NOTE



Biogeochemical variability and trophic status of reef water column following a coral bleaching event

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Abstract Although resource availability is important for coral reef nutrient cycling and trophic ecology, it is poorly understood how particulate resources may change following an oceanic heat stress event. Here, carbon and nitrogen concentrations and stable isotope values (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) of particulate organic matter (POM; 10 and 30 m) were compared from before and after the 2016 mass coral bleaching event in the Maldives, Indian Ocean. To characterize the trophic status of the post-bleaching water column, dissolved inorganic nutrients across shallow to mesophotic coral reefs (10–50 m) and plankton δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N were measured. Eight months after the mass bleaching, an oligotrophic water column with decreased particulate organic nitrogen and variable yet increased mean δ^{13} C of POM was observed. Elemental and isotopic data of particulate resources from pre- and post-bleaching revealed three oceanographic regimes related to ocean mixing. This study highlights the importance of characterizing water

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column biogeochemistry to understand nutrient cycling in coral reef ecosystems especially post-disturbance.

Keywords Biogeochemistry · Coral reef · Coral bleaching · Mesophotic · Nutrients · Particulate organic matter · Stable isotopes

Introduction

The dynamic nature of nutrient availability is integral to understanding coral reef ecology. Regional and reef scale processes influence dissolved nutrient availability while the coastal environment and marine productivity comprise primary drivers of particulate availability across reefs (Wyatt et al. 2013; Lowe and Falter 2015). Particulate resource availability is a critical component of fish productivity (Morais and Bellwood 2019), and marine primary production is a driver of heterotrophic feeding patterns in corals (Fox et al. 2018). For example, particulate feeding by some corals can positively affect coral growth parameters (Fabricius 2005) and help to meet the daily energy requirements under normal and anomalous ocean temperatures that cause coral bleaching (Grottoli et al. 2006; Houlbrèque and Ferrier-Pagès 2009). Therefore, changes in reef trophodynamics may have consequences for organisms that are dependent on particulate resources.

As heat stress events can increase the death and decay of reef organisms (Leggat et al. 2019), an invigorated detrital cycle may increase the availability of POM as a major source of carbon for consumers in degraded reefs (Morillo-Velarde et al. 2018). Increased levels of ultraviolet radiation, often associated with thermal stress induced coral bleaching, can cause corals to release organic matter that is depleted in nitrogen (Courtial et al. 2018). Although the

regeneration of mucus-derived organic matter by bacteria in the reef environment may increase organic nitrogen, it is possible that nitrogen availability may be depleted during this process (Coles and Strathmann 1973; Courtial et al. 2018). Reef macroalgae are also known to release POM (Haas et al. 2010), while sponges play an important role in cycling coral-derived and algal-derived organic matter and releasing it as detrital POM (Rix et al. 2017, 2018). Considering the importance of particulate resources for many reef organisms especially during and following disturbance events such as coral bleaching, it is critical to characterize resource availability in the reef water column.

This study investigated particulate organic availability and isotopic composition following a mass coral bleaching event in the Maldives, Indian Ocean. Carbon and nitrogen concentrations and stable isotope values (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) of POM were compared across shallow (10 m) and mesophotic (30 m) reefs one year before and eight months after the 2016 mass coral bleaching event. Further, a surface pump allowed for the deeper sampling (50 m) of POM and comparison of two sampling methods (diver versus pump) post-bleaching. Because plankton are also a food source for corals and fish, plankton $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values were measured after the bleaching event. Inorganic nutrients, including a subset of samples for nitrogen and oxygen stable isotope analysis (δ^{15} N-nitrate and δ^{18} O-nitrate), were measured to investigate post-bleaching nutrient availability and trophic status of the shallow to mesophotic (10-50 m) water column (Casciotti 2016).

Materials and methods

Field collection

Pre-bleaching (2015) sampling of POM occurred in the boreal spring (intermonsoon) in the Maldives and is further detailed in Radice et al. (2019) while post-bleaching sampling occurred during the same season in 2017 (Supplementary Material Table S1, Fig. S1). To survey shallow $(10 \pm 2 \text{ m})$ and mesophotic depths $(30 \pm 3 \text{ m}; 47 \pm 3 \text{ m})$ along oceanic reef slopes ('fore reef'), seawater was collected by divers (10 and 30 m) and via a surface pump (all depths) paired with a Sensus Ultra depth recorder (ReefNet) (Fig. S2). Given that optimal mesophotic photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) is 7.5% of the surface (Tamir et al. 2019), 30 m depth in these Maldives reefs is mesophotic since only 4% of surface PAR is available (Radice et al. 2019). Sampling of the 50 m mesophotic depth target required repositioning the boat an average of 600 m from shallow reefs. Seawater (min. 3L, mean 7L) was filtered, and frozen (-20° C): (1) stored in HDPE bottles prior to inorganic nutrient analysis (0.22 µm polyethersulfone, Millex-GP, Merck), and (2) filtered for isotopic analysis of POM (nominal 0.4 µm glass fiber filters [Machery-Nagel], precombusted for 5 h at 450°C). Plankton were collected at dusk by towing mesh nets (53 and 250 µm) submerged below the surface for 10 min at a speed of ~ 2 knots. Daily wind data were obtained from the Maldives Meteorological Service (Maldives Meteorological Service 2018).

Inorganic nutrient and isotopic analyses

Inorganic nutrients (nitrate $[NO_3^-]$, ammonium $[NH_4^+]$, phosphate $[PO_4^{3-}]$ (mean \pm SD) were measured by flow injection analysis at the Advanced Water Management Centre, University of Queensland. Nitrite was undetectable for the majority of samples, and phosphate was undetectable for two samples. Potential nutrient limitation was evaluated using the Redfield ratio of dissolved nutrients $(([NO_3^-] + [NH_4^+])/[PO_4^{3-}])$ (mean \pm SD), with values deviating from the 16:1 ratio providing evidence of either nitrogen or phosphorous limitation (Redfield 1958). A subset of samples (n = 21, 7 samples/depth) were analyzed for nitrogen and oxygen stable isotope values ($\delta^{15}N$ and δ^{18} O) of nitrate via a bacterial denitrification assay at the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution (Sigman et al. 2001; Casciotti et al. 2002). Repeated measurements of three references resulted in analytical precision of 0.5% for δ^{15} N and 1.6‰ for δ^{18} O. Stable isotope values are reported in the delta (δ) notation (mean \pm SD) expressed in per mil (‰): for example, $\delta^{15}N = [(R_{sample}/R_{standard}) - 1] \times 1000$ where R is the heavy to light isotope ratio $({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)$.

Glass fiber filters were briefly treated with HCl to remove any carbonates, neutralized with Milli-Q water, and oven-dried. Carbon and nitrogen concentrations and stable isotopes (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) of POM (n = 112) were analyzed with an Elementar Vario EL Cube elemental analyzer and with a PDZ Europa ANCA-GSL for plankton (n = 30), with analyzers interfaced to a PDZ Europa 20–20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Sercon) at the University of California Davis. Repeated measurements of laboratory reference materials (G-6: Nylon 6, G-13: Bovine liver, G-20: Glutamic acid, G-21: Enriched alanine) resulted in analytical precision of < 0.2% for both δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N. Due to analytical detection limits, samples with very low nitrogen (< 10 μ g; n = 21) were removed from analyses. For elemental C and N, blank corrections were applied by subtracting the average of five samples with the lowest C or N contents (Figs. S3 and S4). Particulate organic nitrogen (PON) and carbon (POC) concentrations were calculated as N or C (µg), respectively, per liter of seawater.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses and visualization were conducted using the R computing environment (Wickham 2016; Wilke 2019; R Core Team 2020). Two oceanographic regimes were identified during back-to-back sampling in the 2015 cruise, with Cyanobacterial bloom and Upwelling regimes characterized by different POM δ^{15} N (Radice et al. 2019). The monsoon climate dominates the oceanography in the Maldives, with upwelling occurring the majority of the vear. Initial evaluation of post-bleaching (2017) POM data showed that low $\delta^{15}N$ values, characteristic of cyanobacteria, were absent. Therefore, post-bleaching POM data (Oligotrophic regime) were compared to the pre-bleaching Upwelling regime data. POM δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, POC, and PON were analyzed using linear mixed effects models ('nlme') with year (pre- and post-bleaching) and depth (10 and 30 m) as fixed interactive effects and site as the random effect (Pinheiro et al. 2020). Following model selection based on Akaike information criteria (AIC), depth was removed only in the POM $\delta^{15}N$ model. The pre- versus post-bleaching POM analysis only considered data collected by the same method (diver).

Inorganic nutrient data (NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, PO₄³⁻), collected only in 2017, were analyzed using linear mixed effects

Fig. 1 Coral reef water column biogeochemistry and elemental ratios show three oceanographic regimes in the Maldives archipelago. Filled symbols depict pre-bleaching POM samples and open symbols depict post-bleaching POM samples in relation to the 2016 mass coral bleaching event. Particulate organic nitrogen (PON) is shown in relation to **a** nitrogen (δ^{15} N) and **b** carbon stable isotope values (δ^{13} C) of particulate organic matter (POM), c particulate organic carbon (POC) is shown in relation to POM δ^{15} N values, and **d** molar C:N ratios are shown in relation to POM $\delta^{13}C$ values

models with sampling method (diver and pump) and depth (10, 30, 47 m) as fixed effects and site as the random effect. Following model selection based on AIC, sampling method was removed from the model investigating nitrate and phosphate while depth was removed from the model investigating ammonium. The effect of size fraction (53, 250 μ m) on plankton δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values was analyzed using linear mixed effects models with site as the random effect. The δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of post-bleaching POM were analyzed using linear mixed effects models with sampling method (diver and pump) and depth (10, 30, 47 m) as fixed effects and site as the random effect. Following model selection based on AIC, depth was removed from the δ^{15} N model. Post-hoc (Tukey) tests of significant main effects by least-squares means were performed ('emmeans') (Lenth 2020).

Results and discussion

Oceanographic regimes in the Maldives were defined a posteriori considering biogeochemical characteristics: cyanobacterial bloom (2015; low δ^{15} N), upwelling (2015; δ^{15} N ~ 5‰), and oligotrophic (2017; low PON) (Fig. 1). POM δ^{13} C values increased in both shallow (10 m) and



Fig. 2 A comparison of particulate organic matter biogeochemistry from shallow (10 m) and mesophotic (30 m) coral reefs before and after the 2016 mass coral bleaching in the Maldives. a Carbon stable isotope values (δ^{13} C) of POM. Symbols show the differences between years at each depth, but no differences were found between depths. **b** Particulate organic nitrogen (PON) concentrations, with symbols showing differences pre- versus post-bleaching. The box and whiskers plots display the median and first and third quartiles while the triangle symbols represent the mean values



Depth (m)

Table 1 Particulate organic matter carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) stable isotope values, carbon (POC) and nitrogen (PON) concentrations, and molar C:N ratios (mean ± SD) from coral reefs across the

central Maldives one year before (2015) and after (2017) the oceanic heat stress event that caused mass coral bleaching in 2016

Bleaching	Regime	Sampling method	n	δ ¹³ C (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	POC	PON	C:N
Before	Cyano bloom	Diver	25	-23.8 ± 1.0	-1.2 ± 2.3	24.0 ± 12.2	11.7 ± 3.7	2.6 ± 1.1
Before	Upwelling	Diver	25	-25.2 ± 1.0	5.3 ± 1.2	37.4 ± 33.8	15.5 ± 3.9	2.8 ± 2.1
After	Oligotrophic	Diver	44	-20.0 ± 2.6	5.6 ± 1.4	40.8 ± 36.2	6.8 ± 3.7	8.2 ± 4.3
After	Oligotrophic	Pump	51	-21.6 ± 2.8	6.6 ± 1.2	39.2 ± 24.7	5.4 ± 3.2	10.0 ± 3.6

mesophotic (30 m) reefs in the post-bleaching oligotrophic regime (post-hoc p < 0.001 and p < 0.001, respectively), but did not differ between depths in either year (Fig. 2a; Tables 1 and S2). Increased mean δ^{13} C of POM postbleaching could be due to: (1) an input of isotopically heavier, carbon-rich sources (e.g., reef-derived POM such as mucus or detritus), (2) a reduction in oceanic POM, or (3) changes in POM community composition, with the latter considered the most likely (Tanaka et al. 2008; Kolasinski et al. 2011; Karati et al. 2017). In a nutrientdepleted oligotrophic water column, small nutrient inputs can affect the POM signal; indeed, highly variable δ^{13} C values were observed post-bleaching (mean $-20.9 \pm 2.9\%$; range: -25.3 to -13.4%). The wide range in post-bleaching POM δ^{13} C values suggests there is greater diversity in community composition, such as *Trichodesmium* (high δ^{13} C) and small cyanobacteria and/or eukaryotes (low δ^{13} C), while uniformity in δ^{15} N provides evidence of tight recycling of nitrogen across a variety of species (Tchernov and Lipschultz 2008). Post-bleaching,

Fig. 3 Post-bleaching water column nutrient chemistry across shallow (10 m) and mesophotic (30 and 47 m) coral reefs in the Maldives (2017 only). Dissolved inorganic nutrient concentrations from shallow and mesophotic coral reefs include: **a** nitrate (NO₃⁻), **b** ammonium (NH₄⁺), and **c** phosphate (PO₄⁻³), with italic letters showing differences between depths. Post-bleaching particulate organic matter **d** carbon (δ^{13} C) and **e** nitrogen stable isotope values ($\delta^{15}N$) are shown in relation to depth and sampling method, with symbols denoting differences between sampling methods. The box and whiskers plots display the median and first and third quartiles while the triangle symbols represent the mean values



the large range in C:N indicates many unique combinations of production and recycling while low C:N pre-bleaching reflects cyanobacteria but also possible nitrate storage in phytoplankton (Bode et al. 1997; Liu et al. 2019).

POM δ^{15} N did not differ between pre-bleaching (upwelling) and post-bleaching (oligotrophic) regimes across shallow or mesophotic reefs (Table S2). Nitrogen loss due to recycling may lead to higher $\delta^{15}N$ while some nitrogen fixation counterbalances with lower δ^{15} N inputs, leading to the relatively more consistent $\delta^{15}N$ values (mean $6.2 \pm 1.4\%$; range: 2.8 to 8.8‰) but variable δ^{13} C postbleaching. Similar δ^{15} N values of POM (as above) and plankton (mean $6.4 \pm 0.8\%$) indicate tight coupling between primary and secondary production, revealing low fractionation between these groups and providing further evidence of an oligotrophic environment (Fig. S5). Plankton $\delta^{15}N$ (as above) and $\delta^{13}C$ (mean – 21.5 ± 0.4‰) did not differ between the size fractions (Tables S3 and S4). Despite the lack of historic temporal data on POM dynamics and isotopes in the region, the POM data presented effectively characterizes the regional oceanographic regimes that are dependent on upper ocean mixing dynamics (Garcia et al. 2018).

The decreased PON concentrations post-bleaching coincided with reduced wind speed and duration that may have affected wind-driven upwelling in the months preceding the sampling (Fig. 2b, Table S5). In addition to low concentrations of PON and phosphate, the oligotrophic water column was also characterized by: (1) the persistence of high residual δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values due to low nutrient concentrations, (2) high Redfield ratios (21.8 \pm 13.0), and (3) δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values reflecting potential fractionation due to phytoplankton uptake (Table S6). Overall, there was substantial variability in both δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values. Isotopic values indicate that nitrate was derived from a combination of marine and atmospheric sources, with the latter enriched in δ^{18} O (Fig. S6) (Kendall et al. 2008). High Redfield ratios suggest phosphate limitation, which could allow atmospheric nitrate (enriched δ^{18} O) to accumulate in surface waters during periods of anthropogenic aerosol loading such as the northeast monsoon season (Ramana and Ramanathan 2006; Das et al. 2011). The signature of marine-derived nitrate ($\delta^{15}N \sim 5-6\%$) is

also evident in POM from the upwelling and oligotrophic regimes as well as plankton. Given a fractionation factor of ~ 5‰, the mean δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ value (9.2 ± 4.9‰) likely reflects phytoplankton assimilation of a deep-water nitrate source of approximately 5‰ (Altabet 2001). Previous work has shown that δ^{15} N values of reef-building corals are consistent with deep-water nitrate δ^{15} N (~ 5‰), which indicates coral dependence on inorganic nutrients and particulates from the dominant upwelling regime (Radice et al. 2019).

Some inorganic nutrient concentrations were affected by reef depth, with higher nitrate and phosphate at 47 m compared to 10 and 30 m depths (p < 0.001 and p \leq 0.001, respectively) (Fig. 3a-c, Tables S3 and S7). The higher concentration of inorganic nutrients at the deepest sampling depth (47 m) aligns with expectations of increased nutrient concentrations at greater depths (Leichter et al. 2007). While there were differences of 1.6% and 1.0% in POM mean δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N, respectively, between the sampling methods used in 2017, no effect of depth was observed (Fig. 3d-e, Tables 1 and S3). The discrepancy in the δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of POM sampled by divers on the reef versus pump (mean 600 m offshore from shallow reef) may be due to the relative proportion of reef-derived versus offshore (pelagic) organic matter, the phytoplankton community composition, and/or oceanographic forcing of inorganic nutrient supply (Wyatt et al. 2013; Karati et al. 2017). Despite the importance of upwelling ecosystems, our understanding of the dynamics of benthic-pelagic nutrient cycling is often hindered by a lack of measurements of nutrient sources in the tropics in particular (MacKenzie et al. 2019), including the understudied central Indian Ocean. Because of the interactive oceanic-atmospheric processes affecting upwelling (Alory and Meyers 2009), it is important to consider how climate change may affect such regional processes that supply essential nutrients to marine ecosystems. For coral reefs ecosystems in particular, it is critical to consider how the supply and cycling of nutrients may change at local scales in relation to oceanic heat stress events and the consequent impact on reef trophic ecology.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

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