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This is the Accepted Version of a paper published in the journal Trends in Ecology & Evolution:

Madin, Joshua S., Hoogenboom, Mia O., Connolly, Sean R.,
Darling, Emily S., Falster, Daniel S., Huang, Danwei, Keith, Sally
A., Mizerek, Toni, Pandolfi, John M., Putnam, Hollie M., and Baird,
Andrew H. (2016) *A trait-based approach to advance coral reef* science. Trends in Ecology & Evolution, 31 (6). pp. 419-428.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2016.02.012

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23	Keywords: Super-trait; trait infilling; proxies; coral reef; data			
24				

25 Abstract

Coral reefs are biologically diverse and ecologically complex ecosystems constructed 26 by stony corals. Despite decades of research, basic coral population biology and community 27 ecology questions remain unanswered. Quantifying trait variation among species can help 28 resolve these questions, but progress has been hampered by a paucity of trait data for the 29 many, often rare, species and by a reliance of non-quantitative approaches. Therefore, we 30 propose filling data gaps by prioritizing traits that are easy to measure, estimating key traits 31 for species with missing data, and identifying "super-traits" that capture a large amount of 32 variation for a range of biological and ecological processes. Such an approach can accelerate 33 our understanding of coral ecology, and our ability to protect critically threatened global 34 35 ecosystems.

36

38 Main text

Coral reefs are ecologically complex ecosystems engineered primarily by stony corals 39 (Scleractinia) that support hundreds of thousands of species [1]. Despite covering less than 40 41 0.1% of global ocean area [2], reefs are important to humankind for food, coastal protection and many other goods and services [3]. Indeed, the ecosystem value of non-tradable public 42 benefits per unit area of coral reef is larger than for any other ecosystem [4]. Despite their 43 44 economic, cultural and aesthetic value, coral reefs in most regions have been degraded due to human pressures [5,6]. Moreover, reefs are threatened by continuing global exploitation and 45 46 intensifying climate change [7,8]. However, projections of future coral reef assemblage structure and ecosystem function remain highly speculative due to a lack of basic biological 47 data at the individual, colony and population level (Figure 1). For example, a widely-cited 48 49 estimate of the proportion of coral species under threat from climate change was based entirely on expert opinion (see Glossary) of organism traits and anecdotal accounts of 50 population declines [9]. Non-quantitative approaches can provide initial insight and highlight 51 52 fruitful avenues to pursue [10], but should yield swiftly to quantitative approaches that reduce uncertainty. 53

54 Understanding the evolution of species, as well as the dynamics of populations and communities in a changing world, depends critically upon robust quantification of differences 55 among species. We argue that progress in coral reef research has been hindered by the limited 56 57 number of species for which trait data are available [11,12]. Similarly, progress was previously hindered by a poor understanding of scleractinian evolutionary relationships; 58 although substantial ongoing revision of scleractinian taxonomy has now yielded a reliable 59 60 phylogeny [13] that is transforming our understanding of coral macro-evolutionary patterns [14]. Consequently, we review recent examples of trait-based coral research, highlighting in 61 particular how wider quantification of species traits could advance understanding across a 62

hierarchy of scales—ranging from organisms to populations, communities, and
biogeographical regions and macro-evolutionary time scales. We also proffer some insights
from other fields for resolving knowledge gaps in reef coral science. We conclude by
identifying data gaps and conceptual priorities, including a focus on "easy" traits, "trait
infilling" and identifying coral "super-traits" to rapidly advance our ability to understand the
drivers and consequences of changing coral species composition on reefs in an era of rapid
environmental change.

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71 Organism biology and population persistence

Traits, and their differences amongst individuals, have strong effects on the 72 organismal and population biology of species. For instance, the energy and nutrients available 73 74 to an individual are limited, and the way energy and nutrients are distributed amongst various processes such as growth, reproduction and maintenance shape life history strategies [15]. 75 Advancing knowledge at these scales requires understanding the patterns of energy allocation 76 77 within individuals, and identifying the key demographic traits that regulate population size and demography. There is no practical way to comprehensively measure demographic trait 78 values for a large proportion of assemblages in species-rich systems, like coral reefs. Instead, 79 trait infilling can be used to infer demographic trait values from other, more readily 80 measurable traits, like colony morphology, that constrain and influence demographic rates 81 82 (Box 1).

More generally, trade-offs among traits influence many aspects of organism biology, such as generation times [16], and they influence responses to disturbance and stress [17]. In many fields, progress in in identifying trait trade-offs has been limited because traits are rarely measured in a common currency [18]. Attempts to overcome this measurement inconsistency typically require the use of mathematical models that integrate traits with

88 different units into a common currency. For instance, Silvertown et al. [19] used matrix models to recreate Grime's triangle using population growth factor as a common currency for 89 plant traits. Similarly, Madin et al. [20] used an integrated biomechanical and photosynthetic 90 91 model to convert coral species traits, including size and morphology, into the common 92 currency of lifetime reproductive output. A more pragmatic approach is to search for supertraits that are relatively easy to measure, and that are reasonable proxies for the rates at which 93 94 important organismal, population and community processes occur. We here posit that colony mass per unit tissue surface area is one such super-trait, serving as a surrogate for 95 96 demographic rates like growth (Box 2). Other super-traits might capture important information about other aspects of coral biology, such as competition and dispersal (Table 1). 97 Intra-specific trait plasticity is another aspect of organism biology that can greatly 98 99 influence population ecology, and the capacity of species to acclimatize or adapt to changing environmental conditions [22], a key concern for reef corals today. However, trait plasticity 100 data are rare and measured for few species. Instead, species-level characteristics are 101 102 commonly used as proxies for plasticity (Table 1, "Plasticity"), because across taxonomic groups, species with greater capacity for physiological plasticity generally occupy a greater 103 104 range of local habitats and have broader geographical ranges because they are able to cope with a wider range of conditions [21]. However, direct tests of these proxies are rare for 105 corals because we lack the necessary data to allow multispecies comparisons of the 106 107 magnitude of trait plasticity. Indeed, in a recent example, physiological plasticity of photosynthetic traits was not correlated with depth range in four Acropora species [23], 108 whereas the ability to up-regulate heterotrophic feeding allowed colonies to better survive 109 110 bleaching than colonies of species with less dietary plasticity [24]. A full understanding of the relationship between trait plasticity and population persistence requires data to be 111 compiled that enables interspecific comparison of the magnitude of plasticity of physiological 112

traits that control energy acquisition and allocation. To be pragmatic, a subset of common or functionally important species should be selected for intensive intraspecific trait measurement to allow for characterizations of trait plasticity, and the potential for adaptation or acclimation to global change. To ensure consistency, we recommend that a handbook of standardised trait measurement protocols and conditions is compiled [52].

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O Community structure and response to disturbance

An increasingly important goal of modern ecology is to identify general rules of 120 121 community assembly, disassembly and recovery under global change. Community assembly represents the filtering of a regional species pool by local environmental conditions and 122 ecological interactions, based on the organismal and population traits exhibited by those 123 124 species [26]. Thus, approaches to characterizing communities that incorporate the trait values exhibited by species can improve our understanding of how local communities are assembled 125 [18]. Increasing evidence that non-neutral community structure is widespread also indicates 126 127 that species traits will need to be actively incorporated into biodiversity theory to explain patterns in the commonness and rarity of species [27-30]. Therefore, to advance reef coral 128 research, a publically-accessible resource is required with sufficient trait data for an adequate 129 number of species to allow generalizable, global associations among traits to be identified 130 131 [31]. The authors and others are working towards such a compilation [32], which 132 concentrates on capturing historical data and legacy datasets initially, followed by submission of newly collected data. This collective effort has already highlighted significant data gaps 133 (Figure 1) and we hope to draw the scientific community together to fill these gaps. 134 135 In addition to prioritizing collection of new data, inferring unmeasured trait values via trait infilling will lead to compilations that are potentially useful for predicting the responses 136

137 of species and assemblages to multiple stressors. For example, novel trait-based metrics of

138 functional diversity in fishes can identify assemblages susceptible to disturbance [33]. For reef corals, structural complexity (a measure of the relative abundance of colonies with 139 different morphologies) is a good predictor of recovery from catastrophic bleaching 140 disturbances [34]. Similarly, coral morphology can predict size specific mortality better than 141 species identity [35], and life-history strategies that captured morphology predicted the 142 response of reef coral assemblages to disturbance [36]. Therefore, knowledge of the 143 frequencies of different morphological groups present within an assemblage provides a tool 144 for predicting the impacts of environmental change. Given the importance of colony 145 146 morphology for coral demographic and life-history traits, and the fact that this trait is well described for all coral species, we propose that colony morphology can provide a basis for 147 inferring unmeasured growth rates (Box 1), and thus be a key component of a coral super-148 149 trait (Box 2).

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151 Macroecology and macroevolution

A trait-based approach that focuses on filling in data gaps at the organismal, 152 population and community level can provide insight into the underlying drivers of larger-153 scale patterns, such as geographical range distributions and species diversity patterns. In 154 particular, we can test whether the observed distribution of traits through space and time fits 155 with different macroecological hypotheses which, in turn, allows the relative importance for 156 157 different processes to be disentangled. For example, the Metabolic Theory of Ecology proposes that body size and temperature explain the variation in ecological patterns over 158 space and time [37], such that metabolism should constrain small animals to grow and 159 160 reproduce rapidly [38]. These predictions can be tested with trait data: traits of amphibian populations indeed show that species at higher altitudes and latitudes have shorter breeding 161

seasons and longer larval periods as well as larger size as adults and produce fewer and largerclutches of larger eggs [39].

Traits are particularly powerful for revealing the drivers of macroecological patterns 164 when they are combined with abundance distributions. For instance, the relative role for 165 dispersal versus establishment in determining successful colonization across biogeographic 166 borders has been difficult to resolve. However, recent work using coral traits has shown that 167 168 assemblages on isolated high-latitude reefs include a relatively high proportion of species that brood larvae, a trait that is hypothesised to enhance capacity to consolidate range expansions 169 170 due to rapid settlement [40]. Trait-based analyses therefore reveal that establishment success is a dominant process in this system. Traits can also mediate the impact of environmental 171 filtering at biogeographic transition zones between tropical and temperate corals, where 172 173 generalist and stress-tolerant species dominate assemblages [41]. At very large spatial and temporal scales, trait analyses provided support to the mechanism of selective colonization 174 mediated by plate tectonic movement as an explanation for the generation of coral 175 176 biogeographic provinces throughout the Indo-Pacific [42].

Answers to many macroevolutionary questions also might be illuminated by 177 consideration of traits, because traits are often strongly correlated with speciation and 178 extinction probabilities. For instance, the extinctions of marine taxa during the Permian mass 179 180 extinction event was related to physiological traits associated with hypercapnia and 181 calcification [43]. For Caribbean coral taxa, the probability of going extinct during the late Miocene was associated with numerous traits, including colony morphology [44,45], tissue 182 thickness and endo-symbiont type [44], larval development strategy [46] and maximum 183 184 colony size [45]. Despite the challenges of isolating key explanatory traits among a suite of potential traits, such approaches can inform decisions on the trait state of fossil taxa. For 185 example, identifying traits associated with the capacity to form symbiotic relationships in the 186

modern scleractinian fauna, could inform predictions about whether or not fossil taxa weresymbiotic [47,48].

Traits also have the potential to provide important insights into phylogenetic 189 190 relatedness because those that have a clear role to play in an individual's fitness are under the strongest selection pressure and, therefore, might be highly conserved [14]. With such 191 information, we could begin to resolve the directionality of trait evolution and the 192 193 mechanisms by which trait transitions are constrained or correlated. Indeed, understanding the interaction amongst traits over evolutionary timescales can help explain correlated 194 195 variation of these traits within and among species today [49]. The importance of traits for understanding macroevolutionary processes is further exemplified by the recognition that 196 197 construction of the scleractinian phylogeny can be improved by incorporation of traits beyond 198 simple colony morphology, such as reproductive mode.

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200 Challenges

We have outlined numerous ways that quantification of species traits can advance 201 knowledge in coral population, community, ecosystem, macro- and evolutionary ecology. 202 203 However, several challenges exist in applying trait-based approaches to coral reef research. First, there is a lack of data coverage for many traits in many species (Figure 1), particularly 204 205 traits relating to physiological and demographic rates that relate organismal performance to 206 environmental conditions [11,12] and for deeper dwelling, slow growing and rare taxa. For example, in a global survey of reef traits, Darling et al. [50] collected trait information for 207 847 species, but only 143 species had enough information to be included in the analysis. 208 209 Clearly, more comprehensive trait information would facilitate addressing key research questions relating to resource acquisition and allocation, including rates of photosynthetic and 210 heterotrophic energy acquisition, proportional energy allocation to growth, fecundity and 211

survival, and how such traits scale with colony size and change along environmental
gradients. In lieu of comprehensive trait information, further development of statistical
approaches for trait infilling is needed (Box 1).

Second, traits are often used as proxies for the rates at which particular life history 215 processes occur that are hypothesized to be linked to those traits. For example, polyp size is 216 considered a proxy for heterotrophic feeding despite the fact that species that up-regulate 217 218 feeding during bleaching events have among the smallest polyp sizes of all corals. Therefore, a major challenge is to test the relationship between trait distributions and the rates at which 219 220 processes occur that are hypothesized to be linked to those traits. Moreover, corals are further complicated because they are colonial. It is critically important to quantify how traits of 221 individuals (i.e., polyps) scale with colony size, and how multiple traits combine to influence 222 223 individual and population-level fitness. Scaling-up from the individuals to biogeographical patterns has been attempted in other fields using theoretical frameworks such as metabolic 224 scaling relationships [37] and dynamic energy budget theory [51], but it remains to be 225 explored how well such theory will fit modular, mixotrophic and symbiotic organisms [52]. 226 Third, a major knowledge gap relates to how trait expression varies through space, 227 and how rapidly it can change through ecological and evolutionary time. Context-dependency 228 of trait expression is increasingly a challenge for macroecological analyses that attempt to 229 230 find generalizable explanations, often over a large biogeographic extent, as it becomes 231 increasingly evident that traits collected at one reef might not represent the traits expressed by individuals of the same species elsewhere. A similar challenge exists with macroevolutionary 232 questions that are concerned with large temporal extents. Slow growing organisms, like 233 234 corals, experience longer time scales than other faster-growing organisms, introducing the challenge of non-stationary environments into trait responses [53]. Understanding corals' 235

capacity to sense and respond to environmental conditions via trait expression over space and

236

237 time, and how this is affected by the dynamism of symbiotic switching and shuffling and host epigenetics, are critical areas of research necessary to anticipate rates of acclimatization and 238 adaptation under rapid environmental change. Trait probability distributions are more 239 240 informative of trait expression than measures of central tendency, but there is a trade-off in the difficulty of obtaining sufficient data. Recognising such limitations, plant scientists have 241 focused on trait proxies in order to rank life history processes and rates for the greater than 242 30,000 species of plants [54]. Despite dealing with an order of magnitude fewer coral species, 243 many are rare and difficult to access at deeper depths. Therefore, we must work 244 245 collaboratively to find solutions to these challenges and move forward with trait-based approaches. 246

247

248 Concluding remarks

To advance coral reef science, we need concerted and coordinated efforts to curate 249 trait information (statistically and empirically) that can improve and validate proxies for key 250 251 biological and ecological processes and identify potential super-traits (Box 3). As ocean warming, acidification, sea level rise and a myriad of human pressures continue to push reef 252 corals to their limit, adopting a global effort for trait-based science is necessary-for reefs 253 and the societies that depend on them. We call for a rigorous and quantitative focus on 254 species differences, rather than opinion and speculation, to understand the unique biology of 255 256 reef builders, and to predict and protect reef ecosystem function into the future.

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258 Supplementary Data associated with this article can be found at doi:XXXXXXX

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261 **Figure Caption**

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263	Figure 1.	Coverage of	data for 78	8 coral species	traits in the	Coral Trait Database
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- 264 (<u>https://coraltraits.org</u>) mapped onto the current molecular phylogeny to illustrate gaps at
- 265 different scales (see Online Supplementary Material Method S3). The presence of trait values
- 266 for species is shown with points radiating from the phylogeny, with colours representing level
- of organisation. Basal clades are labelled at the centre and families at the periphery.

268

270 Glossary

Trait	Broadly refers to both individual-level traits (i.e., potentially heritable
	quality of an organism) and species-level characteristics (i.e.,
	characteristics of species as entities). We include both, because species-
	level characteristics can potentially be used as proxies for individual-
	level traits.
Expert	Assigning a species trait based on knowledge and anecdotal experience
opinion	rather than measuring the trait directly.
Proxy	A trait that provides an estimate for a biological or ecological process
	based on hypothesis or experience. Proxies are used when more
	appropriate traits are not available.
Super-	A trait or combination of traits that capture a large amount of variation
trait	for a broad range of biological, ecological and evolutionary processes.
Easy trait	A proxy for a process that is easy to measure for lots of species.
Trait	Estimating probable values (with uncertainty bounds) for a missing trait
infilling	based on evolutionary relatedness and other traits that improve accuracy
	(e.g., geometry).

- **Table 1.** The common challenges faced by corals and some suggested traits relevant to
- research to understand these challenges (adapted from [55]). The easy traits listed are
- available from the Coral Trait Database, but species coverage is highly variable.
- 277 Relationships among difficult traits and easy traits, and the challenges they are hypothesised
- to represent, need to be tested. ~ is related to or equivalent to.
- 279

Challenge	Difficult trait	Easy trait
1. Dispersal		
Dispersal in space	Dispersal distanceBarrier-crossing	 Larval development strategy Egg or larvae size (small~more chances, large~greater reserves) <i>Symbiodinium</i> spp. in larvae (autotrophic) Larval lifespan (~pelagic larval duration)
Dispersal in time	Larval longevityRecruit longevity	 Also see "Acquiring space" below Larval survivorship Recruit survivorship in conditions not conducive to positive growth (~seed bank)
2. Establishment		
Juvenile growth	Settlement sizeGrowth rate	 Larval size Sexual system Symbiodinium spp. in larvae Colony mass per area (CMA) Symbiodinium per area (~energy acquistion) RNA:DNA ratio
3. Persistence		
Gamete production	Fecundity	 Eggs per polyp Polyps per area CMA
Competitive ability	Competitive effect and response	 Adult size (~resistance to partial mortality) Growth form (~capacity to overtop neighbor) Attachment (~escape from neighbor) Clonality or solitary (~capacity to overgrowth or overtop) Polyp size (~neighbor digestion)
Plasticity	Reaction norm	 Depth range Geographic range Habitat breadth (exposure, turbidity)
Space holding and longevity	• Life span	 Life history strategy Skeletal density (~ investment in structure) CMA
Acquiring space	Vegetative spread	 Growth form Probability of fragment reattachment Attachment strength Clonality or solitary
Response to local disturbance; stress and disturbance avoidance	 Phenology Palatability Symbiodinium makeup Mechanical integrity 	 CMA Colony shape factor Symbiodinium clade and subclade Lipid content Protein biomass Calcification
disturbance; mass extinction events	Range size	 Tissue thickness Growth form Depth range

		Range size
Origin	• Fossil age	Phylogenetic age
		• Fossil age (for certain species)

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