1	Mangrove habitats provide refuge from climate change for
2	reef-building corals
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16 Abstract

Risk analyses indicate that more than 90% of the world's reefs will be threatened by climate change and local anthropogenic impacts by the year 2030 under "business as usual" climate scenarios. Increasing temperatures and solar radiation cause coral bleaching that has resulted in extensive coral mortality. Increasing carbon dioxide reduces seawater pH, slows coral growth, and may cause loss of reef structure. Management strategies include establishment of marine protected areas with environmental conditions that promote reef resiliency. However, few resilient reefs have been identified, and resiliency factors are poorly defined.

24 Here we characterize the first natural, non-reef, coral refuge from thermal stress and 25 ocean acidification and identify resiliency factors for mangrove-coral habitats. We measured 26 diurnal and seasonal variations in temperature, salinity, photosynthetically active radiation 27 (PAR), and seawater chemistry; characterized substrate parameters; and examined water 28 circulation patterns in mangrove communities where scleractinian corals are growing 29 attached to and under mangrove prop roots in Hurricane Hole, St. John, U.S. Virgin Islands. 30 Additionally, we inventoried the coral species and quantified incidences of coral bleaching, 31 mortality and recovery for two major reef-building corals, Colpophyllia natans and Diploria 32 *labyrinthiformis*, growing in mangrove shaded and exposed (unshaded) areas.

33 At least 33 species of scleractinian corals were growing in association with 34 mangroves. Corals were thriving in low-light (more than 70% attenuation of incident PAR) 35 from mangrove shading and at higher temperatures than nearby reef tract corals. A higher 36 percentage of C. natans colonies were living shaded by mangroves, and no shaded colonies 37 bleached. Fewer D. labyrinthiformis colonies were shaded by mangroves, however more 38 unshaded colonies bleached. A combination of substrate and habitat heterogeniety, proximity 39 of different habitat types, hydrographic conditions, and biological influences on seawater 40 chemistry generate chemical conditions that buffer against ocean acidification. This 41 previously undocumented refuge for corals provides evidence for adaptation of coastal 42 organisms and ecosystem transition due to recent climate change. Identifying and protecting 43 other natural, non-reef coral refuges is critical for sustaining corals and other reef species into 44 the future.

46 **1** Introduction

47 Evidence that repeated coral bleaching events (Baker et al., 2008; Eakin et al., 2009; Fitt et 48 al., 2001; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007; Hoegh-Guldberg, 2011; Lesser, 2011) and ocean 49 acidification (Fabricius et al., 2011; Kleypas and Yates, 2009; Kroeker et al., 2013, 50 Silverman et al., 2009) will severely impede coral growth within the next few decades (Burke 51 et al., 2011; Hooidonk et al., 2014) has prompted an urgent search for coral reef systems that 52 provide natural refuges from climate threats and efforts to identify mechanisms that could 53 help reef organisms acclimatize to changing climate. The complex interplay among climate, 54 oceanographic, and biological factors that influences susceptibility and resilience of reefs has 55 made identification and characterization of refuges challenging. Focus has been placed on 56 identifying reefs with low exposure to or potential for adaptation to climate threats, and 57 reduced local anthropogenic impacts (Keller et al., 2009; McClanahan et al., 2011; Mumby 58 and Steneck, 2008; Salm et al., 2006; West and Salm, 2003). Recent studies have identified 59 only a few reef systems in the Western Indian Ocean (McClanahan et al., 2011), on the Great 60 Barrier Reef (Berkelmans, 2002), and in shallow bays of Palau (van Woesik et al., 2012) that 61 show resistance to elevated temperatures and less coral bleaching. Only one reef, in the 62 Florida Keys, has been identified as a potential refuge from ocean acidification (Manzello et 63 al., 2012). To our knowledge, no alternative (non-reef) natural habitats have ever been 64 identified as potential climate change refuges for corals.

Mangrove communities, while often near coral reef ecosystems, are not thought of as having suitable conditions for coral recruitment and growth due to high sedimentation rates, lack of suitable substrate, and inadequate water quality. Therefore, no prior focus has been placed on identifying mangrove-coral habitats, the scientific literature contains few references to scleractinian corals growing in mangroves (e.g. Macintyre et al., 2000; Rutzler et al., 2000), and no comprehensive surveys or multidisciplinary studies of these habitats have been performed.

In St. John, U.S. Virgin Islands, over 30 species of scleractinian corals are growing on and under mangrove prop roots in bays in Hurricane Hole within Virgin Islands Coral Reef National Monument (Table 1). Many are reef-building corals that survived a 2005 to 2006 bleaching and disease event that caused major losses of coral throughout the northeastern Caribbean (Miller et al., 2009). Qualitative surveys conducted in one bay in 1984 suggest that there has been an increase in the abundance and diversity of corals in mangrove communities since that time (Beets et al., 1986), possibly a response to climate change. 79 Keppel et al. (2012) define refugia as "habitats that components of biodiversity retreat to, persist in and can potentially expand from under changing environmental conditions." The 80 81 presence of such a remarkable abundance and diversity of coral species in the mangroves of 82 St. John, and their largely intact condition in contrast to severe declines of corals on nearby 83 reefs following bleaching and a major disease outbreak support the concept of this habitat as This osystem serves as an example of how some mangrove habitats could a refuge. 84 85 provide alternative refuges for corals from climate threats, particularly increasing seawater temperature, high levels of solar radiation, and decreasing pH. We identified and quantified 86 87 physical, chemical, and biological resiliency factors in mangrove communities with corals in 88 Hurricane Hole, St. John, U.S. Virgin Islands. We present a baseline list of resiliency factors 89 to help guide identification of other alternative refuges for reef-building corals.

90

91 2 Methods

92 Physical, chemical, and biological attributes were characterized in three small, adjacent bays 93 in Hurricane Hole including Water Creek, Otter Creek, and Princess Bay from November 94 2010 to July 2012 (Fig. 1). In each bay, we measured diurnal and seasonal variations in 95 temperature, salinity, photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), and seawater chemistry 96 [total alkalinity (A_T), dissolved inorganic carbon (C_T), pH_T (pH on the total H⁺ scale), 97 dissolved oxygen (DO), and nutrients]. We characterized substrate parameters and examined 98 water circulation patterns associated with inner bay mangrove communities with no corals 99 (MNC sites), nearby mid- to outer-bay mangrove communities with corals growing on and 100 under prop roots (MC sites), and rock outcrops with un-shaded corals (ROC sites) in all three 101 bays. Corals at these sites were growing near the coastline in shallow water ranging from 1.2 102 to 2.0 m water depth. Additionally, we inventoried coral species in all three bays, and 103 quantified incidences of coral bleaching, mortality and recovery for two major reef-building 104 corals, Colpophyllia natans and Diploria labyrinthiformis, growing in mangrove shaded and exposed (unshaded) areas in the bay with the highest coral diversity (Otter Creek). Logistics 105 106 prevented concurrent collection of similar data from reefs around St. John. However, we 107 collected limited data from 4 sites on a nearby reef in Long Bay (approximately 2 km from the nearest mangrove coral study site and 6.3 m water depth, Fig. 1) from July 16 to August 108 109 22, 2004. Latitude and longitude for reefs sites were site 1 = 18.337972, -64.675944; 2 =110 18.337944, 64.676028; 3 = 18.337833, -64.675861; 4 = 18.337806, 64.675917. The reef site 111 was characterized by scattered coral colonies of Orbicella annularis, Orbicella annularis

112 complex, Montastraea cavernosa, Porites porites, Porites astreoides, Agaricia agaricites, 113 Favia fragum, Diploria labyrinthiformis, and the hydrocoral Millepora alcicornis growing 114 among sea fans, other gorgonians, sponges, turf algae, macroalgae and coral rubble. All 115 seawater chemistry data from Hurricane Hole and Long Bay reef sites were collected near the 116 seafloor (less than 0.5 m from the bottom), not from surface waters. Additionally, we 117 collected vertical profile data of carbonate system parameters over a coral habitat at 6.5 m 118 water depth near the mouth of Otter Creek (Fig. 1) at 7:00 am on July 19, 2011. Profile data 119 were collected at 1.5 m, 3.0 m, 4.6 m, and 6.0 m depth.

120 2.1 Seawater chemistry

121 Seawater was collected for A_T , C_T , and pH_T analyses from each site every 4-hours (n = 7) 122 throughout 24-hour periods in November 2010, July 2011, and July 2012. Measurements 123 were made every 4-hours for 3 consecutive days (n=19) in Otter Creek during July 2012. No 124 DO data were collected in Water Creek during July 2012 due to DO sensor failure. Twenty 125 percent of pH measurements (47 of 225) were calculated from A_T and C_T. A peristaltic pump 126 was used to pump seawater from approximately 1 m below the water surface through a 0.45 μ m filter into 500 ml borosilicate glass bottles. Samples for A_T and C_T were preserved by 127 adding 100 µL saturated HgCL₂ solution. Bottles were positive-pressure sealed with ground 128 129 glass stoppers coated with Apiezon grease. Seawater samples for pH_T were collected from the 130 same peristaltic pump and filtered into 30 mL glass optical cells, and were analyzed within 1 hour of collection. Samples were analyzed for A_T (±1 µmol kg⁻¹) using spectrophotometric 131 methods of Yao and Byrne (1998) with an Ocean Optics USB2000 spectrometer and bromo-132 cresol purple indicator dye, for C_T (±3 µmol kg⁻¹) using a UIC carbon coulometer model 133 CM5014 and CM5130 acidification module using methods of Dickson et al. (2007) and for 134 135 pH_T (±0.005) via spectrophotometric methods of Zhang and Byrne (1996) with an Ocean 136 Optics USB2000 spectrometer and thymol blue indicator dye. Dissolved oxygen $(\pm 0.1 \text{ mg l}^2)$ ¹), temperature (± 0.01 °C), and salinity (± 0.01) were measured using a YSI multimeter 137 calibrated daily. Certified reference materials (CRM) for A_T and C_T analyses were from the 138 139 Marine Physical Laboratory of Scripps Institution of Oceanography (A. Dickson). Duplicate 140 or triplicate analyses were performed on at least 10% of samples.

141 Seawater from Long Bay reef was also collected and analysed for A_T and C_T using the 142 same methods as in Hurricane Hole. pH_T was calculated from A_T and C_T using the carbonate 143 speciation program CO2sys (Pierrot et al., 2006). Dissolved oxygen (±0.1 mg l⁻¹), temperature (± 0.01 °C), and salinity (± 0.01) were measured using a flow through analytical system and methods of Yates and Halley (2003). These data were collected at 7:00 am (n = 146 7) or 11:00 am (n = 3).

147 Vertical profile data were collected by attaching a weighted peristalic sampling tube 148 (marked with depth increments) to the YSI multimeter and lowering the collection apparatus 149 to depth along a guide line attached to a buoy at the surface and a weight at the seafloor. 150 Samples and measurements for A_T, C_T, pH_T, DO, salinity, and temperature were collected 151 and analyzed using the same methods as described for Hurricane Hole analyses. Carbonate 152 system parameters for all study sites including aragonite mineral saturation state (Ω_A) and pCO_2 were calculated from A_T , pH_T (or A_T and C_T for Long Bay reef samples), temperature 153 154 and salinity measurements using the carbonate speciation program CO2sys (Pierrot et al., 155 2006) with dissociation constants K1 and K2 from Merbach et al. (1973) refit by Dickson and Millero (1987), KSO₄ from Dickson (1990), and using the total pH scale (pH_T). 156

157 Seawater samples were collected for measurement of total nitrogen and phosphate in 158 November 2010 and July 2011. In November 2010, nutrient samples were collected in 159 transects spanning from the innermost reaches to the mouth of all three bays (58 samples). 160 During July 2011, water samples were collected every 4-hours throughout 24-hour time periods at every sample site in all three bays. Water samples (20mL) were filtered through 161 162 0.22µm pore size Millepore Sterivex filters rinsed with 2 volumes of sample water. Samples were stored in 20mL acid-washed polypropylene scintillation vials at 0°C until time of 163 164 Nutrient samples were analyzed at the NOAA Atlantic Oceanographic and analysis. 165 Meteorological Laboratory in Miami, FL.

166 **2.2 Sediment samples**

Bulk surface sediment samples (approximately 2 kg wet weight) were collected via grab-167 168 sampling from the seafloor (approximately 1.2 m water depth) at each study site in each bay (Fig. 1). Wet samples were dehydrated to remove water and salts within 6 hours of collection 169 170 by rinsing with 70% isopropyl alcohol, allowing samples to settle, decanting the alcohol, and 171 repeating this process two additional times. Dehydrated samples were then allowed to air dry 172 prior to analysis for grain size and composition. Grain-size was measured via settling-tube for sand-sized fractions (Gibbs, 1974), and pipette for mud-sized fractions (Folk, 1965). 173 174 Calcium carbonate content was determined by the acid leaching method (Milliman, 1974). 175 Total organic matter (TOM) was measured by loss on ignition (LOI) at 550° C for >2.5 hours 176 (Dean, 1974). Mineralogic composition was measured by XRD on a Bruker D-8 advanced 177 system using cobalt radiation at the University of Georgia, Department of Geology.

178 2.3 Coral surveys

179 A list of coral species growing in Princess Bay, Otter Creek and Water Creek was compiled 180 based on over 100 surveys conducted by snorkeling the perimeter of each bay and identifying 181 all live coral colonies growing from the shoreline to a depth of approximately 6 m (Rogers 182 and Herlan, 2012). Minor coral bleaching was observed in July 2010 with more severe 183 bleaching in August through October 2010. From November 2010 to January 2011, a 184 complete census of colonies of Diploria labyrinthiformis and Colpolphyllia natans (the most 185 abundant framework-building corals in Hurricane Hole) was conducted in Otter Creek and 186 Water Creek. The census included colonies growing up in the mangroves and on the nearby 187 substrate that sloped to the sandy bottom in each of the bays. Coral depths ranged from near 188 the surface to about 5 meters. Each coral was photographed and examined for condition 189 (e.g., bleached or unbleached) and exposure (shaded or unshaded). A coral was considered 190 shaded if it grew directly under mangroves or within a few meters of them where it received 191 shading for at least a portion of each day. Subsets of these colonies in Otter Creek were re-192 examined in May 2011 to document recovery and mortality. Fisher's Exact tests performed in 193 SAS 9.2 were used to compare the response of shaded and unshaded coral colonies.

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2.4 **Temperature and PAR measurements**

195 Temperature measurements were collected every 2-hours during 2010 and 2011 using 196 HOBO Pendant data loggers at 18 locations in Hurricane Hole (Table 2). Loggers were 197 placed near mangrove and coral habitats at inner-, mid-, and outer-bay locations. Daily 198 averages were generated from all loggers. Temperature data from long-term monitoring 199 transects were collected every 2 hours from loggers at reef depth on the forereef slope area of 200 6 reefs around St. John during 2005 by Miller et al. (2009), and during 2010 by the National 201 Park Service (2012). These data were used to calculate daily means at each site and averaged 202 among sites to generate daily averages for the long-term reef transects. Photosynthetically 203 Active Radiation (PAR) was measured every 15-minutes (15 minute averages) at study sites 204 in Otter Creek and Water Creek approximately 20 cm above the seafloor using LiCor 4π 205 sensors and approximately 3 m above sea level and the mangrove canopy using LiCor 2π 206 sensors coupled with LiCor 1000 or LiCOR 1400 data loggers. PAR sensors were placed on

the seafloor under the mangrove canopy and outside of the mangrove canopy at MNC and
MC sites, on the seafloor at unshaded ROC sites, and above the mangrove canopy at MC and
MNC sites.

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211 **3 Results and Discussion**

3.1 Heterogeneity of the physical environment

Heterogeneity in the physical environment provides for semi-isolation of coastal water masses from open ocean water enabling local differentiation of physical, chemical, and biological attributes of coastal ecosystems. The potential for a refuge to sustain characteristics that promote climate change resiliency is, in part, dependent upon the ability of the system to remain out of equilibrium with open ocean chemical conditions.

The bays in Hurricane Hole range in area from 0.06 to 0.11 km², have small 218 watersheds ranging in area from 0.11 km² to 0.43 km², are surrounded by steeply sloped, 219 220 rocky hillsides, and have a narrow (up to approximately 10 m) fringe of red mangroves 221 (*Rhizophora mangle*). Bedrock is exposed in cliffs and outcrops along the coast and consists 222 of igneous and metamorphic rocks including Cretaceous basalt, andesite, keratophyre 223 (Rankin, 1998). Carbonate sediments on St. John are in situ marine biogenic carbonates. 224 There is no permanent source of freshwater inflow to any of the bays, nutrient concentrations 225 are low, water clarity is generally high, and tidal range is low (<0.25m). The inner areas of 226 the bays are very shallow, less than 2 m, and well protected from high winds and seas. The 227 mangrove fringe is thickest in the inner bays. Prop roots support abundant communities of 228 reef and mangrove organisms including crustose coralline algae, and are surrounded by 229 communities of intermediate density seagrass (Thalassia testudinum), and calcareous algae 230 including *Halimeda* spp. and *Penicillus* spp. Very few corals are growing near inner bay 231 mangroves. Grain size analyses showed that sediments in the inner bays are primarily fine-232 grained ranging from 16 to 65% mud-sized fractions (Table 3).

Mid- to outer-bay areas are characterized by the narrowest mangrove fringe and shallow (<1 m) water depths immediately adjacent to the shoreline that slopes steeply to 5 to 10 m just beyond the mangrove canopy. The mangrove prop roots support sponges, crustose coralline algae, numerous scleractinian corals and other organisms (Fig. 2). The outer bays are infrequently exposed to storm waves that remove fine-grained sediments, and sediments consist primarily of 69 to 96% sand and gravel with occasional occurrences of large boulders (Table 3). Corals are growing attached directly to prop roots and to hard substrates under roots. Near the entrance to the bays, there are rock outcrops with few or no mangroves nearby. These sites have primarily hard bottom substrate with small pockets of coarsegrained sediments, corals growing directly on hard bottom, very sparse occurrences of calcareous algae, and little seagrass growing nearby.

244 **3.2 Chemical heterogeneity**

245 Heterogeneity in the physical environment and benthic community structure creates chemical micro-climates that can affect localized, adjacent habitats. Variations in chemical parameter 246 247 trends were observed at sub-kilometer scale in each bay and in association with specific 248 habitat types (Fig. 3). Inner bay sites where mangroves grow without corals (MNC sites) 249 showed the lowest dissolved oxygen levels (with the exception of Otter Creek in November 250 2010), highest pCO₂, A_T, and C_T levels, and lowest pH_T and aragonite mineral saturation 251 A_T and salinity showed the greatest range in variation during passage of states (Ω_A). 252 Tropical Storm Tomás in November 2010 in Water Creek and Princess Bay, both of which 253 have a larger watershed than Otter Creek and are more heavily influenced by terrestrial run-254 off during rain events. No consistent differences in chemical parameters were observed 255 between mangrove-coral (MC) sites and rock outcrop coral (ROC) sites. MC and ROC sites 256 showed higher DO, lower pCO₂, A_T, and C_T levels, and higher pH_T and aragonite saturation 257 states than MNC sites indicating that seawater chemical characteristics of MC sites are more 258 similar to ROC sites than to MNC sites. Diurnal variability in chemical parameters was also 259 observed at each study site. Hurricane Hole data indicate that lowest carbonate mineral saturation states, pH_T, temperature and DO, and highest C_T, pCO₂, and TA generally occurred 260 261 in the early morning and are reflected in our 7:00 am measurements (see 262 http://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.825752) . Vertical profile data also showed water column heterogeneity with considerable differences in Ω_A ($\Delta 0.34$), pH ($\Delta 0.04$), pCO₂ ($\Delta 40$ 263 μ atm), TA (Δ 45.3 μ mol kg⁻¹) and C_T (Δ 20.9 μ mol kg⁻¹) between surface and bottom water 264 (Fig. 4, Table 3). Profile data demonstrate why one cannot assume that surface water 265 266 measurements reflect bottom water conditions even in shallow water environments. Average 267 total nitrate and phosphate values for all samples in November 2010 were 0.999 ± 2.626 and 0.072 ± 0.094 , respectively. Average total nitrate and phosphate values for all samples 268 collected in July 2011 were $0.238 \pm 0.359 \text{ }\mu\text{mol }l^{-1}$ and $0.066 \pm 0.069 \text{ }\mu\text{mol }l^{-1}$, respectively. 269

The values of nutrient measurements distributed both temporally and spatially were near the range of analytical precision and accuracy for A_T measurements and, therefore, were not included in calculation of carbonate system parameters from A_T and pH_T measurements. Nutrient data are available at http://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.825752.

274 Calcification/dissolution thresholds are the levels of Ω_A below which (and pCO₂) 275 levels above which) net dissolution of carbonate sediments exceeds calcification rates as determined by in situ, mesocosm, and modeling studies of coral reef ecosystems. Aragonite 276 saturation states fell considerably lower than calcification/dissolution threshold ranges of 3.0 277 278 to 3.2 and/or pCO₂ exceeded thresholds of 504 to 584 µatm (Langdon et al., 2003; Silverman 279 et al., 2009; Yamamoto et al., 2012; Yates and Halley, 2006) at all MNC study sites during 280 both November and July, except in Otter Creek where thresholds were exceeded only during 281 July 2011. Maximum pCO₂ values at MC sites and ROC sites exceeded the dissolution 282 threshold during only 4 of 9 measurement periods and 2 of 9 measurement periods, 283 Minimum aragonite saturation states at MC and ROC sites fell below respectively. 284 dissolution thresholds during only 2 of 9 and 3 of 9 measurement periods, respectively. Maximum pCO₂ and minimum Ω_A observed at a coral site was 550 µatm (Water Creek MC 285 286 site, July 2011) and 2.82 (Princess Bay ROC site, November 2010), respectively (Fig. 3g and 287 h).

288 Reef data from Long Bay were collected only at 7:00 am and 11:00 am (Fig. 3, Table 289 4). Therefore, only the minimum Ω_A , pH, temperature and DO data, and maximum values 290 for TA, C_T and pCO₂ are comparable to Hurricane Hole data. Median data for reef 291 parameters may be biased toward lower or higher values because they do not reflect full 292 diurnal cycle conditions; and comparison of reef data to Hurricane Hole excludes November 293 2010 data that reflect tropical storm conditions. Long Bay reef Ω_A showed a minimum value 294 of 2.93 that was considerably lower than any other coral site in Hurricane Hole. This reef value is also lower than the reported range of dissolution thresholds. The lowest Ω_A of 3.18 295 296 at Hurricane Hole coral sites occurred in Otter Creek during July 2011, and this was the only coral site that showed a Ω_A that fell within the reported carbonate dissolution threshold 297 298 ranges. All median and maximum values from Hurricane Hole coral sites in July 2011 and 299 2012 fell above dissolution threshold ranges, and maximum values reached 4.2. Minimum 300 pH observed at the Long Bay reef was 7.894, and was lower than the lowest pH (7.95, also in 301 Otter Creek during July 2011) recorded for any coral site in Hurricane Hole. Maximum pCO₂ values at Long Bay reef (626 µatm) were higher than any other coral site in Hurricane Hole (maximum = 550 µatm in Water Creek, July 2011) and fell above the reported dissolution threshold range. Our data indicate that maximum Ω_A at the seafloor where corals are growing was not consistently elevated in mangrove coral sites relative to the nearby reef. However, minimum values at mangrove coral sites were not as low as those at the reef site and in most locations remained above saturation state thresholds for carbonate dissolution unlike reef values.

309 X-ray diffraction analyses of surface sediment samples in Hurricane Hole indicate 310 sediments at all three of the inner bay MNC sites have the lowest percentages of carbonate 311 sediments (12 to 55%) and no high-magnesium calcite (high-Mg calcite, the most soluble 312 phase of calcium carbonate) in two of the three bays (Princess Bay and Water Creek) (Tables 313 5 and 6) despite the presence of crustose coralline algae that produces high-Mg calcite. 314 Percent total organic matter (TOM) is less than 12% throughout the bays, but higher at inner-315 and mid-bay sites than outer-bay sites. Low pH_T and high pCO₂ conditions generated by 316 respiration and oxidation of organic matter in inner bays create a chemical environment that 317 is conducive to dissolution of the fine-grained sediments produced by the calcareous green 318 algae and coralline algae associated with these mangrove communities. Highest percentages 319 of carbonate sediments (approximately 70 to 97%) are found in MC and ROC sites in the 320 middle and outer bays, and high-Mg calcite is present at all locations. The only MNC site 321 with high-Mg calcite in sediments was in Otter Creek. Highest pH_T of all MNC sites was in 322 Otter Creek while the lowest was in Water Creek. The lowest pH_T observed at the MNC site 323 in Otter Creek was 7.90, however no median pH_T dropped below 7.95. The lowest pH_T at the 324 MNC site in Princess Bay (where no Mg-calcite was observed) was above 7.90; however median pH_T at this site fell to 7.93 during July 2011. The lowest median and minimum pH at 325 326 a coral site was 7.97 and 7.93, respectively, and occurred at the MC site in Water Creek 327 during July 2011. These findings suggest that dissolution of fine-grained carbonate 328 sediments occurs in areas with frequent exposure to pH_T below 7.93 to 7.95, and coral growth 329 is limited to areas with minimum pH_T above 7.93.

330 3.3 Process heterogeneity

331 Process heterogeneity resulting from spatial variations in community structure and 332 hydrographic conditions is a key factor in maintaining disequilibrium between coastal and 333 open ocean water masses. Correlation of salinity-normalized total alkalinity (nA_T) and 334 dissolved inorganic carbon (nC_T) can be used to indicate the potential influence of 335 calcification, carbonate sediment dissolution, photosynthesis, and respiration on seawater 336 carbonate chemistry (Suzuki and Kawahata, 2003). A linear regression slope approaching 2 337 indicates calcification and dissolution are dominant processes, and the slope can be used to 338 calculate the ratio of net ecosystem calcification (NEC) to net community production (NCP). Eighteen of 27 site measurements showed a correlation between nA_T and nC_T with a r^2 value 339 of greater than 0.5 (Fig. 5). MNC sites showed the greatest range of nA_T and nC_T and the 340 greatest potential/tendency toward carbonate sediment dissolution. This result is consistent 341 342 with the low pH_T, high pCO₂, low mineral saturation state, and lower percentages of carbonate sediments characteristic of MNC sites. MC and ROC sites showed similar ranges 343 344 and values of nA_T and nC_T. Ratios of NEC:NCP were calculated for the 18 site measurements with r^2 values greater than 0.5 (Table 7). NEC:NCP for all sites ranged from 345 0.14 to 12.1. Average values were lowest at MC sites (0.5 ± 0.6) , highest at ROC sites (3.1)346 +/-5.0), with intermediate values at MNC sites (0.9 +/-1.1). Standard deviations were large 347 348 among study sites (Table 7). However, generally lower NEC:NCP ratios at MC sites and low 349 TOM in sediments may help maintain higher pH_T at MC sites relative to MNC sites. 350 Intermediate NEC:NCP ratios at MNC sites likely reflect the dominance of calcareous algae 351 and seagrass, while highest NEC:NCP ratios at ROC sites reflect the dominance of corals and 352 lack of seagrass and calcareous algae in close proximity.

353 Lagrangian drifter studies were conducted in Water Creek, Otter Creek, and Princess 354 Bay during August 2011, and indicated that surface currents within the bays move primarily 355 from inner to outer bay due to prevailing easterly winds (McKenzie, 2012). Additionally, 356 estimated water mass residence times in each of these bays are long, on the time scale of days 357 (McKenzie, 2012), which, combined with shallow water depths, can increase the impact of NEC and NCP on seawater chemistry (Anthony et al., 2011). Carbonate sediment dissolution 358 (a process that consumes CO_2 and generates HCO_3^- and Ca^{2+}) at upstream, inner bay MNC 359 360 sites may provide a source of alkalinity to downstream coral sites that helps to maintain 361 mineral saturation states and support coral calcification. The collocation of corals with 362 mangroves in areas of relatively high NCP, and low TOM in sediments also helps maintain 363 pH_T and saturation states at MC sites that are similar to ROC sites. This combined effect of 364 heterogeneity in community structure, hydrography, and biologically driven changes in 365 seawater chemistry has been demonstrated as an effective means to buffer decreases in 366 mineral saturation state and increase calcification in downstream communities in

experimental coral/macroalgal assemblages (Anthony et al., 2011) and in seagrass/coralline
algae and coral/seagrass assemblages on coral reefs in Tanzania and Moorea (Kleypas et al.,
2011; Semesi et al., 2009a and b). This same combination of spatial and temporal variations
in community structure and processes in mangrove/coral habitats may help buffer against
ocean acidification.

372 **3.4 Biological responses**

The presence of decades-old coral colonies in these mangrove-lined bays suggests adaptation 373 374 to higher water temperatures and more resistance to and rapid recovery from bleaching events 375 such as the one that was followed by severe mortality from disease in 2005 on the island's 376 coral reefs. Coral surveys indicate at least 33 species of scleractinian corals are growing in 377 Hurricane Hole Bays (Table 1). Many coral colonies are growing directly on or close to 378 mangrove prop roots, and others grow on rocks or hard substrate close to shore to a depth of approximately 6 m. Initial surveys of bleached a junbleached corals from November 2010 379 to January 2011 indicate that only 4.5% and 1.7% of *C. natans* colonies were bleached in 380 381 Otter Creek and Water Creek, respectively, while 58.9% and 17.4% of D. labyrinthiformis 382 colonies were bleached in Otter and Water Creeks, respectively. We chose these two coral 383 species as the focus of our observations because they were the most abundant major reef-384 building species in Hurricane Hole, they are thriving in Hurricane Hole despite a decline in 385 relative and absolute abundance of both species on St. John reefs during the 2005/2006 bleaching and disease event (Whelan et al. 2007, Miller et al. 2009), and both species 386 387 typically occur in exposed (as opposed to cryptic) habitats on the reefs.

388 PAR measurements made above the sea surface and at the seafloor at MC sites and 389 ROC sites of similar depth during November 2010 and July 2011 and 2012 indicate that PAR was attenuated during peak daylight hours of 10am to 2pm by 88.6 +/- 5.3%, 70.7 +/- 4.8%, 390 and 72.0 +/- 1.7%, respectively (Fig. 6) where corals grow shaded by the mangroves at MC 391 392 sites. In addition to shading by mangrove trees, colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) in 393 the water near mangroves, especially where there is frequent freshwater input, could also 394 attenuate harmful visible and ultraviolet radiation and reduce the photo-oxidative stress on 395 corals (Fitt and Warner, 1995, Shick et al., 1996, Zepp et al., 2008, Ayoub et al., 2012). We 396 do not think that CDOM is likely to be playing a major role in providing additional shading, 397 but it could be a contributing factor. The water clarity is generally very high particularly in 398 shallow water near the mangrove prop roots at our study sites. PAR data in figure 6 shows 399 that PAR at the rock outcrops which are in very close proximity to the mangroves is not 400 considerably attenuated relative to PAR measured in air indicating that CDOM is likely not 401 contributing much to attenuation of solar radiation.

402 Re-examination of a subset of Otter Creek colonies in spring 2011 showed general 403 recovery from bleaching but some mortality. Different proportions of C. natans (72.5% shaded, 27.5% unshaded) and D. labyrinthiformis (% shaded, 81.8% unshaded) were 404 405 found in shaded versus un-shaded conditions (p < 0.0001) and had different levels of initial 406 bleaching (p<0.0001, C. natans: no shaded colonies bleached, 10.5% of unshaded colonies 407 bleached; D. labyrinthiformis: 34.2% of shaded colonies bleached, 66.1% of unshaded 408 colonies bleached). Different mortality outcomes were also observed combining partial and 409 total mortality (p=0.0327) (Fig. 7, Table 8). There was no mortality of shaded C. natans 410 colonies and 10.5% mortality in un-shaded colonies. D. labyrinthiformis showed 10.5% 411 mortality in shaded and 12.3% mortality in un-shaded colonies, respectively. More C. natans 412 colonies grew in the shade than D. labyrinthiformis colonies. The fact that C. natans (a non-413 cryptic coral) occurred statistically more often in the shade and that few of these colonies 414 bleached supports the role of shading in providing refuge conditions. Although more un-415 shaded D. labyrinthiformis colonies bleached and bleaching of these was more severe, shaded 416 colonies were not more likely to recover normal pigmentation. For this species, shading 417 affected the proportion of colonies that initially bleached (p<0.0001), but not the outcome 418 (p=0.7582). Although more un-shaded colonies of *D. labyrinthiformis* bleached, the mortality 419 outcome for shaded and un-shaded colonies was similar (p=0.7508). Overall, recovery from 420 bleaching was high, with little mortality. Only two C. natans colonies bleached. Both had 421 partial mortality and none of the initially unbleached corals showed any mortality 422 (p<0.0001).

423 Comparison of temperature records in the shallow waters of Hurricane Hole to coral 424 reefs around St. John (Miller et al., 2009; National Park Service, 2012) indicate that corals 425 growing in Hurricane Hole are exposed to higher ($0.5 + - 0.5^{\circ}C$ on average) and more 426 variable temperatures than coral reefs around the island (Fig. 8). Low bleaching and 427 mortality have been observed for corals growing on nearshore reefs of Palau that have 428 constant exposure to high temperatures, more variable temperatures, and high vertical 429 attenuation of light caused by suspended particulate matter (van Woesik et al., 2012). 430 Similarly, the resilience of mangrove corals following elevated temperatures likely results 431 from relief from solar radiation stress provided by shading of corals by mangroves.

432 **4** Alternative refuges and resiliency factors

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433 There is an urgent need to identify the characteristics of corals and other reef organisms that 434 could enable them to adapt to the variety of stressors associated with climate change and 435 ocean acidification. Research is needed on how these factors interact and how they will affect the overall biodiversity, function, and transition of these ecosystems. The high 436 437 diversity of coral reefs (among species and within species) and variable response of 438 organisms to climate change increases the likelihood that at least some reef species will be able to persist in locations with particular environmental conditions in the face of changing 439 440 climate (Rogers, 2013). The presence and increase in abundance and diversity of corals in 441 the mangrove habitats of St. John could be a recent phenomenon (within the past several 442 decades). Evidence of onshore migrations of coral in response to past changes in sea level 443 rise is well documented in the geologic record (e.g. Hopley et al., 1983; Neumann and 444 Macintyre, 1985). However, evidence for co-location of live corals and mangroves is not. 445 Mangrove-coral habitats provide evidence of ecosystem transition that may be a response to 446 pressures from unprecedented rates of recent climate change. These habitats may serve as an 447 example of a novel coastal ecosystem (Graham et al., 2014) resulting from differential 448 species responses, and provide insights into future evolution of tropical coastal ecosystems 449 with increasing sea level rise, thermal stress, and ocean acidification.

450 As reefs decline worldwide and sea level continues to rise, alternative (non-reef) 451 shallow-water refuges like mangrove-coral habitats may be critical for insuring the survival 452 of coral species. More definitive research on reef refuges is needed. Examining a hypothesis first proposed by Glynn (1996), Riegl and Piller (2003) evaluated the potential for reefs near 453 454 cool, upwelled waters; reefs at moderate depth (10 to 20 m); and those associated with 455 offshore banks and islands (far from detrimental human activities), to serve as refuges from 456 elevated temperatures and irradiance. They found some evidence that upwelling areas reduce 457 coral bleaching and increase recovery, and noted large areas (such as off the coast of South 458 Africa) below 10 m, the depth above which (they note) most mortality occurs. However, they 459 found that several of the most remote reefs they examined in the Caribbean had sustained 460 significant loss of coral from bleaching and diseases. The potential for deep reefs (often 461 defined as 30 m and deeper) to serve as refuges for corals and sources of replenishing larvae 462 for shallower reef zones may be limited (Bongaerts et al., 2010). Deep (and moderately 463 deep) reefs are not immune to major stressors including bleaching, disease (e.g. Riegl and 464 Piller, 2003; Menza et al., 2007; Smith et al., 2010) and ocean acidification. Many coral



species are not found over an entire range of depths, many do not broadcast (spawn) larvae, and deep corals may not, therefore, provide larvae that can settle and survive in shallow waters. Identification and protection of other natural, alternative, shallow-water refuges is essential as one of the few viable management strategies for sustaining coral and other reef species, and provides one of the only direct actions that can be taken locally to manage climate change impacts (Salm et al., 2006).

471 The unlikely association of corals with mangroves in many coastal ecosystems due to 472 unsuitable growth conditions has dissuaded previous consideration of these habitats as 473 potential coral refuges. Many mainland mangrove habitats especially those with large 474 watersheds and high rates of freshwater run-off are not likely candidates for coral refuges. 475 Despite the fact that St. John is chronically exposed to episodic storm events with high 476 rainfall that can lower salinity (for example as shown in our November 2010 data), corals are 477 thriving in the bays of Hurricane Hole and have been over decades. Study sites in Princess 478 Bay showed lower coral diversity and abundance than in Otter and Water Creeks perhaps 479 because it receives more freshwater runoff due to a larger watershed size. However, data are 480 too few to quantify physical constraints on topographic boundaries that limit refuge potential 481 for these coastal habitats. Numerous small tropical islands worldwide have physical 482 characteristics similar to the U.S. Virgin Islands (for example where freshwater input is 483 limited due to small watersheds and no permanent sources of freshwater inflow) and the potential for suitable magnove-coral refuge conditions. Our findings identify the first 484 485 naturally existing, alternative (non-reef) refuge from climate change for reef-building corals 486 and provide baseline resiliency factors to assist in identifying and characterizing mangrove-487 coral and other alternative refuges around the world.

488 We consider the St. John mangrove habitat that we have described as a refuge because 489 it provides relief from thermal and photo-oxidative stress through shading by mangroves and 490 variability of seawater temperatures, and because biological and sedimentological processes 491 buffer declines of pH and carbonate mineral saturation states that can impede growth of 492 calcifying organisms. Exposure to warmer and more variable conditions in the mangroves 493 may facilitate adaptation of these corals to higher temperatures and may enhance resiliency 494 for future expansion under changing environmental conditions (van Woesik et al., 2012; 495 Palumbi et al., 2014). Carbonate mineral saturation states and pH in the mangrove coral 496 habitats are not elevated relative to the highest reported values on nearby Long Bay reef. However, they are not as low as those on the reef and generally remain outside of critical 497

498 threshold ranges. We suggest that elevation of carbonate mineral saturation state relative to 499 the highest reef environment values is not a refuge criterion requirement for ocean 500 acidification. Rather, the ability of the refuge environment to buffer declines in pH and 501 carbonate saturation state to keep them from surpassing critical thresholds relative to reef 502 environments is the most important factor. Key resiliency factors for mangrove-coral habitats include: 1) high diversity and variable response of coral species to climate change 503 504 stressors, 2) heterogeneity of benthic community composition, processes, and proximity of 505 different habitat types, 3) hydrographic conditions that amplify biogeochemical effects on 506 seawater chemistry and promote chemical characteristics that support coral growth, 4) 507 exposure to variable water temperatures and physical shading of corals from solar radiation 508 (Table 9). The appropriate combination of all of these factors for creating refuge conditions 509 is not generally characteristic of most coral reef environments. Thus, only a few reef systems 510 that protect against increased temperatures, solar radiation or ocean acidification have been 511 identified, and none have been identified that protect from all three stressors like the 512 mangrove-coral habitats of St. John.

513

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Coral Species	Princess Bay	Otter Creek	Water Creek
Stephanocoenia intersepta	X	X	X
Acropora palmata			Х
Agaricia agaricites	Х	х	Х
Agaricia spp		х	Х
Siderastrea siderea	Х	X	Х
Siderastrea radians	X	X	X
Porites astreoides	X	х	X
Porites porites	X	Х	X
Porites furcata	X	Х	X
Porites divaricata	X		
Favia fragum	X	Х	х
Diploria labyrinthiformis	х	Х	х
Pseudodiploria clivosa		Х	х
Pseudodiploria strigosa	X	X	х
Manicina areolata	X	Х	х
Colpophyllia natans	X	Х	х
Colpophyllia amaranthus		X	
Cladocora arbuscula	X		
Orbicella annularis	X	X	
Orbicella faveolata	X	X	х
Orbicella franksii		Х	X
Montastraea cavernosa		X	Х
Solenastrea bournoni		X	
Phyllangia americana		Х	
Oculina diffusa	Х	X	
Meandrina meandrites		X	Х
Dichocoenia stokesi			Х
Dendrogyra cylindrus		X	Х
Scolylmia cubensis	X	X	X
Scolymia lacera		X	
Mycetophyllia spp.		Х	X
Eusmilia fastigiata		Х	X
Tubastrea aurea		Х	Х
Millepora spp.	Х	Х	Х
Totals	19	30	26

Table 1. Species list of corals living in mangroves.

Logger ID	Location	Latitude (DD)	Longitude (DD)
1208639	Otter Creek mid-bay	18.34965	-64.69215
9712498	Princess Bay mid-bay	18.35562	-64.69455
9712499	Otter Creek mid-bay	18.35160	-64.69240
9712501	Water Creek mid-bay	18.34777	-64.69076
9712501	Water Creek mid-bay	18.34773	-64.69072
9712503	Water Creek inner-bay	18.34963	-64.68951
9712511	Otter Creek inner-bay	18.35119	-64.69111
9712522	Otter Creek outer-bay	18.34950	-64.69243
9712524	Otter Creek inner-bay	18.35008	-64.69069
9712525	Water Creek mid-bay	18.34850	-64.69146
9712534	Water Creek inner-bay	18.35066	-64.68871
9712537	Water Creek outer-bay	18.34596	-64.69165
9712538	Princess Bay outer-bay	18.35328	-64.69333
9712540	Otter Creek inner-bay	18.35107	-64.69013
9712541	Water Creek mid-bay	18.34890	-64.69048
9712545	Princess Bay inner-bay	18.35615	-64.69069
9712546	Water Creek mid-bay*	18.34755	-64.68956
9712547	Otter Creek inner-bay	18.35198	-64.69169

Table 2. Location of HOBO temperature loggers in Hurricane Hole, St. John, USVI.

Depth	Temp.	Sal.	DO	$p \mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$	ТА	CT	pCO ₂	Ω_{A}
(m)	(C^{o})	(psu)	$(mg L^{-1})$		(µmol kg ⁻¹)	(µmol kg ⁻¹)	(µatm)	
1.5	28.9	36.1	5.97	8.043	2368	2018	404	3.98
3.0	28.9	36.1	5.96	8.025	2336	2001	419	3.80
4.6	28.9	36.1	5.95	8.012	2322	1997	433	3.69
6.0	28.9	36.1	5.92	8.004	2323	2003	443	3.64

709 **Table 3.** Vertical Profile Data.

710 Vertical profile data were collected between 7:00 am and 7:07 am on July 19, 2011 near the

711 mouth of Otter Creek at study site number STJ17 (Fig. 1).

713 **Table 4.** Long Bay Reef Data.

Site	Date	Time	Temp. (C ^o)	Sal. (psu)	DO (mg L ⁻¹)	pH_T	TA (μmol kg ⁻¹)	C _T (µmol kg ⁻¹)	pCO ₂ (µatm)	Ω_{A}
1	7/16/04	11:00	28.7	35.7	6.9	7.996	2267	1962	443	3.47
1	8/18/04	07:00	28.9	35.4	5.2	7.925	2283	2019	548	3.09
1	8/19/04	07:00	29.2	35.2	5.0	7.955	2309	2023	509	3.33
2	7/16/04	11:00	29.3	35.7	ND	8.031	2288	1954	404	3.80
2	7/17/04	07:00	28.3	35.7	4.6	7.943	2286	2014	520	3.14
2	8/18/04	07:00	28.6	35.4	5.3	7.937	2279	2010	528	3.12
2	8/19/04	07:00	29.1	35.2	4.5	7.894	2282	2033	595	2.93
3	7/20/04	11:00	28.8	35.7	7.2	8.006	2269	1956	431	3.55
3	8/22/04	07:00	29.0	34.9	4.7	7.950	2275	2000	510	3.22
4	8/22/04	07:00	29.0	34.9	4.9	7.936	2269	2002	529	3.13

Long Bay reef data were collected from four locations at 7:00 am or 11:00 am between July

715 16 and August 22, 2004. ND = no data.

Sample Location	% Gravel	% Sand	% Silt	% Clay	% Mud	Mean Ф*	% Carbonate	% TOM [†]	% Insoluble Residue
STJ5	71.0	20.7	4.7	3.5	8.2	-0.4	93.9	2.2	3.9
STJ7	14.9	80.6	3.7	0.8	4.5	1.0	73.8	0.3	25.9
STJ8	58.2	25.8	11.6	4.4	16.0	0.4	69.7	7.1	23.2
STJ10	15.0	27.7	44.2	13.1	57.3	3.5	54.6	11.9	33.5
STJ11	2.7	81.7	13.6	2.0	15.6	1.9	20.0	1.0	79.0
STJ12	9.2	88.2	1.0	1.6	2.6	1.3	96.8	0.1	3.1
STJ13	24.2	52.4	17.6	5.9	23.5	2.0	82.8	1.4	15.8
STJ14	38.0	31.2	27.0	3.7	30.8	1.6	74.9	6.2	18.9
STJ15	0.5	35.0	61.8	2.6	64.5	4.3	11.7	2.9	85.4

Table 5. Grain size of surface sediments.

*-log₂ of the grain diameter in mm, [†]total organic matter from loss on ignition. See Fig. 1 for
sample locations.

Sample Leastion	Carbonate Mineralogy					
Sample Location	% Aragonite	% Mg-Calcite	% Calcite			
STJ5	53.3	8.8	37.9			
STJ7	75.4	8.0	16.7			
STJ8	60.2	21.1	18.8			
STJ10	70.7	16.3	13.1			
STJ11	65.8	0.0	34.2			
STJ12	82.3	16.5	1.2			
STJ13	58.9	34.6	6.4			
STJ14	74.6	11.3	14.1			
STJ15	78.9	0.0	21.1			

721	Table 6.	Carbonate	mineralogica	l composition	of surface	sediments.
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Date	Location	Site	NEC:NEP	LRE	r ²
November 2010	Otter Creek	MC	NA	0.17570x + 2063	0.12
		MNC	0.96	0.9795x + 376.87	0.86
		ROC	12.11	2.1779x - 2098.5	0.50
	Water Creek	MC	NA	-0.2660x + 3000.5	0.27
		MNC	0.33	0.5031x + 1354.2	0.83
		ROC	NA	-0.1158x + 2684.9	0.02
	Princess Bay	MC	0.32	0.4936x + 1343.3	0.57
		MNC	3.35	1.5414x - 823.71	0.93
		ROC	0.75	0.8602x + 600.04	0.91
July 2011	Otter Creek	MC	1.63	1.2413x - 181.92	0.87
		MNC	NA	0.3334x + 1616.5	0.17
		ROC	1.27	1.1153x + 66.438	0.70
	Water Creek	МС	0.44	0.6069x + 1075.7	0.68
		MNC	0.80	0.8863x + 516.13	0.84
		ROC	1.22	1.0582x + 192.54	0.58
	Princess Bay	MC	0.18	0.3060x + 1661.5	0.94
		MNC	0.44	0.6141x + 1069.5	0.72
		ROC	NA	0.0369x + 2179.8	0.01
July 2012	Otter Creek	MC	0.28	0.4376x + 1435.1	0.55
		MNC	NA	0.2189 + 1865.6	0.32
		ROC	NA	0.2080x + 1889.5	0.41
	Water Creek	MC	NA	0.1773x + 1950.7	0.45
		MNC	0.18	0.2965x + 1707.6	0.84
		ROC	NA	0.2915x + 1723.4	0.38
	Princess Bay	MC	0.25	0.4042x + 1507.2	0.89
		MNC	0.14	0.2513x + 1810.3	0.95
		ROC	0.31	0.4740x + 1366.3	0.85

723 **Table 7.** NEC:NEP ratios for study sites with nA_T vs. nC_T r² >0.5.

Ratios of net ecosystem calcification to net community production (NEC:NCP) were calculated from the slopes of best-fit linear regression lines for 18 of 27 site measurements showing a correlation between nA_T and nC_T with $r^2 > 0.5$. NEC:NCP was calculated using the equation 1/[(2/m)-1] where m = slope from the corresponding linear regression equation (LRE). MC = mangrove-coral sites, MNC = mangrove no coral sites, ROC = rock outcrop coral sites.

- **Table 8.** Condition of colonies of *Diploria labyrinthiformis* and *Colpophyllia natans* during
- 731 2010-2011.

Colony condition	D. labyrinthiformis	D. labyrinthiformis	C. natans	C. natans
	Shaded	Unshaded	Shaded	Unshaded
Total number of colonies	38	171	50	19
Bleached to dead	1	5	0	0
Bleached to partial mortality	1	10	0	2
Bleached to unbleached	11	98	0	0
Unbleached to dead	1	2	0	0
Unbleached to partial mortality	1	4	0	0
Unbleached to unbleached	23	52	50	17

Resiliency factor	Local condition at mangrove-coral sites in St. John, USVI
Diversity and response of organisms	
·High diversity of coral species	•More than 30 coral species identified
·Variable response of organisms	•Preferential growth of <i>C. natans</i> in shaded areas, more bleaching of exposed than shaded <i>D. labyrinthiformis</i> colonies
Heterogeneity and habitat proximity	
·Community heterogeneity	·Collocation of corals and mangroves, upstream to downstream transition from mangrove/seagrass/algae to mangrove/coral habitat
·Available substrate for coral settlement	·Prop roots, hard bottom
·Low NEC:NCP ratios at upstream or coral locations and proximity to coral growth sites	•Average NEC:NEP of 0.5 to 0.9 at mangrove-coral (MC) sites and upstream mangrove, calcareous algae, seagrass communities (MNC), respectively
Hydrographic & chemical conditions	
·Limited or no influence from permanent freshwater inflow	·No permanent or frequent freshwater inflow
·Long water mass residence times	·Days (McKenzie, 2012)
·Hydrographic conditions that maintain substrate appropriate for coral settlement and growth	•Periodic influence from storm waves that prevents settlement of fine-grained sediments, low TOM (<12%), >69% sand and gravel
·Seawater chemistry conducive to coral growth	·Minimum pH 7.93, maximum pCO ₂ 550 µatm, minimum Ω_A 2.82
Exposure	
•Consistent exposure of corals to higher, more variable temperatures	·Average temperature $0.5 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C higher than reef tract temperatures (2010)
·Physical shading from solar radiation	•Mangrove canopy attenuates >70% of incident photosynthetically active radiation (PAR)

Table 9. Resiliency factors for mangrove-coral refuges.

Figure 1. Study sites (STJ#s) in Hurricane Hole, St. John, USVI. MC = mangroves with
corals growing on and near mangrove prop roots and shaded by the mangrove canopy, MNC
= mangrove with no corals growing in association with them, ROC = rock outcrops with live
corals and no shading from mangroves.

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Figure 2. Corals growing under a mangrove canopy and attached to mangrove prop roots
including a colony of *Colpophyllia natans* (center of photo).

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Figure 3. Chemical and physical parameters. Median and range for chemical and physical 745 746 parameters in Hurricane Hole bays during November 2010, and July 2011 and 2012 and for 747 Long Bay reef during July and August 2004 (n = 10). Measurements were made every 4-748 hours throughout a diurnal cycle (n=7) at each study site during November 2010 and July 749 2011 and 2012, and for 3 consecutive days (n=19) in Otter Creek during July 2012. 750 Measurements at Long Bay reef were made at 7am and 11am (n = 7 and 3, respectively). No 751 DO data was collected in Water Creek during July 2012 due to DO sensor failure. Red shaded areas (3g and 3h) show reported ranges for pCO₂ and Ω_A thresholds for carbonate 752 753 sediment calcification and dissolution. available Data at 754 http://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.825752.

755

Figure 4. Vertical profile data of seawater chemical parameters collected at 7:00 a.m. on
July 19, 2011 over coral habitat at 6.5 m water depth. Vertical axis = depth below sea
surface.

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Figure 5. Salinity normalized total alkalinity (nA_T) and total carbon (nC_T) plots with best fit linear regressions (see Table 5 for equations and r^2 values) for November 2010, July 2011, and July 2012 in Otter Creek, Water Creek, and Princess Bay. Average nA_T and nC_T for each time period was calculated from all data collected from each site within each bay. Gray lines represent the theoretical impact of calcification (G), carbonate sediment dissolution (D), photosynthesis (P), respiration (R), CO₂ uptake (CU), and CO₂ release (CR) on A_T and C_T .

Figure 6. Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) measurements at study sites in Otter
Creek (a, b, and c) and Water Creek (d and e). Measurements represent 15-minute averages.
STJ# = PAR sensor location as referenced in Fig. 1. Data available at
http://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.825752.

- 771
- Figure 7. Recovery results for shaded vs. un-shaded (a) Diploria labyrinthiformis (n=38 and
- n=171 shaded and un-shaded colonies, respectively) and (b) Colpophylia natans (n=50 and
- n=19 shaded and un-shaded colonies, respectively) from 2010 to 2011. Also refer to Table 6.
 775
- Figure 8. Temperature trends from mangrove-coral and reef tract habitats. Hurricane Hole temperature data was averaged from 18 data loggers distributed throughout Hurricane Hole bays (Table 2). Temperature measurements were recorded every 2-hours and daily averages were generated from all sites in Hurricane Hole, and from 6 reef sites around St. John. Data are available at http://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.825752.
- 781

Figure 1.



785 Figure 2.



788 Figure 3a.



790 b.



791



C.



793

794 d.





e.









g.



h.











817 a.



d.





