



High temporal resolution sampling reveals reef fish settlement is highly clustered

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1 **High temporal resolution sampling reveals reef fish settlement is highly clustered**

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15 **Abstract**

16 Coral reef fish larvae settle on reefs predominantly at night around the new-moon phase, after
17 an early developmental period spent in the pelagic environment. Most sampling is conducted
18 across whole nights, and any studies that have examined the frequency of arrival within
19 nights have typically been limited to coarse sampling time scales of 1–5 hours. Here, we
20 present results for arrival numbers of fish caught between dusk and midnight from light traps
21 sampled every 15 min at an Indonesian coral reef, providing the finest temporal resolution for
22 this type of study to date. A Spatial Analysis by Distance Indices (SADIE) analysis, adapted
23 to temporal data, revealed clustering of reef arrival times for many species, with an increase
24 in catches immediately after dusk dropping off towards midnight. Importantly, the timing of
25 clusters differed among species indicating that different factors determine the timing of
26 arrival among taxa. Our results support the hypothesis that larval behaviour influences the
27 timing of arrival at a coral reef for different fish species.

28 **Keywords:** Coral reefs; fish larvae; larval behaviour; larval settlement; SADIE analysis; Indo-
29 **Pacific.**

30 Introduction

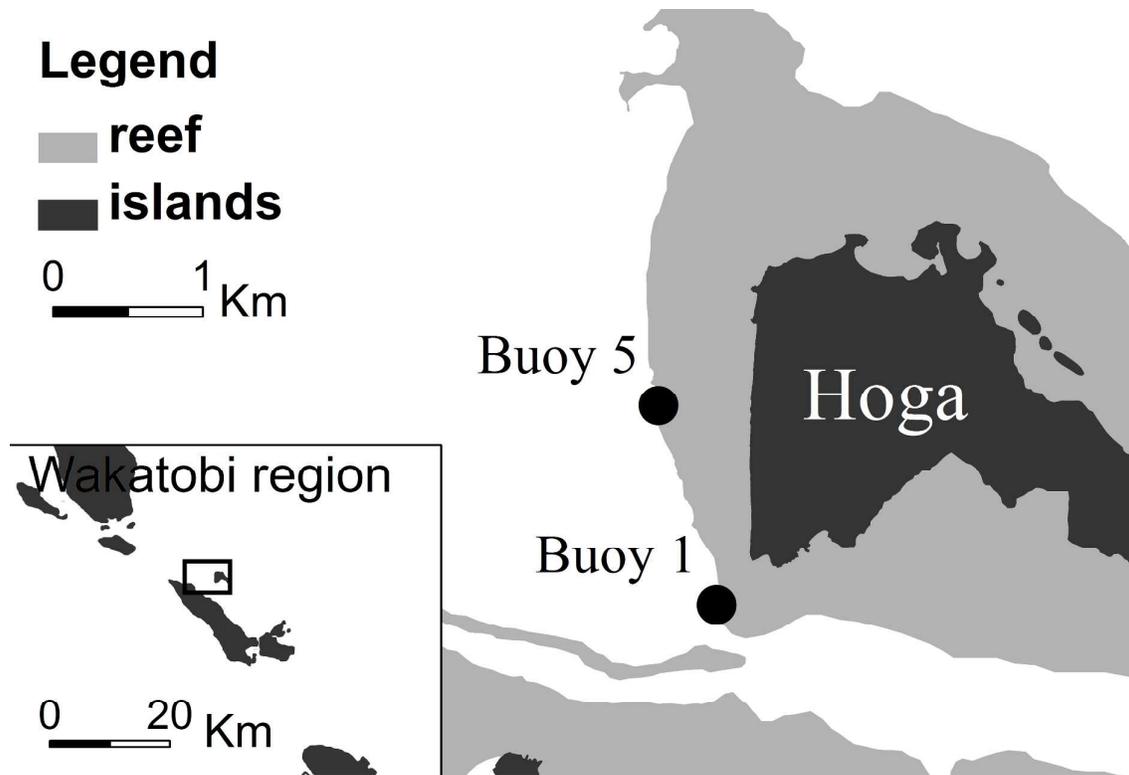
31 Most coral reef fish spend their early life stage as larvae in the open ocean before returning to reefs to
32 settle (Montgomery *et al.* 2001; Kingsford *et al.* 2002; Leis and McCormick 2002). Settlement stage
33 larvae move onto the reef predominantly at night (Robertson *et al.* 1988; Stobutzki and Bellwood
34 1998), with a few species potentially also settling to the reef during the daytime (e.g. Dufour and
35 Galzin 1993; Kingsford 2001). Settlement is higher around the new and third quarter moon, when
36 moonlight is weak (Milicich 1988; Meekan *et al.* 1993; Milicich and Doherty 1994; Sponaugle and
37 Cowen 1997; Leis and Carson-Ewart 1999; D'Alessandro *et al.* 2007;). Nocturnal settlement has
38 been suggested as a life strategy for avoidance of predators feeding on fish larvae at the reef (Hamner
39 *et al.* 1988), which could otherwise have a significant impact on the already high mortality rate of
40 settlement stage fishes (Almany and Webster 2006; Dytham and Simpson 2007). The high risk of
41 mortality typical of this life stage of demersal reef fishes is also thought to drive other behaviours in
42 larval fish including auditory and olfactory orientation (Atema *et al.* 2002; Simpson *et al.* 2004, 2005)
43 and schooling (Pitcher 1986; Leis 2006; Codling *et al.* 2007; Simpson *et al.* 2013; Irisson *et al.* 2015).
44 Because of the small size of larval fish and their tendency to settle during low-light levels, it is
45 challenging to directly observe larval behaviour *in situ*, which often has to be inferred from controlled
46 environments (e.g. olfactory preference Dixson *et al.* 2008; swimming speed Fisher and Bellwood
47 2003) or *in situ* observations made during the daytime (Dixson *et al.* 2014; Simpson *et al.* 2005; Leis
48 *et al.* 2015). From nocturnal sampling methods that are highly restricted in space and time it should be
49 possible to make informed speculations on the behaviours that drive settlement patterns. However,
50 only a few studies have examined the arrival patterns of fish over single night periods (Dufour *et al.*
51 1996; McIlwain 1997; Wilson 2003), with the highest temporal resolution being used typically in the
52 range of one recording every 1–2 hours. Whilst this can provide us with useful information on when
53 the main settlement peaks occur during the night, it is not sufficient temporal resolution to capture
54 arrival of individual cohorts of fish. In the present study we assessed arrival of fish larvae to
55 Indonesian reefs using light traps sampled every 15 min: a finer temporal resolution than any previous
56 sampling method used in this context. The light trap sampling technique is stage selective, capturing

57 phototactic larval species at a competent settlement stage in high numbers. It does have species
58 sampling biases dependent on the degree of phototactic response and the swimming abilities of the
59 individual larvae (Choat *et al.* 1993). Overall, however, this technique lends itself well to the study of
60 larval settlement, providing large catches and ease of replication (Milichich 1988; Choat *et al.* 1993;
61 Wilson 2001, 2003). The focus of this study was not to examine the arrival rate of settlement stage
62 fish for this region (which would also be of interest), as it does not cover lunar, seasonal, or yearly
63 temporal variation, but to explore at high temporal resolution the arrival of fish within single nights.
64 We hypothesised that: a) settlement stage fish would not arrive at a constant rate in the light traps but
65 would display a high degree of clustering in the catches due to behaviour influencing settlement
66 times; and b) that the arrival rate of different species would follow different arrival patterns if
67 hydrodynamic forces were not the main drivers of clustering patterns.

68 **Materials and Methods**

69 *Sites*

70 Sampling was carried out at two sites offshore from the coral reefs of Hoga Island, Southeast
71 Sulawesi, Indonesia (Fig.1), selected based on their different water flow regimes. Buoy 1 is a site
72 located on the reef in the channel between Hoga Island and Kaledupa Island through which a large
73 body mass of water moves daily with the tides. Buoy 5 is located off the western reef of the island and
74 is relatively sheltered although the large changes in tidal range (~2m) can result in relatively strong
75 water currents during tide flows towards and away from the shore. There were differences in the
76 acoustic composition of the reef sound spectra and some of the coral composition of the reef (Piercy
77 2015), but no other known significant differences between them.



78
79

80 Figure 1. Sites of light trap sampling off Hoga Island, Indonesia ($5^{\circ} 28' 20''$ S; $123^{\circ} 45' 25''$ E). Buoy
81 1 is located in the channel between Hoga Island and Kaledupa (bottom left corner of this map) where
82 the water current is strongest. Buoy 5 is located in a central position along the Hoga Island western
83 reef and is dominated by inshore and offshore currents as the reef flat (45° grey bars) fills and drains.

84 *Sampling*

85 Sampling was carried out between the third quarter moon, 24 July 2011, and three days after the new
86 moon, 3 August 2011 (new moon was 31 July 2011) between dusk and midnight (18:00–00:00). The
87 focus of this study was on collecting high temporal resolution data rather than lunar or seasonal
88 changes that have been previously extensively examined (e.g., Robertson *et al.* 1988; Stobutzki and
89 Bellwood 1998; Dufour and Galzin 1993; Kingsford 2001). This “snapshot” approach is
90 representative of a typical new moon recruitment period but may differ in terms of abundance and
91 species composition compared to other times of the year. Throughout the night time period, light
92 levels remained low as the moon had not yet risen with the exception of the last two sampling dates (1

93 and 3 August) when the moon did not set until 19:30 and 21:00 respectively. However, considering
94 the proximity of these dates to the new moon phase the maximum fraction of the moon illuminated
95 was 17.8% (3 August) with the moon at a maximum altitude of 40° (18:15 2011-08-03) estimated
96 using the MoonAngle function in R (package oce, version 0.9-20), with half or more of the sampling
97 time being undertaken in the absence of any moonlight. Buoy 1 was sampled on nights of the 24 July
98 2011, and 1 and 3 August 2011, while B5 was sampled on 26, 28 and 30 July 2011.

99 Sampling was conducted using two Stobutzki and Bellwood (1997) light traps, suspended 1 m below
100 the water surface and fishing alternatively every 15 min throughout the sampling periods. The traps
101 were fitted with a 40 W 12 V fluorescent tube light connected to a 12 V 12 Ah lead acid battery
102 charged to >13 V. A boat was moored to a buoy to which the light trap was attached during
103 deployment at 1.5 m below the sea surface. The boat was attached to the mooring using 30 m of rope
104 to maintain it at a distance from the light trap and mooring and to minimise disturbance to recruiting
105 fish. Every 15 min the boat was hauled closer to the first light trap, and the second light trap was
106 deployed immediately prior to the first one being extracted from the water to maintain a constant light
107 source in the water column. The contents of the first light trap were emptied via a funnel into a
108 10x10x10 cm container with mesh netting openings on the sides and sealed with a mesh netting cap.
109 The operation was carried out within a 20 L bucket containing fresh seawater 10 cm deep to maintain
110 the fish alive and re-capture any escaped fish during the emptying operation. The container was then
111 placed in a fish mesh holder over the side of the boat. Once all 24 samples over the night period had
112 been collected, the mesh containers were placed inside a 100 L polystyrene container filled with fresh
113 seawater, brought back to the shore, and kept aerated using two airstones. The next day, fish from
114 each container were sedated using a mixture of clove oil, 90% ethanol, and sea water in a ratio of
115 1:3:6 respectively (see ethical note in Simpson *et al.* 2008). The fish from each container were spread
116 out on a gridded tray with 1 cm of water and photographed lying on their side using a Samsung S860
117 8.1 MP digital camera (Samsung Electronics Co., Ltd., Suwon, South Korea) and allowed to recover
118 in a 50 L aerated plastic tank containing fresh seawater before being released back onto the reef at
119 dusk. Fish were identified from the photos to family level using the guide by Leis and Carson-Ewart

120 (2000), and to genera and species where feasible. Fish that were difficult to identify were preserved in
121 70% ethanol after being anaesthetised and photographed using a Veho VMS-1 USB microscope with
122 x200 maximum magnification (Veho Electronics, Hampshire, UK). All work was carried out under
123 permits held by D. Smith and issued by the Indonesian Minister for Research and Development.

124 *Clustering analysis*

125 To test for non-randomness and provide indices for the degree of clustering on the temporal
126 distribution of fish counts, the Spatial Analysis by Distance Indices (SADIE) methodology (Perry *et al.*
127 1999) was applied using the SADIEShell program (Open Source under GNU General Public
128 License, V3). This analysis is usually used to test for spatial clustering of species in a two-
129 dimensional grid, but can also be applied to one-dimensional data sets such as quadrats positioned in
130 line along a transect (Perry *et al.* 2002). Since the calculation of the indices is based on a “spatial”
131 matrix of count data, to transpose this problem to a one-dimensional (1-D) context an artificial extra
132 dimension was included where units on the x axis were represented by the times of sampling and their
133 position on the y axis was assumed to be a constant (i.e. $y = 1$; Perry, pers. comm.). Hence, for $I =$
134 $1, \dots, n$ cells were of the form $(x_i, 1)$, each containing an observed sample count. This method
135 calculates three indices for the counts of data before testing them against random permutations of the
136 counts to provide the probability p of the measures of aggregation against the randomised ones (Perry
137 1998; Perry *et al.* 1999). The first measure is the *index of aggregation* (Perry 1998), which quantifies
138 the degree of effort required for each cell to reach an even distribution across all cells. The index of
139 aggregation, I_a , is defined as:

$$140 \quad I_a = D/Ea \quad (1)$$

141 where D is the distance to regularity, defined as the minimum value of the total distance that the *ith*
142 individual sample unit at position $(x_i, 1)$ would have to move, from one unit to the next, so that all
143 units contained an identical count. Ea is the arithmetic mean distance to regularity for the randomised
144 samples.

145 The second index is the *distance to crowding index* (Perry 1998), a measure of the minimum effort
 146 required for the counts of each cell to move into a single cell. The distance to crowding index, J_a , is
 147 defined as

$$148 \quad J_a = F_a/C \quad (2)$$

149 where C is the distance to crowding, defined as the minimum value of the total distance that the i th
 150 individual sample unit at position (x_i, I) must move so that all are congregated in one unit. F_a is the
 151 arithmetic mean distance to crowding for the randomised samples. This index increases in value as the
 152 distance to crowding C decreases, (i.e. a high index value indicates a more clustered group, with a
 153 lower distance needed for all data to move to the same sampling point). The index is more powerful at
 154 detecting a cluster than the index of aggregation I_a but cannot be interpreted correctly if more than one
 155 cluster is present.

156 The final measure is the *degree of clustering*. Similar to the distance to regularity, it calculates the
 157 effort required for each cell to reach an even distribution among the cells. However, in this case it
 158 computes the degree to which each data point influences the overall clustering, by calculating the
 159 strength of inflow and outflow from one cell to another in order to reach an even count between cells.
 160 For donor unit i , at position (x_i, I) , the outflow to the j of n_i receiver units, $j = 1, \dots, n_i$, at position $(x_j$
 161 , $I)$, is denoted as v_{ij} . The distance of this flow d_{ij} is

$$162 \quad d_{ij} = \sqrt{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2} = |x_i - x_j| \quad (3)$$

163 The average distance of outflow from unit i , weighted by the magnitude of each individual flow, is
 164 denoted as Y_i , where $Y_i = \sum_j d_{ij} v_{ij} / \sum_j v_{ij}$. The same calculation is carried out for inflows.

165 The distances for inflows and outflows need to be standardised in order to obtain the dimensionless
 166 clustering indices. For outflows, a standardised and dimensionless index of clustering, v_i , is then given
 167 by:

$$168 \quad v_i = Y_i oY / iY_cY \quad (4)$$

169 where Y_i is the distance of the flow; ${}_iY$ is the expected value of the average absolute flow distance for
 170 the i unit, assuming a random arrangement of the observed counts among the observed sample units,
 171 where the outflows are computed for each count that is randomly assigned to the i Unit. Similarly,
 172 instead of following the unit i , through the counts randomised to it, we can follow the count c through
 173 its randomisations to different units, where ${}_cY$ is the expected value of the average flow distance for
 174 the observed count c ; ${}_0Y$ is the expected value of the overall average absolute distance of flow for all
 175 points and counts in the randomisations. By convention, inflows are given negative scores and
 176 outflows positive scores and the average of their absolute values is used as the clustering index. Only
 177 taxa for which at least an average of one individual per sampling time was collected on any one day
 178 (i.e. > 24 individuals) were included in the analysis.

179 *Association analysis*

180 Temporal association between the arrival rates of different fish taxa was measured using the SADIE
 181 association index. This method first calculates the similarity between the clustering indices of the two
 182 populations at each time point then averages those similarities to provide an overall measure of
 183 association: the correlation coefficient.

184 The measure of local spatial association for unit i is given by:

$$185 \quad \chi_i = \frac{n(z_{i1} - q_1)(z_{i2} - q_2)}{\sqrt{\sum_k (z_{k1} - q_1)^2 \sum_k (z_{k2} - q_2)^2}} \quad (5)$$

186 where z_{k1} denotes the clustering indices of the first set of data, with mean q_1 , and z_{k2} denotes the
 187 clustering indices for the second set of data, with mean q_2 . The overall spatial association is the mean
 188 of these local values:

$$189 \quad X = \sum_i \chi_i / n \quad (6)$$

190 where X is the correlation coefficient between the clustering indices of each set. The correlation is not
 191 performed directly on the counts because large count values would contribute disproportionately to
 192 the correlation coefficient. The significance of the association or disassociation is calculated by
 193 permutation of the counts. Since the randomisation process produces a histogram with the probability

194 for both association and disassociation, the α value to accept or reject the null hypothesis is divided
195 between the two ends of the distribution. Thus $\alpha = 0.05$ is split between the two extremities so that the
196 null hypothesis is rejected either for $p > 0.975$ (significant disassociation) or $p < 0.025$ (significant
197 association).

198 Autocorrelation is a property present in all clustering scenarios and could increase the chance of
199 finding non-existent associations and dis-associations because of the lack of independence of the
200 samples from one another. To minimise this effect and as recommended in Perry *et al.* (2002), a
201 Dutilleul adjustment was applied to account for the degree of autocorrelation and reduce the effective
202 sample size (Dutilleul 1993). To do this, where necessary, the sets were detrended, and the degrees of
203 freedom corrected for correlation, $M-2$, where M is the effective sample size. The critical values are
204 inflated by a scale factor of $\sqrt{\frac{M-3}{n-3}}$ and the significance of the randomisation test adjusted accordingly.

205 An extreme example of this would be if all samples are so strongly autocorrelated that we only need
206 one sample in order to estimate the size of all the remaining samples, effectively reducing the sample
207 size to one.

208 **Results**

209 During the 144 light trap deployments and collections a total of 2,187 individual fish were caught,
210 representing 28 families, of which some Pomacentridae, Apogonidae, and Sygnathidae could be
211 identified to genus level and even separated into species. The species themselves could rarely be
212 identified due to lack of guides on species level identification for fish at the larval stage for this region
213 of high biodiversity; therefore some species may have been grouped under the same taxon.

214 No fish were caught during the first sampling period on any night (18:00–18:15) and only one
215 individual fish from the genus *Spratelloides* was caught on the second sampling period (18:15–18:30)
216 over the six sampling days. More fish were caught at B1 (1,656) compared to B5 (531 individuals;
217 Chi-square test, $\chi^2 = 37.8$, $p < 0.001$, d.f. = 2).

218 *Clustering*

219 All taxa that met the inclusion criteria on at least one day (>24 individuals caught on that sampling
220 night), except Gobiidae and Synodontidae, displayed significant temporal clusters for at least one of
221 the measures for clustering (degree of clustering, index of aggregation and distance to crowding;
222 Table 1 and Figs. 2-5). The significance level of the degree of clustering and the index of aggregation
223 was in agreement for all taxa (i.e. they were either both significant or both non-significant). However,
224 the significance level of the distance to crowding index occasionally differed from the other two
225 indices. A significant clustering effect was observed in *Corythoichthys* sp.1 (family Sygnathidae) on
226 24 July 2011, *Abudefduf* sp.1 (family Pomacentridae) on 1 August 2011, and in *Apogon* sp.1 (family
227 Apogonidae), *Apogon* sp.3, *Chromis* sp. (family Pomacentridae) on 3 August 2011 according to the
228 distance to crowding but not the degree of clustering or the index of aggregation (Table 1 and Figs. 2
229 and 3). This is likely due to the greater sensitivity of the former index compared to the latter indices
230 when a single cluster is present. In contrast, the Gobiidae were significantly clustered according to the
231 degree of clustering and the index of aggregation on 30 July 2011 and 1 August 2011, but not
232 according to the distance to crowding index. This is likely due to the fact that the latter index only
233 provides meaningful results in the presence of a single cluster in the data, whilst two or three temporal
234 clusters appear to be present in Gobiidae catches on those days (Figs. 5a, b).

235

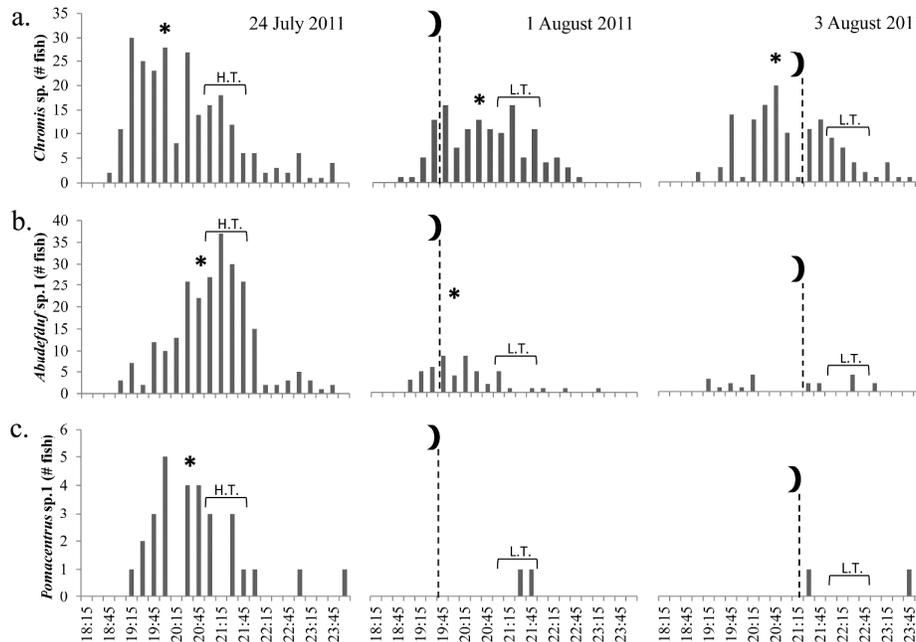
236 Table 1. Clustering indices from the SADIE methodology for fish taxa that met the minimum catch requirement (minimum 24 fish of the taxa caught over the
237 sampling night). Significant clustering indices are highlighted in bold with the significance level in brackets below (underlined).

Species or nearest identifiable taxon	Site	Day	# individuals	Degree of clustering (p)	Index of aggregation (p)	Distance to crowding index (p)
Apogon sp. 1	Buoy 1	2011-08-03	40	1.70 (0.069)	1.72 (0.063)	1.90 (0.001)
Apogon sp. 2	Buoy 1	2011-08-03	48	1.73 (0.012)	1.87 (0.032)	2.11 (0.001)
Apogon sp. 3	Buoy 1	2011-08-01	41	1.99 (0.032)	1.93 (0.034)	2.11 (<0.001)
		2011-08-03	52	1.44 (0.143)	1.59 (0.090)	1.82 (0.003)
Chromis sp.	Buoy 1	2011-07-24	245	2.18 (0.015)	2.29 (0.010)	1.64 (<0.001)
		2011-08-01	133	1.97 (0.035)	2.07 (0.022)	1.87 (<0.001)
		2011-08-03	133	1.57 (0.097)	1.68 (0.072)	1.76 (<0.001)
Gobiidae	Buoy 1	2011-08-01	42	1.99 (0.025)	1.92 (0.026)	1.20 (0.209)
		2011-08-03	27	0.75 (0.685)	0.77 (0.654)	1.18 (0.173)
	Buoy 5	2011-07-26	63	1.39 (0.101)	1.30 (0.140)	0.96 (0.611)
		2011-07-28	38	1.45 (0.128)	1.58 (0.091)	1.39 (0.061)
		2011-07-30	50	1.90 (0.021)	1.80 (0.035)	1.36 (0.178)
Holocentridae	Buoy 1	2011-07-24	31	2.68 (0.002)	2.52 (0.002)	2.80 (<0.001)
Pomacentrus sp. 1	Buoy 1	2011-07-24	29	2.47 (0.005)	2.78 (0.001)	1.81 (0.001)
Corythoichthys sp.1	Buoy 1	2011-07-24	105	1.38 (0.140)	1.30 (0.180)	2.51 (0.001)
Synodontidae	Buoy 1	2011-07-24	31	0.45 (0.999)	0.51 (0.994)	0.69 (0.920)
Abudefduf sp.1	Buoy 1	2011-07-24	248	1.742 (0.060)	1.93 (0.033)	2.10 (<0.001)
		2011-08-01	53	2.12 (0.022)	2.30 (0.011)	2.17 (<0.001)
	Buoy 5	2011-07-26	27	1.23 (0.233)	1.23 (0.235)	1.49 (0.011)

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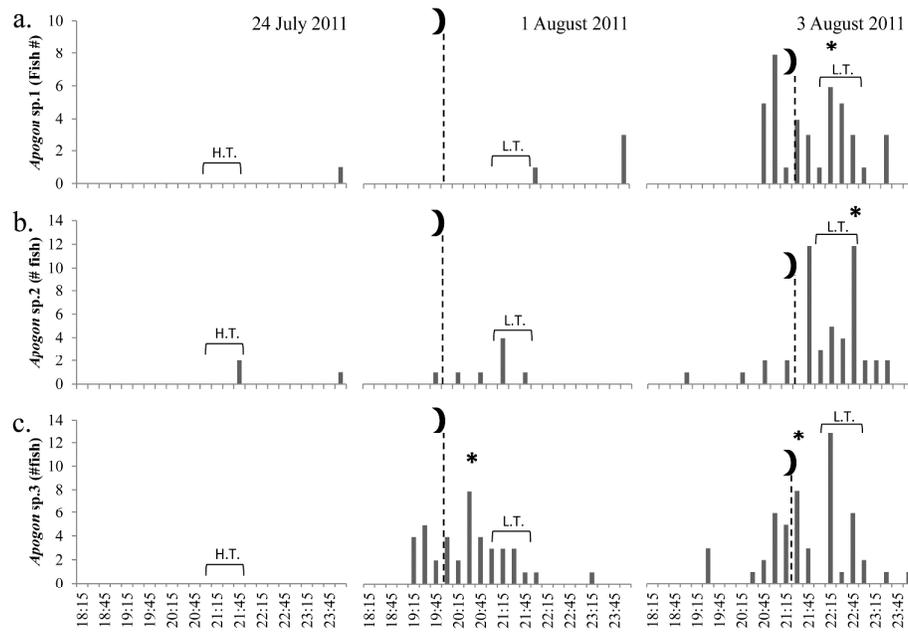
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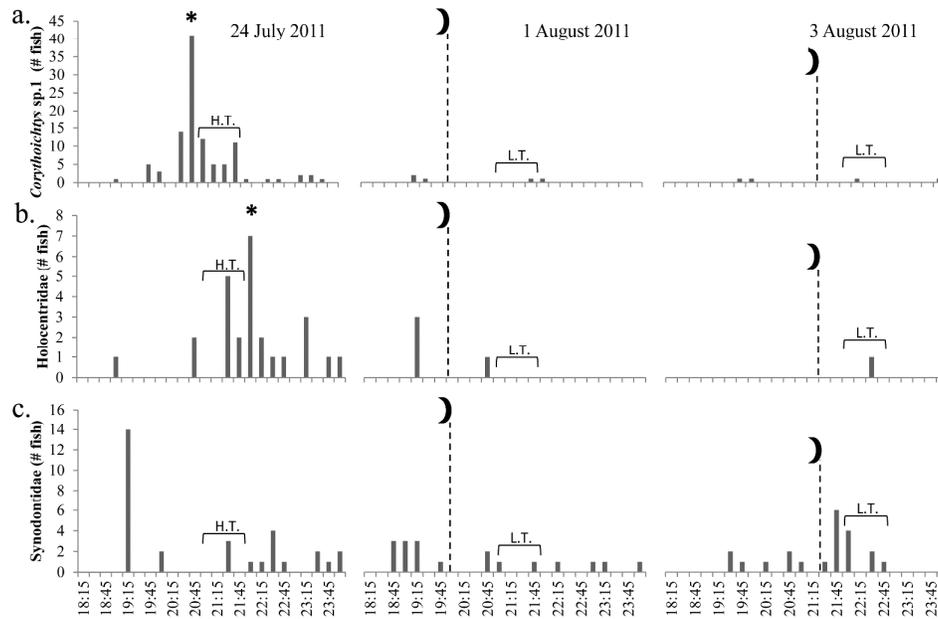
242 Figure 2. Arrival numbers of different Pomacentrid taxa at Buoy 1 on three different nights. a) Arrival
 243 numbers of *Chromis* sp., the most abundant taxon; b) *Abudedefduf* sp.1, the second most abundant
 244 taxon; and c) *Pomacentrus* sp.1. The scales for the fish counts vary between panels. The time period
 245 of the high (H.T.) and low (L.T.) tides are indicated above their respective periods and the time of the
 246 moon set is indicated with a dashed line and moon symbol. For 24 July there was no moon in the sky
 247 during the sampling period. Nights on which a significant temporal cluster in arrival numbers was
 248 present for at least one of the clustering indices presented in Table 1 are indicated by an asterisk (*).

249



250

251 Figure 3. Arrival numbers of different Apogonid taxa at Buoy 1 on three different nights. a) Arrival
 252 numbers of *Apogon sp.1*; b) *Apogon sp.2*; and c) *Apogon sp.3*. Explanation of the symbols is given in
 253 Fig. 2.



254

255 Figure 4. Arrival numbers of selected taxa at Buoy 1 on three different nights. The taxa presented all

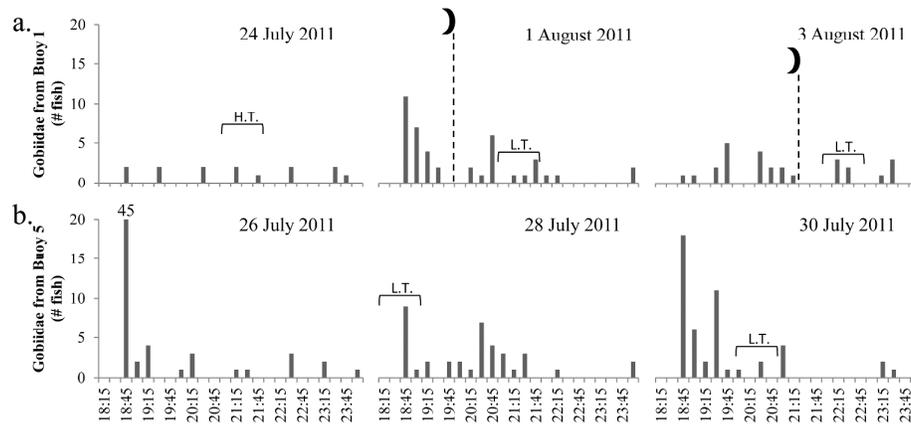
256 met the selection criteria of >24 individuals on a single sampling night: a) *Chorythoichthys* sp.1

257 (Family: Sygnathidae); b) Holocentridae; and c) Synodontidae. Explanation of the symbols is given in

258 Fig. 2

259

260



261

262 Figure 5. Arrival numbers on six different nights of Gobiidae at: a) Buoy 1; and b) Buoy 5.

263 Explanation of the symbols is given in Fig. 2. Where >20 individuals were caught at a single sample
 264 point, the number of fish caught is indicated above the bar.

265 *Associations*

266 There were significant associations in the arrival numbers among taxa of the same family (e.g.
 267 Pomacentridae: *Chromis sp.* associated with *Abudefduf sp.1* and *Pomacentrus sp.1*, and Apogonidae:
 268 *Apogon sp.1* associated with *Apogon sp.3*), but also between taxa from different families (e.g.
 269 *Chromis sp.* associated with *Apogon sp.1*, and *Chromis sp.* associated with Gobiidae; Table 2). Most
 270 association analyses between taxa only met the inclusion criteria for one of the sampling days (both
 271 taxa with >24 individuals caught on the day). Exceptions to this were comparisons between *Chromis*
 272 *sp.* and *Abudefduf sp.1* (significantly associated on both days; $X = 0.45$, $p = 0.02$, and $X = 0.68$, $p <$
 273 0.001 on 24 July 2011 and 1 August 2011 respectively), and *Chromis sp.* and Gobiidae, which were
 274 significantly associated on 3 August 2011 ($X = 0.44$, $p = 0.02$) but not on 1 August 2011, when the
 275 Gobiidae arrived in more than one cluster (Fig. 6).

276 Table 2. Association indices between temporal arrival numbers of different fish taxa. The
 277 comparisons are made only between taxa on days for which both had a total catch of >24 individuals
 278 (i.e. average of >1 individual per sampling period). The symbol N/A denotes where no comparisons
 279 were possible because one species in each pair had fewer than 24 individuals. The date is indicated in

280 the top line of the box, followed by the association index below with its significance level and
281 Dutilleul adjusted sample size in brackets. Significant associations are highlighted in bold.

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	<i>Chromis</i> sp.	<i>Apogon</i> sp.1	<i>Apogon</i> sp.2	<i>Apogon</i> sp.3	<i>Abudefduf</i> sp.1	<i>Pomacentrus</i> sp.1	<i>Corythoichthys</i> sp.1	<i>Synodontidae</i>	<i>Holocentridae</i>	Significant associations per testable pairs
<i>Chromis</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4 / 9
<i>Apogon</i> sp. 1	2011-08-03 0.37 (0.092; 24)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 / 4
<i>Apogon</i> sp.2	2011-08-03 0.13 (0.56; 21.7)	2011-08-03 0.35 (0.14, 22.9)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0 / 4
<i>Apogon</i> sp.3	2011-08-01 0.71 (<0.001, 24)	2011-08-03 0.69 (0.004, 19.8)	2011-08-03 0.36 (0.16, 19.8)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 / 4
<i>Abudefduf</i> sp.1	2011-07-24 0.45 (0.04, 22.8)	N/A	N/A	N/A	-	-	-	-	-	1 / 6
	2011-08-01 0.68 (<0.001, 22.9)									
<i>Pomacentrus</i> sp.1	2011-07-24 0.45 (0.04, 22.4)	N/A	N/A	N/A	2011-07-24 -0.12 (0.60, 23.7)	-	-	-	-	1 / 5
<i>Corythoichthys</i> sp.1	2011-07-24 0.26 (0.32, 24)	N/A	N/A	N/A	2011-07-24 0.54 (0.14, 11.1)	2011-07-24 0.01 (0.8, 21.7)	-	-	-	0 / 5
<i>Synodontidae</i>	2011-07-24 0.33 (0.24, 21.2)	N/A	N/A	N/A	2011-07-24 0.10 (0.64, 21.6)	2011-07-24 -0.29 (0.08, 20.9)	2011-07-24 -0.18 (0.20, 21.7)	-	-	0 / 5
<i>Holocentridae</i>	2011-07-24 0.33 (0.16, 23.8)	N/A	N/A	N/A	2011-07-24 0.58 (0.06, 13)	2011-07-24 0.04 (0.82, 23.3)	2011-07-24 0.45 (0.12, 18.5)	2011-07-24 -0.21 (0.14, 23.1)	-	0 / 5
<i>Gobiidae</i>	2011-08-01 -0.01 (0.98, 19.8)	2011-08-03 0.35 (0.14, 22.9)	2011-08-03 -0.14 (0.62, 20.3)	2011-08-01 0.002 (0.90, 24)	2011-07-26 -0.16 (0.72, 20.2)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1 / 5
	2011-08-03 0.44 (0.04, 23.9)			2011-08-03 0.15 (0.52, 18.6)	2011-08-01 0.001 (0.90, 19.3)					

283 **Discussion**

284 To our knowledge, this is the first study to present high temporal resolution arrival numbers of
285 settlement stage fish. In this study clear temporal clustering was widespread among the ten most
286 abundant taxa over single night sampling periods, usually involving a single cluster for taxa identified
287 to genus level. Importantly, the arrival pattern in the light traps across the night often differed among
288 taxa, which suggests that different mechanisms could underlie their settlement timing. For the taxa
289 identified Pomacentridae taxa, 82-90% were caught between 19:00 and 22:00 on all sampling days at
290 Buoy 1, while the three taxa from the next most abundant family, Apogonidae, arrived later in the
291 evening, with 80-85% caught between 21:00 and 23:00 on 3 August but earlier for *Apogonidae* sp.3
292 on 1 August (19:00 – 22:00).

293 The fact that the Gobiidae were present in higher numbers at the site with lower flow could be a
294 strategy to increase their chances of settlement. Indeed, their smaller size compared to other taxa
295 collected is likely to result in slower swimming speeds (reviewed in Leis 2010). This would make
296 active swimming more energetically demanding due to the higher viscosity environment faced by
297 smaller fish (Bellwood and Fisher 2001) and the higher water flow, hence diminishing their settlement
298 success. Although larvae from the Gobiidae family did not appear to arrive at the traps in clusters, this
299 could be a result of the low taxonomic identification level. In fact, an outlier in Fig. 5b where 45
300 individuals (39% of the total Gobiidae caught on that sampling night) were caught in a single 15 min
301 sampling period, hints at possible high levels of clustering in a narrow time frame. A possible
302 explanation for this high catch could be that the Gobiidae were shoaling, as observed in laboratory
303 and field studies for larvae in this family (Breitburg 1989; Breitburg 1991). This may also be true for
304 the arrival of Synodontidae, which displayed no significant pattern of settlement but did recruit in
305 high numbers on a single sampling period on 24 July (Fig. 4c). However, these conclusions remain
306 speculative.

307 Comparisons among species forms an important part of this study. Setting aside taxa identified only to
308 family level, where lack of associations might be due to multiple species composition of the catches,
309 the arrival patterns of *Apogon* sp.2 and *Chorythoichthys* sp.1 were not similar to any of the other taxa.

310 There was also a lack of association between arrival patterns of two Pomacentrid species, *Abudefduf*
311 sp.1 and *Pomacentrus* sp.1.

312 Settlement stage larvae of *Chromis* sp. have been observed to settle in small groups during the
313 daytime (Nolan 1975). *Chromis atripectorialis* improve orientation consistency, are able to more
314 accurately maintain a bearing, and swim faster when they school compared to movement as
315 individuals (Irisson *et al.* 2015). This could provide an important survival advantage to larvae that
316 school as this behaviour would enable them to reach a settlement site faster, therefore reducing the
317 time spent in the pelagic environment where they incur high mortality rates (Houde and Zastroe
318 1993). Persistent aggregations have been found to occur in the splitnose rockfish, *Sebastes diploproa*,
319 where 11.6% of settlement stage larvae were siblings (Ottmann *et al.* 2016). Interactions among group
320 members may play a role in maintaining these aggregations from spawning to settlement and could
321 provide the basis for clustering patterns observed in this study. It is important to note, however, that
322 there are a number of other mechanisms which could drive the observed clustering patterns, including
323 concentration of larvae in particular locations due to mesoscale eddies (Shulzitski *et al.* 2016). It is
324 also unclear how larvae would be able to maintain a school at night without being able to use vision to
325 see other group members, although other senses such as lateral line sensing (Faucher *et al.* 2010) or
326 vocal communication (Staaterman *et al.* 2014) may play a role.

327 There are insufficient sampling days in this study to determine whether different arrival patterns
328 observed among taxa are explained by random arrival of patches of larvae or driven by behaviours
329 aimed at improving settlement for a particular species. Why different taxa have different patterns of
330 arrival could, for example, be due to a trade-off between finding limited suitable settlement habitat
331 and avoiding predators. For *Corythoichthys* sp.1, that is widespread around the island and settle in
332 seagrass habitat between the reef crest and the shore (pers. obs.), avoidance of predators may be a
333 more important factor than limited habitat availability compared to species that recruit to specific
334 coral types like many pomacentrids. If this were the case, it might explain why they recruit only later
335 in the night when no light is available to predators (Johannes 1978; Dytham and Simpson 2007), and
336 the narrower time frame over which the recruitment occurred in this study (Fig.4a). The latter could

337 increase their chances of passing through the “wall of mouths” (Hamner et al. 1988) awaiting them at
338 the reef by achieving safety in numbers according to group theory (Bertram 1978).

339 This study furthers our understanding of the manner in which settlement stage fish recruit to the reef
340 in this critical transition phase, but cannot explain why different species display clustering patterns,
341 whether group behaviour mediates the temporal clustering or how and when the clustering is initiated.
342 Aggregations of larvae prior to settlement have been documented (Patterson *et al.* 2005), however,
343 whether this is due to environmental processes (e.g. eddies) that concentrate larvae in particular
344 locations or whether behaviour mediates the observed clustering patterns, will require further studies
345 that directly observe larvae during this critical life period..

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351

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