

Variation of lipid and free fatty acid contents during larval release in two temperate octocorals according to their trophic strategy

N. Viladrich^{1,*}, L. Bramanti², G. Tsounis³, A. Martínez-Quintana⁴, C. Ferrier-Pagès⁵, S. Rossi¹

¹Institut de Ciència i Tecnologia Ambientals (Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona), Edifici Z Campus UAB, Cerdanyola del Vallès 08193, Spain

²UMR 8222, LECOB, Observatoire Océanologique, UPMC, 66650 Banyuls-sur-Mer, France

³Department of Biology, California State University, 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge, CA 91330-8303, USA

⁴Geology Department, 126 Cooke Hall, University at Buffalo - The State University of New York, Buffalo, NY 14260-3050, USA

⁵Equipe Ecophysiologie Corallienne, Centre Scientifique de Monaco, 8 Quai Antoine 1er, MC-98000, Monaco

ABSTRACT: This study investigated the energetic investment in larval release of 2 Mediterranean gorgonians with different trophic strategies: *Eunicella singularis* (mixotroph) and *Corallium rubrum* (heterotroph). Both are internal brooders, releasing larvae within a few weeks in summer. A biochemical approach, based on the analysis of stable isotopes, total lipid and free fatty acid (FFA) content, was applied in combination with the quantification of sexual products. Stable isotopes showed that food source varied seasonally for *E. singularis*, while it remained constant throughout the year for *C. rubrum*, suggesting a higher trophic plasticity of *E. singularis*, likely due to its mixotrophic feeding strategy. Although total lipid and FFA content were higher in *E. singularis* than in *C. rubrum*, both species showed low energetic investment in reproduction, probably linked to their low fecundity and reproductive output, compared to other gorgonians (e.g. *Paramuricea clavata*). The higher FFA content in *E. singularis* compared to *C. rubrum* can be explained by a higher metabolic demand and metabolite exchange between the host and its symbiotic algae. The higher inter-annual variability in total lipid and FFA content in *C. rubrum* suggests that this species is more sensitive to food constraints than *E. singularis*. Indeed, the inter-annual consistency in the trophic ecology (showed by the stable isotopes) means that *C. rubrum* is more affected by changes in food availability. Conversely, the mixotrophy makes *E. singularis* less sensitive to stress conditions caused by starvation or thermal stress. These physiological differences could partly explain the wider distribution of *E. singularis* compared to *C. rubrum*.

KEY WORDS: Energy investment · Gorgonian · Fatty acids · Lipids · Heterotrophic · Autotrophic

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INTRODUCTION

Lipid content in animal tissues (Cejas et al. 2004, Rossi et al. 2006, Seemann et al. 2013) and trophic strategy (Grottoli et al. 2006, Viladrich et al. 2016a) are 2 main drivers of the capacity to resist environmental stressors. According to their trophic strate-

gies, species can be grouped in 2 main categories: monophagous or polyphagous (Broom 1981). The diet of monophagous species is focused on a single specific food source and thus their capacity to accumulate lipid reserves depends on the availability of the food source. Conversely, polyphagous species can adapt their diet according to the food availability,

and lipids accumulated by these species are rather related to food quantity and quality. Differences in trophic strategies will induce differences in the quantity and quality of lipids accumulated in animal tissue, with consequent impact on the organisms' health, survival, reproduction and growth (Szmant & Gassman 1990, Anthony & Connolly 2004, Grimsditch & Salm 2006). Despite the major role they play in organism health, studies on trophic strategies are not common, probably due to the difficulty in correcting for feeding behavior. Therefore, passive suspension feeders, lacking the ability to pursue prey, are useful models to study trophic strategies and the effect of food availability on metabolism.

Heterotrophic passive suspension feeders acquire nutrients through the capture of zooplankton and suspended particulate organic matter (POM) (Gili & Coma 1998), and in some cases also through the uptake of dissolved organic matter (DOM) (Al-Moghrabi et al. 1993). In suspension feeders living in symbiosis with intracellular dinoflagellates, photosynthates (autotrophic carbon) fixed by the symbionts cover most of the nutritional needs of the host (Muscatine et al. 1981, 1984, Tremblay et al. 2014), which can also acquire heterotrophic nutrients (e.g. Goreau et al. 1971, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2003, Houlbrèque et al. 2004). The combination of auto- and heterotrophy (mixotrophy) maximizes the nutrient acquisition and ecological success of suspension feeders in environments where light and plankton concentrations are variable and often limiting (Muller-Parker & Davy 2001, Grottoli et al. 2006). Indeed, food availability may occasionally become a constraining factor for non-symbiotic corals (Coma & Ribes 2003, Rossi et al. 2004, Houlbrèque & Ferrier-Pagès 2009), while the trophic plasticity of mixotrophic species allows increased energy acquisition (Goreau et al. 1971, Anthony & Fabricius 2000, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011, Gori et al. 2012).

Nutritional condition of parental colonies may also affect the survival of future generations, as it directly affects the number of offspring and their survival (Strathmann 1985, Simpson 2009, Gori et al. 2013). The amount of energy allocated to reproduction can then inform on the survival capacity of parental colonies and offspring, as well as help to understand their distribution patterns (Cocito et al. 2013). Mixotrophic species, which have higher or more constant levels of energy reserves, should show a higher or more constant energetic investment in reproduction than heterotrophic ones.

In corals, reproductive investment is commonly estimated by quantifying the number of oocytes pro-

duced (fecundity) and/or their volume (e.g. Hall & Hughes 1996). However, this approach can underestimate the reproductive investment, because it does not take into account the energetic costs of gamete production and tissue repair associated with spawning, nor the energetic cost of the survival of parental colonies and larvae (Calow 1979). A more accurate estimate of the energetic reproductive investment can be obtained by quantifying the changes in lipid content of tissues before and after larval release (Stimson 1978, Ward 1995, Leuzinger et al. 2003).

In corals, the total lipid content includes wax esters, sterol esters, phospholipids, glycolipids and free fatty acids (FFAs), among others (Imbs et al. 2015). Most lipid components are energy reserves that can be oxidized to obtain FFAs (Gurr et al. 2002), which in turn are beta-oxidized to provide a source of immediate and highly efficient energy (high ATP/FA molecule; Sargent et al. 1988). Therefore, FFA content can trace the metabolic demands of corals according to the reproductive period or their trophic strategy (Díaz-Almeyda et al. 2011, Imbs 2013, Viladrich et al. 2016a). Indeed, it was shown that the FFA content can increase in stress situations, probably as a response to higher metabolic demand (Sargent et al. 1999).

In the Mediterranean Sea, *Corallium rubrum* and *Eunicella singularis* are 2 of the most common octocorals in coastal areas (Ballesteros 2006). Whereas *C. rubrum* is heterotrophic, feeding on POM and zooplankton (Tsounis et al. 2006a), *E. singularis* is mixotrophic, due to its symbiosis with the dinoflagellate *Symbiodinium* sp. (Forcioli et al. 2011). Even if the quantity of carbon acquired from symbionts by *E. singularis* is 2 to 3 times lower than in tropical scleractinian corals, photosynthates can sustain the daily respiratory needs of this species in summer, due to highly efficient light utilization (Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2015). On the other hand, heterotrophic feeding is also important for *E. singularis* (Coma et al. 2015), since the wide distribution of the species includes habitats with lower light levels, colder waters and higher nutrient concentrations compared to tropical areas (Gori et al. 2012). Thus, *E. singularis* is able to use heterotrophic and autotrophic energy to sustain its basic metabolism (Ezzat et al. 2013) and optimize its nutrient input (Gori et al. 2012, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2015). The trophic plasticity of *E. singularis* was the subject of several studies in recent years (Cocito et al. 2013, Ezzat et al. 2013, Coma et al. 2015, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2015), but its effects on reproduction are still unknown.

E. singularis and *C. rubrum* are long-lived gonochoric species with annual reproduction. Lecithotrophic ciliated larvae (planulae) are internally brooded and released once a year over a period of approximately 2 wk in June to July and July to August, respectively, for *E. singularis* and *C. rubrum* (Santangelo et al. 2004, Bramanti et al. 2005, Tsounis et al. 2006b, Gori et al. 2007, Ribes et al. 2007). Planulae of the 2 species have a pelagic larval duration (PLD) of approximately 1 mo (Theodor 1967, Weinberg & Weinberg 1979, Martínez-Quintana et al. 2015). Therefore, these 2 species represent a good model to understand how passive suspension feeders, with similar reproductive features but different trophic strategies, invest their stored energy in offspring. To achieve this objective, oocyte and sperm sac production (number, size and volume), organic matter (OM), total lipid and FFA content were quantified in *E. singularis* and *C. rubrum* colonies before and after spawning, as a proxy for parental investment. The analyses were carried out during 2 yr (2010 and 2011) in order to take into account temporal variability and its effect on the reproductive output and energetic condition of the population. Stable isotope composition was also seasonally assessed in both species to display their trophic strategies. The results will help in understanding the functioning of passive suspension feeder populations, their distribution patterns, and their capability to survive acute and/or recurrent perturbations.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling procedure

Samples of *Corallium rubrum* (N = 30) and *Eunicella singularis* (N = 30) were collected by SCUBA diving at Punta s'Oliguera in Cap de Creus (42° 17' 03" N; 003° 17' 95" E, north-western Mediterranean Sea; Fig. 1). Populations of both species were located in the same rocky wall at different depths (25 to 30 m for *C. rubrum* and 13 to 16 m for *E. singularis*). Owing to their small size, *C. rubrum* colonies >4–5 cm height (sexually mature according to Tsounis et al. 2006b) were sampled haphazardly. For *E. singularis*, colonies >20 cm height (sexually mature colonies according to Ribes et al. 2007) were tagged and sampled.

For each sampling date (see the following subsections), 1 fragment of primary branch was collected from each colony and divided into 2 portions. The first portion (~1 cm, base) was fixed in 10% formalin for the study of sexual product development and output (Coma et al. 1995, Rossi & Gili 2009). The second portion (1 to 2 cm, top) was immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen stored at -80°C, freeze-dried (-110°C and 100 mbar) for 24 h, and finally stored at -20°C for biochemical analyses.

Stable isotopes

The stable isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) composition of the tissue of *E. singularis* and *C. rubrum* was assessed to identify the trophic position of the 2 species (Gori et al. 2012, Cocito et al. 2013). For this purpose, 3 colonies for each species were sampled seasonally (May, August, November and January). Two portions of 2 ± 0.001 mg (Mettler Toledo model XS3DU) of coenenchyme dry weight (DW) were taken from each sample. One portion was analysed for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and the other portion was fumed with concentrated HCl during 48 h to eliminate the inorganic fraction, and then analysed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were determined by using a Thermo Flash EA 1112 analyser and a Thermo Delta V Advantage spectrometer following the same methodology as Gori et al. (2012). Isotope ratios are expressed as parts per thousand (‰) (different from a standard reference material)

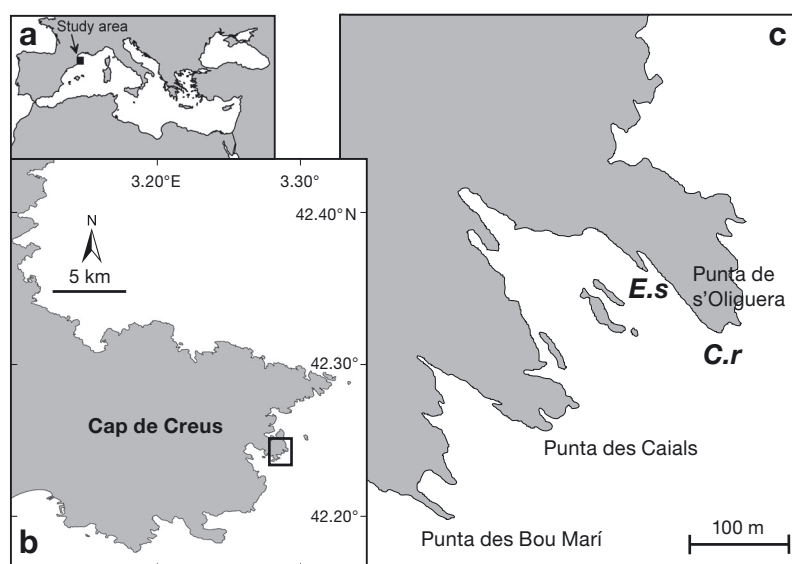


Fig. 1. (a,b) Study area and (c) location of the sampling site. *C.r* and *E.s*: *Corallium rubrum* and *Eunicella singularis* populations, respectively

according to the equation $\delta^X = [(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 10^3$, where X is ^{13}C or ^{15}N and R is the corresponding ratio $\text{C}^{13}/\text{C}^{12}$ or $\text{N}^{15}/\text{N}^{14}$. R_{standard} values for ^{13}C and ^{15}N are from Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB) and atmospheric N_2 , respectively.

Production of oocytes and spermaries

Oocyte and sperm sac production of *C. rubrum* and *E. singularis* was followed from May to August 2010 and from April to August 2011 to describe the sexual product development and to determine the exact moment of larval release in both years (see 'Results: Production of oocytes and spermaries'). For each species, 5 colonies of each sex were identified (Santangelo et al. 2004, Ribes et al. 2007), 6 polyps per colony were dissected under a stereomicroscope (Olympus SZ-STS) and the sexual products found in each polyp were photographed (Moticam 5, 5.0 million pixels). Pictures were then analysed with Macnification 2.01 software (www.orbicule.com/macnification/) to measure the area (A) and circularity of each oocyte or sperm sac. Circularity, defined as the ratio between the area measured and the area of a circle with the same perimeter, determines the extent to which a shape can be approximated to a circle. As circularity was always $>90\%$, sexual products were considered spheres. Their diameter (d) was calculated according to the equation $d = 2(A/\pi)^{1/2}$ and their volume (V) was calculated according to the equation $V = 4/3\pi(d/2)^3$.

OM content

OM was quantified before and after larval release in 2010 and 2011, using 5 colonies for each sex and species. Approximately 100 ± 0.1 mg of coenenchyme DW from each sample was weighed, combusted for 4 h at 500°C in a muffle furnace (Relp 2H-M9) and weighed again. OM was then calculated as the difference between dry and ash weight (Slattery & McClintock 1995). Results are expressed in percentage with respect to the initial DW.

Lipid content

The total lipid content in the OM was quantified in 5 female and 5 male colonies from each species before and after larval release in 2010 and 2011, following the colorimetric method of Barnes & Blackstock (1973). Approximately 10 ± 0.1 mg of coen-

enchyme DW from each sample was homogenized in 3 ml of chloroform:methanol (2:1), and total lipids were quantified colorimetrically according to the sulphophosphanilun methods with absorbance quantified at 520 nm, using cholesterol as a standard. Results are presented in μg lipid mg^{-1} OM.

FFA content

FFA content was assessed in 3 female and 3 male colonies from each species before and after larval release in 2010 and 2011, according to Viladrich et al. (2016b). Approximately 10 ± 0.1 mg of coenenchyme DW from each sample was dissolved in dichloromethane:methanol (3:1). The extraction solvent was eluted through an aminopropyl glass column resulting in 3 fractions (neutral lipids, FFAs and polar lipids). Only the FFA fraction was used in this study, and it was methylated using a solution of 20% methanol/boron trifluoride heated at 90°C for 1 h. The methyl esters of FFA obtained were identified and quantified with gas chromatography (GC) (Agilent Technologies 7820A GC) by comparing their retention times with those of standard FFAs (37 fatty acid methyl ester compounds, Supelco Mix $\text{C}^4\text{--}\text{C}^{24}$) and by integrating areas under peaks in the GC traces (Chromquest 4.1 software). Results are presented in μg FFA mg^{-1} OM.

Statistical treatment

Differences in volume, diameter and number of sexual products between years, sexes and species were tested using a non-parametric Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, (R software, function 'wilcox.test'; R Development Core Team 2008), as the data were not normally distributed. Differences in stable isotopes were tested using a 2-way ANOVA with season (4 levels: spring, summer, autumn and winter) and species (2 levels: *C. rubrum* and *E. singularis*) as independent variables. Differences in OM, lipid and FFA content were tested using a 4-way ANOVA with year (2 levels: 2010 and 2011), species (2 levels: *C. rubrum* and *E. singularis*), release period (2 levels: before and after larval release) and sex (2 levels: male and female) as independent variables. Before performing ANOVAs, normality of data residuals and variance homogeneity were tested with Shapiro-Wilks and Bartlett's tests (R language function 'shapiro.test' and 'bartlett.test'). When variances were not homogeneous, logarithmic transformations were applied.

ANOVA tests were performed with the R language function 'aov' (Chambers & Hastie 1992) followed, when appropriate, by a Tukey post hoc test (R language function `tukeyHSD`).

RESULTS

Stable isotopes

Stable isotope composition did not change between seasons in *Corallium rubrum* (1-way ANOVA, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 2), whereas *Eunicella singularis* showed significant differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between spring and summer, and in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ between spring, summer and autumn (1-way ANOVA, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 2). While $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ showed significant differences between species in all seasons (2-way ANOVA, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 2), $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was significantly different only in spring (2-way ANOVA, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 2).

Production of oocytes and spermaries

Changes in the frequency distribution of sexual products in *C. rubrum* (Fig. 3a,b) and *E. singularis* (Fig. 3c,d) indicated the approximate period of larval release in 2010 and 2011, which corresponded to the disappearance of larvae inside the female polyps. Larvae of *C. rubrum* were released between 19 July and 8 August 2010 (Fig. 3a), and between 29 June

and 4 August 2011 (Fig. 3b). On the basis of these observations, samples collected on 9 June 2010 and 5 June 2011 were considered 'pre-release', and samples collected on 8 August 2010 and 4 August 2011 were considered 'post-release'.

E. singularis released larvae between 9 June and 8 August 2010 (Fig. 3c), and between 5 June and 4 August 2011 (Fig. 3d). Thus, samples of 9 June 2010 and 5 June 2011 were considered 'pre-release', and samples collected on 8 August 2010 and 4 August 2011 were categorized as 'post-release'.

In *C. rubrum*, no significant difference in oocyte size was found between years, while spermaries in 2011 were significantly larger in size, lower in number and with a smaller total volume with respect to 2010 (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 4). In *E. singularis*, the diameter of oocytes and spermaries was significantly bigger in 2011 (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 4b). Conversely, the number and volume of sexual products per polyp did not show any significant difference between years and sexes (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 4a,c). The volume and number of oocytes in both years, and spermaries only in 2011, were different between the 2 species (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 4a,c), being higher in *E. singularis* than in *C. rubrum*. The diameter of sexual products was higher in *C. rubrum* than in *E. singularis* (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 4b), except between female colonies in 2011, for which no difference was found (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 4b).

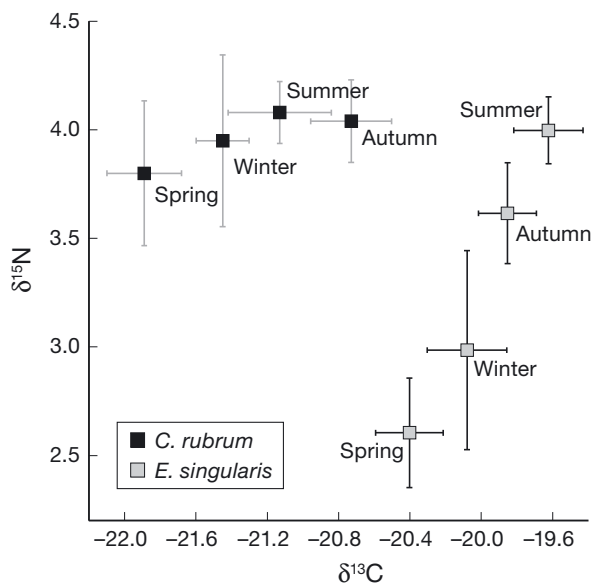


Fig. 2. Stable isotope ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) composition in *Corallium rubrum* and *Eunicella singularis*. $n = 3$ for each point; mean \pm SD

OM content

OM content was $24.1 \pm 6.4\%$ (mean \pm SD) for *C. rubrum* and $24.4 \pm 5.8\%$ for *E. singularis*, with no significant differences either within species, considering the sex and sampling periods (ANOVA 4-way, $p > 0.05$), or between species (ANOVA 4-way, $p > 0.05$).

Lipid content

Lipid content of *C. rubrum* significantly decreased after larval release only in female colonies during 2010 (ANOVA 4-way, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 5a). On the other hand, *E. singularis* did not show any significant difference between sexes or between sampling periods (ANOVA 4-way, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 5b). Lipid content in female colonies was significantly higher in *E. singularis* than in *C. rubrum* in 2010 (ANOVA 4-way,

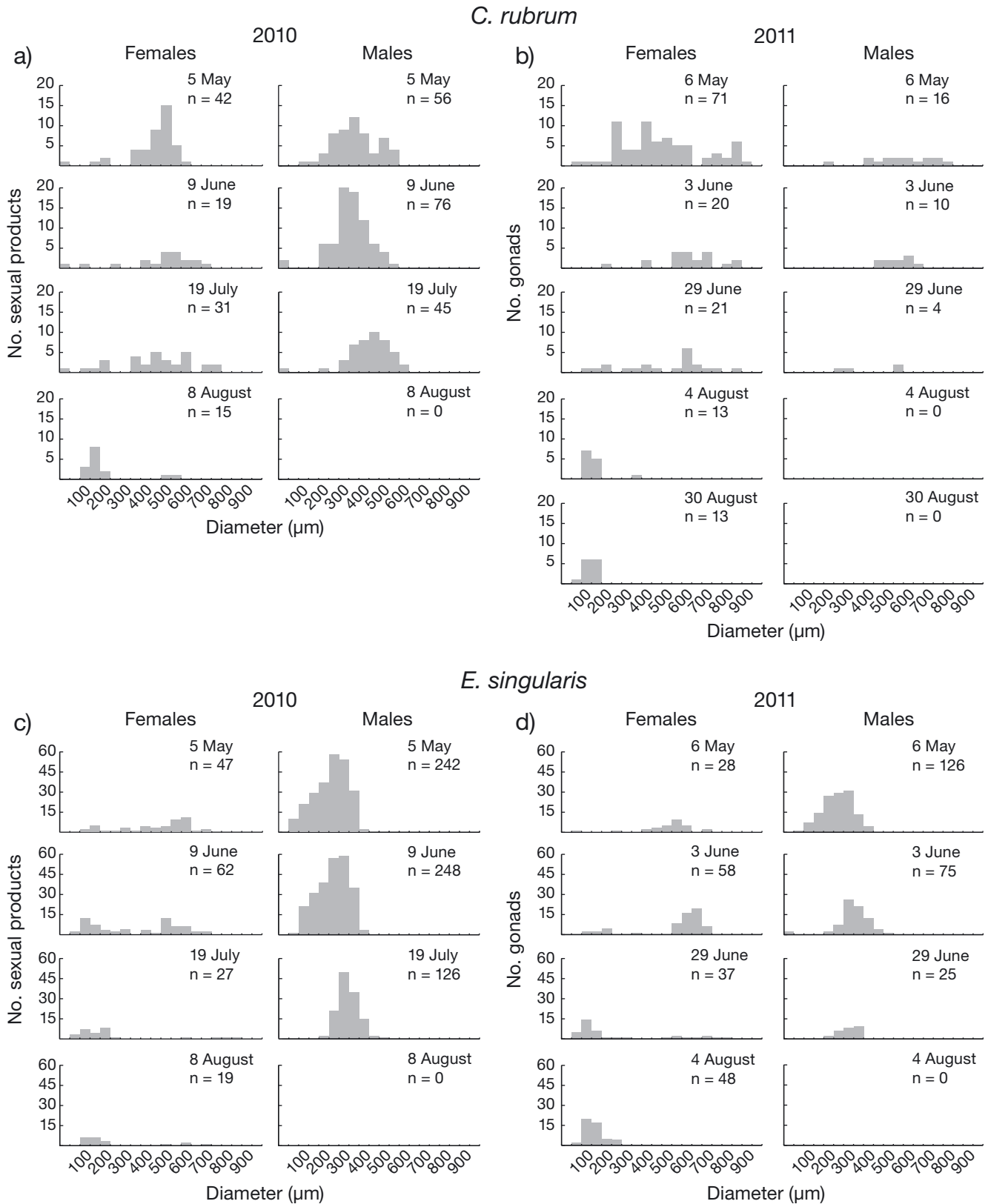


Fig. 3. Distribution of gonadal diameter frequency (μm) in 30 female and male polyps of (a,b) *Corallium rubrum* and (c,d) *Eunicella singularis* in year (a,c) 2010 and (b,d) 2011. n = sexual product number

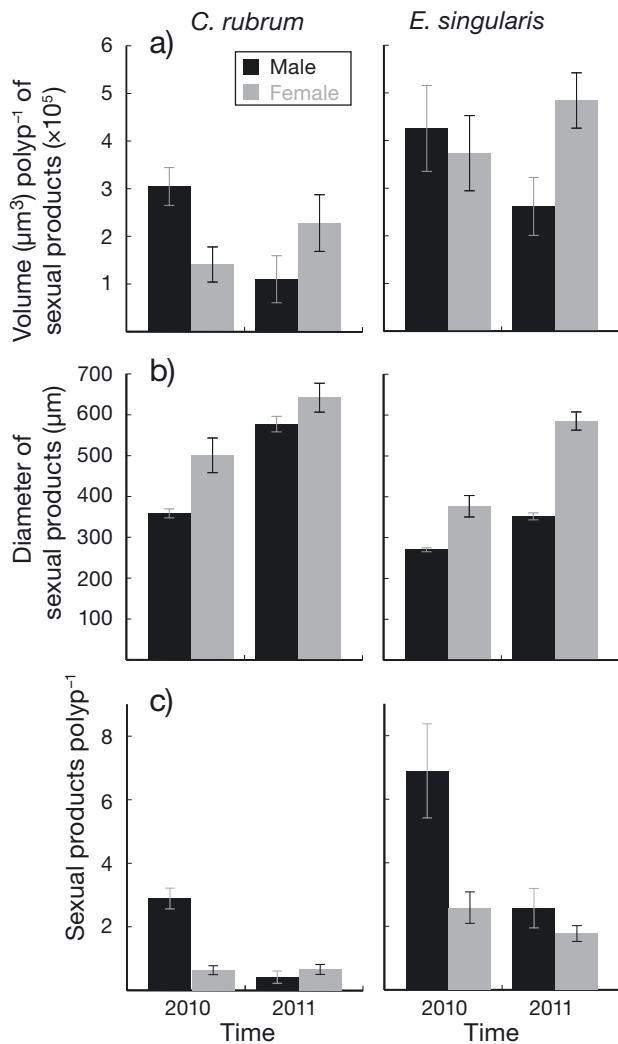


Fig. 4. (a) Volume, (b) diameter and (c) number of sexual products per polyp of 5 male and female colonies (mean \pm SE) in 2 yr (2010, 2011) for *Corallium rubrum* and *Eunicella singularis*, respectively

$p < 0.05$; Fig. 5a,b), but not in 2011 (ANOVA 4-way, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 5a,b). Male colonies presented significantly higher lipid content in *E. singularis* than in *C. rubrum* in both years after larval release (ANOVA 4-way, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 5a,b), but not before larval release (ANOVA 4-way, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 5a,b).

FFA content

FFA content in *C. rubrum* colonies did not show significant differences between sexes or before larval release (ANOVA 4-way, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 5c). However, after larval release, the FFA content significantly increased in 2010 (ANOVA 4-way, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 5c), and it was overall significantly higher than in 2011

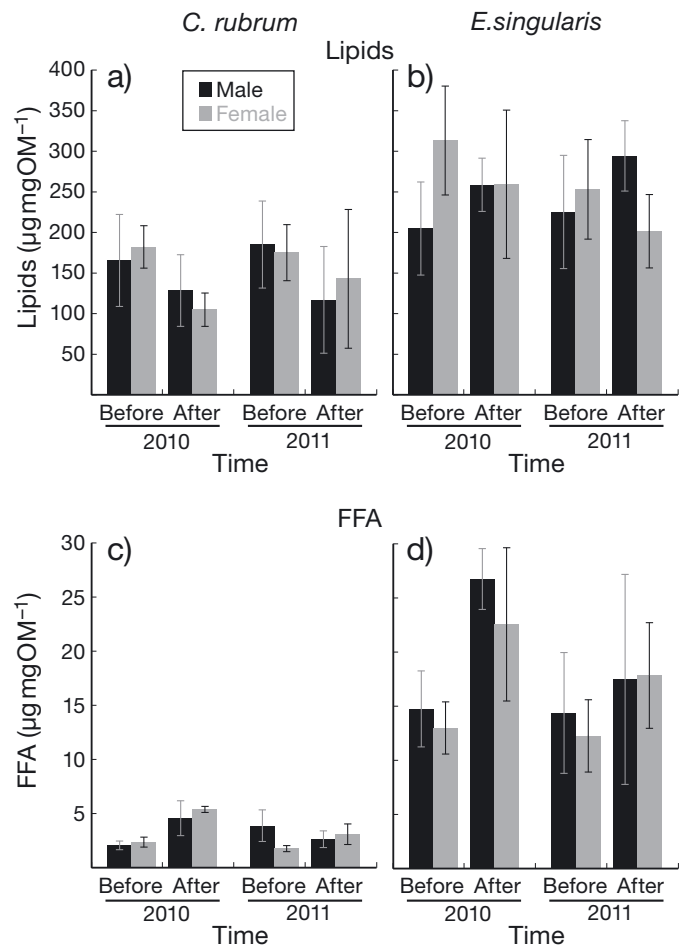


Fig. 5. (a,b) Lipid and (c,d) free fatty acid (FFA) content ($\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}$ OM) (mean \pm SD) in tissue of (a,c) *Corallium rubrum* and (b,d) *Eunicella singularis* in male and female colonies ($n = 5$ for lipids, $n = 3$ for FFAs) before and after spawning in 2010 and 2011

(ANOVA 4-way, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 5c). FFA content in colonies of *E. singularis* was similar in all conditions, except in male colonies after the larval release in 2010, where it increased (ANOVA 4-way, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 5d). The comparison between species showed a higher FFA content in *E. singularis* than in *C. rubrum*, considering the sex and sampling period (ANOVA 4-way, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 5c,d). Finally, another difference between both species was the high variability (i.e. SD) of *E. singularis* with respect to *C. rubrum*.

DISCUSSION

This study analysed variations in energetic reserves during larval release in 2 gorgonian species with different trophic strategies: *Corallium rubrum* (hetero-

trophic) and *Eunicella singularis* (mixotrophic). The results showed that the energy allocation during larval release was similar between the 2 species, but *E. singularis* was characterized by a better nutritional condition (higher total lipid content) with a lower inter-annual variability with respect to *C. rubrum*, likely due to the presence of symbionts, which buffered the environmental variability in food availability.

Trophic strategies confirmed by stable isotope analysis

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of animal tissue serve as a long-term index of carbon and nitrogen assimilation (Muscatine et al. 1989, Bergschneider & Muller-Parker 2008), and are also a useful tool for understanding trophic interactions in animals. While the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures of the consumers and the food sources are similar (DeNiro & Epstein 1978), the enrichment factor in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ between 2 consecutive trophic levels ranges from 2.3 to 3.4‰ (Minagawa & Wada 1984, McCutchan et al. 2003). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values obtained in the present study for *C. rubrum* and *E. singularis* were in agreement with the values measured for other temperate suspension feeders (Fig. 2) (Carlier et al. 2007, Cocito et al. 2013). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of *C. rubrum* did not present large seasonal changes, suggesting that this species has a defined diet (monophagous trophic strategy), which does not change throughout the year. In addition, the depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and high $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values found in *C. rubrum* suggest that the diet is mainly based on POM (Darnaude et al. 2004a,b, Carlier et al. 2007), in agreement with the findings of previous feeding experiments (Tsounis et al. 2006a). Indeed, POM is usually characterized by very low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (ranging from -20 to -30 ‰) and high $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (ca. 3 to 4‰), characteristic of numerous recycling processes occurring in the water column. In contrast, *E. singularis* displayed a higher seasonal variability in its isotopic signature, suggesting a greater trophic plasticity (polyphagous trophic strategy). This result is in agreement with previous observations (Gori et al. 2012) and may be due to both autotrophic and heterotrophic inputs. However, the small difference in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of *E. singularis* between summer and winter (less than 1‰) suggests that the input from autotrophy is limited (Gori et al. 2012, Cocito et al. 2013, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2015), and also points to mixotrophic feeding throughout the year. Indeed, scleractinian temperate species (e.g. *Cladocora caespitosa*), which benefit from a high autotrophic input

in summer, present a much larger variation in their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature between winter and summer (up to 8‰; Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011). The constant difference in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between *C. rubrum* and *E. singularis* (maximum of ca. 1.6‰ in spring) can be explained by the small autotrophic carbon input derived from *E. singularis* symbionts, a different diet, or a different carbon fractionation in these 2 species, although no firm conclusion can be drawn at this point. On the other hand, results of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in *E. singularis* showed a high seasonal variation. In general, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature augments with increasing trophic level (Minagawa & Wada 1984, Post 2002, Carlier et al. 2007). Therefore, the results suggest that the high $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ observed in summer and autumn is due to heterotrophic feeding, whereas the low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ observed in winter and spring is due to a very depleted source, probably dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) directly taken up by the symbionts. This would indicate that DIN is a constraining factor for the autotrophy in *E. singularis*. However the increased nitrogen isotopic signature observed in summer could also be due to the use of the host nitrogenous wastes by the symbionts (Reynaud et al. 2009, Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2011, Cocito et al. 2013). In this case, the depleted $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ would indicate a high degree of nitrogen recycling in summer (Gori et al. 2012, Cocito et al. 2013, Ezzat et al. 2013).

Energy investment in reproduction according to trophic strategy

Volume and number of oocytes and sperm sacs per polyp were higher in *E. singularis* than in *C. rubrum* (Fig. 4), likely due to the energetic surplus deriving from its mixotrophic feeding. Reproductive output, in fact, can vary according to the quantity and quality of available food (Qian & Chia 1991, 1992, Gori et al. 2013). A recent study by Gori et al. (2012) on *E. singularis* showed that asymbiotic populations of this species (60 m depth) have a lower volume of oocytes and sperm sacs than symbiotic ones (20 m depth).

Apart from differing between the 2 species, volume, size and number of oocytes and sperm sacs showed an inter-annual variability in both species (Fig. 4), probably linked to environmental variability (Brey 1995, Tsounis et al. 2006b, Gori et al. 2007, Torrents & Garrabou 2011, Gori et al. 2013). However, we are unable to link these 2 factors, as we lacked environmental data for spring 2009, when oocyte and sperm sacs obtained in 2010 started to develop (Vighi 1972, Santangelo et al. 2004, Tsounis et al. 2006b, Gori et al. 2007, Ribes et al. 2007, Gori et al. 2013).

Values of lipid content found for both species are in line with previous studies (Fig. 5a,b) (*C. rubrum*: Rossi & Tsounis 2007, Bramanti et al. 2013; *E. singularis*: Gori et al. 2007, Gori et al. 2012). Moreover, the lipid content of *E. singularis* is in agreement with that measured in other symbiotic corals (Harland et al. 1993, Yamashiro et al. 1999, Grottoli et al. 2004, Shirur et al. 2014), while lipid content found in *C. rubrum* is comparable with other non-symbiotic octocorals (Rossi et al. 2006, Hamoutene et al. 2008, Tsounis et al. 2012). Therefore, the higher values found in *E. singularis* with respect to *C. rubrum* are probably due to the acquisition of photosynthates transferred to the host by *Symbiodinium* cells. However, the higher lipid content in adults of *E. singularis* does not result in a higher reproductive investment of this species compared to *C. rubrum*. These findings do not support the common hypothesis that mixotrophy should result in a higher energetic investment in reproduction (Mckillup & Butler 1979, Thompson 1983, George 1994). Hence, at least in *E. singularis*, there is no direct relationship between energetic reserves and parental investment in reproduction.

After spawning, organisms face high energetic costs to repair the processes associated with spawning (Calow 1979). Therefore, animals with a high initial amount of lipids and energetic reserves should recover after spawning faster than those with lower reserves (Grottoli et al. 2006). This is exactly what the present study revealed, as male colonies of *E. singularis* displayed higher lipid content after spawning than *C. rubrum* colonies. This difference cannot be observed in female colonies, due to their higher investment in reproduction (Arai et al. 1993, Raymond et al. 2007). Therefore, these observations suggest that male colonies should recover faster than female colonies.

In 2010, the lipid content in female colonies was lower in *C. rubrum* than *E. singularis* both before and after larval release. Summer 2010 was characterized by lower food availability in the water column compared to 2011 in the studied area (Viladrich et al. 2016b), which could have induced a starvation in *C. rubrum* and *E. singularis* (Tsounis et al. 2006a, Coma et al. 2015). Unlike *C. rubrum*, *E. singularis* could have compensated the decrease in feeding rate with the energy input from *Symbiodinium*, therefore being less affected by food availability (Previati et al. 2010, Cocito et al. 2013). The wider distribution of *E. singularis* with respect to *C. rubrum* (Rossi et al. 2008, Gori et al. 2011, Angiolillo et al. 2016) can also be partly related to its mixotrophic feeding, conferring a higher resistance to environmental stressors (Grottoli et al. 2006).

Energetic demands before and after spawning

Besides the differences observed in lipid content, the 2 species also differed in their FFA content. The FFAs are compounds that can be beta-oxidized to provide a source of immediate and highly efficient energy (high ATP/FA molecule) (Sargent et al. 1988) and, therefore, reflect specific cellular physiological functions and physiological states (Sargent et al. 1990, 1999). The FFA content in *E. singularis* was higher than in *C. rubrum* (Fig. 5c,d), suggesting that *E. singularis* has a higher metabolic demand, which is probably linked to the maintenance costs of the symbiosis (i.e. to cope with high oxidative stress and possible regulation of the symbiotic algal growth; Muller-Parker & D'Elia 1997). On the other hand, fast-growing species such as *E. singularis* (Weinberg & Weinberg 1979, Munari et al. 2013, Viladrich et al. 2016b) also have high respiration rates, and thus high metabolic demands (Gates & Edmunds 1999, Marschal et al. 2004). Finally, the high variability (i.e. SD) in FFA content of *E. singularis* may be partly explained by an uneven distribution of *Symbiodinium* in the tissue (Bachok et al. 2006), which results in differences in photosynthetic rates and in cellular energy demand between different areas of the tissue (Oku et al. 2002).

Furthermore, the FFA content can increase during stress conditions, such as the presence of pathogens or as a consequence of starvation (Sargent et al. 1999). The present results show that the FFA content in *C. rubrum* increased after spawning only in 2010 (Fig. 5c), suggesting that *C. rubrum* suffered physiological stress in that year. In fact, summer 2010 was characterized by lower POM and zooplankton availability in the water column in comparison to 2011 (Viladrich et al. 2016b), and therefore lower food availability, which can affect the nutritional condition of *C. rubrum* (Tsounis et al. 2006a).

In conclusion, the present study reveals that the lipid content of the tissues of octocorals increased with mixotrophic feeding, but this increase did not result in a higher energy investment in the reproductive activity. The results also suggest that mixotrophic species are probably less affected by environmental variability due to their trophic plasticity, which gives an energy surplus with respect to heterotrophic organisms. This conclusion is corroborated by the study of Sbrescia et al. (2008), in which a quick recovery of *E. singularis* after a thermally induced mass mortality event was observed. The implications of this sensitivity to environmental conditions, in light of global climate change affecting shallow water benthic com-

munities (<40 m depth), warrant further studies to evaluate the potential for shifts from heterotrophic to mixotrophic coral communities.

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