Sargassum blooms in the Caribbean alter the trophic structure of the sea 1

2 urchin Diadema antillarum

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16 **Abstract**

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- 17 The recent arrival of large masses of drifting Sargassum has caused changes in the natural
- 18 dynamics of Caribbean coastal ecosystems. Atypical and massive mats of S. fluitans and S.
- 19 natans with exceptional accumulations ashore were observed in the summer of 2015. This study
- 20 provides a trophic sketch usinguses stable isotopes to assess for the impact of generated by
- 21 Sargassum blooms on the natural flow of the trophic structure introphic dynamics of the
- 22 Diadema antillarum urchin, a keystone herbivore one of the main on many Caribbean reefssea
- 23 urchin species. Bayesian models were used to estimate the variations in the relative proportions
- 24 of carbon and nitrogen of assimilated algal resources. At three lagoon reef sites, the niche breadth
- 25 of D. antillarum was analysed and compared under massive influx of drifting Sargassum spp. vs
- 26 no influx of Sargassum blooms. The effects of the leachates generated by the decomposition of
- 27 Sargassum led to hypoxic conditions on these reefs and reduced the taxonomic diversity of
- macroalgal food sources available to Diadema modified the organic matter in the environment, 28
- 29 with negative consequences in the benthic trophic structure. Our trophic data support the
- 30 hypothesis that the processes of assimilation of carbon and nitrogen were modified limiting the

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32 the influence of Sargassum blooms certain assimilated algal resources (Dictyota, Halimeda and 33 *Udotea*) were higher because of the limiting available resources. The Stable Isotope Bayesian Commented [kc2]: Vague wording 34 Ellipses in R (SIBER) analysis suggested a reduction in trophic niche particularly in a protected 35 reef lagoon. 36 Keywords: Echinoids, pelagic macroalgae, stable isotopes, trophic ecology, coral reefs; Niche 37 breadth, Mexican Caribbean. 38 39 Introduction 40 The arrival of massive amounts of pelagic Sargassum spp. has caused changes in the natural 41 benthic dynamics of Caribbean coastal ecosystems for the last eight years (Gower, Young & 42 King, 2013; Schell, Goodwin & Siuda, 2015). Pelagic Sargassum is a complex of two species, 43 namely S. fluitans and S. natans (Oyesiku & Egunyomi, 2014). The Mexican Caribbean shores 44 have faced atypical massive mats of pelagic Sargassum in the summer of 2015 (van Tussenbroek 45 et al., 2017; Cuevas, Uribe-Martínez & Liceaga-Correa, 2018) and almost all of 2018. Several 46 studies revealed that these atypical massive mats of Sargassum have a new possible distribution 47 source different to the historic North Atlantic Recirculation Region (NARR) known as "The 48 Sargasso Sea"_(Schell, Goodwin & Siuda, 2015). The massive influx on the Caribbean shores 49 hasve its most likely explanation of new origin in the North Equatorial Recirculation Region Commented [kc3]: Please re-word 50 (NERR) (Johnson et al., 2013; Schell, Goodwin & Siuda, 2015). 51 52 High oceanic temperatures and nutrient inputs (Franks, Johnson & Ko, 2016; Wang et al., 2018), 53 among other oceanographic coupled patterns like changes in patterns of surface currents are the 54 probable cause of a new region of Sargassum flourishment (Johnson et al., 2013; Gower, Young 55 & King, 2013; Sissini et al., 2017). Commented [kc4]: Please incorporate this into the previous paragraph 56 Since 2011, extensive masses of Sargassum appeared in unusual ways in oceanic waters off northern Brazil (De Széchy et al., 2012; Sissini et al., 2017), along the West Indies and Caribbean 57

natural herbivory of D. antillarum. The Stable Isotopes Analysis in R (SIAR) indicated that under

coasts (Gower, Young & King, 2013) from Trinidad to the Dominican Republic (Rodríguez-

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Martínez, van Tussenbroek & Jordán-Dahlgren, 2016; van Tussenbroek et al., 2017), and along
the west African coast from Sierra Leone to Ghana (Smetacek & Zingone, 2013).
During 2015 the accumulation reached up to 2.4 m³ per linear meter of beach (Rodríguez Martínez, van Tussenbroek & Jordán-Dahlgren, 2016). Changes in habitat structure of the

63 original habitat can directly influences directly on trophic dynamics (Hunter & Price, 1992;

64 Sweatman, Layman & Fourqurean, 2017), have been shown to cause with synergistic effects on

65 coral reefs (Smetacek & Zingone, 2013). such as the For example, Harmful macroalgae

blooms that have been recognized as drivers of degradation in coral reef habitats (Lapointe et al.,

2005) and have effects on the diversity of reef biota (Bauman et al., 2010; Louime, Fortune &

Gervais, 2017), like variations in the sea urchin populations (Lapointe et al., 2010). The

decomposition of the Sargassum biomass that reached the coast is a disturbance agent that can

modify the physical, physiological and ecological processes in near-shore coral reef communities.

The modified flow of carbon and nitrogen by this disturbance could have adverse negative effects

at different scales. Sargassum disturbance, coupled with the pre-existing threat on coral reefs, add

73 to the drivers of Anthropocene reefs degradation (Alvarez-Filip et al., 2011; Cramer et al., 2012).

74 The massive decomposition of *Sargassum* is a disturbance that can alter the ecological processes

in near-shore coral reef communities (Arellano-Verdejo, Lazcano-Hernandez & Cabanillas-

Terán, 2019). The main detrimental effect would be on the trophic chain of the benthic

communities, but the negative effects would be also act on tourism and local fisheries (Ferreira et

78 al., 2009; Solarin et al., 2014; Louime, Fortune & Gervais, 2017; Cuevas, Uribe-Martínez &

79 Liceaga-Correa, 2018). The effect of Sargassum and their leachates on the diet of D. antillarum

can improve our understanding on the impact on trophic ecology of one of the most important sea

81 urchins of the Mexican Caribbean.

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Evaluating consumers and resources through a trophic approach by tracking the relationships between consumers and prey provides relevant information on the trophic structure and dynamics of a benthic community (Minagawa & Wada, 1984; Vanderklift, Kendrick & Smit, 2006; Behmer & Joern, 2008). Stable isotopes of Carbon (δ^{13} C) and Nitrogen (δ^{15} N) have been used in marine ecosystems to determine the feeding habits of species (Peterson & Fry, 1987), nutrient migrations

within food webs, the trophic position of organisms and their contribution at all trophic levels

(Vander Zanden & Rasmussen, 1996). It is also possible to trace the origin and transformation of

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Commented [kc7]: Please explicitly state why you are focusing on Diadema – because it is a keystone herbivore whose dieoff is linked to coral-macroalgal phase shifts, and whose recent recovery seems to be causing coral recovery.

NOTE: I see you have added a paragraph stating the aboe, but it is in the Discussion. Please move it here.

90 coexist in the same habitat (Hobson, 1999; Vanderklift, Kendrick & Smit, 2006; Rodríguez-91 Barreras et al., 2016). 92 Stable carbon and nitrogen isotope ratios provide time-integrated information regarding feeding 93 relationships and energy flow through food webs (DeNiro & Epstein, 1981; Peterson & Fry, 94 1987; Vander Zanden & Rasmussen, 2001). Moreover, stable isotopes can be used to study the 95 trophic niche breadth(?) of a species (Bearhop et al., 2004; Parnell et al., 2010; Phillips et al., 96 2014) which is directly influenced by consumers and resource input, providing quantitative 97 information, so it can be treated as a niche for isotopic ecology as defined by Newsome et al. 98 (2007) and Boecklen et al. (2011). Stable isotope analyses are useful for assessing the health of 99 ecosystems because it is possible to associate consumers trophodynamics and niche width with 100 habitat disturbances (Layman et al., 2007b; Hamaoka et al., 2010) and to study the trophic 101 ecology of species with foraging habits like sea urchins (Tomas et al., 2006; Vanderklift, 102 Kendrick & Smit, 2006; Prado, Alcoverro & Romero, 2010; Rodríguez-Barreras et al., 2016). It 103 is also possible to detect changes in the trophic spectrum in the event of anthropogenic impacts or 104 unusual conditions that cause a shift in the ecosystem (Wing et al., 2008; Prado, Alcoverro & 105 Romero, 2010; Tomas, Box & Terrados, 2011; Cabanillas-Terán et al., 2016). Under this view of 106 the massive arrival of pelagic macroalgae, sea urchins are a good model to understand the 107 variability in the benthic trophic chain, as they are considered generalist consumers with a plastic 108 feeding habit (Lawrence, 1975; Vanderklift, Kendrick & Smit, 2006). Echinoids have the 109 capability to modify the community structure through foraging behavior (Carpenter, 1986; Hay & Fenical, 1988; Sala et al., 1998; Eklöf et al., 2008). The main reason to focus this study on D. 110 111 antillarum is that this species is and was the major shallow-hard-bottom grazer in our study sites. 112 (Jorgensen, Espinoza-Ávalos & Bahena-Basave, 2008; Jordán-Garza et al., 2008). The relative position of $\delta^{13}C$ vs $\delta^{15}N$ echinoids displayed in a bi-plot can give insights about organism 113 114 responses to niche shifts, diet variability and habitat modification (Layman et al., 2007a,b, 2012; 115 Sweatman, Layman & Fourgurean, 2017).

The stable isotopes of Carbon (8¹³C) and Nitrogen (8¹⁵N) have been used in marine ecosystem

determine the feeding habits of species (Peterson & Fry. 1987), nutrient migrations within food

the trophic position of organisms and their contribution at all trophic levels (Vander

the ingested organic matter and also to detect changes in the trophic positions of organisms that

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Zanden & Rasmussen, 1996). It is also possible to trace the origin and transformation of the 119 ingested organic matter and also to detect changes in the trophic positions of organisms that 120 coexist in the same habitat (Hobson, 1999; Vanderklift, Kendrick & Smit, 2006; Rodríguez-121 Barreras et al., 2016). 122 123 Stable carbon and nitrogen isotope ratios provide time integrated information regarding feeding 124 relationships and energy flow through food webs (DeNiro & Epstein, 1981; Peterson & Fry, 1987: Vander Zanden & Rasmussen, 2001). Stable isotopes moreover can be used to study the 125 trophic niche of a species (Bearhop et al., 2004; Parnell et al., 2010; Phillips et al., 2014) which is 126 127 directly influenced by consumers and resource input, providing quantitative information, so it can 128 129 al. (2011). 130 The overarching aim of this study was to determine the variations in the relative proportions of 131 carbon and nitrogen of assimilated algal resources and the niche breadth of D. antillarum under 132 massive influx of drifting Sargassum spp. vs no influx of Sargassum blooms at back reefs. We 133 also aimed to determine whether pelagic Sargassum was a substantial source of energy for D. 134 antillarum. 135 The approach used was to compare the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values before and after the influx of 136 Sargassum and to track changes in the depict the trophic ecology of D. antillarum (diet and trophic position) based on the evidence that $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ are strongly influenced by their food 137 138 resources (Phillips et al., 2014), and the relative position in 813C vs 815N bi plot from 139 consumers displays information about food web structure (Layman et al., 2012), and provides 140 providing consumer's responses to niche shifts and source variations (Layman et al., 2007b). 141 Hence, our hypotheses were that a significant change in the available algal sources and a shift on

the trophic structure were expected as a result of the Sargassum subsidy.

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Commented [kc12]: No ecological mechanism is given for how Sargassum would specifically be expected to shift available algal food sources – please provide this earlier in the intro.

Material & Methods

145 Study sites

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146 We determined the stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen of D. antillarum at three reef lagoons 147 with different distances from the beach to the reef crest and strategies for managing Sargassum 148 influx (figure 1). 149 Mahahual (18°42'16.96"N 87° 42.619'W) is located in the northern part of the Mesoamerican 150 Barrier Reef System in the state of Quintana Roo (MBRS). Mahahual is a former fishing village 151 but during the last two decades has undergone reef degradation due to anthropogenic impact 152 (Martínez-Rendis et al., 2016). It has a narrow reef lagoon (230-450 m), with restrictive 153 circulation Sargassum management in this locality was active through removing it out of beach 154 and its ex situ disposition. 155 Xahuayxol (18°30'21.78"N; 87°45'24.84"W) has a larger reef lagoon than Mahahual, 300 to 500 m from the beach to the reef crest, active circulation and higher algal masses by the coastal 156 dynamics that apparently accumulated them gradually. However, Sargassum was not removed 157 158 from the beach (at least not in a systematic way) and remained accumulated on the shore. 159 Xahuayxol is located south of Mahahual. This reef is the northern limit of the Marine Protected 160 area Parque Nacional Arrecifes de Xcalak (PNAX) and human activities are less important than 161 in Mahahual (Schmitter-Soto et al., 2017). 162 Xcalak (18°14'7.68"N; 87°50'1.46"W), at the southern limit of the Mexican Caribbean, is part of 163 PNAX since 2000. It is also part of the Mesoamerican Barrier Reef System, MBRS (Hoffman, 164 2009). It has a wide reef lagoon (950-1200 m) with active circulation, and Sargassum was 165 accumulated in large amounts. There was an active but less intense and localized Sargassum management and its final disposal was *in situ* (on the highest part of beach). 166 167 The main strategy implemented by local authorities at some beaches with massive arrival of 168 macroalgae, included the removal and its disposal in the highest part of the beach or in places 169 destined ex profeso, but the Sargassum removal was not quantified and the information about that 170 included here is only preliminary.

At all sampled sites, reef lagoon circulation from wave action because of wave breaking is the

dominant forcing mechanism within many wave-exposed reef systems (Mariño-Tapia et al.,

2011), and dDuring the period from June to August in our study area, the wave orbital velocity is

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183 sampling details ST1). Samples sizes -were- based -on -previous- studies- (Rodríguez, 2003; 184 Tomas et al., 2006; Wing et al., 2008; Rodríguez-Barreras et al., 2016). The sampling sites were 185 at coastal lagoons in the back reef zone (Section c, Fig. 2), zone with no visible presence of 186 Sargassum leachates (van Tussenbroek, et al. 2017) and where D. antillarum is distributed 187 (Steneck & Lang, 2003; Jorgensen, Espinoza-Ávalos & Bahena-Basave, 2008; Jordán-Garza et 188 al., 2008; Maldonado-Sánchez, 2018). 189 **USE** measurements 190 USE included measurements of dissolved oxygen (mg Γ^{-1}) recorded with a calibrated Multiparameter water quality checker HORIBA 50 at Mahahual, Xahuayxol and Xcalak. 191 192 Measurements of dissolved oxygen were made at points distributed in three sections from areas 193 with decomposing Sargassum spp. (section a), leachates (section b -dark brown water-) and reef 194 lagoon areas without Sargassum leachates (section c) (figure 2). 195 Pelagic Sargassum spp., turf (benthic turf and the associated turf to pelagic Sargassum) and 196 macroalgae samples were collected in coral reef patches of section c (back reef zone) for each 197 sampling site. 198 **USE and WSE measurements** 199 We collected algal samples to obtain biomass, and for stable isotope analysis using nine quadrats

(50 x 50 cm) per site. Pelagic Sargassum biomass was calculated based on sunken thalli and

over the threshold of motion (Maldonado-Sánchez et al. 2019), indicating active circulation in the

This study covers two periods: Under Sargassum effect (USE) during the months of July-August

2015 and without Sargassum effect (WSE) in July-August 2016. USE sampling for stable isotope

analysis included drifting Sargassum (mixture of S. fluitans and S. natans), turf associated to

pelagic Sargassum, benthic macroalgae, local turf and 19 individuals of D. antillarum. WSE

Sampling included benthic macroalgae, local turf and 15 individuals of D. antillarum (see

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reef lagoons.

Collecting and processing data

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201 overlaid on reef substrates inside the quadrats. The quadrats were located randomly within the sea 202 urchin habitat (radius of 15 m from collected echinoids). The substrate inside each quadrat was 203 scrapped, carefully removed, collected in bags, and frozen for later analysis. 204 Macroalgae were identified according to Littler and Littler (2000). Analysis were performed to 205 genus level. For biomass estimates samples were dried for 48 h in an oven at 60°C. Samples were 206 weighed with a digital balance (standard error =0.0001 g). To determine D. antillarum differential algae assimilation considering USE and WSE, algae samples were pooled per site. 207 208 The sampled echinoids and algal species for this study are not threatened. The collection permit 209 was obtained from the CONAPESCA (PPF/DGOPA-002/17). 210 The collected individuals of D. antillarum were at the same depth range (1.5-2.5 m) and only 211 individuals greater than 5.0 cm in test diameter were collected to avoid any ontogenic effect. 212 Samples were frozen shortly after collection and processed later at the laboratory. The muscles of 213 Aristotle's lanterns were carefully removed and washed from the stomach contents to estimate 214 algal assimilation by D. antillarum because this tissue offers a time-integrated measure of carbon 215 and nitrogen assimilated sources (Polunin et al., 2001; Ben-David & Schell, 2001; Phillips & 216 Koch, 2002). 217 Macroalgae and local turf, pelagic Sargassum species (S. fluitans and S. natans), turf associated 218 to pelagic Sargassum, and echinoids muscle samples were rinsed with filtered water, dried at 50° 219 C during 48 h, grounded to a fine powder and placed in glass vial for isotope analyses. To 220 remove carbonates from some algal species (eg. Halimeda spp. Penicillus spp. etc.), the samples 221 were washed with diluted HCl at 1 N prior to drying to avoid disturbance in the mass 222 spectrometer reading. A subsample of each algae and muscle (1mg) was taken to evaluate the ¹³C/¹²C and ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratios 223 224 using a Delta V Plus Mass Spectrometer. Catalyzers silvered cobaltous/cobaltic oxide and 225 chromium oxide were used. Carbon and nitrogen samples were analysed in a dual isotope mode 226 at the Centro Interdisciplinario de Ciencias Marinas from Instituto Politécnico Nacional. Isotope 227 samples were loaded into tin-capsules and placed in a 50-position automated Zero Blank sample

carousel on a COSTECH 4020 elemental analyzer. The carbon and nitrogen isotopic results were

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expressed in standard delta notation relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) and to atmospheric air.

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$$\delta 13_{C} = \left[\left(\frac{\left(\frac{13_{C}}{12_{C}}\right) Sample}{\left(\frac{13_{C}}{12_{C}}\right) Standard} \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000 (\%)$$

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$$\delta 15_{N} = \left[\left(\frac{\left(\frac{15_{N}}{14_{N}}\right) Sample}{\left(\frac{15_{N}}{14_{N}}\right) Standard} \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000 (\%)$$

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The standard deviations of δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N replicate analyses were estimated; the precision values were 0.2% for carbon and nitrogen isotope measurements. In addition, we calculated the trophic level (TL) according to Hobson and Welch (1992) for every individual of *D. antillarum* in each site, expressed as:

$$TL = \frac{1 + (Nm - Nb)}{TEF}$$

- 240 Where Nm is the mean δ^{15} N ratio of each sea urchin, Nb is average basis δ^{15} N value of the algal 241 community, and TEF is the given value for the trophic enrichment factor (TEF). We assumed a 242 TEF of 2.4 following Moore and Semmens (2008).
- 243 Data analysis
 - The relative contribution of algae to the diet of the sea urchins *D. antillarum* was estimated with a Bayesian isotopic mixing model (SIAR, Parnell & Jackson, 2013), which included the isotopic signatures, fractionation and variability to estimate the probability distribution of the contribution of the food source to a mixture. This procedure supplied accurate information about the contribution of algal species to the sea urchin tissues, as it provided the proportion for every source and recognized the main sources as important components of the diet under different circumstances (Peterson, 1999; Fry, 2006; Wing et al., 2008). To run the model, the isotopic discrimination factor values used were 2.4 ± 1.6 % (mean \pm SD) for δ^{15} N, and 0.4 ± 1.3 % (mean \pm

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SD) for δ^{13} C (Minagawa & Wada, 1984; Fry & Sherr, 1989; Moore & Semmens, 2008; 252 253 Cabanillas-Terán et al., 2016). 254 The following algal taxa/groups were pooled considered for the mixing models analysis, 255 Caulerpa, Codium, Dictyota, Halimeda, Laurencia, Lobophora, Padina, Penicillus, Sargassum 256 polyceratum, Stypopodium, turf, and Udotea with the exception of the morpho functional group 257 turf. The sources for the model were selected following the theoretical geometric assumptions of 258 the mixing model according to Phillips et al. (2014) and Rodríguez-Barreras et al. (2015) to 259 ensure reliable resources. Samples of D. antillarum did not require lipid extraction since C:N 260 ratios of Aristotle lantern's muscle were lower than 3.5 (Post et al., 2007). 261 We performed a comparison USE and WSE between the niche width and overlap for D. 262 antillarum by using Stable Isotope Bayesian Ellipses in R (SIBER) (Jackson et al., 2011) from 263 the SIAR package (Parnell & Jackson, 2013). This procedure performs metrics based on ellipses and provides the standard ellipse corrected area (SEAc) used as the trophic niche breadth and the 264 265 overlap between ellipses, presuming that values close to 1 exhibit a higher trophic overlap. 266 Models were run with 200 000 iterations and a burn in of 50 000. 267 statistical analyses, tThe homogeneity and normality of variance were tested by 268 performing a Kolmogorov-Smirnov and a Cochran's test (Zar, 1999). Nitrogen data followed the 269 premises of parametric analysis, but the carbon data and biomass required a power transformation 270 for reaching normality and homogeneity of variance (Box & Cox, 1964). We ran two-way 271 ANOVA using the functions and alm from the Gaussian family to test the differences on the 272 isotopic ratios of carbon and nitrogen values to compare the effect (WSE and USE) between sites 273 and their interaction. Statistics were performed with $\frac{1}{2}$ α < 0.05 (R Core Team, 1.0.153, 2017). 274 Results 275 The dissolved oxygen values USE indicated that the effects of the leachates generated by the 276 decomposition process, together with the organic material carried in their vegetal structures, 277 modified the reduced the values of dissolved oxygen in the benthic ecosystem, with negative 278 consequences in the benthic structure. The reef lagoons of Mahahual, Xahuayxol and Xcalak 279

displayed dissolved overall oxygen values ranged from 0.67mg l⁻¹ at Xahuayxol to 7.05 mg l⁻¹ at

Xcalak. The overall values of dissolved oxygen displayed the lowest concentrations for section a

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Commented [kc20]: Please state the values for all three reefs, and that values (significantly?) decline as sites are closer to shore/Sargassum accumulations. 281 near the shoreline (Figure 3). The lowest mean value was exhibited in Xcalak $(1.0 \pm 0.1 \text{mg l}^{-1})$ 282 and higher values beyond offshore section c. The highest mean value was displayed for Xcalak 283 $(4.7 \pm 0.4 \text{mg l}^{-1}).$ 284 Analysis of macroalgal $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ 285 Prior the stable isotope analysis was carried out, macroalgal biomass per site was considered to 286 have additional information about the reliable sources used for the resources contribution to D. 287 antillarum. Biomass data for benthic taxa displayed no significant differences between USE and Commented [kc21]: This is very vague and confusing wording - please clarify and be more specific about your exac WSE per effect, but significant differences were found among localities (ANOVA, df=2, F=8.24, 288 predictions. 289 p<0.0001). Mahahual had the highest mean benthic biomass values (55.2 dry weight m⁻²) followed by Xahuayxol with (38.8 dry weight m⁻²) and Xcalak (16 dry weight m⁻²±). WSE 290 biomass average values for local benthic algae ranged from 3.01 dry weight m⁻²±0.95 (Codium 291 spp. at Xcalak) to 133.50 dry weight m⁻²±30.29 (*Halimeda* spp. at Mahahual). USE values ranged 292 293 from 7.75 dry weight $m^{-2} \pm 5.4$ (Caulerpa at Xcalak) to 145.99 dry weight $m^{-2} \pm 36.21$ (Halimeda 294 spp. at Mahahual, Table 1). Genus-level Biomass biomass of pelagic taxa showed no significant 295 differences per site neither at genus level, however Sargassum fluitans displayed the highest Formatted: Font: Not Italic 296 biomass values. 297 Pre- and with-Sargassum values Based on the established categories WSE and USE significant 298 differences were found in overall benthic algae values of δ¹⁵N (ANOVA, df=1, F=20.27, 299 p<0.0001). Specifically, Therefore under Sargassum blooms USE most of the algae exhibited Commented [kc22]: Signifying...... PLEASE PROVIDE CLEAR ECOLOGICAL INTERPETATIONS FOR EACH OF YOUR RESULTS! 300 isotopic signatures with significantly depleted $\delta^{15}N$ (Table 2). 301 As for δ^{13} C USE ratios fluctuated from -21.98 to -9.23% and WSE from -20.90 to -5.65%. 302 Considering only the algae presented in both sampling periods (WSE and USE) there was no significant difference in δ^{13} C among sites (ANOVA, df=2, F=0.55, p>0.05) neither was 303 significant difference analysing the effect (ANOVA, df=1, F=1.14, p>0.05) and their interaction 304 305 (ANOVA, df=2, F=0.86, *p*>0.05). 306 The overall algal $\delta^{15}N$ (WSE) fluctuated from 0.60% to 5.68%. Xcalak displayed the highest Commented [kc23]: Over time? Across reefs? Please specify 307 mean value of $\delta^{15}N$ with turf (4.59±0.64 ‰). The overall macroalgal $\delta^{15}N$ (USE) fluctuated from 308 0.023 to 2.08‰. At Xcalak Caulerpa displayed the highest mean values of nitrogen with 2.02 \pm

0.08 ‰ (Table 2). Local Turf USE displayed negative values and overall turf values fluctuated

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- 310 from -0.97% to 0.42%. Xahuayxol displayed the most negative $\delta^{15}N$ mean value of local turf (-
- 311 0.51±0.02‰).
- 312 USE overall pelagic Sargassum δ^{13} C values fluctuated from -17.95% to -15.24%. S. natans
- exhibited the most negative mean values of δ^{13} C (-17.44 $\pm 0.71\%$) at Mahahual (Table 2). There
- 314 was no difference in δ^{13} C among sites (ANOVA, df=2, F=0.05, p>0.05) but there were
- 315 significant differences δ^{13} C between species (ANOVA, df=2, F=7.57, p=0.01). Sargassum's
- 316 associated turf δ^{13} C values fluctuated from -18.65‰ to -15.37‰. The most negative δ^{13} C mean
- value was displayed at Mahahual (-18.3± 0.5‰) for *Sargassum*'s associated turf.
- 318 Overall pelagic Sargassum δ^{15} N values ranged from -2.87‰ to -0.30‰. The less negative mean
- 319 value was exhibited at Mahahual (-0.53±0.26‰) for S. fluitans. There was no significant
- 320 difference for δ^{15} N among sites (ANOVA, df=2, F=3.90, p=0.05), but there was a remarkable
- 321 trend to depleted $\delta^{15}N$ at Xcalak where S. fluitans displayed the lowest mean values of $\delta^{15}N$ (-
- 322 2.51 \pm 0.52%). Turf associated to floating Sargassum δ^{15} N values fluctuated from -0.42% to -
- 323 1.17‰. The most depleted $\delta^{15}N$ was exhibited at Mahahual (-1.13±0.05‰) and the less negative
- mean value was displayed in Xahuayxol (-0.47±0.07‰).

325 Sea urchins

- 326 There were significant differences δ^{15} N among sites (ANOVA df=2, F=6.473, p=0.005) and the
- 327 interaction between site*effect (USE and WSE) showed significant differences (ANOVA, df =2,
- 328 F=7.321, *p*=0.003).
- 329 D. antillarum exhibited no differences among sites for δ^{13} C values p>0.05. However, we found
- 330 significant differences analysing the USE and WSE effect (ANOVA df=1, F=5.301, p=0.03).
- 331 The isotopic ratios of D. antillarum (USE) varied from 3.83% to 6.13% for δ^{15} N, while δ^{13} C
- ranged from -9.41% to -13.62%. Mahahual was the site with the highest average values for δ^{15} N
- 333 5.80 \pm 0.30%, while Xcalak displayed the lowest average value 4.38 \pm 0.29%. The isotopic
- 334 ratios of D. antillarum (WSE) ranged from 4.69% to 6.16 for δ^{15} N, while δ^{13} C fluctuated from -
- 335 8.83% to -13.42%. We found significant differences for $\delta^{15}N$ for sea urchins between sites
- 336 (USE, ANOVA, df=2, F=6.47, p<0.005). Xcalak showed particularly low values Under
- 337 Sargassum Effect (USE average value $4.38 \pm 0.29\%$ versus WSE average value $5.44 \pm 0.36\%$).

Nevertheless, δ¹³C exhibited no significant differences although we noticed a negative trend in 338 the values of δ^{13} C under *Sargassum* effect (USE). 339 340 341 SIAR, trophic levels and isotopic niches 342 Mixing models provided evidence for the contribution of different algal resources for three sites 343 USE and WSE (Table 3). SIAR analysis showed that D. antillarum behaved as an opportunistic 344 grazer under the Sargassum blooms, it is important to notice that there was a reduction of food 345 sources USE. Nevertheless, the species displayed differential resource assimilation and pelagic 346 Sargassum, despite of being one of the most abundant available resource, was not the most 347 assimilated resource (Figure 4). 348 Caulerpa was the most important resource for D. antillarum in Mahahual WSE (up to 37%), 349 followed by Turf (up to 34%) and by Halimeda and Udotea (up to 29% for both). USE the most 350 important resource was Halimeda (up to 44%) followed by Caulerpa and Dictyota (both up to 351 31% of contribution) S. fluitans and S. natans were no important sources (0-28% and 0-23% 352 respectively), and turf associated to Sargassum blooms was the lesser assimilated resources by D. 353 antillarum from 0 up to 22% (Table 3). 354 At Xahuayxol WSE D. antillarum showed Caulerpa was the most important resource for D. 355 antillarum (from 2 up to 25%) and for the rest of algae there were very similar algal contribution (from 0 up to 23%). The main macroalgal contributor of USE was *Udotea* with up to 61%, 356 357 followed by Halimeda and Lobophora (with up to 35% and 38% respectively) as secondary 358 resources. Turf associated to Sargassum blooms showed evidence of low contribution (from 0 up 359 to 21%) and S. fluitans, S. natans had negligible contribution to D. antillarum diet with a 360 maximum of 17% of the proportional contributor (Table 3). 361 362 Turf was the main algal resources for D. antillarum in Xcalak WSE (up to 45%) followed by 363 Caulerpa, Codium and Padina as secondary resources (close to 30% maximum of contribution); 364 contrasting USE the main macroalgal contributors in Xcalak were Penicillus and Caulerpa with 365 up to 39% and 40% respectively. Likewise Dictyota and Sargassum polyceratium (benthic 366 Sargassum) were secondary resources up to 26% and 29%, respectively. The pelagic components 367 in the other reef lagoons were negligible contributors for D. antillarum diet with just 18-23% of

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maximum contribution (Table 3, Figure 4).

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369 Trophic Levels

- \$70 The overall trophic level data for D. antillarum (TL)-ranged from 1.97 to 3.22. The species
- 371 exhibited significant differences among sites (ANOVA df=2, F=10.63, p=0.0004), also exhibited
- 372 significant differences between WSE and USE (ANOVA, df=1, F=17.7, p=0.0003). Likewise
- 373 calculating the interaction between site*effect (USE and WSE) there were significant differences
- 374 (ANOVA, df=2, F=12.65, p=0.0001). The highest TL values were reported for Mahahual USE,
- 375 while the lowest one was recorded in Xahauayxol WSE. At Mahahual TL mean value of D.
- 376 antillarum was 2.35±0.18 WSE and 3.08 ±0.13 USE; at Xahuayxol TL mean value was
- 377 2.13 ± 0.30 WSE and 2.49 ± 0.27 USE and at Xcalak TL mean value was 2.62 ± 0.15 WSE and
- 378 2.45±0.12 USE (Table 4).

379 **Isotopic Niches**

- 380 Table 5 shows data on isotopic niche breadth as measured by the corrected standard ellipse area
- 381 (SEAc). The Stable Isotope Bayesian Ellipses in R (SIBER) analysis suggested a reduction in
- 382 trophic niche particularly in Xcalak. This site showed the main difference in the trophic niche
- 383 breadth with SEAc of 3.48 and 0.14 (WSE and USE respectively) overlap of isotopic niches
- 384 between WSE and USE was found just in Xahuayxol; (Figure 5). SEAc was higher USE in this
- site with 3.57 versus 2.68 SEAc WSE (Figure 5).

386 **Discussion**

- Our results provide evidence of the detrimental effect of Sargassum blooms over the physical on
- 388 the physicochemical water properties and ecological processes in near-shore coral reef
- 389 communities as recently has been shown in our study area (Rodríguez-Martínez, van
- 390 Tussenbroek & Jordán-Dahlgren, 2016; van Tussenbroek et al., 2017; Cuevas, Uribe-Martínez &
- 391 Liceaga-Correa, 2018). Particularly, the results give evidence of over the input of external carbon
- and nitrogen, related to *Sargassum* blooms on towards benthic communities with unfavorable and
- 393 differential effect for nutrient fluxes in *D. antillarum*. These findings contribute to the growing
- 394 recognition of the role of exogenous nutrient enrichment in modifying natural sources in a food
- web. Hence this leads to nutrient limitation of herbivorous sea urchins.
- 396 Sargassum onshore exhibit physical processes of fragmentation, decomposition and
- 397 remineralization by bacteria, meiofauna and grazers (Colombini & Chelazzi, 2003). The algae-
- 398 derived organic matter, product of that decomposition, has an effect on in situ oxygen availability
- 399 (Haas et al., 2010). Sargassum blooms clearly showed a negative impact by hypoxia conditions

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found at the three studied reef lagoons (Figure 3). This ultimately could drive to the success of the communities' nitrogen fixation. Even in the section c (back reef) dissolved oxygen values for this study were lower than the standard values for coral reefs sites with areas dominated by algae (7.9 ± 0.5 mg l⁻¹) according to Haas et al. (2010) and values of 8.1 to 9.1 mg l⁻¹ for Xahuayxol and Mahahual, respectively recorded by (Camacho-Cruz et al., 2019). This agrees with Kendrick et al. (2000) and Haas et al. (2010), who argued that benthic communities linked to reef lagoons are very susceptible to environmental degradation despite fluctuations in dissolved oxygen. Oxygen is a critical element that structures benthic coral reef habitats (Nelson & Altieri, 2019). Oxygen is a critical element that structures can be structuring in benthic coral reef habitats (Nelson & Altieri, 2019). Some benthic algae can be catalyzers of physical environment in reefs due to coral reef associated algae-derived organic matter (Wild et al., 2010). We considered that is likely that USE potentially lead to phase shifts in organic matter cycles, caused by changes in the oxygen dynamics, which were consistently reflected in the low isotopic signatures of the primary producers.

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Commented [kc31]: Unclear – do you mean reduction in species richness?

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Isotopic variations in the algal resources

We found that the composition of benthic macroalgae assemblages were different before and with Sargassumbetween among both conditions (WSE and USE). Sargassum USE conditions showed a clear reduction of algae composition and isotope values presented by clearly lower $\delta^{15}N$ values (Table 2). The fact that there were fewer available algal sources in the USE condition implies that the trophic chain becomes less complex as the interaction of primary consumers with their resources is reduced (Phillips & Gregg, 2003).

Overall δ^{13} C values ranged from -21.98 to -5.65‰ and agreed with the ranges reported by Fry & Sherr (1984). Those authors reviewed the δ^{13} C data of benthic algae, noting that values ranged between -30 and 5‰. δ^{15} N overall algae values fluctuated from 0.023 to 5.68‰. Despite these values agree with the variation reported in other studies like Owens (1987) and France (1995), we found USE very low, ergo according to Lapointe et al. (2005) and France et al. (1998). Lower limit values can be indicative of macroalgae living in oligotrophic reefs which experience N sources as nitrogen fixation. In the presence of *Sargassum*, anaerobic bacteria acquired

significance comparable to on-other benthic groups (Carpenter & Cox, 1974; Rooker, Turner & Holt, 2006), and could be the cause of the low macroalgal isotopic signatures, while high values of $\delta^{15}N$ of macroalgae are linked to land-based N enrichment sources. These are good indicators of anthropogenic nitrogen inputs like enhancers of coral reef degradation (Umezawa et al., 2002) such as and temporal and spatial drivers of sewage discharges (Risk et al., 2009; Lapointe et al., 2011).

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France (1995) reported nitrogen ranges of marine macroalgae from -3 to 18‰. The inconsistencies in this pattern with values of δ^{15} N close to atmospheric signature of 0% suggest a fixation of nitrogen. Dorado et al. (2012) associated the depleted values of δ^{15} N with nitrogen fixation and its impact on the trophic position of consumers. So, temporal difference between values in this study WSE and USE might be explained by the influence of organic input derived from floating *Sargassum* dragged components. Although more evidence is required to confirm this statement, but in general, lower limit values of δ^{15} N in marine macroalgae are indicative of macroalgae living in oligotrophic reefs which experience nitrogen sources as nitrogen fixation. Hence, in the presence of *Sargassum*, the anaerobic bacteria took on importance on the benthos, being responsible for the low macroalgal isotopic signatures.

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Trophic parameters of D. antillarum Sea urchin values, SIAR and Trophic level

Our results supported the evidence that *Sargassum* blooms impacted $\delta^{15}N$ differentially among sites, as the ratios of $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ are determined by their resources (Phillips & Gregg, 2003). It was conspicuous that the isotopic values of the algae were lower USE, while, *D. antillarum* showed higher $\delta^{15}N$ values USE at Mahahual.

Although some available resources (e.g. *Dictyota* and turf) were present in both conditions (WSE and USE) the contribution of algae to the sea urchin tissues can display key information about how consumers assimilate habitat resources and this could exhibit information on the degree of disturbance (Layman et al., 2007b). So, it is possible that the ecological role of *D. antillarum* was different in each site and could be explained by the variation in the number of available resources and a differential assimilation (Table 3). The higher δ^{15} N values in the muscle of *D. antillarum* were due to the synergistic effect among the resource availability and the disturbance condition.

Pelagic sources may provide new sources of food and the possible nitrogen fixation carried out

by turf attached to pelagic *Sargassum* undoubtedly brought a new source of organic matter to basal trophic levels (Rooker et al. 2006). However those sources were not major contributors for *D. antillarum* and appear to avoid the invasive pelagic macroalgae. This is consistent with the feeding ecology by marine generalist herbivores (Boudouresque & Verlaque, 2001) and such feeding response is in line with evidence from other sea urchin species in the face of other invasive resources. The experiments carried out by Tomas et al. (2011) provide evidence that some seaweed invaders were strongly avoided by *Paracentrotus lividus* and therefore escape enemy control by reducing herbivore preference.

Sea urchins are assumed as predominantly herbivorous with preference to algal turf and macroalgae (Macintyre, Glynn & Hinds, 2005). However under low availability of resources any other sources can be found in their diet as benthic invertebrates, even corals (Randall, Schroeder & Starck, 1964; Reaka Kudla, Feingold & Glynn, 1996; Muthiga & McClanahan, 2007). The trophic level metric of TL is very useful because the classical elassifications that add organisms into-discrete trophic level definitions s is are a reduction that ignores the value of food web connections, the omnivory and diet changes (Polis & Strong, 1996; Vanderklift, Kendrick & Smit, 2006). The sea urchin *D. antillarum* has been considered as a generalist herbivore (Ogden & Lobel, 1978; Sammarco, 1980; Solandt & Campbell, 2001; Weil, Torres & Ashton, 2005). However, invertebrate samples in their stomach contents have been described for that species in the Caribbean (Rotjan & Lewis, 2008; Rodríguez-Barreras et al., 2015, 2016).

The mean TL-trophic level for *D. antillarum* exhibited at Mahahual was 2.35±0.18WSE up to 3.08±0.13 USE. Hence, WSE agreed with a herbivorous position. USE *D. antillarum* showed that the species can occupy different trophic niches due to resource limitation. Under *Sargassum* blooms, *D. antillarum* performed a position more related to omnivorous conditions, so the estimated trophic level indicated a herbivorous behaviour tending to omnivory according to Vander Zanden & Rasmussen (1999), who stated that primary consumers have a trophic position of 2.0 (strictly herbivorous); but if organisms assimilate primary consumers, they are considered in a TL of 3.0. The results for Mahahual are consistent with Andrew (1989) who argued that sea urchins can take advantage through omnivory if variation exist in the availability of resources. Our results suggest that *D. antillarum* behaves as facultative omnivore related to patterns of

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nutrient availability. δ^{15} N signatures for *D. antillarum* in Mahahual suggest a different carbon source USE, but also anthropogenic nitrogen inputs, which seems coherent as this site has a high eutrophication, being an area with elevated touristic demand (Martínez-Rendis et al., 2016; Arias-González et al., 2017) plus the possible nitrogen fixation by anaerobic bacteria as an important factor in the variation of available sources of food.

Regarding for the TL values exhibited for *D. antillarum* in Mahahual USE 3.08 ± 0.13 versus 2.35 ± 0.18 for WSE would place *D. antillarum* in an omnivorous position tending to carnivory. Similar values were obtained in Mediterranean sea urchins as a strategy to avoid exclusion by sympatric species (Wagensteen et al. 2011). However, we cannot state that *D. antillarum* is carnivorous in Mahahual. This would require a more complete temporal study, and an adjustment of a new δ^{15} N baseline of primary producers, considering that 15 N/ 14 N ratios can vary spatially and temporarily (Jennings et al. 1997, Vanderklift et al. 2006).

The results for Xahuayxol showed also a trend to higher δ^{15} N. However by analyzing the condition of *D. antillarum* in Xahuayxol no significant differences were obtained. We can assume that this locality that least changed in its foraging behavior position against the nutrients modification and the species occupied a lower trophic level WSE. Meanwhile, Xcalak displayed the opposite trend compared to Mahahual and Xahuayxol and USE *D. antillarum* trophic level was lower than WSE. Our results suggest that for Xcalak the effect of *Sargassum* blooms was completely modified and reduced the possibility of finding available resources, displayed a trophic level around 2.5 between the two scenarios of *Sargassum* blooms. This corresponds to a predominantly herbivorous-tending to omnivorous condition. Moreover this was confirmed with the isotopic niche breadth data where a reduced niche was observed for Xcalak (Fig. 3).

The rank found for *D. antillarum* in this study agreed with the study conducted by Rodríguez-Barrras et al. (2015) in Puerto Rico where microinvertebrates were used as source of organic matter by the sea urchin. Finally, TL values found in our results support the premise that echinoids are able to modify their foraging behavior depending on the availability of resources (Randall, Schroeder & Starck, 1964; Muthiga & McClanahan, 2007) and in this case (USE) was not only explained by macroalgae.

It is important to remark that we analysed the most abundant species at the three localities and the most important shallow-bottom herbivore on Caribbean reefs (Carpenter, 1981; Hughes, 1994; Aronson & Precht, 2006; Kissling et al., 2014). One of the most dramatic events in the Caribbean resulted from the pathogen-driven reduction in the populations of D. antillarum (Lessios et al., 1984; Cramer et al., 2018) with detrimental ecological consequences like coral-algal phase-shifts. The southern part of Quintana Roo is not an exception encompassing with the effects of the abrupt coastal development and watershed pollution as key drivers along the Costa Maya (Arias-González et al., 2017). For the Mexican Caribbean, there has been considerable variation in D. antillarum population data. Jordán-Garza et al. (2008) showed a high presence of D. antillarum with densities of more than 7 ind m⁻² in several areas, including our study area. Jorgensen et al. (2008) reported densities of 12.6 nd m⁻² after hurricane Dean. According to Maldonado-Sánchez (2018) population density of D. antillarum displayed <1 ind m⁻² for five different habitats of the Parque Nacional Arrecifes de Xcalak (PNAX) reef lagoon (back reef, seagrasses, sandy bottoms and reef patches) and the fore reef. The back reef exhibited the highest abundance with an average of 0.5 ind m⁻². However for Mahahual, we registered an average density of 0.6 ind m⁻² (unpublished data), because of the broad variability exhibited from D. antillarum populations in the back reef. It is necessary to strengthen the sampling effort to evaluate their population current status. A more comprehensive discussion would have to include the interactions with other herbivore/omnivore species, which coexist in each site and whether, and how they carry out the resource partitioning.

Isotopic niche breadth

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The ellipses <u>provide give us the integrated</u> information <u>onef</u> the relationship between the availability of sources and the niche <u>widthamplitude</u> (the relationship of the consumer with their <u>consumed sources</u>). The results of Mahahual indicated that in USE. *D. antillarum* consumes different carbon and nitrogen sources (Fig.4).

Several studies (Lawrence, 1975; Carpenter, 1981; Sammarco, 1982; Hay & Fenical, 1988) noted that echinoids have the ability to adapt their foraging behavior depending on algae availability as well as their population density and site characteristics (Bak, Carpay & de Ruyter van Steveninck, 1984; Bak, 1994; Alvarado et al., 2016). We observed at Mahahual that USE *D*.

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antillarum exhibited a broader trophic niche than WSE. Despite the limited resources this could lead to trophic overlap and stronger habitat degradation. SIAR results showed a resource shift and this could be explained in terms of omnivory as stated by France et al. (1998) "omnivory is a prevalent attribute of aquatic food webs".

The trophic niche of Xahuayxol reflects that there was no difference in the use of carbon and nitrogen sources. It is noteworthy that for the case of Xcalak, the resulting isotopic niche of *D. antillarum* was significantly smaller with *Sargassum* effect. This is consistent with the metric that associates smaller niche amplitude with disturbed ecosystems (Layman et al., 2007b).

Limitations of the study

To assess the effect of differential management of *Sargassum* and to effectively evaluate the effect of the management disposal, quantitative information on the beach disposal would be necessary.

It is clear that succession of algae communities were modified due to *Sargassum*. Therefore, the structuring role of sea urchins, and, considering that algae respond to a temporal variability naturally, it would be necessary to study changing gradients at different time scales. This would provide us with more conclusive information about the effect of *Sargassum* spp. on the benthic

574 communities.

Metric values based on an instantaneous characterization of a single food web provide a limited view of the food web. Therefore, in order to evaluate the trophic structure and consequently its functional structure, the most promising evaluations would have to include a comparison of multiple gradients, in order to examine the same food web on a longer temporal perspective. The metrics used in this study allowed us to evaluate the variation of the isotopic signatures that formed the trophic spectrum of *D. antillarum* under two different scenarios.

The deposited biomass values regarding to *S. fluitans* and *S. natans* did not include a measurement of the total arrived *Sargassum* blooms. However, our results established a baseline of the amounts that were more available for the echinoids, which inhabit in the back section of the Caribbean shallow reefs.

It would be challenging to evaluate the ecological role of other coexisting species (*Echinometra viridis*, *E. lucunter* and *Eucidaris tribuloides*), and to include samples of micro-invertebrates. This could offer new clues to the connectivity between sympatric species, including trophic loops and successional states of algal communities (Camus, Daroch & Opazo, 2008) within the benthic communities of coral reefs.

Conclusions

The present study provides a first look how trophic parameters of D. antillarum were modified by the impact of pelagic Sargassum blooms in the Caribbean. The results indicated that the effects of the leachates generated by the decomposition process, the input of organic material and deposition in its vegetal structures modify the organic matter in the environment and hence the isotopic signatures. This has negative consequences in the benthic trophic structure, limiting the natural herbivory of D. antillarum. The source of available carbon and nitrogen was modified, and the isotopic signatures of macroalgae associated with the reef sites exhibited significantly lower values of $\delta^{15}N$. Consequently the trophic niches were changed and in the case of Xcalak, significantly reduced. However, feeding behavior preferences in D. antillarum was not driven by pelagic macroalgae masses.

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