

Potential origin of the Stony coral tissue loss disease

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Abstract

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1. Introduction

Coral diseases are a major threat to coral reef ecosystems and have led to significant declines in coral cover especially within the Caribbean region (Richardson et al., 1998; Sutherland et al., 2004; Aronson and Precht, 2001; Harvell et al., 2007; Brandt and McManus, 2009). One of the latest and the most damaging outbreak to date in Florida’s Coral Reef (FCR) is stony coral tissue loss disease (SCTLD) (NOAA, 2018). First observed off the coast of Miami in 2014 by Precht et al. (2016), the disease has since spread through the entirety of FCR (Muller et al., 2020; Dobbelaere et al., in press 2022) and has been observed in several territories of the Caribbean (Kramer et al., 2019; Meiling et al., 2021; Estrada-Saldívar et al., 2021; Heres et al., 2021). Although the causative agent of the disease remains unknown, hydrodynamics are likely to play an important role in its propagation as both modeling studies and ex situ experiments show evidence of waterborne disease transmission (Aeby et al., 2019; Dobbelaere et al., 2020; Eaton et al., 2021; Meiling et al., 2021). Furthermore, recent studies showed evidence that sediments act as vector for the SCTLD (Rosales et al., 2020; Studivan et al., 2022).

SCTLD was first observed by Precht et al. (2016) near Virginia Key in 2014, during the monitoring of the deepening of the Port of Miami (PoM) shipping channel, that took place between November 20, 2013 and March 16, 2015. This monitoring was performed twice-weekly at 26 monitoring stations established within the Miami-Dade County, making it one of the most complete datasets related to a dredging project (Gintert et al., 2019). While operating in a conventional way, dredged materials were pumped from the dredge to a spider barge and then transported to the US Environmental Protection Agency designated Ocean Dredge Material Disposal Site (ODMDS) located

27 4.7 nautical miles offshore. However, the suction mechanism was turned off
28 during non-conventional rock-chopping activities in order to pre-treat very
29 hard rock contained in the Anastasia and Fort Thompson formations between
30 December 2013 and May 2014. The Army Corps commissioned a report that
31 provides a back-of-the-envelope estimating this practice could have resulted
32 in up to 33 cm deposition over 874,121 m² of reef surrounding the outer
33 entrance channel (Jocelyn Karazsia, *pers. comm.*). Additionally, several
34 studies reported that the impact of the dredging was widespread (Miller et al.,
35 2016), causing the death of > 560,000 corals within 0.5 km of the channel
36 (Cunning et al., 2019) and producing sediment plumes covering up to 11 km²
37 of coral area within 5-10 km of the dredge (Barnes et al., 2015).

38 Sediments released by dredging can affect the biological functions of corals
39 in numerous ways (Erftemeijer et al., 2012; Jones et al., 2015). Increased
40 turbidity caused by the suspended sediments reduces the light available to
41 symbiotic zooxanthellae, leading to reduced coral cover and growth, while
42 increased sedimentation can cause smothering or burial of coral polyps (Erft-
43 meijer et al., 2012). Furthermore, sedimentation and turbidity can significantly
44 reduce larval recruitment by inhibiting settlement and reducing larval survival
45 in the water column (Jones et al., 2015). These effects are stronger with
46 fine-grained sediments, as they cause a stronger light reduction (Fourney and
47 Figueiredo, 2017). Additionally, fined-grained sediments such as silts have
48 high nutrient contents, which can lead to an increased microbial activity, even-
49 tually causing anoxic conditions in the immediate vicinity of corals (Weber
50 et al., 2012). As they release finer sediments over significantly longer periods
51 than natural events such as hurricanes, dredging activities can thus be more
52 harmful to corals and reef habitat compared to other types of sedimentation
53 (Cunning et al., 2019).

54 Nonetheless, Gintert et al. (2019) argued that the reported coral mortality
55 during the dredging project was dominated by the regional outbreak of
56 SCTLD. Further, the study suggested that the onset of the disease might

57 have been linked to a leaking discharge pipe of the Miami Central District
58 Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plant located off Virginia Key. However,
59 as sediments can act as vector for SCTLD (Studivan et al., 2022), there is
60 also a possibility that the causative agents of the disease was transported to
61 the monitoring site of Virginia Key on sediments released by the dredging.
62 This possibility can be evaluated using a bio-physical model simulating the
63 transport of sediments produced during the dredging project. As coastal
64 reef ecosystems are characterized by the complex topography of the coastline
65 and the presence of islands, reefs and artificial structures, such a model
66 would require high spatial resolution to accurately represent the transport
67 of sediments at reef-scale. In this context, unstructured-mesh models are
68 best suited, as they can easily adapt to the topography (Fringer et al., 2019)
69 and can capture small-scale circulation features around reefs and islands
70 (Lambrechts et al., 2008; Figueiredo et al., 2013).

71 The goal of this study is therefore to simulate the trajectories of the
72 sediments released during the entirety of the deepening of the PoM shipping
73 channel using a high-resolution hydrodynamic model coupled with a sediment
74 transport model. Specifically, we will attempt to answer the following ques-
75 tions: (1) Which reefs were impacted by the dredging ? (2) Is the impact on
76 these reefs consistent with the observed timing of the onset of SCTLD ?

77 2. Methods

78 The hydrodynamics over the entirety of FCR was modeled using the
79 high resolution unstructured-mesh model SLIM¹, which has already been
80 extensively validated in the area (Frys et al., 2020; Dobbelaere et al., 2020,
81 in press 2022). SLIM uses an unstructured mesh whose resolution can
82 be locally increased in order to accurately represent fine-scale flow features.
83 The mesh used in this study was built following the same methodology as

¹<https://www.slim-ocean.be>

84 Dobbelaere et al. (in press 2022), with a local refinement near PoM and
85 in the Bay of Biscayne to achieve a resolution of 100 m in the vicinity of
86 the dredged channel. It was made up of approximately 3.5×10^5 triangles
87 and was generated with the seamsh² Python library, which is based on the
88 the open-source mesh generator GMSH (Geuzaine and Remacle, 2009). The
89 model was run between October 15, 2013 and September 26, 2014 to cover
90 the whole dredging period prior to the first observation of SCTL D by Precht
91 et al. (2016).

92 The transport of sediments released from the channel was then modeled
93 using a Lagrangian particle tracking model, forced by SLIM velocity field.
94 The sediment model is inspired by the Particle Transport Model (PTM),
95 developed by the US Army Corps of Engineers (MacDonald et al., 2006). In
96 this model, particles undergo a combination of horizontal and vertical motions.
97 The vertical is mostly driven by gravity, with heavier particles sinking faster.
98 Once sedimented, particles can be resuspended when shear stress exceed the
99 critical Shields parameter, as parameterized by Soulsby et al. (1997). The
100 horizontal motion of the suspended particles is derived from the 2D model
101 velocity by assuming a vertical log profile, following a quasi-3D approach.
102 When sediment particles enter the near-bed zone, their horizontal velocity is
103 greatly reduced and sediments are transported with the bedload.

104 As sediment dispersion is dependent on the grain size, we modeled the
105 dispersal of five classes of sediments to represent to impact of fine- to coarse-
106 grained particles: (i) 5-50 μm , (ii) 50-100 μm , (iii) 100-200 μm , (iv) 200-
107 300 μm , and (v) 300-400 μm . We performed a different simulation for
108 each class, with the grain size randomly drawn from a uniform distribution
109 over the corresponding size range. The density of each sediment particle
110 was derived from their size using the formula of Hamilton and Bachman
111 (1982). Furthermore, all particles were differentiated based on the dredge

²<https://pypi.org/project/seamsh/>

112 that produced them. Five types of dredge were considered in our modeling
113 study: (a) Texas cutterhead (TX), (b) non-conventional dredging, *i.e.* TX
114 with suction mechanism turned off (NonConv), (c) Spider Barge (SB), (d)
115 Terrapin Island hopper (TI), and (e) Dredge 55 clamshell (D55).

116 We had data about the date, location and type of all dredging operations
117 performed during expansion of PoM. In the absence of information about
118 the exact time of the dredging, sediment particles were released from the
119 dredging location during a whole day at a rate of 80 particles/hour in the
120 model. To account for the motion of spider barges between the dredging site
121 and ODMDS, particles were released every 500 m along a straight line joining
122 the dredging location to the ODMDS for every dredging operation labelled
123 as SB.

124 TO DO: write about validation using presence-absence of plume

125 TO DO: write about the trajectory thing

126 TO DO: write about the shortest paths

127 **3. Results**

128 **4. Discussion**

129 **5. Conclusion**

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