

Ecosystem Regime Shifts disrupt Trophic Structure

TESSA N. HEMPSON^{1*}, NICHOLAS A.J. GRAHAM^{1,2}, M. AARON MACNEIL³, ANDREW S. HOEY¹,

SHAUN K. WILSON^{4,5}, SIMON JENNINGS (?)

¹*ARC Centre of Excellence for Coral Reef Studies, James Cook University, Townsville, Queensland 4811, Australia*

²*Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ, United Kingdom*

³*Australian Institute of Marine Science, PMB 3, Townsville MC, Townsville, Queensland 4810, Australia*

⁴*Department of Environment and Conservation, 17 Dick Perry Ave., Kensington, Perth, WA 6151, Australia*

⁵*Oceans Institute, University of Western Australia, Crawley, WA 6009, Australia*

*Corresponding author: tessa.hempson@my.jcu.edu.au

Summary

Ecosystem regime shifts are becoming commonplace due to global climate change. The resulting alternative states are substantially different in form and function to the pre-disturbance state, disrupting ecosystem services and functions. Coral reef regime shifts are typically characterised by a shift in the benthic composition of the reef from coral- to macroalgal-dominance. Such fundamental shifts in the benthos are anticipated to impact the associated fish community, which is closely reliant on the reef for food and shelter, yet there is limited understanding of how regime shifts propagate through the fish community over time. This study addresses this knowledge gap using long term data of coral reef regime shifts and recovery on Seychelles reefs following the 1998 mass bleaching event. It shows how trophic structure of the reef fish community becomes increasingly dissimilar between reef states with time since disturbance. Regime shifted reefs developed a concave structure, with increased biomass in base trophic levels, as herbivorous species benefitted from increased algal resources; mid trophic level species including specialists such as corallivores declined with loss of coral habitat; while biomass was retained in upper trophic levels by large-bodied generalist invertivores. Recovering reefs also experienced an initial decline in mid trophic level biomass, but returned to a bottom-heavy, stable pyramid shape, with broad

29 trophic group representation in mid trophic levels. Given the importance of coral reef fishes
30 in maintaining the ecological resilience of coral reef ecosystems, and in supporting diverse
31 fisheries, understanding the effects of regime shifts on these communities is essential to
32 inform decisions that enhance ecological resilience and economic sustainability.

33

34 *Key words: coral reef fish; coral bleaching; functional group; habitat degradation;*
35 *mesopredator; trophic level; trophic pyramid; coral reef ecology*

36

37

38

INTRODUCTION

39 Regime shifts have been documented in a wide variety of ecosystems, from shallow
40 lakes to deserts, savannas and the open ocean (van de Koppel et al. 1997, Watson and Estes
41 2011, Kosten et al. 2012, Ecology et al. 2016) as a result of gradual change over time, or a
42 shock to the system that pushes it beyond a tipping point into an alternate state (Scheffer et al.
43 2001). Drivers often work together, whereby chronic stressors gradually erode ecosystem
44 resilience, making the system more vulnerable to a regime shift following an acute
45 disturbance event (Hughes et al. 2013). Regime shifts are characterised by dramatic changes
46 in the structure and function of the ecosystem (Scheffer et al. 2001, Folke et al. 2004), with
47 potentially broad-reaching consequent effects. Understanding the implications of these shifts
48 and identifying early warning indicators have been the primary foci of much of the research
49 into these ecological dynamics (e.g. Scheffer et al. 2009, Carpenter et al. 2011, Graham et al.
50 2015, Hicks et al. 2016).

51 In coral reef ecosystems, much of the initial research on ecosystem regime-shifts
52 focused on over-fishing of herbivores as a primary driver of change (Hughes 1994, Jackson et
53 al. 2001, Bellwood et al. 2004, Hughes et al. 2007). Subsequently, with increasing effects of

54 global climate change, mass bleaching events have become a major driver of extensive
55 habitat degradation on coral reefs (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2007). Following bleaching, or
56 other large scale coral mortality, reefs can either recover and move towards a pre-disturbance
57 state, or undergo benthic regime shifts from coral dominance to dominance by other benthic
58 organisms, most commonly fleshy macroalgae (Nyström et al. 2008). This macroalgal state
59 often represents an alternative stable state, with strong reinforcing feedback mechanisms,
60 from which a return to coral dominance is challenging (Mumby and Steneck 2008). Our
61 understanding of what factors contribute to driving these benthic shifts is improving (Mumby
62 et al. 2007, Graham et al. 2015), but we lack an understanding of their effects on the broader
63 ecosystem.

64 Coral reef fish communities are heavily reliant on the reef benthos for food and
65 shelter (Pratchett et al. 2008), with changes in the composition and structure of coral habitat
66 directly affecting reef fish assemblages (e.g. Friedlander and Parrish 1998, Jones et al. 2004).
67 Dramatic regime shifts in dominant benthic cover in a coral reef ecosystem are therefore
68 anticipated to have substantial effects on the composition of the associated reef fish
69 community. While we have a rudimentary understanding of how a regime shift is likely to
70 affect the functional diversity of a coral reef fish community (Graham et al. 2015), we know
71 little about the effect on community trophic structure or functional composition. Trophic
72 pyramids provide a visually intuitive means of examining and comparing the structure of
73 food webs (Lindeman 1942) and informing on the likely transfer of energy among trophic
74 levels (Trebilco et al. 2013). This simple, yet powerful tool has the potential to be used for
75 easy identification of disruption of trophic structure and function due to disturbance (Graham
76 et al. 2016). With the expectation that bleaching events will become more frequent as
77 atmospheric carbon levels increase, as demonstrated by the powerful 2016 El Nino event, it is

78 becoming increasingly important to improve our understanding of how coral reef fish
79 communities restructure following climate-driven regime shifts.

80 Coral reefs provide important resources and services for millions of people living in
81 tropical latitudes around the globe, with reef fish constituting the primary source of protein,
82 and a range of other ecosystem services, for large coastal populations (Hicks and Cinner
83 2014). With many coral reef fisheries preferentially harvesting large piscivorous and
84 herbivorous fishes, at upper and lower trophic levels, the implications of regime shifts for
85 trophic pyramids and associated biomass storage, productivity and trophic pathways, is
86 critical information. It has only recently become possible to investigate these long-term
87 ecosystem changes with sufficient time post mass bleaching.

88 In this study, a well-studied system, where climate-driven bleaching led to a series of
89 both regime-shifted and recovering reefs (Graham et al. 2015), was used to investigate the
90 effects of benthic regime shifts on the trophic structure of the associated reef fish community.
91 Specifically, we assessed (i) the dissimilarity in the composition of the reef fish community
92 between recovering and regime-shifted reefs with time since disturbance, (ii) how the trophic
93 pyramid structure of biomass distribution in fish communities changes between reef states
94 over time, and finally (iii) how the functional composition of the reef fish community is
95 altered.

96

97 METHODS

98 *Study Site*

99 Data collection for this study was carried out as part of a long-term periodic coral reef
100 monitoring programme in the Seychelles inner island group. These reefs were some of the
101 most severely impacted by the 1998 mass bleaching event, with live coral loss exceeding 90 %
102 at many sites (Goreau et al. 2000, Lindén et al. 2002). Monitoring data collected both before

103 (1994) and after the bleaching event (2005, 2014) has identified two distinct ecosystem
104 trajectories (Graham et al. 2015). Of the 21 monitoring sites, 12 have steadily regained live
105 coral cover, and returned to an almost pre-bleaching state, while the other 9 sites have moved
106 into a regime-shifted state of algal dominance (Graham et al. 2006, 2015, Wilson et al. 2012).
107 To investigate the question of how the trophic structure of the associated reef fish community
108 differs between these contrasting reef states, the ten most extreme sites in terms of live hard
109 coral cover averaged up to 2014 were selected; the five highest from recovering sites, and the
110 five lowest from regime-shifted sites.

111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135

Fish and benthic surveys

Twenty-one reefs across the Inner Seychelles island group were surveyed in 1994 prior to the 1998 mass bleaching event, and again after the bleaching in 2005 and 2014, as part of an ongoing monitoring programme. Identical methods were used to survey the reef fish and benthic community at each site in all years (Graham et al. 2015). At each reef, the fish community was quantified using 8 to 16 replicate 7 m radius point counts, haphazardly located along the reef slope at depths of 2.3 – 12.2 m (mean \pm standard deviation; 6.34 ± 2.06 m), separated by a minimum of 15 m. At each point, the abundance of 134 species of diurnal, non-cryptic, reef-associated fish was recorded, as well as the total length of each individual. Length estimates were converted to biomass using published length-weight relationships for each species (Froese and Pauly 2015). Each species was assigned to a functional group based on their diet and feeding behaviour (Froese and Pauly 2015); browser, grazer/detritivore, scraper/excavator, planktivore, corallivore, invertivore, invertivore/piscivore, piscivore (see Appendix S1: Table S1). Using estimates published in Fish Base (Froese and Pauly 2015), species were also assigned to one of five trophic pyramid positions (TP); TP1: 2 - 2.5; TP2: 2.5 – 3.0; TP3: 3.0 – 3.5; TP4: 3.5 – 4; TP5: 4 – 4.5 (Appendix S1: Table S1).

Benthic habitat composition was estimated within the area of each point count as the percent cover of six cover types (simple and complex live hard coral, soft coral, macroalgae, sand and rock). Simple corals were those hard coral taxa with massive or encrusting growth forms, while complex corals were those with branching or digitate structure. Structural complexity was visually estimated with a six point scale, shown to approximate other measures of complexity well and to be useful in predicting fish abundance and biomass (Wilson et al. 2007, Darling et al. 2017).

Statistical analyses

136 The benthic habitat composition between reef states (recovering versus regime-shifted)
137 in each year (1994, 2005, 2014) was compared using a principal coordinate analysis (PCO),
138 based on a Bray-Curtis similarity matrix. Data were square root transformed to reduce the
139 influence of the most dominant cover types. Eigenvectors of all benthic categories were
140 overlaid to examine their contribution to the separation between reef states.

141 To investigate how the fish community changed over the study period, a series of
142 Similarity Percentages (SIMPER) analyses were run in PRIMER v.6 (Clarke and Warwick
143 2001) to compare the average dissimilarity of the fish community between recovering and
144 regime-shifted reefs in 1994, 2005 and 2014, both in terms of species abundance (fish.500m⁻²)
145 and biomass (kg.ha⁻¹), and functional group composition based on abundance (fish.500m⁻²).
146 The results of the functional group analysis were then weighted by the overall dissimilarity
147 between reef states (recovering vs regime-shifted) for each year, to allow for comparison of
148 the magnitude of difference in fish community functional structure among years.

149 Both the absolute biomass (kg. ha⁻¹) and relative biomass (%) of reef fish within each of
150 the five trophic positions was calculated for each reef state (recovering vs regime-shifted) and
151 each year (1994, 2005, 2014), and trophic pyramids constructed to explore the change in
152 trophic structure within the fish community following bleaching disturbance. Differences in
153 the trophic structure between recovering and regime-shifted reefs at each time point were
154 tested using multinomial regression of the TP categories as a response, with year and regime
155 state as fixed effects. The fish species contributing the most to dissimilarity in the fish
156 community composition within each state (recovering vs regime-shifted), and trophic level
157 (TP1 - TP5), before the bleaching (1994) and post-bleaching (2014) were identified using
158 SIMPER analyses on Bray-Curtis similarity matrices of square root transformed species data.
159

160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182
183
184

RESULTS

Benthic habitat

There was a distinct shift in the benthic composition of regime shifted reefs following disturbance in relation to recovering reefs (Fig.1). Prior to the 1998 mass bleaching event, all reefs were characterised by high structural complexity and live coral cover, falling to the right of the first PCO axis, which accounts for 48.4 % of the total variation among sites. Following the disturbance (2005, 2014), there is a strong separation between reefs that recover from the bleaching and those moving into a regime-shifted state. In 2005, two of the regime-shift reefs still retained a degree of structural complexity, but by 2014, all these reefs were most strongly characterised by high levels of macroalgal cover and low coral cover and structural complexity, falling to left of PCO1, while recovering reefs returned to the initial pre-disturbance state.

Fish community

This same pattern of increasing divergence between recovering and regime-shift reefs is evident in the fish community, with SIMPER analyses showing increasing average dissimilarity in community composition in terms of functional group representation, fish biomass, and abundance, between reef states following the bleaching disturbance (Table 1). The trophic structure of the fish community also reflects this divergence between reef states in terms of the distribution of relative biomass among trophic levels (Fig. 2). In 1994, prior to the bleaching event, trophic structure of fishes was similar across all reefs surveyed, in terms of relative or absolute biomass (Fig.2, Appendix S1: Fig.S3). In 2005, 7 years after mass bleaching, regime-shift reefs showed a large increase in relative and absolute biomass within the base trophic level (TP1), which includes herbivorous functional groups (Appendix S1: Fig.S2; browsers, grazers and detritivores, scrapers and excavators), and a decrease in the

185 biomass of all higher trophic levels. Recovering reefs exhibited a similar pattern of an
186 increase in the relative and absolute biomass of TP1, and a reduction in higher trophic levels,
187 but the changes were less pronounced (Table 2). By 2014, the difference between the trophic
188 structure of recovering and regime-shifted reefs had become clearly apparent. Recovering
189 reefs had a triangular trophic pyramid structure, while regime-shifted reef pyramids had a
190 concave shape, with biomass dominated by herbivorous species in TP1, with low biomass in
191 mid trophic levels (TP2 - TP3) and comparatively high biomass at TP4. The increase in TP4
192 biomass on regime-shifted reefs was primarily due to more large-bodied invertivores,
193 particularly *Lethrinus nebulosus* and *Plectorhinchus schotaf* (Appendix S1: Table S2).

194 Dissimilarity (Bray-Curtis) in fish species composition within each trophic level pre-
195 (1994) versus post-bleaching (2005 and 2014), was higher overall for regime-shifted reefs
196 than recovering reefs (Table 3). After the initial shift in community composition from 1994 to
197 2005, by 2014 recovering reefs were more similar to their pre-disturbance composition than
198 regime shifted reefs, with reduced variation in dissimilarity measures in all trophic levels
199 except TP2. The increased dissimilarity in this trophic level was due to an increase in the
200 generalist species *Pomacentrus trilineatus*, and a decrease in two rabbit fish species, *Siganus*
201 *puelloides* and *Siganus stellatus* (Appendix S1: Table S1). On regime-shifted reefs, mean
202 dissimilarity and the degree of variation in community composition tends to increase for all
203 trophic levels, except for TP2, which is characterized by a consistently high abundance of the
204 excavating parrotfish species, *Chlorurus sordidus*.

205 Associated with this change within the reef fish community has been a shift in the
206 balance of functional groups in terms of abundance (Fig.4). Pre-disturbance (1994) fish
207 communities on recovering and regime shifted reefs had an overall dissimilarity (Bray-Curtis)
208 of only 13.3% between reefs that would follow recovering and regime-shifted trajectories
209 post-bleaching. In 2005, seven years post disturbance, dissimilarity in functional group

210 composition had risen to 25.61% between reef states. An increase in herbivorous groups on
211 regime shifted reefs; browsers (% dissimilarity \pm standard deviation; 5.87 ± 0.29 %), and
212 grazers and detritivores (4.60 ± 0.36) accounted for the much of this separation. By 2014, the
213 dissimilarity had further increased to 34.2%, with browsers and grazer/detritivores
214 dominating on regime shifted reefs, while recovering reefs have a wide variety of functional
215 groups from higher trophic positions, including corallivores, planktivores and piscivores.

216

217 DISCUSSION

218 Regime shifts are increasingly common in a wide variety of ecosystems, often
219 resulting in extensive and dramatic ecological change. In Seychelles, the long-term
220 trajectories of decline and recovery on inner island coral reefs, following the 1998 mass
221 bleaching event, illustrate the major ecological implications of such a disturbance. Trophic
222 structure of the fish communities on recovering reefs (high coral cover and structural
223 complexity) and regime shifted reefs (algae-dominated with low complexity), became
224 increasingly dissimilar over time, with trophic pyramids of biomass regaining a stable
225 bottom-heavy structure on recovering reefs, while regime-shifted reefs transitioned to a
226 concave structure.

227 This change in trophic structure resulting from the redistribution of biomass between
228 trophic levels, can disrupt ecological processes and the flow of energy in the food web
229 (Trebilco et al. 2013, Graham et al. 2017). Prior to the bleaching event, in 1994, pyramids of
230 relative biomass on all surveyed reefs were bottom heavy, with substantial biomass in the
231 mid to upper trophic levels and the greatest amount of biomass located in the base trophic
232 level, as expected based on energetic theory (Trebilco et al. 2013, Hatton et al. 2015).
233 Following the bleaching, relative biomass in the base trophic level (trophic position 2-2.5)
234 increased substantially in both reef states, likely due to the greater food availability for

235 herbivorous species with the initial increase in algal cover following the depletion of coral
236 cover from bleaching (Adam et al. 2011, Gilmour et al. 2013). The fact that this effect was
237 larger in terms of both relative and absolute biomass on regime-shift reefs alludes to the more
238 severe shift in trophic structure that had emerged on these reefs by 2014. That these reefs
239 have failed to recover, 16 years after the bleaching event also suggest that increased
240 abundance of herbivores alone is insufficient for recovery, which is dependent on the
241 composition of the herbivore community and a combination of other factors including
242 eutrophication, recruitment of corals, depth and structural complexity (Graham et al. 2015).

243 Sixteen years post-bleaching, recovering reefs had regained a triangular biomass
244 pyramid structure, representing an energetically stable food web (Hatton et al. 2015). This
245 structure indicates that the fish community had regained biomass in the mid-trophic levels
246 (trophic position 2.5-3 and 3-3.5), which includes various specialised species, such as
247 corallivores, which are extremely sensitive to loss of coral habitat (Wilson et al. 2006, Hoey
248 et al. 2016). In contrast, the concave shape of relative biomass pyramids on regime-shifted
249 reefs shows a decrease in biomass in these mid-trophic levels, likely due to the lack of habitat
250 available for species highly dependent on coral for food and shelter (Pratchett et al. 2008,
251 Wilson et al. 2010a). Biomass on these reefs was dominated by herbivorous species at the
252 base of the pyramid, supported by a proliferation of algal resources. There was also an
253 accumulation of biomass in the upper trophic levels, particularly trophic position 3.5 – 4,
254 largely attributable to an increase in the abundance of *Lethrinus nebulosus* and
255 *Plectorhinchus schotaf*. This increase may be related to the fact that both species are large-
256 bodied, generalist invertebrate feeders (Smith et al. 2003), and particularly in the case of *L.*
257 *nebulosus*, known to utilise a wide variety of habitat types, often scavenging over degraded,
258 rubble or sand substrates (Carpenter and Allen 1989, Farmer and Wilson 2011). Expansion of
259 macroalgal habitat also provides increased nursery area for lethrinid species, which may be a

260 strong driver of increased local abundance (Wilson et al. *in press*). Another possibility is that
261 they may benefit from decreased competition from other mesopredators with narrower
262 dietary or habitat niches (e.g. *Lutjanus kasmira*). The contrasting decline in top consumers
263 with a more piscivorous diet (e.g. *Lutjanus bohar*, *Cephalopholis argus*, *C. miniata*) was
264 likely due to the decline in prey fish species in the mid trophic levels. This suggests a
265 different mechanism of concave trophic pyramid shape to that described for high biomass
266 reefs (Graham et al. 2017). At high reef fish biomass, biomass accumulated in upper and
267 lower trophic levels, likely enabling a more direct pathway between primary production and
268 large piscivores (Graham et al. 2017). Conversely, on regime shifted reefs in Seychelles, the
269 accumulation of upper trophic level fish is driven by an alternative energy pathway, with
270 abundant mobile invertebrate species on degraded reefs supporting populations of upper
271 trophic level invertivores.

272 While there may appear to be an abundance of available prey biomass in the base of
273 the pyramid, unlike in temperate marine ecosystems (Jennings and Mackinson 2003), on
274 coral reefs, herbivore biomass is largely made up of large bodied species, such as parrotfish,
275 surgeonfish, and rabbitfish. Many adults of these fish are too large to be suitable prey for
276 coral reef mesopredators which are limited by their gape size (Kingsford 1992, St John 1999).
277 This likely explains the observed decreases in the abundance of predators that prey on small
278 fish (e.g. *Parupeneus cyclostomus*, *Oxycheilinus digramma* and *Epibulus insidiator*; Froese
279 and Pauly 2015) on regime-shifted reefs.

280 Examination of the species diversity of the reef fish communities on recovering and
281 regime shift reefs confirms the trend of increasing dissimilarity between reef states over time.
282 On recovering reefs, the return to a stable, coral-dominated state in the reef benthos is
283 mirrored in the fish community, which shows an overall pattern of decreasing mean
284 dissimilarity and variation, moving towards a pre-disturbance state. The deviation of trophic

285 positions 2.5 - 3 from this trend, due to the increased abundance of the generalist,
286 *Pomacentrus trilineatus*, is likely due to its association with both coral and rocky reef habitat
287 (Allen 1991), giving it a competitive advantage over more specialised species when live coral
288 cover habitat declined following the bleaching. The contrasting trend on regime-shifted reefs,
289 whereby mean dissimilarity and variation increases with time since bleaching, indicates that
290 the associated fish community is consistently moving further from its pre-disturbance state.
291 On these reefs, it is again trophic positions 2.5 – 3 that deviate from the overall trend, with a
292 relatively stable degree of dissimilarity attributable to a consistently high abundance of
293 *Chlorurus sordidus*, a widespread excavating parrotfish species, that uses a broad range of
294 habitat types (Hoey and Bellwood 2008).

295 The fact that the fish communities on recovering reefs have not yet reverted to their
296 pre-disturbance state 16 years post-bleaching, despite the recovery of high coral cover,
297 suggests that there may be a shift in the composition of the coral assemblages (Wilson et al.
298 2012). Changes in the coral community can lead to changes in composition of the closely
299 associated reef fish communities, which may regain pre-disturbance abundances, but have
300 altered species composition (Berumen and Pratchett 2006). Shifts in the composition of the
301 reef fish community may represent a change in the prey base available to piscivorous
302 mesopredators, requiring them to adapt their diets and alter their trophic niche (Hempson et al.
303 *in press*), with potential sublethal effects (Hempson et al. *in review*)

304 Increasing divergence in the functional composition of the reef fish communities
305 between states implies a disruption of ecological processes on regime-shifted reefs. The
306 single strongest characteristic of this change is the increase in herbivorous species on these
307 reefs, a pattern which has been observed on degraded algal reefs worldwide (e.g. Adam et al.
308 2011, Gilmour et al. 2013). While the proliferation of algal resources benefits many
309 herbivorous species, both in terms of food availability (Rasher et al. 2013), and providing

310 important nursery habitat for numerous reef species (Wilson et al. 2010b, Evans et al. 2014),
311 the loss of coral cover transforms diverse reef habitat into a comparatively uniform landscape,
312 unsuitable for the wide diversity of mid-trophic level species normally supported on a healthy
313 reef (Chong-Seng et al. 2012, Nash et al. 2013). In 2005, the dissimilarity in mid-level
314 trophic positions (2.5 – 3.5) is minimal. This may be because regime-shifted reefs still
315 retained some degree of structural complexity, providing habitat for more adaptable mid-
316 trophic level species, such as invertivores in trophic positions 3 – 3.5 (e.g. *Chaetodon*
317 *guttatissimus*, *Chaetodon kleinii*). Also, at this stage, live coral cover on recovering reefs
318 was still returning, so specialist species such as obligate corallivores in trophic position 3 –
319 3.5 (e.g. *Chaetodon trifascialis*) would still have been marginalised. By 2014, the
320 dissimilarity between reef states in the mid-trophic levels had become clearly apparent, as
321 habitat complexity declined on regime shifted reefs and recovering reefs regained increased
322 live coral cover and complexity, resulting in a divergence in the fish species supported in
323 trophic positions 2.5 - 3.5

324 Changes in the lower trophic levels carry important consequences for mesopredators
325 in the upper trophic levels of the reef fish community. In 2005, there was a higher abundance
326 of generalist mesopredators (e.g. *Parupeneus cyclostomus*, *Aethaloperca rogaa*) that fed on
327 both invertebrates and fish on regime-shifted than recovering reefs, while exclusively
328 piscivorous species characterised recovering reefs (e.g. *Cephalopholis argus*, *Cephalopholis*
329 *miniata*, *Epinephelus merra*). However, by 2014, even the generalist mesopredators were
330 more abundant on recovering reefs. This provides strong evidence that the high abundance of
331 herbivorous species on regime shifted reefs were not a suitable prey source for mesopredators.
332 Predation in the coral reef food web is therefore disrupted by the shift of the coral reef fish
333 community associated with a benthic regime-shift.

334 The disruption of trophic structure within the coral reef fish community has long-term
335 ecological, social and economic implications for the reefs and the people that rely on them.
336 This study provides important insight into how regime shifts are likely to affect this structure,
337 that can support better management of commercial, recreational and subsistence coral reef
338 fisheries. For example, placing greater fisheries restrictions on piscivorous species, than those
339 with more generalist invertebrate diets could help to sustain predatory guilds in post
340 disturbance systems. As climate-driven disturbance events and ecosystem regime shifts
341 become increasingly common, it is essential that we continue to improve our understanding
342 of the impacts on trophic structure to inform decisions that enhance ecological resilience,
343 food security and economic sustainability.

344

345

346

347

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

DATA ACCESSIBILITY

357

Supporting data can be accessed in the following external repositories:

358 • Coral reef benthic and fish surveys in the Inner Seychelles

359 <https://research.jcu.edu.au/researchdata/default/detail/a858bdc7a8116bff35db8558a25c2cb7/>

360

361

362

LITERATURE CITED

363

Adam, T. C., R. J. Schmitt, S. J. Holbrook, A. J. Brooks, P. J. Edmunds, R. C. Carpenter, and

364

G. Bernardi. 2011. Herbivory, connectivity, and ecosystem resilience: Response of a

365

coral reef to a large-scale perturbation. *PLoS ONE* 6.

366

Allen, G. R. 1991. *Damselfishes of the world*. Mergus Publishers, Melle, Germany.

367

Bellwood, D. R., T. P. Hughes, C. Folke, and M. Nyström. 2004. Confronting the coral reef

368

crisis. *Nature* 429:827–833.

369

Berumen, M. L., and M. S. Pratchett. 2006. Recovery without resilience: Persistent

370

disturbance and long-term shifts in the structure of fish and coral communities at

371

Tiahura Reef, Moorea. *Coral Reefs* 25:647–653.

372

Carpenter, K. E., and G. R. Allen. 1989. Emperor fishes and large-eye breams of the world

373

(family Lethrinidae). An annotated and illustrated catalogue of lethrinid species known

374

to date. *FAO Fish. Synop.* 125(9):118 p. Rome: FAO. Page FAO Species Catalogue.

375

Rome.

376

Carpenter, S. R., J. J. Cole, M. L. Pace, R. D. Batt, W. A. Brock, T. J. Cline, J. Coloso, J. R.

377

Hodgson, J. F. Kitchell, D. A. Seekell, L. Smith, and B. C. Weidel. 2011. Early

378

warnings of regime shifts: a whole- ecosystem experiment. *Science* 332:1079–1082.

379

Chong-Seng, K. M., T. D. Mannerling, M. S. Pratchett, D. R. Bellwood, and N. A. J. Graham.

380

2012. The influence of coral reef benthic condition on associated fish assemblages.

381

PLoS ONE 7:1–10.

382

Clarke, K., and R. Warwick. 2001. *Change in marine communities: an approach to statistical*

383

analysis and interpretation. *PRIMER-E*. Plymouth.

384

Darling, E. S., N. A. J. Graham, F. A. Januchowski-Hartley, K. L. Nash, M. S. Pratchett, and

385

S. K. Wilson. 2017. Relationships between structural complexity, coral traits, and reef

386 fish assemblages. Coral Reefs.

387 Ecology, S., N. May, A. C. Stayer, S. Archibald, and S. Levin. 2016. Tree cover in sub-
388 Saharan Africa : Rainfall and fire constrain forest and savanna as alternative stable states
389 Author (s): A . Carla Staver , Sally Archibald and Simon Levin Published by : Wiley
390 Stable URL : <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41151234> REFERENC 92:1063–1072.

391 Evans, R. D., S. K. Wilson, S. N. Field, and J. A. Y. Moore. 2014. Importance of macroalgal
392 fields as coral reef fish nursery habitat in north-west Australia. *Marine Biology*
393 161:599–607.

394 Farmer, B. M., and S. K. Wilson. 2011. Diet of finfish targeted by fishers in North West
395 Australia and the implications for trophic cascades. *Environmental Biology of Fishes*
396 91:71–85.

397 Folke, C., S. R. Carpenter, B. Walker, M. Scheffer, T. Elmqvist, L. Gunderson, and C. S.
398 Holling. 2004. Regime Shifts, Resilience, and Biodiversity in Ecosystem Management.
399 *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* 35:557–581.

400 Friedlander, A. M., and J. D. Parrish. 1998. Habitat characteristics affecting fish assemblages
401 on a Hawaiian coral reef. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 224:1–
402 30.

403 Froese, R., and D. Pauly. 2015. FishBase, <http://www.fishbase.org>, version (01/2016).
404 <http://www.fishbase.org>.

405 Gilmour, J. P., L. D. Smith, A. J. Heyward, A. H. Baird, and M. S. Pratchett. 2013. Recovery
406 of an isolated coral reef system following severe disturbance. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*
407 340:69–71.

408 Goreau, T., T. McClanahan, R. Hayes, and A. Strong. 2000. Conservation of coral reefs after
409 the 1998 global bleaching event. *Conservation Biology* 14:5–15.

410 Graham, N. A. J., S. Jennings, M. A. MacNeil, D. Mouillot, and S. K. Wilson. 2015.

411 Predicting climate-driven regime shifts versus rebound potential in coral reefs. *Nature*
412 518:94–97.

413 Graham, N. A. J., T. R. McClanahan, M. A. MacNeil, S. K. Wilson, J. E. Cinner, C. Huchery,
414 and T. H. Holmes. 2016. Human disruption of coral reef trophic structure. *Current*
415 *Biology*:In press.

416 Graham, N. A. J., T. R. McClanahan, M. A. MacNeil, S. K. Wilson, J. E. Cinner, C. Huchery,
417 and T. H. Holmes. 2017. Human disruption of coral reef trophic structure. *Current*
418 *Biology* 27:231–236.

419 Graham, N. A. J., S. K. Wilson, S. Jennings, N. V. C. Polunin, J. P. Bijoux, and J. Robinson.
420 2006. Dynamic fragility of oceanic coral reef ecosystems. *Proceedings of the National*
421 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 103:8425–8429.

422 Hatton, I. A., K. S. McCann, J. M. Fryxell, T. J. Davies, M. Smerlak, A. R. E. Sinclair, and
423 M. Loreau. 2015. The predator-prey power law: Biomass scaling across terrestrial and
424 aquatic biomes. *Science* 349:aac6284-aac6284.

425 Hempson, T. N., N. A. J. Graham, M. A. MacNeil, N. Bodin, and S. K. Wilson. (n.d.). Sub-
426 lethal effects of ecosystem regime shift on mesopredators. *Functional Ecology*.

427 Hempson, T. N., N. A. J. Graham, M. A. MacNeil, D. H. Williamson, G. P. Jones, and G. R.
428 Almany. 2017. Coral reef mesopredators switch prey, shortening food chains, in
429 response to habitat degradation. *Ecology and Evolution*:1–10.

430 Hicks, C. C., and J. E. Cinner. 2014. Social, institutional, and knowledge mechanisms
431 mediate diverse ecosystem service benefits from coral reefs. *Proceedings of the National*
432 *Academy of Sciences* 111:17791–17796.

433 Hicks, C. C., L. B. Crowder, N. A. J. Graham, J. N. Kittinger, and E. Le Cornu. 2016. Social
434 drivers forewarn of marine regime shifts. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*
435 14:252–260.

436 Hoegh-Guldberg, O., P. J. Mumby, A. J. Hooten, R. S. Steneck, P. Greenfield, E. Gomez, C.
437 D. Harvell, P. F. Sale, A. J. Edwards, K. Caldeira, N. Knowlton, C. M. Eakin, R.
438 Iglesias-Prieto, N. Muthiga, R. H. Bradbury, A. Dubi, and M. E. Hatziolos. 2007. Coral
439 reefs under rapid climate change and ocean acidification. *Science* (New York, N.Y.)
440 318:1737–1742.

441 Hoey, A., E. Howells, J. Johansen, J.-P. Hobbs, V. Messmer, D. McCowan, S. Wilson, and M.
442 Pratchett. 2016. Recent advances in understanding the effects of climate change on coral
443 reefs. *Diversity* 8:12.

444 Hoey, A. S., and D. R. Bellwood. 2008. Cross-shelf variation in the role of parrotfishes on
445 the Great Barrier Reef. *Coral Reefs* 27:37–47.

446 Hughes, T. P. 1994. *Catastrophes, Phase Shifts*.pdf.

447 Hughes, T. P., S. Carpenter, J. Rockström, M. Scheffer, and B. Walker. 2013. Multiscale
448 regime shifts and planetary boundaries. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 28:389–395.

449 Hughes, T. P., M. J. Rodrigues, D. R. Bellwood, D. Ceccarelli, O. Hoegh-Guldberg, L.
450 McCook, N. Moltschaniwskyj, M. S. Pratchett, R. S. Steneck, and B. Willis. 2007.
451 *Phase Shifts, Herbivory, and the Resilience of Coral Reefs to Climate Change*. *Current*
452 *Biology* 17:360–365.

453 Jackson, J. B., M. X. Kirby, W. H. Berger, K. a Bjorndal, L. W. Botsford, B. J. Bourque, R.
454 H. Bradbury, R. Cooke, J. Erlandson, J. a Estes, T. P. Hughes, S. Kidwell, C. B. Lange,
455 H. S. Lenihan, J. M. Pandolfi, C. H. Peterson, R. S. Steneck, M. J. Tegner, and R. R.
456 Warner. 2001. Historical overfishing and the recent collapse of coastal ecosystems.
457 *Science* (New York, N.Y.) 293:629–637.

458 Jennings, S., and S. Mackinson. 2003. Abundance-body mass relationships in size-structured
459 food webs. *Ecology Letters* 6:971–974.

460 Jones, G. P., M. I. McCormick, M. Srinivasan, and J. V Eagle. 2004. Coral decline threatens

461 fish biodiversity in marine reserves. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
462 of the United States of America 101:8251–8253.

463 Kingsford, M. J. 1992. Spatial and temporal variation in predation on reef fishes by coral
464 trout (*Plectropomus leopardus*, Serranidae). *Coral Reefs* 11:193–198.

465 van de Koppel, J., M. Rietkerk, and F. J. Weissing. 1997. Catastrophic vegetation shifts and
466 soil degradation in terrestrial grazing systems. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 12:352–
467 356.

468 Kosten, S., M. Vernooij, E. H. Van Nes, M. de los Á. G. Sagrario, J. G. P. W. Clevers, and M.
469 Scheffer. 2012. Bimodal transparency as an indicator for alternative states in South
470 American lakes. *Freshwater Biology* 57:1191–1201.

471 Lindeman, R. L. 1942. The trophic-dynamic aspect of ecology. *Ecology* 23:399–417.

472 Lindén, O., D. Souter, D. Wilhelmsson, and D. Obura. 2002. Status of Coral Reefs in East
473 Africa. Page (O. Lindén, D. Souter, D. Wilhelmsson, and D. Obura, Eds.) *Coral Reef*
474 *Degradation in the Indian Ocean. Status Report 2002. CORDIO.*

475 Mumby, P. J., A. R. Harborne, J. Williams, C. V Kappel, D. R. Brumbaugh, F. Micheli, K. E.
476 Holmes, C. P. Dahlgren, C. B. Paris, and P. G. Blackwell. 2007. Trophic cascade
477 facilitates coral recruitment in a marine reserve. *Proceedings of the National Academy*
478 *of Sciences of the United States of America* 104:8362–8367.

479 Mumby, P. J., and R. S. Steneck. 2008. Coral reef management and conservation in light of
480 rapidly evolving ecological paradigms. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 23:555–563.

481 Nash, K. L., N. a J. Graham, S. K. Wilson, and D. R. Bellwood. 2013. Cross-scale Habitat
482 Structure Drives Fish Body Size Distributions on Coral Reefs. *Ecosystems* 16:478–490.

483 Nyström, M., N. A. J. Graham, J. Lokrantz, and A. V. Norström. 2008. Capturing the
484 cornerstones of coral reef resilience: Linking theory to practice. *Coral Reefs* 27:795–809.

485 Pratchett, M. S., P. L. Munday, S. K. Wilson, N. A. J. Graham, J. E. Cinner, D. R. Bellwood,

486 G. P. Jones, N. V. C. Polunin, and T. R. McClanahan. 2008. Effects of climate-induced
487 coral bleaching on coral-reef fishes—ecological and economic consequences.
488 *Oceanography and Marine Biology: An Annual Review* 46:251–296.

489 Rasher, D. B., A. S. Hoey, and M. E. Hay. 2013. Consumer diversity interacts with prey
490 defenses to drive ecosystem function. *Ecology* 94:1347–1358.

491 Scheffer, M., J. Bascompte, W. A. Brock, V. Brovkin, S. R. Carpenter, V. Dakos, H. Held, E.
492 H. van Nes, M. Rietkerk, and G. Sugihara. 2009. Early-warning signals for critical
493 transitions. *Nature* 461:53–59.

494 Scheffer, M., S. Carpenter, J. a Foley, C. Folke, and B. Walker. 2001. Catastrophic shifts in
495 ecosystems. *Nature* 413:591–6.

496 Smith, J. L. B., M. M. Smith, and P. C. Heemstra. 2003. *Smith’s Sea Fishes*. Struik.

497 St John, J. 1999. Ontogenetic changes in the diet of the coral reef grouper *Plectropomus*
498 *leopardus* (Serranidae): Patterns in taxa, size and habitat of prey. *Marine Ecology*
499 *Progress Series* 180:233–246.

500 Trebilco, R., J. K. Baum, A. K. Salomon, and N. K. Dulvy. 2013. Ecosystem ecology: Size-
501 based constraints on the pyramids of life. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 28:423–431.

502 Watson, J., and J. A. Estes. 2011. *Stability , resilience , and phase shifts in rocky subtidal*
503 *communities along the west coast of Vancouver Island , Canada* Published by :
504 *Ecological Society of America* Stable URL : <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23047556> Your
505 use of the JSTOR archive indicate. *Ecological Monographs* 81:215–239.

506 Wilson, S. K., M. Adjeroud, D. R. Bellwood, M. L. Berumen, D. Booth, Y.-M. Bozec, P.
507 Chabanet, a Cheal, J. Cinner, M. Depczynski, D. a Feary, M. Gagliano, N. a J. Graham,
508 a R. Halford, B. S. Halpern, a R. Harborne, a S. Hoey, S. J. Holbrook, G. P. Jones, M.
509 Kulbiki, Y. Letourneur, T. L. De Loma, T. McClanahan, M. I. McCormick, M. G.
510 Meekan, P. J. Mumby, P. L. Munday, M. C. Ohman, M. S. Pratchett, B. Riegl, M. Sano,

511 R. J. Schmitt, and C. Syms. 2010a. Crucial knowledge gaps in current understanding of
512 climate change impacts on coral reef fishes. *The Journal of experimental biology*
513 213:894–900.

514 Wilson, S. K., M. Depczynski, R. Fisher, T. H. Holmes, R. A. O’Leary, and P. Tinkler.
515 2010b. Habitat associations of juvenile fish at Ningaloo Reef, Western Australia: The
516 importance of coral and algae. *PLoS ONE* 5:1–8.

517 Wilson, S. K. et al. 2017. No Title. *Limnology & Oceanography*.

518 Wilson, S. K., N. A. J. Graham, R. Fisher, J. Robinson, K. Nash, K. Chong-Seng, N. V. C.
519 Polunin, R. Aumeeruddy, and R. Quatre. 2012. Effect of macroalgal expansion and
520 marine protected areas on coral recovery following a climatic disturbance. *Conservation*
521 *Biology* 26:995–1004.

522 Wilson, S. K., N. A. J. Graham, and N. V. C. Polunin. 2007. Appraisal of visual assessments
523 of habitat complexity and benthic composition on coral reefs. *Marine Biology*
524 151:1069–1076.

525 Wilson, S. K., N. A. J. Graham, M. S. Pratchett, G. P. Jones, and N. V. C. Polunin. 2006.
526 Multiple disturbances and the global degradation of coral reefs: Are reef fishes at risk or
527 resilient? *Global Change Biology* 12:2220–2234.

528

529

FIGURE & TABLES

530 TABLE 1. Average dissimilarity in the fish community composition between recovering and
 531 regime-shifted reefs in 1994 (pre-bleaching), and in 2005 and 2014 (post-bleaching),
 532 calculated from SIMPER analyses of fish functional groups, biomass and abundance.

Average % Dissimilarity	1994	2005	2014
Functional Groups	13.13	25.61	34.2
Biomass (kg.Ha ⁻¹)	45.21	57.49	66.32
Abundance (fish.500m ⁻²)	39.05	48.69	61.23

533

534

535 TABLE 2. Multinomial regression model coefficients and 95 % confidence intervals given
 536 relative to the baseline of TP1 for the difference between trophic pyramid structure between
 537 recovering and regime shifted reefs prior to the 1998 mass bleaching (1994) and post
 538 bleaching (2005, 2014).

Year	Trophic Position (TP)	Model Coefficient	2.5%	97.5%
<u>1994</u>				
	2	-0.429	-0.522	-0.336
	3	0.720	0.649	0.790
	4	-1.495	-1.617	-1.372
	5	-2.468	-2.681	-2.255
<u>2005</u>				
	2	0.317	0.200	0.435
	3	-0.241	-0.334	-0.148
	4	0.448	0.308	0.588
	5	-0.011	-0.287	0.266
<u>2014</u>				
	2	-0.161	-0.290	0.033
	3	0.007	-0.084	0.098
	4	0.419	0.274	0.564
	5	-0.587	-0.919	-0.255

539

540 TABLE 3. Mean percentage dissimilarity (\pm standard error; SE) in the fish community
541 composition in each trophic level on recovering and regime-shifted reefs, between 1994 (pre-
542 bleaching), and 2005 and 2014 (post-bleaching), calculated from SIMPER analyses of
543 species abundance, showing results of Welch two sample t-tests for difference in mean
544 dissimilarity between reef states.

Years	Trophic Level	Recovering		Regime-Shifted		t	df	p
		Mean % dissimilarity	\pm SE	Mean % dissimilarity	\pm SE			
1994 vs 2005	TP 1	34.99	2.32	45.13	3.38	-2.47	7.09	0.04
	TP 2	28.59	4.46	44.50	4.20	-2.60	7.97	0.03
	TP 3	38.57	3.56	48.03	4.33	-1.69	7.71	0.13
	TP 4	52.76	4.83	45.11	7.05	0.90	7.07	0.40
	TP 5	52.33	19.53	58.68	6.73	-0.31	4.94	0.77
1994 vs 2014	TP 1	35.29	1.84	62.72	2.71	-8.36	7.05	0.00
	TP 2	44.18	5.68	37.82	4.94	0.85	7.85	0.42
	TP 3	32.45	3.72	53.10	5.60	-3.07	6.96	0.02
	TP 4	39.18	4.69	58.05	6.99	-2.24	6.99	0.06
	TP 5	41.87	9.39	71.40	12.75	-1.87	7.35	0.10

545

546

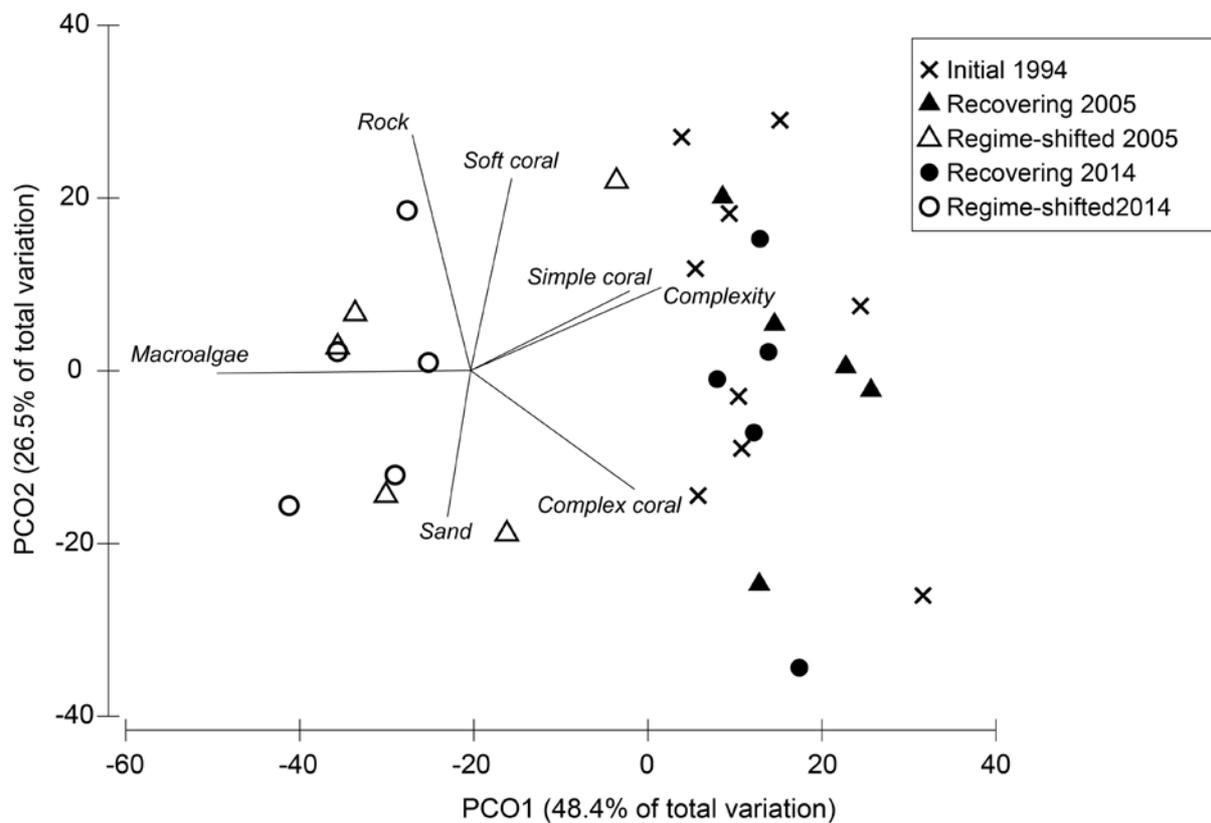
547

548

549

550

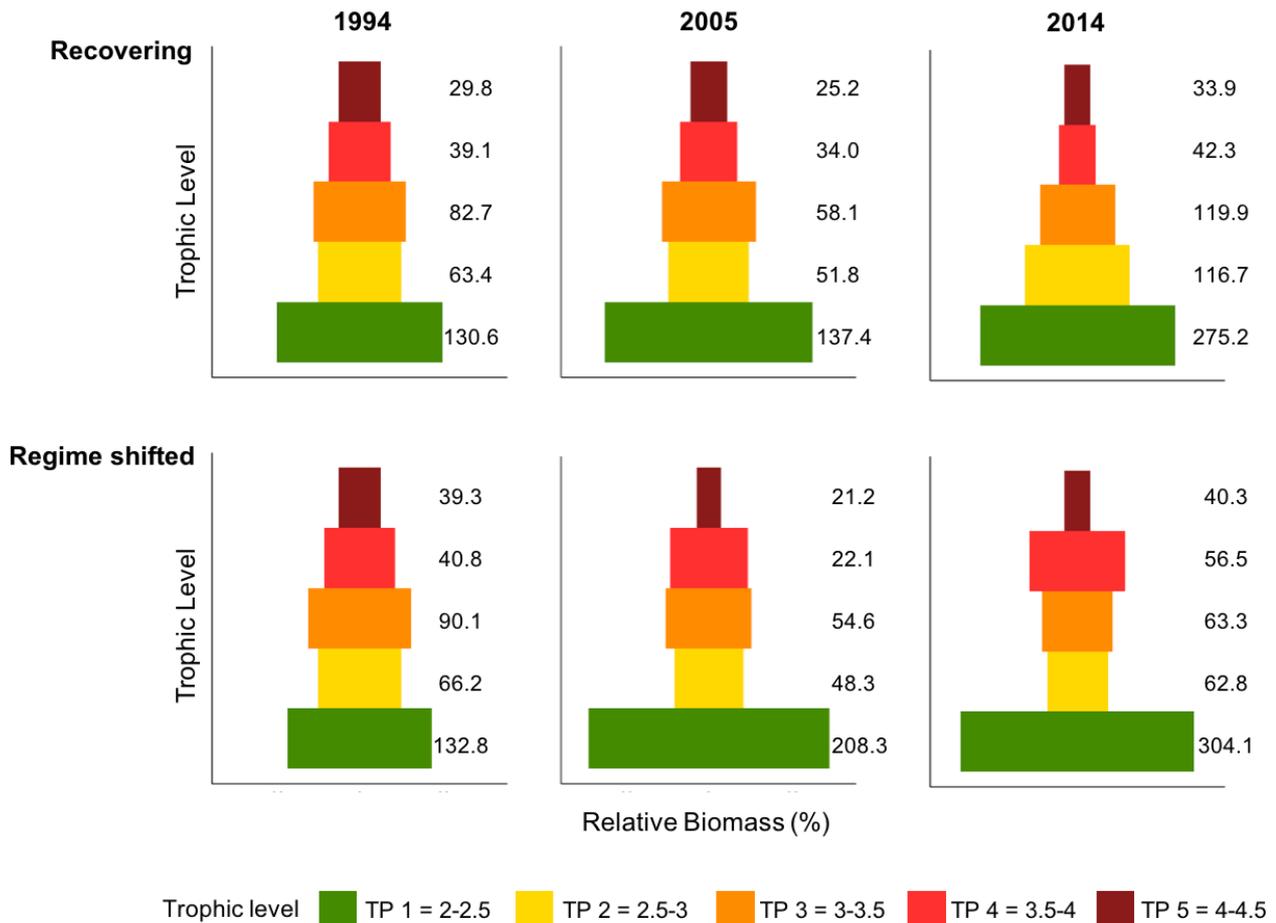
551



552

553

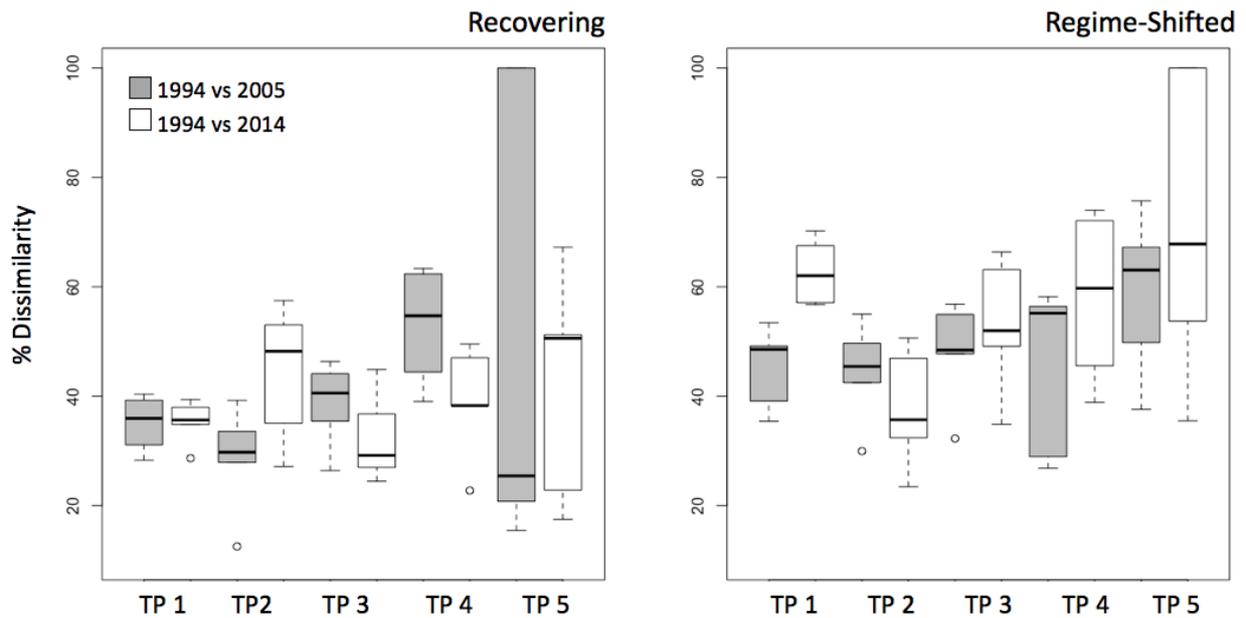
554 FIG. 1. Principal coordinates analysis of the composition of benthic cover of ten reefs
555 surveyed in the Seychelles inner island group based on Bray-Curtis similarity (data square-
556 root transformed). Crosses represent all reef sites surveyed in 1994, prior to the bleaching
557 1998 mass bleaching event. Black symbols represent those reefs that were surveyed in 2005
558 (triangles) and 2014 (circles) and considered to be recovering to a pre-disturbance state (n =
559 5), and open symbols represent those reefs that in 2005 (triangles) 2014 (circles) had moved
560 into a regime-shifted, algae-dominated state (n = 5).



561

562 FIG. 2. Trophic pyramids showing the distribution of relative biomass (%) between five
 563 trophic positions in the reef fish communities on recovering (n = 5) and regime-shifted (n =
 564 5) reefs in the Seychelles inner island group, both before the 1998 mass bleaching (1994) and
 565 after it (2005, 2014). Numbers in each trophic level show the absolute biomass for that
 566 trophic position (kg.Ha-1). (see Appendix S1: Fig.S3, for pyramids of absolute biomass.)

567



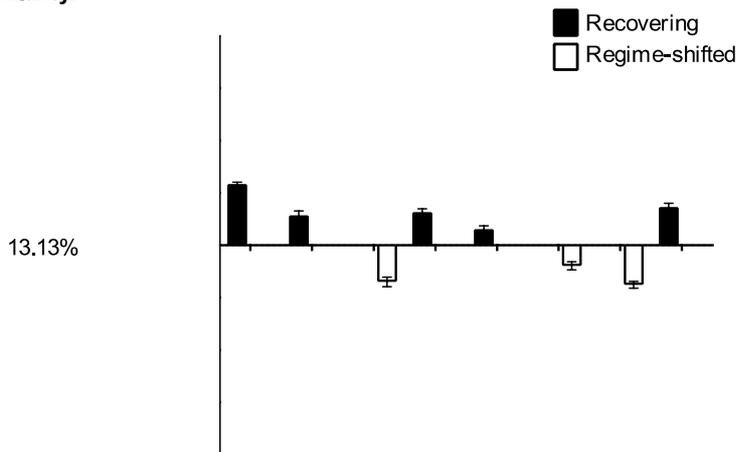
568

569 FIG. 3. Percentage dissimilarity (SIMPER analysis) in fish community species composition
 570 within reef states and trophic positions between pre-bleaching reefs (1994), and post-
 571 bleaching reefs in 2005 (grey bars), and in 2014 (white bars). Data were square root
 572 transformed and dissimilarity measures calculated using a Bray-Curtis resemblance matrix.
 573 Dark horizontal bars indicate the medians of the data, box height shows the interquartile
 574 range, whiskers span minimum and maximum values, with open circles indicating outliers.

575

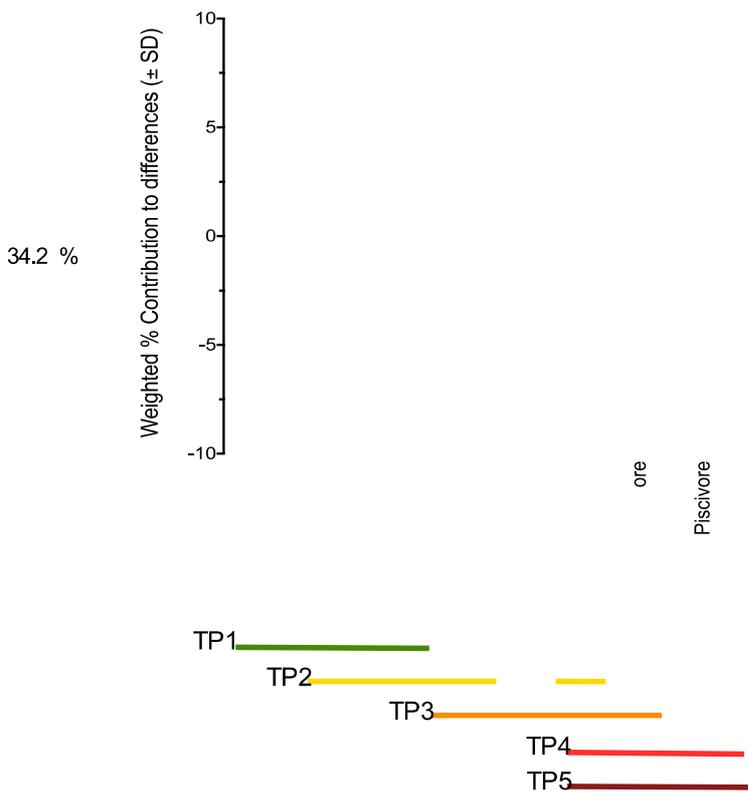
576

Average
Dissimilarity:



25.61 %

2014



34.2 %

FIG. 4. Differences in the fish community composition between regime-shifted (white) and recovering sites (black). The mean (\pm standard deviation; SD) percentage contribution of fish functional groups to the difference between reef states in Seychelles in 1994, 2005 and 2014, based on the percentage contribution of each functional group from a SIMPER analysis. Bars represent the percentage contribution for the functional group that had a higher contribution in either reef state.