

Natural bounds on herbivorous coral reef fishes

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1 Natural bounds on herbivorous coral reef fishes

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14

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16 Abstract

17

18 Humans are an increasingly dominant driver of Earth's biological communities, 19 but differentiating human impacts from natural drivers of ecosystem state is 20 crucial. Herbivorous fish play a key role in maintaining coral dominance on coral 21 reefs, and are widely affected by human activities, principally fishing. We assess 22 the relative importance of human and biophysical (habitat and oceanographic) 23 drivers on the biomass of five herbivorous functional groups among 33 islands in 24 the central and western Pacific Ocean. Human impacts were clear for some, but 25 not all, herbivore groups. Biomass of browsers, large excavators and of all herbivores combined declined rapidly with increasing human population 26 27 density, whereas grazers, scrapers and detritivores displayed no relationship. 28 Sea-surface temperature had significant but opposing effects on the biomass of 29 detritivores (positive) and browsers (negative). Similarly, the biomass of 30 scrapers, grazers and detritivores correlated with habitat structural complexity, however relationships were group-specific. Finally, the biomass of browsers and 31 32 large excavators was related to island geo-morphology, both peaking on lowlying islands and atolls. The substantial variability in herbivore populations 33 34 explained by natural biophysical drivers highlights the need for locallyappropriate management targets on coral reefs. 35 36 37 **Keywords:** fish biomass; functional group; herbivore; human drivers; natural

- 38 drivers, Pacific Ocean
- 39
- 40

41 Introduction

42

43 Humans are increasingly a dominant global force influencing the structure and 44 function of ecosystems through the removal of key species and functional groups, habitat modification, and the effects of pollution and climate change [1– 45 46 3]. Coral reef ecosystems are especially vulnerable to such human-forcing [4], 47 and while anthropogenic impacts are globally pervasive, they occur against a 48 backdrop of high natural variability in reef systems caused by differences in the 49 environment and bio-geographic context. Oceanic productivity, water 50 temperature, habitat area, reef geomorphology and larval connectivity can have 51 substantial impacts on coral reef fish assemblages [5–10]. For example, the 52 natural fish carrying capacity of a coral reef has been shown to double along a 53 gradient of increasing oceanic productivity [11]. Understanding the relative 54 influence of human versus natural drivers is key to assessing the current status 55 of these ecosystems. 56 57 Here we focus on one component of coral reef systems, namely herbivorous 58 fishes in the Pacific Ocean. Despite some uncertainty, particularly in the Indo-59 Pacific, about the relative importance of herbivory in mediating coral-algal 60 dynamics [12–16], herbivorous fishes are widely recognised to play an 61 important role in maintaining the competitive dominance of reef calcifiers (e.g. hard corals and crustose coralline algae), over other benthic components (e.g. 62 63 fleshy macroalgae) [17–20]. For example, following climate-induced coral 64 bleaching, fished reefs with reduced herbivore populations have a greater 65 propensity to become dominated by macroalgae [21]. For that reason, some 66 coral reef management strategies now focus specifically on protecting or restoring herbivorous fish populations [22,23]. There is a need, therefore, to 67 68 better understand the role of the natural environment in determining 69 distribution patterns of herbivorous fishes [8,24–26] independent of local 70 human impacts on coral reefs. Indeed, the upper bounds of herbivore biomass 71 will be determined by a reef's local biophysical setting, and once identified, will 72 allow for realistic fisheries management strategies to address the widespread effect of fishing on this trophic group [7,8,11,27–30]. 73 74 75 Herbivorous reef fish assemblages vary with local environmental factors. For 76 instance, parrotfish tend to be more abundant and species-rich on barrier reefs 77 compared to atoll, fringing or low coral cover reefs [31]. Intra-island variation in 78 herbivore species composition and behavior is also evident among different reef 79 habitats. Typically, the abundance and feeding activity of grazing surgeonfishes 80 and large parrotfishes is lower on near-shore coastal reefs compared to wave

81 exposed offshore reefs [32,33]. Conversely, browsing herbivores are often more 82 abundant on wave protected back reef habitats, as compared to exposed fore-

reef areas [32,34,35]. Furthermore, herbivore biomass and rates of herbivory

tend to be greatest on the reef crest, and both decrease across the reef flat and

down the reef slope [35–38]. These patterns in herbivorous fishes are variously

86 attributed to the availability and quality of food and shelter, in addition to the

87 wave energy, and sedimentation regimes experienced [34,38–40]. The

88 implication of this localised among- and within-habitat variation is that the need

89 for, and potential effectiveness of, fishery management interventions are highly

- 90 dependent on natural bounds set by the location's biophysical setting [41].
- 91
- 92 Here we make use of a consistent monitoring dataset from 33 islands and atolls
- 93 across the central and western Pacific to better understand the relative role of
- 94 anthropogenic impacts and biophysical drivers (habitat and physical
- 95 environmental conditions) in structuring herbivore populations on coral reefs.
- 96 These islands span large gradients of human population density (0-27 people per
- 97 hectare of reef) [11,42] and biophysical condition [43], allowing us to separate
- 98 the relative effect of those in driving variation in herbivore biomass.
- 99

100 Methods

101

102 Fish assemblage and reef habitat surveys

103

- 104 We used coral reef monitoring data collected between 2010 and 2015 across 33
- 105 Pacific islands and atolls (electronic supplementary material table S1). The
- 106 surveys were performed for the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
- 107 Administration (NOAA) Pacific Reef Assessment and Monitoring Program
- 108 (Pacific RAMP), a long-term ecosystem monitoring effort focused on United
- 109 States and United States-affiliated coral reefs [44]. Data from two underwater
- 110 visual census techniques were used, the stationary point count (SPC) and the
- 111 towed-diver (tow) survey method [45,46]. The SPC was used to estimate the
- 112 biomass of herbivorous fishes, whilst the latter was used to estimate biomass of
- 113 large (>50 cm in total length) piscivores. Piscivore biomass was used to
- 114 investigate what effect, if any piscivores may have in exerting top-down control
- 115 on herbivore populations [47]. The tow estimates of piscivore biomass was used
- 116 in preference to the SPC due to the concern that small-scale surveys can
- overestimate the biomass of large roving predators, such as sharks and jacks[48].
- 119
- 120 A total of 3309 SPC surveys were conducted by experienced surveyors. Survey site locations were selected per sampling unit (typically an island / atoll, 121 122 occasionally a cluster of small islands, or for large islands, island sub-section) by 123 means of a randomised stratified design [49]. The target sampling domain of 124 Pacific RAMP is hard bottom habitat in depths less than 30 m, and site allocation 125 is stratified by reef-zone (fore-reef; back reef; lagoon) and depth (0-6 m; 6-18 m; 126 18-30 m). Only data from the fore-reef habitat were used to remove any biases 127 associated with inter-habitat differences on herbivorous fish assemblages; the 128 fore-reef is the most comparable reef habitat present across all islands. At each 129 survey site, a pair of divers conducted simultaneous adjacent counts in which 130 they first compiled lists of all fish species present within their survey area (7.5 m 131 radius cylinder) during a 5-minute interval. After the timed interval, divers 132 proceeded to count and size all fishes from the species list within their survey 133 area. Divers then visually estimated benthic cover and reef complexity, the mean 134 vertical substrate height from the reef plane in the survey cylinder. 135 136 A total of 861 tow surveys were analysed. Surveys were haphazardly located on
- 137 reef areas at a depth of 10-20 m, with the broad goal of spreading sites as widely

138 as possible around each island; circumnavigating the island where practical. A 139 pair of divers (one fish, one benthic surveyor) were towed behind a small boat 140 travelling ~ 2 km for each 50-minute survey. During each tow, the fish diver 141 recorded the number and size of all species > 50 cm in total length within a belt-142 transect extending 5 m on either side and 10 m in front of the diver, from the 143 seafloor to the surface. Full details on the tow survey method are available in 144 [48]. 145 146 **Data processing** 147 148 The weight per individual fish was calculated using length-to-weight 149 relationships from FishBase and other sources [50,51]. To date, much of the 150 evidence of human impacts on herbivore populations relative to regional 151 biophysical variation considers these herbivorous fishes as a single trophic guild 152 or broad taxonomic groups [8], although see [24]. Collectively these studies point 153 to differences in the expected richness and biomass of herbivorous fishes, either 154 *in toto* or of specific families, based on habitat, island type, and biogeographic 155 region [7,8]. There is, however, increasing evidence that different herbivore 156 functional groups perform complimentary roles in reef processes [52], have 157 different dietary and habitat requirements [8,53,54], and are likely to respond 158 differently to local biophysical settings. Therefore, we classified herbivores 159 functionally (sensu [55]) and incorporated new dietary data specific to the study 160 area. Five groups resulted: 'browsers', 'grazers', 'detritivores', 'large 161 excavators/bioeroders' and 'scrapers/small excavators' (electronic 162 supplementary material S2). 163 164 For the SPC surveys, site-level herbivorous fish biomass (g m⁻²), hard coral cover 165 and reef complexity were calculated by averaging the two diver replicates 166 conducted at each site location. Data were inspected for site-level outliers, site 167 level observations of any of the fish metrics that were > 97.5% the inter-quartile 168 range, were capped at that 97.5% value (electronic supplementary material S3). 169 Island-scale averages of the site level metrics were calculated, first by averaging 170 values within each depth stratum per island, and then weighting the mean 171 estimates by the total area of each stratum per island [56,57]. Island-level tow

each tow per island across years. Species richness per functional group was
estimated by generating species accumulation curves for each island using the

estimates of piscivore biomass were calculated as equally weighted means of

- 175 rarefaction method in the R package *vegan* [58].
- 176

172

177 Quantifying human and biophysical predictors

178

We used published estimates of the following human and biophysical covariates,
derived at the island level: human population density, chlorophyll-a (mg m⁻³) as
a proxy for phytoplankton biomass and oceanic productivity, total area of reef
habitat, sea-surface temperature (SST °C), wave energy (kW m⁻¹) and island type
(electronic supplementary material table S3.1). Island types were based on
geomorphology, and classed as either high (e.g. basalt island) or low-lying (e.g.
carbonate island or atoll). Islands were also grouped by region (Hawaii, Central

Polynesia, Gilbert, Ellis and Marshall Islands and Tropical Northwest Pacific[59]).

188

To determine anthropogenic impacts on herbivorous fishes, we used human population density (the number of people resident per island (from the 2010 US census) divided by the area of fore-reef habitat per island from GIS habitat layers maintained by Pacific RAMP (electronic supplementary material S3.1). For the remote-sensing data, we used the lower climatological mean of sea-surface temperature from the Pathfinder v5.0 dataset, and the climatological mean of

195 chlorophyll-a derived from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer

196 (MODIS). The wave energy metric used was the climatological mean from

197 NOAA's Wave Watch III wave model. Details on the methods used to generate

island specific biophysical metrics are described in full in [43].

199

200 Modeling

201

202 We fitted generalised additive mixed-effects models (GAMM) of island-level

203 herbivore biomass (electronic supplementary material S3) in R (ww.r-

204 project.org), using the *gamm4* package [60]. All models included region as a

205 random effect to account for autocorrelation amongst islands within regions

206 [61]. Wake is the only replicate in the Marshall, Gilbert and Ellis Islands region,

therefore we report summary fish metrics for Wake (biomass and richness) but

excluded it from the statistical modeling (total number of island replicates = 33).
For total fish biomass and functional group biomass separately, we fitted GAMMs

for all possible combinations of the predictor variables using the *UGamm*

wrapper function, in combination with the *dredge* function in the *MuMIn* package

212 [62].

213

214 We calculated Akaike's Information Criterion, corrected for small sample size

215 (AICc) and the AICc-based relative importance weights (w_i) to assess the

216 conditional probability of each model. We report the model-average estimates

for each predictor term based on the top-ranked models for each fish metric, top-

218 ranked models being those with > 0.05 Akaike weight. To test for influential data

219 points and to check for model stability, we performed a jack-knife sensitivity test, 220 calculating the percentage of times sequentially deleting single response variable

221 data points produced the same top-ranking model structure (*sensu* [63]).

Finally, to visualise the effect of predictor terms on the herbivorous fish

responses, we used the coefficients from the top-ranked models for each

response variable separately to generate a predicted dataset. We set all other

predictors terms to their median value then generated smoother terms for the

predictor of interest and plotted these against the untransformed, un-scaled fish
metrics [11].

228

229 Results

230

Across the western central Pacific, a large degree of variability exists in the

biomass and composition of herbivorous fish assemblages, including the species

richness within functional groups. Generally, there is greater biomass and

richness of detritivores in Central Polynesia, and a greater biomass of browsers

in the unpopulated northerly latitudes (figure 1, electronic supplementary
materials S4). Functional group biomass and richness was positively related in
large excavators/bioeroders, scrapers/small excavators and detritivores (Figure
S4, Table S4).

239

240 Major drivers of this spatial variation in total herbivorous fish biomass were 241 identified as reef complexity, hard coral cover and human population density 242 (electronic supplementary material table S5). The original smoothers fitted to 243 the functional group and total herbivore biomass values are in electronic 244 supplementary material figure S5. Total herbivore biomass plateaued at 245 intermediate complexity, decreased at highest coral cover, and continually 246 decreased with human population density (electronic supplementary material 247 figure S5). The best-fit model that contained these three biological variables had 248 high explanatory power and stability (~69% variability explained in total 249 herbivore biomass, 94% jack-knife stability; electronic supplementary material 250 table S5). When functional groups were modeled individually, the top candidate 251 models showed similar stability. Specifically, the dominant predictors identified 252 from the variable importance (vi) estimates from the top candidate model of the 253 entire dataset matched those identified from the jack-knifing method (electronic 254 supplementary material table S5). The amount of variance explained by the top-255 ranking models of herbivore biomass for each functional group (figure 2) was as 256 follows: browsers (84%); detritivores (84%); grazers (73%); scrapers/small 257 excavators (36%) and; large excavators/bioeroders (59%) (electronic 258 supplementary material figure S5).

259

260 The relationship between the top predictor terms and herbivore biomass were 261 distinct for different functional groups. Biomass of large excavators/bioeroders 262 (all parrotfishes > 35 cm in total length) and browsers was significantly greater 263 at low islands/atolls as compared to high islands (figure 3, electronic 264 supplementary material table S5). These were also the only functional groups for 265 which human population density was a strong predictor of biomass (figure 3, 266 electronic supplementary material table S5), with both groups declining rapidly 267 from low to mid human population density.

268

269 The dominant drivers of variability in browsers, detritivores and grazers and 270 scrapers/small excavators were biophysical. These data showed that reefs in 271 warmer waters have lower browser biomass and greater detritivore biomass 272 and species richness (figure 3, electronic supplementary material table S5). 273 Increased detritivore, grazer and scraper/small excavator biomass was evident 274 from low to mid habitat complexity. The biomass of grazers continued to 275 increase at high complexity locations, whereas for detritivores and 276 scrapers/small excavators the biomass either plateaued or was reduced at high 277 complexity (figure 3). Locations with a larger amount of fore-reef habitat had 278 greater biomass of detritivores, while areas with intermediate wave-energy and 279 high chlorophyll-a had increased grazer biomass (figure 3, electronic 280 supplementary material table S5). 281

282 Discussion

283

284 Our results are consistent with the growing understanding that regional 285 variability in the biophysical attributes of coral reef ecosystems acts to 286 determine ecological state independent of local human impacts [11,63,64]. 287 Specifically, our findings confirm clear anthropogenic impacts to herbivorous 288 fishes across the Pacific, but importantly also show that; i) effects are functional-289 group specific and; ii) the biophysical attributes of reefs, especially sea-surface 290 temperature (SST) and large-scale geo-morphological habitat complexity also 291 drive herbivorous coral reef fish assemblage states. Prior to this study, 292 quantitative evidence for anthropogenic impacts on herbivorous fishes, while 293 simultaneously accounting for large-scale natural variability in fish assemblages, 294 has been sparse [8,30,31]. To our knowledge, this is the first ocean basin-scale 295 study quantifying the relative effects of human versus natural biophysical 296 drivers of herbivorous fish functional group biomass. 297 298 In the absence of fisheries dependent data on subsistence, recreational and 299 commercial take, human density and distance to market have proven to be useful 300 proxies for the influence of humans on coral reef fishes [11,65,66]. Our results 301 show a steep and rapid decline in the biomass of large excavators and browsers 302 with increasing human population density. This pattern is consistent with other 303 global and regional assessments documenting the negative effect of fishing on 304 herbivores [27,28]. Herbivorous fishes, in particular large excavating 305 parrotfishes, and browsing surgeonfishes, are highly desired fisheries targets in 306 the Pacific [67–70]. Our results demonstrate the sensitivity of populations of 307 these large herbivores to fishing mortality, presumably due to their large 308 maximum body size and for some species, late age at maturity and the 309 disproportion contribution of large old females to population replenishment 310 [67,71–74]. The vulnerability of these two functional groups to human impacts is 311 particularly important as they contribute disproportionately to reef processes 312 [52,75,76]. 313 314 Herbivores vary in richness, abundance and biomass by island geomorphology 315 [8,31]. Our results show \sim 24-45% greater biomass of large-excavating and 316 browsing fishes at low-lying islands (carbonate) and atolls, compared to high 317 islands (basalt). There was no evidence for an island type effect for the 318 remaining functional groups, although consistent with a previous study [8], we 319 found that the biomass of detritivores (all acanthurids) was positively associated 320 with reef area. It may be that this island type difference in biomass is driven by 321 differential species-specific habitat requirements. For example, lagoonal habitat 322 for settlement or nursery areas [77] is only present within atoll systems. The 323 implications of our analyses are that large-scale habitat differences should be 324 considered before comparing herbivorous fish assemblages across different 325 island types. 326 327 Here we found no consistent relationship between the biomass of different 328 herbivore functional groups and the cover of hard corals, but still an overall 329 relationship between coral cover and total herbivore biomass. Our results 330 suggest that in areas of coral cover greater than 22-24% the total herbivore

- assemblage will tend to be reduced in biomass, whilst the biomass of grazers,
- 332 detritivores and scrapers/small excavators increases with habitat complexity,

333 with peak biomass for scrapers and detritivores at intermediate complexity. 334 Previously, a non-linear association between coral species richness and fish 335 community abundance has been shown [78], as has a reduction in abundances of 336 small and medium sized herbivores at low habitat complexity [79]. Taking these 337 effects of complexity and coral cover together it seems plausible that this reflects 338 the opposing changes in the availability of refugia and food with coral cover. In 339 general, high coral cover, and associated structural complexity, reduces the 340 foraging efficiency of predators [79–81]. Furthermore, the availability of shelter 341 reduces the energy that fishes must allocate to swimming in high flow water 342 environments [34], giving them an energetic advantage. As such, more complex 343 environments support higher fish abundances [82]. However, increases in coral 344 cover are accompanied by concomitant decreases in cover of other benthic 345 organisms, such as turf, endolithic, and macroalgae [83]. These algal 346 assemblages, and associated detritus, are the primary food sources for 347 herbivores, and as such food availability may limit population size in areas of 348 high coral cover. This notion is supported by several studies that have 349 documented increases in the abundance and biomass of herbivorous fishes 350 following extensive coral mortality and reduced structural complexity [84–86]. 351 352 The increased biomass of grazers in areas of moderate wave exposure and 353 increased oceanic productivity could also be related to food availability. Both 354 algal and detrital mass tends to decrease with increasing wave energy and the 355 highest edible algal mass occurs at moderately exposed reefs [87]. The positive 356 association between chlorophyll-a and grazer biomass could be due to greater 357 food availability for grazing fishes, specifically nutrients and sinking detrital 358 particles like phytodetritus, feces or dead planktonic material [79]. If this were 359 the case, one might expect to see a similar effect on detritivore biomass, 360 however, we did not. Instead, the dominant biophysical driver of variability in 361 detritivore biomass was sea surface temperature (SST). 362 363 Notably, detritivores and browsers showed opposing responses to SST, with 364 browser biomass being negatively and detritivore biomass positively related to 365 SST. Similar decreases in the biomass of browsing fishes with decreasing 366 latitude, and hence SST, are evident in both the Atlantic [25] and southern Pacific 367 Ocean [88]. Temperature fundamentally constrains the metabolic processes of 368 ectotherms and various hypotheses have been proposed to explain how 369 temperature might impact the performance and fitness of individuals [89]. For 370 instance, the temperature-size rule predicts ectotherms to be smaller in warmer 371 waters, due to reduced mean body size, earlier maturation and increased initial 372 growth rates [90–92]. While the temperature-constraint hypothesis relates to 373 the interacting effects of temperature and food quality on fish physiology 374 [25,93]. Here we found increased browser biomass in cooler waters and 375 increased detritivore biomass in warmer waters. Whether these trends in the 376 standing stock of these functional groups relates to larger individuals and/or 377 intra-specific variability in life history characteristics across the temperature 378 gradients surveyed would require location specific age-based studies on 379 individual species. 380

381 The different effect of temperature on these functional groups could also be a 382 response to the very different dietary strategies of these fishes. Browsing 383 acanthurids, such as *Naso unicornis*, and kyphosids, are the only functional group 384 that hindgut ferment, which allows these fish to gain energy from refractory 385 fleshy macroalgal carbohydrates, including mannitol [94–97]. Macroalgae, the 386 preferred food of browsers is more abundant on reefs in cooler climes in the 387 Pacific [63] and thus browser biomass may be tracking the availability of their 388 target resource. It is difficult to ascertain the primary nutrient sources of 389 detritivores which feed on the epilithic algal matrix (EAM) [98]. The EAM 390 contains a mixture of filamentous algal turfs, cyanobacteria, macroalgal spores, 391 microalgae (diatoms and dinoflagelletes), heterotrophic bacteria, sediment and 392 organic detritus [99]. Stomach content analyses of the detritivore *Ctenochaetus* 393 *striatus* reveal large amounts of loose plant cells, sediment and algal filaments 394 while the composition of short-chain fatty acids in *Ctenochaetus striatus* and 395 *Ctenochaetus strigosus* guts are indicative of a diet of diatoms and bacteria 396 [53,100]. Whether detritivorous fish biomass tracks spatial variability in the 397 abundance and production of their target resource remains to be established. 398

399 **Conclusions**

400

401 Our findings highlight that coral reefs' biophysical setting strongly determine

402 their carrying capacity and community composition of herbivorous reef fishes.

403 Human impacts are superimposed over the back-drop of these naturally

404 occurring drivers. Herbivore-focused management interventions are likely to

405 become more widely implemented due to the perception that greater herbivore

406 biomass promotes reef resilience. Our results show large natural differences in

407 the capacity of individual reefs to support herbivore populations and therefore it 408 is unlikely that all reefs will respond similarly to particular interventions, such as

is unlikely that all reefs will respond similarly to particular interventions, such asprohibition of fishing. Moreover, our results show that herbivore functional

410 groups respond in different ways along gradients of those natural biophysical

411 drivers. Locally-appropriate management targets for herbivore functional group

412 biomass must therefore factor in the natural bounds set by the reef's biophysical

413 setting.

414

415 **Data accessibility**

All raw data collected for the Pacific Reef Assessment and Monitoring Program
are available upon request (email: <u>nmfs.pic.credinfo@noaa.gov</u>). All data used

- 418 within the paper are available at: <u>https://github.com/fish-crep/canned-fish</u>
- 419

420 Author contributions

421 AH, IDW and ASH conceived and designed the analysis; AH and GJW performed422 the analysis; all authors wrote the paper.

423

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- 428

429 **Competing interests**

- 430 We have no competing interests.
- 431

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- 439 greatly improved this paper.
- 440

441 **Figure captions**

442

443 Figure 1. Herbivorous fish biomass by functional group per region. B =

444 browsers (red), D = Detritivores (green), G = Grazers (yellow), S = scrapers and

small excavators (blue), E = Large excavators and bioeroders (dark blue).

446 Trop.NW.Pacific = Tropical Northwest Pacific, C. Polynesia = Central Polynesia,

447 M. = Marshall Islands. AGS = Alamagan, Guguan and Sarigan, FDP = Farallon de

448 Pajaros, 0&0 = Ofu and Olosega, FFS = French Frigate Shoals, P&H = Pearl and

449 Hermes. Islands within region are ordered by Latitude.

450

451 **Figure 2: Model performance of generalised additive mixed effects models**

452 (GAMMs). T = total herbivores (grey), for remaining letter and colour codes see

453 figure 1. Rows represent separate model fits, colored bars indicate that the

454 predictor was included in a particular model and the height of each row adjusted

to the cumulative Akaike weight, expressed as a proportion of all fitted models. I

456 = model intercept term, ISL.TYPE = island type, CHL = chlorophyll-a, COMP = reef

457 complexity, CORAL = hard coral cover, HUM = human population density, PISC. =

458 piscivore biomass, TEMP = sea surface temperature, AREA = area of habitat,

459 WAVES = wave energy.

460

461 **Figure 3: Predicted biomass and 95% confidence limits of functional**

462 groups by island type and along human and biophysical gradients: human

463 population density; sea surface temperature, habitat complexity; wave energy,

area of fore-reef and chlorophyll-a. Functional groups are indicated by color code

and letter (see figure 1).

466

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Herbivorous fish biomass by functional group per region. B = browsers (red), D = Detritivores (green), G = Grazers (yellow), S = scrapers and small excavators (blue), E = Large excavators and bioeroders (dark blue). Trop.NW.Pacific = Tropical Northwest Pacific, C. Polynesia = Central Polynesia, M. = Marshall Islands.
 AGS = Alamagan, Guguan and Sarigan, FDP = Farallon de Pajaros, O&O = Ofu and Olosega, FFS = French Frigate Shoals, P&H = Pearl and Hermes. Islands within region are ordered by Latitude. figure 1

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