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1	DEPTH DISTRIBUTION OF BENTHIC DINOFLAGELLATES
2	IN THE CARIBBEAN SEA
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14	

15 Abstract

16 Monitoring of benthic dinoflagellates is usually conducted between sub-surface and 17 5 m depth, where these organisms are supposed to be in highest abundances. However, 18 only few studies have focused on the small-scale depth distribution of benthic 19 dinoflagellates. In the present study, abundances of dinoflagellates were evaluated on an 20 invasive macrophyte *Halophila stipulacea* in two coastal sites in Guadeloupe along a depth 21 gradient from sub-surface to 3 m at Gosier and until 20 m at Rivière Sens during the 22 tropical wet and dry seasons. Depth did not influence total dinoflagellate abundance but 23 several genera showed particular depth-distribution preferences. The highest abundances 24 of Ostreopsis and Gambierdiscus species were estimated preferentially in surface waters 25 whereas Coolia spp. was found comparatively at depth. H. stipulacea biomass was 26 positively correlated with Ostreopsis spp. abundance. Our study suggests that sampling of 27 benthic dinoflagellates should be conducted at different water depths taking into account 28 the presence of the macroalgal substrate as well. In the Caribbean area, special attention 29 should be addressed to the presence of *H. stipulacea* which tends to homogenize the 30 marine landscape and constitutes a substrate favourable for dinoflagellates growth.

31

32 Introduction

Toxic harmful algal bloom occurrence is becoming more frequent and can cause more problems on ecosystems and human health at global scale (Hallegraeff, 1993; Cloern et al., 2005; Glibert et al., 2005; Hallegraeff, 2010). Several species of planktonic and benthic dinoflagellates can produce ecological damages to the environment and human health when they bloom in excess. Decreased levels of oxygen in the water column when the blooms decay and/or production of toxins, can lead to mass mortalities of marine 39 organisms (Shears and Ross, 2009) and/or to intoxication when toxins are transferred and 40 bioaccumulated in the food web (Yasumoto et al., 1987; Holmes and Teo, 2002). Those 41 toxins are accumulated within the food chain (Yasumoto et al., 1977; Adachi and Fukuyo, 42 1979; Lewis and Holmes, 1993; Gleibs and Mebs, 1999; Aligizaki et al., 2011). 43 Phycotoxins potentially generate human intoxications through consumption of marine 44 fishery products contaminated with bio-accumulated toxins (Valdiglesias et al., 2013). There are several poisoning syndromes caused by benthic dinoflagellates including, 45 46 gastrointestinal (nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea) and/or neurological (tingling, headaches, 47 dizziness, hallucinations, seizures) consequences (Ajani et al., 2017). These poisoning 48 syndromes are mainly due to the presence of Ostreopsis spp., Prorocentrum spp. and 49 Gambierdiscus spp. Ostreopsis spp. synthetize potent palytoxin and derivatives (Onuma et 50 al., 1999; Lenoir et al., 2004) probably responsible for clupeotoxin fish poisoning (Onuma 51 et al., 1999; Randall, 2005; Aligizaki et al., 2011) and palytoxicosis (Alcala et al., 1988) in 52 tropical areas. In temperate regions, blooms of Ostreopsis spp. are the causal agent of skin 53 and eye irritations (Ciminiello et al., 2006; Tichadou et al., 2010) and respiratory 54 syndromes due to exposure of aerosolized toxins or cells (Ciminiello et al., 2014). 55 Prorocentrum spp. produce okadaic acid and dinophysistoxins (Kumagai et al., 1986; 56 Yasumoto et al., 1987; Faust and Gulledge, 2002; Nascimento et al., 2016; Luo et al., 57 2017) causing diarrheic shellfish poisoning for seafood consumers (Landsberg et al., 58 2005). Ciguatoxins produced by Gambierdiscus spp. are responsible of ciguatera fish 59 poisoning (Chinain et al., 2010; Berdalet et al., 2017). This poisoning is the most common 60 non-bacterial food-borne illness (Tester, 1994; Tester et al., 2009) associated with 61 consumption of several fish species (Bagnis, 1981; Tester et al., 2009; Dickey and Plakas, 62 2010). Ciguatera can lead to death in the most severe cases (Friedman et al., 2008). Coolia 63 spp. and Amphidinium spp., synthetize toxins that can affect marine life but the

bioaccumulation of these toxins through marine food chain and human poisoning have not
been proven (Holmes et al., 1995; Botana, 2014; Ben-Gharbia et al., 2016). To our
knowledge, effects of *Sinophysis* spp. on human health have not been documented yet.

67 Blooms of benthic toxic dinoflagellates generates also economic problems for fishermen and aquaculture (Bagnis, 1981; Shumway, 1990; Bauder et al., 2001; Heredia-68 69 Tapia et al., 2002; Berdalet et al., 2015) whose consequences are difficult to quantify 70 (Ahmed, 1991). For instance in Australia and French Polynesia the strategy to protect 71 human health consisted, among other actions, on a decree banning the fishing and selling 72 of several fish species (Bagnis, 1981; Lehane and Lewis, 2000) as their contamination 73 cannot be easily measured (Ahmed, 1991). In Guadeloupe Archipelago selling of several 74 fish species, known to cause sanitary problems, is prohibited. It is presently suspected that 75 new fish species could be potential poisoning vectors representing a supplementary 76 shortfall for Caribbean fisherman. For environmental, sanitary and economic reasons it is 77 important to set up long time-scale monitoring of benthic dinoflagellates considering 78 physicochemical parameters to know precisely the ecological niches of each species and to 79 allow an efficient risk management due to toxic dinoflagellates.

80 Ostreopsis, Prorocentrum, Gambierdiscus, Coolia, Amphidinium, Sinophysis 81 species are present in the Caribbean Sea (Ballantine et al., 1988; Morton and Faust, 1997; 82 Faust, 2009; Chomérat, 2016). Usually, samplings are restricted to shallow depths, from 83 the surface to 5 m depth (Chang et al., 2000; Okolodkov et al., 2007; Parsons and Preskitt, 84 2007; Mangialajo et al., 2008; Shears and Ross, 2009; Rahman Sha et al., 2014) where 85 benthic dinoflagellates are supposed to be in highest abundances because they are 86 considered to be mainly photosynthetic (Taylor, 1985; Faust, 1997; Ten-Hage et al., 2000; 87 Fraga et al., 2008; Fraga and Rodríguez, 2014). However, these organisms are not necessarily restricted to the sub-surface as they can complement their autotrophic 88

behaviour with the uptake of organic matter (Burkholder et al., 2008; Pistocchi et al., 2011;
Jauzein et al., 2017).

91 Only few studies focused on depth distribution of benthic toxic dinoflagellates. A 92 first approach is to consider several sites with different depths (Taylor, 1985; Richlen and 93 Lobel, 2011) but observed differences can be due to local environmental conditions rather 94 than depth effects. A way to limit this potential bias is to collect samples at different depths 95 in a single area. The comparison at two different depths of the abundance of 96 Gambierdiscus revealed a decrease in the first 10 m (Xu et al., 2014) and stability between 97 depths of 10 and 20 m (Loeffler et al., 2015). A better way to evaluate the depth effect is to 98 set up transects of sampling along a depth gradient. The study by Totti et al. (2010) was 99 the only one considering a single substrate with this approach. As macrophytes are not 100 often homogeneously distributed along this gradient, several macrophytes species are 101 usually collected (Delgado et al., 2006; Cohu and Lemée, 2012; Cohu et al., 2013). When 102 dinoflagellate abundances are coming from different macrophytes, dinoflagellates 103 abundance comparisons are difficult because normalizing cell counts to the weight of the 104 macroalgal host introduces a significant source of error due to different surface area to 105 mass ratios of each host algal species (Richlen and Lobel, 2011). Previous studies have 106 suggested a host preference of dinoflagellates depending on the macrophyte morphology 107 (Parsons and Preskitt, 2007; Totti et al., 2010), taxonomic group (Morton and Faust, 1997; 108 Delgado et al., 2005; Monti et al., 2007; Parsons et al., 2017) or species (Ballantine et al., 109 1985; Delgado et al., 2005). Furthermore, such macroalgae could produce molecules 110 stimulating or inhibiting growth of benthic dinoflagellates (Grzebyk et al., 1994; Morton 111 and Faust, 1997; Accoroni et al., 2015). Such allelopathic interactions between macroalgae 112 and benthic dinoflagellates can induce bias in abundances comparisons. Several methods 113 were recently set up to minimize bias due to host preferences and avoid macrophyte

114 destruction. Artificial substrates need 24h of incubation to have a comparable colonization 115 between them and macrophytes at the same sampling locations (Tester et al., 2014; Jauzein 116 et al., 2016). However, this method is collecting resuspended dinoflagellates without direct 117 contact with the benthic stock of microalgal population (Jauzein et al., 2016) but a positive 118 correlation was found between planktonic and benthic abundances in several studies 119 (Aligizaki and Nikolaidis, 2006; Mangialajo et al., 2011). Benthic dinoflagellates 120 integrator called "BEDI" (Mangialajo et al., 2017) and syringe (Abbate et al., 2012) 121 methods are faster than artificial substrates but they would be difficult to adapt to low 122 abundances of dinoflagellates in tropical regions.

123 The aim of the present study is to describe the natural depth distribution of harmful 124 benthic dinoflagellates at genus level, in the Caribbean Sea. To avoid variations due to 125 spatial ecosystem heterogeneity and variations linked to biotic substrates, a single 126 macrophyte species, Halophila stipulacea Fosskal, was regularly sampled along a depth 127 gradient in two sites in Guadeloupe. H. stipulacea is an invasive seagrass noticed for the 128 first time in 2002 in Grenada (Ruiz and Ballantine, 2004), now established in the Eastern 129 Caribbean (Willette et al., 2014) and presenting large mono-specific meadows (Willette 130 and Ambrose, 2012). This seagrass is native from the Red Sea and Persian Gulf (den 131 Hartog, 1970). Rapid lateral bed expansion combined with its tolerance for a wide 132 spectrum of environmental conditions allows *H. stipulacea* to exclude dominant seagrasses 133 in the Caribbean (Willette and Ambrose, 2012). To our knowledge enumerations of 134 benthic dinoflagellates have never been done on Halophila stipulacea.

135

136 Material and method

137 Sampling of *H. stipulacea* was conducted in the morning by scuba diving during the wet season on September 21st and 22nd 2015 and during the dry season on February 1st and 138 2nd respectively at Gosier (16°13'25.1"N, 61°31'50"W) and Rivière Sens (15°58'51.8"N, 139 61°42'59.2"W) in Guadeloupe (French West Indies) (Fig. 1). Sampling was conducted 140 141 according to the distribution and availability of *H. stipulacea* in each site. In the shallow 142 site (Gosier), samples were collected every 0.5 m from 0 m depth to 3 m depth as H. 143 stipulacea was absent deeper. In the deep site (Rivière Sens), samples were collected every 144 0.5 m from 4 m to 10 m depth then every 5 m until 20 m depth as *H. stipulacea* was absent 145 from the surface to 4 m depth. Samples were taken in triplicate (n=3) at each sampled 146 depth. In Guadeloupe, tides are semidiurnal with a mean tidal amplitude of 30 cm (tide 147 gauge of Pointe-à-Pitre, REFMAR®).

148 Abundance of benthic toxic dinoflagellates

149 For each depth, triplicate samples of Halophila stipulacea with their surrounding 150 water were taken carefully in 250 mL plastic flasks avoiding microalgae resuspension from 151 the macroalgae. Acidic Lugol at 1 % (vol/vol) was added in all samples to fix microalgae 152 and 10 seconds agitation allowed to dislodge benthic dinoflagellates present on 153 macrophyte. Samples were passed through a 500 µm mesh to separate the macrophyte 154 from water containing dinoflagellates. To recover a maximum of dinoflagellates, H. 155 stipulacea was rinsed twice for 10 seconds with 100 mL of filtered seawater and then 156 weighted. Total seawater volume was measured. Samples were stocked in the dark at 4 °C. 157 Benthic dinoflagellates present in 1 mL were counted with a Sedgewick Rafter © counting 158 cell using a standard light microscope less than one week after the sampling. This 159 abundance and macrophyte's fresh weight allowed calculation of the number of benthic 160 toxic dinoflagellates per gram of fresh weight of *H. stipulacea* (cells.gFW⁻¹). An average 161 cellular abundance was estimated per depth, for all species of benthic toxic dinoflagellates 162 (n = 3).

163

164 Density of benthic dinoflagellates and leaf surface of H. stipulacea

165 All *H. stipulacea* present in 20 x 20 cm square surface were sampled in triplicate at 166 each depth and kept in the dark at -4°C. *H. stipulacea* content of each square was weighed 167 after defrosting, rinsing and drying with absorbent paper and an average biomass of 168 macrophyte per square meter was calculated for each depth. Measurement of *H. stipulacea* 169 weight was used to estimate the density of benthic dinoflagellates per square meter of sea 170 bottom (cells.m⁻²).

cells. m⁻² =
$$\frac{10\ 000\ (H.\ stipulacea\ biomass)}{400}$$
 x cells. gFW⁻¹

171

Thirty entire limbs of *H. stipulacea* of each triplicate were measured (length and width)
with a calliper. Measurement of leaf length and width was used to estimate leaf surface
considering rectangular geometric shape of each leaf.

175 *Measurement of ecological factors*

A sample of 250 ml of seawater surrounding *H. stipulacea* was used to measure environmental factors at every depths. Temperature was measured immediately with a Checktemps 4 HANNA thermometer and salinity was determined in the laboratory with a Master-S/MilliM ATAGO [®] manual refractometer. A SCUBAPRO Aladin Tec 3G dive computer was used to measure depth of sea bottom.

Data analysis

182 Non-parametric tests were used as variances of *H. stipulacea* biomasses and benthic 183 dinoflagellates abundances were not normally distributed. Kruskal-Wallis tests were 184 utilised to assess H. stipulacea biomass and benthic dinoflagellates abundances related to 185 depth. Dunn test is a multiple comparison method permitting to compare the mean of the 186 rank of each treatment after a Kruskal-Wallis test. The normal distribution is used as the 187 asymptotic distribution of the standardized difference of the mean of the ranks. Mann 188 Whitney test was performed to assess (i) differences in temperature and salinity between 189 the wet and the dry seasons, (ii) variations of H. stipulacea biomass between both seasons 190 and (iii) to determine influence of seasons on abundances of dinoflagellates. Spearman 191 correlation tests were applied to determine potential relationships between environmental 192 parameters and dinoflagellate abundances. All descriptive analyses are presented as mean 193 \pm standard deviation (SD).

194

195 **Results**

196 Ecological parameters at Gosier and Rivière Sens

At Gosier, average temperature of water column during the wet and dry seasons varied from $30.9 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C to $27.3 \pm 0.3^{\circ}$ C and salinity fluctuated from 30 ± 1 to 35 ± 0 (Figure 2). At Rivière Sens, seawater temperature varied from $29.4 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C to $26.5 \pm 0.4^{\circ}$ C and salinity from 31 ± 1 to 36 ± 0 during the two sampled seasons. At both sites, temperatures were warmer during the wet than the dry season (p<0.01) and salinity was on average higher during the dry than the wet season (p<0.003). 203 Biomass and leaf surface of Halophila stipulacea

At Gosier, average biomass of *H. stipulacea* did not change with depth during the wet and dry seasons (p<0.051). *H. stipulacea* biomass averaged 803 \pm 392 g.m⁻² and was statistically not different during the two seasons (p=0.564) (Figure 3). At Rivière Sens, average biomass of *H. stipulacea* did not change with depth during the dry season but it was higher at depth during the wet season (p=0.008) (Fig 3). Biomass of *H. stipulacea* was higher at the dry (1 075 \pm 445 g.m⁻²) than the wet season (528 \pm 329 g.m⁻²) (p<0.0001).

Leaf surface of *H. stipulacea* significantly increased with depth at both sites (p=0.0001). At Gosier, leaf surfaces were statistically higher at 2.5 m depth $(3.4 \pm 1.1 \text{ cm}^2)$ than these collected at 0 m and 0.5 m depth $(2.1 \pm 0.7 \text{ cm}^2)$. At Rivière Sens, the highest leaf areas were at 15 m and 20 m depths $(2.9 \pm 1.3 \text{ cm}^2)$ and smallest between 4 m and 7 m, and at 10 m depths $(1.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ cm}^2)$ (Figure 3).

215 Abundances of benthic dinoflagellates and depth distribution

Ostreopsis spp., Prorocentrum spp., Coolia spp., Amphidinium spp. and Sinophysis
were found during this survey. Ostreopsis spp. and Prorocentrum spp. were found in
higher abundances than the other genera.

219 At Gosier, abundances of benthic dinoflagellates decreased with depth during the wet 220 season (p=0.008). The highest average abundances of benthic dinoflagellates were observed at 0 m depth (2079 \pm 831 cells.gFW⁻¹) while no cells were found at 3 m depth 221 (Figure 4). Ostreopsis was the dominant genus reaching 1 669 \pm 1 027 cells.gFW⁻¹ at 0 m 222 depth and 120 ± 17 cells.gFW⁻¹ at 1 m depth. For similar depths, abundances of 223 *Prorocentrum* were respectively 262 ± 110 and 77 ± 52 cells.gFW⁻¹. Abundances of 224 Gambierdiscus spp. decreased from 113 \pm 104 cells.gFW⁻¹ at 0 m depth to 79 \pm 43 225 cells.gFW⁻¹ at 2.5 m depth. Maximum abundances were observed at 0 m depth for 226 Amphidinium spp. ($18 \pm 16 \text{ cells.gFW}^{-1}$), at 1 m depth for Coolia spp. ($22 \pm 21 \text{ cells.gFW}^{-1}$) 227

¹) and at 1.5 m depth for *Sinophysis* spp. (9 \pm 16 cells.gFW⁻¹). Abundances of benthic 228 229 dinoflagellates changed also with depth during the dry season (p=0.026). The highest 230 abundances were found at 1.5 m depth while no cell was found at 2.5 m. Prorocentrum 231 spp. dominated other genera of benthic dinoflagellates (Figure 4). The highest average 232 abundances of Ostreopsis spp and Prorocentrum spp. were respectively at 0.5 m depth (75 \pm 62 cells.gFW⁻¹) and 1.5 m depth (939 \pm 718 cells.gFW⁻¹). Abundances of 233 234 Gambierdiscus, Coolia, Amphidinium and Sinophysis genera were constant during both seasons. They never exceeded an average abundance of 30 cells.gFW⁻¹. Abundances of 235 236 benthic dinoflagellates did not differ between the wet and the dry seasons (p=0.150).

At Rivière Sens, abundances of benthic dinoflagellates changed with depth during 237 238 wet season (p=0.036). The highest abundances were observed at 7 and 8 m depths (753 \pm 238 cells. gFW⁻¹) and lowest at 20 m depth (149 \pm 82 cells.gFW⁻¹) (Figure 5). 239 240 Prorocentrum spp. dominated the benthic dinoflagellate assemblage. The highest mean 241 abundances were observed during the sampled period at depth of 4 m for Ostreopsis spp. $(30 \pm 51 \text{ cells. gFW}^{-1})$, 5 m for Sinophysis spp. $(28 \pm 30 \text{ cells.gFW}^{-1})$, 7 m for Sinophysis 242 spp. (28 \pm 30 cells. gFW⁻¹), 8 m for *Prorocentrum* spp. (676 \pm 254 cells.gFW⁻¹), 8 - 9 m 243 for *Coolia* spp. (60 ± 42 cells.gFW⁻¹) and 15 m for *Amphidinium* spp. (31 ± 31 cells. gFW⁻¹ 244 ¹). Abundances of benthic dinoflagellates varied with depth also during the dry season 245 (p=0.003). The highest abundance was at 4 m (1 850 ± 656 cells.gFW⁻¹) and lowest was at 246 20 m depth (26 ± 45 cells.gFW⁻¹) (Fig 5). Ostreopsis spp dominated the community of 247 benthic dinoflagellates overall. From 4 to 6 m Ostreopsis spp. dominated Prorocentrum 248 spp. with respective abundances of 930 \pm 433 cells gFW⁻¹ and 619 \pm 282 cells.gFW⁻¹ 249 250 whereas from 7 to 9 m Prorocentrum spp. dominated Ostreopsis spp. with respective abundances of 307 ± 143 cells gFW⁻¹ and 181 ± 91 cells.gFW⁻¹. The highest abundances 251 252 were observed at depth of 6 m for *Coolia* spp. (59 ± 67) , 7 m for *Sinophysis* spp. (21 ± 36) ,

253 8 m for *Gambierdiscus* spp. (16 ± 14) and 9 m for *Amphidinium* spp. (20 ± 22) . The 254 abundances for these genera were low.

Abundances of benthic dinoflagellates were similar during the wet and the dry season(p=0.387).

257 Preferential depth of Ostreopsis spp. and Prorocentrum spp. changed according to 258 the dominant genus. Prorocentrum spp. present a peak of abundance deeper than 259 Ostreopsis spp. when Prorocentrum spp. dominated the benthic dinoflagellates community 260 (Gosier during the dry season and Rivière Sens during the wet season). Furthermore, peak 261 abundances of Prorocentrum spp. and Ostreopsis spp. occurred at the same depth when 262 Ostreopsis spp. were dominant in the microalgae community (Gosier during the wet season 263 and Rivière Sens during the dry season). Concerning Coolia spp., Amphidinium spp. and 264 Sinophysis spp., the depth of the peak abundances changed between the seasons at Riviere 265 Sens. Peak abundances of *Coolia* spp. and *Amphidinium* spp. were deeper during the wet 266 season than the dry season at Rivière Sens. The highest abundances of Coolia spp. and 267 Amphidium spp. were found respectively at 8-9 m depths and 15 m respectively during the 268 wet season while highest abundances of these genera where at 6 m depth and 8 m depth 269 respectively. However, the depth of peak abundance of Sinophysis spp. was shallowest 270 during the wet season (5 m depth) than the dry season (8 m depth). Coolia spp., 271 Amphidinium spp. and Sinophysis spp. have not been found during the dry season at 272 Gosier.

273

274 *Temperature, salinity and benthic dinoflagellates*

Highest *Ostreopsis* spp. abundances occurred for the wet season at Gosier with an optimal salinity of 31.3°C and 31.4°C while the highest abundance of *Ostreopsis spp*. was observed at 26.8°C for the wet season at Rivière Sens. *Ostreopsis* spp. abundances

occurred in maximal abundance during the dry season when evaporation was maximal and with a water salinity of 36. Highest abundances of *Prorocentrum* spp. were observed during the dry season with a temperature of 27.4°C and a salinity of 35. The highest abundance of *Gambierdiscus* spp. were found at the shallow site (Gosier) during the wet season when seawater temperature was the warmest above 30°C and when salinity was of 30.

The highest abundances of *Coolia* spp. were found during the warmest season (the wet season), when temperature was included between 29.4°C and 31°C with a salinity of seawater of 30. Highest abundances of *Amphidinium* spp. were found at Gosier and at Rivière Sens during the wet season when temperature and salinity were above 29°C and 30 respectively. Highest abundances of *Sinophysis* spp; were found at Riviere Sens, the deepest site when temperature was comprised between 26.8°C and 29.8°C and salinity included 30-36.

291 Interaction between ecological parameters and benthic dinoflagellates

292 Relation between environmental parameters measured at both sites (Rivière Sens and Gosier) and benthic dinoflagellates abundances (cells.gFW⁻¹) has been analysed together 293 294 with a Spearman correlation. None of the studied environmental parameters were 295 significantly linked with total average abundances of benthic toxic dinoflagellates but they 296 influenced several genera independently. The depth, salinity and biomass of H. stipulacea $(g.m^{-2})$ were weakly correlated with abundance of benthic dinoflagellates (cells.gFW⁻¹). 297 298 The depth was negatively correlated with Ostreopsis spp. and Gambierdiscus abundances 299 while the depth was positively correlated with Amphidinium spp.. The salinity was 300 positively correlated with Ostreopsis spp. and negatively correlated with Gambierdiscus 301 spp. abundances. The temperature was positively correlated with *Gambierdiscus* spp. only

302 (Table 1). Also, a weak positive correlation between *Ostreopsis* spp. abundances and *H*.
 303 *stipulacea* biomass was found.

Abudances of several genera of benthic dinflagellates were weakly correlated between them. *Ostreopsis* spp. abundances were correlated with *Prorocentrum* spp., *Gambierdiscus* spp., and *Amphidinium* spp.. *Prorocentrum* spp. were correlated with *Coolia* spp. *Amphidinium* spp. and *Sinophysis* spp. Only weak positive correlations were found between *Coolia* spp. *Amphidinium* spp. and *Gambierdiscus* spp. and total abundances of benthic dinoflagellates while total abundances were strongly correlated with abundance of *Ostreopsis* spp. and *Prorocentrum* spp..

311

Density of benthic dinoflagellates

At Gosier the highest abundances of dinoflagellates per square meter were observed at 0 m depth (6.9 $10^5 \pm 2.9 \ 10^4$ cells.m⁻²⁾ during wet season and at 1.5 m depth (7.0 $10^5 \pm$ 6.5 10^5 cells.m⁻²) during the dry season (p=0.037) (Figure 6). No difference of total density of benthic dinoflagellates was found between the wet and the dry season (p=0.115).

At Rivière Sens the highest abundances of dinoflagellates per square meter were observed at 7 m and 8 m depths $(3.9 \ 10^5 \pm 2.0 \ 10^5 \text{ cells.m}^{-2})$ during the wet season (p=0.0024) and at 6 m $(2.1 \ 10^6 \pm 9.1 \ 10^5 \text{ cells.m}^{-2})$ during the dry season (p=0,003). Total densities of benthic dinoflagellates were similar between the wet and the dry season. (p=0.053).

321

322 **Discussion**

323 Influence of ecological factors

324 This study examined the depth effect on abundances of epiphytic dinoflagellates.325 Samples were collected on similar natural substrate at different depths in Guadeloupe at

326 Gosier and Rivière Sens. This approach was possible thanks to the presence of 327 monospecific meadows of *H. stipulacea* along a depth gradient at both sites. However, 328 none area presented a continuous populations of *H. stipulacea* from the surface to 25 m 329 depth. Distribution of dinoflagellates was consequently observed in shallow depth at 330 Gosier and deeper at Riviere Sens.

This is a novel study, because no dinoflagellate census has been realized in Guadeloupe so far. Only genera were determined in this study due to morphological identification difficulties leading to determination confusions. Morphogenetic analysis of benthic dinoflagellates present in Guadeloupe and Martinique are under investigation. Furthermore, to our knowledge enumerations of benthic dinoflagellates have never been done on *Halophila stipulacea*,

Among the studied parameters, the depth was the principal factor affecting 337 338 Ostreopsis spp. distribution with higher abundances found at the lower depths sampled. 339 Similar trends on depth distribution were also observed in the Pacific Ocean (Richlen and 340 Lobel, 2011) and the Mediterranean Sea (Totti et al., 2010; Cohu et al., 2013) potentially 341 linked with light intensity (Totti et al., 2010). However, this study did not allow to identify 342 separately effects of light intensity and depth on Ostreopsis spp. distribution. Ostreopsis 343 spp. occurred in maximal abundances with higher salinity in present survey. Indeed, the 344 optimal salinity for growth of Ostreopsis spp. in the Caribbean area was 33 (Morton et al., 345 1992). Also, the temperature was not an ecological factor correlated to abundances of 346 Ostreopsis spp. in this study. However, maximal abundances of Ostreopsis spp. were 347 included between 26.8°C and 31.4°C in this survey while optimal growth for this genus 348 were 25°C (Morton et al., 1992). The temperature was not found to be contributing to 349 Ostreopsis spp. seasonal fluctuations in the Caribbean area (Ballantine et al., 1988; 350 Okolodkov et al., 2007) as in temperate waters (Vila et al., 2001). However, in other

studies conducted in the Mediterranean Sea, the highest abundances of *Ostreopsis* spp.
were found when surface seawater temperature was the highest (Aligizaki and Nikolaidis,
2006; Mangialajo et al., 2008).

354 The depth is the environmental factor with the lowest influence on Gambierdiscus spp. 355 abundances. According to different studies, abundances of *Gambierdiscus* were not 356 affected by depth, increased with depth (Richlen and Lobel, 2011) or decreased with 357 depth (Taylor, 1985; Xu et al., 2014). In the present study, abundances were higher in 358 shallow environments. The same trend existed in Pacific Ocean where Gambierdiscus spp. 359 abundance at 2-3 m depth exceeded abundances at 10-15 m depth (Xu et al., 2014). 360 Similar distributions were observed in different islands of the Caribbean Sea (Taylor, 361 1985) with a peak of abundance between 0.5 m and 3 m depth. It have been suggested that 362 absence of *Gambierdiscus* spp. in surface water could be explained by decreased salinity 363 due to rainy events (Taylor, 1985). This explanation can be excluded for this study as increased salinity during the dry season at Rivière Sens has not lead to increased 364 365 abundances of Gambierdiscus spp.. Furthermore, highest abundances of Gambierdiscus 366 spp. were found in this study during the wet season (season with the lowest seawater 367 salinities) and at depths where the salinity was the lowest during this period suggesting 368 seasonal salinities have more impact than salinity variations with depth. Also, the highest 369 abundances of *Gambierdiscus* spp. were found at Gosier during the wet season and when 370 the seawater temperature was the warmest of this study (above 30°C). Optimal growth of 371 Gambierdiscus spp. from the Caribbean region was observed at conditions close to the 372 environment conditions with temperature of 29°C and salinity of 30 (Morton et al., 1992). 373 Abundances of *Gambierdiscus* spp. found in this study were particularly low contrary to 374 monitoring conducted in the Caribbean area (Ballantine et al., 1988, 1985; Bomber et al., 375 1989). Seasonal fluctuations of Gambiersicus spp. are still unknown in Guadeloupe.

376 A positive correlation existed between *Coolia* spp. abundances and depth in this study. In 377 the Mediterranean Sea this genus was observed at depths higher than 3 m (Cohu and 378 Lemée, 2012). Coolia spp. distribution is often neglected in studies conducted in the 379 tropical areas. Furthermore, among ecological study carried out in tropical areas and 380 focusing on the depth none study has showed distribution of *Coolia* spp.. Only information about low abundances of *Coolia* spp. (< 1 000 cells.gFW⁻¹) have been found in these 381 studies (Delgado et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2014). Coolia spp. present in the Caribbean area 382 383 exhibited optimal growth with a salinity of 33 and a temperature of 29°C (Morton et al., 384 1992). The results of this ecological study corroborated partially results of this study 385 because highest abundances of Coolia spp. were found during the warmest period (the wet 386 season), when temperature was included between 29.4°C and 31°C and with a salinity of 387 seawater of 30. *Coolia* spp. were first reported to synthesize toxins in the early work 388 (Holmes et al., 1995) but none strains examined by Penna et al., (2005) were toxic and 389 Rhodes et al., (2000) have found both toxic and nontoxic strains. The toxicity variation of 390 Coolia spp. is difficult to interpreted and cannot be linked with a problem of identification 391 because taxonomic problems have not been reported for this genus (Penna et al., 2005). 392 Effects of *Coolia* spp. on human health are still unknown (Zingone et al., 2006).

393 In fact, despite some initial studies suggested that the species produced cooliatoxin.
394 (Holmes et al., 1995), further tests indicated that *Coolia* spp. is not toxic (Delia et al.,
395 2015).

Higher abundances of *Amphidinium* spp. were found in this survey with different temperature and salinity promoting optimal growth of *Amphidinium* spp. Indeed, the ecological study conducted on Caribbean benthic dinoflagellates has found an optimal growth temperature between 26°C and 28°C and a salinity of 34. This genus was found in

400 lowest abundances in Republic of Kiribati (0-12 cells.gFW⁻¹) but distribution of

401 *Amphidinium* spp. has not been studied according to the depth (Xu et al., 2014)

402 *Sinophysis* spp. have been neglected by the ecological study.

403

404 Species interactions

405 The Prorocentrum spp. peak of abundances was always deeper than the Ostreopsis 406 spp. peak of abundance when *Prorocentrum* genus dominated the dinoflagellate 407 community. However peaks of abundance of Ostreopsis and Prorocentrum genera 408 occurred in surface and at the same depth when Ostreopsis spp. dominated the benthic 409 dinoflagellates assemblage. Richlen and Lobel (2011) suggested habitat separation 410 between both genera. Nevertheless, in this study abundances of Ostreopsis spp. and 411 Prorocentrum spp. were positively correlated, suggesting common preferences and 412 possible competition phenomena and/or allelopathic interactions. The temporal 413 fluctuations of benthic dinoflagellates are still unknown in Guadeloupe. However, 414 monitoring conducted in the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico have observed a 415 characteristic dominance of *Prorocentrum* spp. in the benthic dinoflagellate assemblage 416 (Delgado et al., 2005; Okolodkov et al., 2014; Martinez-Cruz et al., 2015; Morton and 417 Faust, 1997). These previous studies support the dominance of Prorocentrum spp. at 418 Gosier and at Rivière Sens during the dry and the wet season respectively in this study. 419 Despite the dominance of Ostreopsis spp. seems to be unusual in the Caribbean Sea, this 420 prevalence was found in few Caribbean monitoring however none Prorocentrum spp. 421 abundance were mentioned (Ballantine et al., 1988). These results sustain dominance of 422 Ostreopsis spp. found in this study at Gosier and at Rivière Sens during the wet and the dry 423 season respectively. Furthermore, few studies have been conducted on allelopathic 424 interactions of benthic dinoflagellates (Richlen and Lobel, 2011). Prorocentrum,

425 Ostreopsis, Gambierdiscus, Coolia, and Amphidinium are known to synthetize 426 allelochemical components inhibiting growth of microalgae (Sugg and VanDolah, 1999; 427 Legrand et al., 2003; Graneli et al., 2008). Assimilation of nutrients and environmental 428 factors affect toxins content of benthic dinoflagellates (Pezzolesi et al., 2012). P-nutrition 429 has been shown to influence toxin production. A rapid P-uptake within few days was found 430 for Ostreopsis spp. (Pezzolesi et al., 2014) and Prorocentrum spp. (Vanucci et al., 2010) 431 suggesting Ostreopsis spp. and Prorocentrm spp. could compete. Recently, Ostreopsis spp. 432 was found to favour cell attachment of Prorocentrum spp. with a positive dose dependent 433 relationship while cell lysis was observed at the same time for Gambierdiscus spp. 434 (García-Portela et al., 2016). All these strategies highlight complexity of allelopathic 435 interactions used by benthic dinoflagellates and could explain different distributions of 436 dinoflagellates along the depth

Gambierdiscus spp., Amphidinium spp., Coolia spp. and Sinophysis spp. were
abundances dependent. They co-occurred in low abundances. Positive correlations were
also found between *Coolia* spp., *Ostreopsis* spp. and *Prorocentrum* spp., as in the
Mediterranean Sea (Cohu and Lemée, 2012).

441 To our knowledge enumerations of benthic dinoflagellates have never been done on 442 Halophila stipulacea. In the Caribbean Sea, seagrass species are known to support lower 443 dinoflagellate abundances than macroalgae (Taylor, 1985; Morton and Faust, 1997). 444 However (Okolodkov et al., 2007) found the highest abundance of Prorocentrum spp. (31 467 cells.gFW⁻¹) on *Thalassia testudinium*, a seagrass, present in the Gulf of Mexico 445 446 (Okolodkov et al., 2007). This is about 18 times more than the maximum of Prorocentrum 447 spp. found in this study. At Belize (Morton and Faust, 1997) the lowest total abundance of 448 benthic dinoflagellates was found on T. testudinium and was comparable with average 449 abundances found in Guadeloupe found on H. stipulacea.

450 Substratum and dinoflagellates

451 Some previous studies have suggested a host preference of benthic Ostreopsis spp. 452 depending on the macrophyte morphology with higher abundances on branched thalli 453 (Totti et al., 2010), on Phaeophyceae and Florideophyceae (Monti et al., 2007) and on 454 Dictyota sp. (Ballantine et al., 1985). However, more detailed studies on selected seagrass 455 species are still lacking (Martinez-Cruz et al., 2015). In this study, a weak positive correlation was found between Ostreopsis spp. abundances (cells.gFW⁻¹) and H. stipulacea 456 biomass (g.m⁻²). An ecological study with enumeration of benthic dinoflagellates present 457 458 on different macrophytes and H. stipulacea must be conducted in Guadeloupe in order to 459 confirm a preferential association between Ostreopsis spp. and H. stipulacea.

460 At Rivière Sens, biomass and leaf surface of H. stipulacea increased with depth. A 461 similar pattern was also observed for this species in the Mediterranean (Procaccini et al., 462 1999). However, availability of space for attachment on macrophyte does not seem to be 463 the main limiting factor for dinoflagellates because during the wet season their maximum 464 abundance was located at 7-8 m depths while leaf surface is maximal at 15-20 m depth. A 465 dense vegetation cover increases available surface colonisable by benthic dinoflagellates 466 but it also decreases light irradiance necessary for the photosynthesis of dinoflagellates 467 limiting their growth.

Halophila stipulacea is a seagrass grazed by fish (Mariani and Alcoverro, 1999) and
turtles (Becking et al., 2014). Presence of dinoflagellates at each depth on *H. stipulacea*must be considered as a risk allowing the entrance of phycotoxins in the food web via
herbivorous behaviour regardless of depth. This invasive seagrass would contribute to
toxic dinoflagellates growth and persistence of ciguatera fish poisoning in the Caribbean
region which is the second area of the word affected by this disease (Chinain et al., 2014).
Monitoring of benthic toxic dinoflagellates present on *H. stipulacea* should be set also in

475 Mediterranean Sea to assess capacity of this macrophyte to support toxic benthic 476 dinoflagellates. Until 2007, *H. stipulacea* was too sparse to coexist under canopy of the 477 large native seagrasses of Mediterranean Sea (Williams, 2007). Actually mono-specific 478 meadows of *H. stipulacea* more than 2 000 m² are observed in Mediterranean Sea (Sghaier 479 et al., 2011).

480

481 <u>Conclusion</u>

482 Depth was not an environmental factor influencing the total abundance of benthic 483 dinoflagellates however it partially structured the distribution of some dinoflagellates 484 genera suggesting interaction with other parameters. Thereby, monitoring of abundance of 485 benthic dinoflagellates conducted at shallow depths may underestimate the risk due to 486 presence of different benthic dinoflagellates genera. However, this common method seems 487 to be appropriate for the Caribbean area where the main sanitary trouble is due to 488 Gambierdiercus spp., presence which is found in higher abundance at shallow depth. A 489 temporal survey must be conducted at shallow depths in order to know population dynamic 490 of Gambierdiscus spp. in Guadeloupe Island.

491

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498 Figure 1: A: Location of Guadeloupe archipelago in the Caribbean Sea, B: Location of



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514 Figure 2. Profiles of temperature and salinity during the wet (black) and the dry (grey)

515 seasons at Gosier (graphs on the left) and Rivière Sens (graphs on the right).

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518

519 Figure 3: Left. Mean *Halophila stipulac*ea biomass (left) and leaf surface (cm² per leaf) 520 (right) (\pm SD, n = 3) at different depths at Gosier (above) and Rivière Sens (below) during 521 the wet (black) and the dry seasons (grey). Significant differences between depths are 522 indicated with letters (Kruskal Wallis test and Dunn test, α =0,05).

523 It should be noticed that, in each station, the trend of H. stipulacea exhibits different trends

in distribution with depth in the wet than in the dry season.

525

526





529 Figure 4: Abundance of benthic toxic dinoflagellates with depth during the wet (left) and 530 the dry (right) season at Gosier. "*" indicates no cell found but depth sampled and "NA" 531 data no available because no macrophyte was found. Significant differences between 532 depths are indicated with letters (Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn test, α =0,05).

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540 Figure 5: Abundances of benthic toxic dinoflagellates according to depth during the wet

541 (left) and the dry (right) season at Rivière Sens. Significant differences between depths are

542 indicated with letters (Kruskal Wallis test and Dunn test, α =0,05).



545 Figure 6: Mean density of benthic dinoflagellates \pm SD according to depth at Gosier 546 (above) and at Rivière Sens (below) for the wet (black) and the dry season (grey). "*" 547 indicates no cell found but depth sampled and "NA" data no available because no 548 macrophyte was found. Significant differences between depths are indicated with letters 549 (Kruskal Wallis test and Dunn test, α =0,05).

550

- 552 Table 1: Relations between depth (m), temperature (°C), salinity, *H. stipulacea* biomass
- 553 (g.m⁻²), total abundances and abundances of Ostreopsis, Prorocentrum, Gambierdiscus,
- 554 Coolia, Amphidinium and Sinophysis genera (cells.gFW⁻¹). Coefficient r_s of Spearman,
- bold when significant with p<0.05, bold and underlined when significant with p<0.01.

	Ostreopsis spp.	Prorocentrum spp.	Gambierdiscus spp.	Coolia spp.	Amphidinium spp.	Sinophysis spp.	Average abundance
Depth	-0,299	0,015	-0,363	0,260	0,090	0,152	-0,193
Temperature	0,008	-0,046	<u>0,558</u>	-0,064	0,088	0,022	0,096
Salinity	0,210	0,020	<u>-0,388</u>	0,060	-0,093	-0,032	0,044
H.stipulacea Biomass	0,236	-0,107	0,203	0,036	-0,021	-0,182	0,014
Ostreopsis spp.		<u>0,364</u>	0,284	0,037	0,263	0,120	<u>0,695</u>
Prorocentrum spp.			-0,139	0,223	0,220	0,298	0,836
Gambierdiscus spp.				-0,032	0,105	-0,007	0,164
Coolia spp.					0,047	0,094	0,295
Amphidinium spp.						0,248	0,273
Sinophysis spp.							0,242
Average abundance							

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