

1 **Biological Sciences, Ecology**

2

3 **Title:** Climate drives the geography of marine consumption by changing predator communities

4

5 **Authors:** Matthew A. Whalen,^{1,2,3*} Ross D.B. Whippo,^{3,4} John J. Stachowicz,⁵ Paul H. York,⁶
6 Erin Aiello,⁷ Teresa Alcoverro,^{8,9} Camilla Bertolini,¹⁰ Lisandro Benedetti-Cecchi,¹¹ Midoli
7 Bresch,¹ Fabio Bulleri,¹¹ Paul E. Carnell,¹² Stéphanie Cimon,¹³ Rod M. Connolly,¹⁴ Mathieu
8 Cusson,¹³ Meredith S. Diskin,¹⁵ Erika D'Souza,⁹ Augusto A.V. Flores,¹⁶ F. Joel Fodrie,¹⁷ Aaron
9 W.E. Galloway,⁴ Leo C. Gaskins,¹⁸ Olivia J. Graham,¹⁹ Torrance C. Hanley,²⁰ Christopher J.
10 Henderson,²¹ Clara M. Hereu,²² Margot Hessing-Lewis,^{1,23} Kevin A. Hovel,²⁴ Brent B. Hughes,²⁵
11 A. Randall Hughes,²⁰ Kristin M. Hultgren,²⁶ Holger Jänes,^{12,27} Dean S. Janiak,²⁸ Lane N.
12 Johnston,²⁹ Pablo Jorgensen,³⁰ Brendan P. Kelaher,³¹ Claudia Kruschel,³² Brendan S. Lanham,³³
13 Kun-Seop Lee,³⁴ Jonathan S. Lefcheck,³ Enrique Lozano-Álvarez,³⁵ Peter I. Macreadie,¹²
14 Zachary L. Monteith,¹ Nessa E. O'Connor,¹⁰ Andrew D. Olds,²¹ Jennifer K. O'Leary,^{7,36}
15 Christopher J. Patrick,³⁷ Oscar Pino,³⁸ Alistair G.B. Poore,³⁹ Michael A. Rasheed,⁶ Wendel W.
16 Raymond,⁴⁰ Katrin Reiss,⁴¹ O. Kennedy Rhoades,^{5,28} Max T. Robinson,⁴² Paige G. Ross,⁴³
17 Francesca Rossi,⁴⁴ Thomas A Schlacher,²¹ Janina Seemann,⁴⁵ Brian R. Silliman,¹⁸ Delbert L.
18 Smee,¹⁵ Martin Thiel,^{38,46,47} Richard K.F. Unsworth,⁴² Brigitta I. van Tussenbroek,³⁵ Adriana
19 Vergés,³⁹ Mallarie E. Yeager,²⁵ Bree K. Yednock,⁴⁸ Shelby L. Ziegler,¹⁷ J. Emmett Duffy³

20

21 **Affiliations:** ¹Hakai Institute, PO Box 309, Heriot Bay, BC V0P 1H0, Canada. ²Biodiversity Research
22 Centre, University of British Columbia, 2212 Main Mall Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z4, Canada.
23 ³Tennenbaum Marine Observatories Network, Smithsonian Institution, Edgewater, Maryland 21037 USA.
24 ⁴University of Oregon, Oregon Institute of Marine Biology, 63466 Boat Basin Rd., Charleston, OR
25 97420, USA. ⁵Bodega Marine Laboratory, University of California, Davis, 2099 Westside Road, Bodega
26 Bay, CA 94923, USA. ⁶James Cook University, Centre for Tropical Water and Aquatic Ecosystem
27 Research, PO Box 6811, Cairns, Qld, Australia. ⁷Biology Department, California Polytechnic State
28 University, 1 Grand Avenue, San Luis Obispo, CA 93422 USA. ⁸Centre d'Estudis Avançats de Blanes
29 (Spanish National Research Council), Blanes, Girona, Spain. ⁹Nature Conservation Foundation, 1311,
30 "Amritha", 12th Main, Opp Kodava Samaj, Vijayanagar 1st Stage, Mysore 570 017, India. ¹⁰Trinity
31 College Dublin, The University of Dublin, College Green, Dublin 2, Ireland. ¹¹Department of Biology and
32 CoNISMa, Via Derna 1 I-56126, University of Pisa, Pisa, Italy. ¹²School of Life and Environmental
33 Sciences, Centre for Integrative Ecology, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria 3220, Australia.
34 ¹³Département des sciences fondamentales & Québec-Océan, Université du Québec à Chicoutimi, 555,
35 Boulevard de l'Université, Chicoutimi, QC G7H 2B1, Canada. ¹⁴Griffith University, Australian Rivers
36 Institute - Coast & Estuaries, School of Environment and Science. Gold Coast, Queensland 4222,
37 Australia. ¹⁵Dauphin Island Sea Lab, 101 Bienville Blvd., Dauphin Island, AL 36528, USA. ¹⁶Centre for
38 Marine Biology, University of São Paulo, ¹⁷Institute of Marine Sciences, University of North Carolina at
39 Chapel Hill, 3431 Arendell St., Morehead City, NC 28557 USA. ¹⁸Nicholas School for the Environment,
40 Duke University Marine Lab, 135 Duke Marine Lab Road, Beaufort, NC 28516, USA. ¹⁹Cornell
41 University, Dept. of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, 215 Tower Rd, Ithaca, NY 14853. ²⁰Northeastern
42 University, Marine Science Center, 430 Nahant Road, Nahant, MA 01907, USA. ²¹School of Science and

43 Engineering, University of the Sunshine Coast, Maroochydore QLD 4558, Australia. ²²Universidad
44 Autónoma de Baja California, Carretera Ensenada, Tijuana 3917, C.P. 22860 Ensenada, Baja California,
45 Mexico, ²³Institute of the Oceans & Fisheries, 2202 Main Mall, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z4, Canada.
46 ²⁴Department of Biology, San Diego State University, 5500 Campanile Drive, San Diego, CA 92182,
47 USA. ²⁵Department of Biology, Sonoma State University, 1801 E. Cotati Ave, Rohnert Park, CA 94954,
48 USA. ²⁶Department of Biology, Seattle University, 901 12th Ave., Seattle, WA 98122, USA. ²⁷Estonian
49 Marine Institute, University of Tartu, Mäealuse 14, 12618 Tallinn, Estonia, ²⁸Smithsonian Marine Station,
50 701 Seaway Dr, Fort Pierce, FL 34949, USA. ²⁹School of Marine Sciences and Policy, University of
51 Delaware, 700 Pilottown Rd., Lewes DE 19958, USA. ³⁰Geomare, A. C., Paseo del Pedregal 82, C.P.
52 22860 Ensenada, Baja California, Mexico. ³¹National Marine Science Centre, Southern Cross University,
53 2 Bay Drive, Coffs Harbour, NSW 2450, Australia. ³²Department of Ecology, University of Zadar,
54 Agronomy and Aquaculture M. Pavlinovica 1, 23000 Zadar, Croatia. ³³School of Biological, Earth and
55 Environmental Sciences, University of New South Wales, Sydney, NSW 2052, Australia. ³⁴Department of
56 Biological Sciences, Pusan National University, Busan 46241, Korea. ³⁵Instituto de Ciencias del Mar y
57 Limnología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Prolongación Niños Heroes S/N, Puerto
58 Morelos, Quintana Roo 77580, Mexico. ³⁶California Sea Grant, 9500 Gilman Dr., La Jolla, CA 92093-
59 0232, USA ³⁷Texas A&M University Corpus Christi, HRI 121 Unit 5892, 6300 Ocean Drive, Corpus
60 Christi TX 78412, USA. ³⁸Facultad Ciencias del Mar, Universidad Católica del Norte, Coquimbo, Chile.
61 ³⁹School of Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of New South Wales, Sydney,
62 NSW 2052, Australia. ⁴⁰University of Alaska Fairbanks Fisheries Division, 17101 Point Lena Loop Rd.,
63 Juneau 99801, USA. ⁴¹Faculty for Biosciences and Aquaculture, Nord University, 8049 Bodø, Norway.
64 ⁴²Seagrass Ecosystem Research Group, College of Science, Swansea University, Wallace Building,
65 Swansea SA2 8PP, UK. ⁴³Virginia Institute of Marine Science, PO Box 350, Wachapreague, VA 23480,
66 USA. ⁴⁴CNRS, National Centre for Scientific Research, Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, FRE 3729
67 ECOMERS, Nice 6100, France. ⁴⁵Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Apartado 0843-03092,
68 Balboa, Ancon, Republic of Panama. ⁴⁶Millenium Nucleus Ecology and Sustainable Management of
69 Oceanic Islands ESMOI, Coquimbo, Chile. ⁴⁷Center for Advanced Studies in Arid Systems, CEAZA,
70 Coquimbo, Chile. ⁴⁸South Slough National Estuarine Research Reserve, P.O. Box 5417, Charleston, OR
71 97420, USA.

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75 **Corresponding Author:**

76 Matthew Adam Whalen

77 Postdoctoral Scholar in Marine Biodiversity

78 Hakai Institute, Smithsonian MarineGEO, University of British Columbia

79 Department of Botany

80 3200-6270 University Blvd.

81 Vancouver, BC, V6T 1Z4, CANADA

82 1-703-909-5732

83 mawhal@gmail.com

84 **Abstract:** The global distribution of primary production and consumption by humans (fisheries)
85 are well-documented, but we have no map linking the central ecological process of consumption
86 within food webs to temperature and other ecological drivers. Using standardized assays that
87 span 105 degrees of latitude on 4 continents, we show that rates of bait consumption by
88 generalist predators in shallow marine ecosystems are tightly linked to both temperature and the
89 composition of consumer assemblages. Unexpectedly, rates of consumption peaked at mid-
90 latitudes (25-35°) in both northern and southern hemispheres across both seagrass and
91 unvegetated sediment habitats. This pattern contrasts with terrestrial systems, where biotic
92 interactions reportedly weaken away from the equator, but it parallels an emerging pattern of a
93 subtropical peak in marine biodiversity. The higher consumption at mid-latitudes was closely
94 related to the type of consumers present, which explained rates of consumption better than
95 consumer density, biomass, species diversity, or habitat. Indeed, the apparent effect of
96 temperature on consumption was mostly driven by temperature-associated turnover in consumer
97 community composition. Our findings reinforce the key influence of climate warming on altered
98 species composition and highlight its implications for the functioning of Earth's ecosystems.

99

100 **Keywords:** latitudinal diversity gradient, macroecology, biogeography, trophic processes,
101 climate, seagrass

102

103 **Significance Statement (max 120 words):**

104 Consumption transfers energy and materials through food chains and fundamentally influences
105 ecosystem productivity. Therefore, mapping the distribution of consumer feeding intensity is key
106 to understanding how environmental changes influences biodiversity, with consequent effects on
107 trophic transfer and top-down impacts through food webs. Our global comparison of
108 standardized bait consumption in shallow coastal habitats finds a previously unrecognized peak
109 in feeding intensity away from the equator that is better explained by the presence of particular
110 consumer families than by latitude or temperature. This study complements recent
111 demonstrations that changes in biodiversity can have similar or larger impacts on ecological
112 processes than those of climate.

113

114 **Text**

115 Latitudinal diversity gradients have stimulated decades of research, much of it invoking a decline
116 from tropics to poles in rates of key biological processes and species interactions (1–3). General
117 explanations for ecological patterns across latitude, however, remain elusive in part because so
118 many environmental and biological variables change in parallel with latitude. As a result, the
119 connections between ecological patterns and processes at global scales remain controversial (4–
120 6). Our uncertainty has recently been amplified by demonstrations that diversity of many modern
121 and ancient lineages peaks at mid-latitudes rather than at the equator, particularly in the ocean (7,
122 8).

123

124 Temperature is among the environmental factors that vary most consistently with latitude, and is
125 a fundamental driver of biological processes. Metabolic theory mechanistically links
126 environmental temperatures to a suite of biological processes, including metabolism and trophic
127 transfer (9–12). For example, metabolic theory predicts that per capita consumption rates of
128 ectothermic consumers should follow increased metabolic needs and activity, and increase with
129 rising temperature (13). But the traits of consumers, their abundance, and the resources available
130 to them also change with temperature (14, 15), so total consumption rates may be poorly
131 predicted by temperature alone. Separating these effects requires data on geographic variation in
132 consumption.

133

134 Our understanding of global variation in top-down processes in marine systems is largely
135 indirect, based on inferences from distributions of organismal traits such as body size (e.g., (2,
136 16) and on comparisons of primary production, prey abundance, and predator abundance (e.g.,
137 (17, 18). The distribution and abundance of species respond to productivity, reproductive rate,
138 migration, mortality, and evolutionary history, all of which are modified by temperature (e.g.,
139 (19, 20). But while the spatial distribution of primary production and human predation (fishing)
140 are well-documented (21, 22), we have only sparse empirical measurements of geographic
141 variation in consumption by natural predators, which is needed to predict trophic transfer and
142 prey abundance. Thus, we lack a global map linking the central ecological process of
143 consumption to temperature and other drivers.

144

145 We approached this problem by measuring feeding intensity of generalist marine consumers
146 across 42 sites around the globe representing two widespread coastal habitats: seagrass and
147 unvegetated sediments. These critical habitats provide shelter and fuel primary and secondary
148 production (23–25), and seagrass persistence is in turn linked to trophic processes, as mid-level
149 carnivores consume herbivores that can facilitate or damage seagrass (26–30). Therefore,
150 understanding consumption by mid-level predators is key to seagrass conservation and
151 restoration efforts (30).

152

153 To compare consumption rigorously around the world's coasts, we used a simple, standardized
154 feeding assay, offering small (~1 cm) discs of dried squid mantle as bait. Squid is attractive to
155 many generalist marine predators, including mid-sized fishes and crustaceans, which we
156 surveyed in both seagrass and unvegetated habitats. Importantly, standardizing bait allowed us to
157 estimate consumption rates on a comparable basis while avoiding confounding influences of
158 geographic variation in prey type, prey behavior, and prey defenses. Previous studies (e.g., (31,
159 32) have shown changes in feeding on standardized prey across latitude, but ours covers nearly
160 the entire latitudinal range of seagrasses on five continents, and multiple ocean basins in both
161 northern and southern hemispheres (our study, 38°S-67°N; seagrass, 45°S-70°N). This allowed
162 us to test the consistency of latitudinal gradients in consumption in two widespread ecosystems,
163 and to begin disentangling the role of correlated drivers. Based on previous studies documenting
164 broad-scale patterns in biodiversity (3, 33, 34), prey defense (2), trophic interactions (5, 35, 36),
165 and metabolism (12), we hypothesized that rates of bait consumption would increase toward the
166 equator.

167

168 **Results and Discussion**

169 Contrary to our expectations, bait consumption peaked away from the equator in both
170 hemispheres (25-35° North and South), and was consistent between seagrass and sediment
171 habitats (Fig. 1A), despite slightly higher density, richness, and biomass of consumers in
172 seagrass (SI Appendix, Fig. S1). This mid-latitude peak was supported by a hump-shaped
173 relationship between absolute latitude and consumption (comparison of models with and without
174 second-order polynomial; Akaike weight $w_{2vsI} = 0.86$). In contrast, satellite-derived mean annual
175 sea surface temperature decreased monotonically with latitude (SST; Fig. 1C), and the hump-
176 shaped relation of SST to consumption was much stronger than that for latitude ($w_{2vsI} > 0.99$).
177 This nonlinear relationship between SST and consumption was also supported in two
178 independent, well-sampled transects along the Northwest Atlantic ($w_{2vsI} = 0.97$) and Southwest
179 Pacific ($w_{2vsI} = 0.99$; SI Appendix, Fig. S2), strengthening the inference that the equatorial dip in
180 consumption reflects a response to temperature, rather than some other correlate of latitude.

181

182 Fishes and crabs were the main consumers of bait at all sites, and their taxonomic composition
183 varied greatly across sites and with temperature (Fig. 2). Because species and genera of coastal
184 animals differ markedly across ocean basins and hemispheres, we analyzed consumer
185 composition at the level of taxonomic families, which allowed us to describe global consumer
186 biogeography using metrics of dissimilarity. We used presence vs. absence rather than
187 abundance data because we wanted to explore the effects of composition and abundance
188 separately. Mean annual sea surface temperature alone explained 16% of the dissimilarity in fish
189 and crustacean assemblages across sites (canonical analysis coefficient = 0.13, $P = 0.001$). In
190 contrast, a single index of compositional dissimilarity (Principal Components Axis 1 in Fig. 2A)
191 explained 19.5% of the total variation in consumer composition, and separated cool-water
192 assemblages from warm assemblages (37). Indeed, this index of consumer composition was a

193 stronger predictor of bait consumption than water temperature (either measured during the assays
194 or using mean annual sea surface temperatures; SI Appendix, Fig. S3), latitude, consumer
195 density and biomass, or estimates of ocean productivity, fishing pressure, or human population
196 density (Table 1). Consumer density and biomass only became important predictors of
197 consumption once we reduced the dataset to include only those consumer families whose
198 presence was positively associated with increased consumption rates (see Methods, SI Appendix,
199 Table S1). When viewed as a simple network of causal relationships, the effect of thermal
200 environment on consumption rates was largely indirect, being mediated by altered consumer
201 community composition, and this remained true even when allowing for a nonlinear relationship
202 between consumption rate and mean annual sea surface temperature (Fig. 3). Roughly three-
203 quarters of the total effect of thermal environment on bait consumption flowed indirectly from
204 differences in consumer taxa in different climates.

205

206 Locations with high consumption rates had consumer assemblages composed largely of
207 invertivores and omnivores that actively forage on or just above the seafloor (SI Appendix, Fig.
208 S3-4). Actively swimming foragers should consume bait faster due to increased encounter rates,
209 all else being equal, and arguably consumption by these foragers might rise more rapidly with
210 temperature than for more sedentary taxa. Video evidence confirmed the association of key
211 families with high consumption. Porgies (family Sparidae), for example, removed bait at every
212 site where they were observed in video footage (SI Appendix, Table S2) and the presence of this
213 family showed the strongest association with consumption rate in our analysis of community
214 composition (Fig. 2B, SI Appendix, Table S1). Many of the actively foraging taxa associated
215 with high consumption rates, including porgies, half-beaks (Hemiramphidae), and grunts
216 (Haemulidae), were rare or absent at the sites closest to the equator (SI Appendix, Fig. S5). The
217 reasons for these differences in consumer composition at low latitudes, and concomitant changes
218 in consumption pressure, may relate to thermal tolerance (38) and remain an open area for future
219 research.

220

221 Our finding that feeding intensity peaked at mid-latitudes differs strongly from most previous
222 studies on latitudinal gradients in species interactions (5, 12, 31, 36). Non-linear ecological
223 transitions between warm-temperate and subtropical locations might help explain this result.
224 These regions feature rapid transition between thermal guilds of consumers with cool- vs. warm-
225 water affinities (37) and these biogeographic transitions are correlated with shifts in the relative
226 strength of bottom-up vs. top-down processes that are directly and indirectly related to
227 temperature (17). We find it interesting that all three studies show transitions in similar regions
228 associated with climate: transitions in consumption in this study (~19-22°C SST), transitions of
229 thermal guilds (~21-25°C SST (37)), and transitions in top-down vs. bottom-up control (~17-
230 20°C temperature 0-200m (17)). These comparisons suggest that zones of biogeographic and
231 trophic transitions associated with climate are also areas of transition for consumptive pressure
232 by small mesopredators.

233
234 Although our sampling near the equator was sparse, the decline in measured bait consumption at
235 the lowest latitudes was robust in two independent regions. The equatorial decline appears to be
236 related to consumer community composition, as many of the taxa we identified as influential
237 consumers were absent at the lowest and highest latitudes (SI Appendix, Fig. S5). Several
238 possible mechanisms may explain how thermally-driven community shifts could drive the
239 decline in consumption near the equator. First, small mesopredators may be more restricted near
240 the equator in their time or place of foraging if larger enemies are more active there.
241 Alternatively, reduced productivity and increased metabolic demand may disfavor active
242 consumers in the warm oligotrophic waters near the equator. In any case, our results suggest that
243 the thermal environment influences trophic processes by favoring particular consumer taxa (2) in
244 addition to direct physiological effects on individuals (Fig. 3).

245
246 The weak and inconsistent differences we found in consumption rates between seagrass vs.
247 unvegetated sediment habitats (SI Appendix, Fig. S6-7) was surprising given decades of research
248 showing that the structure provided by seagrasses and other foundation species can strongly
249 influence predator-prey relationships (39–42). While we found no overall difference in consumer
250 composition between seagrass and unvegetated habitats (permutation test, $P = 0.75$), consumer
251 densities were generally higher inside than outside of seagrass habitat (SI Appendix, Fig. S1).
252 Thus, any protection provided by seagrass structure may have been offset by consumer
253 aggregation in seagrass. Yet the consistency of latitudinal patterns in consumption between the
254 two habitats suggests that environment and consumer biogeography had stronger influences on
255 consumption than local differences in habitat structure at the broad scale of our study.

256
257 Our feeding assay used identical bait at all sites to isolate the effect of consumer activity from
258 the behavioral and morphological traits of prey, which vary widely across space. No single bait
259 will attract all predators equally; ours targeted the small to medium-sized generalists that
260 dominate many shallow marine habitats. Thus, the consumption rates that we describe are
261 relative measures of one-half of a predator-prey interaction (i.e., consumption in the absence of
262 prey behavior and other trait variation). Whereas this design cannot completely characterize
263 species interactions, standardization more rigorously estimates how potential consumption varies
264 across the globe. Our assays did not measure top-down control per se, but the kind of
265 information we gathered is critical to understanding trophic interactions, including cascading
266 effects in seagrass ecosystems (30, 43, 44), because it measures the willingness of consumers to
267 eat prey of a certain size. The consistency of our results across ocean basins and hemispheres,
268 along with similar recent findings for pelagic top predators (45), suggests that the mid-latitude
269 peak in marine consumption is indeed general. The importance of particular predator taxa and
270 traits in the geography of consumption we found parallels the outsized role of endothermy in the
271 effectiveness of marine predators (e.g., 54, 55), including in some seagrass meadows (43, 44).
272 We focused on the smaller ectothermic consumers that consume herbivorous invertebrates that

273 can be critical to seagrass persistence (32), but these are potential prey of larger endotherms like
274 fishing birds and small marine mammals, so endothermy might well influence the broader food
275 webs we studied. However, given that many endothermic predators are most abundant and
276 diverse in cooler regions of the world ocean (47), we would expect the distribution of their
277 collective feeding intensity to differ from the pattern we observed.

278
279 Changing climate, overfishing, and global species introductions are altering the biogeography of
280 marine life and the composition of communities (48, 49), with wide-ranging effects on
281 ecosystems (50), including in seagrass habitats (51). Shifting biogeography of consumers can
282 alter community and ecosystem structure and processes (52, 53) independent of temperature, as
283 we show here. Simultaneously, warming can directly influence physiology of ectothermic
284 consumers (e.g., metabolic demand, activity; 55). We show that variation in water temperature
285 influences marine trophic process mainly indirectly by changing consumer community
286 composition. The hump-shaped relationship between temperature and consumption we found
287 suggests that predation and trophic transfer may intensify at middle to high latitudes and decline
288 near the equator as the world ocean warms and species continue to shift their ranges. Such shifts
289 in species ranges and biomass distributions could lead to large changes in consumption, with
290 repercussions for community structure and trophic flows through marine food webs. It is already
291 clear that many ectotherms are expanding or contracting their ranges with climate change (55,
292 56). Our findings suggest that such distributional shifts may affect ecological processes as much
293 or more than those predicted based only on temperature effects on metabolism.

294

295 **Materials and Methods**

296 We assessed rates of consumption using a simple, standardized field assay (57). We tethered a 1-
297 1.3 cm diameter piece of dried squid mantle with monofilament to a fiberglass garden stake
298 (hereafter, ‘squidpop’), that we inseted into the sediment such that the bait dangled 20-30 cm
299 above the sediment surface in or just above the seagrass canopy. At most sites, we deployed 20-
300 30 squidpops within a seagrass meadow and 20-30 squidpops in nearby unvegetated sediments
301 (SI Appendix, Table S3). We checked the squidpops for presence (1) or absence (0) of bait after
302 one hour and again after 24 hours. Most sites repeated this assay for a total of three deployments
303 in each of the two habitat types, and measured water temperature during each deployment.

304

305 To characterize variation in environments across the range of the study, we drew upon several
306 publicly-available datasets with global-scale variables of interest. We accessed sea surface
307 temperature and chlorophyll records using Bio-ORACLE (58), which packages data collected by
308 the Aqua-MODIS satellite. We used mean annual sea surface temperature (SST) because it
309 showed stronger relationships with consumption rate than maximum or minimum annual SST
310 and it summarizes well the differences between thermal conditions across the globe (Fig. 1).
311 Most assays were conducted during the summer, but differences in timing of assays generated
312 variation in *in situ* temperature that altered the rank-order of our estimates of the thermal

313 environments compared to sea surface temperature, making nearby sites appear less similar
314 environmentally (Fig. 3). We used mean annual chlorophyll *a* as a proxy for surface ocean
315 primary productivity across sites. We also accessed data on human population densities from the
316 Gridded Population of the World (59), which we used as a proxy for local human disturbance.
317 Finally, we accessed fishing pressure data from the Sea Around Us project (60) using the R
318 package ‘searoundus’ (61).

319

320 At most sites (30 of 42 sites) we also conducted consumer surveys in the areas adjacent to
321 feeding assays. These surveys used hand-pulled seines in seagrass and unvegetated sediment
322 habitats to sample epibenthic consumers (mainly fishes, but also large crustaceans) adjacent to
323 feeding assays. All consumers were identified, counted, and released. The total lengths of the
324 first 25 individual fish of each species were also measured. We used these data to estimate
325 consumer density, size distribution, biomass, and diversity, as well as to generate a species list
326 for each site. Species lists from five additional sites were added using data from video footage
327 and diver transects (FL, India, Italy, Yuca1, Yuca2). Biomass estimates were calculated using
328 length-weight regressions available in Fishbase (62).

329

330 For each of the squidpop assays we independently fitted an exponential decay model and
331 estimated consumption rate (bait loss through time) using the slope parameter. We then used the
332 resulting rate estimates as data points in subsequent analysis.

333

334 We predicted individual consumption rates in linear mixed effects models using a variety of
335 potential abiotic and biotic drivers, and compared models using Akaike Information Criterion
336 corrected for small sample size calculated using the R package ‘bbmle’ (63). We also explored a
337 variety of polynomial terms and LOESS curves to investigate possibilities of non-linear
338 relationships between temperature and consumption, although for model comparison we only
339 included linear terms. We restricted the data used in model comparison to the 27 sites for which
340 we had the full complement of explanatory variables. For simplicity, and because our analysis
341 was largely exploratory using a large set of candidate explanatory variables, we compared
342 models with individual predictor variables only. All mixed models were fitted using maximum
343 likelihood in the package ‘lme4’ in R (64).

344

345 When estimating consumer species (alpha) diversity, we used both species richness and
346 Hurlbert’s probability of interspecific encounter as effective numbers of species (65). We also
347 wanted to investigate changes in consumer community composition across sites (beta diversity),
348 but given the scale of our analysis and the large biogeographic gradients we captured, comparing
349 composition in terms of species identity was not possible. Species level overlap was low among
350 sites, especially across ocean basins and hemispheres, so we chose to compare composition
351 (presence-absence) at the level of families across sites using Raup-Crick dissimilarities. While
352 this metric has been used to investigate small spatial scale differences in species composition

353 within regions (66), we use it here to investigate global among-site turnover of consumers at
354 higher taxonomic levels. In order to visualize and quantify major axes of community variation,
355 we used Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) to ordinate consumer communities based on
356 their dissimilarities, and then assess how these dissimilarities related to the thermal environment
357 and consumption rate. We used a combination of unconstrained (PCoA) and constrained
358 (Canonical Analysis of Principal Coordinates) techniques in this analysis. Unconstrained
359 ordination reduces dimensionality of the dataset by finding orthogonal axes of decreasing
360 variation in the dataset, while constrained ordination uses a regression-based approach to define
361 a set of axes of interest a priori based on explanatory variables (67). We used the resultant axes
362 from unconstrained ordination (PCoA) as explanatory variables in the models described above
363 because the unconstrained ordination does not require a priori assumptions about which factors
364 are important. We also assessed relationships between consumer community composition and
365 thermal environment by constraining the first ordination axis to SST or *in situ* temperature.
366 Multivariate analyses were performed using the R package ‘vegan’ (68).

367
368 In order to identify which consumer families were positively and negatively associated with
369 consumption intensity across sites, we constrained the first axis of the ordination to align with
370 our estimates of consumption rate. Then we selected families that mapped onto the positive side
371 of this axis as candidate taxa driving spatial variation in consumption rate, and calculated the
372 density and biomass of these consumers at sites with seining data (27 of 42 sites). Finally, we
373 compared the results from multivariate analysis to direct observations of squidpop attacks and
374 bait removal from video footage captured at 14 sites (SI Appendix Table S2).

375
376 To explore which predator traits might explain feeding intensity in our assays, we scored six
377 traits for each taxon in our dataset (416 morphospecies in 103 taxonomic families). Four traits
378 were derived from Fishbase (feeding habit, lateral body shape; (69) and Reef Life Survey
379 (trophic group, water column usage; (70). A fifth binomial trait scored whether each taxon is an
380 actively swimming forager or tends towards ambush or sit-and-wait behavior, either on the
381 benthos or in the water column. We applied the most common value of this trait to all taxa in
382 each family, but we acknowledge that variation in foraging activity can occur within families.
383 Traits missing in these databases were filled using expert opinion of co-authors and available
384 trait information from related taxa. A sixth continuous trait describing body size as the average
385 total length of each taxon (carapace width for crabs) was calculated from our seining data.
386 Whereas published total length estimates are available for many taxa, we opted to use length
387 estimates from our own dataset because many taxa only utilize seagrass and other nearshore
388 habitats for part of their development, when they may differ greatly from the species’ maximum
389 size. Using the R package ‘FD’ (71) we calculated community-level weighted means of trait
390 values to derive estimates of average conditions for each of the six individual traits in each site
391 and habitat combination in the dataset, and we calculated a variety of functional diversity metrics
392 (functional richness, functional dispersion, functional evenness, functional diversity, and Rao’s

393 Q) following published methods (71–73). For all consumer functional diversity metrics and all
394 community-level weighted means except body size we used presence-absence data instead of
395 weighting by relative abundance so that we could include sites with seining and video data. We
396 did weight mean consumer body size estimates by relative abundance because we only had size
397 estimates from seine sampling. Weighting by abundance did not qualitatively change the results.
398 We regressed each functional diversity metric and each community-level weighted mean trait
399 against consumption rate individually using the linear mixed effects models described above.

400

401 We tested whether consumer composition mediated the influence of mean annual SST on
402 consumption rates using the package ‘mediation’ in R (74). Because we found support for a
403 hump-shaped relationship between SST and consumption rate, we tested whether consumer
404 composition mediated the non-linear relationship between temperature and consumption rate
405 (using 33 of 42 sites with all three variables). We modeled the relationships using 1) smooth
406 terms for SST on consumption rate and a linear term for composition (PCoA1) on consumption
407 rate in a generalized additive model (GAM; logit link function; R package ‘mgcv’ (75)) and 2) a
408 general linear model for SST on composition. We report the standardized linear regression
409 coefficients, estimated degrees of freedom for smoothed GAM terms (and associated chi-square
410 statistic), estimates of the mediation effect and direct effect, and the proportion of the direct
411 effect of SST mediated by composition for the second mediation analysis, along with 95%
412 confidence intervals around estimates of the direct effect, mediation effect, and the proportion
413 mediated. All models in mediation analysis used data that were averaged at the level of habitats
414 within sites, which is the lowest level of pairwise comparisons we can make between squidpop
415 assays and consumer composition.

416

417 All analyses were performed in R version 3.5.2 (76). Data and analyses for this project are
418 available at https://github.com/mawhal/Bitemap_Whalen.

419

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583
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585

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591 investigations across sites, RDBW, PHY, and MAW curated the data, MAW performed the
592 formal analyses and visualization, MAW and JED wrote the original draft, MAW, JJS, and JED
593 wrote the final draft, all authors contributed to field investigations and to reviewing and editing
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596 **Figures**

597

598 Figure 1. Distributions of bait consumption by generalist marine predators and temperature
599 across the 42 sites in this study. A) Consumption rate of tethered dried squid bait peaks at mid-
600 latitudes in both hemispheres. Point color represents habitat, and lines show independent
601 quadratic GLMs fitted for each habitat type in each hemisphere. B) Map of study sites. C)
602 Latitudinal pattern of mean annual sea surface temperature (SST).

603

604 Figure 2. The composition of consumer assemblages reflects global gradients in environmental
605 temperatures and consumption rate. A) Principal coordinates analysis, where locations of
606 symbols reflect compositional differences among sites and habitats based on family-level
607 presence-absence data. Symbol color represents mean annual sea surface temperature (°C), and
608 symbol size corresponds to bait consumption rate. B) The same ordination showing scores for
609 consumer families driving differences in composition and consumption rate among sites. Symbol
610 color represents average in situ temperature at sites where the predator family was observed label
611 color represents positive (red), negative (purple), or non-significant (black) correlations with
612 consumption rate, and body length (width for crabs) is proportional to the magnitude of the
613 correlation. Asterisks denote families that were seen feeding on bait in video footage.

614

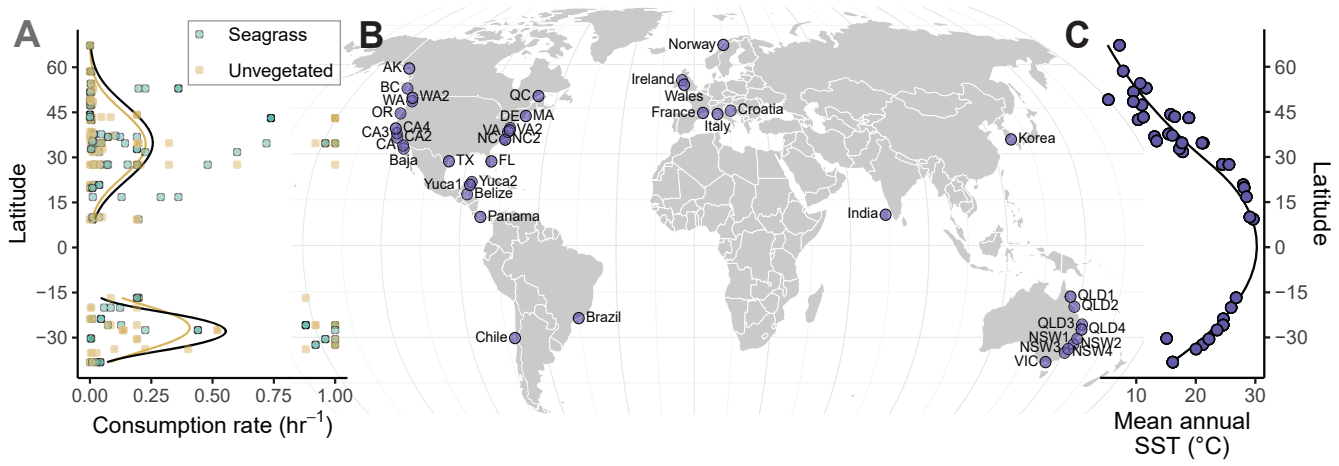
615 Figure 3. Predator composition mediates the effect of thermal environment on consumption rates.
616 (A-C) Bivariate relationships between consumer composition (PCoA1, Fig. 2A), thermal
617 environment (SST) and consumption rate. Lines show predictions from models used in
618 mediation analysis (A, linear regression; B, logistic regression; C, generalized additive
619 modeling). D) Paths represent causal hypotheses about relationships. Numbers next to paths
620 leading to and from consumer composition are standardized regression coefficients and standard
621 errors. Numbers above and below the path from thermal environment to consumption rate are
622 estimated degrees of freedom and chi-square values for the smooth term in the presence and
623 absence of mediation, respectively. Numbers above the path diagram are estimates of the direct
624 and indirect (mediation) effects with 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals.

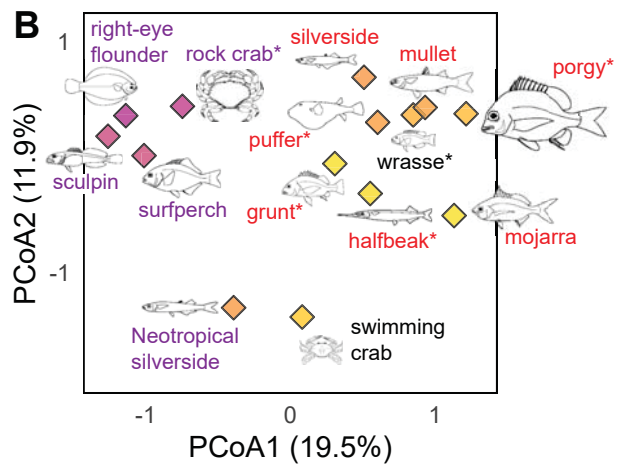
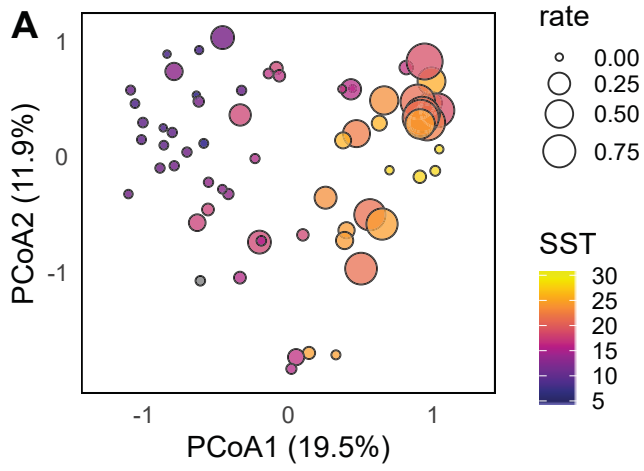
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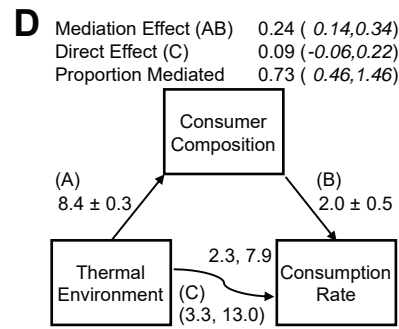
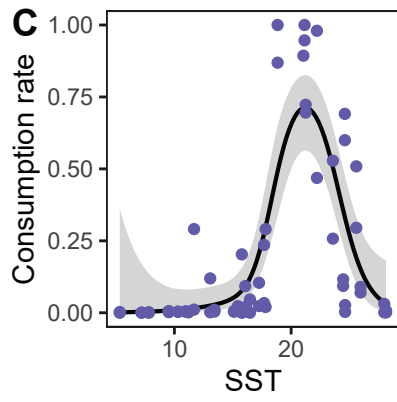
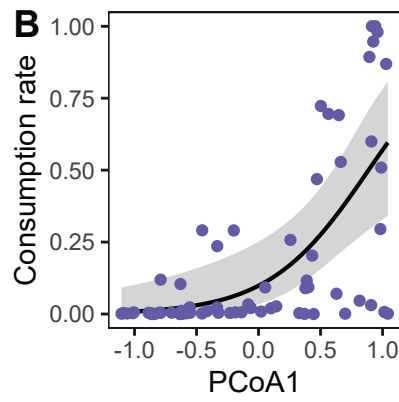
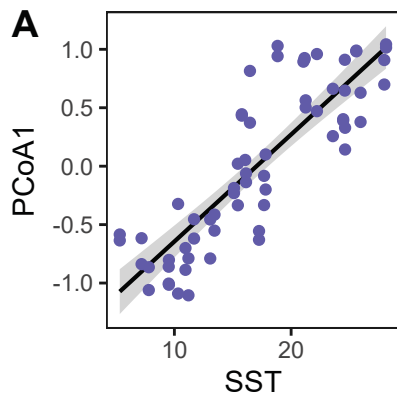
626 **Tables**

627

628 Table 1. Comparison of generalized linear mixed effects models predicting bait consumption by
629 generalist marine consumers in two shallow marine habitats worldwide. Model comparison used
630 Akaike Information Criterion corrected for small sample size. GLMs used logit link with random
631 intercepts for sites. Taxonomic Composition refers to the first axis from the PCoA of consumer
632 assemblages (Fig. 2). Selected Abundance and Biomass refer to density or biomass of fish and
633 decapod families selected with constrained ordination (Fig. 2B, SI Appendix, Table S1).
634 Productivity refers to remotely-sensed mean annual chlorophyll *a*. Habitat categorically relates
635 seagrass and unvegetated habitats within sites. Abundance, biomass, and human population
636 density were log₁₀-transformed. Body size, Trophic Group, Lateral Body Shape, and Water
637 Column Use are community-weighted mean trait values per site and habitat. We also provide
638 marginal pseudo-R² values for comparison of fixed effects. For this model comparison we only
639 included data from sites with the full complement of predictors (27 of 42 sites).







Predictor	AICc	dAICc	k	weight	pseudo-R²
Taxonomic Composition	70.3	0	3	0.932	0.51
Selected Abundance	77.0	6.7	3	0.033	0.39
(Sea Surface Temperature) ²	79.2	8.9	4	0.011	0.66
Selected Biomass	79.6	9.3	3	0.009	0.38
Functional Richness	79.9	9.5	3	0.008	0.26
Sea Surface Temperature	80.5	10.2	3	0.006	0.39
<i>in situ</i> Temperature	82.8	12.5	3	0.002	0.31
Productivity	90.5	20.2	3	<0.001	0.12
Proportion of Active Foragers	90.5	20.2	3	<0.001	0.10
Body size	90.6	20.3	3	<0.001	0.10
Consumer Species Richness	90.8	20.5	3	<0.001	0.05
Functional Evenness	91.4	21.1	3	<0.001	0.04
Intercept-Only	92.0	21.7	2	<0.001	0
Trophic Group	92.1	21.8	6	<0.001	0.27
Functional Group Richness	92.2	21.9	3	<0.001	0.04
Feeding Type	92.4	22.1	3	<0.001	0.15
Habitat	93.1	22.8	3	<0.001	0.01
Lateral Body Shape	93.1	22.8	6	<0.001	0.23
Total Biomass	93.2	22.9	3	<0.001	0.02
Effective Number of Species	93.2	22.9	3	<0.001	0.01
Total Abundance	93.3	23.0	3	<0.001	0.02
Fishing Pressure	93.6	23.3	3	<0.001	0.02
Water Column Use	93.7	23.4	6	<0.001	0.20
Human Population Density	94.0	23.7	3	<0.001	<0.01
Rao Q	94.0	23.7	3	<0.001	<0.01
Functional Dispersion	94.0	23.7	3	<0.001	<0.01