

# 1 Coral community bleaching response on a highly urbanised reef

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## 26 27 Abstract

28  
29 Projected increases in the magnitude and frequency of sea surface temperature anomalies  
30 present a significant threat to the persistence of tropical coral reefs, however, detailed studies  
31 of community level responses to thermal stress are needed if its effect on reef resilience are to  
32 be understood. While many studies report on broad, regional scale responses to thermal stress  
33 (e.g., proportion of corals bleached), far fewer examine variation in susceptibility among taxa  
34 and change in coral community structure, before, during and after bleaching on individual  
35 reefs. Furthermore, relatively few studies of bleaching response come from highly urbanised  
36 reefs that experience chronic disturbances such as elevated sedimentation and turbidity. Here  
37 we report in detail on the bleaching response of corals at a highly urbanised reef site south of  
38 mainland Singapore during (June, July) and immediately after (October) a major thermal  
39 coral bleaching event in 2010. To estimate the capacity for resistance and resilience to  
40 thermal stress, we report on a) the overall bleaching severity during and after the event, b)  
41 differences in bleaching susceptibility among taxa during the event and c) the response of the  
42 reef in terms of taxonomic community structure before (2009) and after (2012) bleaching.  
43 Despite severe bleaching in 2010 (66% of colonies bleached), post-bleaching recovery  
44 appeared to be relatively rapid and coral taxa that are usually highly susceptible (e.g.,  
45 *Acropora* and *Pocillopora*) were relatively unaffected, i.e., either they did not bleach or they  
46 bleached and recovered. Although there was no significant change in coral taxonomic  
47 community structure among years, taxa that bleached most severely tended to have the  
48 greatest reductions in relative cover. Several factors may have contributed to the overall high  
49 resistance of this site to bleaching including turbidity, symbiont affiliation and heterotrophy.  
50 A parsimonious explanation for the reversed pattern of bleaching susceptibility among taxa is

51 that these coral populations have adapted and/or acclimatised to thermal stress. Despite  
52 ongoing chronic anthropogenic impacts, we suggest that this site has potential for rapid  
53 recovery of coral cover due to the dominant coral taxa and growth forms being capable of  
54 rapid regrowth from remnant colonies.

55

## 56 Introduction

57

58 Coral bleaching refers to the paling or whitening of shallow water reef corals that results  
59 from the loss of symbiotic dinoflagellate algae (known as zooxanthellae) or their algal  
60 pigments (Douglas 2003). Bleaching is a stress response, leading to sub-lethal damage and/or  
61 partial or whole colony mortality for the coral host, and can be induced by several factors  
62 (Baird et al., 2009). Large-scale bleaching episodes, however, are strongly correlated with  
63 elevated sea temperatures and may be exacerbated by high irradiance (Glynn 1993; Brown  
64 1997). Major bleaching events driven by thermal anomalies have caused widespread and  
65 catastrophic mortality of corals and are considered one of the main drivers of global reef  
66 degradation (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007). Bleaching severity, at the level of the coral  
67 assemblage, varies substantially as a consequence of the severity of thermal stress (Kleypas  
68 et al., 2008), the thermal history of the site (e.g., Thompson & van Woesik 2009), local  
69 environmental factors that affect irradiance (e.g., cloud cover or turbidity) (Mumby et al.,  
70 2001; Dunne & Brown 2001) and the type and diversity of symbiotic algae present in the  
71 coral host tissue (Baker et al., 2004).

72 One of the strongest drivers of variation in bleaching at a reef scale, however, is the  
73 taxonomic composition of the coral assemblage (Marshall & Baird 2000). This is because,  
74 until recently, there were found to be consistent differences in the susceptibility of coral taxa  
75 to bleaching (Brown 1997; Marshall & Baird 2000; Loya et al., 2001; McClanahan et al.,  
76 2004; but see Guest et al., 2012). For example, in most studies to date, branching colonies of  
77 the genera *Acropora* and *Pocillopora* tended to bleach much more severely relative to other  
78 growth forms and coral genera, particularly slow growing massive species (Marshall & Baird  
79 2000; Loya et al., 2001; McClanahan et al., 2004). This observation has led to the widespread  
80 classification of fast growing branching species as “losers” in the face of global warming  
81 (Loya et al., 2001), at least in the short term (van Woesik et al., 2011). The classification of  
82 corals as winners or losers does not, however, take into consideration the capacity for  
83 normally susceptible species to adapt and/or acclimatise to thermal stress (Maynard et al.,  
84 2008 a; Maynard et al., 2008 b; Baird & Maynard 2008).

85 Not only do different coral taxa vary in their bleaching responses, but they also differ  
86 in their ability to recover from bleaching. For example, in a study of individually tagged  
87 colonies of four species on the Great Barrier Reef (GBR) following bleaching, 88% of  
88 *Acropora hyacinthus* and 32% of *A. millepora* colonies (both fast growing branching species)  
89 died compared to whole colony mortality in only 13% of *Platygyra daedalea* and 0% of  
90 *Porites lobata* (both slow growing massive species)(Baird & Marshall 2002). Most surviving  
91 *P. daedalea* and *P. lobata* colonies lost some tissue through partial colony mortality but this  
92 was rare in the *Acropora*, and colonies either survived intact or died completely (Baird &  
93 Marshall 2002). The physiological mechanism that normally leads to greater susceptibility  
94 among fast growing branching species is unknown, but has been associated with metabolic  
95 rate (Gates & Edmunds 1999), tissue thickness (Loya et al., 2001), mass transfer rates  
96 (Nakamura & van Woesik 2001), fluorescent proteins (Bou-Abdallah et al., 2006), light  
97 absorbing capacities (Fabricius 2006), heterotrophy (Grottoli et al., 2006), and symbiont  
98 association (Baker 2004).

99 Differential bleaching severity among taxa has important ecological implications  
100 because it influences the potential of species to adapt to future thermal stress by natural

101 selection (Baird & Maynard 2008). Susceptible taxa, such as *Acropora* and *Pocillopora*,  
102 have relatively fast growth rates (Harriott 1999) and become sexually mature within two to  
103 three years (Baria et al., 2012; Stimson 1978), life history traits which predispose these  
104 genera to adapt more rapidly (Baird & Maynard 2008). Thus, one might expect a more rapid  
105 adaptive response on reefs dominated by fast growing susceptible species (providing that the  
106 coral population recovers following bleaching) (Maynard et al., 2008 b). The incidence of  
107 partial versus full colony mortality within a coral community following bleaching also has  
108 implications for the rate at which a reef recovers following a disturbance. Reefs dominated by  
109 corals that tend to suffer partial coral mortality may recover coral cover rapidly via regrowth  
110 of remnant colonies, rather than relying on recruitment of new colonies from larvae (e.g.,  
111 Golbuu et al., 2007; Diaz-Pulido et al., 2009).

112 Understanding the potential of reef assemblages to recover from disturbances (such as  
113 bleaching) is becoming increasingly important as the frequency and magnitude of  
114 anthropogenic impacts affecting reefs increase (Pandolfi et al., 2003). Temperature induced  
115 mass coral bleaching events are predicted to become more frequent (Hoegh-Guldberg 1999;  
116 Donner et al., 2005; Eakin et al., 2009) and reef coral assemblages will undoubtedly change  
117 in terms of their taxonomic composition over the next few decades (Pandolfi et al., 2003).

118 While many studies report on broad, regional scale responses to thermal stress during  
119 bleaching events (e.g., proportion of corals bleached)(e.g., Wilkinson 1998) fewer examine  
120 variation in susceptibility among taxa and change in coral community structure, before,  
121 during and after bleaching on individual reefs (e.g., Loya et al., 2001; Brown et al., 2002;  
122 Maynard et al., 2008 a; van Woesik et al., 2011; McClanahan 2014; Pratchett et al., 2013).  
123 Such detailed studies are needed if we are to understand the effect that repeated thermal  
124 anomalies will have on community structure and reef resilience. Furthermore, less is known  
125 about the capacity for resistance and recovery on urbanised reefs that experience severe  
126 chronic disturbances such as elevated sedimentation and turbidity (although see Brown et al.,  
127 2002). It is often assumed that these reefs will be less resilient to additional disturbances than  
128 reefs that are effectively managed or reefs far from anthropogenic influences (West & Salm  
129 2003; Golbuu et al., 2007; Nystrom & Folke 2001).

130 In 2010, corals throughout the Indian Ocean and Southeast Asia experienced higher  
131 than normal water temperatures leading to extensive coral bleaching at many reef sites  
132 (<http://coralreefwatch.noaa.gov/satellite/bleachingoutlook/index.html>). Severe bleaching was  
133 reported in Singapore and Malaysia (Thomas & Heron 2011; Guest et al., 2012), Thailand  
134 (Hoeksema & Matthews 2010; Phongsuwan and Chansang 2012; Sutthacheep et al., 2012),  
135 Indonesia (Wilson et al., 2012; Maynard et al., 2012), Brunei, Cambodia, Philippines and  
136 Vietnam (Tun et al., 2010). In an earlier publication Guest et al. (2012) reported an unusual  
137 reversal in bleaching susceptibility among coral taxa and contrasting bleaching responses  
138 among sites in Singapore, Malaysia and Sumatra during 2010. To further examine the  
139 capacity for resistance of heavily urbanised Singaporean reefs, here we examine the  
140 bleaching responses of corals at a reef site south of mainland Singapore during (June, July)  
141 and immediately after (October) the 2010 bleaching event. The aims of this study were to a)  
142 estimate the capacity for resistance to thermal stress by quantifying overall bleaching severity  
143 during and after the event, b) compare relative bleaching susceptibility among taxa during  
144 and after the event, and c) examine the effect of the bleaching event on coral cover and coral  
145 taxonomic community structure.

146

## 147 **Methods and materials**

148

### 149 *Study site*

150

151 All work was conducted at a fringing reef on the western side of Pulau Satumu (Raffles  
152 Lighthouse, 1°09'35.09"N, 103°44'24.09"E). Pulau Satumu is situated approx. 13 km from  
153 mainland Singapore and is the southernmost reef within Singapore's territorial waters. The  
154 western fringing reef at Pulau Satumu is approx. 250 m long and 20-30 m wide (i.e., from  
155 shore to the base of the reef slope). Singapore's marine environment is characterised by high  
156 levels of sedimentation, turbidity and eutrophication as a result of extensive historical coastal  
157 development and ongoing dredging of shipping channels (Chou 1996; Gin et al., 2000).  
158 Although heavily impacted, most of Singapore's islands have fringing reefs with relatively  
159 diverse coral communities with over 250 scleractinian species (Huang et al., 2009). Due to its  
160 distance from the mainland, Pulau Satumu has the lowest rates of sedimentation and  
161 suspended solids of studied Singaporean reefs (Low & Chou 1994; Todd et al., 2004; Dikou  
162 & van Woelk 2006). This site also has the highest hard coral cover (~50 to 70% in the  
163 present study) and greatest coral species richness among Singaporean reefs (Dikou & van  
164 Woelk 2006; Huang et al., 2009). While it is one of the least impacted sites in Singapore,  
165 levels of sedimentation (~15 mg cm<sup>2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and suspended solids (~10 mg l<sup>-1</sup>) (Todd et al.,  
166 2004) still exceed values considered normal for coral reefs (Rogers 1990). This, and other  
167 sites in Singapore, are dominated in terms of coral cover by foliose, encrusting, massive and  
168 submassive coral growth forms, particularly from the genera *Montipora*, *Merulina*,  
169 *Platygyra*, *Echinopora* and *Pachyseris* (Guest et al., unpublished data). However, Pulau  
170 Satumu was selected as it has one of the only accessible reefs within Singapore's territorial  
171 waters possessing an assemblage of *Acropora* and *Pocillopora* (primarily *P. damicornis*)  
172 corals suitable for meaningful ecological studies (Guest et al., 2005).

#### 173 174 *Surveys of bleaching susceptibility*

175  
176 Extensive bleaching of corals and other zooxanthellate taxa (e.g., anemones, zooanthids) at  
177 multiple sites south of Singapore was first recorded in May 2010 (Tun et al., 2010). Coral  
178 bleaching is triggered when sea surface temperatures (SST) exceed a climatological  
179 maximum monthly mean (MMM) for extended periods. The extent of thermal stress is  
180 typically expressed in terms of degree heating weeks (DHW) (Liu et al., 2003). In Singapore,  
181 remotely sensed data derived from the Pathfinder dataset of the US National Oceanic and  
182 Atmospheric Administration (Casey et al., 2010; Kilpatrick et al., 2001) indicated that SSTs  
183 rose above the climatological MMM of 29.86°C in mid-April 2010 and remained elevated  
184 until at least mid-August 2010 (Guest et al., 2012). During this period, maximum DHW of  
185 12.02°C weeks (i.e., accumulation of thermal anomalies at temperatures >29.86°C) occurred  
186 in mid-July (Guest et al., 2012), although this was based on a slightly modified version of the  
187 most commonly used DHW method (i.e., when thermal anomalies begin to accumulate at  
188 ≥1°C above MMM). The level of thermal stress reported for Singapore was similar to that of  
189 other sites in Southeast Asia, including Malaysia and Sumatra (Guest et al., 2012). For the  
190 present study, surveys of bleaching susceptibility were carried out on June 15, July 5 and  
191 October 4 2010, i.e., approximately +8, +12 and +25 weeks after sea temperatures exceeded  
192 MMM in Singapore.

193 On survey occasions in June and July, coral colonies within four haphazardly placed  
194 30 m × 1 m belt-transects were surveyed at depths between ~2 and 5 m along the reef flat and  
195 upper reef slope on the western side of Pulau Satumu. Survey data in October were collected  
196 using methods described in (Guest et al., 2012). Ten replicate two-metre radius survey plots  
197 were selected haphazardly and all colonies within each plot were surveyed. Although the  
198 survey methods in June/July and October differed, the total area surveyed was similar (120 m<sup>2</sup>  
199 in June/July and 126 m<sup>2</sup> in October). In addition to the transects and survey plots, in July and  
200 October a wider survey of the genus *Acropora* was carried out during a 40-minute random



201 swim, in which all *Acropora* colonies encountered were surveyed. Following the scheme  
202 described by (Marshall & Baird 2000) all colonies within each transect or survey plot were  
203 identified to genus level and bleaching status was recorded as follows: 1) healthy=no  
204 bleaching; 2) moderately bleached=colony pale or less than 50% of surface area bleached  
205 and; 3) severely bleached=colony greater than 50% bleached. A bleaching index (BI) was  
206 estimated following methods described by McClanahan et al. (2004) as follows:  
207

$$BMI = \frac{0c1 + 1c2 + 2c3}{2}$$

208  
209 Where c1 to c3 are the three coral status categories expressed as the proportion of colonies  
210 (%) surveyed arranged in order from not bleached to severely bleached. This differs from the  
211 bleaching and mortality index described by (McClanahan et al., 2004) as it does not include  
212 recently dead colonies.

213 Coral cover and taxonomic community structure were characterized by SCUBA  
214 divers using the line intercept method (English et al., 1997) in September 2009, 2010 and  
215 2012 (i.e., one year before bleaching, during bleaching and two years after bleaching).  
216 During each survey, five replicate 20 m transects were laid parallel to the reef crest at a depth  
217 of ~3 to 4 m and each transect was separated by a distance of approximately 5 m. The genera  
218 and growth forms of all hard coral colonies encountered along each transect were recorded.  
219 Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) ordinations and one-way ANOSIM based on  
220 Bray-Curtis similarities of square-root transformed data were produced in PRIMER v6  
221 (Clarke & Gorley 2006) to examine changes in coral community structure among years.  
222

## 223 Results

224  
225 A total of 597, 542 and 491 colonies were surveyed in June, July and October 2010  
226 respectively. Surveys of taxa susceptibility of all genera carried out in June and July revealed  
227 that an estimated 66% and 58% respectively of colonies surveyed were bleached (Fig. 1). In  
228 June an estimated 36% of colonies were moderately bleached and 30% were severely  
229 bleached, whereas in July there was already some evidence of recovery with only 33% and  
230 25% moderately and severely bleached respectively (Fig. 1). In contrast, in October only  
231 18% of colonies surveyed were bleached, with only 4% severely bleached and 14%  
232 moderately bleached (Fig. 1). A total of 30 taxa were surveyed during all three sampling  
233 occasions in 2010. Bleaching severity varied greatly among populations within each  
234 sampling occasion, within populations and among sampling occasions. The proportion of  
235 colonies bleached within genera varied from 0% to 100% among genera in all survey months,  
236 however, for most taxa, bleaching severity declined markedly between June and October  
237 (Table 1). For example, in June and July, 22 of 30 taxa surveyed had  $\geq 50\%$  of colonies  
238 bleached, whereas in October only 4 taxa had  $\geq 50\%$  of colonies bleached (Table 1).

239 Considering only taxa for which at least 5 colonies were sampled on all 3 occasions, 4  
240 coral genera had consistently low susceptibility to bleaching (i.e., BI < 30) throughout the  
241 study period (Table S1, Fig. 2). These included *Acropora*, *Galaxea*, *Pavona* and *Merulina*  
242 (Table S1, Fig. 2). The genus *Acropora* was the least affected among all genera, with 82% of  
243 colonies surveyed in July (at least 13 species surveyed) unaffected by bleaching with the  
244 remainder either pale or partially bleached and none severely bleached (Table 2, Fig. 2, 3a-c).  
245 A further 7 genera had relatively moderate susceptibility to bleaching (i.e., BI from 30 to 59)  
246 in both June and July, but of these, all but one (*Porites*) had low severity (BI < 30) by October  
247 (Table S1, Fig. 2). All colonies of *Porites* surveyed in June and July were massive (primarily  
248 *P. lutea* and *P. lobata*) or submassive (*P. rus*). Only one colony of branching *Porites*

249 (possibly *P. cylindrica*) was surveyed in October and this had suffered severe partial  
250 mortality (80% of colony), suggesting it had experienced bleaching related mortality. A  
251 further 8 genera had relatively high bleaching susceptibility (i.e.,  $BI \geq 60$ ) in June and/or July,  
252 but again, all had low severity (i.e.,  $BI < 30$ ) by October (Table S1, Fig. 2). For example, all  
253 *Pocillopora* colonies (predominantly *P. damicornis*) were bleached, with 80% moderately  
254 and 20% severely bleached in July, but by October only 15% remained moderately bleached  
255 (Table S1, Fig. 2, Fig. 3d). The massive taxa *Porites*, on the other hand recovered less  
256 quickly with 43% of colonies moderately or severely bleached in October, compared to 53%  
257 in July (Table S1, Fig. 2, Fig. 3e).

258 Average coral cover at Pulau Satumu declined from  $72.2 \pm 11.1\%$  (mean  $\pm$  SD) in  
259 2009 to  $50.7 \pm 8.4\%$  in 2010, but had partly recovered to  $56.0 \pm 9.1\%$  by 2012. A total of 36  
260 coral genera were surveyed before, during and after the bleaching event in 2009, 2010 and  
261 2012 (Table S2). While there were changes in relative cover of certain taxa before and after  
262 bleaching, there was no significant shift in coral taxonomic community structure among years  
263 at Pulau Satumu (One-way ANOSIM, Global R -0.08) suggesting that most differences in  
264 relative cover of taxa among years were a result of natural temporal variation. It is worth  
265 noting, however, that of the 8 taxa that had high susceptibility to bleaching in June/July, five  
266 showed decreases in relative abundance after bleaching (*Pachyseris*, *Fungia*, *Pectinia*,  
267 *Hydnophora* and *Montipora*) (Table S1). In contrast, only one of the four taxa (*Pavona*) that  
268 showed low bleaching susceptibility had declined in relative abundance between 2009 and  
269 2012 (Table S2). The taxa that had the highest bleaching index in October (*Porites*) also had  
270 the greatest decrease in relative abundance between 2009 and 2012 (Table S2). Relative  
271 cover of *Acropora* remained unchanged before and after bleaching, while relative cover of  
272 *Pocillopora* increased nine-fold (Table S2).

## 273 Discussion

274  
275  
276 Between May and August 2010 Singapore's reefs were reported to be severely bleached (i.e.,  
277  $>50\%$  of colonies bleached) as a result of the thermal anomaly (Tun et al., 2010). Despite  
278 severe bleaching at one Singaporean site (Pulau Satumu) in 2010, post-bleaching recovery  
279 appeared to be rapid and coral taxa that are usually highly susceptible (e.g., *Acropora* and  
280 *Pocillopora*) were relatively unaffected (also reported in Guest et al., 2012). Surveys of four  
281 other sites around Singapore's Southern Islands found similar reef-scale bleaching responses,  
282 suggesting that Pulau Satumu was representative of the broader community (Tun et al.,  
283 2010). Surveys to estimate bleaching associated coral mortality carried out in October 2010  
284 at Pulau Satumu revealed that an estimated 4% of colonies had died recently (Guest et al.,  
285 2012). The majority of the change seen in the proportion of bleached and healthy colonies  
286 between June and October was, therefore, due to colonies recovering from bleaching and not  
287 as a result of colonies bleaching and subsequently dying. Bleaching associated mortality on  
288 other Singaporean reefs (reported to be  $<10\%$  of corals) was much lower than reported at  
289 other locations in Southeast Asia, particularly at sites in the Andaman Sea and Gulf of  
290 Thailand where close to half of colonies surveyed were reported to die following bleaching  
291 (Bridge et al., 2013, Phongsuwan & Chansang 2012, Suthacheep et al., 2013, Tun et al.,  
292 2010), but similar to reports from sites in Peninsular Malaysia (Tioman Island) Indonesia  
293 (e.g., Wakatobi, Bali), Brunei, Sabah and Sarawak (Tun et al., 2010).

294 In addition to relatively high overall resistance of corals at Pulau Satumu to  
295 bleaching, the taxonomic hierarchy of susceptibility among coral genera was unprecedented.  
296 In all studies prior to 2010 there has been a consistent pattern of susceptibility among coral  
297 taxa, with branching *Acropora* and *Pocillopora* being more susceptible to thermal stress than  
298 massive growth forms (Baird & Marshall 2002; Loya et al., 2001; Marshall & Baird 2000;

299 McClanahan et al., 2004). In contrast, in the present study, *Acropora* were the least affected  
300 of all taxa, with 5, 18 and 4% of colonies moderately bleached in June, July and October. In  
301 contrast, most surveyed colonies of *P. damicornis* were bleached in June and July (83 and  
302 100% respectively), however, only 15% of colonies remained moderately bleached in  
303 October. No recently dead colonies of *Pocillopora* and only one recently dead colony of  
304 *Acropora* were recorded during surveys in October 2010 (data from Guest et al., 2012) thus  
305 we can conclude that these, normally susceptible, genera were largely resistant to bleaching  
306 associated mortality at this reef during the 2010 thermal anomaly. On the other hand, massive  
307 species and other growth forms and taxa behaved normally, i.e., they tended to bleach  
308 moderately and recover relatively slowly (Baird & Marshall 2002). For example a high  
309 proportion of surveyed *Porites* colonies (43%) were still moderately or severely bleached in  
310 October. Surveys of coral benthic structure showed decreases in overall coral cover after the  
311 bleaching event; however, taxonomic community structure did not change significantly.  
312 There were no decreases in relative abundance of *Acropora*, but there were increases in  
313 relative abundance of *Pocillopora* and decreases in relative abundance of *Porites*. For  
314 *Porites*, this was not as a result of species with branching morphologies bleaching and dying  
315 as the majority of *Porites* surveyed at Pulau Satumu were either massive or submassive  
316 morphologies (e.g., *P. lutea*, *P. rus*). A similar pattern, i.e., relatively low susceptibility to  
317 bleaching of *Acropora* corals, was also reported for sites in Indonesia (e.g., Wakatobi)  
318 (Wilson et al., 2010) and Malaysia (e.g., Tioman Island) (Guest et al., 2012), indicating this  
319 unusual taxonomic reversal in susceptibility was not restricted to the reef at Pulau Satumu.  
320 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time such a response has been reported for these  
321 usually highly susceptible taxa during a major thermal bleaching event. In light of these  
322 results, there is a clear need to re-evaluate the current paradigm regarding winners and losers  
323 among corals in the face of climate change.

324 Several possible explanations exist for the overall high resistance to bleaching at  
325 Pulau Satumu in 2010. Firstly, Singapore's corals may host relatively thermally tolerant  
326 symbiont clades. Currently published accounts of symbiont association from Singaporean  
327 reefs only exist for five species of zoanthid which host C1/C3, C15/C91 and clade D derived  
328 *Symbiodinium* (Reimer & Todd 2009). Work is currently in progress to identify  
329 zooxanthellae clade types for a range of Singaporean coral species using next generation  
330 sequencing approaches and initial results suggest that most coral taxa host predominantly  
331 clade C derived symbionts (B. Wilson, unpublished data). Secondly, high turbidity, which  
332 characterises Singapore's coastal waters (e.g., average Secchi depth ~2 m) (Guest et al.,  
333 2007) may provide a degree of protection from light stress during thermal anomalies. In  
334 combination with high temperatures, elevated levels of irradiance can lead to coral bleaching  
335 (Brown 1997; Dunne & Brown 2001) and it has been shown that when irradiance is lowered  
336 during thermal anomalies (e.g., by cloud cover) corals bleach less severely (Mumby et al.,  
337 2001). Thirdly, it is conceivable that high concentrations of suspended particulate matter  
338 (SPM) present in Singapore's coastal waters, e.g., ranging from 9 to 16 mg l<sup>-1</sup> (Todd et al.,  
339 2004), which can be an important source of food for corals on turbid reefs (Anthony 2000),  
340 may have provided an opportunity for corals to obtain a higher proportion of their energy  
341 requirements from heterotrophy during periods of thermal stress (Grottoli et al., 2006). If the  
342 latter two explanations are true, they provide examples of an "ecological surprise" (Paine et  
343 al., 1998), where two disturbances (elevated turbidity and thermal anomalies) act  
344 antagonistically to prevent high bleaching-associated mortality.

345 A final plausible explanation for the level of bleaching resistance at Pulau Satumu is  
346 that corals at this site possess greater tolerance to acute temperature fluctuations due to prior  
347 acclimatisation, i.e., phenotypic changes by an individual organism in response to  
348 fluctuations in natural conditions (Coles & Brown 2003). It is well established that bleaching

349 is induced when temperature increases significantly above the long-term mean annual  
350 maximum (Coles & Brown 2003 and references within) and that corals living at higher  
351 average ambient temperatures have higher thermal tolerances than those living at lower  
352 temperatures (Coles et al., 1976). On reefs with similar mean temperatures but differences in  
353 overall temperature fluctuations (i.e., differences in standard deviation around the mean),  
354 corals that experience the larger fluctuations may also have greater thermal tolerance  
355 (McClanahan & Maina 2004; McClanahan et al., 2007; Oliver & Palumbi 2011). Support is  
356 provided for this explanation by the fact that annual SST variability (i.e., standard deviation  
357 of the mean) is ~40 - 52% higher at sites in the South China Sea where overall bleaching  
358 severity was lower in 2010 compared to sites in the Andaman Sea (this is despite similar  
359 levels of thermal stress in 2010 and similar long term average SSTs) (Guest et al., 2012).

360 While the above may explain the overall resistance of corals at Pulau Satumu to  
361 bleaching, they do not explain the unprecedented hierarchy of taxa susceptibility (e.g. low  
362 susceptibility for *Acropora* and *Pocillopora*) seen at this and other sites in Southeast Asia  
363 (Guest et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2010). A parsimonious explanation for the reversal in  
364 susceptibility at certain sites in 2010 is that removal of susceptible individuals from  
365 populations that bleached during previous episodes, followed by reproduction and successful  
366 recruitment of the remaining, more thermally tolerant individuals, has led to adaptation  
367 through natural selection within an ecological time frame. High variability within populations  
368 in response to thermal stress provides a very strong selective pressure. Due to the life history  
369 traits of *Acropora* and *Pocillopora* - i.e., fast growth rates (Harriott 1999), onset of sexual  
370 maturity within 2 to 3 years (Stimson 1978; Baria et al., 2012) and high rates of whole colony  
371 mortality following thermal stress (Baird & Marshall 2002) - these taxa are the most likely to  
372 adapt in a rapidly changing environment (Baird & Maynard 2008). This hypothesis is  
373 supported by the observation that these genera were generally less susceptible to bleaching at  
374 sites in Southeast Asia that bleached during the last major episode in 1998, whereas they  
375 suffered high levels of bleaching associated mortality in 2010 at sites that did not bleach in  
376 1998 (Guest et al., 2012). Furthermore, studies carried out on reefs over successive bleaching  
377 events that have documented increasing thermal tolerance and declining rates of bleaching  
378 induced mortality in usually susceptible taxa over successive bleaching events (Glynn et al.,  
379 2001; Maynard et al., 2008 a; Pratchett et al., 2013). Unfortunately, nothing is known about  
380 differences in taxa susceptibility for the reef at Pulau Satumu during 1998, however, at  
381 Indonesian sites close to Singapore, *Acropora* was reported to be the most affected taxa in  
382 1998, suffering extensive mortality (Suharsono 1999). Clearly, repeated surveys at individual  
383 sites over successive bleaching events, coupled with detailed environmental data are  
384 necessary to accurately assess the potential for adaptation among scleractinians.

385 The response of corals to thermal stress at Pulau Satumu has important implications  
386 for resilience. Surveys of benthic community structure carried out in 2009 and 2010 showed a  
387 reduction in overall cover of corals from ~73 to 51% at this site, however, there was no  
388 significant change in coral taxonomic community structure before and after the bleaching  
389 event in 2010. In the present study, decreases in relative cover (%) at Pulau Satumu were  
390 greatest for the coral taxa *Porites*, *Pavona*, *Pachyseris*, *Montipora* and *Echinopora* between  
391 2009 and 2012. With the exception of *Porites*, which predominantly has massive growth  
392 forms at Pulau Satumu, these taxa typically have foliose or encrusting growth forms.  
393 Considering that there was little evidence of whole colony mortality following the 2010  
394 bleaching (i.e., ~4% of colonies surveyed) (Guest et al., 2012) but that partial colony  
395 mortality of bleached colonies was noted for several taxa during surveys (e.g., *Montipora*,  
396 Fig. 3f), it is likely that the observed loss of coral cover in 2010 was primarily due to partial  
397 colony mortality. Singapore does not experience typhoons and major coral predators (e.g.,  
398 *Acanthaster plancii*) have not been documented locally, thus the 2010 bleaching event was



399 the only major natural disturbance affecting Singaporean reefs during the study period. We  
400 cannot, however, rule out the possibility that other anthropogenic disturbances such as boat  
401 groundings and anchor damage (both of which are common in Singapore) also contributed to  
402 changes in coral cover between 2009 and 2012. The processes of regrowth of remnant  
403 colonies and recruitment of larvae both contribute to the time taken for coral cover to recover  
404 to pre-disturbance levels on reefs, but recovery rates vary among habitats and are highly  
405 dependent on the composition of surviving coral communities (Golbuu et al., 2007).  
406 Measured linear extension rates for foliose and massive species (e.g., *Merulina ampliata* ~25  
407 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>, *Porites lutea* ~18mm yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Dikou 2009, Tanzil et al., 2013) at Pulau Satumu are  
408 within the normal range for other scleractinians elsewhere (Harriott 1999, Lough & Barnes  
409 2000). In contrast, estimated rates of settlement of new coral spat at this site are relatively  
410 low (Bauman et al., unpublished data) compared to published settlement rates for other Indo-  
411 Pacific reef sites (Glassom et al., 2004). Surveys of benthic community structure before and  
412 after the 1998 coral bleaching event at this site revealed that coral cover returned to pre-  
413 disturbance levels within 10 years (JR Guest, unpublished data). Considering the low levels  
414 of coral settlement and the fact that most bleaching related mortality appeared to be as a  
415 result of partial colony mortality, it seems likely that the primary mechanism for rapid  
416 recovery of coral cover at Pulau Satumu was regrowth of remnant colonies rather than sexual  
417 recruitment.

418 In this study we show a remarkable level of resistance to, and recovery from, a major  
419 thermal coral bleaching event at a chronically impacted Indo-Pacific reef site. Furthermore,  
420 we document a reversed pattern of bleaching susceptibility where usually highly susceptible  
421 taxa were relatively unaffected by bleaching. These results suggest an underappreciated  
422 resilience in urbanized, impacted reef systems and that corals that have been classified as  
423 losers in the face of climate change may have a greater capacity for adaptation and/or  
424 acclimatization than previously supposed. While this does not mean that threats to reefs have  
425 been exaggerated, it provides hope that, if measures are taken to reduce global impacts, many  
426 Indo-Pacific coral reefs may show a greater capacity for resilience than expected.

427

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429

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Table 1. Proportion of colonies bleached in all taxa that were surveyed in June, July and October. \*Additional surveys of *Acropora* in July and October were carried out by random swims to increase number of colonies surveyed.

Family	Genus	June		July		October	
		Bleached (%)	n	Bleached (%)	n	Bleached (%)	n
Faviidae	<i>Diploastrea</i>	0	3	33	3	0	3
Siderastreidae	<i>Psammocora</i>	0	1	100	2	20	5
Faviidae	<i>Caulastrea</i>	0	1	0	1	100	1
Acroporidae	<i>Acropora</i>	5	21	18	62*	4	83*
Merulinidae	<i>Galaxea</i>	6	17	20	10	0	14
Agariciidae	<i>Pavona</i>	21	24	21	14	0	14
Poritidae	<i>Goniopora</i>	25	4	50	4	25	4
Faviidae	<i>Cyphastrea</i>	40	5	33	3	0	2
Merulinidae	<i>Merulina</i>	46	54	35	43	8	25
Acroporidae	<i>Astreopora</i>	50	2	0	3	0	1
Poritidae	<i>Porites</i>	53	15	53	17	43	23
Faviidae	<i>Platygyra</i>	58	38	61	18	25	24
Faviidae	<i>Echinopora</i>	59	22	71	14	36	11
Faviidae	<i>Favites</i>	60	20	62	26	20	25
Euphyllidae	<i>Euphyllia</i>	60	5	60	5	100	1
Faviidae	<i>Goniastrea</i>	66	41	54	54	11	35
Acroporidae	<i>Montipora</i>	75	146	64	105	8	64
Mussidae	<i>Symphyllia</i>	75	12	83	12	33	12
Faviidae	<i>Favia</i>	78	9	75	12	22	9
Fungiidae	<i>Podabacia</i>	80	5	86	7	44	9
Pocilloporidae	<i>Pocillopora</i>	83	12	100	10	15	40
Fungiidae	<i>Ctenactis</i>	83	6	60	5	29	7
Fungiidae	<i>Fungia</i>	84	25	81	27	20	25
Merulinidae	<i>Hydnophora</i>	88	8	90	10	25	8
Agariciidae	<i>Pachyseris</i>	89	35	93	27	44	9
Pectinidae	<i>Pectinia</i>	89	54	76	41	33	27
Pectinidae	<i>Oxypora</i>	100	2	100	1	0	2
Turbinaria	<i>Turbinaria</i>	100	1	50	2	0	3
Euphyllidae	<i>Plerogyra</i>	100	6	100	2	100	3
Mussidae	<i>Lobophyllia</i>	100	3	100	2	100	2

Fig. 1. Overall coral bleaching severity in June, July and October in terms of proportion (%) of colonies not bleached, moderately bleached and severely bleached (categories 1, 2 and 3 respectively).

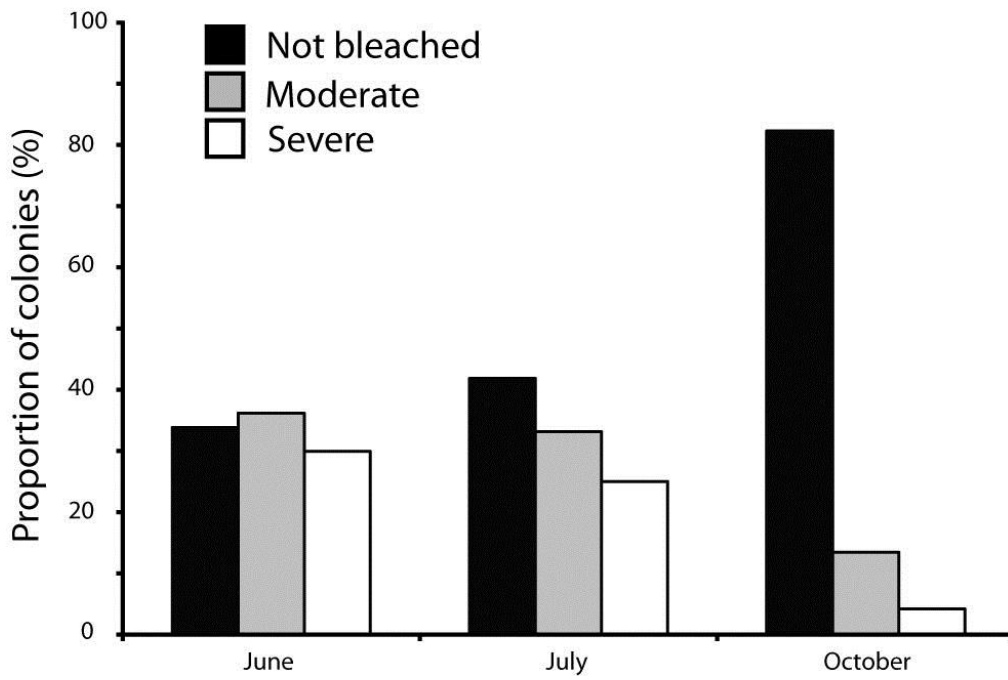


Fig. 2. Proportion (%) of colonies not bleached (black bars), moderately bleached (gray bars) and severely bleached (white bars) for all genera that had at least 5 colonies surveyed on all three survey occasions.

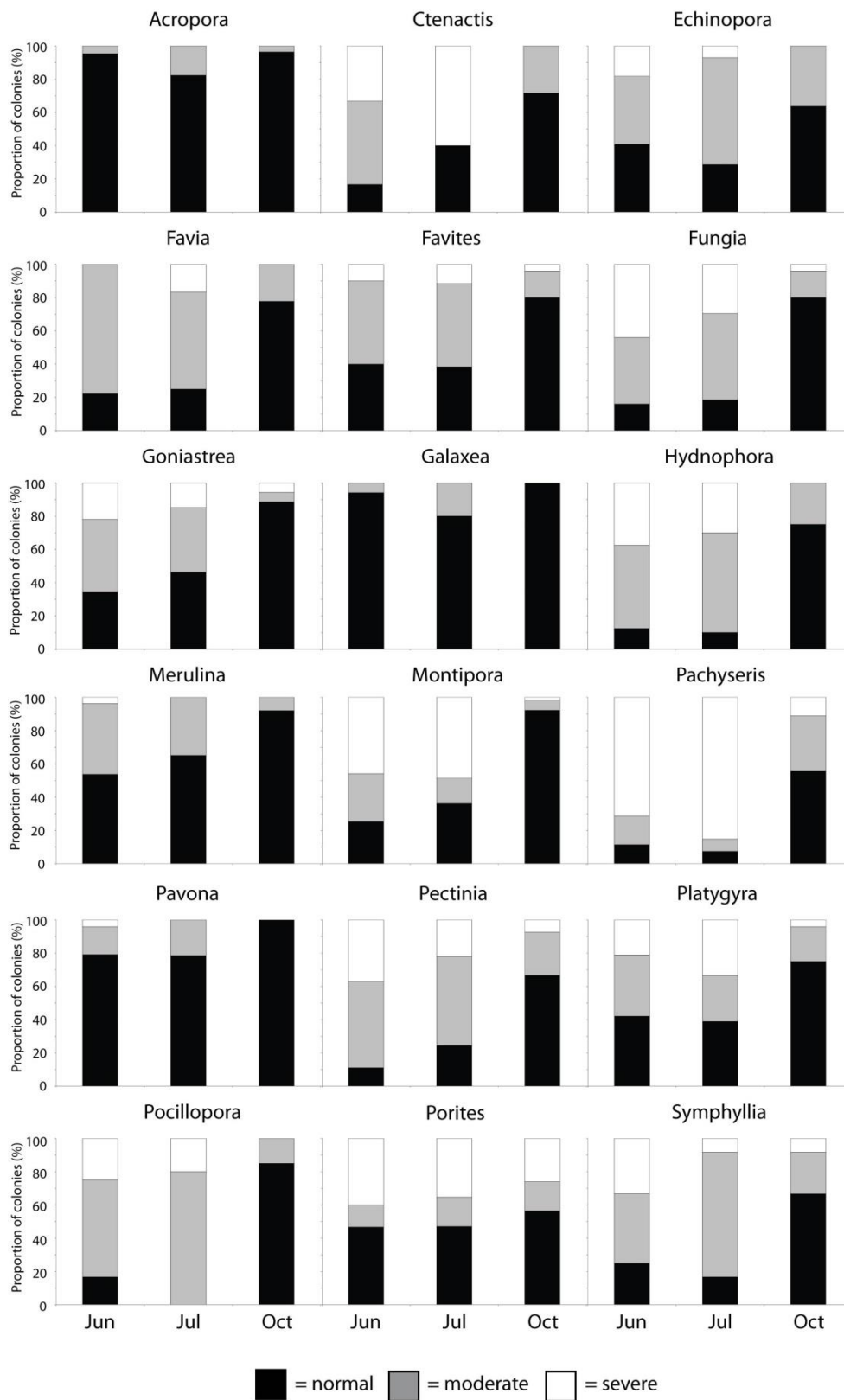


Fig. 3 Bleaching at Pulau Satumu in July 2010: a) healthy colony of *Acropora tenuis* next to severely bleached colony of *Montipora*, b) healthy colony of *A. tenuis* next to severely bleached colony of *Platygyra* sp., c) healthy colony of *A. hyacinthus* with severely and partially bleached massive and encrusting corals, d) severely (left) and partially (right) bleached colonies of *Pocillopora damicornis*, e) severely bleached colony of *Porites* (massive) and f) partial mortality and disease in bleached colony of *Montipora* sp. Photos: JR Guest.

