



UNIVERSIDAD DE COSTA RICA  
SISTEMA DE ESTUDIOS DE POSGRADO

DIVERSIDAD FUNCIONAL DE PECES HERBÍVOROS ARRECIFALES EN EL  
PACÍFICO TROPICAL ORIENTAL

Tesis sometida a la consideración de la Comisión del Programa de Estudios de Posgrado en Biología  
para optar al grado y título de Maestría Académica en Biología

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Ciudad Universitaria Rodrigo Facio, Costa Rica

2023

## **DEDICATORIA**

A mami, que con todo su amor da siempre lo mejor de sí para acompañarme en el camino.

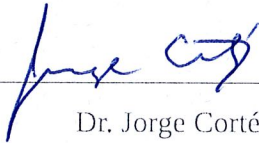
## AGRADECIMIENTOS

Agradezco a las personas, asistentes, investigadoras y quienes apoyaron en la logística, en más de seis países diferentes, para que biólogas, biólogos y submarinistas pudieran estar a lo largo de 10 años monitoreando los arrecifes en la región. Agradezco además a sus redes de apoyo que dieron los medios y acompañamiento para realizar este trabajo que asume mucho riesgo y compromiso.

Agradezco muchísimo a las personas docentes que pusieron a mi disposición sus enorme experiencia y conocimiento para darme consejo y guiarme a través de los análisis y retos que surgieron a lo largo del proceso. Entre estas personas están Hannia Vega Bolaños, Karol Ulate, Keilor Rojas, Eduardo Chacón, Cindy Fernández García, Rodney Mora Escalante, Andrea Vincent, Mario Espinoza, Jeffrey Sibaja Cordero y Jorge Cortés. A lo largo de este tiempo, fue también indispensable el aporte de los miembros de mi comité de tesis, quienes hicieron más de lo que correspondía, dando consejo sobre la vida académica y personal.

Agradezco sobre todo a mi familia: mami, papi, tía, Toño, Adrián, Tania, Sofi, Mari, Isma, Mati y Migue, primitxs, tíos y a los que estuvieron antes, que dejaron un legado de amor y valentía. A Dani, Sebas, Ale, Celeste, Luis y mis otras personas “familia no de sangre” les agradezco porque no se han limitado a acompañarme desde lo afectivo sino que han puesto tiempo, apoyo económico, creatividad, trabajo, viajes, paseos y chineos que fueron indispensables para encontrar la motivación y fuerza.

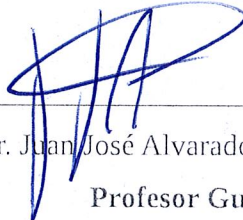
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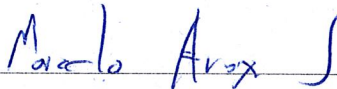


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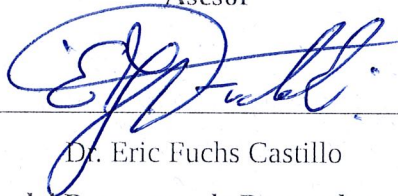
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## RESUMEN

Los arrecifes de coral brindan servicios ecosistémicos insustituibles para el desarrollo humano. Sin embargo, debido al aumento de la presión antrópica, presentan una gran pérdida de especies y un deterioro de las funciones y servicios ecosistémicos que proveen. En los arrecifes, los peces son el grupo de vertebrados más representativo y, particularmente los herbívoros, cumplen un vínculo clave en el paso de energía de los productores primarios al resto de la red trófica y favorecen el asentamiento de reclutas de corales. Las especies desempeñan diversas funciones y servicios en el ecosistema según sus rasgos morfológicos y de comportamiento. Rasgos que suelen estar moldeados por la combinación de presiones competitivas, gradientes ambientales y condiciones antropicas.

En el presente estudio utilicé censos visuales subacuáticos para estimar la variación de la comunidad de peces herbívoros arrecifales en el Pacífico Tropical Oriental (PTO) en términos de riqueza, densidad y biomasa. Además, recopilé variables abióticas (*i.e.*, temperatura superficial del mar, productividad primaria y geomorfología) y factores humanos (*i.e.*, presión antrópica y tiempo de protección) para examinar su posible efecto sobre la distintividad taxonómica y diversidad funcional, utilizando modelos de regresión bayesianos de efectos mixtos. Para este propósito, calculé tres índices de diversidad funcional: dispersión funcional (FDis), divergencia funcional (FDiv) y uniformidad funcional (FEve), con base en rasgos morfológicos, tróficos y de comportamiento. Finalmente, obtuve la media ponderada de la comunidad (“community weighted mean”) y la incluí en un análisis de factores múltiples (MFA) para describir la distribución de los rasgos funcionales en las diferentes ecorregiones. Así como para cuantificar las similitudes por pares de las ecorregiones según la presencia de los rasgos.

Encontré 25 especies de peces herbívoros distribuidas en 18 grupos funcionales. Los máximos valores observados en una ecorregión fueron: riqueza de 20 especies, biomasa promedio de 85.57 g/m<sup>2</sup> y densidad de 250 ind/km<sup>2</sup>. Estos valores varían en la región debido a la interacción de condiciones a pequeña y gran escala. Observé que las condiciones ambientales, tanto SST como PP, y presión antrópica, se relacionan con la distintividad taxonómica, FEve y FDiv. FDis no se relacionó con ninguno de los parámetros incluidos. El efecto negativo de la variación de SST en individuos taxonómicamente distintos o con rasgos especializados representa una advertencia temprana del deterioro de los procesos que ellos sostienen. Por otro lado, el efecto positivo de la variación de PP sobre FDiv, FEve y distintividad taxonómica puede implicar que sustenta diversas funciones y procesos, dadas por gran abundancia de rasgos especializados y distintividad taxonómica. En cuanto a la presión antrópica, el estudio confirma su efecto negativo sobre la diversidad funcional porque, aunque se asocia con la presencia de rasgos especializados, deja algunos poco representados. Para las islas oceánicas, la alta distintividad taxonómica podría ser advertencia de mayor vulnerabilidad a las perturbaciones en comparación con áreas costeras.

## SUMMARY

Coral reefs provide irreplaceable ecosystems services for human development and due to the increase in human population are showing a great loss of species, consequently affecting the ecosystem functions and services that this habitat offers to human population. Reef fish assemblage is the most representative vertebrate group within the coral reefs. This is a key group that allows the exchange of energy between primary producers and the rest of the trophic network and favor the settlement and prevalence of hard corals. The ecological function of herbivorous fishes depends on morphological and behavioral traits. The assemblage of species and consequently, the functions they perform, are shaped by the combination of competitive pressures, environmental gradients, and anthropogenic factors.

I use underwater visual census to estimate the variation of herbivorous reef fish community in the Eastern Tropical Pacific (ETP) in terms of richness, density, and biomass. I also compile abiotic variables (*i.e.*, SST, PP and geomorphology) and human factors (*i.e.* human gravity and protection time) to examine their possible effect on the taxonomic and functional diversity using mixed effect Bayesian regression models. For that matter I calculate the taxonomic distinctness and three indices of functional diversity: functional dispersion (FDis), functional divergence (FDiv) and functional evenness (FEve), based on morphological, behavioral and dietary traits. Finally, I calculated the community weighted mean (CWM) and include it in a multiple factor analysis (MFA) to assess if the environmental conditions represent a filter for the functional traits and to quantify the pairwise similarities between the ecoregions.

The maximum species richness in an ecoregion reaches up to 20 species, the highest mean biomass is 85.57 g/m<sup>2</sup> and the maximum density was of 250 ind/km<sup>2</sup>. I found that richness, density and biomass of the herbivore community vary within the region due to the interaction of small and large-scale conditions. Species are distributed in 18 functional groups. I observed that environmental conditions, both SST and PP, as well as anthropic pressure, are related to some of the facets of functional diversity (*i.e.* taxonomic distinctness, FEve and FDiv), except to FDis which was not related to any parameter. The negative effect of SST variation on individuals that are taxonomically distinct or have specialized traits represents an early notification of the deterioration of processes that they sustain. On the other hand, the positive effect of PP variation on FDiv, FEve and taxonomic distinctness may allow to sustain diverse functions and processes, fostered by high abundance of specialized traits and taxonomic diversity. Regarding anthropic pressure, the study confirms a negative effect on diversity because, even if it's associated with the presence of specialized traits, it leaves some traits poorly represented. For oceanic islands, the high taxonomic distinctness could be a warning of greater vulnerability to disturbances compared to coastal areas.

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# Functional diversity of herbivorous reef fishes in the Eastern Tropical Pacific

## 1. Introduction

Coral reefs sustain high levels of biodiversity but, at the same time, are subject to growing natural and anthropogenic pressures (Cortés et al., 2017). These environments provide irreplaceable ecosystems services for human development such as coastal protection, tourism, and fisheries resources (Moberg & Folke, 1999; Woodhead et al., 2019). Due to the increased human population and its constant consumption of resources, coral reefs are suffering a great loss of species which consequently affects the ecosystem functions (Williams & Graham, 2019), and services that these habitats offer to human populations (Woodhead et al., 2019).

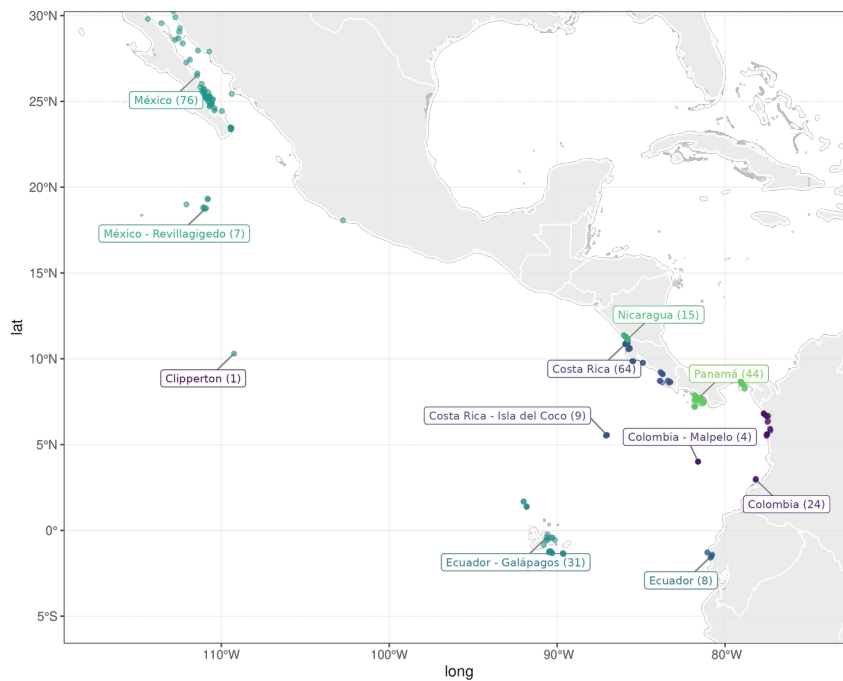


Figure 1. Location of study sites at Eastern Tropical Pacific. Sites were located at rocky and coral reef habitats between 1 and 30 m in depth. Reef fishes were surveyed at all sites through 3899 underwater visual census by scuba diving, which were mostly done between 2006 and 2019. These data were provided by the ETP Node of the Global Coral Reef Monitoring Network (GCRMN).

The reefs in the Eastern Tropical Pacific (ETP) harbor complex, interdependent and diverse communities (Cortés et al., 2017). Although these reefs have been characterized as poorly developed, scattered and with low species richness (Cortés et al., 2017), they maintain irreplaceable economic and biological resources (Moberg & Folke, 1999). For this reason, there is a need to understand the mechanisms that sustain this diversity and how it is modified in the face of adverse conditions.

The reef fish assemblage is the most representative vertebrate group within the coral reefs (Eschmeyer et al., 2010), which perform different ecosystem functions (Choat, 1992). For instance, herbivorous fish (*i.e.* those that feed on turf or filamentous algae and/or undefined organic material, large fleshy algae and/or seagrass) (Mouillot et al., 2014) are a key group that allows the exchange of energy between primary producers and the rest of the trophic network (Burkepile & Hay, 2008). In particular, this species group improve the settlement and prevalence of hard corals (Mumby et al., 2006), since it regulates macroalgae biomass through feeding (Graham & Nash, 2013). Studies have shown that their exclusion from coral reefs could lead to an increase in the accumulation of sediments, affecting the benthic composition (Rasher et al., 2012). Therefore, understanding herbivorous fish can help reveal the factors that affect ecosystem functions in coral reefs (Bellwood et al., 2004).

Studies have shown that the ecological function of herbivorous fish depend on morphological (Edwards et al., 2013), or behavioral traits (Bellwood & Choat, 1990). For instance, large bodied herbivorous fish, like parrotfishes, can shape the abundance and distribution of coral colonies where they feed (Bonaldo & Bellwood, 2011), which induces different environmental changes than those caused by damselfishes, small bodied fish that maintain small territories (Ceccarelli et al., 2001). Likewise, the impact on recover to coral-dominated states varies depending on the area they prey on (Bonaldo et al., 2012) and according to their mobility and movement patterns (Bellwood et al., 2016; Carpenter, 1986).

The assemblage of species and consequently, the functions they perform are shaped by the combination of competitive pressures, environmental gradients, and anthropogenic factors (Bellwood et al., 2012). Therefore, studies that quantify the functional diversity, integrate the structure of communities, with morphological, physiological, and behavioral traits of each species to understand the performance of their functions (Bellwood et al., 2019; Pombo Ayora et al., 2020; Somerfield et al., 2008). Functional diversity refers to the roles that organisms perform in the ecosystem, in terms of their variety, scope and degree of expression (Naeem et al., 2012). In this way, the factors that shape the herbivorous species composition and the diversity of functions they perform can bring insight into key characteristics of the ecosystems (Hooper et al., 2005; Petchey et al., 2004; Tilman et al., 1997).

To understand the ecological dynamics of herbivorous fish, it is essential to integrate the factors that shape their community. For instance, on a large scale, the main determinant of species richness is latitude (Connell & Irving, 2008; Duffy et al., 2016; Hillebrand, 2004) as it masks patterns associated with solar radiation, temperature, and primary productivity (Floeter et al., 2001; Tuya et al., 2012). These factors allow for hosting greater energy in low latitudes, capable of supporting richer and more diverse communities (Floeter et al., 2005), high speciation and low extinction rates (Siqueira et al., 2016).

Herbivorous fish are usually restricted to warm waters, since the variation of sea surface temperature (SST) represents an environmental filter (Floeter et al., 2005) and the biomass or density of individuals may change in response to this environmental condition. In damselfish of the genera *Stegastes* and *Pomacentrus*, due to an increase in SST, certain metabolic processes generate a decrease in body size (Barneche et al., 2009), representing changes in the biomass. Likewise, fluctuation in primary productivity (PP), using concentration of chlorophyll *a* (chl-*a*) as proxy (Spencer, 1985), represent a change in nutrient availability and changes in benthos composition. For example, in the Great Barrier Reef, a negative relationship has been observed between chl-*a* concentration and coral

richness, but positive with macroalgal cover (De'ath & Fabricius, 2010). The possible alteration of the bottom composition due to changes in PP can work as a particularly selective filter in this community due to its close relationship with the benthic environment (Vergés et al., 2014). Other environmental gradients associated with salinity, dissolved oxygen, and pH are also expected to shape the herbivore community (Cornwell et al., 2006; Mouillot et al., 2007).

The way in which environmental conditions affect the abundance and diversity of reef organisms is usually related to the magnitude of anthropogenic pressure to which they are exposed (Downs et al., 2005). Human activities negatively affects traits diversity (DeMalach et al., 2021) by limiting the presence of species with vulnerable traits (Shah Esmaili et al., 2022; Vellend, 2016). Fishing can impact by the selective extraction of large-body herbivorous organisms (Bejarano et al., 2017, 2019; Hawkins & Roberts, 2004; Thiault et al., 2019), consequently affecting their biomass and abundance. Fishing can also impact communities through a top-down cascade effect when extracting large predators, which control mesopredators that consume herbivores (Mumby et al., 2012; Ruppert et al., 2013), or bottom-up control through coastal eutrophication, that modify the composition of primary producers (Rasher et al., 2012) which herbivores consume (Puk et al., 2016). These anthropic pressures can be partially compensated through management strategies for conservation (Beita-Jiménez et al., 2019). Marine Protected Areas (MPAs), through the regulation of fishing, protect top-down mechanisms (Edwards et al., 2013; Man et al., 1995; Ulate et al., 2018). Furthermore, the positive effect of these actions tend to improve with time of implementation (Arias et al., 2015; Ulate et al., 2018).

The differential pressures of environmental conditions on particular traits can affect the overall species assemblage (Duffy et al., 2016). Several metrics have been proposed to quantify the potential changes in functional traits at the community level. If we assume that the most abundant traits are those that mainly determine ecosystem processes (Grime, 1998), differences in traits values (quantified by the Community Weighted Mean; CWM) can give valuable information regarding possible processes that differ between the

conditions in the region. CWM averages the functional traits present weighted by the abundance of species with each trait (Cornwell & Ackerly, 2009; Sonnier et al., 2010; Wright et al., 2004). To assess the diversity of functions that the combination of traits perform in a community, the functional dispersion (FDis) can be used to represent the volume of the functional space of the community. It is calculated as the average distance of each species to the community centroid, weighted by the abundance of each species (Laliberté & Legendre, 2010). Functional evenness (FEve) evaluates the regularity of the points in the functional space and the homogeneity of their abundances (Villéger et al., 2008). The functional divergence (FDiv) represents the divergence of the points from the center of gravity of the functional volume weighted by abundance (Villéger et al., 2008). A community with high divergence can perform a great deal of ecosystem function as a result of a high degree of niche differentiation and more efficient resource use (Mason et al., 2005). The functional diversity of a community could be linked to the degree of relatedness of the species, because taxonomic relationships, usually covary with anatomical and biological features of species (Lee, 2004). Taxonomic distinctness quantifies the phylogenetic relatedness between species in a community (Clarke & Warwick, 1998; Somerfield et al., 2008) and provides different information than species richness (Warwick & Clarke, 1998) or functional diversity (Somerfield et al., 2008). Functional diversity is usually explored at the community level but rarely at the trophic level, which can bring to light more detail information about the processes that structure these groups.

Here, I examined the variation in the taxonomic and functional distribution of the herbivorous fish in the ETP. The variation of taxonomic and functional diversity of herbivorous reef fish assemblages was estimated across the region, and the effect of the biophysical conditions (*i.e.* SST, PP and geomorphology), and human factors (*i.e.* gravity and protection time) on those parameters. Lastly, I evaluated whether there is a differentiated distribution of the functional traits present in the different ecoregions. As the rate at which trait diversity is lost is often greater than the loss of species diversity (Pombo Ayora et al., 2020), this approach may allow earlier assessment of an altered condition of the environment.

I hypothesize that herbivore richness, density and biomass are likely to peak at lower latitudes (Floeter et al., 2005), consistent with patterns observed globally (Fischer, 1960; Pianka, 1966; Rhode, 1992). On the other hand, the relationship between taxonomic distinctness and latitude is usually weak and variable with the bottom depth (Tolimieri & Anderson, 2010), so it is likely that the level of distinctiveness does not respond to a latitudinal gradient. Also, I expect to find greater richness of herbivores in the continental ecoregions compared to the oceanic islands, a pattern observed in other shorefishes (Robertson & Cramer, 2009).

Since the wide SST variation represents an environmental filter for herbivorous species, it is possible that this variable has a negative effect on diversity. Consequently, I expect to observe low FDis, FDiv, FEve and taxonomic distinctness in sites with high variation in SST. Similarly, it is likely that the variation in PP, through pressure for food availability, has a negative relationship with the diversity parameters (*i.e.* low FDiv, FDis, FEve and taxonomic distinctness). Different geomorphologies are likely to vary in taxonomic distinctness, being probably lower on oceanic islands due to its isolation and productivity conditions compared to coastal areas. For this reason, FEve, FDiv and FDis are expected to be lower in oceanic ecoregions than in coastal ones which have probably higher migration rates supporting more uniform trait representation. Human gravity could negatively affect diversity (DeMalach et al., 2021). Therefore I expect it to be negatively related to FEve, FDiv, FDis and taxonomic distinctness because it represents the status of degraded sites (Quimbayo et al., 2019). Is likely to find that sites with longer protection having complex functional structures and larger functional volumes. This would be represented as a positive relationship between protection time and FDis, FDiv and FEve (Quimbayo et al., 2019). The last prediction is that trait values differ by ecoregion. Oceanic islands will probably have different fauna (Cortés et al., 2017) (*i.e.* lower taxonomic distinctness) adapted to overcome the barrier of long distances (Kulbicki, 2015; Robertson et al., 2004). As well as the adaptations to the diet and way of feeding of herbivores associated with the composition of the bottom (Poore et al., 2012). Likewise, traits vulnerable to fishing, or eutrophication could be affected due to the degree of anthropic

impact (*e.g.*, traits such as diet, body size and way of feeding) (Shah Esmaeili et al., 2022).

## 2. Methods

### Study region

The Eastern Tropical Pacific (ETP; Fig. 1, Supp.mat. Table S1) is a marine region in the western tropical coast of America, from the Gulf of California in Mexico, to Guayaquil in Ecuador, including its oceanic islands (Revillagigedos, Clipperton, Isla del Coco, Malpelo and Galápagos) (Spalding et al., 2007). The ETP is separated from the central Pacific by the East Pacific Barrier (EPB), usually considered the most important barrier to species migration (Grigg & Hey, 1989). To the east, the Isthmus of Panama has separated the ETP from the Caribbean for 3.1 million yr (Coates & Obando, 1996). Despite its high isolation, it has coral reefs and reef-building coral communities (Glynn, 2017). There are two segments composed of muddy and sandy bottoms without reef formations: in the southeast of the Gulf of California the Sinaloan Gap and from the southern part of Mexico to El Salvador the Central American Gap (Robertson & Cramer, 2009). The El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon and the Peruvian coastal upwelling ecosystem (Tarazona & Arntz, 2001) are important determinants of environmental and oceanographic conditions.

Coral reef formations in the ETP are small, poorly developed, scattered (Dana, 1975), without protruding platforms, with a thin structural framework and composed of few predominant species (Glynn, 2001, 2017). The restricted area with coral reefs is due to conditions such as the narrow continental shelf of the region (Glynn et al., 2017), low aragonite saturation state, high pCO<sub>2</sub>, and upwelling waters (Manzello et al., 2008), reduced salinities, high turbidity (Dana, 1975), low water exposure events (Baker et al., 2008; Glynn, 2001), harmful algal blooms, recurrent bleaching events (Glynn, 2017), and white band disease (Baker et al., 2008). Communities are composed of tropical fauna, although with influence of temperate regions on its limits (Robertson & Cramer, 2009). For the ETP, about 1,300 species of shallow water fish (<100 m depth) are reported (Cortés et al., 2017),

and 611 (47%) are associated with rocky or coral reef habitats. This study covers 284 sites and documented in the censuses 460 species of rocky or coral reef environments (Supp.mat. Table S1).

### Visual census data

The herbivorous fish were sampled through 3899 underwater visual census (UVC) which were done between 2006 and 2019 (Fig. 1). On each UVC the species richness, abundance, and body size of the reef fish were estimated. Body size was categorized in seven size classes (*i.e.* <5, 5-10, 10-15, 15-20, 20-25, 25-50, >50 cm) (Alvarado et al., 2016) and the average value of the range was calculated to be included in subsequent analyses. The transect area vary between 40 and 500 m<sup>2</sup>, and between 1 and 30 m depth (Supp.mat. Table S1). The survey was done visually estimating fish size as total body length by scuba diving. These data were provided by the ETP Node of the Global Coral Reef Monitoring Network (GCRMN; Supp.mat. Table S2). From the recorded fish community, herbivorous fish were selected based on their recorded feeding pattern in Fishbase (Froese & Pauly, 2019). This selection was reviewed by experts, and as a result 25 herbivorous species (eight different families) of the total of 286 registered species was documented (Supp.mat. Table S3, Fig. 2A).

The fish biomass was calculated using an allometric length-weight conversion according to the following equation:  $w = a * TL^b$  (Froese et al., 2011); where **w** is the weight (g), **a** and **b** are specific constants for each species and **TL** is the total length (cm) determined in the size categories on the visual census. Subsequently, the biomass per unit area was estimated by dividing **w** by the area (m<sup>2</sup>) of the given transect. I extracted parameters **a** and **b** from FishBase (Froese & Pauly, 2019). In cases where a species was not found in that database, I used the coefficients from a morphologically similar congeneric species (Quimbayo et al., 2021).

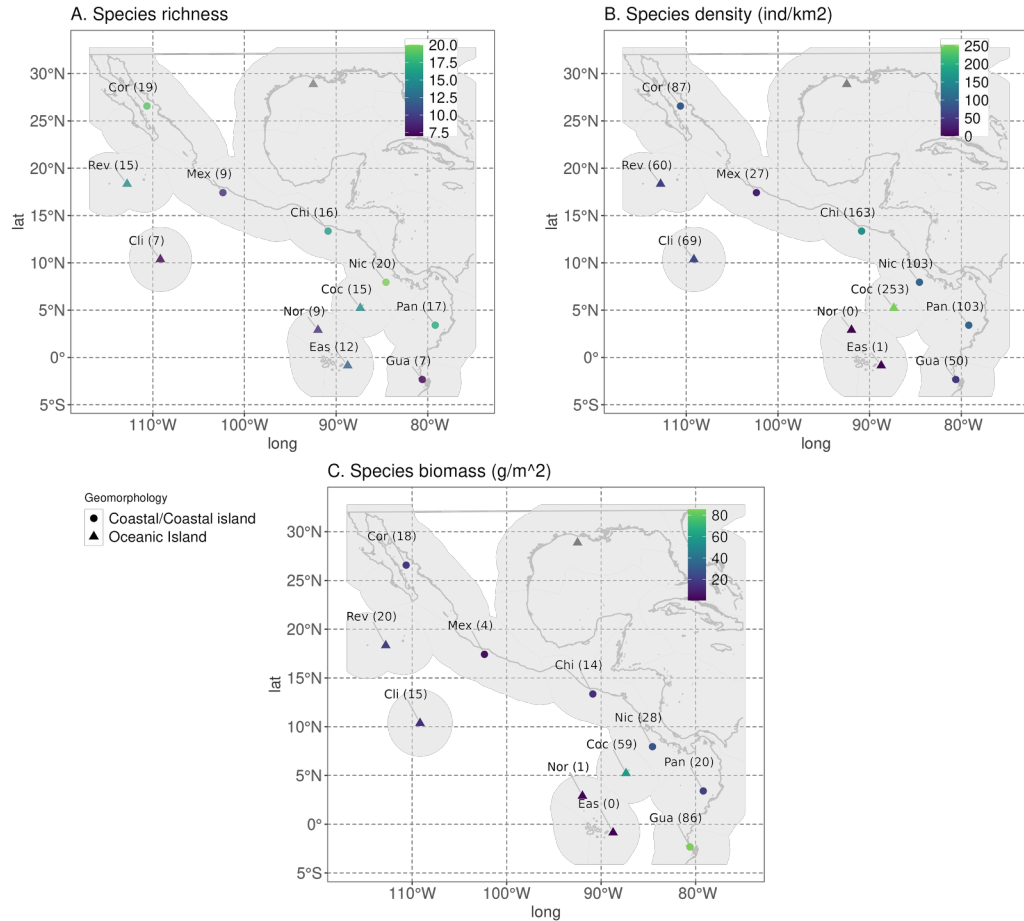


Figure 2. (A) Species richness, (B) mean density (ind/km<sup>2</sup>), and (C) mean biomass (g/m<sup>2</sup>) of herbivorous fish for each ecoregion in the Eastern Tropical Pacific (bounded in by gray polygons). Cortezian (Cor), Revillagigedos (Rev), Mexican Tropical Pacific (Mex), Chiapas Nicaragua (Chi), Clipperton (Cli), Nicoya (Nic), Isla del Coco (Coc), Panama Bay (Pan), Guayaquil (Gua), Northern Galapagos Islands (Nor), Eastern Galapagos Islands (Eas). The oceanic ecoregions are represented with triangles, and the coastal ones (including coastal islands) with circles, each are colored proportional to the value in parentheses.

### Environmental and anthropic pressure characterization

To characterize the environment of the communities, I include the abiotic variables, the degree of anthropic pressure and the level of protection. These were considered because the biophysical variables are key to fish physiological aspects (Floeter et al., 2005). Likewise, given the relative fidelity to the site of the group (Mumby & Wabnitz, 2002),

communities are likely to be vulnerable to fishing and habitat destruction and to be affected by the level of protection.

### ***Biophysical conditions***

I compiled data of SST and PP (chl-*a* reflectance) from the NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (2017) (data were collected at 4-km resolution by the NASA Ocean Biogeochemical Model -NOBM- Data Version 2018, which provides monthly mean values for the years 2008 to 2019; <https://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/data/10.5067/AQUA/MODIS/L3M/CHL/2018/>). I extracted monthly SST and chl-*a* for the four months prior to each data collection and calculated the range of variation (max – min) (hereafter SST).

### ***Degree of anthropic pressure***

Human density has been considered one of the best indicators of anthropic impact, since it has a direct effect on the increase in the exploitation of ecosystems, an increase in disturbances and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, which causes a degradation of the environment and, in turn a decrease in biodiversity (Forester & Machlist, 1996; Mora, 2008). Given its importance, I used the human population density (number of persons per km<sup>2</sup>) for the year 2015 to estimate the effect of human impact on reef fish herbivores communities. The data was estimated on national censuses and population registers with respect to relative spatial distribution population density. This information was obtained from the Center for International Earth Science Information Network (<http://www.ciesin.org>; (CIESIN, 2018). Additionally, to evaluate the possible effect of anthropic pressure on herbivorous fish communities, I used the gravity index (Cinner et al., 2016). This index assumes that the anthropic pressure increases as the human population in the surrounding settlements increases, but decreases with the distance at which they are located (Cinner et al., 2016). I calculated the average human population density of each settlement around each site in a radius of 10, 50, 100 and 250 km, weighted by the distance from the settlement to the monitoring point. The value of gravity with a radius of 10 km was kept for the analyses, since it preserves most information with the highest Pearson product-moment correlations

with the other radius evaluated ( $r(d.f. = 285) \geq 0.50$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

### ***Protection level***

To evaluate the effect of the protection level on the herbivory fish biomass and composition, I used the number of years each site has been under protection management as a proxy for protection (Parravicini et al., 2014). As a source of information, I used the World Database on Protected Areas (<https://www.iucn.org/theme/protected-areas/our-work/world-database-protected-area>; (UNEP-WCMC & IUCN, 2020).

### **Functional traits and indices of functional diversity**

All fish species observed through UVCs were classified into six functional traits (morphological -a-, behavioral -b, c, d, e-, and diet traits -f-; Supp.mat. Table S3) defined by Mouillot et al. (2014), Bejarano et al. (2019), and Quimbayo et al. (2021): (a) the log of maximum body size; (b) home range (sedentary, mobile, and wide-ranging); (c) feeding territoriality (yes or no); (d) schooling (solitary, in pairs, small groups from 3 to 20 individuals, medium groups from 20 to 50 individuals, or large groups of more than 50 individuals); (e) trophic-functional group (brushers, grazer/croppers/concealed surface, grazer/croppers/sand suckers, grazer/croppers/open surface, grazer/scrapers, grazer/excavators, browsers, shearer) (Bellwood et al., 2019); (f) trophic group of primary consumers (herbivores-detritivores, macroalgae and seagrasses or omnivores) (Mouillot et al., 2014; Quimbayo et al., 2021). In the case of trophic-functional group the criteria of experts was used to categorize the species according to the classification criteria of Bellwood et al., (2019).

Considering all fish species traits, I built a Gower dissimilarity matrix with the daisy function of the cluster R package (Maechler et al., 2021), which allows including categorical and numerical variables as species traits (Gower, 1971). From this matrix, I performed a Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) (Gower, 1966) with the cmdscale function of the stats package (R Core Team, 2020). This technique allows the generation of new uncorrelated dimensions that can be use to calculate the diversity indices (Villéger et

al., 2008) according to the contribution of the traits to these dimensions.

I used three indices of functional diversity to evaluate multiple functional traits considering the abundance of the species: FDis, FDiv and FEve. The indices were computed with a customized version of the multidimFD function described in Mouillot et al. (2013). In addition, I calculated taxonomic distinctness (Dstar) using the taxondive function from the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2020).

### **Functional diversity analysis**

The sample coverage is a measure of the number of species of the community that are represented in the sample taken (Chao & Jost, 2012), to have a sampling quality standard. I only included in the analysis sites with sample coverage (Chao & Jost, 2012) greater than 0.95. The value was calculated using the iNEXT function of the iNEXT package (Hsieh et al., 2022). Due to the large differences in the total area surveyed per site, I selected a sample of each site of standard size to perform the diversity calculations. I randomly selected combinations of transects that added a similar value (henceforth called “target area”), allowing a margin of variation (henceforth called “buffer”). I define the target area and buffer with the best performance as those optimizing the following parameters: (a) a higher proportion of sampled area; (b) a higher number of transects; (c) making use of the larger number of sites and localities and (d) lower transect overrepresentation. Transect overrepresentation is an index that quantifies how balanced is the representation of each transect across several transect samples, in which high values represent unbalance representation of transects. Those combinations with high overrepresentation were excluded so that the most represented transects are found no more than twice as often as the least represented transects.

Based on these criteria, I used a target area of 300 m<sup>2</sup> with a buffer of 45 m<sup>2</sup> (Supp.mat. Table S1). Considering these selection parameters, 265 sites were retained, after removing sites with low sample coverage. We applied a bootstrap subsampling routine in order to account for the uncertainty in selecting different (random) combinations of

transects for calculating diversity indices. For each site the routine produce 100 combinations of transects that reached the target area, with a variable number of transects. Each combination of transects appears only once, but a given transect could be included in several combinations. I calculated functional indices FDis, FDiv, FEve and taxonomic distinctness (Dstar) for each combination of transects and averaged them to obtain a single value for the site. This procedure was iterated 100 times. The presence of each trait was weighted by the biomass of the individuals. Weighted biomass makes it possible to observe both the presence of the traits and to approximate the magnitude in which it is expressed given the size of the individuals (Pombo Ayora et al., 2020).

Subsequently, the combinations of transects with less than four species, the minimum required for estimating diversity indices, were excluded. Some sites had very low species richness, so many of their transects were left out of the analysis. This variation in richness between sites means that the proportion of random transects that were excluded varies significantly among sites. Hence, I estimated the sites with the highest proportion of samples excluded and excluded the same proportion from all sites. This correction is made so that there is no over-representation of the richest sites and under-representation of those with few species. Hence, to avoid having sites with a low number of species artificially select those transects with higher diversity, the same proportion of lowest species number combinations were excluded from all sites.

It is important to mention that I was unable to estimate the diversity indices for three ecoregions (Mexican Tropical Pacific, Guayaquil and Northern Galapagos Islands; Fig. 3), given that the transects at those sites did not met at least one of the following conditions: (1) the sample coverage was less than 0.95, (2) the sampled areas could not be combined to generate a value within the range of the target area ( $300 \pm 45 \text{ m}^2$ ; described below), in some cases because they had a smaller total area or because the area of the transects exceeded the range of target areas, or (3) did not have the number of herbivorous species necessary to calculate the functional indices (at least 4).

### **Statistical analysis**

I evaluated the effect of biophysical and anthropic parameters on the functional diversity indices and taxonomic distinctness. Since the biophysical variables of SST and primary productivity (*i.e.*, the concentration of chl-*a*; PP) have a temporal resolution at the month level and the rest of the parameters have a value per site, I assigned to the combination the average range of variation of temperature and PP of the transects, weighted by the area that each date contributed.

I evaluate the collinearity between the environmental factors, as well as the collinearity between the functional diversity indices using the `cor` function of stats package (R Core Team, 2020). The predictors were plotted to observe relationships between them (Fig. S1). I conducted three regression models for each index FDis, FEve, FDiv and taxonomic distinctness. The first with all the environmental and anthropic variables (*i.e.* range of variation of SST and PP, geomorphology, gravity, and protection time). The second only with the anthropic variables (*i.e.* gravity and years of protection) and the third only with the environmental variables (*i.e.* range of variation of SST, PP and the categorical variable geomorphology). The models were grouped according to the type of predictor, prioritizing the computational capacity in the number of iterations instead of using all of them in the same model with fewer repetitions given the computational requirements of the process. All models included site as a random factor (varying intercept) to control pseudoreplication. I performed the analysis using mixed effect Bayesian regression in the `brms` R package (Bürkner, 2017). Continuous predictors were transformed to unit variance and zero-centered to control for differences in magnitude and measurement between them, and to improve model mixing. A beta distribution was used as link function for all models. One effect was considered significant when the posterior high-density interval (95% credibility) does not intersect zero. Bayesian leave-one-out information criterion (LOOIC) (Vehtari et al., 2017) was used to compare the fit of all models to the data. Since neither model was substantially better, model averaging was performed to calculate parameter estimates weighted by LOOIC weights (*i.e.* the relative support of each model).

The models were run in two chains of 50,000 iterations, in which the first half

(25,000) were used as 'warm-up'. I evaluate model convergence with the potential scale reduction factor (kept below 1.05 for all parameter estimates), where values less than 1.05 were considered to have adequate convergence. The effective sample size was kept above 300 for all parameters (Vehtari et al., 2021).

Finally, to assess whether certain environmental conditions represent a filter for some traits in the different ecoregions, the community weighted mean (CWM) of the functional traits was calculated. CWM allows knowing the dominant traits in a community (Ricotta & Moretti, 2011). If we assume that the most abundant traits are those that more strongly influence ecosystem processes (Grime, 1998), CWM differences can give valuable information regarding possible processes that differ between ecoregions. For this estimation, the data were then standardized using the Hellinger method (Legendre & Gallagher, 2001) and a multiple factor analysis (MFA) was performed using the MFA R function (Le et al., 2008). The first two dimensions of the MFA were used to quantify the pairwise similarities of the ecoregion sites, using the `space_similarity` function from the R package `PhenotypeSpace` (Araya Salas & Odom, 2022). The proportional overlap was used to quantify the similarity. That is, the overlapped area between each pair of ecoregions divided by the combined area of the two ecoregions (Araya Salas & Odom, 2022). All analysis and graphics were implemented in the R platform version 4.2.1 (R Core Team, 2020)

### **3. Results**

#### **Distribution patterns of species richness, density, and biomass of herbivorous fishes**

I found 25 herbivorous fishes belonging to eight families (Supp.mat. Table S3). The maximum richness found in an ecoregion is 20 species, the mean biomass reaches up to 85.57 g/m<sup>2</sup> as density's maximum value was 250 ind/km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 2). Nicoya and Cortezian ecoregions were the richest with 20 and 19 species, followed by Panama Bight (17), Chiapas-Nicaragua (16), Revillagigedos and Isla del Coco (15), Eastern Galapagos Islands (12), Northern Galapagos Islands and Mexican Tropical Pacific (9), Clipperton and

Guayaquil (7) (Fig. 2A). The species are distributed in 18 functional groups. Functional diversity indices showed a similar distribution in all ecoregions and different geomorphologies (Fig. 3).

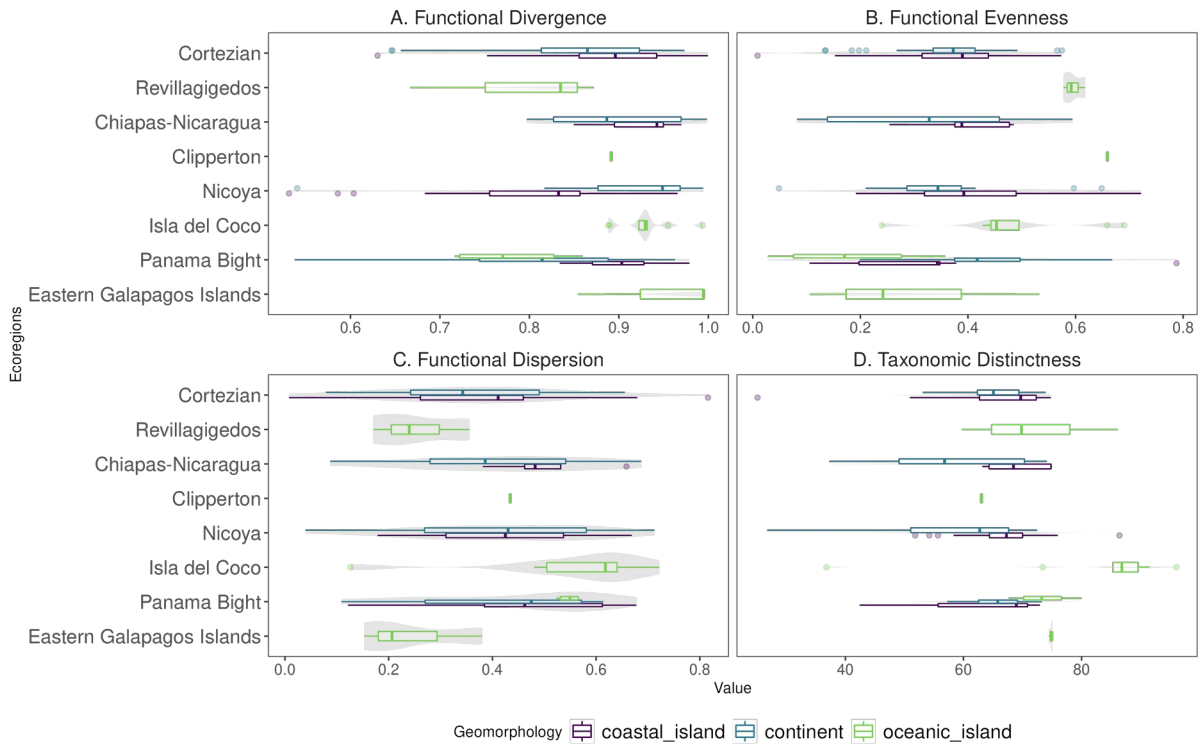


Figure 3. Indices of functional diversity and taxonomic distinctness, of the herbivorous fish communities in the Eastern Tropical Pacific, according to their ecoregion (sorted by latitude). The colored box plots represent the different geomorphologies.

### Effect of environmental and anthropic variables on diversity

Collinearity was tested between predictors and was 0.5 or less in all cases (Fig. 4A) and less than 0.46 between diversity indices and taxonomic distinctness (Fig. 4B). SST negatively influence FDiv and taxonomic distinctness (Figs. 5B and 5D). PP has a positive effect on FDiv, FEve and taxonomic distinctness (Figs. 5B, 5C and 5D). Taxonomic distinctness is higher in oceanic islands compared to coastal sites (Fig. 5D). Human gravity is a positive driver for FDiv, but its effect is negative on FEve (Figs. 5B and 5C). I did not observe any effect of the abiotic and anthropic variables on FDis and protection time was

not significant for any response variable (Fig. 5).

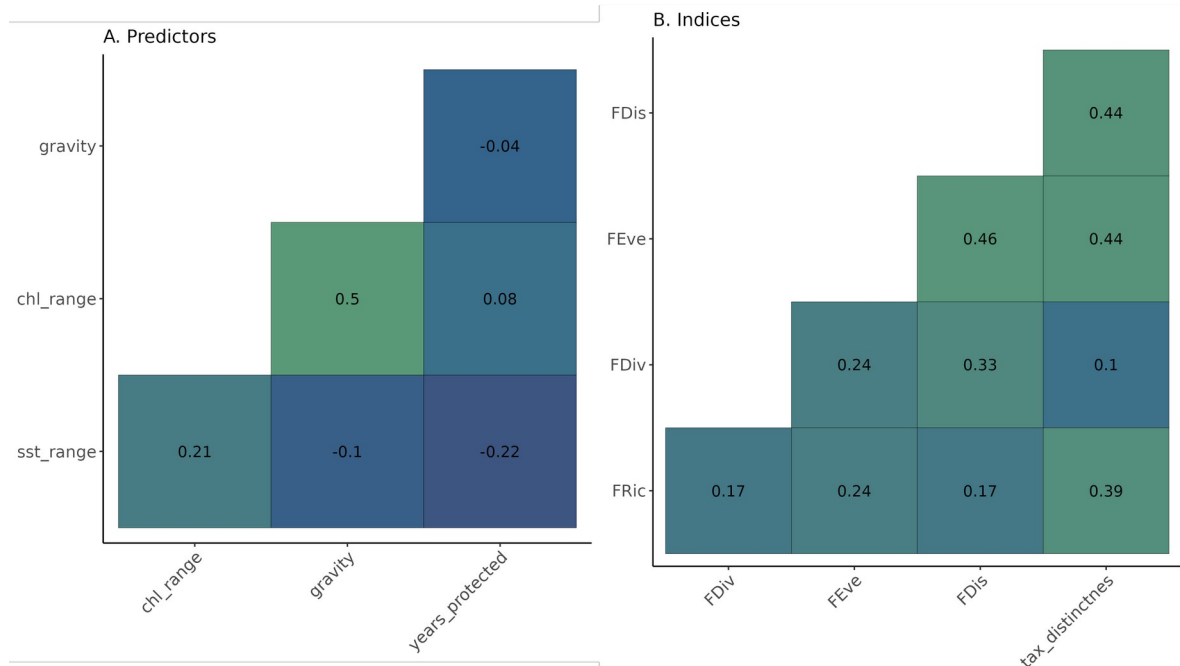


Figure 4: Maximum collinearity observed in 100 transect combinations of herbivorous reef fishes in the Eastern Tropical Pacific. A. Collinearity between environmental predictors and B. Collinearity between indices of functional diversity and taxonomic distinctness.

### Grouping of ecoregions according to their functional traits

The multiple factor analysis (MFA) of the community weighted mean (CWM) explained totaled 100% of variance, with 43.35% on the first axis, 17.53% on the second, and 12.06% on the third (Fig. 6). When comparing between ecoregions, the functional traits that represent most of the variance for the first dimension are home range, territoriality, schooling and diet (Fig. S4). A relationship between omnivorous diet, sedentary home range and territoriality was also found (Fig. 6). Likewise, larger species are usually non-territorial (Fig. 6).

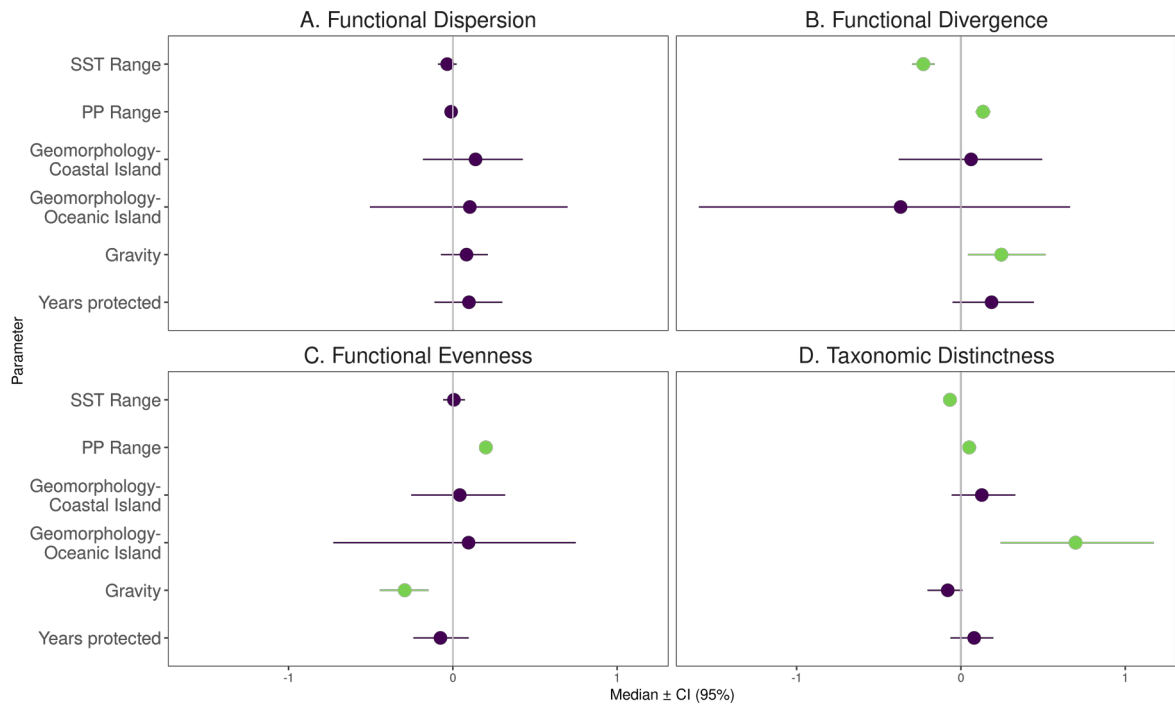


Figure 5: Effect (median  $\pm$  95% credibility interval; CI) of environmental conditions: sea surface temperature variation range (SST Range), primary productivity variation range (PP Range), geomorphology and anthropogenic conditions: years of protection (Years protected) and human gravity (Gravity) on the indices of functional diversity and taxonomic distinctness of herbivorous reef fish communities in the Eastern Tropical Pacific. Significant variables in green.

Most of the ecoregions overlap in the MFA of the functional traits (Fig. 7). The most similar ecoregions are the three Central American ones (Fig. 8): Chiapas-Nicaragua and Nicoya with 0.81 overlapping area, Chiapas-Nicaragua and Panama Bight with 0.65, and Nicoya and Panama Bight with 0.64 (Fig. 8). Cortezian is most similar to Panama, Chiapas-Nicaragua, Nicoya and Revillagigedos (overlapping areas are 0.42, 0.41, 0.37 and 0.23 respectively). Revillagigedos overlaps with Panama Bight, Chiapas-Nicaragua, Cortezian, Nicoya and Isla del Coco (overlapping areas of 0.36, 0.26, 0.23, 0.22 and 0.01 respectively) (Fig. 8). Isla del Coco overlap to a small extent with Nicoya, Chiapas-Nicaragua, Panama Bight and Revillagigedos (overlapping areas are 0.13, 0.11, 0.06 and 0.01, respectively). Guayaquil overlaps in a smaller area with Cortezian, Nicoya, Chiapas-Nicaragua, Panama Bight and Eastern Galapagos Islands (overlapping areas are 0.25, 0.20, 0.18, 0.17 and 0.02,

respectively). Eastern Galapagos Islands have a small overlap with Guayaquil (0.02) and with Cortezian (0.01) (Fig. 8).

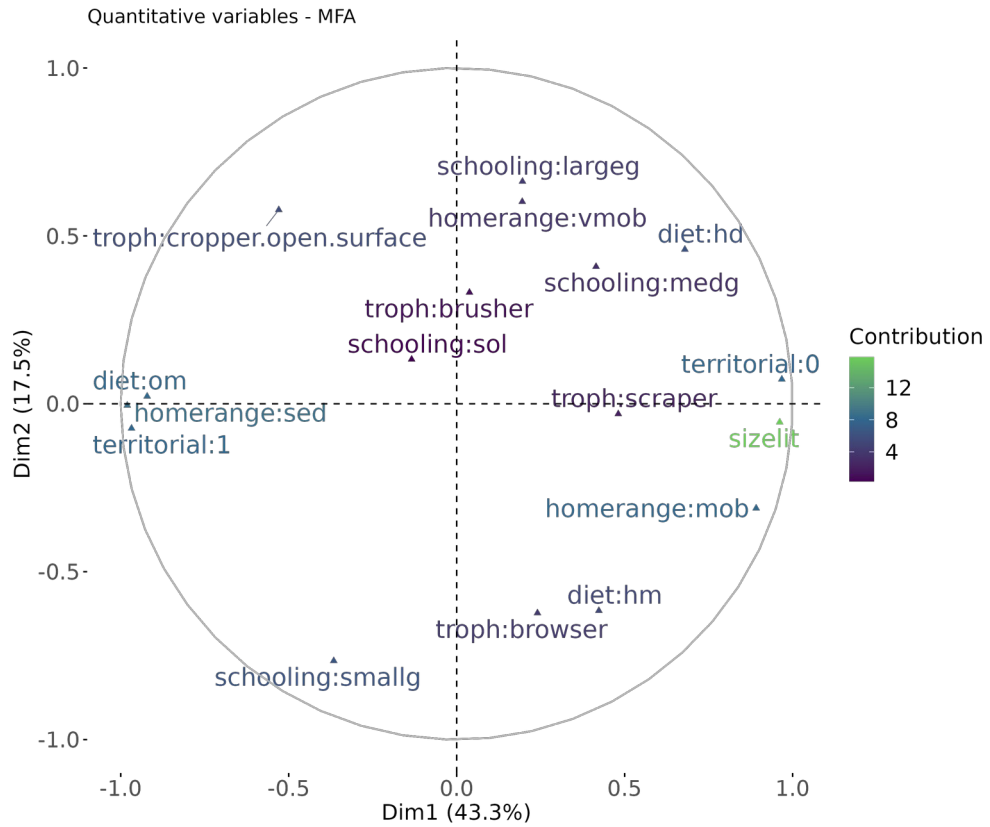


Figure 6. Contribution of each trait to the Multiple Factor Analysis for the community weighted mean (CWM) values of functional traits of herbivorous reef fishes in the Eastern Tropical Pacific. Maximum body size reported in literature with a logarithmic transformation (sizelit); home range: sedentary (sed), mobile (mob), and very mobile (vmob); feeding territoriality: yes (1) or no (0); schooling: solitary (sol), small groups (smallg), medium groups (medg), or large groups (largeg); trophic group: brushers (brusher), grazer croppers in open surface (cropper.open.surface), grazer scrapers (scraper), browsers (browser); trophic group of primary consumers (diet): herbivores-detritivores (hd), macroalgae and seagrasses (hm) or omnivores (om).

#### 4. Discussion

The mechanisms to choose protection and management strategies to protect ecosystem functions and values, usually recognize diversity in terms of species richness, sometimes considering their abundances or biomass (Darling et al., 2019). However, high

species richness should not be understood as an insurance for diversity in all cases (Parravicini et al., 2014). For instance, in coral reefs with a high species richness at the Central Indo-Pacific, one-third of the functions are performed by only one species (Mouillot et al., 2014). These vulnerable functions can disappear in the face of disturbances that affect the species that perform them (Hooper et al., 2005). For this reason, observing how functions change, as an indicator of diversity, provide information on the robustness of key processes in groups such as herbivores, associated with various ecosystem services. The approach I used, from the trophic group point of view, has rarely been evaluated and improve the understanding of the dynamics in which they are involved. By using a data set that encompasses a wide latitudinal gradient and most of the sites with significant reef development in the region, we can get an idea of the community trends over the past decade.

#### **Distribution patterns of species richness, density, and biomass of herbivorous fishes**

I found that herbivores represent 9% of the surveyed fish community. The ecoregions that presented the greatest herbivores richness (Nicoya and Cortezian) accounted for 7% (20 of the 289 total species). The high species richness observed in the Nicoya and Cortezian ecoregions is consistent with previous reports (Cortés et al., 2017; Robertson & Cramer, 2009). This trend responds to the fact that the Panama region was the last to have migration of Caribbean species prior to the emergence of the Central American isthmus that separated both oceans (Robertson & Cramer, 2009). This process is usually responsible for the high species richness and affinity that marine faunas have in this geographical space (Dana, 1975). This historical process, in conjunction with oceanographic conditions such as the present upwelling zone and the great discharge of rivers (Glynn, 2001), can be related to the productivity and richness of herbivores observed. In this Nicoya's region endemism is high in worldwide comparisons (Miloslavich et al., 2011) and provides a high number of endemic species for the ETP (Robertson, 2009).

Although herbivore species richness tends to decrease with latitude globally (Floeter et al., 2005), the results follow this pattern only in the continental ecoregions (Fig. 2B).

Two ecoregions deviate from this pattern, the Galapagos ecoregion with very few species and the Cortezian ecoregion with the highest richness. This can be because the Cortezian ecoregion encompasses different reef fish faunas. In the south, the sites have tropical fauna, while in the interior of the Gulf of California are organisms transitioning to subtropical zones (Robertson & Cramer, 2009). The differences on the pattern between these two ecoregions could be a combination of multiple conditions associated with the type of environment such as connectivity, structural complexity and algae palatability (Puk et al., 2016). Supporting the predictions, the oceanic islands and Guayaquil (represented by Gorgona) have less species richness than the continental regions (Robertson & Cramer, 2009).

Isla del Coco has more than twice the herbivorous density and biomass of the rest (Fig. 2B), a pattern that could be associated with having a high level of protection and no fishing access (Alvarado et al., 2016; Fourrière et al., 2017). The fish communities of Isla del Coco are subject to a high top-down control since it has a high abundance of top predators (Alvarado et al., 2016), which may be generating a positive cascading effect for herbivores. Finally, Guayaquil (Gorgona), despite presenting the lowest values of richness and density, has the highest average biomass (Fig. 2). This relationship may be associated with the fact that the biomass of browsers and large excavators may benefit from the geomorphologies of low islands (carbonate) and atoll geomorphologies (Heenan et al., 2016). Associated with the fact that the presence of the lagoon habitat, generating a structural complexity that allows shelter for large body size organisms (Heenan et al., 2016).

### **Effect of environmental variables on diversity**

The ETP has been considered as one of the three poorest regions in terms of tropical reef fishes diversity in global comparisons and with low functional redundancy with 2.8 species for each combination of functional traits (Mouillot et al., 2014). However, the low number of species probably, as in the richer regions, encompasses the key functional space to sustain the development of tropical reefs (Mouillot et al., 2014). The herbivore

community usually has low functional redundancy due to their close dependence on the substrate (Bender et al., 2017) and the ETP behaves in a concordant way. The 25 species perform 18 different functions on the reef (in average 1.4 species with each combination of traits). I observed that environmental conditions, both SST and PP, as well as anthropic pressure, are related to some of the facets of functional diversity (*i.e.* taxonomic distinctness, FEve and FDiv), except to FDis which was not related to any parameter. This suggests that, regardless of the fact that the volume of the functional space (represented by FDis) does not vary significantly depending on the predictors, there are differences in the other dimensions of functional diversity. In other words, the distribution of the functions within that volume and the abundance in which each one is represented, show differences in the functional diversity of the herbivore community. This demonstrates the importance of evaluating the different facets of functional diversity beyond counting species and functions as a gross measure.

There is evidence that temperature limits the distribution of herbivorous fish (Heenan et al., 2016), through physiological mechanisms associated with feeding and digestion (Floeter et al., 2005) in the ETP (Robertson & Cramer, 2009). Several factors have been proposed to explain the association of the herbivorous fish community with warm temperatures (above 20°C) according to Floeter et al. (2005): (1) The time of evolution of the group, (2) availability of food due to seasonal variation, (3) qualities of the available algae, or (4) adaptations of behavior, phylogeny and biogeography to consume the algae abundant but with low energy content. The availability of food and shelter is related to changes in SST as well. Canopy biomass production of some canopy-forming genera in the Indo-Pacific and Red Sea is sensitive to both mean SST and annual SST variation range (Fulton et al., 2019). For example, *Laurencia* spp. and *Lobophora* spp. grow in intermediate SST values and *Sargassum* spp. decrease towards extreme values (Fulton et al., 2019).

In the ETP the negative effect of SST variation on functional divergence indicates that in sites where SST varies widely, the most abundant functional groups are around the

mean values of the distribution and the least abundant are those with specialized traits (Mason et al., 2005). In the same way, when the variation in SST is wide, species are taxonomically alike. This suggests that temperature works as an environmental filter according to the niche filtering hypothesis (Zobel, 1997) compacting the traits of herbivorous species in a similar environment. In environments dominated by macroalgae (not turf) grazing might depend more on changes in temperature than on algae composition, but this requires further experimental investigation (Robinson et al., 2018). This trend is of great relevance because the increase in ecological trait divergence may favor the shift from the coral-dominated to the algae-dominated habitat (Pombo Ayora et al., 2020).

PP in terms of chl-*a* was the predictor related to the variation of most indices, and behaves in the opposite direction to temperature. When the variation in PP increases, the most different functional traits are more abundant (high FDiv) and the species differ taxonomically (high taxonomic distinctness). At the same time, the abundance and distribution of functional groups are more uniform (high FEve), which usually implies that all the functional entities present are represented in a similar way, as in environments with low disturbance (Mouillot et al., 2013). Some rapid changes in chl-*a* are linked to nutrient inputs associated with favorable upwelling winds (Carr & Kearns, 2003; T. B. Smith, 2005), La Niña effect, thermocline shoaling (T. B. Smith et al., 2010) and eutrophication (J. E. Smith et al., 2005). In the ETP, some of the seasonal upwelling zones are found in the Gulfs of Tehuantepec, Papagayo, Panama (Kessler et al., 2003; Xie et al., 2005) and the Peruvian coastal upwelling ecosystem (Tarazona & Arntz, 2001). Increased nutrients may result in increased growth of macroalgae (Littler et al., 1991; Schaffelke & Klumpp, 1998; T. B. Smith et al., 2010). This increase represents greater food availability, suggesting that the herbivore community could benefit (Glynn, 2004).

Taxonomic groups on the oceanic islands of the ETP are more distant from each other compared to those on the mainland, as reported before (Robertson & Cramer, 2009). In isolated areas, diversity is usually given by organisms that colonize, adapting and evolving as new species but that does not usually migrate expanding their range of

distribution (Bowen et al., 2013; Cowman et al., 2017; Mazzei et al., 2021; Pinheiro et al., 2017). As in these environments migration is limited, speciation remains as the predominant mechanism (Pinheiro et al., 2017). Differences associated with traits such as the ability to swim great distances, have a non-specific diet (Luiz et al., 2012), body size, home range and mobility (Robertson et al., 2004) are usually determining factors in the prevalence of species (Bender et al., 2017). The high taxonomic distinctness due to the isolation of oceanic islands may be linked to a low functional redundancy, which would represent a greater vulnerability to disturbances that drastically change the functions represented (Bender et al., 2017).

Human density has been a driver that negatively affects diversity, density and biomass of reef fish assemblages (McClanahan & Muthiga, 2017) through stressors such as fishing, coastal development, and land use (Mora et al., 2011). Human activities represent a pressure on certain functional traits, favoring, in this case, that the biomass is concentrated in the traits at the extremes values (high FDiv) but leaving some traits poorly represented (low FEve). The negative relationship between anthropic impact and FEve was previously studied (Mouillot et al., 2013). Changes in FDiv are considered early indicators of a disturbed community because they show changes in the early stages (Mouillot et al., 2013). This index decreases in communities exposed to pressures because specialist species decrease in abundance earlier as they are more vulnerable to disturbances (Mouillot et al., 2013) and has been related to sites with low disturbances (Villéger et al., 2010), different from our results where human gravity is a positive driver for FDiv.

Although protection over time can buffer the loss of diversity by compensating for the mechanisms that make a community vulnerable (Mouillot et al., 2013; Parravicini et al., 2013), it is not always possible to observe their results on the diversity parameters (Mora et al., 2011). One possible reason is that the effectiveness of the protection is determined by small-scale conditions associated with the social and politic/economic aspects (Alvarado et al., 2017; Arias et al., 2015). Likewise, the effect of protection on the chain reaction of predators-mesopredators-herbivores is in a dynamism that can conceal

temporal patterns (Ruppert et al., 2013) outside the scope of the study. In addition to the environmental variables considered in this study, it is convenient to include in future research the structural complexity of the reefs, since it can be related to the diversity of functions (Richardson et al., 2017) and describe the small scale environmental conditions in as much detail as possible (Laughlin & Messier, 2015).

### **Grouping of ecoregions according to their functional traits**

Given the threats caused by climate change, modifications are expected in the capacity of reefs to host the diversity that sustains key ecosystem processes and services (Fulton et al., 2019). Knowing the relationships between environmental conditions and the distribution of morphological or behavioral traits, provides information to predict which populations and to what extent the changes may occur. The CWM analysis is based on the premise that the species found in greater abundance are those that mainly determine the processes in the ecosystem (Grime, 1998; Mokany et al., 2008). Each trait perceives pressures by different mechanisms, so that the most abundant traits in the different ecoregions can dilute similarities in the pressures they perceive (Ricotta & Moretti, 2011) and in the resistance to future changes. By indicating the predominant traits in a community, it gives an idea about the functions that could be presented.

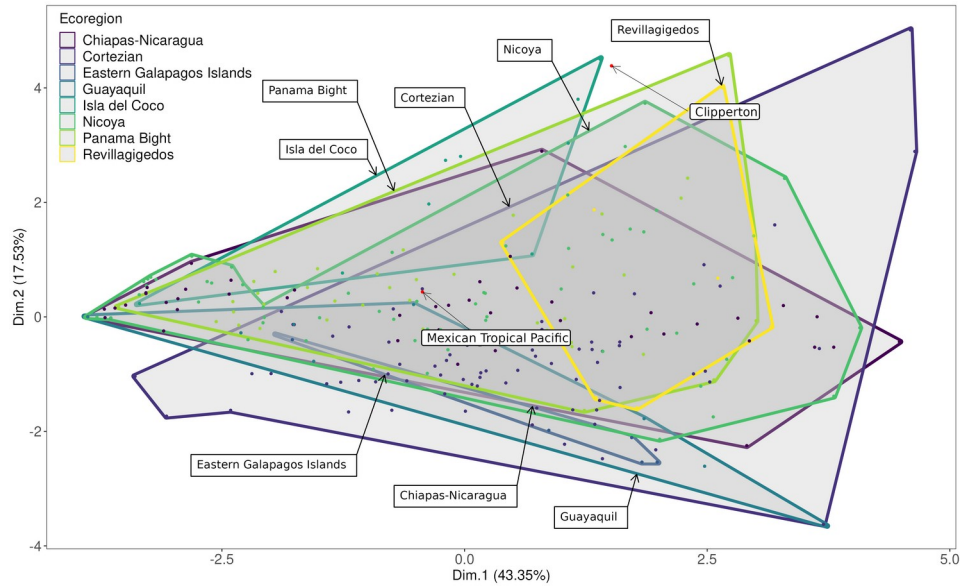


Figure 7. Distribution of the CWM-MFA Individuals (Dim1 and Dim2) of each site (dots) according to ecoregions (convex hull). Ecoregions with only one site are represented by the labeled red dots.

The functional traits with the CWM most variation in our study are home range, territoriality, and schooling, which could be suggesting a pattern, like that previously reported, associated with access to fishing. In the study made by Edwards et al. (2013) the biomass of most herbivores (*i.e.* scraper/excavators, browsers and grazer/detritivores) that are mobile, with schooling and non-territorial, was about half at fished sites, but abundance did not change. Conversely, both biomass and abundance of territorial damselfish (sedentary, small-body size, and territorial) were significantly greater at sites accessible to fishing (Edwards et al., 2013). So that species with these traits can benefit in places with fishing pressure (Dulvy et al., 2004) and could be generating differences in our region. If this pattern reflects an advantage over sites where there is low competition due to fishing, could be evaluated in future studies.

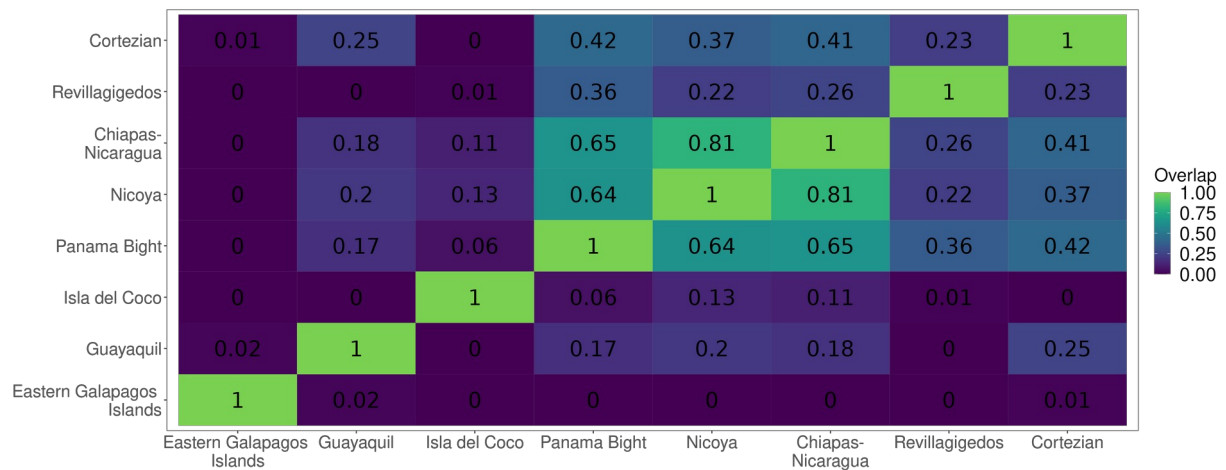


Figure 8. Proportional overlap between the ecoregions (sorted by latitude). Described by the first two dimensions of the MFA from the CWM of each site.

The differences given by home range and territoriality reflect a selection in terms of mobility patterns. Species' movement determine how they perform their functions, such as herbivory or other ecological services (Owen Smith et al., 2010). Those with greater mobility (*i.e.* non-territorial and with a wider home range), responsible for transporting nutrients and energy over long distances, are increasingly limited. This may respond to the fact that in tropical fish the home range has been characterized as being small (Floeter et al., 2013). There is also a relationship between home range and body size. In some cases up to 76% of the variability in the home range data can be explained by the body mass of the fish (Nash et al., 2013; Welsh et al., 2013). So given this relation, if there is an increasing selection for smaller body sizes, home range may be reduced. This trend must be considered because the greater the range of spatial scales in which herbivores operate, there may be better recovery to a state dominated by corals in the face of disturbances caused by temperature (Nash et al., 2016).

The diet and feeding group can be determined by the availability of food, which is the result of the amount of energy available in the environment, as well as by the interspecific competition. Herbivores, regardless of their main source of nutrients (*i.e.*

detritus, macroalgae and seagrasses or omnivores), are adapted to take advantage of low energy content resources (Hay, 1991). It has been observed that this group tends to be more abundant at lower latitudes (Floeter et al., 2013) and the number of species and relative importance tend to decrease at high latitudes. This is probably associated with the type of algae predominant at lower latitudes (*i.e.* highly productive and diverse mats of small algae) (Harmelin Vivien, 2002). Our results stress the need to improve knowledge of the mechanisms that link environmental pressures with affected traits (McLean et al., 2019) at a local scale (Anthony et al., 2017; Muscarella & Uriarte, 2016). Knowing that diet is one of the traits that varies in ecoregions, probably linked to food availability, it is essential to monitor changes in benthic composition at a local level to improve predictions about changes in the herbivore community.

The large overlap in the distribution of functional traits of herbivores in the Chiapas-Nicaragua, Nicoya and Panama Bight regions results from the sum of environmental filters (*e.g.* food availability, temperature) and competition relationships in the community (Cadotte & Tucker, 2017; Zobel, 1997). This pattern is consistent with the entire fish community that has high affinity and endemism in these regions (Miloslavich et al., 2011). The peak of species richness is found in this area, due to the result of historical processes due to the shorter isolation time with the Caribbean Sea (Robertson & Cramer, 2009).

The traits in the insular regions have the lowest percentage of overlap in the ETP, which results from the characteristic distinctiveness of oceanic island reef fishes (Cortés et al., 2017). The regions with traits that resemble Revillagigedos the most, are located from Mexico to Panama. The most related to Isla del Coco are the surrounding regions on the Central American coast (Chiapas-Nicaragua, Nicoya and Panama). In Guayaquil (represented by Gorgona) the non-endemic resident reef fishes in previous works have been grouped by similarity to the oceanic islands of the ETP (Robertson & Cramer, 2009). This affinity is hardly reflected in our results with the functional traits of the herbivore community (Guayaquil - Gorgona and Galápagos overlap only by 0.02). Finally, the two

ecoregions at the southern limit of the ETP (Guayaquil and Galapagos) have a small overlap with Cortezian. The Gorgona-Cortezian affinity suggests a similar feature selection at the edges of the region, probably associated with similar oceanographic conditions with temperature influences closer to subtropical environments (Robertson & Cramer, 2009).

## **5. Conclusions**

Richness, density and biomass of the herbivore community vary within the region due to the interaction of small and large-scale conditions. The negative effect of SST variation on individuals that are taxonomically distinct or have specialized traits represents an early notification of the deterioration of processes that they sustain. On the other hand, the positive effect of PP variation may allow to sustain diverse functions and processes, fostered by high abundance of specialized traits and taxonomic diversity. Regarding anthropic pressure, the study confirms a negative effect on diversity because, even if it's associated with the presence of specialized traits, it leaves some traits poorly represented. Anthropic pressure may also be related to the variation of home range, territoriality, and schooling in the ecoregions, but this needs to be evaluated in future research. For oceanic islands, the high taxonomic distinctness could be a warning of greater vulnerability to disturbances compared to coastal areas.

Functional diversity assessments can provide an early and detailed approximation of the functions that a community performs. It is important to periodically reassess the baseline of the species traits at the local level, as they may change as a result of interspecific pressures or small-scale conditions (Werner & Peacor, 2003). One of the main challenges on conducting regional collaborations is to compensate for the differences between sampling efforts. Our approach of selecting area-equivalent subsamples in multiple iterations manages to overcome uneven sampling making the most out of the data, but limits the computation of multiple predictors at once, due to hardware limitations. Finally, including non-fish herbivores, such as sea urchins, into future research is determinant to continue the understanding of primary consumer processes (McClanahan &

Muthiga, 2017). Our results warn about the vulnerability of the group in the ETP and underscore the importance of increasing conservation efforts with a focus on groups with specific functional traits. In order to optimize the protection of those who perform essential functions for the prevalence of reefs and their services.

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# Anexos

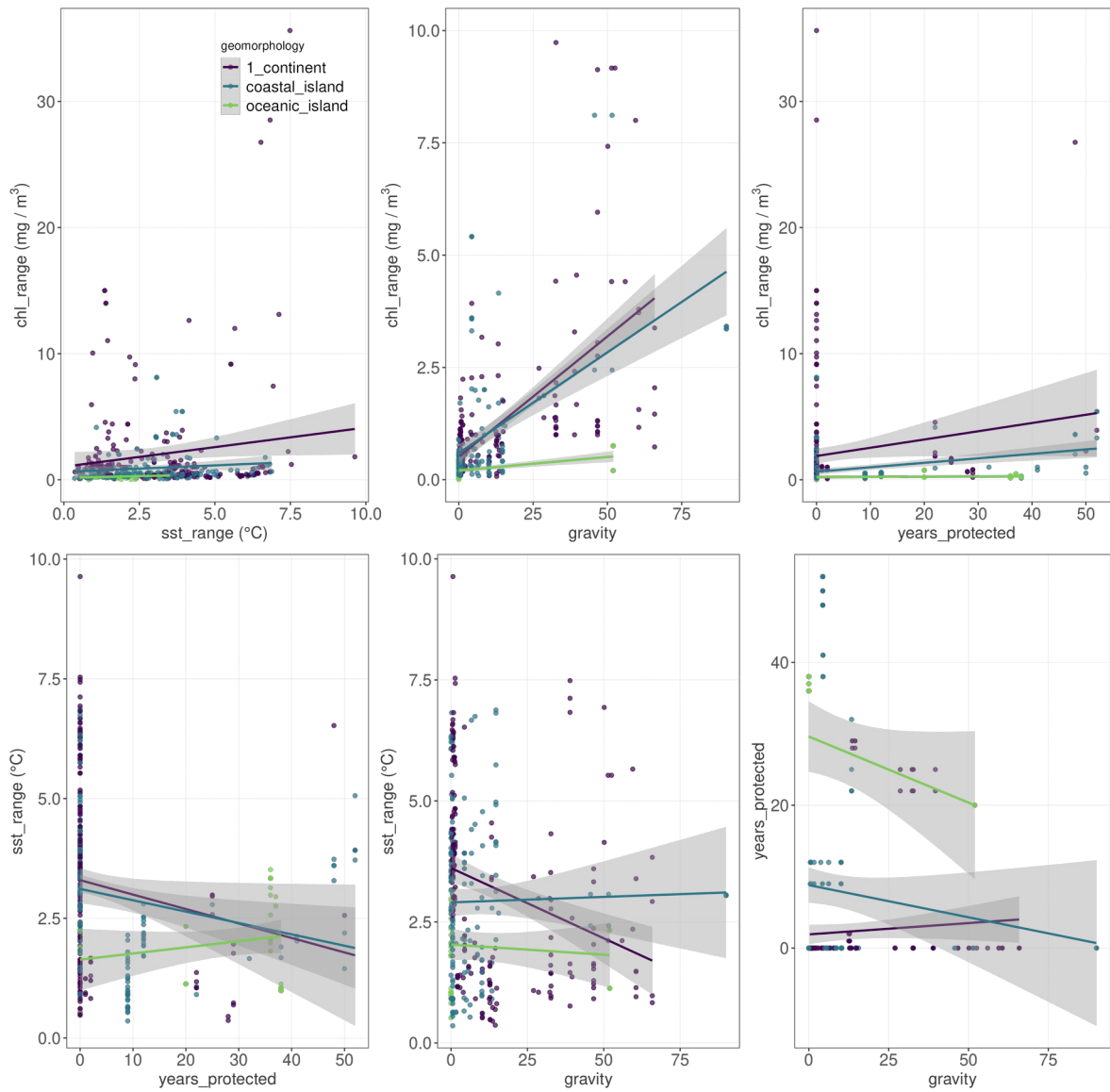


Figure S1. Relations between the biophysical and anthropic variables included in the research as predictors.

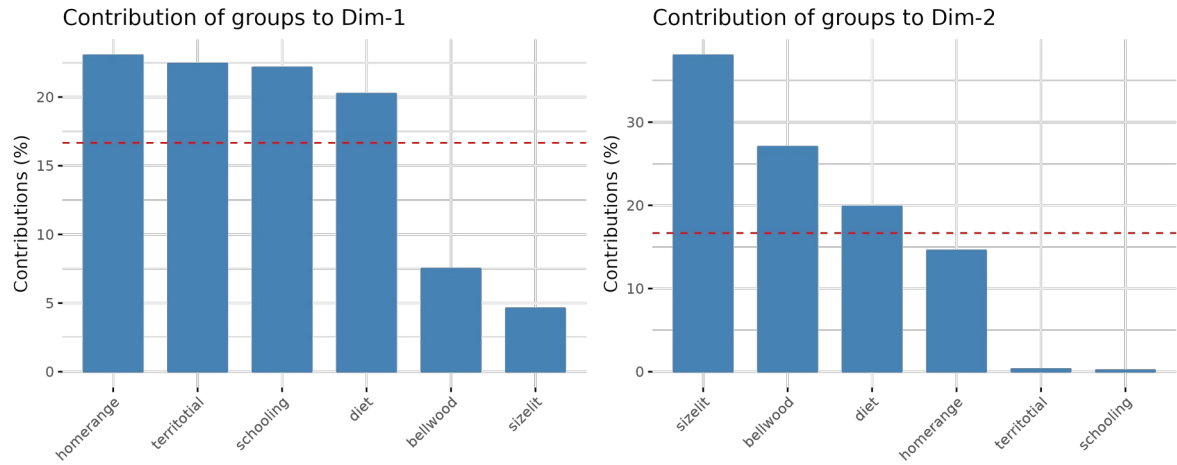


Figure S2. Contribution of each functional trait to the variation in the first two dimensions of the Multiple Factor Analysis for the community weighted mean (CWM) of herbivorous reef fishes in the Eastern Tropical Pacific. (A) Contribution of each functional trait to the first dimension. (B) Contribution of each functional trait to the second dimension. The traits are Maximum body size reported in literature with a logarithmic transformation (sizeilit); home range, feeding territoriality, schooling, trophic-functional group and diet.