# Eulerian and Lagrangian measurements of flow and residence time on a fringing reef flat embayment, American Samoa

\*

Messina, A.M.a\*, Storlazzi, C.D.b, Cheriton, O.M.b, Biggs, T.W.a

a San Diego State University, Department of Geography, San Diego, CA 92182, amessina@rohan.sdsu.edu, +1-619-594-5437, tbiggs@mail.sdsu.edu, +1-619-594-0902

b US Geological Survey, Pacific Coastal and Marine Science Center, Santa Cruz, CA 95060, cstorlazzi@usgs.gov, +1-831-460-7521, ocheriton@usgs.gov, +1-831-460-7579

## ABSTRACT

Hydrodynamic processes on coral reefs are important for nutrient cycling, larval dispersal, temperature variability, and understanding the impacts of terrestrial sediment, nutrients, and contaminants from adjacent impaired watersheds on coral reef ecosystems. In order to understand the spatial and temporal variability in flow velocities and the resulting residence time of water in the fringing coral reef flat-lined embayment of Faga'alu, on the island of Tutuila in American Samoa, data from acoustic current profilers and ocean surface current drifter deployments were combined with meteorologic data and numerical wave model results. These data and model results, collected over nine days, made it possible to evaluate the relative contribution of tidal, wind, and wave forcing on the flow patterns and resulting residence times of water masses over the reef. Mean residence times varied from 2.78-0.08 hr, 2.78-0.08 hr, and 0.55-0.04 hr under tidal, wind, and wave forcing, respectively; the lowest residence times were on the outer reef flat closest to where waves were breaking on the reef crest and were longest over the inner reef flat close to shore and deep in the embayment. These results demonstrate the applicability of a hybrid Lagrangian-Eulerian measurement scheme to understand flow patterns and thus residence time in geomorphically-complex embayments that characterize many reef-lined coasts.

### KEYWORDS:

coral reefs, drifters, Water circulation, Residence time

## INTRODUCTION

Hydrodynamic conditions, including the residence time of waters over the reef flat, are a primary control on sediment dynamics in fringing reef embayments (Draut et al., 2009; Storlazzi et al., 2009), and are important for other biologically important processes like nutrient cycling, larval dispersal, and temperature regimes (Falter et al., 2004; Wyatt et al., 2012). Current conservation planning is done with coarse estimations of pollutant discharge and distance-based plume models (Klein et al., 2012) but coral reef environments are more hydrodynamically complex and variable than estuaries or beaches. Variations in reef morphology relative to the orientation of the dominant meteorological and oceanographic forcing can generate heterogeneous waves and currents over relatively small (hundreds of meters) spatial scales, unlike those observed along relatively linear sandy shorelines (Storlazzi et al., 2009; Hoeke et al., 2011, 2013). In reef environments where shallow reef crests limit the propagation of incoming surface wave energy, wave action alone may be insufficient to resuspend and disperse sediment, but in combination with wave- or wind-driven currents, orbital velocities may reach critical shear stress for sediment resuspension and dispersal (Ogston et al., 2004; Hoeke et al., 2013). By influencing orbital velocities, bed shear stress, and suspended sediment transport, current circulation is a strong control on the spatial distribution of sediment deposition, resuspension, and dispersal of terrigenous sediment discharged to reefs (Hoitink and Hoekstra, 2003; Storlazzi et al., 2004; Presto et al., 2006; Hoeke et al., 2013).

Studies in various high island coral reef environments showed current speeds, directions, and residence times over reef flats are controlled by wave, wind, and tidal forcing, depending on the orientation and shape of the reef, relative to the prevailing wave, wind, and tidal climates (Storlazzi et al., 2004; Presto et al., 2006; Hench et al., 2008; Hoeke et al., 2011, 2013). Buoyancy forcing from hypopycnal river floods is generally ignored or considered inconsequential due to their rarity and short duration relative to other forcings (Hench et al., 2008; Hoeke et al., 2011). Current speeds and patterns over reefs exposed to remotely-generated groundswells are generally dominated by wave forcing (Hench et al., 2008; Vetter et al., 2010; Hoeke et al., 201), whereas wind forcing is dominant for reefs protected from groundswells (Presto et al., 2006). Tidal elevation modulates both wave-driven currents by controlling the reef crest depth and subsequent wave energy propagation into the reef flat, and wind-driven currents by regulating water depth for wind-driven surface wave development (Presto et al., 2006). Reef flat currents in wave-driven environments exhibit a pattern of rapid, cross-shore flow near the reef crest that slows moving shoreward and turns along-shore towards a deep channel where water returns seaward (Hench et al., 2008; Lowe et al., 2009; Wyatt et al., 2010). In wind-driven systems, current directions are more predominantly in the direction of the wind with possible cross-shore exchange from the reef flat to the fore reef (Storlazzi et al., 2004). Observations on the reef flat off Molokai, Hawaii, showed current speeds were faster where the continuous fringing reef is deeper and narrower (Presto et al., 2006), but field observations in transitional fringing reef-barrier reef systems with lagoons and deep channels (Hench et al., 2008; Lowe et al., 2009) show the opposite: current speeds are rapid over the shallow reef crest, slowing significantly when reaching deeper pools in the reef and the main channel that bisects the reef.

Understanding the spatial and temporal variability in current speeds, flow directions, and residence time of water over corals is critical for understanding patterns of sedimentation in Faga'alu Bay on Tutuila in American Samoa. Following large or intense storm events, suspended sediment is discharged into Faga'alu Bay and advected seaward over the reef by momentum, in a thin surface layer of freshwater with suspended sediment concentrations (SSC) that often exceed 500mg/l. This sediment-rich layer significantly attenuates photosynthetically active radiation and transports fine sediment over the reef where it can settle out of the water column and onto coral reef organisms. Although the hypopycnal surface plume is able to move counter to prevailing currents (upcurrent) by sliding over denser seawater, as sediment particles settle they are entrained in the prevailing current and transported accordingly (Wolanski et al., 2003). As flow velocities increase, residence time of the plume over the reef flat decreases, limiting time for small particles to settle out of the water column and controlling the sedimentation rate, even for the same concentration and magnitude of different plumes.

Since it is known that both quality and residence time of water over the reef are strong controls on coral health, it is desirable to characterize spatially distributed flow patterns in relation to wave, wind, and tide forcings.

## STUDY AREA

Faga'alu Bay, on the island of Tutuila, American Samoa (14.290 S, 170.677 W) is a V-shaped, reef-fringed embayment at the mouth of a small (2.48 km2), steep-sided watershed (Figure 1). Faga'alu Bay is situated on the western side of Pago Pago Harbor where the surrounding high topography blocks wet-season northerly winds from October-April, but the bay is exposed to dry-season southeasterly tradewinds and accompanying short-period wind waves during May-September. Faga'alu is only open to a narrow window (south-southeast) of swell directions, and swells approaching from a southerly angle must refract to the west, reducing their energy. Offshore significant wave heights (*Hs*) from southerly and southeasterly directions are generally less than 2.5 m and rarely exceed 3.0 m. Peak wave periods (*Tp*) are generally about 9 s or less, rarely exceed 13 s but occasionally reach 25 s during austral winter storms (Thompson and Demirbilek, 2002). Vetter (2013) recorded peak significant wave heights on the fore reef in Faga'alu up to 1.7 m, but wave heights greater than 1.0 m were rare.

Wave breaking is constrained to the shallow reef crests, the transitions between the steeply-sloping fore reef and the roughly horizontal reef flats. Faga’alu is characterized by a semi-diurnal, microtidal regime where parts of the shallow reef crest and reef flat are exposed at extreme low tides (<0 m MSL). Given that the reef crest is exposed at low tide, cross-reef transfer of wave energy and water flow is strongly dependent on the tidal stage and wave setup. An anthropogenically altered, vertical-walled, 5-10 m deep paleo-stream channel (‘awa) extends from the mouth of Faga'alu Stream eastward to Pago Pago Bay; this 'ava divides the reef into a larger southern and a smaller northern section.

Little data on current circulation around Tutuila is available, and almost no data on circulation over the reef flat has been collected (CH2M HILL, 1984; Jacob et al., 2012; Wiles et al., 2012). Militello et al. (2003) modeled wave-induced setup on reef flats and developed stage-frequency relationships for large tropical storms and hurricanes in American Samoa. Thompson and Demirbilek (2002) characterized offshore wave climate from data collected near Western Samoa (1985-1990), and used numerical modeling to simulate wave propagation dynamics in Pago Pago Harbor. Vetter et al (2013) deployed wave/tide gauges in Faga'alu Bay on the southern forereef and reef flat, and an ADCP in the 'ava, for one year (2012-2013). Vetter (2013) concluded flow dynamics in the bay were predominantly forced by waves breaking over the southern reef crest, and the wave influence increased linearly with tide height. Using an estimate of total lagoon volume, Vetter (2013) calculated flushing time varied from thirty-three hours during low wave height, to less than two hours during conditions when peak significant wave height was 1.6 m, and mean current speed out of the main channel was 0.14 m/s.

## METHODS

To characterize the spatial pattern of flows and determine the relationship between offshore wave forcing and residence time of water over the reef flat in Faga'alu Bay, a combination of Eulerian and Lagrangian measurements was used.

In fluid dynamics there are two ways to quantify the flow field: 1) the Lagrangian perspective observes an individual fluid parcel as it moves through space and time, 2) the Eulerian perspective focuses on specific locations, observing the fluid flow past that location over time. Eulerian methods characterize water circulation on the reef using bottom-mounted instruments to record wave height and period, current speed and direction, and/or tidal elevation (Presto et al., 2006; Storlazzi et al., 2009), however, collecting high spatial resolution data of hydrodynamic processes using strictly Eulerian methods is expensive and logistically difficult (Curt D. Storlazzi et al., 2006; Storlazzi et al., 2004). Spatially distributed wave height, current speeds, and flow patterns can be predicted by hydrodynamic computer models (Hoeke et al., 2011), but models typically require accurate bathymetry, detailed forcing data, and significant modeling expertise (Hoeke, 2010; King et al., 2012; Wolanski et al., 2009). While imagery-based remote sensing is useful to map the temporal and spatial distribution of flood plume boundaries (Klemas, 2012; Warrick et al., 2007), the underlying current circulation is a strong control on sediment transport that may not be quantified by even high resolution remote sensing of plumes. Instead, Lagrangian methods including the use of GPS-tracking drifters have been used to map flow patterns over reef flats to compare to Eulerian descriptions of flow speeds (C. D. Storlazzi et al., 2006; Storlazzi et al., 2004; Wyatt et al., 2012) or validate hydrodynamic computer models (Ouillon et al., 2010). For this study, Lagrangian drifters were used to collect spatially distributed data on flow velocities, in conjunction with Eulerian current profilers at fixed locations to collect long-term data in relation to forcing conditions.

Drifter studies in nearshore environments are typically limited in number of drifters, number of deployments, and the range of oceanic and meteorological conditions experienced during deployments, making it uncertain whether they describe the dominant patterns, or short-lived anomalies (C. D. Storlazzi et al., 2006; Wyatt et al., 2010). While Lagrangian measurements provide spatially explicit data on the flow field, observations are limited temporally by their short duration times relative to Eulerian methods like in situ current meters. Storlazzi et al., (2006) successfully combined Eulerian and Lagrangian methods by comparing Lagrangian drifter tracks with progressive vectors of cumulative flow calculated from Eulerian current meters to determine if short-term observations from drifters were representative of the dominant patterns. This approach yields spatially distributed flow data from the Lagrangian drifters, within the context of the longer time series of flow forcing from the Eulerian methods.

### Lagrangian Measurements

GPS-tracking drifters have been traditionally used to characterize oceanic circulation in the deep or coastal ocean (Davis, 1991; Warrick et al., 2007), but cheaper, smaller GPS technology has recently made it possible to deploy many small drifters in nearshore environments to map flow patterns at finer spatiotemporal resolution (Johnson et al., 2003; Austin and Atkinson, 2004; MacMahan et al., 2010). Research on rip currents in beach surf zones have shown the ability to capture synoptic measurements of small-scale flow structures and patterns by deploying large numbers of GPS-logging drifters to collect high-density observations of flow velocities (Johnson et al., 2003; MacMahan et al., 2010). While deploying a fleet of GPS-logging drifters has yielded synoptic measurements of water movement in surf zones near linear, sandy beaches, it has not been attempted in a shallow reef environment.

Due to Faga'alu Bay’s relatively small area (0.25 km2), high-density drifter data could be collected with a small number of drifters (*n* = 5) and field personnel (*n* = 1). Drifters for shallow coral reef environments need to be shallow enough to avoid interaction with corals, deep enough to not be affected by the surface movements, extend high enough to be visible but not high enough to be affected by winds, and finally, rugged enough to sustain the impact of a breaking wave onto the reef in the event it is entrained in the surf zone. Five drifters were designed and constructed with materials available on-island, from PVC tubing and plastic sheeting, with a small waterproof housing for a HOLUX M1000 GPS recorder, and a float collar to maintain upright orientation (Figure 4). The fins of the drifters were roughly 30 cm wide and 18 cm in height, constructed of 1.3 cm diameter PVC with holes drilled to flood the piping and compensate for the buoyancy of the pipe; the GPS logger was housed in a PVC housing. The drifters were transported to the launch zones and retrieved using a stand-up paddle board.

Drifter position data was recorded by the GPS logger at 5 s intervals and resampled to 1 min intervals to reduce signal noise. Drifters were allowed to drift until they exited the ‘ava channel, but tracks were limited to 1 hr for analysis. Drifter speed and direction were calculated using a forward difference scheme on the drifter locations (Davis, 1991; MacMahan et al., 2010) and gridded in 100 m x 100 m bins for analyses.

### Eulerian Measurements

Three Nortek Aquadopp 2-MHz acoustic current profilers recorded tide, wave, and current data at three locations on the reef flat in Faga'alu for one week (Figure 1). The profilers were attached to cinder block anchors and placed on sand or rubble patches amongst the corals, as deep as possible to maintain adequate water levels over the profiler during low tide (Figure 4). The profilers collected 580 current samples at 2 Hz every 10 min and 2048 wave samples at 2 Hz every 60 min. On the northern reef, the water level dropped below the minimum blanking distance of the current profilers at low tides, and flow was assumed to be nearly zero during these times given the relatively low water depth relative to the height of the corals.

### Ancillary Data

Incident wave conditions were recorded by a NIWA Dobie-A wave/tide gauge (DOBIE) deployed on the southern reef slope at a depth of 10 m (Figure 1). The DOBIE sampled a 512s burst at 2 Hz every hour. The DOBIE malfunctioned and recorded no data coinciding with the ADCP deployment, but compared well (not shown) with NOAA WaveWatchIII (WW3; REFERENCE) modeled data on swell height and direction for the recorded data (Hoeke et al., 2011). WW3 model data, calibrated to wave data recorded in situ by the DOBIE wave/tide gauge, were used to define forcing during the ADCP and drifter deployments.

Wind speed, wind direction, barometric pressure, and precipitation were recorded at 15 min intervals using a Davis VantagePro weather station installed near the stream mouth, approximately 5 m above sea level on a pole mounted to a building (Figure 1). Meteorological and tide data were also recorded at NOAA’s National Data Buoy Center’s NSTP6 station (REFERENCE) located approximately 1.8 km north of Faga’alu. Wind speed, wind direction, barometric pressure, and tidal elevation data were ralso ecorded at NSTP6 at 6 min intervals. For this study, wind conditions are sufficiently described qualitatively so the topographic effects on wind speed and direction recorded at the stations are considered inconsequential.

The instrument deployments were timed to capture end-member forcing conditions that characterize the study area (Thompson and Demirbilek, 2002). The end member conditions’ time ranges were defined post-deployment using modeled and in situ wave, wind, and tide data following the methodology described by Presto et al. (2006).

### Analytical Methods

Two techniques were used to compare the drifter results with the profiler results: Empirical orthogonal functions (EOF) and progressive vectors of cumulative flow. EOF principal axes and variance ellipses were calculated for spatially binned drifter data (100 m x 100 m) and compared to the EOF's calculated from profiler data.

Progressive vectors, which are cumulative summations of flow assuming spatial homogeneity, were generated for the profiler data following the methodology used by Storlazzi et al. (2006) and were compared to 1 hr tracks of drifter data. A series of 1-h progressive vector diagrams of projected cumulative flow were computed from ADCP data (Storlazzi et al, 2006) collected during each end member condition period. Progressive vectors are calculated assuming spatial homogeneity of the flow, causing them to move onshore in some instances.

The mean velocity of drifters was calculated for each 100 m x 100 m spatial bin (MacMahan et al., 2010) and used to compare flow patterns, and to calculate water residence time over the reef under different forcing conditions. Where drifters did not travel through a spatial bin, no residence time could be calculated. Residence times were computed….how?

## RESULTS

### Oceanographic and Meteorologic Forcing

A large range of wind and wave conditions and combinations was sampled during the ADCP deployment from 15-23 February 2014, including a strong onshore wind event, a high southeast groundswell, and weak winds from variable directions where tidal forcing was dominant (Figure 5). Based on these range of forcing conditions, the period of overlapping ADCP and intensive drifter deployments can be separated into three distinct end-member forcing periods: 1) Small waves and strong onshore winds (‘WIND’) during 2014 Year Day (YD) 47-49; 2) Small waves and weak winds (‘TIDE’) during YD 50-51; and 3) Large waves and weak winds (‘WAVE’) during YD 52- 55 (Table 1). Average wind speed reached a maximum of 9 m/s with maximum gusts of 14 m/s from the northeast to southeast on YD 48. Wave height during WAVE reached 1.3 m on YD 52, which is near the annual maximum height expected for this location (O. Vetter, unpublished data).

### Eulerian Measurements

On the northern reef flat (AS3), the water level dropped below the minimum blanking distance of the ADCP at low tides (Figure 6), and flow was assumed to be nearly zero during these times given the relatively low water. The highest velocity flow was observed over the southernmost part of the reef (AS1) and was oriented predominantly in a northwesterly direction, indicating the strong influence of even small breaking waves over the reef crest. The portion of the reef crest adjacent AS1 receives the most wave energy in Faga'alu, and flow from the reef further to the south of AS1 is open to an even wider window of wave directions from the south and southwest. High speed currents were also measured on the southern reef adjacent to the ‘ava at AS2, though not as consisently as at AS1, and predominantly in a southwesterly direction, reflecting the relative orientation of the reef crest. Whereas the flow at AS1 was deflected by the shore, turning the cross-reef flow of water north toward the deeper parts of the bay and the ‘ava channel, the flow at AS2 was primarily shoreward into the deep pools in the inshore side of the reef flat. Flow data at AS1 also illustrate the modulating effect of tidal stage on flow speed over the reef flat similar to that observed by Storlazzi et al. (2004) and Presto et al. (2006). During YD 52-55, a decrease in flow speed was observed that coincided with the low tide. As the tide level decreased, less wave energy was able to propagate over the reef crest and friction and turbulence over the reef increases. This effect was observed, but smaller in magnitude, at AS2 because the mean water depth is greater and the height of the corals is less at AS2.

Flow speeds and direction at AS1 were fairly consistent during all endmember conditions, whereas flow was more variable at AS2 and varied more with increasing wave height. As the wave direction rotated more to the east (Figure 5), more wave energy was directly incident upon the northern portion of the southern reef. Under tidal influence or offshore winds in the absence of strong waves, there is potential for cross-reef flow directions. When the waves were larger, the flow speeds at AS2 were higher and oriented predominantly towards shore. Flow velocities were most variable at AS3 on the northern reef, and while flow speed and direction at AS1 and AS2 were predominantly influenced by incident wave conditions, flow at AS3 did not show strong correlation with any of the endmember forcing conditions.

### Lagrangian Measurements

Thirty drifter deployments were conducted from January to February 2014, with 22 of those deployments coinciding with the ADCP deployments during YD XX-YY (February 15-23; Table 2). Five drifters were released from the same five launch zones within a 10-m time frame at the beginning of each deployment, and allowed to drift until they exited the offshore end of the ‘ava channel at Pago Pago Harbor (Figure 1). Three general spatial patterns were evident, as shown in Figure 7: 1) Faster onshore flow speeds (lower residence times) over the southern reef flat; 2) Slower, more variable currents (longer residence times) over the deeper inshore portion of the southern reef flat and inner portion of the embayment that converge on the inshore end of the ‘ava channel; and 3) Faster offshore current speeds (lower residence times) over the offshore end of the ‘ava channel. Only a few drifters traveled seaward across the reef crest, mainly exiting through a subtle depression in the southern reef crest, and these only occurred at high tide under calm wave and wind conditions. Other anomalous drifter tracks show where drifters were entrained in the surf zone at the reef crest and quickly exited back out to sea in the far northeast portion of the study area.

### Comparison of Eulerian and Lagrangian Measurements

#### Progressive Vectors

The progressive vectors for AS1 and AS2 show little variation in flow direction, indicating the flow velocity was relatively consistent (Figure 8). The progressive vectors for AS3 are much more erratic, and travel relatively shorter distances due to the lower flow speeds and more variable flow directions observed over the northern reef. Compared to the progressive vectors, the drifter tracks show the spatial heterogeneity of the flow pattern as the water flows over the reef flat, turns parallel to shore and into the ‘ava channel (Figure 8). Under tidal forcing, the drifter tracks over the northern reef are highly erratic, but travel longer distances than under strong onshore winds (Figure 8b). This indicates that under tidal forcing water movement is variable over the reef but strong winds push water into the northwest corner of the embayment, piling up water over the northern reef and increasing residence time. Drifter tracks crossing the reef crest are observed over the southern reef under tidal forcing, in the absence of breaking waves that would strongly force water flow across the reef, preventing seaward flow. Under strong wave conditions (Figure 8e), a more coherent, clockwise flow pattern is observed over both the northern and southern reef as large breaking waves force large amounts of water onto the reef flat, driving flow quickly across the southern reef flat and into the main channel. Despite waves breaking on the the northern reef crest, it appears the flow across the southern reef and into the main channel influences an overall eastward flow over the northern reef and out the main channel (Figure 8e).

#### Empirical Orthogonal Functions (EOF)

EOF's and mean flow velocity were calculated from ADCP data collected during each end member condition period. Variance ellipses are more ellipsoid at AS1 and AS2, and more circular at AS3, under all forcing conditions. Similar to the progressive vectors, this indicates the current is more unidirectional at AS1 and AS2, flowing in the direction of the main principal component axis. Currents at AS3 are more variable in direction and lower in magnitude, as indicated by the lower mean flow velocity arrows (Figure 9).

Drifter data was spatially binned and EOF's and mean flow velocity were calculated for each 100m x 100m grid cell (Figure 9). Due to their spatial position relative to the flow pattern, some grid cells had a much higher number of observations, especially those grid cells in the middle parts of the bay. More observations suggests more certainty in observed patterns, while some of the outlying grid cells with a small number of observations may have been influenced by an anomalous drifter track. However, the overall pattern of drifter tracks is similar to the results from corresponding Eulerian results: Flow over the southern reef is driven by cross-shore wave-driven transport which flows northward to the main channel. However, while it may be hypothesized that water flows into the main channel and out to sea, the Eulerian data from the ADCPs' suggests all flow is into the bay. Finer resolution drifter data resolves the general counterclockwise flow from the southern reef, over the northern reef and out to sea. The drifter data also illustrates the decreased flow velocity near shore and in the deeper pools on the reef flat. The drifter data also illustrate the increase in flow velocity moving seaward in the main channel. Under both wave and tide forcing, the velocity steadily increases in the main channel, reaching a maximum at the reef crest. The same pattern is not evident under wind forcing, possibly due to wind driven flow being forced into the bay at the surface, but the data density is too low to be sure. Hench (2008) vertically binned ADCP data in Moorea showed that under low wave forcing surface currents were lower in the reef pass, and could reverse near the bottom. The increase in flow is either caused by the increasing volume of water contributed by the reef flats on either side or a narrowing of the channel cross-section. Either way the increase is notable for it's implications for placing a Eulerian ADCP at a fixed point in the channel, and using data from that one point to define flow for the whole bay.

#### Mean flow speed and direction in 100m gridded cells under Wind, Wave, Calm conditions

Drifter data was spatially binned and mean flow velocity was calculated for all drifter tracks under each forcing condition (Figure 10). Over the whole bay, mean flow velocity varied from 1-37 cm/s, 1-36 cm/s, and 5-64 cm/s under tidal, wind, and wave forcing, respectively. Vetter (2013) observed flow speed in the main channel of 1-60 cm/s, with a mean of 14 cm/s. Drifter observations in the gridcell corresponding to Vetter's (2013) ADCP location showed flow speeds of 1-30 cm/s wtih a mean of 8 cm/s, for all forcing conditions. Vetter's (2013) ADCP time series shows lower flow speeds in the channel Jan-April than duriung the more active tradewind season June-October so it is likely that the drifter deployments included more quiescent distribution of days than occur during the whole year. While one large swell event was sampled during the drifter deployments, these conditions appear to be more common during the year than were observed during the one intensive week of drifter deployments. Also, Vetter's (2013) ADCP data ampled the full depth of the water column, as opposed to just the surface current that could be affected by winds, especially when strong east winds blow into the bay. This suggests that perhaps Eulerian and Lagrangian methods are more comparable in shallow depths, where the drifter is influenced by a relatively larger portion of the water column.

The overrall pattern of mean flow speeds and flow directions shows a strong clockwise circulation through the bay with higher flow speeds during wave forcing conditions, compared with tidal and wind forcing. The west-northwest flow directions over the southern reef remain nearly constant under all forcing conditions, but the flow speeds are highest under wave forcing and lowest under tidal forcing. Over the northern reef, however, mean flow directions are more variable, reversing and flowing towards the river mouth under strong onshore winds and tidal forcing. The drifter tracks for wind and wave forcing show nearly stationary drifter tracks over the northern reef, and only make alot of progress once they are entrained in the seaward flow of the main channel.

#### Residence Times from drifter observations

Residence times for 100m x 100m grid cells were computed from the mean flow speeds calculated from drifter data under different forcing conditions (Figure 11). Residence times varied from 2.78-0.08 hr, 2.78-0.08 hr, and 0.56-0.04 hr under tidal, wind, and wave forcing, respectively. The shortest residence times were measured on the outer reef flat closest to where waves were breaking on the reef crest and were longest over the inner reef flat close to shore and deep in the embayment.

## Discussion

## Conclusion

The bay-wide mean current speeds (residence times) varied from 1-37 cm/s (2.78-0.08 hr), 1-36 cm/s (2.78-0.08 hr), and 5-64 cm/s (0.56-0.04 hr) under tidal, wind, and wave forcing, respectively. The shortest residence times were measured on the outer reef flat closest to where waves were breaking on the reef crest and were longest over the inner reef flat close to shore and deep in the embayment. These circulation patterns cause the spatial pattern of suspended sediment plumes observed in timelapse imagery. The spatial flow pattern and longer residence times result in greater exposure (=intensity x duration) of the corals in these areas to sediment stress and likely causes the reduced coral health in these locations.

## Acknowledgements

This work was carried out in collaboration between San Diego State University and the US Geological Survey's Coral Reef Project. Funding was provided by a grant by the NOAA Coral Reef Conservation Program. A significant contribution of equipment and expertise was provided by the USGS Pacific Coastal and Marine Science Center. We would like to thank Dr. Michael Favazza for providing logistical support in the field.

# References

Add at the end, using Mendeley refs

Hoeke et al., 2013

## Table Titles

Table 1. End member periods

Table 2. Drifter deployment dates and conditions. Red numbered Deployments coincide with ADCP deployment

## Figure Captions

Figure 1. Data collection locations in Faga'alu Bay. Wind speed and direction was recorded at the weather station (WxStation), a Dobie wave gauge recorded wave height and period (Wave Gauge), three ADCP's were deployed for one week to measure current speed and direction, and five GPS-logging drifters were deployed from the same five launch zones (DrifterLaunch) for thirty separate deployments (January to March, 2014).

Figure 2. Image of the embayment on a typical, rain-free day. The darker areas of the bay are live coral, and the light areas are deeper pools with carbonate sand bottom.

Figure 3. Image of a flood plume (2/21/14) in the northern portion of the bay following a heavy precipitation event. Plumes usually persist for several hours, and rarely are seen after 24h due to the flushing of water through the deep channel and out to sea.

Figure 4. TOP: Images of the shallow-water drifters on land, and deployed in the field. BOTTOM: Images of the acoustic current profilers deployed on the southern reef flat (AS1).

Figure 5. Time series of physical forcing: Tide stage, wind speed, wind direction from NDBC station NSTP6, wave height and direction from NOAA WW3. Day 47=16 Feb 2014, Day 54=23 Feb 2014.

Figure 6. Time series of the resulting flow measured by the acoustic current profilers. Water depths at low tide were too shallow to measure flow data at AS3. Note the variations in current speeds both in space and time due to the different forcing conditions.

Figure 7. Map of all drifter tracks, colored by speed, recorded during the experiment.

Figure 8. Progressive vectors calculated from ADCP data, compared to actual Lagrangian drifter tracks under different forcing conditions.

Figure 9. EOF's calculated from ADCP data, compared to EOF's calculated from spatially binned (100m x 100m grid cell) Lagrangian drifter data under different forcing conditions. Drifter EOF's are colored by number of observations to illustrate varying data density depending on grid cell.

Figure 10. Drifter tracks and calculated mean velocity, colored by speed for different forcing conditions. Cells with no drifter observations are left empty.

Figure 11. Residence time calculated from mean velocity of drifters under endmember conditions