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1	High diversity, abundance and distinct fish assemblages on
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30 Abstract

31 Coral reefs exhibit consistent patterns in biodiversity across multiple spatial scales, from 32 local to global clines in species richness, abundance and community structure. Knowledge of 33 fundamental processes driving these patterns is largely derived from studies of shallow, 34 emergent and nearshore reefs. Although research efforts are expanding to deeper mesophotic 35 coral reef ecology, distinct and isolated reef morphologies like submerged pinnacles or 36 seamounts have received scant attention. Despite being potentially important for connectivity 37 and as refugia, the extent to which established patterns and processes in coral reef ecology 38 apply to these systems is unknown. Here we examine the fish and benthic communities 39 associated with coral reefs found on submerged pinnacles in Kimbe Bay, Papua New Guinea. 40 Community structure and diversity metrics are compared with emergent reefs at the same 41 depth in both near and offshore settings. We then explicitly test whether benthic complexity 42 variables known to influence reef fish communities exhibit similar patterns at each reef type. 43 Pinnacles were characterised by 3.70 times the mean fish abundance and 1.98 times the 44 species richness recorded at the same depths on emergent reefs. Fish community structure 45 showed distinct separation across reef morphologies, with pinnacles most similar to offshore 46 reefs. Benthic habitat complexity did not vary across reef types while fish assemblages were 47 weakly related to benthic habitat variables, with reef morphology the most consistent 48 predictor of fish community metrics. The pinnacles in our study support high coral reef fish 49 biodiversity despite their small habitat area and relative isolation by depth and offshore 50 setting. Our results suggest that habitat-specific environmental conditions are generated by 51 the distinct geomorphology of pinnacles. As coastal reefs become more increasingly 52 disturbed, understanding ecological patterns on deep patch reef habitats like pinnacles will be 53 useful to provide a more holistic understanding of coral reef seascapes and their resilience.

54

55 Introduction

56 Coral reefs encompass a range of diverse and complex habitat structures, including fringing 57 reefs, barrier reefs, atolls and isolated patch reefs (Stoddart 1969; Hopley 2011). These 58 recognisable reef types form under different environmental conditions of depth, distance 59 offshore and exposure, and ecological patterns and processes vary in predictable ways along 60 these environmental gradients (Hopley et al. 2007; Malcolm et al. 2010; Williams et al. 2015; 61 Samoilys et al. 2019). The stability of different reef structures also varies, and predicting 62 how these patterns and processes may respond to environmental change is now central to 63 much coral reef science (Harvey et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2019). However, most research 64 has been restricted to near-sea-surface, nearshore continuous reef systems, where 65 accessibility has facilitated extensive global studies (Spalding and Grenfell 1997; Bellwood 66 and Hughes 2001; Connolly et al. 2003; Hinderstein et al. 2010). There are significant areas 67 of submerged habitat available for coral reef formation which have historically been 68 overlooked, unexplored and remain understudied (Venn et al. 2009; Harris et al. 2013; Moura 69 et al. 2016; Moore et al. 2017). Interest in these kinds of habitats has accelerated because of 70 the potential for deep reefs to function as a refuge for species being adversely affected by reef 71 degradation in shallow coastal waters (Bridge et al. 2013; Laverick et al. 2016; Macdonald et 72 al. 2018).

73

Both the deep-sea and continental shelves possess a variety of distinct bathymetric features that can support rich and diverse coral reef ecosystems where the summits reach the euphotic zone (~0-150m) (Bridge et al. 2011b; Du Preez et al. 2016; Linklater et al. 2019). Global bathymetric mapping reveals large areas (1000's of km²) of deep habitat available for coral reef formation (Vora and Almeida 1990; Bridge et al. 2012; Harris et al. 2013). Submerged reefs can be defined as "isolated elevations of the seafloor, over which the depth of water is relatively shallow but sufficient for navigation (IHO 2008) and have their shallowest points
below 10-20m (Thomas et al. 2015). They can support extensive, diverse coral and fish
communities, which span both altiphotic (<30m) and mesophotic zones (30-150m) (Bridge et
al. 2011a; Roberts et al. 2015; Moore et al. 2017; Cooper et al. 2019). Many deep reefs are
likely to be more isolated from physical disturbances (e.g. storms, wave action), fishing
pressure and thermally induced bleaching events than emergent near-sea-surface counterparts
(Slattery et al. 2011; Lindfield et al. 2016; Baird et al. 2018; Crosbie et al. 2019).

87

88 Although most of the studies investigating the ecology and distribution of submerged coral 89 reef ecosystems have occurred on Australia's Great Barrier Reef, submerged reefs constitute 90 extensive areas of coral reef habitat across most low-latitude continental shelves (Locker et 91 al. 2010; Abbey and Webster 2011; Pinheiro et al. 2015; Heyward et al. 2019). Pinnacle coral 92 reefs are perhaps the most distinct submerged form and we define these as *abrupt*, *conical* 93 structures, either isolated or at the summit of a larger bathymetric feature such as ridges or 94 banks that reach the euphotic zone, but do not breach the sea surface. We make a distinction 95 from seamounts, where pinnacles are more closely associated with continental shelves and 96 slopes as opposed to oceanic sea-floor settings. Pinnacles tend to be comparatively smaller 97 structures and unlike seamounts, are not usually formed directly by volcanic activity but 98 instead are often a part of larger bathymetric features. In ecological terms however, pinnacles 99 and seamounts both provide a hard substratum for coral recruitment, forming isolated patch 100 reefs in otherwise open pelagic systems (Veron and Done 1979; Rogers 2004; Koslow et al. 101 2016).

102

103 The geomorphological structure of coral reefs on small seamounts and pinnacles diverges
104 from classical zonation models derived from emergent reefs (Roberts et al. 2015). Summits

105 are usually small in area with steep slopes and walls descending to considerable depths 106 (>500m). They are comprised of only exposed crests surrounded by open waters, with no 107 sheltered reef-flat or lagoon. Currents are often complex and strong as water passes around 108 abrupt topographies (Genin et al. 1986; Boehlert 1988; Lavelle and Mohn 2010). For 109 example, on seamounts interactions between topography and hydrodynamics are suggested to 110 enhance productivity within these habitats (Genin and Dower 2007; Richert et al. 2017). 111 Other studies have shown that upwellings in particular are an important component of bio-112 physical coupling at seamounts, supporting high diversity and abundance of fishes, often 113 from higher trophic levels (White et al. 2007; Letessier et al. 2019). Given the similarities in 114 structure between seamounts and pinnacles, pinnacles are also likely influenced by 115 upwellings and strong hydrodynamics. The extent of these effetcs and the potnetial for 116 enahnced biophysical-coupling on pinnacles depends on numerous factors including pinancle 117 size, depth, regional circulation patterns, and exposure to large-scale oceanographic processes. 118

119 Despite their widespread occurrence in many coral reef regions, studies specifically focussed 120 on coral reef pinnacles are scarce. In their absence, and given the similarities in physical 121 structure, paradigms from seamount ecology provide useful parallels to inform our ecological 122 understanding of submerged pinnacles. Both shallow seamounts and pinnacles frequently 123 host large aggregations of pelagic fish alongside demersal and reef-associated species (Genin 124 2004; Morato and Clark 2007; Jorgensen et al. 2016) generating hotspots of diversity in open 125 ocean settings (Morato et al. 2010). Schooling mesopredators, highly-mobile apex predators 126 and migrating megafauna also use seamounts as navigational way-points (Garrigue et al. 127 2015; Gargan et al. 2017), and they are significant habitats for feeding (Holland and Grubbs 2007), breeding (Litvinov 2007) and refuge (Letessier et al. 2019). For corals, clear, 128 129 oligotrophic oceanic waters surrounding offshore reefs can enable complex coral habitat to

extend to mesophotic depths (Baker et al. 2016; Roberts et al. 2019) concurrently expanding
the range of suitable habitat for fishes (Thresher and Colin 1986; Kane and Tissot 2017).

133 Explanations of observed spatial variation in patterns of abundance, diversity and richness of 134 reef fish communities often involve habitat variables, including substrate diversity, rugosity, 135 vertical relief and live coral cover (Roberts and Ormond 1987; Hixon and Beets 1993; 136 Munday 2000; Almany 2004; Gratwicke and Speight 2005). Although the nature of these 137 fish-habitat relationships vary spatially, temporally and differ between trophic groups, live 138 coral and habitat complexity remain fundamental drivers of reef fish abundance, richness and 139 diversity (Caley and John 1996; Jones et al. 2004; Pratchett et al. 2008; Coker et al. 2014; 140 Kerry and Bellwood 2015). However, depth associated physical gradients can lead to altered 141 patterns in benthic community composition and habitat complexity (e.g., light, temperature) 142 (Brokovich et al. 2006; Lesser et al. 2009; Roberts et al. 2015). For example, spatial 143 heterogeneity is reduced at depth where coral morphologies tend be simpler in comparison to 144 shallower depths (Kahng et al. 2012). Other benthic taxa, like sponges, macroalgae and 145 octocorals can be more prominent at greater depths (>30m) (García-Hernández et al. 2018; 146 Lesser and Slattery 2018) and complex morphologies may provide additional or alternative 147 habitat for fishes in these deep habitats (Knudby et al. 2013; Kahng et al. 2017; Spalding et 148 al. 2019). These differences in benthic community composition have been shown to strongly 149 influence patterns of fish abundance and functional composition on submerged reefs 150 (Brokovich et al. 2008; Pereira-Filho et al. 2011; Kane and Tissot 2017; Cooper et al. 2019). 151

152 The high diversity and productivity of pinnacles and shallow seamounts may enhance their 153 potential to act as refuges from disturbance for some reef species (Bak et al. 2005; Bongaerts 154 et al. 2017). In addition, the physical structures of pinnacles may generate further habitat155 specific environmental conditions that confer resilience, however this is speculative because 156 the ecological connections between deep and shallow reefs are largely unstudied (Slattery et 157 al. 2011; Bongaerts and Smith 2019). Coral reefs on offshore pinnacles therefore represent 158 physically and potentially ecologically distinct tropical habitats that are relatively accessible 159 for scientific study. Although research is now expanding significantly into submerged and 160 mesophotic coral ecosystems, few studies aim to resolve fine-scale ecological patterns on 161 distinct bathymetric features. Characterising ecological communities on unexplored, deeper 162 forms of coral reef will be critical to understanding their contribution to the maintenance of 163 biodiversity within the wider seascape. Most coral reef systems are composed of mosaics of 164 varied reef morphologies, but baseline knowledge is still required to understand ecological 165 similarities and connectivity between varied forms of emergent and submerged reefs, as well 166 as to inform effective spatial conservation planning.

167

168 Here we provide the first detailed assessment of fish and benthic communities on a series of 169 submerged coral pinnacles in Kimbe Bay, Papua New Guinea, an area renowned in the 170 diving industry for pinnacle diving. To determine whether pinnacles are hotspots for 171 biodiversity we compare fish and benthic communities on pinnacles to emergent reefs in both 172 nearshore and offshore locations. We then examine whether typical drivers of fish diversity, 173 abundance, species richness and community structure apply to pinnacles. Kimbe Bay lies in 174 the Coral Triangle, one of the world's most diverse coral reef regions, but the distribution and 175 abundance of species inhabiting coral reef pinnacles in this area are currently unquantified. Specifically, the aims of this study were to: 1. Describe benthic communities and quantify 176 177 habitat complexity based on total hard coral cover, benthic cover type richness and benthic 178 diversity across reef morphologies. We predicted that pinnacles and offshore reefs would 179 have highest percentage cover of hard coral at the depths surveyed (20-30m), due to clearer

180 offshore waters and lower terrestrial influence. These factors may also enhance benthic 181 richness and diversity at offshore sites. 2. Characterise fish communities found on offshore 182 submerged pinnacle reefs and compare them to emergent reef morphologies. We expected 183 that abundance would be high given the aggregating properties of physical structures for 184 fishes, but that diversity and species richness may be lower given the relative isolation of 185 pinnacles as small patch habitats. 3. Examine how fish-benthic relationships differ between 186 reef morphologies, specifically the effect of total hard coral cover and benthic diversity on 187 fish diversity, abundance, richness and species evenness. We hypothesised that established 188 relationships between benthic habitats would be evident at all reef habitats, especially where 189 coral cover is highest at offshore locations.

190

191 Methods

192 Study site and survey design

193 This study took place during October 2018 in Kimbe Bay (5°30'S, 150°05'E, Fig.1), Papua 194 New Guinea, an area with a diverse bathymetry including emergent reefs and submerged 195 pinnacles. The study incorporated 12 reef sites: 4 nearshore emergent reefs, 4 offshore 196 emergent reefs and 4 offshore submerged pinnacle reefs. Nearshore reefs were defined as 197 those <5km from nearest main landmass and offshore reefs were all between 9-25km from 198 nearest main landmass. The distinction between emergent and submerged morphology was 199 made based on crest depth; crests above 10m were considered emergent and those below 10m 200 submerged since reefs deeper than 10 m are unlikely to ever experience breaking waves 201 (Harris et al. 2013; Thomas et al. 2015). The pinnacles in our study rise to within 15-30m of 202 the sea surface from a deep (c.300m, GEBCO 2019) submerged ring central to the bay. The 203 centre of this ring descends to around 600m in the middle of the bay but on the seaward side 204 drops to >1000m on the shelf of the South Bismarck Plate (Fig.1a and b). Offshore emergent

205 reefs in Kimbe Bay are also extensions of this submerged central system but reach the upper 206 0-10m. Many take the form of shallow flat-topped guyots, which also have steep sides and 207 ridges descending to considerable depths. Nearshore emergent sites are gently sloping with 208 hard coral cover down to around 70m (author pers. obs; Longenecker et al. 2019). All 209 surveys were carried out within a 20-30m depth band. For emergent reefs, sites with 210 substantial deep horizontal ridges or low gradient slopes were selected for the study to 211 account for reef slope aspect. Surveys on walls or steep slopes were avoided. Although we 212 control for slope aspect as much as feasibly possible, ecological assemblages vary 213 considerably between reef zones. How these changes manifest between zones on different 214 reef morphologies at different depths is beyond the scope of this current study but is under 215 investigation by this group.

216

217 **Data collection**

218 Fish and benthic video surveys

219 Fish and benthic surveys were conducted along 30m x 5m high-definition (HD) video 220 transects within a depth band of 20-30m. Five transects at least 5m apart were conducted at 221 each site which was primarily dictated by the small size of the pinnacles. A diver-operated 222 stereo-video bar (SeaGIS) housing two GoPro Hero-4 cameras was held horizontally to the 223 benthos, facing forwards as the diver swam the transect maintaining a depth of 0.5m above 224 the reef. A second diver followed with a tape reel and indicated to the first diver when 30m 225 was reached. Both divers returned along the tape conducting a video point-intercept transect 226 using another GoPro Hero-4 camera held at 0.5m above the reef pointing directly downward . 227

228 Benthic video PIT analysis

229 Transect tapes were marked with two random points per meter. The HD-video footage was 230 replayed at a low frame rate and the benthos immediately underneath each point (60 231 points/30m) identified and placed into one of 47 categories groups (Table S11). These 47 232 groups were used to calculate three metrics of benthic complexity; benthic diversity (H'), 233 benthic richness and total hard coral cover, all of which have been previously shown to be 234 useful characterisations of community composition and correlate with the community 235 structure of coral reef fishes (Bell and Galzin 1984; Messmer et al. 2011; Komyakova et al. 236 2013).

237

238 Fourteen broader categories of benthic cover type were derived from the 47 original fine 239 scale categories. These measures have been previously shown to correlate with aspects of fish 240 diversity and abundance (Table S11). These 14 groups were: massive and sub-massive coral, 241 encrusting coral, laminar coral, complex coral, algae, coraline crustose algae (CCA), soft 242 corals and octocorals, encrusting porifera, complex porifera, other hexacorals, coral rubble, 243 sand and silt, rock and reef matrix. We chose these groups based on similar submerged reef 244 studies on the GBR (Macdonald et al. 2016; Cooper et al. 2019), but as reefs in Kimbe Bay 245 possess a conspicuous abundance of morphologically distinct sponges and other forms of 246 hexacorallia and octocorallia (Horowitz et al. 2020) we also included these groups.

247

248 Fish video transect analysis

Fish transect videos were analysed in the stereo-video software Eventmeasure (SeaGIS) which uses camera calibration to provide a known field-of-view (2.5m either side of the transect). Every individual fish that entered the lower two thirds of the screen was counted and identified to species based on Allen et al. (2003). Only individuals that were readily observable within these parameters were recorded i.e. not obscured by the benthos or within

crevices. This means the surveys represent the relative abundance of non-cryptic species
(Brock 1982 ; Caldwell et al. 2016).

256

257 Statistical analysis

All analysis was performed in R (R Core Development Team 2020) and plots produced using
the packages ggplot2 (Wickham 2016) and ggvegan (Simpson 2019).

260

261 Fish and benthic assemblages

262 To test for differences in fish and benthic assemblages between reef morphologies, a one-way permutation-based multivariate ANOVA (PERMANOVA) was performed with Hellinger 263 264 transformed species abundance data (Anderson 2001:Lengendre and Galagher 2001) using 265 the function "adonis" in vegan. Post-hoc tests were then conducted to identify significant 266 between-group differences identified by the PERMANOVA using "emmeans" (Lenth 2019). 267 For each analysis 999 permutations were performed to calculate p-values. Although generally 268 considered robust to heterogeneity in data sets, PERMANOVA tests between-group variation 269 where a significant result can either suggest differences in location of centroids between 270 groups or, that average within-group dispersion is not equal (Anderson and Walsh 2013). 271 PERMDISP is a resemblance-based permutation test focused strictly on the null hypothesis 272 of homogeneity of multivariate dispersions (Anderson 2006) and was used to test the 273 hypothesis of equal within group dispersion. This test can additionally provide insights into 274 within group variation. The function "betadisp" in vegan was used to perform the 275 PERMDISP test. The SIMPER routine (Clarke and Warwick 2001) was then used to identify 276 species and benthic variables contributing the most dissimilarity among reef types using the 277 "simper" function in vegan.

279 Fish biodiversity and benthic complexity

Differences in mean fish species richness, total fish abundance (individuals/150m²), fish 280 diversity (Simpson's Index), evenness (Pielou's J'), benthic richness and benthic diversity 281 282 (H') were identified using Generalised Linear Mixed Effects Models (GLMMs) with "reef type" as the categorical main effect and "site" nested within reef type as a random factor 283 284 using the package "Ime4". Standard exploratory techniques were used to assess appropriate 285 error structures to apply to each GLMM (See Tables S1,S2 and S6). Differences between reef 286 types of mean percentage cover of the 14 benthic cover categories were also tested using 287 GLMMs fitted in the same way. For all GLMMs, model fits were evaluated using residual plots and performed using the packages "Ime4" and "MASS" (Venables and Ripley 2002; 288 289 Bates et al. 2015). Differences between means at each reef habitat type were tested using 290 likelihood ratio tests (negative binomial models), conditional F-tests (gaussian models) and 291 adjusted Tukey's HSD post-hoc pair-wise tests using the packages "car" (Fox and Weisberg 292 2019), "pbkrtest" (Halekoh, 2014) and "emmeans" (Lenth 2019). Contrast estimates and 95% 293 confidence intervals are presented in Tables S1,S2 and S6.

294

295 Fish-benthic relationships

296 To explicitly examine the nature and strength of relationships between fish and two metrics 297 of benthic habitat complexity (benthic diversity and total hard coral) we used GLMMs . Only 298 these two habitat complexity metrics were examined as benthic richness was found to be 299 highly correlated with benthic diversity and several other benthic cover categories. The effect 300 of total percentage hard coral and benthic diversity on fish richness, diversity, evenness and 301 abundance were tested in 8 separate models with either Negative Binomial (abundance and 302 richness) or Gaussian (diversity and evenness) error distribution. For all models the main 303 effect was either total hard coral percentage or benthic diversity, with "reef type" as a fixed

304 effect. An interaction term between the main effect and "reef type" was included in each 305 model to test whether the nature of any relationship varied between reef morphologies. "Site" 306 was included as a random factor nested within "reef type". Likelihood-ratio tests with a null 307 model were used to determine model fit and overall goodness-of-fit of all models was 308 assessed via standard techniques of Q-Q plots (normality), residuals plotted against predicted 309 values against all explanatory variables (homogeneity of variance) and calculations of 310 dispersion. Pseudo-R-Square estimates (Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2013; Nakagawa et al. 311 2017) were obtained for all mixed-effects models using r.squaredGLMM from the "MuMIn" 312 package (Bartoń 2019). This produces a marginal R2GLMM(m) (an approximation variance 313 explained by fixed effects) and a conditional R2 GLMM(c) (an approximation of variance 314 explained by the entire model including fixed and random effects). Estimates and 95% 315 confidence intervals for each models' effects were calculated where the evidence does not 316 support a significant effect at the 0.05 level if the confidence interval contains zero. Tests of 317 fixed factor main effects were conducted using likelihood-ratio tests for GLMMs and 318 conditional F-tests with Kenward-Roger correction for GLMMs with gaussian error family. 319 Correlation analysis and simple slopes tests using "emmeans" were performed to further 320 explore these relationships.

321

Finally, distance based multiple linear modeling was used to examine the multivariate
relationship between differences in fish communities and benthic habitat to find the
combination of benthic variables that best explained the greatest variation in fish community
structure. Benthic variables included all 14 benthic categories, benthic diversity and benthic
richness. Multicollinearity was explored between all benthic variables using Spearman's rank
correlation. Benthic richness was highly corelated with benthic diversity (Spearman's rho, ρ

328 = 0.78, p < 0.001) and complex hexacorals (ρ = 0.48, p = 0.001) so was removed prior to 329 model fitting.

330

331 The function "ordiR2step" in vegan was then used to conduct stepwise forward selection based on the Aikaike Information Criterion (Akaike et al. 1973) of variables from all 14 332 333 benthic categories as well as benthic diversity. The stepwise routine was run using 9999 permutations and adjusted R² as the selection criterion (Blanchet, Legendre and Borcard 334 335 2008). Each model proposed by "ordiR2step" was tested for significance using vegan's 336 permutational ANOVA function (Monte Carlo permutation test) and only constraints with p 337 < 0.05 after adjustment for multiple testing selected for the final model. The most suitable 338 model to explain the relationship between benthic cover types and variation in fish 339 assemblages between reef habitat types was visualized by constrained ordination using 340 distance-based redundancy analysis (db-RDA) (Anderson et al. 2008). db-RDA can be used 341 when the response data are available as a dissimilarity matrix and provides an opportunity to 342 use ecological distances in constrained ordination analysis (Paliy and Shankar 2016). Benthic 343 variables from the final model were overlaid as a vector, together with fish species that were 344 most correlated with assemblage variation.

345

346 **Results**

347 Benthic communities show similar complexity between reef types

348 We found no significant difference in any of the benthic complexity metrics between reef

349 morphologies; benthic diversity (F-test, F = 2.25, p = 0.33), benthic richness (F-test, F =

4.01, p = 0.11) or total hard coral (F-test, F = 2.01, p = 0.37) (Figure 2, Table S2). Pinnacle

reefs however, showed the greatest range in both benthic diversity (1.94 - 2.52) and benthic

richness (12.20 - 17.41) compared to offshore (benthic diversity = 2.12 - 2.23, benthic

richness = 12.40 - 13.80 and nearshore emergent reefs (benthic diversity = 2.03 - 2.31,

benthic richness = 12.60 - 14.00) suggesting high variability between individual pinnacle
sites (Table S5).

356

Of the 14 benthic cover types, 8 showed significant differences in mean percentage cover 357 358 between reef morphologies (Fig.3, Table S6). Pinnacle reefs were characterised by highest 359 mean percent cover of complex hard corals, massive and sub-massive hard corals, encrusting 360 hexacorals and octocorals. Offshore reefs had the lowest mean percent cover of complex hard 361 corals, but high proportions of laminar hard corals and encrusting porifera. Nearshore reefs 362 were notably high in algae. Benthic communities were similar to each other ranging between 363 34-40% dissimilarity (Table 1). Highest overall dissimilarity was between pinnacle and 364 nearshore reefs (40%). Benthic cover types contributing the most to overall dissimilarity were 365 algae, complex hard coral, encrusting hexacoral, rubble and massive hard coral (Table 1). 366 Although PERMANOVA indicated significant differences in benthic community assemblages among reef types (Pseudo-F = 4.74, 999 permutations, p(perm) = 0.001) the 367 PERMDISP test also yielded a significant result (F = 4.16, p = 0.02). This further suggests 368 369 unequal within-group dispersion which was also apparent in exploratory multivariate plots 370 (Fig.S1).

371

372 Reef fish biodiversity and assemblages differ between reef types

A total of 11,460 individual fishes representing 230 species and 87 genera were recorded

across all transects from the 12 reefs. Pinnacles had the highest total number of species (172)

- and also the highest number of unique species (75) (Fig.4). The numerous unique species
- 376 included many larger predatory species including *Pinjalo lewisi*, *Caranx melampygus*,
- 377 Caranx sexfasicatus, Carcharhinus amblyrhynchos and Caracharinus melanopterus that
- 378 were not observed on emergent reefs (Table S3). Offshore emergent reefs had the lowest total

379 number of species recorded (87) and also only 3 unique species. Of the total 230 species

380 observed across all reef types, only 47 (20.5%) were shared by all three (Fig.4).

381

382 The pinnacles in our study supported almost twice the mean number of fish species per unit area (32.45) as near (16.35) and offshore reefs (16.50) (Fig.5; LRT, $\sqrt{2} = 62.10$, p < 0.001). 383 384 We also found a clear increasing trend in fish abundance from nearshore to offshore reefs, 385 culminating in 6.57 times observed total abundance on the pinnacles compared to nearshore reefs (LRT, $\sqrt{p} = 68.74$, p < 0.001). High variation in abundance on pinnacles was due to 386 387 large schools of Sphraena geini and Acanthurus thompsoni recorded in several transects at 388 multiple sites, similarly, large schools of *Caesio sp.* drove higher abundance on offshore sites 389 compared to nearshore reefs. Consequently, species evenness showed significant differences 390 across reef morphologies (F-test, F = 31.52, p < 0.001). Simpson's diversity was highest on 391 nearshore reefs (0.80) and lowest on offshore reefs (0.72) but differences were not significant 392 between the reef morphologies (F-test, F = 5.10, p = 0.07). (Fig.5, Table S1). 393

394 The local structure of fish assemblages was clearly distinct between reef types

395 (PERMANOVA; pseudo-F = 8.67, 999 permutations, p (perm) = 0.001). Unlike benthic

396 communities, fish communities showed high dissimilarity between all reef types ranging

397 between 74.5-87.8% (Table 1). The combination of species contributing most to these

398 differences consistently included *Pseudanthias tuka, Caesio cuning, A. thompsoni. P.*

399 *nigromanus* and *Ctenochaetus tominiensis*. The only different species to appear in the top

400 five overall contributors to community dissimilarity between nearshore and offshore reefs

- 401 was C. anarzae (Table 1). Species composition of pinnacles was most similar to offshore
- 402 emergent reefs and most distinct from Inshore emergent reefs (Table 1, Fig.S2). Again,
- 403 although the result of the PERMANOVA indicated distinct fish assemblages among reef

404 types, the result of the PERMDISP test (F = 3.97, p = 0.02, Table S2a) suggests that there is

405 also unequal within-group dispersion. Notably, nearshore reefs showed more variable

406 assemblage structure than offshore or pinnacle reefs (Fig.S2a).

- 407
- 408

409 Fish-habitat relationships – weak associations at all reef types

410 "Reef type" had a significant effect on fish abundance and richness in models for total hard 411 coral cover (LRT abundance; p = 0.002, richness; p = 0.002) and benthic diversity (abundance p = 0.003, richness; p = <0.001), but had no effect on fish diversity or evenness 412 413 in any model (Table 2). Neither benthic diversity nor total hard coral cover had a significant 414 effect on any fish metric across all 8 models, and there was also no significant interactions 415 between independent variables (Fig. 6, Table 2). Table S9 for estimate coefficients and 416 confidence intervals. Offshore reef showed moderate positive correlation between benthic diversity and fish diversity ($\rho = 0.30$, p =0.20), whereas pinnacle and nearshore reefs showed 417 weak negative relationships (pinnacles; $\rho = -0.07$, p =0.76; nearshore ($\rho = -0.13$, p =0.57). 418 419 None of the relationships however, were significant (p < 0.05). Other contrasting patterns 420 included a negative relationship between abundance and hard coral cover on pinnacle reefs (p = -0.42, p = 0.07), whereas nearshore reefs showed a weak positive trend ($\rho = 0.32$, p = 0.16) 421 422 and there was no correlation between fish abundance and hard coral cover on offshore reefs $(\rho = -0.03, p = 0.89)$. Benthic diversity and fish diversity showed a moderate negative 423 association on offshore reefs ($\rho = -0.29$, p = 0.22), but was moderately positive on pinnacles 424 $(\rho = 0.07, p = 0.78 \text{ and nearshore reefs } (\rho = 0.29, p = 0.22)$. Again, none of these contrasting 425 relationships were found to be significant. Benthic diversity and hard coral cover had 426 427 reasonable explanatory power in respective models for fish richness and abundance with 428 $R^{2}_{(m)}$ ranging between 52-54%. Fish diversity and evenness however were poorly explained

by benthic diversity or hard coral cover in combination with reef type with R²_(m) ranging
between 7-13% (SI Table S8 and S9).

431

432 The full distance based linear model containing all 14 benthic habitat variables (Table S11) together with benthic diversity explained 21.98% of variation in fish communities. After 433 434 adjusting for multiple testing, the final model indicated 3 variables were significant in explaining variability in fish communities (cumulative $_{Adj.}R^2 = 0.2198$; Algae (5.84%), 435 436 encrusting octocorals (3.90%) and encrusting porifera (3.25%) (Table S7). When visualized 437 in the db-RDA plot, the first two axes represented together 74.06% of fitted variation and 438 15.32% of total variation (Fig.7a). Species most correlated with increasing algal cover 439 included C. tominiensis, P. nigromanus and C. rollandi. P. tuka showed strongest correlation with octocorals, whereas Naso vlamingii and A. thompsoni were more associated with higher 440 441 cover of encrusting Porifera more prevalent on offshore and pinnacle reefs (Fig.7b).

442

443 **Discussion**

444 Benthic assemblages – similar complexity but varied composition

445 Our study presents the first baseline assessment of fish and benthic communities on 446 submerged pinnacles in the Coral Triangle. The benthic habitat structure on pinnacles did not 447 differ markedly from emergent reefs, although there were differences in coral growth forms 448 and proportional cover. Although we accounted for the effect of reef slope aspect through site selection across morphologies, the flat tops of pinnacle summits in clear, offshore locations 449 450 experience greater irradiance at the same depth than emergent reefs (Lesser et al. 2009). This 451 perhaps explains higher complex and massive coral morphologies on pinnacles at these 452 depths, which strongly influence the abundance and distribution of many coral-associated 453 fishes (Jones et al. 2004; Coker et al. 2014; Pratchett 2014). Cooper et al. (2019) suggest that

454 submerged reefs on the Great Barrier Reef support higher numbers of individual fishes than 455 inshore sites as a result of clearer waters allowing greater light penetration for photosynthetic 456 processes, resulting in increased feeding opportunities across a range of functional groups. In our study the four species of obligate-coral feeding butterflyfish observed were all were 457 458 recorded on pinnacles, where complex coral cover was highest, but not on nearshore or 459 offshore reefs. This follows established patterns for coral obligates and suggests that fine-460 scale differences in benthic communities are more important for some fish species than 461 broader, simple measures of overall complexity.

462

463 Although situated in similarly remote positions in the bay, benthic communities on offshore 464 emergent reefs had the lowest proportion of complex hard coral and were dominated by 465 laminar coral and encrusting porifera. Corals adapting to lower light at greater depths also 466 often display flatter, low relief morphologies. Shading by steep walls and emergent shallow 467 crests reduces light irradiance on the lower reef slopes of emergent reefs (Lesser et al. 2009). 468 Flatter coral morphologies have been shown to influence fish-habitat associations, 469 constraining the depth distribution of some species (Brokovich et al. 2008; Lesser et al. 2009; 470 Smallhorn-West et al. 2017), which may partly explain low fish diversity on offshore reefs 471 despite their offshore position.

472

The high algal cover on nearshore reefs is likely due to close proximity to large-scale
terrestrial agricultural activity, including high levels of deforestation and associated high
inputs of allochthonous run-off (Munday 2004; Green et al. 2009). High algal cover tends to
be a characteristic of degraded coastal reefs (Hughes 1994; Graham et al. 2006; Roth et al.
2018) and altered fish communities (Jones et al. 2004; Chong-Seng et al. 2012; Ainsworth

478 and Mumby 2015). This may be driving lower fish diversity and abundance at nearshore sites479 than would naturally be found without chronic land-based disturbances.

480

481 Fish assemblages - unique fish communities found on pinnacles

482 We found that submerged pinnacles support highly diverse, abundant and distinct fish 483 assemblages, with many unique species not found at the equivalent depth on emergent reefs 484 in either nearshore or offshore locations. Our findings confirm our expectation that distinct 485 submerged physical structures possess high abundance of fishes, in this case driven by large 486 schools of S. geni, Caranx sp. and A. thompsoni. Associative behaviour between fish and 487 physical structures is well known (Fréon and Dagorn 2000) and explanations for this 488 behaviour are thought to include resting, spawning, seeking shelter from predators and access 489 to cleaning stations and feeding opportunities (Paterson 1998; Barreiros et al. 2002) however 490 these paradigms are untested for the pinnacles in our study.

491

492 Contrary to our expectations there was no difference in diversity across the three reef 493 morphologies. Pinnacles however, did have the highest species richness and number of 494 unique species. Although we did not directly measure habitat area or isolation by distance, 495 Kimbe Bay's nearshore reefs are larger reefs, closely situated to each other and also to 496 coastal nursery habitats (Green et al. 2009). Nearshore reefs may therefore be expected to 497 receive higher numbers of juveniles and recruits (sources of immigration) and support higher 498 absolute numbers of individuals and species, over a larger overall area of available habitat 499 (MacArthur and Wilson 1967). Although these patterns are less established than in terrestrial 500 ecology, biogeographic factors are known to influence marine habitats and reef fish 501 communities (Mora et al. 2003; Kulbicki et al. 2013; Bennett et al. 2018; Quimbayo et al. 502 2018), albeit with contrasting results. Sandin et al. (2008) found classical relationships

503 between reef fish abundance and isolation (negative) and habitat area (positive), but others

504 have shown that increasing isolation from land-based disturbance and associated

505 geographical environmental gradients leads to increased biomass and abundance, (DeMartini

506 et al. 2008; Stallings 2009; Williams et al. 2011; Brewer et al. 2012; Kattan et al. 2017).

507

508 Given the relatively small area of Kimbe Bay (15x25km) and the strong dispersal capabilities 509 of many fishes (Mora et al. 2003; Almany et al. 2017; Bode et al. 2019) it is unlikely that 510 horizontal dispersal ability limits offshore recruitment and may explain the weak 511 biogeographic patterns in diversity observed (Hobbs et al. 2012). Nevertheless, the offshore 512 emergent reefs and pinnacles are similarly isolated from nearshore habitats, yet there is still 513 an anomaly between abundance and richness on these two morphologies. This may be 514 attributable to high temporal variability in species abundances as some evidence suggests that 515 small isolated reefs are subject to greater demographic and environmental stochasticity 516 (Mellin et al. 2010). The persistence of the patterns observed in this study should therefore be 517 assessed by replicated surveys to identify longer-term trends in biodiversity metrics. 518 519 The pinnacles in Kimbe Bay appear to provide sufficient habitat to support high fish 520 diversity, abundance and richness, despite their small size and relative isolation from other

521 reefs by both depth and distance. As small, island-like habitats in offshore, reefs on

522 submerged pinnacles represent patchy habitats with high perimeter-to-area ratios. The

523 interface of the coral reef and pelagic environment represents the edges of both these distinct

524 marine habitats. The term "edge effect" is used to describe the influence of the mixed

525 environment created at the boundaries of conjoining habitats on ecological community

526 structure and processes (Fahrig 2003; Fonseca, 2008). Here, species associated with adjacent

527 habitats are brought into contact which may lead to novel interactions, the formation of

528 dispersal barriers or the creation of spatial subsidies (Fagan et al. 1999). Edge effects, 529 however, are generally not well known in marine environments as the theoretical base is 530 rooted in terrestrial ecology (but see Smith et al. 2007; Sambrook et al. 2016). Yet, given 531 their small size and typical isolated position within seascapes, it seems plausible that coral 532 reefs on submerged pinnacles experience some of form of edge effect. The combination of 533 coral reef and pelagic habitat theoretically increases habitat heterogeneity; not necessarily in 534 terms of structural complexity but by increasing the breadth of resources available to a wider 535 range of species and individuals. This could explain the presence of both highly reef-536 associated and mobile pelagic species observed at pinnacle sites, leading to high species 537 richness, distinct community structures and the highest number of unique species.

538

539 Weak fish-habitat relationships

540 Species richness, abundance and composition on pinnacles was only weakly related to habitat 541 structure and is most likely driven by other aspects of the unique morphology of pinnacle 542 habitats. Empirical studies examining linear correlations between reef fish and simple habitat 543 variables have similarly shown contrasting and or surprisingly weak relationships (reviewed 544 in Jones and Syms 1998), but most have been conducted at shallow depths (<20m). Our 545 surveys were conducted at 20-30m and it is known that some fish-habitat links can decline 546 with increasing depth on emergent reefs, usually attributable to declining complex and 547 branching coral cover and the changing influence of other abiotic factors (Brokovich et al. 548 2008). This may explain the lack of strong fish-benthic relationships at all reef morphologies. 549

Although live coral cover is consistently the most important habitat variable affecting the
distribution of many coral-associated fishes (Coker et al. 2014), the generalisation of simple
linear patterns in fish-habitat relationships is further complicated by the huge variety of ways

553 different species utilise coral reefs (Jones and Syms 1998). For example, some species will 554 alter habitat associations during ontogeny (Bonin et al. 2011; Komyakova et al. 2018) and 555 positive effects of habitat complexity on fish abundance can depend on numerous predator-556 prey and conspecific interactions (Beukers and Jones 1998; Almany 2004). The different 557 proportions of certain benthic cover types and morphologies may also reflect the distinct fish 558 communities, where certain morphologies or benthic organisms provide more or less 559 favourable habitat for certain fishes. A detailed investigation of trophic assemblage 560 composition and potential differences in condition (e.g. body size, growth rates) would help 561 to further understand how different types of reef habitat could confer benefits to particular 562 functional groups and individuals.

563

564 Many fish species have less direct relationships with biogenic micro-habitats in general, 565 instead, being attracted to physical structure and associated abiotic conditions (Auster 2007). 566 In our study, the negative relationship between fish abundance and hard coral cover on the 567 pinnacles (Fig.8g) was largely a result of the high percentage cover of encrusting 568 corallimorph colonies (Hexacorallia) combined with the presence of large schools of S. qeni 569 and A. thompsoni. Mobile mesopredators tend to use coral reefs less directly than highly site-570 attached fishes, hunting and foraging in other adjacent connected habitats during different 571 diurnal periods (Papastamatiou et al. 2015) while high abundances of planktivores like A. 572 thompsoni at reef edges and greater depths is likely driven by proximity to higher plankton 573 availability brought by strong currents (Thresher and Colin 1986; Hobson 1991; Quimpo et 574 al. 2018). Stronger currents on reefs can be a product of both offshore positions receiving 575 higher exposure to wind-generated water motion and waves but also interactions between 576 reef topography and oceanographic processes (Hearn 2011). Fish species on abrupt physical 577 structures may therefore have less direct relationships with biogenic habitat, but instead rely

578 on favourable feeding and abiotic conditions generated at dynamic all-surrounding579 boundaries between reef and pelagic habitats.

580

581 Hydrodynamics and pelagic influence as drivers of fish communities on pinnacles

582 We propose that both habitat-specific physical processes and high pelagic influences are 583 plausible mechanisms which explain distinct and highly abundant fish communities on small 584 offshore submerged pinnacle reefs. On shallow emergent reefs, the crest is the most diverse 585 and productive zone (Done 1983; Russ 1984, 2003) where reef fish communities benefit 586 significantly from oceanic production (Wyatt et al. 2012; Fisher et al. 2018; Le Bourg et al. 587 2018). Pinnacle reefs diverge from classical models of spatial reef zonation where, as the 588 summits are small in area, lacking any significant area of back-reef or flat; they are composed 589 almost entirely of reef crest. Furthermore, the pelagic environment surrounds not only the 590 circumference of reef but also constitutes a significant water column of pelagic habitat above 591 the benthos. Thus, on a pinnacle the majority of the reef may experience high pelagic 592 energetic inputs via multidirectional currents, not just at the seaward edge as on emergent 593 reefs. For example, high abundances of planktivores found at reef edges fix important 594 allochthonous inputs (Wyatt et al. 2012) and exposed zones on emergent reefs have been 595 shown to receive significant pelagic energetic subsidies through this mechanism, explaining 596 exceptional levels of productivity even on low coral-cover reefs (Morais and Bellwood 597 2019).

598

Hydrology on coral reefs can therefore shape reef-fish assemblages (Fulton and Bellwood
2005; Eggertsen et al. 2016) and submerged topographies can generate distinct hydrodynamic
environments, upwellings and currents, which are important mechanisms for nutrient and
plankton retention (Genin et al. 1986; Lueck and Mudge 1997; Fulton et al. 2005; Morato et

603 al. 2009; Lavelle and Mohn 2010; Mosquera Giménez et al. 2019). This extension of the 604 species-energy hypothesis (Wright 1983) has been proposed as a mechanism that allows 605 these habitats to support abundant communities, often composed of species from high trophic 606 levels (Pitcher and Bulman 2007; Jorgensen et al. 2016; Richert et al. 2017). The presence of 607 diverse and abundant fish communities on pinnacles rich with large populations of 608 planktivores and piscivores perhaps reflects strong bio-physical coupling analogous to 609 seamounts (Genin 2004; Morato et al. 2010). Although the small scale of this study does not 610 fully capture the abundance and distribution of large mobile predators, sharks were only 611 observed in transects at pinnacle reefs. This could suggest that these habitats support higher 612 trophic levels and more complex food-webs than nearshore reefs at the same depth, which 613 may be lower-energy environments. Greater sampling effort and additional studies, however, 614 are needed to ascertain an accurate reflection of habitat use on pinnacle reefs by large 615 predatory fishes.

616

617 The hydrological-energy mechanisms we suggest as drivers of high diversity on pinnacles do 618 occur on emergent reefs but are largely focused on the shallow crests by surface waves and 619 upwellings travelling up the slope. As such, productivity, nutrient concentrations and larval 620 supply are again focused in this zone rather than the lower slopes (Wolanski and Delesalle 621 1995; Sponaugle et al. 2002; Leichter et al. 2005; James et al. 2020). Interactions between 622 hydrodynamics and reef topography clearly differ between reef zones but there have been 623 few comparisons between emergent reefs and submerged reefs. Despite the difference in 624 absolute crest depth between emergent and submerged reefs, the culmination of 625 hydrodynamics on the crest may lead to greater assemblage similarities in this zone between 626 reef morphologies, regardless of depth. Additionally, in terms of habitat, emergent reefs 627 typically have large areas of high coral cover on the crest, which is likely to concentrate the

628 majority of reef-associated individuals and species in shallower depths. It was notable in our 629 study how many species usually associated with shallow crests on emergent reefs were also 630 observed on the crests of submerged pinnacles, most likely a result of aspect and clear 631 offshore waters. A similar pattern was reported for corals on submerged reefs in the central 632 GBR, where similar reef crest/upper slope assemblages on emergent reefs are found at 633 greater depths on the crests of submerged pinnacles (Roberts et al. 2015). Comparative 634 investigations of patterns in reef zonation along depth gradients will help further explain how 635 communities change across the full range of available habitat on both emergent and 636 submerged reefs. Disentangling the relative effects of reef zone, depth and hydrodynamics on 637 submerged pinnacles will require fine-scale in-situ measurements of currents and associated 638 abiotic factors to reveal new information about these unusual habitats rather than relying on 639 generalised trends from shallow and mesophotic coral reef literature (Pearson and Stevens 640 2015).

641

642 As isolated but ubiquitous patch habitats, submerged pinnacles also present significant 643 opportunities to assess connectivity between emergent and deep reefs as well as the wider 644 pelagic environment. Just as seamounts are thought to act as steppingstones for dispersal in 645 the deep sea, pinnacles may play a significant role in connectivity across large scale coral 646 reef systems. The differing hydrodynamics on submerged pinnacles (e.g. lack of a reef flat to 647 dissipate currents and wave energy) likely result in a greater proportion of larvae being 648 exported to adjacent reefs than on emergent reefs, suggesting they may represent important 649 sources of propagules (Thomas et al. 2015). Multiple forms of submerged reef supporting 650 diverse marine ecosystems are widely distributed across the continental shelf of both north-651 east and north-west Australia (Bridge et al. 2012, 2019; Roberts et al. 2015; Moore et al. 652 2017; Heyward and Radford 2019), but have largely been excluded from management and

monitoring efforts. Results from this study and others demonstrate that submerged reefs
warrant greater consideration in management plans. Although the locations of submerged
reefs in many regions may be poorly understood, precautionary management principles that
explicitly account for uncertainty regarding the locations of ecologically significant features
such as submerged reefs can be effective in protecting these types of features 'incidentally'
(Bridge et al. 2015).

659

660 Our baseline assessment indicates that pinnacles represent a distinct form of submerged coral 661 reef that supports highly species rich and abundant fish communities. Assemblages here are 662 likely shaped by complex interactions of hydrology, physical structure and high levels of 663 pelagic influence, resulting from greater crest depth and offshore locations. These processes 664 are present on emergent, nearshore reefs, but largely only at shallow seaward edges, and their 665 effects may attenuate with depth as the reef structure changes. Further studies are required to 666 assess how the combination of pelagic and reef habitats on small submerged pinnacles 667 generate distinct abiotic and physical conditions and how they might enhance productivity 668 and the variety of available resources. Isolation by depth and offshore setting may also confer 669 aspects of natural resilience in addition to beneficial hydrodynamics. In a rapidly changing 670 marine environment, it is important to establish how distinct reef morphologies may respond 671 to climate change and the extent to which they may provide refuge to degrading shallow reef 672 organisms. As ubiquitous features across all low-latitude coastal shelves, deep and distinct 673 coral habitats are becoming increasingly important components of the future global coral reef 674 biome. Further work is warranted to quantify the spatial extent of these unique coral reef 675 habitats, characterise their ecological communities and understand their role in coral reef 676 ecosystems.

677

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691 **Conflict of interests statement**

- 692 On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.
- 693

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- 1141
- 1142 Figure legends

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1146 **Figure 1**. Study area locations, Kimbe Bay, Papua New Guinea. (a) Papua New Guinea and

1147 Kimbe Bay (b) Kimbe Bay bathymetry with location of pinnacle (green), offshore (blue) and

1148 nearshore (yellow) reefs (c) Schools of Caranx sexfasciatus at Joelles Reef (pinnacle) (d)

1149 Sphyraena qenie at Bradford Shoals (pinnacle) (e) Schematic of reef morphologies surveyed







- 1153 hard coral cover % (b) richness of benthic cover types (c) diversity of benthic cover types.
- 1154 Full LMM results Table T2
- 1155
- 1156





Figure 3. Differences in mean percent cover per transect ± SE of 14 benthic cover types
across the three reef habitat types (n=20 per reef morphology). Significant differences are
represented by * and letters indicate statistically similar pairwise means (p <0.05, Tukey
HSD). Full GLMM results Table S6



- **Figure 4.** Alpha and beta diversity for each reef morphology. Number of unique species at
- 1167 each reef type are located in sectors of circles with no overlap



Figure 5. Differences in fish community metrics between reef morphologies. Mean per
150m2 transect ± SE bars (a) fish species richness (b) Total abundance of individuals (c)
Simpson's diversity (d) Community evenness Pielou's J'. Significant pair-wise differences
(p < 0.05, Tukey HSD) are indicated by grouping lines above. Full GLMM results Tables S1
and S5





Figure 6. Relationships between fish community metrics and benthic complexity variables

- 1177 for each reef type. Shaded areas depict 95 % confidence intervals from mixed effects
- 1178 models. Full summary of coefficients in models a-h in Table S9



Figure 7. (a) Distance-based redundancy analysis (db-RDA) plot of the ordiR2step model based on benthic variables that better explained variability among fish communities across reef habitat types (n=20 for each reef type). Significant benthic variables are overlaid as a vector and fish species most correlated with each axis are presented to the right of the main plot (b) Vector length and direction of the arrow represents the size and direction of the relationships

- **Table 1.** Summary of SIMPER results showing top five fish species and benthic cover
- 1198 categories that contributed most to overall dissimilarity between assemblages for pair-wise

1199 comparisons between reef types

Species reef type contrast	% Contribution	Mean abundance/ 150 m ²		Benthic habitat reef type contrast	% Contribution	Mean percentage cover			
Pinnacle offshore overall dissimilarity 74.5%		Pinnacle	Offshore	Pinnacle offshore overall dissimilarity 38%		Pinnacle	Offshore		
Pseudanthias tuka	6.84	32.40	51.85	Complex Hard Coral	9.54	9.67	1.92		
Caesio cuning	6.08	8.70	28.95	Encrusting Hexacoral 9.32		11.0	0.25		
Acanthurus thompsoni	5.63	72.60	11.45	Laminar Hard Coral 9.15		8.33	15.33		
Pterocaesio tile	2.95	11.60	14.85	Algae	8.94		7.08		
Chromis amboinensis	2.77	8.40	4.90	Encrusting Porifera 7.77		10.5	21.0		
Pinnacle-nearshore		Pinnacle	Nearshore	Pinnacle-nearshore		Pinnacle	Nearshore		
Overall Dissimilarity 87.8%				Overall Dissimilarity 40%					
Acanthurus thompsoni	5.70	72.60	4.75	Algae	12.15	5.92	16.92		
Pomacentrus nigromanus	5.48	0.00	7.60	Complex Hard Coral 9.16		9.67	5.58		
Pseudanthias tuka	4.08	32.40	4.95	Encrusting Hexacoral	9.04	11.0	0		
Caesio cuning	3.35	8.70	9.00	Rubble	8.44	5.5	9.33		
Ctenochaetus tominiensis	3.09	0.45	3.00	Massive Hard Coral 8.33		10.0	4.00		
Offshore- nearshore		Offshore	Nearshore	Offshore-nearshore		Offshore	Nearshore		
overall dissimilarity 79.5%				Overall Dissimilarity 34%					
Pseudanthias tuka	9.05	51.85	4.95	Algae	11.99	7.08	16.92		
Caesio cuning	6.86	28.95	9.00	Encrusting Porifera	11.01	21.0	6.08		
Pomacentrus nigromanus	6.53	3.00	2.60	Rubble	9.64	6.33	9.33		
Acanthurus thompsoni	3.86	11.45	4.75	Sand and Silt	8.69	3.91	7.50		
Chrysiptera anarzae	3.09	1.05	2.30	Laminar Hard Coral	8.41	15.33	7.90		

- 1212 **Table 2.** Analysis of deviance or variance tables for main effects in all fish-benthic mixed
- 1213 effects models. For GLMMs (total fish abundance and species richness), Likelihood-ratio
- 1214 tests were used to test main effects. For LMMs (diversity and evenness) Wald-F tests with
- 1215 Kenward-Rogers df were used. All main effects and interactions (":") are shown. Significant
- 1216 results (p < 0.05) in bold

Variable	Df	Total abundance/150 m ²		Simpson diversity		Species richness		Species evenness	
		LRT	p value	F	p value	LRT	p value	F	p value
Total hard coral %	2	0.81	0.37	1.94	0.17	2.35	0.13	0.42	0.52
Reef type	1	49.58	< 0.001	1.69	0.20	65.50	< 0.001	1.11	0.34
Total hard coral:	1	2.35	0.31	1.42	0.25	2.19	0.33	1.11	0.34
reef type									
Benthic diversity (H')	2	1.25	0.26	0.11	0.74	0.03	0.85	0.19	0.67
Reef Type	1	28.87	< 0.001	0.95	0.40	65.54	< 0.001	0.17	0.84
Benthic diversity: reef type	1	5.03	0.08	1.21	0.31	1.03	0.60	0.19	0.83

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1219 Supplementary Information Figures



1221 **Figure S1.** (a) nMDS of benthic communities aggregated by reef morphology (b) Vector plot

- 1222 showing strength and direction of relationship between benthic category and nMDS axes
- 1223





Figure S2. (a) nMDS of fish communities aggregated by reef morphology (b) Vector plot

1226 showing the strength and direction of relationship between fish species and nMDS axes