

Largest global shark biomass found in the northern Ga<mark>lá</mark>pagos Islands of Darwin and Wolf

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Overfishing has dramatically depleted sharks and other large predatory fishes worldwide except for a few remote or well-protected areas. The islands of Darwin and Wolf in the far north of the Galápagos Marine Reserve (GMR) are known for their large shark abundance, making them a global scuba diving and conservation hotspot. Here we report quantitative estimates of fish abundance at Darwin and Wolf using stereo-video surveys, which reveal the largest fish biomass ever reported (16 t ha⁻¹ on average), consisting largely of sharks. Despite this, the abundance of reef fish around the GMR, such as groupers, has been severely reduced because of unsustainable fishing practices. Although Darwin and Wolf are within the GMR, they are not fully protected from fishing. Stronger protection is required to preserve this ecological hotspot of unique global value.

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9 Abstract

10 Overfishing has dramatically depleted sharks and other large predatory fishes worldwide except for a few remote or well-protected areas. The islands of Darwin and Wolf in the far north of the 11 12 Galápagos Marine Reserve (GMR) are known for their large shark abundance, making them a global scuba diving and conservation hotspot. Here we report quantitative estimates of fish 13 abundance at Darwin and Wolf using stereo-video surveys, which reveal the largest fish biomass 14 ever reported (16 t ha⁻¹ on average), consisting largely of sharks. Despite this, the abundance of 15 16 reef fish around the GMR, such as groupers, has been severely reduced because of unsustainable 17 fishing practices. Although Darwin and Wolf are within the GMR, they are not fully protected 18 from fishing. Stronger protection is required to preserve this ecological hotspot of unique global 19 value.

20 Introduction

21 Overfishing has reduced biomass of most sharks and other large predatory fishes worldwide by 22 over 90% (Baum et al., 2003; Myers & Worm, 2003; Ward-Paige et al., 2010), and even remote 23 locations have been severely impacted (Sibaja-Cordero, 2008; Dulvy et al., 2008; Graham, 24 Spalding & Sheppard, 2010; White et al., 2015). One in four species of cartilaginous fishes is 25 now threatened with extinction due primarily to overexploitation and habitat loss (Dulvy et al., 26 2014). The systematic removal of sharks from marine ecosystems has negative effects that 27 propagate throughout the entire food web (Bascompte, Melián & Sala, 2005; Myers et al., 2007; 28 Heithaus, Wirsing & Dill, 2012). Only a few localities worldwide still maintain large abundances 29 of top predatory fishes due to either being remote and unfished, or having recovered after full 30 protection from fishing (Sandin et al., 2008; Aburto-Oropeza et al., 2011; Graham & 31 McClanahan, 2013; Friedlander et al., 2014a).

32 The Galapagos Islands are known worldwide for its iconic terrestrial fauna and flora, due in large 33 part to a young Charles Darwin who sailed to these islands in 1835 (Darwin, 1839). While 34 Galapagos giant tortoises, Darwin's finches, and mocking birds have received much of the 35 attention since Darwin's visit, the underwater Galapagos remains under-studied and largely 36 unknown. The far northern islands of Darwin and Wolf in the 133,000 km² Galapagos Marine 37 Reserve (GMR) represent a unique hotspot for sharks and other pelagic species (Hearn et al., 38 2010, 2014; Ketchum et al., 2014a; Acuña-Marrero et al., 2014). Most of the studies around this 39 area have focused on the migration of scalloped hammerhead sharks (Sphyrna lewini) and other 40 sharks species between Darwin and Wolf and other localities in the Eastern Tropical Pacific 41 (Hearn et al., 2010; Bessudo et al., 2011; Ketchum et al., 2014a). An ecological monitoring 42 program has visited the islands over the past 15 with a strong sampling focus to survey reef fishes 43 and invertebrate communities (Edgar et al., 2011). However, no study to date has examined 44 extensively the density, size, and biomass of sharks and other large predatory fishes around 45 Darwin and Wolf. We conducted an expedition to Darwin and Wolf in August 2014 to establish 46 comprehensive abundance estimates for shark and predatory fish assemblages at Darwin and 47 Wolf.

48 Materials and Methods

This research was approved by the Galapagos National Park Directorate (GNPD) as part of the 2014 annual operational plan of the Charles Darwin Foundation (Research permit PC-40-14).

51 Site description

52 Darwin and Wolf are the two northernmost islands in the Galapagos Archipelago, a group of 13 53 major islands and 100 islets and rocks located 1000 km west of mainland Ecuador, in the ETP 54 (Snell, Stone & Snell, H. L., 1996); (Fig.1). The Galapagos Archipelago lies at the congruence of 55 three major oceanic currents, which provides a highly dynamic and unique oceanographic setting. 56 (Palacios, 2004). Darwin and Wolf represent the far northern biogeographic region of the 57 archipelago and are heavily influenced by the warm Panama current that comes from the 58 Northeast, which supports sub-tropical marine communities to these islands (Edgar et al., 2004; 59 Acuña-Marrero & Salinas-De-León, 2013). Darwin and Wolf are small (approximately 1 and 2 60 km², respectively) and represent the tops of eroded, extinct submerged volcanoes, which rose 61 from the surrounding seafloor > 2000 m below (McBirney & Williams, 1969; Peñaherrera-Palma, 62 Harpp & Banks, 2013). Darwin and Wolf are exposed to a predominant north-western water flow

63 that supports a unique pelagic assemblage on the south-eastern portions of these islands (Hearn et

64 al., 2010). In contrast to much of the Galapagos, which is dominated by the cold equatorial

65 counter-current, the waters of Darwin and Wolf range from 22.5 to 29 C throughout the year,

66 peaking during February-March (Banks, 2002).

67 Data collection

68 Underwater census using Diver Operated Stereo-video

69 A diver operated stereo-video system (DOV) was used to sample fish assemblages around 70 Darwin and Wolf in August 2014. DOVs use two Canon HFG-25 full high-definition cameras 71 mounted 0.7 m apart on a base bar inwardly converged at seven degrees and are operated by 72 experienced divers using standard open-circuit SCUBA equipment. DOVs can overcome some of 73 the biases associated with Underwater Visual Census (UVC) by eliminating the inter-observer effect and the over/underestimation of sampling area and fish lengths estimations (Harvey & 74 75 Shortis, 1995, 1998; Shortis et al., 2000; Harvey, Fletcher & Shortis, 2001, 2002; Harvey et al., 76 2003, 2004; Goetze et al., 2015)

77 Fishes were surveyed at seven sites around Wolf (n = 4) and Darwin (n = 3) islands (Fig. 1) 78 during August 2014. At each site, divers towed a surface buoy equipped with a GPS (Garmin 79 GPSmap 78) to create a detailed track of the area surveyed, with GPS position and exact time 80 recorded using a watch synchronized with the GPS at the beginning and end of each survey 81 (Schories & Niedzwiedz, 2012). Divers followed the 20 m depth contour for a period of 25-30 82 min in order to complete a minimum of ten 50 m long and 5 m wide replicate transects at each 83 site. Dive times were based on preliminary surveys that revealed that swimming at a constant 84 speed, a 2-minute DOVS survey covered approximate 50 m. At some sites, strong currents resulted in longer distances covered by the survey team, resulting in a greater area surveyed at 85 86 some of the study sites. The diver towing the GPS also conducted standard UVCs to record 87 sharks and large pelagics (50x5x5 m) in parallel to the stereo surveys, therefore the 2 minute 88 surveys were also used to synchronize both sampling methodologies (Supplementary 89 Information).



Figure 1. Survey locations around Darwin and Wolf Islands.



91 Calibration and video analysis

92 Stereo-video cameras were calibrated prior to field deployments using the program CAL (SeaGIS 93 Pty Ltd, Harvey & Shortis 1998). Following the dives, paired videos were viewed on a large 94 monitor and analysed in the program Event Measure (SeaGIS Pty Ltd). Every fish observed was 95 identified to species and measured to the nearest mm (FL). Lengths were converted to biomass 96 (kg) using published length-weight relationships (Froese & Pauly, 2007). For individual fishes 97 that were not measured (e.g. not present in both camera views), we calculated biomass using an 98 average total length for that species from the site where it occurred. Cryptic reef fishes (<8cm) 99 were excluded from our surveys due to the limited ability of the DOVs to detect these species and their lack of importance to the fisheries and overall biomass (Ackerman & Bellwood, 2000). 100 101 Fishes were classified into four different tropic categories based on published information: Apex 102 predators, lower-level carnivores, planktivores and herbivores (Friedlander & DeMartini, 2002)

103 For largely abundant schooling fishes, primarily the abundant planktivorous species locally 104 known as gringo (Paranthias colonus), which form dense schools that are difficult to quantify, 105 we developed a specific methodology in the software Event Measure. For each of the study sites 106 surveyed, we measured to the nearest mm a subsample of 100 individuals across all replicate 107 transects and obtained a specific set of mean individual lengths. Then, transects were divided into 108 blocks of identical length using the GPS tracks and every individual for each 10x5x5 m wide 109 'cube' was counted. The number of cubes varied according to transect lengths. Total biomass for 110 these sites were obtained by multiplying the total numbers of individuals counted in each cube by 111 the mean individual length for each species at that site.

112 Statistical tests

113 Patterns of fish biomass between islands and exposures were analyzed using generalized linear 114 mixed models (Zuur, 2009) using the R package glmmADMB (Skaug & Fournier, 2004) in the R 115 statistical program version 3.0.2 (R Development Core Team). Due to the skewed nature of our 116 biomass estimates, data were fit with a gamma error structure with an inverse link function that 117 works well for continuous-positive data and has a flexible structure (Crawley, 2011). Location 118 was used as a random effect in the model. Biomass by trophic group was assessed in a similar 119 manner except data were fitted to negative binomial distributions due to the number of zero in 120 these data. Unplanned post hoc multiple comparisons were tested using a Tukey's honestly 121 significant difference (HSD) test.

122 To describe the pattern of variation in fish trophic structure and their relationship to environmental factors we performed direct gradient analysis (redundancy analysis: RDA) using 123 124 the ordination program CANOCO for Windows version 4.0 (Ter Braak, 1994). Response data 125 were compositional and had a gradient < 3 SD units long, so linear methods were appropriate. 126 The RDA introduces a series of explanatory (environmental) variables and resembles the model 127 of multivariate multiple regression, allowing us to determine what linear combinations of these 128 environmental variables determine the gradients. The environmental data matrix included island 129 (Darwin, Wolf) and exposure (NW, SE). To rank environmental variables in their importance for 130 being associated with the structure of the assemblages, we used a forward selection where the 131 statistical significance of each variable was judged by a Monte-Carlo permutation test (ter Braak) 132 & Verdonschot, 1995). Permutations tests were unrestricted with 499 permutations.

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- 133 Similarity of Percentages (SIMPER) was used to determine the fish species most responsible for
- 134 the percentage dissimilarities between islands and exposures using Bray-Curtis similarity analysis
- 135 of hierarchical agglomerative group average clustering (Clarke, 1993).
- 136 Differences in fish trophic biomass were tested using permutation-based multivariate analysis of
- 137 variance (PERMANOVA, (Anderson, Gorley & Clarke, 2008)). Data were 4th-root-transformed.
- 138 Pair-wise tests were conducted between island x exposure combinations.

Results 139

- 140 Overall fish biomass averaged 15.9 t ha⁻¹ (\pm 33.0 SD), and was 4.5 times larger at Darwin (28.3 \pm
- 46.3) than at Wolf (6.3 ± 8.9 SD); (Fig. 2; Table 1). In addition to this large difference in biomass 141
- 142 between islands (z=2.6, p=0.008), biomass was > 20 times higher at the SE exposures (26.2 \pm
- 143 40.0 SD) compared to NW exposures $(1.3 \pm 1.5 \text{ SD}, z=9.7, p<0.001)$. However, there was a
- significant interaction, with NW Darwin (0.5 ± 0.2 SD) differing from all other island x exposure 144 combinations. Total biomass at SE Darwin (40.7 \pm 51.3 SD) did not diff from SE Wolf (10.6 \pm
- 145 146
- 10.8 SD), while NW Wolf $(1.7 \pm 1.6 \text{ SD})$ and SE Wolf were also similar to one another.



Figure 2. Fish trophic biomass (t ha⁻¹**) by island and sampling site.** Error bars are standard 147 148 error of the mean.

149 Table 1. Comparisons of fish trophic biomass by island and exposure. Results of generalized

- 150 linear mixed models fit with a gamma error structure and an inverse link function. Unplanned
- 151 post hoc multiple comparisons tested using a Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test.
- 152 Only significant multiple comparisons are shown.

	Estimate	Std. Error	Z	Р
Island	1.22	0.46	2.6	0.008
Exposure	4.39	0.45	9.7	< 0.001
Island x	2.58	0.58	4.4	< 0.001
Exposure				
Darwin SE (40.7 ±	= 51.3) Wolf SE (10.	6 ± 10.8) Wolf NW	(1.7 ± 1.6) Darwin	n NW (0.5 ± 0.2)

Hammerhead sharks (*Sphyna lewini*) dominated the fish assemblage, accounting for 68% of the overall biomass. This was followed by Galapagos sharks, *Carcharhinus galapagensis* (11% of total biomass), gringos *Paranthias colonus* (11%), and bluefin trevally *Caranx melampygus* (4%). Hammerheads were recorded at 71% of the survey sites but were most abundant at the Arch at Darwin, with a mean biomass of 43.0 t ha⁻¹ (\pm 63.0 SD). Galapagos sharks were most abundant at Shark Point (Wolf) with a mean biomass of 8.4 t ha⁻¹ (\pm 12.1 SD). Gringos were most abundant at the Arch (Darwin) with a mean biomass of 5.1 t ha⁻¹ (\pm 4.3 SD).

160 The average dissimilarity between islands, based on species biomass, was 77% with hammerhead 161 sharks accounting for 36% of the dissimilarity, followed by gringos (23%) and Galapagos sharks 162 (12%); (Table 2). The average dissimilarity between exposures was 91%, with the same species 163 assemblage accounting for this dissimilarity (Table S1).

Table 2. Fish species most responsible for the dissimilarity between Darwin and Wolf islands
based on Similarity of Percentages (SIMPER) analysis. Values for islands are biomass (t ha⁻¹).
Diss. – average dissimilarity. SD – Standard deviation. Contrib% – percent contribution to

Species	Darwin	Wolf	Diss. (±SD)	Contrib. %	Cum.%
Sphyrna lewini	21.98	2.21	27.19 (0.88)	35.55	35.55
Paranthias colonus	2.79	0.92	17.83 (0.89)	23.31	58.86
Carcharhinus galapagensis	1.12	2.37	9.15 (0.59)	11.96	70.82
Caranx melampygus	1.43	0	4.03 (0.4)	5.27	76.09
Prionurus laticlavius	0.06	0.06	2.11 (0.46)	2.75	78.84
Taeniura meyeni	0	0.11	2.07 (0.2)	2.71	81.55
Scarus ghobban	0.02	0.02	1.74 (0.33)	2.28	83.83
Holacanthus passer	0.05	0.04	1.74 (0.38)	2.27	86.11
Kyphosus analogus	0	0.11	1.72 (0.17)	2.24	88.35
Melichthys niger	0.04	0.01	1.05 (0.43)	1.37	89.72
Caranx sexfasciatus	0.2	0	0.65 (0.24)	0.85	90.57

167 dissimilarity. Cum. % – Cumulative dissimilarity.

168 Apex predators (primarily hammerhead and Galapagos sharks) accounted for 84.9% of the total

169 biomass on transects, followed by planktivores (11.3%), lower level carnivores (2.8%), and

170 herbivores (1.0%); (Fig. 1). Trophic structure, based on biomass, was not significantly different

171 between islands, but differed between exposures, as well as the interaction between islands and

172 exposures, with all island x exposure pairwise comparisons different from one another except for

173 NW Darwin and NW Wolf (Table 3).

174 Table 3. Differences in fish trophic biomass by island and exposure. Results of permutation-

175 based multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) followed by pair-wise tests are shown.

176 Data were 4th-root-transformed.

177	Source	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P (perm)
178	Island	1	466.8	1.02	0.354
179	Exposure	1	22371.0	48.84	0.001
180	Island x Exposure	1	3610.9	7.88	0.001
181	Residual	62	458		
182	Total	65			

Pair-wise comparison	t	Perm (p)
SE Darwin – SE Wolf	2.98	0.002
NW Darwin – NW Wolf	1.01	0.345
SE Darwin – NW Darwin	8.72	0.001
SE Wolf – NW Wolf	3.13	0.002

183 Differences in biomass of apex predators among locations were dramatic, with mean biomass at

184 the SE locations around Darwin (35.9 \pm 52.5), nearly 4 times higher than SE Wolf (9.1 \pm 10.5).

185 Biomass of sharks was trivial at NW Wolf (0.05 \pm 0.14), with no sharks present at NW Darwin,

186 thus precluding statistical comparisons. Biomass of planktivores was 3.7 times greater at the SE

187 sites (Arch and Old Reef at Darwin; Shark Point and Rockfall at Wolf) compared to the NW sites

188 (North Wall at Darwin; Anchorage and Banana at Wolf) (Table 3a). Similarly, lower-level

189 carnivores were twice more abundant in the SE compared with the NW (Table 3b). In contrast,

190 herbivore biomass was > 6 times larger at the NW locations compared to the SE (Table 3c).

191 Table 3. Comparisons of fish trophic biomass by island and exposure. Results of generalized

192 linear mixed models fit with negative binomial error structure. Unplanned post hoc multiple

193 comparisons tested using a Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. Only significant

194 multiple comparisons are shown. A. Planktivores, B. Herbivores, and C. Lower-level carnivores.

A. Planktivores	Estimat	Std. Error	z	Р
	e			
Island	1.06	1.179	0.9	0.369
Exposure	3.332	1.177	2.83	0.005
Island x Exposure	-2.849	1.519	-1.88	0.061
SE $(2.6 \pm 2.8) > NV$				

B. Herbivores	Estimate	Std. Error	Z	Р
Island	0.564	0.546	1.03	0.302
Exposure	-1.33	0.544	-2.44	0.015
Island x	-0.772	0.706	-1.09	0.274
Exposure				
NW (0.32 ± 0.76) > SE (0.05 ± 0.07)				

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C. Carnivores	Estimate	Std. Error	Z	Р
Island	0.902	0.693	1.3	0.193
Exposure	1.424	0.686	2.08	0.038
Island x	-1.295	0.898	-1.44	0.149
Exposure				
SE (0.60 ± 1.03)				

195 The SE locations at Darwin (Arch and Old Reef) were distinct in ordination space from the other

196 locations. This distinction was driven largely by apex predators and planktivores (Fig. 3). Banana

197 at Wolf Island was well separated from the other locations. Exposure to the prevailing current

198 explained most of the variation among locations, accounting for > 67% of the total (Table 3).



Figure 3. Biplot of results of redundancy analysis of fish trophic biomass with location and wave exposure. Black circles are locations around Wolf and red circles are locations around Darwin. Crosses are wave exposures. Diamonds are centroids of Darwin and Wolf. Vectors are magnitude and directional effects of each trophic group on orientation of locations in ordination space.

204	Table 3. A.	Results o	of redundancy	analysis	(RDA)	on square	root	transformed	fish	trophic
205	biomass with	n environn	nental variable	es (e.g., i	island, wa	ave exposi	ire). E	B. Conditiona	al eff	fects of

206 Monte-Carlo permutation results on the redundancy analysis (RDA).

A. Statistic	Axis 1	Axis 2	Axis 3
Eigenvalues	0.49	0.01	0.001
Pseudo-canonical correlation	0.74	0.39	0.35

Explained variation (cumulative)	49.51	50.73	50.87
Explained fitted variation (cumulative)	97.14	99.54	100.00
B. Variable	Pseudo-F	р	% explained
SE	32.7	0.002	33.8
NW	32.7	0.002	33.8
Rockfall	13.4	0.004	11.6
Arch	3.8	0.042	3.1

207 Discussion

208 The first quantitative fish surveys using the stereo-video approach around Darwin and Wolf islands revealed the largest fish biomass reported to date worldwide (Fig. 4). This extraordinary 209 210 biomass, which consists mostly of sharks, is considerably larger than the next largest fish 211 biomasses reported at Cocos Island National Park (Friedlander et al., 2012) and the Chagos Marine Reserve (Graham et al., 2013). Our results add to the growing body of literature that 212 demonstrates that nearly pristine areas are dominated by top predatory fishes, mainly sharks 213 (Friedlander & DeMartini, 2002; Sandin et al., 2008; Graham et al., 2013; Friedlander et al., 214 2013, 2014a). At Darwin and Wolf, top predators account for an astonishing 85% of the fish 215 216 biomass, a percentage found previously only at the pristine Kingman Reef on the Line Islands 217 (Sandin et al., 2008). Inverted biomass pyramids had been unreported until recent surveys of pristine coral reefs (Sala, 2015), and they can be maintained when the top levels of the food web 218 have a much lower turnover rate (slower growth rate per biomass unit) than their prey (Sandin & 219 220 Zgliczynski, 2015). In the case of Darwin and Wolf, these high levels of predatory fish biomass are supported not only by the high abundance of lower trophic levels fish on the reefs but also the 221 222 very productive surrounding pelagic waters



Figure 4 Biomass at Darwin and Wolf compared to other remote pristine locations and
MPAs around the world. Data from (Sandin et al., 2008; DeMartini et al., 2008; AburtoOropeza et al., 2011; Friedlander et al., 2012, 2013, 2014a,b; Graham et al., 2013).

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226 Sharks, mainly hammerhead and Galapagos sharks, dominated the fish assemblage, but other 227 predators like the bluefin trevally, black jack (*Caranx lugubris*) and bigeye jack (*C. sexfasciatus*) 228 were also common at several of the sites surveyed (Fig.5a-c). Our results revealed a marked 229 concentration of sharks and planktivorous fish biomass at the southeast corners of Darwin (Arch 230 and Old Reef sites) and Wolf (Rockfall and Shark Point). The higher abundance at these SE 231 locations may be related to local oceanographic features, dominated by a unidirectional current 232 from the southeast to the northwest that collides with the southeast corner of both islands (Hearn 233 et al. 2010). This may enhance productivity that supports rich benthic and planktivorous fishes, 234 mainly gringos, which may serve as a food source for sharks and other fishes around these islands 235 (Hamner et al., 1988). It is important to consider that these results likely represent maximum 236 annual shark biomass because the surveys were carried out during the cold season, when 237 hammerhead sharks are most abundant (Palacios, 2004; Hearn et al., 2014). Seasonal changes in 238 fish assemblages and biomass are likely since hammerheads are known to migrate from these 239 islands between February and June (Ketchum et al., 2014b). Future studies should focus on 240 seasonal trends and depth gradients (Lindfield, McIlwain & Harvey, 2014) in shark abundance 241 and distribution.



Figure 5 Common encounters around Darwin and Wolf Islands. A large school of
hammerhead sharks (*Sphyrna lewini*, B. A group of Galapagos sharks (*Carcharhinus galapagensis*), including a couple of heavily pregnant females, C. A large female whale shark
(*Rhincodon typus*) swims among a school of hammerhead sharks. All photos by Pelayo Salinasde-León.

A total ban on the capture, transport, and trade of sharks within the GMR was established in 2000

248 (AIM, 2000). However, illegal fishing within GMR boundaries (Jacquet et al., 2008; Carr et al.,

249 2013) and recent efforts by local artisanal fishermen to expand longline fishing, a practice banned

since 2005 due to extremely large by-catch [35-36], threaten shark populations. While veteran divers report larger abundance of sharks at Darwin and Wolf over the past 30 years (Peñaherrera-

- 251 divers report larger abundance of sharks at Darwin and won over the past 50 years (Penalerrera-252 Palma et al., 2015), the absence of long-term quantitative studies to monitor shark and large
- 253 pelagic fish on a systematic basis and with enough replication does not allow an accurate

 Σ

assessment of the magnitude of decline of shark populations at Darwin and Wolf. By comparison,

the recent analysis of a 21-year monitoring program for sharks and large pelagic fishes at Cocos

Island National Park in Costa Rica revealed a sharp decline in 8 of the 12 elasmobranch species monitored, including the endangered hammerhead shark and the giant manta ray (*Manta*

258 *birostris*) (White et al., 2015).

259 Despite the large shark biomass at Darwin and Wolf, our surveys also revealed a low overall 260 biomass of predatory reef fishes such as the leatherbass (Dermatolepis dermatolepis) and the 261 sailfin grouper (Mycteroperca olfax), both endemic to the Eastern Tropical Pacific (ETP) (Grove 262 & Lavenberg, 1997). These species are highly prized by Galapagos artisanal fishermen, but their 263 life histories (e.g., long lives, slow growing) make them extremely vulnerable to overfishing 264 (Aburto-Oropeza & Hull, 2008; Usseglio et al., 2015). Leatherbass biomass reported for Darwin 265 and Wolf (0.008 t ha^{-1 \pm} 0.05 SD) is 14 times lower than at the unfished Cocos Island (0.1 t ha⁻¹) 266 (Friedlander et al., 2012). Artisanal fishermen are known to directly target the only reported 267 spawning aggregation for *M. olfax* in the GMR (Salinas-de-León, Rastoin & Acuña-Marrero, 268 2015), an unsustainable fishing practice known to deplete reefs fish stocks at an alarming rate 269 (Sala, Ballesteros & Starr, 2001; Sadovy & Domeier, 2005; Erisman et al., 2011; Hamilton et al., 270 2012). The low biomass estimates for groupers reported here are likely caused by the unregulated 271 artisanal fishery for demersal fishes in the GMR that directly targets over 50 coastal fish species 272 and has been shown to have a negative impact on coastal resources of the GMR (Ruttenberg, 273 2001; Molina et al., 2004; Burbano et al., 2014; Schiller et al., 2014).

274 Our results also add to the growing body of literature that supports the use of the stereo video 275 methodology as a complement to traditional visual census, as this technique improves the accuracy and precision of fish length estimates (Harvey, Fletcher & Shortis, 2001, 2002), 276 277 produces more accurate estimates of area surveyed (Harvey et al., 2004), and eliminates the inter-278 observer bias associated with species identification (Mallet & Pelletier, 2014). Our study, one of 279 the few to evaluate the use of DOVs with large and highly mobile species such as sharks, 280 confirmed that even experienced divers tend to underestimate the individual length of large fishes 281 (Supplementary material).

282 **Conservation implications**

283 This study adds to the growing body of literature that highlights the ecological uniqueness and 284 the global irreplaceable value of Darwin and Wolf. These islands not only harbour the largest 285 shark biomass reported to date, but also represent a unique tropical bioregion within the GMR 286 (Edgar et al., 2004). In addition, they are home to the last true coral reefs in the GMR (Banks, 287 Vera & Chiriboga, 2009; Glynn et al., 2009). These islands also represent essential stepping 288 stones for endangered and highly migratory species, such as hammerhead sharks (Hearn et al., 289 2010; Bessudo et al., 2011; Ketchum et al., 2014a). They are key waypoints for a recently 290 documented migration probably related to reproductive purposes for the largest fish species on the planet, the whale shark Rhincodon typus (Acuña-Marrero et al., 2014) (Fig. 5d), and are home 291 292 to the only known reproductive aggregation for the regionally endemic sailfin grouper (Salinas-293 de-León, Rastoin & Acuña-Marrero, 2015). These islands are visited by deep-water species such 294 as the smalltooth sandtiger shark Odontaspis ferox (Acuña-Marrero et al., 2013), and are 295 surrounded by numerous seamounts and active hydrothermal vents that harbour unique biological 296 communities (Salinas-de-León, unpublished data) (Fig. 6).



Figure 6. High-resolution bathymetry around Darwin and Wolf Islands. Recent multi-beam echo sounder surveys around D&W have revealed the presence of a number of seamounts (white triangles) and active hydrothermal vents and black smokers (white stars) that support unique biological communities. Additional inferred seamounts (grey triangles) are likely to be discovered to the West of the Islands. Source: (Dennis et al., 2012), Ocean Exploration Trust NA-064 2015.

303 The economic benefits of ecotourism from sharks are far greater than shark fishing (Clua et al., 304 2011; Gallagher & Hammerschlag, 2011; Cisneros-Montemayor et al., 2013). For instance, the 305 net present value of the average hammerhead shark at Cocos Island National Park was estimated 306 at \$1.6 million, compared to the \sim \$200 that a fisherman obtains by selling a dead shark 307 (Friedlander et al., 2012). In Galápagos, the net present value of a shark to the tourism industry is 308 an astonishing \$5.4 million (Lynham et al., 2015). The value of a shark to the tourism industry is ~ \$360,000 per year, compared to \$158 obtained from a dead shark (Lynham et al., 2015). That 309 310 makes sharks alive in Galápagos the most valuable on Earth. Despite their high economic value 311 and iconic importance, only about 50 km² of the waters around Darwin and Wolf (representing an 312 insignificant 0.04% of the total GMR area) are fully protected from fishing.

313 Given the large-scale migrations reported for several shark species around Wolf and Darwin 314 (Bessudo et al., 2011; Ketchum et al., 2014a), and the night foraging excursions by scalloped 315 hammerhead sharks of up to ~30 km from shore (Ketchum et al., 2014a), present levels of protection are clearly insufficient. Expanding levels of protection around Darwin and Wolf, 316 317 including the establishment of a large no-take zone that includes some of the numerous 318 seamounts located around these islands (Fig. 6) (similarly to other fully-protected areas in the 319 region such as Isla del Coco in Costa Rica or Malpelo in Colombia) is critical to ensure the 320 recovery and long-term preservation of one of the most extraordinary marine ecosystems on the 321 planet - and an economic engine for Ecuador.

322 Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Charles Darwin Foundation and the Galapagos National Park Directorate for their institutional support to this study. We are grateful to all the staff of the Charles Darwin Research Station that made this study possible. Special thanks to Jennifer Suarez and Jose Feijoo for their field assistance. We are also very grateful to the crew of the expedition yatch MV Queen Mabel for their logistical support. This publication is contribution number 2XXX of the Charles Darwin Foundation for the Galapagos Islands. The research was partly funded by the Helmsley Charitable Trusts.

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