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4 **Regional-scale variability in the response of benthic**  
5 **macroinvertebrate assemblages to a marine heatwave**

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17 *Running head: extreme warming event and temperate reef fauna*

1 ABSTRACT: Extreme climatic events are predicted to increase in severity as a consequence  
2 of anthropogenic climate change. In marine ecosystems, the importance of marine heatwaves  
3 (MHWs) – discrete periods of anomalously high sea temperatures - is gaining recognition. In  
4 2011, the highest-magnitude MHW ever recorded impacted the west coast of Australia  
5 (southeast Indian Ocean). The MHW was associated with widespread mortality of habitat-  
6 forming species, including corals and kelps, and structural changes in assemblages of  
7 macroalgae and fish. However, the responses of benthic macroinvertebrate assemblages have  
8 not yet been fully documented. Here, we resurveyed 2 subtidal habitat types (reef ‘flats’ and  
9 ‘slopes’) at 4 locations (spanning >800 km of coastline and >6° of latitude) during the period  
10 1999-2015 to examine the impacts of the 2011 MHW on herbivorous macroinvertebrates (i.e.  
11 sea urchins, gastropod molluscs). Responses to the MHW varied with latitude; at our warmest  
12 study location abundances were severely depleted whereas no effects were detected at the  
13 coolest location. Across the entire study region subtle but significant shifts in assemblage  
14 structure were observed due to decreased abundances of more southerly-distributed species  
15 (i.e. ‘cool’ affinity) and increased abundances of several more northerly-distributed species  
16 (i.e. ‘warm’ affinity). The 2011 MHW has had profound effects on the marine biota off the  
17 west coast of Australia, across multiple trophic levels and taxonomic groups. Here, as in many  
18 other regions, contemporary warming events are superimposed onto gradual warming trends,  
19 increasing the likelihood of abrupt changes in ecosystem structure and functioning.

20 KEY WORDS: Benthic herbivores; Extreme climatic events; Leeuwin Current; Mobile  
21 macro-invertebrates; Southeast Indian Ocean; Southwest Australia; Species distributions;  
22 Temperature variability

23

# 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Climatic variability, including the frequency and magnitude of extreme climatic events, is  
3 predicted to increase as a direct consequence of anthropogenic climate change (Meehl &  
4 Tebaldi 2004, Rahmstorf & Coumou 2011, IPCC 2012). Natural climate variability is now  
5 superimposed onto decadal warming trends in most regions, increasing the likelihood of  
6 discrete climatic events becoming 'extreme' or 'anomalous' (Hansen et al. 2012, Trenberth  
7 2012). Such events, which include heatwaves, droughts, storms and floods, can affect both  
8 terrestrial and marine ecosystems and cause high mortality (Garrabou et al. 2009, Marba &  
9 Duarte 2010) deleterious impacts on populations (Van De Pol et al. 2010, Smale & Wernberg  
10 2013) and a reconfiguration of communities (Thibault & Brown 2008, Wernberg et al. 2013,  
11 Wernberg et al. 2016).

12 Marine heatwaves (MHWs) are broadly defined as discrete prolonged periods when sea  
13 temperatures are anomalously high relative to long-term records (Hobday et al. 2016). MHWs,  
14 which can be caused by a range of oceanographic and atmospheric processes, are gaining  
15 recognition as widespread and potent drivers of change in marine ecosystems (Wernberg et al.  
16 2013, Hobday et al. 2016). Indeed, the number of days of anomalously high seawater  
17 temperatures has significantly increased along 30% of the world's coastlines in the last 30 years  
18 (Lima & Wethey 2012), while several 'high profile' warming events have had far-reaching  
19 ecological impacts (Hobday et al. 2016). For example, the European meteorological heatwaves  
20 of 2003 and 2006 elevated seawater temperatures in the Mediterranean Sea, which in turn  
21 caused widespread mortality, shifts in species' distributions and declines in local marine  
22 biodiversity (Garrabou et al. 2009, Lejeusne et al. 2009, Marba & Duarte 2010). More recently,  
23 the El Niño-driven warming event of 2015-2016 has devastated coral reefs at a global scale  
24 (Normile 2016). It is clear that prolonged periods of extremely high seawater temperatures

1 affect processes across all biological scales, from genes (Bergmann et al. 2010) to organisms  
2 (Diaz-Almela et al. 2007) to ecosystems (Wernberg et al. 2016).

3 In the austral summer of 2010/2011, the southeast Indian Ocean experienced an extreme  
4 warming event, during which seawater temperatures were the highest on record (~30 years for  
5 satellite-derived SSTs and ~140 years for reconstructed SSTs, see Wernberg et al. 2013).  
6 During the MHW, warming anomalies of 2-4°C persisted for around two months across >2000  
7 km of temperate and subtropical coastline (Feng et al. 2013, Pearce & Feng 2013, Wernberg et  
8 al. 2013). At the MHW's peak in late February/March 2011, warming anomalies of up to 5°C  
9 were observed at multiple coastal locations (Rose et al. 2012, Feng et al. 2013, Pearce & Feng  
10 2013). The MHW was associated with unusually strong La Niña conditions, which increased  
11 the flow of the region's main ocean current (the Leeuwin Current, 'LC') and the transfer of  
12 tropical warm water polewards, and was superimposed onto a decadal scale warming trend in  
13 the southeast Indian Ocean (Pearce & Feng 2007).

14 The MHW had wide-ranging consequences for marine ecosystems along the western coastline  
15 of Australia, which is a global hotspot of marine diversity and endemism (Tittensor et al. 2010,  
16 Bennett et al. 2015a). Unprecedented rates of coral bleaching and mortality were recorded  
17 across >1000 km of tropical and subtropical coastline (Moore et al. 2012, Depczynski et al.  
18 2013), including at high latitude locations that are historically resistant to bleaching events  
19 (Smale & Wernberg 2012). Significant declines in the abundance and geographical extent of  
20 habitat-forming macroalgae were observed (Smale & Wernberg 2013, Wernberg et al. 2013,  
21 Wernberg et al. 2016), as were changes in fish abundances and species composition (Wernberg  
22 et al. 2013, Bennett et al. 2015b, Wernberg et al. 2016) and mass mortalities of commercially-  
23 important finfish and shellfish (Pearce et al. 2011, Caputi et al. 2016). 'Warm-temperate'  
24 locations situated within the tropical-temperate transition zone were profoundly impacted, as  
25 they suffered widespread loss of cool-water adapted habitat-forming species (kelps and large

1 fucoids), which were unable to cope with the extreme temperatures experienced during the  
2 MHW (Smale & Wernberg 2013, Wernberg et al. 2013, Wernberg et al. 2016).

3 Mobile macroinvertebrates such as echinoderms and molluscs play key roles in the trophic  
4 ecology of temperate Australia (Shepherd & Edgar 2013), yet the impact of the 2011 MHW on  
5 their distributions and abundances has not yet been analysed in detail. Within the current  
6 biogeographical context of southwestern Australia, mobile macro-invertebrates are fairly low  
7 in diversity and abundance compared with many other temperate and polar ecosystems, and  
8 exhibit highly patchy spatial distributions (Vanderklift & Kendrick 2004, Wernberg et al. 2008,  
9 Levitus et al. 2012, Azzarello et al. 2014, Smale & Wernberg 2014). Despite their relatively  
10 low diversity and abundances, and an apparent lack of grazing 'fronts' and urchin 'barrens' in  
11 the region, densities can be locally high (>8 large inds.m<sup>-2</sup>, see Vanderklift & Kendrick 2004,  
12 Azzarello et al. 2014) and mobile macroinvertebrates represent a conspicuous and  
13 characteristic component of kelp forest communities (Vanderklift & Kendrick 2004, Wernberg  
14 et al. 2008, Azzarello et al. 2014). Moreover, key species of sea urchins and molluscs may play  
15 a critical role in the food web (Vanderklift et al. 2006, Lozano-Montes et al. 2011, MacArthur  
16 et al. 2011), linking primary productivity (e.g. drifting and attached macroalgae) to higher  
17 trophic levels (e.g. lobsters, finfish).

18 Off southwest Australia, the reef-associated benthic macroinvertebrate fauna has a  
19 predominantly temperate affinity (Vanderklift & Kendrick 2004); the most abundant sea urchin  
20 in the region is the purple sea urchin *Heliocidaris erythrogramma* (Valenciennes 1846,  
21 hereafter '*Heliocidaris*'), which is widely distributed across southern Australia (Keesing 2001,  
22 Smale & Wernberg 2014). The sea urchin *Phyllacanthus irregularis* (Mortensen 1928,  
23 hereafter '*Phyllacanthus*'), and the large turbinid gastropod *Lunella torquatus* (Gmelin 1791,  
24 recently synonymised with *Turbo torquatus*, hereafter '*Lunella*') are also common, widespread  
25 and have cool-temperate affinities. The sea urchin *Centrostephanus tenuispinus* (Clarke 1914,

1 hereafter '*Centrostephanus*') has a warm-temperate distribution (Wernberg et al. 2016), while  
2 tropical warm-water species such as the sea urchin *Tripneustes gratilla* (Linnaeus 1758,  
3 hereafter '*Tripneustes*') and the cowry gastropod *Monetaria caputserpentis* have occasionally  
4 been recorded within kelp forest communities in southwestern Australia (authors pers. obs.).  
5 The broad-scale affinities and geographical distributions of common macroinvertebrates  
6 observed in previous surveys are shown in Table 1. As such, inter-specific variation in  
7 biogeographic and thermal affinities may make some populations more susceptible to  
8 temperature variability, such as that experienced during the 2011 MHW.

9 Here, we conducted geographically extensive surveys and used historical data to test the  
10 following hypotheses (1) that the MHW significantly altered the structure of macroinvertebrate  
11 assemblages on subtidal reefs in southwest Australia. We also hypothesised (2) that the  
12 abundances of more southerly-distributed cool-temperate species would be lower after the  
13 MHW, especially at our warmest study locations where thermal physiological tolerances may  
14 have been exceeded. Conversely, we predicted that (3) the abundances of more northerly-  
15 distributed warm-temperate/tropical macroinvertebrates would be higher after the MHW,  
16 particularly at our warmest study locations situated within the tropical-temperate transition  
17 zone.

## 18 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

19

### 20 **Study region**

21

22 The extensive coastline of southwestern Australia is characterized by widespread subtidal  
23 rocky reef habitat that supports highly productive, diverse and spatially extensive benthic  
24 communities, which are generally dominated by the kelp *Ecklonia radiata* in shallow waters  
25 (i.e. <30 m depth). We examined the abundances of benthic macroinvertebrates on kelp-  
26 dominated rocky reef habitats within 4 locations off southwest Australia; Hamelin Bay (34.2°S,

1 115.0°E), Marmion Lagoon (31.8°S, 115.7°E), Jurien Bay (30.2S, 115.0°E) and Kalbarri  
2 (27.4°S, 114.1°E). Adjacent locations were situated >200 km apart (Fig. 1) and the study  
3 encompassed ~6° latitude and ~800 km of southwest Australian coastline (southeast Indian  
4 Ocean). All locations were moderately exposed to the oceanic swell systems that influence the  
5 ecology and geomorphology of the region (Searle & Semeniuk 1985, Smale et al. 2011). The  
6 study locations encompassed a temperature gradient of ~3°C and fall within a larger regional-  
7 scale oceanic temperature gradient that characterizes the west coast of Australia (Fig. 1).  
8 Average summer sea temperatures ranged from 20.3°C at Hamelin to 23.2°C at Kalbarri (see  
9 Smale & Wernberg 2009, for detailed climatology of the region). The coastline is strongly  
10 influenced by the LC which originates in the Indo-Pacific and flows polewards along the coast,  
11 before deviating eastwards into the Great Australian Bight (Pearce 1991, Smith et al. 1991).  
12 The LC transports tropical (and subtropical) dispersal stages of marine flora and fauna and  
13 warm, nutrient-poor water polewards (Ayvazian & Hyndes 1995, Caputi et al. 1996, Smale &  
14 Wernberg 2009).

15

## 16 **Field surveys**

17 For each location, existing data on the abundance of mobile invertebrates were collated from  
18 published studies (Vanderklift & Kendrick 2004, Wernberg et al. 2008) and from authors'  
19 unpublished surveys that used identical survey methods. These studies were used to identify  
20 sites within each location that could be resurveyed to assess the impacts of the MHW. Multiple  
21 comparable study sites, >1 km apart from one another, were selected at random from a larger  
22 possible pool for resurveying. All study sites were characterised by extensive limestone reef  
23 habitats, at 6-16 m depth, and supported benthic assemblages typical of the wider region (Smale  
24 et al. 2010). Two habitat types were defined *a priori*; flat reef platforms (hereafter 'flats') and  
25 vertical or steeply-sloping rock faces (hereafter 'slopes'). These habitat types were treated

1 separately because (i) they support distinct invertebrate assemblages (Vanderklift & Kendrick  
2 2004), and (ii) the quantity of available data and the most suitable study sites for resurveying  
3 differed between habitat types. For reef flats, 5 sites were selected from each of the 4 locations  
4 for resurveying, whereas reef slopes were resurveyed at 3 sites within 3 locations (existing data  
5 were not available for reef slopes at Kalbarri). Before the MHW, sites were surveyed between  
6 1 and 3 times between 1999 and 2006 (Table S1). After the MHW, new targeted surveys were  
7 conducted for the current study at all sites 3 times (in 2013, 2014 and 2015), with the exception  
8 of some sites at Hamelin which were not surveyed in 2014/2015 (Table S1). All surveys were  
9 conducted during the austral summer (full details provided in Table S1). Previous research in  
10 the region has shown that short-term variability (i.e. seasons to years) in invertebrate  
11 assemblage structure is minimal and that densities of dominant macroinvertebrates are  
12 generally stable over periods of months to years (Vanderklift & Kendrick 2004, Smale &  
13 Wernberg 2014). For example, an examination of *Heliocidaris* abundances from 3 consecutive  
14 pre-MHW survey years (between 1999 and 2001) on reef slopes at Marmion indicated minimal  
15 inter-annual variability (Fig S1). There was no discernible intensification of localized  
16 anthropogenic stressors, such as increased pollution, sedimentation or harvesting, which may  
17 have confounded any effects of the MHW, at any of the locations during the study period.  
18 Human populations in nearby settlements are relatively small (with the exception of the Perth  
19 Metropolitan Area adjacent to our sites at Marmion, which fall within a designated Marine  
20 Park) and localized anthropogenic impacts that could potentially confound temperature effects  
21 were deemed to be minimal.

22 All mobile macroinvertebrates (>20 mm) within 5 replicate 5 x 1 m belt transects were counted  
23 on SCUBA (by the authors) at each study site. Transects were positioned haphazardly and  
24 placed >5 m apart from one another. In total, counts were obtained from 685 transects (395  
25 completed before the MHW and 290 after the MHW) covering ~3425 m<sup>2</sup> of subtidal reef  
26 habitat (~1975 m<sup>2</sup> before the MHW and ~1450 m<sup>2</sup> after the MHW).



## 1 **Statistical analysis**

2 Differences in invertebrate assemblage structure between pre-MHW and post-MHW surveys  
3 was examined with permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, see  
4 Anderson 2001), using PRIMER 6 software (Clarke & Warwick 2001) with the  
5 PERMANOVA add-on (Anderson et al. 2008). As macroinvertebrate abundance values per  
6 transect were often low, the five transects completed per site/year combination were first  
7 pooled (to generate abundance values per 25 m<sup>2</sup>) so that a single value was used for each site-  
8 year combination. Initially a ‘global’ analysis was performed on data from all locations, using  
9 an orthogonal model with the two factors ‘location’ (fixed factor) and ‘MHW’ (fixed factor);  
10 each habitat type was analysed separately. Permutations were based on a similarity matrix  
11 generated from Bray-Curtis similarity matrix of square-root transformed pooled densities  
12 (4999 permutations under a reduced model). As highly-significant ( $P \leq 0.001$ ) interactions  
13 between location and MHW were detected for both habitat types (Table S2, Fig. S2), separate  
14 *a priori* planned contrasts for each location were conducted to test the prediction that years  
15 following the MHW would be distinct from those before the MHW (using the same similarity  
16 matrix and data transformation as above, and 4999 unrestricted permutations). In all cases,  
17 dummy variables (equal to the lowest transformed abundance value; ‘1’) were included in the  
18 similarity matrices to alleviate the overpowering influence of transects with zero abundance  
19 values (Clarke & Warwick 2001). Where a significant difference was detected, a SIMPER  
20 analysis was performed to determine which taxa contributed most to the observed dissimilarity.  
21 PCO plots for each location and habitat type were constructed to examine multivariate  
22 partitioning before and after the MHW.

23 Temporal trends in total abundance (TA), taxon richness (TR) and the abundances of dominant  
24 species were examined with univariate permutation-based ANOVA (Anderson et al. 2008),  
25 using the planned contrasts described above (all response variables exhibited a significant

1 Location x MHW interaction term in initial global analyses and so each location was analysed  
2 separately). Permutations were based on Euclidean distances between untransformed  
3 abundance data (using 4999 unrestricted permutations).

## 4 **RESULTS**

### 5 **The marine heatwave of 2010/11**

6 At all locations temperature anomalies between +2°C to +3°C persisted for two months (Fig.  
7 1) and absolute sea surface temperatures in the region were the highest on record (Feng et al.  
8 2013, Pearce & Feng 2013, Wernberg et al. 2013). In addition to the extreme warming observed  
9 in 2010/2011, sea surface temperatures in early 2012 and (to a lesser extent) early 2013 were  
10 also higher than the climatological mean for each location (Fig. 1).

### 11 **Assemblage-level responses**

12 On reef flats, the composition of mobile invertebrate assemblages was not obviously impacted  
13 by the MHW at the coolest study locations (PCO plots showed no clear partitioning in  
14 composition before and after the MHW at Hamelin or Marmion: Fig. 2) but were clearly altered  
15 by the MHW at the warmest locations (partitioning was evident at Jurien and major shifts in  
16 composition occurred at Kalbarri: Fig. 2). Multivariate statistical tests supported inferences  
17 from visual inspections of PCO plots, as *a priori* planned contrasts indicated that pre- and post-  
18 MHW assemblages at Jurien and Kalbarri were significantly different (Table S3). SIMPER  
19 analysis indicated that the observed dissimilarities at Jurien were principally related to lower  
20 post-MHW abundances of *Heliocidaris* and *Lunella* and higher abundances of  
21 *Centrostephanus* (Table S4). At Kalbarri, the gastropods *Lunella*, *Dicathais orbita* and  
22 *Astralium* spp., which were not recorded after the MHW, were the principal contributors to the  
23 observed dissimilarities between pre and post-MHW assemblages (Table S4).

1 On reef slopes, PCO plots indicated that assemblages at Hamelin showed no obvious  
2 differences in composition before and after the MHW, whereas partitioning between pre- and  
3 post-MHW assemblages was observed at Marmion and Jurien (Fig. 3). These observations  
4 were supported by PERMANOVA, as pre and post-MHW assemblages at Hamelin were  
5 statistically similar but significant differences in composition were observed at Marmion and  
6 Jurien (Table S5). SIMPER analysis indicated that differences at Marmion were related to  
7 higher post-MHW abundances of *Heliocidaris* and *Centrostephanus* and lower abundances of  
8 the sea star *Petricia vernicina* (Table S6). At Jurien, the sea urchins *Centrostephanus*,  
9 *Tripneustes* (both with higher abundances post-MHW) and *Phyllacanthus* (lower abundances  
10 post-MHW) were the principal contributors to the observed dissimilarities between pre and  
11 post-MHW assemblages (Table S6).

12 On reef flats total abundance (TA) and taxon richness (TR) did not vary significantly between  
13 pre and post-MHW years at the 3 highest latitude locations (Hamelin, Marmion and Jurien, see  
14 Fig 4). At Kalbarri, however, TA and TR were significantly lower after the MHW (Table S7)  
15 to the extent that not a single macroinvertebrate individual was observed in any of the 75 post-  
16 MHW transects (Fig. 4), which covered a habitat area of  $\sim 375 \text{ m}^2$ . On average at Kalbarri, TA  
17 decreased from  $2.3 \pm 0.8$  to  $0 \text{ inds.}25 \text{ m}^{-2}$  and TR decreased from  $1.3 \pm 0.3$  to  $0 \text{ spp.}25 \text{ m}^{-2}$  (Fig.  
18 4). On reef slopes, TA did not differ significantly before and after the MHW at any location  
19 but TR was significantly lower at Jurien after the MHW (Table S8), decreasing from  $5.0 \pm 0.6$   
20 to  $2.9 \pm 0.3 \text{ spp.}25 \text{ m}^{-2}$  (Fig. 4).

## 21 **Population-level responses**

22 On reef flats, *Heliocidaris* was the most abundant macroinvertebrate, reaching a maximum  
23 average abundance of  $8.8 \pm 3.0 \text{ inds.}25\text{m}^{-2}$  at Jurien (Fig. 5). The MHW had no statistically  
24 significant effect on *Heliocidaris* abundances at Hamelin, Marmion and Jurien, and it was not  
25 recorded at Kalbarri during any survey year (Fig. 5, Table S9). The two most common

1 gastropod taxa, *Lunella* and *Astraliium* spp. (*Astraliium tentorium* Thiele 1930 and *Astraliium*  
2 *squamiferum* Koch 1844) were recorded at all locations before the MHW but were not recorded  
3 at the warmest location, Kalbarri, after the MHW (Fig. 5). This marked post-MHW decline  
4 was statistically significant for *Lunella* but not for *Astraliium* (Fig. 5, Table S9).

5 On reef slopes, *Heliocidaris* was again the most common macroinvertebrate and did not  
6 respond significantly to the MHW (Fig. 6, Table S10). At Jurien, the abundance of the pencil  
7 urchin *Phyllacanthus* was significantly lower after the MHW (Fig. 6, Table S10). The most  
8 striking observation was the marked increases in the abundance of *Centrostephanus* at both  
9 Marmion and Jurien (Fig. 6). Following the MHW, the average abundance of *Centrostephanus*  
10 was ~15 times higher at Jurien and also significantly higher at Marmion, increasing from  
11 complete absence in transects before the MHW to an average abundance of  $1.9 \pm 0.7$  inds.25m<sup>2</sup>  
12 following the event (Fig. 6, Table S10). A marked but statistically non-significant increase in  
13 *Centrostephanus* abundance was also observed at Hamelin (Fig. 6, Table S10). The collector  
14 urchin *Tripneustes* was not recorded in any pre-MHW transect but was recorded at some sites  
15 at Jurien after the MHW, in 2013 and 2014 (Fig. 6). However, the planned contrast between  
16 pre- and post-MHW years was not statistically significant because of high variability between  
17 sites and years (*Tripneustes* was recorded at 2 sites in 2013, 1 site in 2014 and was absent in  
18 2015), indicating that patterns were variable between sites and years.

19 Temporal shifts in the relative abundances of sea urchin species on reef slopes (i.e. the  
20 percentage of all sea urchin individuals represented by each species, with all 3 sites per location  
21 pooled) were also examined (Fig. 7). This analysis showed a consistent clear pattern of higher  
22 relative abundance of *Centrostephanus* since the MHW at all 3 study locations (Fig. 7). For  
23 example, at Jurien before the MHW *Centrostephanus* represented 3.5% of all sea urchins  
24 recorded, yet by 2015 (4 years after the MHW) *Centrostephanus* represented 90.1% of all sea  
25 urchin individuals. A similar trend was observed at Hamelin and Marmion (Fig. 7).

1 Furthermore, at Jurien the relative contributions of *Heliocidaris* and *Phyllacanthus* individuals  
2 to the sea urchin assemblage was markedly lower following the MHW, partly as a consequence  
3 of the higher abundances of *Tripneustes* (temporarily) and *Centrostephanus* (Fig. 7). The  
4 relative abundances of *Heliocidaris* and *Phyllacanthus* at the other study locations were more  
5 variable between years and showed no clear trend (Fig. 7).

6

## 7 **DICUSSION**

8

9 The 2011 MHW was extreme in terms of magnitude, duration and spatial extent (Feng et al.  
10 2013, Wernberg et al. 2013). Our data unequivocally demonstrate that the MHW significantly  
11 altered the composition of benthic macroinvertebrate assemblages on subtidal reefs in  
12 southwest Australia, with the magnitude of impact inversely related to latitude (i.e. the warmest  
13 locations were the hardest hit). At the coolest study location, Hamelin, the composition of  
14 invertebrate assemblages on reef flats and slopes did not differ between pre and post-MHW  
15 years. At the mid-latitude locations, Marmion and Jurien, changes in the relative abundances  
16 of macroinvertebrate taxa led to significant alterations in species composition (on reef slopes  
17 at Marmion and on both habitat types at Jurien), whereas major shifts in species composition  
18 were observed at the lowest latitude location, Kalbarri. This aligns with the responses of fish  
19 and macroalgae assemblages (Wernberg et al. 2013), which were impacted by the MHW at a  
20 ‘warm’ location (Jurien) but not at a ‘cool’ location (Hamelin). These data support our first  
21 hypothesis, that macroinvertebrate assemblage structure in southwest Australia was altered by  
22 the 2011 MHW, although responses varied considerably between locations.

23

24 The most striking observation of the current study was the decimation of all benthic  
25 macroinvertebrates at Kalbarri, which were completely absent after the MHW. The most  
26 common mobile invertebrates at Kalbarri before the MHW were all large gastropods (the  
27 turban shells *Lunella* and *Astraliium* spp. and the carnivorous muricid *Dicathais orbita* Gmelin

1 1791) which, although not abundant, were commonly recorded before the MHW, being  
2 ubiquitous in all surveys prior to 2011. These species exhibit temperate distributions spanning  
3 southern Australia, having likely evolved under cool, climatically-stable Tethyan conditions  
4 (Williams 2007). Kalbarri is situated towards the equatorward limit of these species'  
5 distributions and, although thermal tolerances for these species are unknown, it is very likely  
6 that extreme temperatures experienced during the MHW had direct adverse physiological  
7 effects and induced high mortality rates. During the MHW, there was 99% mortality of the  
8 commercially-important gastropod *Haliotis roei* (Gray 1826, 'Roe's abalone') on inshore reefs  
9 at Kalbarri, which represents the equatorward limit of this species' distribution (Caputi et al.  
10 2016). The mass die-offs at Kalbarri were associated with 30°C temperatures, discoloured  
11 water and (probably) depleted oxygen levels (Pearce et al. 2011), and deleterious impacts of  
12 warming on *H. roei* populations further south in the Perth Metropolitan Area (i.e. near  
13 Marmion) were also observed (Caputi et al. 2016). *Lunella* also decreased in abundance after  
14 the MHW at Marmion and Jurien (although not significantly), providing further support for the  
15 susceptibility of range edge populations to extreme warming.

16

17 In addition to direct thermal stress, it is possible that the indirect effects of loss of habitat and  
18 food also affected invertebrate populations at Kalbarri and, to a lesser extent, Jurien. The MHW  
19 had direct adverse effects on habitat-forming seaweeds such as the dominant kelp *Ecklonia*  
20 *radiata*, which resulted in a 30-40% decline in total canopy cover in Jurien (Wernberg et al.  
21 2013) and the extirpation of the large furoid *Scytothalia dorycarpa* at its range edge (Smale &  
22 Wernberg 2013). At Kalbarri, habitat structure was dramatically impacted by the MHW, as the  
23 spatial coverage of the canopy-forming kelp *Ecklonia radiata* decreased from ~75% of the  
24 reef's surface (Wernberg et al. 2010) to complete absence after the MHW (Wernberg et al.  
25 2016). It has been shown that *Lunella* has a high affinity with kelp cover, and that sharp  
26 declines in *Lunella* abundance are associated with loss of kelp during ENSO events on the East

1 coast of Australia (Ettinger-Epstein & Kingsford 2008). Although *Lunella* and *Astraliium* spp.  
2 do not primarily feed on kelp, preferring to consume filamentous or foliose algae (Ettinger-  
3 Epstein & Kingsford 2008, Wernberg et al. 2008), canopy-forming macroalgae represent a  
4 critical resource through shelter provision (Ettinger-Epstein & Kingsford 2008). As such, loss  
5 of structural habitat may have indirectly impacted gastropod abundance, as loss of macroalgal  
6 shelter can induce behavioural responses and increase vulnerability of invertebrates to  
7 predators (Ettinger-Epstein & Kingsford 2008, Stoner 2009). Moreover, drifting kelp  
8 fragments are an important food source for benthic macroinvertebrates in the region  
9 (Vanderklift & Wernberg 2010), so a decline in food availability may have affected the  
10 ecological performance of individuals and the structure of populations.

11

12 The post-MHW surveys were conducted 2-4 years after the 2011 event, with invertebrate  
13 populations at Kalbarri showing no signs of recovery following apparent widespread mortality.  
14 This is unsurprising, as recovery of the gastropod populations formerly recorded at Kalbarri  
15 will likely be hampered for 2 reasons; (1) the larval duration for some of these species is  
16 presumed to be fairly short (i.e. days to weeks) (Phillips 1969, Joll 1980), so that post-MHW  
17 recovery will depend on proximity to source populations, and (2) source populations are likely  
18 to be located at higher latitudes, downstream of the main poleward-flowing ocean current,  
19 thereby reducing the likelihood of larval transport into impacted locations (Caputi et al. 1996).  
20 As Kalbarri is situated towards the equatorward distribution limits for these cool-water species,  
21 it is possible that the MHW has induced poleward range contractions (as with a temperate  
22 seaweed, see Smale & Wernberg 2013, Wernberg et al. 2016), although additional surveys are  
23 needed to confirm species' range shifts. In addition to gastropods at Kalbarri, abundances of  
24 the pencil urchin *Phyllacanthus* were markedly lower on reef slope habitats at Jurien after the  
25 MHW, which was a major contributor to the observed dissimilarity between pre and post-  
26 MHW assemblages. *Phyllacanthus* has a cool-water temperate distribution with its

1 equatorward range edge estimated at the Abrolhos Islands, ~28.5°S (Marsh 1994). As such, its  
2 absence at Kalbarri and post-MHW decline at Jurien may be related to recent warming, but  
3 thermal tolerance experiments are needed to examine this further. However, we observed no  
4 clear trend in the abundance of *Heliocidaris*, which has a similar temperate distribution to  
5 *Phyllacanthus*, therefore indicating inter-specific variability in responses to the MHW (as has  
6 been shown for seaweed and fish, see Wernberg et al. 2013). In summary, our second  
7 hypothesis, which predicted lower post-MHW abundances of more southerly distributed cool-  
8 water species, was partially supported as cool-water species at Kalbarri were decimated by the  
9 MHW and some, but not all, cool water species exhibited a response at Jurien.

10

11 Our third hypothesis – that the relative abundance of more northerly distributed ‘warm-water’  
12 taxa would increase after the MHW – received some support as the abundance of *Tripneustes*  
13 notably increased at some sites at Jurien for the years immediately following the MHW.  
14 *Tripneustes* is a warm-water ‘collector urchin’ that is widely distributed across the Indo-Pacific  
15 and extended tropics, where it primarily feeds on drifting seagrass and macroalgae fragments  
16 but can actively graze when per capita food supply is insufficient (Ogden et al. 1989, Valentine  
17 & Edgar 2010). *Tripneustes* is notoriously ‘boom and bust’ and intense population outbreaks  
18 have been observed in the temperate-tropical transition zone in eastern Australia, with  
19 community-level consequences (Valentine & Edgar 2010). *Tripneustes* is common in  
20 subtropical waters off Western Australia and, although it has occasionally been recorded  
21 further poleward than Jurien (e.g. at Rottnest Island, Vanderklift personal observation), it was  
22 extremely rare at all study locations and was not recorded in any transects completed before  
23 the MHW. We suggest that the higher abundances of *Tripneustes* at Jurien in 2013 and 2014  
24 was a consequence of the MHW for the following reasons: (1) the enhanced poleward flow of  
25 the LC during the MHW would have increased larval supply into cooler locations (Feng et al.  
26 2013, Wernberg et al. 2013); (2) temperatures experienced during the MHW in the Jurien Bay



1 region (i.e. 26-27°C, see Wernberg et al. 2013) would have been favourable for the  
2 development of *Tripneustes* larvae (Sheppard Brennan et al. 2010); (3) *Tripneustes* larvae are  
3 relatively long-lived and are generally released in the austral summer (Dworjanyn & Pirozzi  
4 2008), which was co-incident with the MHW and the unusually early strengthening of the LC  
5 (Pearce & Feng, 2013); and (4) the cohort of sea urchins observed in 2013 were similar in size  
6 (test diameters of ~10-12 cm, Smale pers. obs), which according to growth rate estimates  
7 (Bacolod & Dy 1986) would have coincided with a recruitment event during or soon after the  
8 MHW. However, as no *Tripneustes* individuals were recorded in 2015 the proliferation of the  
9 warmer-water species was short-lived, with no indication that the population at Jurien will  
10 persist.

11

12 The hypothesis received limited support as there was no evidence of a proliferation of warm-  
13 affinity macroinvertebrates at the northernmost location (Kalbarri), where reef habitats were  
14 devoid of benthic macrofauna. On the other hand, the principal ‘winner’ of the ecological  
15 disturbance was *Centrostephanus*, which increased in abundance by a factor of ~15 at Jurien  
16 to outnumber *Heliocidaris* to become the most abundant sea urchin, and significantly increased  
17 in abundance at Marmion following the MHW. *Centrostephanus* can be described as a ‘warm-  
18 temperate’ species and its proliferation does therefore provide some support for the third  
19 hypothesis. Although *Centrostephanus* exhibits a temperate distribution from South Australia  
20 to mid-Western Australia, it is far more abundant towards the warm northern limit of its  
21 distribution compared with the cooler southern parts of its range (Vanderklift & Kendrick 2004,  
22 Wernberg et al. 2016). For example, an unpublished survey based on 90 habitat-scale transects  
23 conducted across 18 similar reefs between South Australia (Adelaide) and Marmion in 2005/06  
24 did not find a single *Centrostephanus* individual on these southern reefs (T. Wernberg  
25 unpublished data). Moreover, its equatorward range edge extends further north than the other

1 sea urchin species (except *Tripneustes*), with the northernmost population recorded at ~25°S  
2 (Marsh 1994, GBIF record 137025088).

3

4 Very little is known about the biology of *Centrostephanus tenuispinus*, but its warm-temperate  
5 congener on the east coast of Australia, *Centrostephanus rodgersii*, has been extensively  
6 studied in recent years (see Byrne & Andrew 2013 for review). *C. rodgersii* has recently  
7 extended its range polewards into Tasmania, in response to increased temperature and a  
8 strengthening of the East Australian Current, where it has overgrazed kelp forest habitat to  
9 create widespread urchin barrens (Ling et al. 2008, Ling et al. 2009). *C. rodgersii* has long-  
10 lived planktonic larvae that facilitates long distance dispersal (Byrne & Andrew 2013); it is  
11 likely that *C. tenuispinus* also has the potential for widespread dispersal. Increasing abundance  
12 of *C. tenuispinus* along the southwest coastline of Australia is congruent with the recent MHW  
13 and the longer-term gradual warming trend in the region (Pearce & Feng 2007). Thermal  
14 tolerance studies on *C. rodgersii* and *Heliocidaris* on the east coast of Australia would suggest  
15 that their thermal windows for fertilisation, development, growth and survival do not differ  
16 markedly (Byrne et al. 2010, Wolfe et al. 2013, Pecorino et al. 2014). As such, it is currently  
17 unclear whether recent warming has directly (through physiological stress) or indirectly  
18 (through temperature-mediated competitive interactions) favoured *C. tenuispinus* over  
19 *Heliocidaris* in southwest Australia, and focussed experimental work is needed. It is also not  
20 known whether *C. tenuispinus* on the west coast has the potential to modify kelp forest habitat  
21 to the extent of its congener on the east coast of Australia.

22

23 In conclusion, the 2011 MHW has had profound effects on the marine biota along the southwest  
24 coastline of Australia. Rapid changes in the abundance, distribution and condition of organisms  
25 representing a wide range of taxonomic and trophic groups have been reported (Pearce et al.  
26 2011, Moore et al. 2012, Smale & Wernberg 2012, Smale & Wernberg 2013, Wernberg et al.

1 2013, Caputi et al. 2016, Wernberg et al. 2016). This study has shown that the responses of  
2 mobile macroinvertebrates assemblages to the warming event varied dramatically with latitude,  
3 with greatest impact at the northernmost study locations, even though the magnitude of the  
4 warming anomaly was consistent along the latitudinal gradient. Recent modelling approaches  
5 based on species distributions and projected temperatures suggest that species' range  
6 expansions will be more prevalent than range contractions under climate change scenarios  
7 (García Molinos et al. 2016). However, in this 'extreme' example of warming, we primarily  
8 observed loss of cooler-water macroinvertebrate species and less evidence for an influx or  
9 proliferation of warmer-water species over the timescale of observation. In contrast, observed  
10 responses of other taxonomic groups to MHWs, including seaweeds, fish and corals, have  
11 included a proliferation of warm-water species (Wernberg et al. 2013, Wernberg et al. 2016).  
12 Clearly, better understanding of variability between biogeographic regions and taxonomic  
13 groups is needed to improve predictions the effects of climate change on marine ecosystems.

14 Coastal marine ecosystems along the vast and varied coastline of temperate Australia have  
15 responded to longer-term gradual ocean warming and concurrent stressors in complex and  
16 unpredictable ways (Wernberg et al. 2011). As short-term climatic variability is superimposed  
17 onto longer-term gradual warming trends in southwest Australia as in many other regions  
18 around the world, absolute temperatures may now reach unprecedented highs during extreme  
19 climatic events (Trenberth 2012). This will increase the likelihood of ecological tipping points  
20 being exceeded, triggering rapid phase-shifts in some regions and habitats (Wernberg et al.  
21 2016). Only time will tell, but the 2011 MHW may well have triggered rapid 'tropicalization'  
22 (see Vergés et al. 2014) along much of the coastline, by driving widespread loss of temperate  
23 flora and fauna and creating opportunities for rapid colonisation by a warm-water biota.  
24 Moreover, inter-specific variability in susceptibility and responses to warming trends and  
25 events, as shown here, will cause a reshuffling of species and the emergence of novel  
26 communities and ecosystems.

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6

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10

11

1 **Table 1.** Most common macroinvertebrate species recorded during surveys and their  
 2 affinities and broad-scale distributions within the southwest Australian study region. The  
 3 proportion of distribution records found either north or south of Jurien Bay (30.3°S) is  
 4 provided as an indication of the biogeographical affinities of each species (records were  
 5 downloaded from The Atlas of Living Australia - <http://www.ala.org.au> - on 30/01/2017).  
 6 Additional general information sourced from Edgar (1997). #Indicates few existing records  
 7 for that species and as such distributions should be treated with caution, but wider affinity  
 8 determined from best available knowledge.

9

Species	Taxa	Affinity and distribution
<i>Centrostephanus tenuispinus</i>	Sea urchin	Warm; warm-temperate, northern range-limit at Shark Bay (25.3 °S). #28.3% of 11 records north of 30.3°S. Family characteristic of tropical reefs
<i>Tripneustes gratilla</i>	Sea urchin	Warm; tropical, northern Australia, 68.8% of 288 records north of 30.3°S
<i>Phyllacanthus irregularis</i>	Sea urchin	Cool; temperate, #70% of 20 records south of 30.3°S
<i>Heliocidaris erythrogramma</i>	Sea urchin	Cool; temperate, 92.3% of 607 records south of 30.3°S.
<i>Lunella torquatus</i>	Gastropod mollusc	Cool; temperate, 87.4% of 372 records south of 30.3°S
<i>Astraliium</i> spp. ( <i>A. tentorium</i> / <i>A. squamiferum</i> )	Gastropod mollusc	Cool; temperate, 94.9% of 431 records south of 30.3°S
<i>Dicathais orbita</i>	Gastropod mollusc	Cool; temperate, 90.9% of 2242 records south of 30.3°S
<i>Petricia vernicina</i>	Sea star	Cool; temperate, 97.0% of 755 records south of 30.3°S

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1 Figure legends

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3 **Fig 1.** Map of southwest Australia indicating the Kalbarri (K), Jurien Bay (J), Marmion Lagoon  
4 (M) and Hamelin Bay (H) study locations. The region is characterized by a well-defined  
5 oceanic temperature gradient, represented here by average winter isotherms (in °C, 2005–07).  
6 Temperature anomalies represent deviations from monthly long-term means (1981-2010),  
7 derived from remotely-sensed satellite SSTs.

8 **Fig. 2.** PCO plots showing macroinvertebrate assemblage structure on reef flats before and  
9 after the MHW at each location. Ordinations are based on Bray-Curtis similarities of square-  
10 root transformed abundance data. Dashed circle in Kalbarri plot indicates 16 overlapping  
11 samples (15 samples post-MHW and 1 sample pre-MHW) in which macroinvertebrates were  
12 absent.

13 **Fig. 3.** PCO plots showing macroinvertebrate assemblage structure on reef slopes before and  
14 after the MHW at each location. Ordinations are based on Bray-Curtis similarities of square-  
15 root transformed abundance data.

16 **Fig. 4.** Mean total abundance (left-hand plots) and taxon richness (right-hand plots) of all  
17 mobile macroinvertebrates on reef flats and slopes at each location before (blue bars) and after  
18 (red bars) the MHW ( $\pm$  SE). Values represent number of individuals/species per 25 m<sup>2</sup> sample  
19 area (i.e. 5 transects pooled per site). Significant differences before and after the MHW are  
20 indicated with an asterisk (at  $P > 0.05$ , test results shown in Tables S6 and S7).

21 **Fig. 5.** Mean abundances ( $\pm$  SE) of dominant species on reef flats before (blue bars) and after  
22 (red bars) the MHW. Significant differences before and after the MHW are indicated with an  
23 asterisk (at  $P > 0.05$ , test results shown in Table S8).

1 **Fig. 6.** Mean abundances ( $\pm$  SE) of dominant species on reef slopes before (blue bars) and after  
2 (red bars) the MHW. Significant differences before and after the MHW are indicated with an  
3 asterisk (at  $P > 0.05$ , test results shown in Table S9)

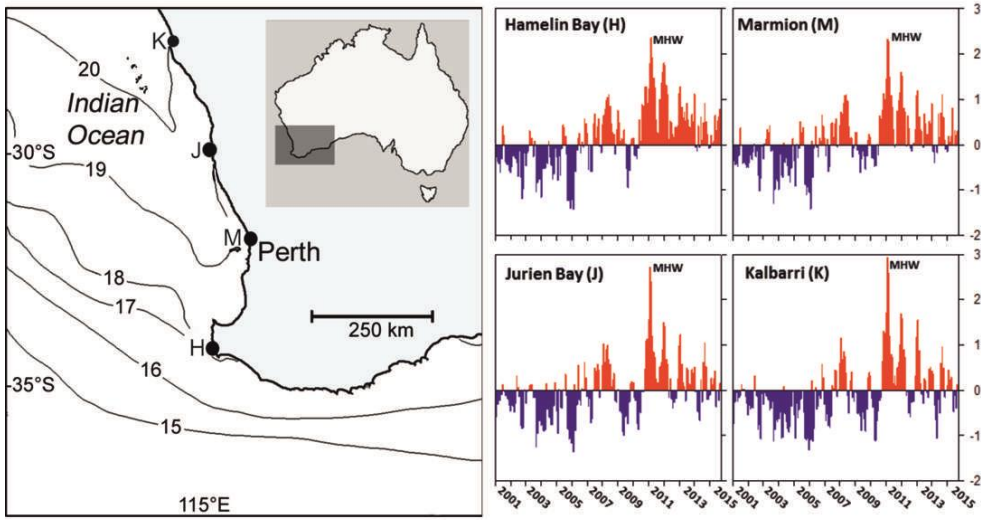
4 **Fig. 7.** The relative abundances of sea urchins recorded on reef slopes during each survey year  
5 at each location (average of 3 sites per location). The timing of the MHW is also shown.

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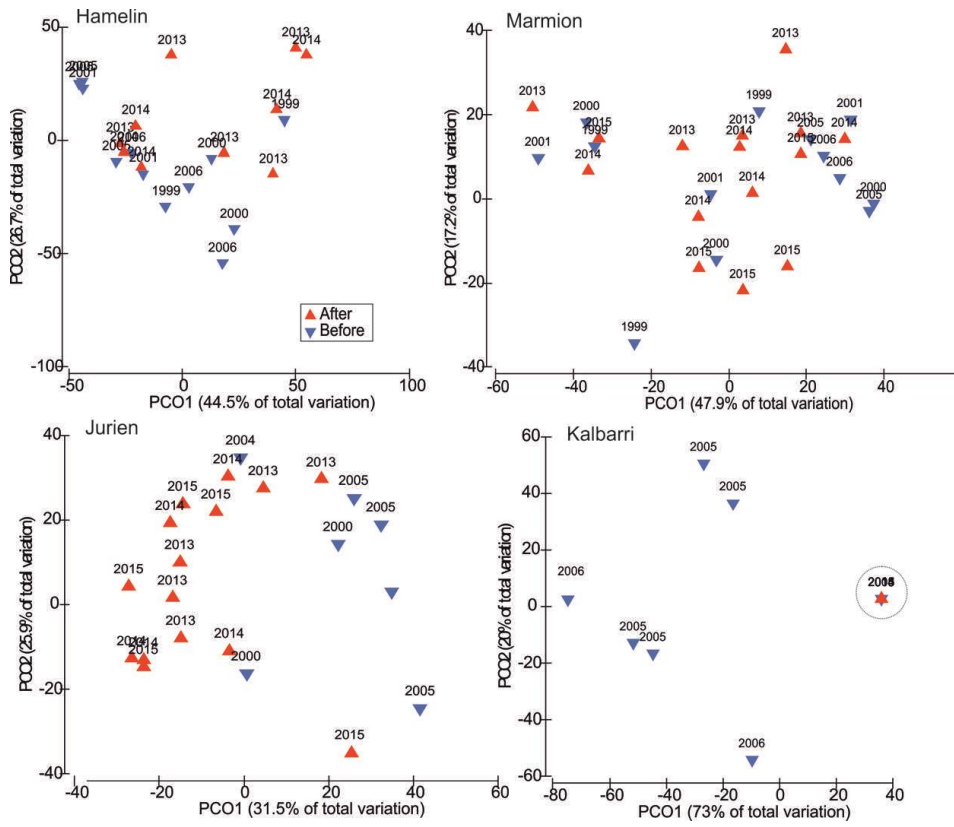
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5 Fig. 1

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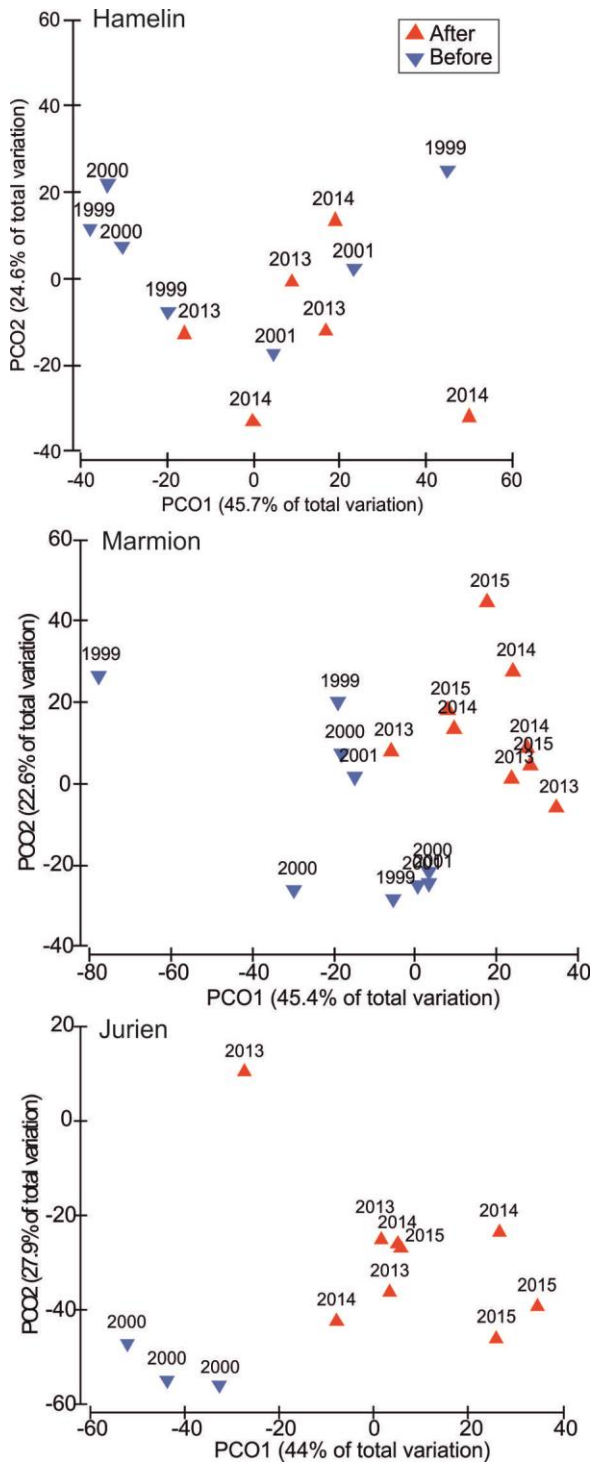
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4 Fig. 2

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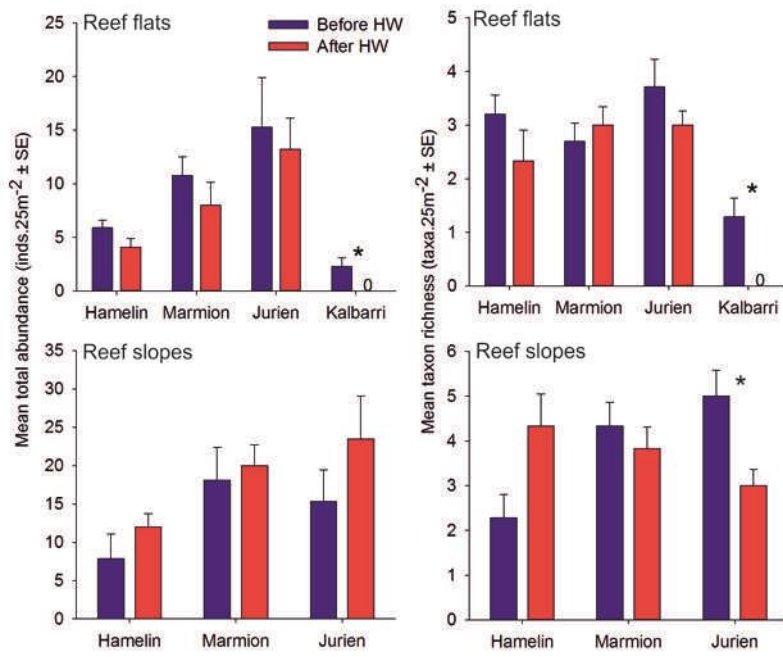


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4 Fig. 3

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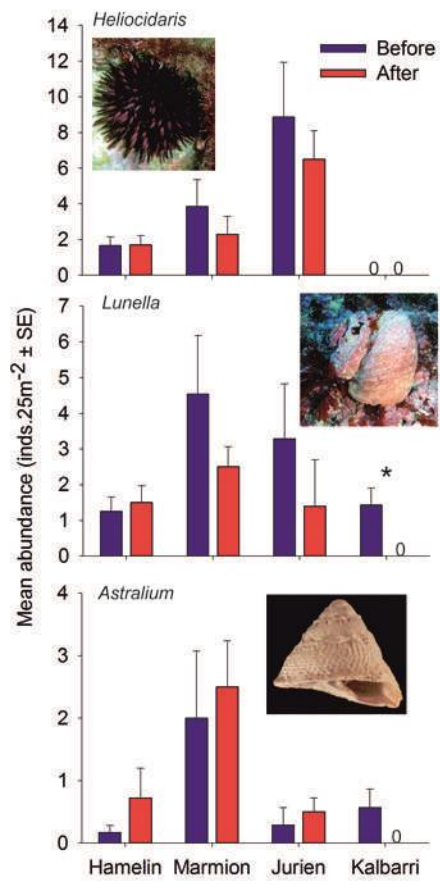
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4 Fig. 4

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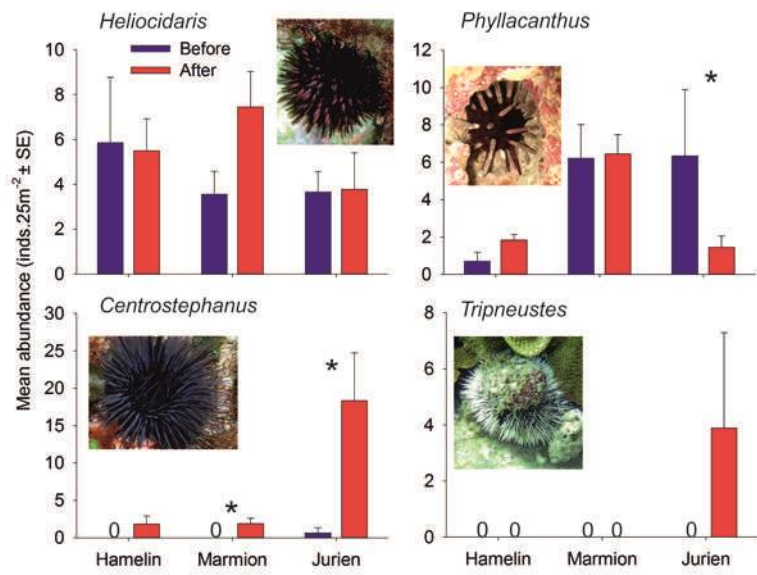


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4 Fig. 5

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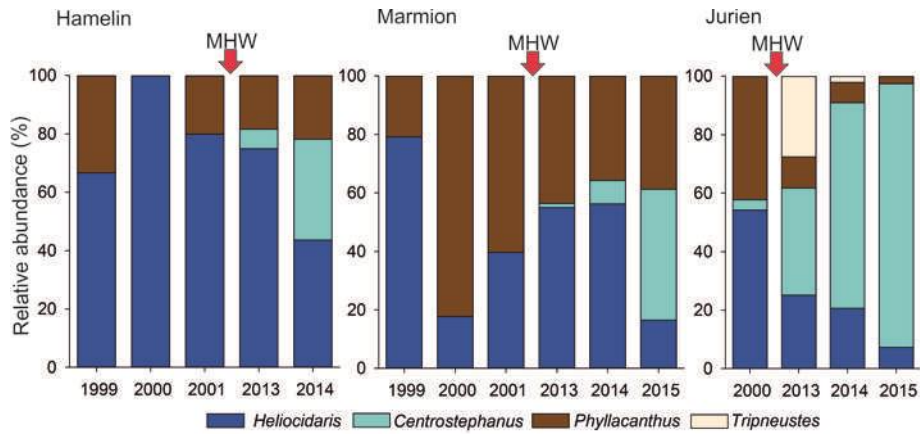
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4 Fig. 6

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6 Fig 7.

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