

1 **Meta-study of carbonate sediment delivery rates to**
2 **Indo-Pacific coral reef islands**

3 **Baptiste Aïnési¹, Gerd Masselink², Paul Kench³**

4 ¹Geosciences Department, Ecole Normale Supérieure - PSL University, Paris, France

5 ²School of Biological and Marine Sciences, University of Plymouth, Plymouth PL4 8AA, UK

6 ³Department of Geography, National University of Singapore, Singapore

7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • We provide the first estimation of sediment delivery rates to 28 coral reef islands
9 using all data available from the literature.
10 • Results point towards a sediment delivery rate of c. $0.1m^3.m^{-1}.yr^{-1}$, but with
11 substantial inter-island variability.
12 • Where island building has been continuous through island history, long-term delivery
13 rates provide valuable estimates for contemporary rates.

Corresponding author: Gerd Masselink, gerd.masselink@plymouth.ac.uk

Abstract

Coral reef islands are amongst the most vulnerable environments to sea-level rise (SLR). Recent physical and numerical modelling studies have demonstrated that overwash processes may enable reef islands to keep up with SLR through island accretion. Sediment supply to these islands from the surrounding reef system is critical in understanding their morphodynamic adjustments, but is poorly constrained due to insufficient knowledge about sediment delivery rates. This paper provides the first estimation of sediment delivery rates to coral reef islands. Analysis of topographic and geochronological data from 28 coral reef islands indicates an average rate of sediment delivery of c. $0.1\text{m}^3.\text{m}^{-1}.\text{yr}^{-1}$, but with substantial inter-island variability. Comparison with carbonate sediment production rates from census-based studies suggests that this represents c. 26% of the amount of sediment produced on the reef platform. Results of this study are useful in future modelling studies for predicting morphodynamic adjustments of coral reef islands to SLR

Plain Language Summary

Low-lying coral reef islands are under threat of sea-level rise. However, when these islands are flooded, ocean waves can bring in sediment that can increase the island elevation. This would enable coral reef islands to better withstand flooding in the future. Knowing how much sediment is brought in will help in our understanding of future changes to these islands due to sea-level rise. In this paper, we use data from 28 Indo-Pacific coral reef islands to compute sediment supply to the islands. We find that on average 0.1m^3 of sediment (roughly 100 kg) is delivered each year for every meter of island shoreline. We further suggest that implies that only one quarter of the sediments produced by the coral reef system is delivered to the island shoreline. Most of the sediment produced remains on the reef flat or is exported to the ocean or the lagoon. Our results will help future studies to predict more accurately how coral reef islands will adjust to sea-level rise.

1 Introduction

Coral reef islands are accumulations of reef-derived carbonate material, deposited on coral reef platforms (Steers et al., 1977). Indo-Pacific atoll island development occurred through the mid-to-late Holocene, with the onset of island formation occurring from the oldest deposits at 5,500 years ago to more recent accumulations beginning around 500 years ago (Kench et al., 2023). Due to their low elevation and small extent, coral reef islands are considered to be among the most vulnerable landforms to anthropogenic climate change and sea-level rise (SLR) (Oppenheimer et al., 2019). A global mean SLR of c. 0.25m has already occurred and SLR is expected to accelerate with further increases in global mean sea level of 0.38m and 0.77m according to SSP1-1.9 and SSP5-8.5, respectively (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), 2022). Strong regional patterns in SLR are reported, with higher rates than the global average on Pacific tropical islands (Becker et al., 2012). Tropical storminess is also affected by climate change and tropical cyclones are expected to decrease in number, but increase in intensity (Bhatia et al., 2019; Walsh et al., 2019). Extreme sea level events due to storm waves and storm surge superimposed on global mean SLR will significantly increase coastal flood and erosion risk for coral reef islands (Dickinson, 2009; Storlazzi et al., 2015). According to Storlazzi et al. (2018), increased frequency and intensity of island overwash and groundwater contamination due to SLR will render most coral reef islands uninhabitable within decades.

These pessimistic prospects are drawn from "bathtub" and dynamic flood models based on the assumption that coral reef islands are geomorphologically inert. However, shoreline observations based on satellite data have highlighted that islands are highly dynamic and undergo continuous change in size, shape and position on the reef platform (Kench, Ford, and Owen, 2018; Duvat, 2019). Although coral reef islands are commonly

63 assumed to be vulnerable to SLR and likely to be destabilized by wave-driven erosion
64 (Roy and Connell, 1991; Connell, 2003; Woodroffe, 2008), coral reef island-shoreline observations
65 have demonstrated that many islands have expanded over the last few decades (Duvat
66 and Pillet, 2017; Kench et al., 2015; Kench et al., 2023; McLean and Kench, 2015). Small-scale
67 physical and process-based numerical models have recently been developed to explore
68 further the geomorphic response of coral reef islands to SLR (Tuck et al., 2019; Masselink
69 et al., 2020). Both approaches suggest that coral reef islands may be able to maintain
70 freeboard above rising sea level and that drowning is not the inevitable consequence of
71 SLR. However, different trajectories across the full spectrum of island progradation to
72 island destruction can occur, depending on extrinsic factors such as the rate of SLR and
73 storm characteristics, and intrinsic physical factors such as island morphology, reef growth
74 and sediment supply (Masselink et al., 2020).

75 Sediment supply plays a critical role in shoreline adjustments of all depositional
76 coastal environments, including coral reef islands. Many studies provide evidence of the
77 close relationship between sand barrier development, sand supply and sea-level history
78 during the Quaternary (Fruergaard et al., 2015; Kennedy et al., 2020; Otvos, 2018). For
79 example, Australian barrier systems prograded during the mid-to-late Holocene under
80 rising sea level due to net onshore sediment transport on the order of $1m^3.m^{-1}$ per year
81 (Kinsela et al., 2016). Coral reef island adjustment to SLR is also likely to be highly dependent
82 on the sediment supply from the reef system to the island. Indeed, modelling experiments
83 showed that adding sediment reduces the erosive effects of rising water levels and accelerates
84 the rate of crest elevation (Kench and Cowell, 2002; Tuck et al., 2021).

85 Coral reef islands are unique depositional systems as the sediments comprising islands
86 are entirely derived from the skeletal remains of carbonate secreting organisms from the
87 surrounding reef flat and fore reef. While significant effort has been made to construct
88 carbonate budgets for reef systems, and more recently sediment budgets on coral reefs
89 (Morgan and Kench, 2014; Lange et al., 2020), there have been few attempts to resolve
90 the sediment budget linkages between productive reef systems and islands, which is necessary
91 to build, maintain and nourish coral reef islands (Perry et al., 2011; Browne et al., 2021).
92 Notably, reef islands represent a millennial-scale sediment sink in the broader reef platform
93 carbonate budget (Kench et al., 2011). However, the primary skeletal contributors that
94 build islands shows considerable spatial variation, reflecting the relative ecological state
95 of surrounding reefs, and the rate at which sediment is transferred to islands, reflecting
96 the interplay between rates of sediment generation, the texture of sediment and the hydrodynamic
97 processes able to entrain, transfer and deposit sediments on islands (Perry et al., 2011;
98 Kench and McLean, 1996). However, little is known about the actual rates of sediment
99 delivery to coral reef islands, which is pivotal to understand island physical dynamics
100 and their potential adjustment to rising sea levels. Sediment supply is thus poorly constrained
101 in morphodynamic models.

102 Reef island sediment reservoirs store a depositional record of island accumulation,
103 which have yet to be systematically analysed to reconstruct rates of sediment delivery.
104 This study provides the first estimation of long-term sediment delivery rates to coral reef
105 islands in the Indo-Pacific. Estimates are derived from the construction of geological sediment
106 budgets using all available data on radiometric ages and island volumes from existing
107 studies of island formation. Delivery rates corresponding to average rates over the history
108 of the islands, from their initiation to present, are calculated. Specific objectives are to
109 provide a set of delivery rates to islands that will allow future work to derive detrital sediment
110 budgets on coral reef platforms and to help constrain sediment supply in morphodynamic
111 island modelling. It will be shown that an order of magnitude of $0.1m^3.m^1.yr^{-1}$ is delivered
112 to coral reef islands, but with substantial inter-island variability. This value is compared
113 to reef platform sediment production rates from census-based studies and we suggest that
114 island sediment supply is approximately 26% of the entire detrital sediment volume produced
115 on reef platforms annually.

116 **2 Method**

117 Our approach is to estimate for each available coral reef island data set, the total
 118 volume of sediment that has accumulated over a certain amount of time, and estimate
 119 the rate of sediment delivery required per unit meter length of island shoreline. The method
 120 comprises four steps: (1) extraction of geometric island data; (2) computation of island
 121 sediment volume; (3) determination of sediment accumulation period; and (4) computation
 122 of sediment delivery rate (summarised for a lagoon island in Fig. 1). A more detailed
 123 description of the method is provided in Sections 2.1-2.4.

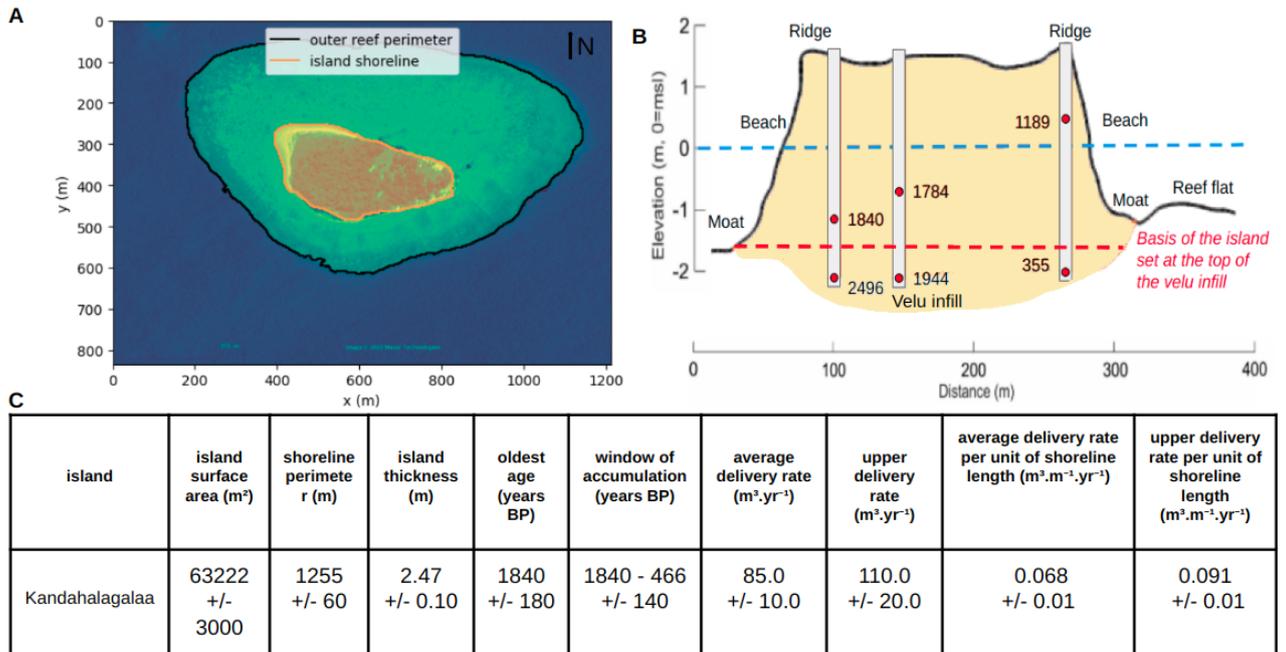


Figure 1: Application of the method to the island of Kandahalagalaa, Huvadho Atoll, Maldives. (a) Automatic classification of satellite image into atoll island, reef platform and lagoon using the Doodle Labeller (Buscombe and Ritchie, 2018). (b) North-South topographic profile of Kandahalagalaa (Kan) with radiometric ages (figure modified from Liang et al. (2022), their Fig 2.D). (c) Table showing island parameters extracted from Liang et al. (2022) (island thickness, oldest age and window of accumulation), data measured from satellite image (island surface area and shoreline perimeter), and delivery rates to Kandahalagalaa computed using these data. The delivery rate has been computed from several profiles across the reef island.

124 **2.1 Data Collection**

125 Seventeen previous studies provided geochronological and topographic data for 28
 126 coral reef islands distributed across the Indo-Pacific regions (Fig. 1 in Supporting Information).
 127 Summary characteristics of each island and their adjacent reef platform are contained
 128 in Table 3 and 4 in Supporting Information and represent to the authors' knowledge all
 129 published datasets. In order to construct geological sediment budgets we only included
 130 islands where there is a minimum of 4 radiometric dates that spatially constrain the sediment
 131 reservoir. The identified islands show a wide range of sizes, ranging from 13,000m² (Tutaga,
 132 in Funafuti atoll, Tuvalu) to 9,000,000m² (West Island, Cocos (Keeling) Islands). Some
 133 are inhabited (e.g., Vaadhoo, Huvadho atoll, Maldives; Laura, Majuro atoll, Marshall

134 Islands), while others are uninhabited (e.g., Mba, New-Caledonia; Jin, atoll of Jaluit, Marshall
135 Islands). Satellite images of all islands were collected using Google Earth and used to
136 determine the spatial characteristics of each island and reef platform.

137 2.2 Island Sediment Volume

138 The volume of island sediment is calculated as the mean thickness of the unconsolidated
139 sediment multiplied by the island surface area. The lower boundary of the island sediment
140 reservoir differs between islands. On many islands sediments are deposited directly over
141 consolidated reef flat or conglomerate platform forming a distinct boundary. However,
142 on other islands the sediment reservoir lies above lagoonal infill deposits and, therefore,
143 there is a transition between island and lagoon sediments. In these examples, the base
144 of the island sediment volume was established at the top of the lagoon infill deposits (Fig.
145 1b). Information on how we defined the base of each island is contained in Table 4 in
146 Supporting Information. For over half of the studied islands, subsurface cores that reached
147 the underlying platform or lagoon infill were collected providing information on the thickness
148 of island sediments. However, on other islands, cores did not reach the underlying platform
149 or lagoon infill and the basis of the unconsolidated sediment layer was set at the depth
150 of the bottom of the deepest core. Using topographic profiles from each island and data
151 from cores, the mean thickness of the sediment layer is estimated by measuring the area
152 between the island surface and the sediment layer. This area is then divided by the width
153 of the island to estimate the average thickness of sediments. When several profiles are
154 available for one atoll island, the sediment thickness is calculated for each transect and
155 then averaged. The surface area of the island is computed from the satellite images using
156 a Python-based image processing tool, called Doodle Labeller (Buscombe and Ritchie,
157 2018). After training, the tool automatically labels pixels belonging to the island surface
158 and discriminates them from the surrounding reef (Fig. 1a). The volume of the island
159 is then approximated by the surface area multiplied with the mean thickness of the island
160 sediment. No consideration of textural variability among coral reef islands was made in
161 the present work.

162 2.3 Sediment Accumulation Period

163 Radiocarbon dating of sediments from 28 islands is used to constrain the dates of
164 island formation. For each island, the oldest radiocarbon age (ages labelled as outliers
165 in the distribution were excluded, see Fig. 2) from the base of the island sediment reservoir
166 is used as the time for the beginning of sediment deposition, and this age is used to calculate
167 the *average* sediment delivery rate ($m^3.y^{-1}$) from the start of island building to present.
168 However, for many islands, radiometric results show island building and sediment deposition
169 ceased well before present. For example, no sediment younger than 1000yBP was found
170 on the islands of Galamadhoo, Boduhini or Mba (Fig. 2). Consequently, the time range
171 of active deposition was also calculated, defined as the window ranging from the oldest
172 age to the youngest age of island sediment, to capture shorter timeframes of island building.
173 An *upper* delivery rate is computed over the time range of active deposition.

174 2.4 Sediment Delivery Rate

175 The sediment supply to the island corresponds to the amount of sediment delivered
176 to the island per unit of time. *Average* sediment delivery rates are calculated by dividing
177 the volume of the island by the oldest age measured on the island, while *upper* delivery
178 rates are calculated dividing this same volume by the time range of active deposition (see
179 Fig. 1c). For example, at Kandahalagalaa, the oldest island age above the lagoon infill
180 signalling the onset of island accumulation is 1840yBP (Fig. 1b). Based on the calculated
181 island volume ($156,393m^3$) the *average* delivery rate to the island across 1840 years is
182 $85m^3.y^{-1}$. However, the sediment age distribution ranged from 1840 to 466yBP indicating

183 active island accumulation occurred over a narrower 1374 year window and ceased approximately
 184 500 years ago. Consequently, the delivery rate over this active island building window
 185 (1374 years) is $110m^3.y^{-1}$.

186 The delivery rates were then expressed as a delivery rate per unit length of island
 187 shoreline ($m^3.m^{-1}.y^{-1}$) (Fig 1c), as this represents a normalised delivery rate used for
 188 assessing and modelling shoreline adjustments. Sediment delivery is assumed to occur
 189 around the entire platform; therefore, delivery rates are divided by the whole island shoreline
 190 perimeter. A distinction was made for linear reef rim islands where there is clear evidence
 191 that the island builds seawards from the lagoon shoreline (Laura Island, Marshall Islands;
 192 Takapato, Tuamotu; West Island, Cocos). For these islands, delivery rates are divided
 193 by the length of the oceanward shoreline, as reef-derived sediment transport is expected
 194 to mainly take place from the oceanward reef to the shoreline. The current island perimeter
 195 was used for computing delivery rate per unit length of shoreline. We acknowledge that
 196 the existing island perimeter would not be representative of shoreline length as the island
 197 expanded on its reef surface. Therefore normalised delivery rate is an underestimate for
 198 early stages of island development. However, we use this value as a conservative baseline
 199 to reflect the existing island sediment linkage, for comparison with current rates derived
 200 from sediment budget investigations, and to configure future geomorphic modelling scenarios.
 201 Sediment delivery and island growth rate are assumed constant over bracketed time period
 202 and average delivery rates provide thus valuable estimates for contemporary sediment
 203 delivery rates. This assumption is further discussed in Section 3.

204 All parameters used in the computation of sediment delivery rates have an associated,
 205 and largely indeterminable, uncertainty. The uncertainties are assumed to have a Gaussian
 206 distributions with estimated standard error of 10% for sediment thickness, surface area
 207 and reef length, and of 20% for time ranges. These uncertainties were then propagated
 208 into the final estimates, providing uncertainties for the computed delivery rates (Table
 209 1 in Supporting Information).

210 **3 Results and Discussion**

211 The radiometric data show that the onset of island formation across the Indo-Pacific
 212 occurred throughout the mid- to late-Holocene with no apparent differences in timing
 213 between reef regions (Fig. 2). Earliest ages of island evolution are between 4,000 and 5,500
 214 years ago with examples evident in all the major reef provinces examined. Notably, a
 215 number of islands have also formed much later in the Holocene, within the last 1000 years.
 216 Closer examination of the age distribution of sediments in each island highlights temporal
 217 variability in the onset, accumulation window and termination of island formation during
 218 the mid- to late-Holocene (Fig. 2). Some islands show evidence of continued sediment
 219 accumulation from the time of initial deposition to the present, whereas others suggest
 220 island formation ceased well before present. For example, on Jeh (Marshall Islands) and
 221 Navini (Fiji) island margin sediments are modern, which suggests there is still active delivery
 222 of sediment to shorelines. In contrast, on Galamaadhoo and Boduhini (Maldives) and
 223 Mba (New-Caledonia) no sediment younger than 1,000yBP was dated, implying cessation
 224 of island development at that time.

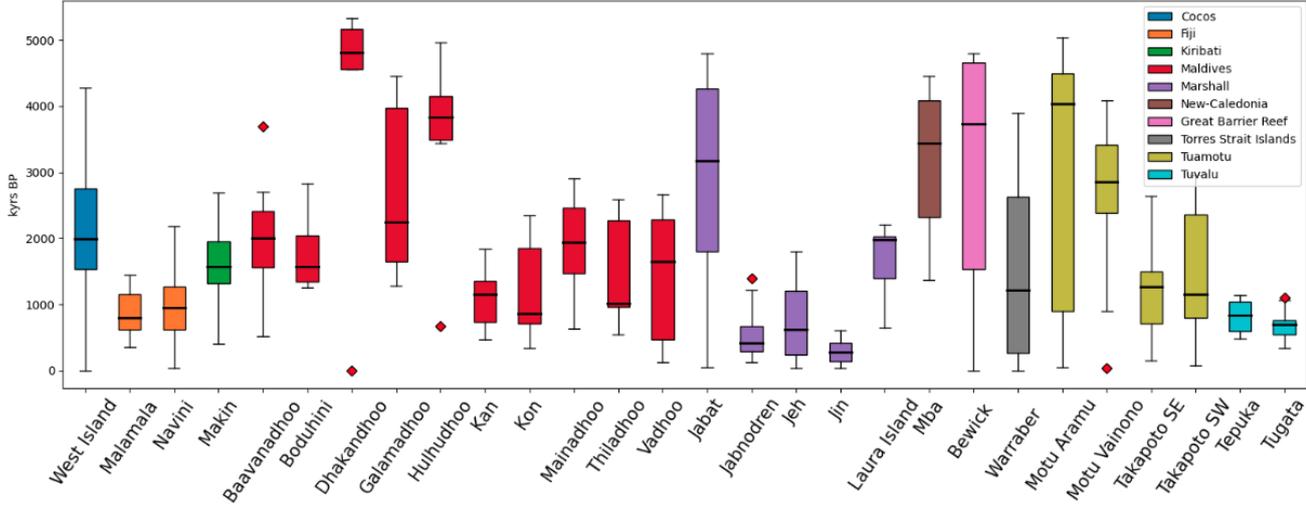


Figure 2: Distribution of radiocarbon ages measured on each atoll island

225 It is also apparent that the style of accumulation varies significantly. For example,
 226 relatively uniform age distributions are found on some islands (e.g. Malamala in Fiji and
 227 Jabat in the Marshall Islands), indicating sediment deposition occurred at a near-constant
 228 rate across the window of island accumulation. However, on many islands the age distributions
 229 are not uniform, suggesting episodic deposition characterised by pulses of rapid sedimentation,
 230 interspersed with periods of low sedimentation rates. On Motu Aramu (Tuamotu), 50%
 231 of ages occur in a narrow time window (5,000 to 4,000yBP), while the remaining ages
 232 are spread more continuously across the 4,000 years to present.

233 Summary data on island sediment reservoirs and rates of sediment delivery (Fig.
 234 3, Table 1 in Supporting Information) reveal several distinct features. First, the majority
 235 of islands have a sediment thickness ranging from 1 to 2.5m, though four islands have
 236 island sediment thickness greater than 3.5m (Mba, Malamala, Navini and Bewick). Second,
 237 island sediment volumes range across three orders of magnitude from 21,634m³ on Tutaga
 238 (Funafuti atoll) to 15,686,133m³ on West Island (Cocos (Keeling) Islands). Third, a strong
 239 positive correlation is found between sediment delivery rate in m³.yr⁻¹ and island surface
 240 area (Table 2 in Supporting Information). Sediment delivery rates to islands scale with
 241 increasing island size (Table 2 and Fig. 2 in Supporting Information) which also reflects
 242 increased reef platform area and available accommodation space. The mean delivery rate
 243 for island size classes of > 100ha, 99–10ha and < 10ha are 2,137, 257 and 51m³.y⁻¹
 244 respectively. Normalised by island perimeter length, to account for large differences in
 245 island size, the data indicate that the average delivery rate to islands has a mean value
 246 of 0.118m³.m⁻¹.y⁻¹ and ranges from 0.017 to 0.37m³.m⁻¹.y⁻¹ (Table 1 in Supporting
 247 Information). The mean upper delivery rate is 0.151m³.m⁻¹.y⁻¹ (range of 0.024 – 0.53m³.m⁻¹.y⁻¹).

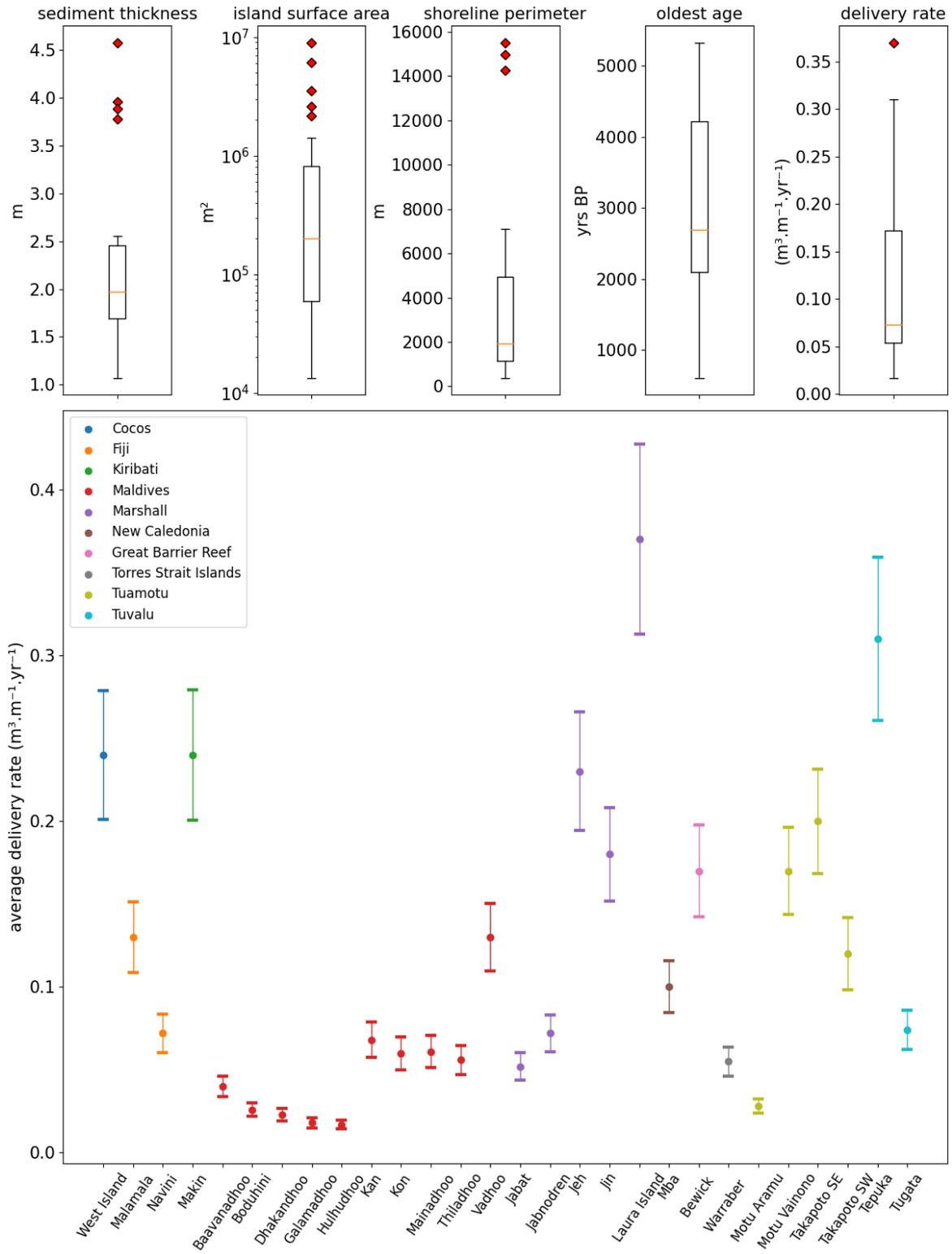


Figure 3: Average delivery rates per meter unit width displayed for each coral reef island, average delivery rate distribution and four parameters distribution: sediment thickness, island surface area, shoreline perimeter and oldest island age.

248 Collectively the meta-analysis of island geological sediment budgets indicates mean
249 annual delivery of $646 \pm 1,010 m^3 \cdot y^{-1}$ to islands or $0.118 \pm 0.092 m^3 \cdot m^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$. However,
250 results show considerable variability which likely reflects intrinsic differences in sediment
251 generation and transfer to islands between reef systems that is unique to biogenic carbonate
252 sediment systems. Where geochronological data demonstrate relatively uniform island
253 growth, delivery rates calculated in this study are likely to provide a first order estimate
254 of contemporary sediment supply to islands, and implies active sediment delivery from
255 the surrounding reef is ongoing. However, on many islands the geochronological data show
256 the accumulation history has not been uniform. While interpretations of the age distributions
257 may be subject to the density of ages resolved in each study, the episodic nature of deposition
258 is consistent with contemporary understanding of sediment generation and delivery mechanisms
259 in reef systems (Bayliss-Smith, 1988).

260 A unique aspect of coral reef island landforms is that sediments are entirely composed
261 on the skeletal remains of carbonate secreting organisms (Perry et al., 2011). The rate
262 of delivery of sediments to islands is, therefore, dependent on the diversity, abundance
263 and growth rates of carbonate secreting organisms (both primary framework builders and
264 secondary producers), the efficacy of bioerosion processes that breakdown primary framework
265 (coral), and the hydrodynamic regime that selectively sorts and transports sediments to
266 islands (Perry et al., 2011). Consequently, the sediment system is susceptible to naturally
267 occurring or anthropogenically forced disturbance that disrupts sediment delivery entirely
268 or temporarily.

269 During the mid-to late Holocene some reef regions have experienced falls in sea level
270 from a highstand 0.5 to 1.0m higher than present (Kench et al., 2009). This relative emergence
271 of reef flats can have multiple impacts on the detrital sediment system. First, it can force
272 transitions in the type and abundance of carbonate secreting organism. For example, the
273 colonisation of reef flats by benthic foraminifera has been implicated in several studies
274 in transforming the sediment reservoir on reef systems (Yamano et al., 2000; Perry et al.,
275 2011). However, such new sediment types may not be actively transported to islands.
276 Second, relative emergence of the reef flat may significantly alter the potential for sediments
277 to be physically transported towards islands. Third, relative emergence of islands may
278 elevate them above the active sediment delivery pathway. Collectively these changes in
279 the sediment system may cause island building to cease, as reflected in a number of islands
280 in this study.

281 Episodic island accumulation is also likely to reflect disturbances in the sediment
282 generation and supply system. For example, bleaching events associated with anomalously
283 high higher water temperatures can cause the death of coral substrate, and in combination
284 with increased bioerosion, can create a pulse in sediment availability (Perry et al., 2011).
285 For example, in the Maldives, Perry et al. (2020) identified an increase in sediment generation
286 by several taxa from $0.5 kg CaCO_3 m^2 \cdot y^{-1}$ to $3.7 kg CaCO_3 m^2 \cdot y^{-1}$ following a bleaching
287 event in 2016. However, if such shifts are short-lived (<3 years), they are unlikely to be
288 recorded in island stratigraphy. In contrast, longer period variations (>10yrs) may be
289 recorded in the island depositional sequence as shown in Tepuka (Funafuti atoll) where
290 episodic changes in dominant sediment type was observed, from foraminifera to coralline
291 algae (Kench et al., 2014). Lastly, intense storms and cyclones are able to have catastrophic
292 impacts on the living ecology of reef systems, yielding large pulses of sediment that can
293 form or add to island sediment reservoirs (Bayliss-Smith, 1988). For example, at Tutaga
294 (Funafuti atoll) episodic storms transported large coral blocks from the forereef to the
295 reef flat to build the island (Kench, McLean, et al., 2018). On the eastern side of the same
296 atoll, Cyclone Bebe (1972) delivered more than $1.4 \times 10^6 m^3$ of coral rubble to the reef
297 surface (Maragos et al., 1973), which ultimately increased island area by 10-20% (Baines
298 and McLean, 1976; Kench, McLean, et al., 2018). Similar observations of storm-induced
299 activity have been responsible for episodic island accumulation in the Marshall Islands
300 (Blumenstock et al., 1961; Ford and Kench, 2016; Kench et al., 2022), Ballast Island, Japan

301 (Kayanne et al., 2016), and Lady Elliot Island in the Great Barrier Reef (Chivas et al.,
302 1986).

303 The island sediment volumes and rates of sediment supply calculated in this study
304 provide first-order estimates that can be related to estimates of contemporary sediment
305 production on reef surfaces. It is important to note that there have been few attempts
306 to quantify detrital sediment generation on coral reefs and no field-based investigation
307 of rates of sediment delivery to island shorelines. Census-based approaches have been
308 adopted to determine the net calcium carbonate budget of reef platforms (Perry et al.,
309 2012) and in such studies the generation of detrital material is treated as a loss term.
310 A number of studies have identified the production rate of benthic organisms and the
311 role of specific bioeroding organisms in breaking down coral framework to detrital sediment
312 (Hart and Kench, 2007; Morgan and Kench, 2016a; Perry et al., 2015). More recently,
313 Perry et al. (2020, 2023) has generated holistic estimates of total detrital sediment generation
314 at sites in the central Indian Ocean yielding site-specific rates ranging from 0.5 to $4.5\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$.
315 We take the midpoint of $2.5\text{kg}\text{CaCO}_3\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ as a typical reef-average value for sediment
316 production on atoll reef platforms. Using satellite images of atoll islands in this study,
317 we find a geographically-averaged shallow reef width to be of 241m. This width covers
318 inner reef flat, outer reef flat and reef crest geomorphic zones. We assume the fore reef
319 productivity is the same as that on the reef platform and consider a 30 meter wide fore
320 reef (extending to 10m depth assuming a 1:3 slope). We thus consider a value of 271m
321 for the reef sediment generation width covering the reef flat, reef crest and fore reef. We
322 multiply the assumed typical sediment production value in unit square meter by the average
323 reef width, yielding a sediment production of 680kg CaCO_3 per unit meter reef length
324 per year.

325 The geographically-averaged value for sediment delivery rates is $0.118\text{m}^3\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$
326 (Table 1 in Supporting Information) and using a value for the coral density of $1.50\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$
327 (Morgan and Kench, 2012) yields an average delivery rate of $177\text{kg}\text{CaCO}_3\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$.
328 The sediment supply to Indo-Pacific coral reef islands therefore represents an average
329 26% of the sediment production on the reef platform. The estimated rate of sediment
330 supply is thus significantly lower than the rate of sediment production. Indeed, sediment
331 deposition on islands is one among several identified sediment sinks: Morgan and Kench
332 (2014) found high off-reef export of 127,120kg each year at Vabbinfaru reef, Maldives.
333 This represents 59% of the 214,000kg of sediments produced each year at Vabbinfaru (Morgan
334 and Kench, 2016a). Less than half of the sediments produced remains on the reef platform
335 and a substantial part of it is likely to be trapped in submarine reefal reservoirs without
336 reaching the island. Morgan and Kench (2016b) found further strong disparity in the composition
337 and texture of sediment assemblages between submarine reefal reservoirs and island deposits:
338 coral-dominated very well sorted medium sand was found on the island beach whereas
339 coarser and moderately sorted coral rich sand was collected in the lagoon. This disparity
340 between reef and island sediments suggests that atoll islands are very selective sediment
341 sinks, storing only a small fraction of the reef sediment production while the majority
342 remains in submarine reservoirs on the reef flat, lagoon, or is exported off reef.

343 Significantly, our results provide an empirical basis to support ongoing work to further
344 constrain sediment delivery rates in models of morphodynamic adjustment of atoll islands
345 to SLR. However, contemporary sediment delivery rates to atoll islands are likely to change
346 in the incoming decades with climate change and SLR. As described in-depth in Perry
347 et al. (2011), sediment production and supply to the island will depend on how reef ecology
348 and sediment transport will respond to anthropogenically driven environmental changes
349 such as SLR, increasing sea surface temperatures (SSTs), change in storm patterns, change
350 in water quality (e.g. acidification, eutrophication) and over-fishing. Rates calculated
351 here might thus be used as a starting point for building sediment supply projections in
352 the context of anthropogenic environmental changes.

353 This study provides the first estimate of long-term sediment delivery rates to coral
 354 reef islands, using all available data from the literature. Results point towards a rate of
 355 c. $0.1 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$, but with a substantial variability among reef islands (range of 0.017-0.37
 356 $\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$). Comparison between sediment delivery rates and sediment production
 357 rates using values for the Maldivian Archipelago suggests that the sediment supply to
 358 coral reef islands is on average 26% of the amount of carbonate sediment produced on
 359 the reef platform. This provides insights into one of several sediment sinks in reef platform
 360 sediment budget. Where island building has been continuous, long-term sediment delivery
 361 rates values are a good starting point for building sediment projections into morphodynamic
 362 modelling of atoll island evolution due to climate change. These projections would help
 363 constraining further morphodynamic models and better understanding atoll islands adjustments
 364 in response to climate change and SLR, and help optimise adaptation strategies.

365 Open Research Section

366 No new data were used in this study. Seventeen previous studies provided geochronological
 367 and topographic data for 28 coral reef islands in the Indo-Pacific region, corresponding
 368 references are contained in Table 1 in Supporting Information.

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528 **Acknowledgments**

529 This research was funded by an UKRI grant EP/X029506/1 awarded to Gerd Masselink.