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**RECIFES PROFUNDOS FUNCIONAM COMO REFÚGIOS? UM TESTE COM
CORAIS DO ATLÂNTICO SUL**

JOÃO PESSOA - PARAÍBA
2018

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CORAIS DO ATLÂNTICO SUL

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciências Biológicas, área de concentração Zoologia, da Universidade Federal da Paraíba, como parte dos requisitos para obtenção do Grau de Mestre em Ciências Biológicas (Zoologia).

Orientador: Dr. Bráulio Almeida Santos

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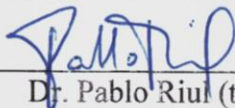
Ata da 303ª Apresentação e Banca de Defesa
de Mestrado de Juliano Moraes

Ao(s) vinte e três dias do mês de fevereiro de dois mil e dezoito, às 09:00 horas, no(a) Sala 02 do DSE, da Universidade Federal da Paraíba, reuniram-se, em caráter de solenidade pública, membros da banca examinadora para avaliar a dissertação de mestrado de **Juliano Moraes**, candidato(a) ao grau de Mestre em Ciências Biológicas. A banca foi composta pelos seguintes professores/pesquisadores: **Dr. Bráulio Almeida Santos (orientador)**, **Dr. Pablo Riul (titular)** e **Dra. Beatrice Padovani Ferreira (titular)**. Compareceram à solenidade, além do(a) candidato(a) e membros da banca examinadora, alunos e professores do PPGCB. Dando início à sessão, a coordenação fez a abertura dos trabalhos, apresentando o(a) discente e os membros da banca. Foi passada a palavra para o(a) orientador(a), para que assumisse a posição de presidente da sessão. A partir de então, o(a) presidente, após declarar o objeto da solenidade, concedeu a palavra a **Juliano Moraes**, para que dissertasse, oral e sucintamente, a respeito de seu trabalho intitulado "**Recifes profundos funcionam como refúgio? Um teste com corais do atlântico sul**". Passando então a discorrer sobre o aludido tema, dentro do prazo legal, o(a) candidato(a) foi a seguir arguido(a) pelos examinadores na forma regimental. Em seguida, passou a Comissão, em caráter secreto, a proceder à avaliação e julgamento do trabalho, concluindo por atribuir-lhe o conceito **APROVADO**. Perante a aprovação, declarou-se o(a) candidato(a) legalmente habilitado(a) a receber o grau de **Mestre em Ciências Biológicas**, área de concentração **Zoologia**. Nada mais havendo a tratar eu, **Dr. Bráulio Almeida Santos**, como presidente, lavrei a presente ata que, lida e aprovada, assino juntamente com os demais membros da banca examinadora.

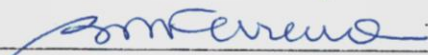
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Dr. Bráulio Almeida Santos (orientador)

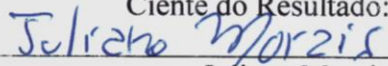


Dr. Pablo Riul (titular)



Dra. Beatrice Padovani Ferreira (titular)

Ciente do Resultado:


Juliano Moraes

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RESUMO GERAL

A hipótese dos refúgios em recifes profundos prevê que ecossistemas recifais profundos (>30 m de profundidade) podem atuar como refúgios para a biota dos recifes rasos e recuperá-la após distúrbios humanos. Ainda que a hipótese tenha sido postulada há quase duas décadas, faltam evidências empíricas que a suportem para diversos grupos biológicos, incluindo corais. Pouco se sabe também sobre como os corais respondem a diferentes tipos de distúrbios humanos, cuja magnitude e frequência variam consideravelmente. Neste trabalho, utilizei comunidades de corais ocorrentes na costa paraibana para testar a hipótese dos refúgios em recifes profundos. Como preâmbulo, revisei a literatura (110 estudos) para identificar lacunas teóricas e geográficas sobre as respostas dos corais à acidificação do oceano, mudança climática, sobrepesca, poluição e turismo desordenado. Classifiquei os estudos de acordo com o oceano, ecorregião, tipo de perturbação, nível de organização biológica, abordagem de estudo, método de coleta de dados, profundidade em que os dados foram coletados e tipo de resposta do coral. Descobri que os estudos estão concentrados no Indo- Pacífico (36.3%) e no Caribe (31.9%) e têm utilizado abordagem observacional (59,1%) com mergulho SCUBA (37,2%) para avaliar o impacto do aquecimento do oceano (55,4%) nas comunidades de corais (58,1%), especialmente em águas rasas (até 27 m). Estes resultados revelam a escassez de informações sobre respostas de corais à poluição, turismo, sobrepesca e acidificação, particularmente em ecossistemas recifais profundos e em ecorregiões fora do Indo-Pacífico e Caribe. Para o teste da hipótese do refúgio, utilizei uma abordagem no nível de comunidade capaz de particionar a diversidade em seus componentes alfa e beta ao longo de um gradiente de 3 a 61 m. Amostrei, através de mergulho SCUBA, 7 recifes rasos (<30 m) e 12 profundos (>30 m). Contrário às expectativas, os recifes rasos apresentaram maior diversidade gama que os profundos (13 vs. 7 espécies); maior proporção de espécies especialistas em profundidade (77% vs. 57%); diversidade alfa similar porém maior diversidade beta de espécies raras, típicas e comuns; e funções exclusivas não encontradas nas áreas profundas (e.g. corais moles). Esses resultados refutam a hipótese de que os recifes profundos funcionam como refúgios para corais. Entretanto, revelam que recifes rasos e profundos são complementares, sendo fundamental conservar todo o gradiente de profundidade para proteger integralmente a diversidade regional de corais.

Palavras chaves: Mudanças climáticas; distúrbios humanos; ecossistemas de corais mesofóticos; hipótese de refúgio; número de Hill; recifes de corais.

ABSTRACT

The hypothesis of deep reef refuges predicts that deep reef ecosystems (> 30 m depth) may act as refuges for the biota of shallow reefs and recover it after human disturbances. Although the hypothesis has been postulated almost two decades, empirical evidence is lacking that support it for diverse biological groups, including corals. Little is known about how corals respond to different types of human disorders, whose magnitude and frequency vary considerably. In this work, I used coral communities on the coast of Paraíba to test the hypothesis of deep reef refuges. As a preamble, I reviewed the literature (110 studies) to identify theoretical and geographic gaps on coral responses to ocean acidification, climate change, overfishing, pollution, and disordered tourism. I ranked the studies according to the ocean, ecoregion, type of disturbance, level of biological organization, study approach, method of data collection, depth at which data were collected and type of coral response. I have found that the studies are concentrated in the Indo-Pacific (36.3%) and the Caribbean (31.9%) and have used an observational approach (59.1%) with SCUBA diving (37.2%) to assess the impact of ocean warming 55.4%) in coral communities (58.1%), especially in shallow waters (up to 27 m). These results reveal the scarcity of information on coral responses to pollution, tourism, overfishing and acidification, particularly in deep reef ecosystems and in ecoregions outside the Indo-Pacific and Caribbean. For the test of the hypothesis of the refuge, I used a community-level approach capable of partitioning the diversity in its alpha and beta components along a gradient of 3 to 61 m. Through SCUBA diving, I found 7 shallow reefs (<30 m) and 12 deep reefs (> 30 m). Contrary to expectations, shallow reefs presented greater range diversity than the deep ones (13 vs. 7 species); highest proportion of specialist species in depth (77% vs. 57%); similar alpha diversity but higher beta diversity of rare, typical and common species; and unique functions not found in deep areas (e.g., soft corals). These results refute the hypothesis that deep reefs function as refuges for corals. However, they reveal that shallow and deep reefs are complementary, being essential to conserve the entire depth gradient to fully protect regional coral diversity.

Key words: climate change; human disturbances; mesophotic coral ecosystems, refuge hypothesis, Hill number; coral reef.

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INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

Recifes de corais possuem a maior densidade de biodiversidade de todos os ecossistemas, sendo considerados os ecossistemas mais diversos dos mares e uma das estruturas mais antigas da Terra constituídas por organismos vivos (Budd and Pandolfi 2010). Os recifes de corais ocupam somente 0,2% de toda área dos oceanos (Spalding and Grenfell 1997), porém aproximadamente 25% de todas as espécies marinhas dependem deles para viver (Davidson 1998). São típicos de águas tropicais quentes e claras, locais onde durante o inverno, a temperatura do mar permanece acima dos 18°C (Wilkinson 2008). No entanto, muitas comunidades de corais são também observadas em maiores latitudes, como na Austrália (Harriott 1999), Japão (Nozawa et al. 2006) e na América do Sul (Castro and Pires 2001, Leão et al. 2016), em águas turvas, como as dos recifes da foz do Rio Amazonas (Moura et al. 2016).

O Brasil detém a maior e mais rica área de recife em todo o Oceano Atlântico Sul, mas a diversidade de corais brasileiros é baixa em comparação com os recifes do Caribe, com poucas espécies de construção de recifes, mas um alto endemismo e muitas espécies de formas maciças (Castro and Pires 2001, Leão et al. 2016). A fauna de corais brasileiros é representada por 23 espécies de corais escleractíneos, 5 hidrocorais (Leão et al. 2016a) e pelo menos 22 espécies de octocorais (Castro et al. 2010). Os recifes brasileiros estão espalhados de 0°50 a 18°00, divididos em 4 regiões: a região norte, os recifes da costa do Nordeste, os recifes da costa leste e os ecossistemas dos recifes das ilhas oceânicas, ocorrendo por 3.000 km ao longo da costa (Leao et al. 2003, Ferreira et al. 2013).

Alguns levantamentos revelam que, em nível mundial, os recifes de corais contribuem em quase 375 bilhões em bens e serviços por meio de atividades como proteção costeira, pesca e turismo (Wilkinson 2002, 2008). Além disso, sustentam uma grande diversidade biológica e genética, exercendo função fundamental para o sucesso ecológico dos ecossistemas marinhos (Moberg and Folke 1999). Porém, eles estão sujeitos às alterações causadas pelo homem, tais como aquecimento global, acidificação, sobrepesca, poluição e turismo desordenado (Carpenter et al. 2008). Por exemplo, o dióxido de carbono atmosférico é o mais alto em no mínimo 15 milhões de anos (Lariviere et al. 2012). Esse grande acúmulo de carbono na atmosfera pode prejudicar os corais de duas maneiras: (1) através do aquecimento das águas oceânicas,

que leva os corais a perder suas microalgas simbiotes e consequentemente ao branqueamento (Guest et al. 2016), e (2) através da acidificação dos oceanos, que interfere diretamente no processo de calcificação e construção dos recifes de corais (Edmunds et al. 2016).

A hipótese dos recifes profundos se baseia na premissa de que os recifes localizados em maiores profundidades (abaixo dos 30 m) são mais estáveis e menos afetados por distúrbios humanos que os recifes rasos, sendo menos vulneráveis e potencialmente mais resistentes a perturbações que resultem no branqueamento, incidência de doenças, mortalidade, infertilidade e falha no estabelecimento dos corais (Kahng et al. 2014). Segundo Glynn (1996) e Bongaerts et al. (2010), no caso de perturbação dos recifes rasos, os recifes profundos poderiam servir como refúgio para as espécies de corais e ajudá-las a repopular os recifes rasos quando as condições ambientais voltarem a ser adequadas.

Neste trabalho, meu objetivo principal foi testar a hipótese do refúgio em recifes profundos, utilizando comunidades de corais ocorrentes entre 3 e 61 m de profundidade na costa da Paraíba. Como preâmbulo, revisei a literatura para identificar lacunas teóricas e geográficas sobre as respostas dos corais à acidificação do oceano, mudança climática, sobrepesca, poluição e turismo desordenado. A revisão é apresentada no primeiro capítulo, a ser submetido para o periódico *Marine Biology*, e o teste da hipótese é apresentado no segundo capítulo, atualmente em revisão no periódico *Ecology*.

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Capítulo 1

Artigo a ser submetido na **MARINE BIOLOGY – Student reviews**

Research gaps of coral ecology in a changing world

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Abstract

Corals have long inspired marine ecologists and conservationists around the world due to their remarkable ecological and socioeconomic importance. Much knowledge on the human impacts on coral species has been accumulated, especially on coral reef ecosystems, but relevant research areas on coral ecology remain underappreciated in human-dominated seascapes. In this review we assessed 110 studies on coral responses to five major human disturbances— acidification, climate change, overfishing, pollution and non-regulated tourism –to identify geographic and theoretical gaps in applied coral ecology and help to guide further researches on the topic. We searched for papers in Web of Science published from 2000 to 2016 and classified them according to the ocean, ecoregion, disturbance type, level of biological organization, study approach, method of data collection, depth of data collected, and type of coral response. Most studies were carried out in the Indo-Pacific and Caribbean (36.3 and 31.9%, respectively) and used observational approach (59.1%) with SCUBA diving (37.2%) to assess the impact of ocean warming (55.4%) on coral communities (58.1%). Only 37 of the 232 global ecoregions were studied. All studies were restricted to shallow waters (0.5-27 m depth) and reported negative response of corals to human disturbance. Our results reinforce the notion that corals are extremely sensitive to anthropogenic changes and reveal the scarcity of information on coral responses to pollution, tourism, overfishing and acidification, particularly in mesophotic ecosystems (>30 m depth) and in ecoregions outside the Indo-Pacific and Caribbean. Experimental studies at the individual and population levels should be also encouraged.

Key words: cnidaria; human disturbance; acidification; climate change; overfishing; pollution; tourism

Introduction

Coral reefs are the most diverse marine ecosystems and one of the oldest structures on Earth constituted by living organisms (Carpenter et al. 2008; Budd and Pandolfi 2010). They provide ecosystem services like fishing, tourism, structural materials, coastal protection, medical service and biochemicals, being vital for human societies and industries (Souter and Lindén 2000). Despite this ecological and socioeconomic importance, they are subject to anthropogenic changes at varying type, intensity and frequency just like any other ecosystem around the world. Many studies have shown that global warming, ocean acidification, overfishing, pollution and non-regulated tourism are the main threats to coral reefs (McLeod et al. 2013). Combined, these human threats have significant impacts on coral abundance and distribution, affecting biodiversity from local to global scales and jeopardizing people who directly depend on coral reefs to live (Hansen et al. 2008; Bryant et al. 2011; Cinner et al. 2016).

There are innumerable studies assessing different aspects of coral physiology and ecology in face of human disturbance, including several valuable reviews (Hoegh-guldberg 2007; Baker et al. 2008a; Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2017). In this review we spatialize the more recent information on the topic (2000-2016) to identify geographic and theoretical gaps and thus help to guide further research in applied coral ecology. We gathered information from Web of Science platform using the following keywords in the title: Coral reef* acidification, Coral reef* climate change, Coral reef* overfishing, Coral reef* pollution, Coral reef* tourism. This procedure resulted in 180 papers, but 70 were focused on taxonomic groups other than corals, such as fishes and algae. We excluded them and carefully analyzed the other 110 studies to get information on: level of biological organization, threats, ocean, location.

The review is structured in three sections. First, we briefly summarize the empirical evidence on the mechanisms underlying coral responses to the threats, including publications that came out before 2000. Second, we used the outcome of our analyses to point out the current geographical and theoretical gaps in the field. Finally, we suggest further directions for filling up the gaps and guide future applied and basic research in increasingly common human-dominated seascapes.

Threats

Ocean acidification

Large-scale human activity has caused increased CO₂ emissions, thus increasing ocean acidification levels (Feely et al. 2004). This dissolved carbon in water reduces its pH and alters its chemical components (Doney et al. 2012). About 25% of all CO₂ released into the atmosphere by anthropogenic activities annually are absorbed by the oceans (Sabine et al. 2004; Quéré et al. 2009). Basically, the increase of the CO₂ emission in the atmosphere leads to the increase of the ions of CO₂ (aqueous), HCO₃⁻ and hydrogen ions (H⁺), and decreases CO₃⁻² (McLeod et al. 2013). The decline in CO₃⁻² concentration reduces the saturation state of seawater aragonite (Ω_a), thus causing lower rates of calcification in reef-building corals (Tab.1); Aragonite is the mineral form of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) deposited by corals (Andersson et al. 2009; Clements et al. 2017).

Acidification is considered a global impact, but nutrient and sediment loading, which occurs locally, with fertilizer-rich sewage from plantations, may influence acidification in reefs close to urban centers (Kelly et al. 2011). The increase in CO₂ emission from the pre-industrial period reduced calcification and coral growth by approximately 40% by inhibiting the formation of aragonite (Kleypas and Langdon

2006). During the last century, the increase in CO₂ emissions induced a reduction of the oceanic pH by ~ 0.1 units, from ~ 8.25 to ~ 8.14 (Orr et al. 2005). Estimates for the future suggest a decrease of 0.3 pH units by the end of the century (Caldeira and E.Wickett 2003). The concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide is expected to exceed 500 parts per million by 2050, significantly exceeding the concentration of the last 420,000 years during which most of the existing marine organisms evolved (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2007). Thus, these changes are likely to outweigh the ability of most organisms to adapt. By the end of the century, a few tropical corals will persist, but their functions as precipitator of calcium carbonate and coastal protector will reduce (Ferrario et al. 2014; Comeau et al. 2015).

For reef-building corals, the low levels of saturation of aragonite generates a high energy cost of calcification, which ends up harming the growth and the construction of reef structure (Doney et al. 2009). Several studies show that not only coral, but all reef-building organisms suffer damage from acidification (Kroeker et al. 2010). For example, Vogel et al. (2015) showed that the studied a coral *Acropora millepora* and a algae *Halimeda opuntia*, were negatively affected by the increase in acidification and that the decrease in light availability could have an additional impact on both organisms. Using a metabolic approach, Sogin et al. (2016) show that under stressful conditions caused by acidification and rising temperatures, coral changes the pathways involved in carbohydrate metabolism, cellular structural maintenance and cell signaling. In addition, they strengthen defense mechanisms to maintain cellular activity necessary for survival at the expense of reproduction and growth. In the long run, the main consequences of ocean acidification for coral reefs are reduced survival, growth, and reproduction (Kroeker et al. 2010).

Ocean warming

The increase in the concentration of greenhouse gases is the main driver for increase the atmospheric temperature and, consequently, also end up influencing the temperature of the oceans (Tab.1), (Wilkinson 2008). The projected increase in sea surface temperature (SST) up to the middle of the century, even from an optimistic perspective regarding greenhouse gas emission reductions, can range from 0.5 to 1.5°C (Kirtman et al. 2013), and from 0.7 to 2.5°C by the end of the century (Collins et al. 2013). According to some studies, SST has increased by 0.08 every decade during 1950 until 2011 (Lough 2012), playing an important role in the distribution of reef ecosystems (Kleypas et al. 1999; Deser et al. 2010) as many organisms limit their occurrence to certain thermal conditions (Drinkwater et al. 2010).

The main consequences of ocean warming on corals are major bleaching events of mass mortality (Ainsworth et al. 2016). Most of the pigmentation within corals are composed of symbiotic interactions from zooxanthellae algae (*Symbiodinium* spp.); the term coral bleaching refers to the partial or total loss of zooxanthellae algae (Lough and Oppen 2009). Iglesias-prieto and colleagues (1992) show that endosymbionts *Symbiodinium* start to abandon the coral when exposed to 30°C temperature and leave it completely at 34-36°C. For example Hughes et al. (2017) in a recent study on Australia's large coral barrier showed a strong relationship between the temperature increase and the level of bleaching in corals. This process increases respiratory rates and susceptibility to diseases that can lead to death (Kaczmarzsky 2006).

Corals live extremely close to the thermal limits because they are sensitive to temperature changes, even if they are low, 1 or 2°C elevation can result in large scale bleaching (Crabbe 2008). Because of this, most disease events are identified during or after bleaching (Cantin and Lough 2014), although they may partially or fully recover

from bleaching events (Depczynski et al. 2013). Many examples of mass mortality associated with bleaching have been documented, reducing coral cover and modifying the structure and function of the entire benthic community (Thompson and Dolman 2010; Burt et al. 2011; Wild et al. 2011; Marimuthu et al. 2013; Buglass et al. 2015; Swain et al. 2016; Guest et al. 2016). Actually, the consequences of bleaching may be classified into two broad categories: immediate and longer term effects (Baker et al. 2008b). Immediate effects involve decreased tissue and skeletal growth, increased susceptibility to disease and mortality, and negative impact on coral reef organisms. Longer term effects involve reduced coral reproduction and recruitment, bioerosion, change in algal symbiont communities, and time lags in coral responses related to coral taxonomy, morphology and size (Baker et al. 2008b).

Overfishing

Overfishing is present in almost all reefs close to any human settlements (Sandin et al. 2008) and has been treated as the main driver of algae dominance in reef ecosystems (Hughes et al. 2010; Jackson et al. 2012). In healthy coral reefs, herbivory by fishes is largely responsible for controlling the accumulation of algal biomass (Rasher et al. 2012), leaving space for corals to thrive even under scenarios of fast algae growth (McClanahan et al. 2012). As the populations herbivorous fishes are reduced by overfishing (Tab.1), top-down control of algal biomass is lost and corals are gradually replaced by algae (Deron E. Burkepile and Mark E. Hay 2006; Mumby et al. 2007). According to Ceccarelli et al. (2006), the area covered by some species of algae may increase from 20 to 50% with the total exclusion of large herbivorous fishes.

In addition to the control of algae, some fishes are also responsible for the control of sponges in the reefs. In the Caribbean, in places with high overfishing, the number of sponges that were in competition with corals per space was double compared with places without overfishing (Loh et al. 2015). As a result, all species that live associated with the corals have their populations negatively affected, with cascade effects on the structure and functions of reef communities (Stella et al. 2011). In a simplistic view, we may identify four links among fishes, algae, and corals: (1) herbivorous fishes consume algae, (2) algae compete with and displace corals, (3) corals generate habitat complexity for fishes, and (4) fishes require habitat complexity for feeding, protection, nursery and reproductive sites (Mumby 2016). Therefore, any disruption in these links can collapse the reef ecosystem.

Pollution

Contamination of coastal waters with residential and industrial sewage has been a major concern in developing tropical countries (Byamukama et al. 2005). Some studies addressing the impacts of pollution on coral reefs indicate that the elevated content of inorganic nutrients could lead to increased algae growth and coral diseases (Fabricius et al. 2005). Others suggest that areas with high levels of pollution are characterized by low local coral diversity, low coral recruitment, high mortality rates, low skeletal density, reduced depth distribution, high bioerosion rates, and for shifting community dominance from hard corals to organisms that are not capable of building reefs (West and Woesik 2001). A study conducted in French Polynesia showed widespread contamination at all sampling sites and in all species studied with herbicide derivatives

and insecticides (Roche et al. 2011), indicating the potential for large-scale shifts in coral populations.

Like overfishing, pollution favors algal dominance in reef ecosystems by weakening the bottom-up regulation of algae populations, as the input of nutrients is translated into increased algal biomass (Zaneveld et al. 2016). A work on the Red Sea showed that a 50% increase in nutrients from floating fish farms, causing benthic algal blooms, 50% of coral mortality and reducing calcification by 3-4 times (Loya et al. 2004). The models estimating pollution in coral reefs around the world show that 22% of all coral reefs are classified as highly threatened and 12% as average (Bryant et al. 2011). Pollution is also associated with deforestation and countries with high deforestation levels (Tab.1), such as Taiwan and Vietnam, have a higher percentage of reefs at risk, around 50% (Bourke et al. 2002). In general, pollution is as important for reef conservation as bleaching and acidification, but efforts to understand this impact have been less.(Fabricius 2005).

Non-regulated tourism

In many tropical countries, coral reef-based tourism is growing at a faster rate than any other tourism segment (Tab.1), as well as being a key component of the global tourism industry (Milazzo et al. 2002). For example, Cesar et al. (2003) estimated that reefs generate \$29.8 billion in global net benefits per year, while Richmond (1993) in the Great Barrier Reef estimated that tourism generates \$1.5 billion per year for Queensland, Australia. Tourism activities directly affect the corals through physical contact with diver fins, anchors, and collision of boat bottom with the corals (Dearden et al. 2007). They also affect the corals indirectly by the addition of pollutants and other

toxic substances from tourists and vessels, and by increasing water turbidity (Dearden et al. 2007; Reopanichkul et al. 2009).

Evidence shows that non-regulated tourism degrades the reef and reduces its value as tourist spot, attracting fewer tourists due to loss of quality in visiting experience (Hasler and Ott 2008). A study showed that about 90% of divers assumed that they had physical contacts with the corals during diving, where the biggest causes of damage were the fins (45.5%), followed by hands (19.5%) and equipment (15.9%) (Barker and Roberts 2004; Ku and Chen 2013; Roche et al. 2016). In Akumal, Mexico, there is a clear link between snorkel-based tourism and the decline in coral cover over time and space (Gil et al. 2015). Because the loss of coral cover is often paralleled by fish impoverishment, tourists prefer to visit more conserved coral reefs. In this sense, adjusting the quantity of visitants to the biotic features of the reef is mandatory to conciliate sustainable exploration and conservation (Uyarra et al. 2009).

Knowledge gaps

Geographic gaps

As expected, most studies were performed in regions where coral diversity is greatest: the Indo-Pacific, with 36.3% of all studies, and the Caribbean with 31.9% (Fig. 1). The other works were distributed across the Southwestern Atlantic (3.6%), Pacific Islands (8.1%), Asia (5.4%), some seas of Africa (5.4%), and in the central part of the Indian (2.7%), plus some studies that did not mention the location (6.6%). Besides concentrating the global richness of coral species, the Indo-Pacific and the Caribbean are close to countries that historically funding research in coral ecology (Fig 1). For example, in Australia we find many studies because it is a country with great investment

in the science and conservation of coral reefs. The United States of America also supports coral research historically. However, there are other countries that have not presented many studies but are also of great importance for the world's coral reefs. An example of this are the corals of the Southwestern Atlantic, largely hosted by Brazilian reefs.

Brazilian coral species richness is low compared with that of Caribbean reefs (Leão et al. 2016). It has fewer reef-building species, but higher levels of endemism and are predominantly composed of massive forms (Castro and Pires 2001). Environmental conditions, such as strong solar radiation, low light levels and high sediment influx, eventually establish the tolerance levels of most Brazilian coral species (Leão et al. 2003; Sassi et al. 2015). Only the most adapted species tolerate the stressful conditions of the Southwestern Atlantic waters (Leão et al. 2016), and as such, it is possibly that they are less sensitive to human disturbances than Caribbean and Indo-Pacific species.

Another example is the Red Sea, which has a great wealth of coral fauna, and also has many endemic species. For example, about 14% of its reef fishes are endemics, including 7 unique species of butterfly fishes (Randall 1998). The Persian Gulf is another example, with a low diversity but with species well adapted to the harsh conditions. Such species are able to withstand the cold temperatures of the winter and summer temperatures much warmer than in any other reef around of the world (Coles and Riegl 2013). This fact creates an important point of study to understand the adaptations and the effects of temperature in coral species (Bryant et al. 2011; Coles and Riegl 2013).

Our results indicated only 37 of the 232 ecoregions have been studied. It is evident that corals are not present in all of them due to extreme conditions in greater latitudes or other natural constraints (e.g. lack of suitable substrate), but it is also clear

that corals are not restricted to the 37 revealed by our analyses. We found only three ecoregions with more than five studies, two in the Caribbean and one in the great barrier reef of Australia, indicating that our current knowledge on coral response to human disturbances is quite biased geographically. We will be unable to guide successful environmental-friendly management actions in coral reefs unless this geographic gap is rapidly filled up.

Theoretical gaps

More than half of the studies focused on ocean warming (55.4%), which could be directly linked with global warming and its influence with SST increasing. In second place appears acidification (13.6%), followed by tourism (10.9%), overfishing (10%), and pollution (9.2%) (Fig. 2). This demonstrates that we are still unable to draw conclusions on how coral species couple with most anthropogenic alterations in human-dominated seascapes. Consequently, we are not totally prepared to support decision-makers and protected coral diversity from human threats, even in the most studied sites.

In terms of biological organization, most studies focused on the community level (58.1%) taking into consideration all groups of coral species (e.g. soft, hard), 24.5% were conducted at the ecosystem level and a few addressed issues at the individual (8.2%) or population levels (9.2%) (Fig. 2). It is well known that populations and individuals may respond differently to changes in the environment (Edmunds et al. 2016) and therefore the scarcity of studies avoids us to properly estimate the level of species plasticity under contrasting disturbance scenarios. In addition, once different species may have different functions in the community, this knowledge gap results in

uncertainty about how coral communities and the whole ecosystem respond to human disturbances (Clements 2000).

In almost 60% of the studies the approach used was the observational. Only 22% of the studies had an experimental approach, and 18% gathered data from the literature. The experimental approach is valuable because the environment and the conditions for obtaining results capable of forecasting the future of corals can be manipulated. Observational studies are critical as well, but experiments may be established in situ to reduce costs, isolate variables and complement the correlative evidence derived from observational approaches. Such manipulation is more indicated for individual- or population-level studies (Bongaerts et al. 2017), but communities may be also artificially structured and designed to answer specific questions (Edmunds et al. 2016).

Despite the ocean, ecoregion, depth, level of biological organization, and methods used, all studies reported negative response of corals to all human disturbances considered. Such sensitivity is not novel, but observing 100% of negative responses was quite surprising. The negative responses was noticed by whitening (27.2%), mortality (13.6%), reduced calcification (10.9%), among others such as disease, intoxication, physical damage, reduced coverage, immune response and metabolic loss. This alarming finding reinforces the notion that corals are extremely vulnerable to anthropogenic changes (Freeman et al. 2013; Edmunds et al. 2014; Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2017).

Another very important gap was the absence of studies below the 30 m depth, revealing that there is no work examining how mesophotic coral species respond to human disturbances. Since the deep reef refugia hypothesis was postulated about two decades ago (Glynn 1996), many studies have been developed but often describing some aspect of coral biology along the gradient of depth (Bongaerts et al. 2010; Loya et

al. 2016; Shlesinger et al. 2017). Studies comparing mesophotic reefs with contrasting levels of human disturbance or monitoring the same mesophotic reef following different anthropogenic impacts are lacking yet. Without this information, it is hard to estimate the potential of deep corals to replenish not only human-disturbed shallow reefs, as the hypothesis predicts, but also other deep reefs impacted by humans.

One of the explanations for the lack of studies in the mesophotic reefs are the logistic and methodological requirements involved in data collection (Kahng et al. 2010; Hinderstein et al. 2010). In recent years, technology has helped a lot in expanding our knowledge on the abundance and distribution of deep coral species (Kahng et al. 2014), as going below the 40 m requires at least tech divers. Remotely operated vehicles (ROVs) and autonomous underwater vehicles (AUVs) may replace divers and are very promising, but their elevated cost usually makes the research unfeasible (Menza et al. 2007; Wynn et al. 2014). This might explain why we found no work using such vehicles in data collection. In fact, most studies collected their data with SCUBA diving (37.2%) at shallow depths smaller than 27 m; all other studies adopted a myriad of methodological procedures, from snorkel, interviews and controlled environment to satellite images, fossil records, and secondary data.

Future directions

We suggest five directions for future research on coral ecology in human-dominated seascapes. First, giving more attention to regions outside the Indo-Pacific and the Caribbean. Many places with relevant importance for global coral diversity are sub-sampled. For example, the corals of the Southwestern Atlantic with its high level of endemism (Leão et al. 2016), and the corals of the Persian Gulf with their capacity of

supporting remarkable amplitude of variation in temperature (Coles and Riegl 2013). Even within the most studied regions, sampling ecoregions other than Greater Antilles, Western Caribbean, and Central and Southern Great Barrier Reef, which concentrate the current information. Second, assessing the effects acidification, pollution, non-regulated tourism and overfishing on coral growth, mortality, reproduction, dispersal, abundance and distribution. That does not mean that the consequences of ocean warming are completely understood. There is much to be documented on the outcome of SST on corals (Hughes et al. 2017), but the other threats are becoming increasingly common and deserve the same attention.

Third, concentrating efforts on corals occupying the mesophotic zones (Esser et al. 2010), identifying depth-specialists and depth-generalists species. The depth-generalists, i.e. those species occurring in shallow and deep waters, are particularly important for the recovery of shallow reefs and should be identified (Bongaerts et al. 2010). However, they will be not helpful if they are sensitive to one or more threats analyzed here, thus their vulnerability to human disturbance should be also estimated. Four and linked to that is the developing of more cost-effective technology for assessing deep waters, such as cheaper ROVs, AUVs, and rebreathers. These technologies should be available for researchers in both developing and developed countries.

Our last suggestion is to produce more experimental studies to uncover between-individual and between-population differences along gradients of human disturbance, and if possible, quantify the relative contribution of genetic and phenotypic drivers. We should also identify the winner species that will benefit from each of the human threats, jointly or separately. By identifying these species, we may forecast the taxonomic and functional composition of the future coral community, and shed light into the functioning of the future coral reefs. Given the biogeographic history of the oceans

(Spalding et al. 2007), this procedure should be performed for the biogeographic units independently.

Finally, we should be fast and skillful enough to translate the scientific knowledge into conservation actions soon. We have functionally lost at least 25% of the world's coral reefs, and a third of all coral species are threatened with extinction (Carpenter et al. 2008). Since 1970 the coral cover in the Caribbean has been lost from approximately 80% (Gardner et al. 2003), and total coral cover in the Indo-Pacific has been reduced by 1 to 2% annually (Scopelitis et al. 2009). These alarming numbers can be explained by the major threats considered here, plus low legal protection of coral reefs, urbanization, development of ports among others that also jeopardize marine biodiversity (Sarkar and Ghosh 2013). We expect that the research gaps we have pointed out help to protect corals around the world as well.

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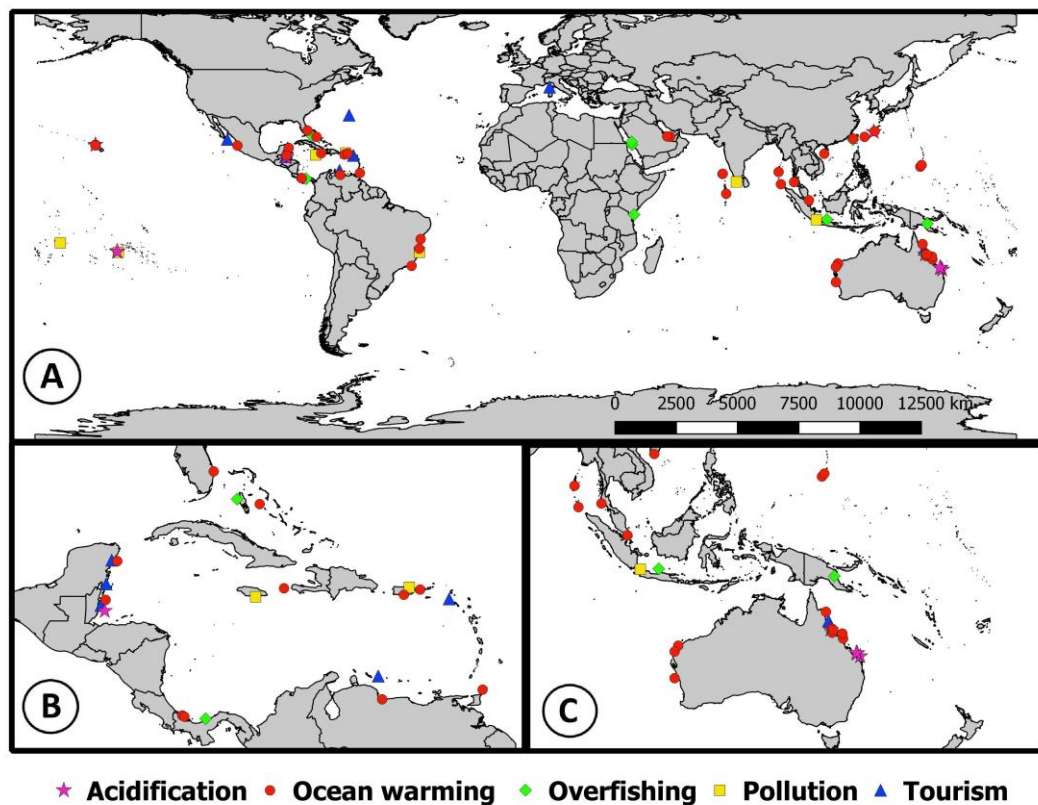


Figure 1: Location where each study was carried out and the type of threat. (A) Caribbean region. (B) Indo-pacific region.

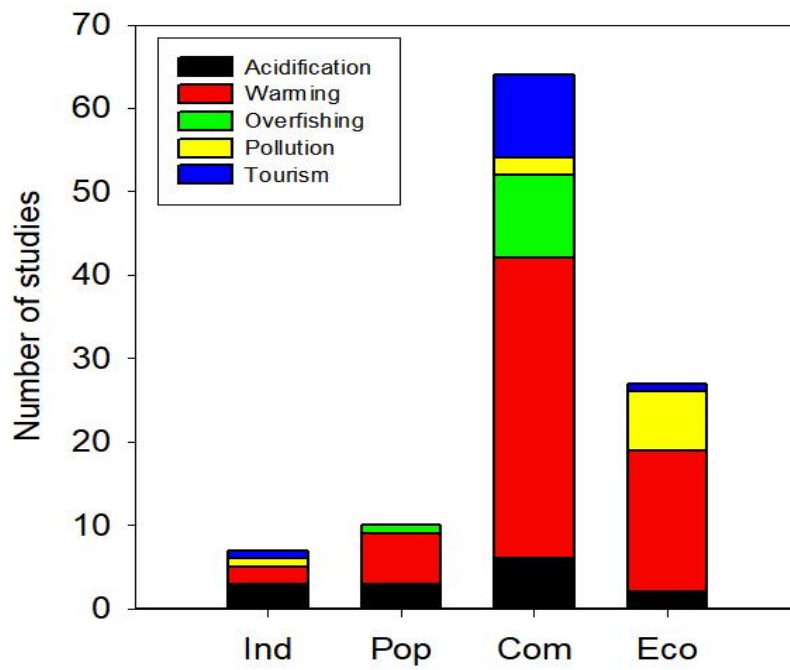


Figure 2: Number of studies per type of threat and level of level of biological organization.

Table 1: Definition of the five major threats affecting coral species.

Threat	Definition	References
Acidification	The predictable outcome of increased atmospheric CO ₂ resulting from anthropogenic activity. As the amount of CO ₂ absorbed by the oceans increases, the concentration of hydrogen ions increases, thus decreasing seawater pH.	Clements et al. (2017)
Ocean warming	A global phenomenon that often expresses itself in local and regional vulnerable systems and communities by modifying temperature and rainfall regime, affecting profoundly aquatic habitats and ecological functions and processes.	Davis et al. (2015) IPCC (2007)
Overfishing	Term usually used to refer to high exploitation rates, defined as a fishery at a level of effort higher than that which maximizes the economic rent, the differences between gross returns and fishing costs and declining catches.	Pauly (1988) Hilborn and Stokes (2011)
Pollution	The introduction by man, directly or indirectly, of substances or energy into the marine environment, which results or is likely to result in such deleterious effects as harm to living resources and marine life, hazards to human health, hindrance to marine activities, including fishing and other legitimate uses of the sea, impairment of quality for use of the sea water and reduction of amenities	United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (1982), in Williams (1997)
Tourism	Comprises the activities of people traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited.	Uyarra et al. (2009) O’Gorman (2009)

Capítulo 2

Artigo sob revisão na **Ecology - Report**

Running head: Testing the deep reef refugia hypothesis

Testing the deep reef refugia hypothesis with tropical Southwestern Atlantic corals

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Abstract (200 words)

The deep reef refugia hypothesis predicts that deep coral reefs may act as refuges against major disturbances affecting shallow reefs, but to date a few studies have explicitly examined it. We test it using a community-level approach able to partition the coral diversity into independent alpha and beta components along a 3-61 m depth gradient in Northeast Brazil. If the hypothesis holds, shallow reefs (<30m) should host less species than deep reefs (>30m); depth-specialist species should be rarer in shallow than deep reefs; alpha diversity should be greater in deep reefs to allow immigration into shallow areas; beta diversity should be smaller among shallow reefs due to homogenization driven by successive disturbances, and the functional composition of shallow reefs should be a subset from that of deep reefs. Contrary to expectations, coral communities in shallow reefs hosted twice more species, presented greater proportion of depth-specialists (77% vs. 57%), similar alpha but greater beta diversities of either rare, typical and dominant species, and exclusive functional attributes. Our findings provide little support for the deep reef refugia hypothesis, highlight the complementary nature of shallow and deep areas for regional coral diversity, and suggest small vertical connectivity and limited reseeded potential of deep reefs.

Key words: anthropogenic disturbance; biodiversity; cross-shelf; Hill numbers; mesophotic coral ecosystems; ocean; true diversity.

INTRODUCTION

The deep reef refugia hypothesis, formerly postulated by Glynn (1996), predicts that deep coral reefs may act as refugia against major disturbances affecting shallow reefs. It stipulates that deep reefs (>30 m depth) are protected or dampened from disturbances that affect shallow reefs (<30 m), such as pollution, unregulated tourism and overfishing. The hypothesis was firstly related to global warming and its massive, but non-uniform effects on coral bleaching and mortality (Hoegh-Guldberg 1999); some benign habitats such as deep, sunlit reef substrates, oceanic shoals and relatively high latitude locations, might escape from increased sea surface temperature or solar radiation and offer refuge for coral populations (Glynn 1996). As the hypothesis gained attention, evidence from mesophotic coral ecosystems indicated that the deep reefs could also act as a viable reproductive source for shallow reef areas following disturbance, expanding the notion of thermal refuge to source of propagules as well (Lesser et al. 2009, Bongaerts et al. 2010).

Much empirical evidence has been generated since the hypothesis was proposed two decades ago (Loya et al. 2016), but considering its global relevance for marine ecology and management, the number of studies explicitly designed to validate its assumptions or test its predictions is minuscule (e.g. Smith et al. 2016, Semmler et al. 2017, Bongaerts et al. 2017). For instance, the assumption that cooler environments protect corals from bleaching has been recently challenged, as Caribbean mesophotic corals (30-75 m depth) have lower bleaching threshold temperatures than shallow corals (Smith et al. 2016). The prediction of high vertical connectivity between deep and shallow reefs has been genetically supported for the broadcasting species *Stephanocoenia intersepta*, but not for the brooding species *Agaricia fragilis* (Bongaerts

et al. 2017). Mixing results have been also reported at the community level (e.g. Riegl and Piller 2003, Semmler et al. 2017), revealing the need for more explicit evaluations of this important hypothesis.

The reseeding potential of deep areas into shallow ones assumes that the shallow-deep continuum encompasses a metacommunity, i.e. a set of local communities (coral reefs) that are linked by dispersal of multiple interacting species (Leibold et al. 2004). Regardless the type of connectivity among reefs (if physical or functional) and if the coral metacommunity constitutes a patch-dynamic, species-sorting, mass-effect, or even a neutral model (Leibold et al. 2004), a substantial portion of the coral diversity will be observed among, rather than within, local communities (Jost 2007). This beta component of coral diversity is expected to be lower in more disturbed reefs due to cumulative species loss, but as the alpha component, it is strongly dependent on species relative frequency. A given species can be extremely dominant below the 30 m, but if it is a depth-specialist due to physiological, ecological or life-history constraints, it will be not able to colonize a disturbed shallow reef. Other species may tolerate varied environmental conditions (depth-generalist), but being rare at any depth and thus contributing little to shallow reef recovery. Under real conditions, these dominant depth-specialists and rare depth-generalists should co-occur with numerous rare depth-specialists and a few dominant depth-generalists, generating patterns of beta diversity along the depth gradient poorly understood until now.

The concern with species frequency is well-known in the growing literature assessing the role of deep reefs as refugia at community level. Most studies have gone beyond species richness and used abundance-based metrics such as Shannon-Wiener and Gini-Simpson indices (e.g. Riegl and Piller 2003, Semmler et al. 2017). Nonetheless, these traditional metrics actually measure entropy rather than diversity, do

not obey the replication principle and do not allow to partition the regional diversity into independent alpha and beta components (Jost 2007). This last point is particularly relevant to quantify the magnitude of the differences in diversity between shallow and deep reefs. Furthermore, to be a refugium, a deep reef should encapsulate the functions observed in the shallow reefs (e.g. reproduction mode, growth habit), otherwise the functional recovery will be not achieved in disturbed shallow reefs.

The reefs of the tropical Southwestern Atlantic province, along with those of the North Brazil shelf, comprise the largest and richest reef formation of the South Atlantic ocean (Spalding et al. 2007, Leão et al. 2016b). The Brazilian coral fauna is low compared to the Caribbean reefs, being currently represented by 23 scleractinian species, 5 hydrocorals, and 22 species of octocorals (Castro et al. 2010, Leão et al. 2016b). In contrast to the shallow reefs, the mesophotic coral ecosystems of the Southern Atlantic are still poorly studied (Oliveira et al. 2016). Even with the recent advances in the deep reefs of oceanic islands (Amado-Filho et al. 2016), submarine mountains (Meirelles et al. 2015), and the mouth of the Amazon river (Cordeiro et al. 2015), the potential role of deep reefs to serve as refugia for coral species has been not yet assessed.

In this study we test the deep reef refugia hypothesis using a community-level approach able to partition the coral diversity into independent alpha and beta components. We sample coral communities in 19 reefs of the Northeastern Brazil ecoregion (Spalding et al. 2007), varying from 3 to 61 m depth. Following the predictions of Glynn's hypothesis, we expected that (1) the deep reefs would host more species (gamma diversity) than shallow ones; (2) depth-specialist species should be rarer in shallow (<30 m) than deep reefs (>30 m); (3) alpha diversity should be greater in deep reefs to allow immigration into shallow areas; (4) beta diversity should be

smaller among shallow reefs due homogenization driven by successive disturbances; and (5) the functional composition of shallow reefs should be a subset from that of deep reefs. As a preamble, we describe the substrate cover and taxonomic composition along the depth gradient and report new records for the region.

METHODS

Study area

We conducted the study in the eastern coast of Northeast Brazil near the metropolitan region of João Pessoa, state of Paraíba (Appendix S1). The continental shelf in this area is relatively short (35-km wide), most of it lies at depths smaller than 40 m and the break occurs at 75 m (O. A. Silva et al., unpublished data). Water temperature is relatively constant around 28-29°C up to the 50 m; after this depth a sharp thermocline of unknown seasonality reduces the temperature to about 23-24°C (Feitoza et al. 2005). The shallow reefs of this and other tracts of the Northeastern Brazil ecoregion are relatively well studied; some reefs are attached to the coast and others are several kilometers offshore, generally lying parallel to the coast at depths of approximately 5 m to 10 m (Leão et al. 2016b). The deep reefs of the region, on the other hand, are virtually unknown. The only study developed so far (Feitoza et al. 2005) describes the fish communities of 14 reefs between 35 m and 70 m depth and concludes that the deep reefs may function as a faunal corridor between southeastern Brazil and the Caribbean.

Data survey

To identify the reefs to be surveyed within the limits of our study area, we first consulted fishermen and local dive operators on possible reef locations. Subsequently, we confirmed the locations through exploratory SCUBA dives and bathymetric data

from a portable hydrographic echo sounder system (SonarMite), which located potential submerged pinnacles and shelf valleys with potential to house corals. This procedure resulted in 19 reefs to be sampled: seven shallow reefs distant 15.5 km (1.5-25.8 km) (min-max) to each other and 12 deep reefs, 26.7 km (0.34-52.2 km) apart from each other. At each reef, we performed SCUBA dives using compressed air, Nitrox, or Trimix depending on the depth, and adapted the coral video transect method to sample the communities (Safuan et al. 2015). We used GoPro Hero 4 to record the digital videos along 20-m transects 1 m above the seafloor (modified from Morgan et al. 2016). We usually filmed four transects per reef with a minimum distance of 20 m between transects. Four reefs had five or six transects, but because transects were pooled together by reef in the analyses and sample coverage was close to 100% (see Appendix S2), this difference had no influence on the estimation of alpha and beta diversities.

We identified all colonies of scleractinian corals, hydrocorals, and octocorals recorded in the video transects and classified them according to four categorical functional traits: type of skeleton (reef-building, hard, or soft), reproductive mode (brooding or broadcast), symbiosis with zooxanthella (zooxanthellate or not), and sexual pattern (hermaphrodite and/or gonochoric) (Bongaerts et al. 2010 and references therein). To describe the substrate cover we took one frame every 10 seconds from each video transect (Hill and Wilkinson 2004, Morgan et al. 2016). We analyzed the frames through the point counting method with the program CPCe® (Coral Point Count with Excel Extensions; Kohler and Gill 2006), using a set of 20 random points per frame. We classified the points as sand, rock, sponge, algae, or coral, and reported their relative cover in percentage.

Sample coverage and diversity metrics

To compare the coral diversity across the depth gradient we first assessed the inventory completeness of each reef using the coverage estimator recommended by Chao and Jost (2012) (Appendix S2). To partition the diversity into independent alpha and beta components, we used multiplicative diversity decompositions of effective numbers of species (so-called Hill numbers, qD) in its unweighted form (Jost 2007). We considered diversity of rare (0D), typical (1D) and dominant (2D) species (Appendix S3).

RESULTS

Overall, coral cover was relatively small, only 3.4%, varying from 0.3% to 20.2%. The reef cover was largely dominated by rock with 38.9%, followed by macroalgae (31.4%), sand (15.2%) and sponges (1.0%), and still 10.1% undistinguishable cover. We recorded 861 coral colonies belonging to 17 species and 14 families: 11 scleractinea species, 1 octocoral, 1 black coral, 1 hydrocoral, and 3 zoanthids (Appendix S4). The scleractinea coral *Agaricia fragilis* and the black coral *Cirripathes* sp. represented new records for state of Paraíba, Brazil. The most abundant species were the reef-building, depth generalist *Siderastrea stellata* (74.7% of the colonies) and *Montastrea cavernosa* (18.5%). Only three species occurred along the entire depth gradient: *S. stellata*, *M. cavernosa* and *Mussismilia hispida*. Ten species were observed only in the shallow reefs (>58% of the regional richness), while four occurred exclusively in the deep reefs (Appendix S5).

The three metrics of alpha diversity (0D , 1D , 2D) varied from 1 to 5 species per reef but did not respond to depth (Fig. 1). Compared with deep reefs, shallow reefs showed 50% more beta diversity of rare species (0D ; 4.5 vs. 3.0 communities) and 30%

more beta diversity of dominant species (2D ; 1.6 vs. 1.2 communities) (Fig. 2). This greater beta diversity also resulted in greater gamma diversity in shallow reefs, which almost doubled the gamma diversity recorded in the deep areas (13 vs. 7 species).

Because *S. stellata* and *M. cavernosa* dominated the depth gradient, coral communities were dominated by reef-building, zooxanthellated, gonochoric corals with brooding or broadcast reproductive mode. However, soft corals were observed only in shallow reefs and non-zooxanthellated corals were recorded only in deep reefs.

DISCUSSION

Our community-level approach using Southwestern Atlantic corals do not support the deep reef refugia hypothesis. Compared with deep reefs, coral communities in shallow areas (1) hosted almost twice more species (gamma diversity), (2) presented proportionally more depth-specialists, (3) exhibited similar alpha but greater beta diversities of either rare, typical and dominant species, and (4) showed exclusive functional groups not found below the 30 m. If any, the refugia may be inverted in our study region, with more diverse, heterogeneous shallow reefs rescuing less diverse, homogeneous deeper areas, but that is not case either. The elevated proportion of depth-specialist species in both shallow and deep reefs and the exclusivity in some functions (i.e. soft corals in shallow areas and non-zooxanthellated in deep areas) reveal the complementary nature of the reefs along the depth gradient. It is worthy to mention that our deep reefs were in the upper limit of the mesophotic zone (up to 61 m), where the differences between shallow and deep areas should be minimum and the hypothesis strongly supported (Loya et al. 2016).

The coral metacommunity comprised by the 17 species distributed along the depth gradient follows a species-sorting model, in which two species dominate local

communities anywhere in the region (*Siderastrea stellata* and *Montastrea cavernosa*) and the others are separated into spatial (depth) niches and limited in terms of dispersion (Leibold et al. 2004). Sedimentation and turbidity, common in shallow and deep reefs of our region, are known to negatively affect corals and select a few species more adapted to the stressful conditions (Erftemeijer et al. 2012). *M. cavernosa* is recognized as a species with high sediment removal capacity and one of the most important reef-building corals of the South Atlantic and the Caribbean (Francini-filho et al. 2013, Leão et al. 2016b). Its physiological and morphological adaptations to tolerate greater depths has been documented as well (Lesser et al. 2010). *S. stellata*, by far the most abundant coral species in our region, seems to be even more tolerant to depth, sedimentation and turbidity than *M. cavernosa* (Antônio-de-Souza and Amaral 2002, Leão et al. 2003). These characteristics certainly explain its ecological success throughout the coast of Paraíba and other Brazilian reefs, such as the Vitória-Trindade seamount chain (Meirelles et al. 2015), Abrolhos bank (Moura et al. 2013), Rocas Atoll (Amado-Filho et al. 2016) and mesophotic reefs of the Ceará coast in Northeast Brazil (Oliveira et al. 2016).

Several factors, besides depth, might be involved in coral distribution pattern and explain the deviation from the hypothesis predictions. One possibility is that competition for consolidate substrate (Liddell and Avery 2000, Wilkinson 2008) and/or level of human disturbance (Appeldoorn et al. 2016) are greater in deep than shallow reefs. However, most reef surface of shallow and deep reefs was uncovered and classified as rock (see smaller rock cover in Bridge et al. 2011, Bridge and Guinotte 2012, Meirelles et al. 2015, Cordeiro et al. 2015), indicating that there would be enough space to expand coral cover by 10 times at any depth. In addition, there is no evidence supporting increased pressures of fishing, pollution, and tourism in the deep reefs (Leão

et al. 2003). In fact, these threats are more common in shallow areas due to the proximity from the coast. Thus, the depth – and its intrinsic covariates (i.e. light, pressure, temperature) – is more likely to be the main driver of community organization at our study region.

The deviation from the hypothesis might be also explained by the geographic (horizontal) distance between the shallow and deep reefs, which exacerbates the taxonomic differentiation between coral communities. While shallow reefs were attached to the coast or a kilometer offshore lying at depths of up to 10 m, the deep reefs were often more than 20 km offshore (see Appendix S1). This horizontal gap is very likely to favor the depth specialism in the region, limit the vertical connectivity between shallow and deep areas, and reduce the role of deep reefs as a source of larvae from shallow reefs (Hinderstein et al. 2010). In addition, some studies have shown that larval dispersion may be as low as 100 m (Underwood. et al. 2007), challenging the idea that deep reefs could be helpful in recovering the shallow reefs of the Paraíba coast.

One possibility for measuring the capacity of mesophotic coral populations to replenish shallow reefs after disturbance is to measure the extent and direction of gene flow between these habitats (Van Oppen et al. 2011). To this end, the characteristics of each species will ultimately determine the dispersal potential. For example, the large eggs of *M. cavernosa* can increase the survival time of the larvae, the dispersion capacity, and the survival of the post-release (Nunes et al. 2009). But studies that tested this ability demonstrated that vertical connectivity can vary greatly between species within the same reef (Bongaerts et al. 2017) and within the same species but on different reefs (Serrano et al. 2014). We encourage further studies to investigate gene flow of *M. cavernosa* and *S. stellata* among reefs at the same and different depths in our

study region to disentangle the drivers of vertical and horizontal connectivity among reefs.

The greater beta diversity in the shallow areas was quite surprising, given that the human pressures close to the coast should have homogenized the coral communities (Leão et al. 2003). The smaller average pairwise distance of shallow reefs (15.5 km) compared with that of deep reefs (26.7 km) would also support lower beta diversity in the shallow areas, but the analyses revealed the opposite. This suggests high dispersal limitation of most species at smaller spatial scales, especially rare and typical ones, or strong differences in resource quality for corals from one reef to another, affecting local demography of species and the outcomes of local species' interactions (Leibold et al. 2004). At the metacommunity level, the increased depth – an unsuitable natural condition for shallow-specialist corals – seems to be more dramatic for corals than fishing, pollution, and tourism together. This does not mean that human activities do not affect these sessile invertebrates, but rather that we could have found more distinct coral communities in the absence of human use.

The low number of species we recorded (17 species) is naturally expected for this region. According to Leão et al. (2016), we found 83% of the species expected for scleractinea and 50% for Hydrozoa, besides 20% of the species expected for octocorals (Castro et al. 2010). The Brazilian reefs have three main characteristics: the low biodiversity compared to North Atlantic reefs, the main reef builders are endemics (e.g. *S. stellata*), and species of massive form are dominant. One of the factors that may explain the low coral diversity in the South Atlantic is the geographical barrier formed by the plume of the Amazon River, which prevents the migration of most species from the Caribbean (Luiz et al. 2012) and allows a few species that tolerate great depths and high levels of sedimentation to cross (Leão et al. 2003, Neves et al. 2010).

In summary, the deep reefs are unlikely to serve as refugia for Southwestern Atlantic corals that occupy the shallow areas. If any, they have potential to replenish shallow reefs with only two depth-generalist species, *S. stellata* and *M. cavernosa*, but this possibility remains to be properly assessed by genetic analyses. Because beta diversity is very high, especially in shallow reefs, and many species are specialized on particular depths, conservation actions in the region should integrate the protection of shallow and deep reefs to conserve the regional coral diversity.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Alpha diversity of rare (0D), typical (1D) and dominant (2D) coral species in shallow (<30 m) and deep (>30 m) reefs of Northeast Brazil. The mean (solid line), median (thin line), 25th and 75th percentiles (boundaries of boxes), and 5th and 95th percentiles (whiskers above and below box plots) are indicated in the boxplots. No linear relationship or significant differences between the means of shallow and deep reefs were observed ($P > 0.05$).

Figure 2. Beta diversity of rare ($q=0$), typical ($q=1$) and dominant ($q=2$) coral species across communities in shallow (<30 m) and deep (>30 m) reefs of Northeast Brazil.

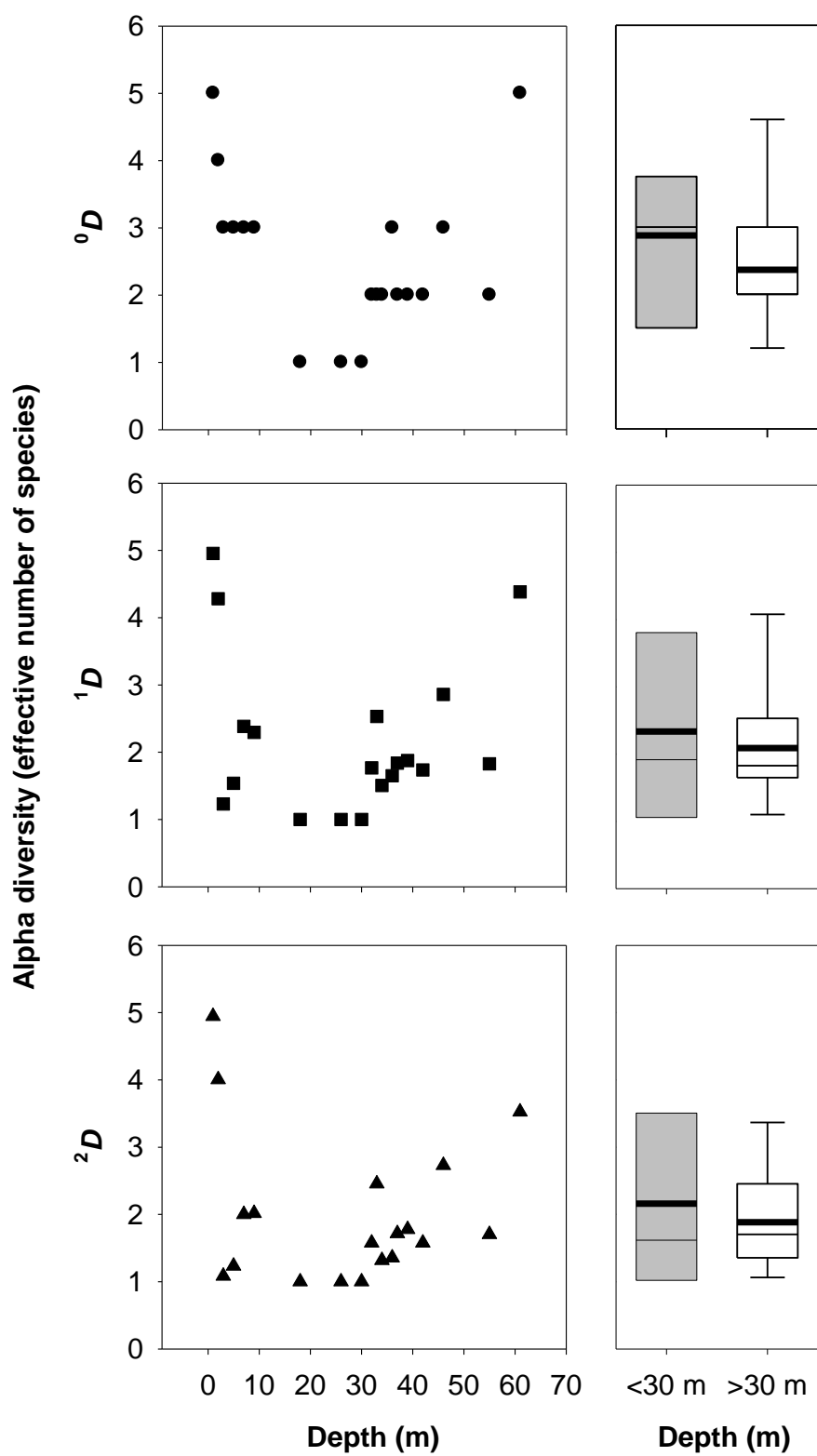


Figure 1.

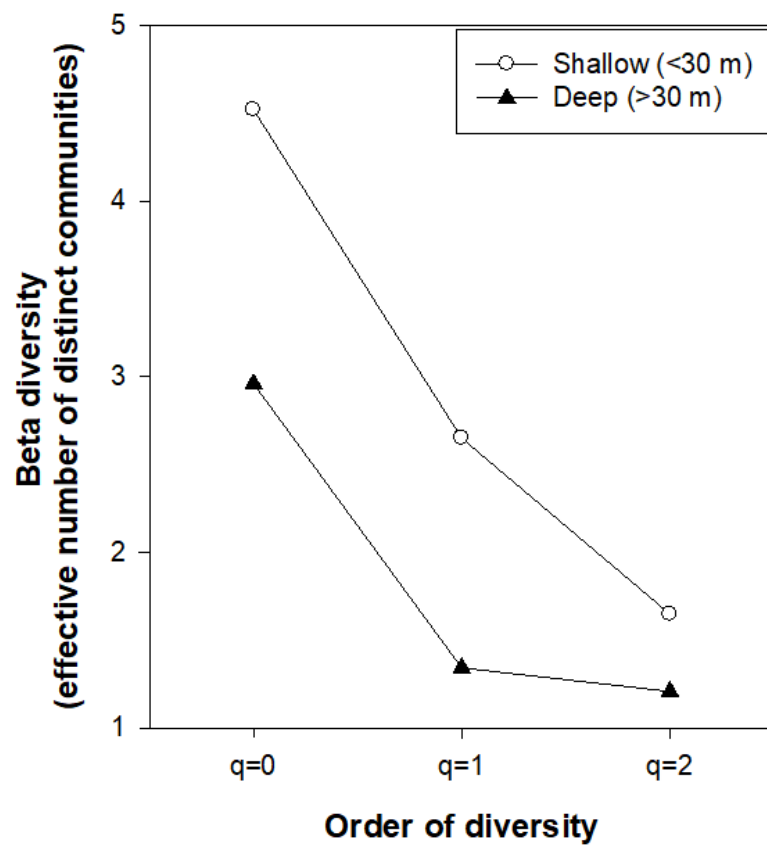
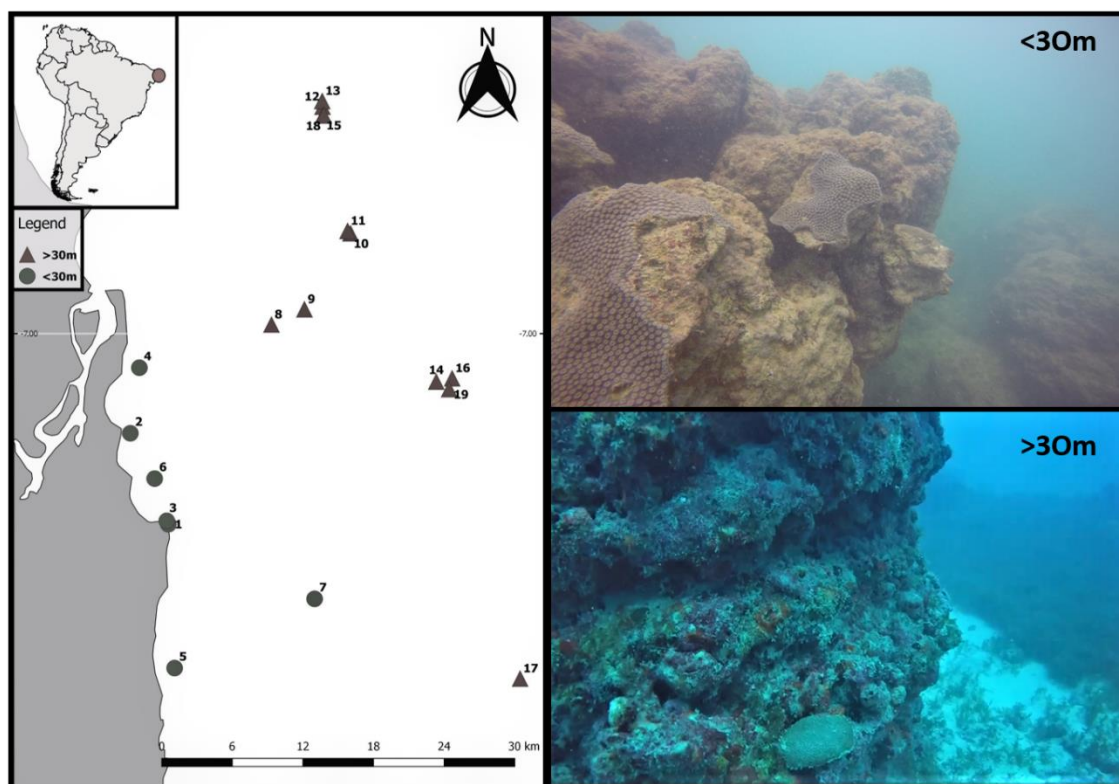


Figure 2.

Appendix S1. Study region in the coast of Paraíba, Northeast Brazil, showing an example of shallow (<30m depth) and deep reefs (> 30m depth).



Appendix S2. Estimation of sample completeness of the 19 coral communities sampled in the coast of Paraíba, Northeast Brazil.

We first calculated the inventory completeness for each reef using the coverage estimator recommended by Chao and Shen (2010), which is a less biased estimator of sample completeness:

$$\hat{C}_n = 1 - \frac{f_1}{n} \left[\frac{(n-1)f_1}{(n-1)f_1 + 2f_2} \right]$$

where f_1 and f_2 are the number of species represented by one (singletons) and two (doubletons) colonies, respectively, and n is the total number of colonies in each reef.

Because species richness was low [1-5 species per reef; common in Southwestern Atlantic reefs (Leão et al. 2016b)] but colony abundance was relatively high (on average 45 colonies per reef), 11 of the 19 reefs presented no singleton or doubleton, with all species being represented by three or more colonies. In such cases sample completeness reached the maximum (1). The other 8 reefs with at least a singleton or a doubleton averaged 0.94, ranging from 0.83 to 1.00. This analysis ensured that our estimates of species diversity and its partitioning were not be biased by differences in sample completeness (Chao and Jost 2012). We calculated the estimator of sample coverage with the iNEXT software (Chao et al. 2016).

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Appendix S3. Diversity calculation and partition of coral communities.

For S species, gamma (γ) diversity of order q was defined as:

$${}^qD_\gamma = \left(\sum_{i=1}^S p_i^q \right)^{1/(1-q)}$$

where S is the number of species in the reef, p_i is the relative abundance of colonies of the i th species, and q is a parameter that controls the measure's sensitivity to species relative abundances (Jost 2007, Tuomisto 2010).

When $q = 0$, diversity represents the species richness, which is not sensitive to abundances and so gives disproportionate weight to rare species (Jost 2006, Tuomisto 2010). When $q = 1$, diversity is equivalent to the exponential of Shannon's entropy index and weights each species according to its abundance in the community, without favoring rare or abundant species (Jost 2007). The Hill number of order 1 can be therefore interpreted as the effective number of 'typical species' in the community (Chao and Jost 2012). When $q = 2$, diversity is equivalent to the inverse Simpson concentration and the abundant species are favoured in detriment of rare species. This diversity of order 2 is recognized as the number of 'very abundant' or 'dominant' species in the community (Jost 2010, Chao et al. 2012).

Following the same rationale, the alpha (α) component of diversity was defined as:

$${}^qD_\alpha = \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^S p_{i1}^q + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^S p_{i2}^q + \dots \right)^{1/(1-q)}$$

where P_i denotes the relative abundance of the i th species in each of the N communities (Jost 2007).

To calculate the beta (β) diversity of coral communities, we adopted the multiplicative diversity partition (Jost 2007, 2010) defined as:

$${}^qD_\beta = \frac{{}^qD_Y}{{}^qD_\alpha}$$

This metric expresses the ‘effective number of completely distinct communities’ (Jost 2007), as it ranges between 1 (when all communities are identical) and N (when all communities are completely different from each other). Because we sampled 19 communities, values of beta diversity could vary between 1 and 19.

We used Mantel tests to assess whether coral beta diversity was related to reef location in the seascape (i.e. log-transformed geographical distances between sampled patches) and/or to differences in reef depth. We calculated the P -values using the distribution of the Rho coefficients obtained from 10 000 permutations. We observed no distance decay in beta diversity (Rho = 0.105; P = 0.192) and a significant but weak effect of depth on beta diversity (Rho = 0.298; P = 0.004). This indicates that closer communities are not necessarily more similar than distant communities, but communities at similar depths may be a bit more similar to each other than communities at different depths. We performed all analyses in R v. 2.15.2 (R Development Core Team, Vienna, Austria).

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Appendix S4. List of the 17 species recorded in shallow and deep reefs of Paraíba, Northeast Brazil. Reproduction; B = Brooding, S = Broadcast spawning.

Reef building and zooxanthellate Y = Yes, N = No. IUCN; DD = Data Deficient, LC = Least Concern. Sexual pattern; H = Hermaphrodite, G = Gonochoric

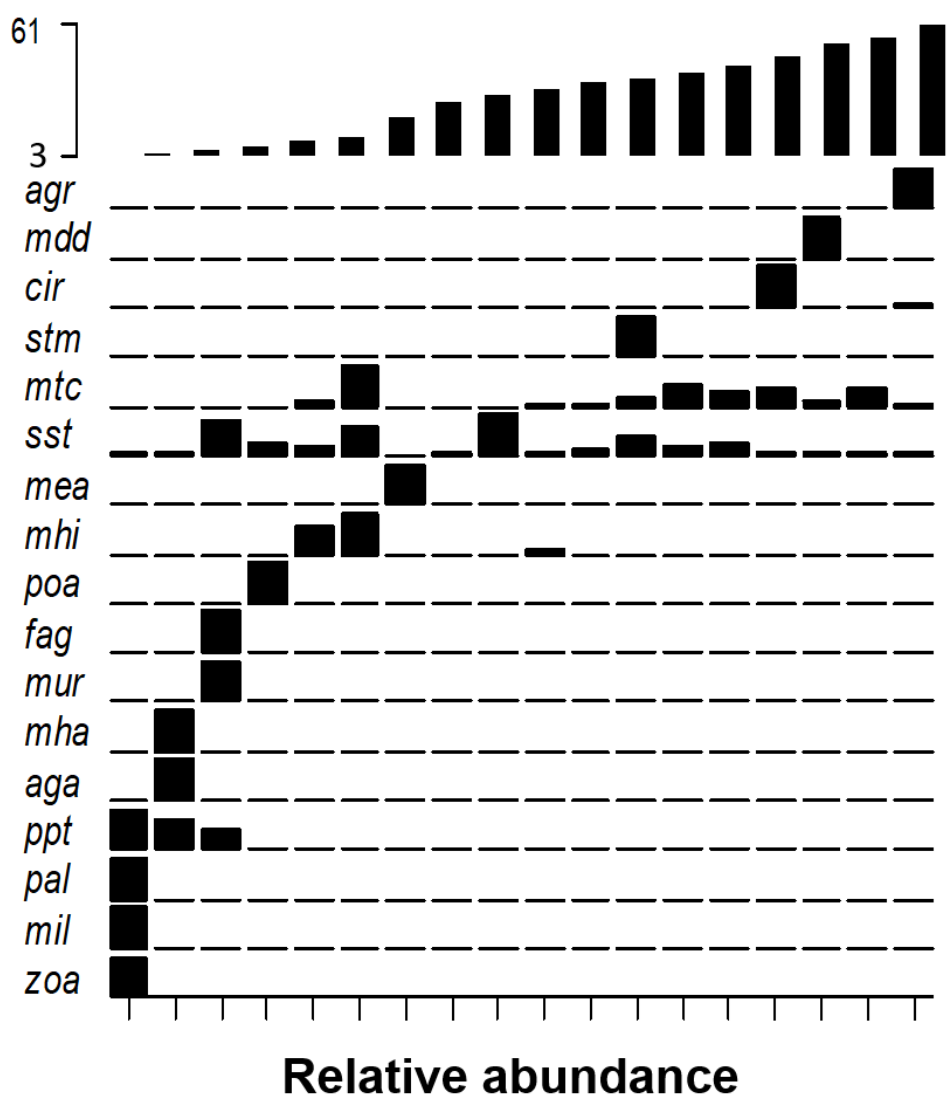
	Depth	IUCN	Reproductive mode	Reef building	Zooxanthellate	Sexual pattern	Reference
Scleractinia							
<i>Siderastrea stellata</i>	S,D	DD	B	Y	Y	G	(Barros et al. 2003, Lins-De-Barros and Pires 2007),
<i>Montastrea cavernosa</i>	S,D		S	Y	Y	G	(Szmant 1986, Zilberberg et al. 2016)
<i>Mussismilia hispida</i>	S,D	DD	S	Y	Y	H	(Neves and Pires 2002)
<i>Mussismilia harttii</i>	S	DD	S	Y	Y	H	(Zilberberg et al. 2016)
<i>Porites astreoides</i>	S	LC	B	Y	Y	H	(De Putron and Smith 2011, Zilberberg et al. 2016)
<i>Favia gravida</i>	S		B	Y	Y	H	(Hoeksema 2012, Zilberberg et al. 2016)
<i>Stephanocoenia michelini</i>	D		S	Y	Y		(Venn et al. 2009, Bongaerts et al. 2010, Lueg et al. 2012)
<i>Agaricia fragilis</i>	D	DD	B	Y	Y		(Kühlmann 1983, Culter et al. 2006)
<i>Agaricia agaricites</i>	S	LC	B	Y	Y		(Van Moorsel 1983)
<i>Madracis decactis</i>	D	LC	B	Y	Y	H	(Venn et al. 2009)
<i>Meandrina braziliensis</i>	S	DD	B	Y	Y		(Kühlmann 1983)
Octacorallia							
<i>Muriceopsis</i> sp.	S		S	N	Y		(Castro et al. 2010, Kahng et al. 2011)
Anthipatharia							
<i>Cirrhipathes</i> sp.	D		S	N	N	H	(Wagner et al. 2012)
Zoanthidae							
<i>Protopalythoa variabilis</i>	S		S	N	Y	H, G	(Boscolo and Silveira 2005)
<i>Palythoa caribaeroum</i>	S		S	N	Y	H, G	(Boscolo and Silveira 2005)
<i>Zoanthus sociatus</i>	S		S	N	Y		(Karlson 1981)
Hydrozoa							
<i>Millepora alcicornis</i>	S		S	Y	Y	H	(Lewis 2006)

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Appendix S5. Relationship between depth (3-61 m) and the relative abundance of coral colonies. Species acronyms - **agr**: *Agaricia agaricites*; **mdd**: *Madracis decactis*; **cir**: *Cirrhipathes* sp; **stm**: *Stephanocoenia michelini*; **mtc**: *Montastrea cavernosa*; **sst**: *Siderastrea stellata*; **mea**: *Meandrina braziliensis*; **mhi**: *Mussismilia hispida*; **poa**: *Porites astreoides*; **fag**: *Favia gravida*; **mur**: *Muriceopsis* sp; **mha**: *Mussismilia harttii*; **aga**: *Agaricia fragilis*; **ppt**: *Protopalmytha variabilis*; **pal**: *Palythoa caribaeorum*; **mil**: *Millepora alcicornis*; **zoa**: *Zoanthus sociatus*



CONCLUSÃO GERAL

Com base na revisão da literatura, concluo que os corais são extremamente sensíveis as mudanças antropogênicas, e existe uma escassez de informações sobre as respostas dos corais à poluição, ao turismo, à sobrepesca e à acidificação, particularmente nos ecossistemas mesofóticos (> 30 m de profundidade) e em ecorregiões fora do Indo-Pacífico e do Caribe.

Concluo também que existe pouco suporte para a hipótese de que os recifes profundos funcionam como refúgios para corais, sendo as áreas rasas e profundas complementares e igualmente importantes para o funcionamento dos ecossistemas recifais da região e para a conservação da diversidade regional de corais.