

Individual and combined effect of organic eutrophication (DOC) and ocean warming on the ecophysiology of the Octocoral *Pinnigorgia flava*

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Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) enrichment and ocean warming both negatively affect hard corals, but studies on their combined effects on other reef organisms are scarce. Octocorals are likely to become key players in future reef communities, but they are still highly under-investigated with regard to their responses to global and local environmental changes. Thus, we evaluated the individual and combined effects of DOC enrichment (10, 20 and 40 mg L⁻¹ DOC, added as glucose) and warming (stepwise from 26 to 32 °C) on the widespread Indo-Pacific gorgonian *Pinnigorgia flava* in a 45-day laboratory experiment. Oxygen fluxes (net photosynthesis and respiration), as well as Symbiodiniaceae cell density and coral growth were assessed. Our results highlight a differential ecophysiological response to DOC enrichment and warming as well as their combination. Individual DOC addition did not significantly affect oxygen fluxes nor Symbiodiniaceae cell density and growth, while warming significantly decreased photosynthesis rates and Symbiodiniaceae cell density. When DOC enrichment and warming were combined, no effect on *P. flava* oxygen fluxes was observed while growth responded to certain DOC conditions depending on the temperature. Our findings indicate that *P. flava* is insensitive to the individual effect of DOC enrichment, but not to warming and the two stressors combined. This suggests that, if temperature remains below certain thresholds, this gorgonian species may gain a competitive advantage over coral species that are reportedly more affected by DOC eutrophication. However, under the expected increasing temperature scenarios, it is also likely that this octocoral species will be negatively affected, with potential consequences on community structure. This study contributes to our understanding of the conditions that drive phase shift dynamics in coastal coral reef

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26

27 Abstract

28 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) enrichment and ocean warming both negatively affect hard
29 corals, but studies on their combined effects on other reef organisms are scarce. Octocorals are
30 likely to become key players in future reef communities, but they are still highly under-
31 investigated with regard to their responses to global and local environmental changes. Thus, we
32 evaluated the individual and combined effects of DOC enrichment (10, 20 and 40 mg L⁻¹ DOC,
33 added as glucose) and warming (stepwise from 26 to 32 °C) on the widespread Indo-Pacific
34 gorgonian *Pinnigorgia flava* in a 45-day laboratory experiment. Oxygen fluxes (net
35 photosynthesis and respiration), as well as Symbiodiniaceae cell density and coral growth were
36 assessed. Our results highlight a differential ecophysiological response to DOC enrichment and
37 warming as well as their combination. Individual DOC addition did not significantly affect
38 oxygen fluxes nor Symbiodiniaceae cell density and growth, while warming significantly
39 decreased photosynthesis rates and Symbiodiniaceae cell density. When DOC enrichment and
40 warming were combined, no effect on *P. flava* oxygen fluxes was observed while growth
41 responded to certain DOC conditions depending on the temperature. Our findings indicate that *P.*
42 *flava* is insensitive to the individual effect of DOC enrichment, but not to warming and the two
43 stressors combined. This suggests that, if temperature remains below certain thresholds, this
44 gorgonian species may gain a competitive advantage over coral species that are reportedly more
45 affected by DOC eutrophication. However, under the expected increasing temperature scenarios,
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47 consequences on community structure. This study contributes to our understanding of the
48 conditions that drive phase shift dynamics in coastal coral reef ecosystems.

49

50 Introduction

51 Gorgonians (Octocorallia; Alcyonacea [= Gorgonians]) have, in general, a flexible internal
52 gorgonin skeleton which in some species take on tree- or bush-like forms that can reach
53 considerable sizes (up to >1 m in height). This non monophyletic group differs greatly from the
54 most studied Scleractinian corals (Hexacorallia), also known as hard or reef-building corals,
55 because the latter have a hard, calcium-based skeleton which, in most cases, constitutes the very
56 foundation of the reef ecosystem (Roberts & Hirshfield, 2004). Nevertheless, both scleractinian
57 and gorgonians are generally considered ecosystem engineers due to the key ecological role they

58 carry out in ecosystem functioning (Jones et al., 1994, Rossi et al., 2017). In particular,
59 gorgonians typically have an arborescent shape that forms three-dimensional structures which
60 increase environmental complexity. While gorgonians are not a recognized taxonomically valid
61 group, this term is useful for referring to soft corals that have a skeletal axis composed of
62 gorgonin (McFadden et al., 2010), and a more extensive three-dimensional structure as a result
63 of their axial skeleton. These organisms often create underwater forests that foster biodiversity
64 either as a substrate for epifaunal communities or by acting as nursery areas for a large number
65 of species (Sánchez et al., 2016; Rossi et al., 2017). In tropical coral reef ecosystems, the
66 ecological functioning of many gorgonian species is strongly dependent on the relationship
67 between the coral host, its associated microbes and associated Symbiodiniaceae algae (i.e.,
68 collectively the coral holobiont), which provide the foundation for their ecological success, as
69 they do for many other tropical coral species. In this mutualistic association, the coral host
70 provides inorganic nutrients in exchange for photosynthetically fixed carbon (photosynthates)
71 and amino acids translocated from the Symbiodiniaceae (Muscatine & Porter, 1977), which fuels
72 gorgonian growth (Ramsby, 2014).

73

74 Anthropogenic impacts on a local and a global scale can threaten the coral-Symbiodiniaceae
75 symbiosis (Pogoreutz et al., 2017; Rådecker et al., 2021; Tilstra et al., 2017). Increased water
76 temperatures can induce malfunctioning of the Symbiodiniaceae photosynthetic apparatus
77 leading to a reduction in Symbiodiniaceae cell density and subsequently photosynthetic activity
78 (Weis, 2008, Fitt et al., 2001; Hughes et al., 2017, 2018). Moreover, extended periods of high
79 temperatures generally lead to coral mortality due to physiological damage and impaired
80 metabolism (Glynn, 1984; Berkelmans et al., 2004). These negative impacts of increased
81 temperatures are described in both hard corals (Santos et al., 2014; Cardini et al., 2016; Hughes,
82 et al., 2018; Ziegler et al., 2019) and octocorals, such as gorgonians (Lasker et al., 2003; Harvell
83 et al., 2001; Prada et al., 2010). Gorgonians often respond similarly compared to the more
84 extensively studied hard corals – i.e., display bleaching processes whereby large extents of the
85 coral rapidly pale through loss of their algal endosymbionts via destabilization of the coral–algal
86 symbiosis. Coral bleaching may lead to diminished photosynthetic activity and eventually to
87 mortality when prolonged over long periods (Sugget and Smith 2020 and references therein).

88

89 Yet, coral resilience towards temperature-induced impacts can be simultaneously affected by
90 other stressors (Hughes et al., 2003; Brodie et al., 2011), including complex combinations of
91 stressors arising from global climate change and local degraded water quality. The presence of
92 humans in the proximity of coral reefs can result in an elevated input of nutrients into reef
93 waters. Nutrients associated with human activities, i.e., particulate and dissolved inorganic and
94 organic matter, can enter reef ecosystems via riverine influx, diffuse discharge, or as aeolian dust
95 (Cuet et al., 1988; Fabricius and De'ath 2004; Brodie et al., 2009, 2012; Weber et al., 2012).
96 Some corals may benefit from particulate organic matter enrichment because it enhances feeding
97 rates and growth, providing even higher competitive advantages, especially for species more
98 dependent on heterotrophic filter feeding. A consequence of this is a potential community shift
99 from corals that can grow at extremely low food concentrations to more heterotrophic and less
100 diverse coral communities (Fabricius, 2005). However, anthropogenic eutrophication of coastal
101 waters has also been linked to a decline in coral cover (Bednarz et al., 2012; Wiedenmann et al.,
102 2013; Pogoreutz et al., 2017).

103

104 Land sourced runoff containing elevated nutrient concentrations may result in a wide range of
105 impacts on hard coral communities (Grigg 1995; Ward and Harrison 2000; Koop et al., 2001;
106 Loya et al., 2004; Fabricius and De'ath 2004; Fabricius et al., 2004, 2007); including reduced
107 recruitment (Loya et al., 2004; Fabricius, 2005), modified trophic structures (Fabricius and
108 De'ath 2004), altered biodiversity (van Woelk et al., 1999), and increased mortality (Ward and
109 Harrison 1997; Harrison and Ward 2001; Kline et al., 2006). Under extreme situations, such
110 impacts can result in the collapse of the coral community (Smith et al., 1981). Furthermore,
111 experiments on hard corals indicate that increased nutrient levels can reduce tolerance to heat
112 stress (Cardini et al., 2015), which assigns critical importance to local management of water
113 quality to mitigate the pressure induced by global climate change (Webb et al., 1975;
114 Hoogenboom et al., 2012). Thus far, studies assessing the impacts of nutrient enrichment on
115 coral reefs have primarily focused on hard corals (e.g., Wiedenmann et al., 2013; Vega Thurber
116 et al., 2014; Cardini et al., 2015) with very few studies on octocorals. Gorgonians may have a
117 capacity to cope with inorganic nutrient enrichment (Fleury et al., 2004; McCauley et al., 2019),
118 while organic matter fluxes and metabolic activity in other octocorals may be negatively affected
119 (Bednarz et al., 2012; Baum et al., 2016; McCauley et al., 2019).

120

121 Nevertheless, water quality has many components which have not been as widely studied and
122 deserve more attention, such as dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In hard corals, DOC
123 enrichment can cause a breakdown of the coral-Symbiodiniaceae symbiosis (Pogoreutz et al.,
124 2017), similar to thermally stressed corals (Rädecker et al., 2021). This process is intimately
125 linked with nitrogen (N) availability (Wiedenmann et al., 2013; Wooldridge, 2013; Vega
126 Thurber et al., 2014; Rädecker et al., 2021). DOC enrichment may stimulate the fixation of
127 atmospheric N₂ by increased microbial -i.e., diazotrophic- activity, increasing N concentration
128 and triggering the rapid uptake of N by Symbiodiniaceae (Pogoreutz et al., 2017). This may
129 eventually lead to phosphorus (P) starvation and a stoichiometric shift in the N:P ratio, causing
130 the photosynthetic apparatus to malfunction resulting in the onset of bleaching (Tchernov et al.,
131 2004; Wiedenmann et al., 2013; Wooldridge, 2013). Other studies showed hard coral mortality
132 under DOC enrichment treatments and similar experimental duration (Kline et al., 2006; Kuntz
133 et al., 2005). Recent studies assessing the individual and combined effects of DOC enrichment
134 and increased water temperatures on the fleshy, pulsating octocoral *Xenia umbellata* reported
135 that DOC enrichment had a positive effect on its heat tolerance when functional and ecological
136 variables, i.e., pulsation, were considered (Vollstedt et al., 2020). DOC enrichment also did not
137 have a significant effect on the ecophysiology (oxygen production, consumption, and growth) of
138 *X. umbellata* suggesting that certain octocorals may be more resistant to individual DOC
139 enrichment than hard corals (Simancas et al., 2021). In line, *X. umbellata* showed decreased
140 gross photosynthetic activity at 28°C and 30 °C but still positive net photosynthesis at 32 °C
141 displaying certain degree of resistance to elevated temperatures.

142

143 Despite empirical evidence showing that octocorals are becoming more abundant, displaying
144 more significant functional roles than in the past (Lenz et al., 2015; Ruzicka et al., 2013), and
145 potentially representing a "new normal" for some coral reefs, they remain largely under-
146 investigated (Lasker et al., 2020). In particular, how the combined effects of local (e.g., organic
147 eutrophication) and global factors (e.g., warming) influence the ecophysiological responses in
148 gorgonians is still largely overlooked. Thus, in this study, we investigated how the individual and
149 combined effects of DOC enrichment and increased temperatures affected the ecophysiology of
150 the Symbiodiniaceae-associated gorgonian *Pinnigorgia flava* (Nutting, 1910). Following

151 previous studies on nutrient addition and thermal stress (Fabricius et al., 2013; McCauley et al
152 2019), we assessed the effects of individual DOC concentrations and a subsequent stepwise
153 increase in temperature on fragments of the gorgonian coral *P. flava* in a 45-day manipulative
154 experiment. We hypothesized that the individual and combined effects of DOC enrichment and
155 high temperatures would negatively impact this gorgonian's ecophysiology. Specifically, we
156 expected coral photosynthesis, respiration activity and growth rates to significantly decrease
157 under both individual and combined effects of DOC enrichment and increased temperature (with
158 stronger negative effects under multiple stressors). As such, the present study assessed the effects
159 of 1) organic eutrophication, i.e., DOC enrichment, 2) increased water temperatures, and 3) a
160 combination of both factors on the ecophysiology of the gorgonian *P. flava* by measuring
161 photosynthesis and respiration activity via oxygen fluxes, Symbiodiniaceae cell densities and
162 coral growth (i.e., changes in surface area), over 45 days.

163

164 **Materials & Methods**

165 The experiment was carried out at the Marine Ecology laboratory of the Centre for
166 Environmental Research and Sustainable Technology (UFT), University of Bremen, Germany.

167

168 **Experimental tank setup**

169 Experimental design, methodologies, and the seawater parameters are described by Vollstedt et
170 al. (2020) and Simancas-Giraldo et al. (2021). In summary, our experiment was divided into two
171 temporal stages consisting of 21 and 24 days, respectively. In the first experimental stage, 12
172 tanks (3 tanks per treatment including 3 controls) were used to test the individual effects of three
173 different DOC concentrations (low: 10 mg L⁻¹, medium: 20 mg L⁻¹ and high: 40 mg L⁻¹), while
174 the control tanks were kept without DOC additions at environmental conditions (2 to 3 mg L⁻¹).
175 During the second experimental stage, warming scenarios were implemented and four additional
176 tanks were added as controls for the increased temperature treatments. In this stage, we tested the
177 individual and simultaneous effects of warming by raising the water temperature following a
178 stepwise increase from 26 °C to 32 °C (2 °C per week) in every tank except for the four tanks
179 assigned as temperature controls. In further detail, 16 tanks were prepared in total for the
180 experiments comprising this second experimental stage and ensured to have starting comparable
181 conditions. Then, 12 of these tanks were used to accommodate the individual DOC treatments

182 and the corresponding controls (i.e., DOC controls) during the first stage, while the additional
183 four tanks remained in wait for the start of the second stage of experiments. These additional
184 tanks were installed and held with identical initial conditions to the ones in the DOC control
185 tanks of the first stage and were employed as temperature controls during the second stage of the
186 experiments, when all DOC treatments, including the DOC controls, were exposed to warming
187 conditions.

188
189 Each experimental tank had a total volume of 60 L and consisted of two parts: a back part acting
190 as a technical tank separated by a glass division from a front part which contained the
191 experimental fragments. Both parts were connected by a pump and an outflow situated in the
192 glass division between the frontal and back part that allowed water exchange between these two
193 sections. Thus, each 60 L tank represented an independent closed system with its own
194 circulation. Above each tank, a LED light simulated daylight conditions. All tanks were filled
195 with artificial seawater (Tropic Marin® ZooMix Sea Salt) and kept at the same conditions as the
196 tank from which parent colonies originated. One month prior to the experiments, water was
197 cycled altogether with the parental colonies tank (i.e., the maintenance tank) for a minimum
198 period of two weeks, before closing connections between tanks making each of them
199 independent. Seawater salinity was kept at 35 ± 0.6 ppt, pH of 8.2 ± 0.1 , and temperature at 26.0
200 ± 0.3 C (mean \pm SE) and exposed to a 12:12 light:dark period at constant light intensity ($120.8 \pm$
201 $10.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), while additional chemical water parameters, such as the pH, KH,
202 Ammonium (NH_4^+), Nitrite (NO_2^-), Nitrate (NO_3^-) and Phosphate contents (PO_4^{3-}) were
203 measured and adjusted manually twice per week. A general summary on the chemical parameters
204 through the experiment can be found in Vollstedt et al. (2020) while other relevant parameters
205 such as salinity and pH can be found summarized by treatment in Xiang et al. (2021). We
206 additionally present details on the recorded mean values measured per tank through the
207 experiment in our Supplementary Material S1.

208
209 A parallel study on the soft coral *X. umbellata* was performed in conjunction with the current
210 experiment. In particular, each experimental tank contained four frames, two holding $n=10$ *P.*
211 *flava* and two holding $n=10$ *X. umbellata* fragments. The additional frames with *X. umbellata*
212 fragments were used for different studies besides this one (i.e., Vollstedt et al., 2020; Simancas et

213 al., 2021 and Xiang et al., 2021). Our selection of DOC treatment concentrations for this
214 experiment was based on previous studies that manipulated glucose loading (Kline et al., 2006;
215 Pogoreutz et al., 2017) alongside previous findings by e.g., Baum et al. (2016), where some
216 octocoral species were shown to be able to inhabit highly eutrophicated zones in particular reefs.
217 Untreated DOC tanks (2 to 3 mg L⁻¹) were employed as DOC control condition. The temperature
218 treatments (28 °C, 30 °C, 32 °C) were selected to simulate the predicted rising ocean
219 temperatures based on the 2018 IPCC report (De Coninck et al., 2018). DOC concentrations
220 were measured using a Total Organic Carbon (TOC) analyzer (TOC-L CPH/CPN PC-Controlled
221 Model, Shimadzu, Japan) twice a day, and adjusted by adding a standard solution containing D-
222 Glucose anhydrous (purity: 99%, Fisher Scientific U.K. Limited, Loughborough, UK). The water
223 temperature was measured daily and kept under stable conditions using a heater for each tank
224 and salinity was kept steady by adding demineralized water to the system to compensate for
225 evaporation.

226

227 **Experimental implementation**

228 *P. flava* was molecularly identified by Xiang et al. (2021) and selected for this study based on its
229 widespread occurrence in the Indo-Pacific (Vargas et al., 2020) and its relatively simple breeding
230 and maintenance in experimental tanks (Conci et al., 2019, Vargas et al., 2020; Vargas et al.,
231 2022). The identity of the *P. flava* associated Symbiodiniaceae of our fragments was not
232 confirmed through molecular means. However, since *P. flava* has been consistently reported to
233 be associated with *Cladocopium* sp. (Goulet et al., 2008a), we inferred our *P. flava* fragments to
234 be associated with a Symbiodiniaceae species within this genus. (see Goulet et al., 2008b and the
235 “Symbiodiniaceae Style Guide” by Parkinson et al. Lab, 2022 -

236 https://www.thelifeaquatic.net/?page_id=292 for further details). We therefore did not expect the
237 specific species of Symbiodiniaceae to play a significant role in the interpretation of our results.

238

239 During this study, approximately 280 fragments (2 ± 0.5 cm in length) of the gorgonian *P. flava*
240 were propagated randomly from three clonal mother colonies (similar sized). The mother
241 colonies initially originated from the Caribbean and were kept in a 420 L aquarium in the facility
242 for more than one year prior to the start of our experiment. Except for water flow rates, we kept
243 the same conditions of this aquarium for all the control tanks used for this experiment

244 (Supplementary Material S1). Each fragment was subsequently attached to calcium carbonate
245 plugs (Aqua Perfect frag plug for light grid / Round 1cm (AP-7004-0) using coral glue (D-D
246 AquaScape Construction Epoxy). Two plastic grids were used to fit a total of ten gorgonian
247 fragments per grid. The fragments were then randomly assigned to their corresponding
248 experimental tanks and allowed to acclimatize before the start of the experiment. A total of 240
249 *P. flava* fragments (20 fragments per tank x 12 tanks) were employed during the first stage of the
250 experiment (individual DOC addition). These fragments were acclimated in the experimental
251 system for five days before the start of the first stage. The remaining 40 fragments were kept at
252 ambient conditions in the maintenance tank for the first stage of the experiment. These fragments
253 were then distributed evenly in the temperature control tanks and given five days to acclimate
254 before the second stage of the experiment started.

255

256 **Quantification of oxygen fluxes**

257 The oxygen (O₂) fluxes were calculated according to Bednarz et al., (2012). Three fragments
258 from each treatment were transferred to individual incubation glass chambers for measurements
259 for oxygen quantification. In addition, one glass chamber per tank was filled solely with seawater
260 to serve as a control to account for planktonic background metabolism (i.e., control glass
261 chamber). The starting O₂ concentration in each chamber was measured using a salinity-
262 corrected O₂ optode sensor (FDO®925 Optical Dissolved Oxygen Sensor, range:0.00 to 20.00
263 mg O₂ L⁻¹, accuracy: ± 0.5% of the value, MultiLine® IDS 3430, WTW). All chambers were
264 sealed airtight (without any air bubbles inside) and incubated twice per day, once for measuring
265 O₂ production, i.e., net photosynthesis, and once for O₂ consumption, i.e., respiration. O₂
266 production was measured through incubations performed under light conditions, putting back the
267 sampled glass chambers into the experimental tanks to keep the water temperature steady. Each
268 glass chamber was opened, and end O₂ concentrations were measured as soon as the first
269 incubation was concluded. The glass chambers were then closed immediately and subsequently
270 incubated under complete darkness to measure O₂ consumption. During this measurement, the
271 glass chamber was placed in darkened water baths which were completely clad with a handmade
272 black coating and located inside a dark room. The temperature in the water baths was kept
273 constant via thermostats, mirroring the temperatures in the corresponding experimental tanks.
274 Thus, both water temperature and dark conditions were ensured during the dark incubations. The

275 incubations lasted for approximately two hours each. O₂ fluxes were subsequently calculated
276 from these dark and light incubations, where O₂ initial concentrations were subtracted from the
277 final concentrations and the results were normalized to the incubation time. The O₂ fluxes
278 measured were further corrected by the background seawater control signal, subtracting the O₂
279 flux measured in the control glass chamber from the O₂ flux in the glass chamber containing the
280 coral fragment. These corrections were further standardized by the incubation water volume and
281 the calculated O₂ fluxes were finally normalized to the corresponding coral fragment surface
282 area.

283

284 **Symbiodiniaceae density**

285 Symbiodiniaceae cell counting was performed at the end of the experiment on day 45 by
286 randomly selecting *P. flava* fragments (n = 3) from each aquarium treatment and cutting a ~1.5
287 cm tip. The branch tips were weighed in a four-digit analytical balance, to measure wet weight.
288 Host tissue was then separated from its central gorgonin axis by mechanical removal of the tissue
289 using a scalpel. Subsequently, simple mechanical movements were employed to separate the
290 tissue from the axis. The resulting tissue slurry was collected in 2 mL Eppendorf tubes and
291 homogenized mechanically with 1 mL of demineralized water using Eppendorf micropestles.
292 Symbiodiniaceae cell density was subsequently quantified microscopically immediately after
293 extraction using an improved Neubauer hemocytometer. Final counts were normalized to the
294 corresponding coral fragment wet weight (Forcioli et al., 2011; McCowan et al., 2011; Cardini et
295 al., 2015).

296

297 **Growth measurements**

298 Growth of *P. flava* fragments was measured by image analysis using photographs taken
299 continuously throughout the experiment (n = 3). The same fragments that were chosen for O₂
300 fluxes were photographed over time. Photographs of the fragments were taken once per week,
301 always from a lateral view. The small fragments were glued as single unbranched fragments at
302 the start of the experiment, and photographs were taken, always procuring to capture the full
303 extension plane of each photographed fragment. A camera (Canon EOS 650 D, Canon Inc.,
304 Japan) with an unchanged camera setting and the objective (EF-S 18-55 IS II Objective, Canon
305 Inc., Japan) were used to keep identical conditions such as the height of the lens above the floor

306 (85 cm), height of tank above the floor (75 cm) and distance tank-camera (31 cm). The same
307 photographic setup, with a constant distance to the specimens and a known size measurement
308 reference were used every time the fragments were photographed. Subsequently, photographs
309 were edited and processed using ImageJ software (version 1.44). Growth was derived by
310 assuming the fragments to have the shape of a cylinder. Both length and the width (diameter) of
311 the fragment were measured. As the fragment's diameter was slightly different throughout its
312 length, the top, middle and bottom of the fragment were measured to calculate an average.
313 Finally, changes in the coral fragments' surface area were calculated over time.

314

315 **Data Analysis**

316 Data analyses were carried out using the computing software R version 3.5.2 (R Core Team,
317 2018) and Rstudio version 1.1.456 (R Core team, 2018) and the R package "Lme4" from Bates
318 et al. (2015). In order to check whether there were any significant differences among the
319 treatments, a Linear Mixed-Effects Model (LMM) was used for O₂ fluxes and growth, whilst a
320 simple Linear Model (LM) was used to evaluate the Symbiodiniaceae cell densities. After an
321 outlier treatment was performed, LMM models that suited the data were calculated and verified
322 using model diagnostics: i.e., model fit quality was carefully assessed using Pearson's residuals
323 variance plots for each parameter together with linearity checks of the factors tested during the
324 model's construction. The best model was chosen according to results obtained from direct
325 model comparisons via ANOVA type II, alongside AIC criterion for additional comparison and
326 best model selection. To estimate the significance of the fixed factors, we implemented an
327 ANOVA type III for O₂ fluxes and Symbiodiniaceae cell densities, and an ANOVA type II for
328 growth (Zuur et al., 2009). Corresponding approaches for degrees of freedom approximation
329 were used accordingly (Kuznetsova et al., 2014). When p-values were determined to be $p < 0.05$,
330 fixed factors were considered statistically significant. Whenever significant differences were
331 found, a corresponding post hoc Tukey test was executed using the R package "emmeans" by
332 Lenth (2019). In further detail, the analyses were performed independently for each stage,
333 ensuring consistency with the experimental design, i.e., we created a LMM dedicated to the first
334 stage: individual DOC addition in 12 tanks, with DOC (four levels), time and the interaction
335 thereof as fixed factors. Additionally, a second model was created for the second stage: with
336 DOC addition and increased temperature in 16 experimental tanks, DOC (five levels),

337 temperature, and the interaction of DOC and temperature as fixed factors. The aquaria tank's
338 information (i.e., the corresponding tank identity) was included as a random factor in all our
339 LMM models to account for additional sources of noise or unwanted variation related to
340 differences among tanks. Furthermore, the donor colony identity information was included as
341 random factor in the growth assessment models but not in the O₂ fluxes or the Symbiodiniaceae
342 cell density models, always favoring model fit and statistical power. Hence, caution is advised
343 when interpreting these results, as the models excluding this factor do not consider colony slope
344 variations. As the four temperature control tanks were solely utilized for the second stage of the
345 experiment, they were only included in the statistical analysis thereof. In addition, except for
346 flow rate related parameters, the measured system characteristics of these four tanks did not
347 differ statistically when compared to those of the DOC control tanks nor to the maintenance
348 tanks (see Supplementary Material S2).

349

350 **Results**

351 **DOC enrichment**

352 For *P. flava* fragments exposed to different DOC concentrations, neither DOC, time nor the
353 interaction between DOC and time showed any significant effect on the O₂ fluxes (LMM; $p >$
354 0.05 ; Table 1). The O₂ production rates showed mean values that varied from a minimum of 1.06
355 ± 0.37 mmol O₂ cm⁻² h⁻¹ to a maximum of 1.32 ± 0.41 mmol O₂ cm⁻² h⁻¹ by the end of the first
356 stage of the experiment (Fig. 1A). The O₂ consumption rates showed a stable trend over time
357 where mean values recorded at the end of the first stage were within a minimum of 0.65 ± 1.17
358 mmol O₂ cm⁻² h⁻¹ and a maximum of 1.61 ± 1.22 mmol O₂ cm⁻² h⁻¹ (Fig. 1B). Cell density was
359 measured only at the end of the experiment when all treatments had already experienced the
360 same temperature increase. Furthermore, growth showed no significant differences when
361 exposed to individual DOC effects (LMM; $p = 0.19$; Table 2).

362

363 **Increased temperature**

364 When *P. flava* fragments were exposed to simulated warming scenarios, O₂ production rates
365 showed a decreasing trend towards higher temperatures (Fig. 2A). In contrast, O₂ consumption
366 rates were not significantly affected by the increased temperatures (Fig. 2B; $p = 0.81$; Table 3).
367 In particular, O₂ production was strongly reduced under increased temperature when compared

368 to the temperature control. The factor temperature had a significant effect on O₂ production
369 (LMM; $F = 6.95$, $p = 0.001$; Table 3), and subsequent pairwise temperature comparisons were
370 significant only for the contrast between 26°C and 32°C and 28°C and 32°C ($p = 0.0024$ and $p =$
371 0.0021 respectively (Supplementary Material S3.1). Moreover, the temperature factor alone did
372 not have a significant effect on *P. flava* growth ($p = 0.56$; Table 2). However, a significant
373 reduction of Symbiodiniaceae cell density was observed for the fragments exposed to heat stress
374 at 32 °C at the end of the experiment (LM; $p = 5.35e-10$; Fig. 3).

375

376 **DOC enrichment and warming**

377 For the second stage of the experiment, i.e., where the gorgonian fragments were exposed to
378 DOC enrichment and warming, neither the DOC treatment nor the interactions between DOC
379 and temperature had a significant effect on the *P. flava* fragments' O₂ production or consumption
380 (Table 3). However, there was a significant effect in the interaction between DOC and
381 temperature on growth (LMM; $p = 6.1e-06$; Table 2; Fig. 4). The post hoc test with fixed DOC
382 factor intercept varying across temperatures highlighted significant differences across the low
383 (10 mg L⁻¹) DOC treatment ($p = 0.0046$) and the temperature control condition ($p = 0.0091$) at 26
384 °C (see Supplementary Materials S3.2). In detail, the significantly different contrasts included
385 some of the pair combinations between the temperature control condition and the DOC control at
386 30 °C and, the temperature control condition and the low (10 mg L⁻¹) DOC treatment at 32 °C
387 (see Fig. 4 and Supplementary Materials S3.3, S3.4 and S4 for further details).

388

389 **Discussion**

390 **Effects of DOC concentration enrichment**

391 Our results showed that individual DOC enrichment did not alter O₂ fluxes, or growth in *P. flava*
392 fragments at any DOC concentration. Our findings contrast from previous scientific evidence
393 conducted on hard coral species such as *Orbicella annularis* and *Pocillopora verrucosa*, which
394 showed negative responses toward DOC enrichment since it likely triggers microbial activity, a
395 consequent stoichiometric shift in the N:P ratio, and potential bleaching response. For instance,
396 DOC concentration enrichment can initiate bleaching responses in hard corals (Kuntz et al.,
397 2005; Kline et al., 2006; Haas et al., 2016; Pogoreutz et al., 2017; Morris et al., 2019).
398 Nevertheless, our results match with recent studies conducted on the pulsating octocoral *X.*

399 *umbellata* which showed no negative responses to individual DOC treatments regardless of their
400 concentrations at the ecophysiological level (Simancas et al., 2021). Soft corals may display
401 higher tolerance to enriched DOC concentration in the water than hard corals, by either up taking
402 the available DOC as an additional source of energy via the host (Fabricius., 2011), or by
403 regulating internal nutrient availability of the holobiont via the role that the host-associated
404 bacterial communities (e.g., denitrifying bacteria) might play under changing environments
405 (Xiang et al., 2021).

406

407 **Effect of temperature**

408 Regarding temperature increases, the findings of this study on *P. flava* resemble the results
409 observed in our previous works conducted on *X. umbellata*. The latter coral species is not
410 sensitive to DOC enrichment, but shows a negative response to warming, though milder when
411 compared to the present study (Vollstedt et al., 2020; Simancas-Giraldo et al., 2021, Xiang et al.,
412 2021). Specifically, we found no effect of warming on *P. flava*'s O₂ consumption rates,
413 regardless of the temperatures reached during the warming stage of our study. However, we
414 observed significant differences in O₂ production rates when subjected to warming. In particular,
415 the rising water temperatures during the second stage of the experiment negatively affected O₂
416 production rates in *P. flava* at 32 °C. Such results contrast with studies performed on other
417 gorgonian species from the Caribbean region such as e.g., *Eunicea fleaxuosa* or *Eunicea*
418 *tourneforti* (Goulet et al., 2017), but align with the well-known negative trends observed on
419 several hard coral species in response to thermal stress (Monroe et al., 2018; Ziegler et al., 2019).
420 Both decreased O₂ production and maximum quantum yield are among the first reactions of hard
421 corals to thermal stress. This may lead to the dysfunction of photoprotective mechanisms and
422 impair CO₂ fixation of the coral-associated Symbiodiniaceae; thus, causing bleaching responses
423 (Jones et al., 1998). In general, thermal stress is a widely reported factor to cause bleaching in
424 both hard corals (Cardini et al., 2016; Hughes et al., 2018; Ziegler et al., 2019) and octocorals
425 (Strychar et al., 2005; Slattery et al., 2019), including gorgonians (Lasker et al., 2003; Harvell et
426 al., 2001; Prada et al., 2010; Rossi et al., 2018). Moreover, the observed reduction of O₂
427 production under high-temperature conditions aligned with the decreased Symbiodiniaceae cell
428 densities observed at 32°C may have been signaling the onset of an early bleaching response in
429 our *P. flava* coral colonies. The loss of Symbiodiniaceae cells due to environmental stressors

430 such as elevated seawater temperatures, may lead to symbiosis breakdown which in turn causes
431 coral bleaching (Fitt et al., 2001; Lesser et al., 2011; Karim et al., 2015). However, despite the
432 significant drop in Symbiodiniaceae cell density during the warming phase, the fragments
433 appeared only moderately bleached, and no mortality was observed. This suggests a given
434 potential for thermal tolerance until a certain threshold, that might be higher than that of many
435 hard coral species reportedly sensitive towards warming (Hughes et al., 2018; Ziegler et al.,
436 2019). Explanations for this relative tolerance could be related to many aspects of the coral
437 holobiont including (but not limited to), species specific traits (e.g., resistant bacterial or
438 microbial communities), capability to modify holobiont parameters (Goulet et al., 2017; Xiang et
439 al., 2021), differences in colony morphology (Conti-Jerpe et al., 2022) or potential adjustments
440 of nutritional behaviors (Grottoli et al., 2006). Further, as highlighted by Wooldridge (2014),
441 many aspects of coral bleaching cannot be explained solely by the loss or persistence of algal
442 symbionts amongst coral species but also by other host coral traits (e.g., metabolic rates,
443 heterotrophic feedings capacity) which are also believed to influence the thermal tolerance. Thus,
444 all these aspects should deserve further exploration in future studies in octocorals, including data
445 on Symbiodiniaceae identity which likely would be needed to improve conclusions on the
446 physiological responses of the octocoral holobiont.

447

448 Despite the experiments by Wooldridge (2014) being conducted on hard coral species, the
449 occurrence of certain host traits in octocoral species may justify their potential resistance to
450 thermal stress. In addition, despite the contribution of the Symbiodiniaceae to the energy budget
451 of octocorals being species-specific (Sorokin 1991), overall, it may be lower in some octocoral
452 species compared to hard corals (Baker et al., 2015; Ferrier-Pagès et al., 2015). Furthermore,
453 environmental parameters such as e.g., water flow regimes or flow speed have also been shown
454 to affect bleaching resilience, growth, mortality and to enhance coral feeding (Nakamura et al.,
455 2003). In this study, we did not measure water flow speeds directly and water flow regimes
456 significantly varied when comparing the maintenance tank to the rest of the experimental tanks
457 in our system. Despite we controlled additional variation for this factor through our experimental
458 manipulations and during our statistical analyses, flow rates discrepancy may have impacted our
459 observed results, especially those concerning growth rates during the second stage of our
460 experiments. Thus, the interpretation of our findings should consider these additional potential

461 effects on coral tolerance related responses. Moreover, some octocoral species display higher
462 trophic plasticity concerning nutrition compared to hard coral species (Schubert et al., 2017).
463 This has been related to a higher capacity to cope with stress conditions as Symbiodiniaceae loss
464 may not necessarily lead to a significant change in the coral energy input, preventing some
465 octocorals from starving and dying (Goulet et al., 2017; Schubert et al., 2017).

466

467 On the other hand, some hard corals show notable resilience capacity after bleaching by
468 switching from acquiring fixed carbon via primarily photoautotrophic means to primarily
469 heterotrophic means (that is, feeding) (Grottoli et al., 2006), a response that may occur also
470 among octocoral species (Schubert et al., 2017; Lasker et al., 2020). Although we did not assess
471 this through our study, we speculate that *P. flava* could potentially compensate the decreasing
472 Symbiodiniaceae density and lower photosynthetic activity by either modifying or regulating
473 additional holobiont-related parameters such as e.g., bacterial community structure,
474 photosynthetic pigment activity or heterotrophic capacity (Goulet et al., 2017; Xiang et al., 2021;
475 Schubert et al., 2017). This would allow *P. flava* to effectively cope with increasing water
476 temperatures under a diminished Symbiodiniaceae community and adverse environmental
477 conditions eventually gaining advantages over other coral species such as hard corals until a
478 certain threshold is met.

479

480 Moreover, these hypotheses may also contribute to explain the evidences of community phase
481 shifts from hard coral-dominated towards octocoral-dominated reefs, as reported by recent
482 studies in the Indo-Pacific as well as Caribbean regions (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2009; Enochs et
483 al., 2015; Lasker et al., 2020). However, as shown in this study, the elevated temperature still
484 implies negative consequences for the ecophysiology of *P. flava* (i.e., decreased photosynthetic
485 activity, moderate bleaching response) which will likely aggravate if conditions persist in the
486 future, as seen in previous works on octocorals (Lasker et al., 2003; Harvell et al., 2001; Prada et
487 al., 2010; Rossi et al., 2018).

488

489 **Effects of DOC concentration enrichment and warming**

490 The present study is the first to investigate the individual and combined ecophysiological effects
491 of DOC enrichment and warming on the tropical gorgonian species *P. flava*. Our findings show

492 that the interaction between DOC concentrations and temperature did not affect *P. flava* O₂
493 fluxes, while a significant effect was observed for growth. Growth was subsequently shown to
494 respond differentially to determined DOC concentrations depending on the temperature, a feature
495 that may confer an advantage or disadvantage to the coral under stress scenarios depending on
496 the DOC concentration-temperature combination experienced. Furthermore, DOC concentration
497 enrichment did not increase sensitivity to warmer temperatures in *P. flava* which contrasts with
498 our hypothesis but aligns with our previous findings for *X. umbellata* corals (Vollstedt et al.,
499 2020; Simancas et al., 2021). When compared to hard corals, these results suggest that *P. flava*
500 may behave differentially towards the individual effects of DOC enrichment and warming,
501 especially when bleaching response and growth are considered. Moreover, there was no overall
502 effect of either temperature or the DOC concentration factor on growth. However, there was a
503 significant effect in their interaction, in which there was an increase at 32 °C under low (10 mgL-
504 1) DOC concentrations and the effect of DOC concentrations on growth varied depending on the
505 temperature. It is likely that *P. flava* responds to these factors through mechanisms that actuate
506 via diverse photochemical adjustments or physiological pathways, which should be further
507 investigated in the future.

508

509 **Conclusions**

510 Our findings suggest that the gorgonian species *P. flava* is not affected by individual DOC
511 enrichment, in contrast to many other hard coral species. We also observed a significant decrease
512 in *P. flava* O₂ fluxes and Symbiodiniaceae cell densities under higher temperatures, together with
513 significant decreases in growth when subjected to elevated DOC concentrations and warming
514 simultaneously. Thus, we advocate that the gorgonian octocoral in our study can still be
515 negatively affected by increased water temperatures, despite showing substantial resistance to
516 individual DOC enrichment. Nevertheless, DOC effects can vary depending on the temperature
517 as observed in *P. flava*'s growth. The negative effects of expected climate change scenarios on
518 this and potentially other octocoral species may lead to further structural simplification in coral
519 reefs communities and ecological shifts towards alternative benthic assemblages which might
520 gain competitive advantages (e.g., macroalgae) under altered environmental conditions
521 (McManus et al., 2004; deYoung et al, 2008; Sguotti et al., 2018; Adam et al., 2021). For these
522 reasons, we suggest future studies to further explore the effects of combined local and global

523 stressors on octocoral species e.g., gorgonians, accounting for consequences of potential
524 ecological transformation of coral reef communities' structure and productivity.

525

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530

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Figure 1

P. flava O₂ fluxes response to individual DOC addition.

O₂ production (**A**) and consumption (**B**) rates (mg O₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) of *P. flava* under simulated DOC organic eutrophication over time. The control: 2-3 mg L⁻¹ (grey), and the treatment conditions low: 10 mg L⁻¹ (light blue), medium: 20 mg (teal) and high: 10 mg L⁻¹ (dark blue) are represented accordingly. Individual DOC enrichment did not alter O₂ fluxes of the *P. flava* fragments at any of the DOC treatment concentrations assessed. Bars values indicate mean ± s.e.m. for n =3 corals per treatment.

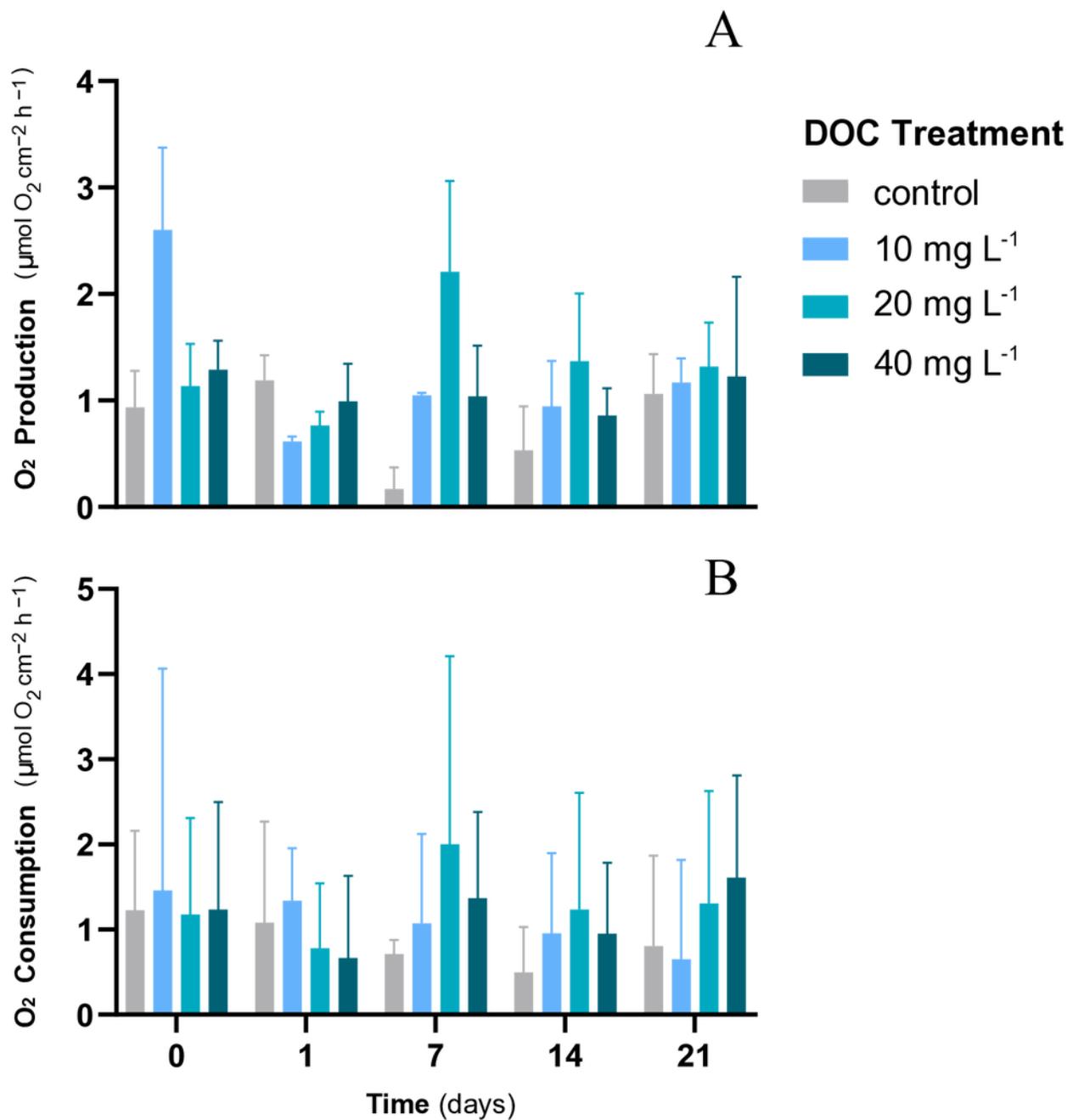


Figure 2

P. flava O₂ fluxes response to DOC enrichment and warming.

O₂ production (**A**) and consumption (**B**) rates (mg O₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) of *P. flava* under simulated DOC organic eutrophication over time. The control: 2-3 mg L⁻¹ (grey), and the treatment conditions low: 10 mg L⁻¹ (light blue), medium: 20 mg (teal) and high: 10 mg L⁻¹ (dark blue) are represented accordingly. Individual DOC enrichment did not alter O₂ fluxes of the *P. flava* fragments at any of the DOC treatment concentrations assessed. Bars values indicate mean ± s.e.m. for n =3 corals per treatment.

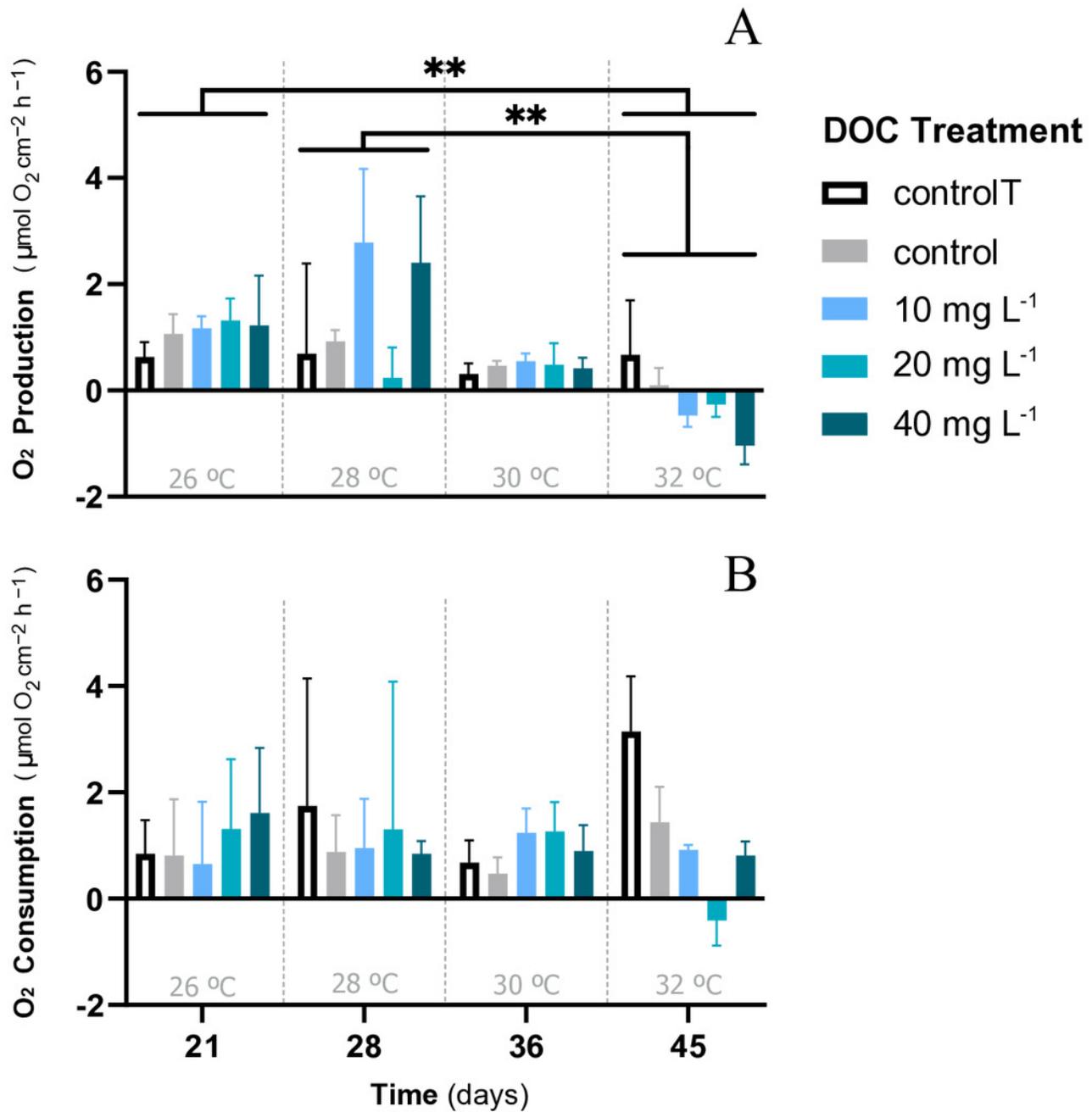


Figure 3

P. flava Symbiodiniaceae density in response to DOC enrichment and warming.

P. flava Symbiodiniaceae cell densities (cells g⁻¹ wet.wt) by the end of the experiment (day 45), corresponding to increased temperature of 32 °C and prolonged DOC addition. The graph presents the temperature control: 2-3 mg L⁻¹ at 26 °C (white), the combined increased temperature treatments including the DOC control: 2-3 mg L⁻¹ (grey), and the DOC treatments, low: 10 mg L⁻¹ (light blue), medium: 20 mg L⁻¹ (teal) and high: 10 mg L⁻¹ (dark blue). Significant reduction of Symbiodiniaceae cell densities was observed by the end of the experimental term when increased temperature reached 32 °C, for all the treatments where the fragments had been exposed to increased temperatures. Asterisks mark statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$; LMM), and the quantity of asterisks displayed is proportional to the corresponding p-value significance code. The bars values indicate mean \pm s.e.m. for $n = 3$ corals per treatment.

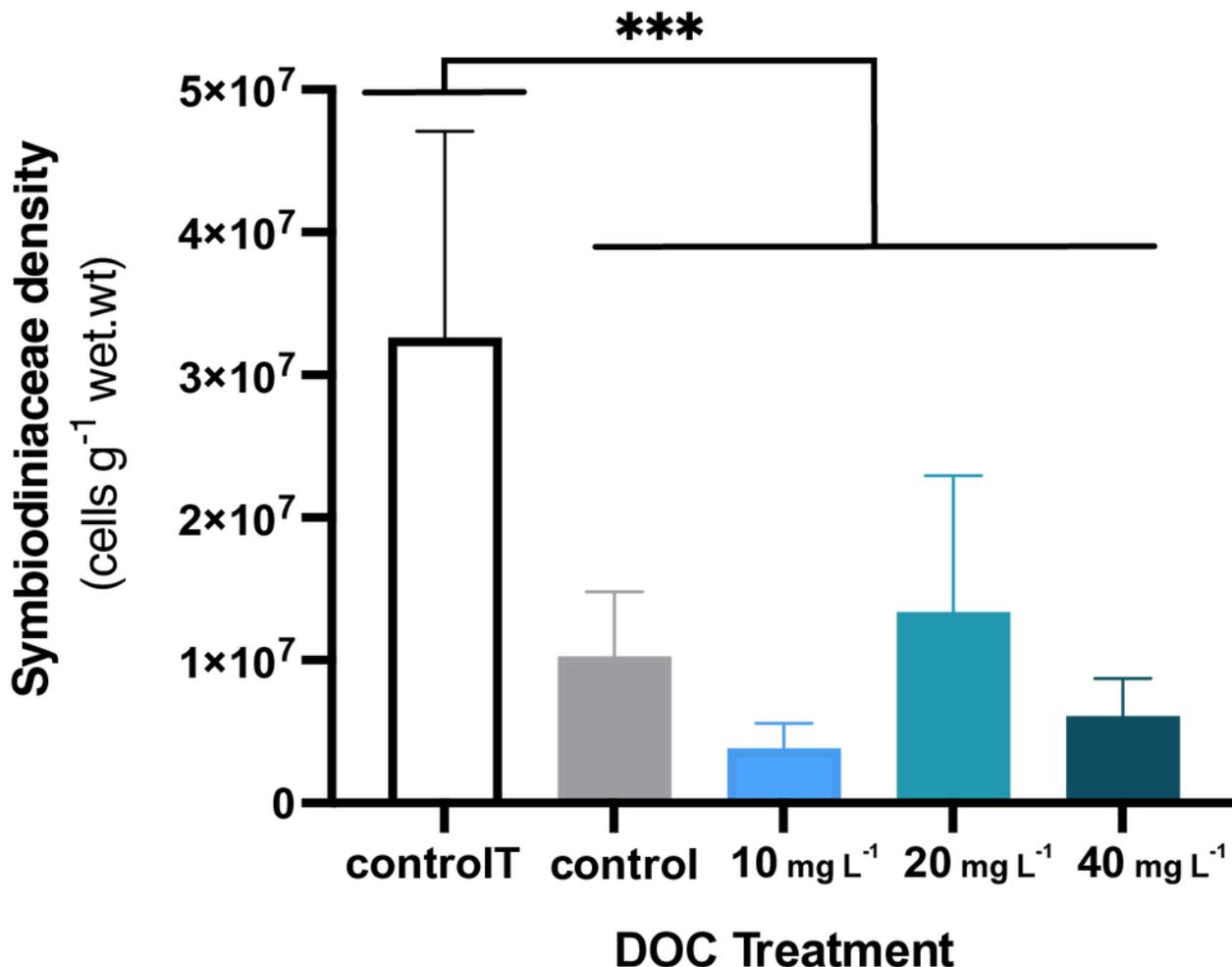


Figure 4

P. flava growth as change in surface area in response to DOC enrichment and warming.

Coral surface area changes (cm²) corresponding to every temperature condition at each DOC treatment. The bar graph shows growth under individual DOC addition and warming as a coupled stressor (increasing red intensity scale). Temperatures per each DOC treatment are shown as 26 °C (light pink), 28 °C (salmon), 29 °C (red) and 32 °C (dark red). The first four bars correspond to the temperature control condition (controlT) with no DOC addition, constantly at 26 °C, but at each temporal step in which the rest of the system reached the corresponding temperature treatment targets. Thus, these four bars' outlines display increasing red intensities accordingly. While neither DOC nor temperature had any effect on growth, their interaction had a significant effect with the effect of DOC on growth varying depending on the temperature value. Asterisks mark statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$; LMM) while the bars values indicate mean \pm s.e.m. for $n = 3$ corals per treatment. The number of asterisks displayed on top of the lines indicate the corresponding p-value significance code.

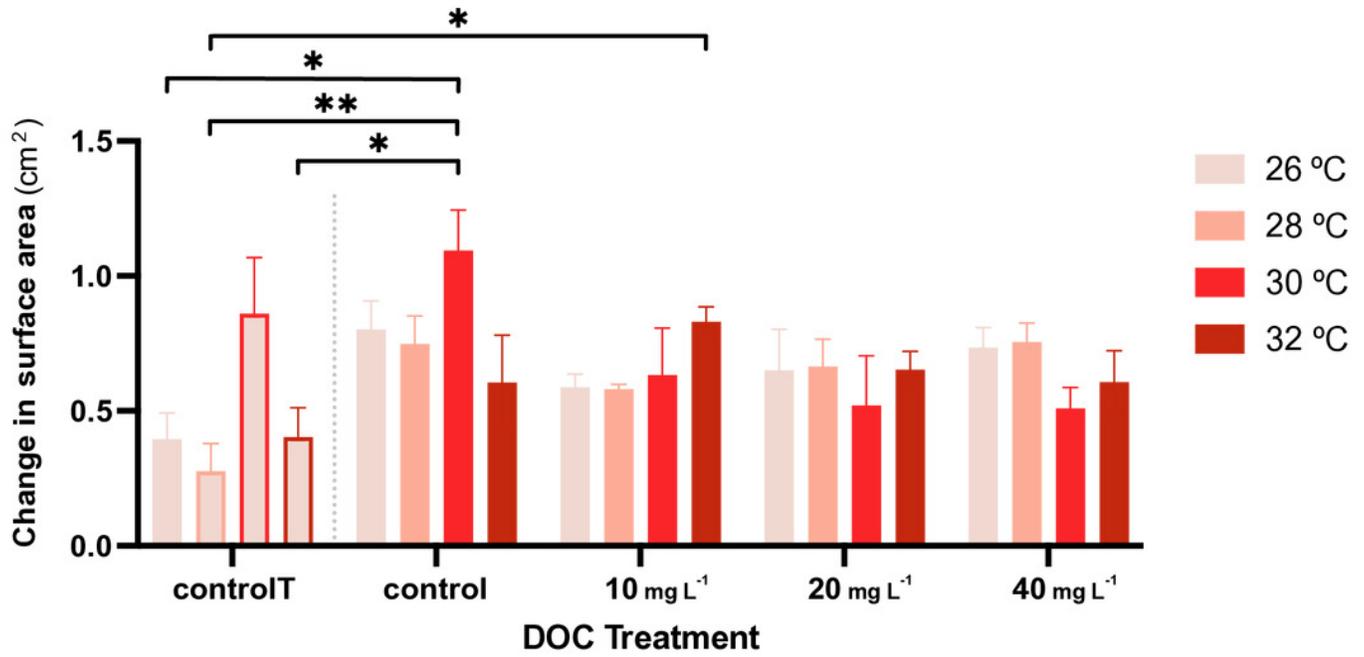


Table 1 (on next page)

Linear mixed-effects model for O₂ production and consumption rates (mg O₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) of *P. flava* corals under individual DOC addition.

Type III analysis of variance with Satterthwaite's approximation method for degrees of freedom.

1 **Table 1**

2

3

4 **Table 1. Linear mixed-effects model results for O₂ production and consumption rates (mg**
 5 **O₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) of *P. flava* coral fragments under individual DOC addition.** Type III analysis of
 6 variance with Satterthwaite's approximation method for degrees of freedom.

7

Factor	O ₂ consumption			O ₂ production		
	<i>df</i>	F	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>	F	<i>p</i>
DOC	3	0.6482	0.6058	3	0.9971	0.4422
Time	4	0.6109	0.6578	4	1.3105	0.2871
DOC x Time	12	0.6796	0.7579	12	1.5900	0.1445

8

Table 2 (on next page)

Linear mixed-effects model for *P. flava* corals growth as change in surface area.

Type II analysis of variance with Satterthwaite's approximation method for degrees of freedom

1 **Table 2**

2

3

4 **Table 2. Linear mixed-effects model for *P. flava* changes in surface area (cm²) under**
5 **simulated warming and DOC addition.** Type II analysis of variance with Satterthwaite's
6 approximation method for degrees of freedom.

7

Fixed effects	Experimental stage	Growth		
		<i>df</i>	χ^2sq	<i>p</i>
DOC	1	3	4.490	0.1967
DOC	2	4	8.758	0.05701
Temperature	2	3	2.431	0.564
DOC x Temperature	2	12	48.949	6.1e-06 ***

8

Table 3(on next page)

Linear mixed-effects model for O₂ production and consumption rates (mg O₂ m⁻² h⁻¹) of *P. flava* corals under DOC enrichment and warming.

Type II analysis of variance with Satterthwaite's approximation method for degrees of freedom.

1 **Table 3**

2

3 **Table 3. Linear mixed-effects model for O₂ production and consumption rates (mg O₂ m⁻² h**
 4 **⁻¹) of *P. flava* coral fragments under simulated warming and DOC addition.** Type III analysis
 5 of variance with Satterthwaite's approximation method for degrees of freedom.

Factor	O ₂ consumption			O ₂ production		
	<i>df</i>	F	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>	F	<i>p</i>
DOC	4	0.7785	0.56	4	0.8370	0.5310
Temperature	3	0.3254	0.8069	3	6.9528	0.0010**
DOC x Temperature	12	1.9910	0.0592	12	1.2085	0.3199

6

7