

1 Towards a multi-stressor theory for coral reefs in a changing world

2 **Running head:** Coral reef ecology under global change

3 **Authors:** Carling Bieg^{1*}, Henri Vallès², Alexander Tewfik³, Brian E. Lapointe⁴, Kevin S.
4 McCann¹

5 **Affiliations:**

- 6 1. Department of Integrative Biology, University of Guelph, Guelph, ON, Canada
- 7 2. Department of Biological and Chemical Sciences. The University of the West Indies, Cave
Hill, Barbados
- 8 3. Wildlife Conservation Society, Global Conservation Program, 1755 Coney Drive, 2nd Floor,
Belize City, Belize
- 9 4. Florida Atlantic University-Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute, Ft. Pierce, Florida, USA

10 *corresponding author: carling.bieg@gmail.com

11 **ORCID**

12 CB: 0000-0003-1552-2007
13 HV: 0000-0002-7947-2742
14 AT: 0000-0001-5899-9601
15 BEL: 0000-0002-6187-1913
16 KSM: 0000-0001-6031-7913

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33 **Abstract**

34 Coral reefs are facing a constant barrage of human impacts, including eutrophication,
35 overharvesting and climate change. However, research and management are just beginning to
36 depart from a single-dominant-stressor paradigm and a holistic ecosystem-based understanding
37 of these systems is still in its infancy. We expand on a well-known theoretical model to motivate
38 an integrated multi-stressor framework for coral reefs by incorporating empirical evidence of
39 multi-stressor impacts (overfishing, eutrophication and climate-driven mortality) as well as
40 general ecological and theoretical concepts. We show that: i) the geometry of a simple,
41 empirically-motivated model suggests nutrients and harvesting can operate similarly in driving
42 shifts from coral- to algae-dominated reefs; ii) these impacts increase nonlinearly when acting
43 concurrently, resulting in clear context-dependent management implications; and iii) this same
44 geometry suggests climate-driven coral mortality (temperature-stress, cyclonic storms) can drive
45 the presence of long transients and climate-driven alternate states, even in moderately-impacted
46 ecosystems. These results imply that reefs that appear to be in a “safe space” may in fact be in
47 danger of being pushed into a degraded algae-dominated state as storms and bleaching events are
48 increasing in frequency and magnitude. Altogether, we find that responses in benthic
49 composition as “signatures of change” to multi-stressors allows us to develop a predictive multi-
50 stressor framework for coral reefs. In line with this theory, we detail empirical evidence from
51 Barbados that highlights the context-dependent nature of coral reefs in a changing world. Our
52 results present novel and generalizable insights into the functioning of coral reefs, that draw from
53 classic theoretical and ecological concepts such as keystone predation theory, ecological
54 succession and life history theory, as well as the emerging fields of long transients and early
55 warning signals. By bridging coral reef ecology and general ecological concepts, we can better
56 understand ecosystem functioning and resilience in these important yet highly threatened
57 systems.

58

59 **Keywords:** *coral reefs, multi-stressors, ecological theory, transients, global change, marine*
60 *conservation*

61 **Introduction**

62

63 Various axes of global change are increasing rapidly(Steffen et al. 2015) and imposing a suite of
64 multi-stressor impacts on ecosystems around the world, most notably coastal ecosystems such as
65 coral reefs(Halpern et al. 2019). For coral reefs, three major stressors have been identified as
66 playing important roles in determining coral reef structure and ecosystem functioning: climate
67 change, nutrient loading/water pollution, and overfishing, and these stressors have been studied
68 extensively in isolation(Norström et al. 2016, Harborne et al. 2017, Hughes et al. 2017). As coral
69 reefs appear to be classic examples of ecosystems under heavy multi-stressor impacts(Scheffer et
70 al. 2015), researchers have begun to argue that they should no longer be studied from a single-
71 impact perspective(Ban et al. 2014, Pendleton et al. 2016). For example, climate change and
72 temperature-induced coral bleaching is often, and understandably, targeted as the most important
73 stressor threatening the future of coral reefs. While addressing anthropogenic climate change at
74 the global scale is undoubtedly critical, it is important we simultaneously consider the influence
75 of regional- and local-scale management actions that may improve coral reefs' resilience(Hughes
76 et al. 2017, Donovan et al. 2020, 2021, Guan et al. 2020, Abelson 2020). This is especially true if
77 multiple stressors interact to nonlinearly increase negative impacts on coral reef function and
78 would allow a more balanced, context-dependent approach to local management that could have
79 dramatically more positive impacts.

80

81 At a local scale, the role of herbivory has been a dominant focus of coral reef research(Brandl et
82 al. 2019). Researchers have argued for decades that losses in herbivory can drive phase shifts
83 from healthy coral-dominated reefs to degraded algal-dominated states(Mumby et al. 2007),

84 pointing to empirical examples of declining herbivores in reefs around the world to support this
85 mechanism(Done 1992, Hughes 1994, Hughes et al. 2007, Mumby et al. 2007, Steneck et al.
86 2014, Jouffray et al. 2015). This has been argued to be caused by the overfishing of
87 herbivores(McManus et al. 2000, Hughes et al. 2007, Mumby and Steneck 2008) as well as
88 sudden reductions in other grazers not directly linked to fishing, such as the widespread *Diadema*
89 *antillarium* die-off that occurred throughout the Caribbean in the 1980s(Lessios 1988, Hughes
90 1994, Mumby et al. 2007). Importantly, loss of hard corals and shifts to algae-dominated reefs
91 result in highly degraded systems with the concomitant loss of important ecosystem services. As
92 a result of these patterns, common management actions are to implement fishing restrictions
93 through marine protected areas (MPAs) or bans on harvesting specific grazers(Bruno et al. 2019,
94 McClanahan and Muthiga 2020). While MPAs have shown some potential to increase coral reef
95 resilience to disturbances(Mellin et al. 2016, Steneck et al. 2019), other research has suggested
96 that MPAs are likely not a universally effective strategy due to unpromising results for restoring
97 herbivores and increasing coral cover(McClanahan et al. 2011, Cox et al. 2017, Bruno et al.
98 2019, McClanahan and Muthiga 2020). Additionally, regional and global assessments of MPA
99 effectiveness showed there is overall weak association between MPAs and coral reef
100 resilience(Suchley et al. 2016, Arias-González et al. 2017, Bruno et al. 2019). Consistent with a
101 recent argument for multi-stressor approaches in coral reefs, these empirical results imply that
102 restoring herbivory is likely a necessary, but not always sufficient, condition to preserve or
103 restore the structure and function of coral reef ecosystems(Suchley and Alvarez-Filip 2018).
104
105 Relative to the role of herbivory, coastal development and watershed pollution have been
106 allocated less attention and management action, even though researchers and managers generally

107 agree that coastal pollution is a major problem along with overfishing(Wear and Thurber 2015,
108 Wear 2016). Nutrients – nitrogen loading and changes in associated stoichiometry (elevated N:P
109 ratio) in particular(Wiedenmann et al. 2013, Lapointe et al. 2019) – have been shown to alter
110 important biological parameters that mediate coral reef ecosystem dynamics, decrease coral
111 calcification rates(Shantz and Burkepile 2014), and increase corals' susceptibility to and severity
112 of bleaching and disease(Bruno et al. 2003, Wooldridge 2009, Wiedenmann et al. 2013, Vega
113 Thurber et al. 2014, Zaneveld et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2018, Lapointe et al. 2019, DeCarlo et al.
114 2020, Donovan et al. 2020). Additionally, nutrients have a positive impact on algae growth rates,
115 and so nutrient loading can ultimately shift the dominant competitor from coral to algae(Lapointe
116 1999, Smith et al. 2001).

117
118 Importantly, these collective biological responses to multiple stressors suggest there may be an
119 interactive effect of nutrients, fishing pressure and climate variation in coral reef ecosystems and
120 the competitive interaction between coral and algae(Hughes et al. 2017), and therefore context-
121 dependent outcomes to management actions(Mumby et al. 2006). Indeed, the Relative
122 Dominance Model was developed over 35 years ago(Littler and Littler 1984, Lapointe 1997) to
123 describe the combined impacts of grazing reduction and nutrient loading on coral reef structure.
124 Additionally, empirical research has more recently found that the recovery of coral reefs after
125 bleaching events appears to be highly dependent on multiple stressors including nutrient loading
126 and herbivory(Robinson et al. 2019), and these stressors both appear to act together to change the
127 rate and stages of algal succession following climatic disturbances(Hixon and Brostoff 1996,
128 Mcclanahan 1997, Ceccarelli et al. 2011). However, despite this longstanding conceptual model
129 and clear empirical support of multi-stressor interactions(Burkepile and Hay 2006), there

130 remains considerable debate among researchers regarding how multi-stressors interactively
131 govern coral reef structure and functioning(Ban et al. 2014, Muthukrishnan and Fong 2014, Cote
132 et al. 2016). Some researchers have begun to incorporate multiple stressors into theoretical and
133 modelling approaches(Mumby et al. 2006, Anthony et al. 2011, Fung et al. 2011, Blackwood et
134 al. 2011, 2018, Arias-González et al. 2017), often done with either site-specific
135 parameterizations and large amounts of detail or only incorporating one to two major stressors in
136 more general ways. These studies have shown that multi-stressors can indeed interact and
137 together contribute to increasing rates of hard coral decline. However, as a result of the disparity
138 in approaches a generalizable understanding of multi-stressors impacts on coral reef functioning
139 is still in its infancy.

140
141 While the nuances of coral reef dynamics and the multitude of anthropogenic impacts altering
142 them are understandably not easy to discern, researchers have begun to call for a holistic multi-
143 stressor approach to coral reef science and management appropriate for a changing
144 world(Norström et al. 2009, Ban et al. 2014, Pendleton et al. 2016, Mumby 2017). Here, as a
145 step towards this goal, we expand on existing top-down-focused theory(Mumby et al. 2007) to
146 demonstrate the context-dependency of management outcomes for coral reefs under multi-
147 stressor impacts. We do this by integrating the combined influence of overfishing (i.e.,
148 loss/reduced herbivory), decreasing water quality (nutrient loading) and climate change
149 (temperature stress and cyclonic storm damage) on coral reef structure and function within a
150 theoretical multi-stressor framework (Figure 1A), and highlight the importance of highly
151 responsive r-strategy life histories in changing, heavily impacted systems (Figure 1B). Our
152 approach integrates general ecological concepts (e.g., ecological succession, keystone predation

153 theory) with our current understanding of individual processes in coral reef ecosystem
154 functioning and emerging theoretical insight into the role of noise in transient dynamics and
155 ecosystem resilience. We end by evaluating empirical evidence from Barbados within our
156 framework that corroborates the importance of considering an integrated multi-stressor
157 perspective for coral reef management. Our results suggest a predictable, context-dependent
158 response of coral reef ecosystems to multi-stressors and in turn a context-dependent approach to
159 management.

160

161 **Methods**

162

163 We employ a simple multi-stressor extension to the well known Mumby et al.(Mumby et al.
164 2007) model. Here, we follow recent evidence from the literature that suggests coral calcification
165 is inhibited by increased nutrients(Shantz and Burkepile 2014), and similarly making the
166 intuitive assumption that nutrients increase the rate at which macroalgae (a primary producer)
167 can overtake coral (i.e., its growth rate), as well as decreases coral's resistance to macroalgae
168 overgrowth and competitive ability(Lapointe 1999, McClanahan et al. 2003). Figure 1A shows a
169 schematic summarizing our model and the interactions between state variables. As such, our new
170 nutrient-dependent model is as follows:

171

$$172 \frac{dM}{dt} = M(aC \left(\frac{N_t}{(N_0 + N_t)} \right) - \frac{g}{(M + B)} + yB) \quad (1)$$

173

$$174 \frac{dC}{dt} = C(r(1 - cN_t)B - m - aM \left(\frac{N_t}{(N_0 + N_t)} \right)) \quad (2)$$

175

176 Here, M represents macroalgae, C represents coral, and B represents other benthic r-strategists
177 that instantaneously fill empty space left by dead coral and grazed macroalgae. Since B is
178 assumed to instantaneously fill any space (r-strategists act on much faster time scales relative to
179 the other state variables), $B = 1 - M - C$ and the model can therefore be reduced to two
180 dimensions. The original model by Mumby et al.(Mumby et al. 2007) referred to this variable as
181 turf algae, a fast-growing r-strategist, however, we argue that nutrients and grazing rates would
182 determine the composition of other components of benthic cover(Lapointe 1997, Lapointe et al.
183 2018) (Figure 1A). Towards this end, we include a simple extension that includes algal life
184 history traits. Specifically, we include growth-palatability trade-offs in algal community
185 composition to represent the role of r-strategists in response to disturbances and grazing pressure
186 (Figure 1). High grazing rates suppress late-succession, palatable macroalgae while
187 simultaneously selecting for fast-growth and less-palatable life strategies (through physical and
188 chemical defenses) within early succession r-strategists. Here, we consider r-strategists as algae
189 functional groups that colonize disturbed reefs quickly relative to thick, fleshy macroalgae (late
190 succession K-strategists relative to other functional forms of algae, but of course all are fast
191 relative to corals). We argue that within the group of early succession r-strategists there is a
192 variety of life history strategies, that will be differentially selected for based on grazing
193 rates. High grazing rates favour less-palatable life strategies and fast growth rates that can
194 withstand these grazing levels. At moderate-high grazing rates, fast-growing r-strategists can
195 withstand the grazing rates, explaining why we see a lot of turf algae and some less-palatable
196 algae like CCA in some reefs. However, at extremely high grazing rates (e.g., extremely high
197 *Diadema* densities), only low palatability organisms will be able to survive. While some

198 unpalatable algal types like CCA are slow growing in terms of biomass, they are relatively quick
199 colonizers and can thus be considered similar to r-strategists in the face of disturbances. As a
200 simple extension, we include a linear 1:1 relationship between grazing rates and the proportion
201 of more/less palatable r-strategists composing the benthic r-strategist guild. We refer to highly
202 palatable fast-growing r-strategists (e.g., filamentous turf) as r1-strategists, and slightly less
203 palatable (but still fast-growing relative to K-strategists) r-strategists (e.g., CCA) as r2-strategists
204 (Figure 1B). Therefore, $B = r1 + r2$, where $r2 = gB$ and $r1 = (1-g)B$. These assumptions relate to
205 well-known relationships between high grazing rates and less palatable algae(Sammarco 1982,
206 Chiappone et al. 2006), as well as research showing that grazing rates (among other drivers such
207 as nutrients) can alter the rates and stages of succession in coral reefs(Hixon and Brostoff 1996,
208 Mcclanahan 1997).

209

210 Here, a is the rate that macroalgae overgrows coral, and thus can be thought of as an algal-coral
211 competition rate. g represents the grazing rate from herbivores, which is scaled by densities (or
212 % cover since $M + C + B = 1$) of both M and B . y is the rate that macroalgae overgrows benthic
213 r-strategists (B ; which could also include open space), r is the coral growth rate (again over B or
214 open space), and m is the natural mortality rate of coral.

215

216 Nutrients (N_t) alter the algal-coral overgrowth rate (competition) in the Mumby model (a), based
217 on the assumptions made above. We also assume that this competitive advantage eventually
218 saturates and therefore N_0 is a saturation constant that determines the effect of nutrients (N_t) on
219 algal-coral competition (a). Additionally, c is the calcification rate – scaled by nutrient
220 loading, N_t – which alters the coral growth rate (r) in response to nutrient loading. An important

221 distinction between this model and Mumby et al.'s original model is that the parameter a can
222 now be thought of as a_{max} and r similarly as r_{max} due to their scaling by nutrients.

223

224 With these equations, we can symbolically solve for the model isoclines as follows:

225

226
$$dM/dt = 0: M = 1 - C + \frac{ac}{y} \left(\frac{N_t}{N_0 + N_t} \right) - \frac{g}{y(1-C)} \quad (3)$$

227
$$dC/dt = 0: M = \frac{(N_0 + N_t)(m - r(1 - cN_t)(1 - C))}{r(N_0 + N_t)(cN_t - 1) - aN_t} \quad (4)$$

228 Immediately, we can see that both grazing (g) and nutrient loading (N_t) alter the isocline
229 geometry (grazing via (3) and nutrients via both (3) and (4)) and thus equilibrium structure.
230 These parameters both drive qualitatively similar changes in the isocline geometry (Supplement
231 A.1) shown in Figure 1 and can cause both saddle node and transcritical bifurcations.

232

233 All analyses were done using Wolfram Mathematica (version 12.1.0.0) and numerical
234 simulations were evaluated using the built-in ODE solver “NDSolve” with integration method
235 “StiffnessSwitching” (switches from explicit to implicit methods if stiffness is detected) when
236 needed for non-deterministic simulations. We incorporated noise (discrete disturbances) using a
237 flow-kick method(Meyer et al. 2018), by inducing repeated pulse perturbations to coral cover (-
238 50% cover) at variable frequencies, which allowed us to evaluate the effect of noise on transients
239 and asymptotic behaviour in comparison to deterministic simulations.

240

241 **Results**

242

243 *Towards a Multi Stressor Theory for Coral Reef Ecology*

244

245 Previous theoretical studies have highlighted the importance of using a multi-stressor approach,
246 however, they have largely focused on one or two stressors and thus the combination of local
247 stressors (grazing and nutrients) and global climatic patterns (increasing frequency of bleaching
248 events and hurricane damage) is not well understood. Alternatively, larger-scale simulation
249 exercises with high levels of detail and site specificity have shown that these stressors interact in
250 important ways, but as a trade-off with the simpler theoretical exercises they lose generality.

251 Here, we synthesize many of these ideas that have either been evaluated separately or in less
252 general simulation exercises as an important step towards developing a general and mechanistic
253 understanding of coral reef ecosystems under multi-stressor impacts. To model the dynamics of
254 coral reefs, we expand on a single-stressor (herbivory) model first introduced by Mumby et
255 al.(Mumby et al. 2007) by incorporating the synergistic effects of overfishing (grazing), nutrient
256 loading (algal competition and coral physiological stress) and climate change (coral mortality).

257 This model has been widely used and extended by many researchers to include additional
258 complexity (reviewed in detail by Blackwood et al.(Blackwood et al. 2018)), such as grazer
259 dynamics(Blackwood et al. 2011, 2012), additional benthic components (e.g.,
260 sponges)(González-Rivero et al. 2011, Briggs et al. 2018), spatial dynamics(Andréfouët et al.
261 2002, Mumby 2006, Mumby et al. 2006, 2014) and, like us, multiple stressors(Anthony et al.
262 2011, Fung et al. 2011, Arias-González et al. 2017).

263

264 Here, following empirical evidence, multi-stressors alter the biological rates and interactions
265 included in the original model as illustrated in Figure 1A (see Methods for equations), and we

266 explore the role of variations in faster algal life history strategies along a growth-palatability
267 gradient (r1 and r2 compared to K-strategist, M) in response to multi-stressors (e.g., grazing
268 resistance, growth rates), as demonstrated in Figure 1B. Notably, nutrients are incorporated
269 following recent evidence from the literature that suggests coral calcification is inhibited by
270 increased nutrients(Shantz and Burkepile 2014) (Figure 1A – coral per capita rates of increase
271 decline with elevated nutrients), and similarly that nutrients increase the growth rate of
272 macroalgae as well as decrease coral's resistance to macroalgae overgrowth and competitive
273 ability(Lapointe 1999) (Figure 1A; macroalgae's ability to overgrow coral increases to a
274 maximum with nutrients). While others have included nutrients in their models, this is generally
275 done by only influencing algal growth rates(Mumby et al. 2006, Anthony et al. 2011, Hughes et
276 al. 2017). We note that since our model does not consider other aspects of water quality such as
277 sedimentation, our results may be similar to others who have included this stressor in their
278 models to negatively influence coral growth(Fung et al. 2011, Gurney et al. 2013, Arias-
279 González et al. 2017). However, sedimentation of course would have other effects on coral
280 recruitment and various algal functional forms which we do not discuss here(Gurney et al. 2013).
281 Furthermore, our simple extension of benthic r-strategists allows us to explore the role of various
282 fast algal life history strategies along a growth-palatability gradient (r1 and r2 compared to K-
283 strategist, M) in response to multi-stressors (e.g., grazing resistance, growth rates; Figure 1B).
284 Research has shown that algal community dynamics are important in overall coral reef
285 ecosystem functioning(Renken and Mumby 2009, Renken et al. 2010, Bozec et al. 2016, Briggs
286 et al. 2018), and our goal is to integrate general ecological concepts into this literature (e.g., life
287 history, keystone predation theory). Although a simple extension, our model formulation is a
288 starting point for understanding the importance of algal life histories in general. Towards

289 understanding multi-stressors as an integrated whole, we start by first looking at the individual
290 stressors of herbivory (top-down) and nutrients (bottom-up) in the absence of climate-driven
291 coral mortality. We then examine the interaction of these three stressors together.

292

293 *i. Bottom-up and Top-down: The Geometry of Nutrients and Grazing Impacts on Coral Collapse*

294

295 Our choice of a simple model formulation allows us to use traditional phase plane techniques to
296 mathematically explore the dynamic outcomes of this coral reef model. As such, we can
297 immediately see that both increasing nutrient loading and overfishing of herbivores (i.e., reduced
298 grazing) drive a qualitatively similar sequence of dynamic outcomes in this model (Figure 2A).

299 Assuming we start in a pristine coral reef scenario (pink coral zone; Figure 2Ai), increasing
300 nutrients or fishing pressure alter the geometry of the isoclines (see Supplement A.1 for
301 individual stressor effects) driving bistability (yellow, light green, Fig. 2Aiii, iv) and finally
302 complete loss of coral (dark green zone, Figure 2Av). This initial result suggests that bottom-up
303 factors like nutrients alone, under an otherwise relatively pristine system (e.g., MPA), can shift
304 coral reefs to an algae-dominated state (bistability, Fig. 2Aiii, iv), and with high enough nutrients
305 drive the complete loss of the coral-only stable equilibrium (Figure 2Av). Thus, simple
306 empirically-motivated extensions of this classic coral model find that both top-down and bottom-
307 up impacts, in isolation, have qualitatively identical impacts on coral ecosystems.

308

309 This similarity in response immediately implies that when both stressors are increased
310 simultaneously there is a strong tendency for the collapse of the coral state to occur under lower
311 individual stressor values, compared to when each stressor is altered alone (Fig. 2B; follow the

312 colored dots to see a multi-stressor trajectory). While a simple geometric extension of Mumby et
313 al.(Mumby et al. 2007), these results importantly suggest that we should expect context-
314 dependent management outcomes, for example to fisheries regulations (e.g., herbivore bans,
315 MPA implementation; Figure 2B,C), such that low nutrient cases may be more prone to success
316 (e.g. Figure 2B, scenario 1) than nutrient enriched areas (e.g., Figure 2B, scenario 2) as shown in
317 Fig. 2C. In other words, fishing regulations may be ineffective if other stressors, like nutrient
318 levels, are too high (Fig. 2C). This first result is aligned with Bruno et al.'s(Bruno et al. 2019)
319 meta-analytic paper which shows extremely variable coral reef ecosystem recovery responses to
320 MPAs, strongly suggesting that other factors are involved and may even be the primary driver of
321 coral reef structure and functioning(Suchley and Alvarez-Filip 2018), as well as other simulation
322 results suggesting context-dependency of MPA success(Mumby et al. 2006). This is not to say
323 that herbivory is not important, however an emphasis on it alone has little chance of significant
324 success in the face of other stressors, and could lead to dangerous implications for ecosystem
325 services provided by coral reefs and those whose livelihoods depend on their fisheries(Aronson
326 and Precht 2006).

327

328 *ii. Long Transients and Climate-driven Coral Collapse*

329

330 With our geometric understanding of how nutrients and fishing alter coral ecosystems we next
331 turn to consider the impact of how climate intersects with these stressors to alter coral reef
332 dynamics. We explore this by considering deterministic isocline arrangements that yield only a
333 healthy coral reef state (i.e., the deterministic skeleton(Higgins et al. 1997) is not bistable; Fig.
334 3AB.i), but specifically focus on the very plausible scenario that there is some deterioration via

335 both nutrients and fishing (i.e., Fig. 2Aii.), which we will refer to as **moderate local impacts**.
336 While under apparently “healthy” conditions (i.e., only a coral-dominated stable state), we note
337 that the geometry implies that the two isoclines are relatively close to intersecting, and therefore
338 near a saddle-node bifurcation (e.g., Fig. 2Aii, 3A). Under such a biologically plausible condition
339 (i.e., at least some human impact), we find that climate-induced coral mortality (i.e., adding
340 stochasticity) greatly alters reef dynamics (e.g., Fig. 3A-B,ii).
341
342 First, even without climate-induced mortality events, we see that the time to reach equilibrium
343 (the coral axial solution) is highly dependent on initial values (Figure 3Ai.), such that in certain
344 cases (i.e., trajectory 3) the system is initially pulled to lower coral densities before eventually
345 approaching the equilibrium. We also see that benthic r-strategists play an important role during
346 these transient periods (Figure 3Bi), something we elaborate on more below. Second, when
347 adding climate-induced mortality events (i.e., stochasticity) under moderate local impacts, not all
348 trajectories have the same outcome (Figure 3A.ii). Here, once again depending on the initial
349 values, some trajectories get stochastically “entangled” in the region where the isoclines are
350 close (dark red, trajectory 3), while others avoid this and eventually approach the coral axial
351 equilibrium (though they notably take longer due to the noise). This is an example of **climate-
352 driven bistability**, such that there appears to be two different outcomes once climatic
353 disturbances are incorporated into the simulations. Again, Figure 3B.ii shows this third trajectory
354 as a time series, where the system ends up in an algae-dominated alternate state. Here, some
355 coral persists but the system is largely dominated by macroalgae and other benthic r-strategists.
356 Note that while we focus here on a state of moderate impact, disturbances could of course cause

357 local extinctions of coral in more degraded (i.e., bistable) ecosystems by knocking the system out
358 of the basin of attraction to the coral equilibrium (bistable configurations in Fig. 2A iii and iv).

359
360 Taken altogether, these results suggest that climate-driven coral mortality has the potential to
361 greatly increase the presence of bistability, especially in a world already plagued by varying
362 levels of nutrient loading and overfishing. Effectively, disturbances shift the resilience boundary
363 for coral reefs(Meyer et al. 2018), and the interaction of all three stressors operates nonlinearly to
364 decrease coral reef resilience. Note that there is a possibility that some of these stochastic
365 trajectories, such as trajectory 3, are extremely long transients that eventually squeeze through
366 this region of entanglement (our climate-driven alternate state) if given enough time between
367 mortality events. However, on ecological and management time scales this result remains
368 functionally bistable, and with the increasing frequency of coral mortality events these states
369 may become more common. Further, depending on initial values and the frequency of
370 disturbances, we can indeed see extremely long transients that eventually reach the coral-only
371 attractor (Supplement A.2). On the other hand, coral collapse may have the potential to take an
372 extremely long time. If this is the case, it may seem like coral might persist, or even recover,
373 before eventually disappearing (Supplement A.2), which would importantly suggest the
374 possibility of extinction debt(Tilman et al. 1994) in degraded coral reef ecosystems (i.e.,
375 whereby species are doomed to slow extinction even if the ecosystem deteriorates no more). This
376 interesting result suggests that the interactions between moderate levels of multiple stressors may
377 enhance the likelihood of bistability and long transients, both states that are incredibly hard to
378 manage.

379

380 Interestingly, we can begin to explain these unexpected results using the geometry of our simple
381 model (Figure 3A). While beyond the scope of this paper to fully investigate, we note that these
382 results are consistent with phenomena recently described in the theoretical literature(Hastings et
383 al. 2018, 2021, Morozov et al. 2020). Specifically, we see a unique combination of what have
384 been known in the theoretical literature as “ghost attractors” and “crawl-bys”, such that the
385 system is influenced by what is effectively the memory of a nonexistent equilibrium – in this
386 case a saddle point – which we will refer to here as a “ghost saddle” (Figure 3). Hastings et
387 al.(Hastings et al. 2018) and Morozov et al.(Morozov et al. 2020) provide more detailed
388 information on long transients, ghost attractors and crawl-bys. Importantly, both of these
389 phenomena can lead to long transients and slow shifts between states, which can have important
390 implications in the face of stochasticity and we indeed see here (Figure 3). Here, the geometry of
391 this intermediate multi-stressor state explains both the change in direction of the trajectories
392 shown in Figure 3A, as well as the “slow down” causing long transients and the emergence of a
393 climate-driven algae dominated state seen in Figure 3A,B.ii.

394

395 *iii. Algal Trait Responses*

396

397 Finally, and in order to pull out the different signatures of multi-stressors, we show how the
398 relationship between stressors impacts algal community composition. From Figure 3B, the role
399 of benthic (B) r-strategists is clearly important during long transients following a disturbance
400 (Figure 3B.i), as well as when frequent disturbances lead to a climate-driven alternate state
401 (Figure 3B.ii). Here, we once again focus on the case of moderate local impacts (Fig. 2Aii), to
402 examine how multiple stressors interact to influence the benthic algae composition in this state of

403 uncertainty. Depending on grazing, nutrient levels and frequency of climate perturbations,
404 different benthic r-strategists (B) will dominate primary succession following large mortality
405 events (Figure 4).

406

407 To elucidate these outcomes within our model, we performed a single climate pulse perturbation
408 under different multi-stressor conditions (i.e., relatively low grazing and low nutrients versus
409 relatively high grazing and high nutrients), within this moderate local impact geometrical
410 configuration (Figure 4A). We see that grazing-mediated algae selection strongly influences the
411 composition of benthic algae cover (r1- (i.e., highly-palatable, fast growing) vs. r2- (less-
412 palatable, fast growing) vs. K- (palatable, slow growing) strategists), and all three stressors –
413 nutrients, grazing, and climate – mediate the relative dominance of total benthic cover including
414 coral (Figure 4A; see both post-disturbance transient responses as well as equilibrium
415 composition). Notably, these results are exacerbated when frequent climate-induced mortality
416 events are considered (Figure 4B). Frequent disturbances can permanently alter benthic
417 composition by continuously suppressing coral recovery and impeding full algal community
418 succession, while also compounding the effect of multi-stressors on the relative dominance of
419 benthic composition (Figure 4B). Note that in Figure 4B.i we see that frequent disturbances in a
420 relatively low-nutrients and low-grazing scenario drive coral to extinction and cause a shift to a
421 macroalgae-dominated state. In the relatively higher-nutrient, higher-grazing scenario shown in
422 Figure 4B.ii, coral can persist but is largely suppressed to the benefit of (mostly low-palatability)
423 benthic r-strategists. These results again demonstrate the existence of climate-driven bistability
424 as shown in Figure 3, making this region one of high uncertainty driven by the interactions
425 between multi-stressors. Importantly, our theory suggests that monitoring benthic cover

426 responses critically allows us to differentiate the role of multi-stressors and aid management
427 decisions.

428

429 *Theoretical Synthesis: A framework for coral reef composition in a changing world*

430

431 We have seen that multi-stressors have the potential to cause interactive, synergistic and non-
432 linear effects, as well as potentially unexpected outcomes in impacted systems. Our theoretical
433 results also predict that moderate local impacts ought to generally display bistability in a world
434 with lots of climate variation. Indeed, increasing the frequency of climate-induced mortality
435 events enlarges the area of bistability and therefore increases the chances of algal dominance
436 (i.e., grey region in Figure 2B; see Supplement A.2 for simulation data). As a result, our region
437 of moderate local impacts in parameter space (Figure 2) becomes a region of **climate-driven**
438 **uncertainty**, which is likely characterized by a large presence of benthic r-strategists (r_1 and r_2)
439 when faced with real world climatic noise and perturbations. Additionally, climatic variation
440 increases the likelihood of climate-induced state shifts (Supplement A.2), essentially meaning
441 that all regions of bistability and algal dominance in the deterministic model will likely result in
442 algae-dominated reefs.

443

444 Here, we summarize our theoretical results as a multi-stressor framework describing the relative
445 dominance of coral reefs for a changing world, highlighting this important region of climate-
446 driven uncertainty and noting the importance of multi-stressor impacts on determining benthic
447 composition (Figure 5). Importantly, algal composition gives us a signature of the degree of top-
448 down control in coral reefs. Specifically, high amounts of relatively less-palatable benthic

449 organisms like CCA suggest significant top-down grazing pressure and therefore point to the fact
450 that other stressors – such as climate and/or nutrient loading – are likely playing a larger role in
451 driving the proliferation of algae and reduction of coral. In rapidly changing environments, this
452 framework allows us to make qualitative predictions about the trajectories of benthic
453 composition change – in other words, signatures of change – in coral reefs based on different
454 levels of multi-stressor impacts.

455

456 *Linking empirical evidence to our theoretical framework*

457

458 Our theoretical framework importantly allows us to test predictions about changes in benthic
459 cover under multi-stressor impacts and identify underlying drivers of change in coral reefs. As
460 such, we now highlight evidence from the Caribbean within our theoretical framework. Reefs
461 across the Caribbean notably underwent significant changes in the 1980s with a general loss of
462 hard corals(Gardner et al. 2003) corresponding with the culmination of damaging hurricanes
463 (e.g., Hurricane Allen in 1980), the widespread loss of *Diadema* in 1982/83, as well as ongoing
464 eutrophication from land-based urban and agricultural runoff, untreated wastewater, and
465 widespread overfishing in the region(Jackson et al. 2014). As a first step of linking our
466 theoretical framework to empirical accounts of changing reef conditions, we do this by
467 integrating multiple studies from reefs along the west coast of Barbados (Supplement B) that
468 demonstrate changes in benthic cover and associated trends in nutrients and grazing rates. The
469 west coast of Barbados has a long history of human impacts including heavy fishing and nutrient
470 runoff from urban and agricultural areas(Allard 1994, Bell and Tomascik 1994, Tasic et al. 2008,
471 Gill et al. 2019). Barbados also has a unique research history, in the sense that researchers with

472 both a top-down (grazing) and bottom-up (nutrients) focus have dotted its history. Collectively,
473 and with hindsight, this allows us a relatively broad perspective of the changing coral reefs
474 during this period of drastic change.

475

476 Baseline accounts (qualitative descriptions(Lewis, John 1960) and quantitative surveys(Stearn et
477 al. 1977)) of the west coast's fringing reefs suggest that live coral cover began declining as early
478 as the 1960's, with particularly drastic declines throughout the 1970's, during which time algae
479 began taking over(Tomascik and Sander 1987a) (Figure 6A,B). Coral was further depleted
480 following Hurricane Allen in 1980, and this appears to have largely benefitted less-palatable
481 CCA along the entire coast(Mah and Stearn 1986) (Figure 6B). At this time (1982/83), and prior
482 to the widespread *Diadema* die-off, Tomascik and Sander(Tomascik and Sander 1985, 1987a,
483 1987b) began sampling multiple reefs along the west coast in an attempt to understand the major
484 drivers of change in Barbados' rapidly degrading coral reefs (Figure 6A; note high rates of
485 change in Figure 6B). As a result of rapid development on land(Tomascik and Sander 1985)
486 these surveys identified a north-south gradient of increasing eutrophication and decreasing
487 *Diadema* densities, though average *Diadema* density was still quite high, even in the southern
488 reefs as shown in Figure 6C(Tomascik and Sander 1987a). Along this eutrophication/grazing
489 gradient, coral diversity, percent cover, growth, and overall recruitment all decreased(Tomascik
490 and Sander 1987a, 1987b, Tomascik 1990, 1991, Hunte and Wittenberg 1992, Wittenberg and
491 Hunte 1992, Mann 1994), and CCA cover – relative to turf and frondose macroalgae combined –
492 increased with increasing *Diadema* densities (Figure 6C). These local patterns support our
493 theoretical predictions, namely that coral was already rapidly declining before the reduction in
494 grazing, possibly due to elevated nutrient levels, and that the still relatively high grazing rates

495 meditated benthic algae composition (Figure 6B,C). Note that despite the apparent gradient, the
496 majority of the coastline may have been nutrient saturated by the early 1980's(Tomascik and
497 Sander 1985, Allard 1994), if not earlier(Sander and Moore 1979), based on various nutrient
498 thresholds (Supplement B)(Lapointe 1997, Bell et al. 2014, Lapointe et al. 2019). This suggests
499 that algae growth rates were likely already near or at a maximum by this time, and coral
500 physiologically impaired and susceptible to storm-induced damage, disease and algal overgrowth
501 along the entire coast(Lapointe 1999, Bruno et al. 2003, Wiedenmann et al. 2013, Lapointe et al.
502 2019) (Figure 1A, Supplement B). However, the persistent co-variation between eutrophication
503 and *Diadema* grazing (Figure 6C) precluded identifying which of these two factors had a larger
504 influence on coral reef composition and resilience at the time.

505
506 Following the 1983/84 *Diadema* die-off, Allard(Allard 1994) repeated Tomascik and
507 Sander's(Tomascik and Sander 1987a) surveys along the coastal eutrophication/grazing gradient
508 (which persisted into the 1990's, albeit with much lower grazing rates(Hunte and Wittenberg
509 1992, Wittenberg and Hunte 1992, Allard 1994, Mann 1994)) in an attempt to separate these
510 effects, and found that the overall loss of *Diadema* led to a subsequent increase in more-palatable
511 turf and macroalgae along the entire west coast (Figure 6B). This was used to conclude that
512 *Diadema* grazing was in fact the dominant driver of benthic composition along the west coast,
513 ruling out the importance of the eutrophication gradient(Allard 1994). While the reduction in
514 *Diadema* would have certainly altered benthic composition along the west coast of Barbados,
515 Allard didn't consider the already-severely-depleted state of coral by the early 1980s (Figure 6B)
516 and we argue their conclusions instead reflected a shifting baseline rather than the full story of
517 change along the coast(Allard 1994, Jackson 2001a, 2001b). Indeed, the observed increase in

518 palatable turf and frondose macroalgae appears to have been largely at the expense of less-
519 palatable CCA rather than coral, reflecting this shifting baseline (Figure 6B,C). Additionally, by
520 the 1990s the eutrophication/grazing gradient no longer helped explain variation in benthic
521 composition between reefs as they were already in such a depleted state and there was much less
522 variation in stressors along the coastline (Figure 6C). Grazing rates at this point were nearly
523 homogeneous, the entire coastline was nutrient saturated, and the reefs were well-established as
524 algae-dominated reefs. Collectively, these results highlight the context-dependency of our ability
525 to detect multi-stressor effects on benthic composition in field studies and the importance of
526 historical baselines.

527
528 Importantly, the patterns from Barbados' west coast reefs support our theoretical predictions
529 given changes to the multi-stressor landscape in both time and space, and do so at two spatial
530 scales (i.e., along the entire coastline, Figure 6B, and between sites, Figure 6C). Accordingly, we
531 map these patterns in space and time as a trajectory of change within our multi-stressor
532 framework (i.e., Figure 5), showing how the evolution of benthic cover over time in Barbados is
533 best explained as a function of both eutrophication and grazing (Figure 7). Based on the timing
534 of multi-stressor change described above, nutrients initially pushed the system through our
535 “region of uncertainty” (likely also around the time of Hurricane Allen in 1980) and into an
536 algae-dominated state (Figure 7). The subsequent *Diadema* die-off was the final straw that
537 further pushed the system well-into the algae-dominated region within our framework, and
538 significantly altered the algae community composition (Figure 7). While the specific placement
539 and timing of this trajectory within our framework is not quantitative (grazing and nutrient
540 thresholds are still debated and likely site specific), we argue that this qualitative approach to

541 viewing changes in multi-stressor impacts provides an important step towards a holistic
542 understanding of coral reefs under global change, and allows us a way of piecing apart the roles
543 of various drivers of change (e.g., the role of Barbados' eutrophication/grazing gradient within
544 this multi-stressor space). Here, we emphasize again the importance of baseline information as
545 well as ongoing monitoring, and consideration of scale for disentangling the relative (and likely
546 changing) influence of various drivers spatially and temporally.

547

548 **Discussion**

549

550 Even with our relatively simple model used here, we have highlighted the important context-
551 dependency of life histories, disturbance frequencies, and simultaneous multi-stressor impacts in
552 highly disturbed coral reef ecosystems. Immediately, our empirically-motivated coral reef model
553 shows that changes in grazing, nutrients and climate-driven coral mortality events (temperature
554 stress, cyclonic storms) can independently invoke shifts to algae-dominated states and increase
555 uncertainty in the face of global change. We also show that these three axes of global change
556 operate synergistically to increase the likelihood of long transients and phase shifts to unwanted
557 algal equilibrium states such that when all are conspiring together, we see even greater likelihood
558 of deteriorated ecosystem structure and functioning. Our analysis found climate-driven mortality
559 can drive shifts to algal domination even when in a moderately weakened state (i.e., nutrients and
560 fishing are moderately high; Figure 2Aii) that would not be expected based on the deterministic
561 skeleton. This novel theoretical result is related to recent theoretical literature on long
562 transients(Hastings et al. 2018, 2021), and importantly highlights the potential for unexpected
563 results when considering noise in our mathematical models. Furthermore, we show that our

564 theoretical results rely on the geometry of our model and thus are highly general. That is, any
565 combination of parameters that leads to the geometric configuration discussed throughout our
566 manuscript (specifically, what we refer to as “moderate local impacts”) will lead to these results.
567 Our results are intentionally general for this reason, but this of course implores us to use
568 empirical approaches to find out the current state of reef resilience under system-specific
569 parameterizations and multi-stressor impacts. Together, our results immediately indicate context-
570 dependent responses to global change and highlight the importance of considering multi-
571 stressors in a more holistic approach to management decisions.

572
573 Our results also suggest the intriguing notion that the rise of different benthic r-strategists give us
574 signatures of the dominant underlying stressor, matching a variety of empirical and conceptual
575 accounts of benthic cover in coral reefs(Littler and Littler 1984, Lapointe 1997). Notably, fast-
576 growing benthic r-strategists play important roles in highly disturbed coral reefs (Fig. 3) and
577 benthic composition is dependent on multi-stressors, particularly grazing-mediated algal
578 selection that selects for differential life history (growth and palatability) strategies (Figs. 1, 4).
579 This is consistent with experimental and observational studies(Sammarco 1980, 1982, Chiappone
580 et al. 2006), as well as theoretical concepts such as keystone predation theory(Leibold 1996).
581 Here, less-palatable r2-strategists (e.g., CCA) garner a competitive advantage over more
582 palatable fast-growth (r1) strategists when grazing rates are high, and vice versa. These life
583 strategies are becoming even more important to consider in the face of global change and may
584 offer us empirical insight into the mechanisms behind state shifts, including the potential for our
585 “signature of change” to act as early warning signals for coral collapse and decreasing resilience
586 (related, see (Nyström et al. 2008)). However, we note that further empirical research into

587 underlying drivers is needed to establish more comprehensive signatures of multi-stressor
588 impacts on benthic composition, as well as expand this model to include life history trade-offs
589 within other taxa such as different macroalgae genera(Renken and Mumby 2009, Renken et al.
590 2010, Bozec et al. 2016, Briggs et al. 2018), (hard and soft) corals(Zinke et al. 2018, Toth et al.
591 2019), sponges(González-Rivero et al. 2011), and cyanobacteria(de Bakker et al. 2017) for a
592 more thorough representation of multi-stressor effects on benthic composition.

593

594 These signatures of multi-stressor impacts allow us to map changes in benthic composition
595 within our predictive framework. Empirical evidence from Barbados shows promising
596 consistency with our theoretical results and highlight the importance of accurate baseline data as
597 well as monitoring multi-stressors simultaneously and with fine enough resolution to track
598 changes and identify underlying drivers of change in coral reefs. Collectively, our empirical and
599 theoretical results show that local stressors mediate coral reef resilience and can increase
600 uncertainty in the face of climate-related mortality events, particularly as they are increasing in
601 frequency and severity.

602

603 While climate change is undoubtedly a massive threat to coral reefs, our results suggest that
604 scientists and managers must simultaneously consider that local and regional management
605 actions can enable at least some coral reef resilience (resistance to and recovery after
606 disturbances). Here, we have shown how varying levels of multi-stressors can lead to very
607 different trajectories of change in coral reefs (Figure 6), and would in turn have drastically
608 different responses to singular management actions (e.g., Figure 2B,C). In times of rapid and
609 drastic global change, research and management need to move away from isolating individual

610 impacts and develop ways to address multiple stressors where nonlinear interactions are likely
611 the rule not the exception. This way we can manage for ecosystem resilience and sustainability in
612 the face of uncertainty(Anthony et al. 2015, Roberts et al. 2017, Mcleod et al. 2019). We also
613 need effective management so that peoples' livelihoods are not unnecessarily limited or
614 sacrificed under the guise of conservation(Aronson and Precht 2006). It's easy to point the finger
615 at local fishing communities, for example, when in reality there is likely a much more nuanced
616 problem that must be acknowledged. Ecosystem stability and sustainability ultimately means
617 protecting important ecosystem services necessary for food and livelihood security and human
618 wellbeing.

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624 All authors contributed to the development of ideas through workshops and discussions. CB and
625 KSM designed the theoretical model and CB created the figures. Data collection from Barbados
626 and creation of Figure 6 was done by HV. CB and KSM wrote the initial draft of the manuscript
627 and all authors contributed to editing subsequent revisions.

628

629 **Competing Interests**

630 The authors declare no competing interests.

631

632 **Data and Code Availability**

633 Data from Barbados presented in Figure 6 and in the Supplementary Material were collected
634 from various literature sources. Citations can be found in the manuscript and in the Supplement
635 B. analyses and simulations were performed in Wolfram Mathematica (version 12.1.0.0); code is
636 available at: <https://github.com/carlingbieg/corals>

637

638

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940

941 **Figure Legends**

942

943 **Figure 1. A)** Summary of the model, interactions between state variables, and the incorporation
944 of grazing (overfishing), nutrients and climate-induced mortality into scaling the model.

945 Nutrients are incorporated into the model such that coral calcification is inhibited by increased
946 nutrients (coral per capita rates of increase, r , decrease linearly with nutrients), and that nutrients
947 also increase the growth rate of macroalgae as well as decrease coral's resistance to macroalgae
948 overgrowth and competitive ability (algal overgrowth rate, a , increases with nutrients up to a
949 saturation point). Finally, we assume that climate change effectively alters coral mortality
950 through stochastic events (pulse perturbations at increasing frequencies, which is similar to the
951 increasing frequency and autocorrelation of extreme climate events such as bleaching events
952 (i.e., temperature stress) and destructive weather events like cyclonic storms). **B)** Summary of
953 grazing-mediated algae composition in coral reefs based on growth-palatability trade-offs. High
954 grazing rates suppress late-succession, palatable macroalgae while simultaneously selecting for
955 less-palatable life strategies (through physical and chemical defenses) within the early-
956 succession algal r-strategists. Here we consider r-strategists as algae functional groups that
957 colonize disturbed reefs quickly relative to thick, fleshy macroalgae (K-strategists relative to
958 other functional forms of algae). We argue that within the group of benthic (B) r-strategists there
959 are a variety of life history strategies that will be differentially selected for based on grazing
960 rates. Note though that at moderate-high grazing rates, palatable fast-growing r-strategists may
961 be able to withstand the grazing rates if their productive capacity simply outweighs grazing rates,
962 however, at extremely high grazing rates (e.g., extreme *Diadema* densities), the relatively fast
963 low-palatability organisms (e.g., CCA; r2) will thrive.

964

965 **Figure 2.** Interaction between grazing rates and nutrient loading on alternate states and
966 management implications. **A)** Geometry of the model isoclines equilibrium structure, and all
967 possible (qualitative) configurations along a gradient of impact from coral-dominated reefs,
968 through bistable configurations, to algae-dominated reefs. **B)** Regions of parameter space that
969 correspond to geometrical configurations show in (a), highlighting regions of bistability. Grey
970 regions show the area of parameter space where alternate states exist (yellow and light green),
971 and the black region has only a 0-0 solution. Nutrients and grazing both drive a shift along this
972 impact gradient, and they interact nonlinearly such that this shift is exacerbated. $a = 2.0$, $y = 0.7$,
973 $m = 0.15$, $N_0 = 0.5$, $r = 1.8$, and $cal = 0.25$. Black arrows (1 & 2) represent trajectories within this
974 parameter space of management actions aimed at restoring herbivory and suggest context-
975 dependent outcomes. **C)** Context-dependent restoration effects of management actions on
976 benthic cover when reducing fishing pressure (e.g., MPA introduction) to increase grazing rates
977 at low (1) and high (2) nutrient scenarios (represented by solid black arrows in B; 1, 2). Here,
978 restoring grazers sufficiently allows for coral recovery in a low nutrient scenario (1) but remains
979 in an algae-dominated state under higher nutrients (2).

980

981 **Figure 3. A)** Isocline geometry and phase plane trajectories under moderate local impacts in (i)
982 deterministic (no climate-induced noise) and (ii) stochastic simulations starting at different initial
983 values (numbered trajectories). Since there is only one stable equilibrium (the coral axial
984 equilibrium), all deterministic solutions (i) eventually reach equilibrium. However, we can have
985 drastically different outcomes in the face of repeated climate-induced disturbances (ii). Note this
986 state (moderate local impacts) is near a bifurcation point where nutrients and grazing can quickly

987 drive a saddle-node bifurcation, creating two new equilibria (one stable and one unstable) where
988 the isoclines intersect. Our trajectories appear be influenced by a nonexistent (but soon to be
989 real) saddle point (the unstable equilibrium that appears after a saddle-node bifurcation), such
990 that the vector field effectively has “memory” of it (notice the vector field pulls toward the
991 region of entanglement). Note that while saddle points are an unstable equilibrium, they
992 characteristically attract in one direction while repelling in another direction. Behavior like this
993 has been referred to as a “ghost attractor” where the system mimics the dynamics as if the
994 attractor were there(Hastings et al. 2018, Morozov et al. 2020). Furthermore, saddles are known
995 to cause what have been referred to as “crawl-bys” whereby trajectories can become effectively
996 entangled as the system spends a long time near a saddle before slowly moving away in another
997 direction(Hastings et al. 2018). In our case, we have an interesting example of a “ghost saddle”
998 where the system is influenced by the ghost of a saddle point. Here, we see that ghost saddles can
999 cause long-transients and disturbance-driven alternate states.

1000 **B)** Time series of trajectory 3 (from part A i and ii) showing that benthic r-strategists flourish
1001 during these transients and periods of coral suppression. Here, $a = 2.0$, $y = 0.7$, $m = 0.15$, $g = 0.4$,
1002 $N_t = 0.53$, $N_0 = 0.5$, $r = 1.8$, and $cal = 0.25$. In ii) disturbance frequency is every 5 time units, and
1003 results in an instantaneous loss of 50% coral cover.

1004

1005 **Figure 4.** Benthic cover in a moderately impacted system (long transients after a perturbation) is
1006 altered by multiple stressors, through grazing-mediated algae composition and differential
1007 trajectories of coral recovery. Higher grazing rates select for fast-growing but relatively less
1008 palatable benthic r-strategists (e.g., r2 strategists such as CCA) that can productively withstand
1009 grazing, whereas lower grazing rates allow for more palatable (and likely even faster growing)

1010 benthic r-strategists dominate (e.g., r1 strategists like turf algae). Grazing of course also
1011 suppresses palatable macroalgae (K-strategist). **A**) The effect of single perturbations on benthic
1012 composition during transients (post-disturbance), and **B**) frequent climate-driven mortality
1013 events, such as temperature-induced bleaching events and cyclonic storm damage, can
1014 permanently alter benthic composition. Simulations in A) and B) have the same parameter
1015 values. In all cases $a = 2.4$, $y = 0.7$, $m = 0.15$, $N_0 = 0.5$, $r = 1.8$, and $cal = 0.25$. Nutrients and
1016 grazing are varied as follows: i) $g = 0.24$, $N_t = 0.16$; and ii) $g = 0.7$, $N_t = 2.31$. In B) disturbance
1017 frequency is every 5 time units, and results in an instantaneous loss of 50% coral cover.

1018

1019 **Figure 5.** A summary of our theoretical results as a framework for coral reef composition in a
1020 changing world. Reef benthic cover depends on grazing, nutrients, and climate-related coral
1021 mortality. The region of multi-stressor space for coral-dominated reefs decreases with increased
1022 disturbance frequency (replaced by a region of climate-driven uncertainty), while the
1023 composition of algae (both slower-growing and late succession thick macroalgae, as well as early
1024 succession r-strategists) is mediated by grazing rates. Here, pie charts display the changing
1025 nature of benthic composition due to grazing-induced selection. Increasing disturbance
1026 frequency reduces the possibility of coral persistence by increasing the susceptibility to other
1027 stressors, decreasing the basin of attraction to the coral-dominated equilibrium when in a bistable
1028 configuration, and increasing the likelihood of climate-driven state shifts. We therefore argue
1029 that anything below the region of climate-driven uncertainty would be an algae-dominated
1030 system in a noisy world.

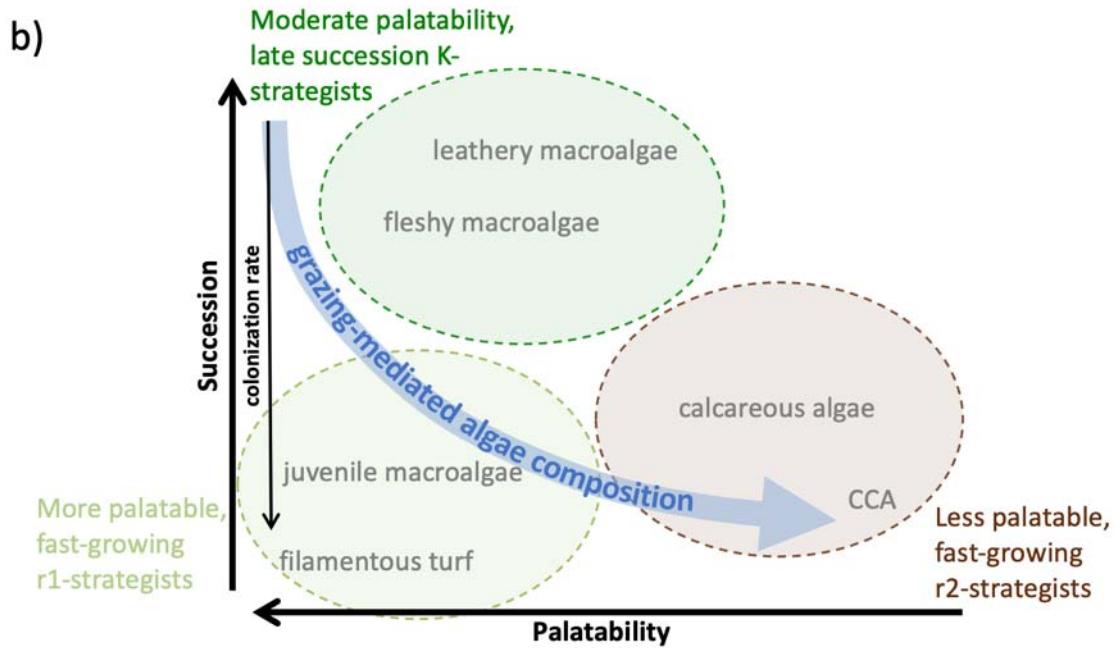
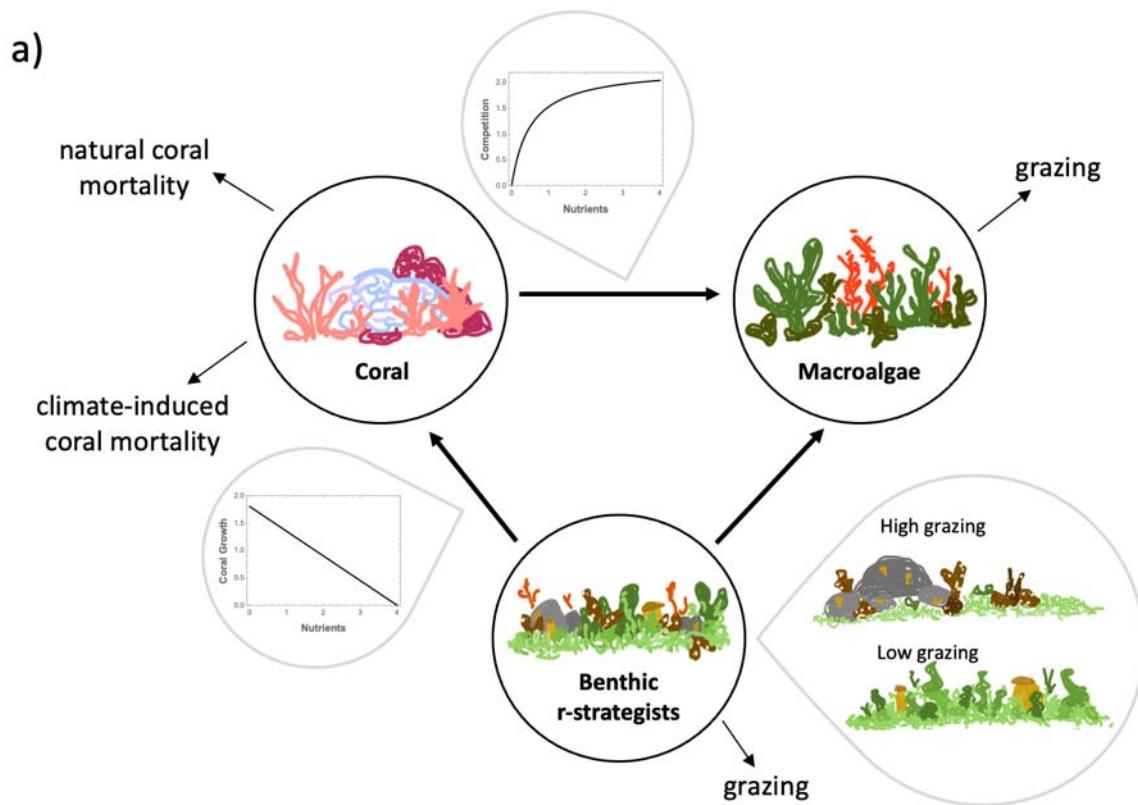
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1032 **Figure 6.** Changes in benthic composition of fringing reefs along the west coast of Barbados in
1033 space and time. **A)** Location of eight fringing reefs on the west coast of Barbados studied
1034 between 1972 and 1993. The triangle symbol shows the location of the North Bellairs reef,
1035 which was here used as baseline for 1972 (Stearn et al. 1977) (pre-hurricane and pre-*Diadema* die
1036 off) and 1981 (Mah and Stearn 1986) (post-hurricane but pre-*Diadema* die off) whereas the
1037 square symbols represent seven other fringing reefs surveyed (Tomascik and Sander 1987a,
1038 Allard 1994), including South Bellairs reef (BRI), which is located only meters away from North
1039 Bellairs reef. From North to South: SR = Sandridge, GS = Greensleaves, North Bellairs Reef
1040 (triangle), BRI = Bellairs Research Institute (South Bellairs Reef), SL = Sandy Lane, FV = Fitts
1041 Village, SG = Spring Gardens, BR = Brighton; **B)** Temporal changes in the per cent cover of hard
1042 coral, CCA and turf + frondose algae in the fringing reefs, as well as changes in *Diadema*
1043 densities (95%CI when coastal average shown) and a schematic showing overall nutrient
1044 concentrations relative to eutrophication thresholds (see Supplement B.1 for individual nutrient
1045 measurements and thresholds); **C)** Multi-panels showing spatial correlations across the seven
1046 aforementioned reefs showing a gradient of decreasing *Diadema* density and increasing
1047 eutrophication (north-south gradient), as well as correlations between *Diadema* density and three
1048 benthic variables (hard coral cover, CCA and turf + frondose algae), and between reef
1049 eutrophication rank and the three aforementioned benthic variables. Note that data in (c) are
1050 shown for the pre-*Diadema* die-off period (1982/1983) and for the post-*Diadema* die off period
1051 (1992-1993). Significant Spearman rank correlations ($p < 0.05$) are identified with bold font and
1052 solid trend lines.

1053

1054 **Figure 7.** Mapping the trajectory of change of coral reefs along Barbados' west coast within our
1055 theoretical multi-stressor framework. Approximate trajectory over time is represented by the
1056 dashed red line, with average reef composition at each time period displayed in pie charts (data
1057 described above and in Figure 6). In 1982/83 and 1992/93 surveys of multiple reefs were
1058 conducted along the coastline, following a gradient in eutrophication and grazing rates, with site-
1059 level variation shown by smaller transparent charts.
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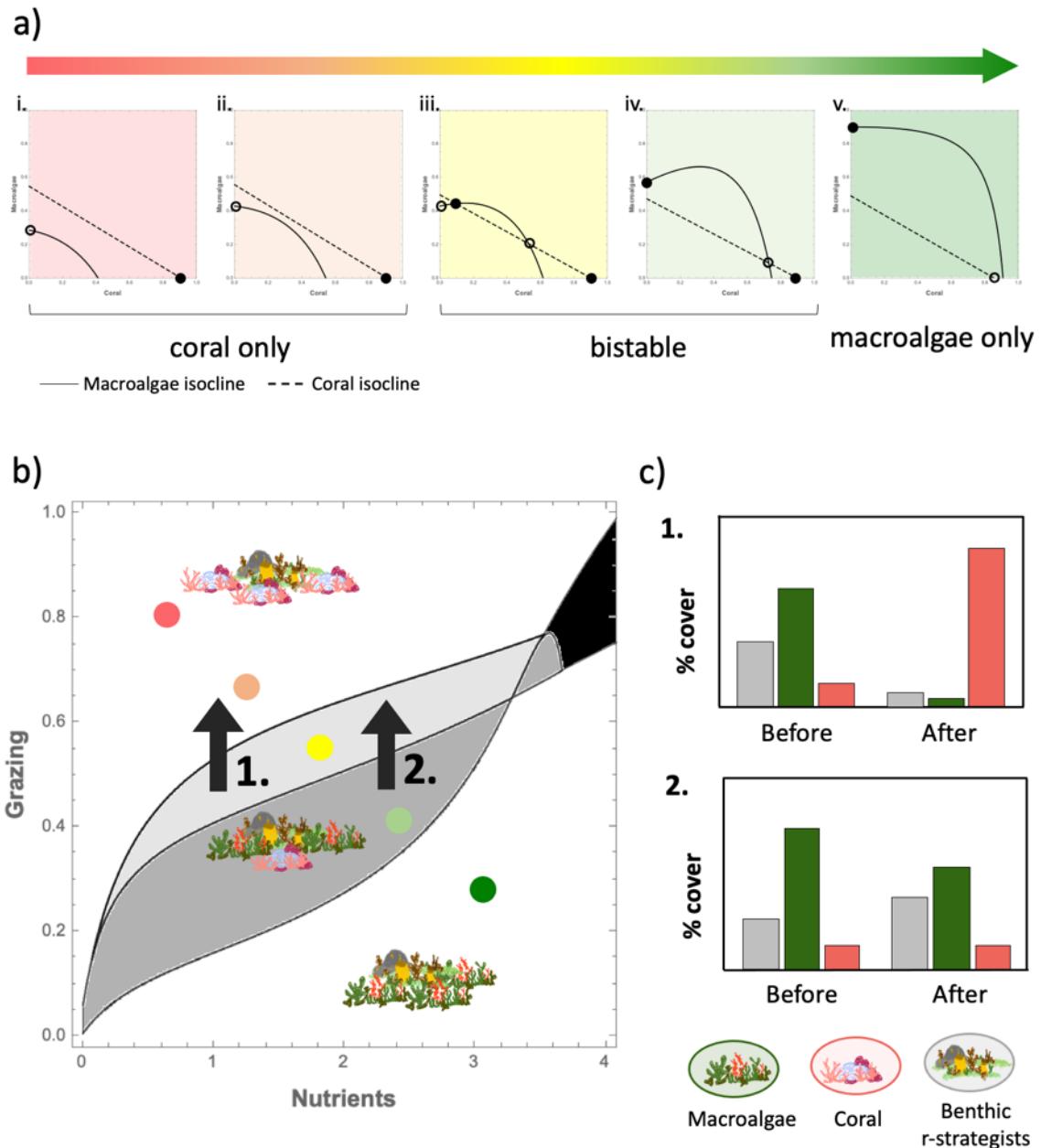
1062 **Figure 1**



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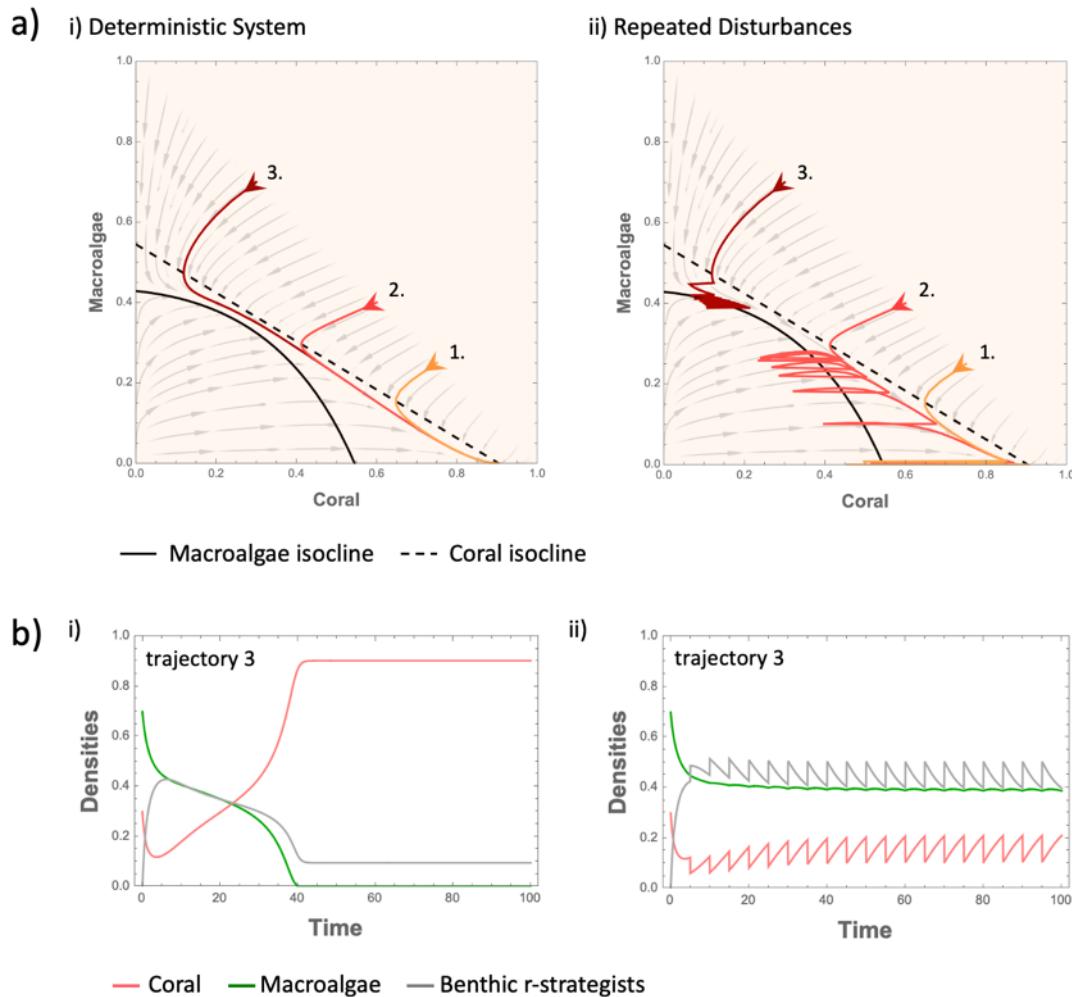
1065 **Figure 2**



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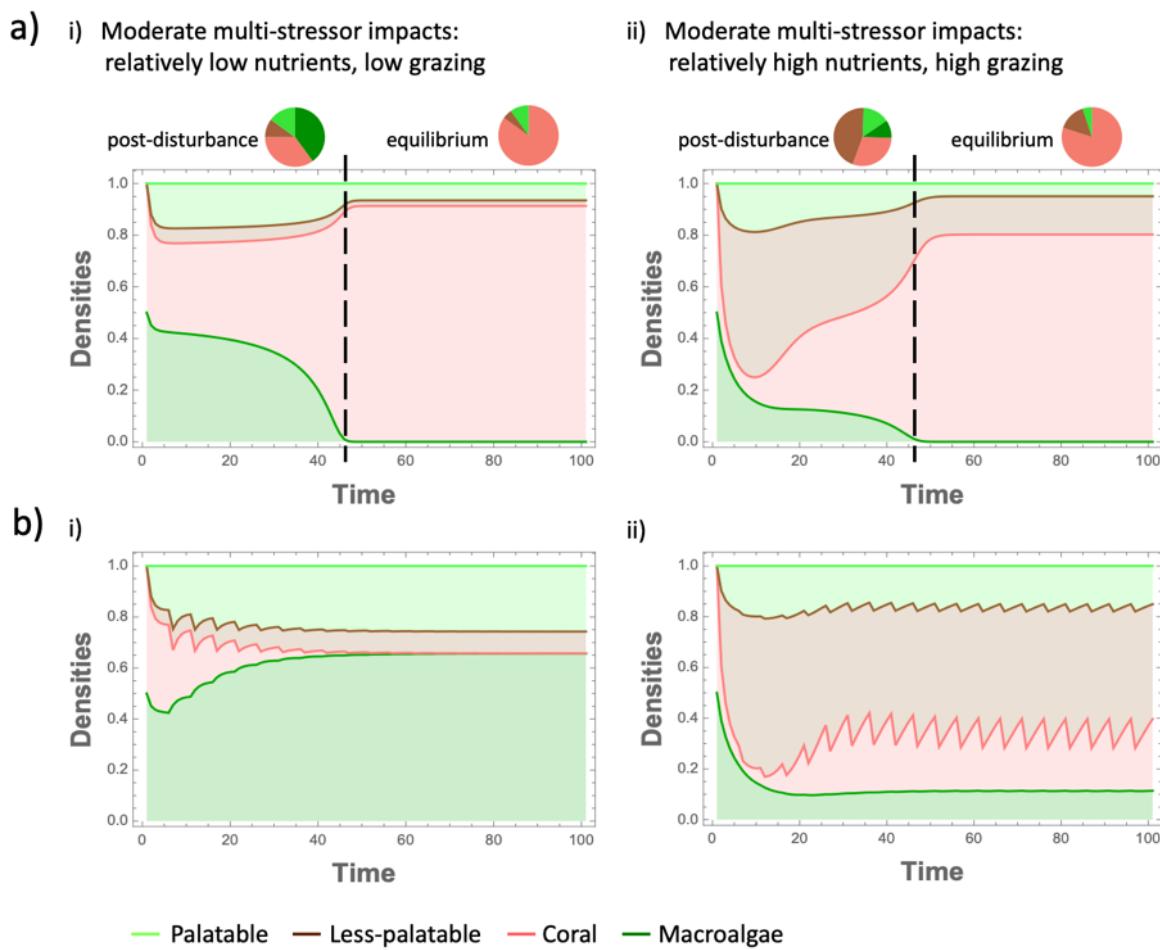
1068 **Figure 3**



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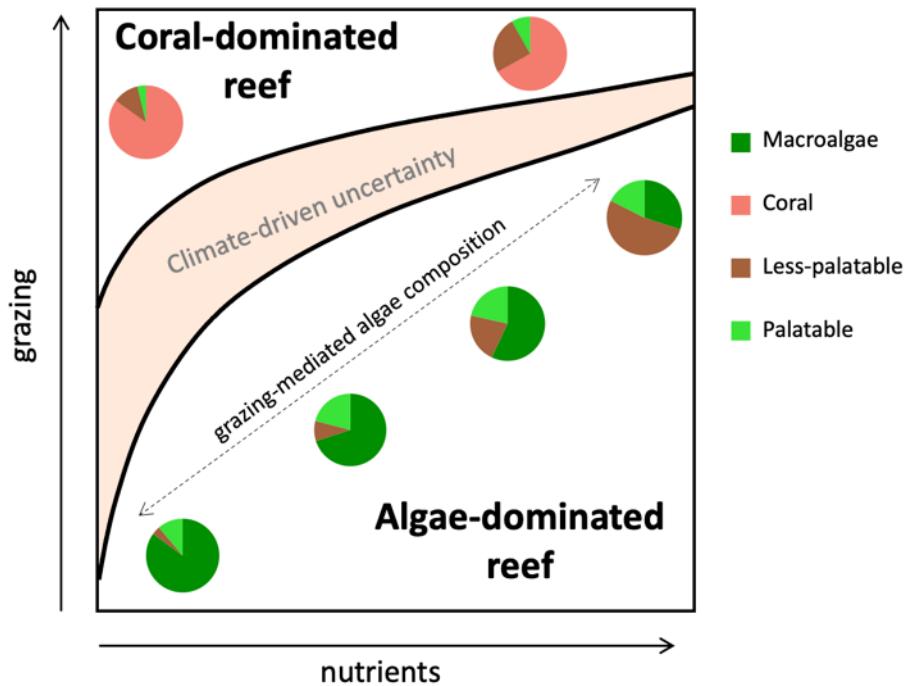
1071 **Figure 4**



1072

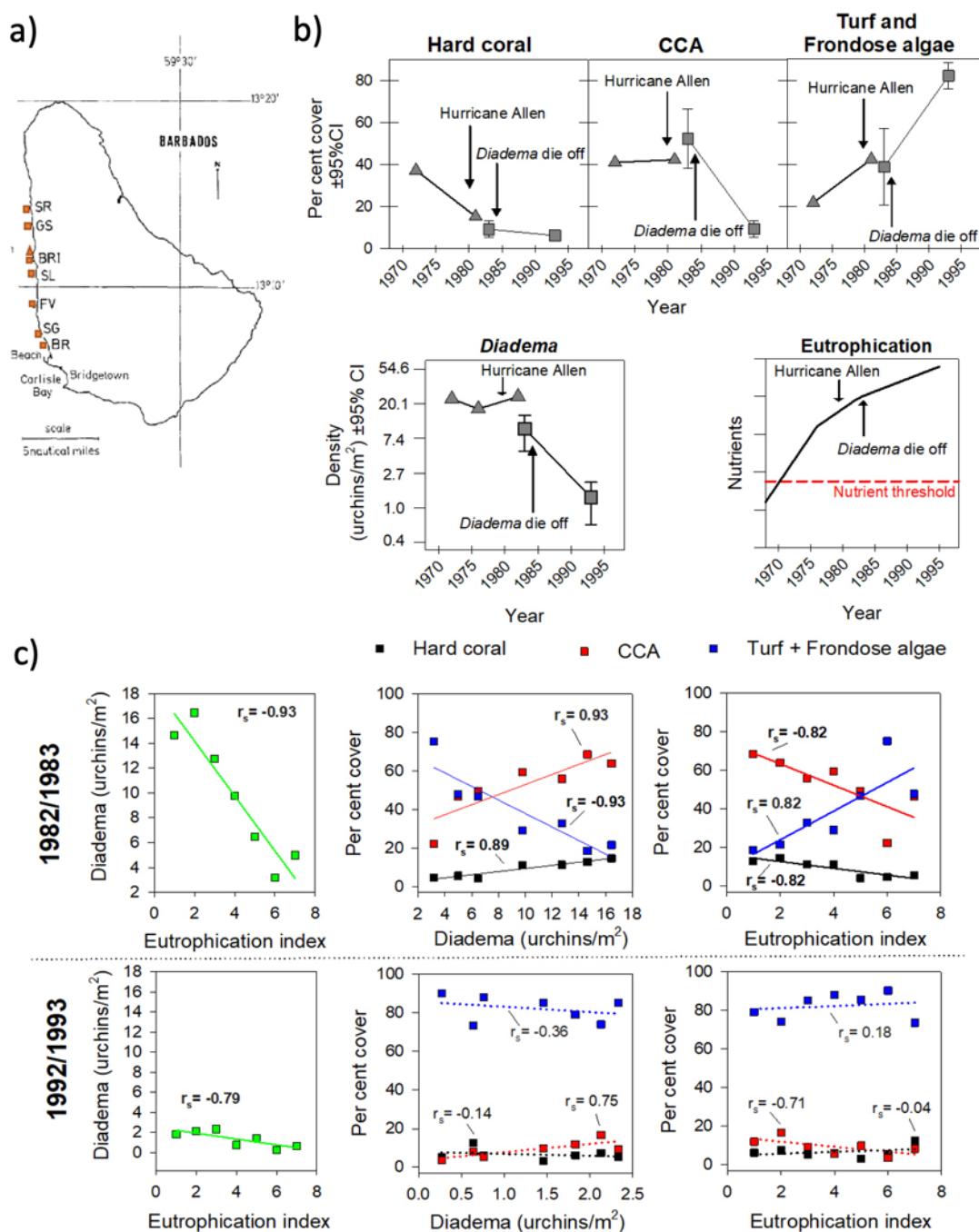
1073

1074 **Figure 5**



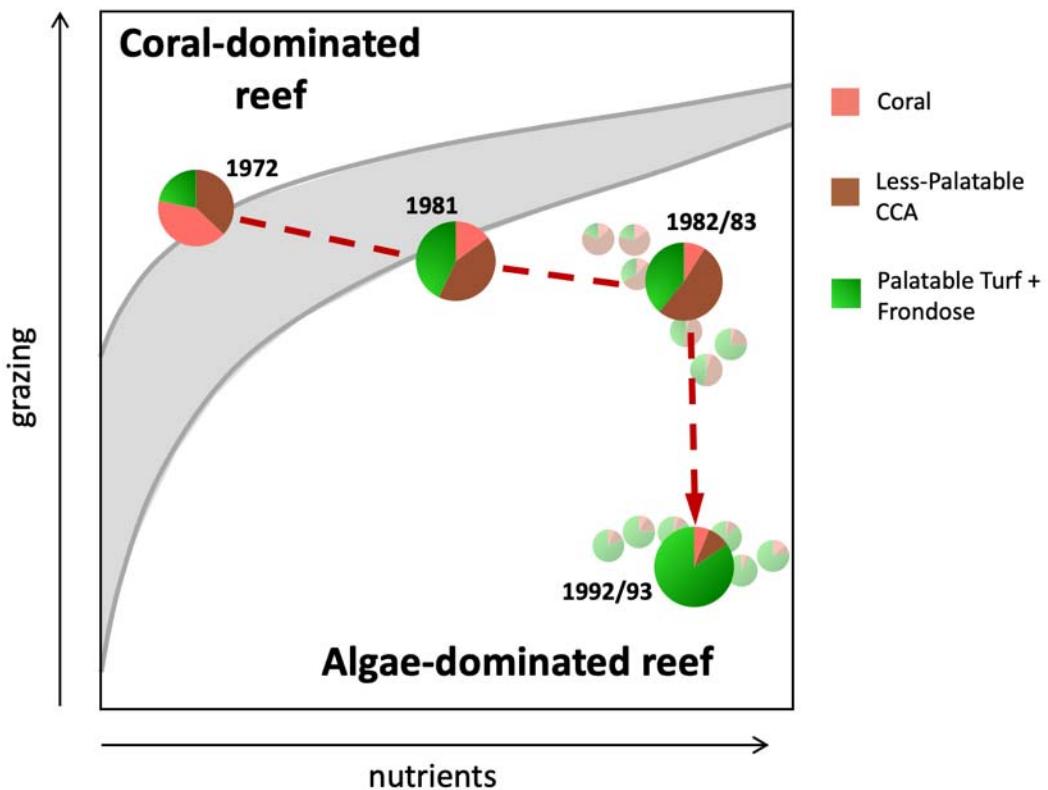
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1076 **Figure 6**



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1078 **Figure 7**



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