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1 **Modern fringing reef carbonates from equatorial SE Asia: an integrated**  
2 **environmental, sediment and satellite characterisation study.**

3

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5

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 Fringing reefs of SE Asia may conservatively comprise ~30% of the world's coral reef area,  
12 but remain almost unstudied (White, 1987; Tomascik et al., 1997). This study provides  
13 insights into the primary sedimentological and early alteration characteristics of an isolated  
14 fringing reef system (Kaledupa-Hoga) from the Tukang Besi Archipelago, SE Asia. A  
15 combined multispectral satellite imagery, field and petrographic study allowed for the  
16 generation of an environmental facies map, which acts as a model for the distribution of  
17 primary sedimentological characteristics in relation to the primary environmental facies. The  
18 islands of the Tukang Besi Archipelago are mesotidal (<2 m) affected by strong diurnal and  
19 oceanic tidal currents, as well as high wave energy influenced by the bi-directional southeast  
20 Asian monsoon. An environmental facies map generated from Landsat-7 imagery and  
21 utilising field observations defines ten environmental facies. The facies map generated has a  
22 >71% accuracy when compared with field and sedimentary data. With the exception of the  
23 reef crest and reef slope that commonly have widths on a sub-imaging resolution (<30 m), the  
24 facies map accurately demonstrates the heterogeneous nature of the carbonate system.

25           Although field and satellite imagery observations reveal ten environmental facies,  
26 sedimentological characterisation results in a lower number of distinctive categories due to  
27 the similarity of many deposits. Foreshore/backshore and bare intertidal deposits are  
28 distinctive and are composed of reef-derived material that has been reworked shorewards.  
29 Seagrass-associated facies all show some fine silt-clay sized material (<8%) with common  
30 imperforate foraminifera and pervasive micritisation, but also contain high abundances of  
31 reworked coral and shell allochems. Coral-associated reef flat facies are typically low in  
32 imperforate but high in perforate foraminifera, and show lesser effects of bioerosion and very  
33 low silt contents. The reef slope and crest are characterised by high abundances of gravel-  
34 sized fragmented corals with the highest abundances of echinoderm material and alcyonarian  
35 sclerites. Sediment samples across all fringing reef environments from the Kaledupa-Hoga  
36 transects are characterised almost exclusively by grain-rudstone textures, with <2-5% silt and  
37 clay size fractions, and minor baffling of fines in seagrass-associated settings (grain-  
38 packstones). The paucity of fines across the fringing reef systems as a whole, and the degree  
39 of homogenisation of sediment characteristics across the different field- and satellite-  
40 identifiable environmental facies are attributed to: (1) high wave/current energies, (2) the  
41 small size of the islands rendering limited protection, (3) bidirectional monsoon winds and  
42 (4) the lack of reef rimmed margins built to sea level. Absent from these deposits are well  
43 developed high energy windward and low energy leeward deposit characteristics and/or an  
44 overriding hurricane influence that are commonly seen in fringing reef systems from other  
45 areas.

46

47 **Keywords:** sedimentology, modern-carbonates, Landsat, pure-carbonates, coral-reefs,  
48 facies mapping.

49

## 50 **1. Introduction**

51 It has been estimated that the fringing reefs of SE Asia may conservatively comprise ~30% of  
52 the world's coral reef area (White, 1987; Tomascik et al., 1997). There is a paucity of  
53 knowledge on fringing reefs globally, since almost no remote sensing studies, and very few  
54 modern sediment studies have been undertaken on these systems (Lewis, 1969; Hopley and  
55 Partain, 1987; Blanchon et al., 1997; Kennedy and Woodruffe, 2002, Purkis et al., 2012).  
56 Regionally, despite fringing reefs being the dominant reef type within SE Asia they remain  
57 the least studied (Tomascik et al., 1997; Hewins and Perry, 2006). Here, a combined  
58 environmental, satellite and sediment characterisation study of fringing reefs surrounding  
59 isolated oceanic islands in central Indonesia aims to contribute to the understanding of this  
60 under evaluated, but globally important reef type.

61

62 Most modern analogues used to evaluate carbonate development are from sub-tropical to sub-  
63 arid regions such as the Bahamas or South Pacific, as well as Central America with all  
64 focused on barrier reef systems and atolls (Gischler and Lomando, 1999; Rankey, 2002;  
65 Gischler et al., 2003; Gischler, 2006, 2011; Rankey and Harris, 2008; Harris, 2010; Harris et  
66 al., 2010; 2011, Rankey and Reeder, 2010). However, these systems are not wholly  
67 analogous to those from equatorial SE Asia and/or to fringing reef systems (Tomascik et al.,  
68 1997; Kennedy and Woodruffe, 2002; Wilson, 2002; 2012; Park et al., 2010). Studies of  
69 fringing reefs have focused on their Holocene development, through multiple coring studies  
70 and to a certain extent their environmental variability (Hopley and Partain, 1987; Cabioch et  
71 al., 1995; Kennedy and Woodruffe, 2002; Montaggioni, 2005), but there are very few  
72 detailed studies on their sedimentology (Lewis, 1969; Gabri e and Montaggioni, 1982;  
73 Blanchon et al., 1997; Hewins and Perry, 2006). Studies of modern carbonate systems in SE  
74 Asia typically focus on their biota and ecology (Tomascik et al., 1997; Cleary et al., 2005;

75 Becking et al., 2006; Renema, 2006a, 2006b). Satellite studies of reefal environments within  
76 Indonesia are in their infancy, but are much needed to better understand the regions modern  
77 carbonate systems and for their use in ‘developing and implementing sound management and  
78 conservation policies’ (Tomascik et al., 1997; Asriningrum, 2011). Detailed  
79 sedimentological studies of modern carbonates from SE Asia are largely restricted to those of  
80 Pulau Seribu, on the predominantly siliciclastic shelf offshore Jakarta, Indonesia (Scrutton,  
81 1978; Park et al., 1992; 2010; Jordan, 1998, O’Shea, 2005). These high-energy, small-scale  
82 build-ups do not fully encompass the inherent variability of carbonate depositional systems  
83 that have developed throughout the region. An additional sedimentological study reviews  
84 fringing reef deposits around the 1.5 km across Danjungan Island in the Philippines at the  
85 boundary between the equatorial tropics and subtropics (Hewins and Perry, 2006). SE Asian  
86 carbonate deposits are dominated by bioclastic assemblages and notably absent are the coated  
87 grains and aggregates of their better studied arid to sub-tropical counterparts (Lees and  
88 Buller, 1972; Wilson, 2002; 2012). Furthermore, carbonate development in SE Asia is  
89 extensive forming a wide variety of platform types from land attached shelves, isolated  
90 platforms to localised and/or ephemeral carbonates (Tomascik et al., 1997; Wilson, 2002).  
91 There is a need to better evaluate sedimentological characteristics of modern carbonate  
92 environments, and in particular those from fringing reef systems and their facies distributions  
93 related to environmental conditions from SE Asia, since models generated from examples  
94 outside the equatorial tropics are commonly not wholly applicable (cf. Gischler and  
95 Lomando, 1999; Wilson, 2008a; 2011; 2012; Park et al., 2010).

96

97 Satellite based remote sensing is widely established as a key tool in the mapping of modern  
98 carbonate systems and reef environments (Lyzenga, 1981; Ahmad and Neil, 1994; Gischler  
99 and Lomando, 1999; Andréfouët et al., 2001, 2003; Rankey, 2002; Purkis and Pasterkamp,

100 2004; Harris, 2010; Kaczmarek et al., 2010). Most of these studies detail the variability of  
101 modern carbonate environments from classic sub-tropical Atlantic or Pacific examples, with  
102 very few studies including examples from the humid equatorial tropics of SE Asia (Harris  
103 and Vlaswinkel, 2008).

104

105 An important aspect of understanding SE Asian carbonate variability lies in developing  
106 models that demonstrate how primary environmental settings unique to the region relate to  
107 primary depositional sediment characteristics and their early alteration. SE Asian modern  
108 carbonate systems have distinctive characteristics that relate to local environments and water  
109 depths, and it is anticipated that these primary environmental differences will be reflected in  
110 satellite imagery characteristics that relate to: (1) benthic sedimentological characteristics, (2)  
111 benthic biota communities, and (3) water conditions (including depth and clarity); i.e.,  
112 identifiable “environmental facies”.

113

114 This study utilises statistics-based satellite image classifications in conjunction with modern  
115 sediment samples from fringing reef systems around carbonate islands in the Tukang Besi  
116 Archipelago, Indonesia (Fig. 1). Specific study objectives are to: (1) produce a satellite  
117 generated environmental facies map using statistics based methods, (2) identify primary  
118 sedimentological and early sediment alteration characteristics of associated carbonate  
119 deposits, (3) compare primary sedimentological properties to primary environmental facies  
120 and their satellite characteristics and (4) contribute towards a greater understanding of  
121 modern humid equatorial carbonate systems highlighting the heterogeneities that may exist.

122

## 123 **2. Regional Setting**

124 The Tukang Besi Archipelago, encompassing the Wakatobi Marine National Park, is situated  
125 <20 km southeast of Buton Island in SE Sulawesi, bordered by the Banda Sea to the  
126 northeast, and Flores Sea to the southwest (Fig. 1). Three linear rows of atolls, raised coral  
127 islands and build-ups trending northwest-southeast rise from a broad subsiding platform of  
128 possible continental origin that currently lies at 700-1000 m water depth (Smith and Silver,  
129 1991; Koswara and Sukarna, 1994; Milsom et al., 1999). All the modern carbonate systems  
130 are largely isolated from siliciclastic input. The Tukang Besi archipelago contains  
131 approximately 500 km<sup>2</sup> of coral reef-related environments within a wide diversity of  
132 carbonate systems including large-scale atolls (>10 km across), small-scale atolls, small-scale  
133 build-ups and barrier or fringing reefs surrounding the four main islands of the archipelago  
134 (Tomascik et al., 1997; Wilson, 2008b). The islands of the archipelago preserve a record of  
135 Pliocene to Quaternary uplifted coral reefs. These ancient reefs are exposed as a series of  
136 stepped terrace levels that have been uplifted to maximum heights of 300 m (Wilson, 2008b).  
137 The deposits of each uplifted terrace formed in a variety of shallow marine environments that  
138 were associated with coral reefs that built towards sea level (Wilson, 2008b). These shallow  
139 water carbonate terraces overlie deeper water marls of Late Miocene and Early Pliocene age  
140 (the Ambewa Formation: Koswara and Sukarna, 1994; Wilson, 2008b). Poorly consolidated  
141 marl clasts are reworked into the modern carbonate sediment assemblages fringing the  
142 islands, but mainly only in regions adjacent to where there is limited or no preservation of  
143 Pliocene–Quaternary reef terraces. The archipelago is therefore an excellent location to  
144 characterise and evaluate the effects of primary environmental facies on carbonate sediment  
145 characteristics in the humid equatorial tropics of SE Asia. This work focuses on differences  
146 within the modern island-attached carbonate systems, with further work in preparation to  
147 evaluate the variability across the range of carbonate systems from the archipelago (Wilson et  
148 al., 2013).

149

150 The marine environments surrounding the Tukang Besi islands contain amongst the world's  
151 highest levels of marine biodiversity (Halford, 2003; Turak, 2003; Pet-Soede and Erdmann,  
152 2003; Bell and Smith, 2004). High biodiversity is not just a feature of the archipelago's coral  
153 reefs but also the associated interconnected habitats of seagrass meadows, mangroves, mud  
154 flats and algal beds. There are records from within the Wakatobi National Park of at least:  
155 396 species of hermatypic scleractinian hard corals and 10 species of ahermatypic  
156 scleractinian corals, 28 species of soft corals, >145 sponge species, nine species of seagrass  
157 and upwards of 600 species of fish (Halford, 2003; Turak, 2003; Bell and Smith, 2004; Pet-  
158 Soede and Erdmann, 2004; Bell et al., 2010; McMellor and Smith, 2010). Mean coral cover  
159 throughout the Wakatobi systems (reef flat, crest and upper slope) is 48.05% with 10.62%  
160 macroalgal cover, 2.31% sponge cover and 5.4% dead coral and coral rubble cover  
161 (Suharsono et al., 2006; McMellor and Smith, 2010). It is this overall biotic and carbonate  
162 systems variability that makes the area ideal to characterise modern SE Asian carbonate  
163 deposits. However, with the exception of debates over the morphology and development of  
164 the archipelago (Escher, 1920; Hetzel, 1930; Kuenen, 1933a, b; Umbgrove, 1947; van  
165 Bemmelen, 1949; Tomascik et al., 1997; Milsom et al., 1999), to date no detailed  
166 sedimentological studies have been undertaken (cf. Wilson, 2008b).

167

168 The tidal range of the islands and reefs in the archipelago is ~2 m with semi-diurnal tides  
169 affecting shallow platforms and very strong oceanic tidal currents between the atolls and  
170 islands. Wave energy can be very high and is influenced strongly by the bi-directional  
171 monsoon. Very strong south-easterly winds blow between June and August with lesser  
172 westerly winds between December and March (Wilson, 2008b). Water temperatures are  
173 typically within the range of 27-28 °C with ocean salinities of 35‰ (O'Shea, 2005).



174

### 175 **3. Materials and Methods**

#### 176 ***3.1 Fieldwork and Sampling***

177 Modern carbonate settings from across the Tukang Besi archipelago were surveyed and  
178 deposits sampled along underwater transects, generally oriented perpendicular to the trend of  
179 the reef crest (i.e. from deep forereef areas, passing across the shallow reef crest to inner reef  
180 or land areas). Study was through diving and snorkelling with local environmental conditions  
181 including substrate and biota types, water depths, water temperatures, slope angles and any  
182 wave or current activity recorded along each transect. Surface sediment samples were  
183 collected by hand (underwater directly into containers to minimise loss of fines) from the  
184 range of local environments and/or at decimetre-spaced intervals along transects, with  
185 sampling sites photographed. For regions deeper than 20-30 m additional samples were  
186 obtained using a Van Veen sediment grab (with only intact “solid” sediment taken from  
187 within the grab sample, again to minimise the loss of fines). In total, 42 modern transects  
188 were studied from the archipelago, with 390 samples of modern reef-associated sediments  
189 collected. From this larger dataset, six key transects and some additional spot sampling sites  
190 from around Pulau Kaledupa and its neighbouring “sibling” island of Hoga, were selected for  
191 comparison between shallow water environments and their satellite and sediment  
192 characterisation. The area of Kaledupa and Hoga was focused on due to: (1) good  
193 availability of a range of cloud-free Landsat multispectral data, (2) good sample and transect  
194 coverage allowing analysis of much of the range of local environments and variety in satellite  
195 characteristics of fringing reefs from <20 m water depth in the Wakatobi region to be studied,  
196 and (3) the potential to compare between windward versus leeward, or more protected  
197 settings. In total, 78 samples were analysed for this study with all from <20 m, and most

198 from <5 m water depth. Out of these 78 samples eight along the Kaledupa centre transect  
199 were collected using the Van Veen grab.

200

### 201 ***3.2 Sample analysis***

202 All 78 samples were air dried then photographed under a binocular microscope. A proportion  
203 of each sample was weighed and separated using a 2 mm sieve, with the <2 mm size fraction  
204 analysed for grain size using a Coulter Laser Granulometer. The proportions of components  
205 and grain sizes of the >2 mm size fractions were visually estimated. 2.5-3 g of the <2 mm  
206 fraction for each sample were placed in test tubes and in the rare samples containing organics  
207 20 ml of 20% Hydrogen Peroxide was added and left overnight in a boiling water bath to  
208 allow digestion of the organics. Samples were centrifuged at 2500 rpm for four min and half  
209 of the supernatant liquid was decanted off, then the tubes topped up with water and  
210 centrifuged for another 4 min to allow degassing and grains to settle. Following decanting  
211 off of the supernatant liquid, 20 ml of Sodium Hexametaphosphate solution was added to  
212 stop grains from clumping then run through the Granulometer. Grain size plots incorporate  
213 the results of percentages of the >2 and <2 mm size fractions with grain size divisions from  
214 the Udden-Wentworth scheme (Udden, 1914; Wentworth, 1922) and nomenclature on sorting  
215 after Pettijohn et al. (1973). Of the 78 samples, 75 were made into thin section grain mounts  
216 for petrographic analysis. Half of each thin section was stained with potassium ferricyanide  
217 and Alizarin Red S for the identification of ferroan and non-ferroan calcite (Dickson, 1965,  
218 1966). Semi quantitative visual estimates of components were directly comparable with  
219 point counting analyses previously undertaken on the Pak Kasim's transect (300 point counts:  
220 O'Shea, 2005). Textural classification of the sediments follows the scheme of Dunham  
221 (1962), modified by Insalaco (1998)<sup>i</sup>. An early sediment alteration index evaluating abrasion,

222 fragmentation, encrustation, bioerosion and cementation for each thin section is modified  
223 after the abrasion and fragmentation index of Beavington-Penney (2004; see Appendix 1).

224

### 225 **3.3 Landsat-7**

226 Modern carbonate systems are ideal for study through satellite based methods as they are  
227 typically best developed in shallow (<30 m) relatively clear water marine environments,  
228 consistent with the requirements for accurate satellite data collection and their interpretation.  
229 Several methods exist for the analysis and interpretation of satellite data sets from modern  
230 shallow water carbonate systems (cf. Harris and Kowalik, 1994; Harris, 1996; Gischler and  
231 Lomando, 1999; Rankey, 2002; Harris and Vlaswinkel, 2008; Harris et al., 2010; Kaczmarek  
232 et al., 2010; Harris et al., 2011). In this study the use of statistical algorithms has been  
233 adopted to quantitatively discriminate between combined benthic sediment and biota types  
234 across a SE Asian reef-related system.

235

236 This study utilises the simplified workflow of Kaczmarek et al. (2010) to generate a Landsat  
237 derived facies map of water-bottom characteristics. The methods outlined by Kaczmarek et  
238 al. (2010) discriminate between benthic sediment types to produce satellite derived sediment  
239 facies maps for carbonate platforms. In satellite imagery, variance in reflection (satellite  
240 characteristics) is attributed to variability from three predominant factors: (1) the benthic  
241 sediment type, (2) the benthic biota assemblages and (3) water depth. As it is applied to this  
242 study the derivative products of satellite analysis are environmental facies maps in which the  
243 satellite characteristics are directly related to local benthic communities, sediment types and  
244 water conditions.

245

246 The methods of Kaczmarek et al. (2010) offer a simple and time efficient way to assess  
247 satellite imagery and avoid the use of advanced image processing techniques that arguably  
248 would provide little improvement to a low spatial resolution image (cf. Ouillon et al., 2004;  
249 Purkis and Pasterkamp, 2004; Kaczmarek et al., 2010). One of the key objectives of this  
250 study is to foster a “user friendly” approach to satellite based study, allowing integration of  
251 what is possibly an underutilised, yet valuable resource (the Landsat data set), with more  
252 traditional sedimentological studies where remote sensing skill sets may be lacking.

253

254 A Landsat-derived environmental facies map was produced by combining Landsat  
255 multispectral data, statistics-based unsupervised classifications, and field observations of  
256 local environmental conditions for the shallow-water fringing reef-related area of Pulau  
257 Kaledupa and Hoga from the Tukang Besi Archipelago of SW Sulawesi (Fig. 1). A full  
258 discussion of the workflow and the Landsat multispectral sensor used to generate this facies  
259 map is given in Kaczmarek et al. (2010), with a brief overview outlined below. The Landsat  
260 data that forms the basis for the analyses of this study was captured on the 6<sup>th</sup> of February  
261 2009 in seven spectral (thematic) bands with a spatial resolution of 28.5 m<sup>2</sup>. The Landsat  
262 image of the Tukang Besi Archipelago (delineated to Pulau Kaledupa during image  
263 processing) was selected in place of other images collected between 1989 and 2012. The  
264 February, 2009 image which was chosen as the area of interest was not affected by cloud  
265 cover or atmospheric haze and has the most consistent contrast and clarity across the area.  
266 Individual spectral bands were combined in the software package ER Mapper to produce a  
267 single multispectral composite image for the Tukang Besi Archipelago. Cloud masking and  
268 land masking algorithms were applied to the image to reduce the number of spectral classes  
269 required to classify the image. To further reduce spectral variability the image has been

270 delineated to an area of interest by assigning pixels outside of a hand drawn polygon (i.e.  
271 deep water regions) a null value (Fig.1C).

272

273 Benthic sediments and biota assemblages are discriminated into distinct thematic classes  
274 using the image processing technique “unsupervised classification” within the ER Mapper  
275 software package. This image processing utility assesses each pixel in a satellite image by  
276 performing a calculation based on a combination of the spectral values of each spectral band.  
277 This spectral signature is then used in a binning algorithm which groups pixels into a pre-  
278 determined number of spectral classes. Because the unsupervised classification utility groups  
279 pixels based on differences between reflection properties, water depth inherently affects  
280 classifications. To account for variability due to water depth the unsupervised classification  
281 was calibrated so as to group pixels into a large number of classes. Previous studies (e.g.  
282 Rankey, 2002; Purkis et al., 2005) have utilised fewer than 10 spectral classes during  
283 unsupervised classification. Kaczmarek et al. (2010), however, suggest that whilst a relatively  
284 small number of classes are required to create a satellite based facies map, the number of  
285 spectral classes be significantly (~6×) greater than the number of classes actually present. As  
286 it is applied to this study, ten distinct environmental facies have been identified from field  
287 observations across sampling transects, with 50 spectral classes being utilised to produce an  
288 environmental facies map.

289

290 Areas within the classified image, produced by the ER Mapper unsupervised classification  
291 utility, were assigned to environmental facies by linking pixels corresponding to sample  
292 locations with field observations of the environment. As a result pixels with similar satellite  
293 and field characteristics were automatically grouped together and assigned to the same  
294 environmental facies. For pixel groups with no corresponding sample data, environmental

295 facies were assigned based on further field observations (Kaledupa Double Spur Transect;  
296 Fig. 1D, E), local knowledge, the location of nearby or adjacent environmental facies and the  
297 observed geometries of environmental facies groups. Quantification of the accuracy of the  
298 environmental facies map has been conducted using the “overall accuracy” metric of Mumby  
299 et al (1998; Eq. 1). Overall accuracy reflects the degree to which known pixel values  
300 (classes) are represented by the classified image as determined by a point count of correctly  
301 classified pixels.

302

303 Overall accuracy (%) = (No# correctly classified pixels/No# known pixel classes)\*100 (1)

304

305 Results of the “overall accuracy” metrics give an indication that the pixels of the classified  
306 Landsat image represent the environmental facies on the ground, as determined from field  
307 notes and sediment sampling (cf. Kaczmarek et al., 2010).

308

## 309 **4. Results**

310 Primary sedimentary and environmental results of this study are taken from the analysis of  
311 sediment components, their early alteration and grain-size variations plotted onto  
312 environmental transects for the islands of Pulau Kaledupa and Hoga (Figures 2-8 and  
313 Appendix 1). Results are reported below as environmental and sedimentological descriptions  
314 for each environmental facies group identified.

315

316 **4.1 Foreshore/Backshore.** (Sample References: Kal21, 20, HGG10, 9, PK21, HSB2S-10)

317

318 **4.1.1 Environmental Facies Description.** Foreshore/backshore deposits form a <15 m wide  
319 rim to the main vegetated landmasses and are bare-sandy deposits composed mainly of

320 material reworked from the reef-flat. Foreshore deposits are supratidal to intertidal and dip  
321 10-20° seaward. At high tide foreshore deposits are affected by breaking waves. In contrast  
322 backshore areas are unaffected by all but storm waves, may have the beginnings of  
323 colonisation by vegetation and generally include more disseminated land-derived plant  
324 material than foreshore areas.

325

326 *4.1.2 Sediment Characteristics.* Sediments associated with the foreshore/backshore deposits  
327 are dominated by bioclastic carbonate sands with grainstone to grain-rudstone textures.  
328 Foreshore/backshore deposits are dominantly moderately to well sorted sands, although there  
329 is some variability between the different transects. The foreshore/backshore deposits of Pak  
330 Kasim's and Hoga Buoy 2 are coarse to very coarse unimodal to bimodal sands with a minor  
331 (~<6%) gravel component (Figs. 3, 4). Foreshore/backshore deposits of Hoga Gilge Gilge  
332 and Sumbano are fine to very coarse bimodal sands with a negligible (<1%) gravel content  
333 (Figs. 2a, 2b, 5, 6). In all samples silt to clay size fractions are largely absent (<2%). The >2  
334 mm size fraction of these deposits is dominated by shells and/or coral bioclasts which may  
335 contribute 60-100% of the material present (Fig. 2a). Less abundant bioclasts typically  
336 include *Halimeda* and imperforate foraminifera. In thin section the <2 mm size fraction is  
337 more variable, but reflects the >2 mm grain components in that coral and shell fragments  
338 typically contribute ~50% of the total bioclastic material. Collectively the bioclasts of these  
339 foreshore/backshore deposits are highly abraded (e.g. calcarinid spines broken/removed, and  
340 truncated to gouged grain margins on clasts) with coral and shell clasts showing pervasive  
341 fragmentation. Bioerosion (identified through micritised grain margins) is a variable feature  
342 of the deposits. Micritic rims range from 20 to 50 µm thick and are pervasive features of  
343 coral, shell and *Halimeda* fragments from the Hoga Gilge Gilge and Sumbano deposits (Figs.  
344 2b, 5, 6). Non-pervasive micritic rims of up to 20 µm thick are present on coral and shell

345 fragments in deposits from Pak Kasim's and Hoga Buoy 2 (Figs. 3, 4). Encrustation by  
346 coralline algae and foraminifera is a rare feature of coral clasts from Sumbano and Hoga  
347 Buoy 2 (Figs. 2b, 4, 6). Cementation is absent from all foreshore/backshore deposits.

348

349 **4.2 Intertidal Reef Flat without Seagrass.** (*Sample References: Kal19, 18, HGG8, PK20,*  
350 *HSB2S-9*)

351

352 **4.2.1 Environmental Facies Description.** Intertidal reef flat deposits without seagrass  
353 coverage form a <30-60 m wide perimeter to the foreshore/backshore deposits. These are  
354 bare sand deposits made up of reworked reef-flat material that may have symmetric ripples  
355 and may be bioturbated with shrimp mounds. These deposits dip between 1 and 5° seaward  
356 and are intertidal having water depths of 0.2 to 1 m at high tide.

357

358 **4.2.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.** Sediments associated with the deposits of this  
359 environmental facies are dominated by bioclastic carbonate sands with grainstone to grain-  
360 rudstone textures. The deposits are poorly to well sorted, with variability between transects.  
361 The deposits of the Sumbano transect are bimodal to trimodal fine to very coarse sands with a  
362 variable (1-7%) gravel component and consistent (3-7%) silt sized fraction (Fig. 6). Deposits  
363 from the Hoga Gilge Gilge transect are bimodal very fine to fine and coarse to very coarse-  
364 sands with a negligible gravel (<1%) and silt (<2%) content (Fig. 5). Deposits from the Pak  
365 Kasim's transect are dominantly bimodal coarse to very coarse-sands with gravel (11%) and  
366 a minor (<4%) clay-silt fraction (Fig. 3). Deposits from the Hoga Buoy 2 transect differ  
367 slightly with the other deposits of this environmental facies in that they are very well sorted,  
368 unimodal coarse to very coarse sands with minor gravel (<4%) and clay-silt (2%) sized  
369 components (Fig. 4). The bioclastic content of these deposits, from all transects, exhibits



370 little variability. The >2 mm grain components are dominated by shells and coral bioclasts  
371 that may contribute 45-90% of the material present. Less abundant bioclasts include  
372 *Halimeda* and imperforate foraminifera (Fig. 2c). In thin section the <2 mm grain  
373 components are variable but dominated by coral and/or shell bioclasts that make up 20-60%  
374 of the bioclasts with *Halimeda* also common (5-25%). The <2 mm grains from the Sumbano  
375 transect also have common calcarinids (12-17%) and coralline algae (~10%; Fig. 6).  
376 Collectively the bioclasts of these intertidal deposits are highly abraded with coral, shell,  
377 *Halimeda* and algae clasts showing pervasive fragmentation (Fig. 2d). Bioerosion is  
378 pervasive throughout these deposits. Coral and shell clasts have micritic rims commonly 50  
379  $\mu\text{m}$  thick, with *Halimeda* clasts showing more variable 20-50  $\mu\text{m}$  thick rims. Minor  
380 encrustation by coralline algae is a rare feature of few coral clasts from Sumbano (Fig. 6).  
381 Cementation is absent from all samples of this facies.

382

383 **4.3 Intertidal/Subtidal Reef Flat with Short Seagrass** (Sample References: Kal12, 11, 10, 7,  
384 36, HGG7, PK19, 18, 17, 16, HSB2S-8, 7, 6, 5, SS7, 6, 5)

385

386 **4.3.1 Environmental Facies Description.** Reef-flat intertidal/subtidal areas with short  
387 seagrass coverage form a <30 to ~350 m wide sloping to undulating margin to the intertidal  
388 deposits without seagrass (above). Short seagrass facies are also located as <100 m wide  
389 sections along the Sumbano transect that are adjacent to sections of long seagrass coverage  
390 (Fig. 6). The deposits are bioclastic sands and are commonly associated with shrimp mounds  
391 and bioturbation. These deposits are subtidal to intertidal with water depths of 0.7-1.8 m at  
392 high tide. Deposits are near flat lying to gently dipping, generally < 3°, although locally  
393 higher dips are present.

394

395 **4.3.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.** Sediments associated with the deposits of this  
396 environmental facies are dominated by bioclastic sands with grain-rudstone to more rarely  
397 packstone (Kal36) textures. The deposits are moderately to poorly sorted with some  
398 variability between transects. The deposits are dominantly bimodal fine to very coarse sands  
399 with a variable gravel (<1-17%) and clay-silt (<1-7%) content (Figs. 2e, 3-7). . The sample  
400 from Kaledupa Centre transect is a moderately-poorly sorted unimodal silt-very fine sand  
401 (<75%) deposit with minor fine to coarse sands and a negligible (<1%) gravel content (Fig.  
402 8). The >2 mm size fraction of these deposits is largely consistent across the transects. Coral  
403 and shell clasts contribute 13-90% of the bioclasts (Fig. 2e), with imperforate foraminifera  
404 (3-33%) and *Halimeda* (up to 50%) also dominant constituents. Only the sample from  
405 Kaledupa Centre transect differs, where lithic clasts make up 100% of the >2 mm fraction  
406 (Fig. 8). Lithics are loosely consolidated marl clasts (Fig. 2n). In thin section the <2 mm  
407 size fraction is composed of variable bioclasts. Coral and shell clasts may be dominant  
408 (~50%) with the remaining clasts evenly distributed between common *Halimeda*, imperforate  
409 and perforate foraminifera (Fig. 2f). Less common components include echinoid plates and  
410 spines, alcyonarian sclerites, calcarinids and miliolids. Collectively the bioclasts of these  
411 deposits are moderately abraded and highly fragmented. Again the sample from Kaledupa  
412 Centre differs, having a <2 mm size fraction composed of 97% lithics (Fig. 8). Encrustation  
413 by algae and foraminifera is a rare feature and absent in the Pak Kasim's and Sumbano  
414 deposits (Figs. 3, 6). Bioerosion of coral and shell material is pervasive and micritic rims  
415 may be 20-50  $\mu\text{m}$  thick (Fig. 2f) and rarely up to 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . Bioerosion is less common where  
416 coral or shell abundances are lower; with *Halimeda*, calcarinids and larger foraminifera  
417 showing 10-30  $\mu\text{m}$  thick micritic rims. Cementation is absent from all deposits.

418

419 **4.4 Subtidal Reef Flat with Long Seagrass (Sample References: Kal16, 13, 6, HGG4, PK15)**

420

421 *4.4.1 Environmental Facies Description.* Back reef subtidal areas with long seagrass  
422 coverage occur along the Sumbano, Hoga Gilge Gilge and Pak Kasim's transects (Figs. 3, 5,  
423 6). These areas form <30-100 m wide sections in relatively deep water areas (1.4-2.2 m) on  
424 the reef-flat. Seagrass present in this facies is typically up to 1 m in length, dense and may be  
425 associated with shrimp mounds.

426

427 *4.4.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.* Deposits of this facies are bioclastic sands with  
428 grainstone and less commonly grain- to rud- or packstone textures that show some variability  
429 between the transects. Deposits of the Sumbano transect are unimodal to trimodal poorly  
430 sorted very fine to very coarse sands with minor gravel (<9%) and a low clay-silt sized  
431 content (<7%). The >2 mm size fraction of the Sumbano deposits is dominated by *Halimeda*  
432 clasts (11-44%) and imperforate foraminifera (30-35%) with coral dominant (60%) from  
433 Kal6 adjacent to the subtidal coral deposits (Fig. 6). The <2 mm size fraction of the  
434 Sumbano deposits is dominantly *Halimeda* (30%), shell fragments (20%) and imperforate  
435 foraminifera (15%). The deposits of this facies from the Sumbano transect show only minor  
436 abrasion and fragmentation with pervasive micritic rims of 20-30  $\mu\text{m}$  on shell, coral and  
437 *Halimeda* fragments. Long seagrass deposits from Hoga Gilge Gilge are poorly sorted  
438 trimodal fine to very coarse sands with minor (<4%) gravel and clay-silt sized fractions (Fig.  
439 5). The >2 mm size component of the Hoga Gilge Gilge deposits is dominated by coral clasts  
440 (70%) with less abundant shells and imperforate foraminifera. The <2 mm fraction of the  
441 Hoga Gilge Gilge deposits is variable with coral, shell, *Halimeda*, imperforate, perforate and  
442 calcarinid foraminifera present in similar abundances. Hoga Gilge Gilge deposits of this  
443 facies are moderately fragmented and abraded with highly pervasive bioerosion. Coral and  
444 *Halimeda* clasts have micritic rims of 10-50  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 2g), and shell fragments with rims of

445 up to 100  $\mu\text{m}$  thick. The deposits from Pak Kasim's are dominantly bimodal moderately  
446 sorted fine to very coarse sands with minor (<3%) gravel and clay-silt size fractions (Fig. 3).  
447 The >2 mm size fraction of the Pak Kasim's transect is dominated by imperforate  
448 foraminifera (35%) and *Halimeda* (32%). In thin section the <2 mm fraction is dominated by  
449 corals (52%) and minor imperforate, perforate, calcarinid and miliolid foraminifera. The Pak  
450 Kasim's deposit is highly abraded and fragmented with moderate bioerosion.

451

452 ***4.5 Subtidal Reef Flat with Mixed Long and Short Seagrass (Sample References: Kal17, 8,***  
453 ***HSB2S-4)***

454

455 *4.5.1 Environmental Facies Description.* The back reef subtidal mixed long and short  
456 seagrass facies was sampled in three locations along the Sumbano and Hoga Buoy 2 transects  
457 (Figs. 4, 6). Examples of this facies are 30-100 m wide. Water depths for this facies are 0.7-  
458 1.8 m at high tide.

459

460 *4.5.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.* Deposits of this facies are polymodal poorly  
461 sorted fine to very coarse sands with a moderate to high gravel (6-21%) and moderate silt-  
462 clay (<3-9%) content (Fig. 2h). Sediment textures are grain-rudstones, or in the case of Kal  
463 17 a grain-rud-packstone. The >2 mm size fraction of these deposits is dominated by shell  
464 and coral material which may constitute 31-95% of the bioclastic content. Less common  
465 bioclasts include *Halimeda*, imperforate foraminifera and seagrass (Fig. 2h). In thin section  
466 the <2 mm size fraction is dominated by coral (40%) or *Halimeda* (50%) with lesser shell and  
467 coralline algae clasts. Minor components include echinoid plates and spines (5%),  
468 alcyonarian sclerites (5%), imperforate, perforate, miliolid and smaller benthic foraminifera  
469 (<10% respectively). Abrasion and fragmentation are pervasive on coral clasts and

470 echinoderm material with truncated and broken edges and gouged grain margins. Bioerosion  
471 is non-pervasive with <10 µm thick micritic rims to foraminifera and 20-30 µm thick rims to  
472 coral and shell fragments.

473

474 **4.6 Subtidal Reef Flat with Mixed Seagrass-Corals** (Sample References: Kal14, 5, 3 39,  
475 HGG5, 3, 2, HSB2S-3, PK14, SS4)

476

477 **4.6.1 Environmental Facies Description.** A few examples of back reef subtidal mixed coral  
478 and seagrass facies were sampled along all transects except Kaledupa Centre (Figs. 3- 7).  
479 Sections of mixed coral and seagrass are typically 30-100 m wide and located in the deeper  
480 water (~2 m, high tide) parts of the back reef, and adjacent to patches of long seagrass or the  
481 reef margin. The seagrass present in this mixed facies is generally short and minor, and well-  
482 developed brown algae may be present.

483

484 **4.6.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.** Deposits of the mixed coral and seagrass facies  
485 are dominantly moderately sorted medium to very coarse sands with a typically moderate to  
486 low gravel (<13%) and silt-clay (<8%) sized fraction, with exception to samples Kal39, and  
487 SS4 (Figs. 7, 8) where the gravel sized fraction constitutes 83-94% of the sample. Hand  
488 samples are predominantly grain-rudstones, although in the modern environment domestone  
489 or mixstone textures are also present. The >2 mm size fraction is dominated mostly by coral  
490 and shell bioclasts (commonly 50-90%) with less abundant imperforate foraminifera and  
491 seagrass (Fig. 2i). In thin section the <2 mm size fraction has a high coral and shell content  
492 (typically <50%) with calcarinid and imperforate foraminifera (Fig. 2j, k) and coralline algae  
493 common components (<20%), together with minor perforate foraminifera and echinoid plates  
494 and spines and rarely alcyonarian spicules. Collectively the bioclasts of the mixed coral and

495 seagrass facies are moderately abraded and fragmented with common preservation of  
496 elongate coral clasts and calcarinid spines (Fig. 2i). Bioerosion is pervasive with micritic  
497 rims of up to 100  $\mu\text{m}$  on coral and shell material, and <10-30  $\mu\text{m}$  rims common on other  
498 bioclasts. Minor and non-pervasive encrustation by algae is present commonly and  
499 cementation is absent from all samples.

500

501 ***4.7 Subtidal Reef Flat with Corals and with/without Patchy Sediment Cover (Sample***  
502 ***References: Kal15, 9, 4, 2, HGG6, 1, HSB2S-2, 1, PK13, 12, SS3, 2, 1)***

503

504 ***4.7.1 Environmental Facies Description.*** With exception to the Sumbano transect, back reef  
505 subtidal areas with coral and patchy sediment cover occurs adjacent to and back from the reef  
506 crest/margin. This facies is typically 50-150 m in width. Coral cover is variable ranging  
507 from coral rubble to robust massive and branching forms, with a cover of up to 30%,  
508 although locally around coral bommies this may be higher. Sand cover may be as high as  
509 60%, occurring between corals, rocky knolls and lithified surfaces. Water depths range from  
510 1 to 3 m (high tide). The distribution of this facies across the Sumbano transect (Fig. 6) is  
511 patchy, occurring adjacent to both seagrass and mixed coral/seagrass facies, as well as the  
512 reef crest/margin, with typically <30 m wide sections of coral rubble and intact massive and  
513 branching corals.

514

515 ***4.7.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.*** The deposits of back reef subtidal areas with  
516 corals and with or without sediment cover are typified by bimodal, moderately sorted fine to  
517 very coarse bioclastic sands to gravels. Sediment samples are rud-grainstones, although  
518 pillar-, mix- and domestones are also present in the modern environments. Gravel content is  
519 variable (<1-60%) and there is a typically low clay-silt sized fraction (<5%). The >2 mm

520 size fraction of the deposits is variably dominated by coral and shell bioclasts which may  
521 comprise 10-90% and 5-75% respectively of a sample (Fig. 2l). Less common components  
522 may be imperforate foraminifera, *Halimeda* and seagrass, with rare and minor echinoid plates  
523 and spines and alcyonarian sclerites. In thin section the <2 mm size fraction is rarely  
524 dominated by corals (5-50%) with commonly abundant perforate and calcarinid foraminifera  
525 and *Halimeda* (<20%) and less abundant imperforate foraminifera, echinoid material and  
526 alcyonarian sclerites (<10%). Collectively the bioclasts of this facies are not highly abraded,  
527 shell and coral clasts show minor evidence of abrasion whilst foraminifera, particularly  
528 calcarinids show higher levels of abrasion (i.e., spines removed). Clasts from this facies are  
529 typically highly fragmented and show little encrustation (Fig. 2l). Bioerosion is not a  
530 pervasive feature of this facies, micritic rims are commonly 10-30 µm in thickness and  
531 typically only present on coral, shell and echinoderm material. Cements are absent from all  
532 deposits of this facies.

533

#### 534 **4.8 Subtidal Reef Crest/Margin** (Sample References: *Kal1, HSB42, PK11, S2/3-3m*)

535

536 *4.8.1 Environmental Facies Description.* The reef crest/margin is a narrow (<30 m) rim of  
537 coral rubble to massive corals occurring adjacent to the reef slope bordering deeper waters  
538 and affected by open oceanic processes (Figs. 3, 4, 6, 7). Extensive areas of coral rubble  
539 along the reef margin such as at Sumbano, probably at least in part reflect coral bombing and  
540 other destructive fishing practices by humans. The reef crest margin is predominantly  
541 subtidal, occurring in water depths of 3-5 m (high tide) or more rarely near emergent at low  
542 tide (Hoga Gilge Gilge; Fig. 5).

543

544 *4.8.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.* Deposits of the reef crest/margin are typified by  
545 bimodal, moderately to poorly sorted coarse sands and gravels. Sediment samples are rud-  
546 grainstones but mix- and domestone textures dominate in the modern environments. The  
547 gravel content of these deposits is high (25-43%) with a minor silt-clay sized fraction (<2%).  
548 The >2 mm size fraction is dominated by coral bioclasts (60-<90%) with less abundant shells,  
549 *Halimeda*, echinoid plates and spines and perforate and imperforate foraminifera. In thin  
550 section the <2 mm size fraction is largely coral bioclasts (25-45%) with common shell  
551 fragments, imperforate, miliolid, perforate and calcarinid foraminifera, echinoid spines and  
552 alcyonarian sclerites (<15%). Collectively the bioclasts are moderately to highly abraded and  
553 fragmented. Encrustation is not seen in these deposits and bioerosion is minimal . Micritic  
554 rims at most are <10 µm and non-pervasive. Cementation is absent from all deposits of the  
555 reef crest/margin.

556

557 ***4.9 Subtidal Reef Slope*** (*Sample References: WSUM2, HSB41, HB3-7, 6, PK10, 5, S2/3-5m,*  
558 *8m*)

559

560 *4.9.1 Environmental Facies Description.* The reef slope environment is a subtidal rocky to  
561 sandy slope with hard coral coverage (locally up to 50%), coral rubble and soft corals (Figs.  
562 3-7). Selected samples were from water depths ranging from 5 to 14 m, and from a range of  
563 slope environments including sediment collected on ledges from near vertical rocky walls,  
564 sediment patches between corals, sand shoots within canyons and sediment aprons below the  
565 main reefal development. Studied sections of the reef slope were <30 m wide, with all  
566 environments exposed to open oceanic processes.

567



568 *4.9.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.* The deposits of the reef slope are typically  
569 bimodal, moderately to poorly sorted bioclastic gravels and fine to very coarse sands. Rud-  
570 grainstone textures comprise the sediment samples, with mixstone textures also present in the  
571 modern settings. The coarse gravel content of the deposits is high (12-43%) with a typically  
572 low silt-clay sized fraction (<7%). The >2 mm size fraction of the reef slope deposits is  
573 dominantly comprised of coral clasts which may contribute 35-75% of the total bioclastic  
574 material. Common, less abundant bioclasts include, shell fragments, *Halimeda*, imperforate  
575 foraminifera, echinoid plates and spines and alcyonarian sclerites (<10%). In thin section the  
576 <2 mm size fraction of the reef slope deposits is largely coral clasts (35-45%) with common  
577 shell fragments, perforate foraminifera, echinoderm material and alcyonarian sclerites (Fig.  
578 2m). Collectively the bioclasts show moderate to minor abrasion and fragmentation, with  
579 coral clasts showing the most pervasive fragmentation. Encrustation and bioerosion are rare  
580 and non-pervasive (Fig. 2m). No cementation is present in deposits of the reef slope  
581 environment.

582

583 ***4.10 Platform Interior Channel and/or Deep Water Regions (Sample References: Kal34, 35,***  
584 ***37, 38, 40, 41, WHB1-2)***

585

586 *4.10.1 Environmental Facies Description.* Turbid and deep water platform interior regions  
587 are found in the near-shore back reef 'lagoon' area of northeast Kaledupa and in the semi-  
588 enclosed channel that lies between Kaledupa and Hoga (Fig. 8). The areas of deep water are  
589 3-<30 m in depth. Complete bottom-water/sediment-surface environmental data is not  
590 available along this transect since samples were acquired via a sediment grab. Unlike other  
591 transects that are adjacent to onshore areas of limestone the Kaledupan coast proximal to  
592 sample locations for Kal34-38 has cliff exposures of marl (deposits rich in carbonate and

593 siliciclastic clay and silt-sized particles). Turbidity associated with these deposits is  
594 commonly strongly related to suspended particulate matter derived from the marls, terrestrial  
595 derived organic matter, plankton and high tidal current velocities in the channels stirring up  
596 bottom sediment.

597

598 *4.10.2 Facies and Sediment Characteristics.* Deposits of the deep water regions are  
599 dominantly bioclastic sands and gravels, however variability exists between the south-eastern  
600 deposits (Kal34, 35; Fig. 2n, 8,) and the north-western deposits. South-eastern deposits are  
601 bimodal to trimodal, moderately to poorly sorted silts with variable very fine to very coarse  
602 sand. Coarse gravel sized material is lacking (<0.2%) and clay-silt comprises 37-51% of the  
603 total sediment resulting in packstone textures (Fig. 2n). Bioclasts are absent from the small  
604 amount of >2 mm size fraction, instead the coarse sediment is 99-100% lithic clasts. In thin  
605 section the <2 mm size fraction is 50-95% lithics with minor coral and shell clasts, echinoid  
606 material, alcyonarian sclerites and smaller benthic and planktonic foraminifera. The bioclasts  
607 that are present are highly fragmented and abraded. Encrustation is a rare feature of larger  
608 coral clasts and bioerosion is pervasive. Micritic rims are typically >50 µm in thickness on  
609 coral and shell material with other bioclasts showing more variable 10-50 µm rims. The  
610 north-western deposits are dominantly unimodal, moderately to well sorted medium-coarse  
611 sands to gravel with grain-rudstone textures. The coarse gravel fraction may contribute from  
612 4 to 54% of the sediment, with a typically low or moderate clay-silt sized fraction (<1-17%).  
613 The >2 mm fraction of these deposits is typically dominated by shell material (20-65%) or  
614 coral clasts (7-66%). In thin section the <2 mm size fraction is variable with commonly  
615 abundant shell (<30%) and echinoderm material (<20%) with less abundant coral,  
616 imperforate-, smaller benthic, miliolid- and planktonic-foraminifera, and rare alcyonarian  
617 sclerites (Fig. 2o). The bioclasts of these deposits are commonly moderately fragmented and

618 abraded, with corals showing the most pervasive fracturing (Fig. 2o). Encrustation by  
619 coralline algae and rarely foraminifera is common. Bioerosion is common but rarely  
620 pervasive, with the best developed micritic rims of 10-40  $\mu\text{m}$  present on coral and shell  
621 clasts. Cementation is absent from all deposits.

622

#### 623 ***4.11 Satellite Classification Model***

624

625 A Landsat-7 derived environmental facies map has been created through unsupervised  
626 classification processes (Fig. 9; see Materials and Methods section). An overall accuracy of  
627 pixel classification linked to environmental facies of 71.43% is indicative of good agreement  
628 across the Landsat generated facies map (Table 1). However, the accuracy of classification  
629 for most of the subtidal reef flat and intertidal to supratidal facies is >90%. The main source  
630 of error in the environmental facies model is due to misclassification of the reef crest-margin  
631 and reef slope facies. In all instances these features are at a single pixel or sub-pixel scale  
632 (feature width) and are misclassified as either platform interior channel/deep or reef flat  
633 subtidal corals with or without sediment cover. Despite attempts to group pixels into a larger  
634 number of classes (n=60, 75, 100) it was not possible to correctly identify these features  
635 whilst maintaining good agreement in the deep water facies around the Kaledupa Centre  
636 transect. To a lesser extent the mixed long and short seagrass facies are a secondary source  
637 of error, with only 20% agreement for this class. Misclassification of the mixed seagrass  
638 facies places pixels into the short seagrass, long seagrass or mixed coral and seagrass facies.  
639 Of the classifiable environmental facies for the classified area: 22.92% are mixed coral and  
640 seagrass, 20.53% are short seagrass, 18.43% are coral with or without sediment cover,  
641 16.78% are long seagrass, 13.14% are deep water/turbid, 5.27% are intertidal/subtidal with

642 no seagrass, 2.45% are mixed long and short seagrass and 0.46% are foreshore/backshore  
643 (Fig. 9).

644

#### 645 ***4.12 Cluster Analysis***

646

647 Carbonate sedimentation across the Kaledupa-Hoga system is, for the most part, dominated  
648 by the accumulation of skeletal allochems including coral clasts, whole and broken shells,  
649 *Halimeda*, foraminifera, coralline algae and echinodermata grains. A comparison of  
650 composition (bioclasts and fines) by statistical cluster analysis for the whole data set allows  
651 for the identification of four “statistically-defined” sedimentary facies. These four  
652 “statistically-defined” facies have textures of; (1) packstone, (2) grainstone, (3) grainstone to  
653 grain-rudstone and (4) grain-rudstone to grain-rud-packstone (Fig. 10). The dendrogram  
654 demonstrates a large degree of sediment homogenisation in that at ~40% dissimilarity the  
655 sediments are still largely grouped as the same cluster. The cophenetic correlation coefficient  
656 value for the dendrogram at 0.9017 is very high, and indicates that the dendrogram accurately  
657 reflects the original sediment characteristics (Fig. 10).

658

### 659 **5. Interpretation and Discussion**

660

#### 661 ***5.1 Environmental facies distributions, sediment characteristics and controlling influences***

662

663 As is the case for other modern humid equatorial carbonate systems, or indeed those from  
664 elsewhere, the distribution of environmental facies and their associated sediments from  
665 shallow platforms can be complex (cf. Scrutton, 1978; Park et al., 1992, 2010; Jordan, 1998,  
666 O’Shea, 2005). An important consideration for understanding spatial facies patterns well

667 enough to be predictive about their inherent characteristics is whether or not a relationship  
668 can be established between observable sedimentary characteristics and the identifiable  
669 environmental associations (cf. Harris and Vlaswinkel, 2008). The classification of the  
670 Kaledupa- Hoga reef systems demonstrates a heterogeneous distribution of environmental  
671 facies. Field observations have identified 10 observable environmental facies.  
672 However, although the combined petrographic and sedimentological study allowed subtle  
673 deposit variations to be identified for the different environmental facies there is similarity  
674 between many of the facies, as corroborated by the cluster analysis of the deposits (Figs. 10,  
675 11). Sediment characteristics, whilst distinctive would appear to identify broader  
676 environmental facies groupings than the facies breakdown presented in the Landsat derived  
677 facies map (Figs. 9-11).

678

679 Foreshore deposits are a minor component of the Kaledupa-Hoga system, distributed adjacent  
680 to the emergent landmasses. The highly abraded allochems, general absence of fine material  
681 and fragmented reworked reef debris are due to the accumulation of skeletal sands and coarse  
682 coral debris concentrated by wave and storm activity. These same features of foreshore  
683 and/or beach deposits are seen regionally, notably in the isolated carbonate systems of  
684 Kepulauan Seribu, offshore Jakarta (Jordan, 1998; O'Shea, 2005). The adjacent facies of  
685 intertidal reef flat without seagrass form a relatively wide perimeter to the foreshore deposits  
686 and are highly distinctive. The accumulation of poorly to well sorted very fine to very coarse  
687 sands reflects variable energy settings. The Sumbano deposits, in the lee of Kaledupa Island,  
688 having a trimodal grain-size distribution (fine to very coarse sand and low to moderate silts-  
689 clays and gravels) reflect the lowest energy depositional conditions. The highest percentage  
690 of silts and clays, albeit at only 4-7% (Fig. 6), likely reflects the leeward setting and are also a  
691 consequence of the broad reef flat, providing some protection from wave activity. Although

692 Hoga Buoy 2 is situated in the lee of the smaller island of Hoga the limited width of the reef  
693 flat likely contributed to the apparently higher energy, well sorted coarse to very coarse  
694 intertidal deposits with minimal silts and clays (<2%; Fig. 4). Although the intertidal  
695 deposits of Hoga Gilge Gilge are sited in the lee of small offshore “mushroom” islands and  
696 inboard of a broad reef flat the paucity of clays and silts (<2%) reflects the windward setting  
697 with respect to the strong westerly monsoon (Fig. 5). The coral- and shell-rich content of  
698 both the foreshore/backshore and intertidal deposits reflects reworking and deposition from  
699 the reef flat environments. Micritisation of the intertidal deposits is pervasive and consistent  
700 with endolithic micro-borers being most active in moderate to lower energy shallow-photoc  
701 environments (cf. Swinchatt, 1965; Budd and Perkins, 1980; Perry and Bertling, 2000; Perry  
702 and Hepburn, 2008). These foreshore and intertidal deposits are almost exclusively  
703 grainstones, a product of strong shoreward reworking of reefal material and localised  
704 turbulence and/or winnowing associated with waves breaking at the shore. However, cluster  
705 analysis of these samples does not fully resolve these grainstones into their own distinctive  
706 facies. Instead, cluster analysis results in a grouping of the heavily micritised foreshore and  
707 intertidal deposits of Hoga Gilge Gilge (Fig. 10). The remainder of the foreshore and  
708 intertidal environmental facies is clustered together with the sedimentary facies of  
709 grainstones to grain-rudstones that are pervasive across many environments of the Kaledupa-  
710 Hoga fringing reefs; indicating strong homogenisation of the sediments (Fig. 10).

711

712 Despite the presence of distinct reef flat environmental facies, detectable from field  
713 observations and Landsat interpretation, the sedimentological characteristics are less varied.  
714 There is a broad similarity of sedimentological features of the back reef in terms of allochem  
715 composition, grain size and early alteration characteristics (Figs. 2-8, 10, 11). Furthermore  
716 the controls of leeward versus windward settings and the effects of sheltering by a broad reef

717 flat that are evident in the foreshore and intertidal deposits are not as apparent in the back reef  
718 facies. Reef flat deposits on the basis of their sedimentological characteristics may be  
719 grouped into two broad categories: (1) seagrass facies and (2) coral facies.

720

721 Seagrass facies are heterogeneous in their distribution and continuity across and between  
722 transects, a feature highlighted by their patchy distribution on the Landsat-derived facies map  
723 (Fig. 9). In general seagrass facies deposits are poorly sorted very fine to very coarse sands,  
724 with comparable abundances of clay-silt and gravel sized fractions (typically 3-10%). This  
725 apparent homogeneous grain size distribution across both leeward and windward transects  
726 and inbound from both broad and narrow reef flats is indicative that the prevailing energy  
727 conditions are not the primary controlling factor for the development of high versus low  
728 energy deposits, as is the case for foreshore/backshore and intertidal settings. The bioclastic  
729 content of the seagrass facies deposits is composed dominantly of moderately abraded and  
730 fragmented coral and shell material, lesser imperforate foraminifera and *Halimeda*, and minor  
731 miliolid and calcarinid foraminifera, echinoderm material and alcyonarian sclerites. Micritic  
732 walled imperforate foraminifera, including miliolids, and calcarinids are associated with the  
733 development of seagrass beds where seagrass blades provide renewable substrate upon which  
734 such benthic organisms can attach and grow (Ginsburg and Lowenstam, 1958; Renema and  
735 Hohenegger, 2005), and where locally protected settings are developed by the baffling effect  
736 of the seagrass (e.g. Ginsburg, 1957; Scoffin, 1970; Brasier, 1975; Almasi et al., 1987).  
737 These same locally protected settings also act as sediment baffles trapping the highest  
738 abundances of silt and clays from the reef flat, resulting in the grain-rud-packstones textures  
739 in addition to grain-rudstones. Despite the presence of seagrass facies indicators (poorly  
740 sorted sediments, moderate to high silt-clay and imperforate foraminifera) there is an  
741 overriding bioclastic signature i.e., a high abundance of reworked corals with accessory

742 echinoids and alcyonarian sclerites. This bioclastic signature is more typical of the coral  
743 associated facies occurring seaward of the seagrass facies deposits, although some corals are  
744 locally present in the seagrass areas. Reworking of coral reef material into the seagrass facies  
745 is attributed to the “wash-over effect” of wave activity and strong diurnal tidal currents  
746 promoting the shoreward movement of reef material. The lack of a well-defined or emergent  
747 reef crest that would act to protect the back reef areas likely contributed to the shoreward  
748 movement of reefal material. Similar to the foreshore/backshore and particularly the  
749 intertidal deposits, seagrass facies deposits show high degrees of micritisation consistent with  
750 low energy shallow-photoc environments, as inferred above.

751

752 Coral facies are widespread throughout the study area, comprising 40% of the Landsat  
753 classification. The sedimentology of these deposits is reflected in the overall moderately  
754 sorted medium to very coarse sands and gravels with a typically low (<5%) silt-clay content  
755 and grainstone to grain-rudstone classifications. Coral facies deposits show little variability,  
756 with coral contents typically constituting up to 90% of a sample. Less abundant clasts  
757 commonly include perforate (including calcarinids) and imperforate foraminifera, *Halimeda*,  
758 echinoderm material and alcyonarian sclerites. High abundances of highly fragmented coral  
759 with robust forms of perforate foraminifera are distinctive of high energy environments  
760 (Hallock and Glenn, 1986; Beavington-Penney and Racey, 2004). However, the presence of  
761 non-robust imperforate foraminifera, rare miliolids, calcarinids, and rare highly abraded  
762 clasts with pervasive micritisation are indicators of reworking of seagrass facies material into  
763 the coral facies deposits. Seaward reworking of sediments is best attributed to the strong  
764 semi-diurnal tidal currents in combination with bi-directional monsoonal winds, perhaps in  
765 combination with storm-waves, affecting shallow platform environments. Whilst reef crest  
766 and slope deposits were not identifiable on the Landsat derived facies map they are perhaps



767 the most distinctive deposits sampled. These deposits are dominantly coarse to very coarse  
768 sands with consistently very high (<45%) gravel and low (typically <2%) silt-clay sized  
769 fractions, indicative of a high energy platform margin. Despite the inferred high energy  
770 setting of the reef crest/slope environments reef slope samples from Hoga Buoy 2 and  
771 Sumbano have moderate silt-clay contents of 3 to <6% respectively. This accumulation of  
772 some fine sediment is likely the result of their protected leeward setting that is also reflected  
773 in the foreshore/intertidal deposits for the same transects.

774

775 Despite the presence of identifiable seagrass and coral based environmental facies there is a  
776 strong homogenisation of sedimentary characteristics, a result of wash over, bi-directional  
777 monsoonal winds and strong semi-diurnal tidal currents. This homogenisation of  
778 sedimentary characteristics is clearly highlighted through cluster analysis of the sediments  
779 (Fig. 10). The dominance of coral and shell material as coarse bioclasts imparts a grainstone  
780 to grain-rudstone texture to the majority of the reef flat sediments (Fig. 10). However, where  
781 seagrass deposits have developed in the lee of Kaledupa (Sumbano transect) and in the more  
782 protected settings of Sampela transect; the concentration of fines allows for the identification  
783 of grain-rudstone to grain-rud-packstone sediments which are distinctly representative of  
784 locally protected seagrass environmental facies. There is an apparent disconnect between the  
785 ability to map environmental facies from satellite imagery and what is preserved in the  
786 geologic record i.e., the lack of identifiable reef crest and reef margin facies. The reef crest  
787 and margin facies sediments whilst initially appearing as distinctive are still clustered with  
788 the largely homogenised sediments of the reef flat, i.e., grainstones-grain-rudstones (Fig. 10).  
789 These reef crest and margin deposits are likely, however, to be traceable in the rock record  
790 through combined component and/or textural class variations, with prior studies detailing the  
791 potential of diagenetic overprinting by early marine cements of reef margin sediments

792 (Grötsch and Mercadier, 1999; Wilson and Evans, 2002; Madden and Wilson, 2013). The  
793 very small spatial extent of these reef margin and crest deposits and associated inability to  
794 detect sub-pixel scale features from this form of satellite imagery is not considered a major  
795 failing of this study since the broader sedimentary facies are still discerned (Figs. 9, 10).

796

## 797 ***5.2. Kaledupa-Hoga summary and comparisons with other fringing reefs***

798

799 Sediment samples across all fringing reef environments from the Kaledupa-Hoga transects  
800 have almost exclusively grain-rudstone textures, with <2-5% silt and clay size fractions (85%  
801 of all samples). Grain-packstone textures (albeit with only up to 7-9% silts and clays) are  
802 seen in the seagrass beds and intertidal deposits just from the broader reef flats and  
803 predominantly on leeward transects with respect to the predominant monsoonal wind  
804 direction. It appears that seagrasses are a key baffler of fine grained sediment on these  
805 small-scale isolated systems, and are also areas of enhanced biologically-mediated  
806 breakdown and alteration of grains (cf. Ginsburg and Lowenstam, 1958). Tomascik et al.  
807 (1997) reported that seagrasses are a ubiquitous feature of many Indonesian fringing reefs  
808 and that there are important biological, and it now appears sedimentological, dynamics  
809 between the reef-seagrass systems (cf. Salinas de León et al., 2010; Unsworth, 2010). Fines  
810 in packstones from the Central Kaledupa transect are linked to the physical breakdown of  
811 island-derived lithics (marls) and their accumulation in the inter-platform “channel” and deep  
812 water “lagoon” area. There may also be anthropogenic influences on environments and grain  
813 sizes, particularly in the Sampela transect (Crabbe and Smith, 2002). The paucity of fines  
814 across the Kaledupa-Hoga system as a whole is attributed to: (1) high wave/current energies,  
815 (2) the small size of the islands rendering limited protection, (3) bidirectional monsoon winds  
816 and (4) the lack of reef rimmed margins built to sea level. Additionally the equatorial tropics

817 unlike the sub-tropics is not a region of significant marine carbonate precipitation, whether in  
818 the form of micrite “whittings”, ooid formation or cements (Lees and Buller, 1972; Wilson,  
819 2002; 2012), as attested to by the paucity of early cementation throughout the fringing reef  
820 deposits. The degree of homogenisation of sediment characteristics across the different field-  
821 and satellite-identifiable environmental facies with evidence for both seaward and landward  
822 transportation of grains is again attributed to these same four factors listed directly above (cf.  
823 Cordier et al., 2012).

824

825 Similar features to those described here and a predominance of grain-rudstone sediments  
826 across reef flat, crest and slope deposits are also seen regionally in the high-energy, monsoon-  
827 influenced carbonate systems of Kepulauan Seribu, offshore Jakarta. In general the reef flat  
828 environments with widths of up to 2 km (including seagrass beds, lithified coral flats and  
829 patchy coral cover) are characterised by medium to coarse bioclastic sands where coral  
830 rubble constitutes 40-70% of the bioclastic material, molluscs 50-70% and minor  
831 foraminifera and echinoid material are widespread, and silt-clay size fractions are low  
832 (Scrutton, 1976, 1978; Jordan, 1998; O’Shea, 2005; Park et al., 2010). The reef crest and  
833 slope environments of Pulau Seribu are dominated by 40-95% coral rubble with a typically  
834 poor degree of sorting and <2% silt-clay sediment fraction (Scrutton, 1976, 1978; Jordan,  
835 1998; O’Shea, 2005; Park et al., 2010). The Pulau Seribu system differs from those  
836 described here from Kaledupa-Hoga in being shelf patch reefs, with or without coral  
837 rubble/sand cays and/or interior lagoons, and in having prominent rampart rims, often with a  
838 landward developed moat and lesser seagrass development (Park et al., 1992; 2010;  
839 Tomascik et al., 1997; Jordan, 1998). The fringing reef deposits from around the 1.5 km  
840 across Danjungan Island in the Philippines, as with those described here, are dominated by  
841 sand- to gravel-grade bioclastic grains with homogenisation of grain types across different

842 environments (Hewins and Perry, 2006). Where the Danjungan reefs differ is in showing  
843 strong differentiation between “windward, leeward and lagoonal” transects in addition to  
844 bathymetric trends, with the systems as a whole influenced by predominant prevailing winds  
845 from the southwest (Hewins and Perry, 2006). Tomascik et al. (1997) noted that some of the  
846 variability in SE Asian fringing reef development relates to: (1) geographic location (e.g.  
847 continental shelf vs. oceanic), (2) topography and nature (e.g. volcanic or limestone) of the  
848 antecedent foundations, and (3) their geomorphological attributes. In the latter case this may  
849 include the presence of spurs and grooves, lagoons, boat channels, reef crest, reef flats and  
850 the angle of the reef slope.

851

852 Other fringing reefs from isolated equatorial tropical carbonate systems, such as Mahé in the  
853 Seychelles, show similarities to those from the Tukang Besi Archipelago in being dominated  
854 by bioclasts, showing similar distinct environmental facies zonation, but in having sediment  
855 characteristics in terms of grain-sizes and/or components that may be difficult to relate to  
856 their primary environments (Lewis, 1969). As with the Wakatobi region, seagrass beds are  
857 zones of accumulation of the finer grained sediments, although rarely more than a few  
858 percent silt- or clay-grade material, and mostly in leeward settings (Lewis, 1969). The  
859 fringing reefs of Mahé differ from those of Kaledupa-Hoga in showing more distinctive  
860 zonation on windward versus leeward reefs, just having predominantly landward transport  
861 directions of marine sediments and in showing significant development of outer reef-flat to  
862 reef-crest algal ridges. These differences may reflect the slightly larger size of Mahé at 25  
863 km compared with Kaledupa-Hoga (20 km), the lack of island-transecting tidally-influenced  
864 channels, less oceanic-current influence and sea swells mainly during a predominant  
865 monsoon season (Lewis, 1969). Kuenen (1933) and Umbgrove (1947) noted that the thick  
866 algal sheets and ridges that characterise large areas of the Great Barrier Reef and many

867 Pacific atolls are rare within the Indonesian archipelago, and these features are also not  
868 present in Pulau Seribu, Danjungan or Kaledupa-Hoga (cf. Hewins and Perry, 2006; Park et  
869 al., 2010).

870

871 Fringing reefs in the sub-tropics, such as those from Grand Cayman, New Caledonia or  
872 Réunion (Gabrié and Montaggioni, 1982; Cabioch et al, 1995; Blanchon et al., 1997;  
873 Blanchon and Jones, 1997), tend to differ significantly from those in the equatorial tropics.  
874 At 25 km across Grand Cayman is similar in size to Kaledupa and Mahé but the fringing  
875 reefs differ in their zonation, their reef morphology, not developing on leesides, having little  
876 seagrass development, being dominated by zones of coral-cobble rubble underlying the reef  
877 crest and in having spur and groove development downslope of the reef crest (Blanchon et  
878 al., 1997). An overriding control on fringing reef development in Grand Cayman is inferred  
879 to be hurricanes (Blanchon and Jones, 1997; Blanchon et al., 1997): i.e. a process not  
880 affecting the equatorial tropics. Braithwaite et al. (2000) and Montaggioni (2005) noted that  
881 fringing reefs have a spectrum of development and internal structure related to lower or  
882 higher fair-weather energy conditions versus storm severity. Accommodation space and  
883 relative sea level change in addition to hurricanes are other important controls on the growth  
884 and morphology of fringing reefs (Kennedy and Woodruffe, 2002). The fringing reefs of  
885 Kaledupa-Hoga developed under high fair-weather energy, but low storm severity and their  
886 development is consistent with the trends described by Braithwaite et al. (2000) and  
887 Montaggioni (2005). Fringing reefs with near horizontal reef flats that are partially exposed  
888 landward of the reef flat at low tide, as is the case for those of Kaledupa-Hoga, are commonly  
889 reported throughout the Indo-Pacific (Kennedy and Woodruffe, 2002). Many of these Indo-  
890 Pacific reef flats that dry at low tide appear to have experienced relative sea level fall  
891 (Kennedy and Woodruffe, 2002). The fringing reef systems of Kaledupa-Hoga are no

892 exception, surrounding islands with “stepped” coral reef terraces that have been uplifted to  
893 maximum heights of 300 m within the last 5 million years (Wilson, 2008b).

894

### 895 *5.3 Limitations of, and Comparisons with, Landsat-Derived Environmental Facies Maps.*

896

897 Given the heterogeneous and complex biological and morphological structure of coral reef  
898 environments it is perhaps unsurprising that many satellite based facies maps, whether  
899 environmentally or sedimentologically focused, typically fall short of 100% accuracy (e.g.,  
900 Green et al., 2000; Kaczmarek et al., 2010). Discrepancies between the field determined  
901 environmental facies and the Landsat derived facies map presented here (i.e. 71.43%  
902 agreement) are attributable to several factors. The main source of error in the facies map  
903 generated for Kaledupa and Hoga is the misclassification of the reef crest and reef slope  
904 environments (Table 1, Fig. 9). This misclassification of forereef environments is an error  
905 inherent to the study area where reef crests and slopes with narrow <30 m wide profiles are  
906 juxtaposed against steep drop-offs and deep water. The occurrence of sub-pixel scale (<30  
907 m) reef features, and the absence of a well defined highly reflective reef crest result in  
908 misclassification and placement of these pixels into adjacent thematic classes. It has been  
909 suggested that the optimal spatial resolution for most coral reef mapping exercises is 1-10 m  
910 (Joyce and Phinn, 2001; Andréfouët et al., 2003). Whilst it is possible to utilise hand  
911 digitising, filtering algorithms and/or sub-pixel classification techniques to correct these  
912 misclassified pixels the techniques are labour and time intensive. Given the low spatial  
913 extent of the observable reef crest and reef margin environments and their sedimentary facies  
914 grouping within a broader coral environmental facies (Fig. 10) their misclassification does  
915 not significantly affect the overall success of the presented facies map (i.e. 86% agreement  
916 without the reef crest and slope). Lesser sources of error are likely attributable to the

917 similarity in reflectance of chlorophyll-producing organisms present in the different  
918 environmental facies (Kaczmarek et al., 2010), most notably the seagrass environmental  
919 facies (Table 1, Fig. 9). Further sources of error are well established including sampling  
920 frequency where the resolution of the transect data is greater than the resolution of the  
921 Landsat sensor and local conditions of cloud cover and wave activity which alter the colour  
922 and brightness of the satellite image (Harris and Kowalik, 1994; Kaczmarek et al., 2010).

923

924 Primary depositional facies are a main controlling factor in the heterogeneity of deposits  
925 across a carbonate system. Accurately mapping and constraining primary facies variability  
926 are key to understanding resultant sedimentological variability for a system. There are few  
927 studies that attempt to characterise the facies and deposit characteristics of modern shallow  
928 water carbonate systems, utilising remote sensing data. In one key study, environmental  
929 facies are defined and accurately mapped for 19 modern isolated carbonate platforms (Harris  
930 and Vlaswinkel, 2008). In this study the colour, texture, shape and relative context of reef  
931 features were used to identify, map and hand-digitise nine distinct facies groupings from  
932 Landsat images. The resultant facies maps accurately outline the extent of reef environments  
933 from a fully aggraded reef crest through to the platform interior. Whilst this subjective  
934 method of hand-digitising features provides valuable data on facies metrics and distributions,  
935 no links are made between primary environmental facies and primary sedimentological  
936 characteristics. Furthermore the use of subjective, hand-digitised facies groupings may  
937 contribute to a limited understanding of facies variability and heterogeneity across smaller  
938 scales. Conversely several studies have demonstrated the use of quantitative approaches in  
939 producing satellite-based maps of benthic sediments and reef biota (Purkis and Pasterkamp,  
940 2004; Ouillon et al., 2004; Riegl et al., 2007; Kaczmarek et al., 2010). Whilst the approaches  
941 of such studies are effective in determining the distribution of benthic biota types or broad

942 sediment observations (i.e. grainstone to mudstone identification) with high accuracies (e.g.  
943 >85%; Kaczmarek et al., 2010), such studies do not demonstrate the variability of sediment  
944 characteristics in relation to the primary environment of deposition. The Kaledupa-Hoga  
945 model presented here demonstrates that primary environmental facies are, for the most part,  
946 detectable at the moderate resolution (28.5 m) of the Landsat sensor, and that these  
947 environments have some consistent primary sedimentological, and early alteration  
948 characteristics (Figs., 10, 11).

949

950 Sub-tropical to tropical isolated carbonate systems are well known from areas such as Central  
951 America, the Indian Ocean and south Pacific, with their sedimentology and satellite  
952 characterisation well documented (Gischler and Lomando, 1999; Rankey, 2002; Gischler et  
953 al., 2003; Gischler, 2006, 2011; Rankey and Harris, 2008; Harris, 2010; Harris et al., 2010;  
954 Rankey and Reeder, 2010, Harris et al., 2011). Detailed combined Landsat imagery and  
955 sediment studies are lacking from other fringing reef systems globally. The sedimentology of  
956 four modern equatorial isolated carbonate platforms from Belize-Yucatan, (Central America)  
957 studied utilising Landsat imagery, provides some analogues for comparison with the isolated  
958 carbonate system of Kaledupa-Hoga. The composition and texture of surface sediment  
959 samples from the modern sedimentary facies of the four isolated carbonate platforms from  
960 Belize-Yucatan, define four major sediment types across nine depositional environments  
961 (Gischler and Lomando, 1999). A comparison of Landsat images with sediment distribution  
962 maps shows that correlations between satellite image characteristics (depositional  
963 environments) and sediment composition and/or texture is mostly very good for isolated  
964 carbonate systems in Belize-Yucatan (Gischler and Lomando, 1999). That is, as with  
965 Kaledupa-Hoga there is some degree of sediment homogenisation across different field- and  
966 satellite-identifiable environmental facies. However, many of the depositional environments



967 that are identified in the Belize-Yucatan systems are not present in the Kaledupa-Hoga  
968 system, nor are the broad sediment types; packstone, grain-rich wackestone and mud-rich  
969 wackestone of Gischler and Lomando (1999). Instead the sediment types of Kaledupa-Hoga  
970 are dominantly homogeneous, represented mainly by grainstones to grain-rudstones. Another  
971 thing observed in the Belize-Yucatan platforms, not seen in Kaledupa-Hoga is the presence of  
972 high energy windward versus low energy leeward settings, clearly identifiable through both  
973 satellite and sediment characterisation. Near continuous surface breaking reef rims on the  
974 windward side, characterised by an encrusted and cemented coral rubble build up with a low  
975 (<5%) fine sediment (<125 µm) content. The high energy reef rims are absent on the leeward  
976 sides of these reef systems where unconsolidated, discontinuous and surface-breaking loose  
977 coral-rubble rims are present (Gischler and Lomando, 1999). Back reef lagoonal settings  
978 protected by the emergent reef rim in Belize contain high concentrations of shell material,  
979 *Halimeda*, and imperforate miliolid foraminifera with fine sediment (<125 µm) fractions as  
980 high as >23% (Gischler and Lomando, 1999). However, despite evidence of protected back  
981 reef settings redistribution of grains derived from windward margins towards back reef areas  
982 produces wide sand aprons that fill in the interior lagoons, and there is corresponding  
983 transport towards and across the leeside of the platforms (Gischler and Lomando, 1999). On  
984 the easterly side of Kaledupa is a broad coral reef flat partially draped by sediment (Class 7;  
985 Fig. 9). It is likely that this “apron” has developed due to sediment accumulation and reef  
986 progradation in response to the predominant prevailing monsoonal wind direction (cf. Harris  
987 and Vlaswinkel, 2008)..

988

## 989 **6. Conclusions**

990 The environments, sediments and satellite image characteristics of fringing reefs surrounding  
991 oceanic islands in the Tukang Besi Archipelago of Central Indonesia are detailed for the first

992 time. Ten ground-truthed modern environmental facies were recognised across the fringing  
993 reef system, and although these have some distinctive primary depositional characteristics  
994 there is a degree of sediment homogenisation across facies. Foreshore/backshore deposits are  
995 characterised by moderately sorted, coarse to very coarse sands with a low silt and gravel  
996 content and high degrees of abrasion and fragmentation (grainstones). Seagrass-associated  
997 facies are typically poorly sorted, fine to very coarse sands with up to 9% silt and some  
998 gravel content together with moderate degrees of fragmentation and abrasion (grain-  
999 packstones). Reef flat coral facies are moderately sorted medium to very coarse sands with  
1000 low silt and typically high gravel contents (grainstones to grain-rudstones). Bioclasts within  
1001 the coral facies are generally highly fragmented and show some abrasion. Distinctive  
1002 moderately to poorly sorted coarse sands and abundant gravels with low silt contents are  
1003 present in fore reef settings (grain-rudstones). The identification of different environmental  
1004 facies has allowed a Landsat derived facies map to be generated with overall good accuracy.  
1005 The paucity of fines across the fringing reef systems as a whole and the degree of  
1006 homogenisation of sediment characteristics across the different field- and satellite-identifiable  
1007 environmental facies are attributed to: (1) high wave/current energies, (2) the small size of  
1008 the islands rendering limited protection, (3) bidirectional monsoon winds and (4) the lack of  
1009 reef rimmed margins built to sea level. This study probably only hints at some of the  
1010 variability within SE Asia's vast, and virtually unstudied fringing reef systems (>7500 km<sup>2</sup> of  
1011 Indonesia's coast is fringed by reefs: Tomascik et al., 1997). However, it highlights apparent  
1012 significant differences between some equatorial fringing reefs and those from the subtropics.  
1013 The systems studied here reveal the importance of seagrass bed development, the influence of  
1014 the monsoons and a degree of sediment homogenisation, lack of windward-leeward effects,  
1015 and a lack of hurricane influence on these equatorial SE Asian fringing reefs. In addition to  
1016 fostering a time and cost effective method to map system-scale facies distributions, the facies

1017 map presented here may have further applications for understanding modern carbonate  
1018 system heterogeneity and controlling influences. Additional applications are likely for  
1019 monitoring and assessment of modern coral reef related habitats and ecosystems, and for  
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1021

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1042

1043 **8. References**

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1331

1332 **Figures**

1333

1334 **Figure 1.** Location of the Tukang Besi Archipelago (Wakatobi Marine National Park)  
1335 offshore SE Sulawesi, Indonesia (a). Landsat 7 image of the Tukang Besi Archipelago  
1336 captured on 6<sup>th</sup> February 2009 (b). Subset image of Pulau Kaledupa and Hoga, with pixels  
1337 outside the area of interest removed (c). Magnified view of sample sites and transect  
1338 locations utilised in this study, shown in both quasi-natural colour (RGB:123) and false  
1339 colour (RGB:421) display format (d, e).

1340

1341 **Figure 2.** Binocular microscope photographs and Plane Polarised Light (PPL)  
1342 photomicrographs of unsorted modern sediments from the various environmental facies of  
1343 Kaledupa-Hoga. (a) Binocular microscope photo of foreshore sample Kal21; well sorted  
1344 sediment composed dominantly of highly abraded and fragmented shell and coral allochems.  
1345 (b) Thin-section photomicrograph of foreshore sample HGG10; moderately sorted sediment  
1346 composed of highly abraded and fragmented shell material. Allochems are highly micritised  
1347 and in places their fabrics have been completely destroyed through micritisation by  
1348 microborers. (c) Binocular microscope photo of sample Kal18, from the intertidal with no  
1349 seagrass facies. Sample is very poorly sorted sediment with sands and gravels the dominant  
1350 size fraction. Coral and shell allochems are dominant and highly abraded and fragmented,  
1351 but also present are whole imperforate foraminifera. (d) Thin-section photomicrograph of  
1352 sample Kal19 from the intertidal with no seagrass facies, showing high degree of  
1353 micritisation and the presence of abraded perforate calcarinids. (e) Binocular microscope  
1354 photo of sample HSB2S-5 from the short seagrass facies. Sample is very poorly sorted, with  
1355 grain-sizes varying from silt to gravel sized fractions. Coral and shell material is dominant,  
1356 showing a minor degree of abrasion and moderate fragmentation. Minor imperforate



1357 foraminifera and miliolids are also present. (f) Thin-section photomicrograph of short  
1358 seagrass facies sample HGG7. Sample is moderately to poorly sorted and highly fragmented.  
1359 Coral and shell allochems are heavily micritised with lesser bioerosion on foraminifera. (g)  
1360 Thin-section photomicrograph of long seagrass facies sample HGG4. Sample is moderately  
1361 to highly fragmented with coral and foraminifera showing moderate abrasion. Coral clasts  
1362 are pervasively micritised. (h) Binocular microscope photo of mixed long and short seagrass  
1363 facies sample Kal17. Sample is very poorly sorted silts to gravel. Characteristic *Halimeda*,  
1364 imperforate foraminifera and miliolids are dominant with lesser coral and shell allochems. (i)  
1365 Binocular microscope photograph of mixed coral and seagrass facies sample HGG3. Sample  
1366 is moderately sorted and dominated by moderately to highly abraded and fragmented shell  
1367 allochems. Imperforate, perforate and calcarinid foraminifera are present. Calcarinid spines  
1368 are generally abraded. (j) Thin-section photomicrograph of mixed coral and seagrass facies  
1369 sample HGG2. Sample shows abraded and micritised coral fragments with well preserved  
1370 perforate foraminifera. (k) Thin-section photomicrograph of mixed coral and seagrass facies  
1371 sample Kal3. Sample shows highly abraded and fragmented coral clasts with minor to  
1372 moderate micritisation. (l) Binocular microscope photo of coral with/without sediment cover  
1373 facies sample HSB2S-2. Sample is moderately sorted medium sands to gravel. Coral and  
1374 shell allochems are dominant and show moderate abrasion and fragmentation. Minor  
1375 alcyonarian sclerites and echinoid spines are present, as is a serpulid worm tube. (m)  
1376 Binocular microscope photo of reef slope sample PK10. Sample is well sorted and has an  
1377 overall low degree of micritisation. Sample has high abundances of alcyonarian sclerites,  
1378 with the abundant coral and shell allochems highly fragmented. (n) Binocular microscope  
1379 photo of deep water facies sample Kal34. Sample is almost 100% lithic marl with a single  
1380 fragment of shell material. (o) Binocular microscope photo of deep water facies sample  
1381 Kal40. Sample is very poorly sorted with high abundances of perforate, imperforate and

1382 mililoid foraminifera and shells. Lithic marl clasts comprise the fine grain sizes of this  
1383 sample.

1384

1385 **Figure 3.** Combined environmental transect, field, component and grain size data for the Pak  
1386 Kasim's transect undertaken on Hoga. The transect location is identified on both the quasi-  
1387 natural (RGB:123) and false colour (RGB:421) images, with sample locations identified on  
1388 the highly magnified displays. The environmental transect correlates with the individual  
1389 pixels identified in the Landsat image, with field observations, detailed component, early  
1390 alteration and grain size data beneath. Deposit texture characteristics are given at the base of  
1391 the composite image with dominant textures listed first and those identifiable from field  
1392 characteristics only parenthesised.

1393

1394 **Figure 4.** Combined environmental transect, field, component and grain size data for the  
1395 Hoga Buoy 2 transect. The transect location is identified on both the quasi-natural  
1396 (RGB:123) and false colour (RGB:421) images, with sample locations identified on the  
1397 highly magnified displays. The environmental transect correlates with the individual pixels  
1398 identified in the Landsat image, with field observations, detailed component, early alteration  
1399 and grain size data beneath. Deposit texture characteristics are given at the base of the  
1400 composite image with dominant textures listed first and those identifiable from field  
1401 characteristics only parenthesised.

1402

1403 **Figure 5.** Combined environmental transect, field, component and grain size data for the  
1404 Hoga Gilge Gilge transect. The transect location is identified on both the quasi-natural  
1405 (RGB:123) and false colour (RGB:421) images, with sample locations identified on the  
1406 highly magnified displays. The environmental transect correlates with the individual pixels

1407 identified in the Landsat image, with field observations, detailed component, early alteration  
1408 and grain size data beneath. Deposit texture characteristics are given at the base of the  
1409 composite image with dominant textures listed first and those identifiable from field  
1410 characteristics only parenthesised.

1411

1412 **Figure 6.** Combined environmental transect, field, component and grain size data for the  
1413 Kaledupa Sumbano transect. The transect location is identified on both the quasi-natural  
1414 (RGB:123) and false colour (RGB:421) images, with sample locations identified on the  
1415 highly magnified displays. The environmental transect correlates with the individual pixels  
1416 identified in the Landsat image, with field observations, detailed component, early alteration  
1417 and grain size data beneath. Deposit texture characteristics are given at the base of the  
1418 composite image with dominant textures listed first and those identifiable from field  
1419 characteristics only parenthesised. Detailed sediment characteristics are not shown for  
1420 samples Kall4, 12, 10, 8 and 6 due to space constraints, but for individual samples are very  
1421 similar to those directly on their right (i.e. to their ENE).

1422

1423 **Figure 7.** Combined environmental transect, field, component and grain size data for the  
1424 Sampela transect, undertaken on Pulau Kaledupa. The transect location is identified on both  
1425 the quasi-natural (RGB:123) and false colour (RGB:421) images, with sample locations  
1426 identified on the highly magnified displays. The environmental transect correlates with the  
1427 individual pixels identified in the Landsat image, with field observations, detailed  
1428 component, early alteration and grain size data beneath. Deposit texture characteristics are  
1429 given at the base of the composite image with dominant textures listed first and those  
1430 identifiable from field characteristics only parenthesised.

1431

1432 **Figure 8.** Combined environmental transect, field, component and grain size data for the  
1433 Kaledupa Centre transect, undertaken on the deep water back reef areas of Pulau Kaledupa  
1434 and the deep water lagoon separating Pulau Kaledupa and Hoga. Sample locations are  
1435 identified on the false colour image (RGB:421). No environmental transect is shown here  
1436 due to no underwater surveys being undertaken since samples in this transect were collected  
1437 using a sediment grab. The environmental descriptions correlate with the individual pixels  
1438 identified in the Landsat image, with field observations, detailed component, early alteration  
1439 and grain size data beneath. Deposit texture characteristics are given at the base of the  
1440 composite image with dominant textures listed first and those identifiable from field  
1441 characteristics only parenthesised.

1442

1443 **Figure 9.** Landsat derived environmental facies map, generated through the unsupervised  
1444 classification utility of ER Mapper software. Land areas at the centre of Kaledupa and Hoga  
1445 have been masked, along with several small scale areas of cloud cover. Foreshore/backshore  
1446 facies are relatively sparse and narrow and in few areas have been removed due to the effects  
1447 of the land masking algorithm applied during image processing.

1448

1449 **Figure 10.** Dendrogram of cluster analysis of sediment data from the Kaledupa-Hoga study  
1450 area. Represented variables are the abundances of components measured in the <2 mm size  
1451 fraction and the silt to clay sized sediment fraction of each sample (cf. Figs. 3-8). The  
1452 unweighted pair-group average and Euclidean distance algorithms were selected as they  
1453 generated the most meaningful dendrogram. The dendrogram was generated with PAST  
1454 (Paleontological Statistics; Hammer et al., 2001). Deposit texture characteristics are given  
1455 after each sample identifier with dominant textures listed first and those identifiable from

1456 field characteristics only parenthesised. The Number in parentheses after each sample is the  
1457 environmental facies group each sediment has been sampled from (Fig. 9)

1458

1459 **Figure 11.** Schematic summary transect of modern environments and their associated  
1460 sedimentary characteristics, determined from high resolution sediment sampling and field  
1461 observations from the shallow fringing reefs of Pulau Kaledupa and Hoga. There is  
1462 similarity between many features and components from the different environments, although  
1463 subtle variations in biotic assemblages and early alteration features correspond to groupings  
1464 of environmental facies. a) Modern environment photograph (Hoga beach) showing both  
1465 foreshore (1) and intertidal with no seagrass (2) environments. (a\*) Unsorted modern  
1466 sediment sample (Kal21), representative of foreshore sediments. (b) Modern environment  
1467 photograph of short (nibbled) seagrass facies with accumulation of fine sandy material (Hoga  
1468 Buoy 2). (c) Modern environment photograph (Sampela) of long seagrass facies, with  
1469 accumulations of both coarse and fine material. (b-c\*) Unsorted modern sediment sample  
1470 (HBS2-7), representative of seagrass facies environments. (d) Modern environment  
1471 photograph (Pak Kasim's) of mixed coral and seagrass facies. (d\*) Unsorted modern  
1472 sediment sample (Kal5), representative of mixed coral and seagrass facies. (e) Modern  
1473 environment photograph (Pak Kasim's) showing relatively clear non-turbid waters and minor  
1474 patchy accumulations of sandy deposits between and around branching coral forms. (e\*)  
1475 Unsorted modern sediment sample (HGG1), representative of coral with or without sediment  
1476 cover facies deposits, with occurrence of echinoderm spine (1). (f) Modern environment  
1477 photograph (Hoga Buoy 2) showing typical high energy reef margin, with abundant hard and  
1478 soft corals. (f\*) Unsorted modern sediment sample (HSB41), representative of reef crest and  
1479 reef slope deposits. Abbreviated component names are; Echino.-Echinodermata and  
1480 A.ScleritesAlcyonarian sclerites.

1481

1482 **Table 1.** Percentage agreement (overall accuracy) metrics as determined through a count of  
1483 correctly identified Landsat pixels/locations divided by the total number of samples/known  
1484 pixels available. The overall accuracy has been broken down into individual accuracies for  
1485 each identified environmental facies. Key sources of error and misclassification of pixels are  
1486 from the reef slope and reef crest facies.

1487

1488 **Appendix 1.** Detailed component analysis of the >2 mm and <2 mm grain size fractions and  
1489 early grain alteration features from a range of modern carbonate sediments sampled from  
1490 Pulau Kaledupa and Hoga.

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<sup>i</sup> Insalaco's (1998) scheme is a descriptive expansion, and modification, of the Embry and Klovan (1971) extension to Dunham's classification, and is suited to describing *in situ* reef-related growth fabrics with subdivisions based on dominant growth forms. The subdivisions are domestone (domal and massive colonies), pillarstone (vertical branches), platestone and sheetstone (flattened horizontal forms with a width-to-height ratio of between 30:1–5:1 and > 30:1, respectively) and mixstone (no one growth form dominates). Use of the Insalaco (1998) scheme rather than the Embry and Klovan terms of frame-, baffle-, and bindstone removes potential ambiguity over interpretive nomenclature. For example in the Wakatobi area, seagrass beds act as sediment "baffles", but do not result in bafflestone deposit textures (*sensu* Embry and Klovan), whereas branching coral-rich areas do not appear to act as baffles to sedimentation but would have bafflestone deposit textures as defined by Embry and Klovan (1971).