

The Risk Reduction Benefits *of* Coral Reefs and Dunes in the Mexican Caribbean

REGUERO, B.G., SECAIRA, F., TOIMIL, A., ESCUDERO, M.,
LOSADA, I.J., SILVA, R., BECK, M.V., DÍAZ SIMAL, P., ABAD,
S., TORRES, S., MENÉNDEZ, P., MENDOZA, E., WAY, M

The Risk Reduction Benefits of Coral Reefs and Dunes in the Mexican Caribbean - Technical Report

Borja G. Reguero¹

Fernando Secaira²

Alexandra Toimil³

Mireille Escudero⁴

Íñigo J. Losada³

Rodolfo Silva⁴

Michael W. Beck²

Pedro Díaz Simal³

Sheila Abad³

Saúl Torres Ortega³

Pelayo Menéndez³

Edgar Mendoza⁴

Mark Way²

¹University of California, Santa Cruz

²The Nature Conservancy

³Institute of Environmental Hydraulics of Cantabria, University of Cantabria

⁴National Autonomous University of Mexico

Photograph on the cover:

Fernando Secaira, Jennifer Alder @ The Nature Conservancy.
Red Mangrove (*Rhizophora mangle*) grows along the edge of
Baie Liberté, Haiti.

Suggested Citation:

Reguero, B.G., Secaira, F., Toimil, A., Escudero, M., Losada, I.J., Silva, R., Beck, M.W., Díaz Simal, P., Abad, S., Torres, S., Menéndez, P., Mendoza, E., Way, M. (2018). The Risk Reduction Benefits of Coral Reefs and Dunes in Quintana Roo, Mexico. The Nature Conservancy, Washington, DC.

This analysis and report was funded by a collaboration between The Nature Conservancy, The Institute of Environmental Hydraulics of Cantabria, The National Autonomous University of Mexico and Bank of America.

The information is available online at
www.coastalresilience.org

Many thanks to the different institutions that provided the data for this analysis.

Points of contact:

Mark Way, mark.way@tnc.org

Fernando Secaira, fernando.secaira@tnc.org

Borja G. Reguero, breguero@ucsc.edu

The analysis was conducted in 2017 and 2018.

A scientific article with further details was published in 2019 and can be found in Reguero et al (2019), at:
<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/feart.2019.00125/full>

.....
.Puntoaparte
Editores

Editorial director Andrés Barragán

Art director Andrés Álvarez

Page layout Sarah Peña

Copy editing Tiziana Laudato

Editorial production .Puntoaparte Editores
www.puntoaparte.com.co

Table of Contents

1	Highlights of the reefs and dunes risk reduction benefits	4
2	Introduction	8
2.1	Coastal area at risk	8
2.2	The role of coral reefs and dunes in coastal protection	8
2.3	Coastal infrastructure in Quintana Roo, Mexico	11
2.4	Assessing the coastal protection value of the Mesoamerican Reef in Quintana Roo	11
3	Data sources and methods	14
4	People and assets in the coastal zone of Quintana Roo	22
4.1	People and assets at risk in the flood prone coastal zone	22
5	Risk reduction benefits of the Mesoamerican Reef in the Mexican Caribbean	26
5.1	Coastal protection benefits to people	26
5.2	Coastal protection benefits to built-stock	28
5.3	Coastal protection benefits to hotels	30
5.4	Spatial distribution of benefits to built-stock	32
5.5	Risk reduction benefits of coastal dunes	33
6	References	35

1

Highlights of the reefs and dunes risk reduction benefits

Coral reefs and dune systems provide substantial risk reduction benefits to people and property, and the loss of just one meter of reef crest or dune height can significantly increase risk. Coral reef and dune conservation and restoration could, therefore, be an important part of the solution for reducing risks from natural hazards in Quintana Roo and around the globe.

This report provides a social and economic valuation of the protection provided by reefs and dunes to people, infrastructure and the tourism industry in Quintana Roo to inform coastal development policies and practices in the Mesoamerican Reef. This information is relevant to the tourism, real estate, risk reduction, and conservation sectors as they seek to identify sustainable and cost-effective approaches for risk reduction.



Figure 1

A narrow coastal strip, located between the Caribbean and inland lagoons in the Sian Ka'an Biosphere Reserve in Quintana Roo, is highly vulnerable to hurricanes. © Christiana Ferris/TNC

By showing the spatial variation of the flood reduction benefits between sections of coastline with and without reefs and/or dunes, these results identify the places where reef management may yield the greatest returns. Furthermore, by valuing coastal protection benefits in terms used by finance and development decision-makers (e.g., expected socio-economic benefits), these results can be readily used alongside common metrics to inform risk reduction, development, and environmental and conservation decisions.

The study revealed that dunes and reefs provide significant and financially valuable flood protection to people and coastal property. Risk reduction benefit is the difference between the losses caused by a storm to people and infrastructure protected by existing reefs and dunes, and the losses caused by the same storm but without the reefs and dune. Built-stock is the sum of the value of all buildings located in the area of analysis.



The main findings were:



PEOPLE PROTECTED BY REEFS

People in the study area:

307,640



People in sections
protected by reefs:

105,800



BUILT-STOCK PROTECTED BY REEFS

Built-stock in the
study area:

**USD 3.4
billion.**



Built-stock in sections
protected by reefs:

**USD 858
million.**



Benefits for sections
with reefs:

The annualized number
of people flooded
would increase

**by 35%, from
13,093 to 17,679
per year.**

Annualized number of
people protected is

**4.3% of the
105,800**

people in sections
protected by reefs.

During a 1-in-100-year
storm

8.3% of people

living behind reef are
protected.



Expected annual losses
would almost triple as
they increase

**by 178%, from
USD 9.2 million**

with current reefs to

USD 25.5 million

with degraded reefs.



Losses during

a 1-in-100-year

storm almost double as
they increase

**by 74% from
USD 136 million to
USD 237 million.**

Avoided losses during a
1-in-100 years
storm account for

11.6%

of the value of all built-
stock behind reefs.



HOTEL INFRASTRUCTURE PROTECTED BY REEFS

Value of hotels built
in the study area:

**USD 1.5
billion.**

Value of hotels built
in sections protect-
ed by reefs:

**USD 957
million.**



RISK REDUCTION PROVIDED BY DUNES



Expected annual
losses to hotels
would increase by

**173%, from
USD 12
million to USD
32.8 million.**

Losses during a
1-in-100-year
storm would increase by
91% increase
from USD 288 million to

**USD 550
million.**

Avoided losses would
increase by

**139% and
131%**

with 1-in-25 and 50-year
storms, respectively.

Avoided losses during
a 1-in-100 years storm
account for

30 %
of the value of all ho-
tels behind reefs.

Avoided losses during
a 1-in-500 years storm
account for

50%
of the value of all hotels



The expected annual risk
reduction benefits from
dunes is estimated at

**USD 16.7
million.**

The annual risk reduc-
tion benefits from dunes
alone are similar to ben-
efits from reefs, which is

USD 12 million.



Dunes provide critical
protection from fre-
quent storms. Dune
reduces risk by

**63%, 45%
and 42%**

for 1-in-10 and 1-in-25
and 1-in-50-year storms
respectively.

2

Introduction

Coastal zones are some of the most risk-prone areas of the world. Coastal development and climate change are dramatically increasing the risks of flooding and erosion caused by extreme weather events for people, infrastructure, and the economy. Although coastal ecosystems protect people and property from storms, they are typically not accounted for in coastal planning and management, and therefore continue to be degraded at alarming rates.

The Nature Conservancy (TNC) conducted this study to measure the economic benefits provided by reefs and dunes in Quintana Roo, also referred to as the Mexican Caribbean, focusing on the benefits to the local population, infrastructure, and tourism industry. Protected by the Mesoamerican Reef, this area is the top tourist destination in Mexico and is at high risk from devastating hurricanes.

2.1 Coastal area at risk

Erosion, flooding, and extreme weather events affect hundreds of millions of people, infrastructure, and economic activity worldwide. The impacts of coastal hazards, such as hurricanes, can be devastating to coastal economies and will continue to worsen with climate change and poorly planned coastal development (Wong et al. 2014; Hallegatte et al. 2013; Reguero et al. 2015; Reguero et al. 2019).

Hurricanes Harvey, Irma and Maria cost the insurance industry a record amount in 2017, which became the costliest hurricane season on record with USD 215 billion in losses, including uninsured losses. Globally, the losses from weather-related catastrophes amounted to more than USD 330 billion in 2017, the highest weather-related losses ever recorded (Munich Re NatCat Service).

2.2 The role of coral reefs and dunes in coastal protection

Coral reefs and dunes provide natural protection from waves, wind and storm surges (Beck & Lange 2016; Narayan et al. 2016; Reguero et al. 2021). It has been estimated that 197 million people live within 50 kilometers of a reef and benefit from their ecosystem services (Ferrario et al. 2014). Healthy reefs are natural submerged structures that can provide significant coastal protection and flood risk reduction benefits (Beck et al. 2018). Coral reefs naturally protect our coasts by attenuating and redistributing wave energy and supplying sediment on adjacent beaches (Sheppard et al. 2005a; Gallop et al. 2014).

Wave energy is released when hitting the beach and dunes both under normal conditions and during storms. Undisturbed dunes are sand reservoirs which are washed away during storms but return to the coast when climate conditions return normal.

The friction of coral reefs in conjunction with wave breaking on the reef crests, as shown in Figure 2, results in high rates of wave energy dissipation over relatively short distances (Lowe et al. 2005; Monismith et al. 2015). A coral reef's complex bathymetry can also cause waves to change direction and velocity. The shoreline and the coastal landforms are shaped by the effects of reefs on wave energy propagation.

Despite providing a critical value to coastal communities, the coastal protection service of these natural structures is rarely accounted for in coastal planning and decision-making. The lack of quantification and valuation in spatially-explicit economic terms prevents the inclusion of coral reefs as coastal infrastructure in risk management (Beck et al. 2018; Reguero et al. 2019). Until recently, most flood risk management involved conventional engineering measures, but some recent experiences show that reefs can be used effectively and engineered for coastal protection while also providing other services (Reguero et al. 2018a; Chavez et al. 2021; Silva et al. 2021).

The shoreline and the coastal landforms are shaped by the effects of reefs on wave energy propagation.

Economic valuations of the protective services that coastal habitats provide can inform coastal management decisions, enhance reef conservation, and build the resilience of the communities reefs protect by offering cost-effective options that reduce risk.



Figure 2

Coral reefs, like the one of Puerto Morelos, induce waves to break and their energy to dissipate. © Jennifer Alder/TNC



Figure 3

Coral reef architecture is key to providing hydrodynamic roughness and to wave breaking. Photo: The Nature Conservancy.

However, coastal ecosystems have been severely degraded, 30% of coral reefs have been lost globally, while 75% of the world's coral reefs are rated as threatened (Burke et al. 2011). Corals are threatened by disease, thermal stress, bleaching, physical destruction, fewer herbivores, ocean acidification, and increased sediment loads (Bjorn et al. 1986; Gardner et al. 2003; Mumby et al. 2007; Barbier et al. 2011), threats exacerbated by climate change.

Coral loss also translates into the loss of architectural complexity, which will likely have serious consequences for reef biodiversity, ecosystem functioning, and associated environmental services (Alvarez-Filip et al. 2009). Damage to this coastal infrastructure reduces its ability to protect the coast and to provide vital ecosystem services.

2.3 Coastal infrastructure in Quintana Roo, Mexico.

Twelve million tourists visit reefs, beaches, and lagoons in the State of Quintana Roo every year. In 2019, the State's tourism industry generated USD 15 billion (Secretaría de Turismo del Estado de Quintana Roo), making it the top tourist destination in Mexico.

The coastal areas of Quintana Roo have been subject of significant and continuous development since the 1970s (see Figure 4 and Figure 5). According to our analysis, there are more than 100,000 hotel rooms and over 900 hotels in the coastal zone, and over 200 hotels with beachfront .

The damages caused by hurricanes to this valuable infrastructure have been significantly reduced by coral reefs and dunes. Storm surge from Hurricane Wilma was reduced from 14 meters in the open ocean to 2 meters inside the Puerto Morelos reef lagoon, fully sparing the coastal area from storm damage (Blanchon et al. 2010).

However, dunes and reefs are at risk. Live coral cover has been reduced from 40% in the early 1970s to 8-10% by 2010s. As in other coastal areas around the world, the local population and economy that benefit directly from the reefs and dunes – also pose a major threat to their health. Hence, the importance of measuring the risk reduction benefits provided by reefs and dunes to inform policies and coastal development practices in Quintana Roo.

2.4 Assessing the coastal protection value of the Mesoamerican Reef in Quintana Roo

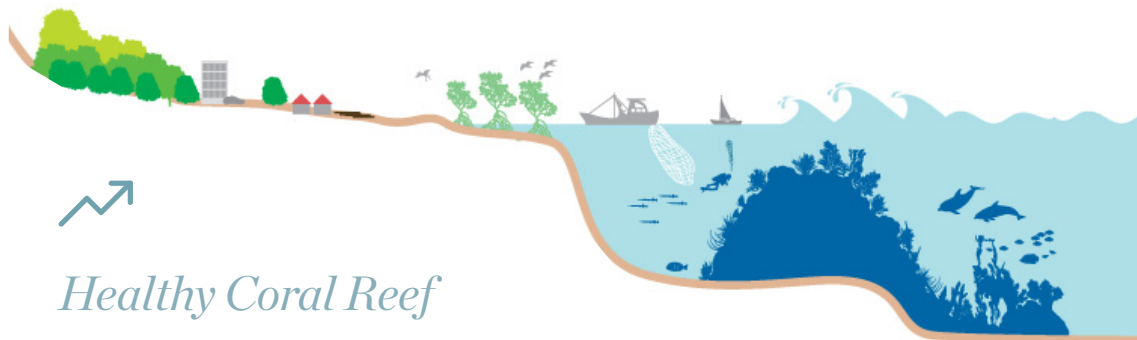
This study assesses the risk reduction benefits for people, infrastructure, and the economy provided by the Mesoamerican Reef in Quintana Roo. Benefits are assessed as the difference between avoided losses from storms under current reef conditions and with a 1-meter loss of reef crest. (Figure 6). Benefits are expressed in annualized avoided losses for storms of various sizes and probabilities of occurrence.

Benefits are expressed in annualized avoided losses for storms of various sizes and probabilities of occurrence.

A valuation of protective services provided by reefs and coastal dunes was conducted to reflect their *combined* effect in providing flood protection. In many places, mangroves also provide flood protection, however, in Quintana Roo, mangroves are located too far inland to provide coastal protection and, therefore, were not considered in this study.



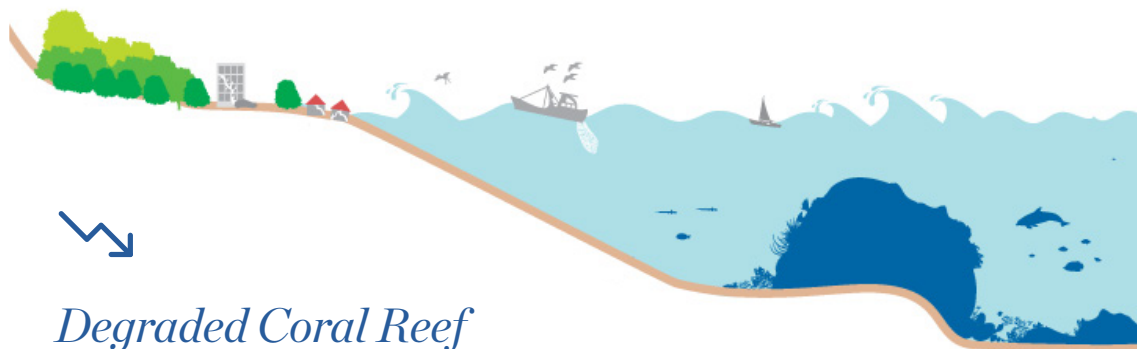
Figure 6. Conceptual representation of the natural protection provided by coral reefs (above). Degradation of reef crest leads to less flood protection and increases risk (below). This protective service can be quantified in terms of the risks and economic losses they avert. Source: Beck et. al., 2012. World Risk Report 2012.



Healthy Coral Reef

A healthy reef crests near the surface and serves as a major natural break - water - reducing most wave energy and helping protect coastal communities. Healthy reefs have abundant living corals, and support fishing industries and diving.

In coastal areas where wave energy is lower, mangroves can grow and further stabilize shorelines, reduce erosion, and provide nursery habitat for fish, shrimp and crabs.



Degraded Coral Reef

When reefs are degraded, the living corals die and the reef is eroded to rubble. As a result, much more wave energy passes over the reef, which erodes shorelines, increases risk of damage to people and

property, reduces fishing and diving, and may force coastal communities to retreat, or pay for expensive coastal defenses like seawalls.

3

Data sources and methods

This section provides an overview of data sources and methods used in this analysis. Additional details can be found in Annexes I through IV.

The study follows a **probabilistic risk quantification framework** (SwissRe 2011; Reguero et al. 2018b) to identify the value that coral reefs and dunes provide in flood protection (Beck & Lange 2016; Whelchel et al. 2018).

Commonly used terms for the assessment and framework, include:

- **Annualized Expected Damages (AED):** the AED for each return period (RP) are the sum of the damages of all storms divided by the probability of the storm (return period).
- **Assets or built-stock:** the value of the buildings and other assets (residential, commercial, industrial, and hotel).
- **Flood depth:** the difference between flood level and ground level.
- **Flood level:** the water level in relation to mean sea level.
- **Flood prone coastal zone:** the area below 20 meters above mean sea level and less than 5 kilometers from the coastline.
- **Hazard:** the event or phenomena that causes damages. Each hazard can be described by its location, frequency, and intensity.
- **Damages curve:** the statistical correlation of flood level and severity of the damage. Damages are expressed as a percentage of the value of the asset impacted.
- **Exposure curve (floods):** the value of assets or number of people that would be impacted by different flood depths.
- **Mexican Caribbean:** the coastal area of Mexico bordering the Caribbean Sea, spanning from Cabo Catoche to the Mexico-Belize border.
- **Mesoamerican Reef:** the 1,000 kms (600 miles) of complex coral reef structures spanning from the Northern tip of the Mexican Caribbean (Cabo Catoche), through Belize and Guatemala, to the Bay Islands in Honduras.
- **Losses to assets:** the quantification of the economic losses caused by physical damages to assets.
- **People impacted:** the quantification of people living in the areas affected by flooding.
- **Risk reduction benefits from reefs:** the flood losses averted by reefs. Benefits are the difference between the amount of people and built-stock affected by flood levels under a scenario with reefs and a scenario with degraded reefs. Degraded reefs were modeled with a 1-meter loss of reef crest height.

- **Risk reduction benefits from dunes:** the flood losses averted by dunes. Benefits are the difference between the amount of people and built-stock affected by flood levels under a scenario with dunes and a scenario without dunes.
- **Risks:** the aggregation of the potential losses that all possible events may cause, weighted by the estimated frequency of events.
- **Study area:** the coastal area of Quintana Roo, Mexico, with data available to model scenarios. It excludes Cozumel Island.
- **Significant wave height (H_s):** is defined as the average wave height, from trough to crest, of the highest one-third of the waves.
- **Total Water Level (TWL):** the height of the water level in the sea, resulting from the combination of storm surge and wave heights and the modification caused by nearshore bathymetry, when surge and waves approach the coastline.



Mexico Reef Akumal © Fernando Secaira TNC

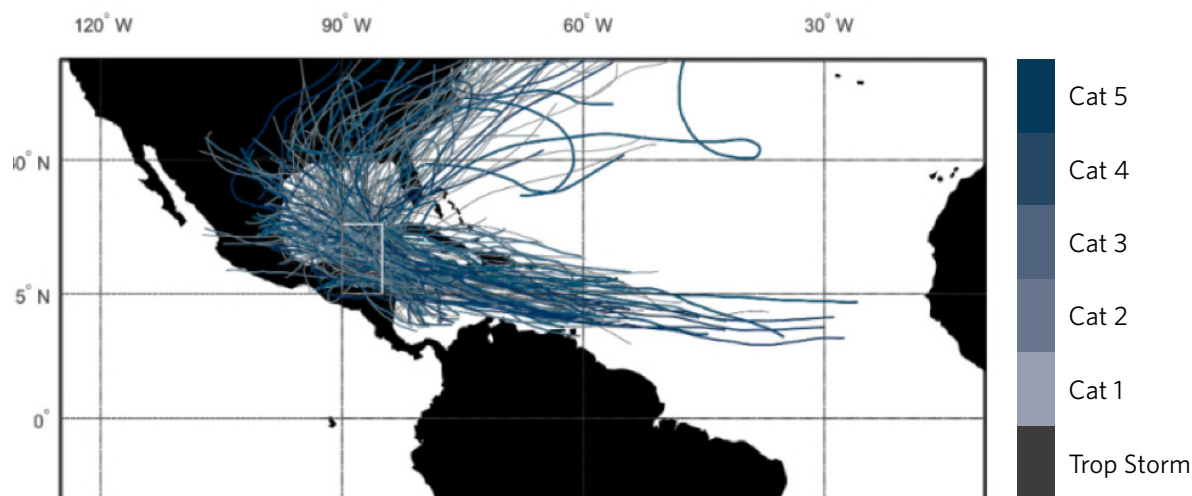
Figure 7. Key steps and critical data needed to quantify risk. Source: adapted from (Reguero et al. 2018b)

	Hazard	Socioeconomic Exposure	Vulnerability	RISK
	How strong? How frequent?	Where? What? How many?	How well built?	



Data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Historical storms in the Caribbean. Caribbean and QR bathymetry. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Population data (WorldPop and Census data). Economic Census data. Hotel distribution and built footprint. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Specific vulnerability curves for built stock, hotel and population. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Damages from each storm.
Methods	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Probabilistic simulations of tropical storms. Wind, Surge and Wave fields calculation for each storm. Calculation of total water levels onshore. Reef model to assess flooding inland. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Spatial downscaling of population and built capital (100m). Digitalization of hotel built footprint and beach characteristics from satellite imagery. Creation of database on characteristics and exposure of hotels (location, number or rooms, hotel category, average price, etc.) from online queries and survey. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Calculate historical damages for historical storms from the combination of flooding extent, exposed assets, and vulnerability curves. Calibration of historical damages from reported damages for historical storms (e.g. Hurricane Dean). Calibration of exposure (built capital and hotel exposure) to reproduce historical damages. Recalculation of damages for each storm and each type of asset; built stock (residential, commercial, and industrial facilities); hotels; and population. Calculation for the scenario with ecosystem and without ecosystems. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Probabilistic analysis of damages to define economic value and population impacted by each storm. Statistical definition of damages associated with certain return periods. Calculation of the benefit as the difference in risk between the two scenarios (with and without the ecosystems). Calculation of Annualized Expected Damages and Benefits, by integrating the probability of each simulated event.

Figure 8. Simulated hurricane tracks in the region of Quintana Roo.



The process we used to quantify risk is outlined in Figure 7 and 13 and can be summarized in this sequence of steps:

Step 1. Hazard modeling

Hazards were calculated using a probabilistic simulation of storms in the Caribbean. Probabilistic simulations are recommended for assessing risk in situations with limited observations, like coastal flooding from hurricanes (Resio & Irish 2015). A probabilistic simulation generates thousands of possible events that could occur during a certain period. Historical wind, wave, and storm surge data from ~900 storms were used to calibrate ~15,000 synthetic storms (see Figure 8). Comparatively, deterministic approaches study one or only a few individual storm events. The simulations were used to calculate the Total Water Levels (combined storm surge and wave heights) along the coast of Quintana Roo.

The probabilistic analysis of storms was conducted using the CLIMADA risk model, a component of the Economics of Climate Adaptation (ECA) framework. CLIMADA² is an open-source climate adaptation assessment modelling platform that employs state-of-the-art probabilistic modeling, allowing users to estimate expected economic damage, additional damage derived from an increase in the value of the assets, and additional damages due to the impacts of climate change. The Economics of Climate Adaptation methodology provides a practical framework that national and local officials can use to quantify the risk that climate change poses to their economies and to assess costs/benefits of specific risk reduction measures.

2. https://climada-python.readthedocs.io/en/stable/tutorial/1_main_climada.html

Step 2. Flood modeling and the role of the ecosystems

The Total Water Levels generated by each storm are used to calculate inland flooding using Xbeach, a numerical model for wave propagation that has been extensively validated for reef environments. Xbeach includes the effect of reefs and the non-linear effects of flooding from storms (Reguero et al. 2021; Van Dongeren et al. 2013; Quataert et al. 2015). The study area was divided in transects, each every 200 m perpendicular to the coastline. (Figure 9).

The use of coastal transects neglects some of the hydrodynamics that occur on natural reefs, such as lateral flow which is the effect of waves when they run in many directions (Figure 11).

Flood modeling was performed for two scenarios:

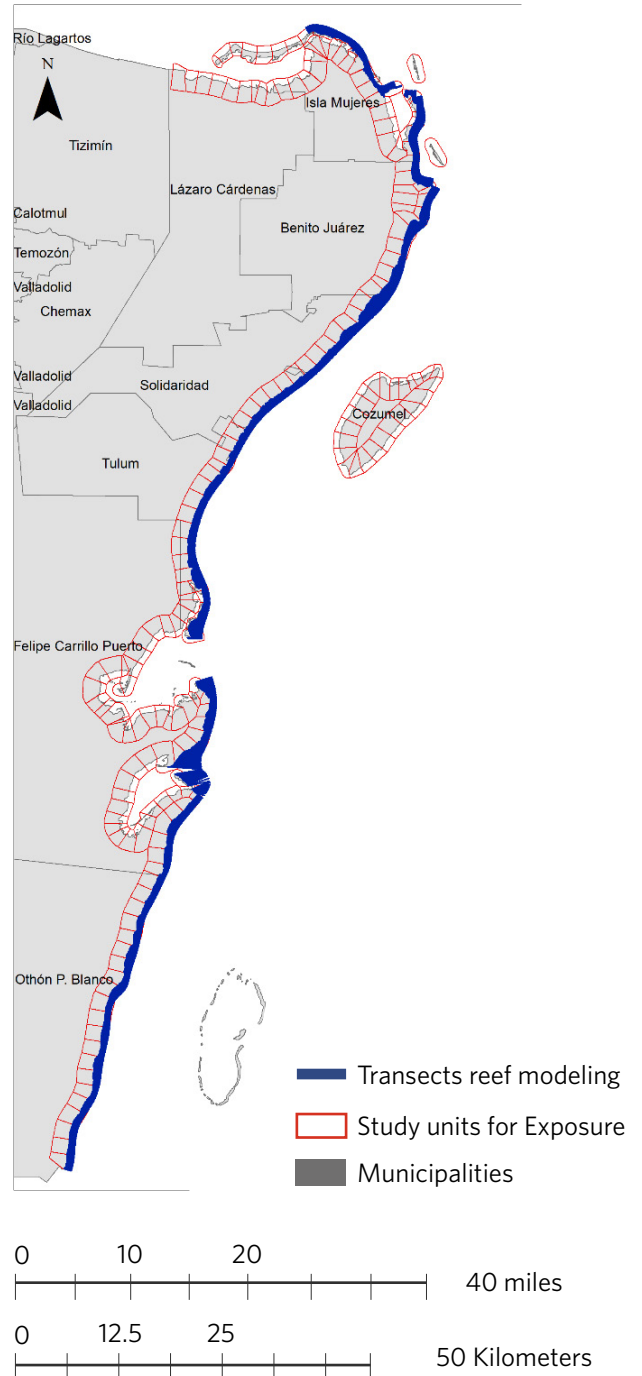


1. Existing coral reefs, represented by the bathymetry and coral cover published by CONABIO (2016).



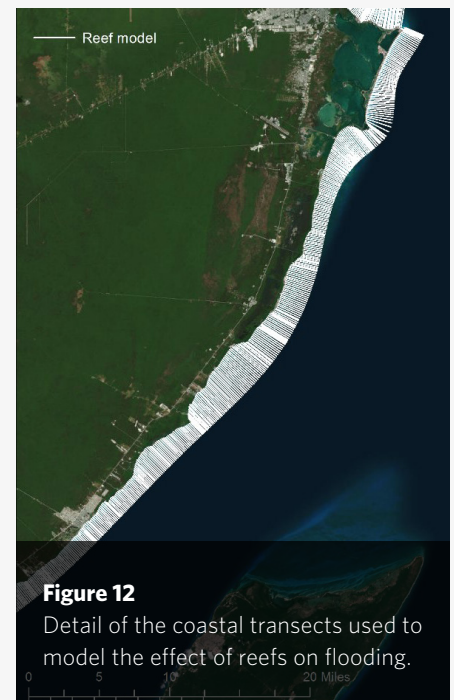
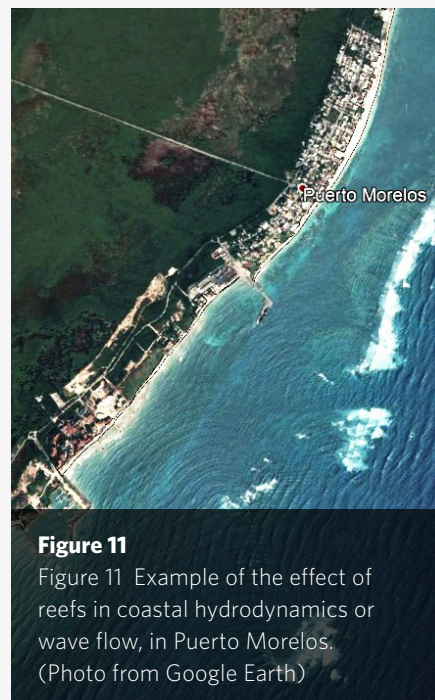
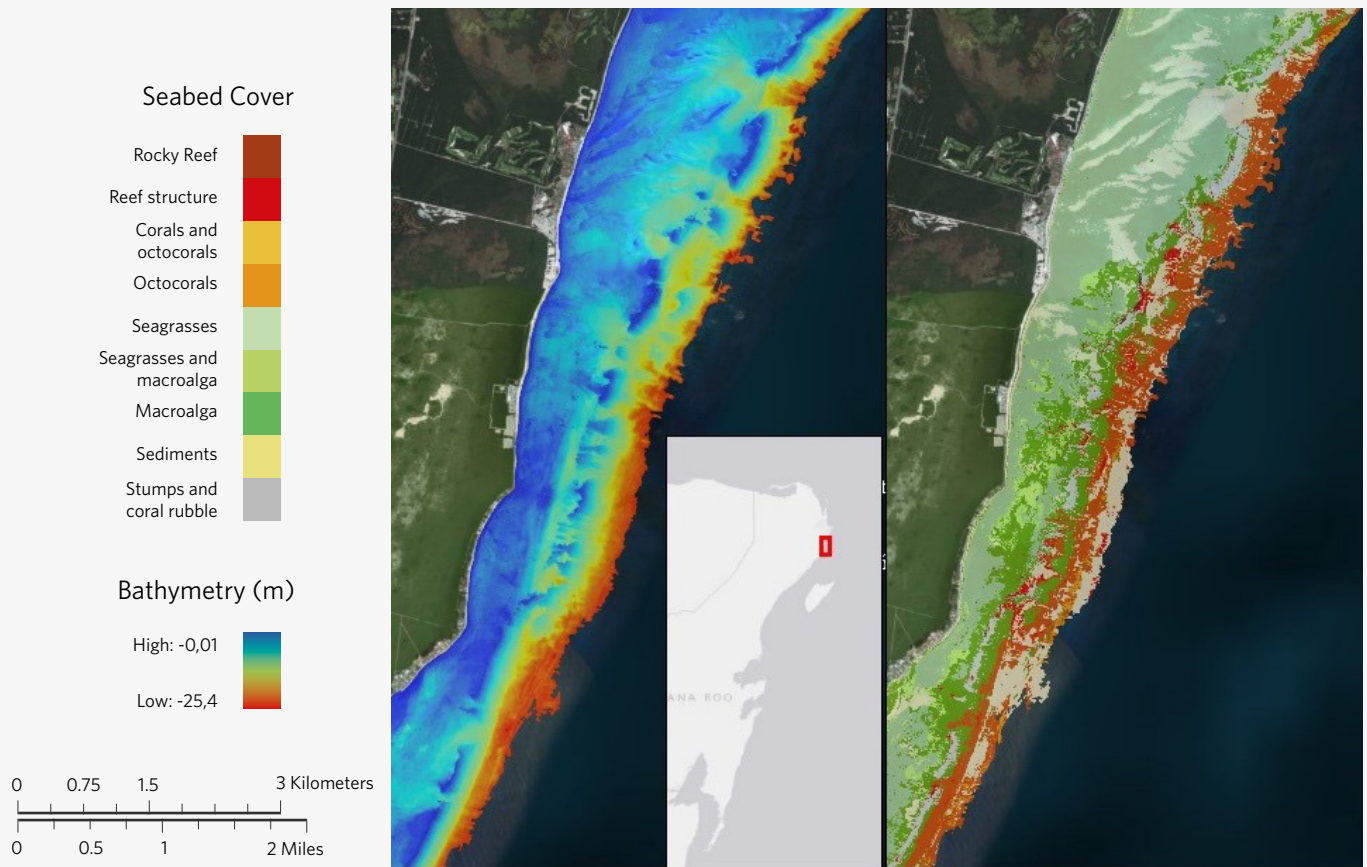
2. Degraded coral reefs, represented by a 1-meter loss in reef crest height and reduced friction³ of the reef surface.

Figure 9. Study area and coastal study unit.



3. Loss of friction in a reef is caused by the loss of live hard coral cover, resulting in a “smoother surface” where water forces could flow with less interruption or friction.

Figure 10. Details of bathymetry and seabed type for a section of Quintana Roo's coastline in Puerto Morelos. Maps enhanced by TNC based on information from the National Commission for the Conservation and Use of Biodiversity in Mexico (CONABIO).



Step 3. Calculation of losses

Losses are the estimates of people and buildings impacted by flooding, with hotels as a specific subset of impacted buildings.

This study used high-resolution population distribution (WorldPop) and the Mexico's government census data on population to estimate how many people are exposed. To estimate affected people, we considered that all people who live in flooded areas are impacted, regardless of flood depth.

The study used GAR15 (UNDSIR, 2015) data to calculate the economic value of built-stock for residential, industrial, services and government stock exposed. The GAR15 provides a global exposure database with 5 kilometers spatial resolution. This information was downscaled to 100 m resolution using the WorldPop data and the local census data.

We built our own database on hotels using satellite imagery from Google Earth and digitized using ArcGIS. Hotel rooms and star ratings were identified through online database queries on different websites (e.g., TripAdvisor, Expedia, Booking.com, etc.) and interviews with local hotels.

**This information was
downscaled to 100
meters resolution using
the WorldPop data and
the local census data.**

Economic losses to buildings (residential, commercial, industrial, and hotel stock) are calculated in each coastal transect for each storm by multiplying the value of the building by an expected percentage of damages. Vulnerability curves express the relationship between the flood depth and the percentage of value of the building that might be damaged. Each type of economic asset has its own specific vulnerability curve.



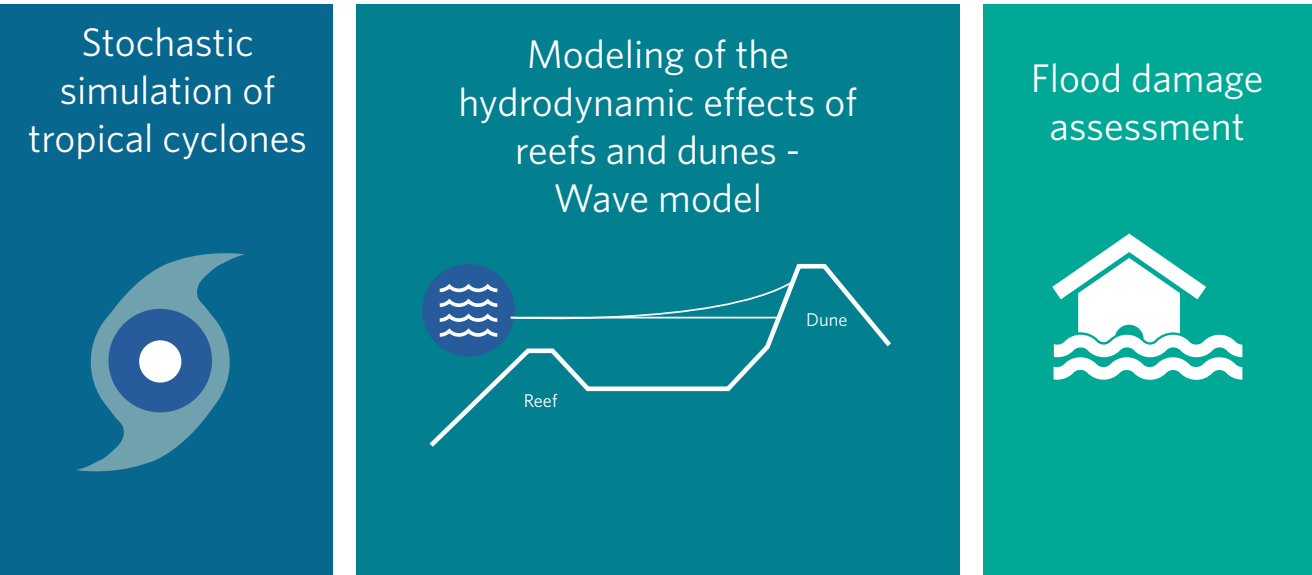
Degraded beach in Riviera MayaRiviera Maya © Fernando Secaira TNC

Step 4. Calculation of social and economic risk reduction benefits provided by reefs.

Risk is quantified by the number of people and monetary value of losses to buildings related to the frequency of flooding. Risk is described using an estimate of the annual average costs of flooding, known as Annualized Expected Damage (AED) associated with different storm return periods. Risk reduction benefits are the difference between coastal risks with and without reefs and are expressed in 2015 US Dollars.

Direct losses are damages caused to the infrastructure by flooding. Indirect losses are economic losses resulting from the consequences of damages to infrastructure, such as the interruption of business and the consequences on tourism. Estimates of indirect losses are based on data from previous natural disasters, compiled by Mexico’s National Center for Prevention of Disasters (CENAPRED). The study calculated the ratio of indirect versus direct losses for hurricanes Dean, Wilma, and Emily and applied an average factor.

Figure 13. Elements used to conduct the analysis outlined in this report.



4

People and assets in coastal zone of Quintana Roo

4.1 People and assets at risk in the flood prone coastal zone

The analysis assessed people and assets in low-lying areas (below 20 m above mean sea level) within 5 km of the coast, which was designated the '*flood prone coastal zone*'. 72% of this coastline has adjacent coral reefs.

Out of Quintana Roo's 1.5 million inhabitants, the *flood prone coastal zone* is home to:

- ~307,000 people, of which ~105,800 live adjacent to reefs.
- USD 3.38 billion in built-stock, of which USD 900 million (26%) are adjacent to reefs.
- 959 hotels with a footprint of 1.5 million square meters, 63% of which are adjacent to reefs.

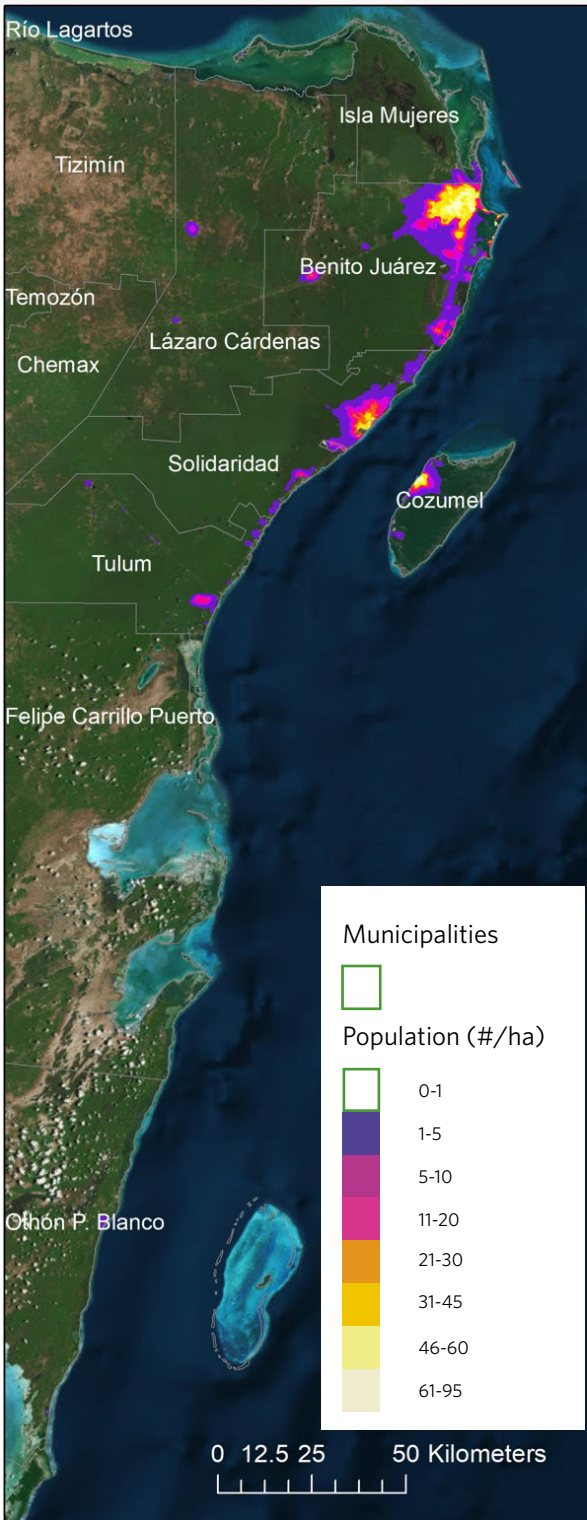
Table 1. People and stock exposed in the *flood prone coastal zone* (defined as being within 5 km of the coastline and below 20 m above mean sea level).

Type of Exposure	People and stock in the <i>flood prone coastal zone</i>	People and stock adjacent to reefs	Percentage of people and stock adjacent to reefs
Population (#)	307,640	105,800	34%
Residential built-stock (USD million)	1,737.4	518.0	30%
Industrial built-stock (USD million)	588.4	127.4	22%
Commercial built-stock (USD million)	1,058.2	223.1	21%
All built-stock (USD million)	3,384.00	868.50	26%
Hotels (million square meters)	1.529	0.967	63%

Figure 14. Areas of reef and no reef along the Mexican Caribbean.



Figure 15. Population distribution and density per hectare along the Mexican Caribbean.



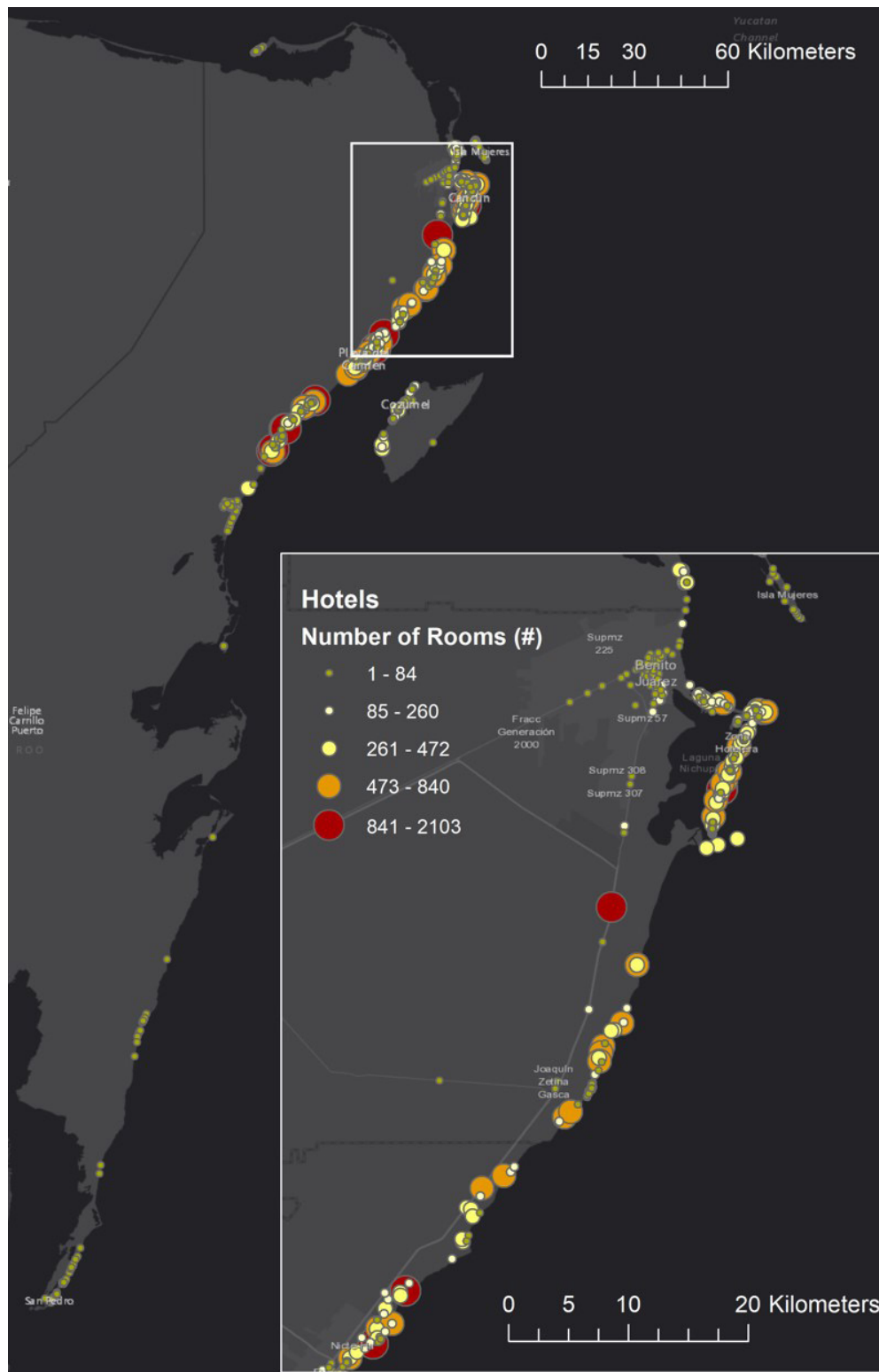


Figure 16. Hotel distribution and rooms in the Mexican Caribbean.

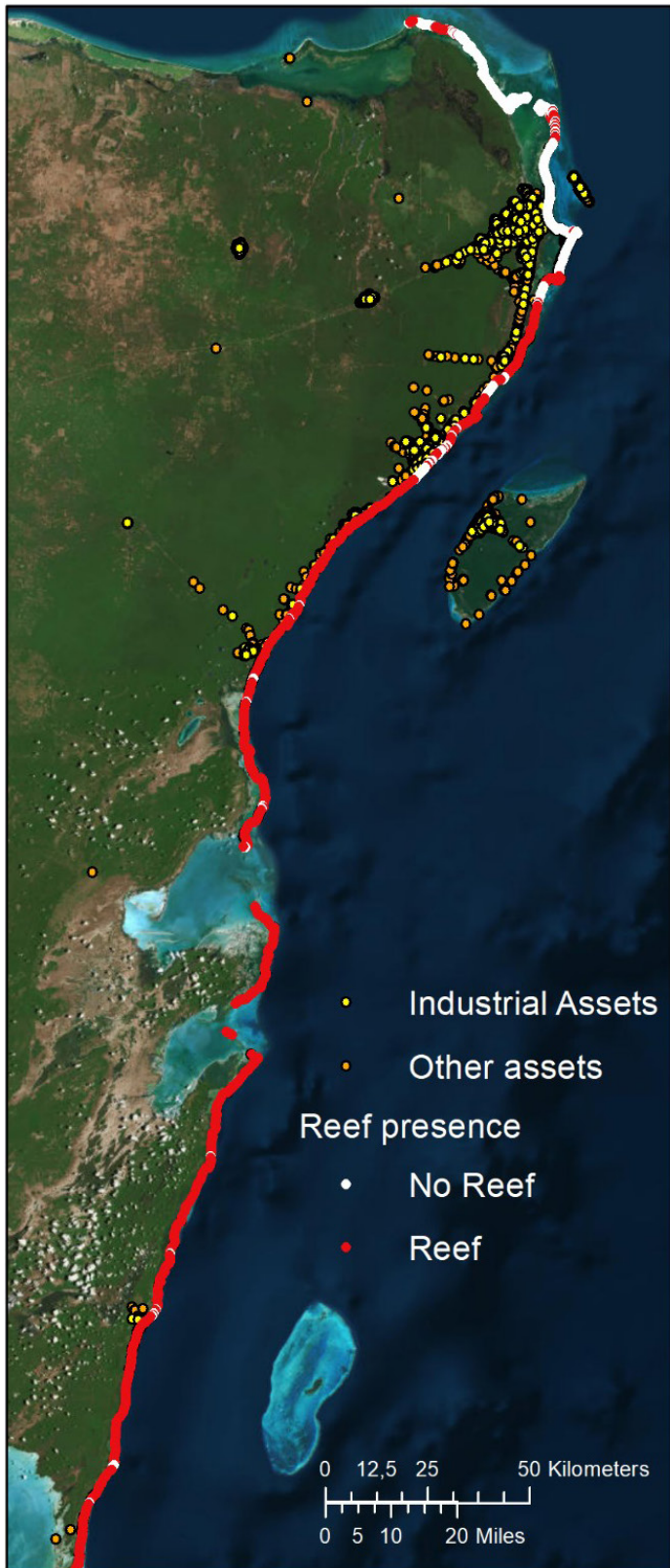


Figure 17. Distribution of built-stock and reef in the Mexican Caribbean.

5

Risk reduction benefits of the Mesoamerican Reef in the Mexican Caribbean

This section details the risk reduction benefits to people, built-stock, and hotels provided by reefs in the Mexican Caribbean. Each subsection includes estimates for:

- Damages with current reef (baseline risk);
- Damages with degraded reef (1 m loss of reef crest);
- Benefits or avoided damages.

The estimates are presented for storm return periods from 10 to 500 years, as well as on an annual basis.

5.1 Coastal protection benefits to people

People in the study area:

307,640

People in areas adjacent to/protected by reefs:

105,800

Benefits for sections with reefs (see Table 2):



Annualized number of people impacted would increase from

**13,3093
to 17,679
per year.**



During a 1-in-100-year storm, **1 in every 9 people** is protected by reefs.

Annualized number of people protected is

**4.3% of the
105,800**
people in the flood prone coastal zone.



During a 1-in-25-year storm, **1 in every 20 people** is protected by reefs.

The annualized number of people impacted would increase by

**35.3% if
reefs are
degraded.**

Figure 18. Annualized number of people affected by hurricanes. The dark blue represents the number of people that benefit from the protection provided by reefs.

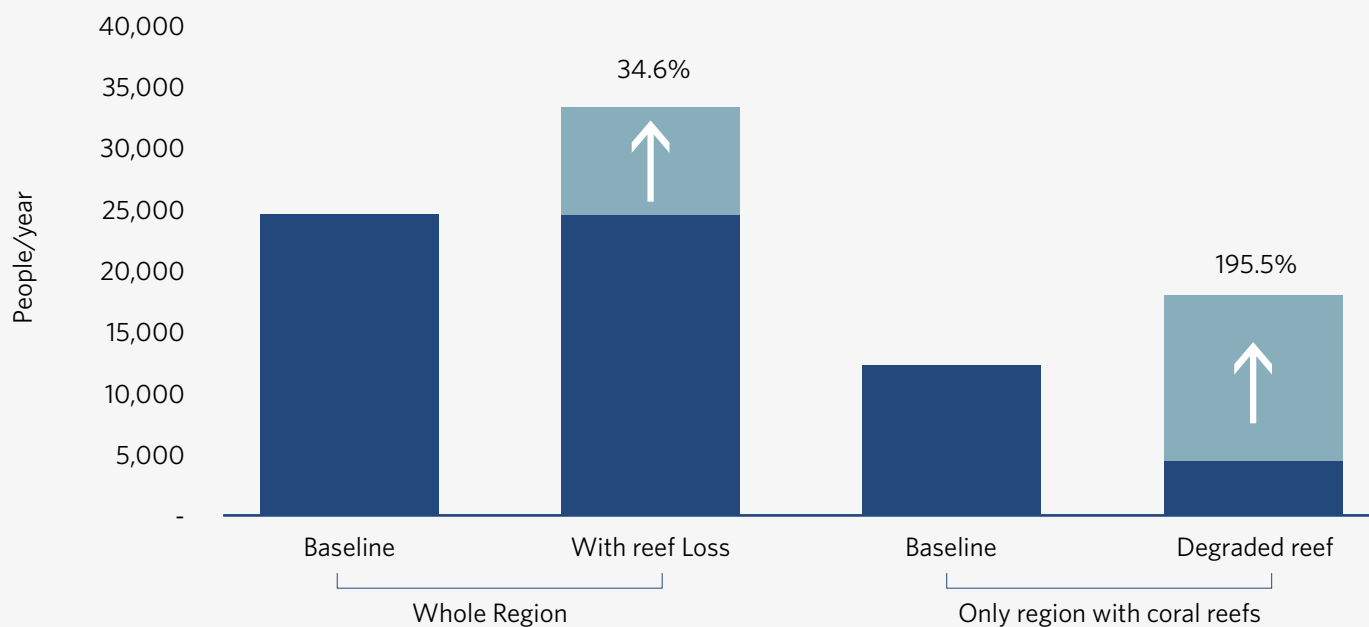
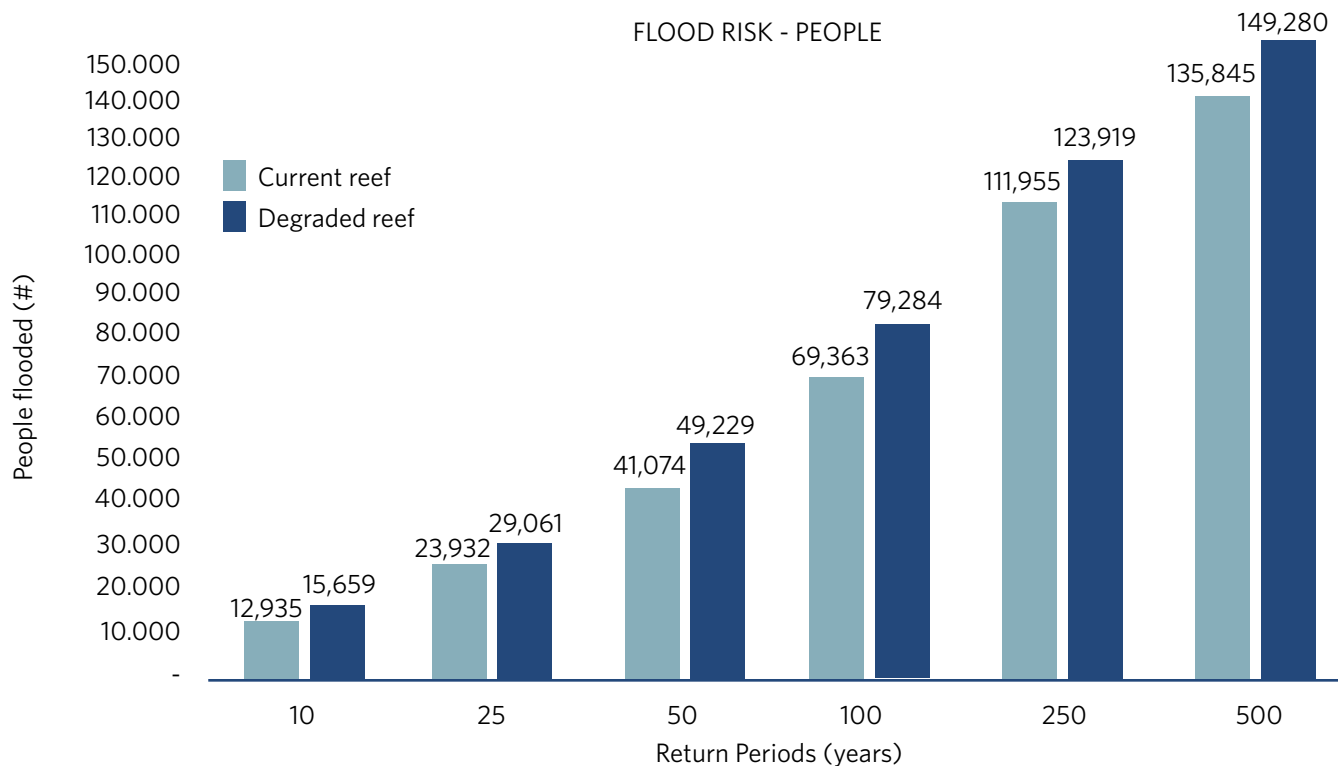


Table 2. People benefitting from flood protection provided by reefs. Annual Expected Damage is calculated as the probability of each storm and the associated losses. Values are expressed in number and percentage of people.

	Annual Expected Damage	Storm Return Period					
		10 years	25 years	50 years	100 years	250 years	500 years
People impacted with current reef condition (baseline risk)	13,093	12,935	23,932	41,074	69,363	111,955	135,845
People impacted with degraded reef	17,679	15,659	29,061	49,229	79,284	123,919	149,280
People benefited	4,586	2,677	5,140	6,941	8,796	10,784	13,478
Percentage of the benefit compared to baseline risk	35.03%	20.70%	21.48%	16.90%	12.68%	9.63%	9.92%
Population living behind reefs: 105,800							
Increase in risk compared to the total population	4.3%	2.5%	4.9%	6.6%	8.3%	10.2%	12.7%

Figure 19. People impacted by floods. The bars represent the people affected by flooding with current reefs and with degraded reefs. The difference between the bars represents the people who benefited from the reef. Values are expressed in terms of the number of people impacted by flooding. The total number of people living in coastal areas adjacent to reefs is 105,800.



5.2 Coastal protection benefits to built-stock



Value of built-stock in the study area:

USD 3,38 billion.



Value of built-stock in areas adjacent to/protected by reefs:

USD 858 million.

Expected annual losses would almost triple, increasing from

USD 9.2 million

with current reefs to USD 25.5 million with degraded reefs, a

178% increase.

Losses during a

1-in-100-year

storm would almost double if reefs degrade, increasing from

USD 136 million to USD 237 million. The avoided losses are equivalent to 11.6% of the value of all built-stock.

Losses during

1-in-250

and 500-year storms would increase by 56% and 57.5% if reefs degrade.

Avoided losses from a

1-in-500 years

storm would be USD 172 million, 13 times higher than during more frequent storms (1-in-10 years).

The percentage of the avoided losses compared to the baseline is lower than other storms because the damages are far greater.

Figure 20. Annualized expected losses in built-stock for the region and for the area with reefs. The dark blue sections represent the avoided losses in built-stock due to the reef.

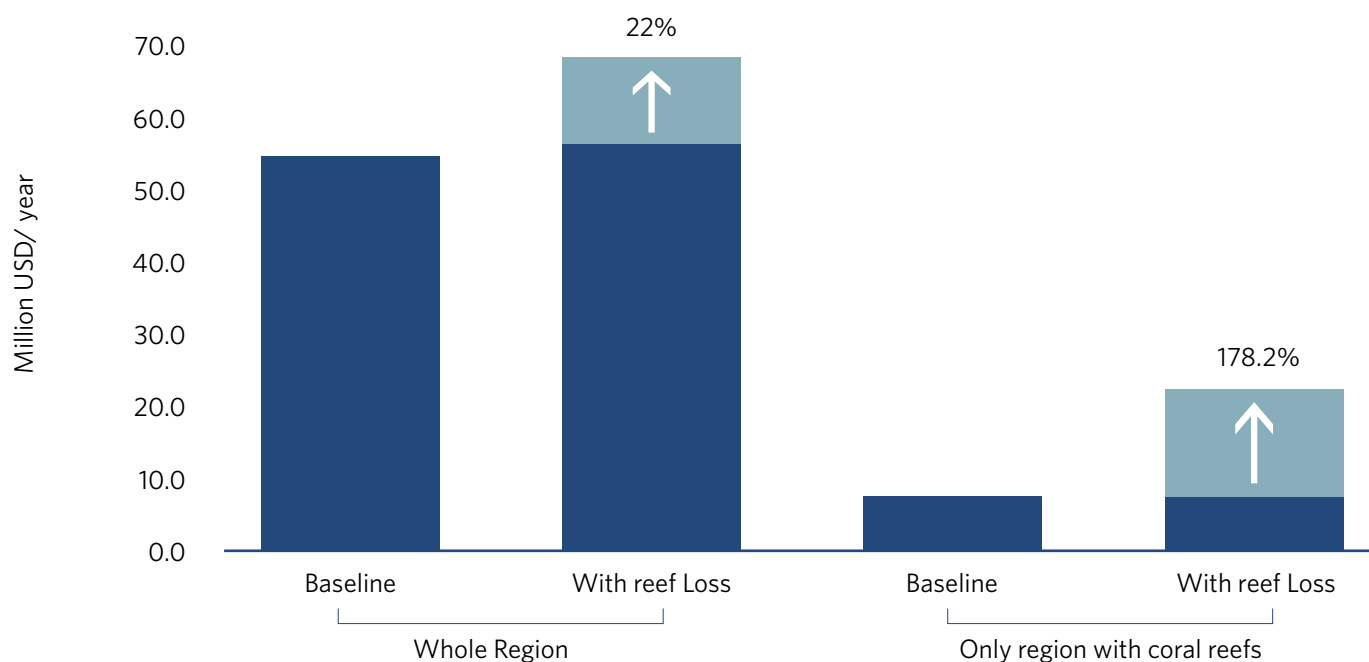
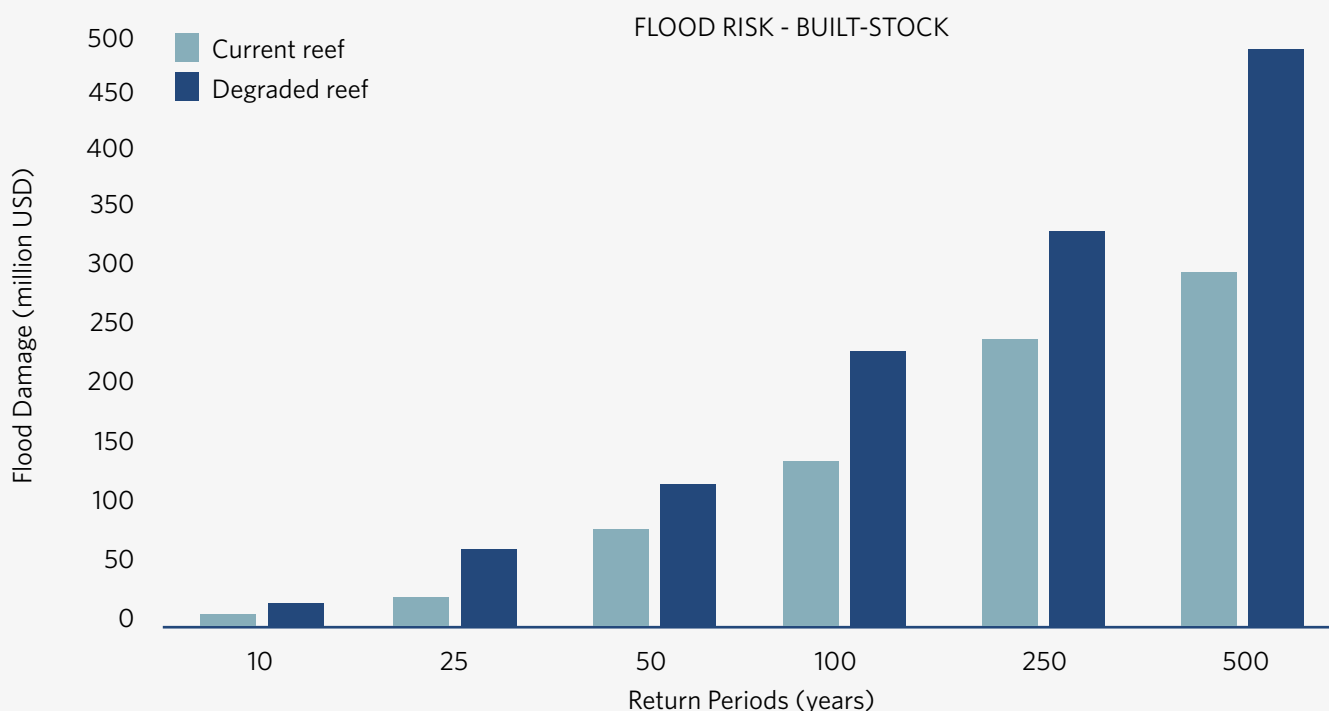


Table 3. Avoided damages to built-stock adjacent to and protected by coral reefs. Values are expressed in million USD.

Built capital (million USD) protected in sections with reefs	Annual Expected Damage	Storm Return Period					
		10 years	25 years	50 years	100 years	250 years	500 years
Damage with current reef (baseline risk)	9.2	13.7	29.3	62.1	136.2	233.4	298.9
Damage with degraded reef	25.5	26.9	62.1	118.8	237.0	364.1	470.6
Benefits or avoided damages	16.3	13.2	32.8	56.8	100.7	130.7	171.7
Percentage of the benefit compared to baseline risk	178.2%	96.9%	111.7%	91.4%	74.0%	56.0%	57.5%
Built capital behind reefs: USD 858 million							
Percentage of the benefit compared to the built-stock.	1.9%	1.5%	3.8%	6.5%	11.6%	15.1%	19.8%

Figure 21. Value of damages to built-stock. The bars represent the losses caused by flooding to built-stock with current reefs and with degraded reef. The difference between the bars represents the losses avoided due to the reef. Values are expressed in million USD. The total value of built-stock in areas adjacent to reef is USD 858 million.



5.3 Coastal protection benefits to hotels



Value of hotels in the study area:

USD 1.5 billion.

Expected annual losses to hotels would increase from

USD 12 million

to USD 32.8 million,

a 173% increase

if reefs degrade.

The value of the avoided losses increases significantly with

1-in-500 storms

the losses would increase by USD 431.5 million, a 60% increase.



Value of hotels adjacent to/protected by reefs:

USD 957 million.

Losses during a

1-in-25-year

storm would increase from USD 31 million to USD 75 million, a 142% increase, with similar increases

(125% and 135%)

for 1-in-10 and 50-year storms, respectively.

Avoided losses from a

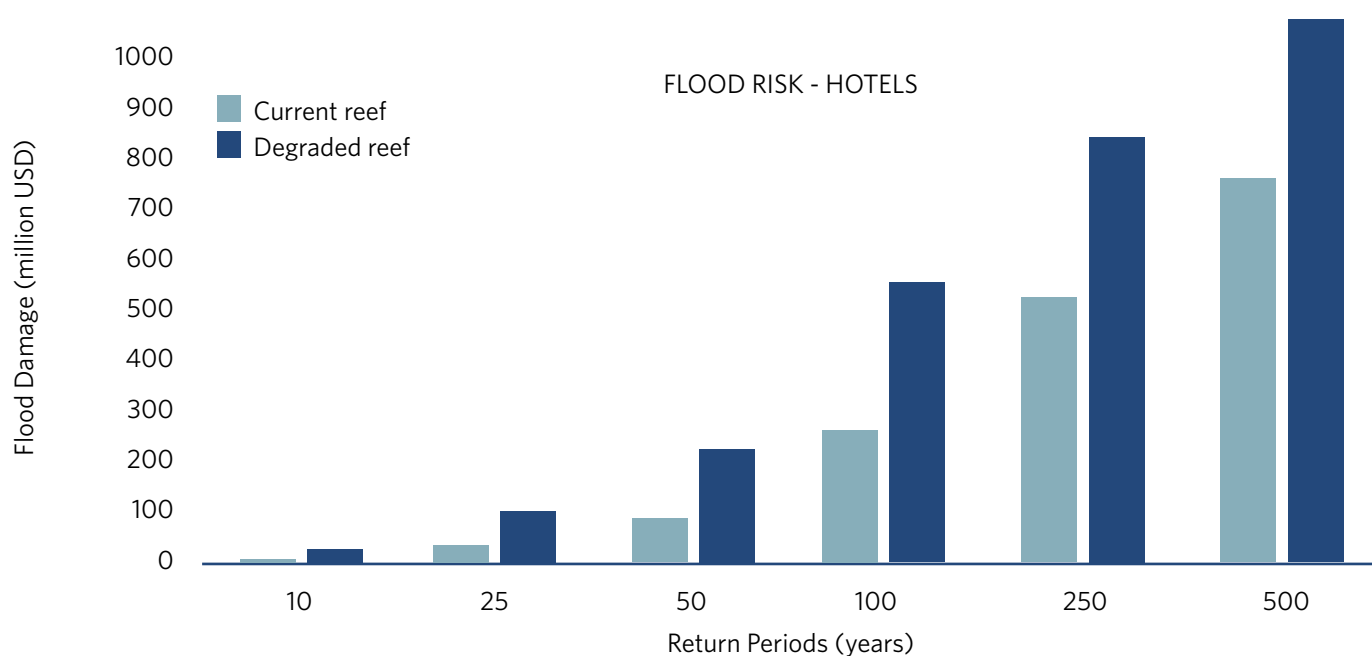
1-in-500-year

storm represent 50% of the value of all hotels, a very significant benefit.

Table 4. Avoided losses to hotels protected by reefs. Annual Expected Damage is calculated as the probability of each storm and the associated losses. Values are expressed in million USD.

Hotels (million USD) protected in sections with reefs	Annual Expected Damage	Storm Return Period					
		10 years	25 years	50 years	100 years	250 years	500 years
Damage with current reef (baseline risk)	12.0	16.8	41.9	99.6	287.8	506.0	719.2
Damage with degraded reef	32.8	37.5	100.3	230.1	550.4	838.1	1150.7
Benefits or avoided damages	20.8	20.8	58.4	130.5	262.6	332.1	431.5
Percentage of the benefit compared to baseline risk	173.3%	123.8%	139.2%	131.0%	91.2%	65.6%	60.0%
Value of hotels behind reefs: USD 957 million							
Percentage of the benefit compared to the value of hotels.	2.4%	2.4%	6.7%	15.0%	30.2%	38.2%	49.7%

Figure 22. Avoided losses to hotels protected by coral reefs. The bars represent the losses caused by flooding to hotels with current reefs and with degraded reefs. The difference between the bars represents the avoided losses provided by the reefs. Values are expressed in million USD. The value of all hotels is USD 957 million.



5.4 Spatial distribution of benefits

Annualized expected benefits for people (Figure 23), for built-stock (Figure 24) and for hotels in each transects spaced 200-m along the coastline can be observed spatially. Benefits are provided where there are reefs; benefits are concentrated where people live and infrastructure is more developed.

Figure 23. Spatial distribution of annual expected benefits (AEB) in built-stock from flood protection provided by the Mesoamerican Reef in Quintana Roo in million USD.

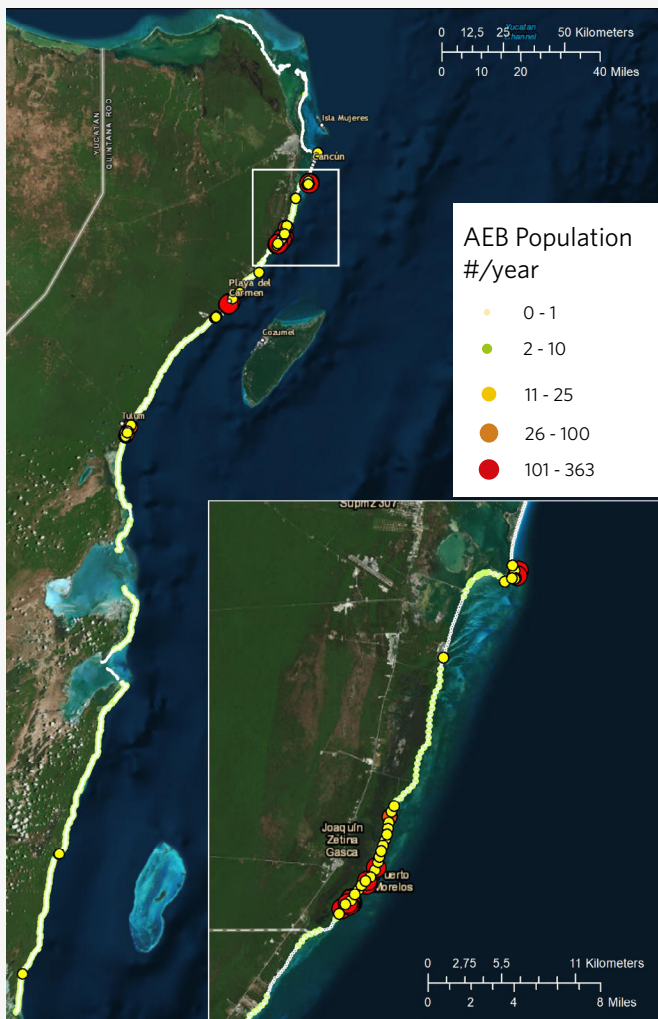
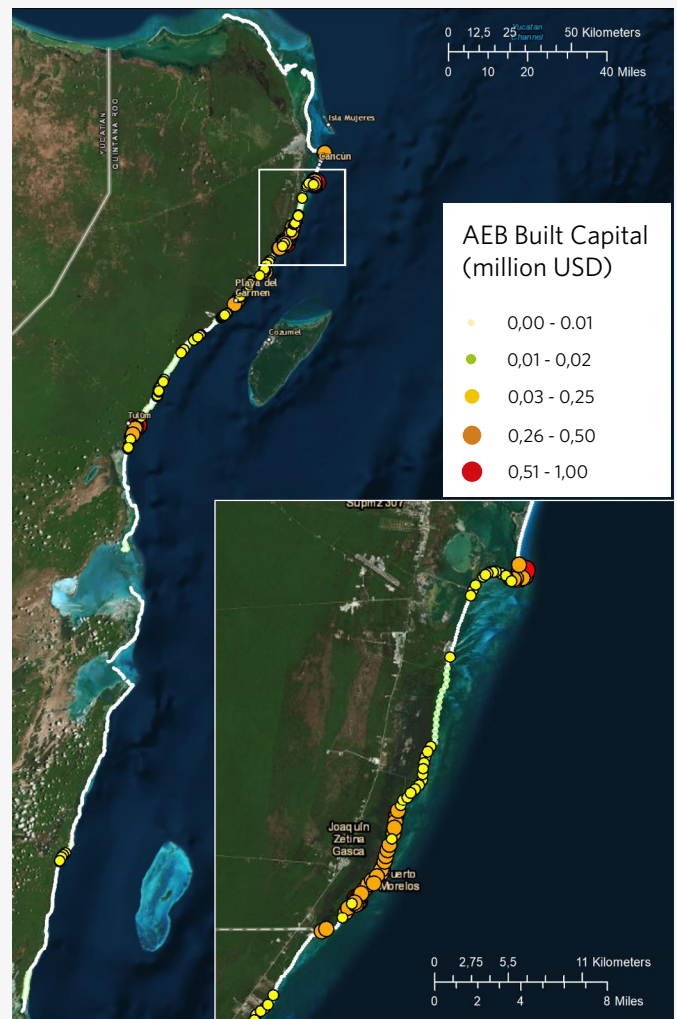


Figure 24. Spatial distribution of expected benefits in built-stock from flood protection provided by the Mesoamerican Reef in Quintana Roo for a 1-in-100-year storm in million USD.



5.5 Risk reduction benefits of coastal dunes

Dunes line the entire coast in the study area. The risk benefits they provide were calculated by including the dune height in the flood model when running Xbeach.

To estimate the difference in losses with dunes and without dunes, flooding with reefs and with dunes were considered as the baseline scenario. Flooding occurs when the total water level exceeds the dune height.

Because risk reduction benefits in sections with reefs are different from sections without reefs, results are presented in those categories.

Flooding occurs when the total water level exceeds the dune height.

However, it is important to note that results for the dunes are *indicative*, as dune heights were estimated from satellite images since more robust data was not available.

Highlights:



The expected annual risk reduction benefits from dunes are estimated at

USD 16.7 million.

Risk reduction is more significant in sections without reefs

(USD 12 million)

than in sections with reefs (USD 4.7 million).



Dunes provide critical protection from more frequent storms. Dune reduces risk by

63%, 44.7% and 42.3%

for 1-in-10, 1-in-25 and 1-in-50-year storms, respectively.

Table 5. Avoided damages to built-stock protected by dunes. Values in million USD.

Damages to built-stock (million USD)	Annual Expected Damage	Storm Return Period					
		10 years	25 years	50 years	100 years	250 years	500 years
Study area							
Damages with reefs and dunes	55.5	43.4	110.3	220.6	621.6	1198.0	1541.1
Damages with reefs, but without dunes	72.2	70.7	159.6	314.0	636.4	1207.0	1550.3
Avoided damages by dunes	16.7	27.3	49.3	93.4	14.8	9.0	9.2
Percentage of increase in damages	30.0%	63.0%	44.7%	42.3%	2.4%	0.8%	0.6%
Only transects with reefs							
Damages with reefs and dunes	4.6	3.8	13.9	43.3	125.8	230.6	295.9
Damages with reefs, but without dunes	9.3	13.9	30.1	63.3	138.9	240.5	303.8
Avoided damages by dunes	4.7	10.1	16.2	20.0	13.1	9.9	7.9
Percentage of benefit over present risk	101.3%	264.1%	116.8%	46.2%	10.4%	4.3%	2.7%
Only transects without reefs							
Damages with dunes	50.9	39.6	96.4	177.3	495.8	967.4	1245.2
Damages without dunes	62.9	56.8	129.5	250.7	497.5	966.5	1246.5
Avoided damages by dunes	12	17.2	33.1	73.4	1.7	0	1.3
Percentage of benefit over present risk	24%	43%	34%	41%	0%	0%	0%

6

References

- Ainsworth, T.D., Heron, S.F., Ortiz, J.C., Mumby, P.J., Grech, A., Ogawa, D., Eakin, C.M. & Leggat, W. (2016). Climate change disables coral bleaching protection on the Great Barrier Reef. *Science* (80-.), 352, 338 LP-342.
- Alvarez-Filip, L., Dulvy, N.K., Gill, J.A., Côté, I.M. & Watkinson, A.R. (2009). Flattening of Caribbean coral reefs: region-wide declines in architectural complexity. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.*
- Baldock, T.E., Golshani, A., Callaghan, D.P., Saunders, M.I. & Mumby, P.J. (2014). Impact of sea-level rise and coral mortality on the wave dynamics and wave forces on barrier reefs. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.*, 83, 155-164.
- Barbier, E.B., Hacker, S.D., Kennedy, C.J., Koch, E.W., Stier, A.C.A.C. & Silliman, B.R. (2011). The value of estuarine and coastal ecosystem services. *Ecol. Monogr.*, 81, 169-193.
- Beck, M.W. & Lange, G.M. (2016). Managing Coasts with Natural Solutions: Guidelines for Measuring and Valuing the Coastal Protection Services of Mangroves and Coral Reefs. Washington, D.C.
- Beck, M.W., Losada, I.J., Menéndez, P., Reguero, B.G., Díaz-Simal, P. & Fernández, F. (2018). The global flood protection savings provided by coral reefs. *Nat. Commun.*, 9.
- Bjorn, K., Magill, K.E., Porter, W., J. & Woodley, J.D. (1986). Hindcasting of hurricane characteristics and observed storm damage on a fringing reef, Jamaica, West Indies. *J. Mar. Res.*, 44, 119-148.
- Blanchon, P., R. Iglesias-Prieto, E. Jordán-Dahlgren, and S. Richards. 2010. Arrecifes de coral y cambio climático: vulnerabilidad de la zona costera del estado de Quintana Roo. Vulnerabilidad de las zonas costeras mexicanas ante el cambio climático 229-248.
- Bresch, D.N. (2014). Climada the open source NatCat model; model code, tropical cyclone and storm surge module, and documentary material.
- Bresch, D.N. & Mueller, L. (2014). Climada Manual, 1-73.
- Bretschneider, C.L. (1990). Tropical cyclones. In: *Handb. Coast. Ocean Eng.* (eds. Herbich, J.B. & Bretschneider, C.L.). Gulf Pub. Co., Houston, pp. 249-303.
- Burke, L., Reyntar, K., Spalding, M.D. & Perry, A. (2011). *Reefs at risk Revisited*. Washington, D.C.
- Camus, P., Mendez, F.J. & Medina, R. (2011a). A hybrid efficient method to downscale wave climate to coastal areas. *Coast. Eng.*, 58, 851-862.
- Camus, P., Mendez, F.J., Medina, R. & Cofiño, A.S. (2011b). Analysis of clustering and selection algorithms for the study of multivariate wave climate. *Coast. Eng.*, 58, 453-462.
- CENAPRED (2007) Serie impacto socioeconómico de los desastres en México. Área de Estudios Económicos y Sociales Subdirección de Riesgos Hidrometeorológicos. Centro Nacional de Prevención de Desastres (CENAPRED)

- Cinner, J.E., Huchery, C., MacNeil, M.A., Graham, N.A.J., McClanahan, T.R., Maina, J., Maire, E., Kittinger, J.N., Hicks, C.C., Mora, C., Allison, E.H., D'Agata, S., Hoey, A., Feary, D.A., Crowder, L., Williams, I.D., Kulbicki, M., Vigliola, L., Wantiez, L., Edgar, G., Stuart-Smith, R.D., Sandin, S.A., Green, A.L., Hardt, M.J., Beger, M., Friedlander, A., Campbell, S.J., Holmes, K.E., Wilson, S.K., Brokovich, E., Brooks, A.J., Cruz-Motta, J.J., Booth, D.J., Chabanet, P., Gough, C., Tupper, M., Ferse, S.C.A., Sumaila, U.R. & Mouillot, D. (2016). Bright spots among the world's coral reefs. *Nature*, 535, 416–419.
- Dean, R.G. & Dalrymple, R. a. (1991). *Water Wave Mechanics for Engineers and Scientists*. Advanced Series on Ocean Engineering. World Scientific.
- Van Dongeren, A., Lowe, R., Pomeroy, A., Trang, D.M., Roelvink, D., Symonds, G. & Ranasinghe, R. (2013). Numerical modeling of low-frequency wave dynamics over a fringing coral reef. *Coast. Eng.*, 73, 178–190.
- Van Dorn, W.. (1953). Wind Stress on an artificial pond. *J. Mar. Res.*, 12.
- Elias, S.A. (2017). Loss of Coral Reefs. In: *Ref. Modul. Earth Syst. Environ. Sci.* Elsevier.
- Escudero-Castillo, M., Felix-Delgado, A., Silva, R., Mariño-Tapia, I. & Mendoza, E. (2018). Beach erosion and loss of protection environmental services in Cancun, Mexico. *Ocean Coast. Manag.*, 156, 183–197.
- Farr, T.G., Rosen, P.A., Caro, E., Crippen, R., Duren, R., Hensley, S., Kobrick, M., Paller, M., Rodriguez, E., Roth, L., Seal, D., Shaffer, S., Shimada, J., Umland, J., Werner, M., Oskin, M., Burbank, D. & Alsdorf, D. (2007). The Shuttle Radar Topography Mission. *Rev. Geophys.*, 45, 33pp.
- Ferrario, F., Beck, M.W., Storlazzi, C.D., Micheli, F., Shepard, C.C. & Airoidi, L. (2014). The effectiveness of coral reefs for coastal hazard risk reduction and adaptation. *Nat. Commun.*, 5, 3794.
- Gallop, S.L., Young, I.R., Ranasinghe, R., Durrant, T.H. & Haigh, I.D. (2014). The large-scale influence of the Great Barrier Reef matrix on wave attenuation. *Coral Reefs*, 33, 1167–1178.
- Gardner, T.A., Côté, I.M., Gill, J.A., Grant, A. & Watkinson, A.R. (2003). Long-Term Region-Wide Declines in Caribbean Corals. *Science* (80-.), 301, 958–960.
- Hallegatte, S., Green, C., Nicholls, R.J. & Corfee-Morlot, J. (2013). Future flood losses in major coastal cities. *Nat. Clim. Chang.*, 3, 802–806.
- Harris, D.L., Rovere, A., Casella, E., Power, H., Canavesio, R., Collin, A., Pomeroy, A., Webster, J.M. & Parravicini, V. (2018). Coral reef structural complexity provides important coastal protection from waves under rising sea levels. *Sci. Adv.*, 4.
- Hoegh-Guldberg, O. (2011). Coral reef ecosystems and anthropogenic climate change. *Reg. Environ. Chang.*, 11, 215–227.
- Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Mumby, P.J., Hooten, a J., Steeneck, R.S., Greenfield, P., Gomez, E., Harvell, C.D., Sale, P.F., Edwards, a J., Caldeira, K., Knowlton, N., Eakin, C.M., Iglesias-Prieto, R., Muthiga, N., Bradbury, R.H., Dubi, a & Hatziaelos, M.E. (2007). Coral reefs under rapid climate change and ocean acidification. *Science*, 318, 1737–1742.
- Holland, G.J. (1980). An Analytic Model of the Wind and Pressure Profiles in Hurricanes. *Mon. Weather Rev.*, 108, 1212–1218.
- INEGI. (2015). Encuesta Intercensal 2015.
- IPCC. (2012). Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation. A Spec. Rep. Work. Groups I II Intergov. Panel Clim. Chang. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, and New York, NY, USA.

- Innovize, 2017. InfoWorks ICM RiskMaster: Calculation of Event Probability and Annual Damage. Blog.
- Jackson, J.B.C., Donovan, M.K., Cramer, K.L. & Lam, W. (2014). Status and Trends of Caribbean Coral Reefs : 1970-2012. *Glob. Coral Reef Monit. Network, IUCN, Gland, Switz.*, 306.
- Jacobsen, B. (2013). Hurricane Surge Hazard Analysis : The State of the Practice and Recent Applications for Southeast Louisiana, 534.
- Losada, I.J., Reguero, B.G., Méndez, F.J., Castanedo, S., Abascal, A.J. & Mínguez, R. (2013). Long-term changes in sea-level components in Latin America and the Caribbean. *Glob. Planet. Change*, 104, 34–50.
- Lowe, R.J., Falter, J.L., Bandet, M.D., Pawlak, G., Atkinson, M.J., Monismith, S.G. & Koseff, J.R. (2005). Spectral wave dissipation over a barrier reef. *J. Geophys. Res. Ocean.*, 110, n/a-n/a.
- Meza-Padilla, R., Appendini, C. & Pedrozo-Acuña, A. (2015). Hurricane-induced waves and storm surge modeling for the Mexican coast. *Ocean Dyn.*, 65, 1199–1211.
- Monismith, S.G., Rogers, J.S., Kowek, D. & Dunbar, R.B. (2015). Frictional wave dissipation on a remarkably rough reef. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 4063–4071.
- Mumby, P.J., Hastings, A. & Edwards, H.J. (2007). Thresholds and the resilience of Caribbean coral reefs. *Nature*, 450, 98–101.
- Narayan, S., Beck, M.W., Reguero, B.G., Losada, I.J., van Wesenbeeck, B., Pontee, N., Sanchirico, J.N., Ingram, J.C., Lange, G.-M. & Burks-Copes, K.A. (2016). The Effectiveness, Costs and Coastal Protection Benefits of Natural and Nature-Based Defences. *PLoS One*, 11, e0154735.
- NOAA, N.G.D.C. (2006). ETOPO2v2 Global Gridded 2-minute Database.
- Pandolfi, J.M., Connolly, S.R., Marshall, D.J. & Cohen, A.L. (2011). Projecting coral reef futures under global warming and ocean acidification. *Science*, 333, 418–22.
- Perry, C.T., Alvarez-Filip, L., Graham, N.A.J., Mumby, P.J., Wilson, S.K., Kench, P.S., Manzello, D.P., Morgan, K.M., Slangen, A.B.A., Thomson, D.P., Januchowski-Hartley, F., Smithers, S.G., Steneck, R.S., Carlton, R., Edinger, E.N., Enochs, I.C., Estrada-Saldívar, N., Haywood, M.D.E., Kolodziej, G., Murphy, G.N., Pérez-Cervantes, E., Suchley, A., Valentino, L., Boenish, R., Wilson, M. & Macdonald, C. (2018). Loss of coral reef growth capacity to track future increases in sea level. *Nature*, 558, 396–400.
- Perry, C.T., Murphy, G.N., Kench, P.S., Smithers, S.G., Edinger, E.N., Steneck, R.S. & Mumby, P.J. (2013). Caribbean-wide decline in carbonate production threatens coral reef growth. *Nat. Commun.*, 4, 1402.
- Posada, G., Silva, R. & de Brye, S. (2008). Three Dimensional Hydrodynamic Model With Multiquadtree Meshes. *Am. J. Environ. Sci.*, 4, 245–258.
- Quataert, E., Storlazzi, C., van Rooijen, A., Cheriton, O. & van Dongeren, A. (2015). The influence of coral reefs and climate change on wave-driven flooding of tropical coastlines. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 42, 2015GL064861.
- Rabus, B., Eineder, M., Roth, A. & Bamler, R. (2003). The shuttle radar topography mission—a new class of digital elevation models acquired by spaceborne radar. *ISPRS J. Photogramm. Remote Sens.*, 57, 241–262.
- Reguero, B.G., Beck, M.W., Agostini, V.N., Kramer, P. & Hancock, B. (2018a). Coral reefs for coastal protection: A new methodological approach and engineering case study in Grenada. *J. Environ. Manage.*, 210, 146–161.
- Reguero, B.G., Beck, M.W., Bresch, D.N., Calil, J. & Meliane, I. (2018b). Comparing the cost effectiveness of nature-based and coastal adaptation: A case study from the Gulf Coast of the United States. *PLoS One*, 13, e0192132.

- Reguero, B.G., Losada, I.J., Díaz-Simal, P., Méndez, F.J. & Beck, M.W. (2015). Effects of Climate Change on Exposure to Coastal Flooding in Latin America and the Caribbean. *PLoS One*, 10, e0133409.
- Resio, D.T. & Irish, J.L. (2015). Tropical Cyclone Storm Surge Risk. *Curr. Clim. Chang. Reports*, 1, 74-84.
- Resio, D.T. & Westerink, J.J. (2008). Modeling the physics of storm surges. *Phys. Today*, 61, 33-38.
- Scawthorn, C., Flores, P., Blais, N., Seligson, H., Tate, E., Chang, S., Mifflin, E., Thomas, W., Murphy, J., Jones, C. & Lawrence, M. (2006). HAZUS-MH Flood Loss Estimation Methodology. II. Damage and Loss Assessment. *Nat. Hazards Rev.*, 7, 72-81.
- Sheppard, C., Dixon, D.J., Gourlay, M., Sheppard, A. & Payet, R. (2005a). Coral mortality increases wave energy reaching shores protected by reef flats: Examples from the Seychelles. *Estuar. Coast. Shelf Sci.*, 64, 223-234.
- Sheppard, C., Dixon, D.J., Gourlay, M., Sheppard, A. & Payet, R. (2005b). Coral mortality increases wave energy reaching shores protected by reef flats: Examples from the Seychelles. *Estuar. Coast. Shelf Sci.*, 64, 223-234.
- Silva, R., Govaere, G., Salles, P., Bautista, G. & Diaz, G. (2002). Oceanographic vulnerability to hurricanes on the Mexican coast. In: *Proc. 28th Int. Conf. Coast. Eng.* World Scientific, Singapore.
- Sorichetta, A., Hornby, G.M., Stevens, F.R., Gaughan, A.E., Linard, C. & Tatem, A.J. (2015). High-resolution gridded population datasets for Latin America and the Caribbean in 2010, 2015, and 2020. *Sci. Data*, 2, 150045.
- Spalding, M., Burke, L., Wood, S.A., Ashpole, J., Hutchison, J. & zu Ermgassen, P. (2017). Mapping the global value and distribution of coral reef tourism. *Mar. Policy*, 82, 104-113.
- Storlazzi, C.D., Gingerich, S.B., van Dongeren, A., Cheriton, O.M., Swarzenski, P.W., Quataert, E., Voss, C.I., Field, D.W., Annamalai, H., Piniak, G.A. & McCall, R. (2018). Most atolls will be uninhabitable by the mid-21st century because of sea-level rise exacerbating wave-driven flooding. *Sci. Adv.*, 4.
- SwissRe. (2011). Economics of Climate Adaptation (ECA) – Shaping climate-resilient development A framework for decision-making, 4.
- UNISDR. (2015). 2015 Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction.
- USACE. (1984). *Shore Protection Manual*. US Army Corps of Engineers.
- Valdez, G.D. (2010). Análisis del peligro por marea de tormenta en el Golfo de México.
- Whelchel, A.W., Reguero, B.G., van Wesenbeeck, B. & Renaud, F.G. (2018). Advancing disaster risk reduction through the integration of science, design, and policy into eco-engineering and several global resource management processes. *Int. J. Disaster Risk Reduct.*
- Wong, P.P., Losada, I.J., Gattuso, J.-P., Hinkel, J., Khattabi, A., McInnes, K.L., Saito, Y., Sallenger, A. & Ipcc, I.P. on C.C. (2014). Coastal systems and low-lying areas. *Clim. Chang. 2014 Impacts, Adapt. Vulnerability. Part A Glob. Sect. Asp. Contrib. Work. Gr. II to Fifth Assess. Rep. Intergov. Panel Clim. Chang.*, 361-409.
- Yates, K.K., Zawada, D.G., Smiley, N.A. & Tiling-Range, G. (2017). Divergence of seafloor elevation and sea level rise in coral reef ecosystems. *Biogeosciences*, 14, 1739-1772.
- Young, I. (1988). Parametric Hurricane Wave Prediction Model. *J. Waterw. Port, Coastal, Ocean Eng.*, 114, 637-652.

