

1 **Temperate macroalgae impacts tropical fish recruitment at forefronts of range-**
2 **expansion**

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13 Fax: +61 2 9514 4079

14 Abstract: 254

15 Total words: 8049

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23 **Abstract**

24

25 Warming waters and changing ocean currents are increasing the supply of tropical fish larvae
26 to temperate regions where they are exposed to range of novel habitats, namely temperate
27 macroalgae and barren reefs. Here, we use underwater surveys on the temperate reefs of
28 southeastern (SE) Australia and western Japan (~33.5° N and S, respectively) to investigate
29 how temperate macroalgal and non-macroalgal habitats influence recruitment success of a
30 range of tropical fishes.. We show that temperate macroalgae strongly effects recruitment of
31 many tropical fish species in both regions, and across three years in SE Australia. Densities
32 and richness of recruiting tropical fishes, primarily planktivores and herbivores, were over
33 seven times greater in non-macroalgal compared to macroalgal reef habitat. Species and
34 trophic diversity (*K*-dominance) were also greater in non-macroalgal habitat. Temperate
35 macroalgal cover was a stronger predictor of tropical fish assemblages than temperate fish
36 assemblages, reef rugosities or wave exposure. Tropical fish richness, diversity and density
37 were greater in barren reef than reef dominated by turfing algae, at least in SE Australia. One
38 common species, the neon damselfish (*Pomacentrus coelestis*), chose non-macroalgal habitat
39 for settlement over temperate macroalgae in an aquarium experiment. This study highlights
40 that temperate macroalgae may partly account for spatial variation in recruitment success of
41 many tropical fishes, so that habitat composition of temperate reefs may need to be
42 considered to accurately predict their geographic response to climate change.

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45 **Keywords:** Climate change, kelp forest, novel habitat, poleward range-shift, temperate
46 rocky reef, reef fishes

47

48 **Introduction**

49

50 Ocean warming is leading to rapid and widespread poleward shifts in the geographic
51 distribution of many marine species (Thomas et al. 2004; Harley et al. 2006). This climate-
52 driven redistribution of marine organisms is altering the composition and food web structure
53 of coastal ecosystems, often negatively affecting human societies that depend on them for
54 resources and economic stability (Cheung et al. 2009; Pereira et al. 2010). To manage
55 ecological impacts of climate change, and alleviate associated socioeconomic consequences
56 (Burrows et al. 2014), accurate predictions of the timing and location of species redistribution
57 are required (Frusher et al. 2014). Nevertheless, factors regulating the colonisation of new
58 ranges are largely unresolved (Hellmann et al. 2012; HilleRisLambers et al. 2013; Urban et
59 al. 2013). Certainly, supply of larval propagules into new ranges (Keith et al. 2011; Gaylord
60 and Gaines 2000) and climactic conditions at higher latitudes (Pinsky et al. 2013) may
61 primarily? determine how species respond to shifting isotherms. However, independent of
62 propagule input and background abiotic conditions, availability of habitats that support all
63 species' benthic? life stages may ultimately determine whether they colonize higher latitudes
64 (Hill et al. 2001; Warren et al. 2001; Honnay et al. 2002; Travis 2003; Cheung et al. 2010;
65 Mair et al. 2014).

66

67 At forefronts of tropical fish range-expansion, temperate rocky reefs present a myriad of
68 foreign biophysical conditions, which may determine where these fishes recruit (i.e., from
69 settlement to reef habitat then survival to inclusion with existing assemblages). Although

70 intensifying poleward-flowing currents are increasing thermal suitability of many temperate
71 regions for such tropical species (including Australia, Japan, Korea, western Africa, Brazil
72 and USA; Wu et al. 2012; Beck 2014), to colonise higher-latitudes tropical fishes need to
73 access suitable resources and avoid predators in foreign, temperate rocky reef ecosystems.

74

75 Despite the rapid tropicalization of many temperate regions, roles of temperate habitats in
76 influencing colonisation of tropical reef fishes are poorly understood (Beck 2014). To date, it
77 has been shown that wave-protected temperate reefs offer a safe-haven for many tropical fish
78 recruits (Beck et al. 2016a). Lower temperate predator densities, as well as higher winter
79 water temperatures may also improve chances of overwinter success through facilitating
80 greater physiological performance, and hence improved access to resources, including food
81 (Beck et al. 2016b). However, one key question still remaining is how temperate macroalgae
82 influences tropical reef fish recruitment. Differences in the habitat structure between
83 temperate macroalgal forests (i.e., canopy, subcanopy and basal layers), and patches of algal
84 turf and/or barren reef (covered by ephemeral or encrusting algae or bare reef) may influence
85 patchiness in reef fish recruitment, at least on local scales. Patchiness may result from spatial
86 heterogeneity in shelter (Shulman 1984, 1985), physical stress (Johansen et al. 2007;
87 Johansen et al. 2008) and/or competition and predation pressure (Beukers and Jones 1998;
88 Almany 2004).

89

90 On coral reefs, many tropical reef fishes avoid algae-dominated areas. Although the reason
91 for such avoidance remains largely unresolved, it has been proposed that such avoidance is
92 caused by physical movement of algal habitats in association with wave action, low
93 availability of suitable fine-scale microshelter, higher predation risk in dense macroalgal

94 areas and/or undesirable chemical cues from seaweed-dominated reefs (Hoey and Bellwood
95 2011; Lecchini et al. 2013; Dixon et al. 2014). On the other hand, a small proportion of
96 tropical fish recruits have been found to positively associate with the structural complexity
97 and potential food sources provided by macroalgal habitats in tropical regions???, with lower
98 recruitment success on reef devoid of macroalgae (Lecchini et al. 2007; Wilson et al. 2010;
99 Evans et al. 2012; Yamada et al. 2012; Hoey et al. 2013). However, influences of temperate
100 macroalgae on recruitment may not be simply assumed to also apply within temperate reefs.
101 For instance, there are substantial structural differences between many temperate and tropical
102 algae. The shape and movement characteristics common temperate brown algae, such as
103 *Ecklonia* spp. and *Phyllosporum* spp. differ to tropical macroalgal communities, which is
104 often dominated by *Sargassum* spp. Temperate macroalgae also supports a different suites of
105 biological communities (including potential predators and competitors) than in the tropics
106 (Kuitert 1993). Hence, we cannot predict how positive or negative interactions of tropical
107 fishes with temperate residents may affect recruitment without field analysis in regions where
108 these species distributions overlap.

109

110 By gaining an understanding at the seascape-level how temperate macroalgae influences
111 recruitment success of invading tropical fishes, we may more accurately predict where and
112 when tropical fishes may colonize, and hence where impacts resulting from these colonizing
113 fishes may be most acute. So far, colonizing tropical fishes have been found to overgraze
114 temperate algae, competing with natives for food/shelter and adding predation pressure in
115 temperate reef ecosystems (Hiroyuki et al. 2000; Feary et al. 2014; Vergés et al. 2014).
116 Moreover, as ocean warming facilitate greater overwinter survival of tropical fishes at
117 temperate latitudes, increasing resource requirements for these tropical fishes would likely
118 lead to more acute and diverse consequences (Beck 2014).

120 Temperate coastal reefs of southeastern (SE) Australia and western (W) Japan provide an
121 opportunity to investigate how temperate macroalgal communities structure the density,
122 richness and diversity of colonizing tropical reef fishes. Many tropical fishes are supplied to
123 SE Australia and W Japan throughout summer by poleward flowing boundary currents [East
124 Australian Current (EAC) in Australia, and the Kuroshio Current in Japan], where they
125 recruit to coastal temperate reefs (Fig. 1). Although cool waters constrain many of these
126 warm-adapted fishes from surviving during winter (Figueira et al., 2009; Figueira and Booth
127 2010), warming of these coastal waters is rapidly facilitating establishment of permanent
128 populations; coastal waters in W Japan and SE Australia are warming at more than twice the
129 global average rate (Wu et al. 2012). We examined whether temperate macroalgal cover
130 influences recruitment of tropical reef fishes by comparing the density, richness and diversity
131 of new recruit and juvenile tropical fishes (hereafter termed ‘vagrants’) between macroalgal
132 dominated habitat (e.g., genera *Ecklonia*, *Phyllospora* and *Sargassum*) and non-macroalgal
133 habitats. We considered non-macroalgal habitats as those that consisted of low-lying turfing
134 algae (e.g., Class Rhodophyta and Phylum Phaeophyceae; both in turfing form) or barren
135 rocky reef (rock covered in encrusting and ephemeral Rhodophyta and Phaeophyceae, or bare
136 rock with no algae). To examine factors that possibly contributed to differences in
137 recruitment of tropical fishes among non-macroalgal and macroalgal reef patches, reef
138 structure (i.e., topographical complexity), wave exposure, temperate reef fish community
139 (including likely competitors and predators) and benthic composition were also quantified.
140 We conducted aquarium experiments using a common tropical damselfish (*Pomacentrus*
141 *coelestis*) to test whether the observed habitat associations of vagrants resulted from
142 preference during larval settlement (i.e. shift from pelagic to benthic life stage), rather than
143 immigration and/or differential mortality.

144

145 **Materials and methods**

146

147 **Field study: tropical fish recruitment to macroalgal-covered and non-macroalgal** 148 **temperate reefs**

149

150 Underwater visual surveys of new recruit and juvenile vagrant fishes were conducted in
151 summer and early autumn; when they recruit to coastal temperate reefs of SE Australia
152 (January - May 2011, 2012 and 2014) and W Japan (July 2013) (Kuitert 1993; Booth et al.
153 2007; Nakamura et al. 2013). Australian and Japanese study sites were located at ~33.5° S
154 and N, respectively (Fig. 1). We quantified the density, richness and diversity of vagrant
155 assemblages using haphazardly placed GPS-tracked timed swims (GarminTM; ≤ 3 m
156 accuracy; 5 sec intervals), which allowed distances surveyed to be measured. Surveys were
157 conducted on snorkel at 0 - 4 m water depths on reefs that were partially exposed to ocean
158 swell (Beck et al. 2014). This survey method allows more accurate detection of richness and
159 diversity of vagrants within temperate reefs than standard belt transects, with comparable
160 accuracy and precision of density estimates (Beck et al. 2014). Macroalgal and non-
161 macroalgal habitats were surveyed for vagrant fishes at seven SE Australian sites and three W
162 Japanese sites, separated by 2.5 - 40 km within these countries. At each site, tropical fish
163 recruits were surveyed using six, 5-min roaming surveys within each habitat. Surveys were
164 repeated? in Australia once yearly during 2011, 2012 and 2014, whilst Japanese sites were
165 only surveyed in 2013. In total, both habitats were surveyed 126 times in SE Australia (across
166 the three years), whilst 18 patches of both habitats were surveyed in W Japan. Patches of

167 macroalgal and non-macroalgal reef surveyed for vagrants were haphazardly selected visually
168 prior to surveys and interspersed to avoid spatial pseudoreplication, ie to ensure influences of
169 wave exposure on fish recruitment was comparable between sites and habitats (Beck 2016a).
170 The dominant non-macroalgal or macroalgal habitat cover was classified and recorded for
171 each survey replicate. Macroalgal habitats surveyed in SE Australia comprised *Ecklonia*
172 *radiata*, *Sargassum* spp. and *Phyllospora comosa*, whilst *E. cava* dominated W Japanese
173 reefs. Macroalgal patches surveyed had > 75% cover and were 25 - 75 m² in area. Macroalgal
174 patches surveyed were largely monospecific (i.e. one species of macroalgae comprised > 80%
175 of the canopy assemblage). Non-macroalgal reef patches had < 20% cover of macroalgae and
176 were either barren reef (bare or encrusted covered rock) or covered with with low (< 10 cm
177 height, with a mean height of ~5 cm) ephemeral or turfing Rhodophyta and Phaeophyceae.

178

179 Vagrant fishes encountered within 1 metre either side of the observer were identified to
180 species and their total length (TL) estimated visually. To avoid wrongly assigning individuals
181 to a habitat due to the response of a fish to an observer, only individuals found more than 0.5
182 m from boundaries of macroalgal and non-macroalgal habitats were recorded (i.e., not in the
183 vicinity of edges). Fishes found on edges of habitat through surveys were uncommon (< 1%
184 of sightings). Individuals were identified as recruits of the present season (i.e. young-of-the-
185 year) and juvenile based on family specific length-age criteria established by Booth et al.
186 (2007), while trophic level? followed Froese and Pauly (2015), IUCN red list of threatened
187 species (V2015.2) and a review of scientific literature (See Supplementary Information,
188 Table S1). Where known, we assigned trophic groups based on feeding preferences during
189 early life stages and/or within temperate reef habitats. However, we acknowledge that fish
190 dietary preferences are likely to be more far more complex than documented and vary
191 substantially between tropical and temperate ecosystems. Tropical “vagrant” species were

192 considered as those found as breeding-aged adults only between the Tropics of Cancer and
193 Capricorn (23°27' N and S, respectively), as determined by distribution data from Kuitert
194 1993; Froese and Pauly 2015 and IUCN red list maps (V2015.2) (See Supplementary
195 Information, Table S1). All surveys were conducted by the main author (HJB) between 9:00
196 and 17:00, when water visibility was > 5 m and swell was < 1 m.

197

198 **Abiotic and biotic drivers of recruitment to non-macroalgal and macroalgal habitat**

199

200 Factors influencing recruitment of vagrants to macroalgal and non-macroalgal patches were
201 explored in SE Australia during 2014. To test if macroalgal cover *per se* influenced tropical
202 fish recruitment to temperate reefs, benthic habitat composition (i.e. major temperate
203 macroalgal species and non-macroalgal habitats), species richness and densities of the
204 resident temperate reef fish community (estimated whilst surveying vagrant species using
205 GPS-tracked surveyed, described above), reef rugosities (i.e., structural complexity) and
206 wave exposure (using a fetch-based index, Beck 2014) were measured in each macroalgal
207 and non-macroalgal reef patch surveyed for vagrant fishes. The composition of benthic
208 habitats was estimated by recording the proportion of time the surveyor spent over each of
209 the primary benthic habitats listed below?, whilst surveying fish assemblages. These habitats
210 were categorised as either one of the dominant habitat-forming macroalgae (i.e. *Ecklonia*
211 *radiata*, *Phylloporum comosa* or *Sargassum* spp.), or as a non-macroalgal habitat (i.e.
212 turfing algae or barren rock). Turfing algae was considered to be branching algae with a
213 height < 10 cm, whilst 'barren' was reef where all branching algae was absent. The
214 macroalgal canopy was typically monospecific in surveyed patches (e.g. of the seven sites
215 surveyed, *Ecklonia radiata* comprised all macroalgal patches at four sites, whilst only

216 *Phylloporum comosa* patches were surveyed at one site). Moreover, non-macroalgal reef
217 habitat was consistent in ~80% of survey replicates, with the reef patch consisting of either
218 turfing algae or an expanse of barren reef. Wave-exposure was calculated using a fetch??-
219 based index (Hill et al. 2010); 7.5° rays around the midpoint of survey sites to a maximum of
220 650 km - the minimum fetch distance for seas to fully develop. Reef rugosities were averaged
221 over areas within each reef patch (i.e., every ten swim kicks; measured immediately after fish
222 surveys), using the ratio of surface distance to linear distance of a five metre chain (Risk et al.
223 1972; n = 126 in both macroalgal and non-macroalgal habitats).

224

225 **Settlement choice of tropical fish larvae: macroalgal vs non-macroalgal habitat**

226

227 To test settlement preferences of a common tropical vagrant fish, , habitat choice of late-
228 stage? (or immediate presettlement??) larvae of the tropical damselfish *Pomacentrus*
229 *coelestis* were assessed within aquarium trials at Yokonami Beach, W Japan (Fig. 1). *P.*
230 *coelestis* was selected as the focal species due to its high abundance (Nakamura et al. 2013);
231 this species is also one of the most common tropical species recruiting to both SE Australian
232 and W Japanese temperate reefs (Booth et al. 2007; Nakamura et al. 2013; Soeparno et al.
233 2013).

234

235 *P. coelestis* larvae were collected by light-trapping (*sensu* Fisher and Bellwood 2002) on four
236 consecutive nights (July 2013). Traps were set and collected each morning and evening,
237 respectively. At 21:00 hrs on the night of collection, individual *P. coelestis* larvae were
238 released into the middle of 85 L outdoor, rectangular aquaria containing one patch of

239 encrusting algae covered rock and one patch of kelp, *E. cava*; these habitats were the most
240 common non-macroalgal and macroalgal habitats in W Japan. Habitat patches were placed at
241 opposite ends of the aquarium, with a similar coverage for each (each habitats covered 11 to
242 30% of aquaria bottom). Habitat choice of *P. coelestis* on non-macroalgal and macroalgal
243 habitat were recorded at sunrise ~05:30 hrs (for 15 min). An individual fish was considered to
244 have made a choice when it was found ≤ 2 cm from a habitat for at least 10 min We
245 conducted 24 settlement trials, with different individuals used in a single trial. Between trials,
246 habitats were randomly switched between ends of aquaria to reduce any potential ‘tank’
247 effect, and a new fish was used for each trial.

248

249 **Statistical analyses**

250

251 Because the number of survey occasions (three years in SE Australia, one year in W Japan),
252 replicate surveys (126 in SE Australia, 18 in SE Japan) and number of sites (seven in SE
253 Australia, three in W Japan) differed between regions, vagrant assemblages were separately
254 evaluated within SE Australia and W Japan. To test if tropical vagrants avoided temperate
255 habitats that are dominated by macroalgae, we compared total vagrant assemblage density
256 (i.e., total individuals per m²), species richness (i.e., total species per m²), density and
257 richness of trophic groups, between macroalgal and non-macroalgal habitat (fixed), site
258 (random) and year (SE Australia only; random), using univariate permutation analysis of
259 variance (PERMANOVA; based on Euclidean distances between sample data; Type III Sums
260 of Squares; 9999 permutations under the reduced model; Anderson 2001). Density and
261 species richness were calculated as the total individuals and species divided by area searched
262 within replicate surveys, respectively.

263
264 Species and trophic diversity of vagrant assemblages was compared between habitat site and
265 year (SE Australia only) by *K*-dominance plots. As a diversity measure, *K*-dominance plots
266 better account for species and trophic group evenness than single value diversity indexes
267 (Lambhead et al. 1983). *K*-dominance plots were constructed individually for replicate
268 surveys on fourth root transformed density data (Clarke and Gorley 2006, Clarke et al 2006),
269 cumulatively ranking species and trophic diversity, expressed as a percentage of all species,
270 in decreasing order of their density. Fourth root transformations were used since there were
271 many low and some high fish counts within survey replicates; as recommended by Quinn and
272 Keough (2002). Pairwise distances between *K*-dominance plots, constructed for each survey
273 using Manhattan distance metrics, were then calculated using DOMDIS (PRIMER™ v6)
274 (Warwick 1986; Clarke 1990; Clarke and Gorley 2006). *K*-dominance curves, for species and
275 trophic diversity, were then compared between habitats, years (SE Australia only) and
276 amongst sites by PERMANOVA, using the same design as for richness and diversity (above).
277 Trophic groups that were important contributors to dissimilarity of fish assemblages between
278 habitats were identified using the similarity percentages routine (SIMPER; Clarke 1993), then
279 graphically explored by Principle Coordinate Analysis (PCO) using Spearman's rank
280 correlation. *A priori*, we decided trophic groups with $\% \bar{\delta}_i > 10\%$ were important contributors
281 to overall dissimilarity between habitats; where $\bar{\delta}_i$ is the average contribution of the *i*th
282 trophic group to the overall dissimilarity [$\bar{\delta}$] between the two habitats. Densities of these
283 trophic groups, identified by SIMPER as important contributors to variance in fish
284 assemblages, were then compared between habitats and years (SE Australia only), and
285 among sites using PERMANOVA (as above). To conform to the statistical assumption that
286 variances were homogeneous, sites were excluded from trophic analyses where we observed
287 fewer than five individuals belonging to a particular trophic group for each survey year.

288

289 All survey data were inspected for homogeneity of variance using the PERMDISP procedure
290 (PRIMERTM v6), with data $\ln(X+1)$, square- or forth root transformed where required.
291 PERMANOVA was used here as it is typically more robust to heterogeneity of variances and
292 assumptions of data normality than parametric analyses (Underwood 1997; Anderson and
293 Walsh 2013). Where the P - value of a factor was > 0.25 , it was pooled with the residual
294 (following Underwood 1997). The Monte-Carlo p-value [$P(mc)$] was used when the number
295 of unique permutations for a term within an analysis was < 100 (following Anderson 2001).
296 Significant interactions between factors for all analyses of field parameters were explored
297 using PERMANOVA *post-hoc* pairwise tests.

298

299 To determine the abiotic and biotic variables that best predicted difference in vagrant
300 assemblages between macroalgal and non-macroalgal temperate reef habitats, a best-fit
301 Distance-based linear model (DISTLM) was used . . The DISTLM focused on habitat
302 variables measured during surveys of vagrant fishes in SE Australia during 2014, which
303 were: trophic preference of temperate fish assemblages, reef complexity, overall macroalgal
304 cover, cover of primary macroalgal species, overall extent of non-macroalgal habitat, extent
305 of each non-macroalgal habitat and wave exposure. This analysis was conducted using Bray-
306 Curtis similarity measures on forth root transformed vagrant abundance for all sites, habitats
307 and species surveyed during 2014 in SE Australia (Clarke and Gorley 2006), pertaining to the
308 AIC_c criterion with a maximum of 10 variables and using 9999 permutations (Clarke and
309 Gorley 2006). We considered the most parsimonious model as the combination of
310 environmental variables with an AIC_c value within 2 units of the overall best solution with
311 the least number of variables, as suggested by Anderson et al. (2008). Environmental data

312 were checked for multicollinearity and dispersion using draftsmen plots, $\ln(X+1)$ or square-
313 root transformed where required and then normalised prior to analysis. Relationships amongst
314 environmental data (post-transformation) were also checked for linearity prior to analysis.
315 Factors best explaining variance in SE Australian vagrant communities were graphically
316 explored by PCO and Spearman rank correlation.

317

318 To test whether there was a preference for particular non-macroalgal, the density, richness
319 and diversity of tropical fish assemblages were compared between barren (bare rock and sea
320 urchin barren) and turfing algal dominated reef. These variables were also compared between
321 patches of *Ecklonia*, *Phyllospora* and *Sargassum* sp. Due to the unbalanced replication of
322 these habitats across survey years and locations, density, richness and diversity data were
323 pooled together within each country prior to analysis. Density, richness and diversity (*K*-
324 dominance) were analysed using PERMANOVA following the protocol detailed above.

325

326 To determine if vagrant habitat associations were caused by active preference at settlement to
327 the reef, the proportion of *P. coelestis* that settled into the macroalgal and non-macroalgal
328 habitats were compared by binomial tests, treating the probability of either outcome by
329 chance as 50%. These proportional data were normalised by square root transformation prior
330 to analysis. *A priori*, $P < 0.05$ was the set level of significance for all analyses. Field data
331 were analysed using PRIMERTM v6 with PERMANOVA+ extension, whilst SPSSTM v20 was
332 used to analyse settlement trial data.

333

334 **Results**

335

336 **Tropical fishes recruits in non-macroalgal and macroalgal temperate rocky reef**

337

338 *Overall assemblages*

339

340 A total of 3033 vagrant tropical fishes, from 36 species in seven families were surveyed
341 within SE Australia (27 species and six families) and W Japan (20 species and five families)
342 (See Supplementary Information, Table S1). There was a 44 % overlap in species observed in
343 both SE Australia and W Japan; these species belonged to the families Pomacentridae
344 (damsel-fishes, X species...), Acanthuridae (surgeonfishes), Chaetodontidae (butterflyfishes),
345 Labridae (wrasses) and Zanclidae (Moorish idol).

346

347 Vagrant densities and species richness were over seven times greater in non-macroalgal than
348 macroalgal reef habitats in both regions (PERMANOVA; species richness for both countries,
349 $P \leq 0.007$; density in W Japan, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 2, Table 1). Vagrants were also significantly
350 more abundant in non-macroalgal than macroalgal habitat within all three years studied in SE
351 Australia (Pairwise test; $P \leq 0.002$ for all years), despite an interaction between habitat and
352 year (PERMANOVA; $P = 0.02$; Table 1). Moreover, vagrants were more diverse within non-
353 macroalgal than macroalgal habitats in SE Australia and W Japan (PERMANOVA; $P \leq 0.001$
354 in both countries; Table 1). There was no significant interaction with habitat and all other
355 factors within the model for species diversity and species richness in either country, or
356 density in W Japan ($P > 0.15$; Table 1). Mean (\pm SD) area searched within non-macroalgal

357 and macroalgal patches per site was 197.93 (78.12) and 175.25 (63.48) m², respectively (n =
358 six 5 minute replicate surveys in both non-macroalgal and macroalgal habitat per site).

359

360 Of the 36 species observed, 17 were more often in non-macroalgal habitat than that expected
361 by chance (Binomial test; $P < 0.02$ for all species; See Supplementary Information, Table
362 S1). Moreover, although sample numbers for 15 species were too low for analysis ($n < 5$),
363 these species were exclusively found in non-macroalgal habitat. There was no difference in
364 frequencies of *Ctenochaetus striatus*, *Naso unicornis*, *Canthigaster rivulata* (Binomial test; P
365 > 0.05) between macroalgal and non-macroalgal habitat. *Siganus fuscescens* was observed in
366 significantly greater frequencies within macroalgal habitat (Binomial test; $P < 0.0001$).

367

368 ***Trophic assemblage and individual trophic groups***

369

370 Planktivores were the most abundant trophic group within SE Australia (56%) and W Japan
371 (64%), with each assemblage also comprising herbivores (31% Australia; 18% Japan),
372 benthivores (5% Australia; 10% Japan), omnivores (4% Australia; 9% Japan) and
373 ectoparasite feeders and piscivores (both $< 1\%$, Australia only). The diversity and richness of
374 trophic groups were significantly greater in non-macroalgal than macroalgal habitats in SE
375 Australia and W Japan (Table 1; $P \leq 0.001$). There were no significant interactions between
376 habitat and any other variable for either metric in either country ($P \geq 0.15$ for remaining
377 terms in models).

378

379 PCO partitioned trophic assemblages between non-macroalgal and macroalgal habitats along
380 PCO Axis 1, explaining 71.2% and 65.9% of variance in trophic assemblages within SE
381 Australia and W Japan, respectively (Fig. 3). Planktivores and herbivores in SE Australia and
382 W Japan, as well as benthivores and omnivores in W Japan, primarily accounted for
383 differences in assemblages between non-macroalgal and macroalgal habitats (SIMPER; % $\bar{\delta}_i$
384 > 10%). These trophic groups were positively correlated with non-macroalgal reefs along
385 PCO 1 within their respective countries (Spearman correlation; $P < 0.05$, $r_s > 0.48$; Fig. 3).

386

387 Planktivores and herbivores were in greater densities in non-macroalgal than macroalgal
388 habitat in SE Australia ($Pseudo-F_{1,90} = 96.8$, $P = 0.01$ and $Pseudo-F_{1,170} = 214.4$, $P < 0.001$
389 for planktivores and herbivores, respectively). In W Japan, densities of omnivores [$Pseudo-$
390 $F_{1,18} = 239.1$, $P(MC) = 0.04$] and herbivores [$Pseudo-F_{1,30} = 20.33$, $P(MC) = 0.04$] were
391 significantly greater in non-macroalgal than macroalgal reefs. Densities of planktivores were
392 significantly greater in non-macroalgal habitat in W Japanese sites of KA [$P(MC) = 0.0001$]
393 and US [$P(MC) = 0.001$], but not TA [$P(MC) = 0.22$]. Benthivores were in significantly
394 greater densities on non-macroalgae reef at TA [$P(MC) = 0.02$], but not US [$P(MC) = 0.14$].
395 Influence of habitat on planktivore and benthivore density depended on site in W Japan
396 [planktivores, $Pseudo-F_{2,30} = 4.95$, $P(MC) = 0.01$; benthivores, $Pseudo-F_{2,20} = 5.34$, $P(MC) =$
397 0.03]. All interactions involving ‘habitat’ type with site and/or year (SE Australia only) not
398 reported here were non-significant in both countries (i.e., $P > 0.05$ for all other interactions
399 with habitat type not reported).

400

401 **Abiotic and biotic influences on tropical fish recruitment**

402

403 Of the environmental factors measured, the proportion of barren reef best predicted
404 differences in the composition of vagrant fish assemblages (17.8%; Fig. 4; See
405 Supplementary Information, Table S2 and S3). The composition of vagrant assemblages
406 positively corresponded to the extent of barren reef within survey patches (Spearman rank; r_s
407 = 0.52, $P = 0.001$), where branching algae was absent. The density and richness of the
408 vagrant assemblages significantly increased with increasing proportion of barren within reef
409 patches surveyed (density: $r_s = 0.46$; $t = 7.25$; $P < 0.001$; richness: $r_s = 0.27$; $t = 2.56$; $P =$
410 0.006). . The best combination of explanatory variables (AICc = 635.14) also included the
411 density of the overall temperate fish assemblage (13.7%), but this failed to explain variance
412 in vagrant assemblages, since overall temperate fish assemblages also positively
413 corresponded with non-macroalgal reefs (Fig. 4).

414 Of the non-macroalgal habitats surveyed in SE Australia, the density ($Pseudo-F_{1, 124} = 7.32$, P
415 = 0.007), richness ($Pseudo-F_{1, 124} = 6.33$, $P = 0.01$) and diversity ($Pseudo-F_{1, 124} = 4.91$, $P =$
416 0.04) of tropical fishes was significantly greater on barren than turfing algae covered reef
417 (Fig 5). Tropical fish richness, diversity and density did not significantly differ between
418 patches of *Ecklonia radiata*, *Phylloporum comosa* or *Sargassum* spp. ($P < 0.05$ for all three
419 variables). Non-macroalgal reefs surveyed in W Japan were all dominated by turfing algae,
420 whilst macroalgal patches surveyed were dominated by *E. cava*.

421

422 **Settlement choice of tropical fish larvae into macroalgal and non-macroalgal habitat**

423

424 A significant proportion (87.5%) of *P. coelestis* larvae settled into the non-macroalgal reef
425 (Binomial Test, $P < 0.001$), while only three of the 24 individuals settled into the macroalgal
426 habitat. No individual changed habitat choice between sunrise (~5:30) and 8:00.

427

428 **Discussion**

429

430 To expand their range poleward with ocean warming, reef fishes must access reef habitats at
431 higher latitudes that support their recruitment (Feary et al. 2014). But at the vanguard of
432 range expansion of many tropical reef fishes, macroalgal cover of temperate reefs may
433 influence where they can recruit (Feary et al. 2014). We show that temperate macroalgal
434 patches may strongly inhibit?? tropical reef fish settlement since the overall density of
435 assemblages, trophic and taxonomic diversity and species richness of new recruit and early
436 juvenile tropical vagrants were greater within non-macroalgal than macroalgal patches of
437 temperate SE Australian and W Japanese reefs. This result was consistent for three years in
438 SE Australia. Our results suggest that at least in temperate reefs partially exposed to swell at
439 range-expansion forefronts, colonisation of many tropical fishes would be organised, and
440 potentially limited, by temperate macroalgal patches (Bates et al. 2014).

441

442 Cover of reef by macroalgae appeared to best explain the density, richness, diversity and
443 trophic composition of vagrant fish assemblages among temperate reefs; vagrants were
444 positively associated with reefs where all branching algae were absent. Despite potential
445 effects of temperate reef fishes on recruitment of vagrant tropical reef fishes (e.g., heightened
446 competition, predation and grazing; Bates et al. 2013; Beck 2014; Vergés et al. 2014), the

447 overall assemblage density, densities of individual trophic groups and species/trophic
448 richness of temperate reef fishes failed to significantly explain the observed strong
449 association of tropical fishes with non-macroalgal reefs. Notably, we found densities of the
450 temperate reef fishes was also positively associated with non-macroalgal habitats, which
451 supported earlier findings by Curley et al. (2002). Hence, despite using the same habitats in
452 which tropical fishes were found, temperate fishes did not appear to exclude tropical fishes
453 from recruiting. However, we cannot discount a role for competition and predation between
454 vagrants and temperate species post-settlement, and we did not evaluate the extent that these
455 interactions may determine recruitment. Moreover, it may be possible that some temperate
456 species facilitate recruitment of tropical reef fishes. For instance, the tropical planktivores
457 *Abudefduf vaigiensis* and *Abudefduf whitleyi*, and grazers *Acanthurus dussumieri*, *Acanthurus*
458 *olivaceus* and *Acanthurus nigrofuscus*, were observed schooling with temperate and sub-
459 tropical fishes with similar dietary preferences (Beck HJ, personal observation). Such
460 schooling behavior may promote colonisation of tropical fishes by reducing predation risk
461 and enhancing foraging success (Feary et al. 2014). Influences of native species on vagrant
462 recruitment could be assessed using manipulative experiments, where temperate reef
463 communities are modified to test specific hypotheses. For instance, influences of temperate
464 predator fishes on vagrant population dynamics and behaviors may tested by studying
465 vagrants inside marine parks areas, where predator densities are typically high, and where
466 predator populations are depleted by fishing (Beck et al. 2016b).

467

468 Although there are a range of factors which may favour vagrant settlement into non-
469 macroalgal habitat patches, structural differences between areas lacking macroalgal habitat
470 and macroalgal reef patches may be vital in determining tropical fish recruitment success. For
471 example, there is a substantial literature showing structurally-stable tropical reef habitats,

472 predominantly scleractinian coral communities, are an important habitat in which many
473 tropical fishes will settle and recruit (Wilson et al. 2006; Pratchett et al. 2011). Such habitat-
474 associated recruitment may be due to habitat structure, with stable and topographically
475 complex reef often better mediating negative interactions with residents (Friedlander and
476 Parrish 1998; Beukers and Jones 1998; Almany 2004; Gratwicke and Speight 2005; Wilson
477 et al. 2010) and lessening effects of physical stressors, such as wave action (Johansen et al.
478 2007; Johansen et al. 2008). Stable reef habitats may also require less energy for marine
479 organisms to associate with than non-stable, moving macroalgal dominated reef, and in some
480 cases, abrasion caused by moving kelp may even prevent marine organisms from establishing
481 (Velimirov and Griffiths 1979; Connell 2003; Gagnon et al. 2004). Nevertheless, macroalgae
482 movement did not appear to influence habitat choice, at least for *P. coelestis*, since this
483 species still avoided macroalgae in the aquarium experiment, where water/macroalgal
484 movement was minimal. Open habitats, such as non-macroalgal reefs, also potentially
485 increase visibility of predators for prey and abilities of prey to escape attacks compared to
486 dense habitats, such as macroalgal patches, which can conceal predators and block escape
487 efforts, as found for marine invertebrates (Konar and Estes 2003; Gagnon et al. 2003), and
488 proposed for tropical reef fishes (Hoey 2010; Hoey and Bellwood 2011). Moreover, chemical
489 odours released from macroalgae may deter recruitment of many tropical reef fishes, as found
490 on some coral reefs (Lecchini et al. 2013; Dixson et al. 2014). We may discount potential
491 influences of observer error from explaining the spatial patterns of fish recruitment detected,
492 since most tropical species surveyed were non-cryptic and brightly colored, so were easily
493 observed, even when associated with macroalgae (Beck HJ, Personal Observation).
494 Moreover, the cryptic species *Siganus fuscescens* was clearly identifiable in the present study,
495 with individuals more often found in macroalgae, suggesting that detected patterns of
496 recruitment were not a sampling artefact.

497

498 Although our study applies to the dominant vagrant species, temperate macroalgae may still
499 provide important recruitment habitat for tropical fishes, particularly for those that associate
500 with tropical macroalgae. For instance, the rabbitfish *S. fuscescens*, a species whose close
501 relatively commonly recruit to macroalgae (i.e. *Sargassum* spp.) in coral reefs (Hoey et al.
502 2013), was observed associating exclusively with the temperate macroalgae *E. cava* in the
503 present study. Such association may be due to food availability, as the same species has been
504 observed grazing *E. cava* on Japanese reefs, to the extent that these macroalgal communities
505 decline (Hiroyuki et al. 2000).

506

507 Our study focused on the dominant benthic habitats in oceanic reefs, partially exposed to
508 swell, whilst habitat associations of tropical fishes may differ in more embayed
509 environments. Gaining knowledge of how macroalgae influences recruitment in embayed
510 temperate reefs is important since highly embayed temperate reefs are recruitment hotspots
511 for many tropical fishes (Beck et al. 2016). For instance, typically more elaborate kelp
512 morphology and reduced movement of kelp in more sheltered reefs may influence their
513 ability to support tropical fish recruitment. Other suitable habitats, not found in exposed
514 temperate reefs, may also support tropical fish recruitment in embayments. For example,
515 species that recruit to seagrass in the tropics may recruit to temperate seagrasses, which are
516 often found in highly embayed areas, such as well-flushed estuaries along the SE Australian
517 coast.

518

519 The active choice of non-macroalgal reef by settling *P. coelestis* larvae suggest that *in situ*
520 associations of tropical vagrants with non-macroalgal reef, at least for this species, may
521 reflect settlement preferences rather than higher post-recruitment mortality in macroalgal reef
522 or post-settlement movement between habitats. Moreover, given the preference of *P. coelestis*
523 for rubble habitats in coral reefs (Ohman et al. 1998) and other temperate regions (e.g.
524 Wilson et al. 2010), it appears that this species seeks similar physical habitat properties,
525 regardless of the geological origin of the reef and latitude. Certainly, further small-scale
526 experiments are required to disclose the process underlying habitat associations of a wider
527 range of tropical fishes in temperate reefs and habitat conditions. Cues driving associations
528 would also be valuable in predicting important reef habitat for shifting tropical fishes. Based
529 on this study, we may discount cues operating over large spatial scales, such as celestial
530 references, magnetism and water movement (Leis et al. 2011), as important factors driving
531 the observed habitat associations since macroalgal and non-macroalgal habitats surveyed
532 were interspersed and separated by only 10s of metres. Conspecifics may also guide
533 settlement of larvae (Jones 1987; Sweatman 1988; Booth 1992, 1995), but this was unlikely,
534 at least in SE Australia, since established populations of tropical fishes are currently rare due
535 to substantial overwinter mortality of most tropical species (Booth et al. 2007; Figueira and
536 Booth 2010). In absence of conspecifics, and on such fine spatial scales, larval fishes may use
537 olfactory, auditory and/or visual cues at settlement to differentiate macroalgal and non-
538 macroalgal habitats (Kingsford et al. 2002; Lecchini et al. 2005; Wright et al. 2005).

539

540 Resource requirements and physiological performance of tropical fishes may change between
541 their early and later life stages, leading to ontogenetic shifts in habitat and implications for
542 temperate reefs. Fishes may shift reef habitat as they grow in response to dietary changes,
543 reduced predation risk, and greater physiological performance (Nagelkerken et al. 2000;

544 Adams et al. 2006). Nevertheless, at least for some tropical fishes, their habitat requirements
545 may be consistent between recruit/early juvenile and later life-stages on temperate reefs. For
546 example, 14 of the 15 species were mature-sized individuals (Labridae, Lutjanidae,
547 Pomacentridae and Scaridae), and were observed only on non-macroalgal reef patches in W
548 Japan and SE Australia (See Supplementary Information, Table S4). Furthermore, over 97%
549 of the adult tropical fishes observed here only associated with non-macroalgal reef patches.
550 Such concentration of tropical fishes on non-macroalgal reef, particularly those that use this
551 habitat from recruitment to adulthood, may have implications for native communities.
552 Tropical fishes may compete with natives for food and shelter, added predation pressure and
553 decimation of habitat forming species, such as kelp (Beck 2014; Vergés et al. 2014).

554

555 Our results suggest that distribution of temperate macroalgal communities in thermally
556 marginal temperate reefs should be considered when predicting where and when many
557 tropical fishes may colonise with ongoing ocean warming. Such strong association of many
558 recruiting tropical fishes with non-macroalgal habitat suggests that, at least for the dominant
559 species, human-driven changes in temperate macroalgae assemblages may influence
560 colonisation. Changes in macroalgal communities, with potential to influence tropical fish
561 colonisation, may result from those warming waters, water pollution and/or increasing
562 grazing pressure (Schiel et al. 2004; Ling 2008; Tait and Schiel 2011; Vergés et al. 2014).
563 However, to more accurately determine how macroalgae influences poleward redistribution
564 of tropical fishes, we require an accurate understanding of larval supply, settlement rates
565 and survivorship of tropical fishes on temperate reefs with varying levels of macroalgal cover
566 (e.g. Bates et al. 2014). Moreover, impacts of macroalgae on tropical species redistribution
567 may be better understood by studying how temperate and tropical macroalgae differentially
568 influence tropical fish recruitment. As there are many species of tropical fishes that use

569 habitats other than coral reefs at tropical latitudes, including seagrasses, mangroves and
570 sponges, the potential for similar temperate benthic communities for supporting recruitment
571 of these species also needs to be explored. Through gaining a more thorough understanding
572 of interactions between tropical fishes and temperate habitats, management strategies may be
573 effectively designed to alleviate undesirable impacts associated with the tropicalization of
574 temperate reefs.

575

576 **Acknowledgements**

577

578 HJB gratefully acknowledges funding from the Sydney Institute of Marine Science (SIMS)
579 Doctoral Fellowship Program, and the University of Technology, Sydney. DAF was funded
580 by the University of Technology, Sydney under the Chancellors Postdoctoral Fellowship
581 scheme. We appreciate the field assistance and advice from B. Curley, W. Figueira, R.
582 Suzuki, K. Tose and B. Yui, and to A. Fowler for helpful reviews of the manuscript. Animal
583 ethics approval for the research was granted by the University of Technology Sydney (UTS)
584 Animal Care and Ethics Committee (ACEC) (Permit 2011-036A). This is contribution **XX** of
585 the Sydney Institute of Marine Science.

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832

833 **Figure Legends**

834

835 **Figure 1.** Survey sites (open circles) within western Japan [(a) and b)] and south-eastern
836 Australia [(c) and d)]. Tropical reef fishes are supplied to temperate latitudes as larvae from
837 tropical sources by the Kuroshio Current a) and East Australian Current c), where they recruit
838 to novel reef habitats through summer within Japan and Australia, respectively. Juvenile
839 tropical fishes were surveyed at sites by 5-min timed swims within kelp-free reef and kelp
840 habitats, across three seasons in Australia [n = 126 per habitat; b)] and one season in Japan [n
841 = 18 per habitat; d)]; SB = Shelly Beach; LR = Long Reef; NP = Newport; PB = Palm Beach;
842 MB = Maitland Bay; TB = Terrigal Beach; TW = Toowoomb Bay; TA = Tanoura; KU =
843 Kutsuu and US = Usa. Settlement choice experiments were conducted at the Yokonami
844 Rinkai Experimental Station (YO; filled circle).

845

846 **Figure 2.** Mean (\pm S.E.) a) total density and b) species richness of tropical vagrant fishes
847 within non-macroalgal (Grey bars) and macroalgal reef habitats (White bars) within south-
848 eastern (SE) Australia and western (W) Japan. n = 126, five-min timed swims per habitat,
849 pooled across three years for SE Australia, and n = 18 per habitat for one recruitment season
850 in W Japan. * Indicates a significant difference of $P < 0.05$ determined by PERMANOVA.

851

852 **Figure 3.** Principal co-ordinate analysis of tropical vagrant trophic groups within macroalgal
853 and non-macroalgal reef habitats of a) SE Australia and W Japan. Vectors overlaid display
854 the primary groups responsible for division of sites along PCO axis 1, determined by
855 SIMPER analysis (result reported in text). Arrows denotes replicate surveys where no
856 vagrants were detected: n = 110 and 23 in macroalgae and non-macroalgal patches in SE
857 Australia, respectively, and n = 13 in macroalgae in W Japan. In total, n = 126 and 18

858 replicate surveys were conducted in both habitats within SE Australia and W Japan,
859 respectively.

860

861 **Figure 4.** Principal co-ordinate analysis of tropical vagrant fish species within macroalgal
862 (open markers) and non-macroalgal (grey markers) reef habitats of SE Australia, surveyed
863 during 2014. Vectors overlaid display the environmental correlates that best explained
864 variance in fish assemblage data, as determined by DISTLM (result reported in text); Barren
865 = extent of barrens and Temperate Density = overall density of temperate fishes. Arrows
866 denotes replicate surveys where no vagrants were detected: n = 34 and 5 in macroalgal and
867 non-macroalgal patches in SE Australia, respectively, and n = 13 in macroalgae in W Japan.
868 In total, n = 42 replicate surveys were conducted in both habitats.