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1	High regional and intra-generic variation in susceptibility to
2	mass bleaching in Indo-Pacific coral species

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11	
12	Abstract
13	Aim: Mass bleaching is a major threat to reef-building corals and the ecosystems they
14	underpin. Here, we identified regional variation in the nature of this threat in terms of
15	the bleaching-susceptibility of individual coral species on some Indian Ocean and
16	Pacific Ocean reefs.
17	Location: 22 sites in the central Great Barrier Reef, Australia (GBR) and 30 sites in
18	the central Maldives Archipelago (MA).
19	Time period: 2002 for the GBR and 2016 for the MA.
20	Major taxa studied: Corals (Order Scleractinia).
21	Methods: Following marine heat-wave conditions, timed in-situ surveys were used to
22	record bleaching responses (tissue colour) of large samples of individual coral
23	colonies. Responses of 106 shared species were analysed for sites with similar levels
24	of temperature stress, depth of occurrence and mortality. In each region, phylogenetic
25	mixed models were used to partition the effects on responses of species of deep-time
26	phylogeny, contemporary history and local-scale, among-site variability.
27	Results: Relative susceptibility to bleaching varied widely between regions: only 27
28	of the 106 shared species were in the same quartile for relative susceptibility in both

29 regions. Few species were highly susceptible in both regions. Closely related species 30 varied widely in their individual susceptibilities. Phylogenetic effects were moderate 31 in both regions, but contemporary phenotypic effects indicative of recent evolution 32 and acclimatization were greater in the MA, consistent with a stronger history of 33 recent bleaching. 34 Main conclusions: The high regional and intra-generic variation in coral bleaching-35 susceptibility described here suggests there may be important differences in the extent 36 to which these Indian and Pacific Ocean coral populations are exhibiting responses to 37 deep-time evolutionary changes on the one hand, versus recent adaptation, on the 38 other. There is a concerning scarcity of this type of data, by which coral species most 39 at risk from bleaching in particular regions may be more accurately identified. 40 41 **1. INTRODUCTION** 42 43 Coral reefs are one of the most threatened ecosystems on the planet, with mass coral 44 bleaching widely regarded as their greatest current threat (Heron et al., 2016). 45 Repeated, severe bleaching events have significantly damaged reefs across the tropics 46 and subtropics, and mass bleaching events are predicted to increase in frequency and 47 severity in the near future (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007; Hughes et al., 2017; Hughes, 48 et al., 2018a). Indeed, in 2020, the Great Barrier Reef (GBR) underwent its third 49 severe event within three years (Hughes & Pratchett, 2020). Local and possible 50 regional species extinctions related to repeated bleaching events have been reported 51 (Glynn, 2011; Muir et al., 2017; Sheppard et al., 2020) and there is now a risk of

52 global extinctions of reef-building coral species (Carpenter et al., 2008; IUCN, 2017;

53 Richards & Day, 2018).

54	Rising sea temperatures, the ultimate cause of most mass bleaching events
55	(Brown, 1997), are a global phenomenon, but the search for pragmatic management
56	interventions are focused at local and regional scales (Anthony et al., 2015;
57	Wooldridge & Done, 2009). While conventional management measures continue in
58	the form of reducing impacts from agricultural runoff, overfishing and coastal
59	development (GBRMPA, 2018; Steneck et al., 2019), current biological research
60	seeks to support active interventions such as reef restoration, assisted evolution,
61	assisted migration, hybridisation, seed banking, artificial refugia and assisted
62	recruitment (van Oppen et al., 2017). However, given the scale of the problem, with
63	around 750 species of scleractinian reef-corals (Hoeksema & Cairns, 2019) and over
64	280,000 km ² of reefs threatened around the globe (Spalding et al., 2001), these
65	management and research efforts face a daunting task.

66

Despite the threat to reef-building corals globally, there is surprisingly little 67 68 data on the bleaching susceptibility of individual species. Susceptibility has been 69 documented mostly for coral genera (Baird et al., 2018; Guest et al., 2012; Hughes et 70 al., 2018b; McClanahan et al., 2007; Marshall & Baird, 2000; Chou et al., 2016; Loya 71 et al., 2001) with only a small number of species examined. While wide geographical 72 variation in relative susceptibility has been established for entire coral communities 73 (McClanahan et al. 2020, Thompson & van Woesik, 2009), there are few comparative 74 studies of individual taxa and these are mostly restricted to comparisons at a genus-75 level (Guest et al., 2012, McClanahan et al., 2004; Pratchett et al., 2013). While much 76 of the current research is aimed at active interventions to prevent loss of coral species 77 following repeated mass bleaching events, the species most at risk from bleaching 78 have not been well documented. For instance, the IUCN "Red List" which is widely

used to categorise the risk and conservation status of coral taxa, is compiled from
mainly genus-level bleaching data from a small number of regions (Carpenter et al.,
2008) and thus might be misrepresenting the status of many coral species and regional
populations. The lack of data limits the extent to which management and interventions
could be targeted to the most susceptible species.

84

85 Here, we investigate the susceptibility of a broad range of Indo-Pacific scleractinian 86 species to moderate bleaching conditions in shallow reef waters of the central 87 Maldives Archipelago (MA) during 2016 and the central Great Barrier Reef (GBR) 88 during 2002. To the best of the authors' knowledge, our datasets are unique in 89 capturing in-situ bleaching responses for diverse assemblages of coral species. For 90 each region, phylogenetic mixed model analyses were used to estimate longer-term 91 phylogenetically heritable effects, shorter-term effects commensurate with adaptation 92 and/or acclimatisation (hereafter, contemporary phenotypic effects) and local-scale 93 variation. Comparison between regions were restricted to corals exposed to similar 94 levels of temperature stress at a similar depth of occurrence, but since mass bleaching 95 is caused by a complex array of stressors that can occur over many weeks (Skirving et 96 al. 2019) we avoided absolute comparisons. Instead, we compared the responses of 97 the 106 species present in both regions in terms of their relative susceptibilities. We 98 then assessed how the available data might be used to estimate species risk across 99 wide geographic regions and closely related species. The findings have important 100 implications for how coral bleaching, the greatest ongoing threat to these critically 101 important, yet vulnerable species, is assessed and how research and management 102 efforts might be prioritized.

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104 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

105

106	For the GBR in 2002 and the MA in 2016, sea temperatures exceeded bleaching
107	thresholds over wide areas for several weeks, resulting in moderate mortalities over
108	the ensuing months. To control for variation due to differing levels of temperate stress
109	we restricted our analyses to sites with a Degree Heating Week (DHW) index of
110	between 4 and 7 derived from satellite data (NOAA, 2017). This index is widely used
111	to estimate the duration and severity of the temperature anomaly, with 4-7 DHW
112	currently considered a moderate event (NOAA, 2017; Skirving, et al., 2019). Colony
113	mortalities at selected sites reached 68% in the MA (Cowburn et al. 2019) and 86% in
114	the GBR (Done et al. 2003). Since there can be a marked depth gradient in bleaching
115	response (Muir et al., 2017; Baird et al., 2018), we focussed on corals assayed
116	between 3 to 11 m depth in both regions. We further confined our analyses to the
117	proportion of colonies with severe bleaching or recently partial or complete mortality
118	to account for the possibility that less affected individuals recovered before our
119	surveys (see below).
120	
121	2.1 Field Surveys
122	A total of 14 locations (22 sites) in the central GBR and 10 locations (30 sites) in the
123	central MA met the DHW criteria for inclusion in the analyses (Figure 1). At each

124 site, timed surveys using SCUBA or snorkel dives of 45-80 minutes duration were

- 125 conducted, recording bleaching responses and recent mortality of individuals
- according to standard methods (Supporting Information, Table S1). Species
- 127 identifications were mostly made *in situ*, with high-resolution macro photographs or
- small samples taken from problematic colonies (under permit) for later analysis by

comparison with material available in the Queensland Museum, consultation with
relevant experts and reference to standard texts (see Supporting Information for
details). Both datasets were converted to current valid species (Hoeksema & Cairns,
2019). For certain genera (e.g. *Montipora, Porites, Goniopora* and *Cycloseris*) it was
not possible to accurately identify many of the species *in situ*, so these were assessed
as grouped species and only considered in a supplementary analysis.

135

136 The MA locations were surveyed two months after the peak of the temperature 137 anomaly, whereas the GBR locations were surveyed 4-6 months after. To assess the 138 effect of survey timing, we analysed a supplementary dataset of 142 individual corals 139 (five species) monitored in situ after a moderate bleaching event in the GBR (Baird & 140 Marshall, 2002, data kindly provided by A. Baird as: DOI to be supplied). These data 141 showed that colonies with mild to moderate bleaching had reasonable recovery, 142 whereas severely bleached colonies showed little recovery or >50% tissue death 143 (Supporting Information, Table S2). Thus, the proportion of severely affected or 144 recently dead/partially dead individuals remained consistent from 2.5 to 5.5 months 145 after peak temperatures. We were therefore confident that our analyses were robust to 146 differences in the timing of our surveys. 147

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148 2.2 Statistical Analyses

The proportion of severely affected or recently dead/partially dead individuals were analysed using phylogenetic generalised linear mixed models implemented in the MCMCglmm package (Hadfield, 2019) in R v3.6.1. Separate models were applied to each region to accommodate different fixed effects. For the MA analysis, fixed effects included depth (3-5 m and 9-11 m), shading (shaded microhabitats and

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154	unshaded) and the depth \times shading interaction. For the GBR analysis, the fixed effects
155	included two levels of depth (3-5 m and 6-9 m), seven levels of habitat/zone
156	(nearshore-fringing reef, coastal-fringing reef, offshore-northern lagoon, offshore-
157	northern reef slope, offshore- southern back reef, offshore-southern lagoon and
158	offshore-southern reef slope) and habitat/zone \times depth interaction. The random effects
159	used in both analyses were: phylogenetically heritable effects, contemporary
160	phenotypic effects, and location. Only taxa with more than two records in each region
161	were included in the analyses. See S2, Supporting Information for further detail.
162	
163	The super tree of Huang and Roy (2016) was used in the phylogenetic mixed
164	model analyses, it currently being the most comprehensive for the group. We also
165	explored the effect of phylogenetic uncertainty on our results and undertook analyses
166	using a restricted phylogeny based only on molecular data (Huang & Roy, 2016).
167	These analyses are not considered further here as they recovered similar results to the
168	analyses conducted using the super tree phylogeny, indicating our methods were
169	robust to uncertainty in the construction of the super tree (Supporting Information,
170	Tables S4 and S5). A supplementary analysis using the Bleaching Mortality Index
171	(BMI, McClanahan et al., 2004) with species data pooled into genera was conducted
172	to allow comparison with previous reports.
173	
174	3. RESULTS
175	
176	Analysis of 2888 individuals from 180 species, 55 genera and 14 families from the

177 GBR showed moderate phylogenetically heritable effects, weak contemporary effects

and weak local-scale effects (Table 1). For the MA, analysis of data from 4480

179	individuals representing 144 species, 47 genera and 14 families also showed moderate
180	phylogenetic effects and minor local-scale effects. However, contemporary effects
181	were 2.7 times greater than those for the GBR. In both regions, the species responses
182	varied widely within genera (Figure 2). Genus Acropora had the largest number of
183	species present in each region (35 species in both regions) and species were present in
184	both the lowest and highest quartiles of bleaching response in each region (Figure 3).
185	Species of the genera Pocillopora, Echinopora, Leptastrea, Platygyra and
186	Dipsastraea showed a greater range of responses in the MA relative to the GBR
187	(Figure 2).
188	
189	Of the 218 species with sufficient data for analysis, only 106 species (64
190	genera, 14 families) were present in both regions. Categorizing responses into
191	quartiles based on their posterior median estimates from the phylogenetic mixed
192	model analyses showed only 27 species (25.4%) were in the same quartile in both
193	regions, 45 species differed by one quartile and 34 by two or more quartiles (Figure
194	3). Only six species were in the most susceptible quartile in both regions. The
195	phylogenetically heritable effects for each species showed a weak correlation between
196	regions, markedly different from a slope of +/-1.0 expected if bleaching responses
197	were phylogenetically constrained between regions (Figure 4). The contemporary
198	effects also showed a low correlation between regions (Figure 4).
199	
200	As contemporary effects were 2.7 times greater in the MA than the GBR
201	(Table 1) and the region had a stronger history of recent bleaching, we examined
202	species with the strongest contemporary effects consistent with recent adaptation or
203	acclimatisation ("C" in Supporting Information, Table S3). A wide range of genera

204 (21 of 47 analysed) were represented in the upper quartile (38 species) for

205 contemporary effects in the MA, including the ecologically significant genera:

- 206 Acropora, Dipsastraea, Cycloseris, Favites, Goniastrea, Hydnophora, Lobophyllia,
- 207 *Pavona* and *Pocillopora*.
- 208

209	For many genera, re-analysis of our data using the bleaching mortality index
210	(BMI) at the level of genus (Supporting Information, Figure S2) showed results
211	somewhat similar to those of the study that defined it (McClanahan et al., 2004).
212	However, the relative responses were markedly different to those derived from the
213	phylogenetic mixed models of our main analyses.
214	
215	4. DISCUSSION

216

We report the first regional comparison of bleaching susceptibility for a broad range
of common Indo-Pacific reef corals at the level of species. Comparing shallow-reef
populations exposed to similar levels of moderate thermal stress we found relative
responses varied only slightly at local scales, but showed wide differences between
the regions. The findings have important implications for how mass bleaching
research is conducted and how this severe threat is addressed.

223

Prior to this study, the small amount of data available indicated low to moderate levels of regional variation in the relative susceptibility to mass bleaching for Indo-Pacific coral taxa. While entire assemblages varied widely in their overall susceptibility (McClanahan et al. 2020), the major coral genera often showed a similar hierarchy of susceptibility for different regions and bleaching events (e.g. 229 Loya et al. 2001, Marshall & Baird 2000, Hughes et al. 2017). The few direct 230 comparative studies also showed low to moderate regional variation. For example, 231 relative bleaching responses between East Africa and the north/central GBR were 232 similar for 19 coral genera (McClanahan et al., 2004), while a comparison of sites 233 within SE Asia and Australia found only two of 18 genera varied significantly in their 234 relative susceptibility for two sites (Guest et al., 2012). Our study showed markedly 235 higher levels of regional variation when susceptibility was considered at the level of 236 species. Only 25% of the 106 species with sufficient data for analysis were present in 237 the same quartile of susceptibility in the MA and GBR (Figure 3). This comparison 238 was for an identical assemblage of currently accepted species for similar levels of 239 temperature stress and depth of occurrence and for events that produced similar levels 240 of mortality.

241

242 Phylogenetic analyses allow the dependence resulting from a shared evolutionary 243 history along a phylogeny to be considered (Housworth et al., 2004) and here provide 244 an indication of the origins of variation in bleaching susceptibility between the two 245 assemblages. A strong inter-regional correlation in the phylogenetic contribution to 246 bleaching response would have suggested that bleaching susceptibility was strongly 247 phylogenetically constrained. By contrast, we found only a weak correlation (Figure 248 4) suggesting divergence in deep-time that has affected susceptibility to bleaching in 249 each region. This result, and indeed our general findings, are consistent with recent 250 genetics studies that indicate wide divergence within many species of Indian and 251 Pacific Ocean reef corals, fishes and other reef fauna (summarized Richards et al., 252 2016). Several cryptic regional endemic species or subspecies have also been resolved 253 within species previously considered pan Indo-Pacific (Richards et al., 2016; Arrigoni

et al., 2020), suggesting regional divergence of reef faunas may be greater than
currently recognised. Such cryptic regional endemics would account for some the
regional variation documented here. The existence of more regionally restricted taxa
would have implications for management and conservation: taxa with smaller range
sizes are likely to have a greater risk of extinction (Richards et al., 2016), further
strengthening the case for species-level and regional assessments of susceptibility.

261 Our analyses indicate that phylogeny imposes only limited constraints on the 262 bleaching responses in each region. This suggests that regional divergence of entire 263 lineages, as well as recent acclimation and adaptation, play a role in mediating 264 bleaching responses. The greater proportion of variation partitioned to contemporary 265 effects in the MA assemblage in 2016, relative to the 2002 GBR assemblage is 266 consistent with this view (Table 1). The MA study area experienced several bleaching 267 events in the two decades before our surveys (summarized Muir et al., 2017), 268 potentially providing a strong pressure for contemporary phenotypic responses. By 269 contrast, although several events had been reported on the GBR in the two decades 270 before our 2002 surveys (Berkelmans & Oliver, 1999; Berkelmans et al., 2004), our 271 study sites had not yet been exposed to the globally widespread and severe events of 272 the present century, and thus any associated selective tendency towards reduced 273 susceptibility to subsequent bleaching.

274

Reduced susceptibility following a series of recent bleaching events has been
reported previously, but mainly for communities (Thompson & van Woesik, 2009;
McClanahan et al. 2020) or genera. Relatively low bleaching responses for the genera *Pocillopora* and *Acropora* in Singapore and Malaysia (Guest et al., 2012, Chou et al.,

279 2016) and for Acropora and Montipora in French Polynesia (Pratchett et al., 2013) 280 have been attributed to adaptation/acclimation following several bleaching events. 281 Here, we partitioned individual species responses between deep-time and 282 contemporary effects to better understand the potential for adaption and/or 283 acclimation. This method could provide a means of selecting species for different 284 streams of management and intervention. For example, in the MA the species with the 285 strongest contemporary phenotypic resistance following repeated bleaching events 286 ("C" in Supporting Information, Table S3) are potential candidates for interventions 287 such as reef restoration (Chamberland et al., 2017; dela Cruz & Harrison, 2017), 288 assisted migration (van Oppen et al., 2017) and isolation of genes that confer 289 resistance (van Oppen et al., 2015). Conversely, species with weak contemporary 290 effects and higher bleaching responses ("P" in Supporting Information, Table S3) are 291 potentially at increased risk and require heightened monitoring and first consideration 292 for interventions such as artificial refugia (Coelhoa et al., 2017), assisted evolution 293 (van Oppen, et al., 2015) and 'seed-banking' of cryopreserved gametes or larvae 294 (Daly et al., 2018). Clearly, more data from other events and regions are required to 295 fully realize the potential offered by this approach: our categories are only applicable 296 for the MA and will likely change as the populations are challenged by further 297 bleaching events.

298

High regional and intra-generic variation in bleaching susceptibility have
important implications for the prioritization of reef management and conservation.
The IUCN Red List (Carpenter et al., 2008) is widely used to set these priorities, but
is currently based on mostly genus-level bleaching data from few locations. Obtaining
the data to address this issue may be challenging as many species require expert

taxonomic input for accurate identification, the dominant genera *Acropora, Porites and Montipora* being particularly difficult. In addition, high local-scale variation can
be problematic for *in situ* bleaching assessments (Chou et al., 2016; Cantin &
Spalding, 2008), but our methods produced low local-scale variation and consistent
species responses within each region (Table 1). Thus, despite the challenges there are
the means to better inform management priorities and mitigate species loss.

311 By assessing coral bleaching responses at greater taxonomic resolution over a 312 wide range of taxa, we found much greater variation within genera and between 313 regions than had previously been reported. By analysing these data using 314 phylogenetic comparisons we found evidence for this variation having origins in both 315 deep-time and recent adaptation and/or acclimation in response to repeated events. 316 Overall, we conclude that there is an alarming lack of reliable data on species' 317 susceptibility with which to address the coral bleaching phenomenon, the greatest 318 current threat to these already endangered species. Somewhat encouragingly, we 319 found that only a small proportion of species were highly susceptible in both regions 320 and that bleaching responses were weakly phylogenetically constrained, with some 321 potential for adaptation and/or acclimation to moderate levels of bleaching stress.

322

323

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FIGURES AND TABLES

Pagion	Proportion of Variation Explained		
Region	Phylogenetic	Contemporary	Local-Scale
Maldives	0.367 (0.065,0.638)	0.115 (0.047, 0.258)	0.032 (0.011,0.105)
GBR	0.454 (0.264, 0.658)	0.042 (0.094,0.103)	0.025 (0.006,0.095)

Table 1. Summary of phylogenetic mixed model analyses for the bleaching responses of scleractinian species in the Maldives Archipelago and Great Barrier Reef (GBR). The proportion of variation in bleaching explained by phylogenetically heritable (Phylogenetic), recent adaptation/acclimatization (Contemporary) and local-scale effects. Proportions given as posterior medians with 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles in brackets.

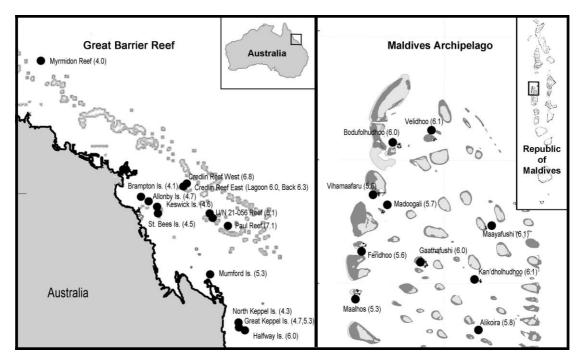


Figure 1. Locations where scleractinian coral bleaching responses were surveyed in the Great Barrier Reef and Maldives Archipelago. The severity of the bleaching at each location is given as peak degree heating weeks (DHW) in brackets.

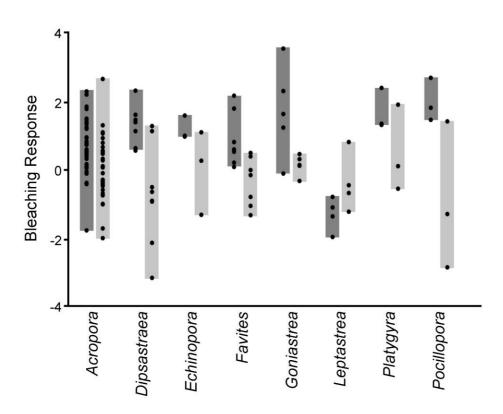


Figure 2. Species' bleaching responses (●) varied widely within many of the main scleractinian coral genera in both the Great Barrier Reef (■) and Maldives Archipelago (■). Responses shown as posterior medians derived from phylogenetic mixed model analyses. The genera shown had more than two shared species between regions with sufficient data for analysis.

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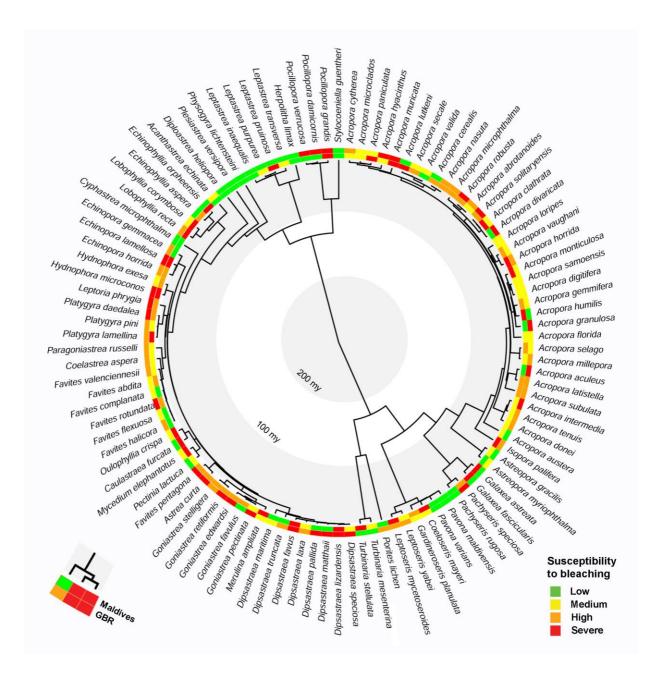


Figure 3. Susceptibility to moderate coral bleaching for scleractinian species in the Maldives Archipelago (inner ring) and Great Barrier Reef (outer ring) plotted onto the currently accepted phylogeny of the group (Huang and Roy, 2016). Susceptibility was categorized using quartiles of the species' posterior medians derived from separate phylogenetic mixed models that analysed the proportion of the population that was severely affected.

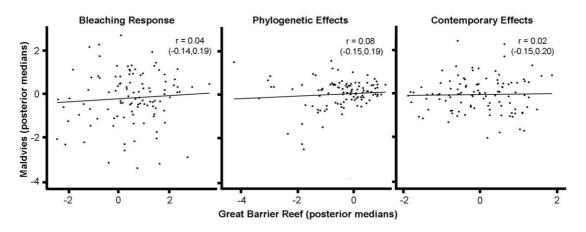


Figure 4. The bleaching responses of scleractinian species varied widely between regions, with phylogenetic mixed model analyses indicating that the variation had origins in both deep-time, phylogenetically heritable effects and short-term contemporary effects. These effects were poorly correlated between regions. Responses are shown as posterior medians (see Supporting Information, Figure S3 for details).