

Cool title here

Juan Carlos Villaseñor-Derbez^{1,*}, Eréndira Aceves-Bueno^{1,*}, Stuart Fulton²

¹ *Bren School of Environmental Science and Management, University of California, Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, CA, USA*

² *Comunidad y Biodiversidad A.C., Guaymas, Mexico*

Correspondence*:

Juan Carlos Villaseñor-Derbez, Bren Hall, University of California, Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, CA, 93106

jvillasenor@bren.ucsb.edu

2 ABSTRACT

3 Abstract here

4 **Keywords:** Marine Reserves, Marine Conservation, Small Scale Fisheries, Citizen Science, Mexico, Social-Ecological Systems

1 INTRODUCTION

5 Marine ecosystems around the world sustain significant impacts due to overfishing and unsustainable
6 fishing practices (Halpern et al., 2008; Worm et al., 2006; Pauly et al., 2005). A common approach to
7 manage the spatial distribution of fishing effort and recover stocks is through the implementation of marine
8 reserves (*i.e.* areas where all fishing activities are off-limits; MRs) (Afflerbach et al., 2014; Krueck et al.,
9 2017; Sala and Giakoumi, 2017).

10 Marine reserve science has largely focused on understanding the ecological effects of these areas, which
11 include increased biomass, richness, and densities of organisms within the protected regions (Lester
12 et al., 2009; Giakoumi et al., 2017; Sala and Giakoumi, 2017), climate change mitigation (Roberts et al.,
13 2017), and protection from environmental variability (Micheli et al., 2012). However, there is considerably
14 less literature focusing on the relationship between socioeconomic and governance structures and their
15 relationship to ecological effectiveness (Halpern et al., 2013; López-Angarita et al., 2014; Mascia et al.,
16 2017) or benefits to fisheries (Krueck et al., 2017); evaluations of marine reserves rarely provide a holistic
17 view of the social-ecological system (López-Angarita et al., 2014). Here, we combine causal inference
18 techniques (De Palma et al., 2018) and the social-ecological systems framework (Ostrom, 2009) to provide
19 a comprehensive ecological and socioeconomic evaluation of four community-based marine reserves in
20 three coastal communities in Mexico.

21 Marine Reserves in Mexico have been commonly implemented as “core zones” within Biosphere Reserves
22 (BRs) that are administered by the National Commission of Protected Areas (*Comisión Nacional de Áreas
23 Marinas Protegidas*, CONANP). While CONANP has made efforts to have a participatory process, the
24 implementation of these zones is still characterized by top-down approaches. This motivated Civil Society
25 Organizations (CSOs) to work with coastal communities to implement community-based marine reserves
26 (Uribe et al., 2010), which are usually established within a Territorial Use Rights for Fisheries (TURFs);
27 thus making them TURF-reserves (Afflerbach et al., 2014). This bottom-up approach allows fishers to
28 design their own reserves, which increases compliance and self-enforcement (Gelcich and Donlan, 2015;

29 Espinosa-Romero et al., 2014; Beger et al., 2004). However, these reserves still lack legal recognition,
30 making them vulnerable to poaching. In 2014, a new norm (NOM-049-SAG/PESC, 2014) allowed fishers
31 to request the legal recognition of a community-based reserve under the name of “Fishing Refugia” (*Zona*
32 *de Refugio Pesquero*, FR). This new norm thus combines bottom-up approaches to design marine reserves,
33 along with a legal recognition of the management intervention. Since then, 39 FR have been implemented
34 along the Pacific, Gulf of California, and Mexican Caribbean coastlines, but no formal evaluation of their
35 effectiveness has taken place.

36 While there are ecological factors defining the success of a MR (*i.e.* habitat representation, initial state of
37 protection, connectivity to other protected areas), their effectiveness also depends on the socioeconomic
38 and governance settings under which they are implemented. Literature shows that many non-ecological
39 characteristics can play an equally important role in the effectiveness of MRs. For example, age of a reserve
40 (*i.e.* time since its implementation), size, and habitat contained were key to the effectiveness of MRs in
41 Palau (Friedlander et al., 2017). In the Mediterranean, Di Franco et al. (2016) identify that surveillance and
42 enforcement, presence of a management plan, and involvement of fishers in management and decision-
43 making along with promotion of sustainable fishing practices were the key factors that increased stock
44 health and income to fishers. At a global level, Edgar et al. (2014) indicate that enforcement, age, size, and
45 isolation were important factors determining effectiveness of the reserves.

46 The objective of this work is twofold: i) Provide the first evaluation of community-based marine reserves
47 in Mexico, and ii) provide a comprehensive evaluation of the social-ecological system to identify how
48 socioeconomic and governance characteristics relate to ecological effectiveness. With the purpose of
49 providing a holistic evaluation, we combine ecological, socioeconomic, and governance indicators. We
50 use causal inference techniques to provide a measurement of the effect of the management intervention,
51 and combine it with the social-ecological systems framework (Ostrom, 2009).

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

52 2.1 Study area

53 We focus our evaluation in three coastal communities from the Pacific coast of Baja California ($n = 1$) and
54 the Mesoamerican Reef System ($n = 2$; Fig 1). Isla Natividad (IN) lies west of the Baja California Peninsula
55 (Fig 1B), where kelp forests (*Macrocystis pyrifera*) and rocky reefs are the predominant habitats. The
56 island is home to a fishing cooperative (*Sociedad Cooperativa de Producción Pesquera Buzos y Pescadores*
57 *de la Baja California SCL*), that holds a TURF for spiny lobster (*Panulirus interruptus*). However, other
58 resources like finfish (yellowtail jack, *Seriola lalandi*), sea cucumber (*Parastichopus parvimensis*), red sea
59 urchin (*Mesocentrotus franciscanus*), snail (*Megastrea turbanica* y *M. undosa*), and abalone (*Haliotis*
60 spp, until 2010) are also important sources of income. In 2006, the community decided to implement
61 two community-based marine reserves within their fishing grounds, seeking to recover depleted stocks
62 of invertebrate species (mainly lobster and abalone). Until today, these reserves are yet to be legally
63 recognized as Fishing Refugia.

64 The other two communities are Maria Elena (ME; Fig 1C) and Punta Herrero (PH; Fig 1D) in the Yucatan
65 Peninsula, where coral reefs and mangroves are the representative coastal ecosystems. ME is a fishing
66 camp –visited intermittently during the fishing season– belonging to the Cozumel fishing cooperative. PH is
67 home to the “José María Azcorra” fishing cooperative. The main source of income to both communities
68 is the caribbean spiny lobster fishery (*Panulirus argus*), which is carried out within their respective
69 TURFs. These communities also target finfish in the off season, mainly snappers (Lutjanidae) and groupers

70 (Serranidae). ME established eight marine reserves in 2012, and PH established four marine reserves in
 71 2013. All these reserves are legally recognized as Fishing Refugia.

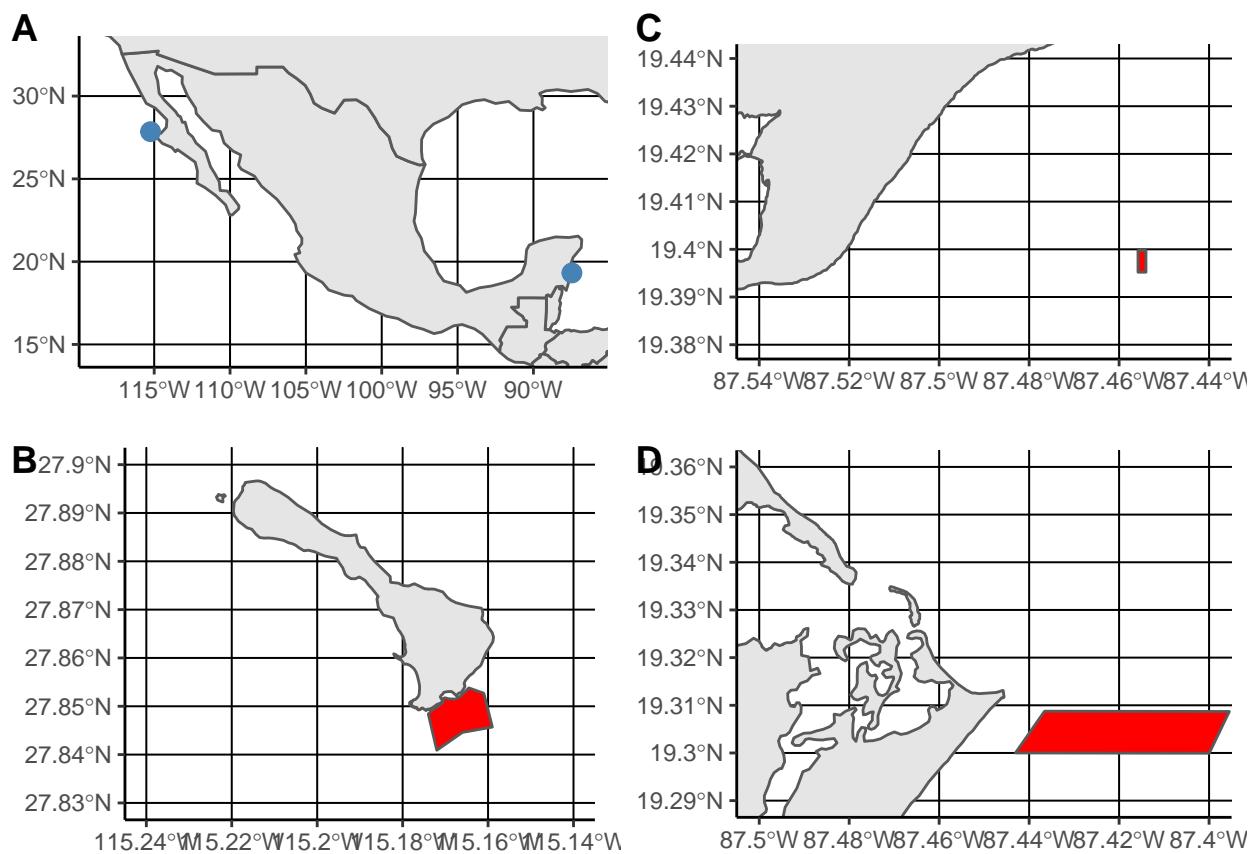


Figure 1. Location of the three coastal communities studied (A). Isla Natividad (B) is located off the Baja California Peninsula, Maria Elena (C) and Punta Herrero (D) are located in the yucatan Peninsula.

72 2.2 Data collection

73 To perform the evaluation of these reserves we use three sources of information. Ecological data come
 74 from the annual ecological monitorings of reserve and control areas, carried out by members from
 75 each community and personnel from the Mexican CSO “Comunidad y Biodiversidad” (COBI). These
 76 monitorings record richness and abundances of fish and invertebrate species in the reserves and control sites.
 77 For fish census, size structures are also collected to derive biomass. We define control sites as regions with
 78 habitat characteristics similar to the corresponding reserves, and that presumably had the same probability
 79 of being selected as reserves during the design phase. From all the reserves in these three communities, we
 80 use the ones that have data for reserve and control sites before and after the implementation of the reserve.
 81 This provides us with a Before–After–Control–Impact (*i.e.* BACI) design that allows us to capture and
 82 control for temporal and spatial dynamics (De Palma et al., 2018; Ferraro and Pattanayak, 2006). BACI
 83 designs and causal inference techniques have proven effective to evaluate marine reserves, as they allow us
 84 to causally attribute observed changes to the intervention (Moland et al., 2013; Villaseñor-Derbez et al.,
 85 2018). All reserves were surveyed annually from at least one year before implementation until 2016. Table
 86 1 shows a summary of the number of reserves, year of implementation, and number of transects for each
 87 reserve.

Table 1. Summary of community-based marine reserves by community. Imp = Year of implementation, Start = Year of first sampling, number of fish transects in control (Cf) and reserve (Rf) sites, and number of invertebrate transects in Control (Ci) and Reserve (Ri) sites.

Community	Reserve - Control	Imp	Start	Cf	Rf	Ci	Ri
Isla Natividad	La Plana / Las Cuevas - La Dulce / Babencho	2006	2006	405	242	415	245
Maria Elena	Cabezo - Cabezo (Control)	2012	2012	44	45	27	21
Punta Herrero	El Faro - El Faro (Control)	2013	2013	39	40	24	32
Punta Herrero	Manchon - Manchon (Control)	2013	2012	43	45	27	42

88 Socioeconomic data come from landing receipts reported to the National Commission for Aquaculture
 89 and Fisheries (*Comisión Nacional de Acuacultura y Pesca*; CONAPESCA). Data contain monthly lobster
 90 landings (Kg) and value (MXP) from 2000 to 2014. This information was aggregated by year, and economic
 91 values were adjusted by the Consumer Price Index (OECD, 2017) via Eq 1.

$$I_t = RI_t \times \frac{CPI_t}{CPI_T} \quad (1)$$

92 Where I_t represents the adjusted income for year t as the product between the reported income for that
 93 year and the ratio between the consumer price index in that year (CPI_t) to the most recent year's consumer
 94 price index (CPI_T).

95 **Governance data were collected at the community-level, using key informants to collect the
 96 necesary information on X, Y, and Z. Algo mas de Ere.**

97 2.3 Data analysis

98 Following a framework that relates reserve objectives to performance indicators (Villaseñor-Derbez et al.,
 99 2018), we use five biological, two socioeconomic, and five governance indicators to evaluate these marine
 100 reserves Table 2.

Table 2. List of indicators used to evaluate the effectiveness of marine reserves, grouped by category.

Category	Indicador
Biological	Abundance
	Richness
	Shannon's diversity index
	Biomass
	Abundance of target species (lobsters)
Socioeconomic	Income from target species
	Landings from target species
Governance	Type of access to the fishery
	Perceived degree of illegal fishing
	Reserve surveillance and enforcement
	Type of fishing organization
	Age of the reserve

101 Biological indicators are analyzed with a difference-in-differences analysis (Eq 2), which allows us to
 102 estimate the effect that the reserve has on the biological indicators by comparing trends across time and
 103 treatments (Moland et al., 2013; Villaseñor-Derbez et al., 2018). The analysis is performed with generalized
 104 linear models of the form:

$$I_i = \alpha_i + \gamma_{it}Year_t + \beta Zone_i + \lambda_{it}Year_t \times Zone_i + \sigma_j Spp_j + \epsilon \quad (2)$$

105 Where year-fixed effects are represented by $\gamma_{it}Year_t$, and $\beta Zone_i$ captures the difference between
 106 reserve ($Zone = 1$) and control ($Zone = 0$) sites. The interaction term $\lambda_{it}Year_t \times Zone_i$ represents
 107 represent the mean change in the indicator inside the reserve, for year t , with respect to the first year
 108 of evaluation in the control site (See Table 1). When evaluating biomass and abundances, we include
 109 species-fixed effects (σ_j). For abundances and richness (*i.e.* count data) the model is estimated with a
 110 quasipoisson error distribution.

111 Socioeconomic indicators are evaluated with a similar approach (Eq 3), where landings and income
 112 before and after the implementation of the reserve are compared:

$$I_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Post \quad (3)$$

113 This approach does not allow for a causal attribution of the observed changes to the reserve, but still
 114 allows us to draw important information that can inform our conclusions. For both approaches, model
 115 coefficients are estimated via ordinary least-squares and heteroskedastic-robust standard errors (Zeileis,
 116 2004).

117 2.3.1 Governance

118 Texto de ere y los SES

3 RESULTS

Our methodological approach with biological indicators allows us to make a causal link between the implementation of marine reserves and the observed trends by accounting for temporal and spatial dynamics (De Palma et al., 2018). The effect of the reserve is captured by the λ_t coefficient, and represents the difference observed between the control site before the implementation of the reserve and the reserve site at time t after controlling for other time and space variations (*i.e.* γ_t and β respectively). Here we present the effect that marine reserves had on each of the biological indicators for each coastal community, along with the trends in socioeconomic indicators of lobster catches and revenues. We also provide an overview of the state of the socioeconomic and governance settings of each community, and discuss how these dimensions might be intertwined with each other.

3.1 Biological

Effect sizes for biological indicators are shown in Figure 2, and Figure 3 shows the summarized biological effects by community. Isla Natividad shows inconsistent effects across data sources (*i.e.* fish vs. invertebrates). For example, the reserve had a small effect on fish abundances (Fig 2A), where only year 2010 showed significant effect sizes in fish abundances ($p < 0.05$) and all other years oscillated above and under zero ($p > 0.05$). However, invertebrate abundances (Fig 2B) presented a positive trend relative to the control site before implementation ($p < 0.05$) for all but 1 year (2008). Maria Elena and Punta Herrero showed no significant increase in fish and invertebrate abundances ($p < 0.05$), except for invertebrates in Punta Herrero for 2014 –right after the implementation of the reserves– which showed a significant increase (*i.e.* $\lambda_{2014} = 2.5$, $p < 0.05$). Full tables with model coefficients are presented in the supplementary materials (**S1 Table**, **S2 Table**, **S3 Table**).

While the number of fish species oscillated above and below zero through time for all reserves, none of these changes were statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) indicating that the reserves had no effect on fish species richness (Fig 2C). For invertebrate species in Isla Natividad, all effect sizes were negative, but only significant for 2008, 2009, 2011, and 2014 ($p < 0.05$; Fig 2D). For Maria Elena and Punta Herrero, the data do not show significant changes in invertebrate species richness ($p > 0.05$).

Effect sizes for Shannon's diversity index for fish (Fig 2E) in Isla Natividad oscillated between $\lambda_{2011} = -0.45$ and $\lambda_{2010} = -0.005$, but were not significantly different from null hypotheses of no change (*i.e.* $\lambda_t = 0$; $p > 0.05$). For invertebrates in that same community (Fig 2F), Shannon's diversity index showed a significant decrease between 2008 and 2014, with largest decrease observed for 2011 ($\lambda_{2011} = -0.91$; $p < 0.05$). In the case of Maria Elena and Punta Herrero, Shannon's diversity index for fish showed increases in the order of $\lambda_t = 1$. For Maria Elena and Punta Herrero, these effects were only statistically significant for 2014, and 2014 and 2015 ($p < 0.05$).

Biomass was only evaluated for fish data (Fig 2G). In Isla Natividad, fish biomass presented a steady but small increase ($p > 0.05$), and exhibited an increased variability in biomass between 2013 and 2016. Maria Elena and Punta Herrero also showed small, non-statistically significant increases in fish biomass ($p > 0.05$). The last biological indicator is abundance of target species, *Panulirus interruptus* and *P. argus*, for the Pacific and Caribbean, respectively (Fig 2H). Isla Natividad presented small constantly-positive effects but were not significantly different from the reference point of control site before the implementation of the reserve ($p > 0.05$). Maria Elena showed significant increases in lobster densities in the order of $\lambda_t = 10$ ($p < 0.05$). Finally, punta herrero presented alternating negative and positive effects, but these were not different from the baseline case ($p > 0.05$).

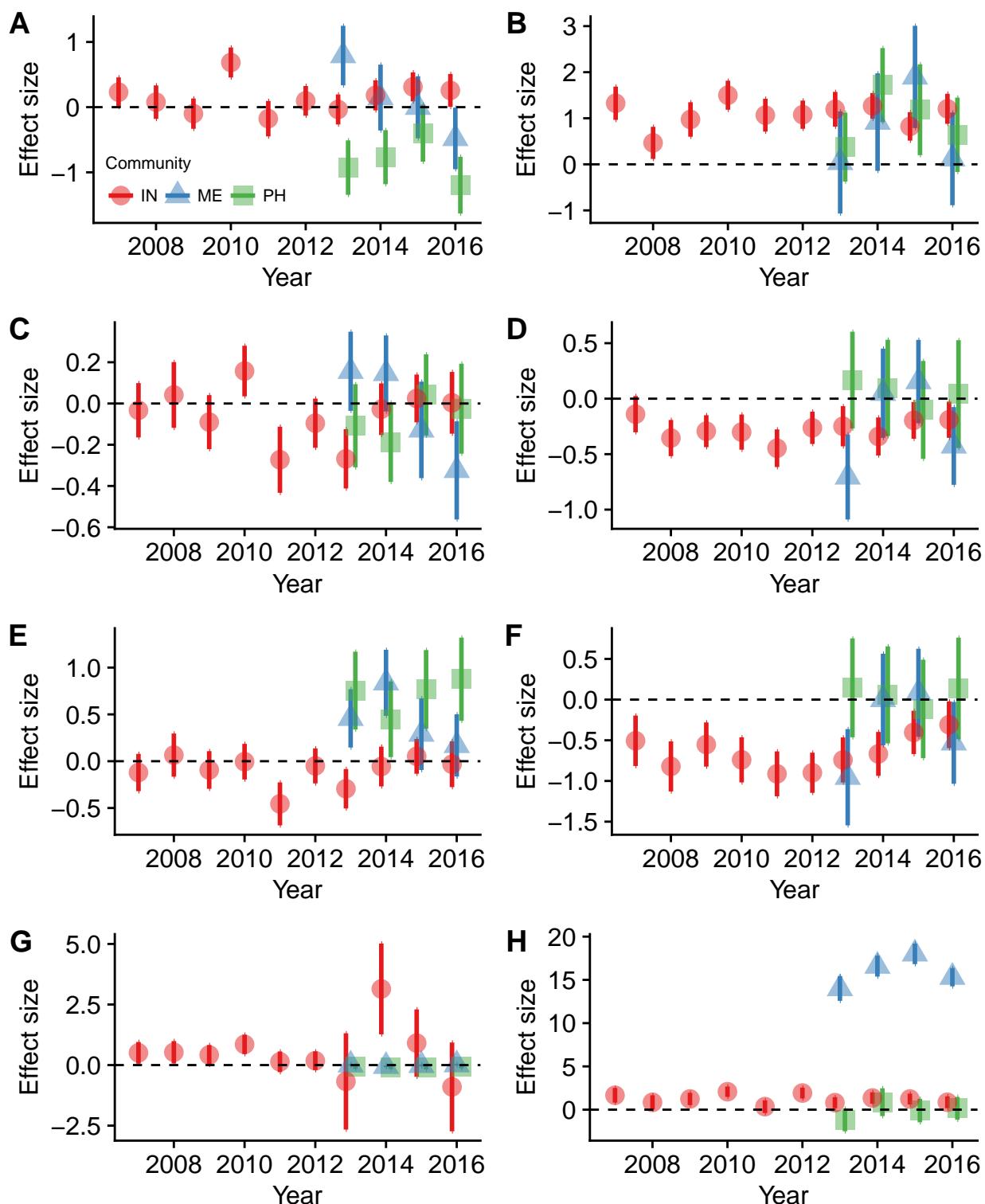


Figure 2. Effect sizes for marine reserves from Isla Natividad (IN; red circles), Maria Elena (ME; blue triangles), and Punta Herrero (PH; green squares) for community-level indicators. Plots are ordered by survey type (left: fish; right: invertebrates) and indicators: Abundance (A, B), Richness (C, D), Shannon's diversity index (E, F), fish biomass (G), and lobster (*Panulirus spp*) abundances (H). Points are jittered horizontally to avoid overplotting. Points indicate the effect size, and errorbars are heteroskedastic-robust standard errors.

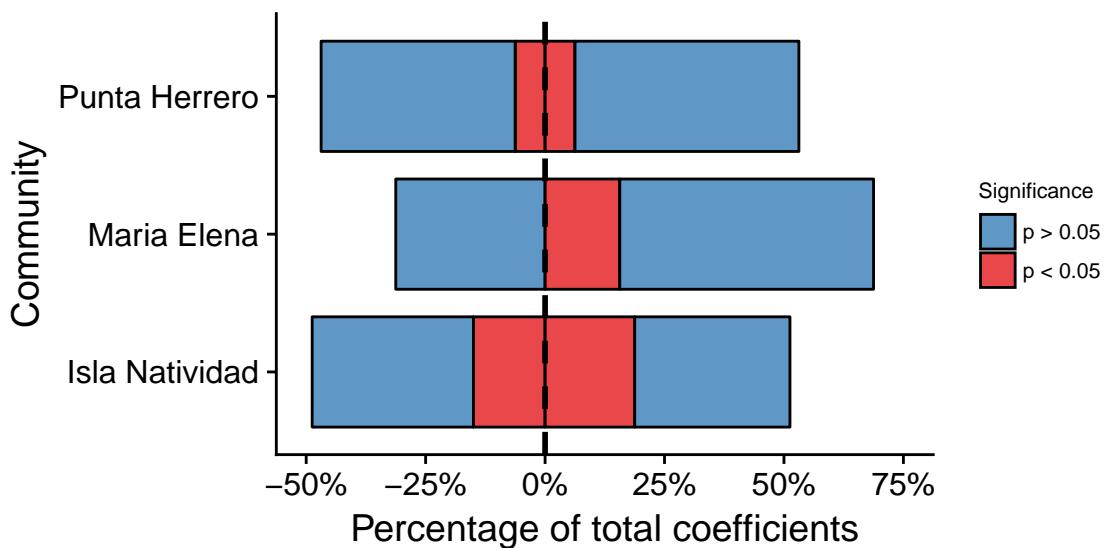


Figure 3. Summarized effects of the marine reserves by direction (positive - negative) and significance.

160 3.2 Socioeconomic

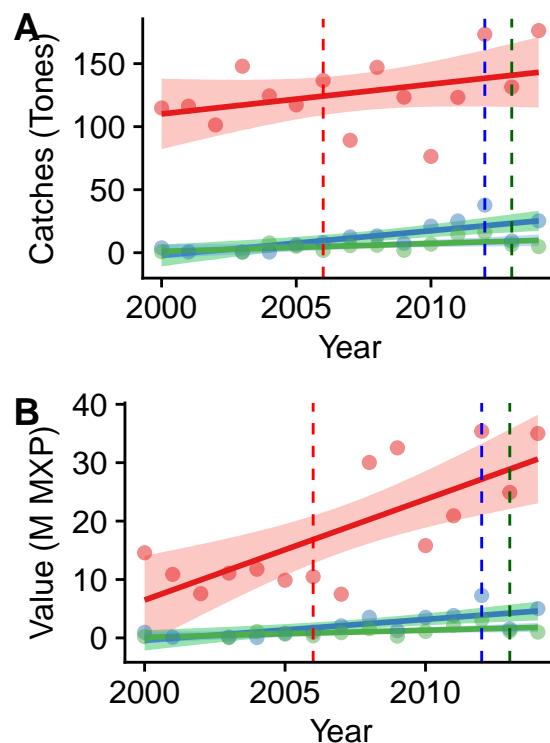


Figure 4. Time series of lobster catches (A) and revenues (B) in Isla Natividad (IN; red circles), Maria Elena (ME; blue triangles), and Punta Herrero (PH; green squares).

161 3.3 Governance

4 DISCUSSION

- 162 The biological effects of the reserve contrast the existing literature. Why no effect on bio? IN hypoxia. ME
163 and PH, age? Perhaps is the use of causal inference methods?
- 164 Isla natividad no funciona por hipoxia
- 165 Maria Elena funciona “bien”
- 166 Punta Herrero no funciona por poaching.
- 167 Aun con las mejores caracteristicas sociales, no es posible vencer al ambiente (IN). Para el Caribe, parece
168 ser que buena vigilancia y poca pesca ilegal son determinantes para obtener buenos resultados. Preguntarle
169 a Stuart si ME solamente se pesca durante lanosta, y todo el año es reserva.
- 170 IN captures more dynamics. Reflects hypoxia events. Citar paper Giron
- 171 Differences between fish and inverts sheds a lights on direct and indirect effects (Paper que recomiendo
172 Fio).

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

- 173 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
174 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

- 175 JC and EA analyzed and interpreted data, discussed the results and wrote the manuscrip. SF and JT edited
176 the manuscript and discussed the results.

FUNDING

- 177 Details of all funding sources should be provided, including grant numbers if applicable. Please ensure to
178 add all necessary funding information, as after publication this is no longer possible.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

- 179 This is a short text to acknowledge the contributions of specific colleagues, institutions, or agencies that
180 aided the efforts of the authors.

SUPPLEMENTAL DATA

- 181 Supplementary Material should be uploaded separately on submission, if there are Supplementary Figures,
182 please include the caption in the same file as the figure. LaTeX Supplementary Material templates can be
183 found in the Frontiers LaTeX folder

184 ***S1 Figure***

- 185 Timeseries of indicators for IN

186 ***S2 Figure***

- 187 Timeseries of indicators for ME

188 **S3 Figure**

189 Timeseries of indicators for PH

190 **S1 Table**

191 Coefficient estimates for Isla Natividad

192 **S2 Table**

193 Coefficient estimates for Maria Elena

194 **S3 Table**

195 Coefficient estimates for Punta Herrero

REFERENCES

- 196 Afflerbach, J. C., Lester, S. E., Dougherty, D. T., and Poon, S. E. (2014). A global survey of turf-reserves,
197 territorial use rights for fisheries coupled with marine reserves. *Global Ecology and Conservation* 2,
198 97–106. doi:10.1016/j.gecco.2014.08.001
- 199 Beger, M., Harborne, A. R., Dacles, T. P., Solandt, J.-L., and Ledesma, G. L. (2004). A framework of
200 lessons learned from community-based marine reserves and its effectiveness in guiding a new coastal
201 management initiative in the philippines. *Environ Manage* 34, 786–801. doi:10.1007/s00267-004-0149-z
- 202 De Palma, A., Sanchez Ortiz, K., Martin, P. A., Chadwick, A., Gilbert, G., Bates, A. E., et al. (2018).
203 Challenges with inferring how land-use affects terrestrial biodiversity: Study design, time, space and
204 synthesis (Elsevier), Advances in ecological research. doi:10.1016/bs.aecr.2017.12.004
- 205 Di Franco, A., Thiriet, P., Di Carlo, G., Dimitriadis, C., Francour, P., Gutiérrez, N. L., et al. (2016). Five
206 key attributes can increase marine protected areas performance for small-scale fisheries management.
207 *Sci Rep* 6, 38135. doi:10.1038/srep38135
- 208 Edgar, G. J., Stuart-Smith, R. D., Willis, T. J., Kininmonth, S., Baker, S. C., Banks, S., et al. (2014). Global
209 conservation outcomes depend on marine protected areas with five key features. *Nature* 506, 216–220.
210 doi:10.1038/nature13022
- 211 Espinosa-Romero, M. J., Rodriguez, L. F., Weaver, A. H., Villanueva-Aznar, C., and Torre, J. (2014). The
212 changing role of ngos in mexican small-scale fisheries: From environmental conservation to multi-scale
213 governance. *Marine Policy* 50, 290–299. doi:10.1016/j.marpol.2014.07.005
- 214 Ferraro, P. J. and Pattanayak, S. K. (2006). Money for nothing? a call for empirical evaluation of biodiversity
215 conservation investments. *PLoS Biol* 4, e105. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0040105
- 216 Friedlander, A. M., Golbuu, Y., Ballesteros, E., Caselle, J. E., Gouezo, M., Olsudong, D., et al. (2017). Size,
217 age, and habitat determine effectiveness of palau's marine protected areas. *PLoS ONE* 12, e0174787.
218 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0174787
- 219 Gelcich, S. and Donlan, C. J. (2015). Incentivizing biodiversity conservation in artisanal fishing com-
220 munities through territorial user rights and business model innovation. *Conserv Biol* 29, 1076–1085.
221 doi:10.1111/cobi.12477
- 222 Giakoumi, S., Scianna, C., Plass-Johnson, J., Micheli, F., Grorud-Colvert, K., Thiriet, P., et al. (2017). Ecological effects of full and partial protection in the crowded mediterranean sea: a regional meta-
223 analysis. *Sci Rep* 7, 8940. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-08850-w

- 225 Halpern, B. S., Klein, C. J., Brown, C. J., Beger, M., Grantham, H. S., Mangubhai, S., et al. (2013).
226 Achieving the triple bottom line in the face of inherent trade-offs among social equity, economic return,
227 and conservation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 110, 6229–6234. doi:10.1073/pnas.1217689110
- 228 Halpern, B. S., Walbridge, S., Selkoe, K. A., Kappel, C. V., Micheli, F., D'Agrosa, C., et al. (2008). A global
229 map of human impact on marine ecosystems. *Science* 319, 948–952. doi:10.1126/science.1149345
- 230 Krueck, N. C., Ahmadi, G. N., Possingham, H. P., Riginos, C., Treml, E. A., and Mumby, P. J. (2017).
231 Marine reserve targets to sustain and rebuild unregulated fisheries. *PLoS Biol* 15, e2000537. doi:10.
232 1371/journal.pbio.2000537
- 233 Lester, S., Halpern, B., Grorud-Colvert, K., Lubchenco, J., Ruttenberg, B., Gaines, S., et al. (2009).
234 Biological effects within no-take marine reserves: a global synthesis. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 384, 33–46.
235 doi:10.3354/meps08029
- 236 López-Angarita, J., Moreno-Sánchez, R., Maldonado, J. H., and Sánchez, J. A. (2014). Evaluating linked
237 social-ecological systems in marine protected areas. *Conserv Lett* 7, 241–252. doi:10.1111/conl.12063
- 238 Mascia, M. B., Fox, H. E., Glew, L., Ahmadi, G. N., Agrawal, A., Barnes, M., et al. (2017). A novel
239 framework for analyzing conservation impacts: evaluation, theory, and marine protected areas. *Ann NY
240 Acad Sci* 1399, 93–115. doi:10.1111/nyas.13428
- 241 Micheli, F., Saenz-Arroyo, A., Greenley, A., Vazquez, L., Espinoza Montes, J. A., Rossetto, M., et al.
242 (2012). Evidence that marine reserves enhance resilience to climatic impacts. *PLoS ONE* 7, e40832.
243 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0040832
- 244 Moland, E., Olsen, E. M., Knutsen, H., Garrigou, P., Espeland, S. H., Kleiven, A. R., et al. (2013). Lobster
245 and cod benefit from small-scale northern marine protected areas: inference from an empirical before-
246 after control-impact study. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 280, 20122679–
247 20122679. doi:10.1098/rspb.2012.2679
- 248 NOM-049-SAG/PESC (2014). Norma oficial mexicana nom-049-sag/pesc-2014, que determina el procedi-
249 miento para establecer zonas de refugio para los recursos pesqueros en aguas de jurisdicción federal de
250 los estados unidos mexicanos. *DOF*
- 251 [Dataset] OECD (2017). Inflation CPI
- 252 Ostrom, E. (2009). A general framework for analyzing sustainability of social-ecological systems. *Science*
253 325, 419–422. doi:10.1126/science.1172133
- 254 Pauly, D., Watson, R., and Alder, J. (2005). Global trends in world fisheries: impacts on marine ecosystems
255 and food security. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 360, 5–12.
256 doi:10.1098/rstb.2004.1574
- 257 Roberts, C. M., OLeary, B. C., McCauley, D. J., Cury, P. M., Duarte, C. M., Lubchenco, J., et al. (2017).
258 Marine reserves can mitigate and promote adaptation to climate change. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 114,
259 6167–6175. doi:10.1073/pnas.1701262114
- 260 Sala, E. and Giakoumi, S. (2017). No-take marine reserves are the most effective protected areas in the
261 ocean. *ICES Journal of Marine Science* doi:10.1093/icesjms/fsx059
- 262 Uribe, P., Moguel, S., Torre, J., Bourillon, L., and Saenz, A. (2010). *Implementación de Reservas Marinas
263 en México* (Mexico), 1st edn.
- 264 Villaseñor-Derbez, J. C., Faro, C., Wright, M., Martínez, J., Fitzgerald, S., Fulton, S., et al. (2018).
265 A user-friendly tool to evaluate the effectiveness of no-take marine reserves. *PLOS ONE* 13, 1–21.
266 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0191821
- 267 Worm, B., Barbier, E. B., Beaumont, N., Duffy, J. E., Folke, C., Halpern, B. S., et al. (2006). Impacts of
268 biodiversity loss on ocean ecosystem services. *Science* 314, 787–790. doi:10.1126/science.1132294

269 Zeileis, A. (2004). Econometric computing with hc and hac covariance matrix estimators. *J Stat Softw* 11.
270 doi:10.18637/jss.v011.i10

FIGURE CAPTIONS