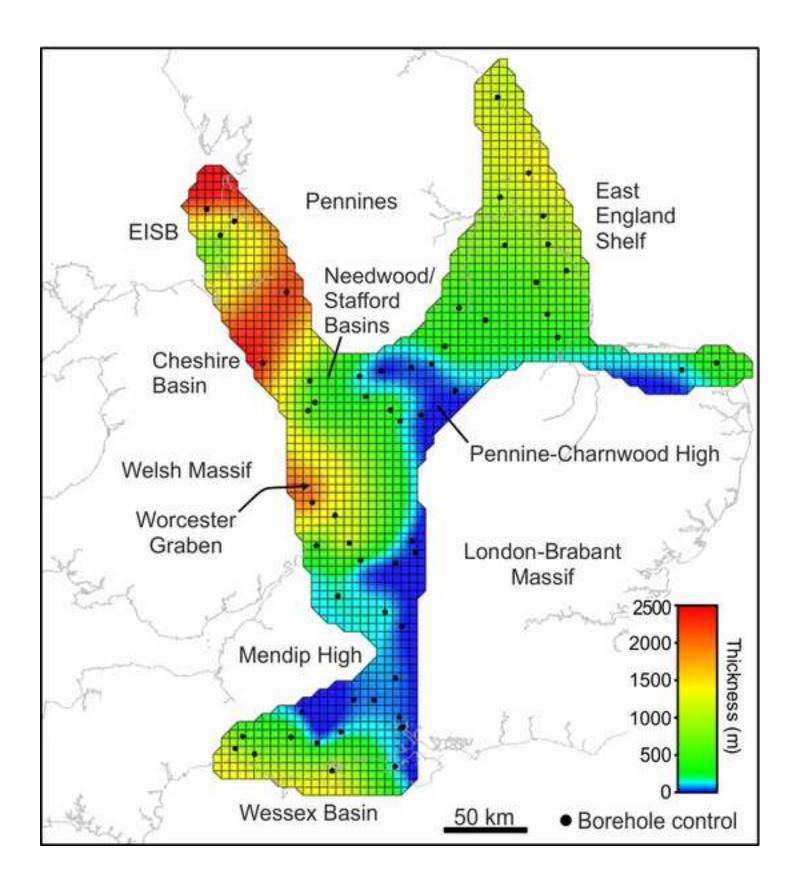
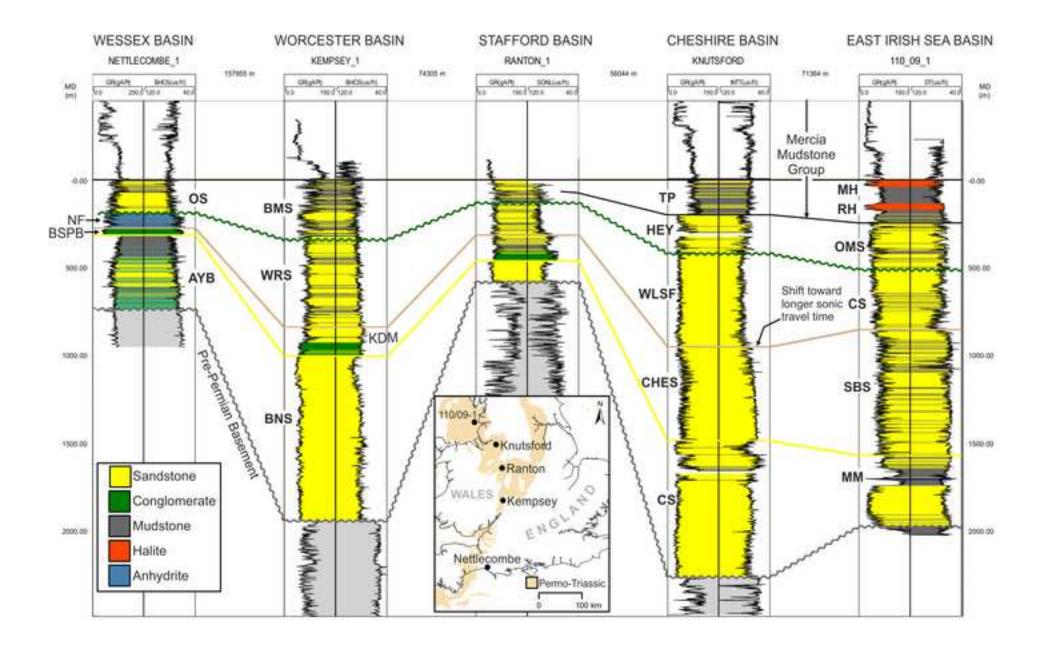


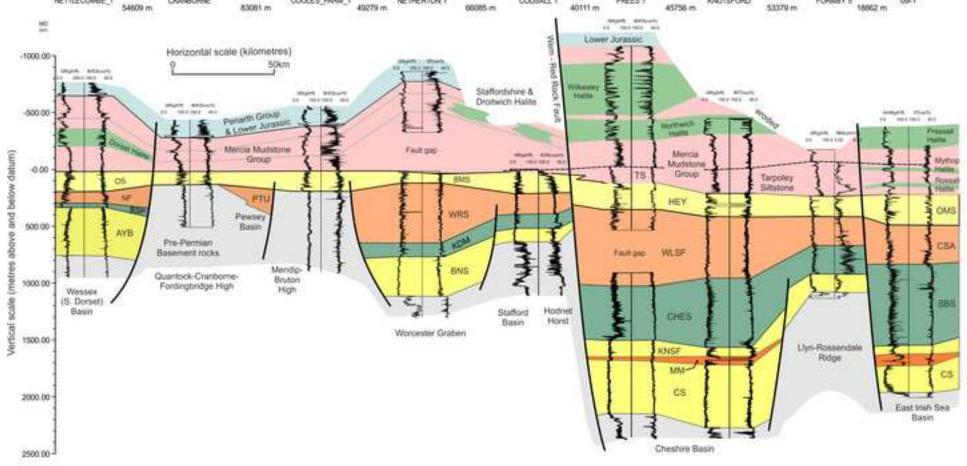
Figure 5 Click here to download high resolution image



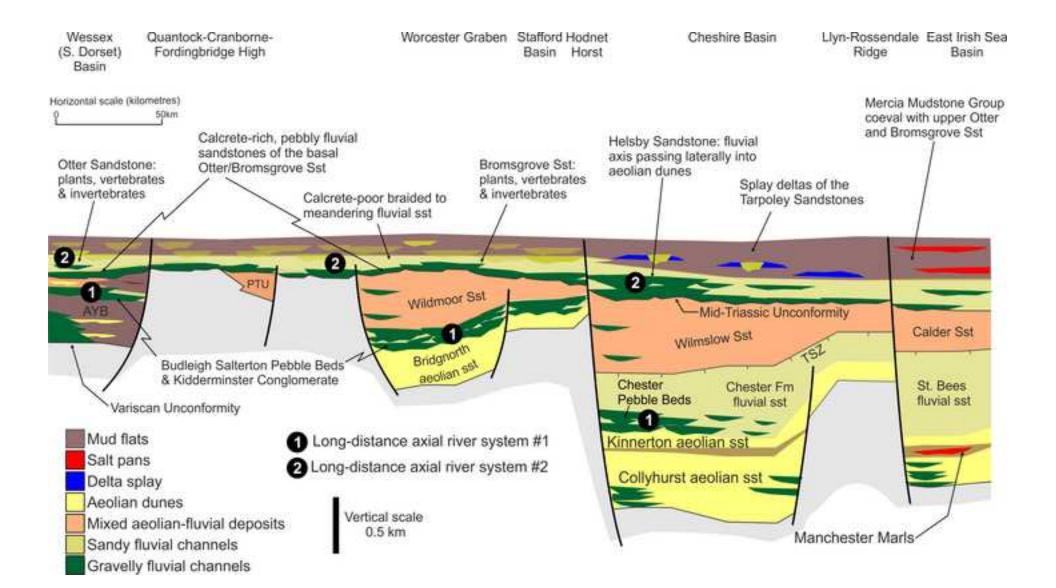








COOLES_FARM_1 49279 m FORMBY 5 18862 m NETTLECOMBE_1 CRANBORNE. NETHERTON 1 CODSALL 1 PREES 1 KNUTSFORD. 09-1



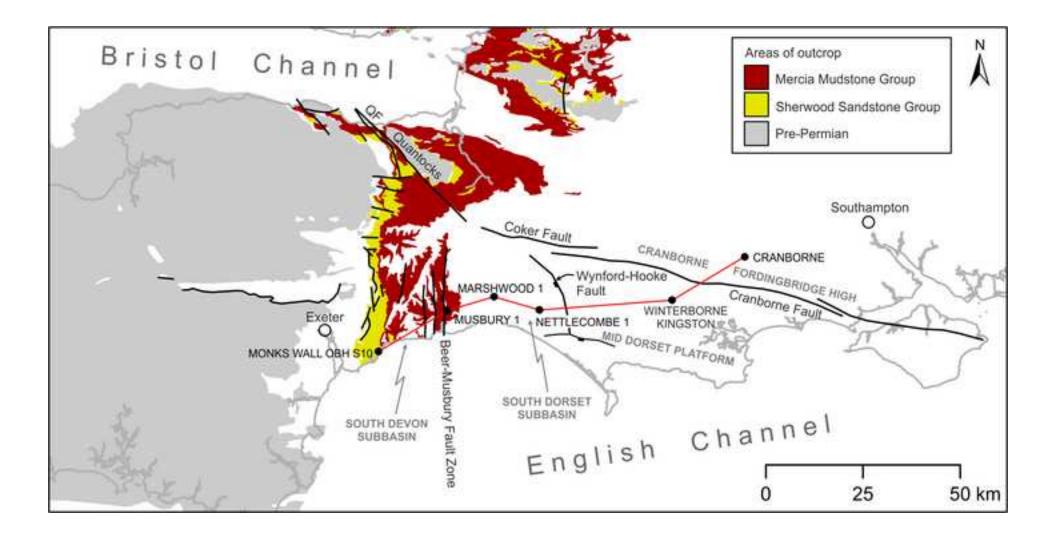
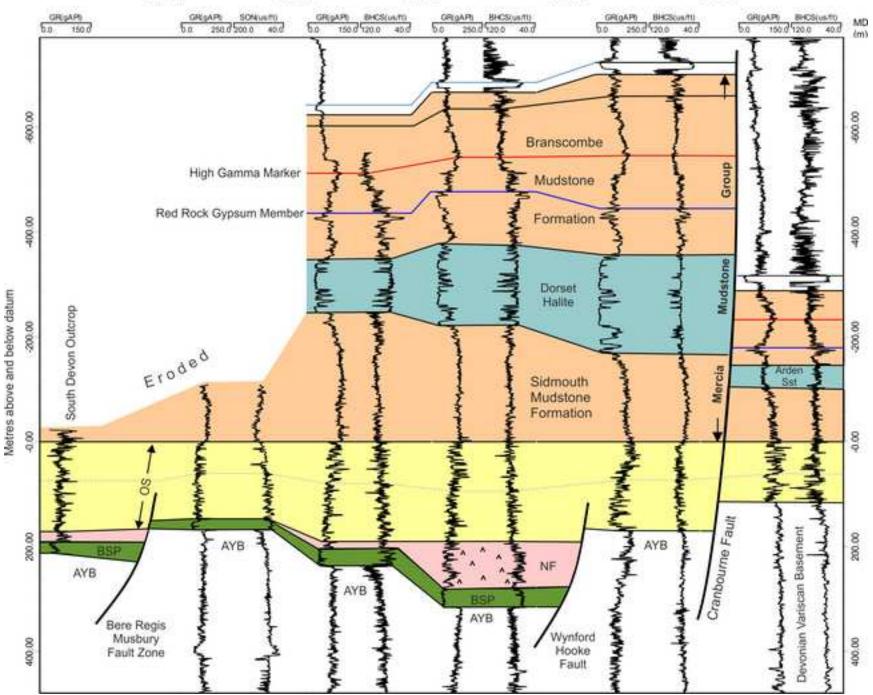
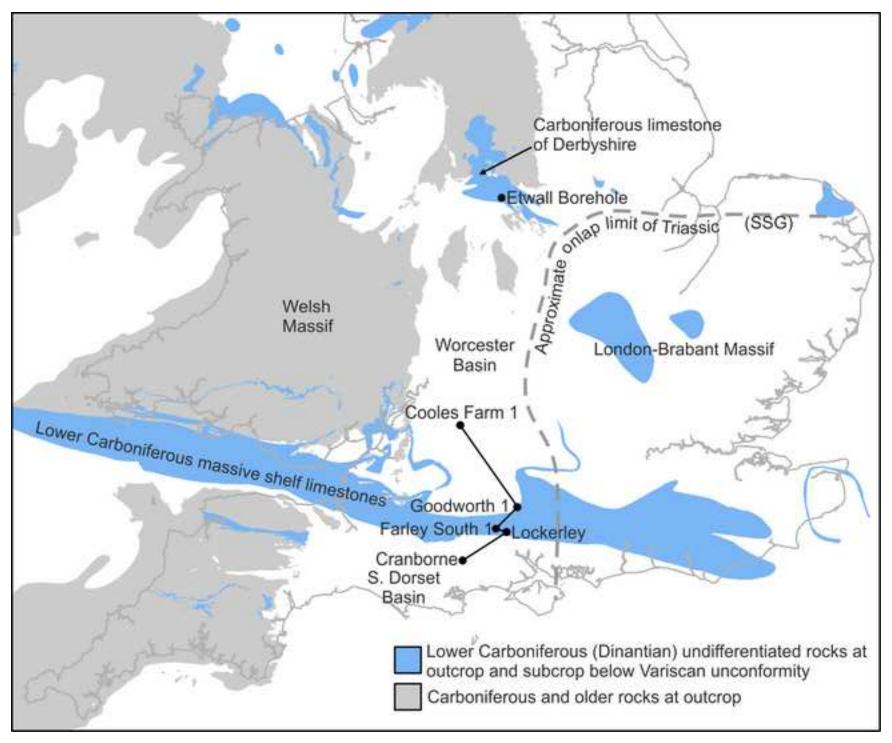


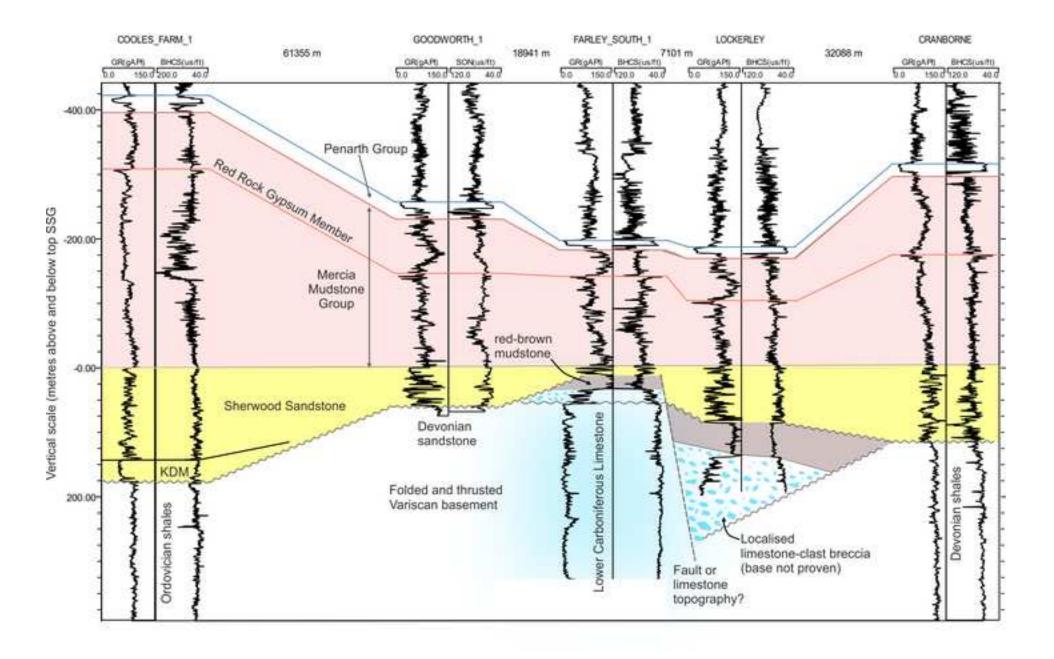
Figure 12 Click here to download high resolution image

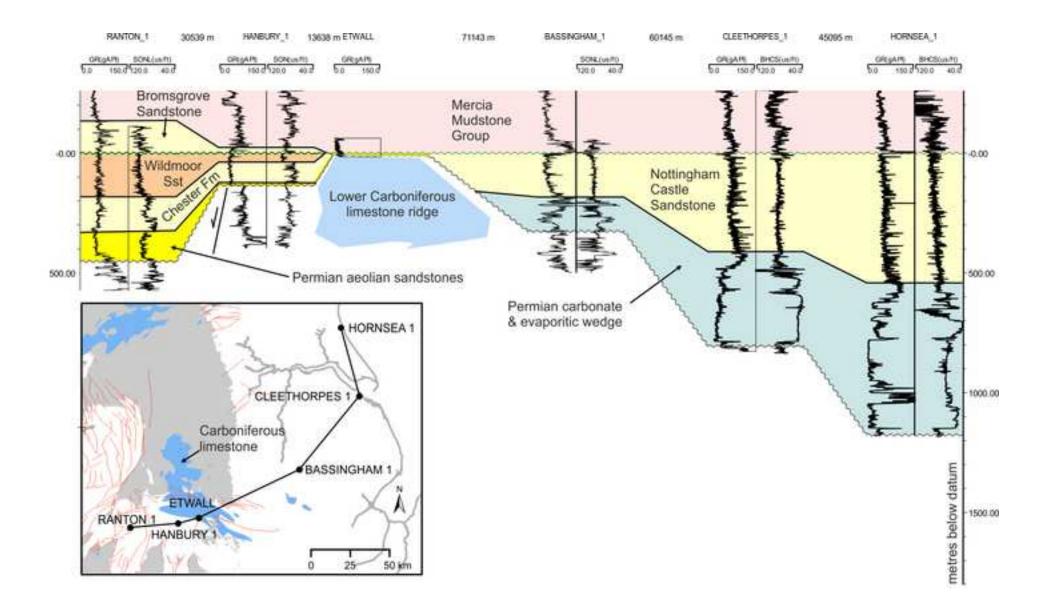


 MONKS_WALL_OBH_S10
 MUSBURY_1
 MARSHWOOD_1
 NETLECOMBE_1
 WINTERBORNE KINGSTON
 CRAMBORNE

 20494 m
 12672 m
 12155 m
 34263 m
 21760 m







South Devon composite outcrop section

Bromsgrove Sugarbrook Borehole core (SO96NE30)

