

Linking the feeding ecology of marine consumers to patterns of distribution across
scales

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Abstract

Patterns of distribution result from individuals interacting with the environment and other organisms. In this thesis, I seek to improve our understanding of when and how the environmentally-driven variation in the ecology and physiology of individuals can explain patterns at higher levels of ecological organization. I focus primarily on the effects of the environment on feeding and digestion, which underpins the ability of individuals to survive, grow and reproduce. In my second chapter, I test the longstanding Temperature Constraint Hypothesis (TCH), which proposes that herbivorous fishes are less abundant and diverse at high latitudes because low temperatures impede the digestion of plant material. By analyzing a global dataset of the effects of temperature on digestive performance, I show that there is currently little evidence to support the TCH. In my third chapter, I combine physiological and distribution data to test the effects of seasonal upwelling on tropical damselfishes. I first quantify how seasonal upwelling impacts damselfish feeding, digestion, and body condition, then test whether patterns of damselfish distribution along a regional upwelling gradient are consistent with the effects of upwelling on damselfish physiology. I found that both the performance and biomass of two of my focal species responded positively to upwelling, whereas the performance and biomass of the third species did not exhibit a strong response to upwelling. Altogether, my findings are consistent with the hypothesis that

performance can predict patterns of distribution, but shows that these relationships are contingent on species characteristics including diet and plasticity. In my fourth chapter, I use high-resolution biomass and diet data from cryptic, coral-associated invertebrates to explore relationships between habitat degradation and the biomass of different trophic groups. I show that trophic groups respond differently to the loss of coral habitat, with the strongest effects on grazers and predators. Overall, my thesis demonstrates how combining information on processes occurring at the individual level with patterns of distribution can improve our understanding of the ecology of species and communities, and that incorporating species- and environment-specific context can further this goal.

Résumé

Les motifs de distribution résultent de l'interaction des individus avec l'environnement abiotique et d'autres organismes. Dans cette thèse, je cherche à améliorer notre compréhension de quand et comment l'écologie et la physiologie des individus peuvent expliquer des modèles à des niveaux plus élevés d'organisation écologique. Je me concentre principalement sur les effets de l'environnement sur l'alimentation et la digestion, qui étayent la capacité des individus à survivre, grandir et se reproduire. Dans mon deuxième chapitre, je teste l'hypothèse de contrainte de température (TCH), qui propose depuis longtemps que les poissons herbivores sont moins abondants et moins diversifiés aux latitudes élevées car les basses températures entravent la digestion du matériel végétal. En analysant un ensemble de données globales sur les effets de la température sur les performances digestives, je montre qu'il existe actuellement peu de preuves pour soutenir le TCH. Dans mon troisième chapitre, je combine des données physiologiques et de distribution pour tester les effets de l'upwelling saisonnier sur les demoiselles tropicales. Je quantifie d'abord l'impact de l'upwelling saisonnier sur l'alimentation, la digestion et l'état corporel des demoiselles, puis je teste si les modèles de distribution des demoiselles à travers d'un gradient régional d'upwelling sont cohérents avec les effets de l'upwelling sur la physiologie des demoiselles. J'ai constaté que les performances et la biomasse de deux de mes

espèces focales répondaient positivement à l'upwelling, tandis que les performances et la biomasse de la troisième espèce ne présentaient pas de réponse forte à l'upwelling. En général, mes résultats sont cohérents avec l'hypothèse selon laquelle la performance peut prédire les motifs de distribution, mais montre que ces relations dépendent des caractéristiques de l'espèce, notamment le régime alimentaire et la plasticité. Dans mon quatrième chapitre, j'utilise des données à haute résolution sur la biomasse et le régime alimentaire d'un paysage marin tropical pour explorer les relations entre la dégradation de l'habitat et la biomasse de différents groupes trophiques. Je montre que les groupes trophiques réagissent différemment à la perte d'habitat corallien, avec les effets les plus forts sur les brouteurs et les prédateurs. Tous ensemble, ma thèse démontre comment la combinaison d'informations sur les processus se produisant au niveau individuel avec des modèles de distribution peut améliorer notre compréhension de l'écologie des espèces et des communautés, et que l'intégration du contexte spécifique aux espèces et à l'environnement peut favoriser cet objectif.

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List of abbreviations

AUC – area under receiver curve

BM – body mass

DM – digesta mass

GL – gut length

INLA – Integrated nested Laplace approximation

LOO-CV – leave-one-out cross validation

LOO-PSIS – leave-one-out pareto-smoothed importance sampling

NPP – net primary productivity

RLS – Reef Life Survey

SST – sea surface temperature

TCH – Temperature constraint hypothesis

TEP – Tropical Eastern Pacific

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Preface

Thesis format and style

This is a manuscript-based thesis. It contains a general introduction, connecting statements, and a general discussion and conclusions to show each chapter contributes to a unified whole. The literature review for this thesis is incorporated into both the general introduction (~10 pages) and the three manuscripts listed here (~12 pages):

- 1) A global meta-analysis of temperature effects on marine fishes' digestion across trophic groups
- 2) Damselfish performance predicts distribution across a tropical upwelling mosaic
- 3) Coral degradation differentially affects invertebrate trophic functional groups

The first manuscript was published in *Global Ecology and Biogeography*. The second manuscript is in preparation for submission to *Ecography*. The third manuscript is in preparation for submission to *Coral Reefs*.

Contribution to original knowledge

Contributions from Chapter 2

A global meta-analysis of temperature effects on marine fishes' digestion across trophic groups

- I conducted the first systematic, global test of the Temperature Constraint Hypothesis (TCH), which proposes that herbivorous fishes are rare at high latitudes because low temperatures impede plant digestion.
- I show that existing evidence to support the TCH is weak, despite the frequency with which it is invoked as an explanation for large-scale patterns in fish biodiversity.
- To my knowledge, I demonstrate for the first time that fish species in coldwater ecosystems have shorter guts than species in warmwater ecosystems, and that this pattern is likely driven by latitudinal differences in diet quality.

Contributions from Chapter 3

Damselfish performance predicts distribution across a tropical upwelling mosaic

- I test for the first time how seasonal upwelling influences the feeding ecology and physiology of tropical fishes, and whether the effects of upwelling on individual fishes predict patterns of distribution.

- I demonstrate that seasonal upwelling generally benefits tropical damselfishes, and that digestive plasticity plays a role in allowing individuals to benefit from seasonal variation in temperature and resource availability.
- I show that the physiological effects of upwelling predict patterns of distribution across species.

Contributions from Chapter 4

Coral degradation differentially affects invertebrate trophic functional groups

- I characterized trophic composition of coral-associated invertebrate assemblages using one of the highest resolution datasets of which I am aware
- I demonstrate how the biomass of different trophic groups is associated with overall reef health
- I reveal associations between niche breadth and patterns of distribution, and how these associations vary across trophic groups.

Contributions of co-authors

This thesis is the product of research that I led throughout its development, execution, and write-up. I am the primary author for all chapters of the thesis. My supervisors, Andrew Altieri and Frédéric Guichard, contributed to each stage of this research by helping develop the initial research questions, plan and troubleshoot study design and data collection, and analyze, interpret, and write up the data. Each research chapter was accomplished with the help of additional co-authors; their contributions are listed below.

Chapter 2: I developed the research questions and analyses in this chapter with Andrew Altieri and Frédéric Guichard. I collected and analyzed the data used in this chapter, and Andrew Altieri and Frédéric Guichard provided feedback on the execution and interpretation of all statistical analyses. I wrote the first draft of this chapter, and Andrew Altieri and Frédéric Guichard contributed substantially to all of the many, many, many, subsequent drafts.

Chapter 3: The research questions associated with this chapter were initially developed with Andrew Sellers, with substantial input from Andrew Altieri and Frédéric Guichard. The fieldwork was conducted primarily by myself and Andrew Sellers, and the laboratory work was planned and conducted by myself, Andrew Sellers, and Matthieu Leray. Mark Torchin provided feedback and guidance on the

field and laboratory work. I conducted the statistical analyses, and all co-authors provided feedback and assistance with interpretation. I wrote the first draft of the chapter, and all co-authors contributed to subsequent drafts.

Chapter 4: The research questions associated with this chapter were first developed with Matthieu Leray, and subsequently refined and improved in discussions with Andrew Altieri and Frédéric Guichard. Matthieu Leray was the primary leader of the field work associated with collecting invertebrate abundance and biomass data; I was responsible for assisting with this field work and collecting samples of invertebrate tissues for isotope analysis. I conducted the isotope analyses under the supervision and guidance of David M. Baker. I conducted a literature review of invertebrate species' feeding ecology with Tess Morelli. I designed and implemented all statistical analyses. All co-authors provided feedback on the implementation and interpretation of all statistical analyses. I wrote the first draft of this chapter, and all co-authors contributed to subsequent drafts.

Chapter 1: General introduction and literature review

Humans have sought to understand the distribution of living organisms for hundreds of years (Buffon & Smellie, 1785; Humboldt & Bonpland, 1805; Linné, 1781; Lomolino et al., 2004; Wallace, 1876). These efforts have led to crucial insights about natural selection and evolution (Darwin, 1859; Darwin et al., 1858), how individuals relate to their environment (Grinnell, 1917), and coexistence and community assembly (Cody & Diamond, 1975; Hutchinson, 1959). Patterns of distribution, whether of genes, traits, populations, or species, provide opportunities to develop, test, and refine hypotheses in virtually every area of ecological and evolutionary research *because* they reflect the integrated outcomes of many ecological and evolutionary processes. Conversely, disentangling the relationships between species' ecology, evolutionary history, and distribution is a fraught undertaking that requires the careful collection and synthesis of evidence across scales of organization.

Patterns of distribution originate from individuals interacting with their local environment and other organisms. This idea was presented in the early 20th century by Joseph Grinnell, who in a series of papers systematically compared the ecological requirements of several species with the characteristics of the environments in which those species were or were not found (Grinnell, 1904, 1917b, 1917a). Grinnell noted that a wide range of ecological factors may limit the

distribution of a species, including available habitat and food, temperature, competition, and predation, and that these factors are complex and interrelated (Grinnell, 1917a). The concept that arose from Grinnell's work, the ecological niche, has been variously defined and revised (Chase & Leibold, 2009; R. H. Johnson, 1910), but from here on I refer to the niche sensu Hutchinson, i.e., as an n-dimensional hypervolume describing the conditions that allow a species to persist indefinitely in the absence of a competing species (Hutchinson, 1957).

The niche as defined above encompasses a broad range of conditions, including favourable conditions under which a species is able to maintain high abundance, and less favourable conditions under which it is able to persist, but at much lower abundances (Brown, 1984; Hutchinson, 1978; Weber et al., 2017). This variation in abundance reflects the complex responses of individuals to their environment, including local food resources, climate, and habitat availability (M. Kearney & Porter, 2009; Soberon & Nakamura, 2009), as well as other biotic interactions such as competition, predation, and facilitation (Araujo & Rozenfeld, 2014; Boulangeat et al., 2012; Chave et al., 2002). It is expected that individuals living under highly suitable conditions will have improved performance, which may include increased rates of survival, resource uptake, growth, and reproduction, and that this improved performance results in increased local abundance (Brambilla & Ficetola, 2012; Duncan et al., 2020; Lee-Yaw et al., 2016; Lunghi et al., 2018; Melis et al., 2012).

al., 2010; Polis & Hurd, 1995). However, it may be difficult to identify a) the effects of environmental and biotic variation on different aspects of individual performance, and b) what aspects of individual performance determine patterns of local abundance.

A crucial aspect of individual performance is the uptake and digestion of resources. For a species to persist in a given environment in the absence of immigration, individuals of that species must take up enough resources to meet their demands for respiration, growth, and reproduction. Whether individuals can meet these demands is determined by interactions between their physiology and the local environment. Consumers must be able to locate, subdue, and digest available resources, and environmental conditions such as temperature and habitat complexity can modify the success of these activities (Grabowski et al., 2008; Grady et al., 2019; Voigt & Hovel, 2019). Consumers that are well-adapted to their environment and can meet or exceed their resource demands can have increased rates of survival, growth, and reproduction, resulting in increased abundance (Brambilla & Ficetola, 2012; Lunghi et al., 2018; Polis & Hurd, 1995; Weber et al., 2017).

In this introduction, I explore several topics that pertain to patterns of feeding, performance, and distribution in marine consumers. First, I discuss how

broad-scale oceanographic processes affect virtually all aspects of marine invertebrate ecology, and the advantages of assessing the impacts of these processes at different scales. I then review some strengths and weaknesses of species distribution models (and similar techniques), and why physiological data may improve our inference from these models. I review the importance of temperature and biogenic habitat availability to the performance and distribution of consumers. Finally, I provide a brief overview of this thesis.

Oceanographic processes set patterns of distribution in marine ecosystems

Broad-scale oceanographic processes spanning tens to thousands of kilometers modify a broad suite of environmental conditions, including temperature, resource availability, salinity, oxygen saturation, and patterns of circulation (Kämpf & Chapman, 2016; Peller et al., 2021; Stewart, 2009). These environmental conditions have profound effects on the physiology and distribution of organisms, modifying spatial patterns of resource uptake and demand, reproduction, stress, and dispersal (Camargo-Cely & Collin, 2019; Gaylord & Gaines, 2000; Guzmán-Agüero et al., 2013; M. D. Johnson et al., 2021; Kroeker et al., 2016; McCabe & Navarrete, 2018; Menge et al., 2003, 2004; Morgan, 2014; Robertson, 1990; Salo et al., 2014; Sanford, 2002). Unsurprisingly, environmental variation driven by these oceanographic processes is also strongly associated with patterns of distribution of marine organisms (Grady et al., 2019; Sunday et al., 2012; Waldock

et al., 2019). However, understanding the links between oceanographic processes, individual physiology, and species' distributions is difficult for several reasons, including a) the enormous spatial scales over which oceanographic processes occur, b) the complex effects of environmental variation on different aspects of individual performance, and c) complicating factors at the local scale, such as phenotypic plasticity and biotic interactions.

We can test the mechanisms linking broad-scale oceanographic processes and patterns of species distribution at different scales, with different advantages and disadvantages to each. Working at the local scale typically allows for more complex, higher-resolution data collection, either through observations or experimental work. However, it is likely that the transferability of these findings to other sites or regions is limited, because broad-scale variation modifies local processes. For example, the relative importance of predation and recruitment as determinants of the distribution of sessile filter feeders in the Gulf of Maine depends on levels of wave exposure and differences in the coastal oceanography of the northern and southern Gulf of Maine (Bryson et al., 2014). In contrast, larger-scale studies have their own limitations, including logistical difficulties, low replication, and an inability to manipulate certain factors (Menge et al., 2004). However, by combining small- and large-scale perspectives, we can make new, more powerful inferences about the factors shaping species' distributions (Brown,

1995; Eme & Bennett, 2008; Knight et al., 2021; Lunghi et al., 2018; Sellers et al., 2021).

The successes and limitations of species distribution models

“Regression is indeed an oracle, but a cruel one. It speaks in riddles and delights in punishing us for asking bad questions.” -Richard McElreath (2020)

A common suite of large-scale techniques to understand the spatial distribution of species tests for associations between species' occupancy, abundance, and local environmental conditions. These techniques, including species distribution models (SDMs), ecological niche models (ENMs), and habitat suitability models (HSMs), can contribute meaningfully to a variety of goals, such as understanding the environmental drivers that shape species' ranges and patterns of abundance (Duncan et al., 2020; Lunghi et al., 2018; Waldock et al., 2019; Young & Carr, 2015), assessing the likely effects of climate change on species' distributions (Braschler et al., 2020; M. R. Kearney et al., 2010; Sunday et al., 2015), developing management plans for species recovery and restoration (Evans et al., 2015; Regan et al., 2008), or predicting the likely spread of invasive species or diseases (DeVaney et al., 2009; Petitpierre et al., 2017).

However, the success of SDMs and similar techniques to meet these goals depends, to varying degrees, on making accurate inferences about species' niches

(Guisan et al., 2017; Peterson & Soberón, 2012). There are many reasons why an SDM may not reflect a species' niche, including the coarse scale of broadly available environmental data, unidentified causal relationships involving model predictors, the existence of sink populations, or dispersal limitations (Lee-Yaw et al., 2022). These confounding effects can make it difficult both to make ecological inferences and to predict species' occurrence or abundance at new sites (Bahn & McGill, 2007; Elith & Graham, 2009; Elith & Leathwick, 2009; Lee-Yaw et al., 2022). One promising avenue to disentangle these relationships is to integrate physiological or ecological data, which can provide more direct and accurate understandings of species' niches, with patterns of species distributions. For example, transplant experiments that test individual performance in different environments can distinguish between niche and dispersal constraints on species' range limits (Hargreaves et al., 2014; Lee-Yaw et al., 2016). Similarly, lab estimates of thermal tolerance have been combined with characterizations of the sub-lethal effects of low temperatures to better understand what sets geographic limits in range-expanding fishes (Beck et al., 2016; Booth et al., 2018).

The importance of temperature in marine ecosystems

Among marine ectotherms, the thermal environment is one of the most impactful constraints on individual performance (Ashton et al., 2022; Barneche et al., 2009; Dell et al., 2014; Knight et al., 2021; O'Connor, 2009) and distribution

(Grady et al., 2019; Sunday et al., 2010; Waldock et al., 2019). Ectotherms cannot regulate their temperature physiologically, and subtidal species have few opportunities for behavioural thermoregulation, e.g., basking, so their metabolism is set by the temperature of the surrounding water. Furthermore, the temperature dependence of autecological rates scales up to impact higher levels of ecological organization, including interspecific interactions (Dell et al., 2014; Kordas et al., 2011; O'Connor, 2009; Sellers et al., 2021), population dynamics (Bernhardt et al., 2018; Liebhold et al., 2004), and patterns of species distribution (Grady et al., 2019; Sunday et al., 2012; Waldock et al., 2019). However, increasing complexity with scale can make the effects of temperature at higher levels of organization weaker and less predictable.

The effects of temperature on a physiological process such as respiration are typically very predictable: rates increase at a near-exponential rate with increasing temperature up to a peak, then decline rapidly (Brown & Sibly, 2012). However, the effects of temperature on different physiological processes occurring within the same organism may exhibit different responses, leading to effects on performance that may not be easily predicted (e.g., Floeter et al., 2005; Lemoine & Burkepile, 2012; Marshall et al., 2011). For example, over the range of normal temperatures experienced by *L. variegatus*, respiration rate increases exponentially with temperature, but feeding rate exhibits a unimodal relationship, and absorption

efficiency is temperature-invariant (Lemoine & Burkepile, 2012). These parameters, when combined to estimate ingestion efficiency, show a substantial decrease in ingestion efficiency at high temperatures, at which respiration rates are high and feeding rates are low (Lemoine & Burkepile, 2012). A meta-analysis from this same study showed that thermal dependencies of ingestion efficiency are likely common, but the strength and direction of these dependencies can vary (Lemoine & Burkepile, 2012).

Consumers depend on biogenic habitats

Many marine ecosystems are defined by the availability of biogenic habitats, including corals, seagrasses, mangroves, and mussels, which support productive and diverse consumer assemblages (Knight et al., 2015; Nguyen et al., 2020; Paquette et al., 2019; Saldana et al., 2021; Thomsen et al., 2018; Vaslet et al., 2012; Whippo et al., 2018). Consumer survival and performance improves in these biogenic habitats because they provision both food and shelter (Kuempel & Altieri, 2017; Lewis & Smith, 2019; Sides & Woodley, 1985), they typically also support higher consumer biomass and diversity than structurally simple habitats (Nelson et al., 2016; Saldana et al., 2021). However, as these habitats are degraded or lost, the effects on the recruitment, abundance, and diversity of consumer communities vary depending on both the type of habitat and the nature of its relationship to consumers (Byrnes et al., 2011; Campbell et al., 2018; Nelson et al., 2016; Saldana et

al., 2021; Tomas et al., 2015). Given the rapid rate of loss of biogenic foundation species around the globe, understanding how this loss affects the performance and distribution of consumer communities is becoming increasingly urgent.

Thesis overview

In this thesis, I seek to explain how environmental variation in temperature, resource availability, and habitat quality impact the feeding ecology, performance, and abundance of marine ectotherms. I then test whether these effects scale up to impact higher levels of ecological organization, including the global distribution of herbivorous fishes (Chapter 2), the distribution of tropical damselfishes in a highly seasonal, heterogeneous environment (Chapter 3), and the functional composition of coral-associated invertebrates (Chapter 4). Across all three chapters, I show how environmental variation shapes the ecology and physiology of marine species, and how we can leverage this variation to better understand patterns of distribution and community structure.

In the second chapter of my thesis, I tested the temperature constraint hypothesis, which proposes that herbivorous fishes are rare at high latitudes because low temperatures impede the digestion of plant material (Gaines & Lubchenco, 1982; Trip et al., 2014). To test this hypothesis, I collected and analyzed a dataset of 99 published studies to quantify the relationship between temperature and the gut passage time, absorption efficiency, and gut length of fishes consuming

different diets. I found that although the gut passage time of herbivorous fishes is disproportionately long for species in cold environments, this relationship appears to be driven by the high representation of fish that rely on hindgut fermentation in temperate ecosystems, which typically have longer gut passage times (Clements et al., 2014). Because herbivorous fishes that use hindgut fermentation have symbioses that likely provide nutritional benefits to the host (Clements et al., 2009; Lilburn et al., 2001), this increase in gut passage time at low temperatures may not constitute a disadvantage, but rather a trade-off. However, it is unclear whether fermentation is the only digestive mechanism that performs well at low temperatures, as the digestive strategies of most herbivorous fishes have not been clearly documented. Understanding the geographic distribution and performance of different digestive strategies, as well as the phylogeography of herbivory, may constitute a promising avenue to explain the global distribution of herbivorous fishes.

The third chapter of my thesis tests whether and how understanding environmental controls on species' feeding and digestive performance can inform species distribution models. Specifically, I test how seasonal upwelling influences the feeding, digestion, body condition and distribution of three tropical damselfish species consuming different diets. I predicted that upwelling could improve damselfishes' physiological condition because increased resource availability and

decreased metabolic demands would allow individuals to accumulate more mass; alternatively, I predicted that upwelling would cause damselfishes to have worse physiological condition due to cold stress and slow rates of digestion. I further predicted that species that exhibited improved physiological performance under upwelling conditions would exhibit increased probability of occupancy and biomass under strong upwelling conditions. My results reveal that damselfish are generally able to take advantage of increased resource availability during seasonal upwelling, in part by lengthening their guts and increasing their digestive capacity. Further, my distributional models showed that species that performed well under upwelling conditions had higher probability of occupancy and biomass under strong upwelling conditions, consistent with the hypothesis that more favourable environmental conditions lead to increased abundance.

In the fourth chapter of my thesis, I characterized how the functional composition of coral-associated invertebrate assemblages changes along a gradient of habitat degradation, and estimated dominance and niche breadth (using isotopic data) in common invertebrate consumers. My results show that the biomass of trophic functional groups responds differently to the degradation of coral reef habitat, likely due to the different ways they depend on coral. All functional groups tended to be dominated by a small number of species, but this tendency was particularly pronounced in deposit feeders and grazers. Altogether, these findings

suggest that as Caribbean coral habitats continue to degrade, the relative representation of different functional groups will change. Further, the relative dominance of only a handful of species of consumers indicates that some functions provided by these assemblages (algal consumption, detrital consumption) are particularly vulnerable to species loss.

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Chapter 2: A global meta-analysis of temperature effects on marine fishes' digestion across trophic groups

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Abstract

Aim: The temperature constraint hypothesis proposes that marine herbivorous fishes are rare at high latitudes relative to carnivorous fishes because low temperatures impair the digestion of plant material. To test this hypothesis, we compared the effects of temperature on the digestive performance and investment in digestion of marine fishes across trophic groups.

Location: Global marine ecosystems.

Major taxa studied: Marine fishes.

Methods: We analysed data from 304 species consuming a range of diets to quantify the effects of temperature on three indicators of digestive performance and investment: gut passage time, absorption efficiency, and gut length.

Results: Decreasing temperatures increase gut passage time in fishes consuming macroalgae more than fishes consuming other fish or invertebrates. Low temperatures do not impair absorption efficiency in fishes regardless of diet, but herbivores have lower absorption efficiencies than carnivores overall. Gut length decreases with decreasing temperature in all trophic groups.

Main conclusions: Our analyses reveal limited evidence to support the temperature constraint hypothesis. Low temperatures slow digestion more in fishes consuming macroalgae than those consuming animal prey; however, this

may not reflect a meaningful disadvantage for herbivores but rather could be explained by greater representation of fishes relying on microbial fermentation at high latitudes. Herbivorous fishes absorb nutrients and energy from their food in similar proportions regardless of temperature, in contrast to the expectations of the temperature constraint hypothesis. Decreased gut length was associated with decreasing temperature across all trophic groups, likely due to improved food quality at high latitudes, which should benefit all trophic groups by reducing their required investment in gut tissues. Altogether, our findings run counter to the general hypothesis that low temperatures disadvantage the digestion of plant material and suppress the diversity and abundance of herbivorous fishes at high latitudes.

Keywords: absorption efficiency, diversity, fishes, gut length, gut passage time, herbivory, latitudinal gradient, marine, nutrients, temperature

Introduction

Temperature imposes physiological constraints on taxa, and these constraints can drive global patterns of phylogenetic and functional biodiversity (Brown et al., 2004; Chown et al., 2004). Physiological constraints resulting from different thermal regimes may disproportionately favour taxa with certain traits and can spur novel adaptations that permit colonization and diversification by specific phylogenetic

groups (Clarke & Johnston, 1996; Espinoza et al., 2004; Grady et al., 2019).

Understanding how physiological constraints contribute to patterns of biodiversity is crucial, particularly given the rapid pace of climate change and species introductions that are reshaping biodiversity worldwide (Sardain et al., 2019; Sunday et al., 2015; Vergés et al., 2019).

It has been proposed that thermal constraints drive global patterns of fish biodiversity based on the observation that the abundance and diversity of herbivorous fishes relative to all fishes decline with increasing latitude and decreasing temperature (Ferreira et al., 2004; Floeter et al., 2004, 2005; Gaines & Lubchenco, 1982; Meekan & Choat, 1997). This relationship between temperature and the distribution of herbivorous fishes is of critical interest because of herbivorous fishes' potential to have profound impacts on community structure and ecosystem function, as shown by recent poleward expansions in the distribution of marine herbivorous fishes and the 'tropicalization' of marine ecosystems (Hyndes et al., 2016; Vergés et al., 2014, 2016, 2019; Zarco-Perello et al., 2020, 2017). A commonly invoked explanation for the relative rarity of herbivorous fishes at high latitudes is the temperature constraint hypothesis, which proposes that herbivorous fishes have greater difficulty than carnivorous fishes meeting their nutritional requirements with decreasing temperature due to constraints on

digestion (Ferreira et al., 2004; Floeter et al., 2004, 2005; Gaines & Lubchenco, 1982; Harmelin-Vivien, 2002).

However, physiological evidence for the temperature constraint hypothesis from case studies and targeted observations appears inconsistent. In support of the temperature constraint hypothesis, observational and experimental evidence from several species of omnivore indicates that low temperatures disadvantage plant consumption (Behrens & Lafferty, 2007, 2012; González-Bergonzoni et al., 2016; Vejříková et al., 2016), and a comparison of feeding and metabolic rates of a tropical surgeonfish suggests that this species is limited by nutrient uptake at the cold end of its range (Floeter et al., 2005). In contrast, there are a variety of successful cold-water herbivores (Clements et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 2020; Knudsen et al., 2019) that appear to belie the hypothesis that cold waters disadvantage herbivory in fishes. For example, the temperate herbivore *Odax pullus* exhibits patterns of growth, demography and abundance across its thermal range that mirror those of a phylogenetically related carnivore (Trip et al., 2014). Some Antarctic notothenioids include plant material in their diet, showing that plant consumption occurs even at extreme thermal lows (Barrera-Oro, 2002; BarreraOro & Casaux, 1990; Casaux et al., 2003; Iken et al., 1997). These various findings suggest that at a minimum, any negative effects of low temperatures on the digestion of plant material are not sufficient to exclude all clades and functional

groups of herbivorous fish from cold regions. Possibly, they indicate that the role of temperature has been overstated and that thermal constraints are not a consequential driver of latitudinal patterns of fish herbivory (Clements et al., 2009). If this is the case, future efforts to identify the processes driving this gradient might more profitably focus on evolutionary explanations that do not depend on thermal constraints (Harmelin-Vivien, 2002).

These apparently contradictory findings on the effects of low temperatures on fish herbivory could be accounted for by the phylogenetic and functional diversity of herbivorous fishes. Herbivory has arisen multiple times in fishes, in both tropical (Egan et al., 2018; German et al., 2010; Lobato et al., 2014) and extratropical waters (Knudsen et al., 2019). As such, herbivorous fishes are a diverse group, and different species feed on biochemically distinct foods that vary substantially in nutritional content and digestibility (Horn, 1989; Montgomery & Gerking, 1980). Moreover, there are a variety of mechanisms and strategies employed by herbivores for digesting food, including mechanical grinding, acid lysis, endogenous enzymes, and fermentation (Horn, 1989; Horn & Messer, 1992). It is thus possible that the digestive performance of herbivorous species across temperatures is contingent on the type of plant material ingested or the digestive mechanism used, and that specific lineages or functional groups of herbivores experience thermal constraints where others do not. However, the effects of

temperature on digestive performance, and whether those effects differ depending on species' diets or digestive physiology, are poorly understood due to a lack of systematic comparisons across species.

Although digestion in fishes is a complex process that integrates across physiology, morphology, behaviour and ecology, gut passage time and absorption efficiency are two indicators of digestive performance that have been widely reported. Gut passage time (the time required for food to pass through the digestive tract) potentially constrains the maximum feeding rate of fishes (Clements et al., 2009; Pandian & Vivekanandan, 1985); fishes can require upwards of 50 hr to digest a meal (e.g. Benavides et al., 1994). Gut passage time is expected to increase with decreasing temperature for all fishes (Edwards, 1971; Horn & Gibson, 1990), as decreasing temperature generally slows biological rates (Brown et al., 2004), but it is unclear whether the rate of increase differs between herbivores and carnivores. If gut passage time increases more for herbivores than carnivores with decreasing temperature, it could disproportionately constrain nutrient uptake in herbivorous fishes by limiting their intake of plant material. Alternatively, it could indicate a shift in digestive mechanisms: herbivores relying on microbial fermentation are thought to have longer gut passage times than herbivores relying on endogenous enzymes (Clements et al., 2014), but the distribution of species dependent on microbial fermentation across latitudes is unclear. Absorption efficiency is the proportion of

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nutrients retained during digestion; decreasing absorption efficiency reduces nutrient uptake from a given food item as more nutrients are lost to egestion (Ireland & Horn, 1991; Montgomery & Gerking, 1980; Pillans et al., 2004). Herbivores are expected to have lower absorption efficiencies than carnivores due to the lower nitrogen content in their food (Pandian & Marian, 1985), but it is unknown whether decreasing temperatures exacerbate this disparity in absorption efficiencies.

Gut length (generally measured as the length of the digestive tract from oesophagus to anus) is not a direct measure of digestive performance, but rather investment in digestion. Resources invested in the maintenance and function of gut tissue cannot be used for growth or reproduction, and as such, gut length should be optimized to maximize nutrient uptake while minimizing tissue investment (Horn & Messer, 1992). Herbivorous fishes typically have longer guts than carnivores because of the lower nutrient concentrations and greater refractory material in an herbivorous diet (Horn & Messer, 1992; Karachle & Stergiou, 2010a, 2010b). To our knowledge, the effects of temperature on gut length have not been systematically tested, though a case study has demonstrated that with decreasing temperature, gut length increases as enzyme activity decreases in the Malabar blood snapper (*Lutjanus malabaricus*; Mazumder et al., 2018). Similarly, we suggest that cold-water herbivorous fishes living at low temperatures could have longer

guts to offset any negative effects of low temperature on nutrient uptake and allow them to meet their nutritional demands.

In this study we conducted the first broad-scale test of physiological mechanisms that could underlie the temperature constraint hypothesis by analysing the effects of temperature and diet on digestive performance and investment in marine fishes. Specifically, we quantified the effects of temperature on the gut passage time, absorption efficiency, and gut length of herbivorous, omnivorous and carnivorous fishes using a global dataset compiled from the primary literature. Our analyses tested whether decreasing temperatures are associated with disproportionate (a) increases in gut passage time, (b) decreases in absorption efficiency, and/or (c) increases in gut length in herbivorous fishes, relative to carnivorous fishes. To address the possibility that low temperatures impede digestion in some functional groups of herbivores but not others, we distinguished among fishes consuming different types of herbivorous diets (e.g. macroalgae, seagrass, diatoms, etc.) in our analyses. Furthermore, although insufficient data were available to systematically classify species based on the type of digestive mechanism used, we discuss the role that reliance on these different mechanisms may play in shaping digestive performance across temperature.

Methods

Literature search

We searched Web of Science, JSTOR, and Google Scholar for estimates of gut passage time, absorption efficiency and gut length. We also included data that were found in relevant review papers and in publications that cited, or were cited in, the papers discovered in our database search, as well as papers found incidentally. Our efforts resulted in a set of 99 studies that were included in the final analysis (Figure 2.1, Appendix, Supporting Information Appendix 2S1). These studies include 89 estimates of gut passage time (across 40 species), 500 estimates of absorption efficiency (across 50 species), and 358 estimates of gut length (across 249 species). Data for carnivores were available across a wider thermal range (0.2–30°C) than data for herbivores (9–30°C).

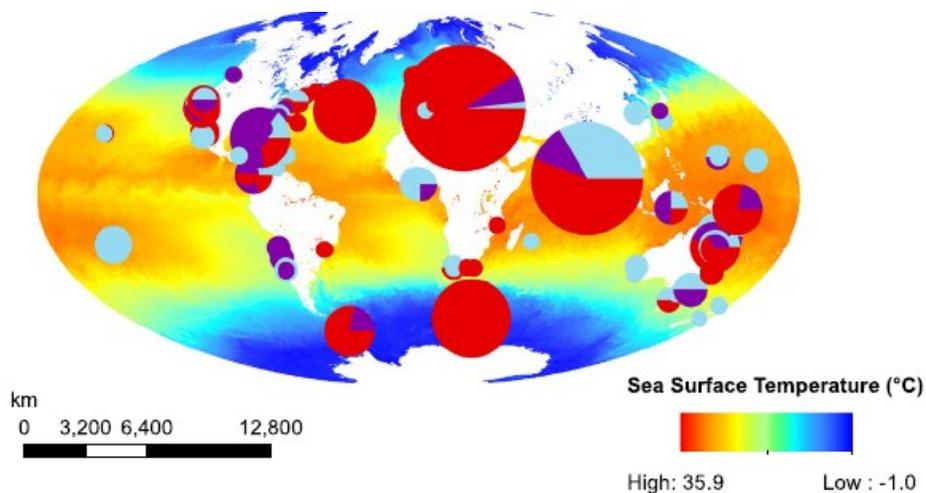


Figure 2.1. World map (Aitoff's projection) showing the locations of all studies included in the analysis. The size of each point is proportional to the number of species in each study (range: 1–56 species), and colours show the proportion of herbivorous (blue), omnivorous (purple) and carnivorous (red) species. Data shown on map are from all three primary response variables (gut passage time, absorption efficiency, and gut length). Sea surface temperature data provided by the Naval Oceanographic Office (2008).

Selection criteria and data extraction

We collected quantitative estimates of gut passage time, absorption efficiency and gut length from the studies resulting from our literature search. Data from figures were extracted using Datathief (Tummers, 2006). We only accepted data for fish species that are marine or estuarine and non-larval. We did not accept data on primarily detritivorous or corallivorous species. We also did not accept data from aquaculture studies that optimized food composition using artificial ingredients as these studies represent too large a departure from natural consumer–resource relationships and could introduce a bias towards higher absorption efficiencies. We also did not accept data if the focal species was force-fed a species of algae not typically consumed in the wild, as this could bias the data towards lower absorption efficiencies. For absorption efficiency, we accepted data for all nutrients (e.g. protein, carbohydrates) and dietary components (e.g. organic

content, energetic content) as long as we were able to find a minimum of five papers that reported absorption efficiency data for that category. Additionally, we collected estimates of nutrient concentrations from these papers if the study used food items present (or similar to those present) in the focal species' natural diet. We collected temperature and diet as predictor variables, as well as body length, since many biological traits scale with size (Brown et al., 2004). If body mass but not length was reported, we used species-specific length–weight relationships to estimate length. If temperature was not given for a study, we used sea surface temperatures of the study location and time as reported by the COBE-SST2 dataset provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Physical Sciences Laboratory ([https:// psl.noaa.gov/](https://psl.noaa.gov/)).

We classified species' diets into the following categories: fish, invertebrates, zooplankton, macroalgae, turf algae, diatoms, a mix of detritus, algae and other plant material (herbivore-detritivore), or a mix of plant and animal material (omnivore). We accepted the diet characterization reported for each species in the original study, but if the species' diet was not clearly characterized, we searched the literature for other descriptions. Not all categories are represented in all analyses due to insufficient sample sizes. Few experiments on gut passage time and absorption efficiency fed fish an omnivorous diet, so we did not include omnivores in analyses of those response variables, unless the omnivorous species was fed an

exclusively plant- or animal-based meal. In that event, the species was included in our analysis and classified based on the food type used in the experiment. For the analysis of gut passage time, only two estimates were obtained for piscivores, so we collapsed piscivores and invertivores into a single category. For the analysis of gut length, we created an additional category for species that feed on a mixture of invertebrates and fish.

Statistical analysis

We analysed our dataset using multilevel generalized linear models that were built with the 'brms' package in R version 3.4.4 (Bürkner, 2017; R Core Team, 2019). Gut passage time was modelled using the gamma distribution, absorption efficiency and nutrient concentrations using the beta distribution, and gut length using the lognormal distribution. To determine if the digestive performances of herbivores and carnivores respond differently to temperature, we built sets of competing models for each response variable that tested different combinations of predictor variables including temperature, diet, and a temperature*diet interaction. For absorption efficiency, we tested for an effect of the nutrient or component being absorbed, as well as the method used to quantify absorption (marker or total collection). Body length (ln-transformed) was included in our analyses of gut length, but earlier modelling efforts showed that body length was not a meaningful predictor for gut passage time or absorption efficiency. For gut passage time, we

accounted for repeat sampling in the data by including species identity as a random effect (but not study identity, as very few studies quantified gut passage time for multiple species). For absorption efficiency, we included both species identity and study identity as random effects. For gut length we were unable to include species identity as a random effect because it impeded our ability to calculate model weights (see Supporting Information Appendix S1), and so restricted our analysis to one estimate of gut length per species. We did include study identity and phylogenetic order (to account for influence of body shape on gut length; Karachle & Stergiou, 2010b) as random effects. We note that although we modelled unadjusted gut length in all of our analyses, relative gut length (gut length/body length; RGL) is also presented in our results to facilitate comparison between groups. Differences in the nutrient concentrations of plants and animals were analysed using only diet (plant or animal) as a predictor variable. Due to limited sample sizes, we did not differentiate between specific diet types (e.g. diatoms versus macroalgae).

To determine which model best described each response variable, we used Pareto-smoothed importance sampling leave-one-out (PSIS-LOO) cross-validation ('loo' package; Vehtari et al., 2017). We then used PSIS-LOO estimates to compete models against one another and calculate both LOO and stacked model weights (Vehtari et al., 2017; Yao et al., 2018). LOO model weights represent a form of

model selection that assigns probabilities describing the likelihood that each candidate model best predicts the data out of a model set. In contrast, stacked model weights represent a form of model averaging that jointly optimizes model weights to describe the combination of models that best describe the data. We reran each set of models 10–12 times to calculate averages and standard errors of model weights.

Below we present the best model for each response variable as selected by PSIS-LOO cross-validation. A more detailed explanation of the statistical analyses and the full output of all models tested are available in Supporting Information Appendix S1.

Results

Gut passage time

Decreasing temperature was associated with an overall increase in gut passage time for fishes across all diet types, but the rate of increase in gut passage time was greater for macroalgivores than carnivores consuming fish or invertebrates (Figure 2.2). Model selection found the strongest support for the diet*temperature interaction model ($89 \pm 2\%$ SE of LOO weight; $80 \pm 1\%$ SE of stacked weight) out of the three competing models. The model predicted that gut passage time increased with decreasing temperature at similar rates for

carnivorous fishes (n = 24) and fishes consuming diatoms (n = 10), seagrass (n = 4), turf algae (n = 2) and zooplankton (n = 7; 2c). However, the available data for these diet categories were considerably more limited than for macroalgivores (n = 42). The model detected no independent diet effects (Figure 2.2b), predicting that gut passage time did not differ consistently among macroalgivores, carnivores, or any other group based on diet alone, but was instead temperature dependent.

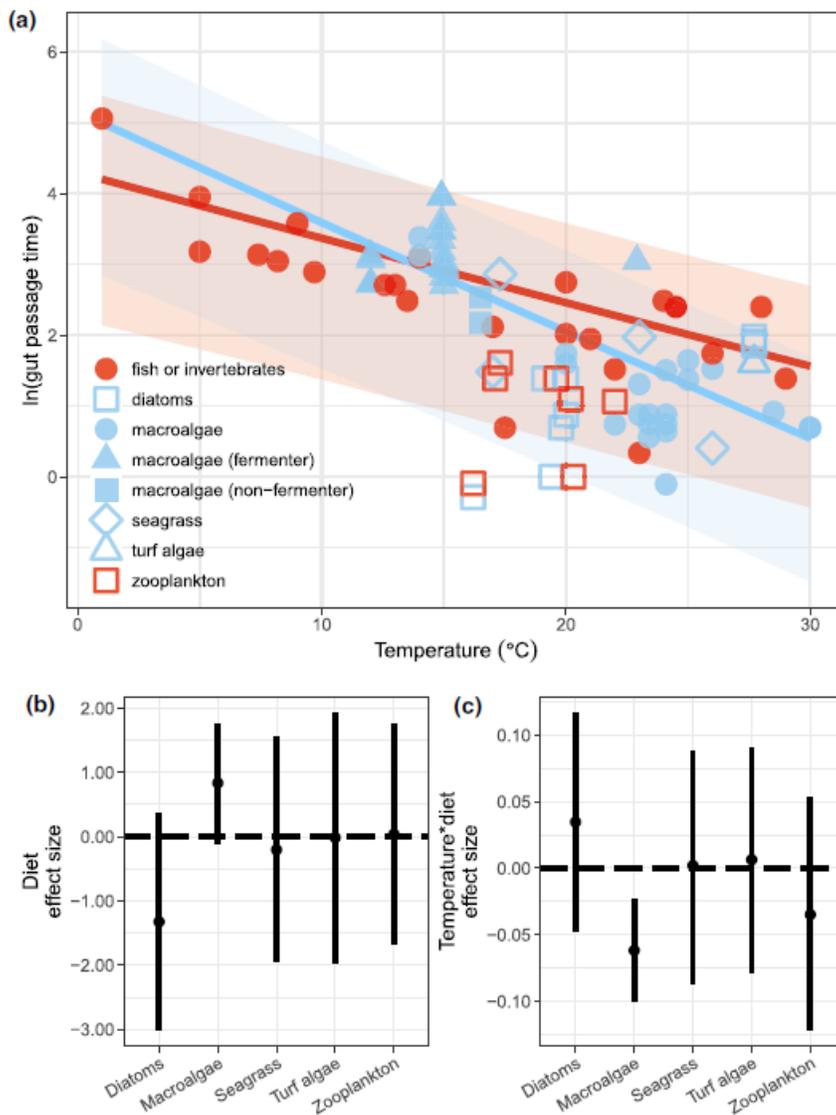


Figure 2.2. Gut passage time of marine fishes (40 species, n = 89) as it relates to temperature and diet. Estimates and 95% credibility intervals (CIs) in all three panels are from the best supported model describing gut passage time ($\ln(\text{gut passage time}) \sim \text{diet} * \text{temperature}$). All values of gut passage time and effect sizes are \ln -transformed. (a) Gut passage time against temperature. Lines and shaded areas show means and 95% CIs, respectively, of gut passage time for carnivores consuming fish or invertebrates (red) and macroalgivores (blue) as predicted by the model. Macroalgivores that are known to ferment or not ferment their food are distinguished. (b) Estimated effect of diet on gut passage time and 95% CIs. The y axis represents the difference between the gut passage time of each diet type and the gut passage time of carnivores consuming fish or invertebrates (the model intercept). Diet did not have an independent effect on gut passage time, as shown by overlapping 95% CIs for all categories. (c) Estimated diet*temperature interaction effects and 95% CIs. The y axis represents the estimated differences between the effect of temperature on the gut passage time of carnivores consuming fish or invertebrates and the effect of temperature on other diet types. The figure shows that the gut passage time of macroalgivorous fishes responded more strongly to changes in temperature than did the gut passage time of carnivores.

Absorption efficiency

Model selection did not support an effect of temperature on absorption efficiency; model selection assigned the most support to the diet-only model ($48 \pm 2\%$ SE of LOO weight, $83 \pm 4\%$ SE of stacked weight), and the 95% credibility intervals of temperature and temperature*diet interaction effects in non-selected models consistently overlapped with 0. Absorption efficiency was consistently lower for herbivores than carnivores (Figure 2.3a,b) but all herbivores had similar absorption efficiencies whether they consumed diatoms, macroalgae, seagrass or turf algae; likewise, carnivores had similar absorption efficiencies regardless of diet. Across all trophic groups and diets, several compounds were absorbed at much higher proportions relative to total absorption efficiency ($58 \pm 25\%$ SD; Figure 2.3c), particularly nitrogen ($76 \pm 18\%$ SD), protein ($84 \pm 13\%$ SD) and energy ($86 \pm 18\%$ SD).

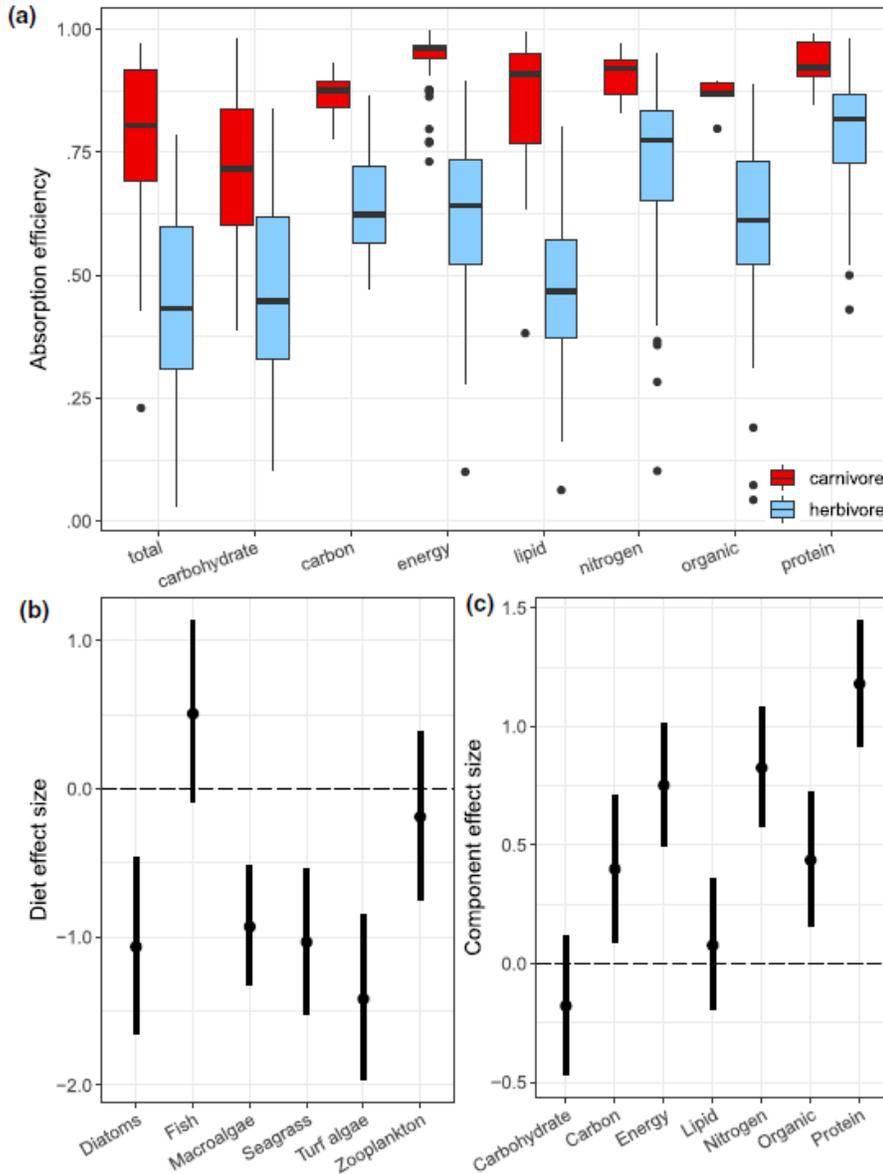


Figure 2.3. Absorption efficiency of marine fishes (50 species, $n = 500$) as it relates to diet and component absorbed. Estimates and 95% credibility intervals (CIs) in bottom two panels are from the best supported model describing absorption efficiency (absorption efficiency \sim diet + component). All effect size estimates and 95% CIs are logit-transformed. (a) Absorption efficiencies of carnivores (red) and herbivores (blue). (b) Estimated effect of diet on absorption efficiency. The y axis

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represents the estimated difference between the absorption efficiency of each diet type and the absorption efficiency of invertivores (the model intercept). Figure shows that absorption efficiency was lower for all herbivorous diet types. (c) estimated effect of component on absorption efficiency. The y axis represents the difference between the absorption efficiency of different food components and total absorption efficiency (the model intercept). Figure shows that carbon, energy, nitrogen, organic material, and protein absorption efficiencies were greater than total absorption efficiency.

Gut length

Gut length decreased in association with decreasing temperature at similar rates for fishes across all diet types (Figure 42.4a). Model selection assigned the most weight to the temperature + diet model ($74 \pm 2\%$ SE of LOO weight, $76 \pm 3\%$ SE of stacked weight). Carnivorous fishes had shorter guts than omnivorous and herbivorous fishes (Figure 2.4b,c). Relative gut length (gut length/body length; RGL) for carnivores was 0.9 ± 0.8 SD, for omnivores 1.6 ± 1.4 SD and for herbivores 3.4 ± 2.0 SD. Within carnivores, gut length was not credibly different among the four diet types (invertebrates: 0.9 RGL ± 0.9 SD; invertebrates and fish: 0.9 RGL ± 0.6 SD; fish: 0.6 RGL ± 0.2 SD; zooplankton: 1.2 RGL ± 0.5 SD). Among herbivores, there was no credible difference in gut length between herbivore-detritivores (3.5 RGL ± 2.1 SD),

macroalgivores ($2.6 \text{ RGL} \pm 1.2 \text{ SD}$), and consumers of turf algae ($4.3 \text{ RGL} \pm 1.8 \text{ SD}$) or diatoms ($3.3 \pm 2.8 \text{ SD}$).

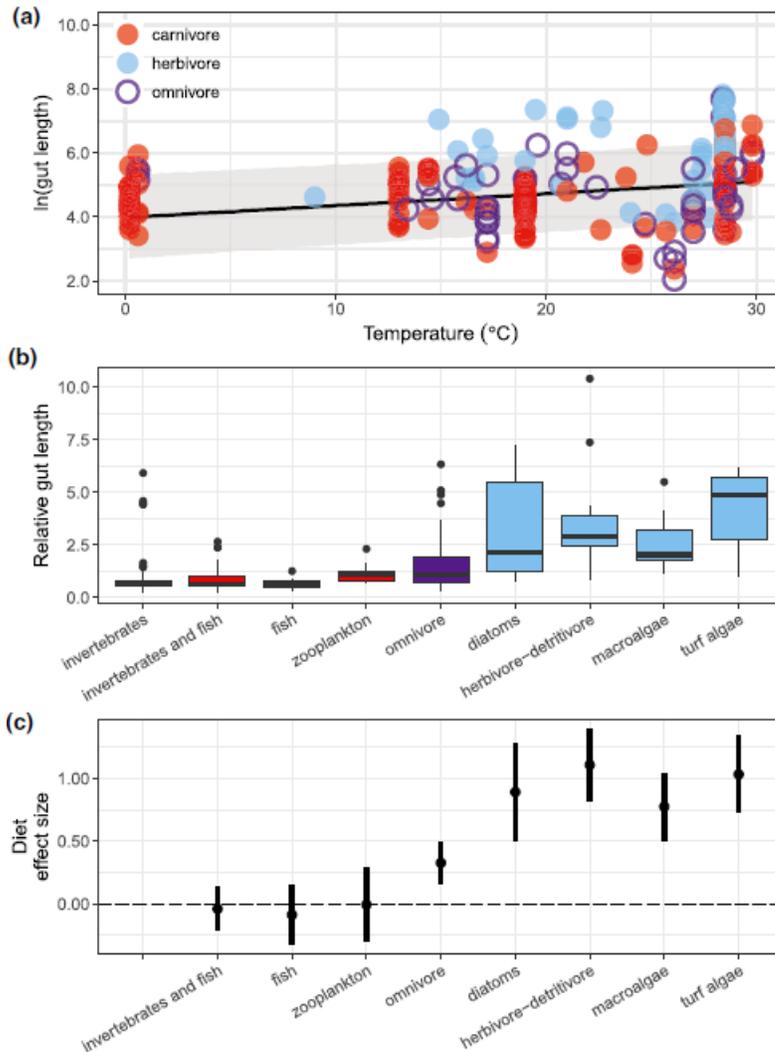


Figure 2.4. Gut length of marine fishes (249 species, $n = 249$) as it relates to temperature and diet. Estimates and 95% credibility intervals (CIs) in panels (a) and (c) are from the best supported model describing \ln -transformed gut length (gut length $\sim \ln(\text{body length}) + \text{temperature} + \text{diet}$). All effect size estimates and 95% CIs are \ln -transformed. (a) Gut lengths (uncorrected for body length) of carnivores

(red), omnivores (purple) and herbivores (blue). Line and shaded areas show mean and 95% CI of the gut length of invertivores across temperature, respectively. (b) Relative gut length (gut length/body length; RGL) of fishes consuming different diets. (c) Estimated effect of diet on gut length with 95% CIs. The y axis represents the difference between the gut length of invertivores (the model intercept) and other diet types. Figure shows that omnivores and all herbivorous diet types had longer guts than invertivores.

Nutrient concentrations

Plants fed to herbivorous fishes in our analysis were nutrient-poor compared to animal prey fed to carnivores (Figure 2.5). Plants had significantly lower concentrations of energy, nitrogen, carbon, protein and lipids than animal prey. Notably, there was a large difference in protein content between plant ($8.0 \pm 4.7\%$ SD) and animal ($57.9 \pm 15.7\%$ SD) material, as well as nitrogen content (plant: $2.4 \pm 1.0\%$ SD; animal: $9.3 \pm 1.8\%$ SD) and energy content (plant: 11.1 ± 3.7 kJ/g SD; animal: 18.7 ± 3.4 kJ/g SD).

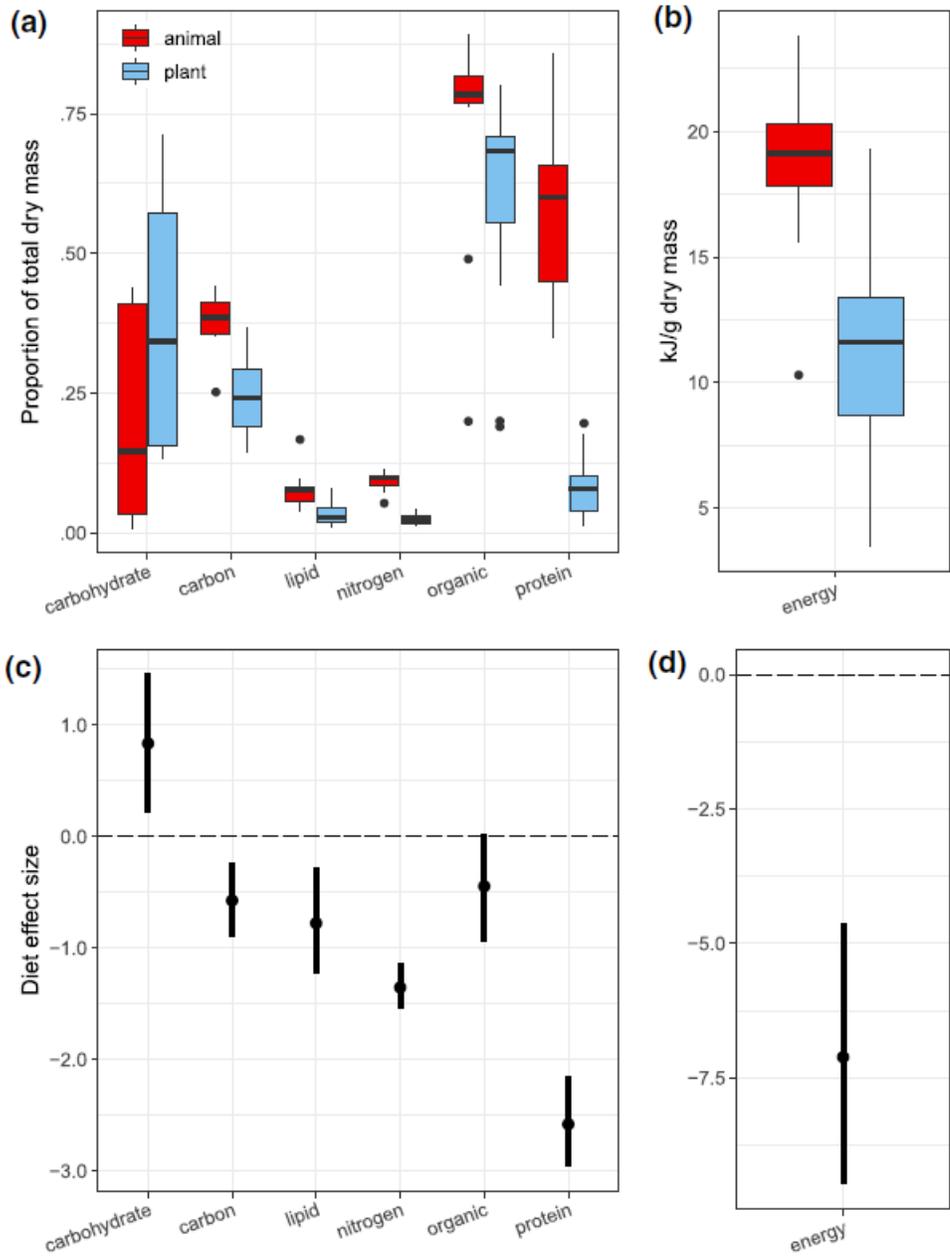


Figure 2.5. Nutrient/component content of animal and plant food items included in this analysis. Estimates and 95% credibility intervals (CIs) in panels (c) and (d) are from models describing each component's dependence on diet type (component ~ diet) for 75 plant and animal food items (not all nutrients were measured for each

food item). Effect size estimates and 95% CIs are logit-transformed for all components except energy. (a) Proportion of total dry mass represented by different nutrients/ components in animal (red) and plant (blue) foods. (b) Energy content in animal (red) and plant (blue) foods per g dry mass. (c) Estimated effect of diet on relative nutrient/component content. The y axis represents the estimated difference between the relative content in animal and plant foods. Figure shows that the relative carbon, lipid, nitrogen and protein content was lower in plant than animal foods, and carbohydrate content was higher. (d) Estimated effect of diet on energy content. Figure shows that plant foods had less energy than animal foods.

Discussion

Using a global database of 304 marine fish species and 99 studies (Figure 2.1), we tested potential mechanisms thought to be the basis for the temperature constraint hypothesis, that is, whether the relatively low abundance and diversity of herbivorous fishes at high latitudes can be explained by inhibited plant digestion at low temperatures. Our analyses of gut passage time, absorption efficiency and gut length reveal that currently available data offer little support for the temperature constraint hypothesis. We demonstrate that decreasing temperature slows down digestion more for macroalgivores than carnivores (Figure 2.2); however, it is unclear whether this disproportionate increase in gut passage time reflects a true disadvantage to herbivorous fishes or rather results from an increase in the

representation of herbivorous fishes that use microbial fermentation to digest their food (Clements et al., 2014). Temperature does not drive a systematic difference in absorption efficiency between herbivorous and carnivorous fishes (Figure 2.3), which excludes reduced absorption efficiency at low temperatures as a possible explanation for the temperature constraint hypothesis. Finally, we show that gut length decreases with decreasing temperature for all trophic groups (Figure 2.4), which could indicate a re-allocation of resources for other somatic growth and/or reproduction, benefitting all trophic groups similarly.

Our analysis of gut passage times shows that decreasing temperature slows digestion in macroalgivorous fishes more than in carnivorous fishes (Figure 2.2). Although longer gut passage times at low temperatures could represent a disadvantage for herbivorous fishes by limiting feeding rates, as predicted by the temperature constraint hypothesis, this pattern could alternatively be explained by the latitudinal distribution of herbivorous fishes that rely on microbial fermentation to digest their food. Species with high levels of microbial fermentation are associated with longer gut passage times than fishes relying primarily on endogenous enzymes (Clements et al., 2014). Microbial fermentation has been recorded in both tropical (Clements & Choat, 1995) and temperate fishes (Clements & Choat, 1997), but the relative representation of fermenting and non-fermenting fishes across latitudes is unknown. Levels of fermentation have been quantified in

very few marine herbivores (too few to include as a predictor in our analyses), and use of fermentation is inconsistent even within families (German et al., 2015). However, microbial fermentation appears to be a requirement for fishes that consume brown algae such as kelps, as endogenous enzymes cannot break down storage compounds such as mannitol (White et al., 2010). Thus, if fermenting herbivores are better represented at low temperatures within our dataset, it could explain why our models detected a greater increase in gut passage time with decreasing temperature among fishes consuming macroalgae.

It may be that herbivorous fishes relying on fermentation still suffer a disadvantage due to increased gut passage times. However, at least one example suggests this is not the case: the temperate, fermenting herbivore *Odax pullus* reaches high abundances even in the coldest part of its range, and exhibits patterns of growth and distribution that mirror those of the related carnivore *Notolabrus fucicola* (Trip et al., 2014). Clements et al. (2009) have proposed that eukaryotic symbionts in the hindgut, such as nematodes, consume and digest fermenting microbes, then excrete amino acids that are available for host uptake. Fish hindguts also support symbiotic spirochaetes that have been identified as nitrogen fixers in other animals (Clements et al., 2009; Lilburn et al., 2001). This suggests that microbial fermentation offers nutritional benefits to fishes that offset the cost of

increased gut passage time. However, further research is needed to clarify the nutritional relationships between herbivorous fishes and their gut symbionts.

Our analysis revealed that decreasing temperature does not decrease absorption efficiency in herbivorous fishes (Figure 2.3). Absorption efficiency is temperature-independent across all trophic groups likely because increased gut passage times maintain rates of nutrient absorption at low temperatures. We observed that absorption efficiency in herbivores is generally lower than in carnivores. This is consistent with previous work showing that total absorption efficiency is correlated with the nitrogen content of the food ingested (Pandian & Marian, 1985); nitrogen content in plant material in our analysis was substantially lower than in animal prey (Figure 2.5). Furthermore, we found absorption efficiencies are highest for nitrogen, energy and protein, supporting previous suggestions that herbivorous fishes optimize feeding and digestion to fulfil protein or energy requirements, as herbivorous fishes typically consume protein- and energy-poor foods (Bowen et al., 1995; Fris & Horn, 1993; Horn et al., 1995; Horn et al., 1986; Johnson et al., 2017).

Decreasing temperature was associated with decreased gut length among all trophic groups (Figure 2.4), contradicting the prediction that gut length in herbivores would increase to offset the negative effects of low temperatures on

plant digestion. This surprising finding might not be caused by a direct temperature effect on gut length, but by an increase in diet quality at low temperatures. Fishes consuming a nutrient-rich diet are predicted to have shorter guts because enzymatic reaction rates and consequently nutrient uptake are faster at high nutrient concentrations, allowing for a shorter gut to meet an individual's nutritional demands (Horn & Messer, 1992). The palatability and nitrogen concentration of marine plants increases with decreasing temperature and increasing latitude (Borer et al., 2013; Brey et al., 2010; Vergés et al., 2018), which should increase rates of nutrient uptake and allow for a shorter gut among herbivores. In contrast, the nitrogen content of marine animals decreases with decreasing temperature in favour of increased carbon and possibly increased lipid content (Brey et al., 2010). This shift in nutrient composition may favour cold-water carnivorous fishes and allow for a shorter gut: a review of the nutritional requirements of cultured fish found that cold-water species tend to have lower protein requirements and higher lipid requirements than warm-water species (Bowyer et al., 2013). Similarly, increases in diet quality with decreasing temperature could explain reductions in the gut length of omnivores. However, multiple omnivorous species have been shown to increase consumption of animal prey at low temperatures (Behrens & Lafferty, 2007, 2012; González-Bergonzoni et al., 2016, Vejříková et al., 2016), which have higher protein, nitrogen and energy

concentrations than plant material (Figure 2.5). Therefore, we cannot exclude the possibility that this phenomenon contributes to latitudinal gradients in gut length.

The interpretation of our results requires a consideration of the data that were available for analysis. Researchers tend to work with locally abundant organisms for both ecological and logistical reasons, and so have likely selected study organisms that are locally successful and have strong digestive performance. Thus, although our meta-analysis was able to elucidate general relationships between temperature and aspects of fish digestion, a strong negative effect of low temperatures on a specific clade or functional group of fishes may have been underestimated in our analysis because poorly performing species would likely be passed over when selecting focal species in the original studies. Similarly, the thermal range over which data are available for the digestive performance of herbivores (9–30°C) is smaller than for carnivores (0.2–30°C), presumably due to the rarity of herbivores at lower temperatures. We also found that very few studies have explicitly quantified digestive performance in a given species at multiple temperatures. Future work could quantify the effects of temperature on different types of digestive mechanisms (e.g. the use of fermentation versus endogenous enzymes, acid lysis versus mechanical grinding, etc.), to determine if some types of digestive mechanisms are more effective and/or prevalent at low temperatures than others. Although the relative distribution of herbivorous fishes with latitude

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has been documented in multiple studies (Ferreira et al., 2004; Floeter et al., 2004, 2005; Gaines & Lubchenco, 1982; Meekan & Choat, 1997), relatively little is known about the distribution of digestive mechanisms. Altogether, pursuing these lines of inquiry should contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of how temperature affects different types of herbivorous fishes and contributes to broader patterns of diversity.

Given the lack of support for a general constraint on the digestion of plant material at low temperatures, why are herbivorous fishes relatively rare at high latitudes? As both our analyses and previous work have shown, herbivory is overall energetically inefficient relative to carnivory independent of temperature (Horn, 1989; Pandian & Vivekanandan, 1985), as it entails lower absorption efficiencies (Figure 2.3), longer guts (Figure 2.4) and lower quality food (Figure 2.5). It has been proposed that because of these disadvantages, the evolution of herbivory is more strongly favoured in species-rich environments such as coral reefs, where competition for high quality, easily digestible animal prey is intense (Harmelin-Vivien, 2002). In contrast, relatively low species diversity and high resource availability in temperate environments would render transitions to herbivory less likely. Thus, the relatively low diversity and abundance of herbivorous fishes at low temperatures may be due less to physiological constraints, and more to competition over evolutionary time-scales at low latitudes. Recent work on the

phylogeography of herbivorous fishes (e.g. Egan et al., 2018; Knudsen et al., 2019) provides a promising avenue for exploring alternatives to the temperature constraint hypothesis and identifying the processes driving latitudinal gradients in the evolution and distribution of herbivorous fishes.

Our findings also have key implications concerning ongoing range expansions of herbivorous fishes, which can have transformative impacts on biogenic habitats such as kelp forests and seagrass meadows (Hyndes et al., 2016; Vergés et al., 2014, 2016, 2019; Zarco-Perello et al., 2017, 2020). First, our results suggest that herbivorous fishes colonizing new habitats are not subject to unique thermal constraints as would be expected if low temperatures imposed a general disadvantage on plant digestion. Therefore, herbivorous species should be able to expand their ranges at similar rates as their carnivorous counterparts. However, the effects of herbivorous species' range expansions on biogenic ecosystems depend not only on a species' presence or abundance, but also its per capita consumption rates of plant material (Heck et al., 2015; O'Connor, 2009; Vergés et al., 2018). Given that higher individual consumption rates have been linked to shorter gut passage times and stronger impacts on ecosystem function (Heck et al., 2015), our finding that gut passage time can vary as much as 10-fold between species at a given temperature (Figure 2.2a) has substantial implications. As herbivorous fishes continue to expand their ranges poleward, understanding

individual species' digestive physiology could provide valuable insights as to their likely ecological impact on affected biogenic ecosystems and the diverse communities they support.

Conclusions

Our global analysis of the effects of temperature on digestive performance and investment in marine fishes runs counter to predicted mechanisms of the temperature constraint hypothesis, which claims that low temperatures disadvantage plant digestion by fishes. Across species, the gut passage time of macroalgivores increases at a greater rate with decreasing temperature than carnivores. However, we hypothesize that this relationship results from increased representation of fishes that depend on microbial fermentation rather than an outright negative effect of low temperatures. Other metrics of digestive performance and investment (absorption efficiency and gut length) do not support the temperature constraint hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that if low temperatures have a negative effect on plant digestion, those negative effects are likely confined to specific phylogenetic or functional groups of fishes. Our analysis of the currently available data on temperature and digestion in marine fishes points to several lines of future research, namely (a) investigating the effects of temperature on the performance and distribution of fishes employing specific digestive mechanisms, (b) developing and testing evolutionary hypotheses that could explain gradients in

herbivorous fish diversity, and (c) investigating the relationship between herbivores' digestive physiology and their ecological impact on warming marine ecosystems.

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Data availability statement

All data used in our analyses are publicly available through Dryad (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.g1jws tqq1>), and all data and code are publicly

available through GitHub (<https://github.com/nicoleknight0/meta-analysis-fish-digestion>).

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Appendix 2 : Data collection and analysis

All data are available at Dryad under [doi:10.5061/dryad.g1jwstqq1].

All analyses were conducted using R version 3.6.1 Action of the Toes (R Core Team, 2019).

This document contains model output and model comparisons for all candidate models, but not the results of prior and posterior predictive checks. A reproducible script for all models, plots, and prior and posterior checks is available at <https://github.com/nicoleknight0/meta-analysis-fish-digestion>

1. Literature search and data collection

1.1 Eligibility criteria

For an estimate of gut passage time, absorption efficiency or gut length to be included in our meta-analysis it had to have the following characteristics:

- 1) Taken from marine or estuarine fish species
- 2) Taken from non-larval individuals
- 3) Not taken from species that are strictly detritivorous or corallivorous
- 4) Not taken from individuals fed an artificial diet with optimized composition for nutrient uptake/digestion (i.e., as found in many aquaculture studies)
- 5) Not taken from individuals force-fed food items not typically consumed in the wild

and

6) In the case of gut length, reported some metric of body length or size.

We note that there exists a large body of literature on the “gastric evacuation rates” (the rate at which food leaves the stomach and enters the hindgut) of carnivores, which was developed as a method for indirectly estimating feeding rates by quantifying the minimum amount of time required for stomach clearance between meals (Bromley, 1994). We chose not to include this data in our analysis because: a) almost no data on gastric evacuation rates exists for herbivores so we could not make valid comparisons between trophic groups, and b) gastric evacuation rates have been estimated using a wide range of methods and models, and it is unclear under what circumstances comparisons between such models is meaningful (Bromley, 1994). Gut passage time has been quantified for both herbivores and carnivores and is a more easily comparable metric.

1.2 Information sources and search

We searched Web of Science, JSTOR, and Google Scholar. We also included data that were found in relevant review papers and in publications that cited, or were cited in, the papers discovered in our database search, as well as relevant papers found incidentally. Altogether, we included papers published between 1958 and March 2020. All search term combinations included marine and fish, as well as

the following combinations of additional search terms (but not all search term combinations were used for all databases): assim*, assimilation eff*, absorption, absorption eff*, "absorption efficiency", "assimilation efficiency", excret*, egest*, conversion, "gut length", "gut morphology", gut passage, gut transit, "gut passage time", "gut transit time", digest*, digest* + temperature. We initially excluded studies if their titles or abstracts were not relevant, then checked the remaining studies for data that met the eligibility criteria described above. By the end of this process, 99 studies were eligible for inclusion in the meta-analysis.

1.3 Data collection

Data were extracted from text, tables, and figures in the accepted studies. We collected temperature and diet as predictor variables, as well as body length, since many biological traits scale with size (Brown et al., 2004). However, metrics of body size in reported in collected studies varied widely. Metrics included standard length, total length, and fork length, these were further divided into average values, median values, maximum/minimum values, or no reported values. Whenever possible, we used the average body size; if this was not provided, we used the mid-range (maximum – minimum / 2) body size provided. We did not distinguish between standard, total and fork length. If fish mass but not length was reported, we used published length-weight relationships for the species in question to calculate fish length. These instances are noted in the raw data.

Ambient temperature was likewise not always included in all the studies included in our dataset, particularly for estimates of gut length. We supplemented these datasets by extracting the date and location of data collection from the study and used that data to find the local sea surface temperature (SST) at the time of sampling from the COBE SST data provided by NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD via <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/>. On the rare occasion that the specific collection period was not included in the publication, we took the average temperature of the location for five years preceding publication of the data. These instances are noted in the data.

1.4 Risks of bias across studies

We identified two potential sources of bias across the studies in our dataset: the method used to calculate absorption efficiency (marker method or total collection), and the method used to calculate gut length (from esophagus to anus or pylorus to anus). We specifically address these sources of bias and how they were handled analytically in our descriptions of our analyses for each variable (*Section 4.1 Calculations of absorption efficiency, Section 5.1 Measurement of gut length*).

2. Data analysis strategy

The primary goal of our analyses was to test whether the digestive performance of marine herbivorous fishes is more negatively affected by low

temperatures than carnivorous fishes. To achieve this goal, we analyzed data from four response variables (gut passage time, absorption efficiency and gut length) using a Bayesian framework as implemented by the R package 'brms' (Bürkner, 2018) to analyze our data. For each response variable (except nutrient concentrations), we competed several models against one another to test whether temperature, diet, and a temperature-diet interaction effect were meaningful predictors of the data.

For all models, we chose weakly regularizing priors for all regression coefficients. Uninformative, weakly regularizing priors reduce the risk of overfitting but can increase the probability of not detecting small effect sizes (McElreath, 2016). To check that our priors were reasonable, we ran prior predictive checks following Gabry et al. (2019). To generate posterior probability distributions for each model, we ran four chains of 8,000 iterations each (including 4,000 warm-up iterations). To determine that models converged appropriately we checked for high effective sample sizes, R -hat values of 1, trace plots and low Pareto-K values (using the 'loo' package; Vehtari et al. 2019). Following convention, we calculated 95% credibility intervals for all parameters. We also ran posterior predictive checks.

We used several tools to determine which models best described the data. First, we ran Pareto smoothed importance sampling leave-one-out cross-validation

(PSIS-LOO) to a) check the performance of individual models, and b) calculate model weights (where model weight estimates the probability that the candidate model best describes the data out of the competing set of models; Vehtari et al. 2019). We also used model stacking as an alternative form of model evaluation: model stacking assumes that the true data-generating model may not be included as a candidate model, and so jointly optimizes model weights to maximize predictive power across the entire set of models (Yao et al. 2018). This process has the effect of down-weighting models that make similar predictions (for examples, see <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/loo/vignettes/loo2-weights.html>).

Because model weights calculated using PSIS-LOO can vary for models with relatively small sample sizes (Yao et al. 2018), we reran models and model weighting 10 – 12 times to estimate the standard error associated with all model weights. Finally, to evaluate the importance of individual predictors, we considered the magnitude of the estimated effect size of each explanatory variable and the position of its 95% credibility interval relative to zero.

3. Gut passage time

3.1 Model structure and priors

We modelled gut passage time following a gamma distribution (which is often used to model the duration of an event) with a ln link. All models were fitted using 89 estimates of gut passage time from 40 species. Only temperature, diet,

and a temperature-diet interaction are included as fixed effects (Table 2S3.1); earlier versions of the models included $\ln(\text{body length})$ as a fixed effect, but it was later removed because its parameter estimates were consistently centered on 0. We included species as a random effect to account for repeat sampling, but not study ID, as very few studies (4/33) tested multiple species. Prior definitions are shown in Table 2S3.2.

Table 2S3.1. Gut passage time model definitions. All models include species ID as a random effect.

Model	Model definition
GP.0	gut passage time ~ temperature
GP.1	gut passage time ~ temperature + diet
GP.2	gut passage time ~ temperature * diet

Table 2S3.2. Prior definitions for all gut passage time models.

Coefficient	Prior	Notes
Intercept	Normal(5, 1)	Corresponds to the log-transformed longest recorded gut passage time (estimated at 1°C)
Slope	Normal(0, 1)	For fixed effects

Standard deviation	Exponential(1)	For random effects
Shape parameter (φ)	Gamma(0.01, 0.01)	<i>brms</i> default; appears to behave well

3.2 Model performance

LOO-PSIS cross validation revealed that all models had a large number of observations with high Pareto K values, which indicate influential observations. Although high Pareto-K values can indicate that a model has been misspecified, in this case it is more likely that many observations are influential because many species are represented by only one estimate of gut passage time (see <https://rdrr.io/github/stan-dev/loo/man/loo-glossary.html> under “Pareto-K estimates”). Posterior predictive checks of all models (LOO-PIT, density overlay) indicate that the model estimates fit the data well, but the model estimates of “group” or “random” effects may be sensitive to new data.

3.3 Results

Our models support a temperature-diet interaction effect on the gut passage time of marine fishes (Table 2S3.3, S3.4). Model selection assigned the bulk of model weight ($89 \pm 2\%$ SE of LOO weight; $80 \pm 1\%$ SE of stacking weight) to the

temperature-diet interaction model (Table 2S3.3), followed by the temperature only model ($7 \pm 1\%$ SE LOO weight; $20 \pm 1\%$ SE stacking weight) and the temperature + diet model (2% LOO weight, 0% stacking weight). The temperature-diet interaction model estimated that with decreasing temperature, digestion slows more for fishes consuming macroalgae than for carnivores consuming fish or invertebrates. However, a similar effect was not detected for fishes consuming diatoms, seagrass, or turf algae, though the available data for these categories (N = 10; 4; 2, respectively) were considerably more limited than for macroalgae (N = 42).

Table 2S3.3. Results of leave-one-out pareto-smoothed importance sampling (LOO-PSIS) model evaluations for gut passage time. GP.2 was selected as the best fitting model. All models include species ID as a random effect. $elpd_{loo}$ is the expected log predictive density, p_{loo} is the effective number of parameters, and loo_{ic} is the LOO information criterion. All bracketed values are standard error estimates. Guidelines for interpreting these criteria is available at <https://mc-stan.org/loo/reference/loo-glossary.html>.

Model	Effects tested	$elpd_{loo}$	p_{loo}	loo_{ic}	LOO weight (%)	Stacked weight (%)
GP.0	temperature	-246.9 (10.8)	41.8 (5.0)	493.8 (21.6)	7 (1)	20 (1)

GP.1	diet + temperature	-248.4 (11.1)	45.6 (5.4)	496.8 (22.2)	4 (1)	0 (0)
GP.2	diet * temperature	-245.1 (11.8)	47.8 (6.2)	490.2 (23.5)	89 (2)	80 (1)

Table 2S3.4. Parameter estimates for the three models describing gut passage time of marine fishes. Square brackets indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Parameter	GP.0 (temperature)	GP.1 (diet + temperature)	GP.2 (diet * temperature)
Species	0.83 [0.64, 1.08]	0.83 [0.63, 1.08]	0.77 [0.56, 1.03]
Intercept	4.21 [3.67, 4.74]	4.46 [3.88, 5.06]	4.03 [3.42, 4.65]
Diet: diatoms	na	-0.58 [-1.21, 0.07]	-1.33 [-3.01, 0.37]
Diet: macroalgae	na	-0.42 [-0.96, 0.11]	0.84 [-0.10, 1.75]
Diet: seagrass	na	-0.08 [-0.68, 0.55]	-0.19 [-1.94, 1.55]
Diet: turf algae	na	0.22 [-0.87, 1.31]	-0.01 [-1.96, 1.93]
Diet: zooplankton	na	-0.53 [-1.14, 0.11]	0.04 [-1.66, 1.74]
Temperature	-0.11 [-0.13, -0.09]	-0.11 [-0.13, -0.09]	-0.09 [-0.11, -0.07]
Temperature- diatoms	na	na	0.04 [-0.05, 0.12]

Temperature-macroalgae	na	na	-0.06 [-0.10, -0.02]
Temperature-seagrass	na	na	0.00 [-0.09, 0.09]
Temperature-turf algae	na	na	0.01 [-0.08, 0.09]
Temperature-zooplankton	na	na	-0.03 [-0.12, 0.05]

4. Absorption efficiency

4.1 Calculation of absorption efficiency

In the primary literature, absorption efficiency was calculated as a percentage of the nutrient or component absorbed during digestion, where an absorption efficiency of 0% means all of the nutrient was egested, and 100% means all of the nutrient or component was absorbed for use by the fish. These estimates were calculated using either the total collection method, in which the quantities of nutrient in the food and feces were directly compared (Eq. 1):

$$(Eq.1) \text{ absorption efficiency} = \frac{\text{nutrient in food} - \text{nutrient in feces}}{\text{nutrient in food}}$$

or using the ash-marker method, in which it assumed that ash is not absorbed by the fish during digestion and can thus be used to standardize nutrient absorption (Eq. 2):

$$(Eq. 2) \text{ absorption efficiency} = \left(1 - \frac{\% \text{ ash in food}}{\% \text{ ash in feces}} \times \frac{\% \text{ nutrient in feces}}{\% \text{ nutrient in food}} \right) \times 100$$

However, absorption efficiencies calculated using the ash marker method are typically lower than those using the total collection method (Galletto & Bellwood 1994, Pandian & Marian 1995), so “method” was included as an effect in all of our analyses.

4.2 Model structure and priors

We modelled absorption efficiency following a beta distribution, which is appropriate for double-bounded data (Smithson & Shou 2020). All models were fitted using 500 estimates of absorption efficiency across 50 species. Data were transformed using a logit link. All models include "component" (what is being absorbed, e.g., protein or organic material or energy) and "method" (marker or total collection, see above) as population-level or “fixed” effects (Table 2S4.1). Earlier versions of the models included $\ln(\text{body length})$ as a fixed effect, but $\ln(\text{body length})$ was later removed because estimates of this parameter were consistently centered on 0. All models included species ID and study ID as group-level or

“random” effects to account for repeat sampling. Prior definitions are shown in Table 2S4.2.

Table 2S4.1. Absorption efficiency model definitions. All models include species ID and study ID as random effects.

Model	Model definition
AE.0	absorption efficiency ~ component + method
AE.1	absorption efficiency ~ diet + component + method
AE.2	absorption efficiency ~ temperature + diet + component + method
AE.3	absorption efficiency ~ temperature * diet + component + method

Table 2S4.2. Prior definitions for all absorption efficiency models.

Coefficient	Prior	Notes
Intercept	Normal(0, 1)	Corresponds to logit-transformed 50% efficiency

Slope	Normal(0, 1)	For fixed effects
Standard deviation	Exponential(1)	For random effects
Precision parameter (φ)	Exponential(1)	<i>brms</i> default was too wide

4.3 Results

Our models support an effect of diet but not temperature on absorption efficiency in fishes (Table 2S4.3; Figure S4.1). Model selection assigned $48 \pm 2\%$ SE of LOO weight ($83 \pm 4\%$ SE stacked weight) to the diet-only model (Table 2S4.3), followed by the temperature-diet interaction model ($22 \pm 1\%$ SE LOO; $17 \pm 4\%$ SE stacked) and the temperature + diet model ($30 \pm 2\%$ SE LOO; $0 \pm 0\%$ SE stacked). The diet-only model estimated that absorption efficiencies are lower for herbivores than carnivores, but estimates of absorption efficiency were similar for herbivores consuming different diets (e.g., macroalgae vs. diatoms) and carnivores consuming different diets (Table 2S4.4). Absorption efficiencies quantified using the total collection method are on average 23% higher than those quantified using the ash marker method, but the estimated 95% CI of this effect overlapped 0 (mean 0.29, 95% CI: [-0.07, 0.62]), likely due to the inclusion of one study (Boyce et al. 2000) which provided estimates of total absorption that were considerably lower than those using an ash marker method.

Table 2S4.3. Results of leave-one-out Pareto-smoothed importance sampling (LOO-PSIS) model evaluations for the absorption efficiency of marine fishes. AE.1 was selected as the best fitting model. All models include component and method as fixed effects and species ID as a random effect. $elpd_{loo}$ is the expected log predictive density, p_{loo} is the effective number of parameters, and loo_{ic} is the LOO information criterion. All bracketed values are standard error estimates.

Guidelines for interpreting these criteria is available at <https://mc-stan.org/loo/reference/loo-glossary.html>.

Model	Effects tested	$elpd_{loo}$	p_{loo}	loo_{ic}	LOO weight (%)	Stacked weight (%)
AE.0	none	357.3 (19.2)	47.1 (3.7)	-714.5 (38.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)
AE.1	diet	369.8 (19.9)	47.2 (4.0)	-739.6 (39.7)	48 (2)	83 (4)
AE.2	diet + temperature	369.0 (19.9)	47.9 (4.0)	-738.1 (39.8)	30 (2)	0 (0)
AE.3	diet * temperature	369.2 (20.0)	49.4 (4.1)	-738.4 (40.0)	22 (1)	17 (4)

Table 2S4.4. Parameter estimates for the four models describing absorption efficiency of marine fishes. Square brackets indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Parameter	AE.0 (null)	AE.1 (diet)	AE.2 (diet + temperature)	AE.3 (diet * temperature)
Species	0.50 [0.18, 0.79]	0.37 [0.13, 0.57]	0.37 [0.15, 0.57]	0.34 [0.08, 0.56]
Study ID	0.47 [0.14, 0.81]	0.27 [0.03, 0.50]	0.27 [0.04, 0.51]	0.30 [0.05, 0.55]
Intercept	0.34 [0.00, 0.70]	0.99 [0.59, 1.40]	0.97 [0.43, 1.52]	0.93 [0.35, 1.55]
Diet: diatoms	na	-1.06 [-1.65, -0.47]	-1.06 [-1.67, -0.46]	0.11 [-1.76, 1.98]
Diet: fish	na	0.51 [-0.09, 1.14]	0.51 [-0.08, 1.14]	0.68 [-0.51, 1.88]
Diet: macroalgae	na	-0.93 [-1.32, -0.52]	-0.93 [-1.33, -0.51]	-1.01 [-1.85, -0.12]
Diet: seagrass	na	-1.03 [-1.52, -0.54]	-1.04 [-1.54, -0.54]	-0.75 [-2.39, 0.91]
Diet: turf algae	na	-1.41 [-1.96, -0.85]	-1.42 [-2.00, -0.85]	-0.00 [-1.89, 1.90]
Diet: zooplankton	na	-0.19 [-0.74, 0.38]	-0.19 [-0.75, 0.38]	0.81 [-0.60, 2.18]

Component: carbohydrate	-0.20 [-0.50, 0.11]	-0.18 [-0.47, 0.12]	-0.18 [-0.47, 0.12]	-0.16 [-0.46, 0.14]
Component: carbon	0.33 [0.01, 0.65]	0.40 [0.09, 0.71]	0.40 [0.09, 0.71]	0.41 [0.10, 0.72]
Component: energy	0.79 [0.53, 1.06]	0.75 [0.50, 1.01]	0.75 [0.49, 1.02]	0.75 [0.50, 1.01]
Component: lipid	0.09 [-0.19, 0.38]	0.08 [-0.19, 0.36]	0.08 [-0.20, 0.36]	0.09 [-0.19, 0.37]
Component: nitrogen	0.74 [0.48, 1.00]	0.83 [0.58, 1.08]	0.82 [0.57, 1.07]	0.83 [0.58, 1.09]
Component: organic	0.37 [0.07, 0.66]	0.44 [0.16, 0.72]	0.43 [0.15, 0.71]	0.44 [0.16, 0.72]
Component: protein	1.13 [0.85, 1.40]	1.18 [0.91, 1.45]	1.18 [0.91, 1.45]	1.19 [0.92, 1.46]
Method: total collection	0.52 [0.05, 0.94]	0.31 [-0.04, 0.64]	0.31 [-0.05, 0.62]	0.24 [-0.13, 0.59]
Temperature	na	na	0.00 [-0.02, 0.02]	0.01 [-0.02, 0.04]
Temperature- diatoms	na	na	na	-0.07 [-0.18, 0.03]

Temperature- fish	na	na	na	-0.02 [-0.08, 0.05]
Temperature- macroalgae	na	na	na	-0.01 [-0.05, 0.04]
Temperature- seagrass	na	na	na	-0.02 [-0.09, 0.05]
Temperature- turf algae	na	na	na	-0.07 [-0.14, 0.01]
Temperature- zooplankton	na	na	na	-0.06[-0.13, 0.01]

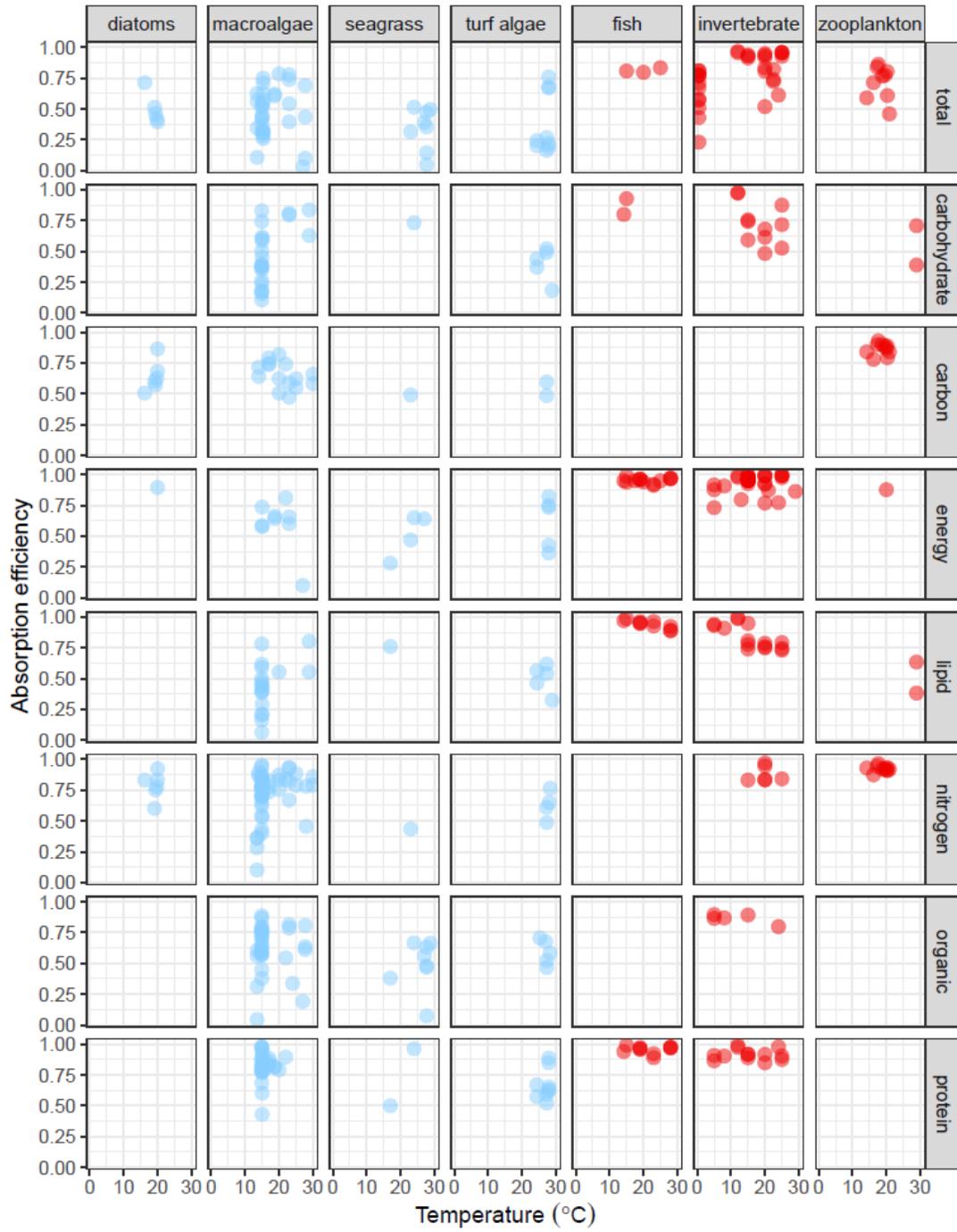


Figure 2S2.1. Absorption efficiency estimates (n = 500) for the 50 species of marine fish included in this analysis across temperature. Data are separated by diet and

the type of component absorbed. 0 is no nutrient absorbed during digestion, 1 is complete absorption of the nutrient during digestion.

5. Gut length

5.1 Measurement of gut length

We only accepted gut length data from individuals that were collected from the field and immediately dissected, or immediately preserved after collection and later dissected to preclude effects of captivity or diet manipulation on gut morphology. Gut length was measured one of two ways. Researchers either a) dissected out the entire length of the digestive tract (from esophagus to anus), or b) dissected out just the intestinal portion of the digestive tract (from pylorus to anus). We recorded which method was used, and initially accounted for it in our models by including an additional parameter for calculation type. However, the model predicted that the intestine-only measurements were higher than the entire gut measurements, suggesting that species selected for intestine-only measurements tended to have longer guts, and so this parameter was dropped from subsequent models.

5.2 Model structure and priors

We modelled gut length following a lognormal distribution to account for the allometric relationship between gut length and body length (Table 2S5.1; Kerkhoff &

Enquist 2009). All models were fitted using 249 estimates of gut length across 249 species. Data were transformed using a ln link. All models include ln-transformed body length as a fixed effect and phylogenetic order as a random effect (as general body form can affect gut length; Karachle & Stergiou 2010). Species was not included as a random effect because many species were represented only once in the dataset, causing many estimates to have Pareto-K estimates exceeding 0.7 and slowing leave-one-out cross validation to the point of impracticality. Thus, we restricted our analysis to one estimate of gut length per species. For species with multiple estimates of gut length, we first excluded reports of poorer quality (e.g., no reported temperature), then randomly selected from the remaining estimates. Study ID was included as a random effect. Prior definitions are shown in Table 2S5.2.

Table 2S5.1. Gut length model definitions. All models include study ID and phylogenetic order as random effects.

Model	Model definition
GL.0	gut length ~ ln(body length)
GL.1	gut length ~ diet + ln(body length)
GL.2	gut length ~ temperature + diet + ln(body length)
GL.3	gut length ~ temperature * diet + ln(body length)

Table 2S5.2. Prior definitions for all gut length models.

Coefficient	Prior	Notes
Intercept	Normal(0, 2)	Gives a gut length of 1 mm at 1mm body length.
Slope	Normal(0, 1)	For fixed effects
Standard deviation	Exponential(1)	For random effects
Variance (σ)	Exponential(1)	

5.3 Model performance

LOO-PSIS cross validation revealed that all models had several observations with high Pareto K values, which indicate influential observations. Although high Pareto-K values can indicate that a model has been misspecified, in this case it is likely that many observations are influential because many studies are represented by only one estimate of gut passage time (see <https://rdr.io/github/stan-dev/loo/man/loo-glossary.html> under "Pareto-K estimates"). Posterior predictive checks of all models (LOO-PIT, density overlay) indicate that the model estimates fit the data well, but the model estimates of group effects may be sensitive to new data.

5.4 Results

The best selected model supports an effect of temperature and diet on gut length in fishes (Table 2S5.3). Model selection assigned $74 \pm 2\%$ SE of LOO weight ($76 \pm 3\%$ SE of stacked weight) to the temperature + diet model (Table 2S5.3). The selected model predicted that gut length decreases with decreasing temperature and is greater for fishes consuming herbivorous diets. Gut length was similar across fishes consuming different types of herbivorous diets, and within fishes consuming different types of carnivorous diets (Table 2S5.4).

Table 2S5.3. Results of leave-one-out pareto-smoothed importance sampling (LOO-PSIS) model evaluations for the gut length of marine fishes. GL.2 was selected as the best fitting model. All models include $\ln(\text{length})$ as a fixed effect and phylogenetic order as a random effect. elpd_{loo} is the expected log predictive density, p_{loo} is the effective number of parameters, and loo_{ic} is the LOO information criterion. All bracketed values are standard error estimates.

Guidelines for interpreting these criteria is available at <https://mc-stan.org/loo/reference/loo-glossary.html>.

Model	Effects tested	elpd_{loo} (SE)	p_{loo} (SE)	loo_{ic} (SE)	LOO weight (%)	Stacked weight (%)
GL.0	-	-1389.4 (23.8)	42.2 (3.8)	2778.8 (47.6)	0 (0)	5 (0)

GL.1	diet	-1340.5 (25.1)	52.0 (5.4)	2681.1 (50.1)	4 (1)	0 (0)
GL.2	temperature + diet	-1337.5 (25.0)	49.9 (5.2)	2675.0 (49.9)	74 (2)	76 (3)
GL.3	temperature *diet	-1338.6 (24.7)	53.4 (5.3)	2677.1 (49.4)	21 (2)	19 (3)

Table 2S5.4 Parameter estimates for the four models describing gut length of marine fishes. Square brackets indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Parameter	GL.0 (null)	GL.1 (diet)	GL.2 (diet + temperature)	GL.3 (diet * temperature)
Phylogenetic order	0.49 [0.32, 0.71]	0.29 [0.15, 0.46]	0.31 [0.17, 0.48]	0.29 [0.15, 0.45]
Study ID	0.62 [0.46, 0.81]	0.51 [0.38, 0.68]	0.43 [0.31, 0.59]	0.43 [0.31, 0.59]
Intercept	-0.56 [-1.34, 0.21]	-0.76 [-1.37, -0.16]	-1.74 [-2.54, -0.93]	-1.54 [-2.39, -0.66]
ln(body length)	1.17 [1.03, 1.32]	1.14 [1.02, 1.25]	1.18 [1.06, 1.30]	1.18 [1.06, 1.30]
Diet: diatoms	na	0.99 [0.60, 1.37]	0.89 [0.51, 1.28]	1.25 [0.21, 2.27]
Diet: fish	na	-0.08 [-0.32, 0.16]	-0.09 [-0.32, 0.15]	-0.20 [-0.79, 0.39]
Diet: herbivore- detritivore	na	1.14 [0.86, 1.41]	1.11 [0.83, 1.39]	-0.14 [-2.04, 1.74]

Diet: invertebrates and fish	na	-0.03 [-0.21, 0.14]	-0.04 [0.21, 0.13]	-0.42 [-0.95, 0.11]
Diet: macroalgae	na	0.79 [0.51, 1.06]	0.78 [0.51, 1.04]	0.59 [-0.35, 1.51]
Diet: omnivore	na	0.34 [0.18, 0.51]	0.33 [0.16, 0.49]	-0.06 [-0.61, 0.48]
Diet: turf algae	na	1.07 [0.76, 1.38]	1.03 [0.73, 1.34]	0.96 [-0.39, 2.29]
Diet: zooplankton	na	0.01 [-0.28, 0.31]	-0.01 [-0.29, 0.28]	0.85 [-0.39, 2.08]
Temperature	na	na	0.04 [0.02, 0.06]	0.03 [0.01, 0.05]
Temperature-diatoms	na	na	na	-0.02 [-0.07, 0.03]
Temperature-fish	na	na	na	0.00 [-0.03, 0.03]
Temperature-HD	na	na	na	0.05 [-0.02, 0.12]
Temperature-I/F	na	na	na	0.02 [-0.01, 0.04]
Temperature-macroalgae	na	na	na	0.01 [-0.04, 0.05]
Temperature-omnivore	na	na	na	0.02 [-0.01, 0.04]
Temperature-turf algae	na	na	na	0.00 [-0.05, 0.06]

Temperature-zooplankton	na	na	na	-0.04 [-0.09, 0.02]
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6. Nutrient composition

6.1 Model structure and priors

We modelled food composition data in two different ways. For percent composition data, we used the beta distribution with a logit link for the same reasons as described for the absorption efficiency data. For the energy content data, which was not expressed as a percentage but as *kJ energy / g dry mass*, we used the Gaussian distribution. We built models to test each of the following dietary components separately, to avoid unwanted correlations (as nutrient concentrations must sum to 100%, they are inevitably interdependent, organic content and ash content must also sum to 100%). We tested for an effect of food type (plant or animal) on the dry mass concentration of the following dietary components: nitrogen, carbon, protein, carbohydrates, lipid, organic, ash and energy. We did not test across more specific diet classifications (e.g., diatoms, macroalgae, zooplankton) because of small sample sizes. Priors are shown in Table 2S6.1.

Table 2S6.1. Prior definitions for all food composition models.

Coefficient	Prior	Notes
Percent composition		
Intercept	Normal(0, 1)	Corresponds to 50% of food content
Slope	Normal(0, 1)	For fixed effects
Precision parameter (φ)	Gamma(0.01, 0.01)	<i>brms</i> default; appears to behave well
Energy		
Intercept	Normal(13.9, 5)	Corresponds to the average energy content of food in the dataset
Slope	Normal(0, 5)	For fixed effects
Variance	Exponential(1)	

6.2 Results

The plant food items fed to herbivorous fishes in our analysis were nutrient-poor compared to food items fed to carnivores (Table 2S5.4). Plant food items had significantly lower concentrations of energy, nitrogen, carbon, protein, and lipids than animal food items. Notably, there was a large difference in protein content between plant and animal material, as well as nitrogen content and energy content (Table 2S5.4).

Table 2S5.4 Parameter estimates for the four models describing differences in nutrient concentration between animal (intercept) and plant food items. Square brackets indicate 95% confidence intervals. Each row represents a separate model. Estimates for all components except energy are logit-transformed.

Nutrient/component	Intercept	Diet
Carbohydrate	-1.39 [-1.94, -0.85]	0.84 [0.22, 1.46]
Carbon	-0.53 [-0.81, -0.25]	-0.57 [-0.90, -0.24]
Energy	18.40 [16.44, 20.34]	-7.09 [-9.47, -4.64]
Lipid	-2.44 [-2.79, -2.09]	-0.77 [-1.22, -0.28]
Nitrogen	-2.29 [-2.42, -2.16]	-1.35 [-1.54, -1.14]
Organic	0.92 [0.50, 1.36]	-0.45 [-0.94, 0.03]
Protein	0.29 [-0.01, 0.60]	-2.57 [-2.96, -2.15]

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Connecting statement: from global to regional patterns of performance and distribution

The meta-analysis I conduct in Chapter 2 took a documented pattern of distribution (herbivorous fishes are less common at high latitudes), and tested a physiological hypothesis that sought to explain it (digesting plant material is more difficult at low temperatures). In Chapter 3, I examine a system in which we expect seasonal upwelling to have strong physiological effects, and test for links between those physiological effects and patterns of distribution across a highly heterogeneous region. Chapter 2 limited its focus to the effects of a single environmental predictor (temperature) on the digestive performance of individuals across a broad spatial scale, and Chapter 3 expands on this work by considering the interactive effects of both temperature and resource availability.

The results from Chapter 2 explicitly inform the questions I test in Chapter 3. My finding that the strength of the temperature dependence of digestion varies with the type of resource consumed led me to test how temperature variation associated with seasonal upwelling impacts resource uptake by tropical damselfishes consuming different diets. Similarly, my finding that interspecific variation in species' gut lengths is associated with temperature impelled me to consider whether seasonal variation in temperature and resource availability could

cause differences in optimal gut length. Altogether, Chapter 3 allowed me to test, at a higher resolution, relationships hinted at in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3: Damselfish performance predicts distribution across a tropical upwelling mosaic

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Abstract

Local abiotic conditions, through their control of individual performance, are expected to drive large-scale patterns of species abundance. In coastal systems upwelling leads to declines in temperature and increases in resource availability, but it is unclear whether these changes consistently benefit resident fish consumers, and the extent to which these physiological effects predict regional patterns of distribution. We tested how upwelling in the Tropical Eastern Pacific affects the physiology and distribution of three damselfish species (*Abudefduf troschelii*, *Microspathodon dorsalis*, and *Stegastes flavilatus*) common to the region. We tested for physiological effects by collecting fishes from Las Islas Perlas during the upwelling and non-upwelling seasons. We found that the body condition of two of our focal species (*M. dorsalis* and *S. flavilatus*) improved during seasonal upwelling, likely due to increased resource availability, but the body condition of *A. troschelii* did not measurably change. Increased resource uptake during the upwelling season appears to have been facilitated by plasticity in species' diets and

digestive physiology. To test whether damselfish distribution is correlated with upwelling-driven productivity maxima and thermal minima, we built spatially explicit species distribution models. We found that the two species with improved body condition under upwelling had increased biomass and probability of occurrence under stronger upwelling conditions, whereas the species that had unchanged body condition did not. Altogether, our results suggest that the physiological effects of upwelling affect patterns of damselfish distribution, and demonstrate how information across scales can be combined to improve ecological inference.

Introduction

Classic ecological theory predicts that species abundance and occupancy are shaped by individual performance as a function of local abiotic conditions (Brown, 1984; Grinnell, 1917; Hutchinson, 1957, 1978). These general expectations are supported by accumulating evidence showing that individual performance (measured as resource uptake relative to demand, growth rates, and reproductive output) is positively associated with patterns of occupancy and abundance (Brambilla & Ficetola, 2012; Duncan et al. 2020; Lee-Yaw et al., 2016; Lunghi et al., 2018; Melis et al., 2010). However, this association is not absolute, and may be overridden by other factors (Dallas et al., 2017). Individual performance and species

abundance may become decoupled in the presence of strong biotic interactions including competition, herbivory and predation (Campbell et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2013; Polis & Hurd 1995; Unglaub et al., 2018). These relationships can also be complicated by local adaptation and plasticity (Conover & Present, 1990; Sackett et al., 2013), increasing the difficulty of predicting species' responses across broad geographic regions. Thus, substantiating whether relationships between environment, performance, and abundance as put forth by foundational theory requires renewed efforts to collect information at different ecological scales to mechanistically link individual performance to patterns of species abundance.

In marine systems, oceanographic processes control local abiotic conditions and consequently can have strong effects on individual performance (Catry et al., 2013; Kroeker et al., 2016; Lester et al., 2007; Sanford, 2002). This is perhaps best exemplified by upwelling, a phenomenon in which surface waters are pushed offshore allowing deeper waters to rise to the surface, causing decreased temperature and increased resource availability in coastal ecosystems (D'Croz & O'Dea, 2007; Palacios et al., 2013; Thiel et al., 2007). These environmental changes typically benefit pelagic and extratropical species: increased resource availability under upwelling conditions increases growth rates, speeds up the onset of reproduction, and improves body condition (Aldana et al., 2017; Brosset et al., 2015;

Fuentes et al., 2017; Pulgar et al., 2013; Zuloaga et al., 2023). In turn, fish abundance is commonly greater in upwelling regions (Rykaczewski & Checkley, 2008; Schilling et al., 2022; Ware & Thomson, 1991).

Despite these examples, it is not clear whether increased productivity under upwelling conditions benefits all fishes. The effects of upwelling on primary productivity and temperature varies substantially within and across upwelling regions (Kämpf & Chapman, 2016; Patti et al., 2008). Coastal habitats may experience relatively large declines in temperature but limited increases in primary productivity, or vice-versa, depending on local conditions (Kämpf & Chapman, 2016). The duration of upwelling can also impact the availability of different types of resources. Plankton concentrations tend to be higher under intermittent rather than persistent upwelling regimes (Menge & Menge, 2013); similarly, different upwelling regimes can favour different types of benthic algae (Nielsen & Navarrete, 2004; Sellers et al., 2021). Thus, fishes consuming different diets, e.g., fishes feeding from planktonic vs. benthic sources, may not benefit to the same degree under different upwelling regimes.

Temperature may also limit the ability of fishes to benefit from increased resource availability under upwelling conditions (Sato et al., 2018). As temperatures decrease, rates of feeding and digestion slow (Barneche et al., 2009; Brown et al.,

2004; Clarke & Johnston, 1999; Knight et al., 2021; Smith, 2008). If resource uptake declines faster with decreasing temperature than resource demand, consumers may experience energetic deficits and impaired performance (Brodersen et al., 2011; Floeter et al., 2005; Lemoine & Burkepile, 2012). This phenomenon has been observed in tropical fishes, which slow or cease feeding at temperatures approaching their critical thermal minimum (CTMin) (Beck et al., 2016; Eme & Bennett, 2008; Figueira et al., 2009). However, the feeding and digestive physiology of fishes are plastic in response to variation in resource quality, availability, and temperature (Caceres et al., 1994; Horn et al., 1986; Logothetis, 2001; Moran et al., 2019; Rowe et al., 2018; Sepulveda & Moeller, 2020). Fishes could compensate for the expected decreases in feeding and digestion rate due to low temperatures if they are able to feed on higher-quality food, or lengthen their guts to increase their maximum digestive capacity.

In the Tropical Eastern Pacific (TEP), seasonal upwelling events lasting several months each year cause annual resource booms and drive down sea surface temperatures (SST; D'Croz & O'Dea, 2007; Stuhldreier et al., 2015). The effects of upwelling on fishes in the region likely vary across species: thermal lows during the upwelling season overlap with the CTMin of some species, but not others (Graham, 1971, 1972; Mora & Ospina, 2002). Similarly, low temperatures during the upwelling

season lead to increased reproductive activity for some species, and decreased activity for others (Foster, 1987; Robertson, 1990). Independent of their direct effects on organisms' physiologies, upwelling may have complex effects on predation (Meekan et al., 2001; Menge & Menge, 2013; Witman et al., 2010), habitat availability (Enochs et al., 2021; Pérez-Matus et al., 2017) and recruitment (Borja et al., 1998; Schilling et al., 2022), potentially obscuring associations between individual performance and patterns of fish biomass and occupancy.

Given this complexity, we suggest that these predictions are best tested by synthesizing individual performance data with broad-scale distribution models. This approach, in a system characterized by strong environmental forcing and ecologically distinct fishes presents an opportunity to test not only for interspecific variation in the relationship between upwelling and fish performance, but whether this relationship is strong enough to measurably impact patterns of distribution. In this study, we tested two research questions with an integrated approach that included both in situ fish sampling and models of species' abundance and occupancy with three species of tropical damselfish (*Abudefduf troschelii*, *Microspathodon dorsalis*, *Stegastes flavilatus*; Family Pomacentridae) found across the TEP in regions with different intensities of seasonal upwelling:

First, how does seasonal upwelling affect resource uptake by our three focal species? To answer our first research question, we collected damselfish from Las Islas Perlas during both the non-upwelling and upwelling seasons, and quantified changes in their diet, digestive morphology, and body condition (gutless body mass standardized to length) (Jakob et al., 1996; Rennie & Verdon, 2008). We predicted that plastic changes in diet and digestion across seasons could help damselfishes cope with low temperatures by allowing them to consume more or higher-quality food. We also predicted that if resource uptake exceeds demand, body condition would improve during the seasonal upwelling season.

Second, how does spatial variation in upwelling conditions influence patterns of damselfish distribution? To answer our second research question, we built spatially explicit species' distribution models (SDMs) to test whether damselfish biomass or occupancy are associated with variation in upwelling conditions across the TEP. We expected that seasonal temperature and resource availability changes associated with upwelling would have opposing effects on damselfish biomass: we predicted that damselfish biomass would increase with maximum annual primary productivity, and decrease with decreasing minimum annual temperature. As an alternative to our upwelling-centric hypotheses, we predicted that damselfish biomass would increase with minimum annual productivity.

We found that our integrative approach both allowed us to test a pattern expected by classic ecological theory, while at the same time explaining apparent discrepancies between the individual- and population-level responses to environmental drivers.

Methods

Study system

Along the Pacific coast of Central America, seasonal upwelling occurs in the Gulfs of Tehuantepec, Papagayo, and Panama, where topographic depressions in the Central American cordillera permit the passage of strong winds across the isthmus during boreal winter (D’Croz & O’Dea, 2007; Xie et al., 2005) . These winds push surface waters offshore and cause deep waters to well up, resulting in several months of decreased water temperature and increased nutrient availability (Figure 3.1; D’Croz & O’Dea, 2007; Sellers et al., 2021). In contrast, adjacent regions that experience no or minimal seasonal upwelling are relatively warm, nutrient-poor, experience little seasonal variation, and have markedly different community structure and dynamics from upwelling regions (D’Croz & O’Dea, 2007; Sellers et al., 2021). To test whether the strength of seasonal upwelling impacts damselfish distribution, we analyzed patterns of damselfish biomass and occupancy (with a species distribution model described below) along the Pacific coast of Central

America, from Panama to southern Nicaragua (the region over which data were available from Reef Life Survey; Figure 3.1). This area encompasses two regions that experience strong seasonal upwelling, Panamá and Rivas, which are separated by Chiriquí, Puntarenas and Guanacaste.

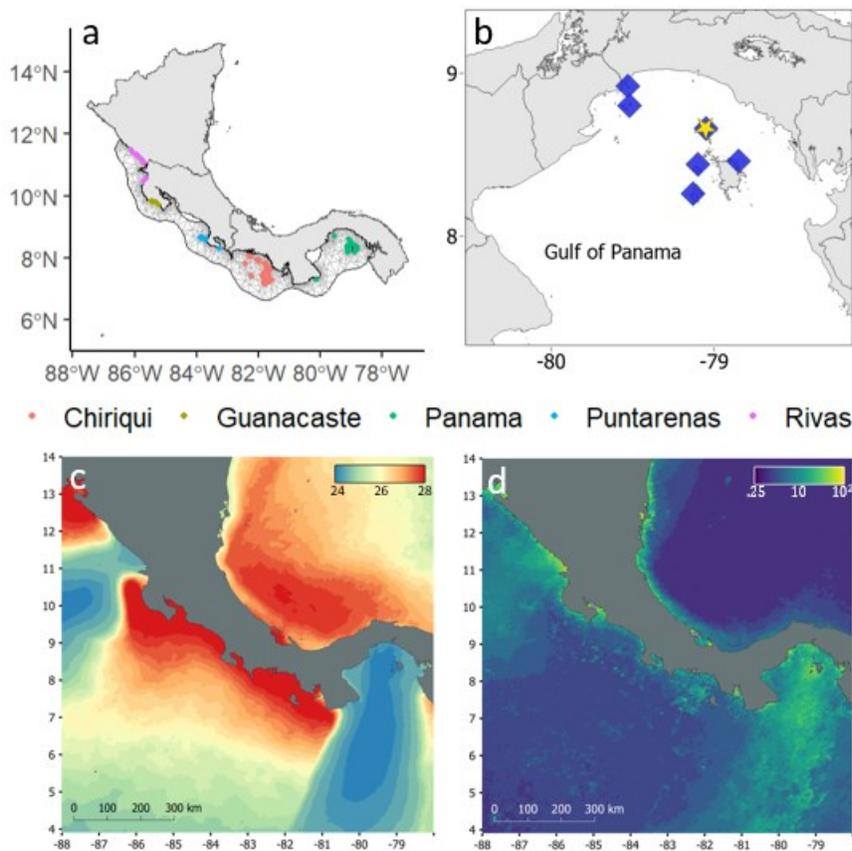


Figure 3.1. Maps of Central America and the Tropical Eastern Pacific (TEP) showing (a) the mesh used in all distribution models (grey lines), with Reef Life Survey sites (points) distinguished by region, (b) our fish collection sites in Las Islas Perlas (star) and STRI SST monitoring sites (blue diamonds), (c) annual minimum sea surface

temperature in the TEP, and (d) annual maximum net primary productivity in the TEP.

To quantify the effects of seasonal upwelling on the physiology of damselfishes, we collected three species of damselfish (*Abudefduf troschelii*, *Microspathodon dorsalis*, and *Stegastes flavilatus*) from Las Islas Perlas in the Gulf of Panama, which experiences strong seasonal upwelling from December to April of each year. We chose to sample fishes from within the Pomacentridae family to constrain phylogenetic variation, while still capturing variation in diet and behaviour. We collected fish during the non-upwelling (November to early December 2018) and upwelling (March to early April 2019) seasons from two reefs, at Isla Pacheca and Islote Saboga. Both sites were characterized by rocky reefs with *Pocillopora* corals on the surrounding sand flats.

Testing how seasonal upwelling impacts fish performance

To characterize seasonal upwelling in the Gulf of Panama, we measured temperature and chlorophyll- α concentrations at both sites during each sampling trip (6 trips during the non-upwelling season, 9 trips during the upwelling season). We measured temperature at the surface, 1m below the surface, and 5m below the surface using a YSI Pro-Plus (upwelling: $n = 26$; non-upwelling: $n = 16$). To measure chlorophyll- α , we used an AquaFlash fluorometer on five replicate water samples

collected from the surface and five replicate samples from ~1m above the seafloor by a diver. These five replicates were averaged to calculate the value of each sample. We compared these environmental data collected during our study periods with historical data collected at Isla Pacheca from 1995 – 2018 (temperature) and 2017-2019 (chlorophyll), provided by the Physical Monitoring program at the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute. The work derived from these data do not represent the original data or documentation provided by STRI, and we refer the reader to https://biogeodb.stri.si.edu/physical_monitoring/ for more information.

We collected the observed food sources of damselfishes (turf algae and plankton) during the non-upwelling season (on three different trips) and the upwelling season (on five different trips) to quantify their $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures as well as their percent carbon and nitrogen (%C and %N). By quantifying $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, %C, and %N, we were able to characterize the contribution of different food sources to each damselfish species' diet and assess diet quality. To collect turf algae, we haphazardly scraped samples (several cm^2) from the benthos ($n = 6$ in each season). To collect plankton from the reef, a SCUBA diver towed an $80\ \mu\text{m}$ plankton net 1-2 meters directly above the reef for five minutes (non-upwelling $n = 4$, upwelling $n = 8$). We also collected plankton further offshore (up to several hundred meters away from the site) by towing the same net from the boat (non-

upwelling n = 3, upwelling n = 4) to estimate the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of pelagic food sources. All samples were stored in opaque bottles in a cooler with ice until returning to the lab.

In the lab, environmental samples were rinsed in deionized water, and any large debris or macrofauna were removed. In our samples of turf algae, we did not remove small invertebrates (e.g., amphipods and copepods < 2mm), which would likely be consumed incidentally by grazing fish. Samples were then dried at 60°C, powdered, and loaded into tin capsules for analysis. We measured $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ using a Thermo Electron deltaV Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer coupled with a ConFlo IV interface linked to a Thermo IsoLink Elemental Analyzer. Percent carbon and nitrogen were measured using a Carlo Erba NA1500 elemental analyzer. L-glutamic acid (USGS40 and USGS41) was used as a reference material.

Las Perlas fish collections and dissections

We collected fish from the shallow subtidal (<10m depth) at Isla Pacheca and Islote Saboga early in the day (8:30AM – 1:30PM), when our focal species were observed feeding (Table 3.1). After returning to the boat, we immediately stored the fish on ice; upon returning to the lab, they were frozen until dissection.

Table 3.1. Sample sizes (n) and average body size (TL = total length, SL = standard length, wet mass) of fish collected during the upwelling and non-upwelling seasons in Las Perlas Archipelago, Panama. Standard deviations given in brackets.

Species	Non-upwelling season				Upwelling season			
	n	TL (mm)	SL (mm)	Mass (g)	n	TL (mm)	SL (mm)	Mass (g)
<i>A. troschellii</i>	46	165 (12)	125 (9)	104 (24)	31	161 (13)	122 (10)	104 (23)
<i>M. dorsalis</i>	33	251 (32)	179 (23)	334 (108)	33	254 (28)	179 (19)	370 (106)
<i>S. flavilatus</i>	48	146 (8)	117 (8)	86 (23)	34	146 (9)	116 (7)	90 (18)

We dissected fish to estimate gut length, gut content mass, and body condition (gutless mass standardized to standard length), which is an indicator of fishes' nutritional status (Jakob et al., 1996; Rennie & Verdon, 2008). After dissecting out and weighing the full gut, we measured the length of the fully extended gut from esophagus to anus. We then emptied the gut of all digesta and reweighed the empty gut to calculate gut content mass. For our estimate of body condition, we reweighed fish after removing the gut, to prevent seasonal variation in gut mass and food content mass from affecting our estimates.

We quantified diet in three ways. First, to identify the foods consumed by each species during the non-upwelling and upwelling seasons, we analyzed stomach contents using light microscopy to identify food items to broad categories

(e.g., algae: green filamentous, red branching; animals: copepod, amphipod). We quantified each species' gut contents as frequency of occurrence data (number of guts in which an item was observed divided by the total number of guts) due to the practical and analytical concerns with collecting accurate volumetric data (Baker et al., 2014). Second, to estimate the nutritional value of species' diets, we homogenized and dried each individual's gut contents to measure percent carbon and nitrogen content. Third, to characterize the long-term diet of each species, we took samples of white muscle tissue to measure $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratios. Isotope and percent carbon and nitrogen samples were processed following the same procedures described above in *Environmental measurements*.

Las Perlas data analysis

We conducted all statistical analyses in R Version 4.2.1, Funny-Looking Kid (R Core Team 2019). All models testing univariate responses (temperature, chlorophyll- α , $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, gut length, gut content mass, and body condition) were built using the R package *brms* (Bürkner 2018). For response variables that did not follow the normal distribution, we built generalized linear models using the appropriate underlying distribution and data transformations. For all models testing fish dissection data (body mass, gut length, and digesta mass), we used model selection and 95% credibility intervals to identify important predictor

variables (candidate variables: ln-transformed body size, season, site, and a site*season interaction). Model selection was conducted using leave-one-out cross validation (loo package; Vehtari et al. 2017) to calculate model weights, where the model with the highest weight is most likely out of the candidate models to best predict future data.

Tropical Eastern Pacific distribution data

We obtained occurrence (presence/absence) and biomass data for our three focal species from Reef Life Survey (RLS), a citizen science program that employs a diver-based visual fish survey following a standardized protocol to collect fish community composition and size data from coral and rocky reefs around the world (Edgar & Stuart-Smith, 2014) (<https://reeflifesurvey.com/survey-data/>). Our dataset included 356 surveys from 158 sites (surveys from the same site were conducted at multiple depths). All surveys were conducted between 2006 and 2016 during the non-upwelling season, when visibility is substantially better.

Tropical Eastern Pacific environmental covariates

We included three environmental predictors in our models of damselfish occupancy and biomass: minimum sea surface temperature (minSST), maximum net primary productivity (maxNPP), and minimum net primary productivity (minNPP). minSST and maxNPP are both strongly impacted by seasonal upwelling

(D’Croz & O’Dea, 2007; Sellers et al., 2021), and correspond to our predictions that tropical fishes will be negatively affected by decreased temperatures and positively affected by increased resource availability. We included minNPP to represent the alternative prediction that periods of low resource availability predict patterns of damselfish distribution better than the effects of seasonal upwelling. We obtained daily SST estimates from the GHRSSST (Group for High Resolution Sea Surface Temperature) Level 4 MUR (Multiscale Ultrahigh Resolution) Global Foundation Sea Surface Temperature Analysis (v4.1) (NASA/JPL, 2010), which estimates SST at a spatial resolution of 0.01° of latitude and longitude (ERDDAP dataset ID: jplMURSST41). Because of the large size of this dataset, we downloaded SST day from every third day. We obtained monthly NPP estimates from Aqua MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) at a spatial resolution of 0.0125° (Behrenfeld & Falkowski, 1997). Datasets for both variables were downloaded from the ERDDAP data server (Simons, 2022). We used the data to estimate the average SST and NPP for each site and calendar month over the 10-year period that fish surveys were conducted (2006-2016), then extracted minimum SST (minSST), minimum NPP (minNPP) and maximum NPP (maxNPP).

Tropical Eastern Pacific distribution models

Occurrence and biomass data tend to be spatially autocorrelated (Miller, 2012), due to both endogenous factors (e.g., dispersal) and exogenous factors (e.g., environmental covariates that are not included in the model), leading to biased model estimates (Dormann, 2007). To account for this, we built all distribution models using the R-INLA package, which explicitly models spatial autocorrelation (Bakka et al., 2018). R-INLA uses integrated nested Laplace approximation (INLA) to estimate parameters in a computationally efficient manner, and can model response variables that are not normally distributed (Bakka et al., 2018).

To model the occurrence and biomass of *Abudefduf troschelii* and *Microspathodon dorsalis*, we used a hurdle-gamma distribution (Martínez-Minaya et al., 2018). In a hurdle-gamma model, occurrence is modelled following the Bernoulli distribution (where 0 = absence, 1 = presence), and biomass is modelled following the gamma distribution. For *Stegastes flavilatus*, which was present in all but four surveys, we only modelled biomass, and so we used a gamma model following the structure of the gamma portion of the hurdle-gamma model described below. The distribution of each species was modelled separately.

We modelled occurrence and biomass using an equation adapted from Quiroz et al. (2015):

$$\pi(y_i|p_i, \mu_i, \theta_i) = (1 - p_i)\delta_0 + p_i h(y_i|\mu_i, \theta_i)I_{[y_i>0]}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{logit}(p_i) = & \beta_1^{(1)} + \beta_2^{(1)}\text{minSST}_i + \beta_3^{(1)}\text{maxNPP}_i + \beta_4^{(1)}\text{minNPP}_i + \beta_5^{(1)}(\text{minSST}_i \\ & * \text{maxNPP}_i) + \beta_6^{(1)}(\text{minSST}_i * \text{minNPP}_i) + \beta_7^{(1)}(\text{Guanacaste}) \\ & + \beta_8^{(1)}(\text{Panama}) + \beta_9^{(1)}(\text{Puntarenas}) + \beta_{10}^{(1)}(\text{Rivas}) + f_1^{(1)}(\text{depth}) \\ & + u_i^{(1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \log(\mu_i) = & \beta_1^{(2)} + \beta_2^{(2)}\text{minSST}_i + \beta_3^{(2)}\text{maxNPP}_i + \beta_4^{(2)}\text{minNPP}_i + \beta_5^{(2)}(\text{minSST}_i \\ & * \text{maxNPP}_i) + \beta_6^{(2)}(\text{minSST}_i * \text{minNPP}_i) + \beta_7^{(2)}(\text{Guanacaste}) \\ & + \beta_8^{(2)}(\text{Panama}) + \beta_9^{(2)}(\text{Puntarenas}) + \beta_{10}^{(2)}(\text{Rivas}) + f_1^{(2)}(\text{depth}) \\ & + u_i^{(2)} \end{aligned}$$

$$u_i \sim \text{GMRF}(0, \Sigma)$$

Where π_i is a probability distribution function (PDF) describing the probability of our focal species' having a given biomass (y_i) at reef i , p_i is the probability of a species' presence at reef i , and $1 - p_i$ is the probability of a species' absence at reef i . δ_0 is the Dirac delta function, which evaluates to 1 at $y_i = 0$ and 0 everywhere else; similarly, $I_{[y_i>0]}$ is an indicator function, which evaluates to 1 at $y_i > 0$ and 0 everywhere else. Here $h(y_i|\mu_i, \theta_i)$ is assigned as the gamma PDF, which performed better than the log-normal PDF in model comparisons. In the model above,

separate coefficients are estimated for occupancy and biomass, i.e., $\beta_1^{(1)}$ and $\beta_1^{(2)}$ are not equivalent and may have different values. Further, $\text{logit}(p_i)$ and $\log(\mu_i)$ need not be modelled with the same set of predictors.

In each equation, β_1 is an intercept term representing the probability of a species' presence, or species biomass, respectively, in the region of Chiriquí (our intercept level) under average values of minimum sea surface temperature (minSST), maximum net primary productivity (maxNPP), and minimum net primary productivity (minNPP). β_2 - β_6 are coefficients associated with our standardized environmental covariates and their interactions, and β_7 - β_{10} are coefficients associated with dummy variables indicating the region in which each survey was conducted, which we included to account for factors we were unable to describe explicitly in the model (e.g., regional patterns of circulation). f_1 is a smooth function describing the effect of depth. u_i is a random spatial effect, modelled in R-INLA as a Gaussian Markov Random Field (GMRF) with a mean of zero and a covariance matrix Σ defined using the Matérn covariance function. All predictors were assigned weakly regularizing priors to prevent model overfitting (McElreath, 2020).

In addition to fitting the full model, we fitted a model with all of our fixed predictors but no spatial random effect, as well as a model that included a spatial random effect and the most important predictors of damselfish distribution as

identified by the full model. We compared model performance by estimating the Widely Applicable Information Criterion (WAIC) values for each model, as well as Area Under the receiver operating characteristic Curve (AUC; for occupancy), the coefficient of determination (R^2 , for biomass).

Results

Environmental effects of upwelling in Las Islas Perlas

Our environmental samples demonstrated that mean SST during the non-upwelling season (Figure 3.2a) was similar at Isla Pacheca ($28.4 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ SD) and Islote Saboga ($28.6 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ SD). Mean SST decreased during the upwelling season to $19.6 (\pm 1.2^\circ\text{C}$ SD) at Isla Pacheca and to $22.0 (\pm 1.1^\circ\text{C}$ SD) at Islote Saboga (Figure 3.2a). Chlorophyll- α concentrations during the non-upwelling season averaged $2.5 (\pm 0.3 \mu\text{g/L}$ SD) at Isla Pacheca and $2.4 (\pm 0.5 \mu\text{g/L}$ SD) at Islote Saboga (Figure 3.2b). During the upwelling season, chlorophyll- α increased to $7.4 (\pm 2.7 \mu\text{g/L}$ SD) at Isla Pacheca and $8.4 (\pm 2.7 \mu\text{g/L}$ SD) at Islote Saboga (Figure 3.2b). The values that we observed during the non-upwelling and upwelling seasons were similar to historical values collected by the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute's Physical Monitoring program (Figure 3.2).

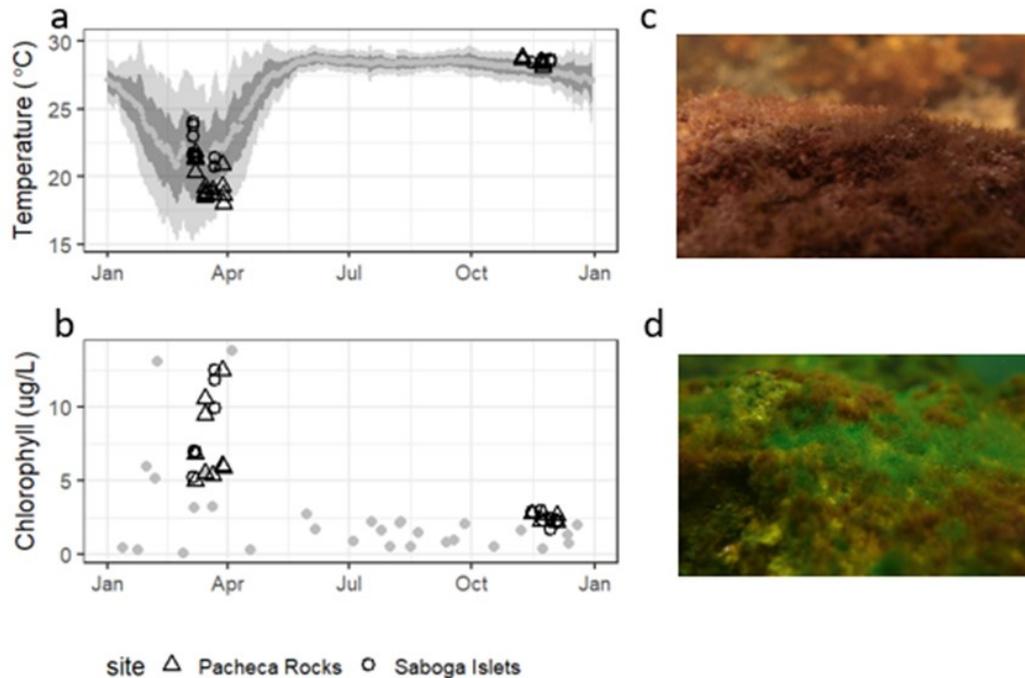


Figure 3.2. Seasonal variation in a) Sea surface temperature and b) chlorophyll at Las Islas Perlas. Data collected by the authors during the study period shown in black. Historical mean daily values shown by grey dots. In a), dark and light shaded areas represent the historical mean daily values ± 1 SD and ± 2 SD, respectively. Historical data were provided by the Physical Monitoring program at the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute. Images shown in c) and d) are of benthic algal growth in Las Islas Perlas during the non-upwelling and upwelling seasons, respectively. Photo credit: Nicole Knight.

Damselfish diets

Our diet analysis revealed that *Abudefduf troschelii* and *Stegastes flavilatus* are both omnivores that consume benthic algae, small invertebrates, and zooplankton,

whereas *Microspathodon dorsalis* is an herbivore that primarily feeds on diatoms, turf algae and sediment (Appendix). Of the three species, *A. troschelii* consumes the most animal prey; accordingly, its gut contents were richer in nitrogen ($8 \pm 2\%$ SD of dry mass) and carbon ($4 \pm 7\%$ SD of dry mass) than those of *S. flavilatus* (N: $6 \pm 2\%$ SD of dry mass; C: $33 \pm 6\%$ SD of dry mass) and *M. dorsalis* (N: $5 \pm 2\%$ SD of dry mass; C: $28 \pm 6\%$ SD of dry mass). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures suggest that *A. troschelii* feeds primarily from sources in the water column, whereas *S. flavilatus* feeds from the water column and benthos, and *M. dorsalis* feeds primarily from the benthos (Figure 3.3a). The diets of all three species shifted during the upwelling season (Figure 3.3b). All three species were more frequently observed consuming green algae (Appendix), which was more prevalent during the upwelling season (Figure 3.2c-d).

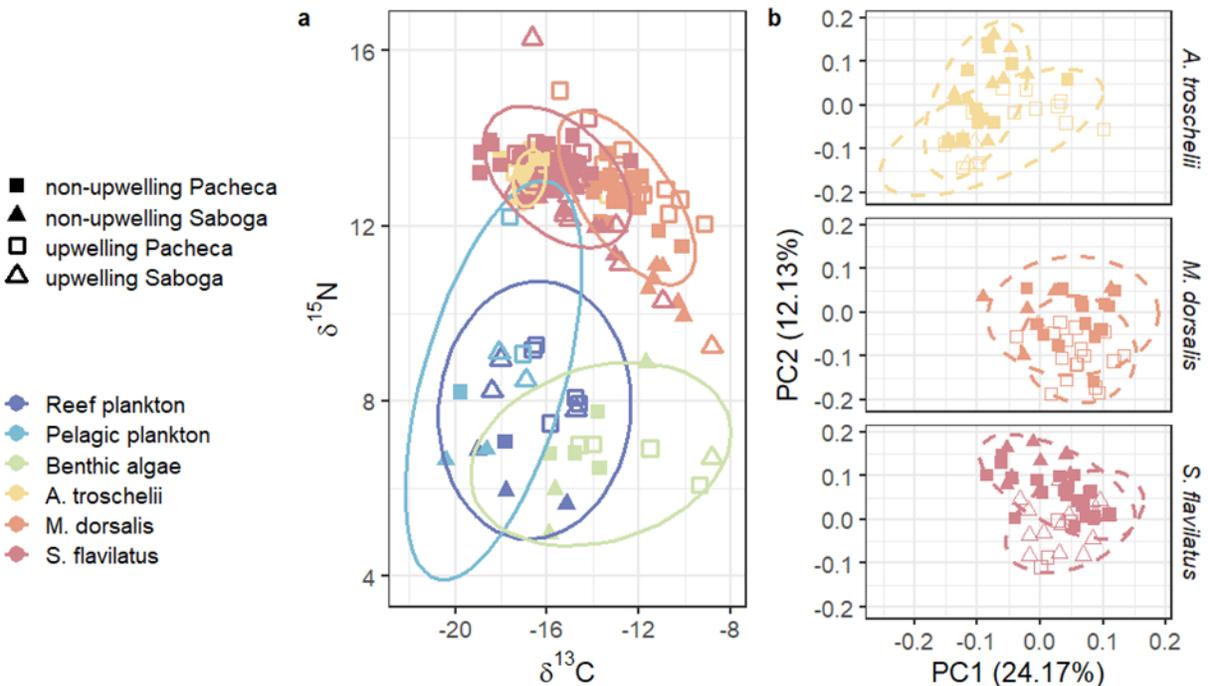


Figure 3.3. Diet data from three species of damselfish collected from Isla Pacheca and Islote Saboga during the non-upwelling and upwelling seasons. a) Isotope signatures from white muscle tissue of damselfish and three food sources. Ellipses include data pooled across sites and seasons. b) Principal components analysis of presence/absence stomach content data from damselfish. Each point represents the stomach contents of one fish. Ellipses include data pooled across sites and separated by season.

Damselfish morphology

The gut length of *A. troschelii* increased during the upwelling season (upwelling ES: 0.10; 95%CI: -0.01, 0.21; Figure 3.4a), as did digesta mass (upwelling ES: 0.25, 95%CI: -0.02, 0.52; Figure 3.4d). There was weak evidence that *A. troschelii* body mass relative to length (i.e., body condition) increased during the upwelling season: the best model included an upwelling term (model weight: 0.99), but the effect of upwelling overlapped zero (upwelling ES: 0.03, 95%CI: -0.03, 0.09; Figure 3.4g), giving an 84% posterior probability that body condition improved during the upwelling season. The gut length of *M. dorsalis* increased during the upwelling season (upwelling ES: 0.10; 95%CI: 0.03, 0.17); the best model (weight: 0.67) suggested that this increase was greater in larger individuals (upwelling * body size ES: 0.05; 95%CI: -0.02, 0.12; Figure 3.4b). The best model of *M. dorsalis* digesta mass

supported an effect of upwelling (model weight: 0.75); this effect overlapped 0 (upwelling ES: 0.35, 95%CI: -0.07, 0.75), but gave a 95% posterior probability that digesta mass was greater during the upwelling season (Figure 3.4). The body condition of *M. dorsalis* improved during the upwelling season (upwelling ES: 0.09, 95%CI: 0.00, 0.18). The gut length of *S. flavilatus* increased during the upwelling season (upwelling ES: 0.13; 95% CI: 0.07, 0.20). The digesta mass of *S. flavilatus* also increased during upwelling, but this increase was greater at Isla Pacheca (upwelling ES: 0.84; 95%CI: 0.62, 1.07) than Islote Saboga (upwelling * Saboga ES: -0.54, 95%CI: -0.87, -0.20). The body condition of *S. flavilatus* improved during the upwelling season (upwelling ES: 0.10, 95%CI: 0.01, 0.18).

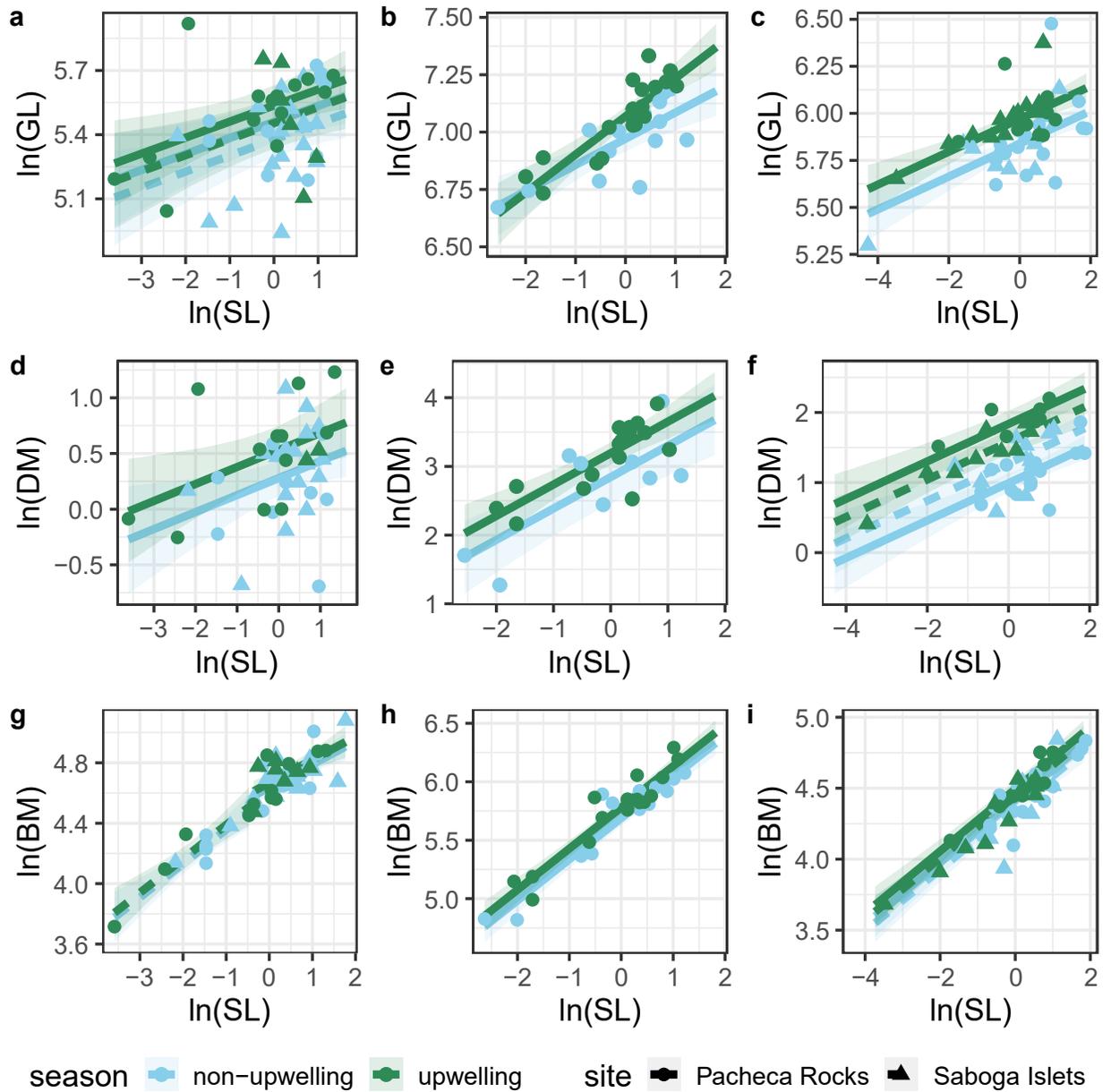


Figure 3.4. Damselfish ln-transformed gut length (GL; a-c), digesta mass (DM; d-f), and gut-removed body mass (BM; g-i) during the non-upwelling (light blue) and upwelling (green) seasons against ln-transformed standard length (SL). *Abudefduf troschelii* is represented in panels a, d, and g; *Microspathodon dorsalis* in panels b, e, and h; *Stegastes flavilatus* in panels c, f, and i. Points show real data from Isla

Pacheca (circles) and Islote Saboga (triangles); lines show the model projected means for Pacheca (solid) and Saboga (dashed); shaded areas show the 95% credibility intervals.

Damselfish distribution models

Our models revealed that environmental predictors associated with seasonal upwelling influence the distribution of all three damselfish species (Figures 5, 6). The biomass of *A. troschellii* was predicted by minNPP, minSST, and a minNPP*minSST interaction (Figure 3.5b). Biomass of *A. troschellii* generally increased with increasing minSST and minNPP (Figure 3.6e). *Abudefduf troschellii* was present in 179 of 354 surveys, but patterns of occupancy corresponded only to spatial, not environmental, predictors. Models built to predict *A. troschellii* occupation performed reasonably but not exceptionally well, with AUC scores ranging from 0.74-0.78 (Table 3.1). The biomass of *M. dorsalis* was predicted by minNPP, maxNPP, minSST, minNPP*minSST and maxNPP*minSST (Figure 3.5a). *Microspathodon dorsalis* had high probability of occurrence and biomass at reefs with low minSST and high minNPP and maxNPP (Figure 3.6a-d); at reefs with high minSST *M. dorsalis* was more likely to be present if minNPP was low (Figure 3.6a). *Microspathodon dorsalis* was present in 179 of 354 surveys, and an AUC score of 0.88 indicates excellent model performance (Table 3.2). *Stegastes flavilatus* was

present under virtually all environmental conditions surveyed (350 of 354 surveys), but its biomass increased with decreasing minSST and increasing maxNPP (Figures 5c, 6f). Including a spatial random effect improved model performance for all three species (Table 3.2).

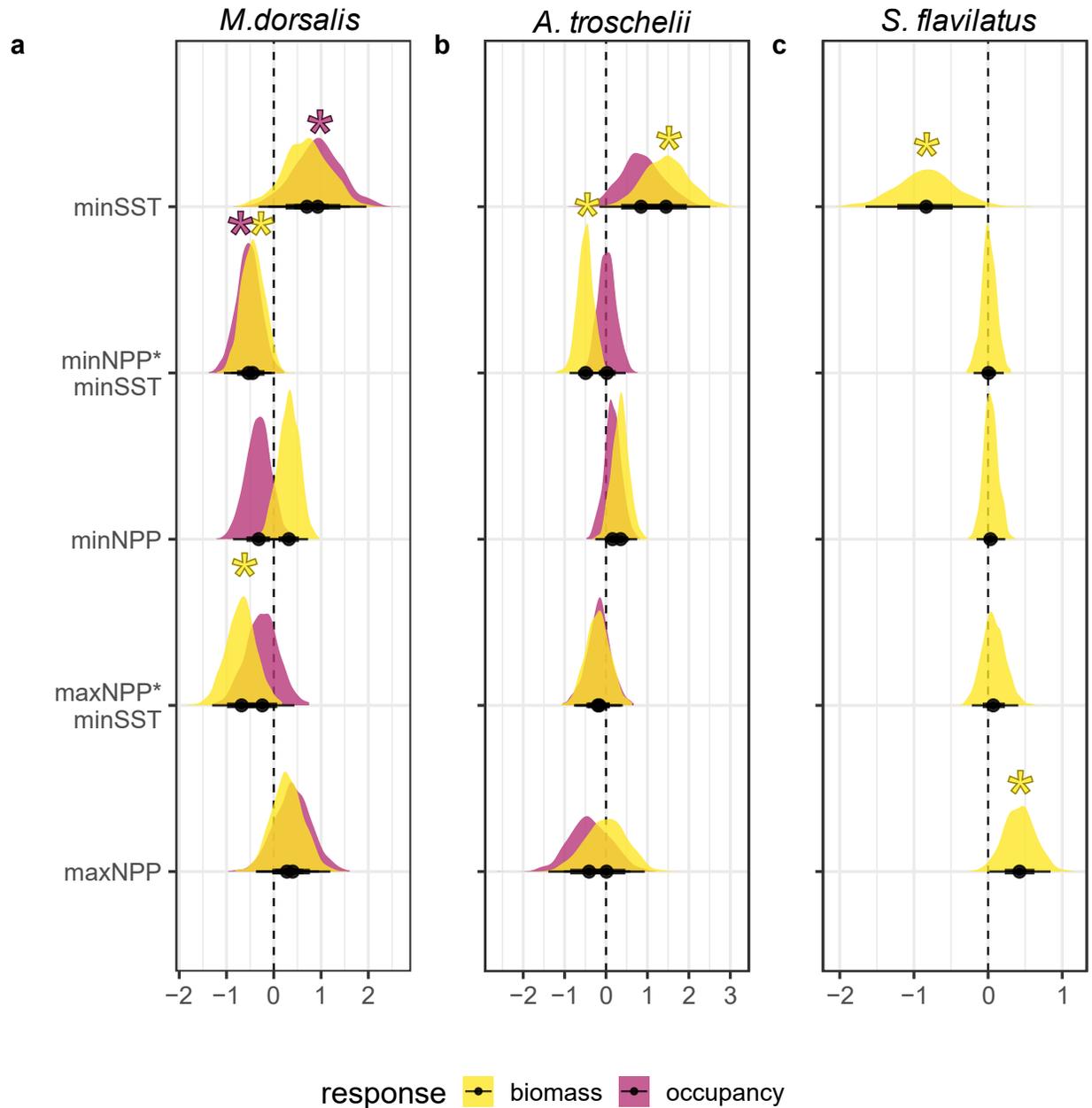


Figure 3.5. Parameter estimate distributions generated by the full R-INLA models

(including all fixed effects and a random spatial effect). Distributions reflect associations between standardized environmental predictors on biomass (yellow) and probability of presence (pink). Effects with 95% credibility intervals that do not overlap 0 are indicated by an asterisk.

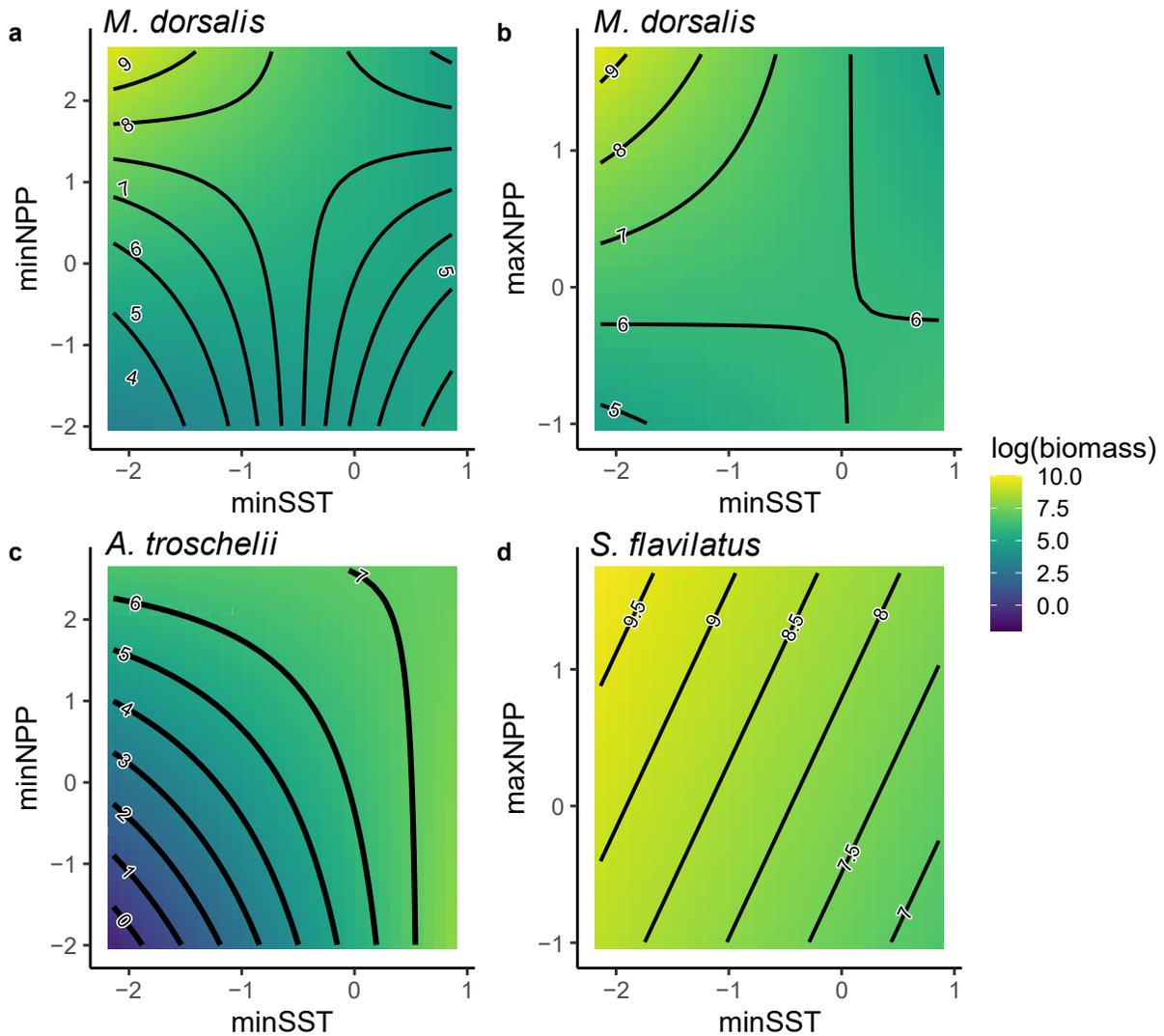


Figure 3.6. Heat maps with contour lines showing \ln -transformed predicted damselfish biomass across combinations of environmental variables. Heat maps

generated from posterior values of INLA2 models (models including credible environmental predictors and a random spatial effect) a-b) *M. dorsalis*, c) *Abudefduf troschelii*, d) *S. flavilatus*.

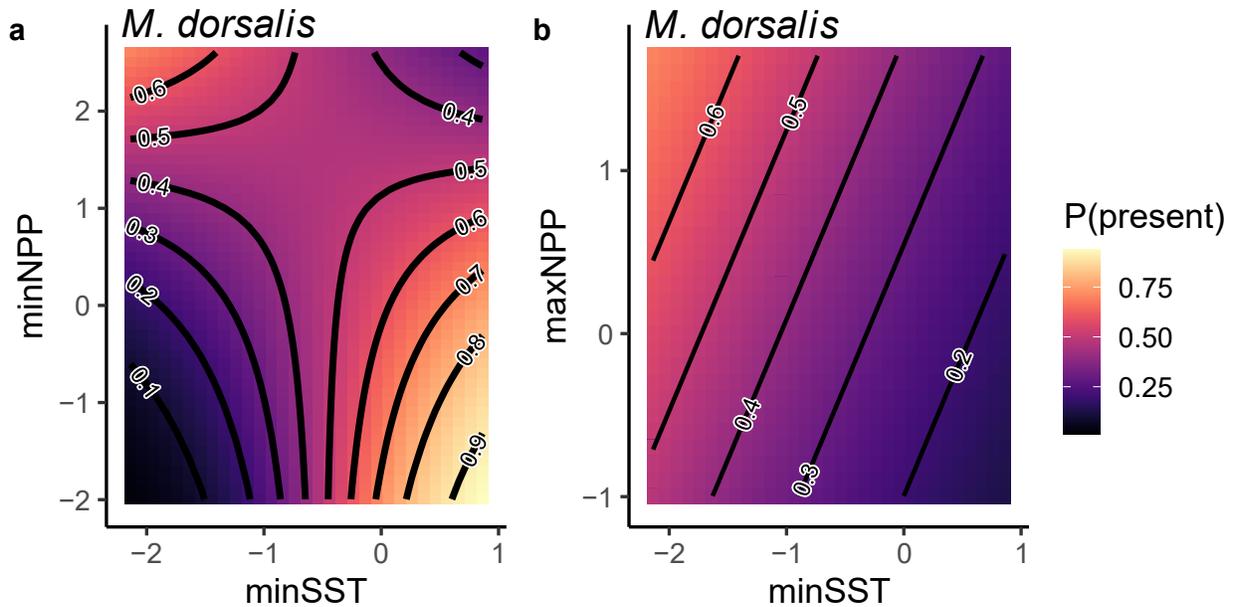


Figure 3.7. Heat maps with contour lines showing probability of *M. dorsalis* presence across combinations of environmental variables. Heat maps generated from posterior values of INLA2 models (models including credible environmental predictors and a random spatial effect).

Table 3.2. Estimated WAIC, AUC, and RMSE values for the INLA models built to describe occupancy and biomass of *Abudefduf troschelii*, *Stegastes flavilatus*, and *Microspathodon dorsalis* across the Tropical Eastern Pacific. INLA0 has no random spatial effect and the full set of fixed effects, INLA1 has a random spatial effect and the full set of fixed effects, and INLA2 has a random spatial effect and predictors that were identified as important in the INLA1 models. Improved model fit is indicated by lower WAIC scores, higher AUC scores, and lower RMSE scores. Only biomass was modelled for *S. flavilatus*, so no AUC score is presented.

	<i>A. troschelii</i>			<i>S. flavilatus</i>		<i>M. dorsalis</i>		
Model	WAIC	AUC	RMSE	WAIC	RMSE	WAIC	AUC	RMSE
INLA0	3481	0.74	2610	5594	1399	3677	0.74	7508
INLA1	3459	0.78	2529	5560	1231	3579	0.89	4313
INLA2	3451	0.77	2545	5558	1239	3581	0.89	4363

Discussion

Seasonal upwelling impacts the ecology of our three focal damselfish species across scales, from individual performance to patterns of regional distribution. Damselfishes' physiological responses to seasonal upwelling were qualitatively similar: all three species exhibited increased gut length and digesta mass, and the body condition (gutless mass standardized to length) of *Microspathodon dorsalis* and *Stegastes flavilatus* improved. However, patterns of damselfish biomass and occupancy responded differently to variation in temperature and productivity associated with upwelling strength. *Stegastes flavilatus* biomass exhibited a clear positive association with upwelling strength; its biomass increased with increasing maximum NPP and decreasing SST. *Microspathodon dorsalis* biomass and occupancy were highest under high maximum NPP and low minimum SST, but in contrast to *S. flavilatus*, biomass was substantially lower at sites where low temperatures were not accompanied by high maximum productivity. The distribution of *A. troschellii* was not clearly associated with upwelling conditions: *A. troschellii* biomass was predicted by minSST and minNPP, but these associations may be mediated by exposure, rather than upwelling. Here we discuss how by combining individual performance data with broad-scale distribution models, we can make novel insights into the ecology of these common tropical fishes.

All three species exhibited longer guts and more digesta during the upwelling season, reflecting the importance of digestive plasticity in allowing fishes to succeed during the upwelling season. Digestion is energetically expensive (Huang et al., 2018; Tsuboi et al., 2015), and so individuals should optimize gut length to maximize nutrient uptake but minimize investment in digestive tissues (Penry & Jumars, 1986). During the warm, resource-poor non-upwelling season, fishes' preferred foods are expected to be more limited, and so a shorter gut should be optimal. With upwelling, resource availability increases, but digestive rates slow as temperatures decline (Knight et al., 2021). Slow digestion can limit resource uptake as the gut becomes full, potentially leading to energetic deficits (Brodersen et al., 2011; Floeter et al., 2005; Lemoine & Burkepile, 2012). Thus, under cold upwelling conditions a longer gut may be beneficial.

Although *A. troschellii* had a longer gut and more digesta mass during the upwelling season, its body condition did not measurably improve. It's possible that the body condition of *A. troschellii* did not improve simply because it was directing excess resources elsewhere: the reproductive efforts of *A. troschellii* increase during upwelling (Foster, 1987), whereas reproduction by *S. flavilatus*, which did have improved body condition during upwelling, decreases (Robertson, 1990).

Alternatively, it may be that at Las Perlas, *A. troschellii* benefitted less from increased

resource availability during the upwelling season: *A. troschelii* relies to a greater extent on pelagic food sources than *M. dorsalis* and *S. flavilatus* (Figure 3.3; Montgomery, 1980; Olivier et al., 2019). *Abudefduf troschelii* primarily consumed zooplankton during the non-upwelling season, but increased its uptake of benthic green algae during the upwelling season (Appendix S1). This increase could indicate that *A. troschelii* is supplementing its preferred diet of zooplankton with benthic algae, with diminished benefits.

Similarly, our distributional analyses showed that the biomass of *M. dorsalis* and *S. flavilatus* increases with maximum NPP, but the biomass of *A. troschelii* does not. There are several possible explanations for this disparity. First, it may be that seasonal upwelling simply doesn't benefit *A. troschelii* to the same extent that it does *M. dorsalis* and *S. flavilatus*, as indicated by our analyses of body condition. However, it is also possible that maximum NPP is a poor predictor of zooplankton availability. Zooplankton have highly patchy distributions, which do not necessarily exhibit strong correlations with phytoplankton abundance (Grémillet et al., 2008; Messié & Chavez, 2017). Moreover, the best model of *A. troschelii* occupancy did not include any environmental predictors, and with an AUC score of 0.78, did not perform as well as that of *M. dorsalis* (AUC = 0.89). Our best model of *A. troschelii* biomass did include minimum NPP and minimum SST (and their interaction) as

predictors, but this may not reflect a direct physiological relationship. The CTMin of *A. troscheli* (11.2°C; Graham, 1971) is substantially lower than the typical range of thermal minima associated with seasonal upwelling in the TEP (16-18°C; D'Croz & O'Dea, 2007); further, the association between temperature and biomass weakened with increasing minimum NPP. We suggest that instead that minimum NPP and minimum SST are correlated with exposure in this system, which can affect the supply of planktonic foods (Sellers et al., 2021).

Upwelling appears to favour both *Stegastes flavilatus* and *M. dorsalis*, but with some differences. *Stegastes flavilatus* appeared to benefit from seasonal upwelling to a greater extent than *M. dorsalis*: its biomass increases independently with increasing productivity or decreasing temperature, whereas *M. dorsalis* biomass only increased with decreasing minimum temperature if productivity (minimum or maximum) was high (Figure 3.6). We suggest that *M. dorsalis* is more vulnerable to the effects of decreasing temperature on resource uptake and digestion than *S. flavilatus*, and consequently depends to a greater extent on increased resource availability in cold conditions. Similarly, *Microspathodon dorsalis* was present in far fewer surveys than *S. flavilatus* (179/354 and 350/354 surveys, respectively), indicating that its environmental tolerance is less broad than that of *S. flavilatus*. Seasonal upwelling may also provide a particular benefit to the small-bodied *S.*

flavilatus: *S. flavilatus* has a dramatically shortened maximum lifespan the Gulf of Panama (4 years, vs. 19 years in Baja California), likely due to intense predation (Meekan et al., 2001). A crucial refuge from predation among fishes is increased size (Ahti et al., 2020); thus, *S. flavilatus* may especially benefit from directing excess resources acquired during upwelling to increased growth.

Predicting the effects of broad-scale oceanographic processes is difficult, as multiple environmental variables may change simultaneously and have both positive and negative effects on different aspects of individual performance (Menge et al., 2004) This difficulty emphasizes the added value of SDMs, which can identify the net impact of large-scale environmental variation when environmental changes impact some individual rates positively and others negatively. For example, although upwelling improved the body condition of *S. flavilatus* (Figure 3.4), prior work shows that its reproductive output and recruitment decrease with decreasing temperature during upwelling (Robertson, 1990). Considering these results on their own, it is unclear whether seasonal upwelling benefits *S. flavilatus*, as both reproductive output and body condition can impact survival and fitness (Berumen et al., 2005; Lloret-Lloret et al., 2022; Shima et al., 2020). However, our finding that *S. flavilatus* biomass increases under strong upwelling conditions suggest that the positive effects of upwelling outweigh documented negative effects.

Conclusions

Although prior work has largely demonstrated positive effects of upwelling on fish performance and biomass (Aldana et al., 2017; Brosset et al., 2015; Fuentes et al., 2017; Pulgar et al., 2013; Rykaczewski & Checkley, 2008; Schilling et al., 2022; Ware & Thomson, 1991; Zuloaga et al., 2023), we found that not all species benefit equally from seasonal upwelling, possibly due to differences in their reliance on benthic and pelagic resources. Further, our combined physiological and distributional analyses support the hypothesis that species that do benefit from seasonal upwelling exhibit increases in biomass, consistent with classic ecological theory (Brown, 1984; Grinnell, 1917; Hutchinson, 1978).

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Appendix 1. Fish diet data.

Table 3.A.1. Frequency of occurrence (%) of food items consumed by damselfishes collected during the non-upwelling (N-UP) and upwelling (UP) seasons.

Species	<i>A. troschelii</i>		<i>M. dorsalis</i>		<i>S. flavilatus</i>	
	N-UP	UP	N-UP	UP	N-UP	UP
<i>Algae</i>						
Green filamentous	50.0	63.2	95.0	87.0	97.3	64.0
Green foliose	0.0	57.9	10.0	78.3	24.3	84.0
Green branching	9.4	0.0	25.0	4.3	35.1	24.0
Red branching	37.5	21.1	70.0	65.2	91.9	72.0
Red filamentous	12.5	26.3	55.0	60.9	59.5	72.0
Red calcareous	3.1	10.5	50.0	30.4	51.4	88.0
Diatoms	0.0	5.3	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
<i>Animal prey</i>						
Copepod	53.1	52.6	30.0	39.1	2.7	12.0
Amphipod	43.8	63.2	10.0	21.7	8.1	36.0

Fish eggs	37.5	0.0	15.0	0.0	16.2	0.0
Fish larvae	0.0	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Gastropod	9.4	0.0	5.0	13.0	5.4	12.0
Nematode	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Polychaete	3.1	21.1	0.0	0.0	10.8	4.0
Anemone	0.0	0.0	5.0	0.0	5.4	0.0
Shrimp	3.1	26.3	0.0	0.0	2.7	4.0
Mite	0.0	0.0	20.0	13.0	0.0	0.0
Tubeworm	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.7	0.0
Brittle star	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.0
Hydroid	0.0	0.0	5.0	0.0	2.7	0.0
Unknown animal tissue	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	24.3	16.0
<hr/>						
<i>Other</i>						
Sediment	3.1	15.8	90.0	95.7	48.6	72.0
Detritus	0.0	5.3	0.0	34.8	0.0	12.0

Sample size	32	19	20	23	37	25
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Connecting statement: considering the effects of habitat on consumer abundance

In Chapters 2 and 3, I tested how environmental variation in temperature and resource availability impacts the feeding, digestive physiology and distribution of marine fishes. However, I did not explicitly consider the effects of habitat quality on consumers. Many consumer species depend on biogenic habitat, including corals, seagrasses, mangroves and mussels, and the distribution of biogenic habitat plays a definitive role in controlling the distribution of marine consumers at the local and seascape scales.

In Chapter 4, I seek to understand patterns of distribution in hyper-diverse invertebrate assemblages found on dead corals in Caribbean Panama. However, instead of testing for the impact of abiotic factors on abundance (as in Chapter 3), I tested whether different trophic groups respond differently to coral degradation. Further, because I operated on a much smaller scale (tens of kilometers) than Chapters 2 and 3 (thousands of kilometers), I was able to document extremely high-resolution patterns of biomass, to collect information on the feeding ecology of 53 coexisting consumer taxa.

Chapter 4: Coral degradation differentially affects invertebrate trophic functional groups

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Abstract

Cryptic invertebrate consumers are a crucial link in benthic marine ecosystems, but as coral reefs decline, the biomass, diversity, and composition of these communities can change. However, it remains unclear how coral degradation impacts the functional composition of associated invertebrate assemblages. In this study, we sampled 12 coral reefs across Bahía Almirante, Caribbean Panama to characterize different aspects of invertebrate function. We first quantified variation in the biomass and diversity of different trophic functional groups across a gradient of coral degradation. We then estimated the isotope signatures, niche breadths, and niche overlap of dominant consumers, to better understand how these consumers contribute to ecosystem function. Our results reveal that trophic functional groups responded differently to habitat degradation; grazer and predator biomass declined with decreasing live coral cover, whereas deposit- and suspension-feeding organisms were unaffected. Invertebrate diversity was not

affected by any of our environmental predictors. Our analyses of niche breadth varied by approximately an order of magnitude; but niche overlap was typically low within trophic groups, suggesting strong niche complementarity and low functional redundancy. Altogether, our findings demonstrate the cryptic invertebrate communities are vulnerable to the effects of habitat degradation, and further, that consumer species are not functionally interchangeable and so may not be easily replaced.

Introduction

In benthic marine habitats, consumers exert strong control over ecosystem function (Burkepile & Hay, 2006; Duffy, 2002; Hillebrand et al., 2007; O'Connor et al., 2017; Shurin et al., 2002). Ecosystem function, defined in this context as “the movement or storage of energy or material within an ecosystem”, following Bellwood et al. (2019), is particularly dependent on consumers that take up primary production and detritus. These consumers facilitate foundation species including corals and seagrasses by removing their algal competitors (Altman-Kurosaki et al., 2018; Brandl et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2003), recycle detritus (Emery et al., 2021; Williamson et al., 2021), and serve as prey to higher-order predators, supporting complex food webs (Casey et al., 2019). However, the overall ecosystem function of consumer assemblages varies substantially, and depend on the identities (Bagur et

al., 2014; Campbell et al., 2018; Emery et al., 2021; Laigle et al., 2018), diversity (Duffy et al., 2003), and abundance (Moksnes et al., 2008; Spiers & Frazer, 2023) of constituent species.

How consumer loss impacts ecosystem function depends on the relative importance of dominance and niche complementarity in the system. When ecosystem function is highly dependent on a single dominant species, the loss of that species is expected to cause large declines in function (Lessios, 1988; Treplin et al., 2013; Winfree et al., 2015). In contrast, when species contributing to ecosystem function exhibit high niche complementarity (the differential uptake of resources), ecosystem function should decline gradually with decreasing species richness (Adam et al., 2015; Duffy et al., 2003; Karlson et al., 2010; Lewis & Smith, 2019; Wong & Dowd, 2021). Regardless of the relative importance of dominance and complementarity in a given system, ecosystem function may be maintained despite species loss if that function can be replaced by similar species (i.e., there are species that are functionally redundant) (Bellwood et al., 2006; Campbell et al., 2018; Elmqvist et al., 2003); however, in many cases ecosystem function is characterized by low redundancy (Bellwood et al., 2006; Henderson et al., 2020; Reich et al., 2012).

In the Caribbean, many large herbivorous fishes have been removed by overfishing (Hughes, 1994; Jackson et al., 2014; Loh et al., 2015; Shantz et al., 2020), and the formerly dominant grazer, the large generalist urchin *Diadema antillarum*, has been marginalized by a disease outbreak (Hewson et al., 2023; Hylkema et al., 2023; Lessios, 1988). In Bahía Almirante, Caribbean Panama, this function appears to have been replaced by small-bodied and cryptic herbivores (Kuempel & Altieri, 2017; Sangil & Guzman, 2016), a potentially important but underexplored pool of functional diversity (Glynn & Enochs, 2011; Nelson et al., 2016; Nguyen, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2020). These invertebrate assemblages also include suspension and deposit feeders that provide a suite of benefits, such as incorporating nutrients from the water column and nearby seagrass and mangrove habitats (Granek et al., 2009; Heck et al., 2008; Ribes et al., 2003; Williamson et al., 2021). However, various events have led to the loss of coral in the region that mirror declines in the broader Caribbean (Altieri et al., 2017; Alvarez-Filip et al., 2009; Cramer et al., 2012; Seemann et al., 2014), putting the functional fate of these communities into question.

In this study, we tested how the degradation of coral habitat contributes to changes in the functional composition of cryptic invertebrate consumers. We did this by destructively sampling dead *Agaricia tenuifolia* from 12 reefs in Bahía

Almirante to estimate invertebrate biomass and composition. We then characterized the diets, niche breadths, and niche overlap of common consumers, using a combination of isotope data and a literature search. We tested the following research questions: first, do functional groups respond differently to changes in biomass and diversity in response to the degradation of coral habitat? Second, what is the relative importance of dominance, niche complementarity, and functional redundancy in these trophic groups? Our results reveal that the functional composition of invertebrate communities changes with habitat degradation; the biomass of herbivores and predators declines with decreasing live coral cover whereas deposit and suspension feeders are unaffected. Further, grazers and deposit feeders tend to be dominated by one or two species, but across all groups, niche overlap is low, suggesting low functional redundancy.

Methods

Study system

Bahía Almirante is a semi-enclosed lagoonal system located in Bocas del Toro, Caribbean Panama (Figure 4.1). Water flows into the lagoon primarily between Isla Colón and the mainland, carrying in sediments from the Ríos Changuinola and Sixaola (Saric, 2005). Water flows out of two outlets, between Islas Colón and Bastimentos and Islas Bastimentos and Popa (Figure 4.1; blue arrows); but water exchange in the lagoon is limited, contributing to local temperature

increases and oxygen depletion (Adelson et al., 2022; Seemann et al., 2014). Over the past few decades the lagoon has been impacted by a variety of anthropogenic activities, including increased sedimentation, nutrification, heavy metal loading, boat traffic, and overfishing (Seemann et al., 2014). These environmental changes, as well as various bleaching and hypoxic events, have led to substantial declines in coral cover and diversity across a spatial gradient in the lagoon (Altieri et al., 2017; Seemann et al., 2014).

Agaricia tenuifolia, the thin-leaf lettuce coral, is one of the more abundant and widespread corals across Bahía Almirante (Seemann et al., 2014), and is composed of thin, flat, irregular, upright fronds, giving colonies substantial structural complexity. This structural complexity allows both live and dead *A. tenuifolia* to support diverse, abundant assemblages of cryptic invertebrates (Nelson et al., 2016).

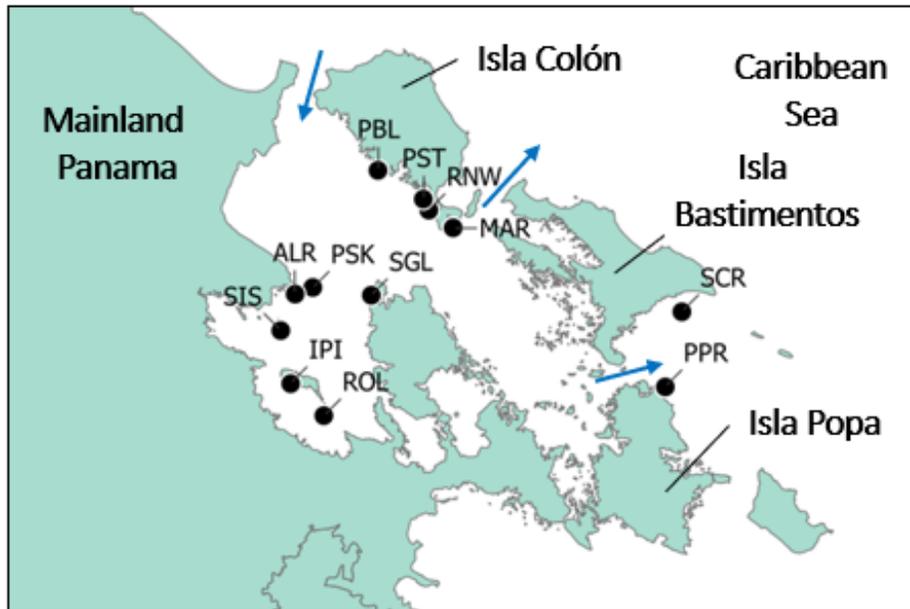


Figure 4.1. Collection sites in Bahía Almirante, Caribbean Panama. Blue arrows show channels through which water flows into and out of the lagoon. Site abbreviations are as follows: ROL = Cayo Roldan, IPI = Isla Pastores, SIS = Cayo Hermanas, ALR = Almirante, PSK = Ponsak, SGL = Seagal, PBL = Punta Puebla, PST = Punta STRI, RNW = Runway, MAR = Marina, SCR = Salt Creek, PPR = Popa Reef.

Community sampling

We quantified the composition and biomass of invertebrate assemblages associated with dead colonies of *Agaricia tenuifolia* in June 2016. A team of divers collected *A. tenuifolia* from 12 reefs across Bahía Almirante (Figure 4.2). We standardized our sampling efforts by haphazardly selecting three 0.25m² quadrats of dead *A. tenuifolia* from each reef. For each quadrat, we detached every dead

coral colony from the substrate (excavating to the sandy bottom or cemented reef platform) and immediately enclosed them within a heavy-duty plastic bag while still underwater. Although it is likely some large, motile organisms were lost during this process, the diversity and abundance of motile species that we observed in our samples suggest that any loss was minimal and consistent across locations. The bags were transported to the boat, where they were placed into large, aerated bins of seawater until processing later that day. We also sampled plankton by towing a 0.80 μm plankton net (0.5 m diameter) for 5 min per reef, and we collected 5 to 10 blades of the turtle seagrass *Thalassia testudinum* per reef, for stable isotope analysis.

In the laboratory, we transferred dead coral substrate (and associated sponges) to large sorting trays containing 45 μm filtered seawater. We broke corals and sponges into small, planar pieces, then shook them in the seawater to dislodge any motile organisms. We filtered the water from all trays and bins through 2mm sieves and placed the contents in a tray. We sorted and counted specimens retained by the 2mm sieve to morphospecies (smaller size fractions were saved and analyzed, but these data are not included in this paper). One to a few individuals from each morphospecies were photographed alive (Paulay et al. 2017), preserved in 80% ethanol, and catalogued in the Florida Museum of Natural History

invertebrate collection as reference vouchers. All coral skeleton was saved and weighed to estimate coral mass within each plot.

Other invertebrates grouped into morphospecies were dried at 60°C overnight to measure dry weight and then incinerated at 400°C for four hours in a combustion furnace to estimate ash-free dry weight. We collected and weighed the sponge tissue within each plot in the same way. Finally, to characterize the trophic niches of common species, we opportunistically set aside individuals from each plot that appeared to constitute a large portion of that plot's biomass due to either high abundance or large body size. Because we conducted this sampling prior to knowing the full biomass distribution of taxa, our coverage of the highest-biomass species was not complete, but did include 33 high-biomass taxa.

Reef benthic cover

We conducted surveys of benthic cover at each site during May and June of 2016. We placed three 20m transects parallel to the shore 2-4m deep, and photographed 100cm x 70cm quadrats, each spaced 2m apart (n = 30 per site). We analyzed all photos in the CoralNet platform (Beijbom et al., 2015). We employed a stratified random sampling design, in which we divided each image into a 10x10 grid of cells, then randomly sampled 1 point in each cell (n = 100 per image). Points were assigned to one of the following categories: live hard coral, dead hard coral,

live soft coral, sponge, zoanthid, other invertebrates, seagrass, grazable substrate, macroalgae, rubble, sand, shade and “unknown”. We trained the CoralNet algorithm by manually scoring the first 15 photos; the remaining photos were scored automatically using the algorithm. We later verified the assignments made by CoralNet. Finally, the mean benthic cover of each category was estimated per reef. However, only live hard coral, dead hard coral, rubble, and sand were included in our analyses.

Stable isotope analysis

Our isotopic analyses were designed to a) estimate the mean and variance of each taxon's $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, b) test whether trophic designations from the literature were consistent with observed estimates of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and c) estimate the isotopic niche breadth and niche overlap of common consumer species. To measure $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotope ratios, we set aside individuals from 33 consumer taxa ($N = 339$, range of samples per species = 1 - 76) and 2 potential food sources (turtle grass, $n = 6$; plankton, $n = 24$). Data for an additional potential food source collected in Bocas del Toro, particulate organic matter, was provided by Chris Freeman (unpublished). All individuals from consumer taxa sampled for isotope analysis were weighed then dried at 60°C overnight. For taxa with shells, carapaces, or tests, we dissected out soft tissues prior to drying. We then ground

each sample into a fine powder, weighed it on a microbalance, and packed it into tin capsules. Samples from taxa containing calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) that could not be easily separated from other tissues (e.g., brittle stars) were packed into silver capsules, weighed, then acidified using previously sealed ampoules of hydrochloric acid to prevent CaCO_3 from interfering with our estimates of isotope ratios and percent carbon (Jacob et al., 2005). Samples were processed in an EA3028 Elemental Analyser (Eurovector, Italy), and analyzed by a Perspective Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Nu, United Kingdom) using iACET as a standard reference material. We use δ notation for isotope ratios: values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are calculated as $\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1$ where R is the heavy/light isotope ratio (e.g., $\delta^{15}\text{N}/\delta^{14}\text{N}$). Measured values are reported in per mil (‰).

Trophic classifications

To quantify the trophic composition of the invertebrate assemblages associated with each plot, we first identified the species with the most biomass across the pooled assemblage. We searched the literature for information on diet and feeding mechanism for each of these species. Because of the difficulty of obtaining sufficient diet data, we classified species according to their feeding mechanism as suspension feeders, deposit feeders, grazers, or predators (Table 4.1). Some species were recorded to engage in multiple types of feeding, in these

cases, all types were recorded but we classified the species following its dominant type of feeding. We then checked these literature classifications against the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of species for which we collected isotope data.

Table 4.1. Trophic group definitions used throughout this manuscript.

Trophic group	Description	Examples
Suspension feeder	Consume food (plankton, bacteria, detritus) suspended in the surrounding water. Includes filter feeders	<i>Ctenoides scaber</i> , <i>Ophiothrix oerstedii</i>
Deposit feeder	Consume organic particles in sediment	<i>Holothuria impatiens</i> , <i>Ophionereis reticulata</i>
Grazer	Consume algae or plant material by scraping, biting, etc.	<i>Echinometra viridis</i> , <i>Lithopoma tectum</i>
Predator	Consumes animal prey	<i>Fasciolaria tulipa</i> , <i>Baseodiscus</i>

Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted in R version 4.2.1, *Funny-Looking Kid* (R Core Team, 2021) using RStudio version 2022.7.2.576, *Spotted Wakerobin* (RStudio Team, 2022).

We first analyzed variation in the coral structure and benthic cover of reefs across Bahía Almirante using a Principal Component Analysis, which allowed us to better understand spatial variation in reef characteristics. To test how live coral cover (reef scale) and coral mass (plot scale) impact the biomass and diversity of different functional groups (both estimated at the plot level) across Bahía Almirante, we built generalized linear models (GLM) using the Bayesian modelling package *brms* (Bürkner, 2017). We ln-transformed biomass and modelled it using the student distribution; we modelled diversity (Gini-Simpson index; GS index) using the beta distribution with a logit link. We chose to use the GS index as our diversity response because our data exclude small and rare species, and the GS weights species evenness more heavily than other indices such as species richness or Shannon's diversity (Chao et al., 2014; Whittaker, 1965). All models initially included a random effect of reef ID, given that we expected plots from the same reef to be more similar. To test which predictor best explained variation in invertebrate biomass and diversity, we competed the models against each other

using model selection, compared effect sizes, and ran posterior predictive checks to ensure reasonable model fit.

Although the isotopic data we collected for all 33 taxa are presented in the results section to increase the available data for these species, only taxa with $n > 5$ in at least one site were included in our statistical analyses. To model $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, we built GLMs following the student distribution, which provides better estimates for data with outliers than the normal distribution. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ were modelled separately. In each of our two models, we included trophic group (Table I) as a fixed effect, and site ID nested within taxon ID as a random effect. We structured our random effect this way because the isotopic signatures of taxa may vary across sites interactively (e.g., species A might have higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at site X than site Y, whereas species B might have lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at site X than site Y). In these models, we also included two predictors of variance (σ): trophic classification as a fixed effect, and taxon ID as a random effect. Including these two effects allowed us to assess whether trophic or taxonomic identity were better determinants of the variability of a taxon's isotopic niche.

We also assessed the variability of a taxon's isotopic niche (i.e., niche breadth) using the *SIBER* package (A. L. Jackson et al., 2011). *SIBER* estimates a taxon's isotopic niche by jointly modelling $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ following a multivariate

normal distribution, which it uses to calculate the standard ellipse area (SEA).

Because variation in diet across sites inflates estimates of SEA (Jackson et al., 2011),

if a species had $n > 5$ at multiple sites, isotope data from each site were analyzed

separately. We also corrected our estimates of SEA for low sample sizes (corrected

estimates are denoted SEA_c). For the model we ran a total of 20,000 iterations,

including 1,000 burn-in iterations, across two chains. Iterations were thinned by a

factor of 10. We used our estimates of isotopic niche position and breadth to

calculate niche overlap between common consumer species using the

formula $\frac{Overlap}{SEA_c} * 100\%$.

Results

Reef attributes

Coral reef habitats across Bahía Almirante vary substantially in both coral structure and benthic cover, but reefs closer together have more similar characteristics (Figure 4.2). Reefs near the mainland, in the most sheltered part of the bay (ROL, IPI, SIS; Figure 4.1), had relatively low cover of both live and dead hard coral, high cover of coral rubble and bare sand, low dead coral mass within plots, and high sponge mass (Tables 4S1 and 4S2). Of the sites located in the main portion of Bahía Almirante, southern sites (ALR, PSK, SGL) were characterized by a mix of live and dead hard coral, with some rubble and bare sand. Sites along the

southwest coast of Isla Colón (PBL, PST, RNW) had virtually no live coral cover, but high dead coral cover and coral rubble, with relatively low sponge mass. MAR, located next to the Bocas Marina, was more similar to reefs exposed to the open Caribbean (SCR and PPR); all three sites had relatively high live coral cover.

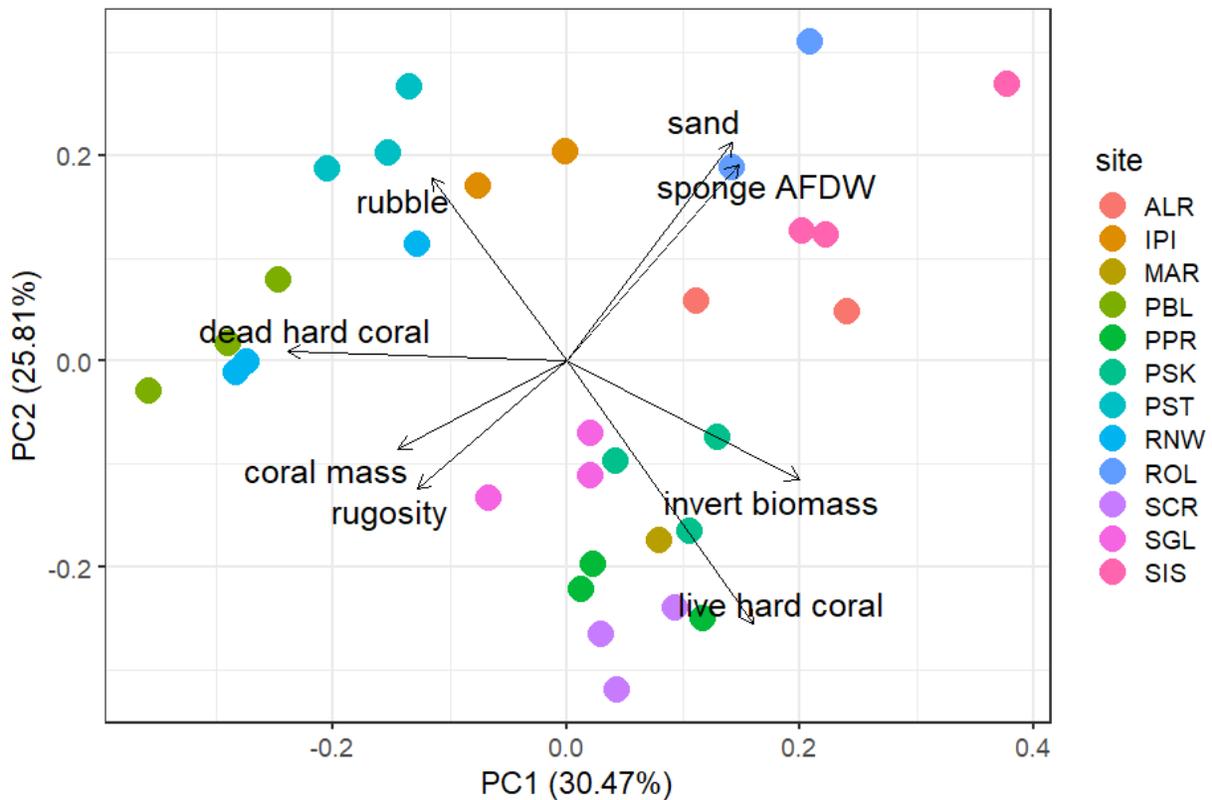


Figure 4.2. Characteristics of 12 coral reefs in Bahía Almirante, Caribbean Panama. Each point in the principle components analysis (PCA) represents the values associated with one plot of dead *Agaricia tenuifolia*; colours denote the site at which each plot was collected. Coral mass, rugosity, and sponge AFDW were all measured

at the plot level; live hard coral and dead hard coral (% cover) were measured at the reef level (i.e., values are identical for plots within a given site).

Across 36 plots of dead *Agaricia tenuifolia*, we observed a total of 24,765 individuals from 505 invertebrate taxa. We collected biomass estimates for 117 taxa that represented 84% of all individuals sampled; the taxa that were not included were generally too small and rare to contribute substantially to invertebrate biomass. Of the 117 taxa for which we collected biomass estimates, we were able to find trophic classifications for 53 taxa, representing 94% of all recorded biomass. Of these 53 taxa, we positively identified 21 as suspension feeders, 15 as predators, 13 as grazers, and 6 as deposit feeders.

Consumer summary

Total invertebrate dry mass averaged 254g per 0.25m² plot (± 128 g SD), but varied sevenfold across plots (range 85 - 622g). Invertebrate biomass varied across trophic groups: suspension feeders constituted the most invertebrate biomass on average (78 \pm 75g), followed by grazers (65 \pm 32g), predators (54 \pm 48g), and deposit feeders (42 \pm 55g). Grazer biomass was positively associated with live coral cover (reef level) and coral mass (plot level); predator biomass was positively associated with live coral cover only (Table 4.2). Neither suspension nor deposit feeder

biomass was predicted by any environmental variables, except for site, which was included as a random effect (Table 4.2).

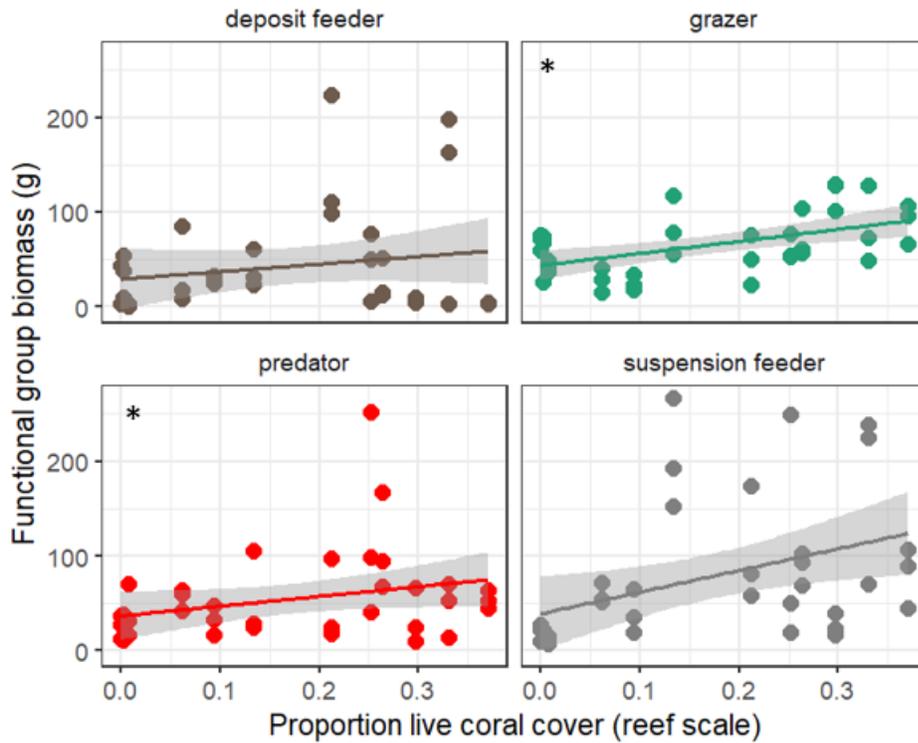


Figure 4.3. Changes in functional group biomass across the proportion of the reef that is covered in live coral. Each point represents a single plot from one of twelve reefs. Stars represent functional groups for which the relationship between biomass and coral cover was significant (grazers and predators).

Table 4.2. Predictors from the best selected models describing the biomass of different trophic functional groups. Live coral cover and Coral mass are fixed predictors, measured at the reef and plot level respectively, and Site is a random predictor. The best models for each group were selected using leave-one-out cross validation, and validated using posterior predictive checks.

Group	Predictor	Median and 95% CI
Grazer	Coral mass	0.03 [-0.01, 0.07]
	Live coral cover	0.02 [0.00, 0.04]
	Site	0.35 [0.06, 0.68]
Predator	Live coral cover	1.75 [-0.16, 3.67]
Suspension feeder	Site	0.99 [0.59, 1.63]
Deposit feeder	Site	1.17 [0.47, 2.07]

Invertebrate diversity, quantified using the inverse Simpson index, averaged 0.86 per plot (± 0.07). Predators and suspension feeders exhibited the highest

average diversity (0.65 ± 0.15 and 0.64 ± 0.16 , respectively), followed by grazers (0.47 ± 0.23), and deposit feeders (0.25 ± 0.18). However, because not all taxa are included in our analyses, our diversity estimates should be considered as minimum values. Variation in invertebrate diversity across functional groups was not explained by any of our environmental predictors.

Assemblages of deposit feeders and grazers exhibited the greatest tendency to be dominated by one or two taxa: the polychaete *Terebellidae* sp. and the sea cucumber *Holothuria impatiens* constituted an average of 46.2 and 42.8% (respectively) of overall deposit-feeder biomass, but represented as much as 95.6 and 90.5% (respectively) of site-level deposit-feeder biomass (Figure 4.4). Similarly, the urchin *Echinometra viridis* represented 50% of all grazer biomass, and represented up to 92.8% of site-level grazer biomass. The next most dominant grazer was the snail *Cerithium litteratum*, representing only 12.7% of all grazer biomass. Assemblages of predators and suspension feeders were less prone to domination by a single taxon: the highest-biomass predator, the brittle star *Ophioderma appressum* constituted 27.9% of all predator biomass, (site-level maximum: 55.3%). The highest-biomass suspension feeder, the brittle star *Ophiocoma wendtii*, only constituted 17.3% of all biomass (site-level maximum: 20.5%).

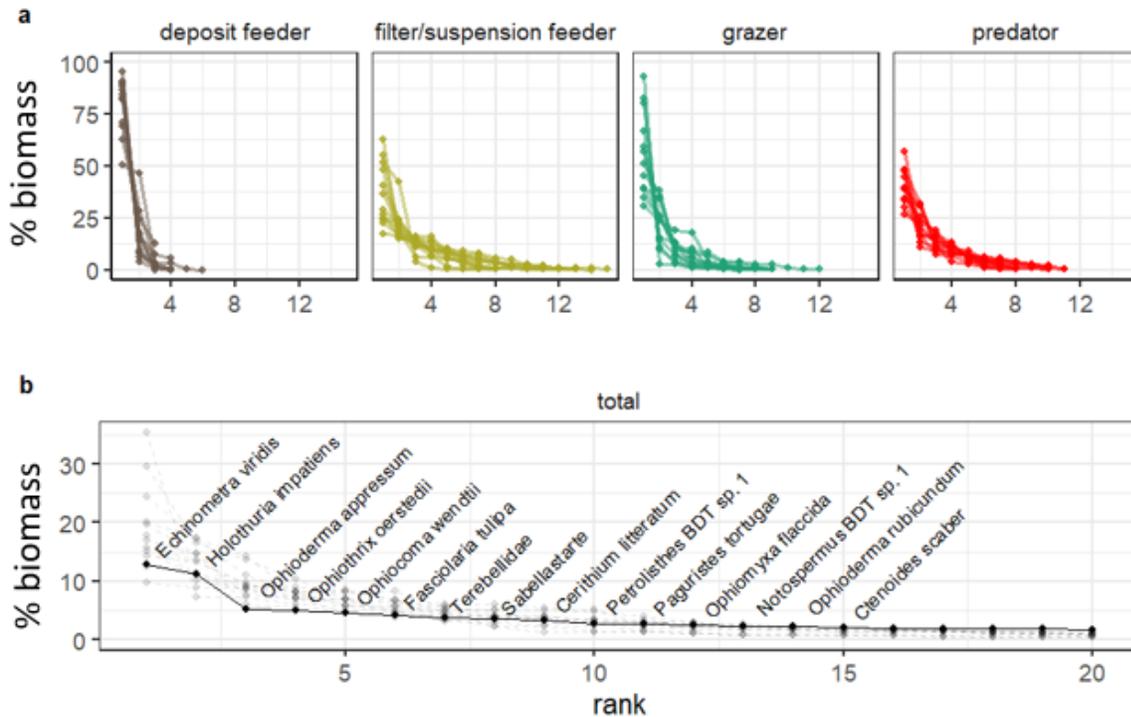


Figure 4.4. Rank biomass curves describing invertebrate assemblages associated with dead *Agaricia tenuifolia* in Bahía Almirante, Caribbean Panama. The y-axis gives the percent biomass contributed by each species. Each line represents a site. Panel a) shows rank abundance curves for each trophic group, and panel b) shows rank abundance curves including the 20 taxa constituting the most biomass in the entire invertebrate assemblage. In panel b), light lines represent pooled data from each site, and the dark line represents the entire pooled dataset. Labels denote the 15 taxa with the highest biomass in the entire dataset. Appendix I gives the biomass contributions of each species to their trophic group.

Isotope analyses

Our analyses reveal that trophic level, taxon identity, and collection site all impact values of consumer $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Figures 4.5, 4.6). $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, which indicate trophic level, were indistinguishable between species classified in the literature as predators (7.03‰, 95%CI: 6.09, 7.97) and deposit feeders (7.14‰, 95%CI: 6.74, 7.52), but lower for species classified as suspension feeders (4.16‰, 95%CI: 3.74, 4.57) or grazers (3.75‰, 95%CI: 3.29, 4.23). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, which in marine systems indicate the relative contributions of terrestrial (high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and marine (low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) carbon, were highest for predators (-14.3‰, 95%CI: -15.1, -13.6) and grazers (-14.6‰, 95%CI: -15.4, -13.8) and lower for deposit feeders (-16.37‰, 95%CI: -17.93, -14.86) and suspension feeders (-17.6‰, 95%CI: -18.3, -16.9). Model selection assigned the most support to models containing a nested taxon ID:site ID random effect for both $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (0.72, 95%CI: 0.50, 0.98; 85% of model weight) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (1.17, 95%CI: 0.73, 1.70; 83% of model weight). Although some taxa were not included in our statistical analyses due to insufficient sample sizes, they have been included in Figure 5 for reference.

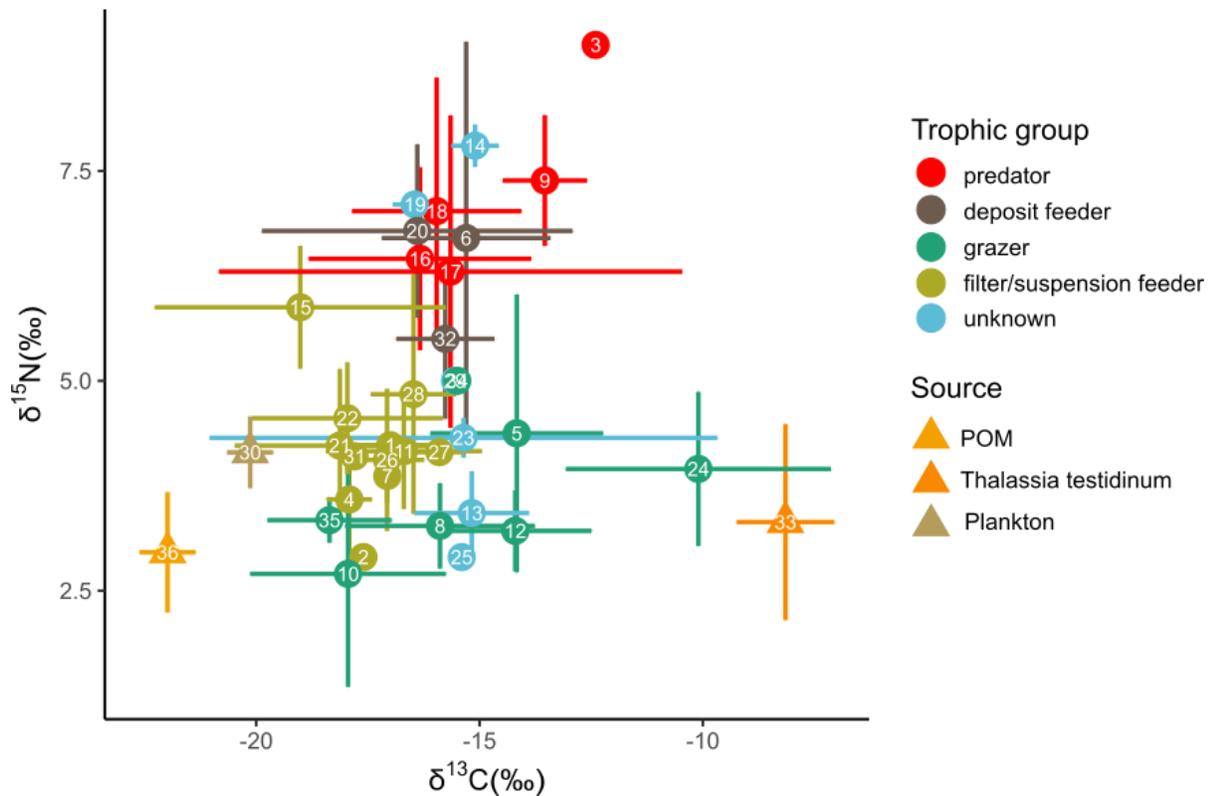


Figure 4.5. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures (mean \pm SD) of invertebrate consumer taxa (circles) and possible diet sources (triangles) collected from Almirante Bay, Panama. Colours are assigned based on primary trophic designation from literature (Appendix 1). Each point represents the mean signature of one taxon, and is marked with a number corresponding to the taxon identity, as follows: 1) *Antillipecten antillarum*, 2) Arcidae, 3) *Baseodiscus* sp., 4) *Ctenoides scaber*, 5) *Echinometra viridis*, 6) *Holothuria impatiens*, 7) *Limaria pellucida*, 8) *Lithopoma tectum*, 9) *Lysmata jundalini*, 10) *Lytechinus williamsi*, 11) *Malleus candeanus*, 12) *Mithraculus forceps*, 13) *Mithrax*, 14) *Odontozona* n. sp. aff. *rubra*, 15) *Ophiocoma wendtii*, 16)

Ophioderma appressum, 17) *Ophioderma rubicundum*, 18) *Ophiomyxa flaccida*, 19) *Ophiomyxidae* sp., 20) *Ophionereis reticulata*, 21) *Ophiothrix oerstedii*, 22) *Ophiothrix* sp., 23) *Paguristes* sp., 24) *Paguristes tortugae*, 25) *Paguroidea* sp., 26) *Pectinidae* sp., 27) *Petrolisthes* sp., 28) *Petrolisthes* BDT sp. 1, 29) *Pilumnidae* sp., 30) Plankton, 31) *Sabellastarte* sp., 32) *Terebellidae* sp., 33) *Thalassia testudinum*, 34) *Thor manningi*, 35) *Turbo* sp., 36) Particulate organic matter (POM values provided by Chris Freeman)

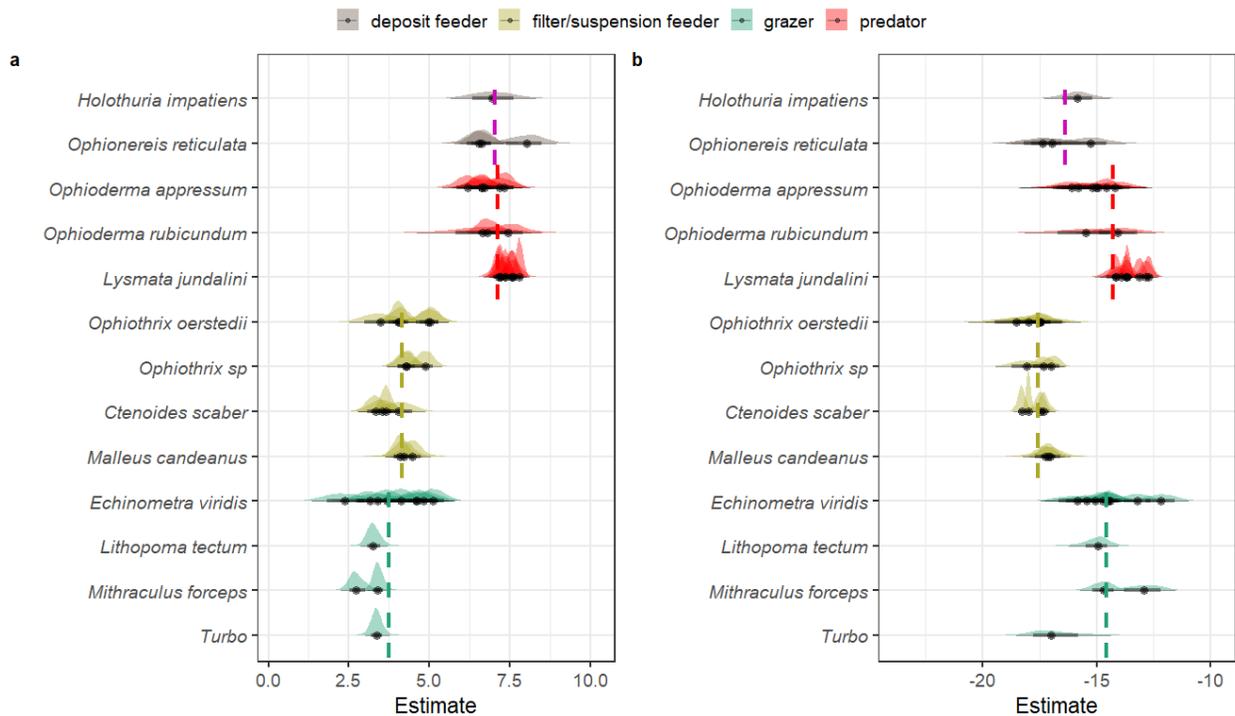


Figure 4.6. Model estimates of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (a) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (b) signatures of 13 common consumers collected from dead *Agaricia tenuifolia* across Bahía Almirante, Panama. Filled area represents distribution of all posterior draws, black lines represent the range of values over which we observe the middle 95% of posterior draws. Dashed

vertical lines represent the median estimate of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for each trophic group combined. Multiple distributions for a single species represent estimates of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from different sites.

Estimates of isotopic niche breadth (SEA_c) varied by more than an order of magnitude across consumer taxa (*Lysmata jundalini*: 0.28‰^2 , *Ophionereis reticulata*: 8.3‰^2 ; Figure 4.7, asterisks). Species that were widely sampled (e.g., *Echinometra viridis*, *Lysmata jundalini*, and *Ophionereis reticulata*) exhibited similar niche breadths across reefs (Figure 4.7), although isotopic signatures across sites differed (Figure 4.6). Niche overlap within and across trophic groups was generally low but ranged from 0%-70% (Table 4.3).

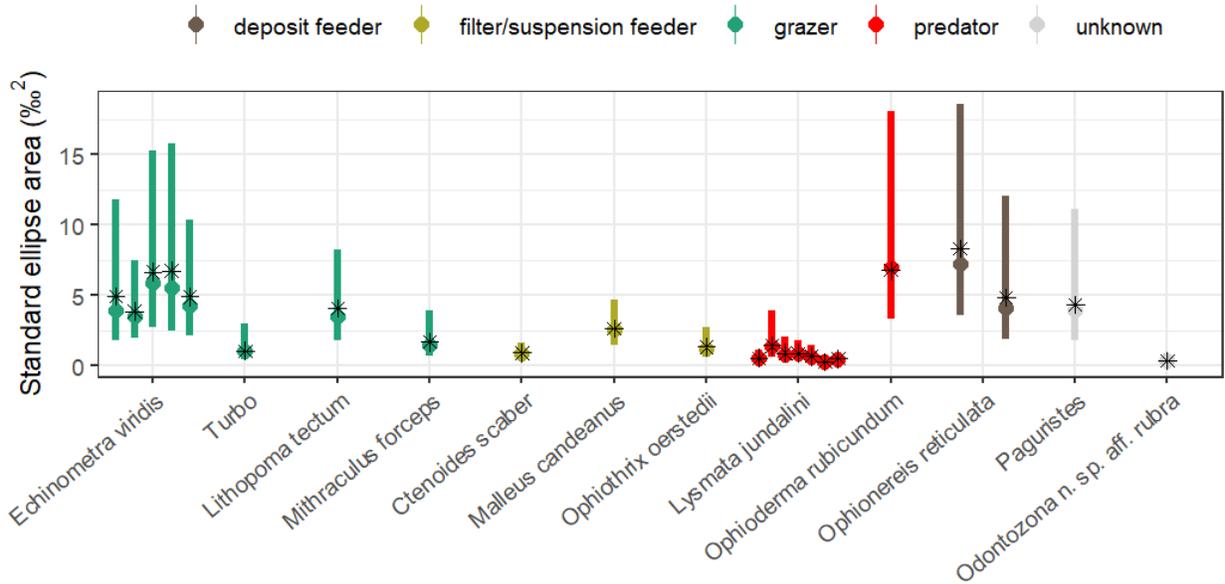


Figure 4.7. Trophic niche breadths of 12 taxa collected from Bocas del Toro,

Panama, as estimated by standard ellipse area (SEA). Points show median SEA estimate at a given site, lines show 95% credibility intervals, and black asterisks indicate SEA estimates corrected for small sample size (SEA_c). Three species have SEA estimates from multiple sites (*E. viridis*, *L. jundalini* and *Ophionereis reticulata*) that were estimated independently and are represented by separate lines.

Table 4.3. Isotopic niche overlaps (% of the total area that overlaps) calculated from $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures. Values show overlap between niche of taxon in each row with the niche of taxon in each column. Taxon comparisons are only made between taxa collected from the same site (blank cells indicate no comparison made). Values marked with a star are the average niche overlap calculated from multiple site pairs. Taxon codes: EV = *Echinometra viridis*, TU = *Turbo* sp., LT = *Lithopoma tectum*, MF = *Mithraculus forceps*, CS = *Ctenoides scaber*, MC = *Malleus candeanus*, OO = *Ophiothrix oerstedii*, LJ = *Lysmata jundalini*, ORu = *Ophioderma rubicundum*, ORe = *Ophionereis reticulata*, PA = *Paguristes* sp., OD = *Odontazona n. sp. aff. rubra*. Colours indicate trophic group, and correspond to colors in Figure 2. Interior coloured cells represent niche overlap estimates for taxa within a given trophic group.

	EV	TU	LT	MF	CS	MC	OO	LJ	ORu	ORe	PA	OD
EV				10.7	4.5		0.0	22.0*		34.9		

TU			26.3									
LT		1.6										
MF	34.4				0.1	0.0		29.9			48.2	
CS	34.3			0.1		70.1		0.3			59.0	
MC				0.0	27.9						47.4	
OO	0.0							6.0				
LJ	53.5*			23.4	0.0		1.6					37.1
ORu												35.5
ORe	29.7											
PA				10.5	6.0	11.9						
OD								34.8	15.7			

Discussion

Dead *Agaricia tenuifolia* in Bahía Almirante support highly diverse assemblages of invertebrate consumers (505 taxa) that contribute to various ecosystem functions, including grazing, detrital recycling, and water filtration.

Despite high species richness, only 50 species constituted 96% of recorded biomass, suggesting that the majority of species contribute little to overall ecosystem function. The loss of live coral cover at the reef scale was associated with declines in the biomass of herbivores and predators, but not suspension or deposit feeders. None of our environmental predictors explained variation in the diversity of different trophic groups. Our isotope analyses revealed substantial variation in niche size among common reef consumers and little niche overlap, even within trophic groups. Altogether, our findings suggest that only a handful of species dominate ecosystems contributed by cryptobenthic communities, and moreover, that many species within a given trophic group are not functionally interchangeable. This suggests that in the event of further species losses in the Caribbean, species' functional contributions may not be easily replaced.

Species depend on the structure provided by corals for different reasons, perhaps contributing to the variation in the response of different trophic groups to coral loss. Many species depend on coral structure for protection from predators, and having available structure on the surrounding reef is likely particularly important for highly motile species, such as brittle stars (Pomory, 2001; Shulman, 2020; Sides & Woodley, 1985). Further, grazing invertebrates depend on coral as substrate for algal growth (Kuempel & Altieri, 2017; Nelson et al., 2016; Sangil &

Guzman, 2016), potentially explaining why grazers are susceptible to declines in coral mass (Table II). In contrast, the suspension and deposit feeders did not depend on live coral cover or coral mass. Bivalve suspension feeders likely benefit from coral substrate as a hard surface on which to attach, but may have lower recruitment rates on live coral, which predate on larvae (Hutchings, 2008; Nelson et al., 2016). Furthermore, both suspension- and deposit-feeding organisms feed on resources that do not depend on coral substrate, and that can originate from nearby ecosystems such as seagrasses and mangroves (Granek et al., 2009; Heck et al., 2008; Ribes et al., 2003).

Both grazing and deposit-feeding assemblages were more likely to be dominated by one or two species, whereas suspension-feeding and predator assemblages were more even and diverse (Table 4.2, Figure 4.3). Our analyses of niche breadth show that both the dominant grazer *Echinometra viridis* and the deposit-feeding *Ophionereis reticulata* have substantially broader isotopic niches than other common consumer species (Figure 4.7). The broad trophic niche of *E. viridis*, which apparently reflects an opportunistic feeding strategy, likely contributes to the high biomass of *E. viridis*, given that hundreds of algal species are present in Caribbean Panama (Wysor & Clerck, 2003; Wysor & Kooistra, 2003). Many grazers are limited in the algae they can consume due to algal defenses, digestibility, and

physical accessibility (Cruz-Rivera & Paul, 2006; Lewis & Smith, 2019; Rasher et al., 2013), and so have a competitive disadvantage. Consistent with this pattern, we found that some of the less dominant grazers had much narrower niches than *E. viridis*, with little niche overlap (Figure 4.7; Table 4.3). Deposit feeding assemblages were similarly uneven (Figure 4.4) with low species richness, but we suggest that the relative digestibility of detrital matter contributes to these low-diversity assemblages. Although detritus comes from a wide variety of sources and so is inherently heterogeneous, likely contributing to the broad isotopic signature of *O. reticulata*, it typically has fewer impediments to consumption (such as chemical defenses) than live algae, and so requires less specialization (Moore et al., 2004; Wilson et al., 2003).

In contrast, both suspension feeders and predators were more diverse trophic groups than grazers or deposit feeders (Figure 4). Our low estimates of SEA_c for these taxa (Figure 7; excluding *Ophioderma rubicundum*, which also feeds on detritus; Warner, 1982) suggest that niche specialization and complementarity likely contribute to their high diversity, as has been observed in other systems (Casey et al., 2019; Leray et al., 2015; Richoux et al., 2014; Sánchez González et al., 2023; Wing & Jack, 2012). As a functional group, suspension feeders are defined by the fact that they feed from the water column (Table I), but encompass species that selectively

feed from a wide range of sources, including plankton, bacteria, and detritus, leading to high niche complementarity (Lefebvre et al., 2009; Sánchez González et al., 2023; Tallis, 2009; Tran & Ackerman, 2019; Wing & Jack, 2012). Similarly, predators are limited in their prey selection by both size and their ability to overcome various physical and chemical defenses (Blackmon & Valentine, 2022; Meredith et al., 2007; Muller et al., 2020; Wainwright, 1988). Thus, many coral reef predators exhibit definite dietary preferences and niche partitioning (Casey et al., 2019; Leray et al., 2015).

Our analyses demonstrate that coral-associated invertebrate assemblages are a highly diverse group that are dominated by a relatively small number of taxa. The susceptibility of these invertebrates to the degradation of coral habitat appears to depend on trophic group, possibly because some groups depend on different aspects of coral structure or to different degrees. Further, the relative importance of dominance and complementarity appears to vary across trophic groups, likely due in part to physical and chemical differences in the foods consumed by each group. Different trophic groups also appear to be differentially susceptible to species loss: grazer and deposit feeder biomass are largely concentrated in one or two taxa, suggesting large declines in function if these particular species are lost. In contrast, suspension-feeding and predatory invertebrates appear to be more

diverse with narrow isotopic niches, suggesting they are susceptible to a gradual decline in functionality with decreasing species richness.

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Appendix

Table 4S1. Attributes of dead *Agaricia tenuifolia* plots sampled in Bahía Almirante, Caribbean Panama. Three plots were sampled at each site. Standard deviations given in brackets.

Site	Invertebrate biomass (g)	Coral mass (kg)	Sponge AFDW (g)	Rugosity
ROL	138.9 (38.2)	9.7 (1.6)	77.8 (26.2)	1.6 (0.2)
IPI	187.3 (54.4)	13.4 (1.0)	17.3 (21.2)	1.7 (0.3)
SIS	387.6 (79.9)	12.8 (3.2)	49.8 (78.5)	2.0 (0.4)
ALR	353.4 (123.1)	14.0 (0.8)	41.4 (11.6)	1.6 (0.1)
PSK	354.7 (118.9)	16.1 (2.2)	21.8 (13.3)	2.0 (0.3)
SGL	210.1 (56.3)	13.6 (0.5)	4.6 (7.9)	2.4 (0.4)
PBL	134.3 (45.4)	18.0 (5.7)	4.9 (4.1)	2.2 (0.5)
PST	155.2 (14.5)	22.5 (4.1)	28.1 (12.4)	2.1 (0.4)
RNW	115.9 (34.6)	18.7 (3.4)	16.1 (15.0)	2.3 (0.2)
MAR	313.9 (54.7)	18.5 (3.1)	3.0 (-)	2.3 (0.3)

SCR	249.7 (57.9)	16.6 (1.5)	2.5 (1.8)	2.3 (0.3)
PPR	450.2 (149.1)	21.3 (2.9)	9.0 (6.3)	2.0 (0.3)

Table 4S2. Benthic cover of 12 coral reefs sampled in Bahía Almirante, Caribbean Panama. All values given as percent cover of 25m transects.

Site	Live hard coral (%)	Dead hard coral (%)	Coral rubble (%)	Bare sand (%)
ROL	9.4	7.1	11.9	19.9
IPI	6.2	9.0	34.3	11.7
SIS	13.3	2.4	12.6	35.6
ALR	21.2	22.8	7.3	22.1
PSK	25.2	16.6	9.2	9.9
SGL	29.7	22.8	13.8	14.3
PBL	0	53.6	16.8	4.6
PST	0.3	21.4	32.9	20.8
RNW	0.8	45.3	10.7	10.5
MAR	26.3	9.0	4.0	20.1
SCR	37.1	4.4	7.1	0.3
PPR	22	18.4	14.3	5.0

Chapter 5: Discussion

Throughout this thesis, I sought to explain how environmental variation impacts the feeding ecology, performance, and distribution of marine ectotherms. In the second chapter of my thesis, I tested whether a documented biogeographical pattern (herbivorous fishes are rarer at high latitudes) could be explained by systematic differences in fish physiology (digestion of plant material is less efficient at low temperatures). In the third chapter, I tested whether seasonal variation in temperature and resource availability impacted the feeding ecology, digestive physiology, and distribution of tropical damselfishes, and whether the effects of upwelling on distribution were concordant with our expectations from the effects of upwelling on damselfish performance. In the fourth chapter of my thesis, I demonstrate how taxa consuming different resources exhibit variation in niche breadth and patterns of biomass within diverse communities. In this final chapter, I review themes that recur across these manuscripts, the limitations inherent to the different analytical approaches that I employed (meta-analyses, field studies, and distribution models), and directions for future research in the field.

Linking physiological processes to geographical patterns: successes and limitations of different approaches

Ecological processes occurring at different scales- individual performance, population dynamics, ecosystem function, and so on- are profoundly interdependent (O'Connor et al., 2020). To fully disentangle the processes that generate various ecological patterns, including patterns of distribution, we must account for the interplay of these processes by considering and synthesizing evidence from multiple scales. This is a goal I have sought to achieve throughout my thesis, with some successes, and some limitations.

In the first chapter of my thesis, I conducted a meta-analysis to test how temperature affects digestion across trophic groups (Knight et al., 2021). A strength of this approach was that for the first time, a physiological hypothesis concerning global patterns in a tremendously diverse taxonomic group was tested using a broad set of physiological data (99 studies including hundreds of species), whereas previous work had primarily focused on a single or several species (e.g., Floeter et al., 2005; Horn & Gibson, 1990). In addition to demonstrating that existing studies did not provide strong evidence supporting the temperature constraint hypothesis (TCH), I was able to identify that a particular digestive strategy (symbiosis with a fermenting gut microbiome) might be more common in coldwater herbivores, and

suggest a new line of inquiry into the distribution of adaptations to herbivory across latitudes.

Of course, an inevitable limitation on meta-analyses are the available data. If herbivorous fishes do not exist in certain thermal environments, then estimates of their performance cannot be included in a meta-analysis. So how can an ecologist understand why certain species do not exist? Perhaps they can't. But there are questions that can be asked and tested that may help shed some light on the matter. For example, plenty of invertebrate species such as krill and amphipods (Everson, 2008; Werner & Auel, 2005) are highly successful feeding on algae and phytoplankton in the world's coldest waters. What are the digestive mechanisms used by these species? To what extent do they differ from those found in fishes? Similarly, what are the thermal dependencies of the various digestive mechanisms that *are* used by herbivorous fishes, such as acid lysis, enzymatic digestion, and fermentation? Are these dependencies linear, or exponential, or do they exhibit some sort of threshold behaviour? Taxa are limited by their biochemistry, and variations in biochemistry can generate surprising patterns of distribution at broad scales (e.g., Clarke & Johnston, 1996; Espinoza et al., 2004; Grady et al., 2019). Fortunately, however, these are questions for a different dissertation.

In the second chapter of my thesis, I again used a broad-scale, publicly available dataset collected by other researchers (distribution data from Reef Life Survey and environmental data collected by STRI and NOAA), but combined it with diet and physiological data that I collected myself. There were several benefits to this approach. Whereas meta-analyses necessarily sacrifice context for the chance to ask questions at broad phylogenetic and geographical scales, by working with researchers familiar with upwelling in the Gulf of Panama, I was able to test questions that were targeted and region-appropriate. Further, the data I collected provided context to the patterns of distribution that we observed, adding to a growing body of literature that combines physiological and distributional data to increase confidence in our inferences about broad-scale patterns (Duncan et al., 2020; Hargreaves et al., 2014; Kroeker et al., 2016; Lunghi et al., 2018; Menge et al., 2004; Sunday et al., 2015).

The final manuscript in my thesis reflects one of the fundamental trade-offs in experimental design: I participated in a team that was able to obtain high-resolution data describing how habitat degradation impacts the distribution of different trophic groups, but at a much smaller spatial scale (a dozen reefs in a single bay). Although I was able to show that different trophic groups respond differently to coral degradation, the relatively small scale of this project suggests that the transferability of my results to other reefs in the Caribbean or beyond may

be limited by differences in consumer identities, the degree of coral decline, or other idiosyncrasies. However, many processes that shape the distribution of consumers occur at local and regional scales (Byrnes et al., 2022; Menge et al., 2004; Whippo et al., 2018), and these processes are often unexplained by broad-scale distribution models, which may be better at predicting upper limits on species abundance rather than local variation in species abundance (VanDerWal et al., 2009).

Individual performance predicts distribution (sometimes)

All three of my manuscripts explored, to different degrees, the idea consumer performance can reasonably be linked to broader scale patterns of distribution (Brown, 1984; Grinnell, 1917; Hutchinson, 1957, 1978). In the second chapter of my thesis, I concluded that was little evidence to support a direct link between the effects of temperature on algal digestion and the latitudinal decline in herbivorous fishes. However, this chapter did leave open the possibility that herbivory in fishes evolved more frequently in the tropics because high species richness and intense competition made it more advantageous to consume plant material, thus suggesting an indirect relationship between performance and distribution, albeit over evolutionary timelines (Bellwood et al., 2017; Egan et al., 2018; Harmelin, 2002; Knudsen et al., 2019). Further, I discovered that in the

available data, herbivores that depend on fermentation are overrepresented at high latitudes, possibly indicating a general trend in the distribution of digestive mechanisms across latitudes.

The third chapter of my thesis was the most direct test of a link between individual performance and distribution. It was the only chapter that included both analyses of the effects of environmental variation on individual performance as well as data on the distribution of different species along an environmental gradient. It was also the chapter that provided the clearest support for a link between individual performance and distribution: the two species that had improved body condition during seasonal upwelling also exhibited increased biomass at sites that experience strong seasonal upwelling. I cannot conclusively state that improved individual performance drives higher species' biomass under upwelling conditions, as I did not test the effects of upwelling on intermediate links between performance and distribution (e.g., fitness, dispersal, recruitment). However, my findings represent the most comprehensive assessment of the effects of seasonal upwelling on tropical fishes to date, and provide leads for future research.

In the fourth chapter of my thesis, I demonstrated that different trophic groups respond differently to the loss of coral habitat, likely due to differences in why and how much these trophic groups depend on the structural complexity

provided by corals. I did not directly measure the effects of coral availability on individual performance, but a review of the existing literature provided ample support for the hypothesis that invertebrate performance depends, to differing degrees, on coral availability and structural complexity (Fabricius et al., 2014; Glynn, 2004; Glynn & Enochs, 2011; Nelson et al., 2016; Saldana et al., 2021; Sides & Woodley, 1985). The functional contributions of cryptic coral invertebrates are still poorly understood relative to those of other consumers such as fishes and invertebrate macrofauna (Brandl et al., 2019; Edmunds & Carpenter, 2001; Francis et al., 2019; Levitan et al., 2023), but this chapter makes a unique contribution to understanding these relationships.

The physical and chemical characteristics of resources affect feeding and digestion

Differences in the physical, chemical and nutritional characteristics of resources affect virtually all aspects of the feeding ecology and digestive physiology of consumers (Choat & Clements, 1998; Karasov et al., 2011). For example, in the second chapter of my thesis, I explore the effects of a lower-quality diet (plant material) on the digestive physiology of fishes. Ecological stoichiometry postulates that not all resources are equally efficient at meeting species' nutritional demands, as the ratios of nutrients in different foods are often imbalanced relative to consumer needs (Simpson & Raubenheimer, 2012; Sterner, 2002). As I

demonstrate in the second chapter of my thesis, this problem is particularly pronounced for herbivores, which consume diets that are much lower in protein and energy and other key nutrients than do predators (Choat & Clements, 1998; Knight et al., 2021) I demonstrate that as a consequence of these nutrient imbalances, herbivores exhibit longer guts and lower absorption efficiencies than carnivores. Further, the thermal dependence of digestion is stronger among macroalgivorous fishes, possibly because at low temperatures fishes require special adaptations to herbivory, i.e., a well-developed gut microbiome.

It has been suggested that the hypothesis I tested in my second chapter, i.e., that the difficulties of digesting a herbivorous diet are exacerbated at low temperatures, is not restricted to fishes (Clarke & O'Connor, 2014; Espinoza et al., 2004; Floeter et al., 2004, 2005; Gaines & Lubchenco, 1982; Gonzalez-Bergonzoni et al., 2016; Vejrikova et al., 2016; Zimmerman & Tracy, 1989). Herbivory is more common among endotherms than ectotherms (Karasov & Martínez del Rio, 2007), and herbivorous mammals and birds have higher internal body temperatures than their carnivorous counterparts (Clarke & O'Connor, 2014). Further, ectothermic herbivores tend to be more common in the tropics, or in areas where behavioural thermoregulation is possible (Espinoza et al., 2004; Floeter et al., 2004, 2005; Gaines & Lubchenco, 1982; Zimmerman & Tracy, 1989). However, the extent to which low temperatures disadvantage herbivory in other species remains unclear.

In the fourth chapter of my thesis, I find data that support the hypothesis that differences in the nature of resource availability affect niche breadth and coexistence. Niche breadth among suspension feeders, predators, and grazers (with the exception of the generalist urchin *Echinometra viridis*) were typically low, but likely for different reasons. Among predators and grazers, limited niche breadths are likely due in large part to the vast array of resource defenses. Animal prey often have hard shells and carapaces, spines, or exhibit fleeing and hiding behaviour to avoid predation (Aronson, 1988; Dunn et al., 2018; Pomory, 2001; Wainwright, 1987), which demand certain adaptations from their predators, such as a strong jaw to crush shells (Wainwright, 1988). Similarly, algal resources exhibit a wide range of chemical defenses such as diterpenes and phlorotannins, which are not digestible by all herbivores (Amsler, 2008; Rasher et al., 2013; Stachowicz & Hay, 1999).

In contrast, high niche specialization and complementarity among suspension feeders may be due to the fact that suspension feeders as a group are so broadly defined, and include zooplanktivores, phyto-planktivores, detritivores, and bacterivores (Lefebvre et al., 2009; Sánchez González et al., 2023; Tallis, 2009; Tran & Ackerman, 2019; Wing & Jack, 2012). It is unclear the extent to which suspension feeders are limited by the physical or chemical characteristics of their prey, though some constraints exist: for example, filter feeders can only take up

particles that exceed the mesh size of their filters (Filella et al., 2008). It has been shown that increased species richness can lead to greater niche specialization and partitioning in suspension feeders, suggesting that competition, rather than physical constraints, limit niche breadth (Sánchez González et al., 2023). However, to my knowledge, this has not been tested in coral reefs.

Final conclusion and summary

Throughout this thesis, I sought to test how environmental variation in temperature, resource availability, and habitat lead to differences in the feeding ecology, performance, and distribution of marine organisms. I tested these questions in a variety of coastal systems and across myriad fish and invertebrate taxa. I further employed a variety of techniques that synthesized information across a broad range of spatial scales. Several key insights include that herbivorous fishes are not limited by their ability to digest plant material at low temperatures (Chapter 2), that seasonal upwelling improves the performance of tropical fishes and that this improved performance translates to increases in biomass, and that degradation in coral ecosystems is likely to lead to different responses across key trophic groups. Despite their limitations, these chapters demonstrate the value of developing a cross-scale, holistic understanding of different species and systems, and identify promising avenues for future work.

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