

Symbiotic nutrient cycling enables the long-term survival of *Aiptasia* in the absence of heterotrophic food sources

Nils Rådecker^{1*}, Anders Meibom^{1,2}

¹ Laboratory for Biological Geochemistry, School of Architecture, Civil and Environmental Engineering, École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne (EPFL), Lausanne, Switzerland

² Center for Advanced Surface Analysis, Institute of Earth Sciences, University of Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland

* to whom correspondence should be addressed: nils.radecker@epfl.ch

ORCID iDs

Nils Rådecker: [0000-0002-2387-8567](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2387-8567)

Anders Meibom: [0000-0002-4542-2819](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4542-2819)

Keywords

Aiptasia | heterotrophy | NanoSIMS | nitrogen limitation | photosymbiosis | Symbiodiniaceae

Author contributions

N.R. conceived and conducted the experiment and performed the sample and data analysis. N.R. and A.M. wrote and revised the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Funding

N.R. and A.M. are supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation, grants 200021_179092 and 205321_212614

Data availability

All associated data are available at zenodo.org.

Abstract

Phototrophic Cnidaria are mixotrophic organisms that can complement their heterotrophic diet with autotrophic nutrients assimilated by their algal endosymbionts. Metabolic models suggest that the translocation of photosynthates and their derivatives from the algae may be sufficient to cover the metabolic energy demands of the host. However, the importance of heterotrophy to the nutritional budget of these holobionts remains unclear. Here, we report on the long-term survival of the photosymbiotic anemone *Aiptasia* in the absence of heterotrophic food sources. Following one year of heterotrophic starvation, these anemones remained fully viable but showed an 85 % reduction in biomass compared to their regularly-fed counterparts. This shrinking was accompanied by a reduction in host protein content and algal density, indicative of severe nitrogen limitation. Nonetheless, isotopic labeling experiments combined with NanoSIMS imaging revealed that the contribution of autotrophic nutrients to the host metabolism remained unaffected due to an increase in algal photosynthesis and more efficient carbon translocation. Taken together, our results suggest that heterotrophic feeding is not essential to fulfilling the energy requirements of the holobiont on a one-year timescale. But, while symbiotic nutrient cycling effectively retains carbon in the holobiont over long time scales, our data suggest that heterotrophic feeding is a critical source of nitrogen required for holobiont growth under oligotrophic conditions.

46 Introduction

47 Photosymbiotic Cnidaria, such as corals and anemones, dominate shallow hard-bottom substrates in
48 the oligotrophic tropical ocean (Pandolfi 2002). The key to their evolutionary and ecological success
49 under these conditions lies in their association with endosymbiotic algae of the family
50 Symbiodiniaceae (Stanley 2006; Stanley and van de Schootbrugge 2009). Efficient nutrient exchange
51 in these symbioses couples the heterotrophic metabolism of the host with the autotrophic
52 metabolism of their algal symbionts (Yellowlees et al. 2008; Cunning et al. 2017). Consequently,
53 photosymbiotic Cnidaria are considered mixotrophic as they can acquire nutrients via heterotrophy
54 and autotrophy alike (Fox et al. 2018; Radice et al. 2019). Under oligotrophic conditions, this confers
55 an ecological advantage that enables these animals to outcompete other benthic organisms restricted
56 to either heterotrophic or autotrophic nutrient sources (Muscatine and Porter 1977; McCook 2001).

57 In the stable symbiosis, the algal symbionts translocate a large proportion of their photosynthates in
58 the form of sugars and sterols to their host (Falkowski et al. 1984; Burriesci et al. 2012; Tremblay et
59 al. 2014; Hambleton et al. 2019). This carbon translocation fuels the host metabolism and may be
60 sufficient to cover the host's energy demand under optimal environmental conditions (Davies 1984;
61 Rinkevich 1989; Tremblay et al. 2012). The translocated photosynthates have been referred to as 'junk
62 food' because their low nitrogen content limits their potential for anabolic incorporation (Falkowski
63 et al. 1984; Dubinsky and Jokiel 1994). Hence, the utilization of autotrophic nutrients by both
64 symbiotic partners depends, in part, on their access to inorganic nitrogen sources from the
65 surrounding seawater (Davies 1984; Morris et al. 2019; Rädercker et al. 2021). However, under the
66 oligotrophic conditions that prevail in the tropical ocean inorganic nitrogen availability is limited
67 (O'Neil and Capone 2008).

68 In contrast, heterotrophic nutrient sources have a proportionally higher nitrogen content allowing
69 efficient anabolic assimilation (Hughes et al. 2010). There is ample evidence demonstrating the
70 nutritional benefits of heterotrophic feeding, e.g., in the form of organic nitrogen or vitamins for both
71 symbiotic partners (Goreau et al. 1971; Porter 1976; Houlbrèque and Ferrier-Pagès 2009). As such,
72 high rates of heterotrophic feeding may enable corals to compensate for reduced autotrophic nutrient
73 availability following bleaching; i.e., the stress-induced breakdown of the cnidarian-algal symbiosis
74 (Grottoli et al. 2006; Anthony et al. 2009). However, as our understanding of potential prey dynamics
75 (e.g., zooplankton abundance) and cnidarian grazing on coral reefs remains limited (Lowe and Falter
76 2015), the importance of heterotrophic nutrients for sustaining the stable cnidarian-algal symbiosis is
77 less clear.

78 Here, we performed a starvation experiment using the photosymbiotic sea anemone *Aiptasia* to study
79 the role of heterotrophic nutrient acquisition in symbiosis. For this, we reared *Aiptasia* for one year in
80 the absence of any heterotrophic nutrient sources. This permitted us to examine the effects of
81 heterotrophic starvation on the symbiosis in light of the underlying carbon and nitrogen cycling and
82 explore the limits of autotrophic nutrient acquisition in the photosymbiotic Cnidaria.

83 Material & Methods

84 *Animal husbandry & experimental design*

85 The experiments and measurements were performed on the photosymbiotic cnidarian model
86 organism *Aiptasia*, i.e., *Exaiptasia diaphana* (Puntin et al. 2022). We used the clonal host line CC7 with
87 its native algal symbiont community dominated by the *Symbiodinium linucheae* strain SSA01
88 (Sunagawa et al. 2009; Grawunder et al. 2015). Animal cultures were reared in 2 L acrylic food
89 containers filled with artificial seawater (35 PSU, Pro-Reef, Tropic Marin, Switzerland). Artificial
90 seawater was freshly prepared in the dark to minimize any potential microbial contamination. Culture
91 stocks were kept at a constant temperature of 20 °C under a 12 h: 12 H light-dark cycle (photosynthetic

92 active radiation = $50 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) using an Algaetron 230 incubator (Photo System Instruments, Czech
93 Republic). Animals were fed once a week with freshly hatched *Artemia salina* nauplii (Sanders GSLA,
94 USA) followed by a complete water exchange and removal of biofilms.

95 For the experiment, all animals were reared under the same conditions as outlined above for one year.
96 However, while half of the animals were fed weekly with *Artemia* nauplii (regularly fed control), the
97 other half was reared in the absence of any food sources (heterotrophically starved). Apart from this,
98 all culturing parameters were kept identical, including the weekly cleaning and water exchange.

99 *Phenotypic characterization*

100 Following the one-year experiment, treatment responses were recorded. First, photos of
101 representative phenotypes for each of the treatments were taken with an OM-1 camera and a 60 mm
102 f2.8 macro objective (OM System, Japan) using identical illumination and exposure settings. Then,
103 three animals were collected from each treatment group, transferred to a pre-weighed 1.5 mL
104 Eppendorf tube, and homogenized in 500 μL Milli-Q water using a PT1200E immersion dispenser
105 (Kinematica, Switzerland).

106 Host and algal symbiont fractions were immediately separated by centrifugation (3000 g, 3 min) and
107 the host supernatant was transferred into a new pre-weighed 1.5 mL tube, flash-frozen in liquid
108 nitrogen, and stored at $-20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for later analysis. The algal symbiont pellet was resuspended in 500 μL
109 Milli-Q water and rinsed by one additional centrifugation and resuspension step. Algal symbiont
110 concentrations were quantified in three technical replicates per sample based on cell shape and
111 chlorophyll autofluorescence using a CellDrop cell counter (DeNovix, USA). The protein content in the
112 defrosted host supernatant was quantified in three technical replicates using the Pierce Rapid Gold
113 BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Algal
114 concentrations and host protein content were extrapolated to the initial sample volume and
115 normalized to holobiont biomass. Holobiont biomass was approximated as dry weight. For this, host
116 and symbiont fractions were dried at $45 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ until the weight was stable and the initial weight of empty
117 tubes was subtracted from the final weight. The weight of host and symbiont fractions was corrected
118 for aliquots taken for sample measurements to approximate the dry weight of the holobiont as a
119 whole, i.e., host + symbiont fraction.

120 *Isotope labeling & NanoSIMS imaging*

121 To study treatment effects on symbiotic interactions, we quantified inorganic carbon and nitrogen
122 assimilation and translocation in the symbiosis. For this, three animals from each treatment were
123 transferred to 50 mL glass vials. For isotopic labeling, vials were filled with minimal artificial seawater
124 medium (35 PSU, pH 8.1, 355.6 mM NaCl, 46.2 mM MgCl_2 , 10.8 mM Na_2SO_4 , 9.0 mM CaCl_2 , 7.9 mM,
125 KCl; (Harrison et al. 1980)) containing 2.5 mM $\text{NaH}^{13}\text{CO}_3$ and 10 μM $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$. Animals were incubated
126 for 6 h in the light at their regular culture conditions before being transferred to a fixative solution
127 (2.5 % glutaraldehyde and 1 % paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M Sorensen's phosphate buffer). Samples
128 were fixed for 1 h at room temperature followed by 24 h at $4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ before being stored in a preservative
129 solution (1 % paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M Sorensen's phosphate buffer) at $4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ until further processing.
130 Within four days of fixation, samples were dissected and individual tentacles were processed for resin
131 embedding. As such, samples were dehydrated in a series of increasing ethanol concentrations (30 %
132 for 10 min, 50 % for 10 min, 2 x 70 % for 10 min, 3 x 90 % for 10 min, and 3 x 100 % for 10 min) and
133 transferred to acetone (100 % for 10 min). Dehydrated samples were gradually infiltrated with SPURR
134 resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences, USA) at increasing concentrations (25 % for 30 min, 50 % for 30
135 min, 75 % for 1 h, and 100 % overnight) and the resin was polymerized at $65 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 48 h. Embedded
136 samples were cut into semi-thin sections (200 nm) using an Ultracut E ultramicrotome (Leica
137 Microsystems, Germany), transferred onto glow-discharged silicon wafers, and sputter-coated with a
138 12 nm gold layer using an EM SCD050 (Leica Microsystems).

139 These samples were analyzed with a NanoSIMS 50L instrument (Hoppe et al. 2013). To remove the
140 metal coating, target sample areas were pre-sputtered for 5 minutes with a primary beam of ca. 6 pA.
141 Data were collected by rastering a 16 keV primary ion beam of ca. 2 pA Cs⁺ focused to a spot size of
142 about 150 nm across the sample surface of 40 x 40 μm with a resolution of 256 x 256 pixels and a pixel
143 dwell time of 5 ms. The secondary ions ¹²C₂⁻, ¹²C¹³C⁻, ¹²C¹⁴N⁻, and ¹²C¹⁵N⁻ were simultaneously collected
144 in electron multipliers at a mass resolution of about 9000 (Cameca definition), sufficient to resolve
145 potentially problematic mass interferences. For each sample, seven to eight areas were analyzed in
146 five consecutive image layers. The resulting isotope maps were processed using the ImageJ plug-in
147 OpenMIMS (<https://github.com/BWHCNI/OpenMIMS/wiki>). Mass images were drift- and dead-time
148 corrected, the individual planes were added and ¹⁵N/¹⁴N maps were expressed as hue-saturation-
149 intensity images, where the color scale represents the isotope ratio. ¹⁵N assimilation was recorded as
150 atom % excess (in comparison to unlabeled controls) by drawing regions of interest (ROIs) based on
151 ¹²C¹⁴N⁻ maps around individual symbiont cells as well as gastrodermal tissue (excluding symbiont cells)
152 in each of the images (see data file (Rädecker and Meibom 2022)). Due to the clonal nature of Aiptasia
153 and the identical environmental conditions of animals within the same treatment, individual ROIs
154 were considered independent measurements across animal replicates for the purpose of this study.

155 *Statistical analyses*

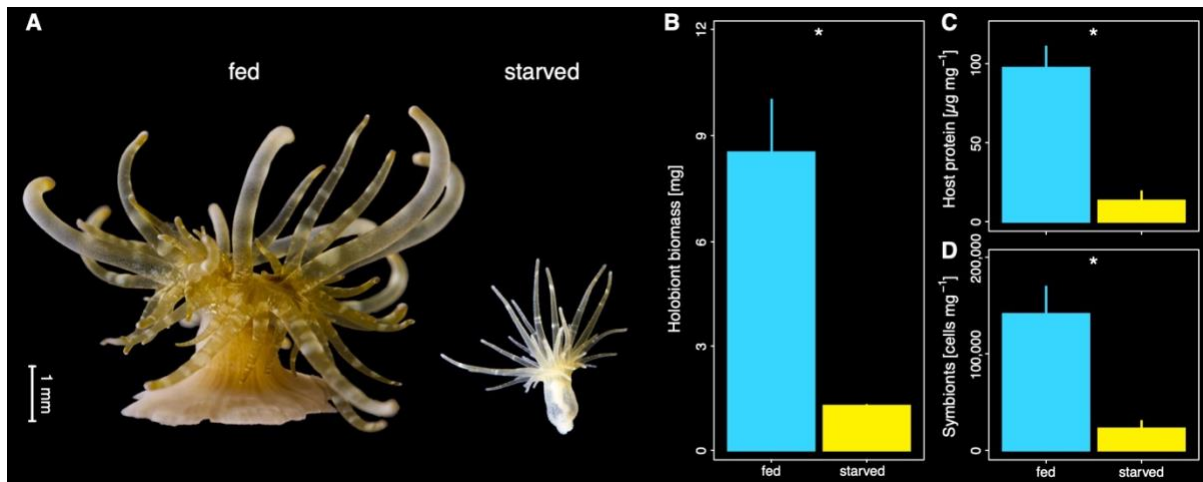
156 Treatment effects on phenotypic responses, i.e., biomass, host protein content, and symbiont density,
157 were analyzed using two-sided unpaired Student's *t*-tests. Isotope ratios from NanoSIMS analysis were
158 square root transformed to meet model assumptions and analyzed with linear models (LM) using the
159 respective symbiotic partner (host/symbiont) and treatment (fed/starved) as explanatory variables.
160 To test individual differences between groups LMs were followed up with a Tukey HSD post hoc
161 comparison.

162 **Results**

163 *Holobiont biomass loss in the absence of heterotrophic nutrients*

164 After one year of husbandry in the absence of heterotrophic food sources, Aiptasia remained viable
165 but had ceased any detectable asexual propagation via pedal lacerates. Starved animals showed
166 pronounced phenotypic differences compared to their regularly fed counterparts. Specifically,
167 starvation resulted in a reduction in body size, a paler appearance, and a loss of 85 % of their dry
168 weight (Fig. 1A,B; Student's *t*-test, $t = 4.71$, $p = 0.042$). This decline in holobiont biomass was, at least
169 in part, driven by a strong decline in host protein content and algal symbiont density, which both
170 decreased by more than 80 % on average when normalized to holobiont biomass (Fig. 1C,D; for host
171 protein: Student's *t*-test, $t = 5.39$, $p = 0.014$; for algal symbiont density: Student's *t*-test, $t = 3.85$ $p =$
172 0.047 for algal symbiont densities).

173

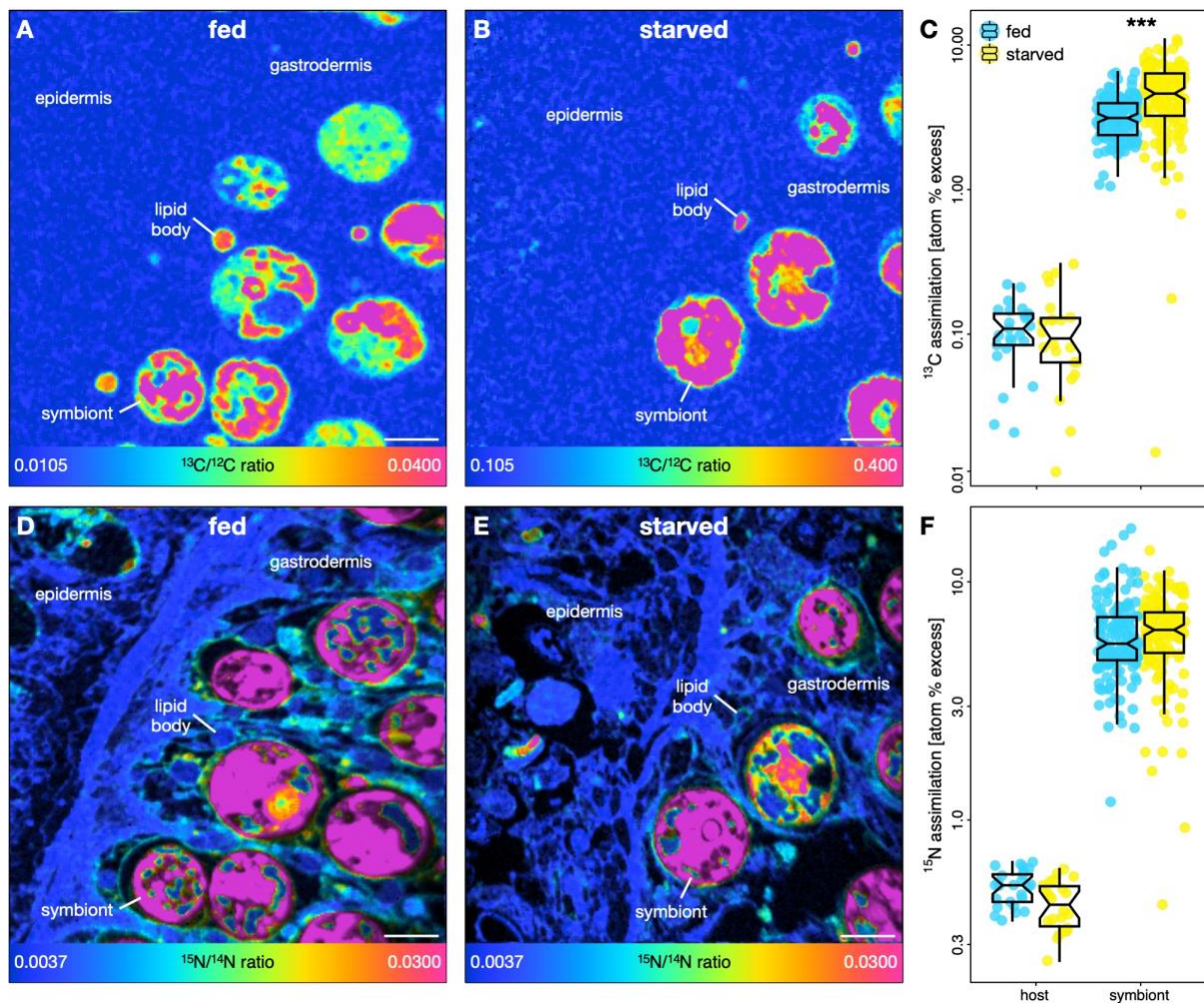


174
175 **Fig. 1 | Phenotypic response to heterotrophic starvation in Aiptasia.** (A) Representative photos illustrating the phenotype
176 of animals that were regularly fed (left) or reared for one year without heterotrophic food sources (right). (B) Holobiont
177 biomass expressed as dry weight of fed and starved Aiptasia. (C) Protein content of the host tissue per holobiont biomass of
178 fed and starved Aiptasia. (D) Algal symbiont density per holobiont biomass of fed and starved Aiptasia. Asterisks indicate
179 significant effects between treatments (* $p < 0.05$).

180 *Enhanced photosynthetic performance of algal symbionts sustains host metabolism during*
181 *heterotrophic starvation*

182 NanoSIMS imaging revealed that metabolic interactions in the cnidarian-algal symbiosis remained
183 remarkably stable during heterotrophic starvation despite the pronounced phenotypic response of
184 the Aiptasia holobiont. Consistent with previous reports (Rädecker et al. 2018), ¹³C enrichment from
185 ¹³C-bicarbonate assimilation/translocation was highest in the algal symbionts with host ¹³C enrichment
186 primarily observed in lipid bodies (Fig. 2A,B; host/symbiont differences: LL, $F = 666.53$, $p < 0.001$).
187 Despite drastic declines in algal symbiont densities during heterotrophic starvation, overall ¹³C
188 enrichment remained stable in the gastrodermal tissue of the host (Tukey's HSD, $p = 1.000$). This was
189 likely explained by the enhanced photosynthetic performance of algal symbionts reflected in a nearly
190 50 % increase in their ¹³C enrichment (Fig. 2C; Tukey's HSD, $p < 0.001$).

191 The constant availability of photosynthates in the symbiosis during heterotrophic starvation was
192 reflected in the maintained anabolic assimilation of ¹⁵N-ammonium by both symbiotic partners.
193 Consistent with previous studies, the algal symbionts acquired the highest ¹⁵N enrichments from
194 ammonium assimilation (Pernice et al. 2012; Rädecker et al. 2018), but the host also exhibited clearly
195 measurable ¹⁵N enrichments in both epidermal and gastrodermal tissue layers (Fig. 2D,E;
196 host/symbiont differences: LM, $F = 660.32$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, heterotrophic starvation did not alter the
197 ability for ammonium assimilation of either symbiotic partner (Fig. 2F; Tukey's HSD, $p = 0.968$ for host
198 gastrodermis, $p = 0.901$ for algal symbionts).



199
200 **Fig. 2 | NanoSIMS imaging of symbiotic carbon and nitrogen cycling in fed and starved Aiptasia.** (A,B) Representative
201 NanoSIMS images illustrating $\text{H}^{13}\text{CO}_3^-$ assimilation and translocation as $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ isotope ratio maps in regularly fed and starved
202 Aiptasia. (C) Corresponding boxplots and data points of ^{13}C enrichment for the host gastrodermis and the algal symbiont
203 cells. (D,E) Representative NanoSIMS images illustrating $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ assimilation as $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ isotope ratio maps in regularly fed
204 and starved Aiptasia. (F) Corresponding boxplots of ^{15}N enrichment for the host gastrodermis and the algal symbiont cells.
205 NanoSIMS ratio maps are shown as hue saturation images with blue representing no/low enrichment and pink representing
206 the highest level of enrichment. Note the logarithmic scale for C,F. Scale bars are 5 μm . Asterisks indicate significant effects
207 between treatments ($***p < 0.001$).

208 Discussion

209 The association with autotrophic endosymbiotic algae has enabled heterotrophic Cnidaria to thrive in
210 the oligotrophic tropical ocean (Muscatine and Porter 1977; Stanley 2006). The long-term starvation
211 experiment presented here emphasizes the remarkable trophic plasticity that this symbiosis confers
212 upon these cnidarian holobionts. Because of the highly efficient symbiotic nutrient exchange and
213 recycling, Aiptasia were able to survive without heterotrophic feeding for at least one year. At the
214 same time, starved animals showed clear signs of nutrient limitation, including reduced biomass, host
215 protein content, and symbiont density, underscoring the long-term importance of heterotrophic
216 feeding for body mass maintenance and growth.

217 *Autotrophic nutrient recycling can sustain the cnidarian-algal symbiosis for extended periods of time*

218 Recent work suggests that the lack of heterotrophic feeding could shift the cnidarian-algal symbiosis
219 towards parasitic interactions that reduce the capacity of the host to survive starvation (Peng et al.
220 2020). However, here we show that, even after one year of complete heterotrophic starvation, the
221 translocation of photosynthates by algal symbionts remained sufficient to maintain the basal

222 metabolic requirement of the host. Indeed, patterns of host ^{13}C enrichment (Fig. 2A-C) were not
223 affected by heterotrophic starvation indicating that photosynthate availability for the host was not
224 impaired despite an 85 % reduction in algal symbiont biomass in the holobiont (Fig. 1B). This implies
225 that carbon translocation by individual algal cells must have significantly increased in response to
226 heterotrophic starvation. Indeed, we observed a 50 % increase in ^{13}C enrichment among the algal
227 symbionts in starved animals (Fig. 2C), clearly indicating enhanced photosynthetic performance
228 required for higher relative translocation rates. Similar, albeit less pronounced, trends were previously
229 reported in a three-month starvation experiment using *Aiptasia* (Davy and Cook 2001). These authors
230 proposed that the increase in algal photosynthetic performance in starved animals was the result of
231 reduced intra-specific competition for CO_2 . Indeed, reduced algal symbiont densities likely reduce
232 competition for CO_2 (Rädecker et al. 2017; Krueger et al. 2020). However, in starved animals, this effect
233 could, in part, be masked by the reduced catabolic CO_2 production in the holobiont due to the lack of
234 heterotrophic prey digestion by the host. Our data point to an additional mechanism that could
235 promote enhanced photosynthate release by algal symbionts in the absence of heterotrophy: nitrogen
236 starvation.

237 *Nitrogen limitation shapes the starvation response of Aiptasia*

238 In the stable symbiosis, low nitrogen availability limits the anabolic incorporation of photosynthates
239 in the algal symbiont metabolism (Rädecker et al. 2021; Cui et al. 2022a, 2022b). This nitrogen
240 limitation is thus not only crucial in regulating algal growth but also ensures the translocation of excess
241 photosynthates to the host (Muscatine and Porter 1977; Falkowski et al. 1984). The host passively
242 modulates *in hospite* nitrogen availability for algal symbionts through ammonium assimilation and
243 release in its glutamate metabolism (Rahav et al. 1989; Rädecker et al. 2021; Cui et al. 2022a). Here,
244 we found a proportional decline of algal symbiont density and host protein content in
245 heterotrophically starved *Aiptasia*. Given that both algal growth and host protein synthesis depend on
246 nitrogen availability, the data suggest that starvation caused severe nitrogen limitation. This is
247 consistent with previous work documenting increases in the carbon-to-nitrogen ratio and lipid content
248 of Symbiodiniaceae in unfed *Aiptasia* (Cook et al. 1988; Cook and Muller-Parker 1992; Muller-Parker
249 et al. 1996). Strongly reduced nitrogen availability could thus drive the enhanced translocation of
250 photosynthates by the algal symbionts observed here and explain the long-term survival of *Aiptasia*
251 during heterotrophic starvation.

252 Interestingly, the reduced nitrogen availability did not cause changes to the ammonium assimilation
253 rates by either symbiotic partner; both continued to efficiently assimilate ammonium from the
254 surrounding seawater in the absence of heterotrophic nutrients. Because ammonium assimilation
255 depends on the availability of carbon backbones from the TCA cycle (Cui et al. 2022b), this observation
256 also suggests that starved holobionts did not experience severe carbon limitation. Yet, the starved
257 holobionts showed severe shrinkage and a significant decline in biomass indicative of malnutrition in
258 the present study. Under the current experimental conditions, environmental ammonium assimilation
259 was thus not sufficient to fulfill the nitrogen requirements of the holobiont. In our experiments, the
260 availability of seawater ammonium was possibly limited by the rate of water exchange (once per week
261 as for the entire animal culture stock). It is thus plausible that higher ammonium concentrations would
262 have allowed the heterotrophically starved *Aiptasia* to maintain a larger fraction of their original
263 biomass. Yet, in the environmental context of the oligotrophic ocean, photosymbiotic animals are
264 likely similarly limited in their access to environmental ammonium (O'Neil and Capone 2008). In this
265 context, our findings illustrate the importance of heterotrophic feeding by the host for the long-term
266 maintenance of the cnidarian-algal symbiosis biomass. While symbiotic nutrient exchange and
267 recycling may be sufficient to cover the carbon and energy demands of the symbiotic partners on a
268 time scale of at least one year, heterotrophic feeding is not only required for long-term survival but
269 also required for propagation and net growth of the holobiont.

270 Conclusion

271 We illustrated the immense trophic plasticity of the cnidarian-algal symbiosis by rearing *Aiptasia* for
272 an entire year in the complete absence of heterotrophic feeding. Our findings reveal that efficient
273 symbiotic nutrient exchange and recycling are sufficient to sustain the basic metabolic requirements
274 of both symbiotic partners over extended periods of time. Yet, under long-term exposure to highly
275 oligotrophic conditions, the assimilation of environmental inorganic nitrogen will be insufficient to
276 support the nutritional requirements of the holobiont. Heterotrophic feeding thus represents an
277 essential source of nitrogen for holobiont growth. Under oligotrophic conditions, mixotrophy thereby
278 provides a nutritional advantage to photosymbiotic cnidarians that in part explains their ability to
279 outcompete other organisms restricted to either autotrophic or heterotrophic nutrient acquisition.

280 Acknowledgments

281 We are grateful to Dr. Claudia Pogoreutz and Gaëlle Toullec for their help with animal culture
282 maintenance. We thank Jean Daraspe for his help with sample processing and Dr. Stéphane Escrig and
283 Florent Plane for their assistance and support with NanoSIMS measurements.

284 References

- 285 Anthony KRN, Hoogenboom MO, Maynard JA, Grottoli AG, Middlebrook R (2009) Energetics approach to predicting mortality risk from
286 environmental stress: a case study of coral bleaching. *Funct Ecol* 23:539–550
- 287 Burriesci MS, Raab TK, Pringle JR (2012) Evidence that glucose is the major transferred metabolite in dinoflagellate--cnidarian symbiosis. *J*
288 *Exp Biol* 215:3467–3477
- 289 Cook CB, D'Elia CF, Muller-Parker G (1988) Host feeding and nutrient sufficiency for zooxanthellae in the sea anemone *Aiptasia pallida*. *Mar*
290 *Biol* 98:253–262
- 291 Cook CB, Muller-Parker G (1992) Ammonium enhancement of dark carbon fixation and nitrogen limitation in symbiotic zooxanthellae: effects
292 of feeding and starvation of the sea anemone *Aiptasia pallida*. *Limnology and* 37:131–139
- 293 Cui G, Liew YJ, Konciute MK, Zhan Y, Hung S-H, Thistle J, Gastoldi L, Schmidt-Roach S, Dekker J, Aranda M (2022a) Nutritional control regulates
294 symbiont proliferation and life history in coral-dinoflagellate symbiosis. *BMC Biol* 20:103
- 295 Cui G, Mi J, Moret A, Zhong H, Hung S-H, Al-Babili S, Aranda M (2022b) Nitrogen competition is the general mechanism underlying cnidarian-
296 Symbiodiniaceae symbioses. *bioRxiv* 2022.06.30.498212
- 297 Cunning R, Muller EB, Gates RD, Nisbet RM (2017) A dynamic bioenergetic model for coral-*Symbiodinium* symbioses and coral bleaching as
298 an alternate stable state. *J Theor Biol* 431:49–62
- 299 Davies PS (1984) The role of zooxanthellae in the nutritional energy requirements of *Pocillopora eydouxi*. *Coral Reefs* 2:181–186
- 300 Davy S, Cook C (2001) The relationship between nutritional status and carbon flux in the zooxanthellate sea anemone *Aiptasia pallida*. *Mar*
301 *Biol* 139:999–1005
- 302 Dubinsky Z, Jokiel PL (1994) Ratio of energy and nutrient fluxes regulates symbiosis between zooxanthellae and corals. *Pacific Science*
303 48:313–324
- 304 Falkowski PG, Dubinsky Z, Muscatine L, Porter JW (1984) Light and the bioenergetics of a symbiotic coral. *Bioscience* 34:705–709
- 305 Fox MD, Williams GJ, Johnson MD, Radice VZ, Zgliczynski BJ, Kelly ELA, Rohwer FL, Sandin SA, Smith JE (2018) Gradients in primary production
306 predict trophic strategies of mixotrophic corals across spatial scales. *Curr Biol* 28:3355–3363.e4
- 307 Goreau TF, Goreau NI, Yonge CM (1971) Reef corals: autotrophs or heterotrophs? *Biol Bull* 141:247–260
- 308 Grawunder D, Hambleton EA, Bucher M, Wolfowicz I, Bechtoldt N, Guse A (2015) Induction of gametogenesis in the cnidarian endosymbiosis
309 model *Aiptasia* sp. *Sci Rep* 5:15677
- 310 Grottoli AG, Rodrigues LJ, Palardy JE (2006) Heterotrophic plasticity and resilience in bleached corals. *Nature* 440:1186–1189
- 311 Hambleton EA, Jones VAS, Maegele I, Kvskoff D, Sachsenheimer T, Guse A (2019) Sterol transfer by atypical cholesterol-binding NPC2
312 proteins in coral-algal symbiosis. *Elife* 8:
- 313 Harrison PJ, Waters RE, Taylor FJR (1980) A broad spectrum artificial sea water medium for coastal and open ocean phytoplankton. *J Phycol*
314 16:28–35
- 315 Hoppe P, Cohen S, Meibom A (2013) NanoSIMS: Technical aspects and applications in cosmochemistry and biological geochemistry.

- 316 Geostandards and Geoanalytical Research 37:111–154
- 317 Houlbrèque F, Ferrier-Pagès C (2009) Heterotrophy in tropical scleractinian corals. *Biol Rev Camb Philos Soc* 84:1–17
- 318 Hughes AD, Grottoli AG, Pease TK, Matsui Y (2010) Acquisition and assimilation of carbon in non-bleached and bleached corals. *Mar Ecol*
319 *Prog Ser* 420:91–101
- 320 Krueger T, Horwitz N, Bodin J, Giovani M-E, Escrig S, Fine M, Meibom A (2020) Intracellular competition for nitrogen controls dinoflagellate
321 population density in corals. *Proc Biol Sci* 287:20200049
- 322 McCook L (2001) Competition between corals and algal turfs along a gradient of terrestrial influence in the nearshore central Great Barrier
323 Reef. *Coral Reefs* 19:419–425
- 324 Morris LA, Voolstra CR, Quigley KM, Bourne DG, Bay LK (2019) Nutrient Availability and Metabolism Affect the Stability of Coral–
325 Symbiodiniaceae Symbioses. *Trends Microbiol* 27:678–689
- 326 Muller-Parker G, Lee KW, Cook CB (1996) Changes in the ultrastructure of symbiotic zooxanthellae (*Symbiodinium* sp., Dinophyceae) in fed
327 and starved sea anemones maintained under high and low light. *Journal of Phycology* 32:987–994
- 328 Muscatine L, Porter JW (1977) Reef corals: mutualistic symbioses adapted to nutrient-poor environments. *Bioscience* 27:454–460
- 329 O’Neil JM, Capone DG (2008) Nitrogen cycling in coral reef environments. *Nitrogen in the marine environment*. Elsevier New York, pp 949–
330 989
- 331 Pandolfi J (2002) Coral community dynamics at multiple scales. *Coral Reefs* 21:13–23
- 332 Peng S-E, Moret A, Chang C, Mayfield AB, Ren Y-T, Chen W-NU, Giordano M, Chen C-S (2020) A shift away from mutualism under food-
333 deprived conditions in an anemone-dinoflagellate association. *PeerJ* 8:e9745
- 334 Pernice M, Meibom A, Van Den Heuvel A, Kopp C, Domart-Coulon I, Hoegh-Guldberg O, Dove S (2012) A single-cell view of ammonium
335 assimilation in coral–dinoflagellate symbiosis. *ISME J* 6:1314–1324
- 336 Porter JW (1976) Autotrophy, heterotrophy, and resource partitioning in Caribbean reef-building corals. *Am Nat* 110:731–742
- 337 Puntin G, Sweet M, Fraune S, Medina M, Sharp K, Weis VM, Ziegler M (2022) Harnessing the power of model organisms to unravel microbial
338 functions in the coral holobiont. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* e0005322
- 339 Rådecker N, Meibom A (2022) Data for “Symbiotic nutrient cycling enables the long-term survival of *Aiptasia* in the absence of heterotrophic
340 food sources.”
- 341 Rådecker N, Pogoreutz C, Gegner HM, Cárdenas A, Roth F, Bougoure J, Guagliardo P, Wild C, Pernice M, Raina J-B, Meibom A, Voolstra CR
342 (2021) Heat stress destabilizes symbiotic nutrient cycling in corals. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 118:
- 343 Rådecker N, Pogoreutz C, Wild C, Voolstra CR (2017) Stimulated Respiration and Net Photosynthesis in *Cassiopeia* sp. during Glucose
344 Enrichment Suggests in hospite CO₂ Limitation of Algal Endosymbionts. *Front Mar Sci* 4:16
- 345 Rådecker N, Raina J-B, Pernice M, Perna G, Guagliardo P, Kilburn MR, Aranda M, Voolstra CR (2018) Using *Aiptasia* as a model to study
346 metabolic interactions in cnidarian-*Symbiodinium* symbioses. *Front Physiol* 9:214
- 347 Radice VZ, Brett MT, Fry B, Fox MD, Hoegh-Guldberg O, Dove SG (2019) Evaluating coral trophic strategies using fatty acid composition and
348 indices. *PLoS One* 14:e0222327
- 349 Rahav O, Dubinsky Z, Achituv Y, Falkowski PG, Smith DC (1989) Ammonium metabolism in the zooxanthellate coral, *Stylophora pistillata*.
350 *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B Biological Sciences* 236:325–337
- 351 Rinkevich B (1989) The contribution of photosynthetic products to coral reproduction. *Mar Biol* 101:259–263
- 352 Stanley GD Jr (2006) Photosymbiosis and the evolution of modern coral reefs. *Science* 312:857–858
- 353 Stanley GD, van de Schootbrugge B (2009) The evolution of the coral–algal symbiosis. In: van Oppen M.J.H., Lough J.M. (eds) *Coral bleaching:*
354 *patterns, processes, causes and consequences*. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, pp 7–19
- 355 Sunagawa S, Wilson EC, Thaler M, Smith ML, Caruso C, Pringle JR, Weis VM, Medina M, Schwarz JA (2009) Generation and analysis of
356 transcriptomic resources for a model system on the rise: the sea anemone *Aiptasia pallida* and its dinoflagellate endosymbiont. *BMC*
357 *Genomics* 10:258
- 358 Tremblay P, Grover R, Maguer JF, Hoogenboom M, Ferrier-Pagès C (2014) Carbon translocation from symbiont to host depends on irradiance
359 and food availability in the tropical coral *Stylophora pistillata*. *Coral Reefs* 33:1–13
- 360 Tremblay P, Grover R, Maguer JF, Legendre L, Ferrier-Pagès C (2012) Autotrophic carbon budget in coral tissue: a new ¹³C-based model of
361 photosynthate translocation. *J Exp Biol* 215:1384–1393
- 362 Yellowlees D, Rees TAV, Leggat W (2008) Metabolic interactions between algal symbionts and invertebrate hosts. *Plant Cell Environ* 31:679–
363 694