

# Functional diversity of microboring Ostreobium algae isolated from corals

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1 2	Functional diversity of microboring Ostreobium algae isolated from corals
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#### 22 Abstract

23 The filamentous chlorophyte Ostreobium sp. dominates shallow marine carbonate 24 microboring communities, and is one of the major agents of reef bioerosion. While its large 25 genetic diversity has emerged, its physiology remains little known, with unexplored 26 relationship between genotypes and phenotypes (endolithic versus free-living growth forms). 27 Here, we isolated 9 strains affiliated to 2 lineages of Ostreobium (>8% sequence divergence 28 of the plastid gene rbcL), one of which was assigned to the family Odoaceae, from the fast-29 growing coral host Pocillopora acuta Lamarck 1816. Free-living isolates maintained their 30 bioerosive potential, colonizing pre-bleached coral carbonate skeletons. We compared phenotypes, highlighting shifts in pigment and fatty acid compositions, carbon to nitrogen 31 ratios and stable isotope compositions ( $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N). Our data show a pattern of higher 32 33 chlorophyll b and lower arachidonic acid (20:4c) content in endolithic versus free-living 34 Ostreobium. Photosynthetic carbon fixation and nitrate uptake, quantified via 8h pulselabeling with <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate and <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate, showed lower isotopic enrichment in endolithic 35 compared to free-living filaments. Our results highlight the functional plasticity of 36 37 Ostreobium phenotypes. The isotope tracer approach opens the way to further study the 38 biogeochemical cycling and trophic ecology of these cryptic algae at coral holobiont and reef 39 scales.

40

## 41 Introduction

The microscopic algal biodiversity dissolving actively (or eroding) shallow-water 42 43 carbonates is a cryptic yet essential component of reef functioning, becoming dominant with 44 the general decline of coral reefs worldwide (Leggat et al., 2019; Tribollet et al., 2019). 45 Pioneer morphological observations showed that bioeroding filaments of the chlorophyte Ostreobium are ubiquitous inside the skeleton of tropical coral reef-builders, both in dead and 46 47 actively growing colonies (Odum & Odum, 1955; Lukas, 1974; Le Campion-Alsumard et al., 1995a; reviewed in Tribollet, 2008; Golubic et al., 2019). Molecular data have recently 48 49 accumulated, based on amplicon sequencing of plastid encoded gene markers (rbcL, tufA, 50 UPA and 16S rRNA), revealing Ostreobium ubiquity in the core microbiome of tropical 51 corals and its high genetic diversity, delimiting an entire Ostreobineae suborder within the 52 Bryopsidales in the class Ulvophyceae (Gutner-Hoch & Fine, 2011; Marcelino & Verbruggen, 2016; Sauvage et al., 2016; del Campo et al., 2017; Marcelino et al., 2017; Verbruggen et al., 53

54 2017; Gonzalez-Zapata et al., 2018; Marcelino et al., 2018; Massé et al., 2018). By chemical 55 means, Ostreobium filaments actively penetrate reef carbonates ranging from limestone rocks 56 to seashells and coral skeletons, creating galleries a few micrometers in diameter (Tribollet, 57 2008), thus living as true boring endoliths (i.e. euendoliths also called microborers; Golubic et 58 al., 1981). Surprisingly, filaments of this photosynthetic chlorophyte can even be detected in 59 microboring communities down to 200 m depth in tropical ecosystems (Littler et al., 1985; 60 Vogel et al., 2000; reviewed in Tribollet et al., 2011). Occasionally, Ostreobium filaments can exit carbonate skeletons of coral holobionts or reef rubble to become epilithic (Kobluk & 61 62 Risk, 1977) and free-living filaments can be detected in the environment in seawater or 63 benthic biofilms (Massé et al., 2018). Filaments can also be released from their calcium 64 carbonate substratum in culture (Kornman & Sahling, 1980; Sauvage et al., 2016). In 65 declining reefs impacted by coral bleaching events and overfishing of algal grazers (Hughes et 66 al., 2017; Roth et al., 2018), the prevalence of free-living Ostreobium filaments is likely to increase after detachment of epilithic filaments emerged from damaged coral colonies or reef 67 68 rubble (Leggat et al., 2019), as a result of wave action during cyclone or storm events.

69 In massive adult coral colonies with a slow-growth, the endolithic layer dominated by 70 bioeroding Ostreobium filaments forms visible green bands just beneath the coral tissues 71 (Lukas, 1974; Le Campion et al., 1995a). In contrast, in fast-growing branching corals those 72 green bands are absent, but Ostreobium filaments are still present, although at decreased 73 abundance in the skeleton towards branch tips (Godinot et al., 2012; Massé et al., 2018). 74 Recently, Massé et al. (2018) showed the horizontal transmission of Ostreobium from benthic 75 biofilms or propagules dispersed in seawater to a fast-growing *Pocillopora* coral host. These 76 microboring algae penetrate first into the skeleton of coral recruits, as soon as the primary 77 polyp is formed after larval metamorphosis (Massé et al., 2018) and then follow the coral 78 vertical extension in order to access enough light to survive (Halldal, 1968; Shibata & Haxo, 79 1969; Shashar & Stambler, 1992). Several functional roles have been suggested for 80 Ostreobium (and other microborers) in living corals, such as nutrient recycling (Ferrer & 81 Szmant, 1988) and a possible ectosymbiotic relationship between microboring communities 82 dominated by Ostreobium and their coral host (Schlichter et al., 1995; Fine & Loya, 2002; 83 Sangsawang et al., 2017). However, assimilation of inorganic carbon and nitrogen has not 84 been quantified for individual, genetically referenced Ostreobium members of the skeleton 85 microbiome, and sites of putative active transfer of metabolites from algal filament to host tissue are yet to be demonstrated in live reef corals. By contrast, in dead coral skeletons, the 86

ecological roles of *Ostreobium* dominated assemblages have been more intensively studied.
At complex community level, this microscopic alga is indeed, in synergy with bioeroding
sponges and the grazing macrofauna such as parrotfishes, one of the major agents of
bioerosion and calcium carbonate recycling (Tribollet & Golubic, 2005; Schönberg *et al.*,
2017). Together with other microboring phototrophs, it is also an important benthic primary
producer and thus, an important keystone in coral reef food web (Odum & Odum, 1955;
Vooren, 1981; Tribollet *et al.*, 2006; Clements *et al.*, 2016).

94 To date, very little is known about the functional diversity of Ostreobium algae. 95 Functional traits such as pigment and fatty acid compositions may vary in endolithic versus 96 free-living growth habit and between specific genetic lineages. Moreover, it is not clear to 97 which extent carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) sources and uptake rates may change to cover 98 contrasting Ostreobium energy needs as endolithic filaments within carbonate substrate versus 99 free-living filaments in seawater. Analyses of fatty acids and C and N stable isotopes could 100 provide information on autotroph and/or heterotroph sources of carbon and nitrogen for 101 Ostreobium filaments depending on their habitat. Pigment composition, and inorganic carbon 102 and nitrogen uptake may also indicate adaptation of metabolic activity. Phenotypic studies of 103 Ostreobium genetic lineages isolated from corals are thus crucial to better understand the role 104 of these carbonate microboring algae at coral holobiont and reef ecosystem scales, and how 105 they are impacted by environmental changes (Schönberg et al., 2017; Pernice et al., 2019; 106 Ricci et al., 2019). This requires to compare in controlled laboratory settings the physiology 107 of contrasting growth forms (phenotypes) of Ostreobium, i.e. endolithic filaments colonizing 108 live coral colonies and reef carbonates versus free-living filaments.

109 Mono-algal cultures of Ostreobium quekettii Bornet and Flahaut 1889, which is the 110 type species of the genus *Ostreobium*, were initially isolated from shells of a temperate 111 mollusk in Brittany (France) (Bornet & Flahaut, 1889). Free-living strains 6.99 and B14.86 112 designated as Ostreobium quekettii were later used for further morphology and reproduction 113 studies (Kornmann & Sahling, 1980), and trophic potential and photoecology investigations 114 (Schlichter et al., 1997). Other free-living Ostreobium strains have since been isolated from 115 reef-collected marine carbonates, genotyped with plastid encoded *tufA*, UPA and 16S rRNA 116 gene markers (Sauvage et al., 2016; Marcelino & Verbruggen, 2016) and then used for 117 chloroplast genome sequencing and phylogenetic studies (Marcelino et al., 2016; del Campo 118 et al., 2017; Verbruggen et al., 2017). Cultures of the endolithic form of Ostreobium have 119 however seldom been characterized physiologically, except for a very recent study on strain 6.99 of *Ostreobium quekettii* Bornet and Flahaut 1889, that showed filament-driven processes
of coral carbonate dissolution–reprecipitation and calcium transport (Krause *et al.*, 2019).

122 In this study we developed an *in vitro* approach to compare the physiological 123 characteristics of endolithic versus free-living Ostreobium filaments isolated from the fast 124 growing, small polyp coral model species Pocillopora acuta Lamarck 1816. We genotyped 125 nine strains of Ostreobium based on amplicon sequencing of the rbcL plastid gene marker, 126 and characterized successive subcultures of these strains in either endolithic (coral carbonate 127 eroding) or free-living growth habit to provide (see Table 1): (i) photosynthetic and accessory pigment composition, (ii) fatty acid composition, (iii) bulk tissue  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N stable isotope 128 values and (iv) inorganic C and N assimilation patterns, measured via uptake of <sup>13</sup>C-129 bicarbonate and <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate stable isotope tracers. 130

131

#### 132 **Results**

133

# Isolation and genotyping of Ostreobium strains to species-level rbcL clades

134 A total of nine Ostreobium strains were isolated from branch tips of Pocillopora acuta 135 corals from long-term aquarium cultures (Aquarium Tropical, Palais de la Porte Dorée, Paris, 136 Fr, called ATPD-aquarium). After removal of coral tissues, branched filaments with typical 137 Ostreobium morphology emerged after ~3 weeks from the skeleton of 2 out of 3 colonies 138 (Ostreobium filaments did not emerge from the skeleton of one of the 3 colonies), forming 139 yellowish-green tufts of filaments which were pulled out or cut with a scalpel to initiate 140 cultures in free-living form. Siphoneous filaments had a diameter varying between 5 and 12 141  $\mu$ m (Fig. 1b), with small disc-shaped chloroplasts visible in the periphery of siphons, against 142 their inner sheath. Reproduction by spore formation was not observed. Mono-algal cultures, 143 established via serial sub-culturing (successive passages) of such Ostreobium filaments, have 144 been propagated in vitro in free-living and endolithic forms (see below) since September 145 2016, with vouchers deposited in the Museum national d'Histoire naturelle (Paris, France) 146 RBCell collection of microalgae and cyanobacteria (MNHN-ALCP-2019-873.1 to MNHN-147 ALCP-2019-873.8; see Table 1).

148 The algal isolates were assigned to 3 species-level *Ostreobium* genotypes (clades) 149 defined by 99% sequence similarity thresholds of the chloroplast-encoded RuBisCo large 150 subunit *rbcL* gene (see Genbank Accession numbers in Table 1). The *rbcL* phylogeny showed 151 that the majority (7/9) of Ostreobium strains (obtained from 2 out of 3 host coral colonies) clustered into one P1 clade (99% similarity over ~729 nt for 6 strains, and over 375 nt for 152 153 strain 022). Clade P1 is the dominant Ostreobium lineage detected in Pocillopora acuta corals 154 from long-term cultures at the ATPD-aquarium, and is also detected in Pocillopora verrucosa 155 from the Red Sea Eilat IUI reef (Massé et al., 2018). The two other strains, named 018A and 156 06 (each isolated from a single coral colony) were assigned to distinct rbcL clades 157 (OTU>99%), named P12 and P14, respectively. Thus, although one coral colony did not 158 provide emerging Ostreobium filaments, each of the two other colonies harbored two co-159 occurring Ostreobium lineages, with over-representation of one dominant (P1) genotype.

160 A phylogenetic tree was built from alignment of overlapping *rbc*L sequences (161 nt 161 length barcode) to assess the strains' diversity (Fig. S1). Congruent phylogenetic trees and 162 lineage affiliations were also obtained for longer rbcL sequence alignments, built over 729 nt 163 for strains 05, 010, 019, 018A, 018B, 018C, and 346 nt for strains 06 and 022 (data not 164 shown). Both clades P12 and P14 were putative sister species-level entities (OTU>99%), 165 related at genus level (>97% sequence similarity threshold) to a clade P3 previously reported 166 in aquarium-grown Pocillopora acuta colonies (Massé et al., 2018; ATPD and Océanopolis 167 aquariums), and also detected in Pacific reef-collected Pocillopora sp. (from Gambier 168 Archipelago, Massé, pers. obs.). Indeed, sequence divergence between P12 and P3, and 169 between P14 and P3 was  $\sim 2\%$ . Both P12 and P14 *rbcL* genotypes clustered together with 170 formerly detected clade P3 into a genus-level lineage (OTU>97%), while P1 rbcL genotype 171 was treated separately, as a distinct species-level lineage (OTU>99%). The overall *rbcL* 172 sequence divergence between those lineages was ~8-10%, with P1 genotype 91.9% similar to 173 P12 genotype and 90.6% similar to P14 genotype.

174 For comparison purposes with *tufA*-based Ostreobium classification, sequences of the 175 taxonomical marker tufA were also retrieved from available chloroplast genomes of the 176 reference strains Ostreobium sp. HV05042 (KY509314) and HV05007a (KY509315) isolated 177 from Diploastrea corals (Verbruggen et al., 2017), which rbcL sequences best matched with 178 the sequences of our strains (Fig. S1). These tufA reference sequences aligned with 97.9% 179 similarity (over 484 nt) to the tufA sequence of Ostreobium sp. TS1408 (KU362015) which 180 was affiliated to the family Odoaceae (Sauvage et al., 2016), awaiting formal description. 181 This result indicates that the Ostreobium strains in P12/P14 lineage were affiliated to the

(*tufA*) Odoaceae family (OTU>92%), while P1 strains represented a species-level genotype
belonging to a potentially different family.

184

# Bioerosive potential in culture conditions

185 Free-living Ostreobium filaments (Fig. 1a, b) were exposed during several weeks to coral skeletal chips measuring a few millimeters in thickness and prepared from pre-bleached 186 187 *Pocillopora acuta* (hypochlorite cleaned to remove external organic matter). The Ostreobium 188 filaments showed attachment to the skeleton surface (epilithic growth habit; Fig. 1a) and entry 189 of some algal filaments perpendicular to the substrate surface (endolithic growth habit). This 190 colonization by endolithic Ostreobium was observed by light microscopy on thin sections 191 (Fig. 1c). Toluidine blue-stained filaments penetrating the substrate formed a thick branching 192 network inside the carbonate (Fig. 1c). Galleries formed by this microboring alga 193 (microboring traces called *Ichnoreticulina elegans*; Radtke, 1991) were also observed by 194 scanning electron microscopy (Fig. 1d), below the skeletal surface, confirming de novo 195 colonization of the exposed carbonate by endolithic Ostreobium. Filaments penetrated 196 through all coral skeletal structures, i.e. growing across bundles of skeletal fibers and centers of calcification without obvious preference for either microstructure. These observations 197 198 prove that the Ostreobium isolates kept their bioerosive potential in vitro, even after 199 propagation through several subcultures as free-living forms.

## 200 Photosynthetic and accessory pigments

201 Qualitatively, the pigment composition of Ostreobium strains belonging to lineage P1 (strains of less frequent lineage P12/P14 were not studied) was similar for endolithic and free-202 203 living forms (3 and 5 individual strains, respectively, see Table 1). Indeed, similar 204 photosynthetic (chlorophyll) and accessory (carotenoid) pigments were detected for both 205 growth forms in high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) fingerprints of organic 206 extracts, although their relative abundance varied (Fig. S2b; with mean retention times 207 (±Standard Deviation) for the 58 peaks detected provided in Table S1). In contrast, profiles of 208 control bleached skeletons (uncolonized by endolithic Ostreobium) contained only three 209 peaks, rarely observed and at very low intensity in endolithic Ostreobium (Table S1).

Comparison with pure commercial standards allowed identification in endolithic and free-living *Ostreobium* of chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) in the profiles recorded at 664 nm at retention time (RT) 37.2 $\pm$ 0.5 min (with chl *a* allomers at RT 34.6 $\pm$ 0.5 min, RT 36.6 $\pm$ 0.4 min and RT 38.8 $\pm$ 0.5 min) (Fig. S2a). Chlorophyll *b* (chl *b*) was also detected in the profiles recorded at 470 nm, at retention time  $30.5\pm0.5$  min (with chl *b* allomers at RT 27.9 $\pm0.4$  and RT  $32.3\pm0.5$ min) (Fig. S2a).

216 The non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) analysis of profiles showed a great 217 variation of pigment content across strains and subcultures for each Ostreobium growth form. 218 Despite this variation, nMDS showed a separation between endolithic and free-living Ostreobium phenotypes (except for the free-living subculture 018B<sup>1</sup> which was close to its 219 220 corresponding endolithic form) (Fig. 2a2, stress=0.06), with an average dissimilarity of 53% 221 (SIMPER analysis). This dissimilarity between phenotypes was attributed to differences in 222 their photosynthetic pigment proportions, i.e. chl a, chl b, an allomer of chl b (RT 27.9 $\pm$ 0.4 223 min) and two allomers of chl a (RT 34.6±0.5 and 36.6±0.4 min), with relative contribution of 224 14.6%, 13.8%, 10.9%, 7.6% and 5.6%, respectively. Pigment content of both Ostreobium 225 growth forms were distinct from the extracts of control bleached skeletons (Fig. 2a1, 226 stress=0.01). A PCA analysis of pigment relative content (not illustrated) showed congruent data point distribution of strains, separating endolithic versus free-living phenotypes (except 227 for  $018B^1$ ), with chl *a* and chl *b* and their allomers as main drivers of the distribution pattern. 228

229 Quantitatively, a high inter-individual variability was noted for chlorophyll content (chl a and chl b, and their respective allomers) especially across free-living strains and their 230 231 successive subcultures (illustrated in Fig. 2b and detailed in Table S2). Overall, despite 232 variable chl a content between subcultures of the free-living phenotype, chl b contents were 233 higher in endoliths (8.9 $\pm$ 1.2 µg/mg organic extract, respectively; SE, n=3) than free-living 234 forms (1.0 $\pm$ 0.3 µg/mg organic extract, respectively; SE, n=8). The ratio chl b : chl a was four 235 times higher in endolithic  $(0.84\pm0.18, \text{ SE}, n=3)$  than in free-living  $(0.21\pm0.03, \text{ SE}, n=8)$ 236 Ostreobium (Table S2).

237 Fatty acid composition

Qualitatively, the fatty acid (FA) composition of *Ostreobium* strains belonging to P1 and P12/P14 lineages was similar between endolithic and free-living forms (Table S3). Representative fatty acid profiles obtained by gas chromatography (GC) are illustrated in Figure S3. A total of 31 FAs were detected in *Ostreobium* strains, dominated by saturated fatty acids (SFA) in endoliths *versus* polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) in free-living forms (Table S3). In contrast, only 5 saturated FAs (16:00, 18:00, 14:00, 15:0 and 12:0) were found in control bleached skeletons (detailed in Table S3). 245 Quantitatively however, PCA and barplot analysis showed variability of FA content 246 (relative proportions) across Ostreobium strains and subcultures for each phenotype (Fig. 3). 247 Despite this variability, a general trend could be observed and showed a different FA content 248 in Ostreobium strains belonging to clade P1 (black color code, Fig. 3a) than in the majority of their free-living counterparts (for all cultures but 010, 018B<sup>1</sup>, 019, see also Fig. 3c). For clade 249 250 P12/P14, due to low number of available strains and limited available endolithic biomass, the 251 recorded similarity of FA content of endoliths and free-living forms is provisional because it 252 was based on a single determination for endolithic strain 06 (see Table S3).

253 The poly-unsaturated fatty acid content explained 86% of the variability between 254 endolithic and free-living phenotypes (PC1, Fig. 3a, 3b). Indeed a major difference was due to 255 arachidonic acid (20:4 $\omega$ 6) content increased by a factor ranging from 2.2 to 30 in P1 lineage, 256 from endolithic to free-living forms (illustrated in Fig. 3c, see also Table S3; a large range 257 attributed to variable physiological status across subcultures). Biosynthetic intermediates of 258 arachidonic acid, i.e. 16:3\omega6, 18:2\omega6 and 18:3\omega6 were detected in endolithic Ostreobium, 259 like in free-living forms, but without longer-chain 20:466 fatty acid. Among detected mono-260 unsaturated fatty acids,  $18:1\omega7$  was abundant in both Ostreobium forms, as well as  $18:1\omega9$ 261 which was simultaneously detected with  $18:2\omega 6$ . Trace amounts (<0.5%) of methyl-branched 262 fatty acids (15:0iso, 15:0anteiso and 16:0iso) and long-chain PUFAs (20:5ω3, 22:5ω6 and 263 22:6ω3) were also detected in both Ostreobium forms, in variable amounts across strains and 264 their subcultures.

265

# *C/N ratios and stable isotope values* ( $\delta^{13}$ C and $\delta^{15}$ N)

The carbon to nitrogen (C/N) ratios in endolithic Ostreobium filaments removed from 266 267 their surrounding carbonate (by acid-decalcification), did not vary much among strains and 268 subcultures and between lineages, with mean C/N of 12.6±0.6 for lineage P1 (n=5, SD) and 269 11.9±0.3 for lineage P12/P14 (n=4, SD) (Table S4). These values are close to those measured 270 in the residual organic matrix from control acid-decalcified bleached skeletons (mean C/N 271 ratios of 11.1±1.1, n=4, SD). Conversely, in free-living forms, the C/N ratio varied greatly 272 among strains within both P1 and P12/P14 lineages (C/N of 16.3±2.5 n=9, SD for P1, and 273 14.3±1.4 n=4, SD for P12/P14), with more stable ratios between subcultures of each strain. 274 The overall pattern indicates that C/N ratios were higher in free-living than in endolithic 275 filaments of Ostreobium.

Stable isotope values ( $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N) of endolithic (not decalcified, or acid-276 decalcified) and free-living Ostreobium forms are presented in Figure 4 along with controls, 277 i.e. bleached coral skeleton substrate and its residual organic matrix. Detailed  $\delta^{13}C$  and  $\delta^{15}N$ 278 values of individual strains and growth forms are also presented in Table S5. Results showed 279 high  $\delta^{13}$ C variability among strains and their subcultures, within and between each genetic 280 281 lineage (P1 and P12/14), for each growth form. Despite this variability, data of decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium* were pooled as mean  $\delta^{13}$ C values were not significantly different 282 between lineages (p>0.05). For the same reason, data of free-living Ostreobium were also 283 284 pooled (Fig. 4A). The non-decalcified endolithic Ostreobium belonging to P1 (nondecalcified P12/P14 were not measured) were significantly (p<0.05) more enriched in <sup>13</sup>C (-285  $11.2\pm0.8$  % SD, n=4) than the free-living phenotypes (-18.6±2.6 % SD, n=16 for all clades). 286 287 In contrast, decalcified endolithic Ostreobium were significantly (p<0.05) more depleted in  $^{13}$ C ( $\delta^{13}$ C -23.8±3.6 ‰ SD, n=13 for all clades) than the free-living forms. This depletion is 288 partly explained by the acid treatment of endolithic filaments to remove the carbonate. Indeed 289 290 a parallel control test of this acid treatment on free-living Ostreobium filaments showed a significant (p<0.05) -6 ‰ amplitude depletion of  $\delta^{13}$ C (i.e. -26.9±2.6 ‰ SD, n=3 treated 291 versus -20.9±2.6 ‰ SD, n=3 untreated, technical replicates of strain 010, Table S5). Thus, 292 acid treatment corrected  $\delta^{13}$ C values of decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium* strains were on 293 average -17.8±3.6 ‰ (SD, n=13 for all clades). However, when strain 010 was excluded from 294 295 the pool of data as it seems to behave differently from the other strains, decalcified endolithic strains still appeared depleted in <sup>13</sup>C (corrected  $\delta^{13}$ C : -20.1±2.3 ‰ SD, n=8, for all strains 296 except 010) compared to their corresponding free-living form (see Table S5). 297

The mean  $\delta^{13}$ C of endolithic *Ostreobium* was compared to that of their habitat (coral 298 299 skeleton substrate) to track shifts indicative of potential C sources. Results showed that the 300  $\delta^{13}$ C values in undecalcified endolithic *Ostreobium* were higher (-11.2±0.8 ‰ SD, n=4 clade 301 P1 strain 010) than those of control skeleton substrates (-13.9 $\pm$ 0.03 ‰ SD, n=3). Such <sup>13</sup>C enrichment (+2.7 ‰) was also observed and was significant (p<0.05) using another sample 302 303 preparation method, the automated carbonate preparation device Kiel IV (endolithic Ostreobium  $\delta^{13}$ C -10.6±0.4 ‰ SD, n=8 clade P1 strain 010 versus carbonate substrate  $\delta^{13}$ C -304 13.3±0.4 ‰ SD, n=8). Regarding decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium*, their  $\delta^{13}$ C values were 305 higher (-23.8±3.6 ‰ SD, n=13) than those of their control decalcified skeleton substrate, i.e. 306 307 the coral skeletal organic matrix (-29.4 $\pm$ 1.3 ‰ SD, n=4).

For  $\delta^{15}$ N (Fig. 4B), similarly to  $\delta^{13}$ C, high inter-individual variability was observed for 308 309 each growth form, between strains and their subcultures and within each genetic lineage (P1 310 versus P12/14). However, this variability was much higher for the decalcified endoliths (+4.3 311  $\infty$  min, +17.9  $\infty$  max), than for the free-living forms (+1.4  $\infty$  min, +9.0  $\infty$  max). The lineage had a significant effect on mean  $\delta^{15}N$  of free-living Ostreobium (p>0.05) but not on 312 313 that of decalcified endoliths (due to high variability within lineage). In order to compare N 314 sources between growth forms, data for both genetic lineages were pooled. Results showed 315 that the  $\delta^{15}$ N values of most decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium* strains were significantly enriched (14.3±3.1 % SD, n=8 for all clades, except strain 010) compared to the  $\delta^{15}$ N values 316 317 of their corresponding free-living forms (5.3±2.1 ‰ SD, n=10 for all clades, except strain 010). Only for strain 010 within P1 (dotted circles in Fig. 4B), the recorded  $\delta^{15}N$  values were 318 low and similar for both the non-decalcified and decalcified endolithic form (4.2±0.6‰ SD, 319 n=3 and 4.9±0.4‰, SD, n=5, respectively), but still enriched compared to the  $\delta^{15}N$  of their 320 321 free-living counterparts ( $2.7\pm0.7\%$  SD, n=6). There was no effect of the acid treatment as  $\delta^{15}$ N values of control treated or untreated free-living forms were not significantly different 322 323 (2.2±1.2 ‰ SD, n=3 treated versus 2.3±0.5 ‰ SD, n=3 untreated, technical replicates of strain 010; Table S5). Compared to  $\delta^{15}$ N of the coral skeletal organic matrix (5.5±0.5 ‰ SD. 324 325 n=4), most values of the decalcified endolithic Ostreobium strains (except strain 010) were 326 enriched (14.3±3.1 ‰ SD, n=8) corresponding to a +9‰ average shift.

#### 327 Photosynthetic C and N assimilation

Bicarbonate and nitrate uptake by endolithic Ostreobium and their corresponding free-328 living forms (n=3 strains of P1 lineage, and n=2 strains of P12/P14 lineage) are illustrated in 329 Figure 5, in relation to pH changes during the 8h dual labeling pulse with <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate and 330 331 <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate, under light or dark conditions. Different patterns of C and N assimilation were 332 recorded between endolithic versus free-living phenotypes, despite strain-related variations. 333 Indeed a high metabolic variability was observed among strains within each lineage (P1 or 334 P12/P14). Due to low replication, the lineage effect could not be tested (experimental 335 culturing difficulties limited to 2 the number of available P12/P14 strains and strain 010 in P1 336 was analyzed only in light conditions).

Fixation of <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate (Fig. 5a) in light condition was lower in endolithic forms (973 $\pm$ 616 ‰ SD, n=3) than in free-living forms (2392 $\pm$ 405 ‰ SD, n=3) for three strains: 05 (P1) and 06, 018A (P12/P14). However, strains 022 and 010 (both in P1) displayed an

opposite pattern. In dark conditions, very little <sup>13</sup>C enrichment was recorded for both 340 341 endolithic (14.9±10.2 ‰ SD, n=4) and free-living Ostreobium (30.5±11.6 ‰ SD, n=4) for all strains, indicating that <sup>13</sup>C enrichment resulted from photosynthesis. Indeed, in light 342 343 conditions photosynthetic activity was confirmed by the rise in pH during the 8h labeling 344 pulse, for both endolithic (+0.11±0.03 SD, n=5) and free-living Ostreobium (+0.26±0.15 SD, 345 n=5). For endolithic phenotypes, seawater alkalization may also result from carbonate 346 dissolution activity, in addition to photosynthesis. Although the pH increase was much lower 347 in endolithic than free-living forms (consistent with lower biomass of filaments: 0.9±0.4 mg vs 5.9 $\pm$ 2.6 mg dry weight, n= 5, respectively), large pH increase corresponded to high <sup>13</sup>C-348 349 enrichment, except for the free-living form of strain 010 (clade P1). In dark conditions, pH 350 did not vary for the free-living forms while it increased for the endolithic forms (+0.1±0.01 351 SD, n=4), indicative of carbonate dissolution processes.

Assimilation of <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate (Fig. 5b) was recorded at the end of the 8h labeling pulse in both endolithic and free-living *Ostreobium* in light and also in dark conditions. Uptake of <sup>15</sup>Nnitrate was however 40% reduced in dark compared to light conditions. In light, assimilation of <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate was lower in endolithic forms (1253±556 ‰ SD, n=4) than in free-living forms (2346±442 ‰ SD, n=4) for four strains (06, 018A, 022, 05). Strain 010 displayed an opposite pattern. In dark conditions, <sup>15</sup>N-assimilation was also lower in endolithic forms (567±384 ‰ SD, n=4) than in free-living forms (1552±81 ‰ SD, n=4).

359 We calculated the turnover of exogenous inorganic <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>15</sup>N (i.e. the rate of inorganic C and N used for cell growth) in endolithic versus free-living filaments for a 12h 360 photoperiod, by extrapolation of the uptake data recorded at the end of the 8h pulse of <sup>13</sup>C-361 bicarbonate and <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate (equation in Material & Methods and data for each strain in Table 362 363 S6). In daylight, C and N turnover rates varied among strains for both phenotypes. Although 364 variability between technical replicates within a same strain was low (SD<5% of the mean for 365 free-living strain 010), differences were observed between genetic lineages (Table S6). 366 Indeed, C and N turnover increased by a factor ~3 in P12/P14 compared to P1 when 367 Ostreobium filaments lived free in the culture medium, whereas P12/P14 was less active than 368 P1 when filaments lived inside carbonate substrate (with C and N turnover ~60 and 50 % 369 weaker, respectively). Regarding phenotypes, C and N turnover in P1 were relatively similar 370 between growth forms, whereas in P12/P14 it decreased by a factor 3.6 for C, and a factor 2.7 371 for N in endoliths compared to free-living Ostreobium forms. In dark conditions, C turnover 372 for both phenotypes was very low (<0.1 % / 12h period, Table S6). In contrast, N turnover 373 was detected for both phenotypes but at reduced level compared to light conditions. For free-374 living Ostreobium, N turnover was similar among strains and between genetic lineages (Table 375 S6). For endolithic Ostreobium, N turnover greatly varied among strains within lineage P1, 376 whereas lower variability was observed within P12/P14 (Table S6). Regarding phenotypes, N 377 turnover decreased in endolithic compared to free-living Ostreobium, by a factor 2.2 for 378 lineage P1 and 3.3 for lineage P12/P14. Combined together, these C and N turnover results 379 indicated a lower efficiency of dissolved inorganic carbon and nitrogen (DIC & DIN) uptake 380 from seawater by endolithic Ostreobium than by their free-living counterparts.

381 **Discussion** 

# 382 Diversity of Ostreobium strains from Pocillopora corals

383 Despite rapidly growing evidence of the high genetic diversity of the microboring 384 Chlorophyta Ostreobium in living corals in reef ecosystems (Marcelino & Verbruggen, 2016; 385 Sauvage et al., 2016; Marcelino et al., 2017; del Campo et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Zapata et al., 386 2018), phenotypic characterization of specific Ostreobium genotypes has lagged behind. 387 Indeed, phenotype studies have so far focused only on strains 6.99 and B14.86 designated as 388 Ostreobium quekettii Bornet & Flahaut 1889 (Kornmann & Sahling, 1980; Schlichter et al., 389 1997; Krause et al., 2019). Phenotypic comparisons of Ostreobium strains belonging to 390 distinct genetic lineages are key to better understand the functional diversity of this 391 microboring alga in reef ecosystems. Here, the nine Ostreobium strains obtained from the 392 fast-growing branching coral Pocillopora acuta Lamarck 1816 add to the diversity of the few 393 coral-isolated strains (mostly from massive, slow-growing coral hosts) that were so far used 394 only for phylogenetic studies (Verbruggen et al., 2017; Sauvage et al., 2016). Although 395 isolated from aquarium-grown, long-term propagated coral colonies, these Ostreobium strains 396 are representative of 2 lineages from reef settings, including a lineage provisionally assigned 397 to the family Odoaceae (sensu Sauvage et al., 2016), which are also detected in natural 398 communities of Pocillopora corals from Northern Red Sea and South Pacific reefs (Massé et 399 al., 2018; Verbruggen et al., 2017).

Fast-growing branching corals are known to harbor less abundant and diverse Ostreobium than slow-growing massive corals, with patchy spatial distribution along the branch growth axis (Godinot *et al.*, 2012; Massé *et al.*, 2018; Marcelino *et al.*, 2017). Culture bias likely allowed only a fraction of endolithic microbes to be isolated and potential multiple 404 isolation of the same Ostreobium lineage due to filament fragmentation, with one dominant 405 (P1) and one minor (P12/P14) lineage detected per branch. These reasons explain the uneven 406 size of datasets generated in this study, largest for strains affiliated to the P1 lineage (7 407 strains), and reduced to 2 strains for the P12/P14 lineage. Isolation and characterization of 408 more strains from P12/P14 would be necessary to further test metabolic differences between 409 lineages. Nevertheless, this collection of Ostreobium strains that kept their bioerosive 410 potential after isolation from a branching *Pocillopora* coral species, provides novel tools to 411 study the nature of Ostreobium interactions with branching corals and their endosymbiotic 412 Symbiodiniaceae, sensitive to bleaching events in a changing environment.

#### 413

#### Habitat-driven changes in morpho-functional traits (pigments and fatty acids)

414 Pigments of Ostreobium algae have so far been mainly studied in complex natural 415 microboring communities, i.e. green bands of dead or live corals, using spectrophotometry 416 and Jeffrey and Humphrey equations for chlorophylls, or HPLC technique (Fork & Larkum, 417 1989; Fine & Loya 2002; Fine et al., 2006; Tribollet et al., 2006; Sangsawang et al., 2017) 418 with a few pioneer studies focusing on individual strains of Ostreobium sp. (called O. 419 quekettii Bornet & Flahaut 1889) using HPLC methods (Jeffrey, 1968; Schlichter et al., 1997; 420 Koehne et al., 1999). For the first time, we provide pigment datasets (HPLC profiles) for 421 several Ostreobium strains of a referenced genotype (rbcL P1 lineage) and show differences 422 in endolithic versus free-living forms, supporting adaptation to habitat-driven lower light 423 intensities in the dense coral biomineral versus seawater. Indeed, although pigment 424 composition was qualitatively similar among strains, chlorophyll b content and chl b : chl a 425 ratio were higher in endolithic forms compared to free-living forms. These results obtained 426 for genetically identified Ostreobium strains are in agreement with those reported for natural 427 microboring communities, highlighting the major contribution of Ostreobium to the 428 photobiology of complex coral skeletal microbiomes. Indeed, in the green layer of massive 429 (Favia) corals, chlorophyll b reached up to 60-75% of the chlorophyll a content (Jeffrey, 430 1968). In the endolithic algae colonizing the coral Leptoseris frugilix, the chl b: chl a ratio 431 was also higher in deep colonies than shallow ones (Schlichter et al., 1997). Additionally, in 432 free-living cultures of Ostreobium sp. strain B14.86, Schlichter et al. (1997) experimentally 433 showed that chlorophyll a and b concentrations increased with decreasing light (photon flux from 60 to 0.5  $\mu$ mol.m<sup>-2</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup>), suggesting adaptation of the light harvesting system to low light 434 435 conditions. Our experimental results indicate that endolithic Ostreobium strains adapted their 436 photosynthetic apparatus (chl b content) to the low light microenvironment inside the dense 437 coral carbonate substrate (Enriquez et al., 2017), which here was the bleached skeleton (bared 438 of tissue) of a fast-growing, branched coral. Contrary to other studies on (unidentified) 439 Ostreobium sp. strain from Chilean coral (Koehne et al., 1999; Wilhelm & Jakob, 2006), or 440 complex endolithic community from coralline algae (Behrendt et al., 2011), the far-red 441 absorbing chlorophyll d was not detected (i.e. no peak with a maxima absorption around 700 442 nm) in our endolithic Ostreobium strains. Red-shifted chlorophyll d is mainly associated to 443 photoadaptation of Ostreobium algae to life in low light microenvironment inside the coral 444 carbonate skeleton of living colonies, shaded by intact coral tissue cover (Haldall, 1968). Our experimental settings, i.e. illumination with  $\sim 30 \ \mu mol \ photons.m^{-2}.s^{-1}$  white light and absence 445 of light-absorbing coral tissue cover, may have prevented the full expression of Ostreobium 446 447 pigment repertoire. Future studies may involve manipulation of light quality and intensity, 448 and use of high spatial resolution sensors (Magnusson et al., 2007; Wangpraseurt et al., 449 2012), to better resolve the optical microniche environments inside coral skeletons versus 450 inside free-living tufts of filaments, and compare the photobiology and photoadaptation of 451 diverse genotypes of Ostreobium.

Fatty acids are important for physiological adaptation of algae to environmental stress such as salinity and temperature (Zhila *et al.*, 2010, de Carvalho & Caramujo, 2018). They may also be used to understand the nutritional value of *Ostreobium* to the coral host (suggested by Fine & Loya, 2002) and to grazing organisms such as parrotfishes (Clements *et al.*, 2016), and more generally, as trophic markers to trace food sources in reef organisms. Here we provide first detailed records of *Ostreobium* fatty acid profiles, highlighting their variability across growth forms, genotypes, strains and subcultures.

459 Fatty acid composition of Ostreobium was typical of chlorophytes but varied 460 quantitatively between the endolithic growth forms and their free-living counterparts. Palmitic 461 acid (16:0), abundant in both endolithic and free-living Ostreobium, is indeed a saturated FA 462 reported in several green macroalgae (Kumari et al., 2010; Pereira et al., 2012). Both 463 phenotypes displayed high contents of C18 polyunsaturated FA (PUFA) which are 464 characteristic of chlorophytes (Jamieson & Reid, 1972; Khotimchenko & Svetashev, 1987). 465 But some FAs commonly found in other algae of the order Bryopsidales were not detected in 466 our Ostreobium strains. Indeed, a comparison of Ulvales and Cladophorales with the order 467 Bryopsidales (the latter listed by Aknin et al. (1992) as Siphonales, a previous affiliation of 468 members of this order) indicates that these algae are characterized by high quantity of  $16:3\omega 3$ 469 combined with low quantities of 16:4ω3 and 18:4ω3 (Aknin et al., 1992). The absence of these ω3 fatty acids from all analyzed *Ostreobium* strains suggests their absence in the
suborder Ostreobinae, at least in the two lineages to which our strains were classified.

472 Simultaneous detection in our *Ostreobium* cultures of  $18:2\omega 6$  and  $18:1\omega 9$  is indicative 473 of fungal presence (Frostegård et al., 1996; Mikola & Setälä, 1998; Chen et al., 2001; 474 Meziane *et al.*, 2006), and confirms that cultures were not axenic. Fungi from the microbiome 475 of the coral skeleton may have been co-isolated. Structures morphologically similar to fungal 476 hyphae are indeed known to colonize Ostreobium filaments in various carbonate substrates 477 (Le Campion-Alsumard et al., 1995b; Tribollet & Payri, 2001; Golubic et al., 2005). 478 Likewise, trace amounts of methyl-branched saturated fatty acids were detected, indicative of 479 bacterial presence (Daalsgard et al., 2003). Endophytic bacteria have indeed been reported in 480 the genus Bryopsis (Hollants et al., 2011) and some bacteria may be associated with 481 Ostreobium filaments. Long-chain PUFAs (20:5ω3, 22:5ω6 and 22:6ω3) typical of 482 dinoflagellates (Mansour et al., 1999) were also sometimes detected at low levels, especially 483 in some of the free-living forms.

484 An important feature of the fatty acid composition of *Ostreobium* strains was the high 485 abundance of arachidonic acid (20:4 $\omega$ 6) in free-living forms, consistently dropping in 486 endolithic forms (observation valid for lineage P1, as low replication of endolithic forms in 487 the less represented P12/P14 prevented comparisons). This essential FA for living organisms 488 is a constituent of phospholipids in biological membranes, involved in fluidity, permeability 489 and cellular signalization (Maulucci et al., 2016). The shift recorded in Ostreobium membrane 490 composition suggests important adjustments of fluidity and permeability, possibly for 491 adaptation to the lifestyle constraint experienced by the siphons. Endolithic Ostreobium 492 siphons are indeed supported by the rigid environment provided by the coral carbonate 493 mineral. C/N ratios were also lower in endolithic versus free-living Ostreobium suggesting 494 lower production inside the carbonate habitat of C-rich compounds such as lipids and 495 polysaccharides exudates. In contrast, free-living filaments may benefit from more fluid and 496 flexible membranes that offer more mechanical resistance to shear forces and local seawater 497 turbulence. In addition high PUFA content may provide more protection from temperature 498 changes (de Carvalho & Caramujo, 2018). Decreased degree of fatty acid unsaturation in 499 endoliths could also help the alga to acclimate to salinity stress (Zhila et al., 2010). Overall a 500 shifting arachidonic acid content between both phenotypes may reflect differential 501 signalization activity (de Carvalho & Caramujo, 2018), and a shift in communication with

502 associated microbes. Such potential differences could occur within the same filament, with 503 one end as free-living *Ostreobium* emerging as epilith from carbonate substrates and the other 504 end as endolith. This remains to be investigated in light of the important nutritional role of 505 epilithic and endolithic biofilms in reef trophic food chain (Kobluk & Risk, 1977; Adey, 506 1998; Clements *et al.*, 2016).

# 507 *Nutritional (C and N) sources for* Ostreobium *phenotypes*

508 The sources of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) used by endolithic Ostreobium for 509 photosynthesis and growth inside a coral carbonate habitat remain little known. A few authors 510 showed that microboring communities dominated by Ostreobium sp. in dead reef carbonate 511 substrates are stimulated by elevated seawater  $pCO_2$ , suggesting that those microboring algae 512 are limited in DIC and use mainly seawater DIC (Tribollet et al., 2009; Reyes-Nivia et al., 513 2013; Tribollet et al., 2019). A similar trend was also observed for another reef microboring 514 community dominated by the chlorophyte Phaeophila sp. in dead carbonate substrates 515 (Enochs et al., 2016). In light of a recent study by Guida et al. (2017), endolithic microalgae 516 such as Ostreobium, could also use bicarbonate ions (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) released during carbonate 517 dissolution for photosynthesis. Indeed, these authors showed that the microboring 518 cyanobacterium, Mastigocoleus testarum (in cultured strain BC008 and under natural 519 conditions), is able to fix carbon derived from mineral calcite substrate when seawater DIC is 520 limiting. Here, the stable isotope analysis of Ostreobium strains provides new information on 521 their sources of carbon and nitrogen for photosynthesis and nutrition.

522 Regarding carbon, the only possible source of carbon for free-living Ostreobium was DIC from seawater, which is confirmed by the uptake of <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate in our experiment 523 (Fig. 5a). Their measured  $\delta^{13}$ C values (ranging between -24 and -15 ‰) were in agreement 524 525 with those recorded for green fleshy macroalgae (Raven et al., 2002), especially in the class 526 Ulvophyceae (Wang & Yeh, 2003). For endolithic Ostreobium boring through the coral 527 biomineral, multiple C sources are possible: (i) DIC from seawater and diffusing to the 528 interstitial space at the interface between filament and skeleton; (ii) DIC released from the 529 CaCO<sub>3</sub> biomineral by active carbonate dissolution and (iii) organic C released from the 530 skeletal organic matrix by carbonate dissolution and/or the activity of microbial associates. Here, we show that non-decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium* filaments ( $\delta^{13}$ C -11.2±0.8 ‰) were 531 depleted in <sup>13</sup>C compared to reference seawater DIC (in the range of -5 to 2 %; see Patterson 532 & Walter, 1994 for  $\delta^{13}$ C values of tropical seawater in carbonate reefs), and more enriched 533

compared to their coral carbonate substrates. Indeed, the mean  $\delta^{13}$ C value of bleached *Pocillopora acuta* coral skeletons was -13.9±0.03 ‰, which corresponds to the low range of values recorded for hermatypic, symbiotic coral skeletons (Linsley *et al.*, 2019), likely due to aquarium coral growth restrictions and maybe reduced photosynthesis, increased respiration and oxidation of organic matter. This result, combined with the <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate uptake experiment, strongly supports the hypothesis that endolithic *Ostreobium* used mainly DIC from seawater.

541 After correction for acidification treatment (+6 ‰), most decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium* strains had lower  $\delta^{13}$ C compositions compared to that of their corresponding free-542 living forms (Table S5). The uptake of <sup>13</sup>C-labeled bicarbonate and exogenous C turnover 543 544 were however reduced (Fig. 5a and Table S6, respectively) in endolithic compared to free-545 living *Ostreobium*, indicating lower photosynthetic activity inside the light-limited carbonate. 546 This supports the hypothesis that most endolithic Ostreobium had access to the same source 547 of seawater carbon as their free-living counterparts. Indeed, low photosynthetic rates are 548 expected to reduce  $\delta^{13}$ C values of macroalgae (O'Leary, 1988; Wiencke & Fischer, 1990) due 549 to preferential uptake of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> if not limiting, and carbon isotope fractionation during 550 photosynthetic <sup>12</sup>C-CO<sub>2</sub> fixation by the RuBisCO enzyme, which discriminates against <sup>13</sup>C-CO<sub>2</sub> (Farquhar et al., 1989). Moreover, the presence of contaminant residual skeletal organic 551 matrix with very low  $\delta^{13}$ C values (-29.4±1.3 ‰) also likely contributed to depletion of  $^{13}$ C in 552 553 decalcified endolithic Ostreobium.

Only endolithic filaments of strain 010 had enriched  $\delta^{13}$ C values compared to their 554 free-living filaments (Fig. 4, Table S5). This could be explained by the relatively low  $\delta^{13}$ C 555 556 values of its free-living phenotype due to low photosynthetic activity, supported by very low 557 chlorophyll content (Table S2) and reduced exogenous C turn-over (Table S6). It might also 558 point to an uptake by the endolithic phenotype of strain 010 of non-isotopically labeled DIC, 559 released by dissolution of the coral CaCO<sub>3</sub> substrate, and carbonic anhydrase conversion of bicarbonate ions (Shashar & Stambler, 1992) which would increase its  $\delta^{13}$ C values. Indeed in 560 561 dark conditions, we recorded a significant pH increase in endolithic cultures (Fig. 5) 562 suggesting Ostreobium-driven carbonate dissolution. Moreover, a preliminary experiment 563 with Ostreobium strain 018B also indicated in vitro production of alkalinity over a 24h 564 day/night cycle (measured by colorimetry according to Sarazin et al., 1999). Combined 565 together, these results suggest that the endolithic *Ostreobium* strains were dissolving the coral 566 carbonate during our experiments. This dissolution is consistent with recent studies that

567 showed for Ostreobium quekettii strain (Krause et al., 2019) or microboring communities 568 dominated by Ostreobium in dead coral skeletons (Tribollet et al., 2019) that endolithic 569 filaments are actively dissolving carbonates, increasing seawater alkalinity and thus, the 570 concentration of bicarbonate ions in their environmental vicinity. Although in our 571 experimental settings most endolithic strains were using seawater DIC, the relative 572 contribution of each carbon source for endolithic Ostreobium growth forms needs to be 573 further investigated, testing a range of seawater DIC. The possible use by endolithic 574 Ostreobium of organic C released from the skeletal organic matrix and the activity of 575 associated microbes should also be investigated. This would allow to better understand 576 Ostreobium nutritional plasticity and their efficiency at dissolving carbonates under different 577 environmental conditions.

Regarding nitrogen, the positive shift of  $\delta^{15}N$  values recorded in this study for 578 endolithic compared to free-living Ostreobium suggests a higher trophic level and different 579 nitrogen sources. The increased  $\delta^{15}$ N values may also reflect nutrient limitation and complete 580 581 utilization by endoliths of the nitrate source pool in the small interstitial spaces between 582 Ostreobium filaments and their carbonate substrate (Torres et al., 2012). For free-living 583 forms, the only N source was dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) in the form of nitrate  $(NO_3)$ 584 from seawater medium, confirmed by uptake of <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate in our experiment (Fig. 5b). For 585 endolithic forms, two N sources are possible: (i) DIN from seawater and diffusing to the 586 interstitial space at the interface between filament and skeleton and (ii) organic N released 587 from the skeletal organic matrix by carbonate dissolution and/or from the activity of microbial 588 associates. Similarly to the free-living forms, nitrate provided in the incubation seawater was assimilated by Ostreobium endoliths, as shown by their <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment at the end of the 8h 589 pulse of labeling with <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate. The nitrate uptake was however higher in light than dark 590 591 conditions. This reduction (40%) is likely explained by the contribution of photosynthesis to supply energy and organic carbon skeletons (C-backbones) for nitrogen assimilation into 592 593 amino-acids (Kopp et al., 2013) necessary for protein synthesis and algal filament growth. However, the  $\delta^{15}$ N values of most of the decalcified endolithic strains were higher than those 594 595 of the residual skeletal organic matrix after carbonate dissolution (Fig. 4; not an effect of the 596 acid-treatment used for decalcification, see results). Thus, the skeletal organic matrix, known 597 to be rich in amino-acids and glycoproteins (Marin et al., 2016) could be an additional 598 heterotrophic nitrogen source for Ostreobium endoliths. Other microbial processes might be at 599 play, and contribute to nitrogen isotope fractionation, linked to N<sub>2</sub> fixation, nitrate reduction,

and cycling activities of associated endolithic bacterial/fungal microorganisms in the coral skeleton microbiome (Ferrer & Szmant, 1988; Wegley *et al.*, 2007; our results showing the presence of fungal and bacterial fatty acid markers in cultures of *Ostreobium*). The demonstrated uptake of nitrate by *Ostreobium* strains, especially high for the free-living phenotype but also significant for the endolithic phenotype, highlights an important role of *Ostreobium* in reef nitrogen cycling, as suggested in early works on nutrient regeneration in living corals (Risk & Müller, 1983; Ferrer & Szmant, 1988).

### 607 *Conceptual model of C and N sources for Ostreobium*

608 In light of our results, we propose a model of nutritional sources for Ostreobium algae, 609 illustrated in Figure 6. In this conceptual model, an endolithic filament emerges from the coral 610 carbonate surface as an epilith, which can then be detached and grown in seawater as a free-611 living filament. Dissolved  $CO_2$  and bicarbonate ions (HCO<sub>3</sub>) from seawater are in direct 612 contact with epilithic Ostreobium filaments, and diffuse from gallery opening to the 613 interstitial space between endolithic filaments and skeleton. Dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> is also provided 614 by respiration. Bicarbonate ions are converted to CO<sub>2</sub> via the activity of carbonic anhydrase 615 enzymes (CA) (Shashar & Stambler, 1992). Thus, CO<sub>2</sub> (from seawater or formed after 616 conversion of  $HCO_3^-$  by the CA) diffuse inside the Ostreobium filament and is fixed in 617 chloroplasts by the ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate Carboxylase/Oxygenase (RuBisCO) enzyme for 618 photosynthetic production of C-rich organic compounds (i.e. glucose, fatty acids) used for 619 growth. At the dissolution front of endolithic Ostreobium, inorganic C might be taken up 620 directly by the filament for photosynthesis, or after conversion of organic C from dissolved 621 organic matter (DOM) released by the breakdown of the skeletal organic matrix and recycled 622 by associated endolithic bacteria and fungi. Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN, in this study 623 NO<sub>3</sub>-) is provided by the incubation seawater and diffuses to the interstitial space between 624 endolithic filament and coral skeleton. Assimilation of DIN may be combined to organic N 625 from other microbial processes (hypothesized by Risk & Müller, 1983; Ferrer & Szmant, 626 1988) and the mobilization of DOM from biogenic coral carbonate dissolution. The exact 627 metabolic processes of organic and inorganic N acquisition, i.e. their diffusion or active 628 transport into Ostreobium filaments, remain to be investigated.

We suggest that endolithic *Ostreobium* may have mixed inorganic and organic C and N sources, compared to free-living forms which fix inorganic C and assimilate N through photosynthesis-dependent processes. This nutritional plasticity hypothesis proposes that 632 Ostreobium filaments may change their metabolism to adapt to their habitat and/or 633 environmental conditions (i.e. both seawater chemistry and thickness/composition of associated living coral tissues or epilithic biofilms), shifting from photoautrophy in 634 635 epilithic/free-living growth form to mixotrophy in endolithic growth form. This could explain 636 the large bathymetrical distribution of endolithic Ostreobium, including depths below the 637 photic zone (Vogel et al., 2000), and the rapid colonization of freshly killed corals by initially 638 present endolithic Ostreobium filaments (Leggat et al., 2019). Genotype-driven differences in 639 C and N acquisition strategies should be further investigated, in light of our results showing highly variable  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N values and DIC and DIN uptake rates among strains within and 640 between genetic lineages. Further isolation and cultivation of strains from diverse genetic 641 642 lineages under diverse nutrient conditions will definitely help to better understand Ostreobium 643 eco-physiology and the responses of microboring communities to global changes (e.g. 644 Carreiro-Silva et al., 2005 for eutrophication effects, and Tribollet et al., 2009 for ocean acidification effects). 645

646

#### Conclusion

647 This study highlights habitat-driven changes in chlorophylls, fatty acids and stable isotope values ( $\delta^{13}$ C,  $\delta^{15}$ N) of coral-associated *Ostreobium* strains from two genetic lineages, 648 649 providing novel information on their nutritional value as free-living/epilithic and endolithic 650 filaments. Lower photosynthetic assimilation and nitrate uptake from seawater by endolithic 651 versus free-living phenotypes may be combined for some Ostreobium strains with 652 heterotrophic mobilization of organic matter from microbial associates and recycled from the 653 skeletal organic matrix after active dissolution of the carbonate biomineral. We propose that 654 nutritional plasticity may depend on habitat and environmental conditions, with Ostreobium 655 filaments shifting from photoautotrophic to mixotrophic lifestyle when free-living filaments 656 (or propagules in seawater) colonize reef carbonates as endoliths. The dual isotope tracer 657 approach used here opens the way to further study the biogeochemical cycling and trophic 658 ecology of these cryptic algae inhabiting coral holobionts and reef carbonates, to help 659 understand coral reef resilience to global changes.

660 Materials and Methods

661

Isolation of Ostreobium strains

Strains of Ostreobium were isolated from healthy Pocillopora acuta Lamarck 1816 662 663 coral colonies (genetically identified with mtORF markers after Johnston et al., 2017, also called *Pocillopora damicornis* type beta coral), growing in closed-circuit at the Aquarium 664 665 Tropical du Palais de la Porte Dorée (Paris, France originally from Indonesia). One apical branch fragment ('apex', ~10 mm length) was sampled from each of three distinct P. acuta 666 667 colonies. Skeleton was cleaned off coral tissues containing Symbiodinium and other microbes using a blast of pressurized filtered (0.2 µm) seawater (WaterPik<sup>®</sup> method; Johannes & 668 Wiebe, 1970), then crushed into big pieces using autoclaved mortar and pestle. Fragments 669 670 were separated in 3 fractions, each deposited in an individual microplate well filled with  $\sim 5$ mL of Provasoli Enriched Seawater medium (PES; Provasoli, 1968) supplemented with 671 penicillin G sodium (100 U mL<sup>-1</sup>) and streptomycin sulfate (100 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>). Cultures were 672 incubated at 25°C with 30-40 rpm orbital shaking and a 12h light / 12h dark cycle of 673 674 illumination with white fluorescent light tubes at photosynthetic photon flux density of  $31\pm5.5 \,\mu\text{mol.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$  (measured with a spherical quantum sensor Li-Cor, USA). Culture 675 676 medium was changed every 3-4 weeks. After ~1 month, epilithic filaments emerged from the skeletal carbonate chips, identified as Ostreobium by their typical morphology in inverted 677 678 light microscopy (Olympus CK40-SLP). Other green and red algae could sometimes be 679 observed. Epilithic Ostreobium filaments were pulled out or cut with a scalpel from the 680 skeleton surface and then serially transferred to fresh PES medium for propagation into 681 monoalgal cultures of free-living filaments. The obtained Ostreobium cultures were not 682 axenic as they also contained bacteria and sometimes dinoflagellates, which population 683 densities were controlled by regular subculturing (passage) of isolated algal filaments. For 684 each strain, the number of successive subcultures since initial sampling from skeletal piece 685 was recorded. Endolithic cultures were obtained from the free-living cultures, by colonization 686 during several months of pre-bleached native coral carbonate chip substrates (see below). 687 Strain vouchers have been deposited in the Collection of microalgae and cyanobacteria of the 688 Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle in Paris, France (Table 1).

689

#### *Taxonomic assignation to rbcL clade (phylotype)*

For each algal strain, free-living filaments were subsampled for DNA extraction (with DNeasy PowerSoil<sup>TM</sup> Kit, Qiagen Laboratories Inc., CA) and genotyping based on sequences of the chloroplast-encoded *rbc*L gene marker coding for the large subunit of the ribulose-1,5bisphosphate carboxylase -RuBisCo- enzyme, according to our previous classification scheme (Massé *et al.*, 2018). A partial fragment (~1134 nt) of the 1428 nt chloroplast-encoded 695 Ostreobium rbcL gene was amplified with the following oligonucleotide primer pair, specific 696 **Bryopsidales** to the order within the Ulvophyceae: rbcLF250 [5' 697 GATATTGARCCTGTTGTTG GTGAAGA 3'] modified from Gutner-Hoch & Fine (2011) 698 and rbcL1391R [5'TCTTTCCA AACTTCACAAGC 3'] (Verbruggen et al., 2009). A smaller 699 ~390-440 nt fragment of the rbcL gene was obtained for two cultures which DNA was more 700 difficult amplify, using the primer pair: rbcLF250 and rbcLR670 [5' to 701 CCAGTTTCAGCTTGWGCTTTATAAA 3'] modified from Gutner-Hoch & Fine (2011). 702 Amplification reactions were performed in 25 µL volume containing 1 µL DNA extract 703 template, 0.5 µL of each primer (10 µM final concentration), 2 µL MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25 mM), 0.5 µL 704 dNTP (10 mM), 5 µL GoTaq 5X Buffer, 0.125 µL enzyme GoTaq® G2 Flexi DNA 705 Polymerase (Promega, France) in sterile water. Cycling conditions were 4 min at 94°C, 40 706 cycles of [30 s at 94°C, 45 s at 55°C, 90 s at 72°C], and 5 min terminal extension at 72°C. 707 Amplified fragments were visualized on 1 % agarose gel with SYBRGold or SYBRSafe 708 (Invitrogen). Purified rbcL amplicons (NucleoSpin® gel and PCR clean-up kit, Macherey-709 Nagel, France) were either Sanger-sequenced directly or cloned into pGEM-T easy vector plasmids using competent Escherichia coli JM109 cells (Invitrogen, France). Plasmid DNA of 710 711 insert-containing colonies was extracted (Wizard Plus SV Minipreps, Promega, France) and 712 Sanger-sequenced in both directions by Eurofins Genomics (Germany). Forward and reverse 713 sequences were assembled and checked manually with BioEdit software. Taxonomic 714 assignation of Ostreobium strains was determined by BLASTn against GenBank database. All 715 sequences generated during this study have been deposited in Genbank under accession numbers MK095212 to MK095220 (Table 1). 716

#### 717 *Bio-erosive potential in culture conditions*

718 Pieces of *Pocillopora acuta* coral skeletons (bared of coral tissue) were bleached by 719 immersion during one to three days at room temperature in sodium hypochlorite (NaClO 720 48%, commercial bleach) to remove potential residual algae, coral tissues and surface organic 721 matter. They were rinsed thoroughly with tap water then deionized water and finally 70% 722 ethanol then air-dried under laminar flow hood. For each Ostreobium strain, bleached 723 skeletons were put in contact with free-living filaments to test whether these filaments kept 724 their erosive activity and would be able to colonize their native carbonate substrate, as 725 indicated by (i) filament attachment to skeletal surfaces and (ii) progressive color change of 726 the white, bleached skeletal chip to green Ostreobium-invaded chip. These visible signs of 727 colonization were confirmed microscopically : a bleached coral skeleton exposed for about 3

728 months to filaments of Ostreobium 010 was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in sucrose 729 containing phosphate-buffer, dehydrated in ethanol series (50%, 70%, 96%, 100%), gradually 730 infiltrated with resin (1:2; 1:1; 3:1; v:v ethanol- Spürr resin) then resin-embedded (100% 731 Spürr). Sections cut with a circular diamond saw were polished down to ~20-30 µm, slightly 732 decalcified with formic acid 5% and rinsed with deionized water. These thin sections were 733 either stained with 5% toluidine blue and coverslipped in Spürr for light microscopy 734 observations (Olympus CK40-SLP) or gold-coated and mounted for scanning electron 735 microscopy observations (Hitachi SU 3500, MNHN PtME platform for electron microscopy) 736 of endolithic filaments.

Thus, for each free-living *Ostreobium* strain, we also obtained its corresponding endolithic growth form. Before all biochemical and physiological analyses, coral skeletal chips colonized by endolithic *Ostreobium* were scraped with a sterile toothbrush, or blasted with a jet of pressurized filtered seawater (Waterpik<sup>®</sup> method) and transferred to  $0.2\mu$ m filtered seawater for 24h to 3 days, in order to remove most outgrowing epilithic filaments and select the targeted microboring endolithic growth form.

743 Photosynthetic and accessory pigment analysis

744 Free-living Ostreobium isolates (5 strains) and their corresponding endolithic growth 745 forms (3 strains, due to limited available biomass) belonging to lineage P1 (see Table 1, less 746 frequent strains P12/P14 were not studied) were washed three times with large volumes (1:25) 747 of autoclaved deionized water to mechanically remove most surface bacteria and 748 dinoflagellate contaminants and decrease the salt concentration before organic extractions. To 749 evaluate variability in pigment profile across subcultures within same strain, two successive 750 passages (i.e. subcultures) of 3 free-living Ostreobium strains were analyzed (see Table 1). 751 Furthermore, bleached *Pocillopora acuta* coral skeletons (uncolonized substrate, n=3) were 752 analyzed as controls for potential residual pigments. The samples were lyophilized and 753 ground to powder. Final dry weights were of  $20.6\pm12.2$  mg for free-living forms,  $2253\pm1058$ 754 mg for endolithic forms (without carbonate dissolution), and 1256±361 mg for control 755 bleached coral skeletons (without carbonate dissolution). Samples were extracted twice in 756 dichloromethane/methanol (CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/MeOH; 1:1 v:v), sonicated (10-15 minutes) in ice in the 757 dark to prevent pigment degradation, and then filtered. After evaporation, organic extracts 758 were re-solubilized in a mixture of CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/MeOH (1:1 v:v) to a final concentration of 10 mg 759 mL<sup>-1</sup>. Using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Agilent 1220 infinity)

760 equipped with a diode array detector (DAD), each extract was analyzed on a reverse phase 761 column (C18 Capcell Pak, Shiseido, 4.6 x 250 mm). Elution solvents were those used by 762 Frigaard et al. (1996), i.e. solvent A (methanol:acetonitrile:water, 42:33:25) and solvent B 763 (methanol:acetonitrile:ethyl acetate, 39:31:30) starting with the gradient elution of solvent B from 40 to 100% during 60 minutes (flow 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>). The wavelengths of 664 nm and 470 764 765 nm were used to visualize chlorophyll a and its allomers, as well as other 766 chlorophylls/carotenoids, respectively. All peaks were characterized by their retention time 767 (RT) and maxima absorption spectra. The peaks corresponding to chlorophyll a (chl a) and b768 (chl b) were identified (RT and maxima absorption spectra) by direct injection of chl a and 769 chl b standards (Sigma-Aldrich C-5753 and 00538, respectively) under the same HPLC 770 conditions. Moreover, one Ostreobium free-living strain extract was supplemented with both 771 standards as internal controls in order to confirm their respective localization within the 772 HPLC profiles (Fig. S2a). Calibration curves were established for chl a and chl b standards to 773 quantify chl a and chl b within the different HPLC profiles of Ostreobium cultures (relative 774 proportion and chl b : chl a ratio).

775

#### Fatty acid analysis

776 Endolithic and free-living Ostreobium strains (total 8 strains, from P1 and P12/P14, 777 see Table 1), as well as control bleached skeletons (n=4), were lyophilized and ground rapidly 778 (a few seconds) to powder. Two to three subcultures were analyzed for each of 1 endolithic 779 and 3 free-living Ostreobium strains, to evaluate variability in fatty acid composition across 780 subcultures within same strain. Final dry weights were 709±378 mg for endolithic forms 781 (without carbonate dissolution), 2.44±0.3 mg for free-living forms, and 504±100 mg for 782 control skeletons (without carbonate dissolution). Crushed samples were frozen at  $-20^{\circ}$ C until 783 lipid extraction, according to a method modified from Bligh & Dyer (1959). Briefly, after 784 sonication for 20 min in water/methanol/chloroform (H<sub>2</sub>O/MeOH/CHCl<sub>3</sub> 1:2:1, v:v:v), 785 H<sub>2</sub>O/CHCl<sub>3</sub> (1:1 v:v) was added to form an aqueous-organic two-layer system. The lipid-786 containing lower chloroform phase was recovered after centrifugation (3000 rpm, 5 min). The 787 aqueous phase was re-extracted a second time. Combined chloroform phases were evaporated 788 under a nitrogen stream. Saponification of extracts was performed at 90°C for 90 min with a 789 solution of NaOH(2M):MeOH (1:2, v:v), followed by acidification with ultra-pure HCl 790 solution (35%). Lipids were recovered by centrifugation (3000 rpm, 5 min) after adding 791 chloroform (2 x 1.5 mL). Chloroform phases were again combined and evaporated under a 792 nitrogen stream. Transmethylation of total lipids was conducted using Boron trifluoridemethanol (BF<sub>3</sub>) at 90°C for 10 min. Lipids were finally re-extracted and washed in H<sub>2</sub>O:CHCl<sub>3</sub> (1:1, v:v). Chloroform phases recovered were evaporated under a nitrogen stream before being solubilized in hexane and stored at -20°C for analysis by gas chromatography (Varian 450-GC and VF-WAXms column 30 m x 0.25 mm; 0.25  $\mu$ m film thickness). Peaks of fatty acids were identified using GC-mass spectrometry (Varian 220-MS) and comparison with retention times of commercial standards (Supelco 37, Supelco PUFA N°1 and Supelco PUFA N°3).

800

# Stable isotope values and measurements of photosynthetic C, N assimilation

801 Isotope dual labeling experiments were conducted for endolithic and their free-living 802 Ostreobium counterparts (n=4 pairs, 2 per each genetic lineage P1 and P12/P14; see Table 1). 803 Skeletons colonized by endolithic forms were brushed to remove epilithic filaments as 804 described above, and all culture samples (free-living and endolithic growth forms) were 805 transferred for 3 days before the labeling experiment in Artificial SeaWater (ASW- adapted 806 from Harrison et al., 1980) in order to rinse the nutrient rich PES medium. The isotope labeling pulse was conducted during 8h in white light at 30.5±2.5 µmol photons.m<sup>-2</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup> 807 808 Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) measured with a LI-250A (LI-COR) quantum-809 meter equipped with a submersible spherical Micro Quantum Sensor US-SQS/L (WALZ) or 810 in control darkness (inside aluminium foil-wrapped box), starting at the beginning of the light 811 period. Samples of Ostreobium cultures (n=4 pairs) or control bleached skeletons 812 (uncolonized, n=3) were incubated at 25°C, under gentle orbital shaking (30-40 rpm, Infors Minitron incubator, Fr) in glass jars with plastic lids, filled to 3/4 of their volume with 25 mL 813 of ASW (initially free of bicarbonate and nitrate) supplemented with 2 mM <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate 814 (NaH<sup>13</sup>CO<sub>3</sub>, 99 atom% [Sigma-Aldrich]) and 5 µM <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate (K<sup>15</sup>NO<sub>3</sub>, 98 atom% [Sigma-815 Aldrich]) or in 'control unlabeled ASW' supplemented with 2 mM natural abundance sodium 816 817 bicarbonate [Sigma-Aldrich] and 5 µM natural abundance potassium nitrate [Sigma-Aldrich]. 818 The labeling experiment was repeated later in a separate experiment for an additional strain 819 010 (lineage P1), to increase strain and technical replication under similar light conditions.

820 Seawater pH was measured in glass jar with samples at beginning and end of the 8h 821 experiment (NBS scale; Electrode pH Mettler Toledo Inlab 413 with a pHmeter Mettler 822 Toledo MP220). Control bleached skeletons (uncolonized by endoliths) showed a slight 823 decrease of pH (-0.04) at the end of the labeling pulse in light conditions. Assuming a similar trend in dark conditions, we added this correction value from those pH values obtained for allendolithic strains.

826 At the end of the 8h labeling pulse, samples were rinsed three times with ASW (free of 827 bicarbonate and nitrate). Endolithic Ostreobium and control bleached skeletons were 828 decalcified with formic acid 5% and rinsed with deionized water. To assess the effect of the 829 acid-decalcification treatment on <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>15</sup>N isotope enrichments (labeling intensities), strain 830 010 labeled in free-living form was divided in two parts: one part was lyophilized directly and 831 the other part was treated with formic acid 5%, similar to the carbonate removal protocol to 832 analyze decalcified endolithic forms and control skeletons. The effect of the aciddecalcification treatment was also tested on  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N stable isotope values of free-living 833 strain 010 untreated or treated with formic acid 5%. 834

To increase replication of measurements of C and N stable isotope values across subcultures, strains, and genetic lineages, additional samples were analyzed, of endolithic *Ostreobium* strains (not decalcified, or decalcified with formic acid 5%) and their corresponding free-living forms, and control bleached skeleton substrate (see Table1).

839 All organic samples were lyophilized, weighted (0.5-2 mg) into tin capsules and sent for bulk isotope dual <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>15</sup>N analyses on an elemental analyzer interfaced to a continuous 840 flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer (EA-IRMS) at UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility 841 (California, USA) using bovine liver, glutamic acid, and <sup>15</sup>N-enriched alanine as internal 842 standards. Alternately, the series of Ostreobium 010 samples and additional unlabeled 843 844 replicate strains were analyzed in an automated combustion system (EA Flash 2000 Thermo) 845 interfaced with a DeltaV Advantage Thermo continuous flow IRMS at the MNHN SSMIM 846 facility (Paris, France) using normal abundance alanine (0.3 mg) as internal standard. The 847 analytical uncertainties within the SSMIM run estimated from 14 repeated analyses of the 848 alanine laboratory standard was lower than 0.13 % (1SD) for  $\delta$ 15N values and lower than 849 0.10 % (1SD) for  $\delta 13C$  values.

- The Carbon to Nitrogen (C/N) ratio was calculated for each sample following the equation: C/N ratio = (C Amount/12.01) / (N Amount/14.006)
- 852 Natural isotope abundances were expressed according to the delta notation:
- 853  $\delta^{13}C_{nat} \% = (({}^{13}C/{}^{12}C)_{sample} / ({}^{13}C/{}^{12}C)_{standard}) 1)*1000$
- 854  $\delta^{15}N_{nat} \% = (({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)_{sample}/({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)_{standard})-1)*1000$

855 with  $R_{standard} = 0.01123$  for  ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$  (Vienna Peedee Belemnite calcite standard) and 0.00367 856 for  ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$  (atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> standard).

857 For the carbonate samples, i.e. the undecalcified coral carbonate substrate controls 858 (uncolonized) or endolithic growth forms (coral skeletal chips colonized by Ostreobium), an 859 alternative sample preparation method was used, the Kiel IV (Thermo) automated carbonate 860 preparation device interfaced to a Delta V Advantage IR-MS (Thermo), at the MNHN SSMIM facility. Sample powders (40-60 µg) were analyzed individually. The  $\delta^{13}$ C values 861 862 were expressed versus the Vienna-Pee Dee Belemnite calcite standard, and corrected by 863 comparison with a laboratory standard (Marbre LM) normalized to the NBS 19 international standard ( $\delta^{18}$ O values are not presented here). The mean analytical precision within the run 864 was calculated from 8 measurements of the *Marbre LM* averaging 0.038 % (1SD) for  $\delta^{13}$ C 865 866 values.

For isotopically labeled samples (free-living and decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium*, and control decalcified skeletons, i.e. skeletal organic matrix), all <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment levels were expressed according to the delta notation:  $\delta X$  (‰) = (( $R_{sample}/R_{control})$ -1)\*1000.  $R_{sample}$  is the ratio <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C or <sup>15</sup>N/<sup>14</sup>N of labelled samples, and  $R_{control}$  is the measured ratio of corresponding control non-labeled samples (i.e. natural isotope abundance ratio).

872 Labeling values for decalcified endolithic forms were corrected by subtracting the 873 average of 3 replicate values obtained for control decalcified skeletons, corresponding to non-874 specific adsorption of the isotopic label to the skeletal organic matrix (means of  $0.4\pm2$  % for enriched  $\delta^{13}$ C and 0.9±0.2 ‰ for enriched  $\delta^{15}$ N). We also tested the effect of formic acid 875 treatment and showed that it introduced variability but did not change average <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>15</sup>N 876 877 enrichments in free-living Ostreobium (<sup>13</sup>C-enrichment of 585±106 versus 553±19.7 ‰ and 878 <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment of  $384\pm222$  versus  $377\pm42$  ‰, with or without formic acid respectively; n=3 879 technical sub-replicates of strain 010). We thus assumed that the acid-formic treatment did not 880 significantly affect enrichment results obtained for decalcified endolithic Ostreobium.

881 Data analysis

882 Multivariate analysis of pigment compositions was performed using PRIMER 5 883 software. A triangular similarity matrix was created using Bray-Curtis similarity coefficient, 884 followed by non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) to spatially visualize samples of 885 endolithic, free-living *Ostreobium* strains and control skeletons with similar composition. 886 Similarity and dissimilarity percentages obtained by SIMPER analysis allowed to determine which pigments (or RT of peaks in case of non-identified pigment) drove the observed
differences between datasets (i.e. endolithic *versus* free-living *Ostreobium versus* control
skeletons).

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on % level of fatty acids using R
software (version 3.6.2), to reveal spatial variability among strains, genetic lineage, and
growth forms of *Ostreobium*, and identify FAs that explain most the variance in our datasets.

For  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N stable isotope values, parametric Student-test were performed with R software (version 3.6.2) to determine if the genetic lineage (P1 *versus* P12/P14) influenced  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N values for both *Ostreobium* growth form. Then, an analysis of variances (ANOVA) was performed on  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N datasets, with post hoc Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK) tests, highlighted differences between *Ostreobium* growth forms and with their habitat (coral skeleton substrate). Significance threshold were set to p-value <0.05.

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910

## **Authors Contributions**

911

A.M, I.D.C, and A.T conceived the research and designed the experimental protocols, A.M performed the experiments with help from C.Y. for strain isolation, C.S. for stable isotope experiments, A.L. for pigment extraction and N.T. for fatty acid analyses. T.M, M-L.B-K and A.C. helped analyze and discuss the data. A.M., A.T. and I.D-C. wrote the manuscript, which was commented by all authors. A.M. A.T. and I.D.C. revised the manuscript.

918

# 919 Conflict of Interest

- 920 The authors declare no conflict of interest.
- 921

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- 1143
- 1144 **Tables and Figures**

 Table 1: Analyses carried out per Ostreobium strain in endolithic versus free-living growth form. Controls are either bleached coral carbonate skeleton or residual skeletal organic matrix (after carbonate decalcification) of Pocillopora acuta host. (Strain 022 was lost since the analyses); subcult.: replicate subculture, techn. replicates: technical replicates.

<i>Ostreobium</i> strain code	Phylogenetic affiliation ( <i>rbc</i> L gene # Genbank)	MNHN RBCell voucher #	Growth form	Photosynthetic and accessory pigments	Fatty acids	Stable isotope values $(\delta^{13}C \text{ and } \delta^{15}N)$	<sup>13</sup> C -bicarb <sup>15</sup> N-ni assimi Light	onate and trate lation Dark
	Ochoank)						condition	condition
010	Clade P1 (MK095212)	MNHN-ALCP- 2019-873.3	Free-living	+	+	+ (2 subcult., each with 3 techn. replicates)	+ (3 techn. replicates)	
			Endolithic	+	+	+ (2 subcult., each with 1-4 techn. replicates)	+	
017	Clade P1 (MK095214)	lade P1 MNHN-ALCP-	Free-living		+			
		(MK095214) 2019-873.4	2019-873.4	Endolithic		+		
018B	Clade P1 (MK095215)	Clade P1MNHN-ALCP-(MK095215)2019-873.6	Free-living	+ (2 subcult.)	+ (3 subcult.)	+		
			Endolithic	+	+ (2 subcult.)			
019	Clade P1 (MK095213)	MNHN-ALCP-	Free-living	+ (2 subcult.)	+	+		
017		(MK095213)	2019-873.8	Endolithic	+	+		
05	Clade P1 (MK095217)	Clade P1         MNHN-ALCP-           MK095217)         2019-873.1	Free-living	+	+ (2 subcult.)	+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
05			Endolithic		+	+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
018C	Clade P1 (MK095216)	Clade P1MNHN-ALCP-MK095216)2019-873.7	Free-living	+ (2 subcult.)				
0100			Endolithic		+			
022	Clade P1 (MK095219)	P1 NA 219)	Free-living			+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
022			Endolithic			+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
018A	Clade P12 (MK095218)	MNHN-ALCP-	Free-living		+ (3 techn. replicates)	+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
		(MK095218) 2019-873.5	Endolithic			+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
06	Clade P14 (MK095220)	lade P14MNHN-ALCP-(K095220)2019-873.2	Free-living		+ (2 subcult.)	+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
			Endolithic		+	+ (2 subcult.)	+	+
Substrate controls for endolithic growth forms				Bleached coral skeleton (n=3)	Bleached coral skeleton (n=4)	Bleached coral skeleton (n=3) Skeletal organic matrix (n=4)	Skeletal organic matrix (n=3)	
Corresponding data (Figures, Tables and Supplementary information)				Fig. 2; Fig. S2; Table S1 & S2	Fig. 3; Fig. S3; Table S3	Fig. 4; Table S4& S5	Fig. 5; Table S6	

**Figure 1: Morphology of** *Ostreobium* **cultured as free-living or endolithic filaments.** Light (a, b, c) and scanning electron (d) microscopy observations of (a) free-living tuft of algal filaments attaching to a fragment of coral carbonate skeleton (outlined by black dotted lines) as epilithic growth form (black arrow) and colonizing this carbonate substrate as endolithic growth form (white arrow). (b) Isolated free-living filaments with visible green chloroplasts inside the branched siphons. (c) Endolithic (bioeroding) filaments (white arrow) stained with toluidine blue in skeleton thin section. (d) Galleries formed by endolithic filaments of *Ostreobium* (white arrow) after re-colonization by free-living filaments of a pre-bleached coral skeleton substrate.



Figure 2: Compared pigment composition of endolithic versus free-living Ostreobium strains. (2a) Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS) plot of Bray-Curtis similarities of pigment composition in endolithic (circles) versus free-living (squares) Ostreobium strains (named 0xx) belonging to lineage P1 (in black), and control bleached coral carbonate skeleton (triangle in white). <sup>1</sup> and <sup>2</sup> indicate successive subcultures of strains. (2b) Barplot of relative proportions of pigments in individual strains (P1) and growth forms.



**Figure 3: Fatty acid composition of endolithic** *versus* **free-living** *Ostreobium* **growth forms.** (a) Scores plot and (b) loading plot for PCA analysis of relative fatty acid methyl ester (FAME) proportions measured in GC profiles after GC-MS annotation of endolithic (circle) and free-living (square) strains (named 0xx). Genetic lineages are color coded (black: P1; grey: P12/P14). (c) Barplot of relative proportions of fatty acids in individual strains and growth forms. Means and Standard Error (SE) of % total fatty acids are detailed in Table S3, along with polyunsaturated and saturated fatty acid values per growth form and lineage.



Figure 4: Stable isotope values ( $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N) of endolithic versus free-living *Ostreobium*. Endolithic filaments were analyzed by EA-IRMS either within their carbonate substrate (endolithic *Ostreobium*, filled circles) or after decalcification with formic acid 5% (decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium*, empty circles). The acid treatment depletes  $\delta^{13}$ C values of decalcified endolithic *Ostreobium* by -6 ‰ (here data are presented before correction). Control substrate of endoliths was either bleached coral carbonate skeleton (composed of CaCO<sub>3</sub> and organic matrix, filled triangle) or skeletal (acid-insoluble) organic matrix (empty triangles). Corresponding free-living filaments (squares) were also analyzed. Genetic lineages are color coded (black: P1; grey: P12/P14). Intra-carbonate  $\delta^{15}$ N of coral skeleton was below EA-IRMS detection limit. For graph clarity, strain code names are not indicated, except for dotted circled  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N values of strain 010 which plot separately from other P1 strains. Grey bars indicate means. Different letter indicate significant differences (ANOVA and student test p<0.05).  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N values of individual strains and growth forms are provided in Table S5.



Figure 5: Variability of photosynthesis-dependent inorganic carbon and nitrogen assimilation among endolithic versus free-living Ostreobium strains in relation to pH changes. Values of (a) enriched  $\delta^{13}$ C and (b) enriched  $\delta^{15}$ N in free-living and decalcified endolithic strains were calculated at the end of the 8h labeling pulse with <sup>13</sup>C-bicarbonate (2 mM) and <sup>15</sup>N-nitrate (5  $\mu$ M) in light or dark conditions, via comparison to corresponding unlabeled controls.  $\Delta pH=pHf-pHi$ , with final pHf at the end of 8h labeling pulse compared to initial pHi. Genetic lineages are color coded (black: P1; grey: P12/P14), and strain code names (0xx) are indicated. <sup>1</sup> and <sup>2</sup> indicate technical replicates of strains 010.



**Figure 6: Conceptual model of C and N sources for** *Ostreobium* **filaments as endolithic and epilithic/free-living growth form.** BioCaCO<sub>3</sub>: biogenic carbonate. ?: putative ion transporter. Dotted line indicates hypothetical use of DIC from carbonate dissolution, and organic N by endoliths.

