

## Coral species composition drives key ecosystem function on coral reefs

Richardson, Laura; Graham, Nicholas A.J.; Hoey, Andrew

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# 1 Title

2 Coral species composition drives key ecosystem function on coral reefs

# 3 Authors

- 4 Laura E. Richardson <sup>1,2</sup> \*<u>l.richardson@bangor.ac.uk</u>
- 5 Nicholas A. J. Graham <sup>1,3</sup>
- 6 Andrew S. Hoey<sup>1</sup>
- 7
- <sup>8</sup> <sup>1</sup>ARC Centre of Excellence for Coral Reef Studies, James Cook University, Townsville,
- 9 QLD 4811, Australia.
- <sup>2</sup> School of Ocean Sciences, Bangor University, Menai Bridge, LL59 5AB, United Kingdom.
- <sup>11</sup> <sup>3</sup>Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ, United
- 12 Kingdom.
- 13
- 14 \*Corresponding author

#### 15 Abstract

Rapid and unprecedented ecological change threatens the functioning and stability of 16 17 ecosystems. On coral reefs, global climate change and local stressors are reducing and 18 reorganising habitat-forming corals and associated species, with largely unknown 19 implications for critical ecosystem functions such as herbivory. Herbivory mediates coralalgal competition, thereby facilitating ecosystem recovery following disturbance such as 20 21 coral bleaching events or large storms. However, relationships between coral species composition, the distribution of herbivorous fishes, and the delivery of their functional impact 22 23 are not well understood. Here, we investigate how herbivorous fish assemblages and delivery of two distinct herbivory processes, grazing and browsing, differ among three taxonomically 24 25 distinct, replicated coral habitats. While grazing on algal turf assemblages was insensitive to 26 different coral configurations, browsing on the macroalga Laurencia cf. obtusa varied 27 considerably among habitats, suggesting that different mechanisms may shape these processes. Variation in browsing among habitats was best predicted by the composition and 28 29 structural complexity of benthic assemblages (in particular the cover and composition of corals, but not macroalgal cover), and was poorly reflected by visual estimates of browser 30 biomass. Surprisingly, the lowest browsing rates were recorded in the most structurally 31 32 complex habitat, with the greatest cover of coral (branching Porites habitat). While the 33 mechanism for the variation in browsing is not clear, it may be related to scale-dependent 34 effects of habitat structure on visual occlusion inhibiting foraging activity by browsing fishes, or the relative availability of alternate dietary resources. Our results suggest that maintained 35 functionality may vary among distinct and emerging coral reef configurations due to 36 37 ecological interactions between reef fishes and their environment determining habitat selection. 38

39

# 40 Keywords

- 41 Species composition; ecosystem function; habitat selection; herbivory processes; community
- 42 *structure; climate change*

#### 44 Introduction

45

46 Global climate change and mounting local stressors are degrading ecosystems via species 47 extirpations and introductions, modifying the composition of assemblages and threatening ecological function [1,2]. Non-random species turnover, ordered by the susceptibility of 48 organism traits [3], is increasing the taxonomic and functional similarity of communities [4-49 50 6]. These changes can disrupt ecosystem processes, such as habitat provisioning [7,8], primary productivity [9], trophic energy flow [10], nutrient cycling [11,12], and pollination 51 52 [13]. Whilst evidence exposes a coherent pattern of ecological change across biomes [14], variation exists from the individual to community level in how ecological structure, 53 54 ecosystem processes, and ongoing disturbance dynamics interact [15,16]. For effective and 55 adaptive local management, better understanding is needed of the extent to which different, and in some cases emerging, species configurations support processes critical to ecological 56 stability [17]. 57

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59 We focus on coral reefs, one of the most biodiverse but threatened ecosystems [18], to 60 elucidate how the composition of habitat-building species (i.e. corals) influences key ecosystem functions. Climatic changes and local human impacts have reduced populations of 61 62 corals, resulting in unprecedented loss of coral cover and marked shifts in coral species 63 composition due to differential susceptibilities of corals to thermal stress, severe storms, predation by crown-of-thorns starfish, and poor water quality [19,20]. Typically stress-64 sensitive, topographically complex branching corals (e.g. Acroporidae) are replaced by more 65 66 robust, prostrate corals (e.g. Mussidae, Poritidae) following disturbance [20,21]. The composition and cover of coral species are key determinants of the structural complexity of 67 68 reef habitats [21,22], and can exert considerable influence over the taxonomic and functional

69 structure of reef fish assemblages [6]. However, the capacity of altered coral species
70 configurations to support key ecosystem processes despite on-going disturbance is largely
71 unknown and of growing concern [20,23].

72

Herbivory, the consumption of algal material, is dominated by fishes on coral reefs with 73 74 relatively intact fish assemblages. Herbivory processes can promote coral dominance by 75 reducing the cover and/or biomass of algae, though the amount of herbivory necessary will depend on the extent of substrate available to algae, background nutrient levels that can 76 77 accelerate algal increase [24], and the effect of anthropogenic ocean warming on corals [25]. 78 If herbivory is sufficient, it can mediate competitive interactions with corals [26], mitigate 79 shifts to macroalgal dominance following extensive coral mortality, and facilitate recovery of 80 coral populations [27]. However, the distribution of herbivorous fishes and their rates of 81 herbivory can be highly spatially variable; among regions [28,29], latitudes [30], across the continental shelf [31], with the amount of nutrients entering the system [32], and among reef 82 83 zones [33,34]. Importantly, rates of herbivory by fishes often vary among sites within reef zones [35,36], with studies relating variation to differences in habitat structural complexity 84 [28], the cover of live coral [29,37], the relative palatability of resident algal communities 85 [34,38], predation pressure, or competition for resources [39]. Where variation in herbivory is 86 87 driven by the differential composition of benthic reef habitats [35], this may carry 88 implications for the variable functioning of distinct coral species configurations. However, 89 relationships between coral species composition and herbivory processes by fishes at the 90 within-reef scale remain unclear.

91

Herbivory processes are diverse, carried out by multiple species that perform complementary,and in some cases functionally overlapping, roles in removing algae from the reef substrate

94 [40,41]. For example, grazing fishes (including algal croppers/detritivores, scrapers, and excavators) feed on surfaces covered by epilithic algal matrices (EAM: a conglomerate of 95 algal turfs, macroalgal propagules, sediment, detritus and microbes; [42]), but have limited 96 97 capacity to remove large fleshy macroalgae [38]. By feeding on EAM covered surfaces, grazers maintain algal communities in a cropped state, reduce the growth of macroalgal 98 99 propagules within the EAM, reduce coral-algal competition and thereby facilitate settlement, 100 growth and survival of corals and coralline algae [41]. In contrast, macroalgal browsers 101 typically feed on larger fleshy macroalgae and have the potential to reverse phase shifts by 102 removing macroalgae biomass, facilitating the recovery of coral populations [27,43]. 103 Understanding the extent to which different configurations of structurally distinct corals 104 maintain populations of herbivorous fishes and the critical functions they provide, is 105 paramount for the management of ecological integrity yet is largely unknown. 106 The primary objective of this study was to investigate how grazing and browsing herbivory 107 108 processes by reef fishes varied among coral habitats that differed in coral species composition 109 and structural complexity across within-reef scales [22]. Using a combination of in situ 110 surveys and transplanted algal assays across three replicated habitats characterised by the predominance of distinct coral taxa (sensu [22]), we specifically ask the following questions: 111 112 1) Do the structure of herbivorous fish assemblages and rates of grazing and browsing vary among reefs characterised by distinct coral habitats? 2) What is the relative influence of coral 113 species composition and structural complexity, and herbivore biomass on these herbivory 114 functions within reefs? 115 116

117 Methods

119 Study sites

120

This study was conducted in April and May 2016 on coral reefs surrounding the continental 121 122 high islands of the Lizard Island Group, 33 km off the mainland coast of Cape Flattery in the northern Great Barrier Reef (14°41'S, 145°27'E; Fig. S1). Three replicate sites of three 123 taxonomically and structurally distinct coral habitats were selected on shallow (<6 m) reefs, 124 125 based on surveys completed in September 2015 [22]. These three habitats were characterised by predominant cover of: i) branching Porites (mostly P. cylindrica); ii) soft coral (mostly 126 127 Lobophyton, Sarcophyton, and Sinularia); and iii) mixed coral assemblages (mostly staghorn, corymbose and plating Acropora, massive and branching Porites, Lobophyton, Sarcophyton) 128 129 (Fig. S2; Table S2). The study coincided with a large-scale coral-bleaching event at Lizard 130 Island [44], with fish and benthic communities affected across the study sites [6]. At each 131 site, we quantified herbivore fish and benthic assemblages (including extent of coral bleaching), and the consumption of algal turfs and a locally abundant macroalga. All sites 132 (each > 250 m x 5 m) were positioned on the leeward side of the islands protected from the 133 prevailing south-east swell, had comparable geomorphology and water clarity [45,46], and 134 were separated by >500 m. 135

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137 Benthic composition and herbivore assemblages

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139 Benthic composition was quantified along six 30 m point-intercept transects at each site,

140 recording the substratum immediately under the tape every 25 cm (120 points per transect).

141 Transects were positioned approximately 2.5 m from, and parallel to, the reef-sand interface.

142 Substratum categories were hard (scleractinian) corals identified to genus (or species where

143 possible) and morphology, soft (alcyonacean) corals identified to genus, 'other sessile

invertebrates' (mainly clams, sponges, and ascidians), macroalgae identified to genus, 'dead
substrata' (dead coral and pavement, covered in EAM), rubble, and sand. For corals directly
under surveyed points, the extent of bleaching was assessed *in situ* using the CoralWatch
colour reference card estimating coral tissue colour saturation on a 6-point scale (1-2
considered 'bleached').

149

150 To account for behavioural plasticity, functional overlap, and uncertainty regarding specific herbivore species particularly across their different life history stages [40,43,47], the 151 152 abundance and total length (TL; nearest cm) of all nominally herbivorous fishes (i.e. Acanthuridae, Kyphosidae, Pomacanthidae, Scarinae, Siganidae, Pomacentridae; Table S1) 153 154 were visually censused along the same six 30-m transects used to quantify benthic assemblages. Omnivorous herbivores known to consume algae in addition to zoobenthos and 155 zooplankton were also censused. Fishes >10 cm TL were recorded within a 5-m wide belt 156 while initially deploying the transect tape to minimise disturbance to fish assemblages, and 157 those <10 cm TL were recorded within a 1-m wide belt on the return swim. Fish abundance 158 estimates were standardised per 150 m<sup>2</sup> and converted to biomass (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>) using published 159 160 species length-weight relationships (Table S1). All surveyed species were categorised into six nominal groups (i.e., macroalgal browsers, croppers/detritivores, scrapers, excavators, 161 162 farmers, and omnivorous herbivores) based on their diet and feeding behaviour (Table S1). 163

*Rates of herbivory* 

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166 To quantify rates of grazing on algal turfs among habitats, we exposed established turf algal 167 communities on terracotta tiles  $(10 \times 10 \times 1 \text{ cm})$  with to resident herbivores at each site for 168 seven days. To establish turf algal communities, 79 tiles were deployed at a single shallow

169 reef site (~2 m depth) at Lizard Island, covered with plastic mesh (5 cm square mesh) to exclude feeding by large herbivorous fishes and left in situ for six months. After this period, 170 the tiles were collected, and eight haphazardly selected tiles were deployed at each of the nice 171 sites. Six tiles were exposed to local herbivores, and two were placed inside individual 172 exclusion cages (300 x 300 x 300 mm; 12-mm<sup>2</sup> steel mesh) to determine if observed changes 173 in algal turf height were due to herbivory (cages: at each site. An additional caged tile was 174 175 included at seven of the nine sites (all sites except one mixed coral site and one soft coral site). The tiles were deployed at each site by securing to individual cement pavers with a 176 177 galvanized steel nut and bolt through the centre of the tile. The pavers were placed on horizontal surfaces that were free of live coral at each site, with >10 m between adjacent 178 179 pavers/tiles. Exclusion cages were cleaned of fouling organisms (mostly algae) every two to 180 three days. The initial height of the turf algal community was quantified at nine uniformly spaced points *in situ* using callipers (nearest mm) across the upper surface of the tile 181 immediately after deployment (mean  $\pm$  SE = 4.89 mm  $\pm$  0.13; no significant variation among 182 183 habitats, lme,  $F_{2,6}=1.14$ , P=0.38), and again after seven days.

184

To quantify rates of macroalgal browsing, transplanted "bioassays" (hereafter 'assays') of the 185 red macroalga Laurencia cf. obtusa were used. Laurencia was selected as it was the most 186 abundant macroalga on reefs surrounding Lizard Island at the time of the study, and 187 188 Laurencia spp are known to be consumed by herbivorous reef fishes on the Great Barrier Reef [48,49]. Thalli of Laurencia were collected by hand from a local shallow reef flat and 189 190 placed in an aquarium (6000 L) with flow-through seawater within 30 mins of collection. 191 Whole thalli of similar size were spun in a salad-spinner for 30 s to remove excess water, and 192 the wet weight recorded (to the nearest 0.1 g). The initial mass (mean  $\pm$  SE) of each assay 193 was  $45.4 \pm 1.0$  g. Six haphazardly selected assays were transplanted to each site between

194 0930-1030 h, with three exposed to resident herbivore assemblages and three placed within adjacent herbivore exclusion cages (300 x 300 x 300 mm) for 24 h. Each caged assay was 195 positioned within 2 m from its paired exposed assay, and adjacent assay pairs were separated 196 197 by a minimum of 10 m. Assays were deployed with a short (<10 cm) length of PVC-coated 198 wire (2 mm diameter) around the thallus base and attached to a small lead weight. Small plastic tags placed adjacent to assays were used to identify individual thalli. After 24 h assays 199 200 were collected, spun and re-weighed. This procedure was replicated on three non-consecutive 201 days at each site (*n*=9 exposed assays per site).

202

To identify herbivorous fish species removing Laurencia biomass, stationary underwater 203 204 video cameras (GoPro) recorded feeding activity on up to three (mean=2.2 assays) 205 haphazardly selected assays at each site on each day. Each camera was attached to a dive weight (2 kg) and positioned approximately 1 m from each assay, with a scale bar 206 temporarily placed adjacent to each assay at the start of filming to allow calibration of fish 207 208 sizes on video footage. Filming commenced immediately after assays were deployed and was 209 continuous for 2.2-4.4 h (variable duration due to differences in battery life among cameras). 210 This procedure was replicated on each day of the experiment (3 per site), resulting in  $20.5 \pm$ 211 1.7 h (mean  $\pm$  SE) of video observations for each site (189 h in total). Body-size (TL) and 212 number of bites taken from the Laurencia by each species on the video footage were 213 recorded. To account for variation in fish body-size on algal mass removed per bite, mass-214 standardised bite impact was calculated as the product of the number of bites and the estimated body mass for each individual (following [50]). Bite impact was then standardised 215 per hour to account for varying video lengths (mass-standardised bites h<sup>-1</sup>). 216 217

218 Data analysis

219

220 Benthic composition and herbivore assemblages

221

Variation in the total cover of hard and soft coral, bleached coral (hard and soft), macroalgae,
and dead substrata and macroalgae combined among habitats was analysed with linear mixed
effects models (lme in *nlme*; fixed factor: habitat, random factor: site), with Tukey's multiple
comparisons *post hoc* to identify significant differences (*multcomp*).

226

227 Variation in taxonomic composition of herbivorous fish assemblages among habitats was visualised with non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (nMDS) based on Bray-Curtis 228 similarities of log-transformed biomass data (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>; log (x+1)-transformed), and differences 229 230 assessed with two-factor nested PERMANOVAs (9999 permutations), using habitat (fixed factor) and site (random within habitat), and Monte Carlo pairwise comparisons. Variation in 231 total biomass (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>) of all herbivores (log-transformed) among habitats was assessed with 232 a linear mixed effects model fitted with Gaussian residual structure (lme in *nlme*; fixed: 233 habitat; random: site). Variation in herbivore species richness (Poisson distribution), total 234 herbivore abundance, and grazer biomass (combined biomass of croppers/detritivores, 235 scrapers, excavators, and omnivorous herbivores; both models using negative binomial 236 distributions) was assessed with generalised mixed models to accommodate non-stable 237 238 variances and alternative exponential residual distributions (glmer in *lme4*), followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons to identify significant differences among habitats (*multcomp*). 239 Variation in macroalgal browser biomass was assessed using the same fixed and random 240 241 effects, but with a zero-inflated negative binomial generalized linear mixed effects model (glmmTMB in glmmTMB, and multiple comparisons for glmmTMB in https://cran.r-242 project.org/web/packages/glmmTMB/vignettes/model\_evaluation.html#multcomp). 243

244

#### 245 Rates of herbivory

246

Variation in the reduction in height of algal turfs, and reduction in biomass of Laurencia 247 assays among habitats was assessed with linear mixed effects models with a Gaussian 248 249 residual structure (with lme in nlme). Models included habitat, treatment (exposed vs caged-250 control), and their interaction (fixed effects), and site (random effects). Day of deployment was included as an additional random effect for the model of the reduction in Laurencia 251 252 biomass. A generalised mixed effects model with a negative binomial distribution was used to assess variation in feeding on *Laurencia* (total mass-standardised bites h<sup>-1</sup>) due to 253 exponential residual distribution, with habitat (fixed), site, and day of deployment (random). 254 255 Multiple linear regression and information-theoretic model selection was used to assess the relative influence of centred site-mean environmental variables on the change in exposed 256 assays (assay loss) where significant differences were found among habitats: the first axis of 257 a principal components analysis of benthic composition (accounting for 61.7% variation in 258 259 benthic composition of transects among habitats); percent cover of dead substrata and macroalgae; and underwater visual census (UVC) estimated biomass of nominal herbivore 260 groups (grazers or browsers). Total coral cover was collinear with the cover of dead substrata 261 and macroalgae so was not included. All variables had a variance inflation factor (VIF) <2, 262 263 and multi-model inference (including null models) estimated by ranked changes in AICc <2. 264 Model assumptions of homogeneity of variance and normality were validated with visual 265

Model assumptions of nomogeneity of variance and normality were validated with visual
 assessment of Pearson residuals, and multicollinearity of explanatory variables in the multiple
 linear regression analysis was assessed by calculating relative VIF. Where variance was
 heterogeneous among habitats, a constant covariance structure was fitted (i.e. change in

269	macroalgal weight; percentage cover of macroalgae, bleached coral, and hard and soft coral).
270	All analyses were performed in R (R Core Team 2019), and Primer v6 with
271	PERMANOVA+.
272	
273	Results
274	
275	Benthic composition and herbivore assemblage structure
276	
277	Total coral cover was significantly higher in branching Porites habitats than mixed coral
278	habitats (contrast 16.6%, confidence interval CI: 27.48   5.67) and intermediate in soft coral
279	habitats (Fig.1a; Table S3). There was no significant variation in the total cover of bleached
280	coral or macroalgae among habitats (Table S3), the latter being low across all sites (mean:
281	0.3-1.4%) and comprised mainly of Padina, Halimeda, and Dictyota. However, the cover of
282	dead substrata and macroalgae (predominately turf algae) was lower in branching Porites-
283	than mixed coral habitats (contrast: 17.2%, CI: 3.09   31.36) and intermediate in soft coral
284	habitats (Table S3).
285	
286	The taxonomic composition of herbivorous fish assemblages differed significantly between
287	branching Porites habitats and soft coral habitats, largely driven by differences in the relative
288	biomass of grazing species, such as the parrotfishes Chlorurus microrhinos, Scarus niger, S.
289	rivulatus, and the surgeonfishes Acanthurus blochii and Ctenochaetus striatus
290	(PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F=2.47, df=2,53, P=0.004, unique permutations=280; pairwise test,
291	P(MC)=0.004; Fig. 2). Herbivore assemblages from the mixed coral habitat did not differ
292	from the other two habitats. Variation in herbivore assemblages (species richness, total
293	biomass, biomass of grazers, and browsers) among habitats was inconsistent with the cover

294 of turf and macroalgae described above. Herbivore species richness and total herbivore biomass (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>; log-transformed) were significantly greater in mixed coral habitats than soft 295 coral habitats, and intermediate in branching Porites habitats (Fig. 1b and c; Tables S3 and 296 S4) as was the biomass of grazers (Table S5). Conversely, the biomass of browsers was 297 significantly greater in branching *Porites* habitats than soft coral habitats (CI: 1.43 | 11.98), 298 and intermediate in mixed coral habitats (Fig. 3; Tables S4 and S5). 299 300 *Rates of herbivory* 301 302 Although the reduction in height of algal turf assays differed among habitats (both caged and 303 304 exposed), with the greatest reduction in the soft coral habitat and lowest reduction in the 305 branching *Porites* habitat, the difference between caged and exposed tiles (i.e. the reduction 306 in height due to herbivores) was consistent among habitats (Fig. 4a; Table S6). The reduction

in algal turf height on tiles exposed to local herbivore assemblages was significantly greater
than on caged tiles across all habitats (CI: 0.21 | 1.38).

309

The reduction in Laurencia biomass was greater in the mixed coral and soft coral habitats 310 than in the branching Porites habitats where the change in weight of exposed assays did not 311 312 differ significantly to caged assays (Fig. 4b; Table S6). Model selection of variables that 313 explained the reduction in mass of *Laurencia* assays yielded two models within  $\Delta AICc < 2$  of the top model (Table S7). The most parsimonious included the cover of dead substrata and 314 macroalgae (relative importance: 1.00) and first axis of the principal component of benthic 315 316 composition among habitats (PC1; relative importance: 0.53), and was 1.1 times more plausible than the second ranked model (Table S7). Across both top models, dead substrata 317

- and macroalgae had a significant (CI: 0.04 | 0.98) and positive effect on assay weight change,
  whilst PC1 did not have a significant effect (CI: -1.76 | 0.29) (Table S7).
- 320

Total feeding on Laurencia assays was significantly lower in the branching Porites habitat 321 322 than mixed coral habitat (CI: 3.32 | 3347.43), and intermediate in the soft coral habitat (Fig. 4; Table S6). Analysis of video footage revealed 35 species of reef fishes taking bites from 323 324 exposed assays across all habitats, with four species accounting for 96% of total mass-325 standardised bites: Naso brevirostris (69%), Siganus doliatus (13%), N. vlamingii (9%), and Pomacanthus sexstriatus (6%). Feeding by each of these species was highly variable among 326 assays and sites, and poorly reflected UVC estimates of fish biomass (Fig. S3). Of these four 327 species, only *P. sexstriatus* was recorded feeding in branching *Porites* habitats. 328

329

### 330 Discussion

331

332 Shifts in the composition of habitat-forming species and consequences for the function of 333 ecosystems pose new challenges for conservation as the composition of assemblages that rely 334 on habitats for food and shelter reorganise [7,51]. Focusing on coral reefs, we show that the taxonomic and functional composition of herbivorous fish assemblages, and rates of 335 336 browsing, but not grazing, differed among taxonomically distinct coral habitats. Browsing on the red macroalga Laurencia was greatest in soft coral and mixed coral habitats, and lowest in 337 338 branching *Porites* habitats. These differences in the consumption of *Laurencia* were best predicted by variation in both the composition and cover of benthic assemblages, with the 339 highest rates of removal in habitats with the lowest coral cover, lowest structural complexity, 340 and highest cover of dead substrata and macroalgae. Interestingly, rates of browsing on 341 342 Laurencia were poorly reflected by visual estimates of the biomass of browsing fishes,

despite browsing fishes being recorded in all three habitats. In contrast to browsing rates,
grazing on algal turfs did not differ among habitats. This contrast highlights that different
environmental mechanisms, such as those determined by the influence of differential habitat
characteristics on foraging behaviour, may shape the functional impact of key species and
functional groups such that shifts in species configurations under mounting disturbances may
have varied consequences for maintained ecosystem function [7,8].

349

Observed variation in rates of browsing among habitats was best predicted by the cover and 350 351 composition of benthic communities, indicating that particular habitat characteristics may influence foraging behaviour and/or habitat selection by browsing reef fishes. The cover of 352 live coral and structural complexity of reef habitats typically have positive effects on the 353 abundance, biomass, and diversity of herbivorous fish communities [33,52], and rates of 354 herbivory [35,36]. In contrast, however, we found that browsing on *Laurencia* was greater in 355 habitats with lower coral cover that had lower structural complexity, and higher cover of dead 356 substrata and macroalgae (e.g. mostly mixed coral habitats, largely characterised by massive 357 and branching Porites, Sarcophyton, Lobophyton). Conversely, whilst branching Porites 358 359 habitats were the most structurally complex [22], had the highest coral cover, and the greatest observed biomass of browsing fishes among habitats, no significant reduction in Laurencia 360 biomass was detected over a 24 h period. The negative relationship between the cover of 361 362 structurally complex corals (and conversely the positive relationship with the cover of dead substrata and macroalgae) and browsing rates may be related to increased levels of visual 363 occlusion during feeding in high-relief habitats and hence greater risk of foraging [53,54]. 364 365 Studies show the physical topography of structurally complex habitats can inhibit access to algal resources at fine scales (i.e. between coral branches [55]), and can alter the foraging 366 behaviour of fishes by reducing their visual fields and thereby enhancing perceived predation 367

368 risk [53]. Such findings reflect patterns of habitat use in other terrestrial and aquatic systems where foraging species favour open over structurally complex habitats due to the enhanced 369 ability to detect approaching predators (e.g. African savannahs: [56,57]; temperate intertidal 370 rocky shores and mudflats: [58]; alpine forests: [59]; European grasslands: [60]; temperate 371 arable areas: [61]). Indeed, evidence shows that visual obstruction can increase vigilant 372 predator-scanning behaviour at the cost of time spent foraging in various taxa [57,60]. 373 374 Moreover, perceived predation risk can also be mediated by body-size with larger prey less susceptible to predation [56]. Of the four main species recorded feeding on Laurencia in our 375 376 study, only *Pomacanthus sexstriatus* was observed feeding within the structurally complex branching Porites habitat, despite Naso brevirostris and Siganus doliatus being recorded in 377 visual surveys of that habitat. P. sexstriatus was the largest-bodied species observed (mean 378 379 biomass  $\pm$  SE: 670 g  $\pm$  77; other species mean biomass 195-539 g), potentially reducing predation risk and enabling less discriminant foraging activity. 380

381

The positive relatitionship between browsing and the cover of dead substrata and macroalgae 382 383 (which was highly collinear with the cover of live coral), also suggests that habitat condition may influence the foraging behaviour of herbivore fishes. Indeed, feeding rates by 384 385 herbivorous reef fishes can be higher in degraded areas, of often lower topographic 386 complexity [37]. By feeding where food resources are more abundant, animals may maximise 387 net energy gain by reducing energetic costs of movement [62,63], and risk of predation associated with moving larger distances between resource patches [64]. In our study, 388 differential browing rates may relate to the differential availability of algal dietary resources 389 390 [35,39] following the bleaching event that caused coral loss and increased the cover of turf 391 algae (Fig. 1a; [6]) at our study sites (between 52.4-71.4% cover of dead substrata). Browsing 392 on Laurencia was greatest in mixed coral habitats that also had the highest cover of dead

substrata and macroalgae as a result of the bleaching (due to loss of mainly *Acropora* and soft coral taxa; [6]), and highest biomass and diversity of herbivorous fish. Increased cover of algae (predominately turf communities) following large-scale bleaching-induced coral mortality and subsequent increases in the abundance and/or biomass of herbivorous fishes (e.g. [65]), has led to suggestions that herbivorous fish populations may be food limited in areas of high coral cover [66]. However, this relationship may not hold at very low levels of macroalgal cover [34], such as those observed in the present study (mean: 0.3-1.4% cover).

401 While visual census estimates show macroalgal browsing herbivores are present in each of the studied habitats, browser biomass was a poor predictor of browsing rates. This is 402 403 consistent with previous studies of herbivorous coral reef fishes [36,50] and processes in 404 other systems (e.g. the decomposition of dung by invertebrates: [67]; pollination by bees: 405 [13]) in which abundance shows little relation to their functional impact. The discrepancy between observed browser presence and function in our study may also reflect the high 406 407 mobility and opportunistic foraging behaviour of roving herbivores [68], or the diver-408 negative behaviours of some fishes [69]. The utility of using the density or biomass of 409 browsing herbivores as a proxy for macroalgal removal may be further hindered by the 410 plasticity and opportunistic diets among herbivorous fishes [47], and a potential bias in the 411 literature classifying browsers as those species known to feed on large fleshy brown 412 macroalgae versus those that consume other fleshy macroalgae [48].

413

In contrast to browsing, there were no detectable differences in grazing on the algal turf
assays among habitats. This provides further evidence of a disconnect between the observed
density and realised impact of functional groups of herbivorous fishes. Despite no detectable
differences in grazing rates, among habitat differences in herbivore assemblages were largely

driven by differences in the biomass of grazing species. The lack of among-habitat variation 418 in grazing may be related to the high diversity of fishes that feed on algal-turf covered 419 420 substrata [41], and their response diversity to changes in benthic composition [70]. Similarly, the lack of observed differences may be due to grazing herbivores preferentially targeting 421 sparse and short early-successional turfs and avoiding later successional dense turf 422 assemblages [71]. Feeding rates and foraging behaviours of grazing coral reef fish species 423 424 have been shown to vary with the condition and structure of reef habitats and algal communities, however responses tend to be species specific [37]. The among-habitat 425 426 variation in the changes in the turf height on caged tiles was interesting as, despite feeding by large herbivorous fishes being excluded, there was a decline in height in soft coral habitat and 427 increase in branching *Porites* habitat which may be related to grazing by small invertebrates 428 429 and/or differences in algal productivity [72]. Similarly, negative values of turf height loss for both caged and exposed assays in branching *Porites* habitats may be due to high algal 430 431 productivity in that habitat, warranting further investigation.

432

433 Our results provide new evidence of the variable influence of the composition and cover of habitat-building corals on two key functions on coral reefs-grazing and browsing-based on 434 comparisons among three taxonomically distinct coral habitats. While the use of Laurencia 435 has provided valuable information on the variable browsing behaviour among habitats, 436 437 previous studies have shown rates of macroalgal browsing can be dependent on the macroalgae used due to feeding preferences of local herbivore assemblages [48,49]. 438 Therefore, further investigation using other commonly occurring macroalgae may offer 439 440 insight into behavioural variation among habitats of a broader suite of herbivores. Similarly, 441 herbivory processes can vary with depth, exposure, and reef zonation [33,73,74]. Our study compared relatively small experimental assay units among habitats within in a sheltered 442

lagoon environment. Therefore, further study across a wider range of environmental 443 gradients, reef zones, across additional coral species configurations, and across broader 444 445 spatial scales is now needed. Our study coincided with a large-scale bleaching event [44], resulting in rapid coral loss and changes in reef fish assemblage structure among our study 446 sites [6], and likely affected the foraging behaviour of a range of reef fish species including 447 herbivores [15,65,75]. Although the present study provides clear evidence of how herbivory 448 449 processes can vary with coral species composition, it was carried out in the context of this disturbance. Disturbance dynamics are complex [15,70], and it is likely that fish assemblages 450 451 are in transition with changes in coral cover. Further research into the spatio-temporal variation in foraging behaviour of individuals and functional groups across such disturbances 452 would improve our understanding of how changing reef configurations interact with climate 453 454 change impacts to influence critical ecological functions [15,16].

455

456 Understanding causal links between habitat species composition and ecosystem function is of growing concern in this era of unprecedented and rapid ecological change [5,7,9]. In 457 particular, elucidating how the increasing modification of ecological communities affects 458 ecosystem processes is central to our capacity to anticipate whether new species 459 configurations will continue to provide goods and services as required by societies that 460 depend on them [14,17,23]. On coral reefs, whether herbivores can compensate for increased 461 462 algal production as coral cover decreases, and maintain critical rates of algal consumption will be fundamental to the persistence of reconfigured coral-dominated systems [66]. Our 463 results show that herbivore assemblage structure varied among the studied habitats, however 464 465 did not reflect the observed variation in herbivory rates. While grazing was insensitive to variation in coral composition, browsing varied considerably, indicating that different 466 mechanisms determined by specific habitat characteristics may be shaping these key 467

processes. While the precise mechanisms are not known, variation in browsing was best 468 predicted by the composition and cover of benthic communities, and conversely the cover of 469 470 dead substrata and macroalgae, characteristics that underscore the structural complexity of reef habitats and which may have influenced differential foraging behaviour. With ongoing 471 degradation of coral reefs and the homogenization of both coral and fish assemblages [6,20], 472 these results suggest that, within reefs, key ecosystem functions will likely vary among 473 474 altered coral configurations, according to the differential vulnerability of corals to disturbances and ecological interactions between reef fishes and their environment [15]. More 475 476 generally, our results emphasise the role of differential habitat characteristics and provide explicit support for assigning greater concern to the composition and structure—as well as 477 cover-of habitat-building species in assessments and management of ecosystem function 478 479 [7,23]. 480 Funding 481 This study was funded by the Australian Research Council to ASH (DE130100688). 482 483 Acknowledgements 484 We thank Brock Bergseth, Jacob Eurich, Alexia Graba-Landry, Molly Scott, and Lizard 485 Island Research Station staff for field support, Murray Logan and Rie Hagihara for statistical 486 487 advice; and six anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments. 488 References 489 490 1. Olden JD, LeRoy Poff N, Douglas MR, Douglas ME, Fausch KD. 2004. Ecological and 491 evolutionary consequences of biotic homogenization. Trends Ecol. Evol. 19,18-24. 492 493 (doi:10.1016/j.tree.2003.09.010)

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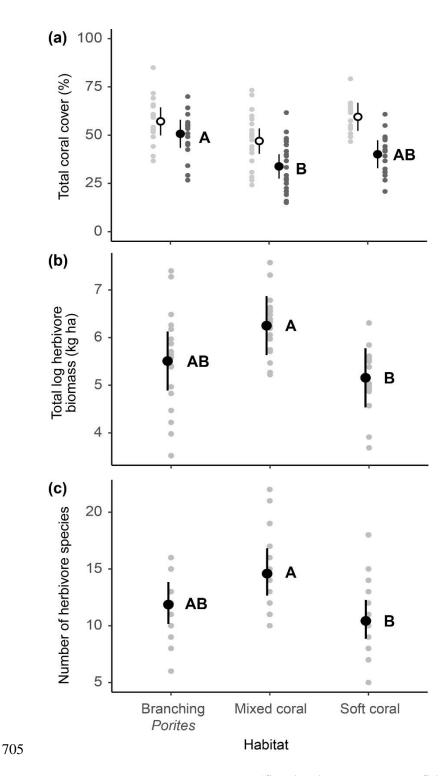
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**Fig. 1** Among-habitat variation (fitted values  $\pm$  95% confidence intervals) in, (a) total coral cover (hard and soft coral) in September 2015 (white; [6]), and April 2016 (black); (b) total herbivore biomass (log-transformed, kg ha<sup>-1</sup>); (c) number of herbivore species. Partial residuals in grey; contrasting letters indicate significant differences among habitats (Tukey, *P*<0.05).

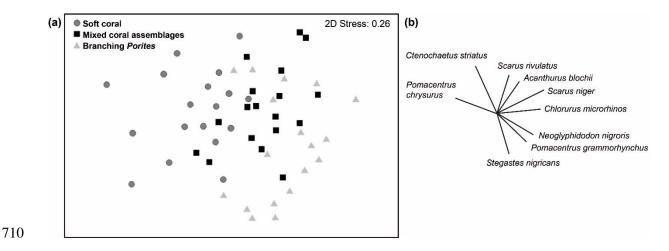


Fig. 2 Non-metric multidimensional scaling analysis showing variation in taxonomic composition of herbivorous fishes among surveyed coral habitats, using transect-level log (x+1) transformed data (a). The relative contribution of species to the observed variation in composition (>0.5 Pearson correlation) (b).



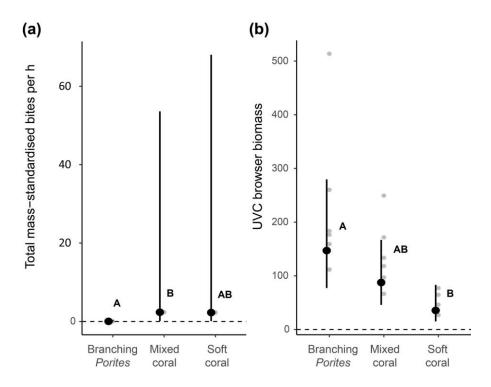


Fig. 3 Among-habitat variation (fitted values  $\pm$  95% confidence intervals) in: (a) feeding rates on *Laurencia* assays by all species; (b) visual biomass estimate of all nominal browsers (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>). Contrasting letters indicate significant differences among habitats (Tukey, *P*<0.05).

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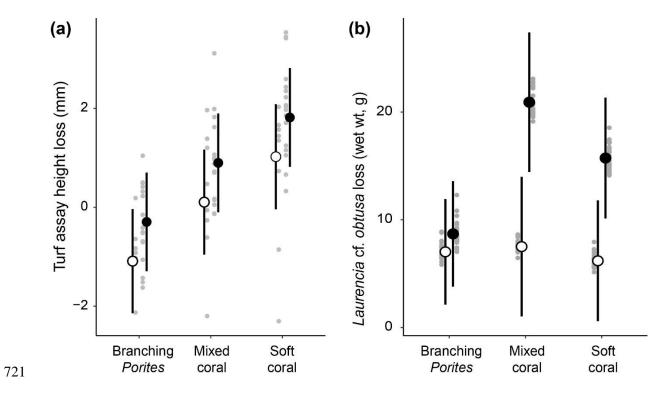


Fig. 4 Among-habitat variation (fitted values ± 95% confidence intervals) in assay loss of: (a)
turf algae (mean turf height (mm); (b) *Laurencia* (wet weight, g); caged assays (white), exposed
assays (black); partial residuals (grey).