

Erosion-initiated stromatolite formation in a recent hypersaline sabkha setting (Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates)

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Abstract

Laminated microbial mats and microbialites are documented from a variety of coastal marine environments. These features form through: a) the combination of trapping and binding of allochthonous grains, and b) microbially-mediated or controlled precipitation of a variety of minerals, including high-magnesium calcite and dolomite. Intertidal pools and associated microbial features have been previously documented from the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi, but have not been studied in detail. This study therefore aims to provide the first detailed descriptions of thrombolite and stromatolite structures in the coastal sabkha complex of Abu Dhabi. These detailed descriptions will be utilised to develop a new model for their formation, and to consider the implications for the interpretation of similar features from the depositional record. It is proposed here that the development of intertidal pools within the laminated microbial mat zone is the result of localised erosion as a result of storm surges and tides. The formation of erosional scours, which continued to develop into the pools observed today, led to a switch in microbial communities from filamentous cyanobacterial mats into coccoid cyanobacterial mats as a result of reduced environmental stress under conditions of permanent flooding. In addition, the continuous circulation of seawater initiated the abiotic lithification of submerged microbial mat and carbonate rudstone by acicular aragonite cements. Simultaneously, (proto-)dolomite was formed in the stromatolites between individual laminae that were enclosed by a bacterial extra-polymeric substance. These structures therefore developed through the combined effects of erosion, abiotic early lithification and microbially-mediated processes, and may actively respond to changes in sea level. The thrombolites and stromatolites therefore represent a link between unlithified laminated microbial mats and domal stromatolites. This model of stromatolite formation has strong implications for the interpretation of similar fossil structures observed in ancient stratigraphic sequences.

1 Introduction

Stromatolites are laminated benthic microbial deposits (Riding, 1999) that form through lithification processes mediated or controlled by microbial communities of archaea, bacteria and/or diatoms (Dupraz et al., 2011). The term stromatolite, Greek for "layered rock", was first introduced by Kalkowsky (1908). Modern stromatolites are well documented from a variety of coastal marine settings, particularly Highborne Cay on the Bahamas (Andres and Reid, 2006; Stolz et al., 2009; Bowlin et al., 2012) and Shark Bay in Western Australia (Logan, 1961; Reid et al., 2003; Jahnert and Collins, 2013). Microbial mat and stromatolite deposits are also common in a variety of other coastal marine settings, including Lagoa Vermelha in Brazil (Vasconcelos et al., 2006), Cayo Coco lagoon on Cuba (Bouton et al., 2016), the Dohat Faishakh sabkha in Qatar (Brauchli et al., 2016), the Caicos Platform in the western Atlantic Ocean (Trembath-Reichert et al.,

47 2016) and the sabkha complex of Abu Dhabi in the United Arab Emirates (Evans, 1966; Kendall and Skipwith,
48 1968; Court et al., 2017). Thrombolitic, hemispheroid microbial mat deposits and stromatolite-like features
49 were previously briefly mentioned from the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi (Kendall and Skipwith, 1968), yet,
50 to date, no detailed description and interpretation of these features has been undertaken.

51 This study aims to provide the first detailed descriptions of the thrombolite and stromatolite structures in
52 the coastal sabkha complex of Abu Dhabi. These detailed descriptions will be utilised to develop a new
53 model for their formation, and to consider the implications for the interpretation of similar features from
54 the depositional record.

55 2 Study area

56 The study area is located in the southeastern Arabian/Persian Gulf, herein referred to as the Gulf, ap-
57 proximately 50 km to the southwest of Abu Dhabi City (Fig. 1 A, B). The Gulf is classified as a shallow,
58 Mediterranean-type sea, indicating that water circulation is induced mainly by seasonal salinity and tem-
59 perature differences (Dietrich, 1980). Water depth in the Gulf is 35 m on average, reaching 100 m in the
60 Strait of Hormuz (Purser and Seibold, 1973). The Gulf exhibits a micro-tidal regime with a tidal range of 1.5
61 m in open marine areas and less than 1.0 m in the lagoons (Evans, 1970). The southern coastline of the Gulf
62 experiences annual temperature variations between 7 °C during winter months and 50 °C during summer
63 months (Lokier, 2012). Annual average rainfall reaches a maximum of 72 mm, with most of this precipita-
64 tion occurring during storm surges in winter months from December to March (Raafat, 2007). Evaporation
65 (2750 mm per year) far exceeds rainfall (Bottomley, 1996).

66 The southeastern part of the Gulf is a northward-sloping carbonate ramp depositional system s.l. Wilson
67 (1974). Environmental conditions on this carbonate ramp initially facilitated the deposition of mixed silici-
68 clastic-carbonate sands as a result of the transgression that followed the last glacial maximum (Evans et al.,
69 1969; Lambeck, 1996; Lokier and Steuber, 2008). The initial formation of a vast microbial mat belt and
70 associated evaporites commenced during the stillstand with a subsequent decrease in the rate of relative
71 Holocene sea level rise between 7,100 - 6,890 cal yrs BP (Lokier et al., 2015). This was followed by the
72 retrogradation of surficial microbial and evaporite facies belts as a result of further relative sea-level rise,
73 a highstand during the Atlantic stage in the Middle Holocene, and subsequent progradation during the
74 middle to late Holocene fall in relative sea level (Lokier and Steuber, 2008; Lokier et al., 2015).

75 From seaward to landward, surface facies of the modern sabkha (Fig. 1 C) consists of peloidal carbonate
76 sands in the lower and middle intertidal zone (lagoon), a coast-parallel microbial mat belt in the upper
77 intertidal zone, and evaporite precipitates in the supratidal zone (Evans et al., 1969; Kendall and Skipwith,
78 1969). The spatial occurrence of these facies belts is controlled by the local angle of slope and therefore
79 depends on the duration of daily flooding by the tides (Court et al., 2017). The microbial mat belt varies in
80 width between 150 to 800 m and is classified based on surface morphologies that result from the duration
81 of daily flooding. From seaward to landward, these zones are: cinder, polygonal, crinkle and flat zone
82 (Kendall and Skipwith, 1968).

83 3 Methodology

84 Satellite imagery provided by Google Earth Pro was used to identify areas in the intertidal zone where
85 channels and pools were present. A field reconnaissance campaign in January 2016 identified an area con-
86 taining an ephemeral ponds network, tidal channels and the intertidal pool that is the focus of this study.
87 The morphology of the pool was mapped using a Garmin GPSmap 78 device; the data was subsequently
88 imported and processed in Quantum GIS 2.18 (Quantum GIS Development Team, 2009). Microbial fea-
89 tures, stromatolite-like features, thrombolites and other sedimentary and/or biological characteristics of
90 the pool were comprehensively documented. Subsequent monitoring and sampling visits were made from
91 January 2016 and May 2017. Any visible changes to the morphology of the pool and individual features
92 were documented during these visits, including colour, size and shape thrombolites, sediments within the
93 pool, of the stromatolites and of the surrounding microbial mat. Three specimens of stromatolite from the
94 margin and one specimen of thrombolite from the pool centre were manually recovered and subsequently
95 stored in seawater in plastic containers.

96 A GP1 compact weather station (Delta-T Devices) was used to measure atmospheric data between April
97 2016 and July 2017. The station was installed 3 km landwards from the studied pool, at 1.20 m above
98 ground surface (Fig. 1 C). The station continuously measured air temperature, air humidity, wind direc-
99 tion, wind speed, and precipitation. Due to a battery failure, no data is available for February and March
100 2017. Barometric pressure and additional temperature data was measured at 30 minute intervals between
101 February 2016 and June 2017 with a Baro-Diver barometric logger (Van Essen Instruments). Barometric
102 pressure was used to compensate the water level logger data (see below). The lateral distance between
103 GP1 weather station and barometric logger was approximately 2 km (see Fig. 1 C). Data analysis and visu-
104 alisation were conducted in the statistical computing language R (R Core Team, 2017), in the programming
105 language Python version 2.7.10 (Van Rossum, 1995) and in PAST version 3.15 (Hammer et al., 2001).

106 The physico-chemical characteristics of the water in the studied pool were measured using an Ultrameter II
107 6PFC device (Myron L Company), which provided point data on temperature, conductivity, total dissolved
108 solids (TDS), oxidation-reduction potential (ORP), resistivity and pH. Due to the very high amounts of dis-
109 solved solids in the water, resistivity measurements with the Ultrameter II were off-scale at all times and,
110 thus, were not used for further interpretations. Salinity was measured using a Brix-type refractometer with
111 automatic temperature compensation. Water level was monitored from February to October 2016 using a
112 CTD-diver water level logger installed 5 cm above the pool base within a sill that is open on two sides (Van
113 Essen Instruments). Water level was recorded as pressure in mbar, with a barometric conversion applied
114 by subtracting barometric pressure from the water level pressure, under the assumption that 1 mbar = 1
115 cm of H₂O.

116 The stromatolite features were investigated at the micro-scale using a Quanta 200 (FEI) scanning electron
117 microscope (SEM), located at The Petroleum Institute of Khalifa University of Science & Technology. One
118 hand specimen was selected from which representative sections were broken off, cleaned with compressed
119 air, mounted on metal stubs, and coated with a palladium/gold mixture. The energy-dispersive X-ray spec-
120 troscopy mode (EDX) of the SEM was used to semi-quantitatively characterise element compositions of
121 specific features such as unknown mineral phases.

122 Standard-sized petrographic thin sections were prepared from three stromatolite specimens including the
123 specimen that was investigated in the SEM. The pieces were cut using a diamond rock saw and subsequently
124 left to dry in the laboratory for 24 hours. Each sample was then impregnated with blue resin in a vacuum
125 chamber in order to enhance the visibility of pore space under the optical microscope.

126 4 Results

127 4.1 Environmental Data

128 Air temperatures recorded by the GP1 weather station ranged between 8.4 °C and 48.9 °C; air temperatures
129 recorded by the barometric logger ranged between 8.9 °C and 53.7 °C (Fig. 2 A). The highest temperatures
130 were recorded during July and August, while the lowest temperatures were recorded during February.
131 Total precipitation during the measurement period amounted to 7.6 mm, mainly resulting from torrential
132 rainfall events in January and February 2017 (Fig. 2 A). March 2017 experienced heavy rainfall, but, as
133 previously mentioned, this data was not recorded by the weather station due to a battery failure. Therefore,
134 the rainfall data represent a minimum value for the measurement interval. The primary wind direction
135 throughout the recording period was from the north-west (Shamal), with secondary winds from the south
136 (Fig. 2 C). Wind directions typically switched twice a day between onshore and offshore due to adiabatic
137 processes. Wind speed varied between 0.3 - 15.4 m/s with a mean of 3.7 m/s (Fig. 2 C, D).

138 Water temperatures in the pool ranged between 11.7 °C and 46.8 °C during the measurement period (Fig. 2
139 B). The lowest water temperatures were recorded in February while the highest water temperatures were
140 recorded in August. Salinity ranged between 75.0 ‰ to 93.0 ‰, accompanied by pH values between 7.3
141 to 8.1. Of the remaining physico-chemical parameters, conductivity values ranged between 100.0 - 118.7
142 mS/cm, TDS values ranged between 75.0 - 91.26 parts per thousand (ppt), and ORP values ranged from 79
143 mV to 100 mV.

144 The tidal regime in the studied pool is semi-diurnal micro-tidal, with a water depth ranging from a minimum
145 of 19 cm up to a maximum of 109 cm (Fig. 2 B).

146 4.2 Pool morphology and hydrological regime

147 The data presented here are from an intertidal pool located at the seaward edge of the polygonal zone
148 (star-symbol on Fig. 1 C). These polygons are known to form as a result of organic matter production in a
149 spatially-limited microbial community (Lokier et al., 2017). The studied intertidal pool is horseshoe shaped
150 and open on its seaward and landward sides (Fig. 3 A, B). The seaward opening of the pool corresponds to
151 the landward end of a tidal channel that extends into the lower intertidal and subtidal zones. The landward
152 opening is a narrow lithified sill that forms a connection to an elevated ephemeral pond system (Fig. 4).
153 The pool exhibits a perimeter of 80 m and an area of 250 m². The height difference between the floor of
154 the pool and its rim ranges between 20 and 30 cm. The floor of the pool is always submerged beneath
155 seawater, in stark contrast to its location in the mid-intertidal zone.

156 4.3 Macro-scale sedimentary and biological features

157 The general stratigraphy at this locality (Fig. 3 C) consists of Pleistocene to early Holocene aeolian siliciclastic
158 sands, overlain by a shallow-marine carbonate hardground of mid-Holocene age (Lokier and Steuber, 2009;
159 Paul and Lokier, 2017), followed by an overlying unconsolidated to lightly-cemented bioclastic rudstone
160 that is further overlain by laminated microbial mat. Though the seaward side of the pool the hardground
161 is locally exposed, the hardground is covered by an organic ooze that measures up to 70 mm thick at the
162 landward side (Fig. 5 A, B).

163 Accumulations of soft gravel-sized grains are observed throughout the pool. These grains vary in colour
164 and typically accumulate in small troughs and/or in the current-shadow of thrombolite patches and bands.
165 The grains vary in diameter between 5-10 mm and are irregularly shaped (Fig. 6 A). The grains contain
166 sub-mm scale inclusions of bioclastic grains and benthic foraminifera (Fig. 6 B - D).

167 Clotted microbial (thrombolite) fabrics are distributed within the pool as domal or semi-continuous dm
168 to m-long bands (Fig. 7 A). The structures typically measure between 5-20 cm in width, and exhibit relief
169 above the hardground of between 10-25 cm. The structures are coloured brown to dark brown, and they
170 are characterised by a spongy consistency that likely reflects a dominantly coccoid cyanobacteria com-
171 position (*Entophysalis?*). A mm-thick cover of bioclastic grains is present on-top (Fig. 7 B). Marine brown
172 or green algae grow on the outer edges of individual thrombolites marking the absolute minimum water
173 depth within the pool. Internally, the domal structures consist of two intervals (indicated on Fig. 3 C): a
174 10 cm thick laminated lower stromatolite interval at the base of the thrombolite is attached to the un-
175 derlying hardground (Fig. 8 B). The upper interval is a true thrombolite and exhibits crude laminations
176 corresponding to differently-coloured microbial communities interlayered with bioclasts (Fig. 8 A).

177 The margins of the pool exhibit the same vertical facies variations, but are partially-undercut by up to
178 10 cm (Fig. 9). Moving away from the pool laterally, the coccoid cyanobacterial communities transition
179 within decimetres into a finely-laminated and polygonal filamentous microbial mat (Fig. 10). Elongate
180 scours oriented perpendicular to the shoreline are distributed throughout the polygonal microbial mat zone
181 (Fig. 11). These scours cut through the laminated polygonal microbial mat but do not crosscut individual
182 polygons. They are shallowest at their seaward edge and gradually deepen towards their landward edge.
183 They host a variety of microbial communities that resemble the organic ooze in the pool, with colours
184 ranging from beige to very dark green.

185 4.4 Micro-facies and structures of lithification features

186 4.4.1 Petrographic thin sections

187 The stromatolites of the pool margins consist of microbial extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) draped
188 over apparently acicular aragonite cement and allochthonous grains (Fig. 12 A, B). Bacterial filaments are
189 observed on top of an EPS layer. Where this EPS layer is removed, dolomite precipitates are visible (Fig. 12 C,
190 D). Based on EDX measurements, the crystals contain between 20.71 – 40.37 % Mg, while the surrounding
191 matrix exhibits a significantly lower Mg content of 14% (Fig. 12 C, D). Cyanobacteria are represented by
192 the remainders of bacterial tubes in the matrix surrounding the dolomite crystals (Fig. 12 B, E). At some
193 localities, EPS appears to be draped on-top of the tips of acicular aragonite (Fig. 12 F).

194 4.4.2 Scanning electron microscopy and EDX

195 The stromatolites of the pool margin contain lithoclasts, bioclasts and peloidal grains (Fig. 13 A). These
196 grains are enclosed by a dark-coloured microbial layer. Moldic porosity is observed after dissolution of
197 well-rounded peloidal grains (Fig. 13 B). Molds are partially to completely filled by radial acicular aragonite
198 cement. Intergranular pore space is also filled with acicular aragonite cements (Fig. 13 C, D). Microbial
199 and/or organic laminae are discontinuous with a degraded appearance (Fig. 13 E, F).

200 5 Discussion and Interpretation

201 5.1 Environmental comparison with other stromatolite provinces

202 The environmental conditions in the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi and in the intertidal pool where obser-
203 vations were made are akin to those of Hamelin Pool in Shark Bay, Western Australia. Commonalities are
204 observed in air and water temperatures, salinity range and in the tidal regime including daily range in water
205 level height (Table 1). Other coastal marine lagoonal stromatolite and/or microbial mat provinces exhibit
206 less extreme overall environmental conditions but share some common characteristics; these include La-
207 goa Vermelha (Barbière, 1985; Höhn et al., 1986), Cayo Coco (Bouton et al., 2016) and Highborne Cay of the
208 Bahamas (Andres and Reid, 2006; Bowlin et al., 2012).

209 5.2 Pool formation and lithification processes

210 Based upon the observations made during this study, a new model is proposed here for the initiation and
211 evolution of the intertidal pools and their associated microbial features - stromatolites and thrombolites
212 (Fig. 14).

213 The initial phase of formation of the intertidal pools in the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi is the development
214 of erosive scours within the polygonal microbial mat zone (Fig. 14 A to B). These scours form during storm
215 events, spring tides or perigean tides. The removal of the protective layer of trapping and binding micro-
216 bial mat exposes the underlying unlithified sediments to erosion. Over time, the unlithified sediment is
217 removed and the scours are eroded down to the level of the basal hardground.

218 The margins of the newly formed pool are susceptible to continued erosion, leading to the lateral extension
219 of the pool (Fig. 14 C, D). In contrast, the areas of sediment that are not eroded are lithified by aragonite
220 cements, possibly as a result of continuous circulation by seawater oversaturated with respect to Ca^{2+} and
221 Mg^{2+} and resulting marine lithification in the Gulf (Shinn, 1969; Wood and Sanford, 2002; Paul and Lokier,
222 2017). This lithification occurs initially through the dissolution of bioclastic, ooidal or peloidal grains that are
223 trapped between laminated microbial mat layers. The moldic pores that remain after dissolution, as well
224 as intergranular pore spaces, are subsequently filled by acicular aragonite cements. Microbial mediation
225 in the precipitation of this aragonite cement may play a significant role (Reid et al., 2003).

226 The permanent flooding of the pool is the result of a terracing effect analogous to the flow of water on
227 travertine terraces (Fig. 15; see e.g. Özkul et al., 2014). This leads to an intriguing phenomenon: before the
228 pool is emptied as a result of a low tide, it is already being refilled by the subsequent incoming tide (Fig.
229 15).

230 The permanent flooding of the pool results in constant inundation of the microbial mat by seawater, res-
231 ulting in a switch in microbial communities from filamentous cyanobacteria (that dominated the microbial
232 mats before scour development) to coccoid cyanobacteria (Fig. 14 B to C). Similar relationships between
233 microbial communities and the period of inundation have been documented in Hamelin Pool of Shark Bay,
234 Western Australia, where filamentous cyanobacteria dominate near-shore areas but disappear in areas
235 where inundation times are longer (Suosaari et al., 2016). The coccoid cyanobacterial mats form the ob-
236 served thrombolite domes and semi-continuous bands observed in the pool. A switch from filamentous
237 microbial communities into coccoid microbial communities has previously been documented to facilitate
238 the precipitation of acicular aragonite (Reid et al., 2000) and explains the large amounts of acicular ar-
239 agonite observed in the stromatolites. This implies that the lithification of the pool margins is biotically
240 mediated and these features therefore represent “true stromatolites”.

241 The lithification of the sill (Fig. 4) that separates the pool from the ephemeral ponds system is interpreted to
242 result from a combination of microbially-mediated aragonite precipitation and the precipitation of cements
243 as a result of degassing. The partial exposure of the sill at low tide facilitates degassing of the outflowing
244 water, thereby lowering the solubility product of the seawater as it flows over the sill, thereby promoting
245 the abiotic precipitation of cement. This process is similar to the precipitation of carbonates at travertine
246 terraces and tufas (Fig. 15; [Gandin and Capezzuoli, 2014](#); [Özkul et al., 2014](#)).

247 The thrombolites of the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi are unlikely to be preserved in the geologic record
248 due to their susceptibility to erosion and degradation of the associated organic matter after burial [Kenig
249 et al., 1990](#); [Court et al., 2017](#). The stromatolites, which form the base of thrombolites as well as parts of
250 the pool margins, possess a significant potential to be preserved in situ in the geologic record after burial.
251 However, the stromatolite structures are of limited lateral extend and are, therefore, likely to be only rarely
252 observed in ancient sequences.

253 **5.3 On the origin of dolomite**

254 Dolomite observed within the stromatolites at the pool margins was enclosed by bacterial EPS and acicular
255 aragonite, with the surrounding matrix also having a high Mg content, though this was not as high as the
256 respective dolomite crystals. This observation supports the microbially-mediated origin of this dolomite in
257 the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi as previously proposed ([Bontognali et al., 2010](#)). It is possible that, below
258 the EPS layer, a micro-environment develops within which Mg is enriched through microbial processes,
259 a mechanism that has been proposed previously by [Bontognali et al. \(2010\)](#). This proposed mechanism
260 suggests that the enrichment of magnesium will ultimately result in the bacterially-mediated precipitation
261 of dolomite crystals. The data presented here, however, shows no evidence for the direct involvement of
262 bacterial EPS in the growth of the observed dolomite crystals.

263 **5.4 The origin of gravel-sized grains and organic ooze**

264 The grains are likely composed of coccoid cyanobacterial communities akin to those that are observed
265 elsewhere in the pool that form the clotted microbial fabrics of thrombolites. Hence, the softness is the
266 result of their primary composition of bacterial organic matter or EPS. It is likely that these grains are the
267 result of spatially-limited erosion, i.e. they are generated through the break-off of parts or through the
268 complete destruction of thrombolites. Subsequently, they are agitated by low-energy wave and current
269 action, which leads to their shape becoming similar to that of oncoids yet without the concentric lamin-
270 ations (compare to [Gerdes et al., 1994](#)). These oncoids-like grains may subsequently be preserved in the
271 geologic record as trace fossils if the amount of bioclasts that were incorporated into the bacterial EPS mat-
272 rix during growth was high. Fossil microbial grains may thus be indicative of a low-energy coastal-marine
273 depositional environment within which clotted microbial fabrics existed.

274 **6 Conclusions**

275 Intertidal pools and associated microbial mats, thrombolites and stromatolites were observed in the coastal
276 sabkha of Abu Dhabi. It is proposed here that the thrombolites, stromatolites and microbial grains are
277 erosional remnants that originally were part of a surrounding filamentous cyanobacterial mat. They de-
278 veloped through the combined effects of erosion, abiotic early lithification and microbially-mediated pro-
279 cesses. These microbial features, therefore, represent a potential link between unlithified microbial mat
280 sheets and domal stromatolites, implying that at least some of the domal stromatolites observed today
281 originate from laminated originally non-lithifying microbial mats.

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Table 1: Environmental data from a variety of coastal marine stromatolite and microbial mat provinces. Sources for the data: Sabkha: this study and studies given in local settings. Hamelin Pool: Water temperatures, salinity, tidal regime and tidal range from [Suosaari et al. \(2016\)](#); air temperatures, mean annual rainfall and wind speed from <http://www.bom.gov.au>; evaporation from [Logan \(1961\)](#). Lagoa Vermelha: [Höhn et al. \(1986\)](#). Cayo Coco: [Bouton et al. \(2016\)](#). Highborne Cay: [Bowlin et al. \(2012\)](#)

Parameter	Location				
	Sabkha	Hamelin Pool	Lagoa Vermelha	Cayo Coco	Highborne Cay
Air temperature (°C)	8.4 – 53.7	9.2 – 36.9	17.0 – 32.0	20.0 – 32.5	-
Water temperature (°C)	11.7 – 46.8	11.0 – 33.0	23.8 – 36.5	28.0 – 30.0	20.3 – 30.3
Salinity (‰)	75.0 – 93.0	15.8 – 88.1	40 – 84	30 – 80	35
Mean annual rainfall (mm)	72.0	210.4	900	1000	-
Annual evaporation (mm)	2750	2032 - 2286	1300	2100 – 2200	-
Tidal range (m)	1.0	1.0	1.0 – 1.7	0.3	1.0
Mean wind speed (m/s)	3.7	2.8	-	3.9	4.18

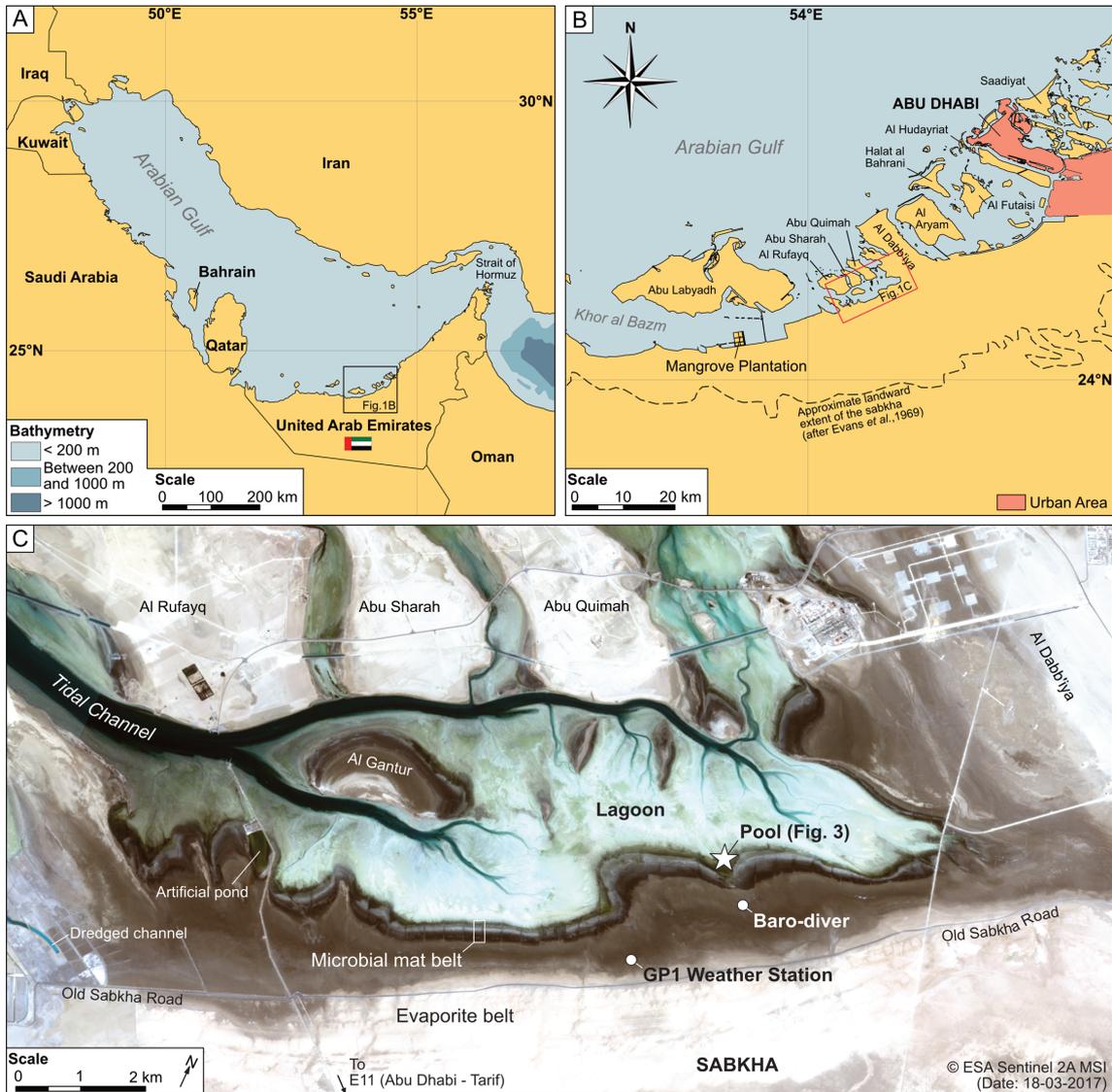


Figure 1: A) Location of the study area in relation to the Arabian Gulf. B) Location of study area in relation to Abu Dhabi. C) The modern coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi, showing facies belts and anthropogenic changes. The study site is indicated by a white star. Imagery source: ESA Sentinel 2A Multi-spectral Imager (MSI), date 18 March 2017.

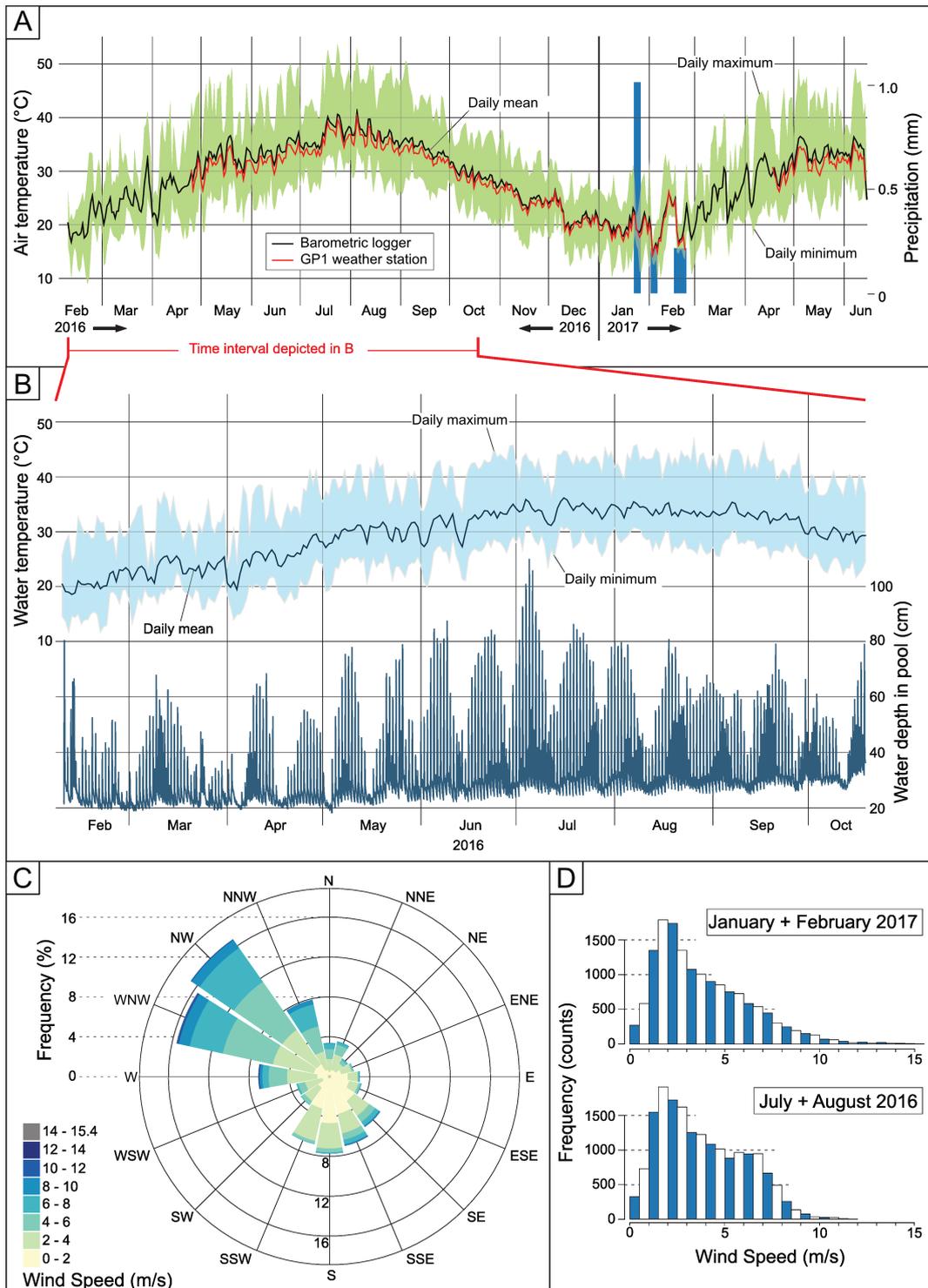


Figure 2: A) Mean daily air temperatures in the coastal sabkha measured between February 2016 and June 2017 using a barometric logger (black) and the GP1 weather station (red). Daily maximum and daily minimum are given in the background. Precipitation in January and February 2017 is also indicated by blue bars. B) Record of water temperatures and water depth in the studied intertidal pool, showing the daily tidal regime as well as long term annual trends in water depth. Note that the pool was never empty despite it being located within the intertidal zone. C) Wind rose showing the dominating wind directions from the WNW - NW and S, and wind speeds. D) Frequency distribution plots of wind speeds for two intervals in January - February 2017 and in July - August 2016. Each vertical bar represents a 0.5 m/s wind speed interval.

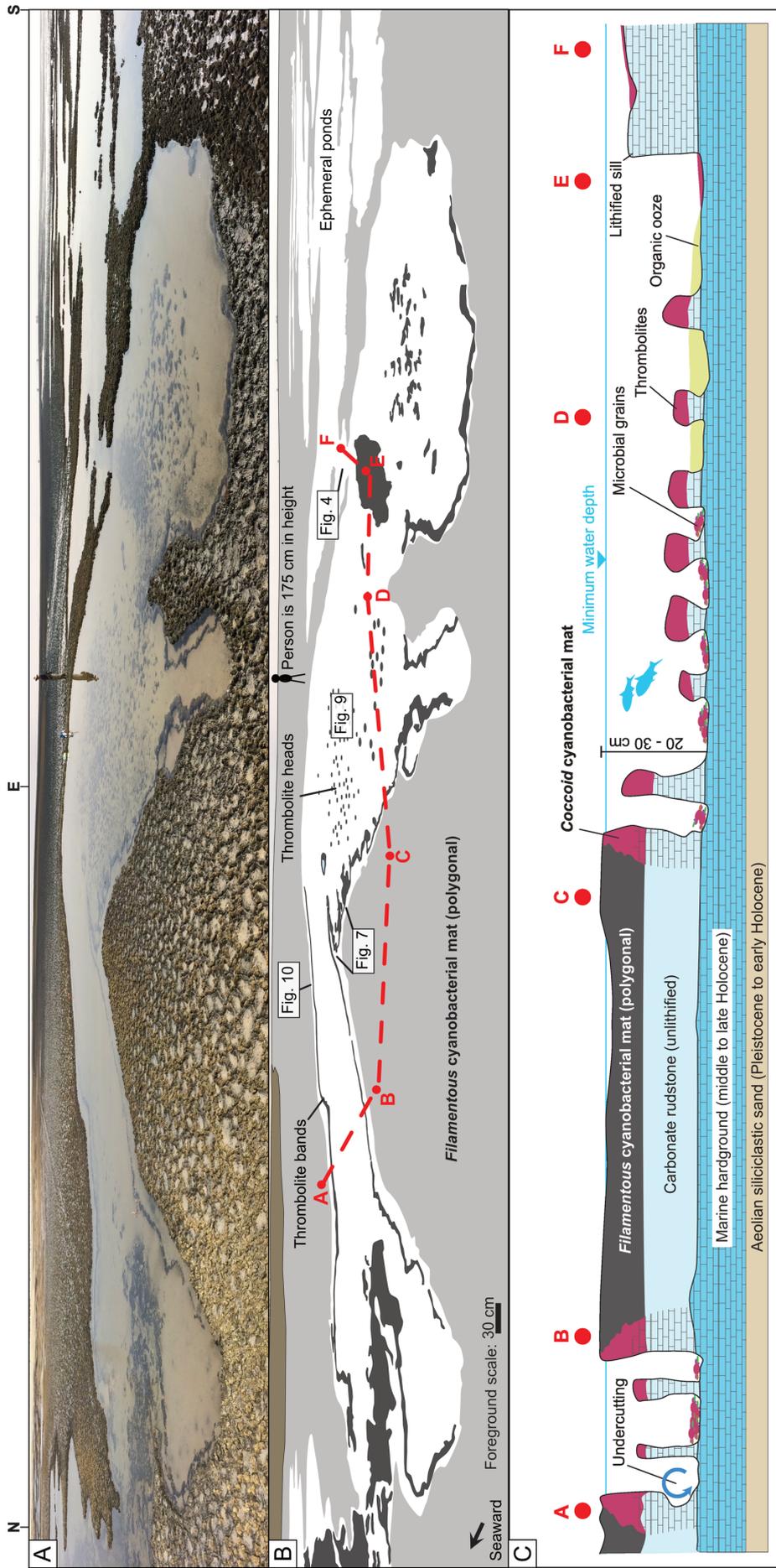


Figure 3: A) Overview photograph of the pool. Note that scale is not uniform from bottom to top due to the way this image was taken; person in background is 175 cm in height. B) Interpretative overview of the features observed in the pool. Seaward direction is on the left. Note the detached bands at the pool margins, and the thrombolites towards the centre of the pool. C) Schematic cross-section through the pool showing the general stratigraphy, lithologies and features described in this study.

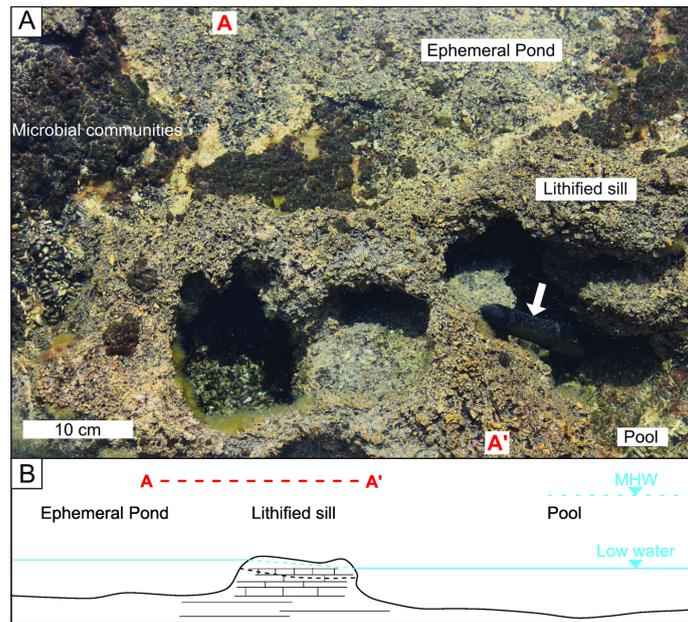


Figure 4: A) Close-up view of the lithified sill. The ephemeral pond system is located at the top, while the pool is towards the bottom (not visible). The lithified sill consists of a carbonate rudstone, and corresponds to the lithified margins in other areas of the pool. The water level logger is indicated by an arrow, the data of which is presented on figure 2. Note the colonisation by cyanobacteria and algae. B) General cross-section with a proposed model with the relationship between ephemeral pond system, lithified sill and the pool.

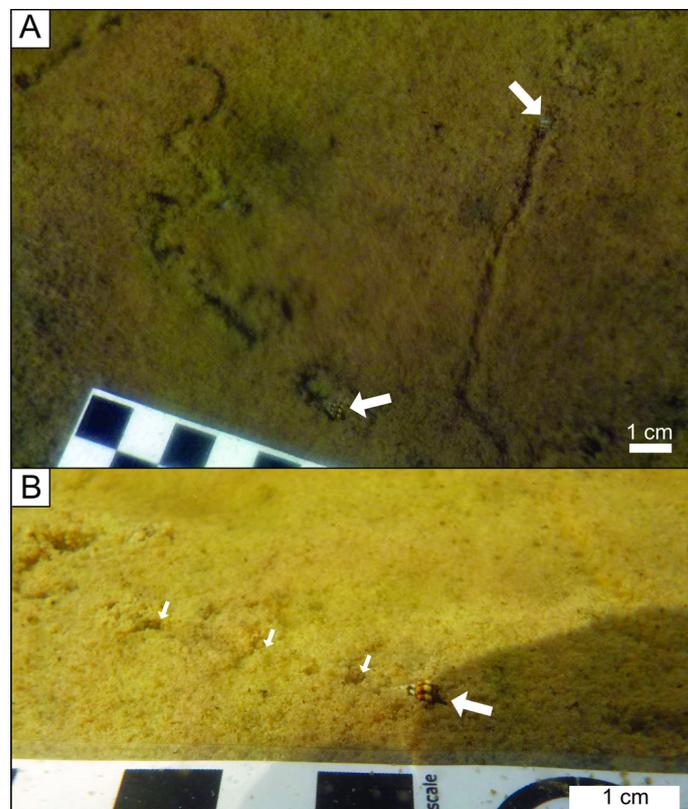


Figure 5: A) Photograph of the organic ooze covering parts of the pool floor. Grazing trails of gastropods are visible with the respective gastropods at the end-points (arrows). B) Close-up view of the ooze and a gastropod (large arrow) and its grazing trail (small arrows).

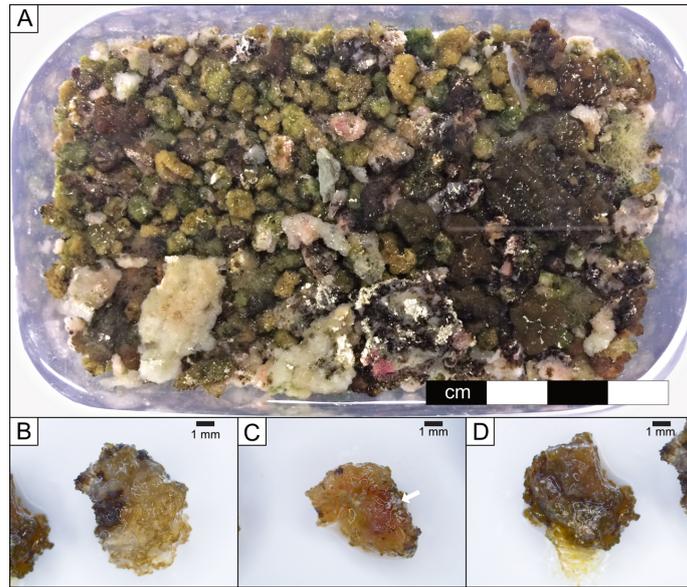


Figure 6: A) Microbial gravel collected from the pool floor. Different colours correspond to different organic pigments. B-D) Close-up views of individual microbial grains showing the EPS and white grains embedded. Grains are bioclasts and benthic foraminifera (arrow).

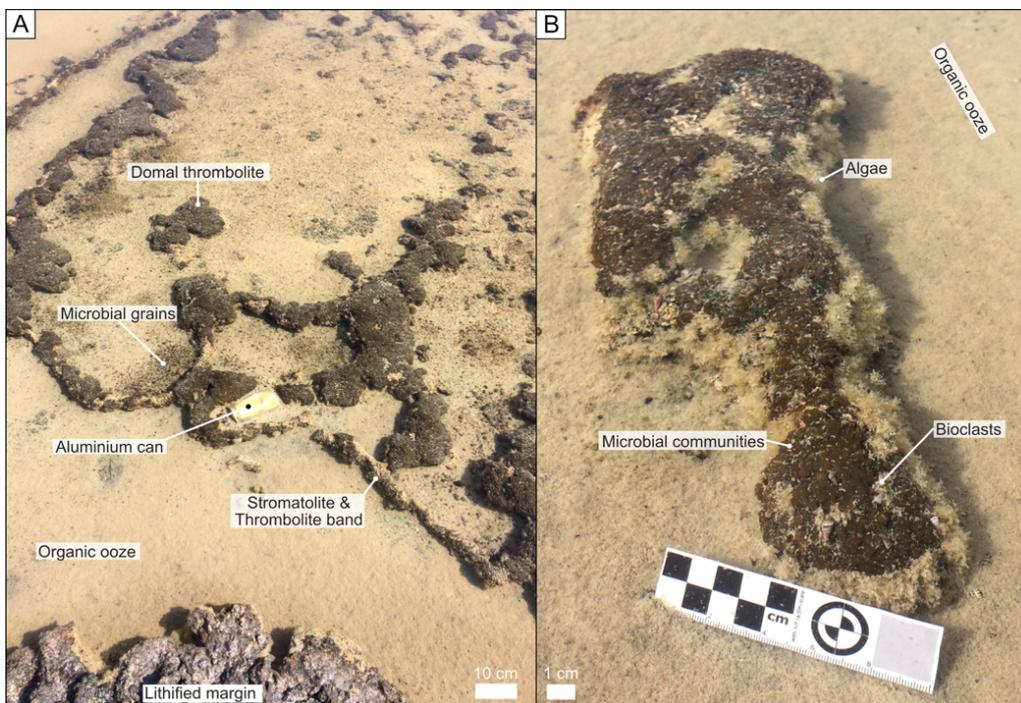


Figure 7: A) Close-up view of different microbial structures including thrombolites and stromatolites. Note the detached rim and the domal and banded thrombolites, surrounded by organic ooze and gravel-sized grains of potentially microbial origin. Note the discarded aluminium can for scale, that is overgrown by microbial communities and is also partially covered by organic ooze. B) Close-up view of an individual thrombolite showing its components: a lithified root (not shown here) covered by organic ooze, brown thrombolite, bioclasts deposited through tidal and/or wind currents, and algae growth. Upper growth boundary of these algae indicates the minimum water depth in the pool, which corresponds to what has been calculated from the water level logger data, approximately 20 cm.

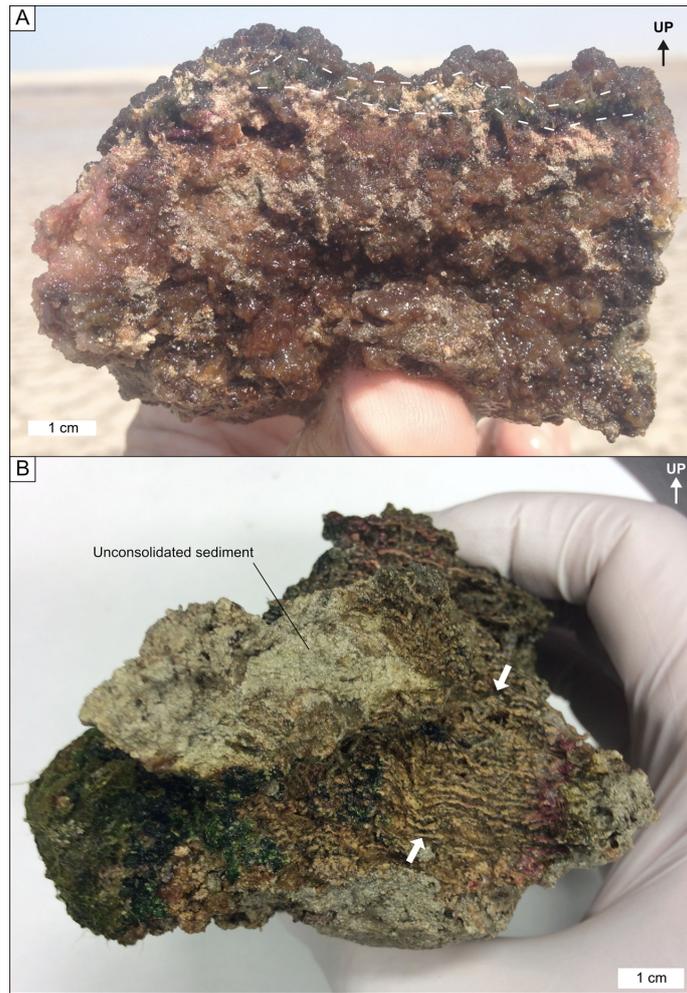


Figure 8: This figure shows vertically the succession from stromatolite to clotted thrombolite fabrics. A) Cross-sectional view of an individual domal thrombolite, showing internal crude radial laminations, based on differences in colour. Bioclasts enclosed by microbial EPS indicate outward growth. Coarse laminae are indicated by broken lines. B) Hand specimen of a stromatolite from the pool margin. Microbial laminations preserved through lithification are clearly visible. Purple and green colours correspond to pigments of living cyanobacterial communities and are unrelated to the primary processes that lead to the development of the stromatolite.

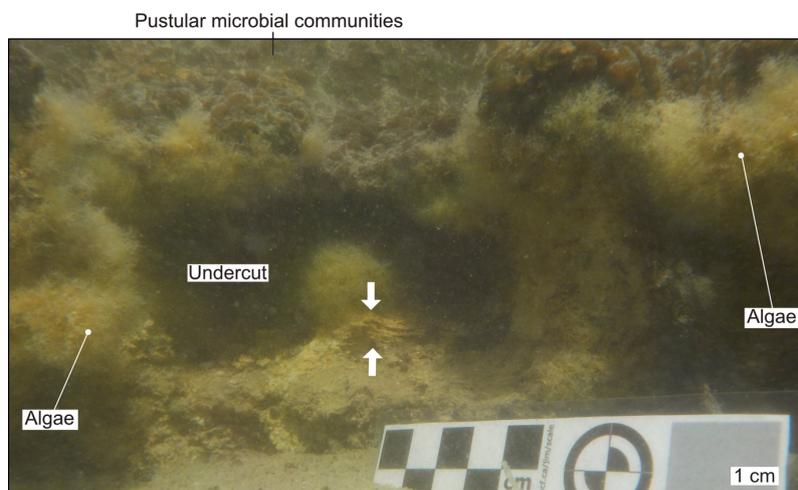


Figure 9: Plane view towards the partially undercut margin at the north-west side of the pool. Note the laminated stromatolites at the centre.

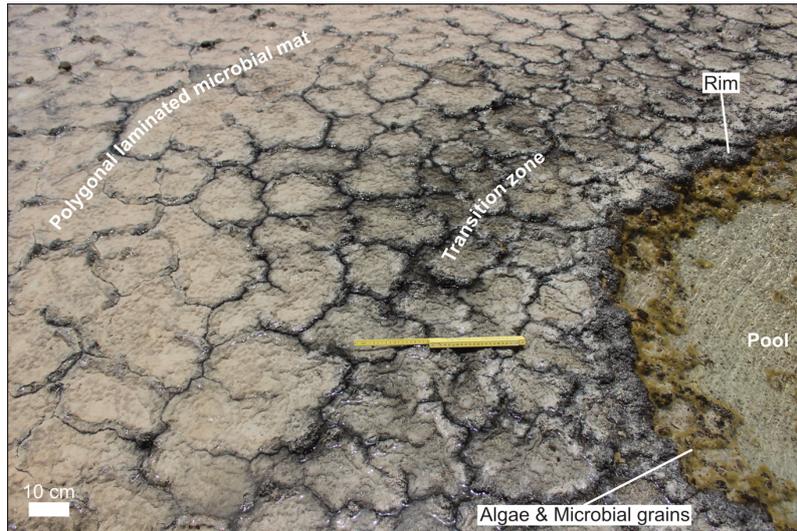


Figure 10: Overview photograph showing the transition from pool via a rim overgrown with algae towards the polygonal microbial mat zone. Note that the polygonal microbial mat in the transition zone appears to be degraded which is likely the result of longer inundation time and an incipient community change from filamentous towards coccoid cyanobacterial communities.



Figure 11: A) An erosive scour observed in the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi. B) Schematic cross-section through the scour.

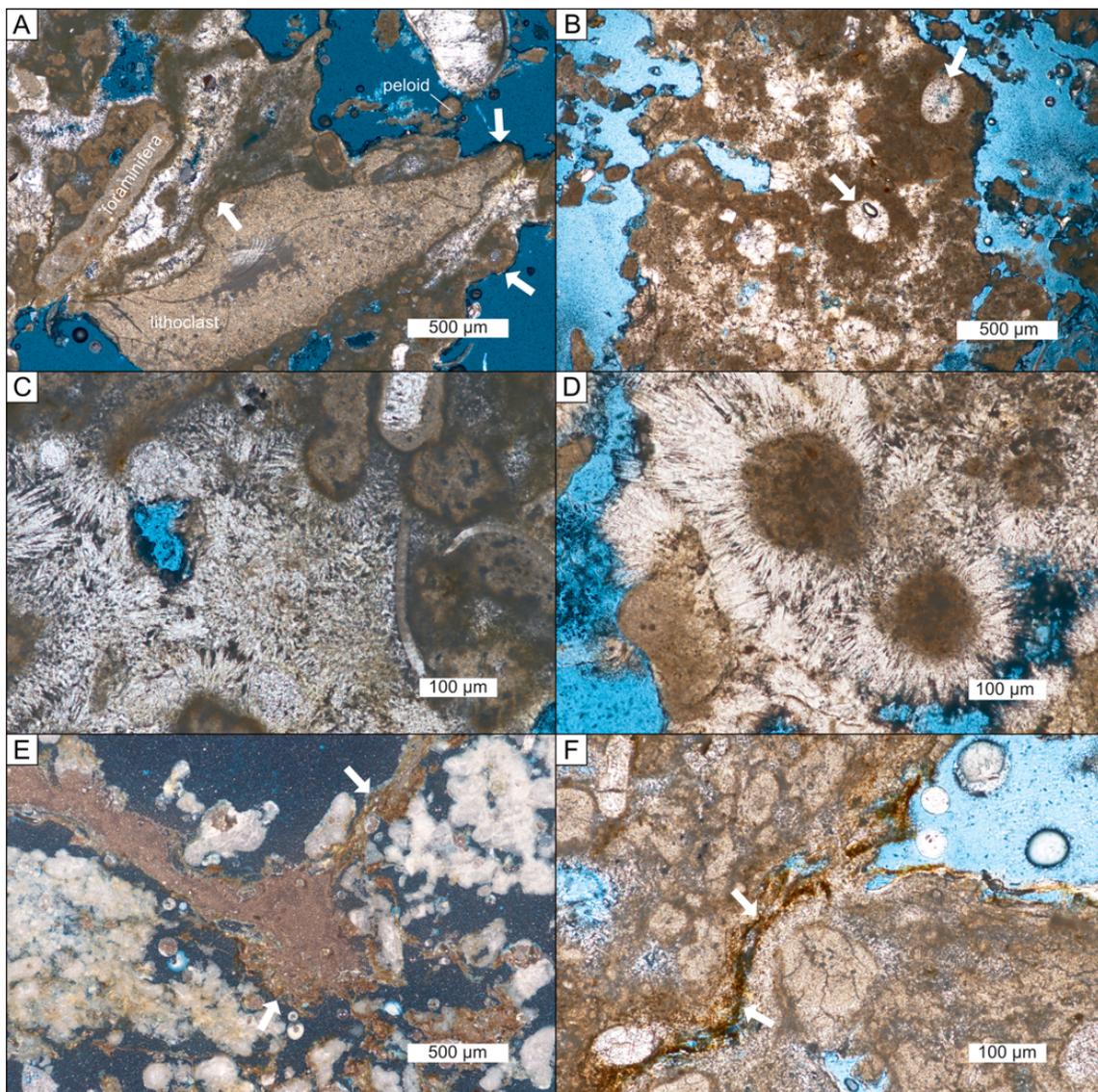


Figure 12: Thin section photomicrographs of stromatolites from the pool margin. A) Lithoclasts are shown surrounded by microbial organic-rich laminae (arrow). B) Moldic porosity after peloids filled by acicular aragonite cements (arrows). C, D) Acicular aragonite cements filling intragranular pore space. E, F) Dark organic seams indicate previous microbial growth (arrow).

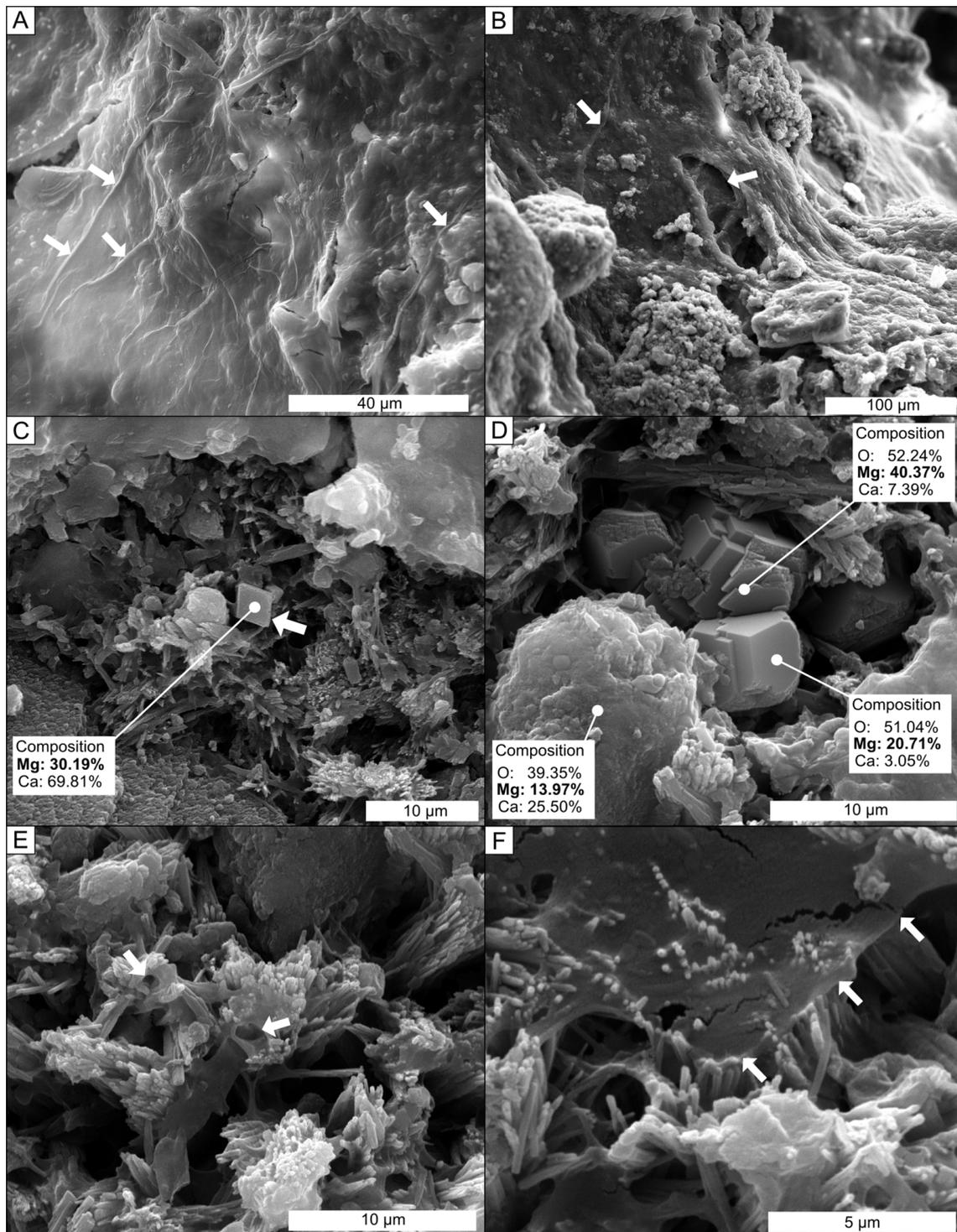


Figure 13: Scanning electron microscope micrographs. A, B) Extra-polymeric bacterial substance covering some areas of stromatolite specimen from the pool margin. Note bacterial filaments (white arrows). C) Crystal showing a very high Mg content indicative of proto-dolomite or true (arrow). The crystal is surrounded by aragonite cement and bacterial EPS. D) Another group of proto-dolomite crystals with very high Mg contents, surrounded by bacterial filaments, EPS and aragonite. E) Mineral precipitates in the stromatolites showing cyanobacterial tubes (arrows). F) Acicular aragonite covered by a layer of EPS (arrows).

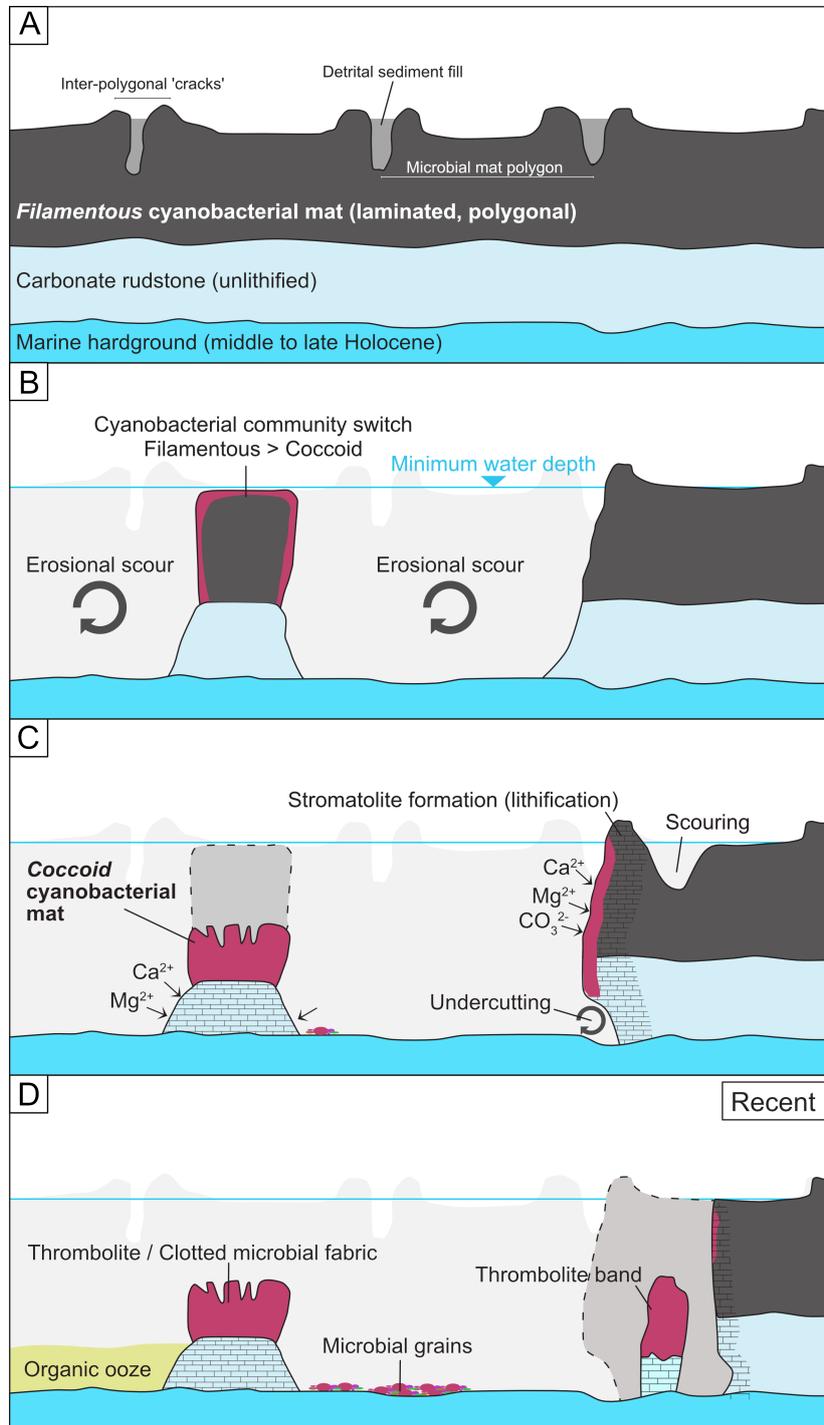


Figure 14: Schematic model of pool formation and lithification in the coastal sabkha of Abu Dhabi as explained in the text.

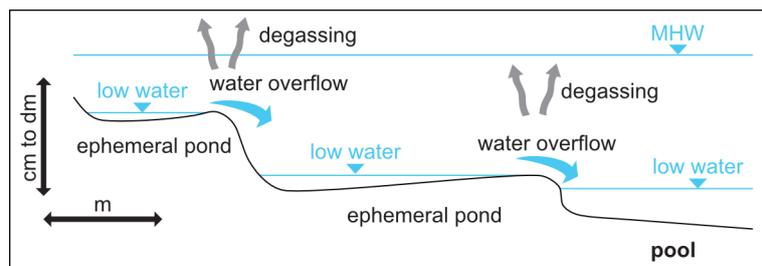


Figure 15: Schematic overview of the process that leads to permanent water coverage of the pool sensu travertine terraces. During high tide (MHW = mean high water) the pool and ephemeral pond system are fully covered by a maximum of 109 cm of water. During low tide the ephemeral ponds system slowly empties its excess water into the pool. Since this takes much longer than one 12 hour tidal cycle the pool is always filled with water. In addition, degassing occurs at areas at or near the water surface, leading to the precipitation of aragonite cements sensu the processes occurring at travertine terraces.