

1 **Trait structure and redundancy determine sensitivity to disturbance in marine**
2 **fish communities**

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20 **ABSTRACT – 150 word limit for Ecology Letters**

21 Functional diversity is predicted to influence ecosystem dynamics through links between
22 organismal traits and ecosystem processes. Theory predicts that key functional traits and high
23 functional redundancy can buffer communities against environmental disturbances. While
24 experimental evidence and data from simple ecological systems support these notions, evidence
25 from natural experiments with large species assemblages is lacking. Using long-term data from
26 both temperate and tropical fish assemblages, we examine how initial functional-trait structure and
27 functional redundancy buffer communities against ecological shifts during disturbance. We find
28 that functional vulnerability to disturbance increases depending on both initial functional-trait
29 structure and lower functional redundancy of communities. In both temperate and tropical fish
30 assemblages, increasing dominance by climatically-sensitive functional traits rendered
31 communities more susceptible to ecological shifts, while communities with higher functional
32 redundancy were more resistant to change. Our results exemplify a consistent link between
33 biological structure and ecosystem vulnerability, providing insight for anticipating future
34 disturbance impacts on biodiversity.

35

36 **INTRODUCTION**

37 Global environmental change threatens the stability of ecosystem functions and services, with
38 severe consequences, such as food insecurity, predicted by the end of the century (Bellard *et al.*
39 2012; IPCC 2014; Melillo 2014). Accordingly, understanding how variation in biodiversity
40 influences the vulnerability of communities and ecosystems to environmental change is crucial
41 (Bellard *et al.* 2014; Beaugrand *et al.* 2015; Segan *et al.* 2016; Heilpern *et al.* 2018). Species

42 diversity has been shown to enhance ecosystem productivity and to buffer communities against
43 environmental disturbances (Worm *et al.* 2006; Naeem *et al.* 2012; Mellin *et al.* 2014; Schneider
44 *et al.* 2016). A functional approach enables exploration of the impacts of biodiversity loss on
45 ecosystem processes and services (Sakschewski *et al.* 2016; Soliveres *et al.* 2016; Gross *et al.*
46 2017). Functional diversity measures are used to describe ecosystem functioning, as organismal
47 traits can be linked to ecosystem processes like nutrient cycling and biomass production, and can
48 provide a mechanistic understanding of community changes via trait-environment relationships
49 (Bejarano *et al.* 2017; Cadotte 2017; Henriques *et al.* 2017; Villéger *et al.* 2017).

50 The presence of key ecological functions (i.e., functional traits or groups) and high functional
51 redundancy can buffer communities against the impacts of environmental change (Díaz & Cabido
52 2001; Laliberte *et al.* 2010; Dee *et al.* 2016; Nash *et al.* 2016; Sanders *et al.* 2018). For instance,
53 on coral reefs key functions such as grazing and bio-erosion by large parrotfishes maintain benthic
54 community structure following disturbances (Bozec *et al.* 2016; Heenan *et al.* 2016; McLean *et al.*
55 2016), and high diversity within parrotfish groups can reinforce these functions (Walker 1992;
56 Burkepile & Hay 2008; Sanders *et al.* 2018). However, functional redundancy may not always
57 buffer communities, particularly when functionally synonymous species exhibit similar negative
58 responses (i.e., low response diversity) (Laliberte *et al.* 2010), and long-term empirical evidence
59 demonstrating the buffering effects of functional redundancy is lacking.

60 While community responses are normally linked directly to environmental variation,
61 environmental gradients ultimately lead to variability in community structure, which can determine
62 biological responses to disturbance (McIntyre *et al.* 1995; Chapin *et al.* 1997; Fukami *et al.* 2005;
63 Williams *et al.* 2010). Therefore, when examining why some communities are vulnerable to
64 disturbances while others are resistant, it is necessary to address biological variability among

65 communities. Two potential biological mechanisms may explain differences in vulnerability
66 among neighboring communities: 1) communities differ in biological composition such that some
67 communities are more dominated by species with vulnerable (or resistant) functional traits, and
68 community structure is more weighted by these traits (McLean et al. MEPS), or 2) vulnerable
69 communities have lower levels of functional redundancy (Walker 1992; Williams *et al.* 2010).
70 Thus communities' initial functional composition and diversity at a baseline time period (i.e., pre-
71 disturbance) could determine communities' vulnerability or resistance to environmental
72 disturbances.

73 Here, using multidimensional functional spaces based on species' functional traits, we show
74 how the vulnerability of communities' functional structures is determined both by initial
75 functional-trait composition and by initial functional redundancy. Using long-term data from both
76 north-temperate and tropical-reef fish assemblages, we show that increased dominance by
77 climatically-sensitive functional traits rendered communities more susceptible to ecological shifts,
78 while communities with higher functional redundancy were more resistant to change.

79

80 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

81 **Eastern English Channel: temperate marine fish communities**

82 **Disturbance**

83 The fish assemblage of the Eastern English Channel (EEC) experienced a major shift in both
84 taxonomic and functional structure in the late 1990s in response to an Atlantic-wide climate
85 oscillation (The Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation) that led to rapid sea surface warming and

86 oceanographic changes (Ting *et al.* 2009; Auber *et al.* 2015, 2017 McLean *et al.* MEPS). While all
87 sampling sites throughout the EEC were concurrently impacted by a basin-wide climate
88 disturbance, the amplitude of community change was highly variable among sites, with some sites
89 experiencing very pronounced shifts and others remaining relatively unchanged (Auber *et al.* 2017)
90 (McLean *et al.* MEPS).

91

92 **Fish community data**

93 The fish community of the EEC (area VIIId defined by the International Council for the Exploration
94 of the Sea, ICES) has been sampled every October since 1988 during the Channel Ground Fish
95 Survey (CGFS). Here, we focused on the study period of 1988 – 2011. The CGFS sampling scheme
96 is spatially stratified by subdividing the EEC into 15'×15' rectangles where at least one 30-min
97 haul is made during daylight hours at an average speed of 3.5 knots. A high (3 m) vertical opening
98 bottom trawl (GOV) with a 10-mm-stretched-mesh-size codend was used. The stratified sampling
99 scheme completed 90 to 120 hauls per year depending on weather conditions. After each haul, all
100 captured fishes were identified and counted. Abundance indices at each sampling station were
101 obtained from the ICES data portal and were standardized to numbers of individuals per km²
102 (ICES). Abundance data were $\log_{10}(x+1)$ transformed before analyses.

103

104 **Functional traits**

105 Nine functional traits related to life history, habitat use, and trophic ecology were collected for 73
106 taxa (67 species, 6 identified to genera only). These included length and age at maturity, fecundity,

107 offspring size, water column position, temperature preference, trophic guild, and trophic level.
108 Temperature preference was calculated as the median temperature of a species across its global
109 range of observations for which data were available. Trait data came from FishBase (Froese &
110 Pauly 2012), the Ocean Biogeographic Information System (<http://www.iobis.org/>), the Global
111 Biodiversity Information Facility (<https://www.gbif.org/>), Engelhard *et al.* (2011), and Pecuchet *et*
112 *al.* (2017). Functional traits were chosen if they were potentially implicated in community
113 responses to environmental change (McLean *et al.* MEPS) and based on sufficient availability and
114 accuracy.

115

116 **Environmental factors**

117 Environmental parameters included depth, sea surface temperature (SST), salinity, and
118 chlorophyll-*a*, which were all collected *in-situ* at each survey site during the CGFS monitoring
119 campaigns. However, spatially-resolved data for chlorophyll-*a* were not available prior to 1998.

120

121 **Seychelles Islands: coral reef-fish communities**

122 **Disturbance**

123 The Seychelles Islands experienced wide-spread coral mortality following severe coral bleaching
124 during the 1998 El Niño, which led to substantial changes in reef fish taxonomic and functional
125 structure (Graham *et al.* 2006, 2015). The mass bleaching was severe across the entire inner
126 Seychelles (Graham *et al.* 2006, 2015), and of the 21 sites surveyed, all but one site had losses in
127 coral cover, with an average 65% loss across all sites. While differential benthic trajectories

128 following the mass bleaching have been linked to environmental and ecological conditions
129 (Graham *et al.* 2015), variation in initial disturbance vulnerability has not yet been investigated.

130

131 **Fish community data**

132 Fish abundance data were collected at 21 sites around the Seychelles Islands using underwater
133 visual census (UVC) in both 1994 (pre-disturbance) and 2005 (post-disturbance). At each site 16
134 individual 7-m radius (154m²) stationary point counts were surveyed along the reef slope, and the
135 identity, density and individual sizes of diurnally active, non-cryptic reef fishes were recorded
136 within each count (Graham *et al.* 2006, 2015). Abundance data were $\log_{10}(x+1)$ transformed before
137 analyses.

138

139 **Functional traits**

140 Four functional traits related to habitat use, behavior, and trophic ecology were collected for the
141 129 species sampled. Trait data came from both FishBase (Froese & Pauly 2012) and previously
142 published literature (WILSON S. K. *et al.* 2008; Graham *et al.* 2011; Stuart-Smith *et al.* 2013;
143 Graham *et al.* 2015). These included maximum length, diet, gregariousness, and habitat
144 specialization (i.e., facultative vs. obligate relation with corals). Functional traits were again chosen
145 because they have been implicated in the response of coral reef fish communities to environmental
146 change (Wilson *et al.* 2006 GCB; Pratchett *et al.* 2008 OMBAR, Graham *et al.* 2011 Ecol Lett).

147

148 **Environmental factors**

149 Environmental data included depth, coral cover, reef complexity, and management status (i.e.,
150 fished vs. marine reserve). Within each stationary point count, the percent cover of live hard coral
151 was quantified and the structural complexity of the reef were visually estimated (Graham *et al.*
152 2006, 2015). Structural complexity was assigned to one of the five categories: 0 = no vertical relief,
153 1 = low (<30 cm) and sparse relief, 2 = low but widespread relief, 3 = widespread moderately
154 complex (30–60 cm) relief, 4 = widespread very complex (60–100 cm), and 5 = exceptionally
155 complex (>1 m) relief, which aligns with several other methods of assessing structural complexity
156 on coral reefs (Graham *et al.* 2006, 2015).

157

158 **Quantifying functional vulnerability**

159 **Multidimensional functional space**

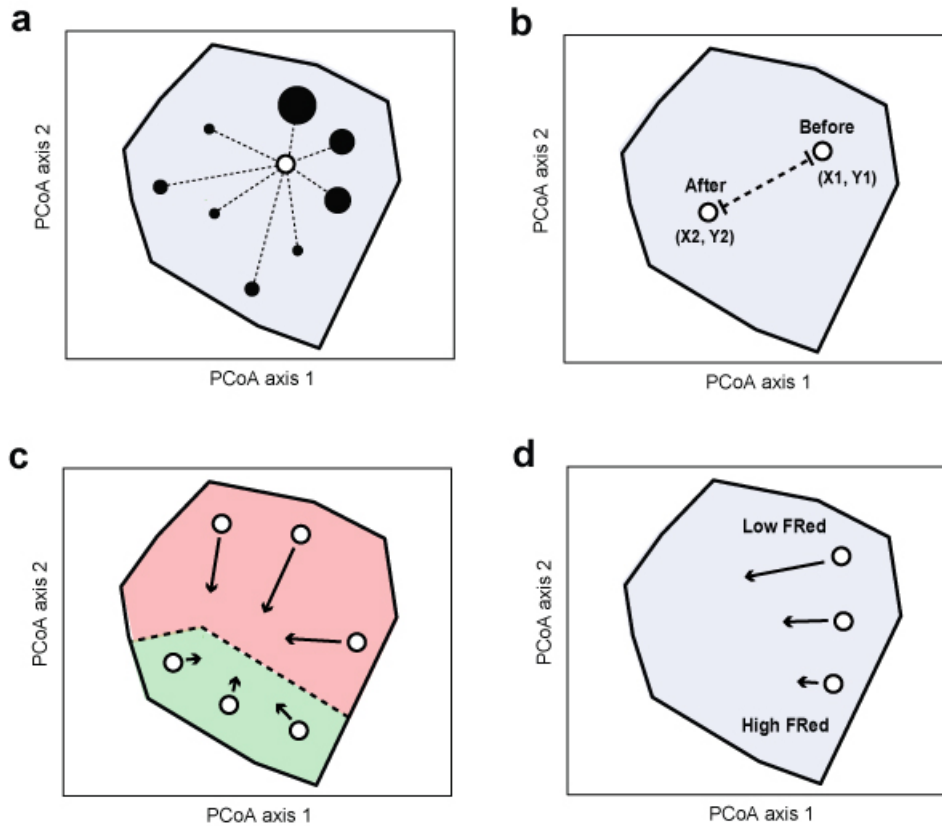
160 We created a functional-trait space for each ecosystem where species are arranged according to
161 their functional trait composition, and species' relative positions are based on their functional
162 similarity (Villéger *et al.* 2008; Laliberté & Legendre 2010; Mouillot *et al.* 2013). We created
163 functional-trait space by first creating a Gower dissimilarity matrix of the species by trait table,
164 with species in rows and functional traits in columns. Gower dissimilarity is well-adapted for
165 examining functional traits as it can handle multiple data types (i.e., continuous and categorical)
166 and missing values (Gower 1971; Laliberté & Legendre 2010). Functional space was then built by
167 ordinating the Gower similarity matrix using principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) (Mouillot *et*
168 *al.* 2013).

169

170 **Functional vulnerability**

171 We quantified ‘functional vulnerability’ as the amplitude of change in functional-trait structure
172 before and after disturbance using the functional-trait space. Large shifts in functional structure
173 indicate low resistance and thus high vulnerability, while small shifts indicate high resistance and
174 low vulnerability. For a given ecosystem, we first calculated abundance-weighted community
175 centroids on the first two axes of functional space for all sites in all time periods (Fig. 1a). Within
176 the functional-trait space, the location of any given site in any given year is defined as the centroid
177 of all species for that site, weighted by species’ abundances (Fig. 1a). Thus, the movement of a site
178 in the functional-trait space can be used to quantify changes in functional-trait structure through
179 time. We therefore calculated functional vulnerability as the distance between a site’s position in
180 functional space before and after a disturbance (Fig. 1b). This quantifies the amount of distance
181 each site moved in functional space during a disturbance, where sites with larger movements
182 display higher vulnerability and sites with smaller movements display higher resistance.
183 Additionally in the case of long time series that exhibit gradual changes (i.e., no abrupt phase
184 change or regime shift), it is possible to quantify vulnerability as the absolute value of the slope of
185 the movement of a site or community along the functional space axes. Sites with large changes in
186 functional structure through time (i.e., high vulnerability) will have large slopes along either one
187 or both axes of functional space. In the case of EEC, where an abrupt community shift occurred in
188 the middle of a long time series, for each site, we calculated the distance between the average
189 position of all years before and all years after the disturbance, while in the Seychelles, for each site,
190 we calculated the distance between 1994 (pre-bleaching) and 2005 (post-bleaching).

191



192

193 **Figure 1.** Conceptual diagrams showing the calculation of functional vulnerability according to
 194 change in the abundance-weighted community position of a site (a) before and after disturbance
 195 (b), along with potential links between functional vulnerability and i) functional-trait structure (c)
 196 and ii) functional redundancy (FRed) (d).

197

198 **Functional Redundancy**

199 Functional redundancy quantifies the degree to which species in a community share similar
 200 functional characteristics, i.e., whether functional strategies are supported by few or many species.

201 Here, we quantified functional redundancy following de Bello *et al.* (2007), where functional
 202 redundancy is parsimoniously defined as the degree to which a community is ‘saturated’ with
 203 similar functional traits, and is calculated as the difference between taxonomic diversity
 204 (Simpson’s index) and functional diversity (Rao’s quadratic entropy) (de Bello *et al.* 2007). In this

205 fashion, communities with the same level of functional diversity but different levels of species
206 richness (or vice versa) will vary in functional redundancy, where a community with either more
207 functionally similar species or higher species richness will have higher functional redundancy.
208 Previous studies quantifying functional redundancy using this metric found significant
209 relationships with community stability and environmental filtering (Pillar *et al.* 2013; Kang *et al.*
210 2015; Bruno *et al.* 2016). Additionally, this metric of functional redundancy is calculated at the
211 community level using continuous data, and does not require defining functional groups, which
212 can be subjective and controversial. Initial functional redundancy (i.e., pre-disturbance) was
213 calculated for all sites in both ecosystems using the R package *SYNCSA*.

214

215 **Generalized Linear Models (GLM)**

216 When considering the influences of environmental variables, we calculated the change in each
217 variable before and after disturbance for each site rather than using temporally-averaged spatial
218 variables to avoid using static independent variables to predict dynamic dependent variables. Thus,
219 changes in local environmental parameters were used to predict changes in functional-trait
220 structure. For instance, while the EEC was impacted by an Atlantic-wide climate oscillation and
221 associated ocean warming, local-scale variability in SST or salinity change could explain
222 variability in community responses. Depth was the only parameter included in all statistical models,
223 as it is a permanent environmental condition (on ecological time scales). Therefore, in the EEC,
224 we built general linear models (GLMs) testing the influences of i) the initial position of each site
225 in functional-trait space (PCoA 1 and PCoA 2 scores), ii) the initial functional redundancy, iii)

226 species richness, iv) depth, v) changes in local SST, and vi) changes in local salinity on the
227 functional vulnerability of each site.

228 In the Seychelles, we used GLMs to test the influences of i) the initial position of each site
229 in functional space (PCoA1 and PCoA2 scores), ii) the initial functional redundancy, iii) species
230 richness, iv) depth, v) percent change in coral cover, vi) percent change in reef structural
231 complexity, and vii) management status on functional vulnerability. All GLM models were
232 assessed using Akaike weights to identify the most contributive independent variables, and the R
233 package *visreg* was used to examine relationships between independent and dependent variables
234 while accounting for co-variation among independent variables.

235

236 **Null Models**

237 To examine whether the relationships between functional vulnerability and i) initial functional-trait
238 structure, or ii) initial functional redundancy were significantly different than expected by random
239 chance, we built null models examining the slope of the linear regression between functional
240 vulnerability and each metric, following Fukami *et al.* (2005). For each null model we randomly
241 permuted the species by abundance table, re-calculated abundance-weighted community
242 centroids in functional space, re-calculated functional redundancy, and re-computed the
243 corresponding linear models. This process was repeated 1000 times and the corresponding linear
244 modes were used to build null distributions of 1000 slopes. The actual observed slopes between
245 functional vulnerability and i) initial position in functional space, and ii) initial functional
246 redundancy were then compared to the resulting null distributions.

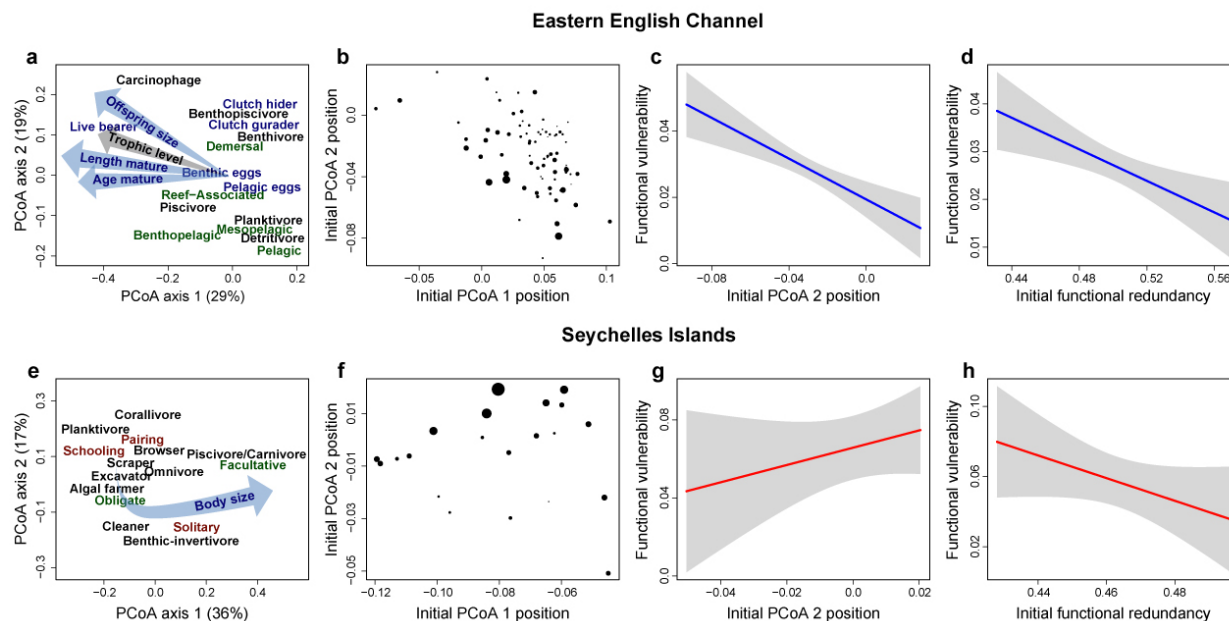
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248 RESULTS

249 Climatic disturbance in a temperate marine fish community

250 In the EEC, the first two axes of functional-trait space captured 48% of overall variation in
251 functional structure among the 73 taxa (Fig. 2a). The first axis of functional space was primarily
252 characterized by differences between large-bodied, long-lived, high trophic-level species with large
253 offspring size (higher values) vs. small-bodied, short-lived pelagic species, and detritivores (lower
254 values), while the second axis was characterized by differences between carcinophages and
255 benthopiscivores with high parental care (higher values) vs. pelagic and mesopelagic species and
256 planktivores and detritivores (lower values) (Fig. 2a). We found that the distance each site moved
257 in functional space before and after the disturbance (1997), was significantly correlated to the initial
258 position of each site along the second axis of the functional space, as sites with lower PCoA 2
259 values had higher changes in functional-trait structure before and after the disturbance ($r = -0.28$,
260 $P = 0.01$). We next examined whether the distance moved in functional space was related to initial
261 values of functional redundancy (mean functional redundancy across all years prior the regime
262 shift). We found that distance moved was significantly and negatively correlated to functional
263 redundancy: sites with higher functional redundancy were more resistance and had less pronounced
264 shifts ($r = -0.46$, $P < 0.0001$). GLM models then ranked functional redundancy, initial PCoA 2
265 position, depth, and local changes in salinity as the most important independent variables predicting
266 the distance moved by each site in functional-trait space (Fig. 2b-d, Fig. S1, Fig. S2). Distance
267 moved (i.e., functional vulnerability) was higher in deeper sites and in sites where salinity
268 decreased before and after the disturbance (Fig. S1, Fig. S2).

269



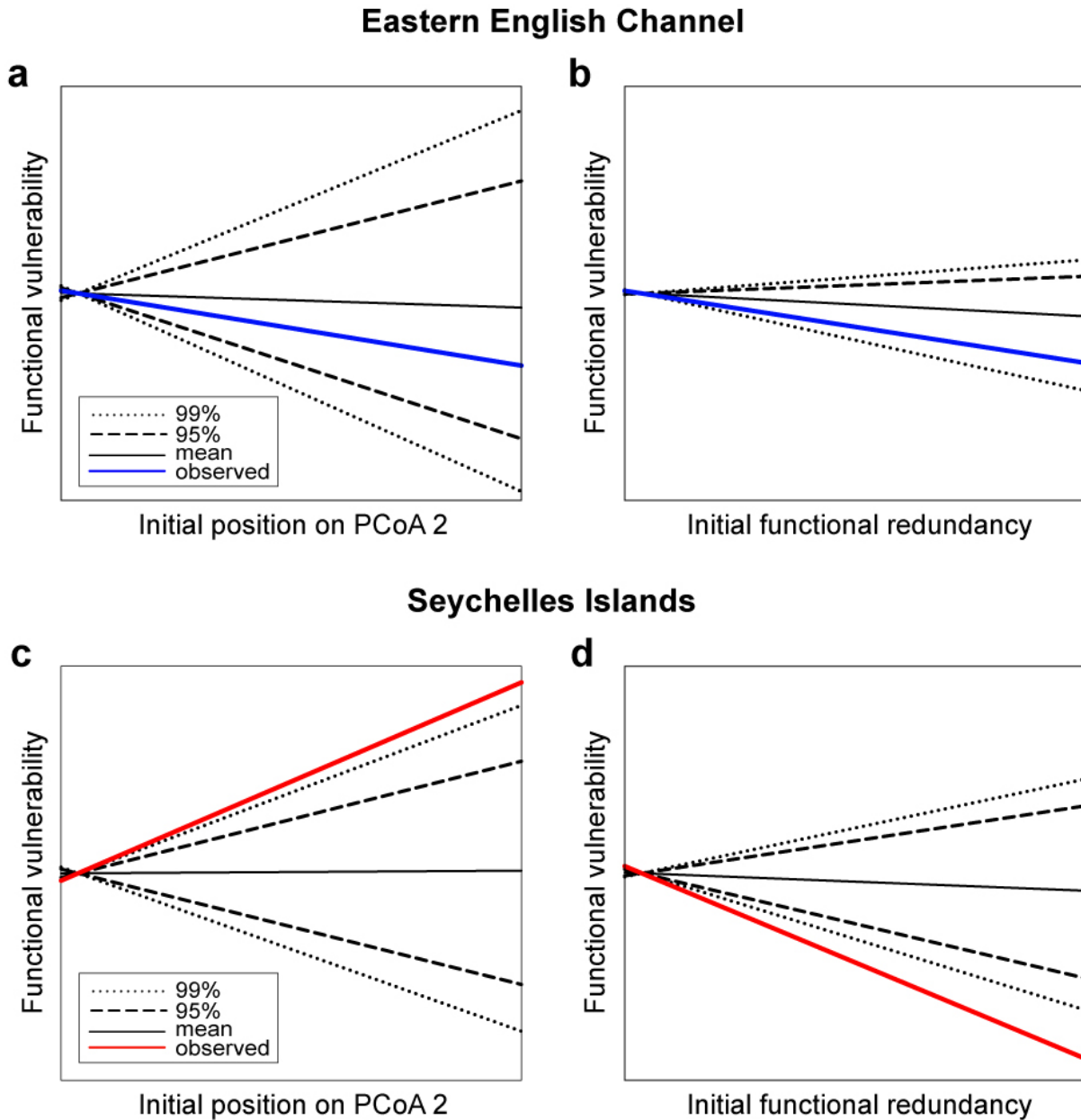
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271 **Figure 2.** Relationships between functional vulnerability and the initial functional structure of
 272 communities in the Eastern English Channel (EEC) and Seychelles Islands. a) Functional-trait
 273 structure of the overall fish community of the EEC. b) Functional vulnerability of each site in the
 274 EEC defined by the distance moved (i.e., amplitude of change) along the first two axes of
 275 functional-trait space before and after disturbance; larger circles = higher movement and therefore
 276 higher vulnerability. Relationships between functional vulnerability and c) initial position on PCoA
 277 axis 2 of functional-trait space, and d) initial functional redundancy in the EEC. e) Functional-trait
 278 structure of the overall fish community of the Seychelles. f) Functional vulnerability of each site
 279 in the Seychelles. Relationships between functional vulnerability and g) initial position on PCoA
 280 axis 2 of functional-trait space, and h) initial functional redundancy in the Seychelles.

281

282 Null models indicated that the slope of the relationship between functional vulnerability
 283 and initial PCoA 2 position was larger than expected by random chance, but not significantly so,
 284 as the observed slope was smaller than the 95% most extreme expected values (Fig 3a). However,
 285 the slope of the relationship between functional vulnerability and initial functional redundancy was
 286 significantly larger than expected by random chance, as the observed slope was greater than 95%
 287 of slopes in the null distribution (Fig 3b).

288



289

290 **Figure 3.** Results of null models comparing the observed slope of the relationship between
 291 functional vulnerability and i) initial position on the second axis of functional-trait space, and ii)
 292 initial functional redundancy in the Eastern English Channel (a, b) and Seychelles Islands (c, d).

293

294 **Reef-fish community responses to coral bleaching**

295 In the Seychelles, the first two axes of functional-trait space captured 54% of overall variation in
296 functional structure among the 129 species (Fig. 2e). The first axis of functional space was
297 primarily characterized by differences between large-bodied species, facultative species, and
298 piscivores/carnivores (higher values) vs. planktivores, schooling species, scraping herbivores, and
299 algal farmers (lower values), while the second axis was characterized by differences between
300 corallivores, planktivores, pairing, and schooling species (higher values) vs. benthic invertivores,
301 solitary species, and larger-bodied species (lower values) (Fig. 2e). We found that the distance
302 moved by each site between the two time periods (1994 and 2005) was significantly correlated to
303 the initial position of each site along PCoA axis 2, as sites with higher PCoA 2 scores had larger
304 changes in functional-trait structure ($r = -0.60$, $P = 0.004$). We next found that the distance moved
305 by each site was also significantly and negatively correlated to the initial functional redundancy of
306 each site, as sites with higher functional redundancy were less vulnerable and more resistant to
307 changes in functional-trait structure ($r = -0.55$, $P = 0.009$). GLM models then ranked depth,
308 functional redundancy, initial PCoA 2 position, and management status as the most important
309 independent variables predicting the distance moved by each site in functional-trait space (Fig. 2f-
310 h, Fig. S1, Fig. S2). Distance moved (i.e., functional vulnerability) was higher in shallower sites
311 and in openly fished sites (Fig. S1, Fig. S2).

312 Null models indicated that the slope of the relationship between functional vulnerability
313 and both i) initial PCoA 2 position and ii) initial functional redundancy were significantly larger
314 than expected by random chance, as the observed slopes were greater than 99% of slopes in the
315 null distributions (Fig 3c,d).

316

317 **DISCUSSION**

318 To our knowledge, ours is the first extensive study using long-term data to show that functional
319 redundancy can buffer change in the functional structure of large species assemblages against
320 environmental disturbances. Past experimental studies and studies from simple ecological systems
321 have shown that higher levels of functional redundancy can maintain community stability in the
322 face of environmental change (Rosenfeld Jordan S. 2002; Loreau Michel 2004; Allison & Martiny
323 2008). However, here we use datasets spanning nearly 25 years to examine changes in large natural
324 ecosystems in both temperate and tropical environments. Our findings support long-standing
325 ecological theory that a higher proportion of species supporting similar ecological functions can
326 generate greater community stability, reducing vulnerability to climatic disturbances (Walker
327 1992; Rosenfeld Jordan S. 2002; Elmqvist *et al.* 2003).

328 As disturbances in both ecosystems were related to climate warming, our results provide
329 critical information for future conservation planning and ecosystem management under climate
330 change. Not only were communities with lower functional redundancy more vulnerable to climate-
331 based disturbances, but dominance by certain functional traits rendered communities particularly
332 sensitive to disturbance. For example, in the EEC increasing dominance by small pelagics led to
333 greater shifts in functional structure through time as small pelagic species are highly impacted by
334 ocean warming and changes in oceanographic processes (Rijnsdorp *et al.* 2009; Lindegren *et al.*
335 2013; Alheit *et al.* 2014). In the Seychelles, communities more dominated by small, schooling
336 corallivores and planktivores were more impacted by large-scale coral mortality (Graham *et al.*
337 2007; Pratchett *et al.* 2008; Richardson *et al.* 2018). Interestingly, in both ecosystems, small,
338 quickly reproducing species were most impacted by climatic disturbances. This is an interesting
339 result as fishing down the food web in marine ecosystems generally removes large, long-lived

340 species first, leading to communities dominated by smaller, shorter lived species. Thus global
341 overfishing is likely leading to fish communities dominated by species with climatically sensitive
342 functional traits with reduced functional redundancy (McLean et al. MEPS) (Jackson *et al.* 2001;
343 Micheli & Halpern 2005; Pinsky & Byler 2015). This is alarming as historical human impacts have
344 likely rendered communities less resilient to the anticipated future impacts of climate change
345 (Graham *et al.* 2011). Our results highlight the need to identify trait-environment relationships in
346 marine ecosystems worldwide in order to anticipate how climate warming might impact current
347 and future communities through changes in functional-trait composition.

348 Beyond biological composition, both depth and salinity change influenced functional
349 vulnerability in the EEC, while depth and management status influenced vulnerability in the
350 Seychelles. In the EEC, sites where salinity decreased before and after the disturbance had greater
351 shifts in functional structure, as decreasing salinity levels can destabilize communities
352 (Wurtsbaugh & Berry 1990). Decreasing salinity may have driven declines in the abundance and
353 richness of species with narrow salinity tolerances, resulting in communities more dominated by
354 euryhaline species (Lappalainen Antti *et al.* 2000; Maes J. *et al.* 2005). Communities in shallower
355 depths were more resistant to change, while deeper communities were more vulnerable, exhibiting
356 greater ecological shifts. In the EEC, productivity (chlorophyll-*a*) is highest in shallow areas along
357 the coast, leading to higher species richness, greater abundance, and more functional redundancy
358 (Gentilhomme & Lizon 1997; Griocche *et al.* 1999). While it was not possible to calculate change
359 in chlorophyll-*a* before and after the disturbance, we did indeed find that temporally-averaged
360 chlorophyll-*a* values were strongly correlated to initial functional redundancy (McLean unpubl
361 data). In the Seychelles, we found that openly fished sites had greater shifts in functional structure
362 than marine reserves. Overfishing coral reefs has been shown to reduce ecological resilience and

363 increase vulnerability through reductions in both taxonomic and functional diversity, as fishing
364 quickly erodes key ecological functions (Jackson *et al.* 2001; Bellwood David R. *et al.* 2003; Houk
365 *et al.* 2017). In contrast to the EEC, communities in shallower depths had higher vulnerability and
366 lower resistance in the Seychelles. This is in line with previous studies showing that shallower
367 coral reef communities are more vulnerable to disturbances like bleaching (i.e., greater light
368 penetration and lower thermal inertia) and storm impacts (Bridge *et al.* 2013), and that deeper sites
369 have greater recovery potential (Graham *et al.* 2015).

370 Interestingly, higher functional redundancy does not necessarily correspond to higher
371 overall functional diversity, as functionally simple communities can have high functional
372 redundancy (Fonseca & Ganade 2001; Mouillot *et al.* 2014; Casatti *et al.* 2015). In the Seychelles,
373 the most impacted sites were actually those with the highest functional diversity, as species in those
374 communities varied greatly in functional-trait composition. However, species richness was similar
375 among all sites, suggesting that, although impacted sites were functionally diverse, individual
376 ecological functions were supported by few species. Additionally it is important to note that the
377 impact of ecological disturbances and the buffering capacity of functional redundancy are entirely
378 dependent on the type of disturbance and which ecological functions are affected. For instance, the
379 least impacted sites in the Seychelles were sites with the lowest levels of small, corallivorous
380 species. Thus while the functions provided by these species (e.g., shaping coral diversity [Cole
381 Andrew J. *et al.* 2008]) were most impacted, these functions were already low or absent in
382 unaffected sites. However, if the unaffected sites with high functional redundancy have low
383 response diversity (all species respond similarly to a given disturbance), a future disturbance could
384 drastically impact those communities (Laliberte *et al.* 2010; Bhaskar *et al.* 2018).

385 As with all functional-trait studies, the choice and number of functional traits have major
386 impacts on the calculation of functional diversity and redundancy (Leps *et al.* 2006; Violle *et al.*
387 2007; Violle & Jiang 2009). For example, communities may have little redundancy along one niche
388 axes, but high redundancy along another, and contrasting trends in the two axes could mask
389 redundancy patterns (Spasojevic Marko J. & Suding Katharine N. 2012). However, multiple
390 functional traits are needed to capture nuances among diverse species assemblages, as
391 combinations of traits (e.g., habitat type and life history) may act synergistically, leading to higher
392 or lower disturbance vulnerability (Villéger *et al.* 2010; Mouillot *et al.* 2013; Villéger *et al.* 2017).
393 We further advocate examination of functional structure and redundancy of large species
394 assemblages using long time series across ecosystems, species diversity gradients, and spatial
395 scales.

396

397 **Conclusion**

398 Despite wide belief that functional redundancy can buffer communities against the impacts of
399 environmental change, few studies have provided empirical support in large, natural ecosystems.
400 Here we found that communities dominated by particular functional traits and communities with
401 low functional redundancy were more impacted by environmental disturbances, providing strong
402 evidence for long standing ecological theories. Future studies should examine the influence of
403 functional structure and redundancy on ecological shifts using a variety of methods. Here, by using
404 functional-trait space, we directly examined changes in functional trait structure, but additional
405 methods for quantifying both taxonomic and functional vulnerability are possible. Future studies
406 should also attempt to identify thresholds of functional trait and functional redundancy values to

407 identify tipping points in ecosystem stability. Additionally, future research should examine the
408 influence of redundancy on community structure not only before and after disturbances, but during
409 recovery trajectories (Mouillot *et al.* 2013; Graham *et al.* 2015; Nash *et al.* 2016). While not
410 examined here, our results also have potential implications for ecosystem functioning given the
411 link between community functional structure and ecosystem processes, and more work is needed
412 to quantify the impact of functional redundancy on ecological functions. Finally, our work provides
413 guidance for marine resource management, demonstrating the need to maintain resilient functional
414 structures and high functional redundancy to conserve biodiversity under climate change.

415

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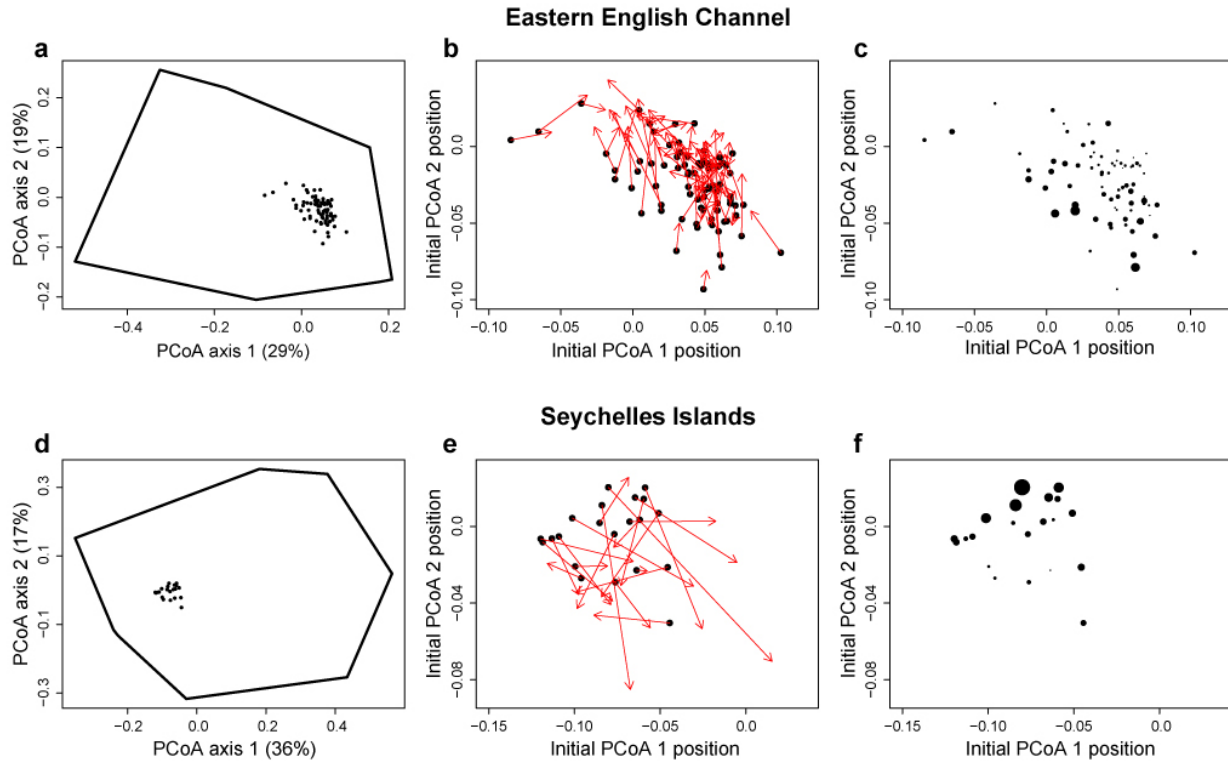
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637 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

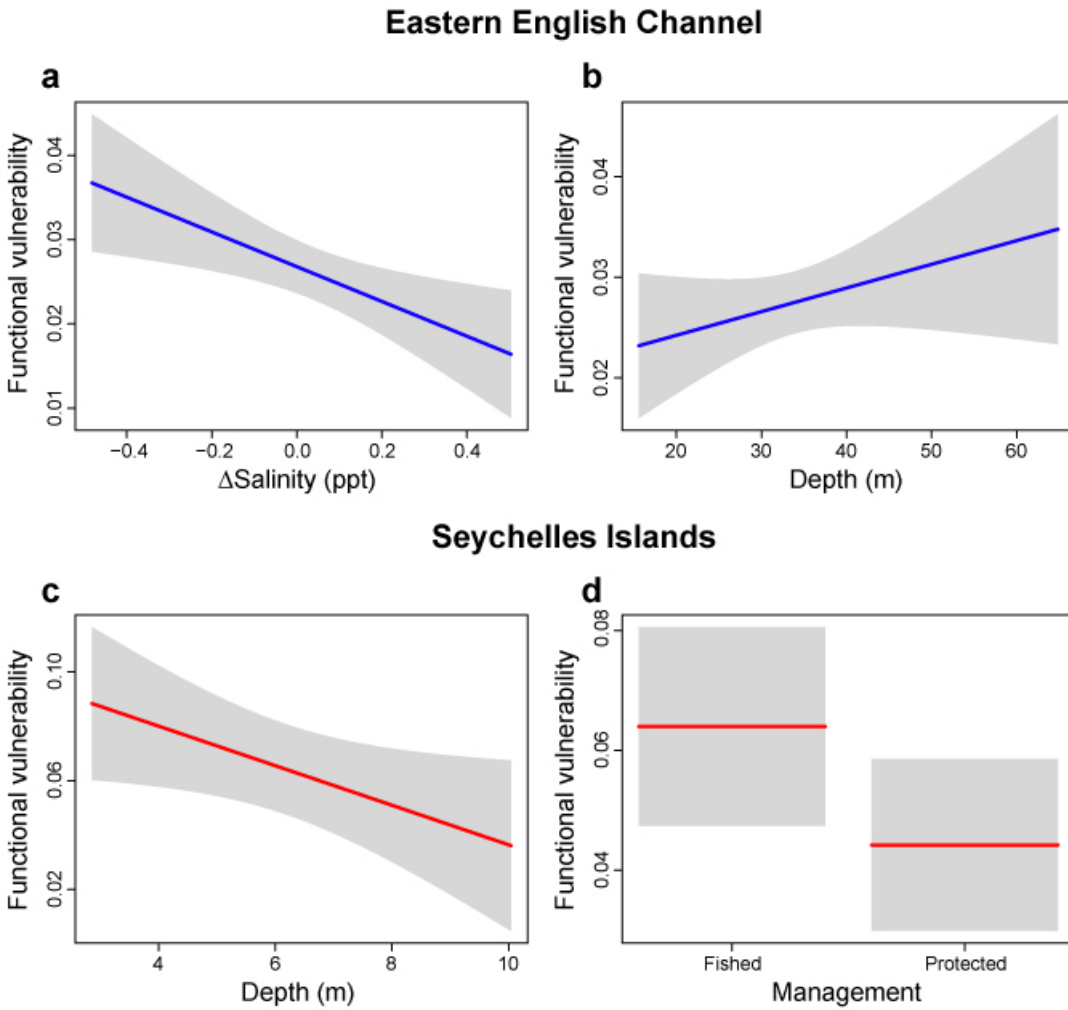
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640 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Functional space with the movement of each site before and after the
 641 disturbance in both ecosystems. a) Convex hull of functional space in the Eastern English Channel
 642 with the initial position of all sites for the years before the disturbance. b) Arrows showing the
 643 movement of each site in functional space before and after the disturbance. c) Initial position of
 644 each site before the disturbance, with the size of each site scaled by the distance moved in
 645 functional space. a) Convex hull of functional space in the Seychelles Islands with the initial
 646 position of all sites for the years before the disturbance. b) Arrows showing the movement of each
 647 site in functional space before and after the disturbance. c) Initial position of each site before the
 648 disturbance, with the size of each site scaled by the distance moved in functional space.

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651 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Relationship between the most influential environmental factors and
 652 functional vulnerability in the Eastern English Channel (a,b) and Seychelles Islands (c,d).