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# **CRediT AUTHOUR STATEMENT**

Nadia Frontier: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing –
Original Draft. Florian de Bettignies: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Writing- Review
and Editing. Andrew Foggo: Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing- Review and Editing.
Dominique Davoult: Funding acquisition, Resources, Writing- Review and Editing.

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1	Research paper
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3	Sustained productivity and respiration of degrading kelp detritus in the
4	shallow benthos: detached or broken, but not dead.
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# 23 Abstract

24	Temperate kelp forests contribute significantly to marine primary productivity and
25	fuel many benthic and pelagic food chains. A large proportion of biomass is exported
26	from kelp forests as detritus into recipient marine ecosystems, potentially contributing
27	to Blue Carbon sequestration. The degradation of this organic material is slow and
28	recent research has revealed the preservation of photosynthetic functions over time.
29	However, the physiological correlates of detrital breakdown in Laminaria spp. have
30	not yet been studied. The warming climate threatens to reshuffle the species
31	composition of kelp forests and perturb the dynamics of these highly productive
32	ecosystems. The present study compares the physiological response of degrading
33	detritus from two competing North East Atlantic species; the native Boreal Laminaria
34	hyperborea and the thermally tolerant Boreal-Lusitanian L. ochroleuca. Detrital
35	fragment degradation was measured by a mesocosm experiment across a gradient of
36	spectral attenuation (a proxy for depth) to investigate the changes in physiological
37	performance under different environmental conditions. Degradation of fragments was
38	quantified over 108 days by measuring the biomass, production and respiration (by
39	respirometry) and efficiency of Photosystem II (by PAM fluorometry). Data indicated
40	that whilst degrading, the photosynthetic performance of the species responded
41	differently to simulated depths, but fragments of both species continued to produce
42	oxygen for up to 56 days and sustained positive net primary production. This study
43	reveals the potential for ostensibly detrital kelp to contribute to Blue Carbon fixation
44	through sustained primary production which should be factored into Blue Carbon
45	management. Furthermore, the physiological response of kelp detritus is likely

46	dependent upon the range of habitats to which it is exported. In the context of climate
47	change, shifts in species composition of kelp forests and their detritus are likely to
48	have wide-reaching effects upon the cycling of organic matter in benthic ecosystems.
49	
50	Keywords: Climate change; Detritus; North East Atlantic; Oxygen production; PAM
51	fluorescence; Respiration; Trophic transfer
52	

# 53 **1. INTRODUCTION**

54 Within the temperate to sub-polar regions of the globe, kelps are of paramount importance to marine ecosystem functioning. They contribute to the functional integrity of coastal 55 56 ecosystems as habitat forming species (HFS) via their biogenic structure, through wave energy dissipation and via cycling of carbon (Christie et al. 2003; Laffoley & Grimsditch, 57 58 2009; Teagle et al. 2017). As highly productive primary producers, kelps fix carbon dioxide 59 to produce organic matter via photosynthesis (Bartsch et al. 2008). The accumulated biomass 60 is eventually released or eroded and exported as detritus in a variety of forms into recipient 61 benthic ecosystems (Duggins et al. 1989; Krumhansl and Scheibling 2012; Pessarrodona et 62 al. 2018a). This transfer of carbon helps to sustain adjacent food webs. The breakdown of 63 detrital material by erosion and grazing activity provides a source of particulate organic 64 matter (POM) available to filter-feeding invertebrates (Renaud et al. 2015; de Bettignies et 65 al. 2020a; Vilas et al. 2020) which in turn can play a major role in mediating carbon fluxes 66 along the sediment-water interface (Queirós et al. 2019; Pedersen et al. 2020).

67

A significant proportion of primary production from marine primary autotrophs is exported as
detritus rather than entering the consumer food web (Moore *et al.* 2004). In a global context,

3

70	as much as 82% of annual kelp biomass may be transferred as detrital subsidies (Krumhansl
71	and Scheibling 2012; de Bettignies et al. 2013). Knowing the fate of such detritus is
72	fundamental in understanding the dynamics, connectivity and functioning of coastal
73	ecosystems (Polis et al. 1997). Indeed, detritus enhances both primary and secondary
74	production (Polis et al. 1997; Marczak et al. 2007) whilst contributing to the structure and
75	stability of food webs in recipient ecosystems (Huxel et al. 2002). Furthermore, accumulation
76	of detritus can physically modify the habitat structure (Arroyo and Bonsdorff 2016).
77	However, the influences upon recipient ecosystems are dependent upon the timing, frequency
78	and residence time of the detrital deposition (Yang et al. 2008).
79	
80	Macroalgae represent an as yet under-estimated contributor to the oceanic carbon cycle and

ðU in particular to carbon sequestration and long-term storage. Their contribution to global 81 82 carbon assimilation and sequestration is currently not considered by the IPCC (Ciais et al. 2013), and whilst the Global Carbon Project (GCP) identifies coastal habitats as carbon 83 stocks (Friedlingstein *et al.* 2019), their full contribution to the global marine carbon sink 84 85 remains neglected. Unlike seagrasses or phytoplankton, macroalgae are not routinely considered as contributors to the 'Blue Carbon' budget (McLeod et al. 2011; Howard et al. 86 2017). Marine macrophytes collectively fix around 1.8 Gt C yr<sup>-1</sup> (of which macroalgae 87 contribute ~1.5 Gt C yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Duarte et al. 2013; Duarte and Krause-Jensen 2017; Krause-88 Jensen and Duarte 2016) in contrast to the ~58 Gt C yr<sup>-1</sup> of phytoplankton production 89 90 (Buitenhuis et al. 2013; Middelburg 2019). However, the lability of phytoplankton carbon 91 and the high rate of remineralisation through consumption and degradation mean that only in the region of 0.23 Gt C yr  $^{-1}$  (0.4%) of phytoplankton production becomes sequestered into 92 93 carbon stores or sinks, whilst the lower rate of consumption and refractory chemical nature of macroalgal detritus mean that ~0.17 Gt C yr  $^{-1}$  (11.4%) is sequestered. Thus, including 94

95 seagrasses, marine macrophytes potentially contribute a comparable mass to direct global96 carbon sequestration to that of phytoplankton.

97

98 Species of the order Laminariales are particularly important contributors to coastal primary 99 production (Kirk 1994) and form key constituents of shallow subtidal kelp forests across four 100 continents (Steneck et al. 2002; Teagle et al. 2017). Along North East Atlantic coastlines, the 101 stipitate canopy-forming Laminaria hyperborea dominates shallow subtidal rocky 102 ecosystems (Smale and Moore 2017). Detrital production by L. hyperborea is unique because the majority of the previous-season's post-meristematic growth (the 'growth collar') is shed, 103 104 often intact, between March and May (Bartsch et al. 2008); the release of this pulse of 105 biomass contributes significantly to the total detritus production (Pessarrodona et al. 2018a). 106 L. hyperborea's detritus is a trophic resource connecting habitats which becomes increasingly 107 accessible to consumers as it degrades (Norderhaug et al. 2003) and is an especially 108 important dietary subsidy during periods of low plankton productivity (Leclerc et al. 2013a). 109 As well as accumulating in coastal embayments and on beaches, a significant fraction of the 110 carbon fixed by L. hyperborea flows into seafloor depressions, low-energy habitats and deep 111 subtidal regions (Filbee-Dexter and Scheibling 2016; Filbee-Dexter et al. 2018). Research on 112 L. hyperborea has already revealed that its degradation is slow relative to other species and 113 accumulations in shallow subtidal ecosystems are able to maintain photosynthetic activity 114 across several months (de Bettignies *et al.* 2020b), acting as net producers for a sustained 115 period of time dependent upon the illumination regime. 116

117 The conspicuous thermally tolerant congeneric kelp (Franco *et al.* 2017; Hargrave *et al.* 

118 2017) of Lusitanian origin, L. ochroleuca (Bachelot de la Pylaie), has expanded its range

119 northwards from Morocco and across the English Channel in response to the changing

120 climate over the last century. Today, L. ochroleuca is expanding its leading edge eastwards 121 and northwards at around 5.4 and 2.5 km per year, respectively (Straub et al. 2016). Its range 122 now overlaps substantially with the native assemblage's dominant kelp species, L. 123 hyperborea (Smale et al. 2015; Hargrave et al. 2017) which has undergone a ~250 km range contraction at its warm leading-edge since 1970 (Assis et al. 2016). In comparison to the 124 125 pulsed detrital production from L. hyperborea, detrital production by L. ochroleuca is greater 126 in volume, more frequent and degrades faster between May and October (Pessarrodona et al. 127 2018b). The expanding thermal envelope and subsequent spread of L. ochroleuca is 128 modifying both the taxonomic and functional composition of HFS, with resulting effects on 129 detrital composition. The re-arrangement of HFS has been shown to have marked ecological 130 implications; extending to adjacent communities which rely on these subsidies of 131 allochthonous material (Bishop et al. 2010; Straub et al. 2016).

132

133 The ecological function of detritus varies between species. Recent studies (Pessarrodona et al. 2018b) comparing L. ochroleuca and L. hyperborea have demonstrated interspecific 134 135 differences in seasonal detrital decomposition rates, with L. ochroleuca exhibiting 136 significantly faster rates (6.5 x) compared to L. hyperborea (Pessarrodona et al. 2018b) in 137 spring. In addition, the species exhibit differences in timing of detrital production: the May cast from L. hyperborea accounting for ~40-60% of annual lamina erosion (Pessarrodona et 138 139 al. 2018a) compared with the continual release of detritus from the fronds of L. ochroleuca 140 (Pessarrodona et al. 2018b). Such alterations to the supply and cycling of organic matter will 141 likely be amplified as sea surface temperatures increase. In the North East Atlantic, a rise of > 142 2°C is forecast in the next 100 years (Philippart et al. 2011; Masson-Delmotte et al. 2018), 143 which will likely result in the gradual replacement of the native cool-water L. hyperborea by 144 the warm-water tolerant L. ochroleuca.

146 Degradation is dynamic and testing the response of detritus across different environmental conditions is important to contextualise this process. The depth distribution of photosynthetic 147 148 kelp-forest communities is strongly influenced by light availability (Kirk 1994; Gorman et al. 149 2013; Bajjouk et al. 2015) and the photosynthetic mechanisms of some kelp species have been demonstrated to respond to changes in underwater light (e.g. in Saccharina latissima; 150 151 and L. digitata) (Gevaert et al. 2002; Delebecq et al. 2011). L. hyperborea and L. ochroleuca 152 forests have similar natural depth range but little is known about the photosynthetic efficiency of these two species within their depth thresholds. Investigating the degradation of 153 154 kelp detritus across a gradient of depth will further elucidate its role in the marine 155 environment.

156

157 The aim of this study therefore was to monitor the break-down dynamics and physiological 158 performance of material from L. hyperborea and L. ochroleuca across a gradient of light attenuation to investigate the influence of depth across time. We examined biomass 159 160 dynamics, oxygen production, respiration and photosynthetic performance and efficiency of 161 photosystem II of detritus from the two species. We hypothesized that *Laminaria* species 162 have the capacity to resist degradation, maintaining primary production function depending 163 upon the illumination regime. Following the findings of Pessarrodona et al. (2018a) we 164 hypothesised that the two species should exhibit differential responses with respect to 165 degradation, with a quicker decomposition and breakdown of physiological capacity for L. ochroleuca compared to L. hyperborea. We also speculated that there would be an effect of 166 the amount of light, and for the first time, empirically tested the influence of depth-related 167 168 light attenuation as a potential driver of variability in the degradation of kelp material.

169

# 170 **2.** MATERIAL AND METHODS

171	The study was conducted in the Roscoff Biological Station close to the Bay of Morlaix
172	(France). In May 2018, L. hyperborea was harvested at La Veille (48°42'36.22"N,
173	3°54'04.81"W) and <i>L. ochroleuca</i> at An Nehou (48°41'34.27"N, 3°56'25.52"W) from ~ 8-10
174	m below chart datum. Five typical mature canopy-forming individuals of each kelp species
175	were harvested by severing the stipe just above the holdfast. The mean total length of $L$ .
176	hyperborea individuals was 348 cm compared to L. ochroleuca individuals with a mean
177	length of 169 cm. Within two hours of collection, the sporophytes were submerged in the
178	dark in a 500 L flow-through tank of aerated ambient sea water pumped directly from the Bay
179	and left to acclimate for 48 hours.
180	
181	2.1 Experimental design
182	
183	For each adult individual, three blade fragments of equal length (20 cm) were cut at a
184	standardised distance (20 cm) above the meristem, away from the distal section of the kelp
185	blade which is subject to greater epiphytic colonisation. Fragments were tagged with a unique
186	ID number, their mass recorded and were randomly allocated to a depth (0, 15 and 30 m)
187	treatment. Thus there were five replicates per species within each depth treatment.
100	

188

189 To simulate different light intensities across a depth gradient, light attenuation optical filters

190 (LEE Filters, Andover, UK) were constructed to completely cover the aquaria (Fig. 1). A

191 photon flux simulating light availability at 15 and 30 m was recreated using an average light

192 extinction coefficient (*k*) of 0.14 (from Boutler *et al.* 1974; spring and summer surveys

around Roscoff) incorporated into equation 1, where light availability at a specified depthequates to:

195 
$$I(t) = I(z_0)\exp^{(-kz)}$$
 equation 1.

196 The irradiance at depth (t)  $I_{(t)}$  depends on the light at the surface  $I_{(Z0)}$ , the depth (z) and the 197 extinction coefficient of the water in the column (k). The 0 m treatment, representing 198 strandline and floating detritus, were submerged in 8 cm of water hence  $z_0 = 0.08$  m. The 199 percentage of light available at 0, 15 and 30 m was 98.9%, 12.3% and 1.5% respectively; 200 these values were utilised when assembling the relevant filters. We did not, however, account 201 for the change in spectral character as a function of depth (Saulquin *et al.* 2013).

202



203

Fig. 1. Experimental set-up composed of filters for 15 and 30 m aquaria, constant air
bubbling and HOBO loggers. Two unlabelled aquaria were used for experiments that are
outside the scope of this paper. Each aquarium contained five replicate fragments. The
brown squares represent aquaria with *L. hyperborea* fragments and yellow squares contain *L. ochroleuca* fragments.

- 210 The fragments acclimated for a further 48 hours before being transferred to 8 L aquaria
- 211 corresponding to their respective species by depth treatment where they remained for the

212 duration of the experiment. Each aquaria was installed with a wide mesh basket which held 213 the fragments in 8 cm of water and raised them 5 cm from the bottom. The baskets facilitated 214 water circulation whilst constant aeration promoted diffusion across the boundary layer 215 (Noisette and Hurd 2018). The six aquaria were held in a circulating water bath system 216 supplied with a continual flow of unfiltered seawater (renewal rate of 10 times the aquarium 217 volume per hour) located outside (Fig. 1). The fragments were therefore exposed to ambient 218 temperature and irradiance in order to re-create their natural environment. Two aquaria were 219 fitted with temperature/light loggers (HOBO Pendant Temperature/Light Weatherproof 220 Pendant Data Logger 16K) recording at 10-minute intervals. Data was regularly downloaded 221 to ensure conditions did not deviate significantly from outside conditions. Physiological 222 measurements (see below) began 9 days after the fragments were transferred into the 223 experimental system and observations were repeated at 7-day intervals thereafter across five-224 time periods, (T1-T5) with a 19 day gap between T5 and T6, for a total duration of 56 days. 225

226 2.2 Reproductive tissues and biomass change

227

Photographs of each fragment were taken at each time point to monitor visual changes in 228 229 tissue surface (Figure S1), for example, the presence of sorus (reproductive) tissue (Figure 230 S2). Repeated measures of wet biomass were taken on the same fragment at each time point. 231 Biomass changes were calculated as a percentage of the starting mass remaining at each time 232 point. Completely degraded fragments were removed and their biomass from the preceding time was recorded as mass lost. This aspect of the trial was extended to 108 days and final 233 234 biomass measurements were recorded after all the fragments from the 30 m treatment had 235 degraded.

237 2.3 Production and respiration measurements

238 Production and respiration rates were measured using a closed bottle respirometry technique 239 (Migné et al. 2002; Biscéré et al. 2019). Twenty incubation chambers, each comprising of a 1.2 L transparent glass jar closed by a watertight seal, were distributed across four 50 L 240 241 experimental units. The experimental units were each fitted with optical filters replicating 242 light conditions in the corresponding aquaria and were replenished with the same ambient 243 unfiltered seawater after each set of production and respiration incubations. Fragments were 244 transferred in the dark from their aquaria into the corresponding depth treatment of the experimental unit with each jar containing an individual fragment. Two different incubations 245 246 were conducted consecutively, measuring both oxygen production and consumption 247 (respiration) respectively. Production was measured during a 60-minute incubation (long enough to allow detection of a change in oxygen concentration whilst avoiding oxygen 248 249 saturation) under the experimental aquarium conditions. The jars were then opened to allow 250 water exchange for 30 minutes and the containers were covered by dark tarpaulin to halt 251 photosynthetic activity. The jars were subsequently re-sealed and the respiration incubations 252 were conducted on the same fragments for 60 minutes in complete darkness. Dissolved oxygen concentrations were measured before and after both incubations (production and 253 254 respiration) using a portable multi-meter (HQ40d, Hach®, Loveland, USA) coupled with a 255 luminescent/optical dissolved oxygen probe (Intellical<sup>TM</sup> LDO101, Hach<sup>®</sup>, accuracy  $\pm 0.2$ mg  $L^{-1}$ ). At the end of the incubations, fragments were retrieved from the jars, gently blotted 256 257 dry and weighed (WW in g). Production and respiration rates were estimated by calculating 258 the difference between initial and final oxygen O<sub>2</sub> concentrations after being corrected for 259 temperature change (Aminot and Kérouel, 2004). The rates were expressed in mgO<sub>2</sub> kg WW <sup>1</sup> hr <sup>-1</sup>. The production rate is a measure of Net Primary Production (NPP), which represents 260 261 the sum of photosynthesis and respiration in tandem. Meanwhile, Gross Primary Production

262 (GPP) was calculated by adding the dark respiration rate (R) to the NPP to derive the total

263 oxygen produced via photosynthesis. The seawater temperature and incident

264 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, 400-700 nm,  $\mu$ mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, Li-Cor

265 QuantumSA-190, LI-COR®, Lincoln, USA), were recorded every minute during the trials.

266

267 2.4 Photosynthetic efficiency measurement

268

To reveal to the extent to which fragments' photosynthetic apparatuses were active, the 269 270 operating efficiency of photosystem II ( $\Phi$ PSII) and the maximal quantum yield of PSII 271 photochemistry  $(F_v/F_m)$  were measured using a portable pulse-amplitude-modulated 272 fluorometer (PAM, Heinz Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). In vivo **PSII** was measured in ambient light whereas  $F_v/F_m$  measurements were obtained from fragments that had been dark 273 274 adapted for 15 minutes (following Hargrave et al. 2017), before being flashed with a 0.8 s saturating white light pulse (2500  $\mu$ mol photons.m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub> values normally range 275 276 between 0.7-0.8 for Phaeophyceae and values below are indicative of a stress response 277 (Bischof et al. 1999; Hanelt, 2018) 278 279 2.5 Statistical analyses 280 281 2.5.1 Biomass change 282 As a consequence of bimodality in the bounded biomass data, a Euclidean distance-based 283 permutational ancova (PERMANCOVA) was used in PRIMER ver 6.1 (Primer-E, Plymouth) 284 285 to test effects of species and depth (fixed factors) over time (continuous covariate), with fragment identity (the plant from which the fragment was cut) as a random factor. P values 286

were obtained from type III sums of squares. MDS plots were inspected as a way of

288 identifying potential issues relating to heterogeneities of dispersion, though no formal tests

were performed due to the complexity of the model.

290

291 2.5.2 Production, respiration and photosynthetic parameters

292

293 The effects of species and depths across time on net and gross oxygen production (NPP and 294 GPP), dark respiration (R) and combining NPP with 12 h of R to represent a full day's rate of 295 oxygen flux (NPP-R), were tested with linear mixed effect models using Maximum 296 Likelihood (package *lme4* in R 3.6.1) (Bates *et al.* 2015; R Core Team 2019). To account for 297 variation in abiotic conditions across the experiment, mean PAR was used as a continuous 298 covariate for oxygen production and mean temperature for dark respiration (PAR and 299 temperature were strongly correlated). Fragment identity was included as a random factor and p values were obtained from type III Wald  $\gamma^2$  tests. Plots of residuals versus fits were used to 300 301 check assumptions of analyses. Data describing the photosynthetic parameters Fv/Fm and 302 ΦPSII were analysed by similar model structure using generalised least squares (gls) fitting (package nlme, Pinheiro et al. 2019) due to heterogeneities of variance; PAR was again used 303 304 as a continuous covariate; no random factor could be included in the gls model, between-305 plant variability being accounted for in the overall model fit. P values were derived as 306 described above. 307

308 2.5.3 Omnibus PERMANCOVA

309

310 To examine the *in toto* physiological response of the two species, a multivariate approach

311 was employed. A z-transformation was used to normalise the physiological variables (GPP,

312 R, Fv/Fm and  $\Phi$ PSII), and a Euclidean distance – based multivariate similarity matrix was

313 produced in PRIMER ver 6.1. This was then used as the basis for a mixed model

314 PERMANCOVA with 999 permutations of a reduced model employing the same structure as

315 the linear models described above; p values were obtained from type III sums of squares

316 using a pseudo-F statistic.

317

318 **3. Results** 

319 3.1 Degradation dynamics

320 The analysis of biomass change with depth indicated strong heterogeneity of response to the environmental factor over time in the different species (3-way interaction pseudo- $F_{2.144}$  = 321 322 12.857, p <0.001; Fig. 2); no evidence of confounding heterogeneity of dispersion was 323 apparent in the MDS plots. The interspecific differences were most apparent in the 15 and 30 324 m treatments, in both cases some of the L. hyperborea fragments degraded more quickly than L. ochroleuca. Under surface conditions neither species degraded markedly until after 56 325 326 days. No intact fragments of L. ochroleuca remained at the end of the 108 days, while L. 327 hyperborea fragments were generally still intact at this point. With light attenuated to levels 328 at 15 m, L. hyperborea began to degrade after 23 days, whilst L. ochroleuca persisted until 329 the end of the study in the majority of cases. At 30 m most L. hyperborea fragments had 330 completely broken down after 36 d, in contrast to *L. ochroleuca* where degradation was 331 significantly slower (Fig. 2, Table 1).

332

333 *3.2 Reproductive tissues and biomass change* 

Clear evidence of sorus material was first detected whilst conducting the final physiological
measurements, 56 days into the experimental period on two *L. ochroleuca* fragments, one in
the 0 m treatment and one in the 15 m treatment. When the study was concluded 108 days
later, two different *L. ochroleuca* fragments had evidence of sorus material on the blade
surface (Figure S2).

340



Fig. 2. Remaining biomass at three different simulated depths over time in *Laminaria hyperborea* and *Laminaria ochroleuca* (N = 144). Boxes indicate the interquartile range,
horizontal line inside the bars indicates the median.

345

**Table 1:** Results of permanova analysis (type III SS) of % biomass remaining in the different

347 species and depths (fixed factors) over 108 days (continuous covariate). Significant terms

(P < 0.05) are indicated in bold.

Source	Df	Pesudo-F	Р
Time	1	119.37	0.001

Species	1	2.977	0.104			
Depth	2	12.686	0.002			
Time:Species	1	18.33	0.001			
Species:Depth	2	2.893	0.066			
Time: Depth	2	14.448	0.001			
Time:Species:Depth	2	12.857	0.001			
Fragment ID	24	6.331	0.001			

349

## 350 *3.3 Production and respiration measurements*

As expected, the availability of light was the dominant factor affecting GPP; both in terms of 351 PAR at the surface ( $\chi^2_{1,161} = 15.735$ , p < 0.001) and as a main effect of photo-attenuation 352 related to depth ( $\chi^2_{2,161} = 92.036$ , p < 0.001). Contrary to expectation, however, across the 353 354 degradation period GPP did not decline as expected, and whilst the two species responded differently to the passage of time ( $\chi^2_{1,161} = 5.122$ , p = 0.024), it was apparent that overall 355 356 oxygen evolution was indicative of the metabolic integrity of surviving tissues remaining 357 remarkably intact often beyond 36 days post-detachment (Fig. 3a, Table 2). Respiration (R) was independent of temperature, but differed strongly between species ( $\chi^2_{1,}$ 358  $_{,161}$  = 22.555, p < 0.001), and as a function of time ( $\chi^2_{1,161}$  = 8.462, p = 0.004) and depth ( $\chi$ 359  $^{2}_{2,161}$  = 10.276, p = 0.006), modifying the species effect. Notwithstanding the declining 360 361 number of fragments persisting to the end of the trial (Fig. 3), it was clear that R did not display a simple response over time; only the data for L. hyperborea under surface light 362 363 levels are suggestive of a simple linear increase over time (Fig. 3b, Table 2). 364 Most importantly, Net Primary Production (NPP) during lit periods remained at, or recovered 365 to, positive net production levels in the majority of fragments until the end of the 56 day trial (Fig. 3c, Table 2). As with GPP and R, NPP differed strongly at different depths ( $\chi^2_{1,161}$  = 366 88.31, p < 0.001). NPP did not differ statistically between the two species, but the nature of 367 368 this experiment restricts these conclusions to brightly lit daylight hours. Assuming

equinoctial fully light and dark conditions, with NPP and an additional 12 h of R representing a full day's oxygen flux, suggests a significant effect of species with an additional modifying effect of depth upon this ( $\chi^2_{2,161} = 6.244$ , p = 0.044). Under this '24 h' model, a more realistic interpretation of differential GPP responses between the species can be detected (Fig. 3d, Table 2).





**Fig. 3.** (a) Gross Primary Production (GPP), (b) Respiration (R), and (c) Net Primary

- 377 Production (NPP) and (d) '24 hour' model of oxygen flux (NPP-R) rates, expressed as
- 378 oxygen consumption or production, at three different simulated depths over time for
- 379 *Laminaria hyperborea* and *Laminaria ochroleuca* (N = 161). Boxes indicate the interquartile
- 380 range, horizontal line inside the bars indicates the median.

- 382 **Table 2:** Results of likelihood ratio tests based upon linear mixed effect models examining
- 383 responses of (a) Gross Primary Production (GPP), (b) Respiration, (c) Net Primary
- 384 Production (NPP) and (d) '24 hour' model of oxygen flux (NPP-R) rates across time (56
- 385 days), between kelp species and depth (fixed factors) with PAR or Temperature as a
- 386 covariate. Significant terms (P < 0.05) are indicated in bold.

a			
Source	df	Chisq	Р
(a) GPP			
PAR	1	15.735	< 0.001
Time (days)	1	0.566	0.452
Species	1	0.000	0.996
Depth	2	92.036	< 0.001
Time: Species	1	5.122	0.024
Species: Depth	2	1.157	0.561
Time: Depth	2	6.316	0.043
Time:Species:Depth	2	4.058	0.131
Fragment ID	1	9.664	0.002
(b) R			
Temp	1	0.098	0.754
Time (days)	1	6.110	0.013
Species	1	22.555	< 0.001
Depth	2	2.234	0.327
Time:Species	1	8.462	0.004
Species: Depth	2	10.276	0.006
Time: Depth	2	1.369	0.504
Time: Species: Depth	2	0.047	0.977
Fragment ID	1	3.727	0.054
(c) NPP			
PAR	1	9.160	0.002

Time (days)	1	3.833	0.050
Species	1	2.032	0.154
Depth	2	88.311	< 0.001
Time:Species	1	1.246	0.262
Time: Depth	2	7.147	0.028
Species: Depth	2	3.589	0.166
Time: Species: Depth	2	3.704	0.157
Fragment ID	1	11.22	0.001
(d) NPP- R			
PAR	1	4.050	0.044
Time (days)	1	7.924	0.005
Species	1	6.215	0.013
Depth	2	74.259	< 0.001
Time:Species	1	0.007	0.933
Time: Depth	2	6.861	0.032
Species: Depth	2	6.244	0.044
Time: Species: Depth	2	2.893	0.235
Fragment ID	1	11.226	< 0.001

387

# 388 *3.4 Photosynthetic response*

PAR was a significant covariate for the  $\Phi$ PSII response ( $\chi^2_1 = 7.901$ , p < 0.01). Despite time 389 390 exerting a non-statistically significant effect on  $\Phi$ PSII (as it did upon NPP and GPP), the 391 response of detrital fragments clearly declined over the degradation period (Fig. 4a) but 392 became highly variable at increasing depth, swamping any trend. Fig. 4b shows that  $F_v/F_m$ displayed a similarly noisy decline over time. There was no significant difference in the 393 394 photosynthetic response between the species. Both parameters were significantly affected by 395 depth. No interactions were significant and therefore the photosynthetic behaviour of detrital resources from different species was not affected by time or by depth (Figs 4 a-b, Table 3). 396



**Fig. 4.** (a)  $\Phi$ PSII and (b)  $F_v/F_m$  measurements at three different simulated depths over time for *Laminaria hyperborea* and *Laminaria ochroleuca* (N = 161). Boxes indicate the interquartile range, horizontal line inside the bars indicates the median.

401 **Table 3**: Results of likelihood ratio testing based upon generalized least squares fitting to 402 examine responses of (a)  $\Phi$ PSII (b)  $F_v/F_m$  across time (56 days), between kelp species and 403 depths (fixed factors) with PAR as a covariate. Significant terms (P < 0.05) are indicated in 404 bold.

Source	df	Chisq	Р	
(a) <b><b>ФPSII</b></b>				
PAR	1	7.901	0.005	
Time	1	0.221	0.638	
Species	1	0.935	0.334	
Depth	2	51.403	<0.001	
Time:Species	1	0.694	0.405	
Species: Depth	2	2.700	0.260	
Time:Species:Depth	2	1.331	0.514	
(b) $\mathbf{F_v}/\mathbf{F_m}$				
PAR	1	13.418	0.001	
Time	1	1.620	0.203	
Species	1	0.230	0.632	
Depth	2	5.981	0.050	
Time:Species	1	0.428	0.513	
Species: Depth	2	2.654	0.265	
Time:Species:Depth	2	1.641	0.440	

405

# 406 3.5 Omnibus permanova

407	The combined rest	nonse of GPP R	ΦPSII and F./F.	variables was	strongly affected h	v the
407	The combined res	pointse of $O(1)$ , $\mathbf{R}$ ,	$\Psi$ on and $\Psi$ m	variables was	subligity affected b	y unc

408 light availability in terms of PAR ( $\chi^2_1 = 11.176$ , p < 0.001) and Depth ( $\chi^2_1 = 21.585$ , p <

409 0.001). A realistic picture of detrital degradation revealed species responded differently to the

```
410 passage of time (\chi^2_1 = 9.327, p < 0.001) but not depth (Table 4).
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411

```
412 Table 4: Results of omnibus PERMANOVA analysis of standardized data describing GPP,
```

```
413 R, \PhiPSII and F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub> across time (56 days), between kelp species and depth (fixed factors)
```

414 with PAR as a covariate. Significant terms (P < 0.05) are indicated in bold.

```
Source df Pesudo-F P
```

GPP, R, ΦPSII, F <sub>v</sub> /F <sub>m</sub>				
PAR	1	11.176	0.001	
Time	1	4.837	0.012	
Species	1	8.729	0.001	
Depth	2	21.585	0.001	
Time:Species	1	9.327	0.001	
Species: Depth	2	2.269	0.081	
Time:Species:Depth	2	0.848	0.519	

416

# 417 **4. DISCUSSION**

418 *4.1. Production and respiration measurements* 

419

420 For the first time, the primary producer functions of algal detritus have been quantified across 421 a simulated depth spectrum. Detritus continued to sustain net production of oxygen across a 422 56-day period, underscoring its capacity to maintain key functions such as carbon fixation. 423 Detrital tissues slightly increased in biomass during the early stages of degradation, 424 demonstrating that measured oxygen production is reflective of fresh material being generated. Over time, the respiration of detrital fragments, as a proxy for stress or associated 425 426 bacterial activity, increased in some contexts (Sosik and Simenstad, 2013). Evidence of some 427 degradation was further reinforced by a measured decline in photosynthetic performance 428 ( $\Phi$ PSII and  $F_v/F_m$ ), in accordance with the initial hypothesis. At the end of the first time 429 period, values between 0.6-0.8 at 15 m and 30 m reflected an optimum performance at depths 430 at which the kelps inhabit (Gorman et al., 2013). Low photosynthetic parameters at 0 m 431 follow reported trends in the literature of decreases in both measurements with increasing 432 irradiances (for Laminaria digitata, Delebecq et al. 2011).

433

Respiration is a central process in kelp decomposition (de Bettignies *et al.* 2020b) and
measured increases in the rate of oxygen consumption were mirrored by a decline in the

436 detrital biomass. However, it is important to note that the measurements reflect the holobiont 437 respiration of Laminaria tissue together with its ensemble of microorganisms (Baedke et al. 438 2020). The results of this study reveal that the respiration response differed between the two 439 species across time. Detritus from *L. hyperborea* exhibited higher rates of respiration compared to L. ochroleuca over time in the 30 m treatment and only under surface conditions 440 441 was a linear increase in respiration detected for L. hyperborea. This differential response 442 between the species may be indicative of stress or higher biofilm activity associated with L. 443 hyperborea fragments. L. hyperborea degraded faster than L. ochroleuca at 15 m and 30 m, 444 suggesting that low light conditions may impede the regeneration of damaged tissue for L. 445 hyperborea which points to the role of light in determining the detrital fate of some species 446 (Hader et al. 1998; Swanson and Fox 2007). Furthermore, in some instances, during the 447 initial stages of degradation at 0 and 15 m, L. ochroleuca positively increased in biomass compared to L. hyperborea (Fig. 2). However, this trend was reversed after 56 days in the 0 448 449 m treatment when all L. ochroleuca fragments were completely degraded in sharp contrast to 450 the relatively intact fragments of L. hyperborea. 4.2 Considering the first 40 days of this trial, 451 this result is comparable, yet contrary to the findings of Pessarrodona et al.'s (2018b) in situ 452 study comparing the biomass loss from the same study species. Pessarrodona et al. (2018b) 453 report that L. ochroleuca lost biomass at a faster rate than L. hyperborea in spring, prior to 454 the latter shedding of old fronds. The present study separated the change in mass across 455 regular time intervals and elongated the temporal scale of degradation to 108 days, as well as 456 eliminating physical erosion as a mechanism of degradation, casting light on the purely 457 organic dimension of how kelp matter breaks down. Our results suggest that L. hyperborea 458 has the potential to be a more persistent spatial subsidy and thus may reside in the ecosystem 459 for longer under attenuated illumination. However, hydrodynamics and physical processes

460 such as abrasion and grazing may further confound elucidation of the decomposition process.
461 (Nielsen *et al.* 2004; Braeckman *et al.* 2019).

462

463 *4.2. Contextualizing the findings* 

464

These differences in persistence will become increasingly important as L. ochroleuca 465 466 gradually replaces L. hyperborea, in habitats where the two species coexist, (Teagle and 467 Smale 2018) and will be further exacerbated by the seasonal modification of detrital 468 production between the species; ultimately affecting the quality and supply of organic kelp 469 derived material entering the detrital pathway (Bishop et al. 2010). The extent to which 470 benthic ecosystems in the North East Atlantic are dependent on detritus derived from L. hyperborea remains unquantified. However, modifications in the turnover of organic 471 472 material, transport (Pedersen et al. 2005), trophic connectivity (Leclerc et al. 2013b), organic 473 matter content (Abdullah et al. 2017) and a homogenization of the nutrient supply from kelp 474 detritus derived from different species will likely have ramifying effects across food webs. 475

Extending the investigation to consider the degradation process across environmental 476 477 contexts revealed that other measured physiological processes of kelp detritus (NPP, GPP and  $\Phi$ PSII and  $F_v/F_m$ ) are not only species specific but also highly dependent on light availability. 478 479 Depth significantly affected 24-hour oxygen flux and the Species response to the effect of 480 Depth was significantly heterogeneous in the case of both respiration and the 24-hour model of oxygen flux (Fig. 3b and d). Therefore, considering the dynamic nature of detrital 481 482 transport, the depth to which detritus is exported significantly determines the carbon fixation, 483 respiration and photosynthetic performance of kelp material (Filbee-Dexter and Scheibling, 484 2016). Furthermore, detritus was clearly less productive as a function of decreasing irradiance

485 from 0 m > 15 m > 30 m (Fig. 4a). Photosynthetic capacity was critically impaired at 0 m, 486 probably as a result of photoinhibition (Delebecq *et al.* 2011), but remained mostly invariant 487 between 15 and 30 m. Although the activity of the photosynthetic apparatus was maintained 488 in low light conditions, the decline in oxygen production is indicative that detritus is a less effective primary producer at 30 m. The differing responses of respiration in the two species 489 490 over time and at different depths highlight that the process of degradation needs to be 491 considered across different environmental conditions with a temporal dimension. Species' 492 respiration fluctuated across time and their response was dependent on light attenuation, 493 which indicates that one species may have the physiological capacity to persist for longer 494 than its congener at a specific depth.

495

496 *4.3. Re-defining kelp detritus* 

497

498 An unexpected result was that L. ochroleuca fragments developed visible sorus tissue at the tissue 499 surface indicating that such fragments remain capable of maintaining reproductive functions (Fig. 500 S1). Moreover, this was detected first for two fragments during the final time period (T6) in July. 501 Visible sorus remained at the blade surface two independent L. ochroleuca fragments when the 502 experiment ended 108 days post fragment preparation in September. This time window is in 503 accordance with the reproductive period for L. ochroleuca (Pereira et al. 2019), further revealing the 504 metabolic competency of the kelps post-detachment. Further research would be necessary to 505 determine spore viability from such tissues. de Bettignies et al. (2020b) reported a similar 506 phenomenon for L. hyperborea in October after subjecting detrital fragments to 5 months of 507 degradation in situ. In terms of reproductive capacity, some of the energy generated by detrital 508 photosynthesis is invested into the generation of reproductive tissue which potentially has 509 considerable implications for the dispersal of these species. If current-borne kelp detritus can still

reproduce, then kelp populations structure is likely to be far more fluid than would be indicated by typical spore or gamete dispersal, which is low for individual sporophytes within a kelp forest (~ 5-200 m, Fredriksen *et al.* 1995). This phenomenon compliments the functional role of herbivores in increasing fertilisation success and dispersing kelp spores which germinate post-digestion (Ruz *et al.* 2018).

515

Another important outcome of the present study and other recent work on physiological 516 517 viability of macroalgal 'detritus' (de Bettignies et al. 2020b) is a questioning of the rationale 518 behind defining this material as 'detritus'. Currently, cast or detached macroalgal fragments 519 are considered as 'non-living' organic matter generated by the growth and production of 520 living organisms (Hagen et al. 2012): a viewpoint that is based upon terrestrial botanical 521 science. Although such tissues may be no longer attached, and as our data suggests, may be 522 in the process of slowly entering the detrital food web, they remain 'alive' and 523 physiologically competent for much longer than would be typical for tissues of land plants. 524 This 'productive necromass' – physiologically persistent and viable, unattached or 525 fragmented algal biomass - continues to photosynthesize and, in the right conditions, can 526 continue to fix carbon for months after it would otherwise be inaccurately defined as detrital. 527 Our study has demonstrated that kelp detritus can sustain productivity for long periods of 528 time and therefore detrital contribution to Blue Carbon is likely to be much greater than has 529 been previously accounted for. Accordingly, incorporating productivity from macroalgal 530 detritus could account for important increases to the contribution of macroalgae in the Blue 531 Carbon economy.

532

533 4.4 The role of kelp detritus in benthic ecosystems

535 The vast majority of kelp production enters the detrital pathway (about 82% according to Krumhansl 536 and Scheibling 2012), therefore fundamental variability in the respiration and photosynthetic 537 performance of kelp material across time and under different environmental conditions are important 538 for understanding the persistence and productivity of detrital resources. The composition of kelp forests and thus their detritus, will likely be modified as climate warming persists (Smale et al. 539 540 2015), with the gradual increase of HFS with high thermal affinities and gradual local extinctions of 541 native HFS with cooler thermal affinities (Wiens 2016). These replacements will likely impact many 542 aspects of the cycling of organic material, from the spatial subsidies exported kelp matter provides, 543 to the fitness of grazers and detritivores feeding upon it, and the rate of carbon sequestration into 544 longer residence forms in the benthos. Pessarrodona et al. (2018b) speculated about an alteration in 545 the functional importance of this detrital material due to a variation in the rate of supply from 546 different kelp species. Here we have shown that the continued biological activity of fragmented kelp tissues also differs between species, across time and environments, further altering the contribution 547 548 of kelp mass to spatial subsidies (Leclerc et al. 2013a).

549

550 This study provides a snapshot of the degradation dynamics of two kelps under controlled 551 conditions. There are numerous potential sources for error; for example a change in detrital 552 respiration could be attributed an upregulation of metabolic processes in L. hyperborea or to an 553 increase in oxygen consuming saprophytic bacteria and fungi (Fenchel and Jørgensen, 1977; 554 Williams *et al.* 2004). Furthermore, variation in species physiology cannot be generalized across the 555 entirety of benthic ecosystems in the North East Atlantic because despite advances in areas of low-556 moderate wave exposure (Smale et al. 2015), L. ochroleuca may not be able to fully replace L. 557 hyperborea in sites exposed to high wave exposure (Pessarrodona et al. 2018b) and therefore the 558 composition of detritus from such assemblages may remain relatively unchanged. Also, the role of 559 macrofaunal colonization and consumption (de Bettignies et al. 2020; Ramirez-Llodra et al. 2016) of

560 the kelps in question could change the degradation dynamics completely. Hargrave et al. (2016) 561 reported lower concentrations of grazer-deterring polyphenolics and flavonoids in L. ochroleuca than 562 in another common NE Atlantic congener: L. digitata, with higher grazing rate by herbivorous 563 gastropods in the former. Meanwhile, Pessarrodona et al. (2018b) found a similar herbivore preference for L. ochroleuca over L. hyperborea, recording a faster degradation of the former. If 564 565 detritivore preference for the more palatable L. ochroleuca mirrors that of grazers, then the 566 reconciliation of the slower degradation of L. ochroleuca in the earlier stages of the present study 567 with the faster *in situ* degradation of *L. ochroleuca* observed by Pessarrodona *et al.* (2018b) could be 568 attributed to mechanical effects, especially of saprovores aiding conversion of frond tissue into 569 coarse particulate organic matter and facilitating ingress by saprophytic micro-organisms. Future 570 study should therefore aim to evaluate the importance of the ecological consequences of 571 environmentally realistic deposits of macroalgal detritus with their attendant bacterial and 572 detritivorous assemblages and also continue to compare the detrital compositions from species at risk 573 of local extinction from a variety of range-expanding or invasive algae (Sorte et al. 2010), taking into 574 account different environmental contexts in which kelp degradation may occur, testing the degradation response in situ across a gradient of turbulence, and explicitly focusing on detritivores as 575 576 a driver of tissue fragmentation and a facilitator of micro-organismal colonization. These questions 577 have indeed been addressed in other contexts spanning from shallow shorelines to the deep sea 578 whilst the shallow subtidal has often been considered as a mere transitional deposition area. 579 However, we argue that detrital accumulations can exert measurable impacts on ecosystem 580 functioning and deserve enhanced attention.

581

582 **5.** CONCLUSION

583 Kelp fragments remained physiologically competent for 56 days and possibly reproductively 584 active for up to 108 days after they were cut from the thallus. The fragments' photosynthetic 585 apparatus continued to function adequately to allow short-term (~ 56 days in *L. ochroleuca*) 586 net gains in biomass which was sustained under ambient light levels. Light availability was the greatest determinant of photosynthetic performance, and net and gross primary 587 588 production, whilst light and interspecific differences dominated the response of respiration. 589 The range-expanding L. ochroleuca broke down more slowly under attenuated illumination, 590 challenging previous findings. We believe that a re-evaluation of recently formed macroalgal 591 detritus as 'living material' is due and should certainly be considered when evaluating the 592 functional integrity and spatial subsidies afforded by kelp forests. The predicted expansion of 593 the thermally tolerant species, L. ochroleuca, and replacement of the less tolerant L. 594 hyperborea across extensive areas is likely to alter the cycling of organic matter. Overall, 595 these findings demonstrate the indispensable need to consider detritus as an important autotrophic resource, even after exportation, depending on the environmental conditions. 596 597

# 598 DATA AVAILABILITY

599 Data will be archived in GitHub repository: <u>https://github.com/nadiafrontier/The-</u>
 600 <u>degradation-of-kelp-detritus.git</u>

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# 605 SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

- 606 Supplementary tables 1-4 contain abridged statistical tables following permanova, linear
- 607 mixed effect models and generalised last squares analysis to support the summary statistics608 quoted in the manuscript.

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- 620

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# Sustained productivity and respiration of degrading kelp detritus in the

# shallow benthos: detached or broken, but not dead.

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# Marine Environmental Research Highlights-

- The term 'detritus' should be revised when referring to kelp material
- Detached kelp material continues to photosynthesise and fix carbon for months
- Light availability strongly influences productivity and photosynthetic performance
- Material from warm-water and cold-water kelp species degrade at different rates
- The cycling of organic material will likely be modified in a changing climate

## **Declaration of interests**

 $\boxtimes$  The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. **(TICK)** 

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: