

Cryophysiology of coral microfragments: effects of chilling and cryoprotectant toxicity

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Coral reefs are being degraded at alarming rates and decisive intervention actions are urgently needed. One such intervention is coral cryopreservation. Although the cryopreservation of coral sperm and larvae has been achieved, preservation of coral fragments including both its tissue and skeleton, has not. The goal of this paper was to understand and assess the physiological stressors that might underlie coral fragment cryopreservation, understand the long-term consequences of these exposures to continued growth, and develop a health metrics scale for future studies. Therefore, we assessed small fragments (~1 cm²) from the Hawaiian coral, Porites compressa, examining: 1) chill sensitivity; 2) chemical sensitivity to complex cryoprotectants; 3) methods to safely remove the coral's algal symbionts for cryopreservation; 4) continued growth over time of coral fragments exposed to chilling and cryoprotectants; and, 5) assessment of health and viability of coral fragments after treatments. Corals were able to withstand chilling to 0 °C for 1 minute and after two weeks were statistically comparable to live controls, whereas, corals exposed to complex cryoprotectants needed three weeks recovery to be similarly comparable to live controls. Most importantly, it appears that once the coral fragments had surpassed this initial recovery, there was no difference in future growth. Technological advances in cryo-technology promise to support successful coral fragment cryopreservation soon, and its success could help secure much of the genetic and biodiversity of reefs in the next decade.

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2 and cryoprotectant toxicity

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Abstract (150 to 200 words)

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Coral reefs are being degraded at alarming rates and decisive intervention actions are urgently needed. One such intervention is coral cryopreservation. Although the cryopreservation of coral sperm and larvae has been achieved, preservation of coral fragments including both its tissue and skeleton, has not. The goal of this paper was to understand and assess the physiological stressors that might underlie coral fragment cryopreservation, understand the long-term consequences of these exposures to continued growth, and develop a health metrics scale for future studies. Therefore, we assessed small fragments ($\sim 1 \text{ cm}^2$) from the Hawaiian coral, *Porites compressa*, examining: 1) chill sensitivity; 2) chemical sensitivity to complex cryoprotectants; 3) methods to safely remove the coral's algal symbionts for cryopreservation; 4) continued growth over time of coral fragments exposed to chilling and cryoprotectants; and, 5) assessment of health and viability of coral fragments after treatments. Corals were able to withstand chilling to 0 °C for 1 minute and after two weeks were statistically comparable to live controls, whereas, corals exposed to complex cryoprotectants needed three weeks recovery to be similarly comparable to live controls. Most importantly, it appears that once the coral fragments had surpassed this initial recovery, there was no difference in future growth. Technological advances in cryo-technology promise to support successful coral fragment cryopreservation soon, and its success could help secure much of the genetic and biodiversity of reefs in the next decade.

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Introduction

47	The coupling of climate change and anthropogenic stressors has caused a widespread and			
48	well-recognized reef crisis (Bellwood et al. 2004; Madin & Madin 2015; Eakin et al. 2019;			
49	França et al. 2020; Frölicher et al. 2018). New modeling data suggest that the threat to tropical			
50	coral reefs may be challenging even with the most optimistic assumptions of coral reef refugia,			
51	adaptation, and potential for restoration with near total reef loss expected by mid-century (Dixon			
52	et al. 2022; Kalmus et al. 2022). As part of these stressors, ocean warming is increasing the			
53	frequency of bleaching events around the world (Hughes et al. 2018), which has been shown to			
54	negatively impact coral reproduction (Hagedorn et al. 2016; Ward et al. 2002; Henley et al.			
55	2021). Without robust reproduction on reefs, the potential for adaptations to warmer waters is			
56	reduced (van Oppen et al. 2015). We need innovative and practical conservation solutions so we			
57	can intervene to help preserve coral biodiversity and genetic diversity. Decisive conservation			
58	actions are urgently needed to save our reefs.			
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69 collaborators). These cryopreserved assets have been used to create embryos from these frozen 70 sperm samples for restoration and assisted gene flow (Daly et al. 2022; Hagedorn et al. 2012; Hagedorn et al. 2017; Hagedorn et al. 2021) and proof-of-concept experiments have 71 72 cryopreserved coral larvae (Daly et al. 2018). 73 However, sexual reproduction occurs for most coral species only over a few days each 74 year (Babcock et al. 1986; Bouwmeester et al. 2021), and much of this reproductive material is 75 faltering in some areas of the world due to stressors (Randall and Szmant 2009; Levitan et al. 76 2014; Hagedorn et al. 2016). Because coral sexual reproduction will likely continue to be 77 negatively impacted and be of uncertain quality, an important milestone in coral 78 cryopreservation is to preserve small pieces of asexually reproduced adult coral (1 cm²), also 79 commonly called coral 'microfragments' (Koch et al. 2021; Page et al. 2018a). This strategy of 80 cryopreservation would be independent of sexual reproduction both before freezing (successful 81 spawning, sperm motility, and larval development) and after post-thaw (fertilization, settlement) 82 and could be accomplished throughout the year. 83 However, before robust cryopreservation strategies for coral microfragments can be 84 developed, basic cell sensitivities to chilling and cryoprotectant solutions must be tested, and the 85 response of these microfragments to these stressors must be monitored over time. To our 86 knowledge, the only other whole, adult organism to be cryopreserved and successfully revived is 87 the nematode, *C. elegans* (Hayashi et al. 2013). Not only is it important to produce viable 88 cryopreserved coral, but it is equally important to create a clear husbandry pathway to return these microfragments to a land-based nursery setting post-thaw. This study examined: 1) the 89 90 sensitivity of the coral microfragments with their algal symbionts to chilling temperatures; 2) the 91 response of the coral to complex cryoprotectant cocktails in terms of toxicity and how long it



took them to start regrowing after this exposure; 3) methods to safely remove the algal symbionts from the coral fragment before cryopreservation resulting in bleached microfragments, given the two symbiotic partners have very different membrane permeabilities to water and cryoprotectant (Hagedorn et al. 2009; Hagedorn et al. 2006); and 4) develop a visual scale of health metrics to assess damaged corals. Methods for quantifying physiological responses to these stressors include confocal imaging, Pulse Amplitude Modulated fluorometry, imaging Pulse Amplitude Modulated fluorometry, light microscopy, standardized health metrics and bleaching color cards. A deep understanding of these types of detailed physiological stressors and metrics will be critical to help overcome the inevitable stress of cryopreserved coral microfragments. Portions of this text were previously published as part of a preprint (https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.01.03.522625).

Materials and Methods

Coral Collection and Microfragmentation

Porites compressa is an endemic, reef-building coral that is prolific around the State of Hawai'i. Colonies were collected from various reefs throughout Kāne'ohe Bay, O'ahu, Hawai'i in accordance with our collecting permit from the Department of Land and Natural Resources from the State of Hawai'i (Special Activity Permit #2022-22 from the Hawai'i Institute of Marine Biology). A hammer and chisel were used to collect 10–15 cm portions from individual colonies. Colonies were collected at least 5 m apart on each patch reef and from several patch reefs throughout Kāne'ohe Bay to avoid collecting clones of the same genotype. Once collected, colonies were kept in outdoor aquaria with a filtered, flow-through seawater system at the





Hawai'i Institute of Marine Biology on Moku o Lo'e. Colonies were microfragmented as soon as one day after collection and up to several weeks after.

Prospective colonies were progressively fragmented with a bandsaw (Gryphon XL AquaSaw Diamond Band Frag Saw) to yield uniformly sized microfragments (1 cm²) and glued (BRS Extra Thick Gel Super Glue - Bulk Reef Supply) onto a plastic sheet supported by a plexiglass plate (Page et al. 2018b). Microfragments were then allowed to heal for two weeks prior to experimentation.

Vitrification Solution Preparation

The solutions in this study were derived from previous methods and solutions used to cryopreserve coral larvae (Daly et al. 2018) which utilized a cryopreservation process known as vitrification (Sakai and Engelmann 2007) – this technique avoids lethal ice formation by allowing the liquid within the system to enter a vitreous or glassy state by using high concentrations of solutes and ultra-rapid cooling and warming. Given the size and complexity of coral microfragments, future preservation of coral microfragments will likely require a cryopreservation process called isochoric vitrification, in which isochoric (constant-volume) conditions are used to decrease the likelihood of ice formation in the system, thereby enabling vitrification at lower, less toxic concentrations (Rubinsky et al. 2005). Anticipating using this cryopreservation modality, the cryoprotectants in the vitrification solutions used in this study were reduced 20–24% (by mass) and the trehalose was reduced by 23% (by mass). Two different strengths of the same vitrification solution (VS) were prepared for testing: (1) VS80 (0.8 M dimethyl sulfoxide, propylene glycol and glycerol, 0.7 M trehalose in 0.3 M PBS (Phosphate





Buffered Saline); and (2) VS76 (0.75 M dimethyl sulfoxide, propylene glycol and glycerol, 0.7 M trehalose in 0.3 M PBS, see Table S1 for details).

Chilling and toxicity were not tested together, because during cryopreservation as the tissue starts to chill, the permeability of the cell membranes reduces the flow of cryoprotectant into the cells, thus limiting the impact of toxicity. Vitrification would be necessary for large complex tissues like coral microfragments, and generally, vitrification procedures involve dehydrating and equilibrating tissues in their vitrification solution at room temperature and then rapidly cooling the coral to cryopreservation temperatures.

Toxicity of Vitrification Solution to Coral Microfragments

To determine how long microfragments could be exposed to the vitrification solution, preliminary toxicity experiments were conducted over several time points (1 to 5 minute).

Because the means were not different across exposure times (p> 0.05; Fig S2), we continued our experiments with a slightly longer exposure of 6 minutes and extended the time we monitored recovery from two weeks to three weeks.

Coral microfragments were placed in vitrification solution of either VS76 (n=11) or VS80 (n=11) for 6 minutes in one step and then placed through a rehydration series (Table S2). The physiological effect of the solutions on the coral were not significantly different (Mann-Whitney test, p>0.05). Thus, the results from these two vitrification solutions were eventually pooled as one treatment, called VS. Coral microfragments were placed into individual 6-well plates with approximately 10 ml of 0.22 μ filtered seawater (FSW) for recovery. Six-well plates were then placed in an incubator (26 °C), covered in aluminum foil (0 PAR) for the first 24 h post-cryoprotectant exposure, and 35–50 PAR, thereafter. Microfragments were assessed at five



time points: 24 and 72 h, 1-, 2-, and 3-weeks post-cryoprotectant exposure. Each assessment included: Junior PAM fluorescence reading, laser-scanning confocal microscopy imaging, light microscopy imaging and health metric scoring (Table 1). A health score of 0-5 was assigned to each coral microfragment at each of the health assessment time points (24 and 72 h, 1 and 2 weeks). The health score was developed based on the following criteria: tissue loss and algal symbiont loss, tissue color, damaged or intact polyps, and intact coenosarc (Table 1). Microfragments were kept in 6-well plates with FSW (changed daily) in an incubator (26 °C) through the two week assessment, after which they were placed in 5 L aquaria with running seawater through the three week assessment.

Pulse Amplitude Modulation Fluorometry

For these studies we used two types of Pulse Amplitude Modulated (PAM) fluorometer. The first was a Junior-PAM (Walz, Effeltrich, Germany) with a single fiber optic cable of approximately 1 mm in diameter for the toxicity and chilling experiments (Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). The second was an Imaging-PAM (IMAG-MAX/L; Walz, Effeltrich, Germany) for the bleaching experiments. Both PAM units measure functionality of Photosystem II in photosynthetic organisms. Specifically, photosynthetic yield was used to determine the approximate health and functionality of the algal symbionts after exposure to the various treatments (i.e., toxicity, chilling, bleaching). All photosynthetic yield measurements were taken in the light after coral microfragments had sat in ambient lab lighting (approximately 2-4 PAR)

For the toxicity and chilling experiments, three different points on each microfragment were sampled at each of the 4–5 health assessment time points over time. For the bleaching experiments we used an Imaging-PAM, which is able to assess the photosynthetic yield across



the entire microfragment. We chose to define five areas of interest (~1 mm² each) with the Imaging-PAM, which allowed us to determine the photosynthetic yield of a much larger area of the microfragments. Based on preliminary and unpublished data, anything above a Photosynthetic Yield of 0.1, on a scale from 0 to 1, suggested functional symbionts.

Chilling Sensitivity of Coral Microfragments and their Algal Symbionts

During a vitrification experiment, the coral might experience a certain period of chilling. Cells or tissues that are extremely sensitive to chilling can experience ruptures in the cell membranes around 0 °C. Therefore, we needed to explore the limit of what coral microfragments could tolerate and still recover from these exposures.

Preliminary experiments determined that coral microfragments could only withstand 1 minute of chilling at 0 °C with no tissue loss or death (see Supplementary Methods and Data, Fig. S1). Lower temperatures (-10 °C) or longer exposures (2, 4, and 5 minutes) either led to immediate death, death within two weeks, or significant tissue loss. Therefore, microfragments (n =11) were chilled at 0 °C for 1 minute in cryovials with 1 ml FSW (0.22 µm filtered seawater) that had been pre-equilibrated to 0 °C for 10 minutes to determine how they would recover from this stress. After 1 minute of chilling, microfragments were placed in 1 L of FSW at room temperature (~ 22 °C) for 10 minutes and then were placed in individual 6-well plates with approximately 10 ml FSW. For the first 24 h of culture, microfragments were kept in an incubator at 26 °C and 0 PAR and then given additional light (35–50 PAR) for two weeks.

Chilled microfragments were assessed at 4 time points: 24, 72 h, 1-, and 2-weeks post-chilling exposure. Each assessment included, 1) symbiont viability with a Junior PAM.; and 2) the integrity of the coral tissue with light microscopic imaging and health metric scoring (see





Table 1 for details). After the 24 h assessment, microfragments were placed back into an incubator at 50 PAR and 26 °C. Coral microfragments were cultured in 6-well plates through the 72-h assessment where plates and water were changed daily. Afterwards, they were moved to 5-L aquaria with running FSW through the two week assessment at 26 °C and 35 PAR.

Growth Response After Chilling and Cryoprotectants Exposure

After the two week assessment, coral microfragments were secured to plastic sheets supported by plexiglass plates and suspended in the water column of a mesocosm in a flow through seawater system. They were examined weekly to determine whether they had resumed normal growth and calcification. We defined this by the production of one to two rows of coral polyps that form a full ring around the microfragment on the plastic sheet.

Microfragment Bleaching

All reef-building corals have symbiotic algae, *Symbiodiniaceae*. The endosymbionts in *P. compressa* are from the genus *Cladocopium* (previously *Symbiodinium* Clade C), subclass C15 (Forsman et al. 2020; Krueger and Gates 2012). Hagedorn et al. (2009) tested the cryophysiology of extracted symbionts from three different coral species in Hawai'i, including *Porites compressa*, and determined that they all had similarly long permeation rates. Additionally, preliminary vitrification experiments by the authors confirmed that the permeabilities of the algal symbionts and coral tissue to cryoprotectants are very different (~1 h versus 3 minutes, respectively). Prior to cryopreservation, trying to dehydrate and penetrate the algal symbionts with water and cryoprotectants, respectively, resulted in the coral fragment dying. Therefore, we developed bleaching protocols that maintained the coral health with the caveat that we would be





228	able to reintroduce the algal symbionts after thawing during the culture period. Three treatments			
229	were preliminarily assessed to find the quickest and least detrimental bleaching method -			
230	menthol (0.58 mM menthol; Wang et al. 2012), light (350 PAR for 17-18 h), and menthol and			
231	light (0.58 mM menthol + PAR for 17-18 h).			
232	Before the bleaching treatment, microfragments were imaged, assigned a health score			
233	(Table 2), and given a color rank assessed by Koʻa Card (Bahr et al. 2020) in order to determine			
234	any change in health during the bleaching process. During the day, microfragments were placed			
235	in aerated, 2 L aquaria with 0.58 mM menthol (99%, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) in ethanol			
236	(190 proof, Decon Labs, Inc., King of Prussia, PA) in filtered seawater with aeration for			
237	approximately 6-7 h, 26 °C, \sim 5 PAR. Then, they were transferred to a 26 °C incubator with 350			
238	PAR for 17-18 h. The microfragments were cycled between the menthol bath and full light until			
239	they were fully bleached (i.e., had reached the lowest color ranking on the Koʻa Card). This took			
240	approximately 72 h to one week. At the end of the bleaching treatment, microfragments were			
241	imaged on a light microscope with a Lumenera Infinity 3s camera, assigned a health score			
242	(criteria based on Table 2), given a color rank assessed by Koʻa Card, imaged on a Zeiss LSM			
243	710 laser-scanning confocal microscope, and determined the presence and viability of the algal			
244	symbionts by assessing with a Walz Imaging-PAM.			
245				
246	Confocal Imaging of Microfragments			
247	Confocal imaging was used to quantify the success of microfragment bleaching (mean			
248	fluorescent intensity of algal symbionts).			
249	Each coral microfragment was imaged using the Zeiss LSM 710 with a Zeiss Plan-			
250	Apochromat 5x/0.16 M27 objective. All microfragments were imaged with the same acquisition			





settings: z-stack: 12 slices, range =330 um; image resolution: 2048 x 2048, (1700 um x 1700 um), 12-bit; pixel dwell: 1.57 microsec; pinhole size: 36 μm, 1 AU. The image frame for all samples was entirely composed of coral coenosarc tissue and one polyp. No blank space occupied the image frame.

The excitation wavelength of 405 nm was applied using a Diode laser at 15% intensity.

Two channels were created to capture the autofluorescence of the coral microfragment. Channel 1 (515–575 nm) captured the autofluorescence of the coral host, Channel 2 (611-709 nm) captured the autofluorescence of the chlorophyll within the algal symbiont cells. The symbiont autofluorescence in the confocal image is used as a proxy for algal symbiont density within the

For MFI analyses, Zen Black processing software (Zen 2.3 SP1 FP3 v.14.0.26.201) was used, all z-stack images were standardly formatted into maximum intensity projections.

Fluorescence intensity data of the symbiont from the maximum intensity projections was pooled together within each experimental treatment (control and bleached) and averaged.

Statistical Analyses

coral tissue (Huffmyer et al. 2021).

Measurements were represented by the means in all figures. All data were tested for normality and outliers using the ROUT method set at a sensitivity of 1%. For normally distributed paired data, parametric 1-test were performed. If the data were not normally distributed, non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney or Krukal-Wallis test) were done to test the differences amongst means. Where needed, Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) or Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to determine differences between groups (α =0.05). When groups were significantly different, posthoc tests were conducted using Dunn's multiple comparisons tests.





274	All error bars in the figures are represented by standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical			
275	analyses were conducted in Prism 9.31 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA).			
276 277 278 279 280	Results Chilling and Toxicity Sensitivity of Coral Microfragments and their Algal Symbiont			
281	We examined the chilling sensitivity of the <i>P. compressa</i> microfragments at 0 °C for 1			
282	minute exposures over two weeks (Fig. 1). Untreated (positive control) microfragments			
283	maintained a uniform health metric of 5 throughout the treatment period (Kruskal-Wallis;			
284	p>0.05), and their mean photosynthetic yield did not vary greatly, although the initial readings at			
285	0 and 24 h were lower than the later values over the two week period in culture (Kruskal-Wallis			
286	$H_{(6)}$ =17.05; p <0.001; Dunn's Multiple Comparison test). Compared to the control values at 0 h,			
287	the chilled microfragments' health metrics (Fig. 1 a and b, blue bars) showed a decline followed			
288	by an improvement at two weeks, with the two week recovered microfragments comparable to			
289	control values (Kruskal-Wallis $H_{(5)}$ =17.33; p <0.001; Dunn's Multiple Comparison test). During			
290	this recovery period, chilling caused a loss of coral and algal symbiont cells, which were			
291	observed surrounding the microfragments in the culture dishes for up to 72 h. These stressors			
292	caused the microfragments to pale, before they recovered. At 72 h, the photosynthetic yield was			
293	lower than the control values, after which it returned to pre-treatment values (Kruskal-Wallis			
294	$H_{(5)}$ =17.09; p <0.004; Dunn's Multiple Comparison test).			
295	Microfragments exposed to vitrification solution demonstrated some loss of coral cells			
296	and algal symbionts which was associated with some tissue retraction at the 24 h to two week			
297	time-period reflecting poorer health, followed by a recovery at three weeks (Fig. 1 a and b, gray			
298	bars: Kruskal-Wallis H_{60} =57.08: p <0.0001: Dunn's Multiple Comparison test.) There was no			



visible loss of algal symbionts observed during any cryoprotectant treatment, however, the photosynthetic yield was slightly lower at the 24 h, 72 h and 3 week time points (but not at the 1 week and 2 week time points) when compared to the 1 week control photosynthetic yields (Kruskal-Wallis $H_{(5)}$ =12.21; p =0.0159; Dunn's Multiple Comparison test). These experiments were critical to understand the physiological changes that the coral might undergo prior to cryopreservation, during which they will be exposed to low temperature stressors, as well as toxicity.

Growth Response After Chilling and Cryoprotectant Exposure

After the coral microfragments were exposed to chilling or toxicity, they were kept in recovery for two to three weeks in the lab and then returned to running seawater tanks to determine how long it would take them to begin growing and calcifying. Not all microfragments were followed through re-growth because they were dislodged from the plastic sheeting. The sample size for each treatment was as follows: 1) no treatment (n=9), 2) chilled to 0 °C for 1 minute (n=9), or 3) exposed to VS for 6 minutes (n=7). The mean time for each group to begin growing in our seawater system was two months and there was no difference between any of the treatments (Kruskal-Wallis test; p>0.05), suggesting that once the microfragments had recovered in the laboratory for two to three weeks, their previous treatment did not affect their future growth. Specifically, the timing for re-growth was Control =60.0 ± 6.3; Chilling =65 ± 5.1; Toxicity =56.1 ± 5.0 days.

Confocal Imaging

321	In this study, confocal imaging was used to try to understand the patterns of the green				
322	fluorescent protein (GFP) and algal symbionts in the tissues of both live and dead coral				
323	microfragments, as well as to quantify the success of microfragment bleaching.				
324	Living coral microfragments have a well-defined distribution of the auto-fluorescent				
325	green fluorescent protein (GFP), and a discrete distribution of their auto-fluorescent algal				
326	symbionts, which generally surround the tentacles and polyp mouth. However, each genotype				
327	has a unique distribution of these fluorescent signatures that define these living microfragments				
328	The control pattern of fluorescence for live and dead is shown in Fig 2. The dead coral has a				
329	different fluorescent pattern. After a coral fragment has gone through several freeze-thaw cycles,				
330	ice crystals disrupt their membranes, and the microfragments die. This causes the GFP and algal				
331	symbiont fluorescent signals to become disaggregated and disorganized, producing a smeared				
332	appearance, although the GFP signal remains up to 72 h (Fig. 2). In fact, when the mean				
333	fluorescence intensity of the live and dead corals was compared, there was no difference in GFP				
334	or algal symbiont fluorescence. Because of the longevity of the GFP in the tissue, the presence of				
335	this signal was not deemed a good indicator and could not be used to quantify viability of post-				
336	thaw coral microfragments.				
337	Confocal imaging was used to determine the success of intentional microfragment				
338	bleaching to assess whether the symbionts disappear from the tissue or were non-functional.				
339	Preliminary experiments determined that a combined menthol and light bleaching treatment				
340	resulted in an 83% decrease in Mean Fluorescence Intensity between the wavelengths fluoresced				
341	by the algal symbiont after 72 h of exposure (Fig. 3). Specifically, in this image, the control had				
342	a Mean Fluorescence Intensity=284.6; light treated=78.2; menthol=89.1, and menthol and				



343	light=42.1 (n=1, preliminary data). Additionally, all treatments maintained a health metric score				
344	of 5, therefore, the menthol and light bleaching treatment was used for subsequent assessments.				
345	In a more detailed study, we used the distribution of the algal symbionts throughout a z-				
346	stack to determine Mean Fluorescence Intensity. Menthol and light bleached microfragments (n				
347	=25), were imaged with confocal microscopy, Imaging-PAM, and given a health metric score to				
348	determine whether this treatment would significantly reduce the algal symbiont population				
349	without seriously compromising the health of the coral animal. Coral microfragments were				
350	bleached for 72 h to one week and the loss of their symbionts was monitored. Microfragments				
351	from the same genotypes (n =25) were left untreated or bleached with menthol and light (Fig. 4).				
352	These pairs demonstrated a 78% loss in the Mean fluorescence Intensity or the number of				
353	symbiont-like fluorescing particles (Controls =212.1 \pm 19.6; Bleached =47.0 \pm 2.5; two-tailed t -				
354	test $T(24) = 8.90$, p<0.0001).				
355	When paired, bleached and untreated microfragments from the same genotypes (n=10)				
356	were examined with an Imaging-PAM, a 98% loss in photosynthetic yield (Y) was observed. The				
356357	were examined with an Imaging-PAM, a 98% loss in photosynthetic yield (Y) was observed. The control microfragments had a mean photosynthetic yield value of 0.567 ± 0.006 , whereas the				
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bleached microfragments. Although not statistically significant, it was observed that coral microfragments that were bleached during the winter maintained higher average health scores (4.7 ± 0.2) than microfragments that were bleached during the summer (3.1 ± 0.4) .

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Discussion

The goal of this paper was to understand and assess the physiological stressors that might underlie coral microfragment cryopreservation and the long-term consequences of these physiological exposures to continued coral growth in a land-based nursery. Coral microfragments initially responded negatively to chilling and toxic conditions but recovered over a three week period in the laboratory. Once the microfragments had recovered in the laboratory and were placed in running seawater, they began to grow within two months, and their previous treatment did not affect their future growth. This may indicate that cryopreservation will cause some short-term stress, and will not cause any long-term physiological impacts for the coral. To aid these findings, we developed a scale of visual health metrics (a "Health Metric Score") for these experiments based on preliminary data of severely damaged corals (e.g., chilling and toxicity) because other health assessment tools did not accurately assess damage and recovery. Moreover, we did not find anything in existing literature that could accurately quantify damaged coral based upon visual qualitative observations of varying levels of chilling and toxicity exposure. The results from chilling for 1 minute at 0 °C showed that it took microfragments two weeks to recover fully (i.e., statistically the same health metric score as the live controls, Fig. 1).

Visually, they lost many of their symbionts within 24 hours but this was not reflected in the

PAM data (Fig. 1). It took the microfragments exposed to the vitrification solution, three weeks



to recover completely (Fig. 1). Like chilling, they lost many of their symbionts within 24 hours. Initially, during preliminary experiments, we believed that the microfragments exposed to CPAs in toxicity treatments were dead and were very surprised when they began to recover after two weeks. These observations were the impetus for the three week recovery time that led to full recovery in this study.

Menthol and light bleaching resulted in healthy corals (health metric score 4.0 ± 0.3) that were visibly bleached (Fig. 3) and functionally bleached (Fig. 4). This finding was significant because it is likely that the coral and its symbiotic algae cannot be cryopreserved together because of difference in CPA loading requirements (Hagedorn et al. 2009). Due to their greatly different permeation rates, they cannot survive the whole cryopreservation process if treated as a holobiont. Future work will likely include bleached microfragments, and the bleaching protocol described in this study is relatively quick (72 h) and doesn't visually impact the tissue integrity of the coral.

It was expected that the GFP intensity would wane more quickly over time in the dead microfragments such that GFP might be used as a post-thaw indicator of viability. However, the confocal imaging demonstrated that this was not the case; instead of waning in intensity, it remained constant and in some cases was greater than the live controls. Additionally, the pattern of GFP in and around the coral polyp changed from a very distinct roseate pattern to a more diffuse, distributed pattern. In contrast, another study found that warmed and cooled coral (± 5 °C) did demonstrate a loss of symbionts and GFP concentration (Roth & Deheyn 2013), so the persistence of the GFP signal in the dead coral used in this study was both surprising and, ultimately, not a useful indicator of post-thaw viability for future coral cryobiology studies.



Even healthy corals that have not gone through cryopreservation can be difficult to assess				
and compare their "healthy state". Health metrics common to vertebrate organ systems are				
virtually nonexistent for invertebrates, and as sessile animals, coral movement is limited to polyp				
extension and contraction, with skeletal malformations, tissue integrity, and tissue coloration				
serving as other visual indicators. The process of cryopreservation causes stress due to chilling				
and toxicity damage, and it was not possible to refine our cryopreservation process without a				
standardized health assessment key derived from cryobiology-related damaged coral tissue.				
Before we created the health scoring assessment in this study, we used confocal imaging and				
PAM fluorometry to be able to quantify the damage or stress. We used confocal microscopy to				
assess the green fluorescent protein native to coral tissue as a proxy for coral health, assuming				
that the GFP would gradually decrease in damaged or dead coral. Unfortunately, GFP is very				
persistent and was approximately equal and sometimes greater in the dead corals even after 72				
hours (preliminary data). Additionally, we tried to use PAM fluorometry – which measures the				
photosynthetic potential in the symbiotic algae and is often used by coral biologists as another				
proxy for coral health – for assessments. PAM fluorometry was also not a good indicator because				
the signal (photosynthetic yield) did not incorporate the loss of symbiotic algae, and in severely				
damaged or dead microfragments, other photosynthetic organisms and algae colonized the coral				
skeleton inaccurately skewing the results. Therefore, we developed the health metric scores in				
Table 1 (for unbleached microfragments) and Table 2 (for bleached microfragments). The health				
metric systems developed for this study allowed us to visually assess and compare treatments				
along a spectrum of coral tissue damage common and applicable to cryobiology stress where				
other methods proved unreliable.				





A promising avenue to successfully cryopreserve something as large as a coral microfragment is a technique called isochoric vitrification. Most biological matter is cooled under constant pressure or isobaric conditions at atmospheric pressure, which allows the sample to change volume. Moreover, only samples of relatively small size (~100 µm in diameter), such as a human embryo, can be easily vitrified with these methods. However, emerging techniques aim to preserve biological material at constant volume (Rubinsky et al. 2005), confining the system and denying it access to the atmospheric pressure reservoir. This isochoric cryopreservation processes generally employs only a single step – cooling whereby the system is in a perfectly confined, constant-volume chamber. The technology does not require moving parts, mechanical work, and can be used on much larger samples. Therefore, isochoric vitrification may be ideal for processes involved in field cryopreservation of coral microfragments near or on reefs.

Given the demonstrated sensitivity of coral microfragments to mild chilling temperatures, this study suggests that isochoric vitrification may present a suitable technique to successfully cryopreserve them. How might this new vitrification process work for coral microfragments? According to this study, corals could withstand chilling temperatures up to 1 minute, and complex vitrification solutions for up to 6 minutes. Using isochoric vitrification, small volumes of vitrification medium (~5 mL) can be frozen to liquid nitrogen temperatures (-196 °C) in less than 2 minutes. The amount of time where the microfragments might hover at chilling temperatures (0 to -10 °C) either on cooling or warming is less than 20 seconds, well below the one minute threshold found for chilling. Furthermore, previous work (Zhang et al. 2018) has found that isochoric confinement can reduce the CPA concentrations required to vitrify a given





456 toxic cryoprotective solutions that would otherwise be susceptible to destructive ice formation. 457 There are calls for interventions to help secure and restore coral reefs (National Academies of Sciences & Medicine 2019) and coral cryopreservation of all types is a maturing 458 459 tool to aid in these conservation actions. However, engineers, coral biologists and cryobiologists 460 must partner to help develop the tools to cryopreserve larger and more complex cells and tissues 461 to usher the field into the future. One such endeavor, ATP-Bio, is an Engineering Research 462 Center (ERC) for Advanced Technologies for the Preservation of Biological Systems (https://www.atp-bio.org/) that is supported by the U.S. National Science Foundation. As part of 463 464 this ERC, there is an emphasis on developing new medical technology to cryopreserve human organs. In terms of complexity of the tissues, the differences in the cryo-permeabilities of coral 465 466 holobiont, the cryopreservation of coral microfragments might be considered almost as complex as human organs, such as an embryonic kidney or heart. Toward this end, there is emerging 467 468 technology that may be a good candidate for coral. Restoration processes might benefit from the 469 development of coral microfragment cryopreservation by allowing the safe preservation and 470 reanimation of hundreds of thousands of small microfragments potentially encompassing many 471 of the coral species in the wild. Moreover, because there is such a small footprint for these frozen assets (compared to live assets in captivity), sufficient biodiversity can be maintained within a 472 473 population to ensure robust repopulation efforts. 474 Some recent models suggest that time for these types of intervention processes is growing 475 short (Dixon et al. 2022; Kalmus et al. 2022). If the cryopreservation of coral microfragments is 476 to be successful, there remain many unanswered questions about how many microfragments 477 must be preserved and when and where they might be collected. However, this should not stop

solution (as compared to conventional isobaric vitrification), which may enable use of minimally





478	the scientific community from moving forward as quickly as possible to develop the technology
479	fully, train professionals and bank the biodiversity in our oceans while it is still remains. Novel
480	ex situ conservation strategies, such as genetic biorepositories holding cryopreserved coral
481	microfragments, hold strong promise to help offset many of the anthropogenic threats facing
482	coral reefs today.
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522	Writing and Reviewing Paper: JB, JD, CL, RP, CP, MH, MM, MPP, AC
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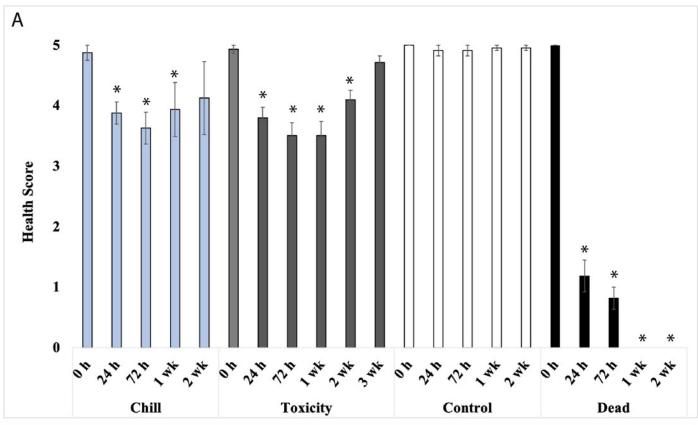
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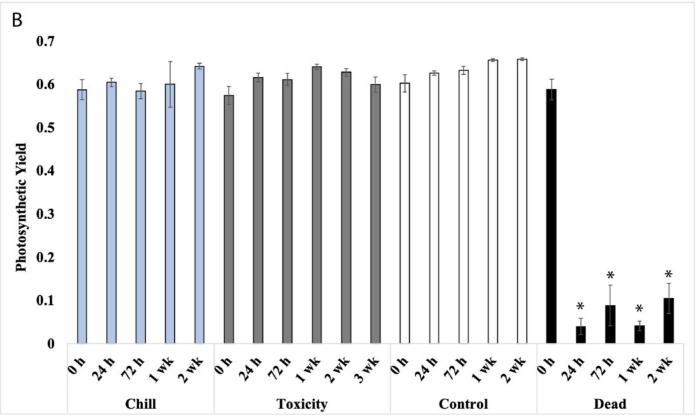


Health score and photosynthetic yield of corals treated with either chilling or vitrification solution over a two week period.

Physiological responses of *P. compressa* to chilling temperatures or toxic cryoprotectants. Microfragments from *P. compressa* were exposed to 1 min of chilling at 0 °C for 1 min (blue bars), or were exposed to two different vitrification media (black and gray bars) for 6 min at 22 °C then monitored for 2 to 3 weeks. **a.** Heath metric scores demonstrated a decrease in health, reflective of either loss of symbionts (during chilling) or a loss of coral cells during toxicity exposure followed by recovery in all cases after two to three weeks. **b.** The photosynthetic yield was relatively unchanged post-treatments although there were variations of the means of about 10% over time. Anything below a score of 2 on the health metric scale was not observed to recover. The * indicates a significant difference from the 0 h control health and photosynthetic yield values (p<0.05).

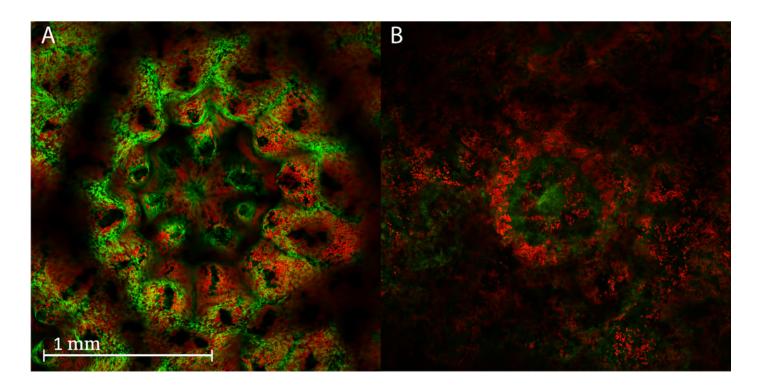






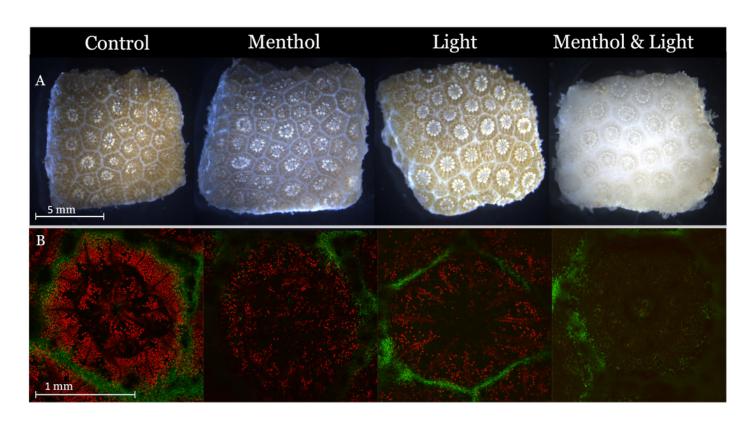
Confocal images of a live and dead coral fragment.

Confocal images of a polyp from a Live and Dead coral fragment after 24 h in culture. A. Live polyp, 24 h: Merged image of the autofluorescent symbiotic algae (red) and the autofluorescent green fluorescent protein of the coral (GFP, green). Note how tightly organized the GFP and symbionts are around the polyp mouth and tentacles. The confocal image clearly shows the morphology of the polyp skeleton and tentacles. B. Dead polyp, 24 h: Merged image of the autofluorescent symbiotic algae (red) and the autofluorescent GFP of the coral (green). Note the disorganized pattern of the GFP and symbionts fluorescence around the polyp and tentacles. The polyp skeleton and tentacles were degraded and appear blurred. The symbiont fluorescence is scattered across the image and the GFP is blurred.



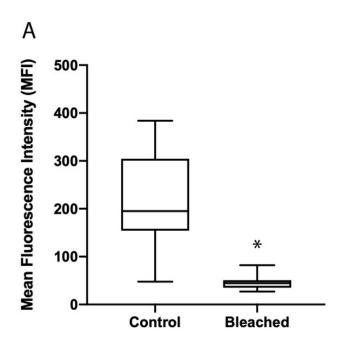
Light and confocal images that illustrate the effects of various 'bleaching' treatments on coral microfragments.

Coral microfragments were treated for 3 days with one of three bleaching treatments: light, menthol, and menthol & light. Additionally, the microfragments were imaged on a confocal microscope to assess the density of symbionts. Panel A: Light images of coral microfragments that were 'bleached' using Menthol, Light, and Menthol & Light. Panel B: Confocal images of the same coral microfragments but at the polyp level. The merged images layer the GFP (green) and autofluorescence of the algal symbionts (red) into one image. Preliminary data show that the combination of Light & Menthol reduced the density of symbionts the most.



The loss of the symbiotic algae was monitored with confocal microcopy (MFI) and Imaging-PAM (photosynthetic yield).

Coral microfragments were bleached up to 1 week and the loss of their symbionts was monitored with confocal microscopy and Imaging-PAM. **a)** Paired microfragments from the same genotypes (n=25) were left untreated or bleached with menthol & light. These pairs demonstrated a 78% loss in in the Mean fluorescence Intensity or the number of symbiont-like fluorescing particles (Controls=212.1 \pm 19.6; Bleached=47.0 \pm 2.5). **b)** When bleached and untreated microfragments from the same genotypes (n=10) were examined with an Imaging-PAM, a 98% loss in Photosynthetic Yield (Y) was observed. The control fragments had a mean Y-value of 0.567 \pm 0.006, whereas the bleached values were reduced to 0.013 \pm 0.007, suggesting that none of the remaining symbiont-like particles in the bleached fragments were functional. Means with * were different *p*<0.001, paired parametric t-test (a) and nonparametric non-paired Mann-Whitney U test (b), all errors represented by SEM.



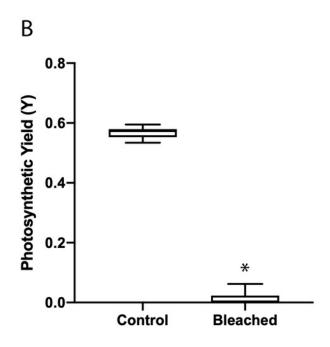




Table 1(on next page)

Health metric scoring criteria for unbleached microfragments

Coral fragments that had not been bleached were observed visually under a light microscope and given a score 0-5 using the criteria listed above. Higher score indicates greater health of the fragment.



Table 1. Health metric scoring criteria for unbleached microfragments

Score	Description of metric for unbleached microfragments			
0	Dead, coral tissue and algal symbionts released from skeleton, yellow/green color			
1	Damaged polyp, green color, <10% intact coenosarc			
2	Damaged polyp, pale, 25% intact coenosarc			
3	Intact polyp, paling color, 50% intact coenosarc			
4	Intact polyp, normal tissue color, 75% intact coenosarc			
5	Intact polyp, normal tissue color, 100% intact coenosarc			

^{*}Higher score indicates greater health of the fragment



Table 2(on next page)

Health metric scoring criteria for bleached microfragments

The health metric scoring for coral fragments that had been bleached were observed visually under a light microscope and given a score 0-5 using the criteria listed above. Higher score indicates greater health of the fragment.



Table 2. Health metric scoring criteria for bleached microfragments*

Score	Description of metric for bleached microfragments			
0	Dead, tissue sloughing or >25% bacterial growth, >75% brown dots or sheeting of dead/dying algal symbionts on surface of coral			
1	>75% damaged polyps, <10% intact coenosarc, >50% brown dots or sheeting of dead/dying algal symbionts on surface of coral			
2	50% damaged polyps, 25% intact coenosarc, >25% brown dots or sheeting of dead/dying algal symbionts on surface of coral			
3	>75% intact polyps, 50% intact coenosarc, <10% brown dots or sheeting of dead/dying algal symbionts on surface of coral, no bacterial growth			
4	Intact polyps, 75% intact coenosarc, <5% brown dots or sheeting of dead/dying algal symbionts on surface of coral			
5	Intact polyps, 100% intact coenosarc, no brown dots or sheeting of dead/dying algal symbionts on surface of coral			

^{*}Higher score indicates greater health of the fragment



Table 3 (on next page)

Health metric data for menthol and light bleached microfragments (bleaching over 72 h) observed seasonally

There was a difference in health metric data for coral fragments that were bleached with menthol and light during the winter and the summer. The fragments that were bleached during the winter had a higher average health metric score than those bleached during the summer.





Table 3. Differences in the health metric data for menthol and light bleached microfragments (bleaching over 72 h) observed seasonally.

	Winter	Summer	72 hr (combined)
Average Health Score (SEM)	4.7 ± 0.2	3.1 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 0.3
# of Genotypes	6	8	13