

1 **For: *Geomorphology Special Issue***

2

3 **Impacts of Cyclone Yasi on nearshore, terrigenous sediment-dominated reefs of the central Great Barrier**
4 **Reef, Australia.**

5

6 Perry, C.T.¹, Smithers, S.G.², Kench P.S.³ and Pears B.¹

7

8 ¹ Geography, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Exeter, Exeter, EX4 4RJ, U.K.

9 ² School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, James Cook University, Queensland 4810, Australia.

10 ³ School of Environment, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, New Zealand

11

12

13

14 **Corresponding author:** Chris Perry. E-mail: c.perry@exeter.ac.uk; Tel: +44(0)1404 723334

15

16

17 **Abstract:** Tropical Cyclone (TC) Yasi (Category 5) was a large (~700 km across) cyclone that crossed
18 Australia's Queensland coast on 3rd February 2011. TC Yasi was one of the region's most powerful recorded
19 cyclones, with winds gusting to 290 km/h and wave heights exceeding 7 m. Here we describe the impacts of TC
20 Yasi on a number of nearshore, turbid-zone coral reefs, that include several in the immediate vicinity of the
21 cyclone's landfall path (King Reef, Lugger Shoal and Dunk Island), as well as a more distally located reef
22 (Paluma Shoals) ~150 km to the south in Halifax Bay. These reefs were the focus of recent (between 2006 to
23 2009) pre-Yasi studies into their geomorphology, sedimentology and community structure, and here we discuss
24 data from a recent (August 2011) post-Yasi re-assessment. This provided a unique opportunity to identify and
25 describe the impacts of an intense tropical cyclone on nearshore reefs, which are often assumed to be
26 vulnerable to physical disturbance and reworking due to their poorly lithified framework. Observed impacts of TC
27 Yasi were site specific and spatially highly heterogeneous, but appear to have been strongly influenced by the

28 contemporary evolutionary stage and ecological make-up of the individual reefs, with site setting (i.e. exposure to
29 prevailing wave action) apparently more important than proximity to the landfall path. The most significant
30 ecological impacts occurred at King Reef (probably a result of freshwater bleaching) and at Paluma Shoals,
31 where widespread physical destruction of branched *Acropora* occurred. New coral recruits are, however,
32 common at all sites and colony re-growth clearly evident at King Reef. Only localised geomorphic change was
33 evident, mainly in the form of coral fracturing, rubble deposition, and sediment movement, but again these
34 impacts were highly site specific. The dominant impact at Paluma Shoals was localised storm ridge/shingle sheet
35 deposition, at Luggar Shoal major offshore fine sediment flushing, and at Dunk Island major onshore coarse
36 sand deposition. There was little geomorphic change evident at King Reef. Thus whilst small-scale and taxa
37 specific impacts from Cyclone Yasi are clearly evident, geomorphological changes appear minor and ecological
38 impacts highly variable between sites, and there is no observed evidence for major reef structural change. The
39 study suggests that the vulnerability of reefs to major physical disturbance events can be extremely site specific
40 and determined by interacting factors of location relative to storm path, and pre-event geomorphology and
41 ecology.

42

43 **Key words: Cyclone, Great Barrier Reef, Cyclone Yasi, inner-shelf reefs, reef geomorphology**

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Tropical cyclones (termed *hurricanes* in the Atlantic/Caribbean region) are intense low pressure weather systems
47 primarily restricted to the latitudinal belt between 7° and 25° N and S of the equator (Scoffin, 1993). They are
48 associated with very high wind speeds, usually exceeding 120 km/hr, but gusts can exceed 300 km/hr in high
49 intensity (Category 5) events. Significant increases in wave height, in the range 5-15 m along reef fronts, usually
50 accompany these strong winds, and storm surges can exceed 5 m above normal tide levels. Such magnified
51 wave heights and storm surges interact with shallow subtidal and intertidal substrates, and thus cyclones can
52 exert a major influence on both coral reef geomorphology and ecology, and on the morphodynamics of reef-
53 associated landforms such as beaches and reef islands. The resultant modification of reef substrates, and the
54 remobilisation of sediments and coral rubble, can generate a wide range of both erosional and depositional

55 landforms, as well as driving major ecological changes (Scoffin, 1993). One of the major impacts of cyclones on
56 coral reefs occurs through the breakage of corals, especially of branched coral taxa (Woodley et al., 1981;
57 Rogers et al., 1982; Hubbard et al., 1991), although toppling and over-turning of massive taxa also occurs (Mah
58 and Stearn, 1986; Massel and Done, 1993; Bries et al., 2004). Cumulatively, such destruction can radically alter
59 reef community composition in the short term, although relatively frequent physical disturbance events can also
60 help to maintain high levels of coral species diversity (Done, 1992). Furthermore, whilst ecologically destructive,
61 these processes can also facilitate new colony development, at least within some branched taxa, where
62 fragmented corals regenerate (Highsmith, 1982). Coral tissue damage, and subsequent partial or complete
63 colony mortality, may also occur through sediment abrasion (Hubbard et al., 1991), or as a result of floodwaters
64 that can dramatically reduce salinity levels and cause widespread bleaching within the upper parts of the water
65 column (Van Woesik et al., 1995; Perry, 2003). In many cases, the magnitude of ecological change, as a function
66 of physical disturbance, appears partly influenced by the composition of the pre-existing ecological community
67 (e.g., the proportion of branched to massive taxa present), but also by the periodicity of major physical
68 disturbance regimes (Woodley, 1992; Lirman and Fong, 1997), and by reef orientation relative to wind and wave
69 direction (Woodley et al., 1981; Poutinen, 2007).

70

71 These same issues also influence the impact of cyclones on reef geomorphology, especially in terms of the
72 reworking and transport, and subsequent deposition, of reef-derived sediment and coral rubble. Major off-reef
73 sediment export has, for example, been demonstrated to occur through the scouring and removal of sediments
74 from submarine canyons and sand channels (Hubbard et al., 1991), and through the off-reef transport of coral
75 rubble from shallow fore-reef environments (Hughes, 1999). Associated removal and stripping of beach
76 sediments and of intertidal rubble substrates can also occur, again depending on exposure and setting (Hubbard
77 et al., 1991; Woolsey et al., 2012). As a function of such sediment movement, major changes in reef island
78 shoreline configuration can occur (Stoddart, 1974), as can large scale changes in shelf sedimentary
79 environments (Gagan et al., 2006). In extreme cases, very large coral blocks (in excess of 2-3 m diameter) can
80 be moved by cyclone-generated waves (Hubbard et al., 1991). However, not all of this reworked sediment is
81 removed from the reef system, because major phases of reef landform construction and onshore sediment

82 deposition can also occur. For example, the deposition of coral rubble ridges or ramparts, and of shingle lobes
83 across reef flats, have been reported (Maragos et al., 1973; Scoffin, 1993), these typically being composed of
84 coral clasts derived from shallow fore-reef or intertidal environments. A limiting factor here is the availability of
85 sufficient coral (usually branched coral) as a source material, but impressive multi-ridge sequences of storm
86 deposits have been identified in some regions (Hayne and Chappell, 2001; Nott and Hayne, 2001; Nott, 2011;
87 Nott et al., 2009). In some cases, these rubble ridges display distinct clast orientations that allow differentiation of
88 both storm surges and return flow events (Spiske and Jaffe, 2009).

89

90 Geomorphologically, cyclones are thus an important factor determining the development of various facets of
91 coral reef and adjacent shoreline development. Such influences are evident both through localised patterns of
92 coral destruction, and through the short-term erosion and deposition of sediment and coral rubble, but which can
93 aggregate to influence larger scale and longer-term reef architectural development (Blanchon and Jones, 1997;
94 Riegl, 2001) and the internal depositional fabrics of reefs (Blanchon et al., 1997). Here we report on the impacts
95 of Tropical Cyclone (TC) Yasi on the geomorphology and ecology of a range of coral reefs located within the
96 inner-shelf region of the central Great Barrier Reef (GBR), Australia. The landfall path of TC Yasi meant that it
97 interacted with a number of nearshore coral reefs that have been the focus of on-going studies into their
98 geomorphology since 2005. Although each reef varies in terms of geomorphic setting, size and Holocene age
99 structure, each of the reefs under study is characterised by a mixed carbonate-siliciclastic framework fabric that is
100 typically sediment-dominated and poorly lithified (Perry and Smithers, 2006; 2011; Perry et al., 2009; 2012).

101 Thus, in contrast to the framework-dominated and organically bound high-energy reefs that characterise offshore
102 and shelf-edge settings (Hopley et al., 2007), it might reasonably be assumed that these nearshore, often mud-
103 dominated reefs may be far more susceptible to major geomorphic change during high-energy physical
104 disturbance events. To examine this issue, we assessed the impacts of TC Yasi on three nearshore reefs,
105 Lugger Shoal, Dunk Island and King Reef, that were within 20 km of the cyclone eye's path, and one reef -
106 Paluma Shoals – a nearshore reef located ~150 km to the south. The research thus allows us to examine spatial
107 variations in the impacts of TC Yasi across reef sites, and to test recent ideas about the long-term physical
108 resilience of inner-shelf, sediment-dominated reefs to high-magnitude physical disturbance events.

109

110 **2. Tropical Cyclone Yasi and area of study**

111 TC Yasi was a very large (~700 km across) and powerful Category 5 cyclone that crossed the Queensland coast
112 of Australia on 3rd February 2011. It is among the most powerful tropical cyclones recorded to have hit the
113 Queensland coast. Previous cyclones of a comparable intensity include Cyclone Mahina (1899) in Princess
114 Charlotte Bay ~350 km to the north, and the 1918 cyclones at Mackay and Innisfail. Cyclone Yasi began
115 developing as a tropical low northwest of Fiji on 29th January 2011 and tracked westward attaining a Category 5
116 status on 2nd February. The eye of the storm was ~35 km wide and passed over the area between Mission
117 Beach and Tully, some 140 km south of Cairns (Fig. 1) between midnight and 1am on Thursday 3rd February.
118 Instrumentation that survived the event recorded a central pressure of 929hPa. In Mission Beach, close to where
119 Yasi made landfall, wind gusts were estimated to reach 290 km/h, and caused widespread damage to coastal
120 infrastructure. The peak storm surge in this area was estimated at ~ 7 m and inundated at least 300 m inland.
121 Further south, around Cardwell, the minimum storm surge height exceeded 5 m (Australian Government Bureau
122 of Meteorology, 2012). Fortunately this surge coincided with a low tide, but nonetheless water levels rose 2.3 m
123 above the Highest Astronomical Tide (HAT) level. Very high rainfall also occurred during the event, the largest
124 rainfall totals were near to, and to the south of, the cyclone track and were generally in the order of 200-300 mm
125 in the 24 hours up to the landfall period, although the highest totals (exceeding 450 mm) were within the Herbert
126 and Tully River catchments (Australian Government Bureau of Meteorology, 2012) and resulted in the generation
127 of large flood plumes.

128

129 Our post-Yasi impact study focused on 4 inner-shelf GBR coral reefs for which pre-Yasi geomorphic and
130 ecological datasets and pre-event photographic records were available. The inner-shelf of the GBR is dominated
131 by reworked terrigenous sediments, including soil and fluvial sediments deposited during the lowstand and
132 reworked shoreward during the post-glacial marine transgression to form a seaward-thinning terrigenous
133 sediment wedge between the ~15 m isobath and the coast (Larcombe and Woolfe, 1999). Rivers discharging
134 into the GBR lagoon also continue to deliver sediments to the inner shelf. Wave-driven sediment resuspension
135 generates high turbidity levels within this coastal zone, commonly exceeding 50 mg L⁻¹ (Larcombe et al., 1995;

136 Whinney, 2007; Browne et al. 2013), but coral communities appear generally well adapted to deal with these
137 extrinsic stresses (e.g., Browne et al., 2010). In terms of reef structural development, the main influence of such
138 high terrigenous sediment inputs is the development of reefs where muddy-terrigenous sediments form an
139 important component of the internal reef fabric and which are typically very poorly cemented (Perry and
140 Smithers, 2006). Our study sites were at: (1) King Reef (17° 46' S, 146° 07' E; Fig. 1), which is a large (~3
141 km²) mainland-attached fringing reef extending more than 2.4 km offshore from Kurrimine Beach, that has
142 developed in the lee of emergent indurated Pleistocene dune outcrops; (2) Lugger Shoal (17°57.5' S, 146°6.5' E;
143 Fig. 1), which is a small reef platform developed at the southern end of Lugger Bay, immediately north of Tam O'
144 Shanter Point; (3) Dunk Island (146° 09' E, 17° 56' S; Fig. 1), which is an inner-shelf high island located ~5 km
145 offshore from the Queensland coast. Our datasets derive from a fringing reef developed within an embayment on
146 the north-west corner of Dunk Island; and (4) Paluma Shoals (19°5.43' S, 146°33.5' E; Fig. 1), which is a
147 nearshore, turbid-zone coral reef complex, comprising of a series of reef platforms developed along an erosional
148 shoreline in central Halifax Bay. All of these reefs are bathymetrically constrained to seawards by the shallow low
149 gradient seafloor, and extend to depths of no more than 4-5 m below mean sea level (MSL).

150

151 **3. Materials and Methods**

152 Assessments of the impacts of TC Yasi on these nearshore reefs were conducted during a series of 'rapid' post-
153 impact studies in August 2011, timed to coincide with the spring low tide phase when the reef flats are
154 subaerially exposed. We used one low tide cycle to visit each site. Our geomorphic and ecological assessments
155 are based on comparisons with pre-Yasi data collected between August 2006 and September 2010. We
156 emphasise that our pre-Yasi data were all collected post-Cyclone Larry which had a similar landfall path in March
157 2006. Although our visits were conducted ~7 months after TC Yasi, we are confident given our extensive
158 knowledge of these sites (based on multiple visits to each reef either by ourselves or co-workers throughout the
159 period 2006-2010) that our observations accurately reflect the major and preservable features associated with
160 TC Yasi. Reef-wide assessments for evidence of both erosional and depositional features were undertaken at
161 each site, as well as repeat photo transects for assessing benthic community changes. Our assessments
162 included comparisons between extensive photographic records collected at each site between 2006-2009.

163 Additional data were also collected to allow assessments of pre- and post-event changes in surficial sediment
164 distributions in the vicinity of two of the sites, Luggar Shoal and Dunk Island. Sediment samples were collected
165 from the same GPS-fixed locations (horizontal accuracy of 2-3 m) across each reef flat at both sites and in
166 adjacent shallow sub-tidal environments. At each site approximately 100 g of sediment were recovered, either by
167 hand at low water across the exposed reef flats and intertidal environments, or using a hand auger deployed
168 from the boat in sub-tidal areas. Following collection, all samples were soaked in distilled water to remove
169 extraneous salts and then 'cleaned' in a 5% sodium hypochlorite solution to neutralise the organic fraction.
170 Sediment texture was determined by wet sieving the 8 mm to 63 μm size fractions (methods in McManus, 1994)
171 and using the program GRADISTAT (Blott and Pye, 2001), to determine values of mean grain size and sorting
172 (descriptive nomenclature of Udden-Wentworth is used). CaCO_3 content was determined from sub-samples of
173 known weight (ranging from 4-5 g) that were treated in a 2M HCl solution until no discernible reaction with the
174 carbonate could be detected. Samples were then filtered through pre-weighed Whatman 42 filter papers and
175 oven dried. Replicate samples indicated that results were reproducible to within 3%. Carbonate content is given
176 throughout as % dry weight of the dried original sample.

177

178 **4. Results**

179 **4.1 Pre-Yasi conditions and impacts on reef flat geomorphology and ecology**

180 **4.1.1 King Reef**

181 King Reef is the largest mainland attached fringing reef on the GBR, and during spring low tides an extensive
182 reef flat, covering an area of $\sim 3 \text{ km}^2$, is sub-aerially exposed (Fig. 2A). Although a living coral community occurs
183 along the seaward reef flat margins and on the reef front slope that extends to the surrounding sea floor (depths
184 of 5-6 m), King Reef is in a 'senile' evolutionary stage (sensu Hopley et al., 2007), with reef initiation having
185 occurred between $\sim 5,600$ and $5,800 \text{ cal yBP}$ (calibrated years before present), and reef emplacement having
186 largely ceased by $\sim 4,500 \text{ cal yBP}$ (Perry and Smithers, 2011; Roche et al., 2011). The central and landward
187 areas of the reef flat at King Reef form a more or less horizontal surface (Fig. 2B) at an elevation of between
188 ~ 0.2 - 0.4 m above LAT level. In its pre-Yasi state (based on data collected in 2009), much of the substrate across
189 the main reef flat was dominated by a mixed carbonate-terrigenoclastic sediment veneer (Fig. 2B) with abundant

190 abraded coral rubble clasts and rhodoliths present. This surface was also colonised by isolated coral heads
191 (numerous small *Goniastrea* colonies to ~40 cm diameter) and occasional colonies of *Turbinaria* (Fig. 2B). The
192 seaward reef flat exhibits a subtle increase in topography as the relief between the substrate and the tops of
193 exposed fossil *Porites* microatolls increases (these dating from ~ 4,500 cal yBP; Roche et al., 2011). Along this
194 seaward reef flat margin, pre-Yasi assessments documented living coral cover of ~30%, and a coral community
195 dominated by *Montipora digitata*, *Porites rus* and *P. lobata*, *Echinopora* sp. and *Acropora pulchra* (Fig. 2C)
196 (Roche et al., 2011). Numerous living *Porites* bommies also occurred that formed a field of flat topped colonies
197 extending across an area of ~150 m with an increasing relief offshore between the bommie tops and the reef
198 substrate (Fig. 2D). Data on the gently sloping reef front are more patchy, but underwater observations made in
199 2009 suggest extensive colonisation of the substrate by large colonies of *Acropora*, *Montipora*, *Turbinaria* and
200 *Echinopora*.

201

202 TC Yasi had little or no impact on reef flat geomorphology at King Reef. Major reworking of the reef flat surface
203 did not occur, and we could find no evidence for major sediment scouring or erosion along either the seaward
204 reef flat or across the expansive main reef flat environment. Indeed, across the central and landward areas of the
205 reef flat evidence for the passage of the cyclone is extremely limited. Only rare broken or over-turned corals were
206 observed, and the small *Goniastrea* and *Turbinaria* coral heads that were abundant pre-Yasi were generally not
207 visibly affected (Fig. 3A). More conspicuous geomorphological effects are seen in the seaward reef flat areas,
208 but again these are relatively minor, and restricted to scattered coral blocks have been thrown up from the reef
209 front (Fig. 3B). however, we note that no storm rubble ridge was produced at this locality. Most of the numerous
210 *Porites* microatolls also remain undamaged and alive, although some have been fractured *in situ* and/or are
211 partly tilted (Fig. 3C). However *Acropora*, *Montipora* and *Echinopora* colonies that were previously abundant and
212 provided an expansive veneer of living coral between the *Porites* microatolls experienced high mortality – total
213 live coral cover along the seaward reef flat declined from ~35% to <10% (Fig. 3D). Some of these colonies are
214 broken but most remain intact and appear to have died *in situ*, and are now covered with filamentous and turf
215 algae (Fig. 3E). In the absence of evidence indicating physical destruction, sediment burial or abrasion, we infer
216 that the widespread mortality of these corals was probably driven by freshwater inundation either by direct rainfall

217 during the event or by flood discharges immediately after: the extent of post-Yasi flood plumes being evident in
218 available satellite imagery (see <http://e-atlas.org.au/content/cyclone-yasi-satellite-images>). Over the longer term,
219 and of interest in terms of how reef framework fabrics accumulate in these environments, it is perhaps most likely
220 that these colonies will breakdown to form *in situ* death assemblages. However, we also note that even only 6
221 months after TC Yasi there is clear evidence of colony re-growth occurring, with small branched corals re-
222 appearing from within the dead *in situ* framework (Fig. 3F), a process rather analogous to that described
223 following coral bleaching induced mortality by Diaz-Pulido et al. (2009). In deeper water (2-4 m) along the reef
224 front most coral colonies seemed to have survived, even large plate-like forms, with only local minor breakage
225 and localised fragmentation of branched *Acropora* observed in our brief assessment of these environments.

226

227 **4.1.2 Lugger Shoal**

228 Lugger Shoal is a small, roughly 'L-shaped' reef, with both the limbs ~450 m long and ~150 m wide (Perry et al.,
229 2009). The reef is located within a headland embayment that is fringed by a narrow zone of mangroves to the
230 south and by a siliciclastic-dominated beach to the west (Fig. 4A). The reef itself is located around 400 m
231 offshore from the high tide mark of the beach. Coring and radiometric dating indicates the reef initiated ~800 cal
232 yBP and reached sea-level in the last ~100-150 years (Perry et al., 2009). It is thus in a late 'mature' stage of its
233 development (*sensu* Hopley et al., 2007). The reef flat at Lugger Shoal is at an elevation of ~0.3 m above LAT
234 and deepens slightly towards its leeward side. In its pre-Yasi state, large *Porites* sp. bommies (up to ~1.5 m in
235 height and to ~2 m in diameter) dominated the reef flat (Fig. 4B) and many of these colonies were clearly
236 constrained in their upward growth by present sea level and adopted a microatoll morphology. Coring
237 investigations have indicated that these bommies extend through the entire reef sequence (Perry et al., 2009),
238 and provide an important structural component to the reef, between which a mixed clast- to matrix-supported
239 coral rubble facies has accumulated. Prior to Cyclone Yasi, the inter-bommie deposits were either covered with
240 fine sands and muds, or colonised by living corals (Fig. 4B). Live coral cover across the reef flat was ~ 35% in
241 2007 with *Porites* sp. being the dominant coral (comprising ~70 % of the modern coral assemblage; Perry et al.,
242 2009). Other common corals recorded include branched and tabular colonies of *Acropora* sp. (mainly along the
243 seaward areas of the reef flat), *Turbinaria frondens*, *Goniastrea aspera*, *Favia* sp., *Favites* sp., *Galaxea*

244 *fascicularis* and *Platygyra* sp.. Macroalgal and turf algal cover on the reef flat was ~ 3 % and 28 % respectively,
245 and crustose coralline algal cover ~15%. Unconsolidated sands and muds comprised ~15% of the reef flat
246 surface.

247

248 TC Yasi caused only limited geomorphological and ecological change at Lugger Shoal. The large *Porites*
249 colonies were mostly intact, although a few large bommies, especially towards the rear of the reef flat, were
250 either partially fractured or toppled (Fig. 5A), although the living tissue cover of these colonies appeared
251 complete. There was also no obvious change in the topographic relief on the reef flat in terms of the depth to
252 substrate surface in the intra-bommie areas. Colonies of *Goniastrea* and *Galaxea* that previously colonised the
253 inter-bommie substrates seem largely undamaged (Fig. 5B), with limited evidence of fracturing or toppling, and
254 there is little or no evidence of coral rubble deposition. However, colonies constructed by some taxa that were
255 abundant prior to Yasi, such as *Turbinaria frondens*, were noticeably absent and are assumed to have been
256 removed during the cyclone. It is interesting to note that along the adjacent shoreline, both the fringing
257 mangroves along the northern side of Tam O'Shanter point, and trees on the mainland coast, had been badly
258 damaged, with trees almost completely defoliated and some uprooting evident.

259

260 **4.1.3 Dunk Island (Resort Reef)**

261 At Dunk Island our investigations focused on a fringing reef developed within an embayment on the north-west
262 corner of the island, which we have previously termed 'Resort Reef' (Perry and Smithers, 2010) (Fig. 6A). Two
263 elevationally distinct areas of reef flat development are recognised, one in the NE corner of the embayment, and
264 one extending from the SW end of the bay seawards, to the rear of which a steep, coarse-grained siliciclastic
265 beach is developed. Previous coring and dating reveal that this reef was emplaced over two temporally discrete
266 periods. The first reef-building phase occurred during the late stages of the post-glacial marine transgression-
267 early sea-level highstand in this region, between ~6.9–4.5k cal yBP, the second followed the late Holocene sea-
268 level regression and stillstand (~1.6k cal yBP to present) (Perry and Smithers, 2010). The NE reef flat is at ~ 0.8
269 – 1.0 m above present LAT level and is clearly relict. In its pre-Yasi state (based on data collected in 2008 and
270 2009), its surface was covered in siliciclastic intertidal sands/muds and lithic clasts, and no living corals occurred

271 (although the tops of numerous dead *Porites* microatolls were visible; Fig. 6B). The reef flat across the SW area
272 of the bay is geomorphologically distinct and is lower (~0.4–0.5 m above LAT). This reef flat is exposed over a
273 larger area than the NE reef flat, but is also clearly relict – it is partially veneered by muddy-sands and dead *in*
274 *situ* *Porites* microatolls (relief of 0.1–0.15 m above the surrounding substrate) are exposed. Pre-Yasi, numerous
275 small (<0.3 m diameter), living *Goniastrea aspera* colonised this surface, whilst along much of its seaward reef
276 flat edge there was widespread colonisation by corals of the genera *Acropora* sp., *Montipora* sp., *Galaxea* sp.
277 and *Favia* sp., and a discontinuous zone of large *Porites* ‘bommies’ occurred along the reef front (Fig. 6C). We
278 interpret these corals as a recent patchy living community growing upon the underlying reef framework rather
279 than a continuous extension of it. Despite the age differences, both reef flats are examples of reefs in ‘senile’
280 evolutionary states (sensu Hopley et al., 2007).

281

282 Dunk Island suffered major damage from TC Yasi, with rainforest trees extensively defoliated and broken, and
283 resort infrastructure, including the buildings and boat jetty destroyed beyond use (Fig. 7A). The beach at the
284 back of the reef flat and in front of the resort was severely eroded, with the toe-of-beach migrating landward by
285 up to ~10 m and sediment stripped from the beach face deposited onshore (Fig. 7B). The remnant beach is thus
286 much narrower and more of the underlying mid-Holocene reef flat exhumed by Yasi is now exposed (compare
287 Figs. 7C and D). In contrast to these substantial changes there is little visible evidence of change to the basic
288 geomorphic structure of the reef flats (Fig. 7E); we identified no evidence for major reef flat erosion and only
289 localised evidence of coral rubble deposition likely to be associated with the event. We could detect no major
290 changes to the geomorphology of the mid-Holocene age (high elevation) reef flat, but abundant trees/logs have
291 been washed onto the reef flat surface and a few isolated coral blocks (to ~0.5 m diam.) were deposited.

292 Similarly, no major geomorphic changes are evident on the lower late Holocene age reef flat. However, some
293 ecological changes clearly occurred to the relatively depauperate pre-Yasi coral community. Most notably,
294 localised over-turning/toppling of live corals, the deposition of a few large colonies or reef blocks (Fig. 7F), and
295 some evidence of breakage/toppling of *Acropora*/*Montipora* colonies were observed along the seaward edge of
296 the reef flat. However, across the main reef flat itself, the numerous small *Goniastrea* colonies that were present
297 pre-Yasi appear to have survived, and many smaller colonies of *Turbinaria*, *Acropora* and *Montipora* whose size

298 suggest were growing prior to TC Yasi, were also undamaged (Fig. 7G). Also notable is the abundance of very
299 small juvenile recruits of *Acropora* and *Turbinaria* on exposed intertidal reef rock. In the shallow reef front areas
300 the fields of large *Porites* bommies that were present pre-Yasi also survived without physical damage, but many
301 have suffered either partial or complete mortality on their uppermost surfaces (Fig. 7H) (tissue cover is better on
302 their flanks) and these upper surfaces now have turf algal cover. As at King Reef this seems most likely a
303 function of freshwater-induced bleaching.

304

305 **4.1.4 Paluma Shoals (Southern Shoal)**

306 Paluma Shoals is located ~150 km south of the mainland landfall track of TC Yasi and is comprised of a series of
307 reef platforms developed along an erosional shoreline in central Halifax Bay. The reef can be divided into two
308 main areas; 1) a Southern Shoal; and 2) a series of connected reef flats, collectively described as the North Shoal
309 (Smithers and Larcombe, 2003; Palmer et al., 2010) (Fig. 8A). The focus of our post-Yasi investigations was the
310 South Shoal, which is located ~500 m seaward of the main shoreline, and which extends ~750 m alongshore and
311 has a reef flat ~300 m wide. The reef flat is elevated ~0.1 m above LAT level and is presently detached from the
312 wide intertidal sandflats that characterise this section of coast by a narrow (~30 m wide), shallow, muddy subtidal
313 channel. Coring and radiometric dating indicates the South Shoal initiated growth ~1,200 cal yBP and reached
314 sea level in the last 100-200 years (Perry et al., 2008). Data collected pre-Yasi in 2006 (and which subsequent
315 visits confirmed was typical of the pre-Yasi state right up until just before that event) confirm that the seaward
316 reef flat coral community on the South Shoal was dominated by colonies of *Galaxea fascicularis* and *G. aspera*
317 microatolls (up to ~2 m diameter). These microatolls stood ~0.5 m above LAT and exhibited a strongly
318 heliotropic growth form (Smithers & Larcombe, 2003) and were a very distinctive feature of the reef flats (Fig.
319 8B). Inter-microatoll substrates were dominated by large stands of *Acropora pulchra* (Fig. 8B) and *Turbinaria*.
320 Along the landward edge of the reef flat *Porites rus* microatolls were abundant. Live coral cover was measured at
321 ~50-60% across the reef flat (but up to ~80 % in central to seaward areas) (Palmer et al., 2010).

322

323 Cyclone Yasi had variable impacts and left a different signature of its passage on different areas of the South
324 Shoal at Paluma. In general, the basic *Goniastrea*-dominated make up of the reef flat was unaffected (Fig. 9A)

325 with only localised colony fracturing and/or toppling (Figs. 9A, B), and live coral cover remaining relatively high
326 (25-30%) along the seaward reef flat. In addition to *Goniastrea*, expansive stands of *Galaxea* are still present
327 and, less commonly, *Turbinaria* and *Platygyra*. The most obvious impact of Yasi along seaward reef flat margin
328 was the localised deposition of a rubble/shingle ridge, which forms a low elevation sheet-like deposit of mainly
329 *Acropora* shingle as well as *Turbinaria* plates and blocks of *Galaxea* (Figs. 9C, D). These deposits are ~20-30
330 cm thick and thin landwards over a distance of ~20-30 m and are sourced, we assume, at least in part from the
331 reef front. Across the central and landward areas of the reef flat, the large *Goniastrea* bommies again remain *in*
332 *situ* and generally undamaged, although occasional examples of toppled/overtaken corals were observed. The
333 substrate between these bommies comprises sand and rubble with small *Goniastrea* colonies present, and a
334 high turf and macroalgal cover.

335

336 The major change observed across the central and landward areas of the reef flat at Paluma Shoals was loss of
337 the previously extensive *A. pulchra* stands. In some cases patches of relatively fresh looking *Acropora* shingle
338 have been deposited around *Goniastrea* heads, perhaps suggesting that they were deposited more or less in
339 place through colonies collapsing in on themselves, but in other cases this branched *Acropora* shingle forms
340 sheet-like deposits up to 30-40 cm thick, again deposited in/around large *Goniastrea* bommies (Fig. 9E), and
341 may have been transported short distances. *Porites rus* remain abundant in the landward reef flat zone (mostly
342 in-place and undamaged albeit with some localised toppling/tilting; Fig. 9F), and colonies of *Pocillopora*,
343 *Platygyra* and *Turbinaria* also remain mostly intact. There is no evidence for major sediment erosion or
344 deposition in the immediate vicinity of Paluma Shoals, although extensive onshore studies were not conducted.

345

346 **4.2 Impacts on intertidal and shallow subtidal sedimentary environments**

347 In addition to observations made of the main geomorphic and ecological changes that occurred following TC
348 Yasi, surficial sedimentary data were also collected from sites across and around two of the reefs, at Luger
349 Shoal and Dunk Island, to allow comparisons with pre-event data. These are described below and provide an
350 insight into the transport and deposition of nearshore sediments that occurred during and immediately after the

351 event. These post-Yasi data were collected about 6 months post event and so we must assume that some
352 sediment reworking had occurred between TC Yasi and sampling.

353

354 **4.2.1 Lugger Shoal**

355 Across Lugger Shoal, pre-event surficial sedimentary data were available from along 3 cross-reef, shore normal
356 transects (Fig. 10). Analysis of pre-Yasi sediment samples indicate that surface sediments on the main area of
357 the reef were dominated by medium to coarse-grained sands with ~ 10-15 weight % fine content, whilst off-reef
358 subtidal sediments to seaward of the reef flat were slightly finer-grained (mainly medium-grained sands with ~15-
359 30 weight % fines content) (Figs. 10 B, C). Pockets of high mud deposition (>30 weight % fines) occurred in the
360 back-reef areas, and these shallow sub-tidal/intertidal substrates were dominated by fine to very fine-grained
361 sands (Fig. 10B). Post-Yasi samples from these same sites show a changed pattern of sediment distribution,
362 consistent with the removal and flushing of the finest-grained sediments. The abundance of the finest grain size
363 fractions is reduced in samples both across the reef flat and from the back-reef and seaward areas (compare
364 Figs. 10C and E) and is reflected by an increase in sediment mean grain size. Given that there is no evidence of
365 any onshore sediment accumulation our interpretation is that these finer-grained sediments have been flushed
366 offshore into deeper water.

367

368 **4.2.2 Dunk Island**

369 Pre-event surficial sedimentary data were available from 50 spot sample points covering the full extent of the
370 embayment at Resort Reef at Dunk Island, including both the reef flats, the upper beach and the immediate
371 shallow sub-tidal areas (Fig. 11). These samples were collected in 2009 and reveal that the carbonate content
372 and weight % fines content of sediments around the embayment were spatially heterogeneous. Highest
373 carbonate content values (> 80 weight %) occur in sediments recovered from points in the immediate vicinity of
374 the exposed reef flats and decrease both to seaward and landward (Fig. 10A). High intertidal and beach
375 sediments are dominated by siliciclastic sediments (mainly quartz) and have carbonate contents of <20 %.
376 Weight % fines content (Fig. 10C) of surface sediments also varies markedly, with relatively low values (<10 %)
377 in sediment collected from the exposed reef flats, and much higher values (>40 %) in the shallow reef front and

378 back-reef areas. Mud content in the well-sorted beach sediments is also very low (< 5%). Analysis of surficial
379 samples from the same sample points collected post-Yasi indicate a general reduction in the weight % carbonate
380 content of the sediments across the whole embayment (Figs. 10A, B), whilst there is a general trend for an
381 increase in the mud content of the same samples (Figs. 10C, D), at least in areas away from the reef flat. Based
382 on field observations during sample collection, when the reef flat was subaerially exposed, our interpretation is
383 that these changes reflect the deposition of a fine mud drape on the surface of the reworked reef flat (rather than
384 stripping of carbonates). In fact shallow core samples (described elsewhere) confirm that the main sediment
385 impact across these sites has been a stripping/flushing of muds in the upper ~10 cm of the sediment column,
386 and that these muds are now re-accumulating as a surficial drape on the reef flat surface.

387

388 **5. Discussion**

389 Although TC Yasi was one of the most powerful recorded cyclones to have crossed the Queensland coast of
390 Australia, the observed impacts on nearshore reefs examined in the central-northern section of the Great Barrier
391 Reef were highly site specific and variable in character. Geomorphic changes to the reef were generally limited,
392 we observed no major erosion of the reef framework structures across the reef flats at any of the reefs examined,
393 and ecological impacts, although significant at some sites, were similarly localised and site specific. In general
394 therefore, the degree of damage was less than might have been envisaged for a storm of this magnitude, and it
395 is most pertinent to note, especially given the generally poorly lithified, sediment-dominated fabrics that are
396 typical of these nearshore reefs, that the basic geomorphology of the reef flats across the reefs examined
397 remained essentially unchanged.

398

399 In terms of coral mortality across the sites examined, the type and magnitude of decline was highly variable. At
400 some sites widespread mortality of branched coral taxa occurred as a function of high wave energy regimes e.g.,
401 Paluma Shoals. At other sites e.g., King Reef, equally high mortality occurred, but the dead coral skeletons
402 remain *in situ*, and at this site freshwater-induced bleaching appears the most likely cause of death. At Dunk
403 Island and Lugger Shoal, there was little change in the ecology of the reefs and limited colony mortality evident.
404 In terms of geomorphological features associated with the event, these appear similarly variable across sites, but

405 we note no evidence for major changes to the reef flats occurring. There is, however, clear evidence of localised
406 rubble and sediment erosion and/or of sediment and rubble deposition at all of the sites we visited e.g., in the
407 form of coral fracturing, rubble deposition, and sediment movement, but again these were highly site specific.

408

409 At Paluma Shoals, the clearest geomorphic evidence of TC Yasi's path is the localised deposition of a low
410 elevation seaward storm ridge and of shingle sheet deposition across central areas of the reef flat. These shingle
411 deposits represent localised phases of essentially instantaneous framework accumulation akin to that
412 documented following Hurricane Allen in Jamaica (Scoffin and Hendry, 1984). Conversely, at Lugger Shoal and
413 at Dunk Island, major erosion and deposition of coral rubble is not observed, but instead significant reworking
414 and transport of beach, back-reef and shallow reef front sediments has occurred. At Lugger Shoal sedimentary
415 datasets provide evidence for major offshore fine sediment flushing, whilst at Dunk Island, there is clear evidence
416 of major onshore coarse sand deposition – evident through beach and landward reef flat sediment stripping –
417 and subsequent (post-event) mud deposition across the reef flat. The spatial distribution of these different
418 ecological and geomorphic changes across the study sites are summarised schematically in Fig. 12.

419

420 An obvious question arising in relation to these observed impacts (or lack thereof) is what factors have dictated
421 the variable nature of the geomorphic processes and deposits, and ecological impacts observed? Several factors
422 are likely to have contributed to the observed patterns, and these include: site proximity to the landfall path, reef
423 location relative to the coastline and any coastal protection afforded, pre-event ecological conditions, and, as a
424 contributing factor, reef evolutionary state (*sensu* Hopley et al., 2007). In terms of site proximity, the eye of the
425 cyclone passed very close to three of the sites we examined, King Reef, Lugger Shoal and Dunk Island. Whilst
426 there is some evidence for colony toppling and localised rubble generation at each of these sites, and evidence
427 of significant back-reef and reef front sediment transport at at least two sites (Lugger Shoal and Dunk Island), the
428 types and patterns of physical damage to the reefs was: 1) less than one might have projected; and 2)
429 inconsistent between sites. However, as other studies have shown this is perhaps not surprising because local
430 differences in reef orientation relative to the angle of wave approach and subtle differences in wind/wave speed
431 can significantly influence the degree of damage (Poutenin, 2007). Such factors are thus highly likely to have had

432 a strong influence on the degree of impact caused by TC Yasi. The eye of the storm transited a route located
433 approximately centrally between all 3 of these sites, and thus the predominant direction of wind/wave activity
434 would have been from the east to south east as the storm approached the shore, and then from the south to
435 south west as the storm moved on land. As a result, some degree of protection would probably have been
436 afforded by the headlands and embayments close to which at least two of these reefs, Lugga Shoal and Dunk
437 Island reef, have formed. In contrast, Paluma Shoals, which is located about 150 km to the south, sits within the
438 central areas of an open, exposed embayment (Halifax Bay), and would have received the full force of the storm-
439 driven waves that approached, in this locality, from the north-north-east. Thus, perhaps somewhat counter-
440 intuitively far more evidence of physically driven geomorphic and ecological change is observed at this site.

441

442 An additional contributing factor in terms of the types and amount of change that occurred will have been the pre-
443 existing ecological condition of the reefs and, linked to this, their evolutionary state (see Perry & Smithers, 2011).
444 For example, at Dunk Island, both the older and younger reefs are in 'senile' evolutionary states (*sensu* Hopley
445 et al., 2007) and were already characterised by very low (<5%) live coral cover. Not surprisingly therefore, little or
446 no change in coral cover is observed on these reef flats. Similarly, across the expansive and planar 'senile' reef
447 flat at King Reef there was little or no change observed to what was already a relict, low live coral cover (<5%)
448 system. Conversely, at Paluma Shoals, a reef with high (up to ~80%) pre-Yasi live coral cover, extensive
449 destruction of branched coral taxa occurred during the event. Thus, the reef furthest from the landfall path in our
450 study (Paluma Shoals) actually suffered the greatest ecological damage, in part because of its exposed, open
451 water setting (as discussed above), but also because it was characterised by coral assemblages of which some
452 components were highly susceptible to physical damage. Additionally, where major ecological changes occurred
453 following TC Yasi, site-specific differences clearly occurred in terms of the major drivers of the observed
454 ecological changes. For example, whilst wave action was undoubtedly responsible for most of the ecological
455 change observed at Paluma Shoals (through branched *Acropora* destruction), along the seaward margins of the
456 reef flat at King Reef and at Dunk Island, dead corals remain mostly *in situ* even where, in the King Reef case,
457 these comprise communities of typically 'fragile' coral taxa (*Montipora*, *Acropora* etc). In these cases mortality
458 can, most likely, be attributed to freshwater-induced coral bleaching. These patterns of high spatial heterogeneity

459 and variable impacts mirror those reported at sites on the mid- and outer shelf reefs in a post-Yasi assessment
460 conducted by the Australian Institute for Marine Sciences.

461

462 What is perhaps more surprising, given the magnitude of Yasi, is that clear cyclone related depositional features
463 are not more common. Indeed, it is only really at Paluma Shoals that any evidence is seen for the formation of an
464 (albeit limited) shingle ridge and for the deposition of shingle deposits across the reef. No other such features are
465 seen at the sites. Again, this is largely linked to the availability of suitable ecological stocks of corals that can be
466 broken and thus contribute to such landform development. Few other 'typical' cyclone related depositional
467 features (see summary in Scoffin, 1993), with the exception of a very few isolated coral blocks and localised
468 over-turning of coral colonies, are seen at any of the sites. Localised toppling and fracturing of large *Porites* and
469 *Goniastrea* bommies and microatolls attest to the wave energy regimes that impacted these reefs, but limited
470 abundance of rubble generating coral taxa has restricted shingle ridge development.

471

472 A concluding point that can be made in relation to the patchy and variable nature of the features observed
473 following TC Yasi is that the preservable signature of this high magnitude event will actually be very variable
474 within and between sites. Indeed, one can state with some confidence, that the fossil record would not provide a
475 clear or consistent geomorphic or ecological signal of this event such as observed in some fossil reef sequences
476 (Perry, 2001). In some localities and in some parts of individual reefs (Paluma Shoals is a good example) clear
477 phases of more or less instantaneous rubble deposition have occurred. Given that this rubble deposition was
478 widespread across the reef flat it is likely that high resolution dating approaches would probably detect these
479 sequences as discrete storm packages in core or outcrop and that such depositional packages would have good
480 preservation potential. At the other sites, however, clear geomorphic signatures of the event are patchy and
481 would be very hard to discern in any preserved sequence. Similarly, there are few clear ecological indicators that
482 would leave a preservable trace of the event, or at least one that could be clearly pinned to the passage of a
483 major cyclone. Thus whilst clear evidence of multiple cyclone events, as preserved in storm ridge sequences,
484 have been observed in some coastal settings (Hayne and Chappell, 2001; Nott and Hayne, 2001; Nott, 2011;

485 Nott et al., 2009), the preservable signatures of these events within nearshore reefs seem more ambiguous and
486 site specific.

487

488 In summary, all of these reefs are examples of reefs with well developed, often relict reef flats, a factor that has
489 to varying degrees contributed to limiting major geomorphic and ecological change. A question that arises is
490 about the immediate ecological response and recovery of coral communities impacted by Cyclone Yasi. Our field
491 observations suggest this is also likely to vary markedly between the two most heavily impacted sites, King Reef
492 and Paluma Shoals. At both sites ecological change was highly taxa specific, with massive taxa relatively
493 unaffected, but with branched and foliose colonies declining markedly in abundance. At King Reef, however,
494 there is already evidence for on-going re-growth of branched colonies that underwent extensive (inferred)
495 freshwater-induced bleaching, with branches of *Montipora* emerging from the otherwise dead *in situ* reef
496 framework (see Fig. 3F). Relatively rapid recovery of these colonies is likely. Similarly, numerous juvenile corals
497 (that survived Yasi) appear to be growing well, and new recruits were also observed on available substrate. In
498 contrast, at Paluma Shoals, widespread physical destruction and complete mortality of branched *Acropora*
499 occurred, and new recruitment into the site will be necessary for recovery of these previously abundant reef flat
500 corals. However, evidence from other inshore sites on the GBR suggests that such recovery can happen
501 relatively quickly (Done et al., 2007). More generally, the reef flats at King Reef and Lugger Shoal are both
502 dominated by large *Porites* colonies, and at Paluma Shoals by large *Goniastrea* colonies, taxa that seemingly
503 have a high resilience to physical disturbance. These taxa have been relatively unaffected and thus the main
504 coral structural facets of the reef flat communities remain little changed.

505

506 **6. Conclusions**

507 TC Yasi had highly site specific and spatially highly heterogeneous impacts on the geomorphology and ecology
508 of the turbid-zone coral reefs located within the nearshore areas of the central Great Barrier Reef. Overall
509 impacts, given the size of the cyclone, were generally far less than anticipated, and exposure regime and pre-
510 existing ecological reef state, were probably more important as controls on the degree of change that occurred
511 than proximity to the immediate landfall path. Ecological impacts were highly varied, with the most significant

512 impacts evident at King Reef (probably caused by rainfall-induced freshwater bleaching) and at Paluma Shoals,
513 where widespread physical destruction of branched *Acropora* occurred. Clear evidence of colony regrowth was
514 observed at King Reef, but at Paluma Shoals *Acropora* recruitment will be necessary for recovery of this
515 component of the reef flat community. More massive taxa (*Porites* and *Goniastrea* microatolls and bommies)
516 were relatively unaffected. Only localised geomorphic change was evident across the sites, but again the
517 resultant landform changes were highly site specific: at Paluma Shoals, in the form of storm ridge/shingle sheet
518 deposition; at Luggar Shoal through major offshore fine sediment flushing; and at Dunk Island, through major
519 onshore coarse sand transport and deposition. The type and magnitude of damage was strongly influenced at
520 the site level by differences in exposure, evolutionary state (and thus general ecological conditions), and by
521 differences in reef flat coral taxa that vary in susceptibility to disturbance. Critically, we observe no evidence of
522 major erosion of the framework structure of these reefs implying, and despite their sediment-dominated unlithified
523 internal structure, a high degree of physical resilience to major physical disturbance events.

524

525 **Acknowledgements**

526 We thank the UK Natural Environment Research Council for funding this post-impact assessment through an
527 Urgent grant (NE/J005398/1) to CTP and SGS. We also gratefully acknowledge the help and assistance of R.
528 Beaman (JCU) and the crew of the James Cook University Research Vessel, the RV James Kirby.

529

530 **References**

531

532 Australian Government, Bureau of Meteorology (<http://www.bom.gov.au/cyclone/history/yasi.shtml>). Date
533 accessed June 2012.

534

535 Blanchon, P., Jones, B., 1997. Hurricane control on shelf-edge-reef architecture around Grand Cayman.
536 *Sedimentology* 44, 479–506.

537

538 Blanchon, P., Jones, B., Kalbfleisch, W., 1997. Anatomy of a fringing reef around Grand Cayman: Storm rubble,
539 not coral framework. *Journal of Sedimentary Research* 67, 1–16.
540

541 Blott, S.J., Pye, K., 2001. Gradistat: a grain size distribution and statistics package for the analysis of
542 unconsolidated sediments. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms* 26, 1237–1248.
543

544 Bries, J.M., Debrot, A.O., Meyer, D.L., 2004. Damage to the leeward reefs of Curaçao and Bonaire, Netherland
545 Antilles from a rare storm event: Hurricane Lenny, November 1999. *Coral Reefs* 23: 297–307.
546

547 Browne, N., Smithers, S.G., Perry, C.T., 2010. Geomorphology and community structure of Middle Reef, central
548 Great Barrier Reef, Australia: an inner-shelf turbid zone reef subjected to episodic mortality events. *Coral Reefs*
549 26, 683–689.
550

551 Browne, N., Smithers, S.G., Perry, C.T., 2013, Spatial and temporal variations in turbidity on two inshore turbid
552 reefs on the Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Coral Reefs*. DOI 10.1007/s00338-012-0965-1
553

554 Diaz-Pulido. G., McCook, J.L., Dove, S., Berkelmans, R., Roff, G., Kline, D.I., Weeks, S., Evans, R.D.,
555 Williamson, D.H., Hoegh-Guldberg, O., 2009. Doom and Boom on a Resilient Reef: Climate Change, Algal
556 Overgrowth and Coral Recovery PLoS ONE 4(4): e5239. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0005239
557

558 Done, T., 1992. Phase shifts in coral reef communities and their ecological significance. *Hydrobiologia* 247, 121–
559 132.
560

561 Done, T., Turak, E., Wakeford, M., DeVantier, L., McDonald, A., Fisk, D., 2007. Decadal changes in turbid-water
562 coral communities at Pandora Reef: loss of resilience or too soon to tell? *Coral Reefs* 26, 789–805.
563

564 Gagan, M.K., Chivas, A.R., Herczeg, A.L., 2006. Shelf-wide erosion, deposition, and suspended sediment
565 transport during Cyclone Winifred, central Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Journal of Sedimentary Research* 60,
566 456–470.

567

568 Hayne, M., Chappell J., 2001. Cyclone frequency during the last 5000 years at Curacoa Island, north
569 Queensland, Australia. *Palaeogeography Palaeoclimatology Palaeoecology* 168, 207–219.

570

571 Highsmith, R.C., 1982. Reproduction by fragmentation in corals. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 7, 207–226.

572

573 Hopley, D., Smithers, S.G., Parnell, K.E., 2007. *The Geomorphology of the Great Barrier Reef: development,*
574 *diversity and change.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. 532pp.

575

576 Hubbard, D.K., Parsons, K.M., Bythell, J.C., Walker, N.D., 1991. The effects of hurricane Hugo on the reefs and
577 associated environments of St. Croix, U.S. Virgin Islands: A preliminary assessment. *Journal of Coastal*
578 *Research* 8, 33–48.

579

580 Hughes, T.P., 1999. Off-reef transport of coral fragments at Lizard Island, Australia. *Marine Geology* 157, 1–6.

581

582 Larcombe, P., Woolfe, K.J., 1999. Terrigenous sediments as influences upon Holocene nearshore reefs, central
583 great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Australian Journal of Earth Sciences* 46, 141–154.

584

585 Larcombe, P., Ridd, P.V., Prytz, A., Wilson, B., 1995. Factors controlling suspended sediment on inner-shelf
586 coral reefs, Townsville, Australia. *Coral Reefs* 14:163-171.

587

588 Lirman, D., Fong, P., 1997. Susceptibility of coral communities to storm intensity, duration, and frequency.
589 *Proceedings of 8th International Coral Reef symposium, Panama* 1: 561–566.

590

591 Mah, A.J., Stearn, C.W., 1986. The effect of Hurricane Allen on the Bellairs fringing reef, Barbados. *Coral Reefs*
592 4, 169–176.
593

594 Maragos, J.E., Baines, G.B.K., Beveridge, P.J., 1973. Tropical Cyclone Bebe Creates a New Land Formation on
595 Funafuti Atoll. *Science* 181, 1161–1164.
596

597 Massel, S.R., Done, T.J., 1993. Effects of cyclone waves on massive coral assemblages on the Great Barrier
598 Reef: meteorology, hydrodynamics and demography. *Coral Reefs* 12, 153–166.
599

600 McManus, J., 1994. Grain size determination. In: Tucker, M.E. (Ed.), *Techniques in Sedimentology*. Blackwells,
601 Oxford, pp. 63–85.
602

603 Nott, J., 2011. A 6000 year tropical cyclone record from western Australia. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 30, 713–
604 722.
605

606 Nott, J.F., Hayne, M., 2001. High frequency of 'super-cyclones' along the Great Barrier Reef over the past 5,000
607 years. *Nature* 413, 508–512.
608

609 Nott, J., Smithers, S., Walsh, K., Rhodes, E., 2009. Sand beach ridges record 6000 year history of extreme
610 tropical cyclone activity in northeastern Australia. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 28, 1511–1520.
611

612 Palmer, S.E., Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G., Gulliver, P., 2010. Internal structure and accretionary history of a
613 Holocene nearshore, turbid-zone coral reef: Paluma Shoals, central Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Marine*
614 *Geology* 276, 14–29.
615

616 Perry, C.T., 2003. Reef development at Inhaca Island, Mozambique: coral communities and impacts of the
617 1999/2000 southern African floods. *Ambio* 32, 133–139.

618

619 Perry, C.T., 2001. Storm-induced coral rubble deposition: Pleistocene records of natural reef disturbance and
620 community response. *Coral Reefs* 20, 171–183.

621

622 Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G., 2011. Cycles of coral reef 'turn-on', rapid growth and 'turn-off' over the past 8,500
623 years: a context for understanding modern ecological states and trajectories. *Global Change Biology* 17, 76–86.

624

625 Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G., 2010. Evidence for the episodic 'turn-on' and 'turn-off' of turbid-zone, inner-shelf
626 coral reefs during the late Holocene sea-level highstand. *Geology* 38, 119–122.

627

628 Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G., 2006. Taphonomic signatures of turbid-zone reef development: examples from
629 Paluma Shoals and Lugger Shoal, inshore central Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Palaeogeography,*
630 *Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 242, 1–20.

631

632 Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G., Gulliver, P., Browne, N., 2012. Evidence of very rapid reef accretion and reef growth
633 under high turbidity and terrigenous sedimentation. *Geology* 40, 719–722.

634

635 Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G., Roche, R., Wassenburg, J., 2011. Recurrent patterns of coral community and
636 sediment facies development through successive phases of Holocene reef growth and decline. *Marine Geology*
637 289, 60–71.

638

639 Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G. and Johnson, K.G. (2009) Long-term coral community records from Lugger Shoal on
640 the terrigenous inner-shelf of the central Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Coral Reefs* 28: 941-948.

641

642 Perry, C.T., Smithers, S.G., Palmer, S.E., Larcombe, P., Johnson, K.G., 2008. A 1200 year paleoecological
643 record of coral community development from the terrigenous inner-shelf of the Great Barrier Reef. *Geology* 36,
644 691–694.

645

646 Puotinen, M.L., 2007. Modelling the risk of cyclone wave damage to coral reefs using GIS: a case study of the
647 Great Barrier Reef, 1969-2003. *International Journal of Geographical Information Science*. 21, 97–120.

648

649 Riegl, B., 2001. Inhibition of reef framework by frequent disturbance: examples from the Arabian Gulf, South
650 Africa, and the Cayman Islands. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 175, 79–101.

651

652 Roche, R., Perry, C.T., Johnson, K.G., Saltana, K., Smithers, S.G., Thompson, A.A., 2011. Mid-Holocene coral
653 community data as a baseline for understanding contemporary reef ecological states. *Palaeogeography,*
654 *Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 299, 159–167.

655

656 Rogers, C.S., Suchanek, T.H., Pecora, F.A., 1982. Effects of Hurricanes David and Frederic (1979) on shallow
657 *Acropora palmata* reef communities: St. Croix, U.S. Virgin Islands. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 32, 532–548.

658

659 Scoffin, T.P., 1993. The geological effects of hurricanes on coral reefs and the interpretation of storm deposits.
660 *Coral Reefs* 12, 203–221.

661

662 Scoffin, T.P., Hendry, M.D., 1984. Shallow water sclerosponges on Jamaican reefs and a criterion for the
663 recognition of hurricane deposits. *Nature* 307, 728–729.

664

665 Smithers, S.G., Larcombe, P., 2003. Late Holocene initiation and growth of a nearshore turbid-zone coral reef:
666 Paluma Shoals, central Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Coral Reefs* 22, 499–505.

667

668 Spiske, M., Jaffe, B.E., 2009. Sedimentology and hydrodynamic implications of a coarse-grained hurricane
669 sequence in a carbonate reef setting. *Geology* 37, 839–842.

670

671 Stoddart, D.R., 1974. Post-hurricane changes on the British Honduras Reefs: re-survey of 1972. Proceedings of
672 2nd International Coral Reef Symposium, Brisbane 2, 473–483.
673

674 Van Woesik, R., De Vantier, L.M., Glazebrook, J.S., 1995. Effects of Cyclone 'Joy' on nearshore coral
675 communities of the Great Barrier Reef. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 128, 261–270.
676

677 Whinney, J.C., 2007. Physical Conditions on Marginal Coral Reefs. Unpublished PhD Thesis, James Cook
678 University.
679

680 Woodley, J.D., 1992. The incidence of hurricanes on the north coast of Jamaica since 1870: are the classic reef
681 descriptions atypical? *Hydrobiologia* 247, 133–138.
682

683 Woodley, J.D., Chornesky, E.A., Clifford, P.A., Jackson, J.B.C., Kaufman, L.S., Knowlton, N., Lang, J.C.,
684 Pearson, M.P., Porter, J.W., Rooney M.C., Rylaarsdam, K.W., Tunnicliffe, V.C., Wahle, C.M., Wulff, J.L., Curtis,
685 A.S.G., Dallmeyer, M.J., Jupp, B.P., Koehl, M.A.R., Neigel, J. and Sides, E.M. (1981) Hurricane Allen's impact on
686 Jamaican coral reefs. *Science* 214, 749–755.
687

688 Woolsey, E., Bainbridge, S.J., Kingsford, M.J., Byrne, M., 2012. Impacts of Cyclone Hamish at One Tree Reef:
689 integrating environmental and benthic habitat data. *Marine Biology* 159, 793–803.
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697

698 **Figure captions**

699 Fig. 1 Location map showing: (A) general areas of study in central Queensland; (B, C) location of study sites
700 referred to; and (D) information on Cyclone Yasi's storm track and intensity. King Reef, Dunk Island and Lugg
701 Shoal are most immediately influenced by river run-off from the Herbert River Catchment to the south (area
702 9,884 km²), the Tully Catchment (area 1,683 km²) which comprises both the Tully and Hull Rivers, and the
703 Johnston Catchment to the north (area 2,323 km²) which includes Maria Creek (see Map B). Paluma Shoals is
704 influenced by flood plumes from the Burdekin River to the south (area 130,109 km²), the Ross River Catchment
705 (area 1,708 km²) and the Black River catchment (1059 km²).

706

707 Fig. 2. King Reef prior to Cyclone Yasi. (A) View looking west across King Reef towards Kurrimine Beach; (B)
708 View across the central reef flat showing planar, sediment filled surface and isolated living *Goniastrea* colonies
709 (arrowed); (C,D) Seaward reef flat margin on spring low tide showing thriving coral communities, dominated by
710 *Montipora*, *Acropora* and (arrowed in 'D') fields of *Porites* microatolls.

711

712 Fig. 3. King Reef post Cyclone Yasi. (A) View across the central reef flat areas showing little or no evident
713 change to the planar character of this reef zone. *Goniastrea* colonies remain seemingly unaffected. (B) Isolated
714 *Porites* colony deposited on the seaward reef flat margin; (C) Fractured, but still *in situ*, *Porites* microatoll to
715 seaward of the reef flat; (D) Dead *in situ* stands of *Acropora* between *Porites* microatolls along the seaward reef
716 flat edge. (E) View showing dead *in situ* coral colonies on the seaward reef flat margin, covered in filamentous
717 algae; (F) View showing re-growth of surviving colonies from the surrounding dead *in situ* framework.

718

719 Fig. 4. Luggier Shoal prior to Cyclone Yasi. (A) View south across Luggier Shoal towards Tam O'Shanter Point;
720 (B) View looking towards Dunk Island (top of photo) showing the *Porites* dominated structure of the reef flat and
721 their colonisation by *Goniastrea* colonies.

722

723 Fig. 5. Luggier Shoal post Cyclone Yasi. (A) Top surface of tilted *Porites* microatoll along the landward margin of
724 the reef flat; (B) Intact and in-place *Goniastrea* colony on the reef flat surface.

725

726 Fig. 6. Resort Reef at Dunk Island prior to Cyclone Yasi. (A) View looking south-west across Dunk Island. 'Resort
727 Reef' is in the embayment in the centre of the picture; (B) View looking across the relict, planar mid-Holocene
728 reef flat, with exposed mid-Holocene *Porites* microatolls visible in the foreground; (C) View landwards across
729 living *Porites* microatolls along the seaward margin of the lower elevation, late Holocene reef flat.

730

731 Fig. 7 Impacts of Cyclone Yasi at Resort Reef, Dunk Island. (A) Extensive damage caused to resort
732 infrastructure; (B) Sediments bulldozed out of the resort that were washed onshore during Yasi; Pre- (C) and
733 post- (D) views across the landward areas of the reef flat showing exhumation of the rear reef flat by beach
734 sediment stripping; (E) View of younger, low elevation reef flat showing no signs of major erosion or geomorphic
735 change; (F) Isolated overturned coral on seaward margin of late Holocene reef; (G) Intact colony of *Turbinaria* on
736 the reef flat that clearly survived Yasi; (H) Bleached and dead upper surface of *Porites* microatoll along seaward
737 reef flat margin.

738

739 Fig. 8. Paluma Shoals prior to Cyclone Yasi. (A) View across nearshore areas of Halifax Bay. Paluma Shoals are
740 the areas of reef exposed just below the beach line in the top of the picture; (B) View showing high live coral
741 cover and abundance of *Goniastrea* bommies and of *Acropora* stands in the central areas of the reef flat.

742

743 Fig. 9. Impacts of cyclone Yasi at Paluma Shoals. Fractured (A) and toppled (B) *Goniastrea* bommies, but note
744 that the basic *Goniastrea* bommie dominated character of the reef flat persists. (C) View across seaward reef flat
745 showing localised development of a low elevation shingle ridge or sheet, which has partially covered (in D)
746 *Goniastrea* bommies. (E) Close-up of *Acropora* shingle deposits in the central reef flat area; (F) Tilted *Porites*
747 microatoll and colonising *Goniastrea* head along the landward margin of the reef flat.

748

749 Fig. 10. Sediment properties of the nearshore and shallow sub-tidal sediments on and around Lugger Shoal pre-
750 (B, C) and post- (D, E) Cyclone Yasi.

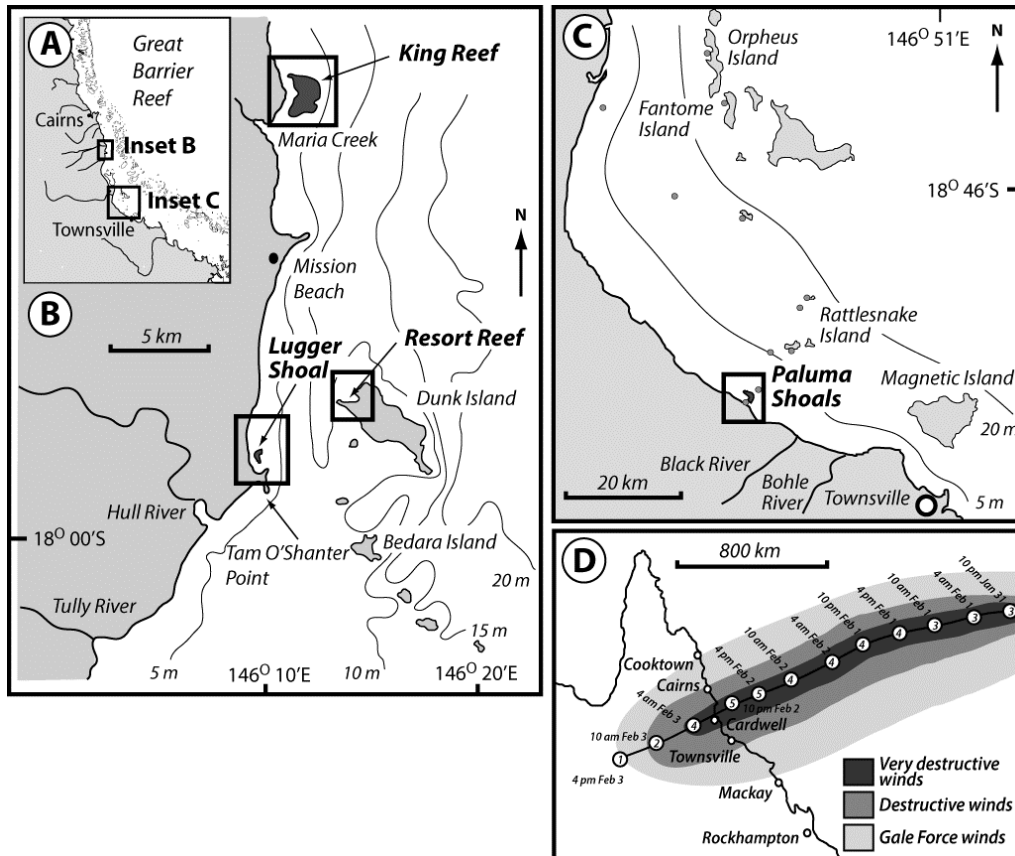
751

752 Fig. 11. Sediment properties of the nearshore and shallow sub-tidal sediments in and around the Resort Reef
 753 embayment pre- (A, C) and post- (B,D) Cyclone Yasi .

754

755 Fig. 12. Schematic diagram illustrating spatial variations in both the ecological and geomorphic impacts of
 756 Cyclone Yasi across the four reef sites examined.

757



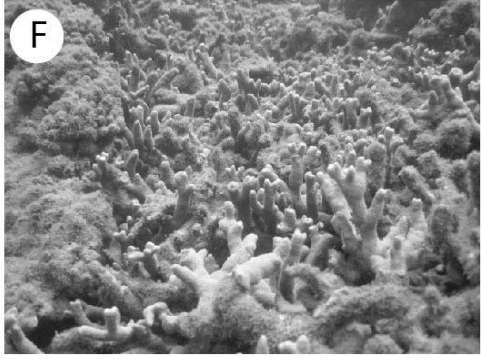
758

759



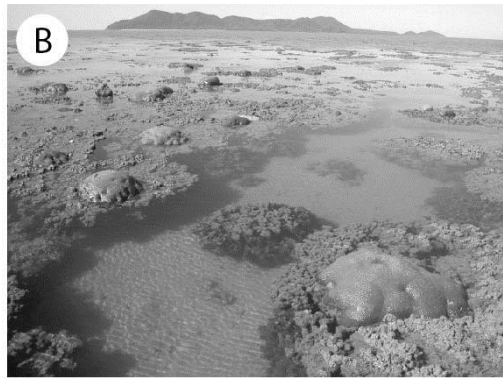
760

761



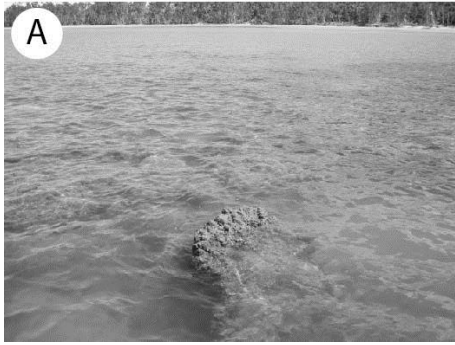
762

763



764

765



766

767



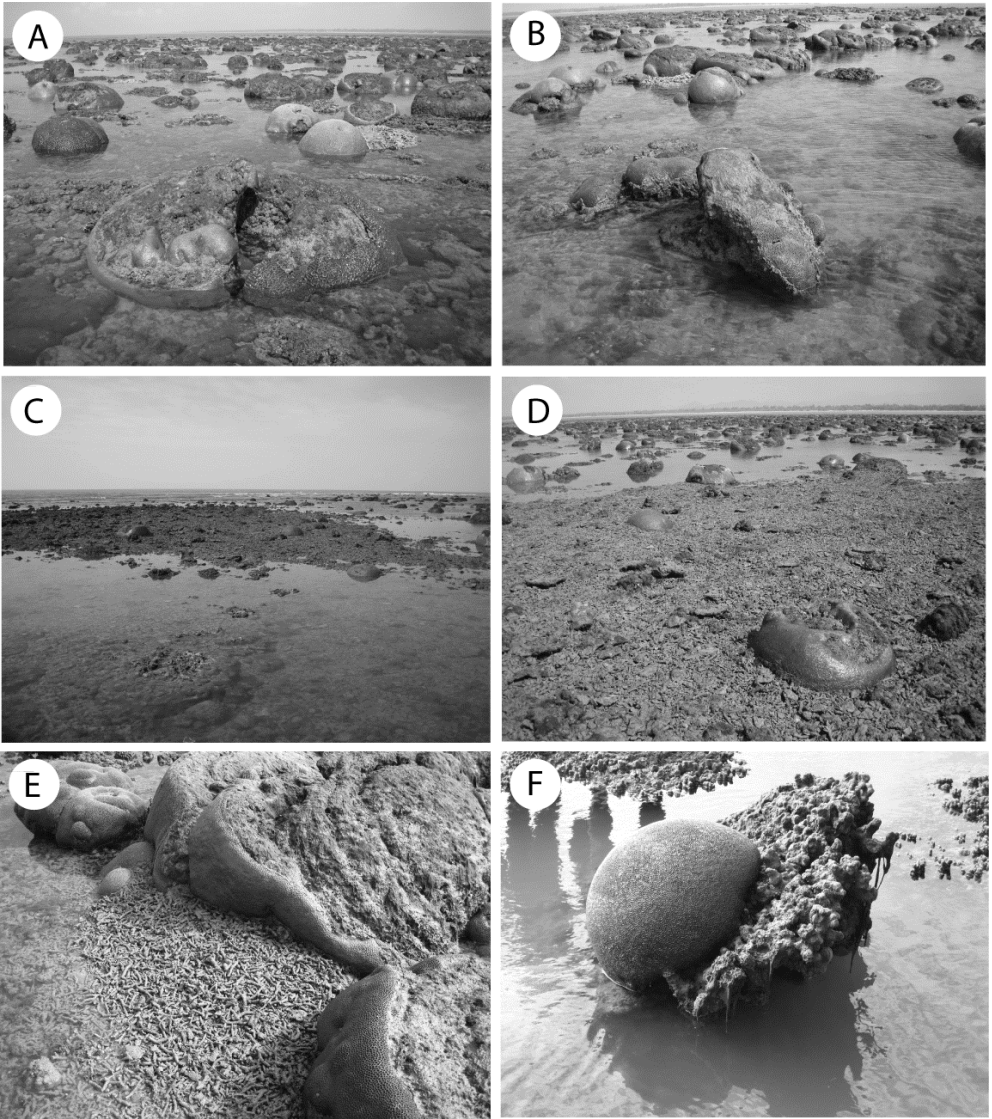
768

769



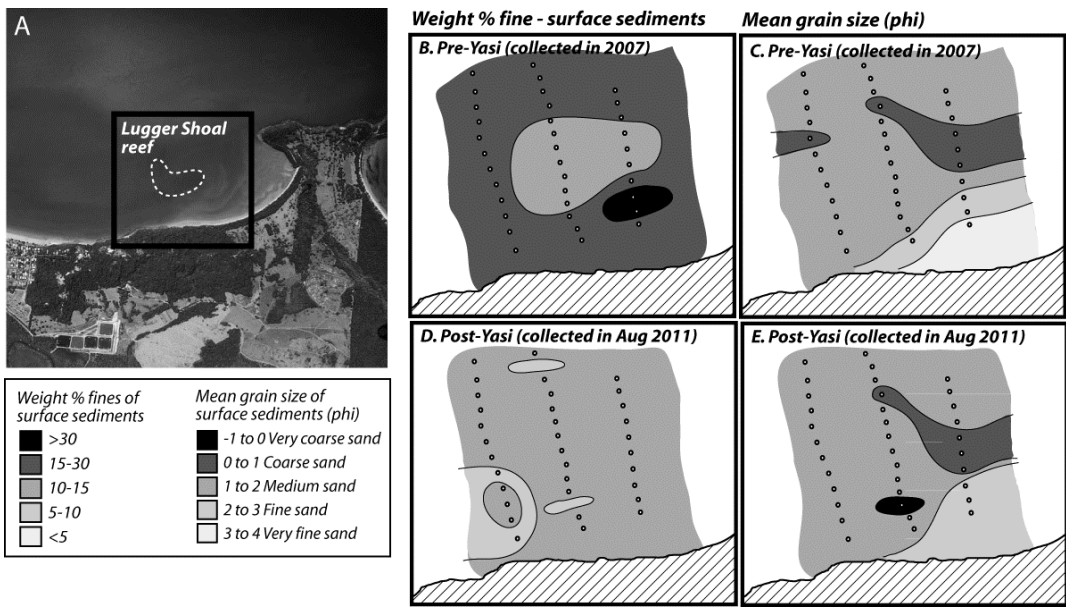
770

771



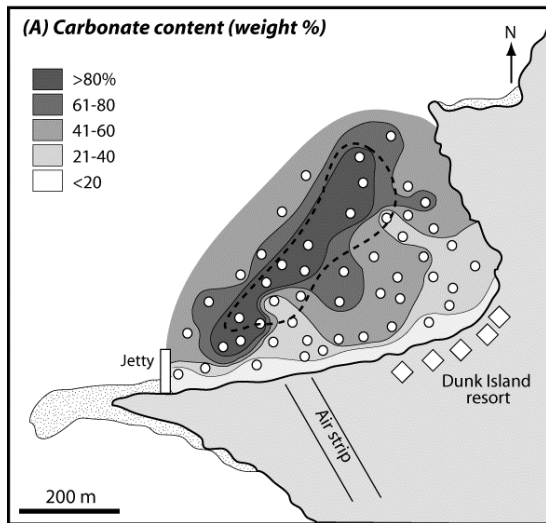
772

773



774

Pre-Yasi



Post-Yasi

