Response to Editor Heidi Kreibich

Dear Authors,

Thank you very much for revising your manuscript, it improved very much. However, there are still some concerns pointed out by the reviewers and still high potential for further improvement. According to the comments of the reviewers these are the following: 1) make clearer what the novelty of your study is, and underpin more the main message of the manuscript. 2) Describe in more detail and in a more structured way the methods/models used and provide some evaluation/validation of your model.

I ask you to revise your manuscript in accordance with all comments and recommendations of all reviewers. When you have completed your revision, please submit your revised manuscript with the changes undertaken visible, and a detailed item-by-item response to each of the reviewer's comments.

Best regards

Heidi Kreibich

We greatly acknowledge the constructive and very helpful reviews given by the editor and two anonymous referees. All comments and recommendations have been carefully addressed in the revised manuscript. Especially, we reconfigured Abstract and Discussion, thus our main message is clearly described in the revised manuscript (Please see the following Response to Anonymous Referee #1). Moreover, we attempted a validation of our model (CADMAS-SURF) using loggers at the study site despite under non TC conditions. Therefore, we believe that our simulation data become a reliable result (Please see the following Response to Anonymous Referee #3).

In the following letter, each comment by the referees is followed by our replies in red with lines based on the revised manuscript. A marked-up manuscript version of the manuscript can be found at the end of this document.

Response to Anonymous Referee #1

The authors did a really good job in adding details about the converging roles of different processes in increasing the risk of coastal flooding in Palau and the importance of reducing it even of a few tens of centimeters by keeping the coral reef healthy. They also provide additional information about the uncertainty of their experiment. I really appreciate the work done here, and I believe that their study is now reliable and probably at the state of the art but the main conclusion and the relative contribution of the different processes to the final result are presented in a somehow confused way. It is difficult to understand at the first reading which processes contribute more (or are significant).

We are deeply grateful to you for your review again. Please see the following our replies.

I think that the study is now very convincing, but it could be presented in a clearer way. For instance, in the abstract and in the introduction, the authors should state clearly in one or two sentences why a few centimeters difference could have a big impact on the coastal flooding and on the local population (because these coral reef islands are very flat and some coastal roads or buildings are only a few meters above the MSL; also, many coral reefs are in the same situation and the results of this study can be applied the same way). That was not clear at all in the first version of the manuscript, this is a bit clearer now, but I think that this is a real point of interest of this paper, and the emphasis should be put on it. The "take home message" of this study is not clear: what I understand is that several effects, most of them related to the climate change, can contribute to a combined way to a threatening coastal flooding for the population. Among them are the SLR (or WL change), the storm surge, and the change in SWH during TC.

Thank you for the constructive comments. We clearly described "take home message" at Abstract on Page 1 Lines 21-31:

[According to our calculations under intensified TCs and SLR by 2100, significant wave heights at the reef flat (SWH_r) will increase from 1.05–1.24 m at present to 2.14 m if reefs are degraded. Similarly, by 2100 the water level at the shoreline (WL_s) will increase from 0.86–2.10 m at present to 1.19–3.45 m if reefs are degraded. These predicted changes will probably cause beach erosion, saltwater intrusion into groundwater, and damage to infrastructure, because the coastal village is located at ~3 m above the present mean sea level. The above findings imply that even if the SWH_r is decreased to only 0.1 m by upward reef growth, it will probably reduce the risks of costal damages. Our results showed that a healthy reef will reduce a maximum of 0.44 m of the SWH_r. According to analysis of drillcore, corymbose *Acropora* corals will be key to reducing the risks, and 2.6–5.8 kg $CaCO_3/m^2$/y, equivalent to >8% of coral cover, will be required to build the reef by 2100. Although the present study focuses on Melekeok fringing reef, many coral reefs are in the same situation under conditions of intensified TC and SLR, and the results of this study are applicable to other reefs.]

Moreover, we revised Introduction on Page 3 Lines 8-21:

[However, few studies considered how the effect of reefs on the wave heights and water levels may change as degraded reefs become healthy. Furthermore, if future reefs are degraded, considering of potential supplementations (e.g., by coral transplantation) for healthy reefs will be needed. But, the target corals and the reef production rate are also poorly understood.

This study focuses on coral reefs in Palau Islands. The Palau Islands are rarely affected by TCs, but two severe TCs (Typhoon Bopha in 2012 and Typhoon Haiyan in 2013) recently impacted the islands. These TCs caused 56%–83% loss of coral cover on the shallow slopes of the eastern reefs (Gouezo et al., 2015), and this had a significant impact on coastal areas (e.g., flooding, erosion, and destruction of buildings). Furthermore, there will probably be an eastward shift in the genesis location of TCs in the northwest Pacific in the near future (2075–2099; Murakami et al., 2011). This implies that Palau Islands that currently experience only infrequent and lower intensity TCs will probably be affected by more frequent and intense TCs in the near future. Consequently, this study has two main aims. Firstly, we provide a quantitative projection of wave heights and water levels for the healthy reefs and the degraded reefs under intensified TC and SLR conditions by 2100, based on a numerical simulation. Secondly, we estimate the potential of main reef builder and the reef production rate necessary to reduce the coastal risk under the predicted reef degradation, based on analysis of drilled cores.]

In addition, the change of the reef topography can influence the SWH. All these effects are now exposed in a elaborated and convincing way, but it is difficult to understand which of them is the most significant and whether their interplay is important or not.

Thank you for the comment. As we showed the topic in Section 3.2, all climatic factors (TCs, SLR, and storm surge) will cause an increase in the SWH. Overall, TCs, SLR, and storm surge accounted for 30.7-38.0 % (healthy reefs-degraded reefs), 3.0-6.5%, and 17.3-20.1 % of the respective estimated increasing SWH. However, the factors will be probably coincident with the factors. Therefore, their interplay will vary with a combination of the factors.

As far as I am able to judge, the English needs some improvement: some sentences are difficult to understand (e.g. p. 3, l. 29 and following; p. 5, l. 24-25; p. 12, l.3.. not comprehensible).

Thank you for carefully reading. Especially, we revised as follows:

   Page 4 Lines 1-2: In the present-day, the coastal village is located at ~3 m above the present mean sea level (MSL).

   Page 5 Lines 21: The GFS model provided a regular wave, and thus we input a regular wave into the model.

Page 12 Lines 9-10: The above implies that a decreasing of SWH_r is very important to reduce the risks of costal damages.

The paper needs probably some general re reading and 'cleaning' to make it more synthetic (shorter?) and more persuasive.

We reread and modified. Especially, we reconfigured "Discussion" and described clearly topic sentence in each paragraph.

Another general but minor comment is about the reference to information (wind speeds from model outputs) provided by websites (windguru.cz for instance). In most cases, the website is only the provider and the important information is the model used and the configuration. For instance, the model accessible by default on windguru.cz is GFS 27 km and this piece of information is not always present in the text.

Thank you for the comment. We should have cited a published data by paper or report for wind speed. But we could not find the data at the Melekeok reef, thus we used the text data from Windguru data. We note that our used data of wave height, wave period, and wind speed are archived on the website.

Also, p. 5, l. 11-12, GFS 27 km is probably only the forcing of the wave model used by the authors here? If so, clarify.

Yes. We used the wave values from GFS 27 km model as only forcing of the wave model. Thus, we clearly described on Page 5 Line 21:

[In this study, we used the data as a forcing of the CADMAS-SURF model.]

Figure 3: There is maybe a confusion between red/blue curves? However, the legend is not complete.

Thank you for the carefully reading. We replaced the lines by solid and dotted black lines and added the information to the figure legend.
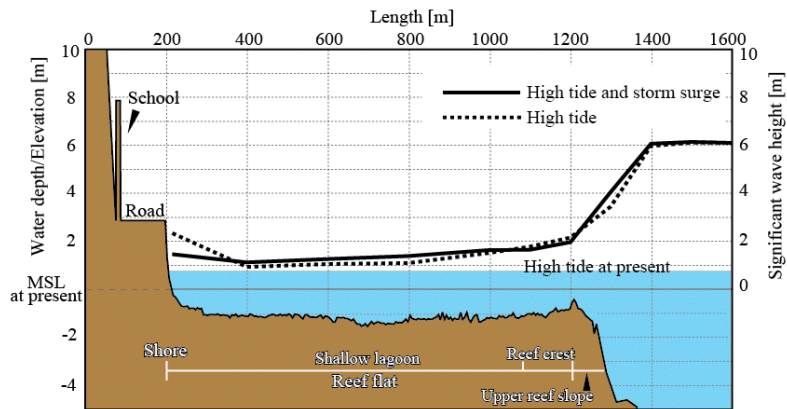
Figure 4: Calculated significant wave height (SWH) at the study site under high tide and storm surge (solid line) and high tide (dotted line). The assumed SWH_o and SWP_o values were 8.70 m and 13.0 s, respectively, for the present conditions model TC (i.e., Typhoon Bopha). The assumed WL_o was +0.80 m (i.e., high tide) and +1.80 m (i.e., high tide and storm surge) above the present MSL. Rapid wave breaking occurs in the upper reef slope–reef crest zone, whereas the reef flat is characterized by relatively calm conditions. The SWH value at the shore increases as the water depth decreases.

Response to Anonymous Referee #3

The paper by Hongo and co-authors studies the effects of coral reefs as a natural wavebreak defence to extreme wave events during tropical cyclones (TC) in the reef-lined coast of Palau considering sea level rise predictions (SLR) for the end of the century and storm surge, focusing specifically in Melekeok reef. The papers main objectives are: 1) model the propagation of offshore waves onto a bathyimetric profile with a reef crest to estimate the water level at the shore for different offshore waves (varying offshore Significant Wave Hight (SWHo) and period (SWPo), and under different sea level conditions (considering SLR and storm surge). 2) Assess the effect of coral reefs as a natural wavebreak defence. 3) Estimate the reef production rate necessary for the reef to overcome SLR predictions and keep providing coastal protection similar to the current conditions by 2100. Results are SWH at the reef and water level at the shore, which are compared to the elevation of local infrastructure (road and school, presently at <3m above MSL). Historical growth rates of 2 types of coral reefs (corymbose and arborescent) are calculated from a core of a nearby reef and an estimate of the growth rate to keep up with SLR is made.The topic of the paper is very relevant and the conclusions drawn are important, however I have the following concerns with the manuscript:

We are grateful to you that you review. We are happy to know that you evaluate our study.

1) From the text in the methods section it was not clear to me that a number of case experiments was conducted as it is shown on Table 2. It is also not clear to me how a healthy reef and a degraded reef are represented in the model. Is this just a different topographic profile? Is there a bottom roughness parameter in the model? Please explain better what you did and what is and is not included in the model. What simplifications and assumptions are made? What effect do these have on your results?

Thank you for the comments. We added information about the model into the revised

Your understanding about difference in a healthy reef and a degraded reef is correct. The difference in a healthy reef and a degraded reef was represented as the difference in topographic profile. Thus, we clearly described it on Page 6 Lines 20-24

[In this study, we used two reef condition scenarios. The first was that reefs are healthy and have a growth rate equal to the SLR, and the second was that the reef is degraded and no growth occurs (Figure 1c). The difference between healthy reefs and degraded reefs was expressed as the topographic profile in the model. We assumed that healthy reefs are characterized by a predicting vertical reef growth from the reef crest to the upper reef slope.]

Moreover, a parameter bottom roughness is not supported in the model. To better understand the model by readers, we clearly described five important parameters on Page 5 Line12- Page 6 Line32

[To calculate wave characteristics in the model, we input some parameters: (1) wave condition; (2) obstacle data (e.g., reef structure and road); (3) time control; (4) mesh size; and (5) physical

parameter (e.g., density of water). The detail of parameters is shown in CDIT (2001). To determine a wave condition, we need to input three parameters: incident significant wave height at the outer ocean (SWH_o); incident significant wave period at the outer ocean (SWP_o); and incident water level at the outer ocean (WL_o). The parameters are discussed below.

SWH_o: Since there is no *in situ* observation systems for ocean wave and water level at offshore and onshore using underwater loggers and/or radar observational systems in Palau Islands. In Palau Islands, the present-day SWH_o value was simulated by using the Global Forecast System (GFS) model at 27 km resolution, provided by Windguru (see http://www.windguru.cz). The values for 4 sites (Melekeok, Koror, North beaches, and West Passage) are provided by the model. The GFS model provided a regular wave, and thus we input a regular wave into the model. In this study, we used the data as a forcing of the CADMAS-SURF model. The largest SWH_o value at Melekeok during Typhoon Bopha was 8.70 m. Numerical experiments have shown that the maximum wind speeds of TCs in the northwest Pacific will increase by 19% by the late 21st century as a consequence of global warming (Tsuboki et al., 2015). This implies that SWH_o will increase in the future, but will probably vary among study sites as a function of wind speed and the path of TCs. Projecting wind speed depends on future greenhouse gas emissions. Therefore, we assumed that TCs are characterized by a minimum central pressure of ca. 900 hPa. We also assumed that the future maximum SWH_o at Palau reef will be comparable to the TCs that typically affect the Ryukyu Islands (northwest Pacific). These include Typhoons Shanshan in 2006 and Talim in 2005, which JMA reported had wind speeds and SWH_o of 26–34 m/s and 10.6–11.3 m, respectively (JMA, 2012; see http://www.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/kaiyou/db/wave/chart/daily/coastwave.html). Consequently, we assumed that by 2100 the SWH_o will range from 8.70 to 11.0 m.

SWP_o: The SWP_o during Typhoon Bopha was 13.0 s (based on the GFS Windguru model: see http://www.windguru.cz) and was recorded as a peak period (P_{peak}). The empirical P_{peak}:SWP ratio is approximately 1 (≈ 0.95); consequently, we assumed the value of P_{peak} equated to SWP_o. As an analogy, the SWP_o during the severe typhoons Shanshan and Talim in the Ryukyu Islands was 13.0–15.0 s (see JMA: http://www.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/kaiyou/db/wave/chart/daily/coastwave.html). Therefore, we assumed that the future SWP_o at Palau reef will range from 13.0 to 15.0 s. We input the SWP_o as a regular wave into the model.

WL_o: We assumed that the WL_o ranges from 0 to 2.78 m above the present MSL, based on future SLR, tidal ranges, and storm surges. The future SLR is predicted to range from +0.24 m to +0.30 m by 2050, and from +0.44 m to +0.98 m by 2100, based on the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) scenarios Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 2.6 and RCP 8.5, respectively (Church et al., 2013). The RCP was used for the new climate model simulations carried out under the framework of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 of the World Climate Research Programme. For RCP 2.6, the radiative forcing peaks at approximately 3 W/m^2

before 2100 and then declines (IPCC, 2013). For RCP 8.5, the radiative forcing reaches greater than 8.5 W/m^2 by 2100 and continues to rise for some amount of time (IPCC, 2013). At the Palau Islands the tidal range is ~1.60 m during spring tides, and the high tide is ~0.80 m above MSL. Storm surges lead to extreme SLR when TCs make landfall. We assume that intensified TC is characterized by a minimum central pressure of ca. 900 hPa, and thus WL$_o$ will increase to 1.00 m above MSL as a result of the suction effect of TC.

In the model, we input an obstacle data (i.e., topography). To determine the topography, we established a transect of 2000 m width that extended from 21 m above MSL at the shore to 269 m water depth in the outer ocean (Figure 1b). The topography along the transect was determined using a topographic map (USGS, 1983) on land, and was measured using an automatic level (NIKON-TRIMBLE, AE-7) and an aluminum staff from the shore to the reef crest, and a single beam echo sounder (Honda Electronics, PS-7) on the reef slope at water depths of 0–75 m. At water depths of 75–269 m the topography was assumed to increase with depth at an angle of 23°. The field survey was conducted in July and September 2015. In this study, we used two reef condition scenarios. The first was that reefs are healthy and have a growth rate equal to the SLR, and the second was that the reef is degraded and no growth occurs (Figure 1c). The difference between healthy reefs and degraded reefs was expressed as the topographic profile in the model. We assumed that healthy reefs are characterized by a predicting vertical reef growth from the reef crest to the upper reef slope.

In this model, the time step was 0.01 s and the calculation time was 3600 s. We used outputs in the time interval for 1801–3600 s. The horizontal mesh size was set as Δx = 20 m. The vertical mesh size was Δy= 1–5 m. We used fine vertical mesh sizes for the land to the reef edge and coarse ones for the outer ocean. The density of water was set as 1025 kg/m^3. The porosity of the reef structure is 10 %. The parameter of bottom roughness was not supported in the model. The input parameters (e.g., WL$_o$) are given as double figures below decimal point because the future SLR is given as double figures below decimal point (e.g., +0.24 m: Church et al., 2013). Therefore, the calculated values of SWH$_r$ and WL$_s$ are given as rounding at triple figures below decimal point. The data for SWH$_r$ were calculated using the output from the zero-up crossing method.]

2) There is an East Asia WRF model with 9km resolution, why didn't you use this instead of the 27 km GFS?

We have accessed the WRF model with 9km resolution, but the model does not provide the data at Palau Islands. Therefore, we used the GFS model with 27 km resolution for the study site. If we focus on other reef in the East Asia (e.g., Okinawa, Japan) for our next research, we would like to use the WRF model with 9km resolution.

3) The results for healthy reef and degraded reef experiments are shown for water level at the shore (WLs) and SWH at the reefs (SWHr), comparisons are made, but are these difference statistically significant?

Thank you for the comments. If we obtain a replicate result of WLs and SWHr based on some numerical models, we need to assess whether there is discernible differences in WLs and SWHr of degraded and healthy reefs. However, we input a value of SWH_o, SWP_o, and WL_o into the CASMAS-SURF model only for the present study. Therefore, we just compared the results of healthy reef with that of degraded reef and described the subtractive values.

4) It is very puzzling that in several cases the presence of a healthy reef causes higher SWHr and WLs than the degraded reef. Infragravity waves and their resonance is put forward as an explanation. Is the model capable of modelling this dynamics? Is there evidence of infragravity wave formation on the model? If so, show some of the evidence...

Thank you for the comment. We reread the sentences and recognize an exaggeratedly explanation and some improvements for the analysis. For example, we used a calculation data of 1800 s for the analysis of SWH_r. But, to better understand the difference in SWH_r between healthy reefs and degraded reef, a long calculation time will be probably needed. Moreover, to clearly understand the difference in SWH_r, it is necessary to obtain the data using other numerical models (e.g., Delft-3D) and compare it with our data for the present study. Futhermore, a water tank experiment would be required to investigate the effect of upward reef growth to the difference in SWH_r.

We think that the CADMAS-SURF model is able to describe infragravity waves. In general, infragravity waves are characterized by long-period waves and low frequency (0.005–0.05 Hz) (Péguignet et al. 2014 JGR). In this study, we assumed 13.0–15.0 m of SWP_o at the outer ocean as an incident wave period. The frequency of the wave (SWP_o) is ca. 0.07–0.08 Hz. The waves propagate shoreward as reformed high-frequency waves, the spectral wave energy shifts into long-period and lower frequencies. The following Figure 1 shows that water levels at the outer ocean (upper figure) and the reef flat (lower figure) for the study site, based on the data of case 03. Long-period waves have been observed at the reef flat. Moreover, Figure 2 shows a power spectral density of the calculated water level at the reef flat. Low frequency peaks (0.002–0.008 Hz) have been observed.

Case 03 (SWHo = 8.70 m SWPo = 13.0 s, WLo = 0.30 m)
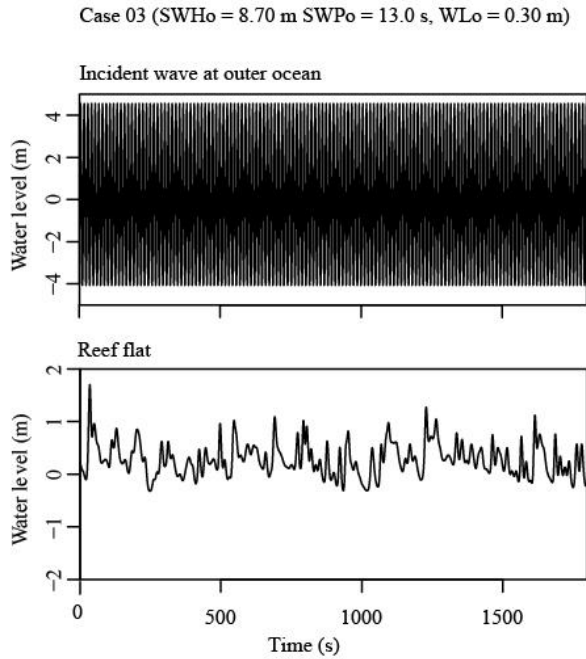
Figure 1 Incident water level at the outer ocean and calculated water level at the reef flat for the present study. We used the data of case 03.
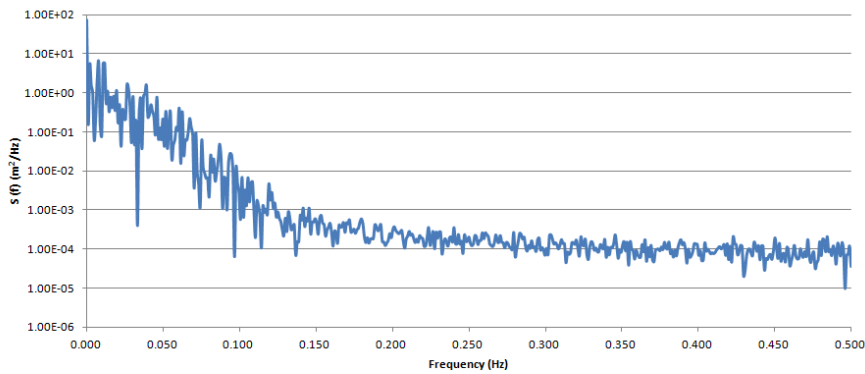
Figure 2 Power spectral density of the calculated water level at the reef flat for the present study. We used the data of case 03. Some peaks of low frequency (0.002–0.008 Hz) have been observed.

The low frequency is probably explained by the reef topography. The natural periods of the reef flat are given by the following equation if a basin of constant depth is assumed:

$$T_n = \frac{4L}{(2n + 1)\sqrt{gh}}$$

Where T_n is the resonance period of the nth mode, L is the reef flat width, g is the gravitational acceleration (9.8 m/s^2), and h is the water depth at the reef flat. In this study, we assumed that L is

1000 m and h is 1 m. We obtained 1278–142 s of period (n = 0–4) and 0.001–0.007 Hz of the frequency. The theoretical frequency almost corresponds with the calculated frequency at the study site. Therefore, we believe that our results would discuss the potential effects of infragravity waves on the difference in SWH_r between healthy reefs and degraded reef, although we need to further research about the effects. Consequently, we added the following on the Page 12 Line 29- Page 13 Line 17:

[However, our results showed that only 6 cases (cases 3, 6, 14, 17, 23, and 26) the SWH_r was increased to 0.02 m–0.18 m by upward reef growth by 2100. One possible explanation of an increase in SWH_r is a difference in magnitude of infragravity waves between the degraded reef and the healthy reef. Waves propagating onto shallow reefs steepen and break, and while some of the breaking wave energy propagates shoreward as reformed high-frequency waves, the spectral wave energy shifts into lower frequencies and long-period (infragravity) waves often dominate (Cheriton et al., 2016). Infragravity waves over shallow reef flats have established relationships between the offshore conditions and resulting reef flat characteristics (e.g., complex bathymetry). Increased of wave height and water level due to the infragravity waves have been observed for various coral reefs (Nakaza et al., 1994; Cheriton et al., 2016) and have also been demonstrated in laboratory and modelling studies (Nakaza et al., 1994; Roeber and Bricker, 2015; Shimozono et al., 2015). Under normal wave conditions, the effect is not remarkable phenomenon. In contrast, in extreme wave conditions such as tropical cyclones, extreme waves enhance the effect on coral reefs. For these 6 cases, the upward reef growth reduces water depth in the reef crest–upper reef slope zone and it probably enhances a resonant oscillation of water by infragravity waves. Actually, we compared one test case under normal wave conditions (2.0 m SWH_o, 9.0 s SWP_o) with case 23 under TC conditions (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o). The result showed that the SWH_r was decreased to 0.01 m by upward reef growth (unpublished data). But, the infragravity waves are known to be generated across the coral reef through nonlinear wave interactions and its overall effect remains unclear. Another possible explanation of the increase in SWH_r is a short of calculation time. We used a calculation data of 1800 s for the analysis of SWH_r. To better understand the difference in SWH_r between healthy reefs and degraded reef, a long calculation time will be probably needed. To clearly understand the difference in SWH_r between the degraded reef and the healthy reef, it is necessary to obtain the data using other numerical models (e.g., Delft-3D: Deltares, 2017). Moreover, a water tank experiment would be required to investigate the effect of upward reef growth to the difference in SWH_r.]

5) The accuracy of modelled SWHr and WLs could at least be validated for non-extreme conditions on the site, or for some other similar site where observations are available. This will really add credibility to the paper.

Thank you for the constructed comment. In October 31-Novermber 01, we measured water level and wave height using loggers on the reef flat at the study site despite non-extreme conditions. Our results show that a difference in mean value of WL between calculations and measurements was found to be 0.07 m. Moreover, a difference in mean value of SWH between measurements and calculations was found to be 0.07 m. We think that the results show good correspondence between measurements and calculation data.

In this time, we measured the data under non-TC conditions only. To accurately validate, we probably need to conduct *in situ* measurement under TCs conditions some day. Consequently, we added data of model validation into Section 2.4 (Page 7 Lines 1-11), Section 3.1 (Page 8 Lines 7-14), and Conclusion (Page 16 Lines 4-7):

[2.4 In situ measurement and calculation for model validation

For validation of the CADMAS-SURF model, we measured WL and SWH at the study site despite non-TC conditions. We deployed one water level logger (Onset HOBO) on the reef flat, which is located 400 m from the shore, from October 31 to November 1 2017. The logger sampled at 1 s. The logger was corrected for atmospheric pressure variations using another water level logger (Onset HOBO) deployed on land. We used three sets of 30-min measured data. The sampling details are summarized in Table 2.

We conducted a calculation of WL and SWH based on the CADMAS-SURF model. We assumed that the SWHo ranges from 1.20 to 1.30 m, the SWPo ranges from 12.0 to 14.0 s, and the WLo ranges from 0.50 to 0.90 m above the present MSL, from October 31 to November 1 2017. The data of SWHo and SWPo were obtained from Windguru (see http://www.windguru.cz). We used a value of SWH on the reef flat, which is located 400 m from the shore. The details of input parameters are summarized in Table 2.]

[3.1 Model validation

Figure 2 shows maximum and minimum values of calculated WL and measured WL on the reef flat at the study site. The mean of calculated WL and measured WL were 0.96 and 0.87 m (Test 1), 0.64 and 0.54 m (Test 2), and 0.56 and 0.54 m (Test3), respectively. The calculated mean WL on the reef flat slightly exceeded (0.07 m) the measured mean values. Similarity, measured SWH and calculated SWH were 0.11 and 0.18 m (Test 1), 0.26 and 0.11 m (Test 2), and 0.22 and 0.10 m (Test3), respectively. The difference in mean value of SWH between measurements and calculations was found to be 0.07 m. The results showed good correspondence between measurements and calculation data. Therefore, we adopted the calculation results for this study.]

[Moreover, the CADMAS-SURF wave simulation model can contribute to our projecting of wave

height and water level. However, our study showed that there was a few of differences in wave height and water level between *in situ* measurements and calculations on the reef flat under non-TCs conditions. To accurately validate for the model, further *in situ* measurements of wave height and water level under TCs conditions will be needed.]

6) Lastly, why you didn´t model also Thyphon Haiyan?

We assumed that the intensity and damage of Typhoon Bopha was larger than that of Typhoon Haiyan. Typhoon Bopha passed south of Palau Islands. Typhoon Haiyan passed north of Palau Islands. In the Northern Hemisphere, TCs rotate in a counterclockwise direction and the most severe conditions are generated in the right semicircle, where the maximum wind speeds and storm surge are localized. Therefore, the average wind speed of Typhoons Bopha (27 m/s) is stronger than that of Haiyan (26 m/s) around the study site, provided by Windguru (http://www.windguru.cz). Similarity, the SWHo in the study area was 8.7 m during Typhoon Bopha and that was 7.7 m during Typhoon Haiyan (obtained from Windguru; see http://www.windguru.cz). The coastal area of Melekeok state was severely damaged (e.g., the destruction of piers and flooding) by Typhoon Bopha. Consequently, we focused on Typhoon Bopha. To better understand, we added the following on Page 4 Lines 15-22:

[In November 6–7th 2013, Typhoon Haiyan passed north of Palau Islands. The minimum pressure of Typhoon Haiyan center was 905–920 hPa (data obtained by Digital Typhoon: http://agora.ex.nii.ac.jp/digital-typhoon/index.html.en). In the Northern Hemisphere, TCs rotate in a counterclockwise direction and the most severe conditions are generated in the right semicircle, where the maximum wind speeds and storm surge are localized. Therefore, the average wind speed of Typhoons Bopha was stronger than that of Haiyan around the study site. Similarity, the maximum value of significant wave height of offshore in the study area was 8.7 m in December 2 2012 during Typhoon Bopha and that was 7.7 m in November 7th 2013 during Typhoon Haiyan (obtained from Windguru; see http://www.windguru.cz). Therefore, the study area was severely damaged (e.g., the destruction of piers and flooding) by Typhoon Bopha.]

For minor corrections and comments see annotated manuscript attached as pdf file

We are grateful to you for carefully reading. We modified the manuscript by your comments as well as grammatical errors. Below are some important comments and our replies:

Page 3 Lines 5-6: Sheppard et al. (2005) indicated that the effectiveness of reefs in coastal protection decreased due to coral mortality.

when? where? give more details of the study

We modified it on Page 3 Lines 3-4

[Sheppard et al. (2005) indicated that decreasing of bottom roughness due to the coral mortality in Seychelles from 1994 to 2004.]

Page 5 Line 24: SWH_o will range 8.70 to 11.0 m:

I am not sure it is well fundamented to use a value from somewhere else as a future value for your site. Intensified SWH_o will also ocurre if TC come closer to the site. Why you didn´t model also Thypon Haiyan?

First comment: Projecting wave heights as well as intensify TCs are still debated. But Murakami et al. (2011) indicated that there will probably be an eastward shift in the genesis location of TCs in the northwest Pacific at the end of 21st century. This implies that Palau Islands that currently experience only lower intensity TCs will probably be affected by intense TCs in the near future. In this study, we referred SWH_o during intense TCs in the Ryukyu Islands because the TCs is assume to be future TCs in Palau Islands.

Second comment (about Haiayan): Please see above comment (6)

Page 6 Lines 9-10: We assume that intensified TC is characterized by a minimum central pressure of ca. 900 hPa, and thus WL_o will increase to 1.00 m above MSL.

based on observations? is this a known relationship?

There is a good relation between a degreasing of minimum central pressure of TC and an increasing of water level. A decrease in central pressure of TC of 1 hPa causes an increasing in water level in 0.01 m. We assumed that surface pressure is ca. 1000 hPa. Thus, if an intensified TC with minimum central pressure of ca. 900 hPa approaches the study site, water level will increase to 1 m. Moreover, a minimum central pressure of intensified TCs was characterized by < 900hPa.

Page 7 Lines 16: At water depths of 75–269 m the topography was assumed to increase with depth at an angle of 23°

measured angle? typical of the area?

We only measured water depth of 0-75m, and assumed angle 23 degree using the measured topography for water depths of 75-269 m.

In particular, the east coast of the Babeldaob Island including the study site descends directly to deep trench bottom (Coral Reefs of Palau 2007). Thus, we assumed our measured topography was typical one.

Projecting of wave height and water level on reef-lined coasts due to intensified tropical cyclones and sea level rise in Palau to 2100

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Abstract. Tropical cyclones (TCs) and~~,~~ sea level rise (SLR)~~, and storm surges~~ cause major problems including beach erosion, saltwater intrusion into groundwater, and damage to infrastructure in coastal areas. The magnitude and extent of damage is predicted to increase as a consequence of future climate change and local factors. Upward reef growth has attracted attention for its role as a natural breakwater able to reduce the risks of natural disasters to coastal communities. However, projections of change in the risk to coastal reefs under conditions of intensified TCs and~~,~~ SLR~~, and storm surges~~ are poorly quantified. In this study we ~~assessed~~ projected the wave height and water level ~~current status of natural breakwaters~~ on Melekeok reef in the Palau Islands by 2100~~.,~~ ~~Bb~~ased on wave simulations under ~~we predicted the potential effects on the reef by 2100 of~~ intensified TCs (significant wave height at the outer ocean: SWH_o = 8.7–11.0 m; significant wave period at the outer ocean: SWP_o = 13–15 s), SLR (0.24–0.98 m)~~, and storm surge~~. To understand effects of upward reef growth on a reduction of the wave height and water level, ~~T~~the simulation was conducted for two reef condition scenarios: a degraded reef and a healthy reef. Moreover, ~~Aa~~nalyses of reef growth based on a drillcore~~s~~ enabled an assessment of the coral community and rate of reef production that are necessary to reduce the risk to the coast due to TCs and~~,~~ SLR~~, and storm surges.~~. According to ~~The present reef is currently highly effective in dissipating incoming waves. The SWH_o was found to rapidly decrease from the upper reef slope to the reef crest. Under present-day TCs (8.70 m SWH_o, 13.0 s SWP_o), the SWH at the reef crest was 2.15 m and the SWH_r was 1.05 m. The reef crest dissipated 75.3% of the SWH_o. The shallow lagoon dissipated 51% of the remaining wave height at the reef crest. The entire reef dissipated 87.9% of the SWH_o. However, o~~our calculations ~~show that~~ under intensified TCs and~~,~~ SLR~~, and storm surges,~~ by 2100, significant wave heights at the reef flat (SWH_r) will increase from 1.05–1.24 m at present to 2.14 m if reefs are degraded. Similarly, by 2100 the water level~~sea level~~ at the shoreline (WL_s) will increase from 0.86–2.10 m at present to 1.19–3.45 m if reefs are degraded. These predicted changes will probably cause beach erosion, saltwater intrusion into groundwater, and damage to infrastructure, because the coastal village is located at ~3 m above the present mean sea level. The above findings imply that even if the SWH_r is decreased to only 0.1 m

by upward reef growth, it will probably reduce the risks of costal damages. Our results showed that a healthy reef will reduce a maximum of 0.44 m of the SWH~r~. ~~These predicted changes will probably cause beach erosion, saltwater intrusion into groundwater, and damage to infrastructure. But, our simulation indicates that reef growth reduces the wave height by a maximum of 0.44 m at the reef flat by 2100.~~ According to analysis of drillcore, ~~These findings emphasize the need for future reef formation to reduce the damaging effects of waves on the coastline. Cc~~orymbose *Acropora* corals will be key to reducing ~~such effects~~the risks, and 2.6–5.8 kg CaCO$_3$/m^2/y, equivalent to >8% of coral cover, will be required to build the reef by 2100. Although the present study focuses on Melekeok fringing reef, many coral reefs are in the same situation under conditions of intensified TC and SLR, and the results of this study are applicable to other reefs. ~~If the future SLR is predicted to 0.98 m by 2100 based on the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5, an increase in coral cover of >8% will be needed to reduce the impact of waves on the coastline. For RCP 8.5, radiative forcing reaches greater than 8.5 W/m^2 by 2100 and continues to rise for some amount of time.~~ The use of coral reef growth to reduce disaster risk will be more cost-effective than building artificial barriers. Benefits in addition to reducing disaster risk include the ecological services provided by reefs, and marine products and tourism. Research of the type described here will be required to advise policy development directed at disaster prevention for small island nations, and for developing and developed countries.

1 Introduction

Approximately 90 tropical cyclones (TCs; also referred to as hurricanes and typhoons) occur globally every year (Frank and Young, 2007; Seneviratne et al., 2012). TCs cause large waves, storm surges, and torrential rainfall, and can lead to coastal erosion, salinization of coastal soils, and damage to infrastructure (Gourlay, 2011a). These negative impacts have major economic costs. For example, the economic cost of TC Pam (category 5 on the Saffir–Simpson scale), which affected Vanuatu in March 2015, exceeded US$449 million, equivalent to ~64% of the GDP of Vanuatu (GFDRR, 2016).

Numerical projections indicate that climate change will increase the mean maximum wind speed of TCs (Christensen et al., 2013). Towards the end of the 21st century, the wind speed and minimum central pressure of the most intense super typhoons in the northwest Pacific Ocean are estimated to attain 85–90 m/s and 860 hPa, respectively (Tsuboki et al., 2015). This will probably increase wave heights and water levels on shores at coastal areas. Additionally, sea level rise (SLR) caused by global warming will probably increase the risk of coastal erosion, flooding, and saltwater intrusion of surface water (Woodruff et al., 2013). Economic development and population growth are also expected to increase the baseline damages (World Bank and UN, 2010). Therefore, the development of policies for adaptation to TCs and SLR is essential if their projected negative impacts in the near future are to be adequately addressed.

There are been several approaches to reducing the ~~effects of TCs and SLR~~wave heights and water levels, including the construction of sea walls and shelters, developing accurate weather forecasts, and developing TC and SLR warning systems (GFDRR, 2016). However, small island nations and developing countries will need to develop cost-effective strategies to address the problems associated with these phenomena, including the use of ecosystem services

provided by mangroves and coral reefs. For example, mangrove restoration has been demonstrated to attenuate wave height, and reduce wave damage and erosion (Wong et al., 2014). It has also been suggested that coral reefs are highly effective as natural breakwaters. More than 150,000 km of the shoreline in 100 countries and territories is thought to receive some protection from reefs (Burke et al., 2011). Meta analysis has demonstrated that the entire reef system, from reef slope to reef flat, reduces wave height by an average of 84% (Ferrario et al., 2014). Coral reefs are also habitats for diverse marine organisms and provide various services (e.g., tourism and marine product) that benefit human populations. Additionally, it has been suggested that reefs can be considered to represent self-adapting "green infrastructure" (Benedict and McMahon, 2002) in the ocean that protects against SLR and TCs. The growth of Holocene reefs has been reported to have kept pace with the SLR that occurred in the period 19–6 ka (Montaggioni and Braithwaite, 2009). This suggests that reef growth, as a form of green infrastructure, may be able to respond to SLR and contribute to reducing the wave heights and water levels at shoresthe impacts of TCs and SLR in the future.

But,

Aapproximately 75% of the world's coral reefs are subject to local threats such as coastal development, watershed pollution, and overfishing (Burke et al., 2011). Additionally, global climate change, including global warming and ocean acidification, is expected to have major impacts on coral reefs. Sheppard et al. (2005) indicated that the effectiveness of reefs in coastal protection decreased due to coral mortality. Sheppard et al. (2005) indicated that decreasing of bottom roughness due to the coral mortality in Seychelles from 1994 to 2004. Ocean acidification reduces the $CaCO_3$ saturation rate, reduces reducing the calcification rate of corals, slows coral growth, and can lead to the dissolution of the reef frameworks (Anthony et al., 2008). This process also reduces the roughness of reef flat and consequently the increased wave energy reaching the shore. This suggests indicates that the degraded reefeffectiveness of reefs as natural breakwaters may cause an increasing of the wave heights and water levels at shores in the future. However, few studies considered how the effect of reefs on the wave heights and water levels may change as degraded reefs become healthy. Furthermore, if future reefs are degraded, considering of potential supplementations (e.g., by coral transplantation) for healthy reefs will be needed. But, the target corals and the reef production rate are also poorly understood.

will change in the future. However, few studies have considered how the effectiveness of reefs as natural breakwaters may change as healthy reefs become degraded under future climate conditions.

This study focuses on coral reefs in Palau Islands. The Palau Islands are rarely affected by TCs, but two severe TCs (Typhoon Bopha in 2012 and Typhoon Haiyan in 2013) recently impacted the islands. These TCs caused 56%−83% loss of coral cover on the shallow slopes of the eastern reefs (Gouezo et al., 2015), and this had a significant impact on coastal areas (e.g., flooding, erosion, and destruction of buildings). Furthermore, there will probably be an eastward shift in the genesis location of TCs in the northwest Pacific in the near future (2075–2099; Murakami et al., 2011). This implies that Palau Islands that currently experience only infrequent and lower intensity TCs will probably be affected by more frequent and intense TCs in the near future. Consequently, this study has two has three main aims. Firstly, we provide a quantitative projection of wave heights and water levels for the healthy reefs and the degraded reefs under intensified TC and SLR

conditions by 2100, based on a numerical simulation. Secondly, we estimate the potential of main reef builder and the reef production rate necessary to reduce the coastal risk under the predicted reef degradation, based on analysis of drilled cores. ~~we evaluate the effectiveness of coral reefs in Palau as a natural breakwater for waves and water level change under present TC and sea level conditions.~~

5 ~~The Palau Islands are rarely affected by TCs, although two severe TCs (Typhoon Bopha in 2012 and Typhoon Haiyan in 2013) recently impacted the islands. These storms caused 56%–83% loss of coral cover on the shallow slopes of the eastern reefs (Gouezo et al., 2015), and this had a significant impact on coastal areas (e.g., flooding, erosion, and destruction of buildings). Secondly, we provide a quantitative projection of wave heights and water level change for the reef under intensified TC and SLR conditions by 2100. Thirdly, we estimate the reef production rate necessary to reduce the risk~~
10 ~~under the predicted reef degradation.~~

2 Methods

2.1 Study site

The present study site is located in Melekeok state, at the east central coast of Babeldaob, the biggest island in Palau (Figure 1a). Melekeok is an important state because it is the national capital of Palau, housing the national government including the
15 executive, legislative and judiciary branch of the government. Melekeok is an ideal site for this study because it is representative of the east coast of Palau in terms of its closeness to the sea and the threats it faces. Understanding what happen in Melekeok can be applied to other states on the east coast ~~and can help with the other states in preparation~~ regarding preparedness for the future impacts of climate change. The state consists of reefs, long beaches, mangroves, hills, steep ridges, and rivers. Prior to the contact with foreigners, some of the villages started to increase their influence and
20 power by forming alliances through warfare (Rechebei and McPhetres, 1997), and Melekeok and Koror village became the most powerful villages in the islands. During the Japanese administration (1919–1945), the settlement of the state had moved to the coastal area from inland. In the present-day, ~~most of the communities are settled~~ the coastal village is located at ~~altitude of~~ ~3 m above the present mean sea level (MSL). The Melekeok elementally school and Melekeok state office are also located in the coast. Melekeok reef (7.501°N, 134.640°E) is located on the eastern coast of the state. There is no
25 artificial breakwater for ocean waves along the reef. Our ~~one~~ survey transect is located near the elementary school (Figure 1b), because the school ~~will be probably one of potential evacuation places~~ will probably be a place to evacuate during assumed intensified TCs.

2.2 Impacts of historical TCs and Typhoon Bopha

Since 1951, 19 typhoons passed within 150 km of Melekeok reef in Palau, provided by the Digital Typhoon
30 (http://agora.ex.nii.ac.jp/digital-typhoon/index.html.en) based on the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) best track data

(Table 1). Only 1 severe typhoon passed near this study reef in 1990 (Typhoon Mike), and the impact was limited to the northern reef of Palau (Maragos and Cook, 1995). Prior to Typhoon Bopha that passed south of Palau in December 2 2012, it is suspected that no major typhoons had caused significant damage to coral reefs and coastal areas of Palau for over 60 years.

The minimum pressure of Typhoon Bopha center was 935 hPa and the maximum wind speed was 50 m/s (data obtained by Digital Typhoon: http://agora.ex.nii.ac.jp/digital-typhoon/index.html.en). In December 2 2012, ~~T~~the average wind speed was 27 m/s around the study site, provided by Windguru (see http://www.windguru.cz) ~~in December 2 2012 because the study site is~~, 121 km distance from the track~~pass~~ of Typhoon Bopha. In November 6–7th 2013, Typhoon Haiyan passed north of Palau Islands. The minimum pressure of Typhoon Haiyan center was 905–920 hPa (data obtained by Digital Typhoon: http://agora.ex.nii.ac.jp/digital-typhoon/index.html.en). In the Northern Hemisphere, TCs rotate in a counterclockwise direction and the most severe conditions are generated in the right semicircle, where the maximum wind speeds and storm surge are localized. Therefore, the average wind speed of Typhoons Bopha was stronger than that of Haiyan around the study site. Similarity, the maximum value of significant wave height of offshore in the study area was 8.7 m in December 2 2012 during Typhoon Bopha and that was 7.7 m in November 7th 2013 during Typhoon Haiyan (obtained from Windguru; see http://www.windguru.cz). Therefore, the study area was severely damaged (e.g., the destruction of piers and flooding) by Typhoon Bopha.

~~In order to understand the impacts of Typhoon Bopha, we attempted to find *in situ* recorded data of ocean wave and water level at the study site. However, we could not found any *in situ* observation data for ocean wave and water level at offshore and onshore using underwater loggers and/or radar observational systems. Because observed evidence was not clear, we conducted local interviews to obtain reliable information of the impacts.~~

2.3 Estimation of wave height and water level

We focused on two parameters: (1) the significant wave height (SWH) at the reef flat, located 400 m from the shore (SWH_r); and (2) the averaged water level at the shore (WL_s). SWH was defined as the mean wave height of the highest 33% of waves. We attempted to find *in situ* recorded data of ocean wave and water level using underwater loggers and/or radar observational systems at the study site, but ~~T~~there was no *in situ* observation data for ocean wave and water level at the study site. Therefore, we conducted an estimation of wave height and water level based on the CADMAS-SURF (Super Roller Flume for Computer Aided Design of Marine Structure) wave simulation model (CDIT, 2001). For validation of the model, we compared calculated results with *in situ* measurements of WL and SWH at the reef flat, which is located 400 m from the shore, despite under non-TCs conditions. Moreover, we conducted local interviews to obtain reliable information of the impacts of Typhoon Bopha.

~~There was no *in situ* observation data for ocean wave and water level at the study site. We conducted an estimation of wave height and water level based on a numerical simulation. We first quantitatively assessed the wave characters of Melekeok reef during Typhoon Bopha. We then calculated the effectiveness of the reef in terms of disaster reduction under~~

conditions expected to occur by 2050 and 2100. We focused on two parameters: (1) the significant wave height (SWH) at the reef flat (SWH$_r$); and (2) the averaged water level at the shore (WL$_s$). SWH was defined as the mean wave height of the highest 33% of waves.

5 To estimate the wave parameters we used the CADMAS-SURF (Super Roller Flume for Computer Aided Design of Marine Structure) wave simulation model (CDIT, 2001). This ismodel is a specialized numerical wave tank model used for assessing the threshold of destruction for structures (e.g., sea walls); its use also contributes to coastal management decisions. The governing equation in the model is based on the extended Navier–Stokes equations for a two-dimensional wave field in porous media. The model can reproduce highly non-linear wave profiles against various structures, e.g., impact of a wave breaking sea walls (Isobe et al., 1999). The model can apply to wave deformation (e.g., wave shoaling, wave breaking, wave

10 overtopping, and wave run-up) at coral reefs. Previous studies compared modeled results withFor a validation of the model, computed results have been compared with observed data and laboratory experiments on wave deformation over coral reefs under TC conditions for validation (e.g., Nagai and Shiraishi, 2004; Kawasaki et al., 2007; 2008). Therefore, the model has been successfully applied to wave characteristics at coral reefs under TC conditions (Yamashita et al. 2008; Hongo et al. 2012; Nakamura et al. 2014; Watanabe et al. 2016).

15 To calculate wave characteristics in the model, we input some parameters: (1) wave condition; (2) obstacle data (e.g., reef structure and road); (3) time control; (4) mesh size; and (5) physical parameter (e.g., density of water). The detail of parameters is shown in CDIT (2001). To determine a wave condition, we need to input three parameters: incident significant wave height at the outer ocean (SWH$_o$); incident significant wave period at the outer ocean (SWP$_o$); and incident water level at the outer ocean (WL$_o$). The parameters are discussed below.

20 The model calculates wave characteristics (wave velocity and water level) using four input parameters: (1) incident significant wave height at the outer ocean (SWH$_o$); (2) incident significant wave period at the outer ocean (SWP$_o$); (3) incident water level at the outer ocean (WL$_o$); and (4) topography. We used outputs in the time interval for 1801–3600 s.We used 10 % of porosity for predicting vertical reef growth.The four input parameters are given as double figures below decimal point because the future SLR is given as double figures below decimal point (e.g., +0.24 m: Church et al., 2013).

25 Therefore, the calculated values of SWH$_r$ and WL$_s$ are given as rounding at triple figures below decimal point.The data for SWH$_r$ were calculated using the output from the zero-up crossing method. The time resolution was 0.01 s and the calculation time was 3600 s. We used outputs in the time interval for 1801–3600 s. The four input parameters are given as double figures below decimal point because the future SLR is given as double figures below decimal point (e.g., +0.24 m: Church et al., 2013). Therefore, the calculated values of SWH$_r$ and WL$_s$ are given as rounding at triple figures below decimal point.

30 The four parameters are discussed below.

(1) SWH$_o$: Since there is no *in situ* observation systems for ocean wave and water level at offshore and onshore using underwater loggers and/or radar observational systems in Palau Islands,. In Palau Islands, the present-day SWH$_o$ value was simulated by using the Global Forecast System (GFS) model at 27 km resolution, provided by Windguru (see

http://www.windguru.cz). ~~In Palau Islands, t~~The values for 4 sites (Melekeok, Koror, North beaches, and West Passage) are provided by the model. The GFS model provided a regular wave, and thus we input a regular wave into the model. In this study, we used the data as a forcing of the CADMAS-SURF model. The largest SWH_o value at Melekeok during Typhoon Bopha was 8.70 m. Numerical experiments have shown that the maximum wind speeds of TCs in the northwest Pacific will increase by 19% by the late 21st century as a consequence of global warming (Tsuboki et al., 2015). This implies that SWH_o will increase in the future, but will probably vary among study sites as a function of wind speed and the path of TCs. Projecting wind speed depends on future greenhouse gas emissions ~~pathways~~. Therefore, we assumed that TCs are characterized by a minimum central pressure of ca. 900 hPa. We also assumed that the future maximum SWH_o at Palau reef will be comparable to the TCs that typically affect the Ryukyu Islands (northwest Pacific). These include Typhoons Shanshan in 2006 ~~(0613)~~ and Talim in 2005 ~~(0513)~~, which JMA reported had wind speeds and SWH_o of 26–34 m/s and 10.6–11.3 m, respectively (JMA, 2012; see http://www.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/kaiyou/db/wave/chart/daily/coastwave.html). Consequently, we assumed that by 2100 the SWH_o will range from 8.70 to 11.0 m. ~~We input the SWHo as a regular wave into the model because the value of GFS model is restricted to single value.~~

~~(2)~~ SWP_o: The SWP_o during Typhoon Bopha was 13.0 s (based on the GFS Windguru model: see http://www.windguru.cz) and was recorded as a peak period (P_{peak}). The empirical P_{peak}:SWP ratio is approximately 1 ($\approx$ 0.95); consequently, we assumed the value of P_{peak} equated to SWP_o. As an analogy, the SWP_o during the severe typhoons Shanshan and Talim in the Ryukyu Islands was 13.0–15.0 s (see JMA: http://www.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/kaiyou/db/wave/chart/daily/coastwave.html). Therefore, we assumed that the future SWP_o at Palau reef will range from 13.0 to 15.0 s. We input the SWP_o as a regular wave into the model.

~~(3)~~ WL_o: We assumed that the WL_o ranges from 0 to 2.78 m above the present MSL, based on future SLR, tidal ranges, and storm surges. The future SLR is predicted to range from +0.24 m to +0.30 m by 2050, and from +0.44 m to +0.98 m by 2100, based on the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) scenarios Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 2.6 and RCP 8.5, respectively (Church et al., 2013). The RCP was used for the new climate model simulations carried out under the framework of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 of the World Climate Research Programme. For RCP 2.6, the radiative forcing peaks at approximately 3 W/m^2 before 2100 and then declines (IPCC, 2013). For RCP 8.5, the radiative forcing reaches greater than 8.5 W/m^2 by 2100 and continues to rise for some amount of time (IPCC, 2013). At the Palau Islands the tidal range is ~1.60 m during spring tides, and the high tide is ~0.80 m above MSL. Storm surges lead to extreme SLR when TCs make landfall. We assume that intensified TC is characterized by a minimum central pressure of ca. 900 hPa, and thus WL_o will increase to 1.00 m above MSL as a result of the suction effect of TC.

In the model, we input an obstacle data (i.e., topography). To determine the topography,

~~(4) Topography: W~~we established a transect of 2000 m width that extended from 21 m above MSL at the shore to 269 m water depth in the outer ocean (Figure 1b). The topography along the transect was determined using a topographic

map (USGS, 1983) on land, and was measured using an automatic level (NIKON-TRIMBLE, AE-7) and an aluminum staff from the shore to the reef crest, and a single beam echo sounder (Honda Electronics, PS-7) on the reef slope at water depths of 0–75 m. At water depths of 75–269 m the topography was assumed to increase with depth at an angle of 23°. The field survey was conducted in July and September 2015. In this study, ~~W~~we used two reef condition scenarios. The first was that reefs are healthy and have a growth rate equal to the SLR, and the second was that the reef is degraded and no growth occurs (Figure 1c). The difference between healthy reefs and degraded reefs was expressed as ~~for~~ the topographic profile in the model. We assumed that healthy reefs are characterized by a predicting vertical reef growth from the reef crest to the upper reef slope ~~to 2100~~. ~~The first was that reefs are healthy and have a growth rate equal to the SLR, and the second was that the reef is degraded and no growth occurs (Figure 1c).~~

In this model, the time step was 0.01 s and the calculation time was 3600 s. We used outputs in the time interval for 1801–3600 s. The horizontal mesh size was set as $\Delta x = 20$ m. The vertical mesh size was $\Delta y = 1$–5 m. We used fine vertical mesh sizes for the land to the reef edge and coarse ones for the outer ocean. The density of water was set as 1025 kg/m^3. The porosity of the reef structure is 10 %. The parameter of bottom roughness was not supported in the model. The input parameters (e.g., WL_o) are given as double figures below decimal point because the future SLR is given as double figures below decimal point (e.g., +0.24 m: Church et al., 2013). Therefore, the calculated values of SWH_r and WL_s are given as rounding at triple figures below decimal point. The data for SWH_r were calculated using the output from the zero-up crossing method.

2.4 *In situ* measurement and calculation for model validation

For validation of the CADMAS-SURF model, we measured WL and SWH at the study site despite non-TC conditions. We deployed one water level logger (Onset HOBO) on the reef flat, which is located 400 m from the shore, from October 31 to November 1 2017. The logger sampled at 1 s. The logger was corrected for atmospheric pressure variations using another water level logger (Onset HOBO) deployed on land. We used three sets of 30-min measured data. The sampling details are summarized in Table 2.

We conducted a calculation of WL and SWH based on the CADMAS-SURF model. We assumed that the SWH_o ranges from 1.20 to 1.30 m, the SWP_o ranges from 12.0 to 14.0 s, and the WL_o ranges from 0.50 to 0.90 m above the present MSL, from October 31 to November 1 2017. The data of SWH_o and SWP_o were obtained from Windguru (see http://www.windguru.cz). We used a value of SWH on the reef flat, which is located 400 m from the shore. The details of input parameters are summarized in Table 2.

~~We used 10 % of porosity for predicting vertical reef growth.~~

2.4 5 Estimation of future reef production rate

We estimated the potential future rate of reef production (kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$) using a drillcore from the reef crest at Ngerdiluches reef in the Palau Islands (Figure 1a). One reef crest core (PL-I; 25 m long) was recovered from Ngerdiluches reef (Kayanne et al., 2002). The thickness of the Holocene sequence is 14.5 m long. The Holocene sequence comprised two facies: (1) corymbose *Acropora* facies; and (2) arborescent *Acropora* facies (Hongo and Kayanne, 2011). The corymbose *Acropora* facies is characterized by corals by corymbose and tabular *Acropora* (e.g., *Acropora digitifera*). These corals are found on distinct reef crests and upper reef slopes in Palau Islands (Kayanne et al., 2002; Yukihira et al., 2007). The zone is generally characterized by high-energy waves in water depths less than 7 m (Hongo and Kayanne, 2011). The arborescent *Acropora* facies is characterized by corals by arborescent *Acropora* (e.g., *Acropora muricata/ intermedia* complex). These corals occupy the inner reef slope and leeward reef slope at water depths of less than 20 m in Palau Islands and other reefs in the present-day Pacific Ocean (Montaggioni, 2005; Yukihira et al., 2007). These corals are interpreted to inhabit a low- to moderate- energy wave conditions (Hongo and Kayanne, 2011).

We weighed all samples and measured the density of each facies. Assuming that the reef crest has a homogenous structure, the production rate of the reef crest is given by following Eq. (1):

$$R = \frac{\rho H}{t} \tag{1}$$

where R (kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$) is the production rate of the reef crest, ρ is the density (kg $CaCO_3/m^3$), H (m) is the thickness of the reef crest, and t (y) is the duration of vertical reef formation. We used two reported radiocarbon ages for arborescent *Acropora* facies (PL- I-79: 8.31 ka, −15.1 m below MSL; PL- I-67: 7.39 ka, −12.0 m below MSL) and four radiocarbon ages for corymbose *Acropora* facies (PL- I-43: 7.25 ka, −6.8 m below MSL; PL- I-26: 7.15 ka, −4.4 m below MSL; PL- I-8: 6.28 ka, −2.5 m below MSL; PL- I-3: 3.92 ka, −1.8 m below MSL) (Kayanne et al., 2002; Hongo and Kayanne, 2011). We assumed that the range of upward reef growth rate (i.e., *H/t*) was 3.4–37.1 m/kyr (between samples PL- I-79 and PL- I-67, and samples PL- I-67 and PL- I-43) for arborescent *Acropora* facies in response to 10 m/kyr of Holocene SLR. Similarity, we assumed that the upward reef growth rates for the corymbose *Acropora* facies in response to 10 m/kyr, 5 m/kyr, and <5 m/kyr of Holocene SLR were 24.0 m/kyr (between samples PL- I-43 and PL- I-26), 2.2 m/kyr (between samples PL- I-26 and PL- I-8), and 0.3 m/kyr (between samples PL- I-8 and PL- I-3), respectively.

3 Results

3.1 Model validation

Figure 2 shows maximum and minimum values of calculated WL and measured WL on the reef flat at the study site. The mean of calculated WL and measured WL were 0.96 and 0.87 m (Test 1), 0.64 and 0.54 m (Test 2), and 0.56 and 0.54 m (Test3), respectively. The calculated mean WL on the reef flat slightly exceeded (0.07 m) the measured mean values.

Similarity, measured SWH and calculated SWH were 0.11 and 0.18 m (Test 1), 0.26 and 0.11 m (Test 2), and 0.22 and 0.10 m (Test3), respectively. The difference in mean value of SWH between measurements and calculations was found to be 0.07 m. The results showed good correspondence between measurements and calculation data. Therefore, we adopted the calculation results for this study.

3.~~1~~ 2 Wave height and water level at Typhoon Bopha

Melekeok reef has distinctly zoned landforms, comprising the reef flat and reef slope (Figure 1c). The reef flat is ~1000 m wide and consists of a shallow lagoon (900 m wide) and a reef crest (100 m wide). The shallow lagoon (~1 m deep) is situated between the shore and the reef crest. During the Typhoon Bopha, local people mentioned that beach erosion and destruction of structure (e.g., the pier and a pavilion, ~3 m above MSL) occurred along the shore at the study site (Figure ~~2~~3). Moreover, the road and the ground of elementary school (+2.86 m above MSL) along the shore were flooded and that this was never seen for a past ca. 70 years.

According to our wave simulation, the SWH_o was found to rapidly decrease from the upper reef slope to the reef crest (Figure ~~3~~4). Under present-day TCs (8.70 m SWH_o, 13.0 s SWP_o), the SWH at the reef crest was 2.15 m and the SWH_r was 1.05 m (case 1, Table ~~2~~3). The reef crest dissipated 75.3% of the SWH_o. The shallow lagoon dissipated 51% of the remaining wave height at the reef crest. The entire reef dissipated 87.9% of the SWH_o. Moreover, the SWH_r was 1.24 m for storm surge under the present-day TCs (case 15, Table ~~2~~3) and the entire reef dissipated 85.7% of the SWH_o.

The WL_s was 0.86 m for present-day TCs (case 30, Table ~~3~~4) and the WL_s increased to 2.10 m under storm surge conditions (case 44, Table ~~3~~4). Moreover, the water level at the shore under present-day TCs (i.e., Typhoon Bopha) reached the elevation of road (+2.86 m above MSL) at the study site (Figure ~~4~~5).

3.~~2~~ 3 Future wave height at the reef flat

The SWH_r was found to increase to a maximum of 2.14 m for degraded reefs and to 1.80 m for healthy reefs under intensified TCs, SLR, and storm surges by 2100 (Table ~~2~~3). An increase in the intensity of TCs will cause an increase in the SWH_r. For example, a SWH_r value of 1.22 m for a healthy reef under present TC conditions (8.70 m SWH_o, 13.0 s SWP_o) (case 16) will increase to 1.52 m (+24.6%) in 2050 with more intense TCs (10.0 m SWH_o, 14.0 s SWP_o) (case 18), and increase to 1.66 m (+36.1%) with the most intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o) (case 20). Overall, the increase in TC intensity will increase the SWH_r by 38.0 ± 16.0% (mean ± SD, n = 17) for degraded reefs and by 30.7 ± 18.2% (mean ± SD, n = 17) for healthy reefs (Table S1).

Moreover, the SLR will cause a slight increase in the SWH_r. For example, 1.66 m in SWH_r at a healthy reef under the most intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o) and 0.24 m in SLR (case 20) will increase by 0.30 m in SLR to 1.70 m (+2.4%, 0.30 m in SLR; case 21) and to 1.77 m (+6.6%, 0.44 m in SLR; case 27). Consequently, the effect of SLR will

increase the SWH_r by 6.5 ± 11.0% (mean ± SD, 21) at degraded reefs and by 3.0 ± 9.2% (mean ± SD, n = 23) at healthy reefs (Table S1).

Furthermore, storm surges (1.00 m) will also increase the SWH_r. For example, storm surges will cause an increase in the SWH_r from 1.09 m to 1.35 m (+23.9%) at healthy reefs subject to a TC (8.70 m SWH_o, 13.0 s SWP_o; between cases 3 and 17). As another example, under the most intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o; between cases 6 and 20), storm surges will cause an increase in the SWH_r at healthy reefs from 1.49 m to 1.66 m (+11.4%). Consequently, storm surges will increase the SWH_r by 20.1 ± 14.9% (mean ± SD, n = 13) at degraded reefs, and by 17.3 ± 14.8% (mean ± SD, n = 14) at healthy reefs (Table S1).

The modeling showed that in all but 6 cases (cases 3, 6, 14, 17, 23, and 26) the SWH_r was reduced to 0.01–0.44 m by upward reef growth by 2100 (Table 2~~3~~, Figure 5~~6~~). For example, 0.24 m in upward reef growth caused a 0.24 m reduction in the SWH_r (from 1.45 m for degraded reef to 1.21 m for healthy reef) under more intense TCs (10.0 m SWH_o, 14.0 s SWP_o) (case 4). This indicates that reef growth enhanced the reduction in wave height from 85.5% at degraded reefs to 87.9% at healthy reef (case 4, Table S1). Similarly, under the most intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o), SLR (0.98 m), and storm surge (1.00 m) in 2100 (case 29), 0.98 m in reef growth caused a 0.20 m reduction in the SWH_r (from 2.00 m for the degraded reef to 1.80 m for the healthy reef); thus, the role of the reef as a natural breakwater increased from 81.8% for the degraded reef to 83.6% for the healthy reef (Table S1). Overall, as a result of reef growth, the wave reduction rate increased from 84.6% at degraded reefs to 86.0% at healthy reefs (Table S1).

3.~~3~~ 4 Future water level at the shore

The modeling showed that the WL_s will increase from 0.86–2.10 m at present to 1.19–3.45 m at degraded reefs and to 1.24–3.51 m at healthy reefs under intensified TCs, SLR, and storm surges by 2100 (Table 3~~4~~, Figure 6~~7~~). An increase in the intensity of TCs will cause an increase in the WL_s. For example, a 1.24 m WL_s at a healthy reef under a current modeled TC (8.70 m SWH_o, 13.0 s SWP_o) (case 31) will in 2050 increase to 1.55 m (+25.0%) under more intense TCs (10.0 m SWH_o, 14.0 s SWP_o) (case 33), and increase to 1.90 m (+53.2%) under the most intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o) (case 35). Overall, the increase in intensity of TCs resulted in an increase in the WL_s by 22.7 ± 15.3% (mean ± SD, n = 17) for the degraded reef and by 21.4 ± 13.3% (mean ± SD, n = 17) for the healthy reef (Table S2).

The WL_s will also be increased by SLR. For example, the WL_s at a degraded reef subjected to a present modeled TC (8.70 m SWH_o, 13.0 s SWP_o) increased from 1.19 m with 0.24 m SLR (case 31) to 1.50 m (+26.1%) with 0.44 m SLR (case 37), and to 1.82 m (+52.9%) with 0.74 m SLR (case 38). Overall, SLR increased the WL_s by 8.7 ± 18.1% (mean ± SD, n = 21) for the degraded reef and by 32.2 ± 37.8% (mean ± SD, n = 23) for the healthy reef (Table S2).

Storm surge also directly increased WL_s. For example, by 2050 this effect caused an increase in WL_s from 1.87 m to 2.87 m (+1.00 m, +53.5%) for the degraded reef and from 1.90 m to 2.86 m (+0.96 m, +50.5%) for the healthy reef under the most intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o) and SLR (0.24 m) (cases 35 and 49, Table S2). Overall, storm surge

significantly increased the SWH_r by 56.5 ± 17.2% (mean ± SD, n = 13) for the degraded reef and by 59.5 ± 27.7% (mean ± SD, n = 14) for the healthy reef (Table S2).

The difference in WL_s between degraded and healthy reefs was found to range from only –0.11 to 0.07 m by 2100. For example, by 2050 no difference in WL_s was found between the degraded and healthy reefs under intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o) and SLR of 0.30 m (case 50). Similarly, a difference of only 0.01 m in WL_s was found between degraded and healthy reefs under more intense TCs (10.0 m SWH_o, 14.0 s SWP_o) (case 55), even with a difference of 0.74 m in upward reef growth.

We found that the road (+2.86 m above MSL) adjacent to the study site would be flooded in both degraded and healthy reefs scenarios in 7 cases (cases 49, 50, 53, 55, 56, 57, and 58, Table 34) of intensified TCs, SLR, and storm surge. In the worst scenario, in 2100 under the most intense TCs (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o), 0.98 m SLR, and a storm surge of 1.00 m, the WL_s was found to increase to 3.45 m for the degraded reef and to 3.51 m for the healthy reef (case 58).

3.4 5 Potential reef production in mitigating wave risk

The Holocene reef density (ρ), determined from the PL-I core, was 720 kg $CaCO_3/m^3$ for arborescent *Acropora* facies and 590 kg $CaCO_3/m^3$ for corymbose *Acropora* facies. The estimated reef production rate (R) ranged from 2.4 to 26.7 kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$ for arborescent *Acropora* facies, and from 0.3 to 14.2 kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$ for corymbose *Acropora* facies, depending on the upward reef growth rate and the Holocene SLR (Figure 78). The lower part of the reef was composed of both arborescent and corymbose *Acropora* facies when SLR was 10 m/kyr, whereas the upper part of the reef comprised only corymbose *Acropora* facies when SRL was <5 m/kyr.

The value of R needed for growth of the Melekeok reef to keep pace with future SLR to 2100 was calculated to be 5.3 to 7.1 kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$ for arborescent *Acropora* facies and 2.6 to 5.8 kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$ for corymbose *Acropora* facies, based on the assumption that the future $CaCO_3$ density and reef growth rate will be equivalent to those of the Holocene reef (Figure 78).

4 Discussion

4.1 Coastal risks Wave height and water level increase in the future

Our results show that present-day Melekeok reef is highly effective in dissipating waves, with the reef crest alone reducing the SWH_o by 75% and the entire reef able to reduce the wave height by 88%. Other reefs (e.g., US Virgin Island, Hawaii, Australia, and Guam) have been reported to reduce wave height by an average 64% (n = 10, 51%–71%) at the reef crest, and by an average of 84% (n = 13, 76%–89%) for the entire reef (Ferrario et al., 2014). Generally, greater wave dissipation efficiency is associated with steep topography from the upper reef slope to the reef crest, because of the rapid decrease in

water depth (i.e., shoaling of waves), and wider reef flats are reported to have greater dissipation efficiency (Sheppard et al., 2005). The reef in the present study is characterized by a steep reef topography and a wide reef flat (~1000 m wide).

Our wave calculations show that increasing TC intensity, SLR, and storm surges will cause an increase in SWH_r by 2100~~, even under healthy reef conditions~~. During future TCs, ~~A~~an increasing wind speed ~~because of climate change (Christensen et al., 2013)~~ will directly cause increasing SWH_o. Water tank experiments have shown a positive relationship between SLR and increasing wave height (Takayama et al., 1977). Sheppard et al. (2005) reported a positive relationship between SLR and wave energy density (an increase in SLR of ~0.2 m increased the density by ~100 J/m^2) at the Seychelles, with the density being proportional to the wave height squared. ~~These studies suggest that the shoreline at Melekeok reef will be at greater risk of damage from waves in the future because of climate change. TCs generating large waves typically cause significant beach erosion, as occurred in Tuvalu (Connell, 1999; Sato et al., 2010).~~

Our result of WL_s shows that the road along the shore at the study site was flooded during an assumed present TC (i.e., Typhoon Bopha). Our simulation data seems to correspond with the observation by the local peoples, although we could not obtain quantitative data. The present results also show that increasing TC intensity, SLR, and storm surges will cause an increase in WL_s of Melekeok reef by 2100~~, even under healthy reef conditions~~, with SLR and storm surges directly increasing the WL_s. Furthermore, an increase in SWH_o as a result of the increasing intensity of TCs will cause an increase in WL_s. An increase in WL_s is likely to be explained by the wave set-up. Wave set-up occurs if waves break in the reef crest–reef slope zone; the wave thrust decreases as the breaking surge travels shoreward, and consequently the water level rises (Gourlay, 2011b). Laboratory experiments and field observations have generally indicated that wave set-up increases with increasing incident wave height and wave period (Nakaza et al., 1994; Gourlay, 2011b). This implies that the occurrence of more intense TCs will cause an increase in wave set-up. Furthermore, water levels generally increase with decreasing water depth toward the shore (i.e., wave shoaling).

According to our results, the coastal area at Melekeok reef will be at greater risk of damage from large waves and increased water level by 2100. For example, TCs generating large waves typically cause significant beach erosion, as occurred in Tuvalu (Connell, 1999; Sato et al., 2010). Moreover, if storm surges occur, the coastal area at Melekeok reef will be flooded (Table 4). This could lead to the destruction of infrastructure, because many buildings (including the elementary school) are located at ~3 m above the MSL. In addition, saltwater intrusion into groundwater could cause long-term problems for water management, including declining water quality for drinking and agriculture (Rotzoll and Fletcher, 2013).

4.2 Coastal risk reduction through future reef growth

~~Furthermore, an increase in SWH_o as a result of the increasing intensity of TCs will cause an increase in WL_s. An increase in WL_s is likely to be explained by the wave set-up and run-up at the shore. Wave set-up occurs if waves break in the reef crest–reef slope zone; the wave thrust decreases as the breaking surge travels shoreward, and consequently the water level rises (Gourlay, 2011b). Laboratory experiments and field observations have generally indicated that wave set-up increases~~

with increasing incident wave height and wave period (Nakaza et al., 1994; Gourlay, 2011b). This implies that the occurrence of more intense TCs will cause an increase in wave set up. Furthermore, water levels generally increase with decreasing water depth toward the shore (i.e., wave shoaling). If storm surges occur, the coastal area at Melekeok reef will be flooded (Table 3). This could lead to the destruction of infrastructure, because many buildings (including the elementary school) are located at ~3 m above the MSL. In addition, saltwater intrusion into groundwater could cause long term problems for water management, including declining water quality for drinking and agriculture (Rotzoll and Fletcher, 2013). Our results indicate that there is no significant change in WL_s between a degraded reef and a healthy reef. This can be explained by the nature of coral reefs, which are porous structures characterized by a high degree of water permeability. A reef framework has a wide range of porosities from low (where internal cavities have been infilled with marine cements) to high (e.g., a reef framework is mainly composed of branching corals) (Hopley, 2011). In this study, mean porosity of reef framework is estimated as 10 %. This means that sea water permeates through the reef due to porosity, even if the reef is characterized by three dimensional structures. The above implies that a decreasing of SWH_r is very important to reduce the risks of costal damages. Our results indicate that the future WL_s will almost reach the elevation of the road at the study site. The result implies that an increase in wave height of only 0.1 m leads to an increase in risks of substantial coastal damages such as flooding, destructions of constructions (houses and buildings), saltwater intrusion into groundwater, and coastal erosion. Detail quantity of the damages was beyond the scope of the present study, but flooding mostly occurs within a 1-km wide coastal zone along the shoreline, and a 0.33 m of water level rise has little effect on inundation, but 0.66 m of water level rise, reveals widespread groundwater inundation of the land surface at Oahu Island in Hawaii (Rotzoll and Fletcher, 2013), although it is difficult to directly compare a coastal area between the Melekeok reef and the results for Oahu Island.

In contrast to the results of WL_s, the healthier a reef, the greater its effectiveness at reducing SWH_r in the future. On average, reef growth resulted in an increase in the reduction rate from SWH_o to SWH_r of 84.6% to 86.0%, and it reduced SWH_r by a maximum of 0.44 m. The reduction is explained by the following three processes. (1) Future coral growth in the reef crest–upper reef slope zone will increase the dissipation of waves breaking as the water depth decreases (Figure 9). The breaking of waves will occur in shallow water when the ratio of wave height to water depth approaches 0.8 (Gourlay et al., 2011c). Based on many field observations at other reefs and the results of water tank experiments (Takayama et al., 1977; Nakajima et al., 2011), a rapid decrease in water depth at the zone results in an increase in wave breaking. (2) Upward reef growth will increase the reef angle in the wave breaking zone as a result of a rapid decrease in water depth in this zone. This process also results in an increase in wave breaking. (3) With upward reef growth the wave breaking zone will probably migrate from its present location towards the ocean. This process will expand the area of wave height reduction, and consequently wave heights will decrease on the reef flat. Consequently, the above factors emphasize the need for future reef formation and growth to reduce the risk of damage by waves.

However, our results showed that only 6 cases (cases 3, 6, 14, 17, 23, and 26) the SWH_r was increased to 0.02 m–0.18 m by upward reef growth by 2100. One possible explanation of an increase in SWH_r is a difference in magnitude of infragravity waves between the degraded reef and the healthy reef. Waves propagating onto shallow reefs steepen and break,

and while some of the breaking wave energy propagates shoreward as reformed high-frequency waves, the spectral wave energy shifts into lower frequencies and long-period (infragravity) waves often dominate (Cheriton et al., 2016). Infragravity waves over shallow reef flats have established relationships between the offshore conditions and resulting reef flat characteristics (e.g., complex bathymetry). Increased of wave height and water level due to the infragravity waves have been observed for various coral reefs (Nakaza et al., 1994; Cheriton et al., 2016) and have also been demonstrated in laboratory and modelling studies (Nakaza et al., 1994; Roeber and Bricker, 2015; Shimozono et al., 2015). Under normal wave conditions, the effect is not remarkable phenomenon. In contrast, in extreme wave conditions such as tropical cyclones, extreme waves enhance the effect on coral reefs. For these 6 cases, the upward reef growth reduces water depth in the reef crest–upper reef slope zone and it probably enhances a resonant oscillation of water by infragravity waves. Actually, we compared one test case under normal wave conditions (2.0 m SWH_o, 9.0 s SWP_o) with case 23 under TC conditions (11.0 m SWH_o, 15.0 s SWP_o). The result showed that the SWH_r was decreased to 0.01 m by upward reef growth (unpublished data). But, the infragravity waves are known to be generated across the coral reef through nonlinear wave interactions and its overall effect remains unclear. Another possible explanation of the increase in SWH_r is a short of calculation time. We used a calculation data of 1800 s for the analysis of SWH_r. To better understand the difference in SWH_r between healthy reefs and degraded reef, a long calculation time will be probably needed. To clearly understand the difference in SWH_r between the degraded reef and the healthy reef, it is necessary to obtain the data using other numerical models (e.g., Delft-3D: Deltares, 2017). Moreover, a water tank experiment would be required to investigate the effect of upward reef growth to the difference in SWH_r.

4.2 Coastal risk reduction through future reef growth

Our results indicate that there is no significant change in WL_s between a degraded reef and a healthy reef. This can be explained by the nature of coral reefs, which are porous structures characterized by a high degree of water permeability. A reef framework has a wide range of porosities from low (where internal cavities have been infilled with marine cements) to high (e.g., a reef framework is mainly composed of branching corals) (Hopley, 2011). In this study, mean porosity of reef framework is estimated as 10 %. This means that sea water permeates through the reef due to porosity, even if the reef is characterized by three dimensional structures.**4.3 A necessary reef production rate for coastal risk reduction**

The healthier a reef, the greater its effectiveness at reducing wave heights in the future. On average, reef growth resulted in an increase in the reduction rate from SWH_o to SWH_r of 84.6% to 86.0%, and it reduced SWH_r by a maximum of 0.44 m. The reduction is explained by the following three processes. (1) Future coral growth in the reef crest–upper reef slope zone will increase the dissipation of waves breaking as the water depth decreases (Figure 8). The breaking of waves will occur in

~~shallow water when the ratio of wave height to water depth approaches 0.8 (Gourlay et al., 2011c). Based on many field observations at other reefs and the results of water tank experiments (Takayama et al., 1977; Nakajima et al., 2011), a rapid decrease in water depth at the zone results in an increase in wave height. (2) Upward reef growth will increase the reef angle in the wave breaking zone as a result of a rapid decrease in water depth in this zone. This process also results in an increase in wave breaking. (3) With upward reef growth the wave breaking zone will probably migrate from its present location towards the ocean. This process will expand the area of wave height reduction, and consequently wave heights will decrease on the reef flat. The above factors emphasize the need for future reef formation and growth to reduce the risk of damage by waves. However, our results showed that 6 cases (cases 3, 6, 14, 17, 23, and 26) the SWH_r was increased to 0.02 m–0.18 m by upward reef growth by 2100. An increase in SWH_r is likely to be explained by a difference in magnitude of infragravity waves between the degraded reef and the healthy reef. Waves propagating onto shallow reefs steepen and break, and while some of the breaking wave energy propagates shoreward as reformed high frequency waves, the spectral wave energy shifts into lower frequencies and long period (infragravity) waves often dominate (Cheriton et al., 2016). Infragravity waves over shallow reef flats have established relationships between the offshore conditions and resulting reef flat characteristics (e.g., complex bathymetry). Increased of wave height and water level due to the infragravity waves have been observed for various coral reefs (Nakaza et al., 1994; Cheriton et al., 2016) and have also been demonstrated in laboratory and modelling studies (Nakaza et al., 1994; Roeber and Bricker, 2015; Shimozono et al., 2015). Under normal wave conditions, the effect is not remarkable phenomenon. In contrast, in extreme wave conditions such as tropical cyclones, extreme waves enhance the effect on coral reefs. For above 6 cases, the upward reef growth affects a reduction in water depth in the reef crest–upper reef slope zone and it probably enhances a resonant oscillation of water by infragravity waves. However, the infragravity waves are known to be generated across the coral reef through nonlinear wave interactions and its overall effect remains unclear.~~

~~If the future WL_s value shows below the road (+2.86 m above present MSL), the difference in SWH_r between healthy and degraded reefs (max. 0.44 m) will have not a significant impact on the coastal area. However, our results indicate that the future WL_s will almost reach the elevation of the road at the study site. The above result implies that an increase in wave height of only 0.1 m leads to an increase in risks of substantial coastal damages such as flooding, destructions of constructions (houses and buildings), saltwater intrusion into groundwater, and coastal erosion. Detail quantity of the damages was beyond the scope of the present study, but the difference in SWH_r by a maximum of 0.44 m will probably cause a significant coastal damages. For example, flooding mostly occurs within a 1-km-wide coastal zone along the shoreline, and a 0.33 m of water level rise has little effect on inundation, but 0.66 m of water level rise, reveals widespread groundwater inundation of the land surface at Oahu Island in Hawaii (Rotzoll and Fletcher, 2013), although it is difficult to directly compare a coastal area between the Melekeok reef and the result of Oahu Island. Consequently, upward reef growth will be required for the reduction of risks of coastal damages.~~

According to the analysis of drillcore in this study, a corymbose *Acropora* facies at a high-wave energy condition in water depths less than 7 m and an arborescent *Acropora* facies at a low- to moderate- wave conditions in water depths less than 20 m contributed to the Holocene reef growth in the Palau Islands (Kayanne et al., 2002; Hongo and Kayanne, 2011). The

maximum future SLR is predicted to +0.98 m by 2100 (Church et al., 2013). This implies that arborescent *Acropora* corals will probably be overturned and broken by high wave energy in shallow water depths, and so will not contribute to upward reef formation at the reef crest by 2100. In contrast, corymbose corals at the study site will contribute to reef formation by 2100, in response to future SLR. Although the dominant corals at Melekeok reef have yet to be documented, the corymbose *Acropora* facies on reef crests in the Palau Islands is generally composed of *A. digitifera*, *Acropora hyacinthus*, and *Acropora humilis* (Kayanne et al., 2002; Yukihira et al., 2007). These coral types are highly resistant to wave action at water depths of 0–7 m, and their preferred habitat (good light penetration and high oxygen concentrations) enables vigorous upward growth.

Our results indicate that if the present MSL increases by 0.44 m (mean value for RCP 2.6) to 0.74 m (mean value for RCP 8.5) by 2100, maintaining reductions in the wave height at the study reef will require 2.6–4.4 kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$ to support upward reef growth by the corymbose *Acropora* facies (Figure ~~8d~~9d). Similarly, 5.8 kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$ will be required to maintain wave height reduction by the facies under 0.98 m SLR by 2100 (highest value for RCP 8.5). Field measurements of the reef crest community at the core site following the mass bleaching event in 1998 showed that the calcification rate decreased from 130 to 74 mmol $C/m^2/day$, equivalent to a rate of 4.7–2.7 kg $CaCO_3/m^2/y$ (Kayanne et al., 2005). Coinciding with the bleaching event, the coral cover decreased from 8.1% to 1.4% (Kayanne et al., 2005). Therefore, ~~we assume that~~ if the coral cover is ~1% in 2100 the corals will keep pace with 0.44 m SLR under RCP 2.6, but >8% coral cover will be needed under RCP 8.5 to reduce wave height and the risk of coastal damage at the study site.

However, if mortality of corymbose *Acropora* ~~facies~~ occurs at the study reef in the future because of global impacts (particularly elevated sea surface temperature and ocean acidification) and/or local stresses, ~~the reef will not develop sufficiently. A decrease in the rate of upward reef growth~~it will probably cause a decline in reef effectiveness in reducing wave height. Coral calcification is considered to be highly sensitive to elevated sea surface temperature and ocean acidification. Although there is variability in calcification rates among coral species (Pandolfi et al., 2011), corymbose *Acropora* species (e.g., *A. digitifera*) are particularly vulnerable to thermal stresses (Loya et al., 2001; Golbuu et al., 2007). The growth of *Acropora* polyps at Okinawa Island in the Ryukyu Islands was significantly reduced by ocean acidification (Suwa et al., 2010). Local stresses, including sediment discharge, also have a negative impact on the species (Burke et al., 2011; Hongo and Yamano, 2013). In Palau Islands, the loss of mature coral colonies on the eastern reef slopes may have decreased coral recruitments and led to the opening of space for turf algae around the islands after Typhoon Bopha in 2012 and Typhoon Haiyan in 2013 (Gouezo et al., 2015). Actually, there was a major decline in juvenile acroporidae corals at the reef slope on Melekeok and along the eastern reef slopes in Palau Islands after Typhoon Bopha in 2012 and Typhoon Haiyan in 2013 (Gouezo et al., 2015). ~~A decrease in the rate of upward reef growth will probably cause a decline in reef effectiveness in reducing wave height.~~ Our calculations for case 9 (TC: 8.70 m SWH_o, 13.0 s SWP_o; SLR 0.74 m) show that for a healthy reef, 0.74 m/kyr of upward growth produced a reduction of 0.23 m in SWH_r in 2100. If the reef growth rate decreases to 3.7 m/kyr, a reduction of 0.05 m in SWH_r would be expected (unpublished data). ~~Although~~ Despite the decrease in juvenile acroporidae corals at Palau Islands, early successional corals, especially pocilloporidae, recruited 6 months after

Typhoon Haiyan in 2013 (Gouezo et al., 2015). There is no information for upward reef growth by pocilloporidae ~~facies~~ in the islands. To understand the role in coastal risk reductionss, an estimation of reef production by pocilloporidae will ~~be probably~~need to be considered.

4.~~3~~ 4 Reduction of global disaster risk based on the health of coral reefs

This study highlights the importance of maintaining reef growth (as a function of coral cover) in the future, to reduce the risk of coastal damage arising from wave action. Therefore, it is necessary to monitor the cover of reef-building corals, the recruitment of coral larvae, and the occurrence of various stressors. For example, the Palau Islands has a Protected Areas Network (PAN), which consists of marine and terrestrial areas established for the protection of important biological habitats. To reduce future risks, warnings derived from monitoring such areas can indicate the need to remove or reduce stressors, and to consider implementing reef restoration efforts (e.g., coral transplantation). Additionally, we recognize that a ground elevation of construction varies ~~from house to~~each ~~building~~building. To evacuate the people from the flooding area, an investigation of ground elevation at each construction and the signboard of elevation will be required. Furthermore, to evaluate the impact of hydrodynamic forces at coastal areas in the islands, establishment of *in situ* observation systems of wave height, wave period, and water level should be considered. For example, establishment of ultrasonic-wave-based wave gauges, observation buoys, and radar-based wave meters are recommended to predict accurately the ocean wave heights and periods to alert peoples for disasters such as flooding during TCs.

More than 150,000 km of shoreline in 100 countries and territories is thought to receive protection from reefs, which reduce wave energy (Burke et al., 2011). More than 100 million people in Southeast Asia live in reef-associated areas (i.e., within 10 km of the coast and within 30 km of a reef), where fringing reefs predominate (Burke et al., 2011). By 2100 this area and its people are likely to be at risk from wave action because of the increasing intensity of TCs, and from SLR and storm surges, and this is likely to have negative economic and social effects. This study focused on Melekeok reef in the Palau Islands, but our results are applicable to other reefs in the Indo-Pacific and Caribbean regions~~,~~. ~~because t~~The natural breakwater formed by reefs is more cost-effective in coastal protection than the construction of artificial defences (Ferrario et al., 2014). Inexpensive but effective plans for coastal protection will be needed by small island nations and developing countries. Reef growth is self-adapting to long-term environmental change including SLR; it also provides a habitat for marine organisms and societal benefits including marine products, tourism, ~~education,~~ and recreation. Further research is needed to develop a policy of disaster risk reduction based on coral reef growth in the Indo-Pacific and Caribbean regions.

5 Conclusion

This study predicted the risk of coastal damage at Melekeok reef in the Palau Islands in the case of intensified TCs, and increased SLR and storm surges that are likely to occur during the 21st century. Our results, based on wave height and water

level using the CADMAS-SURF wave simulation model, and past coral assemblage and reef growth rates estimated from a drillcore, indicate that the present-day reef is highly effective at dissipating incoming waves. However, more intense TCs and increased SLR and storm surges resulting from climate change will increase wave height at the study site reef flat and water level at the shore. This will increase the risk of beach erosion, saltwater intrusion into groundwater, and damage to infrastructure. However, our sedimentological analysis suggests that reef formation by key reef-building corals, including corymbose *Acropora* (e.g., *A. digitifera*), may respond to future SLR. The upward reef growth will decrease the wave height on the reef flat, and reduce the risk of coastal damage. The use of coral reefs for disaster risk reduction is a cost-effective approach and includes other benefits derived from the various ecological services provided by living reefs. Future research such as that described in this study will be required for designing ecosystem-based disaster risk reduction policies for small island nations and for developing and developed countries alike.

Our research would be useful in predicting wave height and water level on coral reefs in the present climate and in a future climate. However, the research has uncertainties of the results and requires the following improvements. The present study emphasizes that further research is required regarding a short-term variation in sea level. During the El Niño of early 1998, mean sea level was ca. 0.20 m lower than normal in Palau Islands (Colin, 2009). This was quickly followed by the La Niña of late 1998, during ~~which~~ this period the mean sea level was 0.35 m above normal (Colin, 2009). This was a half-meter change in mean sea level over just a few months. Such information will allow us to better understand changes in wave height and water level in the Palau Islands by 2100. Moreover, the CADMAS-SURF wave simulation model can contribute to our projecting of wave height and ~~wave height and water level due to intensified TCs and SLR by 2100.~~water level. However, our study showed that there was a few of differences in wave height and water level between *in situ* measurements and calculations on the reef flat under non-TCs conditions. To accurately validate for the model, further *in situ* measurements of wave height and water level under TCs conditions will be needed. ~~r~~Reef coasts are often influenced by lateral flows such as diffracted waves due to topographic effects. In order to understand the complex behavior of waves, 3D-wave analysis as well as 3D-topography measurement will be required. The present study assumed a significant wave height and a significant wave period as a regular wave under TCs; however, coral reefs during TCs are affected by irregular waves. Consequently, it is necessary to set irregular waves for various TCs conditions using the CADMAS-SURF model and/or other 3D-wave model. Finally, the input parameters for the CADMAS-SURF model are obtained at 27 km resolution using the GFS model. To precisely estimate SWH_r and WL_s, *in situ* observed data of wave height, wave period, and water level should be collected.

Supplement

Table S1 Effects of intensification of tropical cyclones, and increased sea level rise and storm surges on wave height on the reef flat at the study site.

Table S2 Effects of intensification of tropical cyclones, and increased sea level rise and storm surges on water level at the shore at the study site.

Author contribution

C. Hongo had the idea and C. Hongo and H. Kurihara designed this research. All authors conducted data analysis, and the writing of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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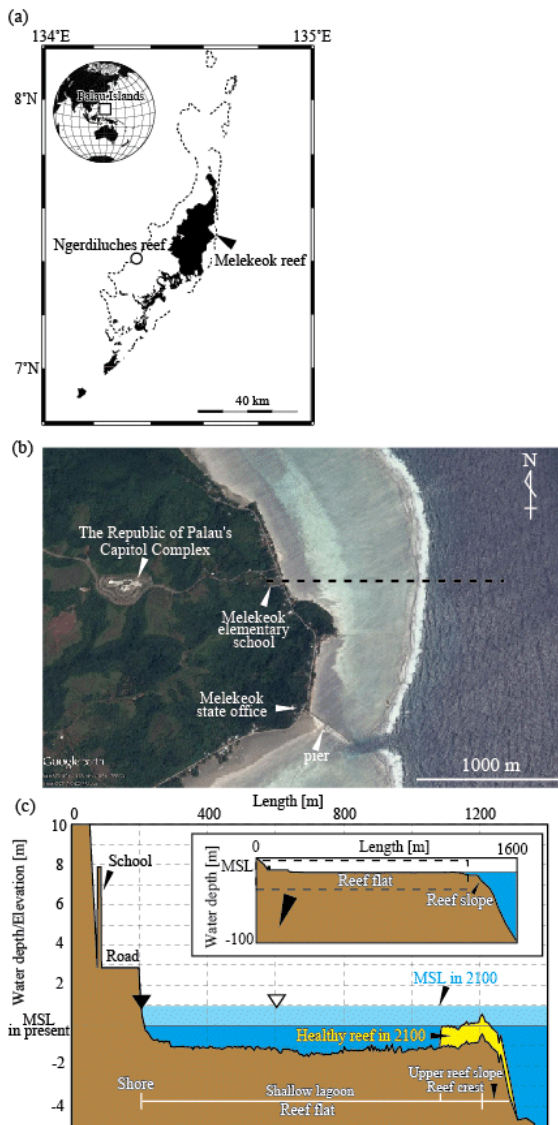
Figure 1~~1~~: Location of Melekeok reef in the Palau Islands, and the reef topography used for wave calculations. (a) Location of Melekeok reef. The open circle indicates the drillcore site on Ngerdiluches reef (Kayanne et al., 2002). (b) Satellite image of the reefs, long beaches, the Republic of Palau's Capitol Complex, Melekeok elementary school, and Melekeok state office. The dashed line shows the location of the survey transect. (c) The measured cross-section, showing the present day and the 2100 reef topography. The reef crest and upper reef slope will be characterized by upward reef growth or cessation of growth in response to sea level rise (SLR). This figure shows the example of upward reef growth for a healthy reef in response to +0.98 m SLR in 2100, based on the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 scenario (Church et al., 2013). The open and solid triangles indicate the locations used for calculating the significant wave height at the reef flat (SWH$_r$) (400 m from the shore) and the water level at the shore (WL$_s$), respectively. MSL indicates mean sea level.
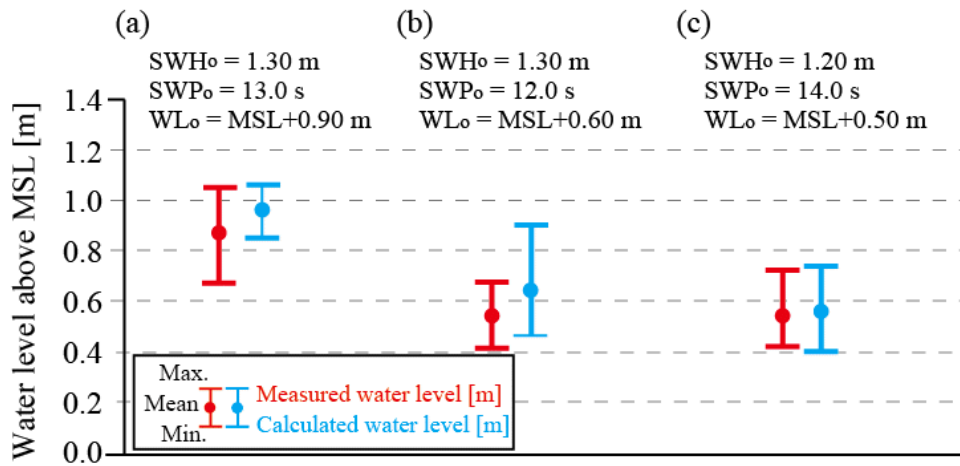
Figure 2: Comparison of *in situ* measurements and calculated results of water levels on the reef flat (400 m from the shore) at the study site. (a) Test1: The assumed SWH_o and SWP_o values were 1.30 m and 13.0 s, respectively. The assumed WL_o value was +0.90 m above MSL. (b) Test 2: The assumed SWH_o and SWP_o values were 1.30 m and 12.0 s, respectively. The assumed WL_o value was +0.60 m above MSL. (c) Test 3: The assumed SWH_o and SWP_o values were 1.20 m and 13.0 s, respectively. The assumed WL_o value was +0.50 m above MSL.
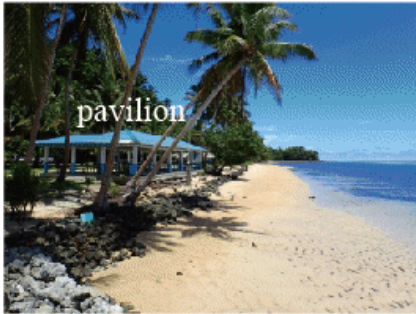
Figure 23: Photograph of the coast at the study site. (a) A pavilion located in the coast. The elevation of the pavilion is less than 3 m above present ~~mean sea level~~ (MSL~~)~~. (b) Damage of the foundation of pavilion due to the erosion during Typhoon Bopha. (c) Many cracks of the floor of the pavilion. (d) Photograph of the collapsed pier at Melekeok reef. (e) Photograph of the road and Melekeok elementary school along the coast. The elevation of the road is +2.86 m above present MSL. (f) Photograph of the ground of the school. The elevation of the ground is ca. 3 m above present MSL. The road and the ground were flooded during Typhoon Bopha.
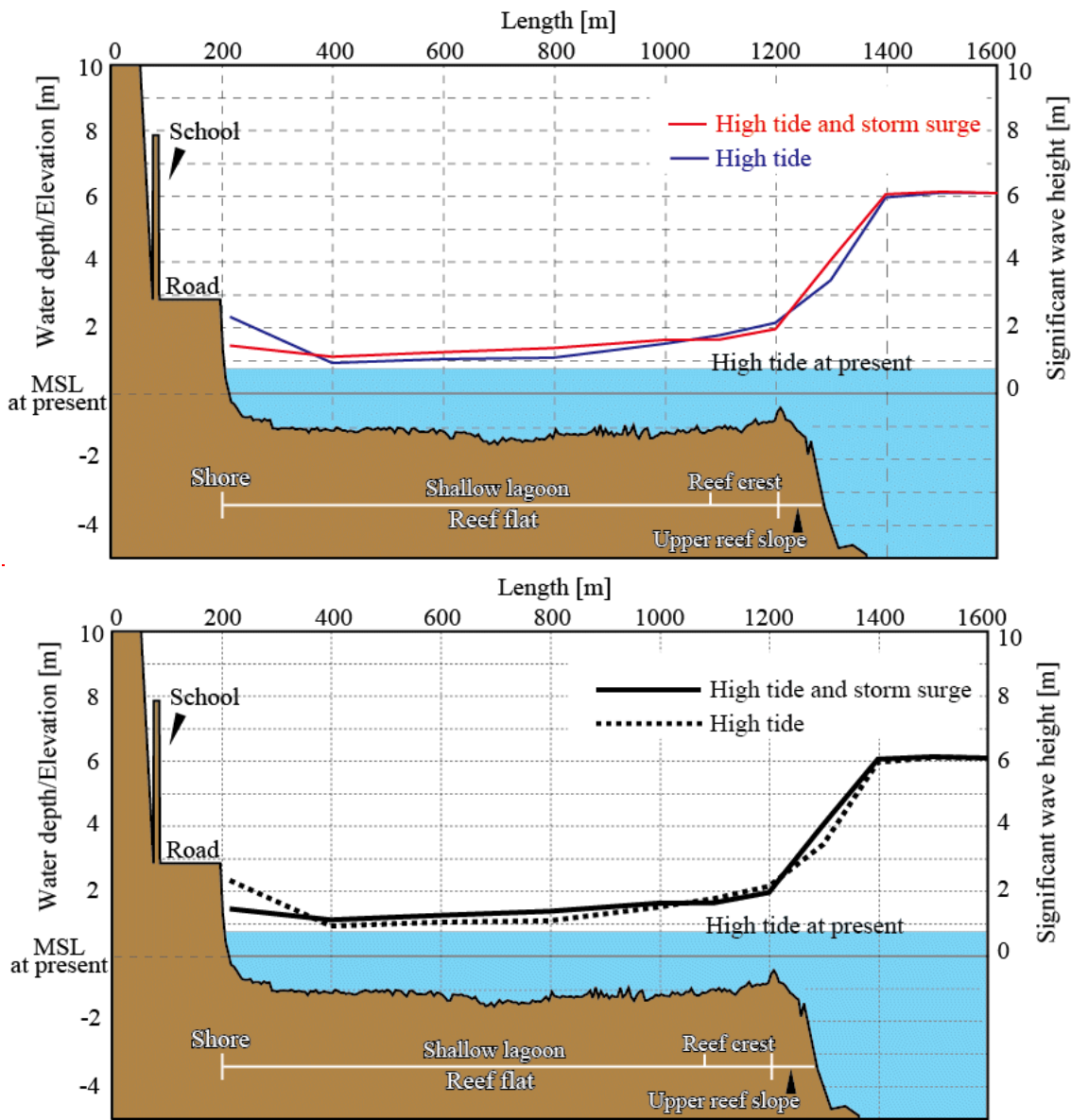
Figure 34: Calculated significant wave height (SWH) at the study site under~~ high tide and storm surge (solid line) and high tide (dotted line)~~present conditions. The assumed SWH~~o~~ and SWP~~o~~ values were 8.70 m and 13.0 s, respectively, for the present conditions model TC (i.e., Typhoon Bopha). The assumed WL~~o~~ was +0.80 m (i.e., high tide) and +1.80 m (i.e., high tide and storm surge) above the present~~ day~~ MSL. Rapid wave breaking occurs in the upper reef slope–reef crest zone, whereas the reef flat is characterized by relatively calm conditions. The SWH value at the shore increases as the water depth decreases.
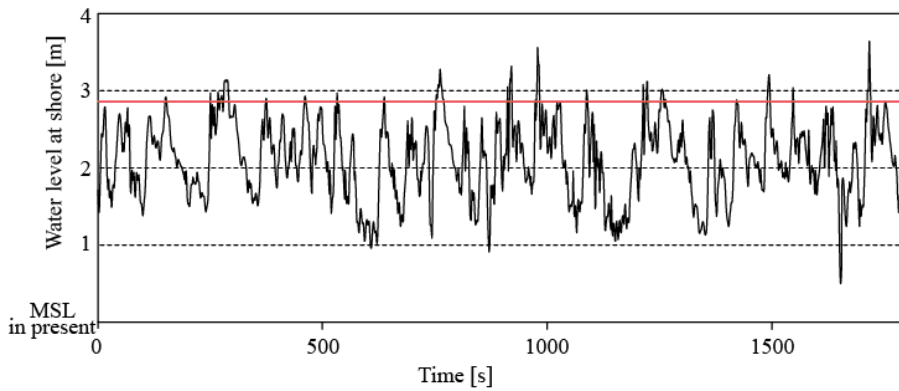
Figure 45: Calculated water level on the shore at the study site under the present-day TC (i.e., Typhoon Bopha). The assumed SWH_o and SWP_o values were 8.70 m and 13.0 s, respectively. The assumed WL_o was +1.80m above MSL (i.e., high tide and storm surge). The horizontal solid line in red shows the elevation of the road (+2.86 m above present MSL) at the study site. The road was frequently flooded.
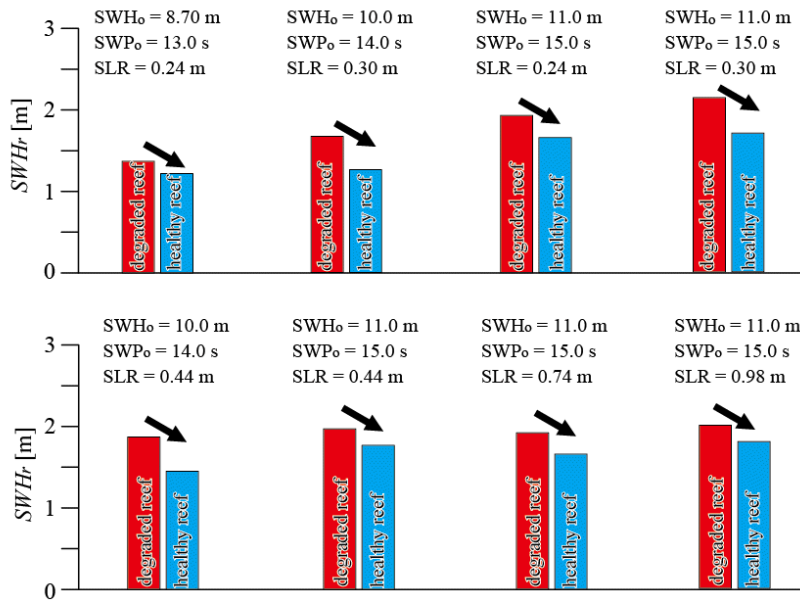
Figure 56: Effect of reef growth on change in the significant wave height at the reef flat for the TCs by 2100. Assumptions: 8.70–11.0 m SWH_o; 13.0–15.0 s SWP_o; SLR 0.24–0.98 m; 1.8 m above present MSL WL_o (i.e., high tide and storm surge). The SLR values are based on the values for the RCP scenario in 2100 (Church et al., 2013). The examples show that healthy reefs will reduce wave height.
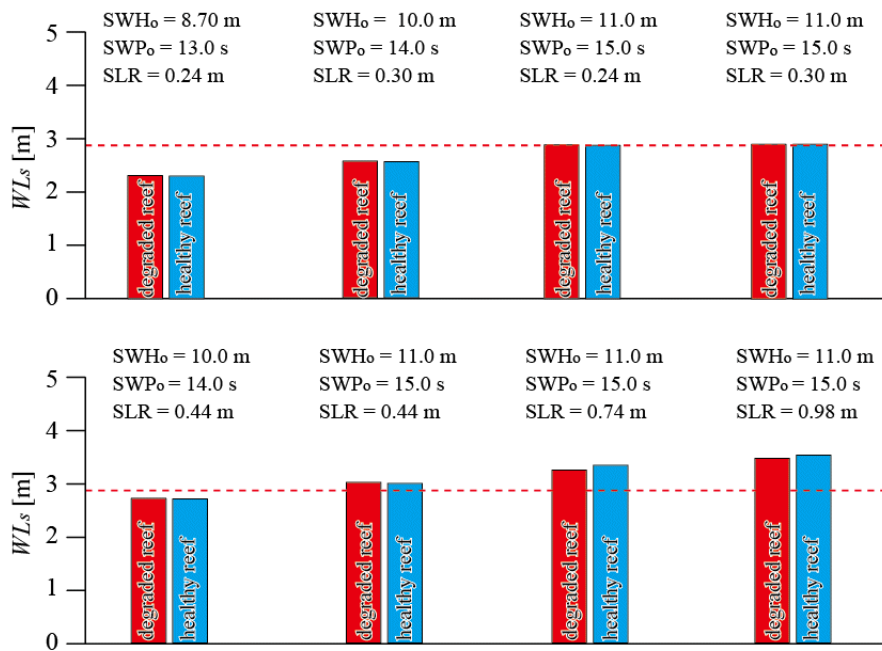
Figure 67: Effect of reef growth on change in the water level at the shore for the TCs by 2100. Assumptions: 8.70–11.0 m SWH_o; 13.0–15.0 s SWP_o; SLR 0.24–0.98 m; 1.8 m above present MSL WL_o (i.e., high tide and storm surge). The SLR values are based on the values for the RCP scenario in 2100 (Church et al., 2013). The horizontal dashed line shows the elevation of the road (+2.86 m above present MSL) at the study site. The road will be frequently flooded even if the reef is healthy.

(c)

Rate of Holocene SLR	Rate of reef prodcution (kg CaCO₃/m²/y)	
	arborescent Acropora facies	corymbose Acropora facies
10 m/kyr	(A) 2.4–26.7	(B) 14.2
5 m/kyr	—	(C) 1.3
<1 m/kyr	—	(D) 0.3

(d)

Rate of future SLR	Rate of potential reef prodcution (kg CaCO₃/m²/y)	
	arborescent Acropora facies	corymbose Acropora facies
9.8 m/kyr	(E) 7.1	(F) 5.8
7.4 m/kyr	(G) 5.3	(H) 4.4
4.4 m/kyr	—	(I) 2.6
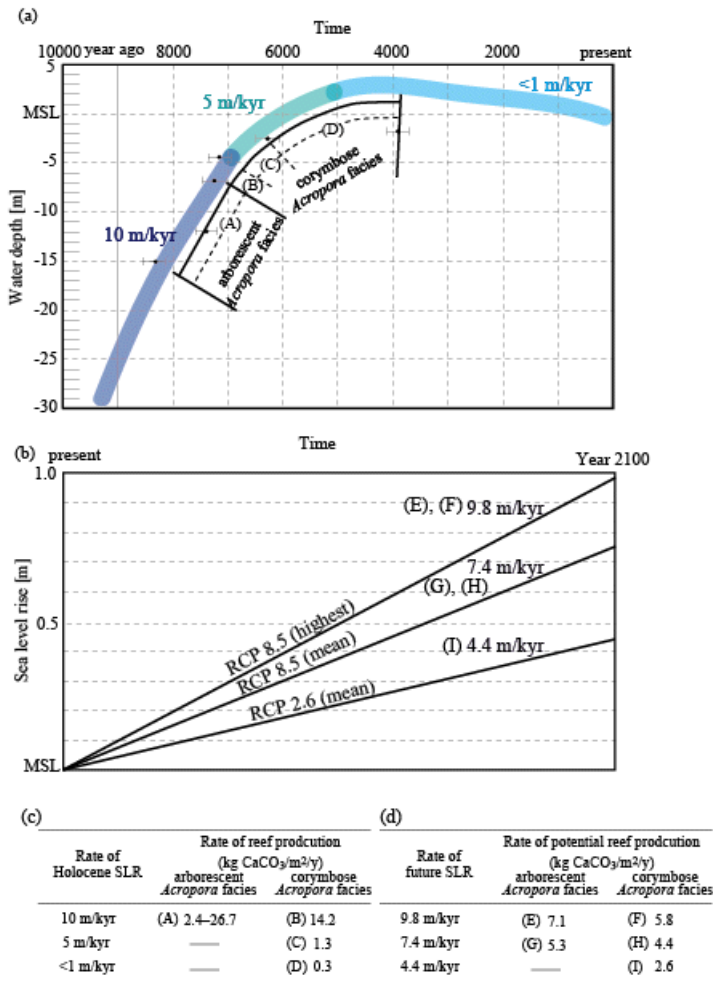
Figure 78: Past and future reef production rates at the study site. (a) Sedimentary facies and Holocene sea level curve relative to present MSL at the study site. Solid circles represent ^{14}C ages obtained from the reef crest drillcore (PL-I: Kayanne et al., 2002). Radiometric counter errors are given in terms of two standard deviations (2σ). The reef growth curve is from Kayanne et al. (2002). The thick line shows two facies (arborescent *Acropora* facies and corymbose *Acropora* facies), from Hongo and Kayanne (2011). The dashed lines (A–D) indicate the period for estimation of the reef production rate for each facies in response to Holocene sea level change. The sea level curve around the study site is from Chappell and Polach (1991), Yokoyama et al. (1996, 2016), and Hongo and Kayanne (2010). (b) Sea level curve projected for 2100. The SLR ranges from +0.44 to +0.98 m until the end of the 21st century (RCP 2.6 and 8.5 scenarios; Church et al., 2013), equivalent to a SLR rate of 4.4–9.8 m/kyr. (E)–(I) Locations used for estimating reef production rates for each facies in response to future sea level change. (c) Holocene reef production rate based on drillcore. (D) Future potential reef production rate for each facies if the reef remains healthy.
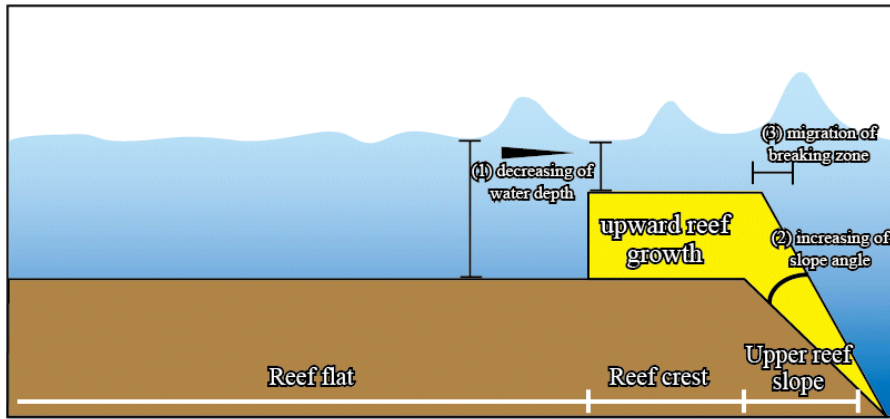
Figure 89: Effects of reef growth on reduction in wave height at the reef flat. In the reef crest to upper reef slope zone, upward reef growth will cause: (1) a decrease in water depth; (2) an increase in the reef slope angle; and (3) migration of the wave breaking zone towards the outer ocean. These processes will enhance wave breaking in the reef crest to upper reef slope zone relative to degraded reef. Consequently, wave height on the reef flat will be reduced.

Table 1 Tropical cyclone passing within 150 km of Melekeok reef from 1951 to 2015.

TC number	TC name	Approaching date	Minimum pressure of center (hPa)[a]	Nearest distance from Melekeok reef (km)[a]	Maximum wind speed at nearest distance from Melekeok reef (m/s)[a]
T5501	VIOLET	January 02 1955	995	81	NA
T5701	NO NAME	January 04 1957	995	93	NA
T5703	SHIRLEY	April 11 1957	975	76	NA
T5901	RUBY	February 28 1959	998	127	NA
T5902	SALLY	March 11 1959	990	101	NA
T5922	GILDA	December 15 1959	925	121	NA
T6431	LOUISE	November 16 1964	915	105	NA
T6702	SALLY	March 03 1967	980	51	NA
T6903	SUSAN	April 20 1969	940	22	NA
T7230	THERESE	December 02 1972	945	32	NA
T7501	LOLA	January 22 1975	975	21	NA
T7603	MARIE	April 07 1976	930	99	NA
T7903	CECIL	April 13 1979	965	9	23
T8201	MAMIE	March 18 1982	990	71	23
T8601	JUDY	February 02 1986	970	139	20
T9025	MIKE	November 10 1990	915	44	45–50
T9101	SHARON	March 11 1991	985	66	25
T1224	BOPHA	December 02 2012	930	121	50
T1330	HAIYAN	November 07 2013	895	72	55–60

NA: Not available

[a] Estimated by Digital Typhoon (http://agora.ex.nii.ac.jp/digital-typhoon/) and based on Japan Meteorological Agency best track data.

Table 1 Tropical cyclone passing within 150 km of Melekeok reef from 1951 to 2015.

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GILDA	December 15 1959	925	121	NA
LOUISE	November 16 1964	915	105	NA
SALLY	March 3 1967	980	51	NA
SUSAN	April 20 1969	940	22	NA
THERESE	December 2 1972	945	32	NA
LOLA	January 22 1975	975	21	NA
MARIE	April 7 1976	930	99	NA
CECIL	April 13 1979	965	9	23
MAMIE	March 18 1982	990	71	23
JUDY	February 2 1986	970	139	20
MIKE	November 10 1990	915	44	45–50
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NA: Not available

[a] Estimated by Digital Typhoon (http://agora.ex.nii.ac.jp/digital-typhoon/) and based on Japan Meteorological Agency best track data.

Table 2 *In situ* Measurements and calculation conditions of water level and wave height for validation.

Case	*In situ* measurement					Calculation			
	Distance from shore (m)	Depth (m)	Tide (m above present mean sea level	Measured time (s)	SWH_o (m)	SWP_o (s)	WL_o (m)	Calculation time (s)
Test 1	400	0.62	0.90	1800	1.30	13.0	0.90	1800
Test 2	400	0.62	0.60	1800	1.30	12.0	0.60	1800
Test 3	400	0.62	0.50	1800	1.20	14.0	0.50	1800

SWH_o: significant wave height at outer ocean

SWP_o: significant wave period at outer ocean

WL_o : water level at the outer ocean (above present mean sea level)

Table 23: Significant wave heights at the study site.

Case	Year	SWH_o (m)	SWP_o (s)	SLR (m)	SWH_r at degraded reef (m)	Percent reduction of wave height from SWH_o to SWH_r at degraded reef	SWH_r at healthy reef (m)	Percent reduction of wave height from SWH_o to SWH_r at healthy reef
Without storm surge								
1	Present	8.70	13.0	0.00	-	-	1.05	87.9%
2	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.24	1.11	87.2%	0.88	89.9%
3	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.30	0.97	88.9%	1.09	87.5%
4	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.24	1.45	85.5%	1.21	87.9%
5	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.30	1.51	84.9%	1.46	85.4%
6	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.24	1.31	88.1%	1.49	86.5%
7	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.30	1.53	86.1%	1.50	86.4%
8	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.44	1.07	87.7%	1.06	87.8%
9	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.74	1.34	84.6%	1.11	87.2%
10	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.98	1.28	85.3%	1.12	87.1%
11	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.44	1.54	84.6%	1.33	86.7%
12	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.74	1.48	85.2%	1.18	88.2%
13	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.44	1.63	85.2%	1.40	87.3%
14	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.74	1.68	84.7%	1.77	83.9%
With storm surge of 1.00 m								
15	Present	8.70	13.0	0.00	-	-	1.24	85.7%
16	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.24	1.37	84.3%	1.22	86.0%
17	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.30	1.33	84.7%	1.35	84.5%
18	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.24	1.57	84.3%	1.52	84.8%
19	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.30	1.67	83.3%	1.26	87.4%
20	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.24	1.93	82.5%	1.66	84.9%
21	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.30	2.14	80.5%	1.70	84.5%
22	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.44	1.32	84.8%	1.21	86.1%
23	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.74	1.24	85.7%	1.40	83.9%
24	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.98	1.47	83.1%	1.30	85.1%
25	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.44	1.87	81.3%	1.45	85.5%
26	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.74	1.59	84.1%	1.64	83.6%
27	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.44	1.97	82.1%	1.77	83.9%
28	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.74	1.92	82.5%	1.66	84.9%
29	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.98	2.00	81.8%	1.80	83.6%

SWH_o: significant wave height at outer ocean

SWP_o: significant wave period at outer ocean

SLR: sea level rise, based on RCP scenarios 2.6 and 8.5 (Church et al., 2013).

SWH_r: significant wave height at reef flat

The tide is 0.80 m above present mean sea level (i.e., high tide).

Table ~~34~~: Flooding risk at the study site.

Case	Year	SWH_o (m)	SWP_o (s)	SLR (m)	WL_s at degraded reef (m)	WL_s at healthy reef (m)	Change in WL_s from degraded reef to healthy reef (m)
Without storm surge							
30	Present	8.70	13.0	0.00	-	0.86	
31	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.24	1.19	1.24	-0.05
32	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.30	1.30	1.41	-0.11
33	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.24	1.58	1.55	0.03
34	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.30	1.54	1.64	-0.10
35	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.24	1.87	1.90	-0.03
36	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.30	1.97	1.99	-0.02
37	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.44	1.50	1.52	-0.02
38	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.74	1.82	1.90	-0.08
39	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.98	2.06	2.12	-0.06
40	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.44	1.82	1.81	0.01
41	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.74	2.09	2.07	0.02
42	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.44	2.07	2.12	-0.05
43	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.74	2.41	2.45	-0.04
With storm surge of 1.00 m							
44	Present	8.70	13.0	0.00	-	2.10	
45	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.24	2.30	2.29	0.01
46	Year 2050	8.70	13.0	0.30	2.42	2.35	0.07
47	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.24	2.44	2.53	-0.09
48	Year 2050	10.0	14.0	0.30	2.55	2.54	0.01
49	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.24	2.87	2.86	0.01
50	Year 2050	11.0	15.0	0.30	2.89	2.89	0.00
51	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.44	2.49	2.50	-0.01
52	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.74	2.81	2.83	-0.02
53	Year 2100	8.70	13.0	0.98	3.00	3.01	-0.01
54	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.44	2.70	2.69	0.01
55	Year 2100	10.0	14.0	0.74	2.97	2.96	0.01
56	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.44	3.00	2.98	0.02
57	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.74	3.23	3.32	-0.09
58	Year 2100	11.0	15.0	0.98	3.45	3.51	-0.06

SWH_o: significant wave height at outer ocean

SWP_o: significant wave period at outer ocean

SLR: sea level rise, based on RCP scenarios 2.6 and 8.5 (Church et al., 2013).

WL_s: water level at shore

Under line: over of risk level of flooding (2.86 m above present mean sea level)

The tide is 0.80 m above present mean sea level (i.e., high tide).