

Diversity and abundance of macrocrustaceans on coral reefs differing in level of degradation

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Coral reefs sustain abundant and diverse macrocrustaceans that perform multiple ecological roles, but coral reefs are undergoing massive degradation that may be driving changes in the species composition and abundance of reef-associated macrocrustaceans. To provide insight into this issue, we used non-destructive visual census techniques to compare the diversity and abundance of conspicuous macrocrustaceans (i.e., those >1 cm and visible without disturbance) between two shallow Caribbean coral reefs similar in size (~1.5 km in length) and close to each other, but one ("Limones") characterized by extensive stands of the branching coral *Acropora palmata*, and the other ("Bonanza") dominated by macroalgae and relic coral skeletons (i.e., degraded). We also assessed the structural complexity of each reef and the percent cover of various benthic community components. Given the type of growth of *A. palmata*, we expected to find a greater structural complexity, a higher cover of live coral, and a lower cover of macroalgae on Limones, and hence a more diverse and abundant macrocrustacean community on this reef compared with Bonanza. Overall, we identified 64 macrocrustacean species (62 Decapoda and two Stomatopoda). Contrary to our expectations, the structural complexity did not differ significantly between the back-reef zones of these reefs and the diversity and abundance of macrocrustaceans were higher on Bonanza than on Limones despite live coral cover being higher on Limones and macroalgal cover on Bonanza. However, the use of various types of microhabitats by macrocrustaceans differed substantially between reefs. On both reefs, the dominant species were the clinging crab *Mithraculus coryphe* and the hermit crab *Calcinus tibicen*, but the former was more abundant on Bonanza and the latter on Limones. *M. coryphe* occupied a diverse array of microhabitats but mostly coral rubble and relic skeletons, whereas *C. tibicen* was often, but not always, found associated with colonies of *Millepora* spp. A small commensal crab of *A. palmata*, *Domecia acanthophora*, was far more abundant on Limones, emerging as the main discriminant species between reefs. Our results suggest that local diversity and abundance of reef-

associated macrocrustaceans are partially modulated by habitat degradation, the diversity of microhabitat types and the establishment of different commensal associations rather than by structural complexity alone.

Diversity and abundance of macrocrustaceans on coral reefs differing in level of degradation

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ABSTRACT

Coral reefs sustain abundant and diverse macrocrustaceans that perform multiple ecological roles, but coral reefs are undergoing massive degradation that may be driving changes in the species composition and abundance of reef-associated macrocrustaceans. To provide insight into this issue, we used non-destructive visual census techniques to compare the diversity and abundance of conspicuous macrocrustaceans (i.e., those >1 cm and visible without disturbance) between two shallow Caribbean coral reefs similar in size (~1.5 km in length) and close to each other, but one (“Limones”) characterized by extensive stands of the branching coral *Acropora palmata*, and the other (“Bonanza”) dominated by macroalgae and relic coral skeletons (i.e., degraded). We also assessed the structural complexity of each reef and the percent cover of various benthic community components. Given the type of growth of *A. palmata*, we expected to find a greater structural complexity, a higher cover of live coral, and a lower cover of macroalgae on Limones, and hence a more diverse and abundant macrocrustacean community on this reef compared with Bonanza. Overall, we identified 64 macrocrustacean species (62 Decapoda and two Stomatopoda). Contrary to our expectations, the structural complexity did not differ significantly between the back-reef zones of these reefs and the diversity and abundance of macrocrustaceans were higher on Bonanza than on Limones despite live coral cover being higher on Limones and macroalgal cover on Bonanza. However, the use of various types of microhabitats by macrocrustaceans differed substantially between reefs. On both reefs, the dominant species were the clinging crab *Mithraculus coryphe* and the hermit crab *Calcinus tibicen*, but the former was more abundant on Bonanza and the latter on Limones. *M. coryphe* occupied a diverse array of microhabitats but mostly coral rubble and relic skeletons, whereas *C. tibicen* was often, but not always, found associated with colonies of *Millepora* spp. A small commensal crab of *A. palmata*, *Domecia acanthophora*, was far more abundant on Limones, emerging as the main discriminant species between reefs. Our results suggest that local diversity and abundance of reef-associated macrocrustaceans are partially modulated by habitat degradation, the diversity of microhabitat types and the establishment of different commensal associations rather than by structural complexity alone.

INTRODUCTION

Habitat complexity is an important factor driving the abundance and diversity of associated species by facilitating niche separation and resource partitioning (Vytöpil & Willis, 2001; Idjadi & Edmunds, 2006). Keystone structures (*sensu* Tews et al., 2004) are distinct spatial structures that create complex habitats that facilitate species' coexistence by offering food resources and shelter against predators and various environmental stressors (Bruno & Bertness, 2001; Kerry & Bellwood, 2015). In coral reefs, keystone structures are created by scleractinian corals, which provide great spatial complexity to the system and multiple shelters for other organisms in the form of crevices, holes, and branches.

The role of corals in maintaining abundant and diverse communities of reef invertebrates is well recognized. For example, Stella et al. (2011) identified 869 coral-associated invertebrate species, with arthropods (mostly crustaceans) as the major contributors to the overall diversity. Not only are reef macrocrustaceans (in particular Decapoda and Stomatopoda) highly diverse; they are also abundant and perform multiple ecological roles. They are part of numerous feeding guilds, acting as predators, parasites, herbivores, scavengers, and detritivores, as well as suspension and deposit feeders (Abele, 1976; Glynn & Enochs, 2011; Stella et al., 2011), and constitute a critical link between primary production and a wide array of higher order consumers, including reef fishes (Randall, 1967). Some macrocrustaceans defend live coral from potential predators (McKeon & Moore, 2014), maintain coral health by clearing sediments (Stewart et al., 2006), or eliminate parasites from reef fishes, many of which are of economic value (Becker & Grutter, 2004). Therefore, macrocrustaceans are a key component of coral reef ecosystems, making it necessary to understand the potential effects that coral reef degradation may have on their communities.

Coral reefs are undergoing massive degradation due to the effects of multiple stressors, including climate change induced-bleaching, increases in disease outbreaks and prevalence, eutrophication, and invasive or destructive fishing practices (Hughes et al., 2017). This is particularly true for Caribbean coral reefs, where declines in reef architectural complexity and phase shifts from coral to macroalgal dominance have been extensively documented (Gardner et al., 2003; Álvarez-Filip et al., 2009; Bruno et al., 2014; Jackson et al., 2014; Suchley, McField & Álvarez-Filip, 2016). Coral reef degradation is likely to have serious consequences for ecosystem functioning and services, as well as for reef biodiversity (Álvarez-Filip et al., 2009), and there is

support for this latter assumption in the case of reef fishes (e.g. Graham et al., 2011; Coker, Wilson & Pratchett, 2014; Álvarez-Filip et al., 2015; Newman et al., 2015). However, predictions for invertebrate taxa are less clear because different studies have reported contrasting results (see Graham & Nash, 2013). For example, in Papua New Guinea, the density and abundance of several macroinvertebrate groups, including motile crustaceans, decreased in reefs with lower architectural complexity due to acidification compared with more complex reefs (Fabricius et al., 2014). In the US Virgin Islands, diversity, but not abundance, of invertebrates was positively related with topographic complexity, but not with coral diversity or live coral cover (Idjadi & Edmunds, 2006). Invertebrate assemblages were more diverse and abundant on dead than on live coral habitats in Panama (Nelson, Kuempel & Altieri, 2016), whereas habitat complexity accounted for very little of the variability in invertebrates (including arthropods) on Caribbean *Orbicella* reefs (Newman et al., 2015). These contrasting results suggest that many reef-associated invertebrates do not necessarily benefit from the presence of live corals per se, but from the complex 3-D framework of coral reefs, which can persist for years after the death of corals.

One of the most structurally complex Caribbean corals is the branching coral *Acropora palmata*. This species, once dominant in the region, form thick stands that provide an intricate network of crevices on shallow-water reefs (< 5 m). The populations of this species have sustained extensive mortality since the early 1980s, substantially reducing coral cover, increasing substratum for algal growth, and drastically reducing reef complexity (Aronson & Precht, 2001; Alvarez-Filip et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2014). Currently, *Acropora*-dominated reefs are rare. For example, a recent assessment in 107 sites along the Mesoamerican Reef (MAR) revealed that *A. palmata* was present (mostly at low cover values) in only 20% of the sites, and that only one site (Limonas reef), located in the northernmost Mexican portion of the MAR, exhibited extensive stands of *A. palmata* resulting in a high (>35%) cover of this branching coral (Rodríguez-Martínez et al., 2014). Therefore, assessing the composition and structure of the ecological condition on these *Acropora*-dominated reefs is crucial to elucidate how reef degradation is modifying the ecological relationships on coral reefs.

The aims of the present study were twofold: to obtain a list of species of conspicuous macrocrustaceans associated to shallow Caribbean reef habitats, and to compare the diversity and abundance of these macrocrustaceans between Limonas reef and another reef (Bonanza), similar

in size to Limones but highly degraded, to elucidate the potential effects of coral reef degradation on this type of invertebrates. We predicted that the diversity and abundance of macrocrustaceans would be higher in Limones because the presence of extensive stands of live *A. palmata* would presumably confer a greater structural complexity and provide a broad diversity of microhabitats potentially used by reef-associated species (Roberts & Ormond, 1987; Garpe et al., 2006).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study site

The study was conducted at the Puerto Morelos Reef National Park (PMRNP; Fig. 1a), a marine protected area located on the NE coast of the Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico. The PMRNP is an extended fringing reef system composed of a series of reef units that differ in size and structural complexity (Lozano-Álvarez et al., 2017; Morillo-Velarde et al., in press). Coral cover tends to be greater on the back-reef and crest zones than on the low-relief fore-reef, which descends gradually into an extensive sand platform at 20-25m (Jordán-Dahlgren, 1993). Two of these reef units are “Limones” (centered at 20°59.1’ N, 86°47.9’ W) and “Bonanza” (centered at 20°57.6’ N, 86°48.9’ W) (Fig. 1). Both reefs are similar in length, depth and distance from the coast, but differ in their level of degradation. As noted before, Limones is an exceptional site due to its abundant and generally healthy populations of *Acropora palmata*, which provide reef structure and essential fish habitat (Rodríguez-Martínez et al., 2014; Morillo-Velarde et al., in press). In contrast, Bonanza, which in 1985 had 33% cover of live coral and 4% cover of algae (Jordán-Dahlgren, 1993), currently exhibits extensive areas of relic *Acropora* skeletons (Fig. 1) and a predominance of erect macroalgae (Morillo-Velarde et al., in press). Based on a number of broad- and local-scale resilience indicators, including coral cover, Ladd & Collado-Vides (2013) categorized Limones as a high-resilience site and Bonanza as a low-resilience site. Fishing activities are banned on both reefs since 1996. Bonanza is open to visitation, whereas tourist activities are not allowed in Limones since 2014 given the high ecological value of Limones (Rodríguez-Martínez et al., 2014).

Macrocrustacean surveys

Sampling by divers remains the most efficient way to find reef-associated species when they are large enough to be seen (Knowlton et al., 2010; Giraldes, Coelho Filho & Coelho,

2012). Therefore, we used SCUBA diving to conduct quantitative surveys of conspicuous macrocrustaceans (herein defined as motile crustaceans larger than ~1 cm) via belt transects, with a permit issued by Comisión Nacional de Acuacultura y Pesca (PPF/DGOPA-259/14). On each reef, we haphazardly laid thirty 25-m transects on the back reef zone along the length of the reef. We recorded all macrocrustaceans observed within 1 m to the right and 1 m to the left of the transect line (i.e., an area of 50 m² per transect), both over the substrata and under coral rubble. Individuals were identified *in situ* to the lowest possible taxonomic level by two trained divers. Only a few individuals that could not be identified *in situ* were collected in zip-lock bags and taken to the laboratory for their identification. Also recorded was the type of microhabitat in which each specimen was observed. These microhabitats included *Acropora palmata*, *Agaricia agaricites*, other live corals, *Millepora* spp., dead coral skeletons, coral rubble, gorgonians, algae, anemones, and sand. Despite their relatively large size, many macrocrustaceans hide deeply in holes and crevices in coral reefs during the day but forage over the reef substrata at night, therefore, to obtain a species list as complete as possible, we further conducted qualitative surveys on each reef by recording all specimens observed during three separate nocturnal 1-h dives.

Structural complexity and benthic community

We assessed the current ecological condition of the back-reef zones of Limones and Bonanza by using two metrics of structural complexity and estimating the percent cover of different components of the benthic community. Structural complexity was assessed with the Habitat Assessment Score (HAS; Gratwicke & Speight, 2005) and the rugosity index (Risk, 1972; Álvarez-Filip et al., 2009), and benthic community composition was obtained with the point intercept method (Hill & Wilkinson, 2004).

HAS provides an overall structural complexity value by visually evaluating six variables of the local topography (rugosity, variety of growth forms, height, refuge size categories, percentage of live cover and percentage of hard substratum). Each variable is assigned a score between 1 and 5 (from smallest or lowest to largest or highest), and the sum of the individual scores is the HAS. Therefore, a score of 6 would represent the least complex habitats and a score of 30 would represent the most complex habitats. HAS values were obtained in three 4 m² quadrats positioned at the beginning, middle, and end of each of nine transects per reef, and the

three values were averaged to obtain the transect-level HAS.

The rugosity index is the ratio of the length of a chain molded to the reef surface to the linear distance between its start and end points. A perfectly flat surface would have a rugosity index of one, with larger numbers indicating more complex surfaces. The rugosity index and the percent cover of components of the benthic community components were obtained from 10-m transects marked every 10 cm (100 point per transect), laid parallel to the coast (21 in Bonanza and 24 in Limones). Briefly, a diver recorded which of the following benthic components was found under each mark: live hard corals, calcareous macroalgae, fleshy macroalgae, coralline algae, algal turf, cyanobacterial mat, other invertebrates (e.g. zoanthids, *Millepora*, *Cliona*), other components (e.g. sand, seagrass).

Data analysis

Structural complexity and benthic community

HAS values were compared between reefs with a simple ANOVA because the data met the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances, as previously checked with Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. In contrast, the rugosity values did not meet these assumptions and were compared between reefs with a Mann-Whitney U test. A significance level of 95% was used in all cases. All analyses were performed in PAST v2.17c. The percent data on the benthic community structure were logit-transformed (Warton & Hui, 2011) and subjected to a principal component analysis (PCA). Then, the data for each benthic component was compared between reefs with a Student's *t*-test.

Characterization of the macrocrustacean community

Quantifying biodiversity is problematic because there is no single “best” index. However, simple indices (i.e., those that measure species richness) can be slightly preferable when the primary goal is to detect effects of external factors on diversity, whereas compound indices (i.e., those that combine measures of richness and abundance) can be preferable when the primary goal is to differentiate sites by their level of diversity (Magurran & Dornelas, 2010; Morris et al., 2014). Given the aims of the present study, we used both types of indices for the macrocrustaceans from each reef. These indices included species richness (*S*, number of species), Simpson's dominance ($D = \sum (n_i/N)^2$, where n_i is number of individuals of the *i*th species and *N*

is total number of individuals), Shannon-Wiener's diversity ($H' = -\sum_{i=1}^s p_i \log_2 p_i$, where H' is the information contained in the sample (bits/individual) and $p_i = n_i/N$), and Pielou's evenness ($J' = H'/\log S$). The ecological indices were compared between reefs with ANOVAs. Species accumulation and rarefaction curves were computed using EstimateS v9.1.0 (Gotelli & Colwell, 2001).

The community composition of macrocrustaceans was analyzed using non-parametric techniques with PRIMER 6 v6.1.9 (PRIMER-E Ltd). Differences in the taxonomic composition between Limones and Bonanza were analyzed by non-metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) on fourth-root transformed data, using the Bray-Curtis similarity measure (Clarke, 1993). The statistical significance of the observed differences in the macrocrustacean assemblages between reefs was further tested with a one-way analysis of similarity (ANOSIM). This test provides an R-value indicative of the degree of difference between samples as well as a p-value for the significance of that difference. R values close to 0 are indicative of little difference while values close to 1 are indicative of a large difference in sample composition (Clarke & Warwick, 2001). Finally, we did a similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER, Clarke, 1993) to identify those species responsible for the observed differences in community composition between both reefs. For each of the 10 most abundant species, we also compared the density, standardized as individuals (ind.) 50 m^{-2} , between reefs with individual Student's t tests.

RESULTS

Structural complexity and benthic community components

The back-reef zones of Limones and Bonanza did not differ significantly in either mean HAS values (mean \pm 95% confidence interval: Limones: 18.3 ± 2.07 , Bonanza: 18.0 ± 1.50) (ANOVA, $F = 0.066$, $df = 1, 16$, $p = 0.801$) or rugosity index (Limones: 1.33 [1.13-2.21]. median [interquartile range]; Bonanza: 1.24 [1.07-1.38]) (Mann-Whitney U test, $U = 182$, $z = 1.764$, $n_1 = 25$, $n_2 = 25$, $p = 0.078$). However, the percent cover of various components of the benthic community did differ between reefs (Fig. 2). In particular, live coral cover was much higher on Limones, whereas the cover of fleshy macroalgae, calcareous macroalgae, and cyanobacterial mats were significantly higher on Bonanza (Fig. 2). In the PCA, the first two components explained 63% of the total variance (Fig. 3). The first component explained 40.2% of the

variance and was positively correlated with fleshy macroalgae (loading: 0.640) and negatively correlated with live hard coral (-0.685). The second component explained 22.8% of the variance and was strongly positively correlated with turf algae (0.728) and negatively correlated with live hard coral (-0.449) (Fig. 3). Most transects on Limones differed from those on Bonanza along the first component.

The macrocrustacean assemblage

In all, we registered 64 species of macrocrustaceans (Table 1), including seven that were only observed during the nocturnal dives (i.e., not quantified). These species were representatives of the Infraorders Brachyura (33 species), Caridea (11), Anomura (10), Achelata (5), Axiidea (2), and Stenopodidea (1); the Superfamily Penaeoidea (1), and the stomatopod family Gonodactyloidea (2 species). Twelve species, mostly rare (i.e., with <3 individuals), were only identified to the superfamily or family level. The most diverse superfamily was Majoidea, with 22 species. The number of species was higher on Bonanza than on Limones (44 vs 33 species), as was the abundance (2800 vs 2067 individuals) (Table 1).

On both reefs, the number of species increased with the number of transects (accumulation curves, Fig. 4), but more steeply on Bonanza than on Limones. Rarefaction curves did not reach an asymptote for either reef, suggesting that the species richness of conspicuous macrocrustaceans on these reefs is even higher. All ecological indices differed significantly between reefs (Table 2), with Bonanza exhibiting higher levels of S ($F_{1,58} = 9.07$, $p = 0.004$), H' ($F_{1,58} = 17.97$, $p < 0.001$), and J' ($F_{1,58} = 10.09$, $p = 0.002$), and Limones exhibiting a higher D ($F_{1,58} = 18.60$, $p < 0.001$).

Macrocrustacean assemblages differed significantly between reefs (ANOSIM, $R = 0.279$, $p < 0.001$) but with some overlap (Fig. 5), suggesting a similar abundance of some species on both reefs. Indeed, SIMPER revealed that the clinging crab *Mithraculus coryphe* and the hermit crab *Calcinus tibicen* were the most abundant species on both reefs, accounting for 71.4% and 62.2% of the similarities observed in Limones and Bonanza, respectively (Table 3). Within Limones, the composition of macrocrustaceans exhibited an average similarity among transects of 48.1%, mainly due to three species: *C. tibicen*, *M. coryphe* and *Domecia acanthophora*, with *C. tibicen* as the major contributor (45.2%). Within Bonanza, the average similarity among transects was 46.9%, with *M. coryphe* emerging as the main contributor (33.1%), followed by *C.*

tibicen (29.1%) and *Neogonodactylus oerstedii* (8.8%). On Limones, six species accounted for 90% of the observed similarity, whereas on Bonanza, this same percentage was accounted for by eight species (Table 3). The crustacean assemblages of Limones and Bonanza exhibited a mean dissimilarity of 58.5%, with *D. acanthophora* as the main contributor to this dissimilarity (8.1%), followed by *M. coryphe* (6.6%) and *Pagurus brevidactylus* (6.4%).

Despite wide variability among transects, the density of some of the 10 most abundant species differed significantly between reefs (Fig. 6). This was the case for *D. acanthophora*, which had a significantly higher density on Limones (12.6 ± 7.8 ind. 50 m^{-2} , mean \pm 95% CI, than on Bonanza (1.5 ± 1.9 ind. 50 m^{-2}), and for *M. coryphe*, which exhibited a higher density on Bonanza (33.9 ± 14.4 ind. 50 m^{-2}) than on Limones (9.7 ± 3.6 ind. 50 m^{-2}), as was also the case for *M. sculptus* and *N. oerstedii* (Fig. 6). In contrast, the density of *C. tibicen* did not differ significantly between reefs (Limones: 38.1 ± 10.2 ind. 50 m^{-2} ; Bonanza: 33.4 ± 10.1 ind. 50 m^{-2}). Two of the most abundant species were recorded on Limones only (*Petrolisthes galathinus*, *Paguristes cadenati*) and one was recorded on Bonanza only (*Paguristes tortugae*) (Fig. 6).

Microhabitats used by macrocrustaceans

On Limones, the types of microhabitats more commonly occupied by macrocrustaceans were, on descending order, *Millepora* spp., *A. palmata*, coral rubble, dead coral skeletons, and *Agaricia agaricites*, and on Bonanza, coral rubble, dead coral skeletons, macroalgae, *A. agaricites*, and *Millepora* spp. (Fig. 7). Some of these microhabitats constitute components of the benthic community and hence their percent cover was estimated. For example, the average percent cover of *A. palmata* and *Millepora* spp. was higher on Limones (29% and 3.6%, respectively) than on Bonanza (3.5% and 1.9%, respectively). In contrast, the percent cover of fleshy and calcareous macroalgae was higher on Bonanza (32.1% and 15.4%, respectively) than on Limones (19.7% and 5.2%, respectively). However, other types of microhabitat (e.g., coral rubble, relic coral skeletons, gorgonian, sand) were not quantified because they are not components of the benthic community.

DISCUSSION

Contrary to our expectations, Bonanza supported a more diverse and abundant macrocrustacean community than Limones, and this occurred despite the structural complexity

of the back-reef zone not varying significantly between both reefs, as suggested by their similar rugosity indices and HAS scores. However, the two reefs differed in the percent cover of distinct benthic community components, and the types of microhabitats used by macrocrustaceans differed substantially between reefs.

Live coral cover (mostly *Acropora palmata*) was much greater on Limones than on Bonanza, whereas the opposite occurred for fleshy and calcareous macroalgae, and cyanobacterial mats. These results support previous studies concluding that Bonanza has sustained substantial degradation over the past few decades, whereas Limones is an exceptional site due to its healthy populations of *Acropora palmata* (Rodríguez-Martínez et al., 2014). Previously, Morillo-Velarde et al. (in press) found a significant difference in rugosity between Limones and Bonanza, but these authors measured this variable in only eight transects over the central part of each reef, where development of *A. palmata* on Limones appears to be greater. The similarity in structural complexity between the back-reef zones of these reefs that we found could be partially explained by the presence of extensive areas of dead coral skeletons on Bonanza as opposed to the extensive stands of live *A. palmata* on Limones. These results are consistent with studies suggesting that live coral cover is not necessarily a key factor determining the level of structural complexity as long as the reef structure persists (Lindahl, Ohmann & Schelten, 2001; Nelson, Kuempel & Altieri, 2016), i.e., that the relic skeletons (i.e. those left behind after the coral tissue dies) and the structural diversity they create can be important factors determining the diversity and structure of invertebrate communities (Idjadi & Edmunds, 2016). However, in addition to relic skeletons, different types of benthic components can provide different types of microhabitats for invertebrates such as crustaceans.

Despite the limitations of our visual census method, which was restricted to conspicuous taxa and especially excluded small cryptofauna, we found that the macrocrustacean species richness of Limones and Bonanza was high, as previously reported for other Caribbean reef systems (Reed et al., 1982; Martínez Iglesias & García Raso, 1999; Briones-Fourzán & Lozano-Álvarez, 2002). However, given that many crustaceans hide deeply in reef crevices or under sediments during the day and only emerge at night to forage (Glynn & Enochs, 2011), a more exhaustive sampling would undoubtedly increase the number of macrocrustacean species recorded in these reefs (e.g. Alpheididae and Thalassinidae) as indicated by the rarefaction curves (see Fig. 4).

Most of the species that we observed on both reefs were facultative coral-dwelling crustaceans, i.e., species that are not considered to be fundamentally dependent upon abundant live coral for their local persistence (Stella et al., 2011). Although there was some overlap in the macrocrustacean community composition between reefs, most diversity indices were higher on Bonanza except for the dominance index, which was higher on Limones. These results likely reflect a greater heterogeneity of microhabitats on Bonanza, which is characterized by the abundance of relic coral skeletons, coral rubble, and fleshy and calcareous macroalgae (Morillo-Velarde et al., in press; the present study), than on Limones, which is characterized by extensive stands of *A. palmata* (Rodríguez-Martínez et al., 2014). The latter would also explain why *Domestia acanthophora*, a small commensal crab of *Acropora* spp. (Patton, 1967), was the main contributor to the dissimilarity between reefs. This species is considered an obligate coral-dwelling crab (Patton, 1967), i.e., a species having strong reliance on live corals for food, habitat, and/or recruitment (Stella et al., 2011). On the other hand, fleshy and calcareous macroalgae, which were more abundant on Bonanza, offer high quality microhabitats to grazing species (Roff et al., 2013) such as majoid crabs of the genera *Mithraculus*, *Mithrax*, *Omalacantha*, and *Maguimithrax*, which use their modified, spooned-shaped chelae to feed on these algae (Coen, 1988; Stachowicz & Hay, 1996; Butler & Mojica, 2012). Consequently, majoids were among the most abundant macrocrustaceans on Bonanza, particularly *M. coryphe*, which on this reef was often found in coral rubble overgrown by macroalgae.

The diogenid *Calcinus tibicen* had a similar abundance as *M. coryphe* on Bonanza, but was the dominant species on Limones. This small hermit crab, which is an omnivorous detritivore (Hazlett, 1981), has also been reported as abundant on shallow coral reefs in Panama (Abele, 1976), Cuba (Martínez Iglesias & García Raso, 1999), the Virgin Islands (Brown & Edmunds, 2013), and Brazil (Giraldes, Coelho Filho & Coelho, 2012). Brown & Edmunds (2013) discovered that *C. tibicen* can live commensally on hydrozoans of the genus *Millepora* (“fire corals”). Fire corals were more abundant on Limones than on Bonanza, and many of the individuals of *C. tibicen* that we observed were dwelling on *Millepora* colonies. However, the overall abundance of fire corals was low and we also found *C. tibicen* on virtually all types of microhabitats except for anemones and sand, consistent with Brown & Edmunds’ (2013) conclusion that the association with fire corals is facultative for this crab. In particular, *C. tibicen*

was observed in high numbers on relic coral skeletons and coral rubble on both reefs, but especially on Bonanza, where these types of microhabitats abounded.

Our results would appear to confirm that, rather than structural complexity, the variety of microhabitats (i.e., small-scale habitat structure, Dumas et al., 2013) is an important factor driving the diversity and abundance of reef-associated crustaceans (Abele, 1976; Head et al., 2015; Giraldez et al., 2017), as is the diversity of mutualistic relationships that these animals can establish with other taxa (e.g., Patton, 1994; Briones-Fourzán et al., 2012; Brown & Edmunds, 2013). However, this does not mean that reef-associated crustaceans will benefit from coral reef degradation over the long term, because changes in the abundance and species diversity could eventually result in ecosystem shifts through alteration of local food webs and species interactions (Prezlawski et al., 2008). For example, *A. palmata* provides habitat for many species, but is very vulnerable to bleaching and diseases (Aronson & Precht, 2001; Stella et al., 2011). In Australia, coral colonies displaying a significant reduction in live tissue cover due to partial mortality exhibited an increase in the abundance and richness of small invertebrate species, suggesting that as coral cover is reduced, new microhabitats arise within the colony, allowing other species to occupy new niches (Stella, Jones & Pratchett, 2010). Thus, dead *A. palmata* may become important for macrocrustaceans for which the relic coral skeletons and coral rubble are preferred microhabitats. Kramer, Bellwood & Bellwood (2014) already highlighted the importance of dead coral and coral rubble as key microhabitats for reef-dwelling decapod crustaceans, as did Nelson, Kuempel & Altieri (2016) for other invertebrates. In addition to providing refuge, relic skeletons and coral rubble are typically overgrown with macroalgae, increasing their microhabitat value for various herbivorous species. Similarly, dead coral colonies have been long known to be an important microhabitat for many species of small cryptic crustaceans (e.g., Coles, 1980; Enochs, 2012). However, long-term coral loss may dictate the availability of these microhabitats (Head et al., 2015; Lozano-Álvarez et al., 2017), because degraded coral reefs continue to erode over time (Perry et al., 2012).

Specialist species are more vulnerable to disturbances and hence would be expected to be more profoundly affected by coral reef degradation (Munday, 2004; Álvarez-Filip et al., 2015). Based on our results, it would appear that *Domecia acanthophora* would be more profoundly affected if Limones underwent an increase in degradation. Indeed, *D. acanthophora* was far more abundant on Limones, where its preferred microhabitat (*A. palmata*) abounded, but we also

found it on *Millepora* spp. colonies on both reefs, although proportionally more on Bonanza, suggesting that these small crabs can associate with other sessile invertebrates in the absence of acroporids. For example, Reed et al. (1982) recorded *D. acanthophora* in *Oculina* reefs. Interestingly, Head et al. (2015) found large numbers of obligate coral-dwelling crabs on dead coral colonies of *Acropora* and *Pocillopora* across five different atolls. These crabs appeared to be explicitly recruiting to or moving to dead coral hosts at certain stages in their life cycle, with no relationship with the abundance of live coral (Head et al., 2015).

In summary, we recorded a higher diversity and abundance of conspicuous macrocrustaceans on a more degraded reef, dominated by macroalgae and relic coral skeletons, than on a reef with extensive stands of live *A. palmata*. These results add to an increasing number of studies concluding that relic skeletons and the structural complexity they create on some reefs are important factors determining the diversity and structure of the invertebrate communities (Idjadi & Edmunds, 2006), and that reef invertebrates, in particular crustaceans, appear to be more resilient to reef degradation than reef-associated fishes (Head et al., 2015; Newman et al., 2015; Nelson, Kuempel & Altieri, 2016). However, the effect of coral reef degradation on small reef-associated invertebrates may depend to a large extent on small-scale features that are not necessarily provided or modulated by corals (Dumas et al., 2013). Given the ongoing tendency to increase of coral reef degradation, future studies should investigate the relative importance of different types of microhabitats at different scales and the occurrence of mutualistic relationships for maintaining diversity and abundance of reef-associated macrocrustaceans.

CONCLUSIONS

Structural complexity is an important factor driving the diversity and abundance of reef-associated macrocrustaceans, but so is the variety of local microhabitats and of mutualistic relationships that these animals can establish with other taxa. We found a greater diversity and abundance of macrocrustaceans in a more degraded coral reef (Bonanza) than in a reef characterized by extensive stands of live *Acropora palmata* (Limonas), but the latter exhibited a higher level of dominance, reflecting the presence in high numbers of a few species that establish mutualistic relationships with *A. palmata* and hydrozoans. On Limonas, relic skeletons and coral rubble were typically overgrown with macroalgae, thus offering refuge and food to herbivorous

species of macrocrustaceans. However, coral reef degradation continues to increase, making it necessary to investigate the relative importance of different types of microhabitats at different scales and at different levels of degradation for maintaining diversity and abundance of reef-associated macrocrustaceans.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Study area

Location of the studied reef units, Limones (well-preserved) and Bonanza (degraded), at Puerto Morelos.

Figure 2. Percent cover of benthic community components

Percent cover of different benthic community components over Limones reef (green columns) and Bonanza reef (blue columns). Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Asterisks at the end of a component name denote significant differences between reefs ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Figure 3. Principal Components Analysis (PCA) of percent cover of benthic components.

Bi-plot on logit-transformation of percent cover of benthic components over the two studied reefs, Limones (green dots) and Bonanza (blue dots). Each dot represents a transect. LHC: live hard coral, TA: turf algae, FMA: fleshy macroalgae, CMA: calcareous macroalgae; CCA: coralline algae, CYAN: cyanobacterial mats, OINV: other sessile invertebrates, Other: other components (sand, seagrass).

Figure 4. Species accumulation and rarefaction curves.

Accumulation and rarefaction curves for macrocrustacean species recorded in Bonanza and Limones reefs. Thirty belt transects, 50 m² each, were sampled on each reef. Rarefaction curves for either reef do not reach an asymptote, indicating the existence of more species.

Figure 5. nMDS ordination

Non-metric multidimensional (nMDS) ordination of macrocrustacean community structure in samples from Limones reef (green triangles and dashed lines) and Bonanza reef (blue circles and continuous lines), based on species abundances. Each symbol denotes a transect.

Figure 6. Density of macrocrustaceans per reef

Mean density (number of individuals 50 m⁻²) of the most abundant macrocrustaceans per reef: Limones (green columns) and Bonanza (blue columns). Error bars are 50% confidence intervals.

Figure 7. Types of microhabitats used by macrocrustaceans

Comparison of the types of microhabitats used by macrocrustaceans on each reef, Limones (green columns) and Bonanza (blue columns).

Figure 1(on next page)

Study area.

Location of the studied reef units, Limones (well-preserved) and Bonanza (degraded), at Puerto Morelos, México.

Figure 1

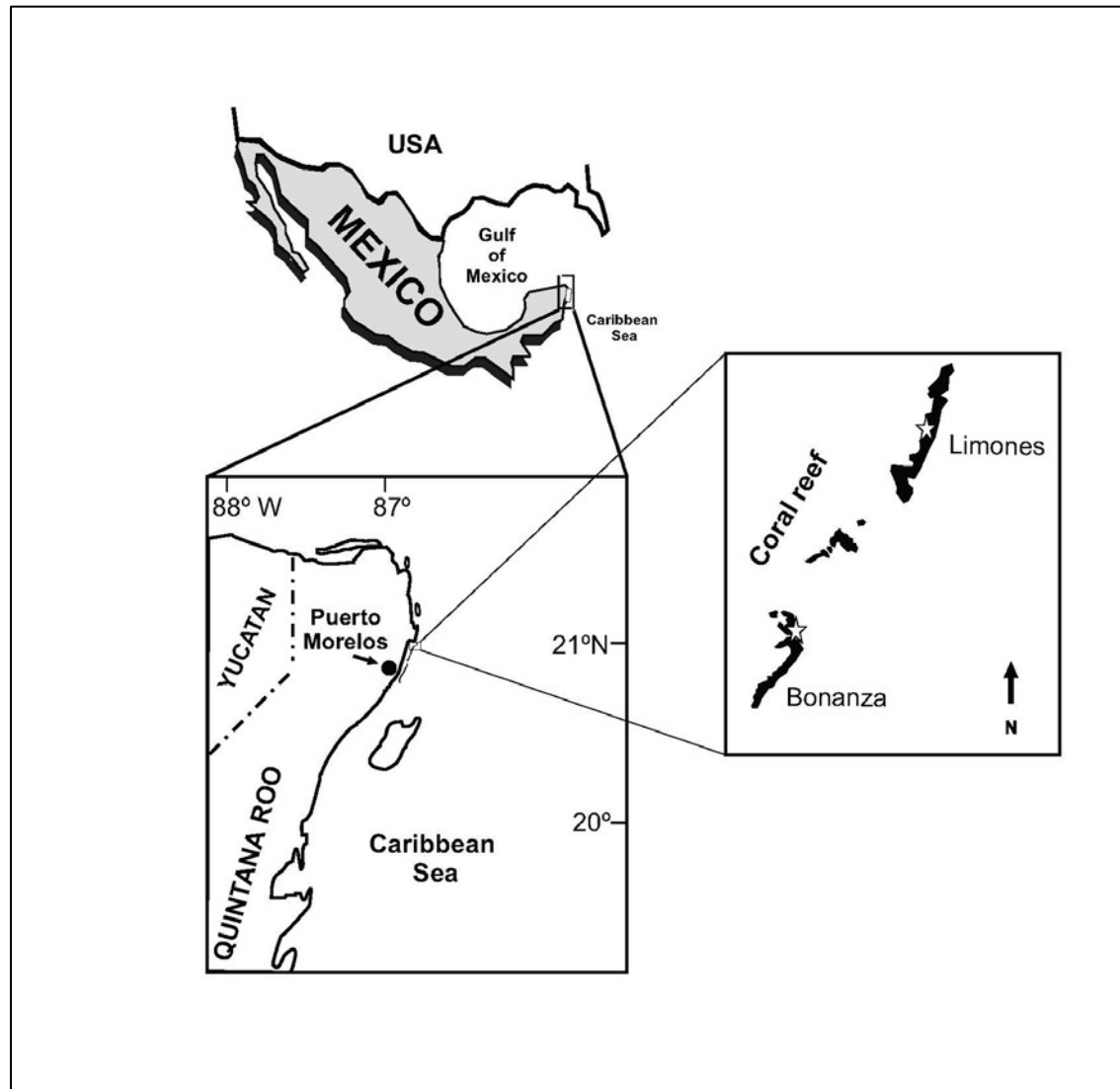


Figure 2

Percent cover of benthic community components.

Percent cover of different benthic community components over Limones reef (green columns) and Bonanza reef (blue columns). Error bars are 95% confidence intervals.

Asterisks at the end of a component name denote significant differences between reefs ($\alpha = 0.05$).

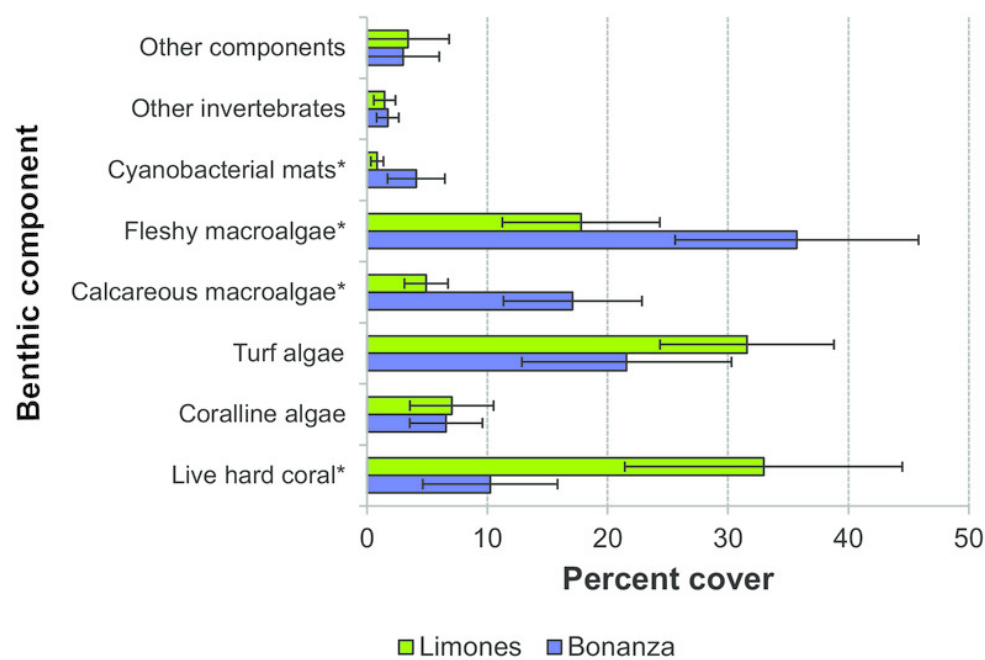


Figure 3

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) of percent cover of benthic components.

Bi-plot on logit-transformation of percent cover of benthic components over the two studied reefs, Limones (green dots) and Bonanza (blue dots). Each dot represents a transect. LHC: live hard coral, TA: turf algae, FMA: fleshy macroalgae, CMA: calcareous macroalgae; CCA: coralline algae, CYAN: cyanobacterial mats, OINV: other sessile invertebrates, Other: other components (sand, seagrass).

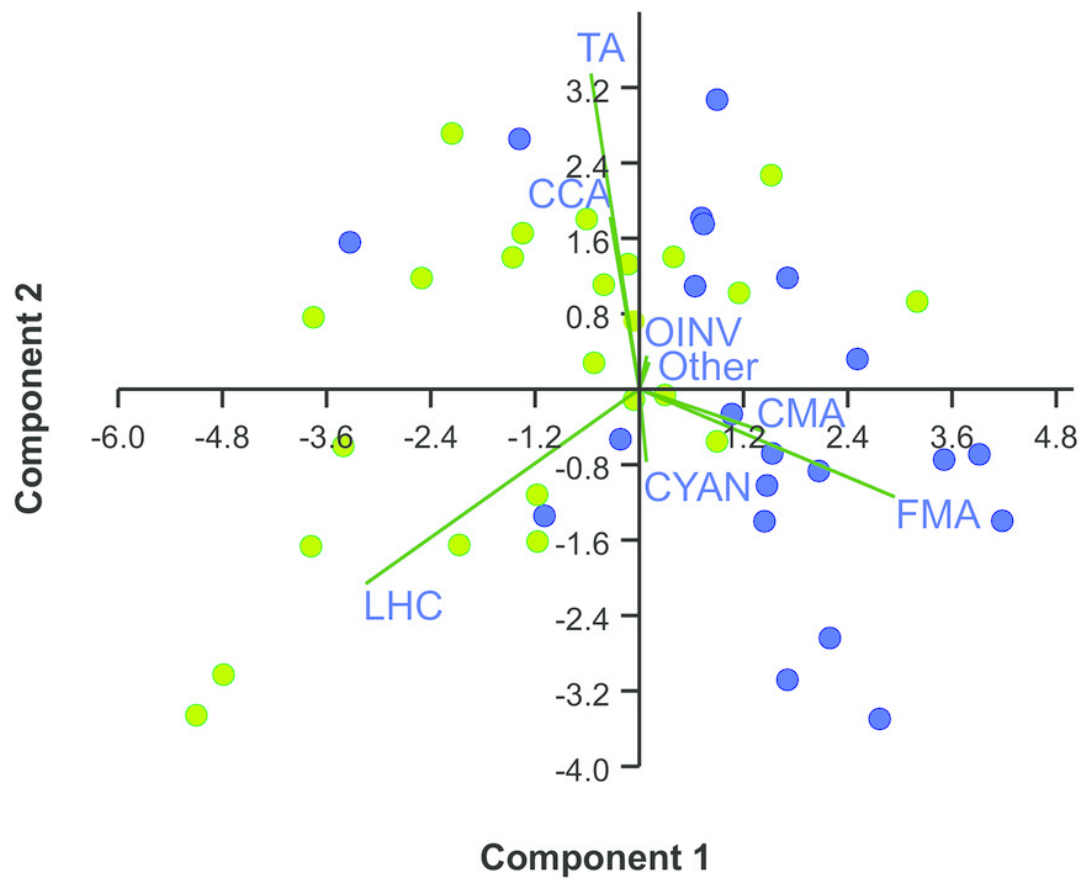


Figure 4

Species accumulation and rarefaction curves.

Accumulation and rarefaction curves for macrocrustacean species recorded in Bonanza and Limones reefs. Thirty belt transects, 50 m² each, were sampled on each reef. Rarefaction curves for either reef do not reach an asymptote, indicating the existence of more species.

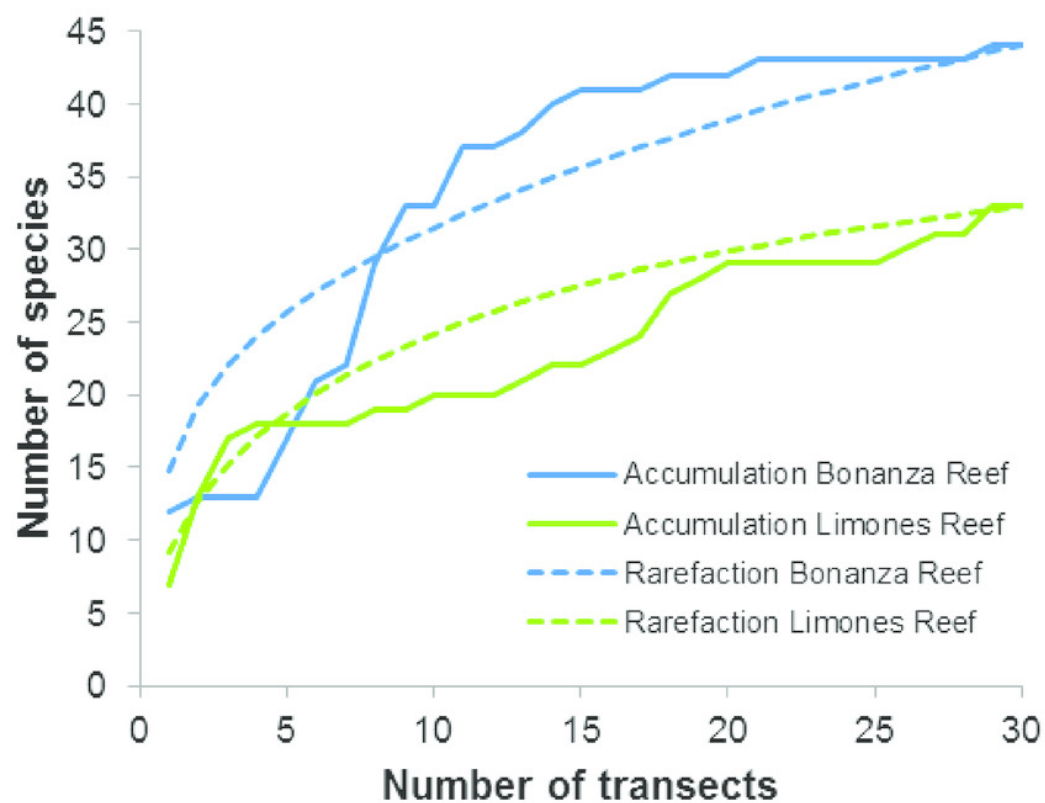


Figure 5

nMDS ordination.

Non-metric multidimensional (nMDS) ordination of macrocrustacean community structure in samples from Limones reef (green triangles and dashed lines) and Bonanza reef (blue circles and continuous lines), based on species abundances. Each symbol denotes a transect.

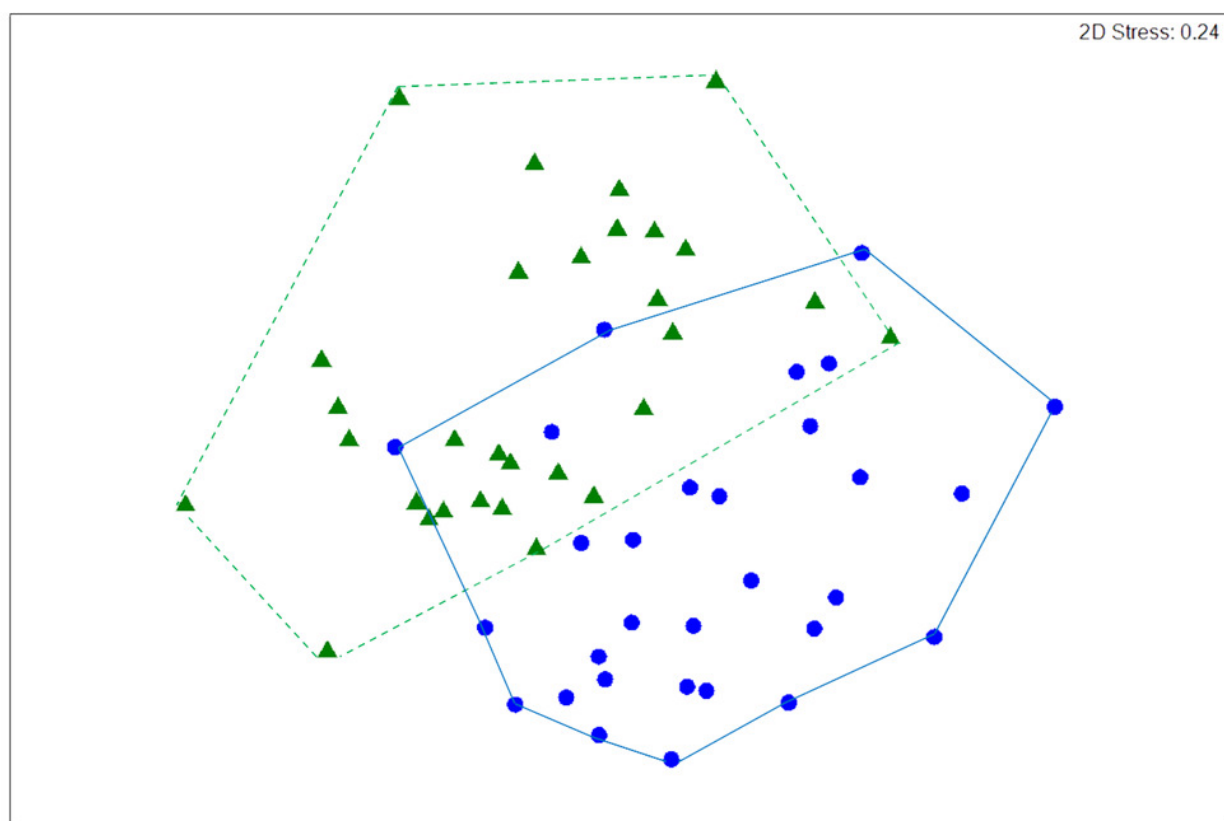


Figure 6

Density of macrocrustaceans per reef.

Mean density (number of individuals 50 m⁻²) of the most abundant macrocrustaceans per reef: Limones (green columns) and Bonanza (blue columns). Error bars are 50% confidence intervals.

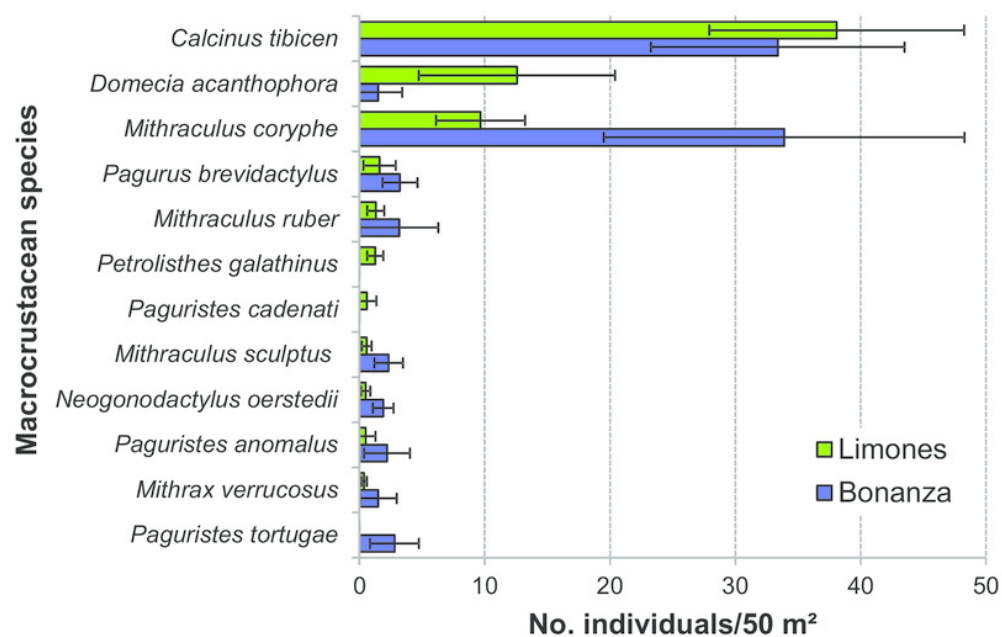


Figure 7

Types of microhabitats used by macrocrustaceans.

Comparison of the types of microhabitats used by macrocrustaceans on each reef, Limones (green columns) and Bonanza (blue columns).

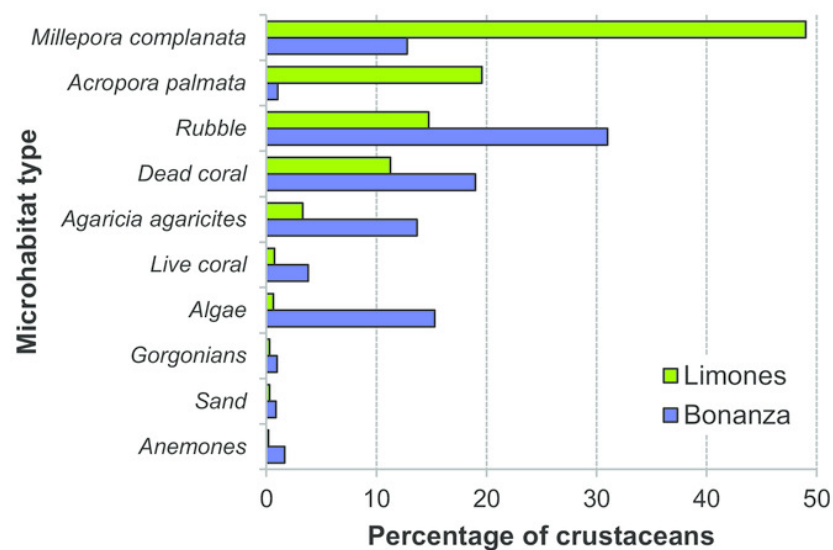


Table 1(on next page)

Macrocrustacean species by reef.

Number of macrocrustacean species and individuals registered by visual census (n = 30 transects). Bonanza reef: 44 species; 2800 individuals; Limones reef: 33 species; 2067 individuals. An X denotes that a species was only qualitatively recorded during nocturnal dives.

1

	Species	Bonanza	Limones
1	<i>Mithraculus coryphe</i>	1017	290
2	<i>Calcinus tibicen</i>	1002	1143
3	<i>Pagurus brevidactylus</i>	97	48
4	<i>Teleophrys ruber</i>	95	40
5	<i>Paguristes tortugae</i>	84	0
6	<i>Mithraculus sculptus</i>	70	17
7	<i>Paguristes anomalus</i>	66	15
8	<i>Neogonodactylus oerstedii</i>	57	15
9	<i>Domecia acanthophora</i>	45	377
10	<i>Mithrax aculeatus</i>	45	11
11	<i>Omalacantha bicornuta</i>	43	1
12	<i>Alpheus armatus</i>	19	4
13	<i>Paguristes puncticeps</i>	19	4
14	Callianassid A	19	1
15	<i>Thor amboinensis</i>	19	0
16	<i>Panulirus argus</i>	18	4
17	<i>Macrocoeloma subparallelum</i>	14	0
18	<i>Axiopsis serratifrons</i>	12	4
19	<i>Percnon gibbesi</i>	8	7
20	<i>Nonala holderi</i>	7	0
21	<i>Petrolisthes galathinus</i>	5	38
22	<i>Macrocoeloma diplacanthum</i>	5	0
23	Xanthid E	4	0
24	<i>Mithraculus cinctimanus</i>	3	3
25	<i>Stenopus hispidus</i>	3	0
26	<i>Actaea acantha</i>	2	0
27	<i>Ancylomenes pedersoni</i>	2	0
28	<i>Ratha longimanus</i>	2	0
29	<i>Macrocoeloma trispinosum</i>	2	0
30	<i>Mithraculus forceps</i>	2	0
31	<i>Panulirus guttatus</i>	1	3
32	<i>Lysmata wurdemanni</i>	1	1
33	Anomuran A	1	0
34	<i>Brachycarpus biunguiculatus</i>	1	0
35	Majoid B	1	0
36	Majoid C	1	0
37	Majoid D	1	0
38	<i>Neogonodactylus torus</i>	1	0
39	<i>Pitho lherminieri</i>	1	0

40	<i>Pitho mirabilis</i>	1	0
41	<i>Podocheila macrodera</i>	1	0
42	<i>Stenorhynchus seticornis</i>	1	0
43	Xanthid C	1	0
44	Xanthid D	1	0
45	<i>Paguristes cadenati</i>	0	18
46	<i>Phimochirus holthuisi</i>	0	5
47	Caridean A	0	3
48	<i>Pachycheles pilosus</i>	0	3
49	<i>Cinetorhynchus manningi</i>	0	2
50	Majoid A	0	2
51	<i>Nemausa acuticornis</i>	0	2
52	<i>Damithrax hispidus</i>	0	1
53	<i>Maguimithrax spinosissimus</i>	0	1
54	<i>Achelous sebae</i>	0	1
55	<i>Synalpheus</i> sp.	0	1
56	Xanthid A	0	1
57	Xanthid B	0	1
58	<i>Cynetorhynchus rigens</i>	X	X
59	<i>Cynetorhynchus fasciatus</i>	X	
60	<i>Metapenaeopsis goodei</i>	X	X
61	<i>Palinurellus gundlachi</i>		X
62	<i>Parribacus antarcticus</i>	X	
63	<i>Scyllarides aequinoctialis</i>	X	X
64	<i>Carpilius corallinus</i>	X	

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Table 2 (on next page)

Ecological indices for macrocrustaceans by reef.

Mean value (\pm 95% confidence interval) of species richness (S), Shannon-Wiener diversity (H'), dominance (D), and evenness (J') of macrocrustaceans on Bonanza and Limones reefs.

1

Ecological Index	Bonanza reef	Limones reef
S	8.66 ± 1.18	6.53 ± 0.71
H'	2.07 ± 0.19	1.54 ± 0.15
D	0.33 ± 0.04	0.47 ± 0.05
J'	0.69 ± 0.04	0.58 ± 0.04

2

3

4

Table 3(on next page)

Similarity measures within and between reefs.

SIMPER analysis of similarity for macrocrustacean assemblages within Limones and Bonanza, and of dissimilarity between reefs.

1

Limones. Average similarity: 48.10

Species	AA	AS	Sim/SD	Contrib%	Cum %
<i>Calcinus tibicen</i>	2.33	21.73	4.10	45.18	45.18
<i>Mithraculus coryphe</i>	1.52	12.62	2.07	26.23	71.41
<i>Domecia acanthophora</i>	1.04	4.16	0.57	8.65	80.06
<i>Petrolisthes galathinus</i>	0.58	2.18	0.50	4.54	84.60
<i>Teleophrys ruber</i>	0.52	1.71	0.41	3.55	88.16
<i>Pagurus brevidactylus</i>	0.51	1.66	0.41	3.46	91.61

Bonanza: Average similarity: 46.90

<i>Mithraculus coryphe</i>	2.22	15.54	3.64	33.14	33.14
<i>Calcinus tibicen</i>	2.15	13.64	2.51	29.09	62.22
<i>Neogonodactylus oerstedii</i>	0.85	4.12	0.89	8.79	71.02
<i>Pagurus brevidactylus</i>	0.90	3.40	0.77	7.25	78.27
<i>Mithraculus sculptus</i>	0.76	2.85	0.64	6.08	84.35
<i>Omalacantha bicornuta</i>	0.52	1.29	0.45	2.75	87.10
<i>Paguristes tortugae</i>	0.57	1.07	0.37	2.29	89.39
<i>Teleophrys ruber</i>	0.52	0.80	0.33	1.70	91.09

Limones and Bonanza: Average dissimilarity: 58.49

Species	Limones	Bonanza	AD	Dis/SD	Contrib%	Cum %
	AA	AA				
<i>Domecia acanthophora</i>	1.04	0.29	4.76	0.96	8.14	8.14
<i>Mithraculus coryphe</i>	1.52	2.22	3.88	1.23	6.63	14.77
<i>Pagurus brevidactylus</i>	0.51	0.90	3.73	1.17	6.38	21.15
<i>Calcinus tibicen</i>	2.33	2.15	3.55	0.99	6.07	27.22
<i>Neogonodactylus oerstedii</i>	0.33	0.85	3.43	1.21	5.86	33.08
<i>Mithraculus sculptus</i>	0.34	0.76	3.39	1.07	5.80	38.88
<i>Teleophrys ruber</i>	0.52	0.52	3.10	0.97	5.30	44.18
<i>Petrolisthes galathinus</i>	0.58	0.11	2.61	0.90	4.46	48.64
<i>Paguristes tortugae</i>	0.00	0.57	2.28	0.72	3.90	52.54

2 AA: average abundance; AS: average similarity; Sim/SD: similarity/standard deviation; Contrib
3 %: contribution in %; Cum %: cumulative contribution in %; AD: average dissimilarity; Dis/SD:
4 dissimilarity/standard deviation). Species are listed in decreasing order of AS within each reef
5 and AD between reefs. Cum.% does not reach 100% in order to facilitate interpretation.

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