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1 Title:

2 Meeting fisheries, ecosystem function, and biodiversity goals in a human
3 dominated world

4

5 **One sentence summary:** Simultaneously meeting fisheries, ecosystem
6 function, and biodiversity goals for coral reefs is possible through strategically
7 placed marine reserves and fisheries restrictions.

8

9

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51 **Abstract:**

52 The worldwide decline of coral reefs necessitates targeting management
53 solutions that can sustain reefs and the livelihoods of the people who depend
54 on them. Yet little is known about the context in which different reef
55 management tools can help to achieve multiple social and ecological goals.
56 Due to non-linearities in the likelihood of achieving combined fisheries,
57 ecological function, and biodiversity goals along a gradient of human pressure,
58 relatively small changes in the context where management is implemented
59 could have dramatic impacts on whether these goals are likely to be met or
60 not. Critically, management can provide substantial conservation benefits to

61 the majority of reefs for fisheries and ecological function, but not biodiversity
62 goals, given their degraded state and the levels of human pressure they face.

63

64 **Main Text:**

65 At the forefront of ongoing efforts to sustain coral reef ecosystems in the
66 current period of intense social and environmental change is an increasing
67 need to simultaneously manage for multiple goals, including fisheries,
68 ecosystem functioning, and biodiversity (1, 2). Yet, critical gaps remain in our
69 capacity to effectively implement this type of ecosystem-based management
70 approach, where multiple goals are simultaneously pursued (3). In particular,
71 little is known about: (i) the context under which key goals can be
72 simultaneously met, and (ii) the degree to which local management efforts can
73 help to meet them.

74

75 Here, we compiled data from ~1800 tropical reef sites across 41 countries,
76 states, and territories to examine the conditions under which reefs
77 simultaneously support three ecological metrics reflecting key fisheries,
78 ecological function, and biodiversity goals (4)(Fig. 1, Tables S1-2). These are,
79 respectively: (1) potential stocks available for multi-species coral reef
80 fisheries, calculated as the biomass of fishes >20 cm total length (4)(Fig. 1,

81 Table S2); (2) scraping potential, reflecting a unique ecological function
82 performed by parrotfish that is critical for the removal of algal biomass and
83 the provision of bare substrate for coral settlement (4, 5) (Table S2); and (3)
84 the diversity of species traits (i.e. home range, body size, diet, diurnal activity,
85 schooling behavior, position in the water column), which can underpin
86 aspects of biodiversity such as community assembly processes, ecosystem
87 productivity, and stability (6). We measured trait diversity using a
88 generalization of the Shannon entropy index accounting for both the
89 dissimilarity of trait values present in a reef fish community and the spread of
90 biomass across these trait values (4, 7) (Table S2). Our analysis shows that the
91 three metrics are not strongly related to each other ($r < 0.54$; Fig S1).

92
93 To elucidate the capacity of reefs to simultaneously support multiple goals, we
94 first developed reference conditions for each metric to serve as benchmarks.
95 Reference conditions (also called reference points) are a key concept in
96 fisheries and conservation (8, 9), but are nascent in coral reef science (10). As
97 key reference conditions, we used the top 10% value for each metric
98 (corrected for sampling), but also included additional reference conditions
99 (i.e. the top 5% and 20%) in the supplementary materials (4). We then set
100 aspirational targets of 25, 50, and 75% of reference conditions. When looking

101 at these aspirational targets across multiple goals, we found that only 5% of
102 reef sites simultaneously had fish biomass, parrotfish scraping, and trait
103 diversity at 75% of reference conditions (Fig. 1D). These sites, though
104 reasonably rare, were geographically spread through the Indian, Pacific, and
105 Atlantic ocean basins (Fig 1D). We found that 12.5% of sites simultaneously
106 met the 50% target, and 29.3% of sites met the 25% target (Fig. 1D)

107
108 To examine the context under which key goals can be met, we first developed
109 a series of Bayesian hierarchical models that quantify how the three ecological
110 metrics are related to key socioeconomic drivers of resource exploitation,
111 while controlling for environmental conditions and sampling techniques (4,
112 11, 12)(Fig. S2; Table S3). We then used the posterior distributions from these
113 models to calculate how the probability of simultaneously meeting multiple
114 goals changes along a gradient of human pressure, while holding other
115 covariates constant (4) (Fig. 2, S3, S4). We measured human pressure as the
116 size of human populations in the surrounding seascape divided by the
117 accessibility (in minutes of travel time squared) of our reef sites to them - an
118 adaptation of the economic gravity model used to measure the ‘gravitational
119 pull’ of interactions such as trade and migration (4, 13). Human pressure
120 displayed the most consistent negative relationships to our response variables

121 (Fig. S2). The distribution of human pressure and other key socioeconomic
122 and environmental covariates among our surveyed reefs closely matches that
123 of reefs globally (Fig. S5). The probability of openly fished reef sites
124 simultaneously having all three metrics declined with our measure of human
125 pressure and the ambitiousness of the conservation target (Fig. 2A). In other
126 words, on openly fished reefs it is extremely unlikely that all three goals will
127 be simultaneously met where human pressure is intense, but this likelihood
128 increases where human pressure is low, particularly for the 25% and 50%
129 targets. There was considerable variability in how the probability of meeting
130 individual goals changed along a gradient of human pressure (Fig. 2B-D).

131
132 A critical gap remains in understanding the context in which different local
133 management tools can help to simultaneously achieve key goals (14, 15). To
134 address this, we first examined the probability of reef sites in both fully
135 protected Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) (where fishing is prohibited) and
136 restricted fishing areas (where there are limitations on fishing gears used and
137 who can access the fishing grounds) in achieving key targets for the individual
138 and combined ecological metrics (Fig 2E-L). We then calculated the
139 'conservation gains' from employing these different forms of management
140 along a gradient of human pressure (15) (Fig. 2M-X). By conservation gain, we

141 refer to the difference in probability of achieving a specific target (e.g. 25% of
142 reference condition biomass) when fully protected MPAs or fishery
143 restrictions are implemented relative to openly fished areas. This concept gets
144 at the idea that contexts with maximal conservation gains highlight the best
145 opportunities for management to have the biggest impact; conversely,
146 implementing management in contexts with minimal conservation gains
147 (either because goals are already being met or because they are unlikely to be
148 met regardless of management) provides few returns for limited conservation
149 resources (16).

150

151 Critically, we find that both fully protected MPAs and restricted fishing areas
152 have the potential to provide conservation gains, but the context under which
153 these gains can be maximized is highly variable depending on both the goal
154 and target (Fig. 2M-X). For simultaneously meeting fisheries, function, and
155 biodiversity, maximal conservation gains are from fully protected MPAs in the
156 lowest human pressure locations for the most ambitious target (75% of
157 reference conditions), but as targets become less ambitious, conservation
158 gains peak where human pressure is more intermediate (Fig. 2M). For all
159 three targets, there are minimal conservation gains in locations where human
160 pressure is most intense, which means that in this context, management is

161 unlikely to help meet these goals. For each independent goal, the context
162 under which conservation gains can be maximized varies considerably (Fig 2).
163 Of note is that trait diversity is the least responsive to management, with
164 conservation gains never reaching above 0.4.

165

166 We then simulated how the number of our openly fished sites achieving key
167 conservation targets would change if a fully protected MPA (Fig. 3) or
168 fisheries restrictions (Fig S6) were implemented, given the other conditions at
169 our reef sites. Our analysis reveals both key opportunities and constraints in
170 the capacity for local management to simultaneously meet multiple goals. On
171 one hand, for more than 50% of our fished sites, the implementation of a fully
172 protected MPA is predicted to help achieve multiple goals (Fig. 3A). On the
173 other hand, less than 1% of the sites starting below 25% of reference
174 conditions are predicted to achieve the 75% of reference conditions target,
175 highlighting how the broader seascape context may stunt MPA potential in
176 degraded reefs (15). Indeed, more than half of the 87.4% of openly fished
177 reefs starting below 25% of reference conditions are predicted to remain in
178 the that same category (Fig 3A). Additionally, our analysis shows that even
179 where fishable biomass is very low, scraping potential and trait diversity are
180 often >25% of reference conditions (Fig. 3B-D); a finding supported by

181 previous research showing that herbivores and a diversity of traits can still
182 persist on degraded reefs (17).

183

184 In situations where fishing prohibitions are in direct conflict with achieving
185 certain fisheries goals, other forms of management may be necessary (18). We
186 found that fisheries restrictions provide a similar pattern, but typically lower
187 magnitude, of conservation gains than fully protected MPAs, particularly for
188 achieving the combined goal and fisheries goal (Fig 2Q-X, Fig S6). Of note is
189 that for parrotfish scraping potential, fishing restrictions provide the same
190 conservation gains as MPAs, providing multiple ways to achieve that specific
191 goal (Fig. 2W).

192

193 Together, our findings provide guidance on what can be realistically achieved
194 with various forms of local management regarding key fisheries, ecological
195 function, and biodiversity goals on coral reefs. We highlight key pros and cons
196 of placing management in different areas by demonstrating how potential
197 conservation gains vary not only by goal, but also are strongly dependent on
198 both the ambitiousness of the target and the context (Fig. 2, S3, S4). In
199 particular, the potential for local management to help in meeting goals is
200 strongly related to the amount of human pressure in the surrounding

201 seascape (Fig. 2, S2). A key finding is that conservation gains tend to change
202 non-linearly with human pressure, which means that relatively small changes
203 in the context where management is implemented could have big impacts on
204 whether key goals are likely to be met (Fig. 2M-X). This not only has important
205 implications for the placement of new MPAs, but is also relevant to how future
206 socioeconomic changes, such as infrastructure development and population
207 growth may impact the efficacy of reef conservation. However, the impacts of
208 these changes could potentially be buffered by making management more
209 effective, for example, by leveraging insights about using social norms and
210 cognitive biases to improve compliance (19, 20) and learning lessons about
211 key practices and processes from locations that have defied expectations of
212 global reef degradation (12, 21). Our global analysis makes clear the
213 limitations of local management, especially in promoting certain aspects of
214 biodiversity like trait diversity. While international action on climate change
215 will be crucial for ensuring a future for coral-dominated reefs (1, 2), effective
216 management will also be critical to sustaining reefs and the millions of
217 livelihoods that depend on them.

218

219

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348 developed and implemented the analyses; J.E.C. led the manuscript. All other authors
349 contributed to data collection and made substantive contributions to the text. **Competing**
350 **interests:** none. **Data and materials availability:** data is permanently archived on the
351 James Cook University Tropical Data Hub(22) and the code is archived at Zenodo (23).

352

353 Supplementary Materials

354 Materials and Methods

355 Table S1 – S7
356 Fig S1 – S4
357 References (24 – 59)

358

359 **Figure Legends**

360 **Figure 1| Meeting multiple goals on coral reefs.** The distribution of (A)
361 biomass of reef fish >20cm (n=1798), (B) parrotfish scraping potential
362 (n=1662), and (C) trait diversity (n=1662), all in natural log and corrected for
363 sampling (4). Differences in the number of sites are because one data provider
364 collected data at the family level, which could not be used in calculating
365 parrotfish scraping potential or trait diversity. Parrotfishes were not detected
366 at 31% of our reef sites (Fig. S1). (D) Sites that simultaneously have fish
367 biomass, parrotfish scraping potential, and trait diversity at >75% (purple),
368 50-75% (dark pink), 25-50% (light pink), and <25% (black) of reference
369 conditions (4). Points are jittered to allow for visualization of overlapping reef
370 sites.

371

372 **Figure 2 | The estimated probability of openly fished reef sites having 25,**
373 **50, and 75% of reference conditions (light, medium, and dark purple,**
374 **respectively).** (A) a combination of fish biomass (>20cm), parrotfish scraping
375 potential, trait diversity, and (B-D) each metric, respectively, along a gradient
376 of human pressure (gravity). Separate estimates are provided for reef sites in

377 fully protected Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) where fishing is prohibited (E-
378 H) and with restricted fishing (I-L). To highlight how the potential benefits of
379 management change along a gradient of human pressure (gravity), we
380 extracted the difference in the probability of achieving each target between
381 MPAs and openly fished sites (M-P), restricted and openly fished areas (Q-T),
382 and MPAs and restricted areas (U-X). We plotted the partial effect of the
383 relationship between gravity and each target by setting all other continuous
384 covariates to 0 (because they were all standardized) and all categorical
385 covariates to their most common category (i.e. 4-10m for depth, slope for
386 habitat, standard belt transect for census method). Gravity (x axis) is
387 standardized, with an average of 0.

388

389 **Fig. 3| Conservation target outcomes from simulating the**
390 **implementation of fully protected Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) in**
391 **openly fished sites.** Alluvial plots show the change in the number of sites
392 expected to achieve key conservation targets if MPAs were implemented in
393 our openly fished sites for (A) simultaneously meeting fish biomass, parrotfish
394 scraping potential, and trait diversity, and (B-D) each goal, respectively. The
395 left hand side of each plot shows the current conditions and the right hand
396 side shows the expected conditions if MPAs were implemented. Black <25%,

397 light pink =25-50%, dark pink=50-75%, and purple >75% of reference
398 conditions.

399

400