

1 **Food web trophic control modulates tropical Atlantic reef ecosystems response to marine**
2 **heat wave intensity and duration**

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17 **Keywords:** Bottom-up, Ecopath and Ecosim, Climate change, Marine heat waves, Reef fish,
18 Species' biomass, Thermal performance, Top-down

19

20 **Abstract**

21 1. Marine Heat Waves (MHWs) are episodes of anomalous warming in the ocean that can last
22 from a few days to months. MHWs have different characteristics in terms of intensity, duration,
23 and frequency and generate thermal stress on marine ecosystems. In reef ecosystems, they are
24 one of the main causes of decreased presence and abundance of corals, invertebrates, and fish.
25 The deleterious capacity of thermal stress often depends upon biotic factors such as resource
26 availability (bottom-up control on predators) and predation (top-down control on prey). Despite
27 the evidence of thermal stress and biotic factors affecting individual species, the combined
28 effects of both stressors on the entire reef ecosystems are far less studied.

29 2. Here, using a food-web modeling approach, we estimated the rate of change in species' biomass
30 due to different MHW scenarios based on their physical characteristics. Specifically, we
31 modeled the mechanistic link between species' consumption rate and seawater temperature
32 (thermal stressor), simulating species' biomass dynamics for different MHW scenarios under
33 different trophic control assumptions (biotic factor).

- 34 3. We find that total reef ecosystem biomass declined by $10\% \pm 5\%$ under MHWs with severe
35 intensity and top-down control assumption. The bottom-up control assumption moderates the
36 total ecosystem biomass reduction by $5\% \pm 5\%$. Irrespective of the MHW scenario and the
37 trophic control assumption, the most substantial biomass changes occur among top, meso-
38 predators, and corals (5% to $20\% \pm 10\%$).
- 39 4. Since habitat degradation may lead to reef ecosystems governed by top-down control on prey,
40 our findings point to the critical importance of protecting reef ecosystems as a pivotal strategy
41 to alleviate the impacts of thermal stress induced by MHWs. Overall, our results provide a
42 unified understanding of the interplay between abiotic stressors and biotic factors in reef
43 ecosystems under extreme thermal events, offering insights into present baselines and future
44 ecological states for reef ecosystems.

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Marine Heat Waves (MHWs) are periods of unusually high ocean temperatures that last from
48 a few days to several months. (Hobday et al., 2016). These extreme events have profound and
49 widespread impacts on marine ecosystems services resulting in significant financial losses with
50 associated socio-economic consequences (Smith et al., 2021 and 2023; Olivier et al., 2021).
51 In this sense, understanding the response of marine ecosystems to climate change, particularly
52 MHWs, has been acknowledged as a major societal challenge to allocate conservation efforts
53 (Smith et al., 2021). Indeed, due to their abrupt nature, MHWs can rapidly push ecosystems
54 beyond their resilience limits, hindering species adaptation and acclimatization processes
55 (Gruber et al., 2021). Therefore, these extreme events pose a more severe threat to living
56 species than long-term global warming. Several studies show that MHW occurrence has
57 increased over the past century and suggest that these trends will continue in the future (Oliver
58 et al., 2018, Frölicher et al., 2018). It is not only the projected increase in the occurrence of

59 MHWs that is a concern for society and ecosystems but also their changes in characteristics
60 such as duration, intensity and frequency (Gupta et al., 2020). In this context, there is still a
61 need to better understand how marine ecosystems respond to specific characteristics of MHWs.

62 The majority of studies report negative MHWs effects on reef ecosystems, especially on corals
63 (IPCC, 2018). Coral death resulting from MHWs can lead to shifts in benthic community
64 composition and alterations in ecosystem structure and functioning (Darling et al., 2019;
65 Hughes et al., 2018; Ferrari et al., 2016). The severity and frequency of mass coral bleaching
66 associated with MHWs have increased over the last decades, severely impacting shallow
67 tropical reefs across the Pacific, Indian and Atlantic Oceans (Asner et al., 2022; Baum et al.,
68 2023; Ferreira et al., 2021; Mohanty et al., 2021). Moreover, the magnitude of these impacts
69 varies among regions. Coral mortality in the tropical South Atlantic Ocean is approximately
70 60% lower than in the Indo-Pacific and 50% lower than in the Caribbean sea (Mies et al., 2020).
71 This observed spatial variability in the reef ecosystem responses indicates that biological
72 factors modulate the thermal stress generated by MHWs.

73 Indeed, the abiotic stress induced by MHWs can be aggravated or moderated by biotic factors
74 such as trophic interactions (Miller et al. 2014). This is because the amount of food a species
75 eats (i.e., the species' consumption rate) depends on sea water temperature, resource availability
76 (bottom-up control on predators) and predation risk (top-down control on prey). For example,
77 fish predator cues increase the effect of MHWs on copepod's reproduction and consumption
78 rate (Truong et al. 2020). Reef damselfish *Stegastes nigricans* scares corallivorous fishes by
79 defending its food resources and so it provides physiological resistance against MHWs to corals
80 (Honeycutt et al. 2023). However, each of these examples does not quantify the minimum level
81 of predation risk and resource availability that generates negative effects of MHWs on marine

82 organisms. Thus there is an open area of research focusing on how biotic factors such as trophic
83 interactions can modulate the MHWs negative impacts on marine organisms.

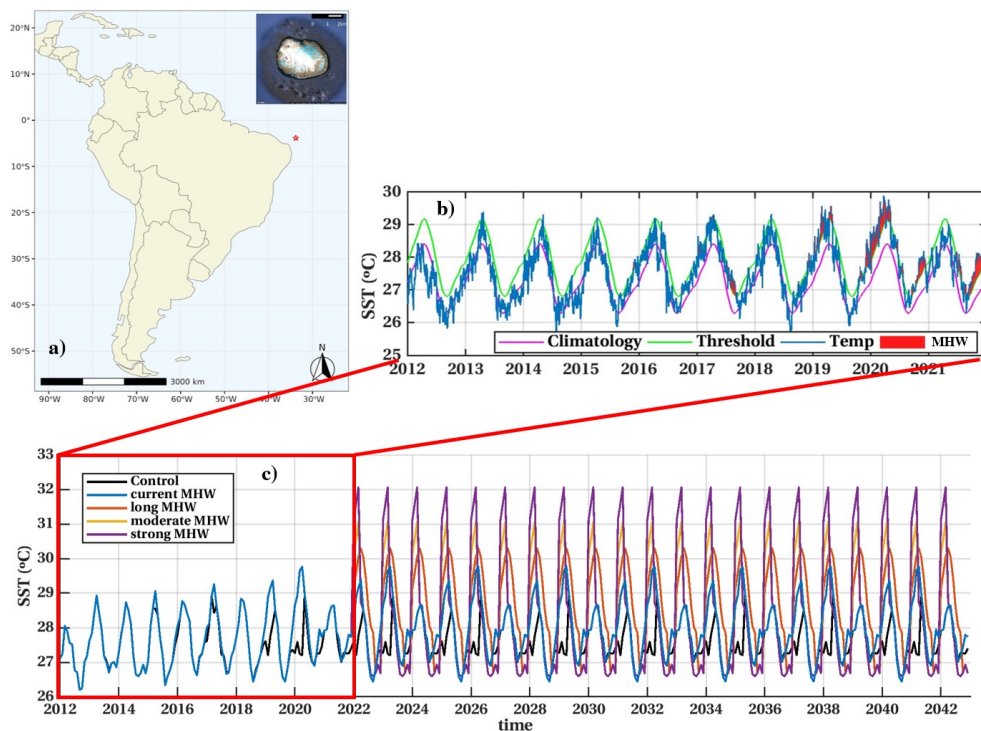
84 In this work, we used a food web modeling approach to address the following question: How
85 do Atlantic tropical reef ecosystems respond to different marine heat wave characteristics, such
86 as intensity and duration under different ecosystem trophic control assumptions? We
87 hypothesized that if the intensity and duration of MHWs increase, then species' biomass would
88 be negatively affected because an increase in sea water temperature negatively impacts species'
89 consumption rate (Volkoff & Rønnestad, 2020). We expected that this reduction in species
90 biomass would be more pronounced under a top-down trophic control assumption, because the
91 effects of predation risk and elevated temperature are additive given that higher predation risk
92 generates more physiological stress on prey (Miller et al. 2014, *Global Change Biology*).
93 Moreover, we expected that MHW intensity would be the most detrimental MHW
94 characteristic because intense MHWs induce extreme suboptimal temperature conditions
95 impacting species' consumption rate (e.g. Smith et al., 2023 and Gruber et al., 2021).

96 **2. Material and Methods**

97 **2.1 The Rocas Atoll reef ecosystem**

98 In this study we used the Rocas Atoll as a study case. The Rocas Atoll is located in the tropical
99 Southwest Atlantic. It is a pristine volcanic island that offers a natural laboratory for
100 understanding the impact of thermal stress on tropical reef ecosystems (Figure 1a). Its isolation
101 and protection status shield it from direct anthropogenic impacts such as pollution,
102 urbanization, and fishing, making it an ideal location for studying the effects of MHWs (Longo
103 et al., 2015, Brandão et al., 2017). However, since it is a shallow and non-turbid reef, it is more
104 susceptible than coastal reefs to bleaching due to thermal stress (Glynn, 1996; Takahashi et al.,

105 2004). This susceptibility was evidenced in 2019 when severe marine heatwaves caused the
106 highest recorded bleaching events in the Southwestern Atlantic, affecting reefs in Rocas Atoll,
107 Abrolhos coral reefs, and São Paulo rocky reefs (Banha et al., 2019; Duarte et al., 2020).
108 Despite this, Rocas Atoll remains one of the most effective marine protected areas in the
109 Southwestern Atlantic with minimal local anthropogenic impacts and it can serve as a natural
110 model system for evaluating the MHWs impacts on species' biomass dynamics.



111
112 **Figure 1** (a) Location of the Rocas Atoll (indicated with a red star) near Brazil, Southwest
113 Atlantic Ocean. The satellite image of the Rocas Atoll was retrieved from Google Maps through
114 *ggmap* package in R. (b) Sea Surface Temperature (SST) over the past decade, with detected
115 Marine Heat Waves (MHWs) indicated in red. The threshold corresponding to the 90th
116 percentile is indicated in green. The climatological mean computed over the period 1981-2021
117 is indicated in magenta. (c) Sea surface temperature time series used to force the ecosystem
118 model under different scenarios of MHW events.

119

120 **2.2 Marine heat waves detection using sea surface satellite data**

121 MHWs were identified using the definition proposed by Hobday et al. (2016). According to
122 their definition, MHWs are discrete and prolonged events characterized by anomalously warm
123 water temperatures that exceed the seasonally-varying 90th percentile for a duration of more
124 than five days (Figure 1b). This definition has been incorporated into a freely available software
125 tool in Matlab developed by Zhao and Marin (2019).

126 The daily Sea Surface Temperature (SST) data utilized in this study were obtained from the
127 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Optimum Interpolation Sea Surface
128 Temperature (NOAA OI SST V2.1; Reynolds et al., 2007). This data can be accessed freely on
129 the NOAA website at [https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-
130 interpolation/v2.1/access/avhrr/](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-interpolation/v2.1/access/avhrr/). This data set is an interpolation of remotely sensed SSTs from
131 the Advanced Very High-Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) imager into a regular grid of 0.25°
132 and daily temporal resolution from 1981 to the present. Our study focuses specifically on the
133 period from 2012 to 2021, as in situ ecological information from Rocas Atoll is available from
134 2012 onwards. However, for the purpose of identifying MHWs, the reference period used spans
135 from 1981 to 2021.

136 MHWs at Rocas Atoll have increased in intensity and duration since 2019 (Figure 1b). In
137 particular, the year 2021 witnessed the longest mean MHW duration (90 days) and the most
138 intense MHW event (1° above the climatological mean). We, therefore, focused on the period
139 from 2019 to 2021 when analyzing the effects of past MHWs and defined scenarios considering
140 the characteristics of the most extreme MHW of 2021 (see section 2.5).

141 **2.3 Food web modeling approach**

142 **2.3.1 The Rocas Atoll Ecopath model**

143 The food web model of the Rocas Atoll reef ecosystem was implemented within Ecopath-
144 Ecosim software (EwE, v. 6.6.8 on Windows 11, <https://ecopath.org/>). The temporal dynamic
145 module, Ecosim, simulates changes in the biomass, production, consumption, and diets of
146 species/functional groups using a previous defined Ecopath model.

147 We updated the Rocas Atoll Ecopath model published by Capitani et al. (2021) by adding 13
148 species/functional groups. These are: particulate organic matter, dissolved organic matter,
149 opportunistic pathogens microbes, mutualist microbes, sponges, fleshy macroalgae, crustose
150 corraline algae, polychaeta, nudibranchia, nematoda, echinoderms/large gastropods, the black
151 triggerfish *Melichthys niger* and the butterflyfish *Chaetodon* spp. We added these 13
152 components in order to provide a more realistic description of the trophic interactions present
153 in the Rocas Atoll reef ecosystem. We aggregated several species into functional groups with
154 other species of similar life history traits, diet composition and shared predators in the interest
155 of keeping the model results easy to deal with. We refer the reader to the supplementary
156 materials of this study and Capitani et al. (2021) for functional group composition and
157 parameterization of the updated Rocas Atoll Ecopath model. Full details of the EwE modeling
158 approach can be obtained from main references (Christensen and Walters 2004; Heymans et
159 al., 2016).

160 **2.3.2 Species biomass simulations over time and trophic control assumptions**

161 The dynamic module Ecosim re-expresses the master equations of Ecopath as a system of
162 differential equations to account for changes in species biomass, production and consumption
163 over time due to changes in environmental parameters and mortality rates (Walters et al., 1997).
164 In practice, the Rocas Atoll Ecopath model was used to set initial conditions for Ecosim

165 simulations, and it was used to provide estimates of some of the consumption-related and
 166 production-related parameters of the Ecosim model. The system of differential equations is
 167 solved using an Adams-Bashford integration routine. The Ecosim prediction for type-*i* prey
 168 biomass to type-*j* predators biomass is of the functional form:

169

$$170 \quad \frac{dB_i}{dt} = g_i \cdot \sum_j Q_{ji} - \sum_j Q_{ij} + I_i - (F_i + M_i + e_i) \cdot B_i \quad (Eq. 1)$$

171 where B_i is the biomass of type-*i* prey; g_i is growth efficiency of type-*i* prey; Q_{ji} is
 172 consumption rate of prey *i*; Q_{ij} is consumption rate by all predators *j*; I is the immigration rate;
 173 F is fishing mortality and e is the emigration rate. Consumption rates Q are estimated following
 174 the ‘foraging arena’ concept (Ahrens et al. 2012; Walters et al., 1997) where species’ biomass
 175 B is divided into two components, one vulnerable and other invulnerable to predation. For a
 176 given prey-predator couple (*i, j*), the consumption rate Q of prey *i* by predator *j* is estimated as
 177 follows (Eq.2):

$$178 \quad Q_{ij} = \frac{\left(\frac{a_{ij} \cdot v_{ij} \cdot B_i \cdot B_j \cdot T_i \cdot T_j \cdot M_{ij}}{D_j} \right)}{v_{ij} + v_{ij} \cdot T_i \cdot M_{ij} + \left(\frac{a_{ij} \cdot M_{ij} \cdot B_j \cdot T_j}{D_j} \right)} \cdot S_{ij}f(e_e, t) \quad (Eq. 2)$$

179 where, a_{ij} is the effective search rate for *i* by *j*, v_{ij} is the vulnerability rate expressing how fast
 180 the prey biomass *i* is available to predator *j* (e.g. biotic factor tested); B_i is the prey biomass;
 181 B_j is the predator biomass; T_i and T_j are the relative feeding time for prey and predator; M_{ij} is
 182 the mediation forcing effects; D_j is the effects of handling time as a limit to consumption rate
 183 and S_{ij} is a scalar multiplier (0 to 1) linked to a gaussian environmental response function

184 $f(e_e, t)$ to account for external abiotic stressors which change over time (e.g., sea water
185 temperature).

186 It is important to note that the vulnerability rate v_{ij} is the main parameter related to the trophic
187 control assumptions tested in this study. For values of v_{ij} greater than 2, a large increase in the
188 prey biomass B_i results in a large increase in the predator consumption rate Q_{ij} . Thus, for values
189 of v_{ij} greater than 2, the quantity of prey i biomass consumed by predator is mainly influenced
190 by predator j biomass. The ecosystem is, then, under top-down trophic control. Conversely,
191 when v_{ij} tends to 1, a large increase in prey biomass B_i has a lower impact on the predator
192 consumption rate Q_{ij} ; the ecosystem is, then, under bottom-up trophic control. Here we tested
193 three trophic control assumptions: $v_{ij} = 1$ as bottom-up control assumption, $v_{ij} = 2$ as
194 mixed trophic control assumption and $v_{ij} = 10$ as top-down control assumption.

195 **2.3.3 Mechanistic link between sea water temperature and consumption rate in Ecosim**

196 We applied species' thermal performance curves in Ecosim as gaussian environmental
197 response functions. We used the thermal performance curves to modify the consumption rate
198 Q_{ij} of each species/functional group, where the maximum consumption rate occurred at the
199 optimum temperature, and consumption rates declined as temperature departed from the
200 optimum (Eq. 2). For primary producers we used thermal performance curves to modify the
201 primary producers' growth efficiency (g , Eq. 1). We defined the intercept between each
202 species-specific thermal performance curve and the monthly average sea water temperature to
203 calculate a scalar factor S_{ij} with a maximum multiplier of 1 for optimum temperature (Bentley
204 et al., 2017). The scalar factor S_{ij} by definition declines as the average sea water temperature
205 deviates from the optimum at a rate determined by the thermal performance curve standard
206 deviations (Bentley et al., 2017; Serpetti et al., 2017; Corrales et al., 2018).

207 We used species distribution data and abundance to produce thermal performance curves
208 following steps described by Waldock et al. (2019). For each species we: (1) produced a
209 distribution model using the s-jSDM algorithm (Pichler and Hartig, 2021) to estimate the upper
210 and lower thermal occurrence limits (as the 2.5% and 97.5% percentiles), then (2) we used a
211 linear model to filter out the effect of predictors other than temperature (bathymetry, salinity,
212 primary productivity and available phytoplankton carbon) on abundance, and lastly (3) we
213 applied an additive model with temperature as sole predictor in the linear model residuals to
214 project which temperature produces the highest abundance (Waldock et. al. 2019). To avoid
215 collinearity issues, we combined environmental descriptors used in the s-jSDM and the linear
216 models using a spatial principal component analysis. Since nearly all species we assessed are
217 restricted to reefs, we trimmed all variables to include only cells with depths ranging between
218 0 and 30 m. We obtained reef fish biomass data (as abundance indicator) from Morais et al.
219 (2017), percentage cover of sessiles organisms from Aued et al. (2018) and sea surface
220 temperature rasters (alongside other environmental covariables used in the s-jSDM) from Bio-
221 ORACLE (Assis et al. 2018). As not all species and/or functional groups had available data on
222 abundance, we resorted to Aquamaps distribution repository to construct thermal performance
223 curves based on temperature quantile distribution (Kaschner et al., 2019). Thermal
224 performance curves for each species/functional group are presented in the supplementary
225 materials, Figure 3.

226 **2.3.4 MHWs scenarios**

227 We conducted multiple temporal simulations to examine the impacts of MHWS on species'
228 biomass. These simulations encompassed various scenarios of MHWs, including a scenario
229 comprising MHWs with similar characteristics as the ones reported in the past (current MHW),
230 one with longer lasting MHWs (long MHWs) and two with increased MHW intensity (ranging

231 from moderate to strong) (Figure 2a). Each scenario involved running the ecosystem model
 232 (Figure 2b) over the period from 2012 to 2042, using temperature time series as the
 233 environmental driver (Eq. 2). The satellite-derived sea surface temperature time series for the
 234 period 2012-2021 was used in all the scenarios (Figure 1b), except for the control scenario. The
 235 sea surface temperature time series for this control scenario was built by removing the effects
 236 of MHWs: the sea surface temperature values during MHW events were replaced with
 237 climatological values (Figure 1c; black curve). Perturbations corresponding to each MHW
 238 scenario were introduced for the period 2022-2042. Details on the temperature time series for
 239 each scenario are provided in Table 1. For each scenario, the Ecosim model was run using the
 240 three trophic assumptions (Figure 2c).

241 **Table 1** Marine Heat Waves (MHWs) scenarios used (see Fig. 3 for details about the
 242 methodological approach adopted).

Scenario	Temperature forcing 2012-2021	Temperature forcing 2022-2042	Color in Figure 2c
Control	Satellite Sea Surface Temperature (SST) with MHWs removed: MHW temperature values replaced by the climatological mean	Satellite SST from 2019-2021 with MHWs removed repeated 7 consecutive times over the period 2022-2042	black
Current	Satellite Sea Surface Temperature (SST)	Satellite SST from 2019-2021 repeated 7 consecutive times over the period 2022-2042	blue
Long	Satellite Sea Surface Temperature (SST)	Every year has a 10-month-long MHW with 1° above 90% percentile threshold	orange
Moderate	Satellite Sea Surface Temperature (SST)	Every year has a 3-month-long MHW with 2 ° above the 90% percentile threshold	yellow
Strong	Satellite Sea Surface Temperature (SST)	Every year has a 3 month long MHW with 3 ° above the 90% percentiles threshold	purple

243 The model outputs were then used to compute the rate of change in biomass (R) for each species
 244 due to the occurrence of MHWs (Figure 2d and Eq. 3). This was accomplished by comparing

245 the biomass of each scenario to the biomass of the control scenario. The calculation of R is
246 defined as follows:

$$247 \quad R = \frac{Biomass(S) - Biomass(control)}{Biomass(control)} * 100 \quad (Eq. 3)$$

248

249 where S refers to a particular scenario (current, long, moderate or strong).

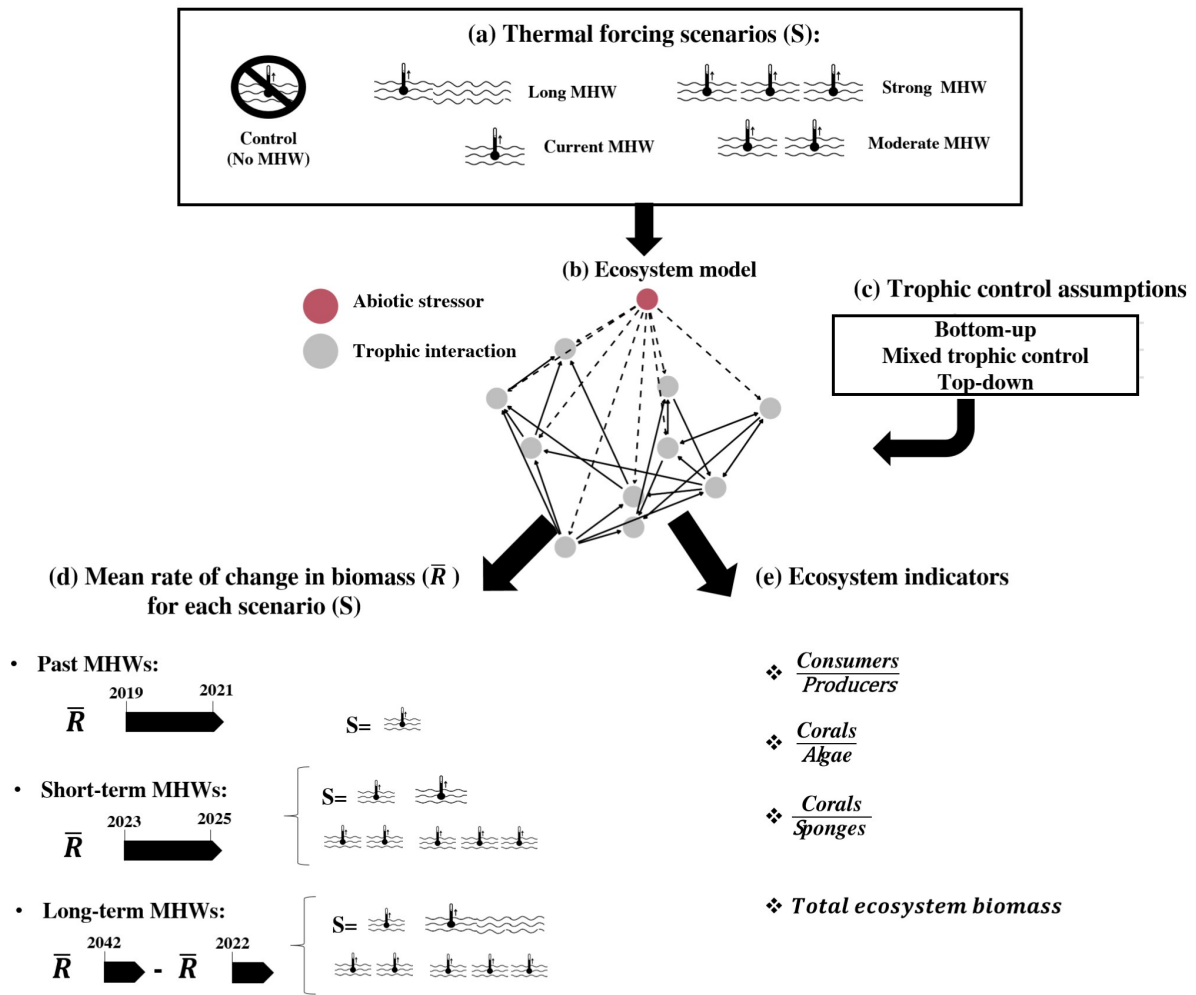
250 Species experiencing an increase in mean rate of change in biomass (positive R values) were
251 considered as winners while those exhibiting a decrease (negative R values) were considered
252 as losers.

253 We examined the effects of MHWs over different time scales. To assess the past impact of
254 MHWs, we calculated the averaged R-value over the period from 2019 to 2022. For short-
255 term effects, we computed the average R-value over the years 2023 to 2025. Additionally, we
256 analyzed the long-term or accumulated effects by comparing the mean R-value in 2022 with
257 that in 2042 (Figure 2d).

258 **2.3.5 Ecosystem Indicators**

259 We intended to describe the overall impacts of MHWs on the Rocas Atoll's reef ecosystem
260 using four ecosystem indicators. We used Ecosim outputs to compute the relative changes of
261 the four ecosystem indicators in the last year of the simulation (2042) with respect to 2022
262 (Figure 2e). These ecosystem indicators are: 1) biomass ratio of consumers to primary
263 producers, defined as biomass units of consumers without the microbial community per unit of
264 primary producers biomass (phytoplankton, macroalgae, turf algae and crustose coralline
265 algae); 2) biomass ratio of corals to algae defined as biomass units of scleractinian corals per

266 unit of benthic primary producers (macroalgae, turf algae and crustose coralline algae), 3) the
 267 biomass ratio of coral to sponges defined as biomass units of scleractinian corals per unit of
 268 sponges (i.e., phylum Porifera) and 4) total ecosystem biomass as the sum of primary producers
 269 and consumers biomass (excluding particulate organic matter and dissolved organic matter).



270

271 **Figure 2** Summary of the methodological approach used in this study. (a) Thermal forcing
 272 scenarios of Marine Heat Waves (MHWs), (b) the ecosystem model for the Rocas Atoll, (c)
 273 three trophic assumptions used for the parameterization of the predator–prey interactions in the
 274 Ecosim model, (d) the rate of change in species’ biomass due to MHWs averaged over different
 275 periods, and (e) the ecosystem indicators that were evaluated.

276 **2.3.6 Uncertainty for species biomass simulations under MHWs scenarios**

277 The Monte Carlo routine in Ecosim was used to perform sensitivity analyses for species
278 biomass simulations under MHWs scenarios. This routine tests the sensitivity of Ecosim’s
279 output to Ecopath input parameters by drawing input parameters from a uniform distribution
280 centered on the baseline Ecopath values with the coefficients of variation (CV) set to default
281 0.1 (Christensen and Walters 2004; Steenbeek et al., 2018). In our study, we set coefficients of
282 variation as 0.1 for B (biomass per unit area), P/B (Production/Biomass), Q/B
283 (Consumption/Biomass) parameters. We set coefficients of variation as 0.05 for the diet
284 composition parameter of each species/functional group. We ran 500 Monte Carlo simulations
285 for each scenario based on coefficients of variation to determine the error in the rate of change
286 in biomass (R). We refer the reader to the “Error estimation of the rate of change in species’
287 biomass” section in the supplementary material.

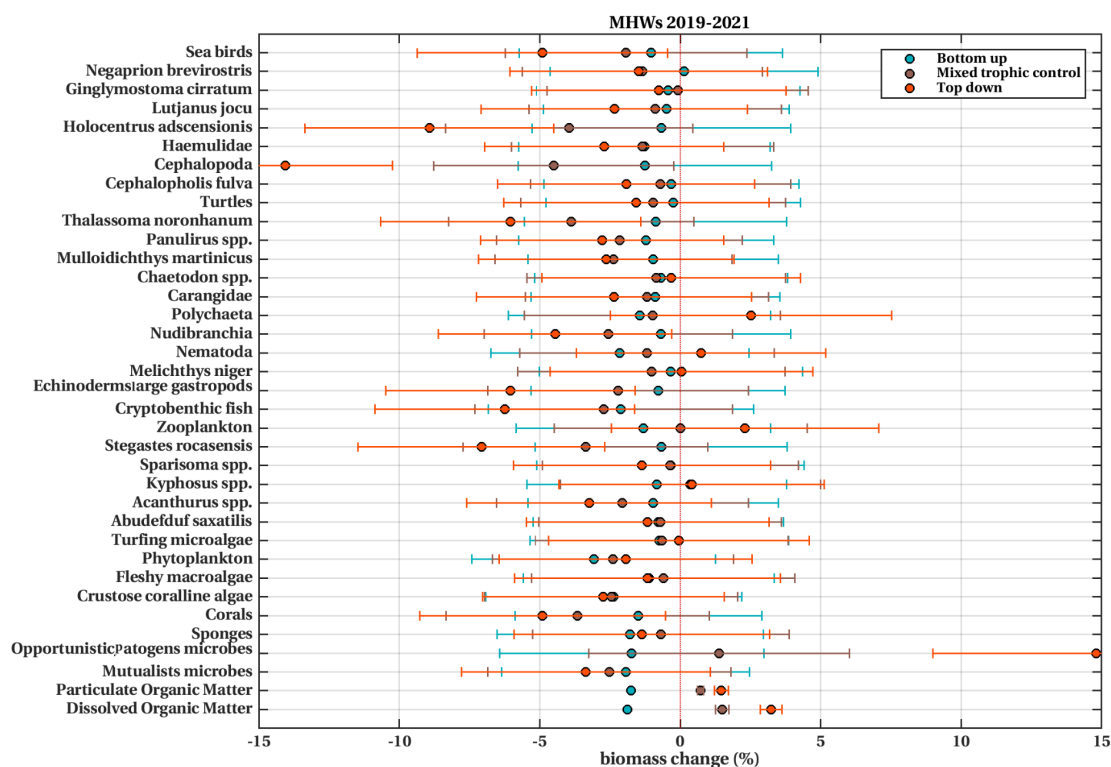
288 All statistical analyses were performed in R studio, an IDE for R v 4.3.1 (R Core Team, 2021)
289 and Matlab (v R2017b). Within the R software, we used these packages for data aggregation
290 and visualization *tidyverse* (v 2.0; Wickham et al., 2019). For spatial data analysis we used
291 *rnaturaleart* (v 0.3.4; Massicotte et al. 2023), *ggmap* (v 3.0; Kahle & Wickham, 2019), *ggsn*
292 (v 0.5; Baquero, 2022) and *ggspatial* (v 1.1.9; Dunnington et al. 2023). *qgam* (v 1.3.4; Fasiolo
293 et al. 2021), *sdmpredictors* (v 0.2.15; Bosh et al. 2023), *aquamapsdata* (v 0.1.4; Kaschner et
294 al. 2019) for species’ thermal performance curves.

295 **3. Results**

296 **3.1 Marine heat waves impacts on species’ biomass**

297 **3.1.1 Marine heat waves impact over the Past (2019-2021)**

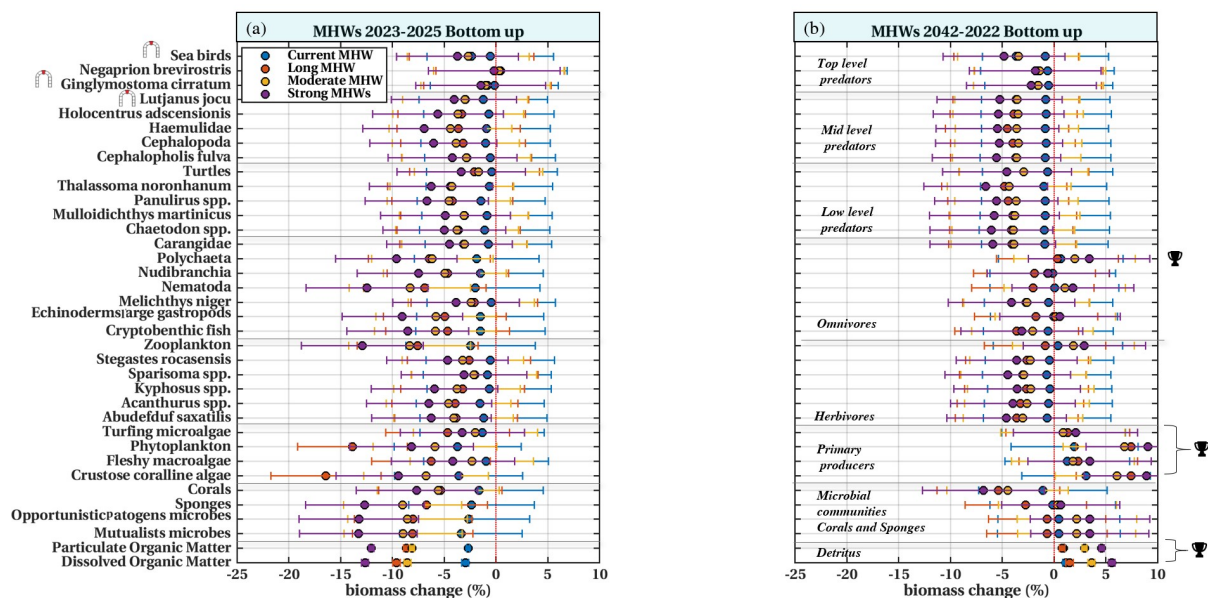
298 The largest changes in species' biomass for the period 2019-2021 (in some cases larger than
 299 10%) occurred under the top-down control assumption (Figure 3). We found an increase in the
 300 mean rate of change of biomass of omnivore fish, herbivore fish, mutualistic microbes, and
 301 dissolved organic matter under mixed and top-down trophic control assumptions (Figure 3).
 302 The majority of the predicted changes were relatively small, not exceeding 5%, with error bars
 303 of similar magnitudes (Figure 3).



304
 305 **Figure 3** Species' biomass change under different ecosystem's trophic control assumptions
 306 (bottom-up, mixed and top-down) for the period 2019-2021. Dots represent the mean and the
 307 bars represent the respective error. Species/functional groups in the y axis are ordered by
 308 trophic level.

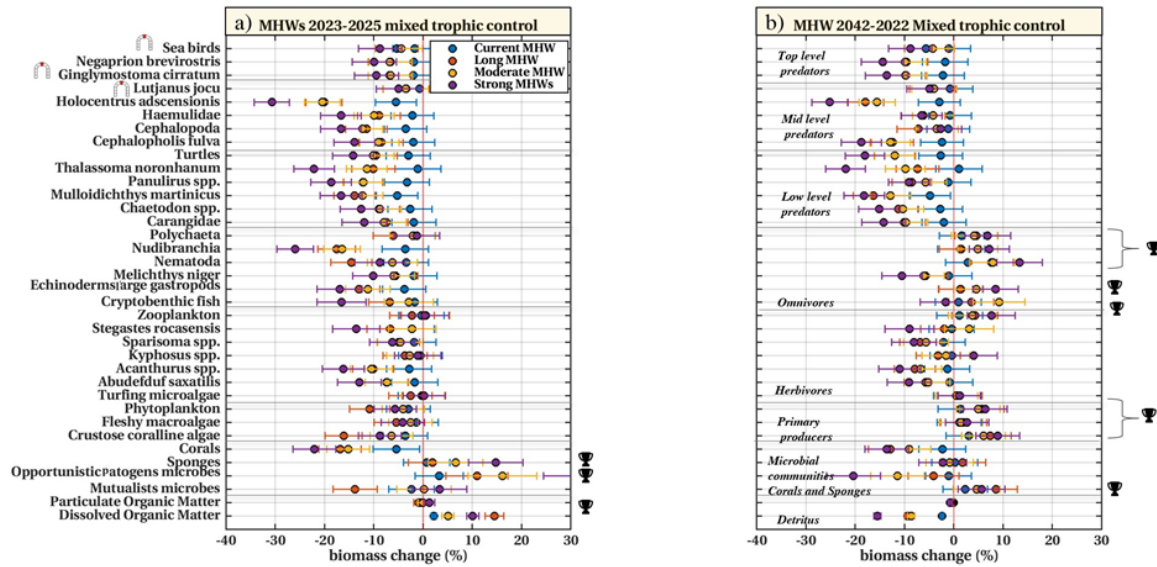
309 **3.1.2 MHWs short-term impacts on species' biomass**
 310

311 Under the bottom-up assumption, the short-term (2023-2025) mean rate of change in species’
 312 biomass decreased by less than 17% (Figure 4a). Under the mixed trophic control assumption,
 313 dissolved organic matter, particulate organic matter, opportunistic microbes and sponges
 314 biomass increased across all MHW scenarios (Figure 5a and Figure 4 from Supplementary
 315 material). Under top-down assumption zooplankton and polychaeta increased in biomass
 316 (Figure 6a). Low-level predator fish *Holocentrus adscensionis*, nudibranchs, echinoderms and
 317 corals biomass decreased more than 40% under the long, moderate, and strong MHW scenarios,
 318 while opportunistic pathogens microbes biomass increased more than 50% (Figure 6a).
 319 Irrespective of the trophic control assumption, the strong MHW scenario induced the largest
 320 changes in biomass, while the long and moderate scenarios induced changes of a similar order
 321 of magnitude. Across all scenarios, keystone species such as sea birds, the nurse shark
 322 *Ginglymostoma cirratum* and the mid-level predator *Lujanus jocu* decreased in biomass.

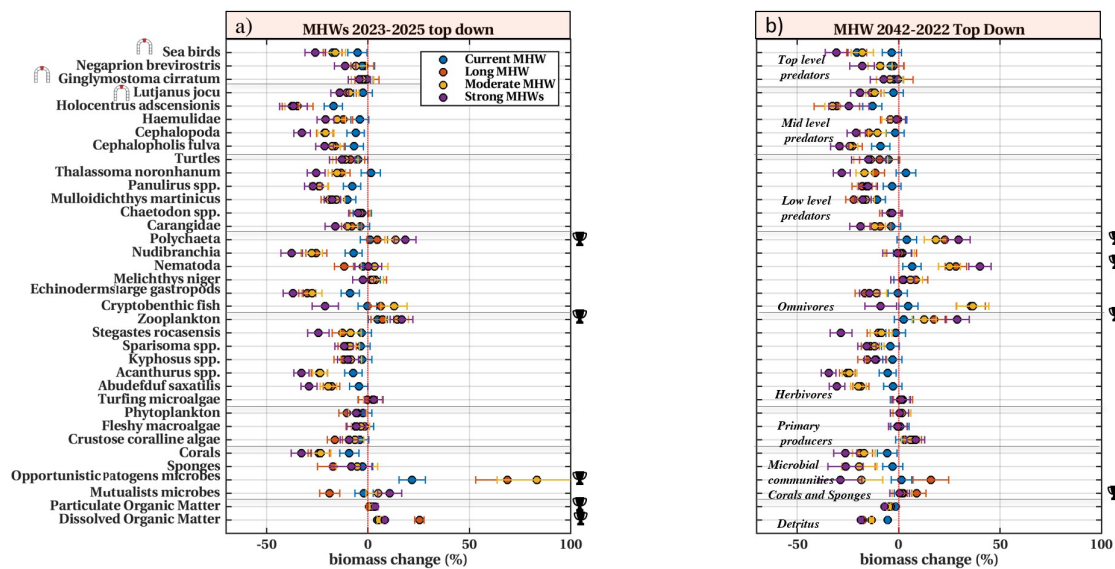


323
 324 **Figure 4** Short-term (a) and long-term (b) species’ biomass change due to MHWs under the
 325 bottom-up trophic control assumption. Dots represent the mean and the bars the respective

326 error. Functional groups placed in the y axis are ordered by trophic level. Winners species are
 327 indicated with a black trophy.



328
 329 **Figure 5** Short-term (a) and long-term (b) biomass' rate of change due to MHWs under the
 330 Mixed trophic control assumption. Dots represent the mean and the bars the respective error.
 331 Functional groups placed in the y axis are ordered by trophic level. Winners species are
 332 indicated with a black trophy.



333
 16

334 **Figure 6** Short-term (a) and long-term (b) biomass's rate of change due to MHWs under the
335 top-down trophic control assumption. Dots represent the mean and the bars the respective
336 error. Functional groups placed in the y axis are ordered by trophic level. Winners species are
337 indicated with a black trophy.

338 **3.1.3 MHWs long-term impacts on species' biomass**

339 The long-term impact of MHWs, considering the current scenario, is relatively small compared
340 to the impacts induced by the strong, moderate, and long scenarios under all trophic control
341 assumptions (Figures 4b, 5b and 6b).

342 We observed that the most negatively impacted species are low, top and mid-level predators
343 (Figure 4b, Figure 5b 6b and Figure 4 from supplementary material) with the largest changes
344 obtained with the top-down assumption. Sea birds, the butterflyfish *Cephalopholis fulva* and the
345 Noronha wrasse *Thalassoma norohanum*, experienced ~40% biomass reduction under top-
346 down control and the strong MHWs scenario (Fig. 7b).

347 We observed a general decline in species' biomass due to the cumulative effect of MHWs
348 under the bottom-up assumption (Figure 4b). However, some species showed a biomass
349 increase such as primary producers, detritus and polychaeta (Figure 4b). These positive
350 changes in biomass were less than 5% and of the same order of magnitude as the error except
351 for phytoplankton and crustose coralline algae.

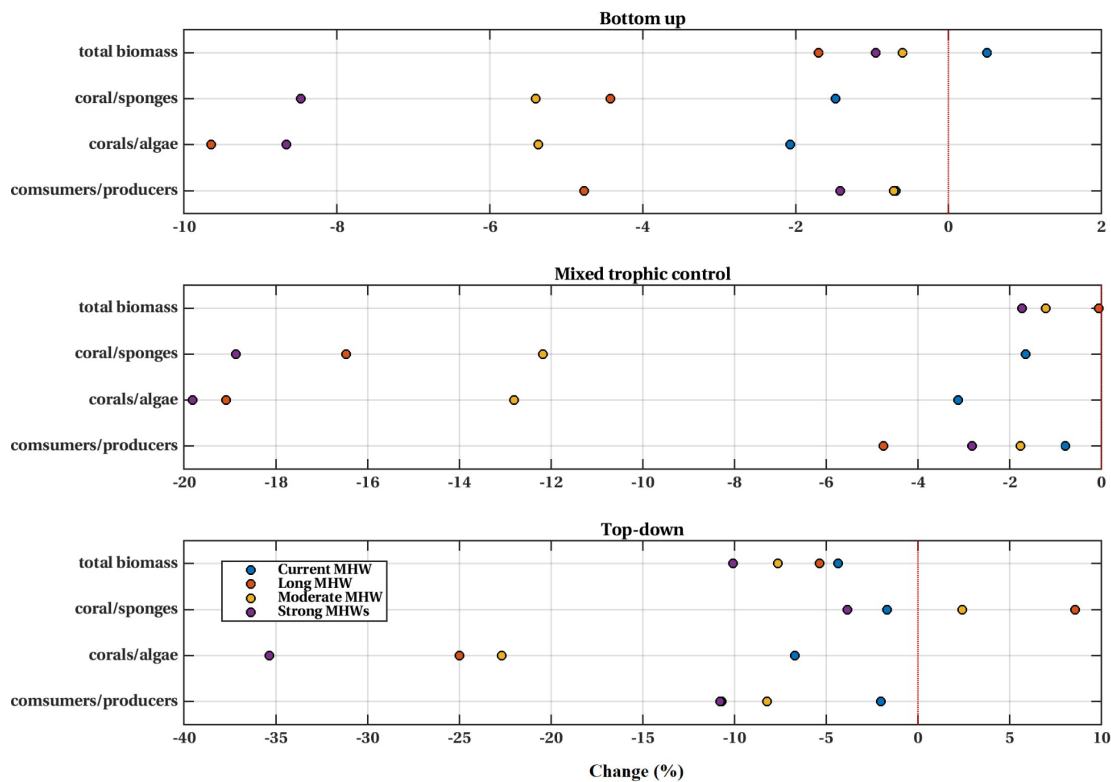
352 Some species emerged as clear winners under specific MHWs scenarios under the mixed
353 trophic control and top-down assumptions (Figure 5b and 6b). The majority of omnivores
354 (except the black triggerfish *Melichthys niger*), primary producers and mutualistic microbes
355 biomass increased by more than 7% (mixed trophic control) and 20 % (top-down control)
356 (Figure 5b and 6b and Figure 4 supplementary material).

357 **3.2 Relative changes in ecosystem indicators**

358

359 We registered a general decrease for the ecosystem indicators under the top-down trophic
360 control assumption (Figure 7). An exception is the coral/sponges ratio that showed an increase
361 of 2% and 9% under the moderate and long MHWs scenarios (Figure 7).

362 MHWs with large intensity under the top-down control assumption lead to the most
363 considerable changes in total ecosystem biomass (10%). Under bottom-up and mixed trophic
364 control, total ecosystem biomass changes do not exceed 2%.



365

366 **Figure 7** Ecosystem indicators percent change for each trophic control assumption and Marine
367 Heat Waves (MHW) scenarios. The vertical red line indicates the 0% change.

368 **4. Discussion**

369 This study represents a comprehensive modeling exercise of the combined effects of abiotic
370 stressor (MHWs) and biotic factor (food web trophic control) on tropical Atlantic reef

371 ecosystems. Our results partially confirm our hypothesis that species' biomass changes are
372 negatively impacted by the direct effects of thermal stress (i.e. intensity and duration of MHWs)
373 and the indirect effects mediated by resource availability and predation risk (i.e. food web
374 trophic control). On the other hand, as expected, we find a more pronounced reduction in
375 species' biomass under the top-down trophic control assumption with, in particular, stronger
376 MHWs. Overall, our results highlight that trophic interactions should be considered as an
377 important biotic factor that conditions the resilience of reef ecosystems to the thermal stress in
378 face of the expected increase in the number of MHWs.

379 **4.1 Mechanisms leading to winners**

380 Although the majority of species decline in biomass under the effect of MHWs regardless of
381 their characteristics and the trophic control assumption, which agrees with our hypothesis,
382 some species exhibit an increase in biomass and emerge as winners in particular circumstances.
383 In fact, some studies have identified winners and losers in the Northeast Pacific after the 2013-
384 2015 MHWs (Cavole et al., 2016) and after the 2014-2016 MHW affecting the West Coast of
385 Canada and US (Free et al., 2023).

386 In most cases, we observed that these biomass increases are driven by trophic interactions. For
387 instance, the short-term increase (over 2023-2025) in sponges biomass observed in all scenarios
388 under the mixed trophic control assumption is probably due to the reduction of the main sponge
389 predators, Nudibranchia and Polychaeta, as well as the increase in dissolved organic matter and
390 zooplankton, which are the main components of the sponge's diet. However, in the long term,
391 the rate of change in sponges' biomass is almost negligible. In the long term, primary producers
392 emerge as winners in all scenarios under the bottom-up assumption, mainly because of the
393 decrease in the biomass of herbivores and the increase of detritus, which is a source of
394 nutrients. Additionally, the zooplankton increase observed in all scenarios under the top-down

395 assumption is probably caused by the decrease in predators such as fish, corals, and sponges.

396 **4.2 General Long-term Impact of MHWs in the Ecosystem**

397 Under all MHWs scenarios and trophic control assumption, we observe a consistent decrease
398 in the coral/algae indicator and consumer/producer indicator. The decrease in coral/algae
399 indicator points at the ecosystem phase shift from coral to algae-dominated reef in all scenarios
400 and under all trophic control assumptions. Since South Atlantic reef ecosystems are algae-
401 dominated, the decrease in the ratio coral/ algae confirms a reef state with less habitat
402 complexity and more pathogen microbial biomass as shown by Nelson et al. 2023. This is also
403 consistent with previous studies that have documented shifts from coral-dominated reefs to reef
404 systems characterized by turf and fleshy macroalgae (Barott and Rohwer, 2012, Pawlik et al.,
405 2016). The model predicts that the transition towards algal dominance also results in a
406 consistent increase in zooplankton.

407 The decrease in the consumers/producers indicator suggests that more primary producers'
408 biomass is available to sustain consumers' biomass but also implies a decrease in consumers'
409 biomass. The decrease in low, mid and top predators that occur under top-down and bottom-
410 up assumptions results in the decrease in producers/consumers indicator. This indicator may
411 also be related to the magnitude of intra and inter-specific competition for primary resources
412 leading to shifts in ecosystem's trophic control (i.e., from bottom-up to top-down).

413 Finally, the decrease in the coral/ sponges indicator observed in the majority of scenarios
414 suggests more sponges' biomass per reef unit area. The negative values associated with this
415 indicator may be reflecting changes in the spatially competitive interactions between corals,
416 sponges and algae. Moreover, this indicator may suggest an alteration in reef's biogeochemical
417 cycling since sponges play a key role in transferring the energy and nutrients from dissolved
418 organic matter to higher trophic levels (Rix et al. 2016).

419 Overall, the long-term changes in biomass towards lower trophic level species suggest a
420 shortening of trophic chains and simplification of the food web.

421 **4.3 Trophic control assumptions in the Rocas Atoll reef ecosystem**

422
423 Since the Rocas Atoll reef ecosystem is highly preserved we hypothesized that the ecosystem
424 is dominated by a bottom-up trophic control or by a mixed trophic control (Ahrens et al. 2012;
425 Rehren et al., 2022). This means that in this ecosystem there is enough habitat heterogeneity to
426 let prey hinder or escape from predators. In this sense, the relatively small changes that our
427 food web model predicts under the bottom-up control are consistent with the changes reported
428 in the literature for the Rocas Atoll under past MHW events (Gaspar et al., 2021). If a top-
429 down control is assumed, we expect larger and non-linear changes in species' biomass. Indeed,
430 under a top-down assumption, the amount of prey consumed by the predator is the product of
431 *predator* * prey biomass, (i.e., the predator biomass impacts on how much of the prey is
432 consumed). Such a situation may occur when prey has no refuge and it is always taken upon
433 being encountered by a predator. This top-down assumption is consistent with less protected
434 ecosystems with higher habitat degradation, where both biotic factors and abiotic stressors are
435 more prevalent. Consequently, our findings strongly suggest that protecting reef ecosystems
436 can significantly alleviate the impacts of thermal stress-induced by MHWs.

437 **4.4 Model limitations**

438 It is important to consider several caveats associated with our analysis. First and foremost, the
439 outcomes obtained in terms of biomass responses are intricately linked to the thermal
440 performance characteristics of the species, encompassing their shape and magnitude. While we
441 dedicated significant efforts to accurately compute these thermal performances, it is crucial to
442 acknowledge that additional studies are necessary to enhance the level of certainty surrounding
443 our findings.

444 Secondly, our model does not account for potential future acclimatization or adaptation

445 mechanisms that species might undergo. This consideration holds substantial relevance, as
446 species may have certain ability to adjust to changing environmental conditions over time
447 (Garant 2020). It is a facet that merits attention for a more comprehensive understanding of the
448 dynamics at play.

449 Lastly, a fundamental assumption underpinning our analysis is that the results hold validity
450 predominantly for MHWs with extensive vertical and horizontal dimensions, thus potentially
451 limiting species' capacity to seek out thermal refuges. However, it is worth noting that the
452 applicability of our findings might differ in scenarios where MHWs exhibit distinct spatial
453 characteristics. This, however, may be less relevant in our case study due to the shallower
454 condition of our study area.

455

456 **4.5 How realistic are the simulated MHWs?**

457 Although climate models are known to have limitations in accurately reproducing extreme
458 events near the coast and to have a too-coarse resolution, we investigate the projected
459 temperature time series at Rocas Atoll using CMIP6 climate models (see Figure 5 in the
460 Supplementary material) to assess the consistency of proposed scenarios with these model
461 outputs.

462 As shown in Figure 1c, the “scenario long” implies MHWs reaching temperature with peaks
463 of 30°C, moderate peaks of 31°C and strong peaks of 32°C. The analysis of projected time
464 series from CMIP6 indicates that these temperature values are within a reasonable range.
465 Specifically, peaks of 30°C and 31°C are recurrent in the majority of the climate models from
466 the beginning of 2022, and some climate models show occasional peaks of 32°C during the
467 period from 2022 to 2042. Interestingly, beyond 2042, the CMIP6 time series show peaks
468 exceeding 35°C by the end of the century. This suggests that the reported changes in biomass

469 described in this study could be far more extreme in the future. Despite the uncertainties
470 associated with climate modeling, the CMIP6 time series raises important concerns about the
471 potential impacts of such extreme temperatures on the marine ecosystem at Rocas Atoll.

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482

483 **Conflict of interest**

484 The contact author declares that neither of the authors has any competing interests.

485 **Authors contribution**

486 Camila Artana and Leonardo Capitani were involved in conceptualisation, methodology,
487 investigation, formal analysis, visualization and writing original draft. Gabriel Santos Garcia
488 was involved in methodology, review and editing. Ronaldo Angelini and Marta Coll were
489 involved in conceptualisation, methodology, formal analysis, funding acquisition, supervision
490 and review and editing. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval
491 for publication.

492 **Statement on inclusion**

493 Our study brings together authors from a number of different countries, including scientists
494 based in the country where the study was carried out. All authors were engaged early on with
495 the research and study design to ensure that the diverse sets of perspectives they represent was
496 considered from the onset. Whenever relevant, literature published by scientists from the region
497 was cited; efforts were made to consider relevant work published in the local language.

498 **Data availability statement**

499
500 The raw data, the Rocas Atoll's food web model and the R code for data analysis that support
501 the findings of this study are freely available in the GitHub repository:
502 https://github.com/leomarameo7/MHW_trophic_interactions. The sea surface temperature
503 from satellite data can be accessed freely on the NOAA website at
504 [https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-interpolation/v2.1/access/avhrr/)
505 [interpolation/v2.1/access/avhrr/](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-interpolation/v2.1/access/avhrr/).

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