

## A Middle Miocene carbonate embankment on an active volcanic slope: Ilhéu de Baixo, Madeira Archipelago, Eastern Atlantic

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Carbonate factories on insular oceanic islands in active volcanic settings are poorly explored. This case study illuminates marginal limestone deposits on a steep volcanic flank and their recurring interruption by deposits linked to volcanoclastic processes. Historically known as Ilhéu da Cal (Lime Island), Ilhéu de Baixo was separated from Porto Santo, in the Madeira Archipelago, during the course of the Quaternary. Here, extensive mines were tunnelled in the Miocene carbonate strata for the production of slaked lime. Approximately 10 000 m<sup>3</sup> of calcarenite (–1 to 1ø) was removed by hand labour from the Blandy Brothers mine at the south end of the islet. Investigations of two stratigraphic sections at opposite ends of the mine reveal that the quarried material represents an incipient carbonate ramp developed from east to west and embanked against the flank of a volcanic island. A petrographic analysis of limestones from the mine shows that coralline red algae from crushed rhodoliths account for 51% of all identifiable bioclasts. This material was transported shoreward and deposited on the ramp between normal wave base and storm wave base at moderate depths. The mine's roof rocks are formed by Surtseyan deposits from a subsequent volcanic eruption. Volcanoclastic density flows also are a prevalent factor interrupting renewed carbonate deposition. These flows arrived downslope from the north and gradually steepened the debris apron westwards. Slope instability is further shown by a coral rudstone density flow that followed from growth of a coral reef dominated by *Pocillopora madreporacea* (Lamarck), partial reef collapse, and transport from a more easterly direction into a fore-reef setting. The uppermost facies represents a soft bottom at moderate depths in a quiet, but shore-proximal setting. Application of this study to a broader understanding of the relationship between carbonate and volcanoclastic deposition on oceanic islands emphasizes the susceptibility of carbonates to dilution and complete removal by density flows of various kinds, in contrast to the potential for preservation beneath less-disruptive Surtseyan deposits. Copyright © 2013 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

Accumulation of carbonate sediments has long been recognized as forming part of a dynamic, multifaceted system with deep roots in the geological record (Wilson, 1975; Scholle *et al.*, 1983). Despite early contributions by Darwin (1839, 1844) on coastal limestone deposits from Santiago in the Cape Verde Islands, the standard literature on carbonates provides few observations on non-reef deposits around volcanic islands. For example, Soja (1993) noted the widespread misconception that conditions must have been unfavourable for the development and “preservation of carbonates in

environments surrounding active volcanic arcs and other island chains located in isolated parts of ocean basins.” More recently, there have appeared a host of papers on such carbonate deposits, most of them used as markers for eustasy and uplift on oceanic islands in the Cape Verde Islands (Zazo *et al.*, 2007, 2010), Canary Islands (Zazo *et al.*, 2002; Meco *et al.*, 2007), and the Azores (Ávila *et al.*, 2009). Submerged lava aprons with steep underwater slopes are commonly generated by emerging oceanic island systems. Such systems have been investigated regarding patterns of volcanoclastic deposition (Watton *et al.*, 2013). Comparatively little is known, however, about carbonates preserved between eruptive episodes and reactivation of lava flows.

The Portuguese island of Porto Santo and two of its associated islets (Ilhéu de Baixo and Ilhéu de Cima, Fig. 1) in the Madeira Archipelago (North Atlantic Ocean) exhibit Middle

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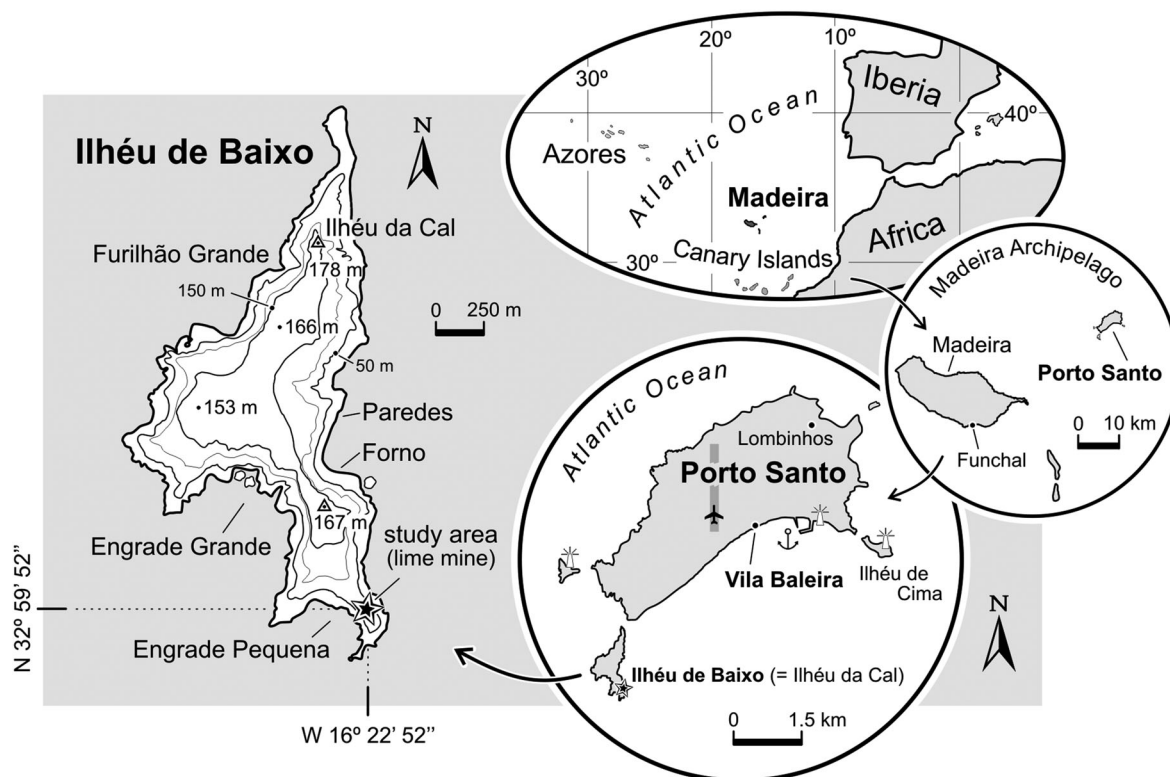


Figure 1. Maps at various scales for the eastern part of the North Atlantic Ocean, the Madeira Archipelago, Porto Santo with its satellite islets, and Ilhéu de Baixo showing the location of the limestone mine in the study area.

Miocene (Langhian–Serravallian) limestone accumulations that record a wide range of palaeoecological settings contemporaneous with active oceanic volcanism. Previous studies have focused on Ilhéu de Cima, the south-eastern islet with a hurricane deposit dominated by unusually large rhodoliths on one flank (Johnson *et al.*, 2011) and more sheltered rocky shores with variable biotas including a small fringing reef, as well as encrusting red algae, corals and bivalves, boring bivalves, barnacles, and boring barnacles together with localized *in situ* rhodoliths on the opposite flank (Santos *et al.*, 2011, 2012a, b, c). Ilhéu de Baixo (also known as Ilhéu da Cal or Lime Islet) was the site of earlier studies on a Miocene coral reef (Chevalier, 1972; Boekschoten and Best, 1981; Best and Boekschoten, 1982). Coral rudstone crops out at more than one stratigraphic level on the island, but it was other calcarenites that sustained the local mining industry for production of slaked lime during the mid-1800s to mid-1900s. The opening to an extensive network of mine tunnels remains easily visible at multiple levels around the islet.

During our investigation of the Blandy Brothers mine at the south end of Ilhéu de Baixo, a cursory examination by hand lens of rock samples from surviving mine pillars suggested that crushed rhodolith debris contributed to at least some of the mine's product. Finding the composition

and sedimentary origins of the calcarenite was the starting impetus for this study, which was expanded to include corollary investigations on the depositional setting of coral rudstones and other limestone deposits above the stratigraphic level of the mine. Volcaniclastic layers and basalt flows fully dominate the bulk of Ilhéu de Baixo and underscore the additive construction of volcanic components from a nearby source. Thus, a further goal of this study is to understand the dynamics under which the more limited limestone deposits preserved on the island were incorporated with coeval volcanic by-products on the flanks of an active oceanic volcano.

## 2. LOCATION AND GEOLOGICAL SETTING

The Madeira Archipelago is situated 650 km off the north-west coast of Africa in the North Atlantic Ocean. Porto Santo is an outlying island located 50 km northeast of the principal island of Madeira (Fig. 1). The geological map by Ferreira (1996) covers Porto Santo and several satellite islets, at a scale of 1:25 000. The volcanic succession in the eastern part of Porto Santo is described by Schmidt and Schmincke (2002). That part of the island

né (1974). The reef limestone with *Strophomena madreporacea* (Lamarck) is 0.6 m thick, sitting on volcanoclastic gravel (Boekschoten and Best, 1981; 1982). The interbedded submarine volcaniclastic sediments, and fossil-bearing limestone in this study are younger than the ones at Paredes and Forno previously described by Boekschoten and Best (1981). The section is located at the extreme south end of the island leading to the mine portal above the west side of the island (Figs. 1

**METHODS**

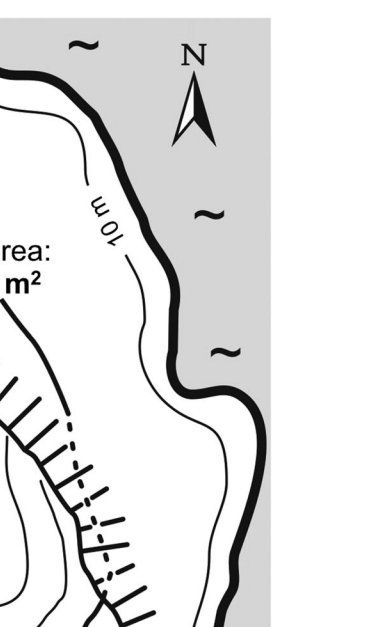
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over the mine galleries is supported by a roof of volcaniclastic strata, roughly square in plan, generally 1.6 to 2.5 m in thickness, and from 1.6 to 2.5 m in width. The area of the mine covers a total area of 1.6 to 2.5 m<sup>2</sup>. It can be estimated that approximately 1.6 to 2.5 m<sup>3</sup> of ore was extracted by hand labour over the mine. Volcaniclastic strata form the

## METHODS

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Blandy Brothers limestone mine as series of  
the island above the mine is basalt.

strata adjacent to and above portals outside the Blandy Brothers mine on both the west and east sides of Ilhéu de Baixo. Care was taken to register occurrences of trace fossils in addition to macrofossils.

Within the mine, four rock samples were collected at strategic locations for preparation of thin sections using a combination of large (5 cm × 7.5 cm) and standard (3 cm × 2 cm) slides. The percentage of bioclast and abiogenic clast components in each sample was determined by counting 400 points per slide at 0.5-mm intervals using a mechanical stage on the petrographic microscope. Three trials were conducted for each slide to test the reliability of the counts. These parameters were chosen so as to maximize accuracy and confidence in calculation of average percentages according to the guidelines of Van der Plas and Tobi (1965). Because voided spaces due to dissolution were encountered in all samples and because micrite proved problematic as to specific biological origins, a subset of data was tabulated to show the average percentages among all identifiable bioclasts in each sample.

With regard to the prominent stratum of coral rudstone above the mine, coral identification was based on the surveys of Boekschoten and Best (1981) and Best and Boekschoten (1982). In order to test the possible degree of post-mortem transport, a compass was used to measure the orientations of the long axes of 100 coral colonies larger than 15 cm in diameter exposed in the cliff face on the west side of the island and another 100 from the same stratum on the east side of the island. The mean direction of corallum growth was measured starting from the youngest (smallest) part of the colony as pointed on a midline towards the centre of the oldest (largest) part of the colonies. Sample quadrates of 20 × 20 cm were used to collect quantitative data on trace-fossil content preserved on the coral surface.

## 4. FACIES DEFINITIONS AND RELATIONSHIPS

### 4.1. Stratigraphic overview

Seen from the sea, the east side of Ilhéu de Baixo provides an excellent cross-section of the overall stratigraphic succession (Fig. 3A). Carbonate layers discerned as thin, light-coloured carbonate bands are extensively mined (white arrows on Fig. 3B). Intercalated between the carbonates are dark-coloured volcanoclastic wedges that thicken strongly towards the north (black arrow, 2, Fig. 3B). The same kind of sequence is seen even further north, sloping in the opposite direction. Many of the volcanoclastic beds terminate near the south end of the island (Fig. 3C). This study is concerned with the youngest sediment package found at the southern end of the island

(black arrow 1, Fig. 3B, section between the white arrows in Fig. 3C). The section is sandwiched between layers of matrix-supported hyaloclastite and pillow breccia with isolated pillows (following the classification of Watton *et al.*, 2013) and a 7-m-thick layer of pillow basalt. It starts with the lowest, mined carbonate seam (Fig. 3D and E), followed by volcanoclastic conglomeratic layers and renewed limestone deposition (between the arrows in Fig. 3C). Stratigraphic logs show that the succession can be divided into four facies (Fig. 4) as described below.

### 4.2. Facies I: fine-grained massive carbonates

Facies I consists of massive, medium to well-sorted and medium- to very coarse-grained carbonates (wackestone to packstone). The lithic content is low and decreases upwards. Whole fossils are scarce and floating in the matrix. Rare macrofossils include whole and fragmented rhodoliths, scattered pectinid bivalves, and gastropods. The contact with the underlying bed is not exposed in an accessible profile. Photographs of the vertical cliff on the west section (Fig. 3C) indicate that the limestone rests on mixed submarine pillow lava, pillow breccia, and hyaloclastites. The measured strike (210°) and dip (9°) are to the SSW (e.g. very close to the orientation between the two measured sections).

The east section exposes a profile close to the full thickness of the bed (3 m), while in the west section, the lower parts are obscured by mining debris (Fig. 4). Very coarse-grained carbonate sand with a few floating, well-rounded basalt cobbles are seen in the east section, while the west section reveals medium-grain size carbonate without basalt clasts and a poorly diverse ichno-assemblage consisting of *Bichordites* isp. and *Dactyloidites* isp. in the upper part of the bed.

Four thin sections were sampled from the middle level of the limestone bed; two come from the west side, one in the middle of the mine, and another from the east side. The four counts are remarkably similar (Tables 1–4) and are, therefore, treated jointly. Micrite is the dominant component (>50%). The wackestone to packstone is characterized by well-rounded red algal grains (~50% of the bioclastic grains), frequently surrounded by micritic rims or envelopes (Fig. 5A, B black arrow). Fragments of bivalves (Fig. 5A) are common, while coral fragments, foraminifers, and echinoderm fragments are frequent. Gastropods occur mainly as ghosts surrounded by sparry micrite. Rare bryozoans and serpulids are also present. Identified foraminifers are benthic forms such as *Textularia* sp., *Amphistegina* sp., and unidentified rotaliids (Fig. 5C–E). The bioclasts, together with unsorted angular to subangular basalt clasts, are grain supported for the most part, interspersed with areas



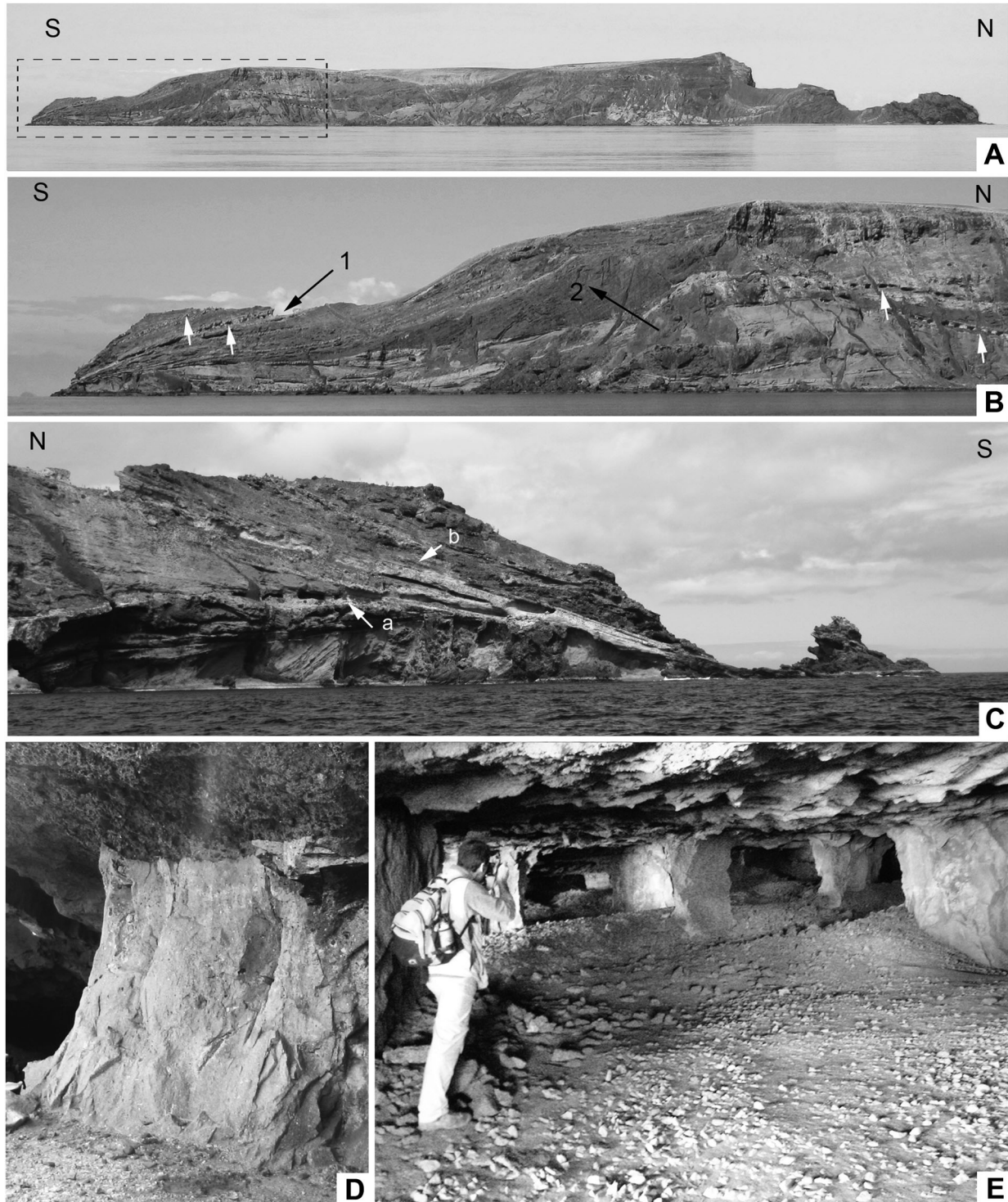


Figure 3. Views of Ilhéu de Baixo and details of the Blandy Brothers limestone mine: (A) View of the island's entire east coast from a distance of about 4 km (north–south island length is 2.75 km and elevation at the north end is 178 m above sea level) with box showing area of enlargement in the next photo, (B) near view of the island's south end from a distance of about 2 km (white arrows as related to black arrow 1 point to mine portals in the cliff face; black arrow 2 marks a dark-coloured volcanoclastic wedge), (C) south end of Ilhéu de Baixo viewed from the west (white arrows “a” and “b” mark the *ca.* 8 m stratigraphic interval shown in Fig. 4, log A starting with the mined calcarenite; dark openings to the left of “a” are mine portals), (D) outer mine pillar on the east side of the mine is 2.2 m high, (E) interior view of galleries and support pillars (person for scale).

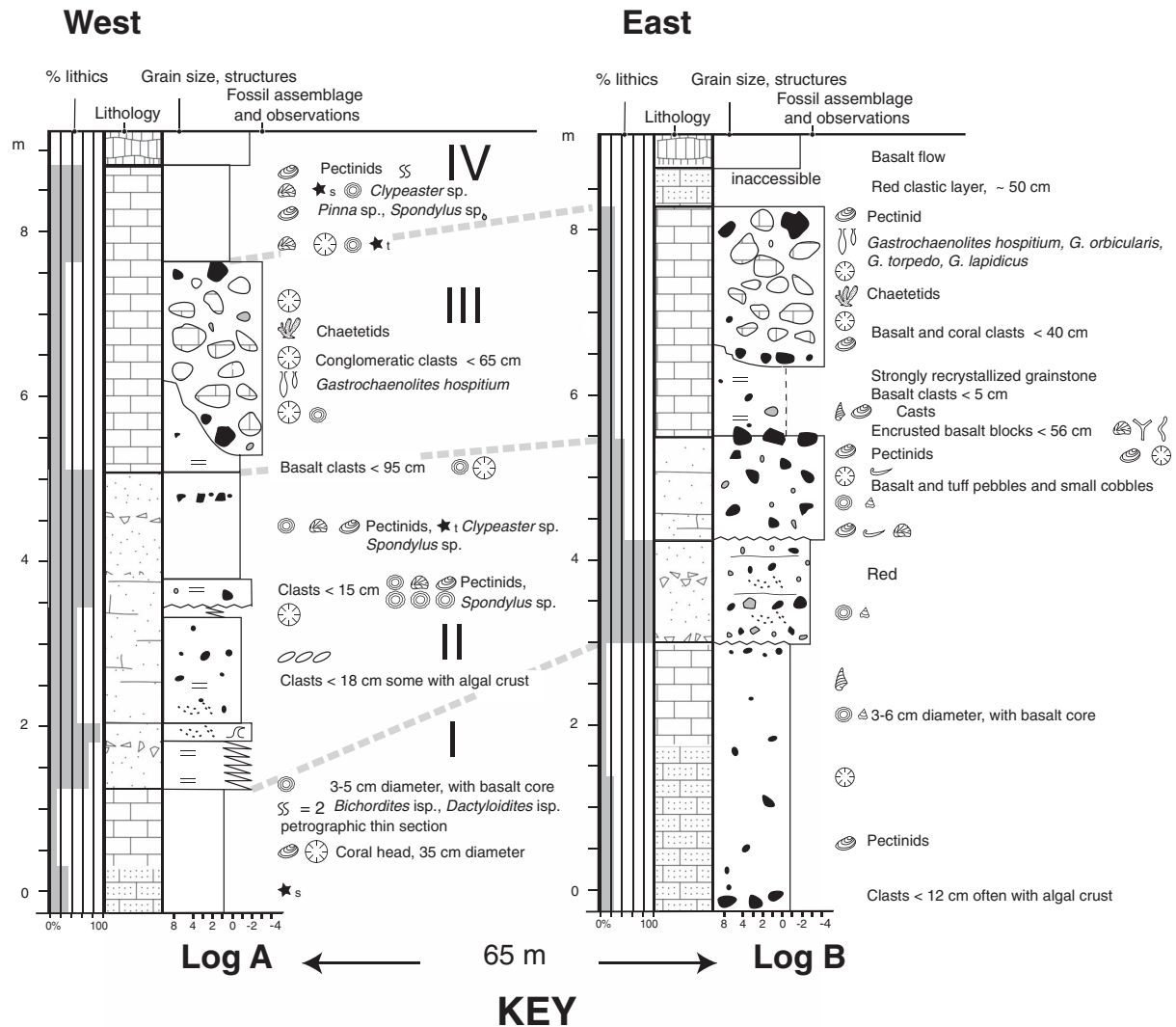


Figure 4. Stratigraphic sections from opposite sides of the Blandy Brothers mine: west side (A) and east side (B).

CALCARENITES ON UNSTABLE SLOPE OF VOLCANO

Table 1. Point-count data from mine pillar 1a

	Run 1		Run 2		Run 3		Average
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	%
Matrix	164	41	163	39	167	42	41
Void	65	16	90	21	57	14	17
Red algae	57	14	54	13	51	13	13
Bivalves	17	4	12	3	22	6	4
Gastropods	2	0.5	2	0.5	6	2	1
Corals	4	1	10	2	10	3	2
Foraminifers	12	3	8	2	10	3	3
Echinoderms	12	3	9	2	4	1	2
Bryozoans	2	0.5	2	0.5	4	1	1
Undetermined	3	1	3	1	3	1	1
Basalt	64	16	70	17	66	15	16
Total	402	100	423	101	400	101	
Bioclast counts							
Red algae	57	52	54	54	51	46	51
Bivalves	17	16	12	12	22	20	16
Gastropods	2	2	2	2	6	5	3
Corals	4	4	10	10	10	9	8
Foraminifers	12	11	8	8	10	9	9
Echinoderms	12	11	9	9	4	4	8
Bryozoans	2	2	2	2	4	4	3
Serpulids	0		0		0		0
Undetermined	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total	109	101	100	100	110	100	101

Table 2. Point-count data from mine pillar 1b

	Run 1		Run 2		Run 3		Average
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	%
Matrix	193	48	197	48	197	48	48
Void	55	14	61	15	59	14	14
Red algae	41	10	58	14	48	12	12
Bivalves	20	5	21	5	23	6	5.3
Gastropods	1	0.2			2	0.5	0.2
Corals	8	2	5	1.2	8	2	1.7
Foraminifers	5	1.2	4	1	6	1.3	1.2
Echinoderms	6	1.5	7	1.7	6	1.3	1.5
Bryozoans	3	0.7	1	0.2			0.3
Serpulids	1	0.2					0.1
Undetermined	2	0.4	2	0.5			0.9
Basalt	66	16.5	54	13	59	14.5	14.7
Total	401	99.7	410	99.6	408		99.9
Bioclast counts							
Red algae	41	49	58	59	48	52	53
Bivalves	20	24	21	21	23	25	23
Gastropods	1	1			2	2	1
Corals	8	10	5	5	8	9	8
Foraminifers	5	6	4	4	6	6	5
Echinoderms	6	7	7	7	6	6	6.7
Bryozoans			1	1			0.3
Serpulids	1	1					0.3
Undetermined	2	2	2	2			0.6
Total	84	100	98	99	93	100	97.9

Table 3. Point-count data from mine pillar 2

	Run 1		Run 2		Run 3		Average
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	%
Matrix	229	57	253	62	220	51	57
Void	16	4	20	5	16	4	4
Red algae	68	17	45	11	68	16	15
Bivalves	18	5	24	6	31	7	6
Gastropods	4	1	1	0.2	7	1.5	1
Corals	10	3	7	1.7	21	5	3
Foraminifers	8	2	11	2.7	14	3	2.5
Echinoderms	3	0.6	5	1	8	2	1.2
Bryozoans			6	1.5	14	3	1.5
Serpulids					3	0.6	0.2
Undetermined	2	0.5					0.2
Basalt	41	10	38	9	31	7	8.5
Total	399	100.1	410	100.1	433	100.1	100.1
Bioclast counts							
Red algae	68	61	45	45	68	41	49
Bivalves	18	16	24	24	31	19	20
Gastropods	4	4	1	1	7	4	3
Corals	10	9	7	7	21	13	9.5
Foraminifers	8	7	11	11	14	8	8.5
Echinoderms	3	3	5	5	8	5	4
Bryozoans			6	9	14	8	5.5
Serpulids					3	2	0.5
Undetermined							
Total	111	100	99	99	166	100	100

Table 4. Point-count data from mine pillar 3

	Run 1		Run 2		Run 3		Average
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	%
Matrix	231	58	207	52	215	53	54
Void	33	8	38	10	40	10	9.3
Red algae	64	16	56	14	49	12	14
Bivalves	23	6	24	6	25	6	6
Gastropods	2	0.5	5	1	5	1	0.8
Corals	7	2	8	2	15	4	2.6
Foraminifers	2	0.5	5	1	6	1	0.8
Echinoderms	3	0.8	1	0.3	13	3	1.4
Bryozoans	1	0.2	6	1.5	2	0.5	0.7
Serpulids			2	0.5	1	0.2	0.2
Undetermined					1	0.2	
Basalt	34	8.5	47	12	37	9	10
Total	400	100.5	399	100.3	409	99.9	99.8
Bioclast counts							
Red algae	64	63	56	52	49	39	51
Bivalves	23	23	24	22	25	20	22
Gastropods	2	2	5	5	5	4	3.6
Corals	7	7	8	7	15	12	8.5
Foraminifers	2	2	5	5	6	5	4
Echinoderms	3	3	1	1	13	10	4.5
Bryozoans	1	1	6	6	11	9	5
Serpulids			2	2	1	0.7	1
Undetermined					1	0.7	0.3
Total	102	101	107	100	126	100.4	99.9



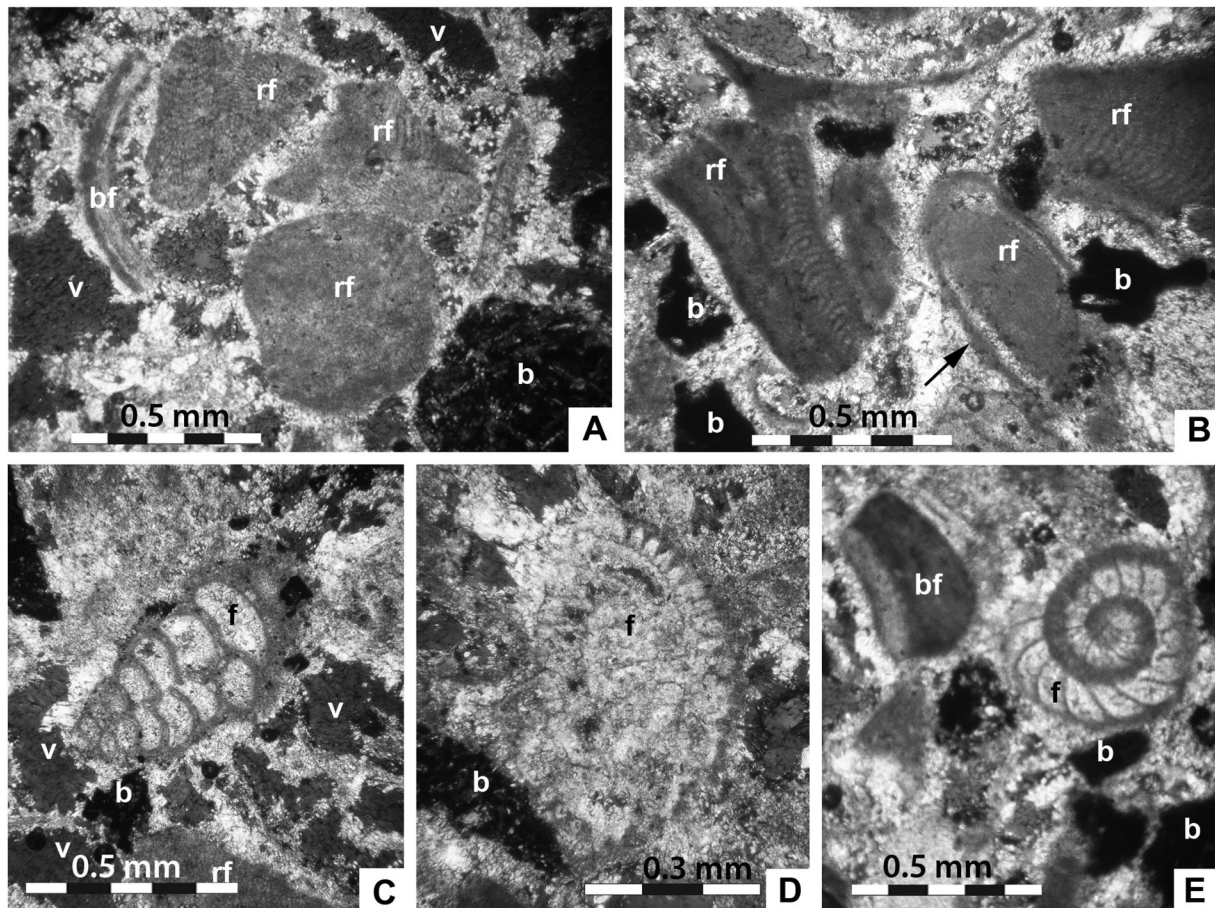


Figure 5. Thin-section photographs showing a typical assortment of bioclasts and other features: (A) Well-rounded rhodolith fragments (rf), basalt fragments (b), and bivalve fragments (bf) are floating in a sparry micritic matrix among voids (v), (B) coralline red algal fragments (notice the micritic envelope, black arrow), (C) longitudinal section of *Textularia* sp., (D) oblique section of *Amphistegina* sp. (f), (E) unidentified rotaliid foraminifer (f).

more rich in micrite. The only clear difference between the east and west ends of this unit is a decrease in grain size from east to west and a lower percentage of voids in the middle of the mine.

#### 4.3. Facies II: conglomeratic tuffs and tuffites

Facies II (Fig. 4) consists of tuffs, tuffites, and thick-bedded conglomeratic beds with a predominantly volcanoclastic matrix. The clasts are mainly basalt, but tuff also is common. Clast size varies strongly between beds (Figs. 3D top and 6A, B) and laterally within beds. Finer grained beds are often thin to very thin-bedded and may lack erosive bases. Imbrication of larger clasts can be observed in some of them. Dish and flame structures are common near the base of many beds (Fig. 6B, arrow 1), and the bases are often erosive. Some of the coarser conglomeratic beds show reversed grading and large, angular to rounded boulders at the top, projecting into the overlying layer (Fig. 6B, white arrow 2). Scattered, marine fossils occur throughout the layer.

In the east section (Fig. 4), large basalt boulders at the top of beds and more rarely within beds are encrusted by oysters, *Spondylus* sp., serpulids, and bryozoans (Fig. 6B, C). Oysters are also commonly floating in the matrix. Encrusted blocks are not seen on the west side. The west section, however, displays thin, graded, rhythmic beds and flatly laminated to thinly bedded layers in between and lateral to the coarser conglomeratic beds. There is a pronounced fining of beds southwards. This is well observed in the first bed above Facies I laying conformably on the carbonates (Fig. 6A). *Clypeaster* sp. and pectinid bivalves occur in the upper layer of this facies.

#### 4.4. Facies III: exotic boulders and coral rudstone

Facies III consists of carbonates with about 30% lithic content. The lower bed is a flatly laminated and strongly recrystallized, coarse-carbonate sand (grainstone). It incorporates mainly small basalt clasts and bioclasts (Fig. 6D, E, lower bed). The overlying thick bed is a coral rudstone



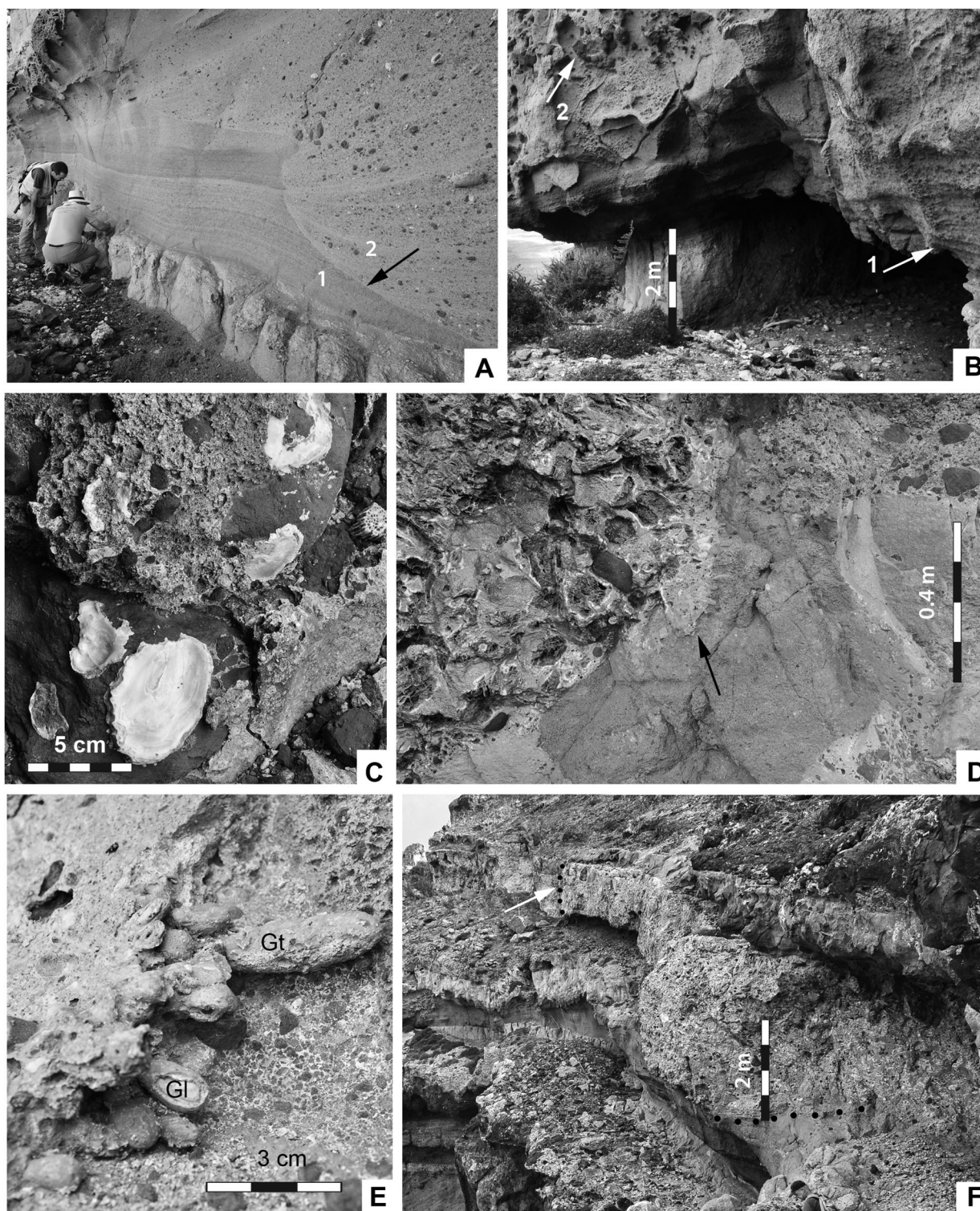


Figure 6. Volcaniclastic and carbonate facies: (A) Surtseyan deposits (1) conformable above the calcrenites of Facies I and cut by a hyperconcentrated density flow (2); black arrow demarcates the boundary, (B) Facies I (light coloured) overlain by Facies II, showing a bedded hyperconcentrated density flow with dish structures at the base (arrow 1) followed by a graded hyperconcentrated flow with encrusted basalt boulders at the top, (C) detail of basalt boulders with encrusting oysters, (D) Facies III showing underlying laminated limestone with a large exotic block on the east side (notice the bioerosion, black arrow); a mix of coral-head boulders and basalt boulders is seen in the overlying rudstone, (E) details from figure D showing the borings *Gastrochaenolites torpedo* (Gt) and *G. lapidicus* (Gl), (F) view northwards on west side showing limits of the coral rudstone marked by a dashed line (notice the termination towards the north, white arrow; wedge-shaped beds of volcaniclastic density flows occur below the arrow).



that contains mostly angular and eroded cobbles and boulders of corals, chaetetid sponges, and large clasts of basalt floating in a poorly sorted granular carbonate matrix (Fig. 6D, upper bed, F). Both the coral heads and the sponges tend to be conical in shape, reflecting whole heads and broken branches of large corals. Growth directions of corals were measured near both stratigraphic sections. Rose diagrams (Fig. 7) show a majority of the coral colonies lying sidewise pointing upslope or downslope, while the rest are either in upright position or, rarely, upside down.

The corals *Pocillopora madreporacea* (Lamarck) and *Tarbellastrea reussiana* (Milne-Edwards and Haime) are most commonly represented. Many are bored by pholad bivalves, which occurred both during active growth and after the corals were dead (Fig. 8A). The bivalve *Lithophaga* (*Leiosolenus*) sp. sometimes occurs in *G. hospitium* Kleemann (Fig. 8A, arrow 2, B and C, black arrows). The ichnotaxon *Gastrochaenolites orbicularis* Kelly and Bromley appears most commonly (Fig. 8C, white arrow), sometimes with the body fossil *Jouannetia* sp. within the boring (Fig. 8A, arrow 1). Many of these borings gave rise to geopetals showing that the tilt of the overall sedimentary

unit is mainly synsedimentary. Some chaetetid sponge heads are found encrusted on basalt boulders (Fig. 8D).

On the east side, a bioeroded exotic block measuring  $1.60 \times 0.95$  m occurs in the lower laminated layer together with abundant casts of bivalves (Fig. 6D). The borings occurring in the block are *Gastrochaenolites lapidicus* Kelly and Bromley and *G. torpedo* Kelly and Bromley (Fig. 6E). The overlying coral rudstone shows more basalt cobbles within the bed on the east side compared with the west side, especially near the base and the top. Due to the steepness of the cliff face, lateral relations are difficult to discern on the east side. The measured logs of this facies on both sides are very similar (Fig. 4A, B). However, by looking north on the west side, it is possible to see a wedge-shaped, conglomeratic, and volcanoclastic bed inserted within Facies III, between the lower bed and the coral rudstone bed (Fig. 6F, below the white arrow). The wedge has been eroded away by the coral rubble in the measured section but reappears as a thin band below the coral rudstone further to the south. The rudstone bed thins to the north and south. A similar thinning and thickening is apparent on the east side. The overlying Facies IV occurs lateral to the termination of the coral bed (Fig. 6F, white arrow).

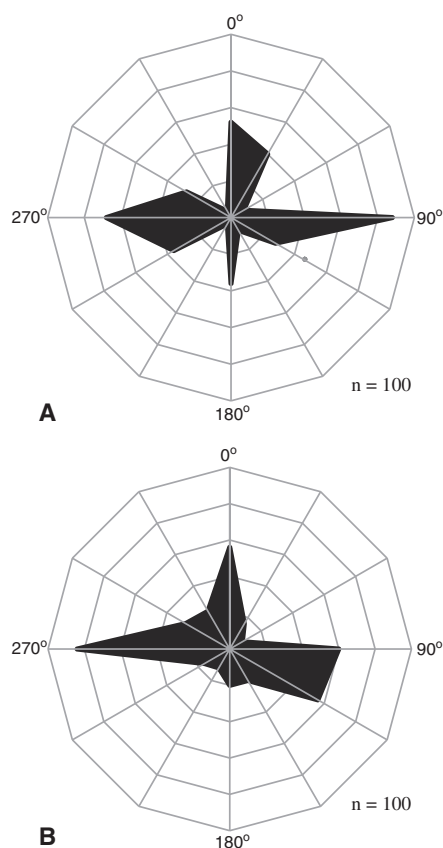


Figure 7. Rose diagrams showing orientations of large coral fronds (*Pocillopora madreporacea*) in Facies III: (A) west side and (B) east side.

#### 4.5. Facies IV: calcareous volcanoclastic sand

This facies is a massive, poorly sorted, medium- to coarse-grained volcanoclastic sand with high carbonate content, wackestone to packstone (Figs. 4 and 8E). Facies IV is not accessible on the east side. However, the unit there is fairly thin with a uniform thickness and a similar red colour to the fine-grained volcanoclastic beds below. Facies IV is well exposed on the west side, both in the logged section and as a large bedding surface further south. There is a diverse but scattered fossil fauna consisting of rhodoliths and pectinid bivalves mixed with *Pinna* sp., *Spondylus* sp., echinoderm spines and tests, and also coral heads (Fig. 8F).

The large (540 m<sup>2</sup>) bedding plane 40 m south of the measured section (Fig. 8G) with a dip of 20° SW reveals numerous tests, spines, and trace fossils from irregular echinoids such as *Clypeaster* sp. and *Spatangus* sp. The bivalves *Isognomon* sp., *Spondylus* sp., and *Pinna* sp. and the gastropod *Conus* sp. also are common. Towards the northern end of the bedding plane occur small (<50 cm in diameter) patches of corals encrusted by *Spondylus* sp. and serpulids showing a mix of coral heads in upright position and lying sideways (Fig. 8F). These corals are strongly bored. The bivalve borings are arranged sub-perpendicular and sub-horizontal to the coral surface and some of them demonstrate so-called calcareous false floors. Counts from 11 sampling grids (20 × 20 cm) yielded an average number of 8.8 *G. torpedo* per grid (97 specimens total) and 11.8 *G. hospitium* per grid (130 specimens total). Pillow lava and pillow breccia cap both sections.

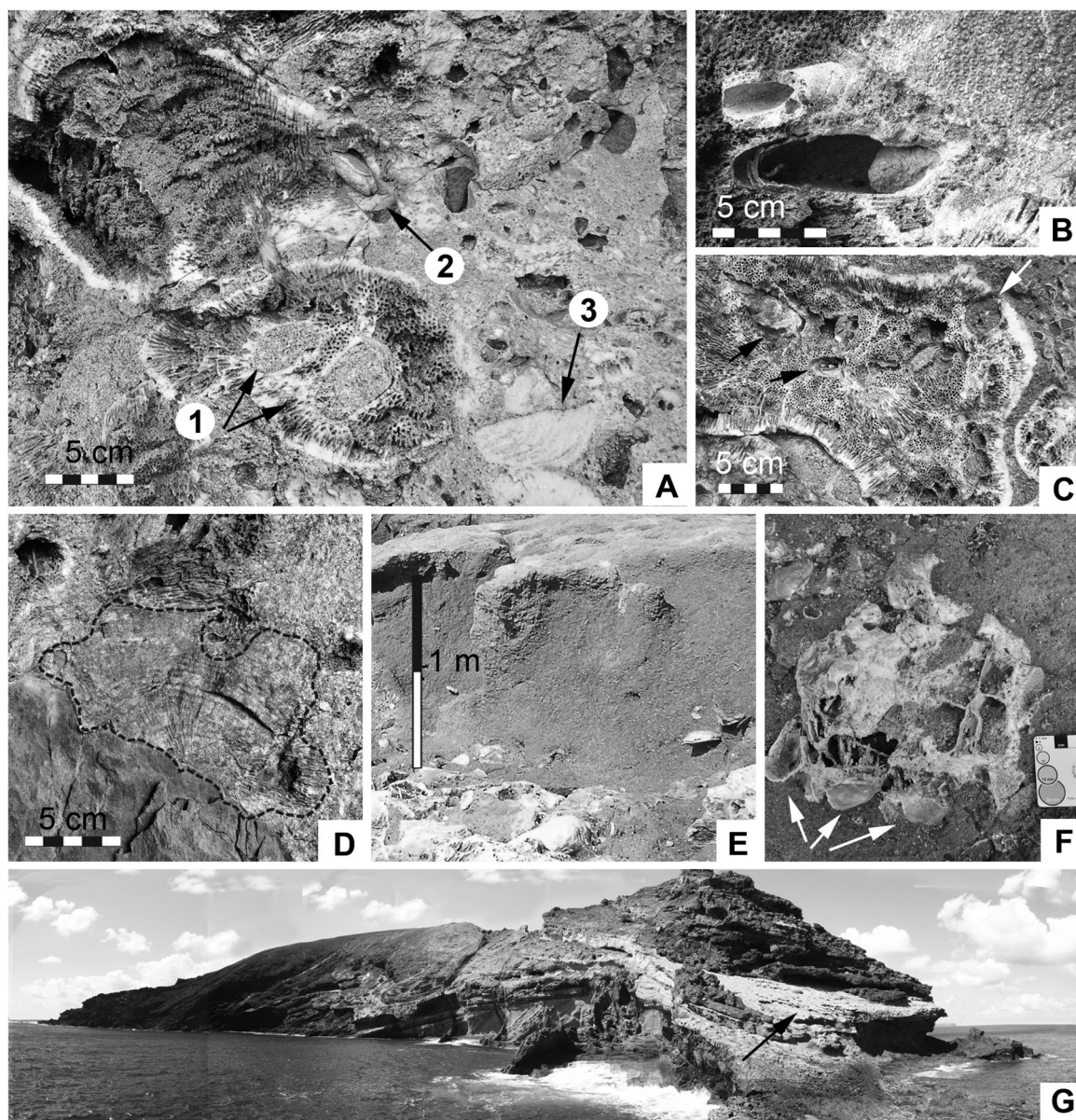


Figure 8. Sedimentological details from Facies III and IV: (A) bioeroded coral heads from Facies III (arrow [1] show two cross-sections of the bivalve *Jouannetia* sp., the producer of *Gastrochaenolites orbicularis*, [2] points to the ichnofossil *Gastrochaenolites hospitium* infilled with a fossil of its producer *Lithophaga* (*Leiosolenus*) sp., [3] points to two fragments of chaetetid sponges [notice many basalt clasts show an envelope of coralline calcareous algae]), (B) the ichnofossil *G. hospitium* with its producer *Lithophaga* (*Leiosolenus*) sp. in the coral *Cyphastrea* sp., (C) the ichnofossil *Gastrochaenolites orbicularis* in *Pocillopora madreporacea*, (D) chaetetid sponge (marked by dashed lines) encrusting on a basalt boulder, (E) Facies IV seen from the west side, (F) patch of worn corals encrusted by *Spondylus* sp. (see arrows), (G) overview photo of the study site looking north; the large bedding plane of Facies IV is marked by an arrow.

## 5. FACIES INTERPRETATIONS

Figure 3B shows a strong presence of hyaloclastites and other volcanoclastic sediments interspersed with thin basalt layers that point to a volcano in the vicinity to the NNE. Figure 3C, depicting the studied section, demonstrates how the slope became progressively steepened. All the units investigated include marine fossils with marine trace fossils found

both in the basal and top layers that indicate that the sequence was deposited in a submarine setting on the flank of a volcano. The studied section was deposited in a prograding prodelta to distal delta front, and no passage zone is preserved in the lava sequence above. However, approximately 7-m-thick pillow lava flows immediately overlying the section indicate the minimum absolute depositional depth for the sediments at the top.



Geopetals measured in the coral rudstone in the east section south of the mine opening show that the measured dip represents the original synsedimentary slope. Carbonate deposition occurred intermittently during periods of volcanic quiescence between episodes of volcanoclastic deposition. There is a clear fining-westward pattern in grain size between the two measured sections in all facies (Fig. 4), confirming a more proximal marine setting for the east section.

### 5.1. Interpretation of Facies I

This facies represents the incipient development of a carbonate ramp banked against the flank of a volcano. Because the dip is 9° SSW and the two sections are 65 m apart lying on strike, the absolute difference in depth between the east and west sections was close to 10 m. Both macrofossils and thin section analysis indicate open-marine conditions. Pectinids and the abundant rhodolith debris suggest transportation from an offshore source, as typical of Pliocene carbonates in the Gulf of California (Eros *et al.*, 2006).

The foraminifers are all benthic and indicate a relatively shallow depth, as does the unusually poor *Bichordites/Dactyloidites* ichno-assemblage emplaced towards the top of Facies I on the west side. Microfacies analysis demonstrates a high proportion of micrite in both sections, and this suggests that the layer was deposited below normal wave base. Many bioclastic grains have micritized rims and envelopes indicating a long residence time under stable conditions. The *Bichordites/Dactyloidites* ichno-assemblage is commonly related to a soft substrate in high-energy environments (Pickerill *et al.*, 1993; Gibert and Goldring, 2008). Thus, this facies most likely was deposited above storm wave base, but below normal wave base in an environment occasionally disturbed by storms.

### 5.2. Interpretation of Facies II

The basal layer above Facies I is a typical example of a Surtseyan deposit (e.g. it originated from a coeval volcanic eruption and settled out of the water column, hence a tuff showing no erosive base). Imbrication of clasts in the slightly coarser, but still thinly bedded tuffites immediately above, together with erosive bases also in the conglomeratic tuffite, indicates transport. These represent good examples of subaqueous density flows as defined by Mulder and Alexander (2001). The flows correspond to debris flows and hyperconcentrated density flows, including grain flows. The presence of trace fossils below and above shows that all the flows occurred in a marine setting and the transition from debris flows through hyperconcentrated flow into grain flows signifies an increasing ingress of water and marine sediments into the flows. These flows originated by

reworking of volcanoclastic flows and Surtseyan deposits in a lava apron and may have been created by the collapse of the coastal margin, a submarine volcanic cone, or the submarine parts of a lava delta. Oyster-encrusted boulders are typical of recent and ancient beaches (Hayes *et al.*, 1993; Johnson and Baarli, 2012). Most likely, these Miocene boulders were picked up and swept into a flow originating close to or overrunning the shore.

### 5.3. Interpretation of Facies III

Facies III represents a period of renewed carbonate production and quiescence expressed by the lower carbonate bed, interrupted by two episodes of density flows originating from shallower positions. The large bioeroded block found on the east side in the lower carbonate bed preserves *Gastrochaenolites torpedo* and *G. lapidicus* bioerosion, indicating it came from a site with a low to zero sedimentation rate in a shallow setting (Bromley and Asgaard, 1993). The shear size of the block may indicate collapse of a shallow, nearby, underwater cliff, sea stack, or channel wall into the site of deposition below.

Like the conglomeratic tuffite debris flow below, belonging to Facies II, the coral rudstone also is interpreted as a debris flow. In contrast to the conglomeratic tuffites originating to the NNE, these coral cobbles are clearly transported from the ENE, and the bed has a strongly erosive base. This flow also appears to have cannibalized parts of the first debris flow and incorporated basalt cobbles from it.

### 5.4. Interpretations of Facies IV

This facies consists of unsorted coarse volcanoclastic sand with a high carbonate content that reflects a lack of winnowing by waves or currents and the strong influence both from volcanoclastic sources on land and adjacent production of marine carbonates. The most common fossil group is echinoids and their associated traces, *Bichordites* isp. These, together with the bivalve *Pinna* sp., indicate a soft substrate.

Immediately overlying is a 7-m-thick basalt flow showing that the absolute depth for both sections was at least 7 m. Because the 20° dip is close to the original slope of the synsedimentary sea bottom, there was more than a 20-m difference in depositional depth between the east and west sides of the island. Thus, the section on the west side may have been deposited at comparable depths or slightly deeper than Facies I. However, the amount of basalt sand is vastly higher than in Facies I, so it was probably in a more proximal position relative to the shore.

## 6. DISCUSSION

### 6.1. Discussion of Facies I

Rhodolith grains are dominant among the bioclastic grains from Facies I. A few whole rhodoliths are present, but rare. The flank of a volcano and the steep and unstable front of an active lava delta would not be favourable for an organism that requires occasional rotation like rhodoliths. Indeed, looking at the modern occurrences of living rhodoliths at Porto Santo, we find that they live on the relatively level bottom of the bay and not along the steep shoreface. Near-shore fossil rhodoliths mainly are transported onshore, as found at Ilhéu de Cima (Johnson *et al.*, 2011), although they may also occur in limited numbers in depressions on narrow shelves (Santos *et al.*, 2012c). Open-marine platforms occasionally swept by storms are among the most commonly interpreted settings for rhodoliths (Martin *et al.*, 1993). Therefore, a major influx of rhodolith material from offshore banks is most likely.

The study site is situated on the south side of Ilhéu de Baixo and is further sheltered by the main island of Porto Santo, an island that was considerably larger when it was formed during the Miocene time (Schmidt and Schmincke, 2002). The micritized rims and envelopes on bioclastic grains indicate generally stable conditions. Also, the presence of trace fossils in the upper parts of the bed shows they represent primary deposits. This distal part of the volcanic flank, therefore, must have experienced longer periods of volcanic quiescence.

The *Bichordites/Dactyloidites* ichno-assemblage present at the top of Facies I is commonly connected to high-energy environments, specifically storm facies (Johnson *et al.*, 2012). It most likely records the very occasional storm or hurricane that typically approached from the SSE (Johnson *et al.*, 2011). The same authors argued that hurricanes probably were more frequent during Miocene time on Porto Santo, although only seldom experienced in the region during recent times (Vaquero *et al.*, 2008). Thus, this facies was deposited in a calm environment only very occasionally disturbed by storms.

The foraminifer species *Amphistegina lessonii* d'Orbigny was reported from Ilhéu de Baixo by da Silva (1959). This is a species that requires high light and moderate energy conditions. It has an optimum depth range between 5 and 30 m (Hallock and Glen, 1986). This evidence supports that the mined layer was originally deposited below normal wave base at moderate depths, but above storm wave base.

This facies includes 16–17% basalt grains, showing there was a steady influx of volcanoclastic material that might have contributed to the soft substrate. Many carbonate-producing organisms have difficulties tolerating a high influx of insoluble clasts. Mobile animals, i.e. those with a

morphology adapted to an unstable substrate with low-light levels, and self-cleaning organisms are best adapted for such a setting (Wilson and Lokier, 2002). The above-mentioned authors found that echinoderms, worms, large benthic foraminifers, some corals, large molluscs, and coralline algae were frequently found in areas with high volcanoclastic input. This assemblage is closely comparable to the organisms present in Facies I.

### 6.2. Discussion of Facies II

All flows discussed are gravity driven and both Surtseyan tuffs and the density flows are typical of the distal parts of lava deltas in pre-emergent and emergent volcanic settings (Watton *et al.*, 2013). Coarse-grained density flows in Facies II are predominant on the east side, while the finer flows mainly occur at the west side. This signifies settling of flows and increasing incorporation of water and marine sediments into the flows with increased distance from the source and distance downslope. The density flows may originate at the water's edge due to synsedimentary wave-induced reworking in the shore zone, or as described by Schneider *et al.* (2004) from the Mio-Pliocene of Gran Canaria, as reworking of volcanic debris avalanches that entered the sea. They may also result from secondary reworking and slumps during a delta-front collapse (Watton *et al.*, 2013). Because many of the flows in Facies II (Fig. 3C, left of arrow a) terminate closer to the source, Surtseyan deposits interspersed with undisturbed carbonate beds are most common distally. In this case, the section is terminated by a 7-m-thick lava flow, indicating that the site probably was at the transition between a prodelta and the distal delta front.

### 6.3. Discussion of Facies III

The fact that few corals appear in an upside-down position probably reflects a limited amount of turbulence within the flow. This debris flow arrived with coral heads from another direction than those in Facies II. It terminates towards the northwest, and the cross-section indicates a transport direction from the northeast. This suggests that a reef was building out in that direction and the coral rudstone density bed signifies partial reef collapse and slope failure with final deposition in a fore-reef environment. Some corals are able to tolerate a nearly continuous influx of volcanoclastic influx (Wilson and Lokier, 2002; Lokier *et al.*, 2009), but major reef development may have required a longer period without major volcanoclastic influx and stable slopes between lava deltas. The reef, itself, supported a rich fauna in terms of both corals and bioeroders.

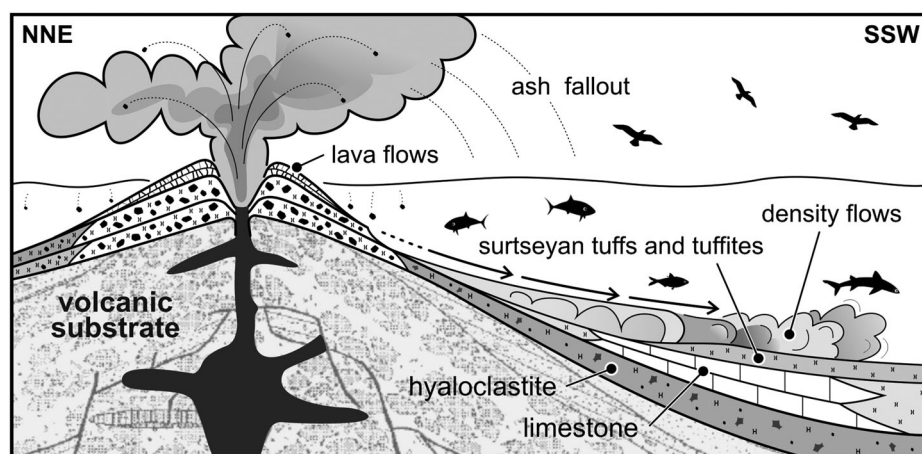


Figure 9. Diagrammatic sketch to summarize the placement of carbonate facies on the flanks of an active volcano on Ilhéu de Baixo (adapted from Schmidt and Schmincke, 2002, figs. 13G and H).

Chaetetids are often associated with cryptic environments such as submarine caves within reefs or dimly lighted fore-reefs (Reitner and Engeser, 1987). These sponges commonly occur in the coral rudstone. However, chaetetids also are found encrusting the large basalt boulder (Fig. 8D) that was eroded from the volcanic debris flow below. Thus, it is difficult to know if the sponges inhabited the reef or came from another environment upslope, farther to the north.

#### 6.4. Discussion of Facies IV

Census counts show that the coral patches in Facies IV are very strongly bioeroded, while encrusting bivalves show little bioerosion. This may mean that the corals were transported into this environment and later became encrusted by the bivalves *in situ*. The facies appears to represent a quiet-water environment probably protected by a newly developed reef towards the east where the corals originated. The fauna is mixed, but many elements represent near-shore organisms that cement themselves to a hard substrate. The over-steepening of the bottom of this bed was due to the progradation of a lava delta consequential to the build-up of volcanoclastic density flows down the slope as they gradually increased the steepness of the island's flank. Thus, this facies developed in a more proximal position to the shore than Facies I.

#### 6.5. Preservation of a carbonate ramp in a delta-front setting

Carbonates from volcanoclastic environments are well described by Wilson and Lokier (2002) from Neogene deposits of Indonesia. However, their study looks at lava delta-front patch reefs and compared them to carbonate platforms with a terrigenous influx. The present Ilhéu de Baixo study deals with an incipient carbonate ramp formed at a relatively high

angle at the foot of a delta front punctuated by volcanoclastic density flows and terminated by a lava flow. Where patch reefs have sufficient time to develop, they can be predicted to stand as positive features deflecting volcanoclastic density flows that divert around them. It is likely that a ramp is more apt to be buried. Also, where flows are frequent enough, the carbonates may be incorporated into flows with little trace of the original bed or a chance to development into a ramp.

Only the basal carbonate bed and the topmost carbonate-rich layer in Facies IV include trace fossils preserved near the top. The tuffitic hyperconcentrated density flows occurring in the middle of the sections contain considerable amounts of carbonate sediment and must have eroded deeply into the carbonate beds below. The maker of the trace fossils, *Bichordites* isp., burrows to a depth of 15 cm below the seafloor (Bromley and Asgaard, 1975). *Dactyloidites* isp. is made by a worm-like animal and burrows very superficially just below the sediment surface (Gibert *et al.*, 1995). Any trace of such organisms that lived in the surface layers would likely be removed by a passing density flow at the same time as shells and other organic debris were incorporated. Basaltic flows often "bake" and recrystallize the topmost layer of a limestone, destroying primary structures, although the effect is limited to the contact zone. This is in contrast to Surtseyan deposits that may promote the preservation of carbonates. If thick enough, Surtseyan deposits should protect carbonate beds from erosion by subsequent density flows. Thus, explosive eruptions have the general potential to help preserve distal carbonate deposits (Fig. 9).

## 7. CONCLUSIONS

Porto Santo in the Madeira Archipelago is an oceanic island that retains an array of carbonate beds intercalated between



basalt flows and/or volcanoclastic sediments indicating a fascinating diversity of dynamic environments. A satellite islet to Porto Santo, Ilhéu de Baixo, adds to this diversity. Six core findings underscore the results of this study in the context of active volcanism and slope failure on the flank of a Middle Miocene oceanic island.

- 1 The investigated sections consist of carbonate beds incorporated within the apron of an active volcano on an oceanic island. The carbonates were deposited during periods of relative volcanic quiescence but punctuated by influx of volcanoclastic materials, either as primary Surtseyan deposits or as subaqueous density flows reworked from Surtseyan deposits and volcanoclastic flows.
- 2 Initially, an incipient carbonate ramp was emplaced on the prodelta to distal delta front under the influence of open-marine conditions. This interval of carbonate sediments was deposited below normal wave base, but above storm wave base. From an ecological perspective, bioclasts in this facies are dominated by crushed bits of rhodoliths (coralline red algae), which account for 13% of the whole or 51% of all identifiable bioclasts. The rhodolith material was most likely transported shoreward from an offshore bank. Other bioclasts feature contributions from bivalves, gastropods, corals, echinoderms, bryozoans, and foraminifers. In addition, trace fossils created by echinoderm and worm-like organisms are present, reflecting on organisms tolerant of a steady influx of volcanoclastic material.
- 3 Progradation of the lava delta front mainly represented by piles of hyaloclastites deposited as density flows contributed to local steepening of the sea floor and the introduction of large bioeroded and encrusted carbonate blocks from a near-shore collapse.
- 4 Presence of a parent reef is indicated by a coral rudstone density flow generated by the collapse of an upslope structure. This density flow originated from the east, while the delta front advanced from a NNE direction.
- 5 Ending the sequence, carbonate-rich volcanoclastic sand accumulated in a quiet fore-reef environment sufficiently stable to support burrowing by echinoderms. The deposit also includes coral colonies transported downslope and encrusted after transport by *in situ* bivalves. The entire section is terminated by a 7-m-thick flow of pillow lava that indicates the minimum water depth for the preceding deposit.

This study shows how carbonate beds embanked on the margins of active volcanic islands are subject to different outcomes. Carbonates are at strong risk of being reworked and incorporated into density flows of various kinds, to the extent that any trace of their former development as distinct bed forms is erased. Alternatively, Surtseyan deposits and less erosive lava flows may help to preserve carbonate beds that accumulated during intervals of relative volcanic quiescence.

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