1

Montastraea cavernosa corallite structure demonstrates 'shallow-only' and 'depth-

generalist' morphotypes across shallow and mesophotic depth zones in the Gulf of

Mexico

Michael S Studivan[1]*, Gillian Milstein[2], Joshua D. Voss[1]

[1] Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute, Florida Atlantic University, Fort Pierce, FL, USA

[2] Corning School of Ocean Sciences, Maine Maritime Academy, Castine, ME, USA

* Corresponding author

E-mail: studivanms@gmail.com (MSS)

Abstract

This study assessed morphological variation in corallite structure of the depth-generalist coral *Montastraea cavernosa* across shallow and mesophotic coral ecosystems in the Gulf of Mexico (GOM). Among eight corallite metrics examined, corallite diameters were smaller and spacing was greater in mesophotic corals as compared to shallow corals. Additional corallite variation, including greater corallite height of mesophotic samples, were hypothesized to be photoadaptive responses to low light environments. Although comparison of shallow and mesophotic *M. cavernosa* was the initial objective of the study, multivariate analyses revealed two distinct morphotypes able to be identified by the significant variation in corallite spacing with >90% accuracy. A 'shallow-only' morphotype was characterized by larger, more closely-spaced corallites, while a 'depth-generalist' type exhibited smaller, further-spaced corallites. The depth-generalist morphotype comprised the majority of mesophotic *M. cavernosa* colonies sampled from sites in the northwest GOM including the Flower Garden Banks (FGB), Bright Bank, and McGrail Bank. A combination of both morphotypes were found at shallow depths in the FGB. Conversely, in the southeast GOM, the shallow-only morphotype was observed in shallow Dry Tortugas. Mesophotic *M. cavernosa* at Pulley Ridge were comparable to the shallow-only morphotype in terms of corallite spacing but shared morphological similarities with mesophotic corals for other measured characters, likely representing a hybrid morphology. The variable presence of the morphotypes across sites likely indicates a genotypic influence on corallite morphology, as there was a slight, but significant, impact of morphotype on genetic differentiation within the FGB. Patterns of increased algal symbiont (Symbiodiniaceae) density and chlorophyll concentration were retained in the depth-generalist morphotype even at shallow depths, suggesting multiple photoadaptive strategies between morphotypes. Despite the observed

41   polymorphism in shallow and mesophotic *M. cavernosa*, the implications for these

42   morphological differences in coral physiology and fitness are not fully known, although some

43   evidence suggests skeletal optical properties may influence bleaching resilience.

45   Introduction

Using morphology as the sole method of species delineation can be confounded in

scleractinian corals due to the considerable morphological variation observed within some

species [1–6]. Occurrences of homologous morphological characteristics among coral species

that are genetically distant from one another suggest further limitations for taxonomy based

solely on morphology [7]. In one notable case in the Tropical Western Atlantic (TWA), high

levels of skeletal variation observed in the *Orbicella* (previously *Montastraea) annularis* species

complex, in conjunction with observed niche partitioning, resulted in the split of the complex

into three sister species [8–10]. With additional genotyping efforts, *M. cavernosa* was

determined to be the only species within the genus *Montastraea*, while the remaining three

species formerly of the *M. annularis* species complex were reassigned to the genus *Orbicella* [5].

In other cases, however, some corals can demonstrate remarkable levels of morphological

variation across environments.

Variation in skeletal structure within a species is thought to be the interactive result of

environmental stimuli and genotype. There is debate whether genotype contributes more heavily

to coral morphology [11], or whether a combination of both genotype and environmental

conditions act as simultaneous drivers [9,12,13]. Tests of environmental versus genotypic

influence on phenotype through reciprocal transplant experiments have demonstrated that the

environment has significant influence on coral morphology, but that genotype may limit the

degree of morphological plasticity [14]. Previous studies have also identified a significant

interaction between genotype and environmental conditions following transplantation, meaning

genetics contributed to variation in polyp morphology differently over a range of environmental

conditions [15,16]. Differences in intracolony variation across populations provides further

evidence for a genotypic influence on coral morphology [17], given the varying degrees of

genotypic diversity observed across reefs at multiple spatial scales [18,19]. The lack of

comprehensive genetic markers for most coral species has limited the examination of genotypic

influence on morphological variation to manipulative experiments over *in situ* assessments,

therefore most previous research focuses instead on describing phenotypic and physiological

responses to environmental conditions.

Light levels and flow patterns are hypothesized to be the two dominant drivers of coral

phenotype [20,21], affecting colony-wide morphologies such as shape and rugosity [22,23]. On a

smaller scale, corallite characteristics including corallite area, columella area, and septal length

increase in size with higher light levels. This effect has been demonstrated using reciprocal

transplants with *O. annularis*, *Favia speciosa*, and *Diploastrea heliopora*, where clonal colonies

moved to areas with increased light levels grew larger polyps [12,16]. Conversely, at depth, *O.*

annularis polyps were smaller and further apart, requiring less tissue and therefore less metabolic

support [9,24,25]. Both light and water flow can differ substantially across depth gradients [26–

29], indicating the potential for noticeable differences in colony and corallite morphologies.

Polyp size and spacing have implications for feeding method and efficiency as well.

Increased polyp spacing with depth may also maximize photosynthetic efficiency, as less

crowded polyps reduce self-shading of algal symbionts (Symbiodiniaceae) and photosynthetic

pigments, thereby increasing the amount of light available to each polyp [15,30,31]. There is an

established positive link between depth and heterotrophic rates in deeper corals due in part to

increased nutrient upwelling at depth [32–40], but the relationship between polyp size and

heterotrophy is not fully understood [41]. Few studies have identified a link between corallite

structure and polyp behavior, suggesting that smaller polyps tend to have diurnal expansion,

theoretically increasing feeding time [25,42]. Smaller polyps have also been shown to correlate

with a higher ratio of tentacles exposed to food to interpolyp tissue area compared to larger

polyps with more tissue area lacking tentacles [43]. Considering that polyps become smaller with

depth [9], it is possible that the combination of smaller and further-spaced polyps are an adaptive

response to increase both light and food capture at depth.

Currently, there is limited understanding of intraspecific morphological variation across

shallow coral reefs and mesophotic coral ecosystems (~30–150 m) [6,26,44], primarily due to a

lack of morphological data collected beyond 20 m. Recent studies of *M. cavernosa* in Bermuda

have suggested that similar trends as described previously extend into the mesophotic depth

zone, as corallites and overall colony sizes were observed to be smaller than at shallow depths

[45,46]. The authors suggested that the micromorphological plasticity in this species was the

result of photoadaptation and not necessarily selection as there was limited evidence of genetic

differentiation between depth zones [47]. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that colony growth

rates were lower at mesophotic depths, but that higher abundance of colonies at depth suggest a

well-established mesophotic population [45]. While there is a general understanding of

environmental characteristics that may influence coral physiology and morphology at

mesophotic depths [reviewed in 28,42,43], environmental data regarding downwelling irradiance

and zooplankton abundance is unknown for most mesophotic habitats.

The ecology of corals across shallow and mesophotic coral ecosystems is only beginning

to be explored. Genetic connectivity of coral populations across depths is contingent on

similarities between shallow and mesophotic conspecifics and may be affected by potential

morphological lineages within a species [25,42,50]. Therefore, it is important to understand the

level of morphological variation within coral populations and to determine whether that variation

is reflective of genetic structure and connectivity. It is estimated that 25–40% of scleractinian

species in the TWA are considered depth-generalists, some of which are ubiquitous across

shallow and mesophotic habitats [35,51]. Depth-generalists present an opportunity to observe

phenotypic variation of a species across a wide habitat range, yet within a small vertical scale to

minimize any potential interactive effects of reef environments. An assessment of existing

functional and physiological differences between shallow and mesophotic conspecifics is

necessary to understand the potential for adaptation to different environments. Any potential

similarities in coral morphology across depth zones may not only indicate the possibility for

morphotypes within species to adapt to different environments, but also reveal the presence of

genetic influences on morphological plasticity. Through examination of micromorphological

variation in the depth-generalist species *M. cavernosa* across a wide range of geographical

locations, we examined whether there exists a significant shift in corallite structure between

shallow and mesophotic coral populations. Furthermore, we aimed to address whether evidence

of adaptation to low-light environments is represented in known genotypic variation across

populations.

Materials and methods

Study sites and sample collection

Morphological variation in *Montastraea cavernosa* was assessed through sampling at shallow and mesophotic sites in the northwest and southeast Gulf of Mexico (NW GOM and SE GOM, respectively). Approximately 180 km off the coast of Galveston, Texas in the NW GOM, the Flower Garden Banks (FGB) include West and East FGB. Residing on salt domes on the continental shelf, both sites are comprised of relatively shallow (17–20 m) coral caps and surrounding mesophotic margin habitats to 40–55 m [52,53]. East of the FGB, additional banks along the shelf margin provide habitat for mesophotic-only reefs (50–75 m) including Bright and McGrail Banks. *Montastraea cavernosa* is ubiquitous in the region and one of the most abundant scleractinian species at each site sampled in the NW GOM [54–56]. In the SE GOM, Pulley Ridge occupies the continental shelf margin southwest of Florida and is currently the deepest known hermatypic coral reef in US territory [57]. Coral diversity on the ridge and surrounding reef habitat is low, but *M. cavernosa* are present in the mesophotic coral communities found between 65–75 m [58,59]. The closest shallow coral habitat is found ~66 km east in the Dry Tortugas, with *M. cavernosa* populations between 1–35 m [60].

In total, 212 *M. cavernosa* samples were collected across six sites in the GOM during expeditions in 2014–2016. Vertically-contiguous reef habitats exist within the FGB, allowing direct comparison of morphology between shallow and mesophotic depth zones within sites. For these collections, the coral caps of West and East FGB (WFGB and EFGB, respectively) were sources of relatively shallow samples collected at 20 m. Along the bank margins, mesophotic samples were collected at 45 m. Fifty-nine coral fragments were collected from West FGB (shallow, n=30; mesophotic, n=29) and 59 fragments were collected from East FGB (shallow,

n=37; mesophotic, n=22). Mesophotic samples were collected from the 50 m caps at Bright Bank

(BRT, n=19) and McGrail Bank (MCG, n=26). Twenty five fragments were collected at the

mesophotic-only Pulley Ridge (PRG) at 65 m and 24 fragments were collected at the nearby

shallow-only Dry Tortugas (DRT) at 29 m. Coral fragments approximately 15–25 cm^2 in area

were collected from the margins of *M. cavernosa* colonies by SCUBA divers with a hammer and

chisel or a remotely-operated vehicle (ROV) with a five-function manipulator and suction

sampler. Subsamples designated for morphometric analyses required at least five undamaged

polyps and intact neighboring polyps; additionally all polyps measured were at least one row of

polyps away from colony margins [17]. Fragments were processed with a dental water pick

(Waterpik Water Flosser) to remove coral tissue and subsequently bleached in a 10% sodium

hypochlorite solution to remove any remaining connective tissue or surface skeletal color.

Morphological characters

Thirteen morphometric characters were identified from previous studies of morphological

variation in *M. cavernosa* [2,17,21,42]. These metrics were quantified for a subset of available

samples to determine if any characters could be eliminated while still maximizing morphological

variation captured. Five of the characters lacked significant variation across samples, had strong

correlations with other metrics, or included inherent variability that may have compromised the

ability to recognize variation across samples (*e.g.* costal structures were frequently eroded in

between corallites and therefore produced inconsistent length measurements across corallites; S1

and S2 Tables). Those excluded from further analyses were: thickness of the first cycle septa

(T1S), length of the first cycle costa (L1C), thickness of the fourth cycle septa (T4S), length of

the fourth cycle costa (L4C), and thickness of the fourth cycle costa (T4C). The remaining eight

morphometric characters used in the analyses presented here included: corallite diameter (CD),

columella width (CW), length of the first cycle septa (L1S), thickness of the first cycle costa

(T1C), length of the fourth cycle septa (L4S), theca height (TH), corallite height (CH), and

corallite spacing (CS) (Table 1, Fig 1). Characters CH and TH were measured to the nearest 0.01

mm using dental calipers (ProDent USA). Scaled photographs were taken by a Canon G12

camera with a 6.1–30.5 mm lens (~10–20 mm focal length) with the target corallite centered to

minimize edge distortion and ensuring the corallite surface was perpendicular to the lens angle

using a bubble level. The remaining metrics were measured using the scaled photographs in

ImageJ [61,62].

Table 1. Corallite morphological characters.

Metric	Abbrev.	Description
Corallite diameter	CD	Linear measure between corallite cavity margins
Columella width	CW	Linear measure across columella
Length 1st cycle septa	L1S	Linear measure of first cycle septa length
Thickness 1st cycle costa	T1C	Linear measure of first cycle costa thickness
Length 4th cycle septa	L4S	Linear measure of fourth cycle septa length
Theca height	TH	Linear measure between columella floor and theca
Corallite height	CH	Linear measure between corallite base and peak
Corallite spacing	CS	Linear measures between corallite and all neighbors

Morphometric characters compiled from previous assessments of *Montastraea cavernosa*

skeletal variation [2,17,21,42].

Fig 1. Corallite morphological characters photo panel. A: Five of the eight morphometric

characters chosen for this study superimposed over a *Montastraea cavernosa* corallite. Not

pictured: CH (corallite height), TH (theca height), and CS (corallite spacing). B: Typical corallite

appearance for 'shallow-only' morphotype. C: Typical corallite appearance for 'depth-generalist'

morphotype. Panels B and C were photographed at equal scales.

Statistical analyses

Means and standard deviations of each morphological character were calculated for coral

samples and duplicate statistical analyses were conducted on both datasets to assess intercolony

and intracolony morphological variation, respectively. Coral sample data were analyzed using

non-parametric tests due to violations of normality assumptions that could not be corrected via

transformation. First, each morphological character was analyzed for significant variation across

a single-factor combination of site and depth zone using Kruskal-Wallis tests. Pairwise

comparisons were conducted using Dunn's tests and p values were false discovery rate (FDR)-

corrected in the R package *FSA* [63]. Two-way permutational multivariate analyses of variance

(PERMANOVAs) tested the interactive effects of site (WFGB, EFGB, BRT, MCG, PRG, DRT)

and depth zone (mesophotic, shallow) on overall corallite morphology, including pairwise

comparisons within factors. Additional pairwise comparisons were conducted for West and East

FGB samples as an assessment of morphological variation across depth zones within the Flower

Garden Banks. Test conditions for two-way PERMANOVAs utilized Euclidean distance, Type

III SS, permutation of residuals under a reduced model, and 9999 model permutations in Primer

v7 [64,65]. Subsequently similarity percentage tests (SIMPER) determined which morphometric

characters contributed most strongly to differences observed among site and depth factor groups.

SIMPER parameters utilized Euclidean distance and an 80% contribution cutoff.

Corallite morphological variation was visualized with principal coordinates analysis

(PCoA). Two potential morphotypes were identified across all sites using sample groupings in

the PCoA. Clustering patterns from the PCoA were tested for the presence of two morphotypes

using a *k*-means clustering test (kRCLUSTER) with *k*=2. Frequency distributions were

visualized for the six most variable characters across depth (CD, CW, CS, TH, CH, and L1S) to

attempt to identify a threshold measurement that would allow a quantitative determination of

morphotype from a single character. Morphotype assignments from the *k*-means clustering tests

were compared to assignments from the CS metric to determine assignment accuracy. To assess

which morphological characters differed between morphotypes while controlling for variation in

environmental conditions across depth, a subset dataset was created using samples from the

shallow caps (20 m) at West and East FGB. Additionally, corresponding algal symbiont

(Symbiodiniaceae) density, areal chlorophylls *a* and *c2*, cellular chlorophylls *a* and *c2*, and

chlorophyll *a:c2* ratio data from a recent study of the same coral colonies [66,67] were added to

the analyses. Symbiont and chlorophyll data were collected as described in Polinski and Voss

[66]. This reduced dataset was tested for significant differences between 'depth-generalist'

(n=20) and 'shallow-only' (n=46) morphotypes using Mann-Whitney U tests with the R package

ggpubr [68]. Next, separate one-way PERMANOVA and SIMPER tests were conducted to

determine if overall corallite morphology and overall symbiont/chlorophyll parameters were

different between morphotypes sampled from the same depth zone.

Morphotype assignments for samples from West and East FGB were also matched to

genotypes generated from the same samples to identify any relationship between corallite

morphology and genetic structure [69]. Based on previous assessments of low genetic

differentiation among depth zones within and between West and East FGB, samples were

combined to form two populations based on morphotype assignments. Samples missing

sufficient microsatellite marker coverage were removed from the analyses. Multi-locus

genotypes were scored and normality assumptions were checked as described in Studivan and

Voss [69] and assessment of population structure (with depth-generalist: n=70, shallow-only:

n=35) was conducted with an analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) using fixation index

(F_{ST}) in GenAlEx 6.5 [70,71] and with genetic structure analysis in Structure 2.3.4 and Structure

Harvester [72–74].

Results

Corallite variation

Mean measurements of the eight corallite characters at the six GOM sites are presented in

Table 2. Corals collected from shallow depths had larger, more tightly-spaced corallites than

their mesophotic counterparts. Furthermore, shallow corallites were flatter compared to the

surrounding skeleton but had deeper thecal depressions than mesophotic corallites (Kruskal-

Wallis: CD, $p=3.5e^{-8}$; CW, $p=1.4e^{-13}$; L1S, $p=2.0e^{-16}$; L4S, $p=2.0e^{-16}$; T1C, $p=2.0e^{-16}$; TH,

$p=1.3e^{-12}$; CH, $p=2.0e^{-16}$; CS, $p=2.0e^{-16}$; Table 2, Fig 2, S3 Table, S1 Fig). The two-way

PERMANOVA of all samples revealed both site (Pseudo-$F_{5, 204}$=14.99, $p=0.0001$) and depth

zone (Pseudo-$F_{1, 204}$=70.12, $p=0.0001$) as significant factors for corallite morphology across all

metrics, while the interaction between site and depth zone was not significant (Pseudo-$F_{1,}$

$_{204}$=2.55, $p=0.066$). Pairwise PERMANOVA comparisons among sites within depth zones

identified significant morphological variation primarily between both Pulley Ridge and Dry

Tortugas compared to all other sites (Table 3). Pairwise comparisons between depths at West and

East FGB showed a significant effect of depth zone on overall corallite morphology (WFGB:

t=5.13, $p=0.0001$; EFGB: t=5.98, $p=0.0001$). Replicated statistical tests using standard deviation

instead of sample means corroborated the same trends (site: Pseudo-$F_{5, 204}$=5.05, $p=0.0001$;

depth: Pseudo-$F_{1, 204}$=18.94, p=0.0001; interaction: Pseudo-$F_{1, 204}$=0.29, p=0.89; S4 Table),

indicating that intracolony variation was likely accounted in the sampling and measurement

design. SIMPER analyses revealed that corallite variation between shallow and mesophotic

depths across all sites were primarily attributed to CS (73.15%) and CD (11.61%).

Table 2. Corallite sample means.

Site	Depth Zone	Sampling Depth (m)	Sample Size (n)	Size in mm ± SEM							
				CD	CW	L1S	L4S	T1C	TH	CH	CS
West Flower Garden Bank	mesophotic	45	29	5.76 ± 0.09	2.32 ± 0.05	1.64 ± 0.03	0.51 ± 0.02	0.32 ± 0.01	2.06 ± 0.05	3.10 ± 0.11	10.06 ± 0.25
	shallow	20	30	6.79 ± 0.18	2.88 ± 0.09	1.22 ± 0.07	0.39 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.01	2.60 ± 0.07	2.75 ± 0.13	7.59 ± 0.36
East Flower Garden Bank	mesophotic	45	22	6.02 ± 0.12	2.53 ± 0.06	1.81 ± 0.05	0.62 ± 0.03	0.34 ± 0.01	2.20 ± 0.07	2.87 ± 0.09	10.49 ± 0.22
	shallow	20	37	6.22 ± 0.18	2.77 ± 0.08	1.18 ± 0.04	0.43 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.01	2.68 ± 0.11	2.24 ± 0.06	7.42 ± 0.28
Bright Bank	mesophotic	50	19	5.60 ± 0.17	2.38 ± 0.08	1.53 ± 0.06	0.49 ± 0.02	0.33 ± 0.01	2.07 ± 0.08	3.19 ± 0.13	9.68 ± 0.31
McGrail Bank	mesophotic	50	26	5.70 ± 0.12	2.27 ± 0.04	1.66 ± 0.05	0.51 ± 0.02	0.32 ± 0.01	2.28 ± 0.03	2.82 ± 0.13	9.71 ± 0.24
Pulley Ridge	mesophotic	65	25	4.99 ± 0.20	2.24 ± 0.08	0.84 ± 0.02	0.29 ± 0.01	0.18 ± 0.01	2.50 ± 0.12	1.41 ± 0.11	7.23 ± 0.20
Dry Tortugas	shallow	29	24	6.41 ± 0.18	3.04 ± 0.06	0.94 ± 0.03	0.35 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.01	3.05 ± 0.11	1.75 ± 0.07	6.73 ± 0.22

Mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) of eight corallite morphometrics across six sites and

two depth zones in the Gulf of Mexico.

Fig 2. Corallite sample means. Boxplots with sample overlays for corallite spacing (CS),

corallite diameter (CD), corallite height (CH), and theca height (TH) across six sites and two

depth zones in the Gulf of Mexico. Overall p values represent Kruskal-Wallis tests across sites

and depth zones for each metric and different letters denote significant differences (p<0.05)

between pairwise comparisons of sites and depth zones generated by Dunn's tests.

Table 3. PERMANOVA results

Test	Comparison	Test Statistic	p value
Overall	Site	14.99	0.0001
	Depth	70.12	0.0001
	Site – Depth interaction	2.55	ns
Within shallow	EFGB – DRT	1.89	0.025
	EFGB – WFGB	1.37	ns
	DRT – WFGB	2.51	0.003
Within mesophotic	BRT – EFGB	2.07	0.021
	BRT – MCG	0.91	ns
	BRT – PRG	6.01	0.0001
	BRT – WFGB	0.86	ns
	EFGB – MCG	2.03	0.030
	EFGB – PRG	8.34	0.0001
	EFGB – WFGB	1.48	ns
	MCG – PRG	6.52	0.0001
	MCG – WFGB	1.13	ns
	PRG – WFGB	7.62	0.0001
Within WFGB	shallow – mesophotic	5.13	0.0001
Within EFGB	shallow – mesophotic	5.98	0.0001

Test results for permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, Overall) and

pairwise comparisons across sites within depth zones and across depth zones within sites.

Insignificant pairwise comparisons denoted as ns.

Principal coordinates analysis clustered samples into two groups (Fig 3). One group

consisted of the majority of samples from Bright and McGrail Banks, while a second group

consisted primarily of Dry Tortugas samples. The split between morphotypes did not lie between

shallow and mesophotic samples, however. Corals from West and East FGB were found in both

sample groupings, identifying a dichotomy in overall corallite morphology. A subset of samples

collected on the shallow caps at both FGB sites had more similar corallite structure to

mesophotic samples than to the remaining shallow samples. Pulley Ridge samples appeared to

share some morphological characteristics of both morphotypes, indicated by sample overlap

between both sample clusters in the PCoA (Fig 3). Despite sharing smaller corallite

characteristics typical of other mesophotic corals (Fig 2), the Pulley Ridge colonies demonstrated

corallite spacing consistent with the morphotype observed most common at shallow depths at

both FGB sites and Dry Tortugas. With the exception of Pulley Ridge, the majority of

mesophotic corals appeared to be a single morphotype (mesophotic West and East FGB, Bright

Bank, and McGrail Bank), while shallow corals were split between both morphotypes.

Fig 3. Principal coordinates analysis of all sites. Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) plot of

corallite morphology across six sites in the Gulf of Mexico, explaining 88.5% of the total

variation (PCo 1: 69.2%, PCo 2: 19.3%). Degree of difference among samples represented by

Euclidean distance between sample points. Color and shape of each point corresponds to site and

depth zone.

Morphotype assignment

Frequency distributions of metrics CD, CW, CS, TH, CH, and L1S revealed relatively

unimodal distributions for most metrics except for CS and L1S. The bimodal distribution

observed in CS across all samples were indicative of two morphotypes split between 8.2–8.6 mm

(Fig 4). All samples were sorted by corallite spacing and assigned a morphotype where CS>8.4

mm was considered 'depth-generalist' and CS<8.4 mm was considered 'shallow-only.'

Morphotype assignments using the CS method were found to have a correct assignment rate of

93.87% when compared to assignments from the *k*-means clustering method (Fig 5;

kRCLUSTER: R=0.746, 13 incorrect out of 212 assignments). Morphotype assignments from

the *k*-means clustering method were used to create subset datasets of samples collected on the

shallow caps at West and East FGB in order to test whether the two morphotypes had

significantly different corallite structures in the same environment. The differences among

morphotypes were not solely attributed to morphological variation due to depth. The depth-

generalist morphotype found at 20 m demonstrated increased corallite spacing and reduced

corallite diameter, meaning there were fewer and smaller corallites per unit area as compared to

the shallow-only morphotype. Despite having smaller corallites, the depth-generalist morphotype

had taller corallites over the surrounding skeleton and notably larger septal lengths (Mann-

Whitney U: CS, $p=1.6e^{-10}$; CD, $p=0.0056$; CH, $p=9.1e^{-5}$; L1S, $p=5.6e^{-10}$; CW, $p=9.2e^{-4}$; T1C,

$p=1.3e^{-8}$; TH, $p=0.86$; L4S, $p=1.0e^{-5}$; Table 4, Fig 6, S2 Fig). A single factor PERMANOVA

using morphotype assignment identified a significant difference between depth-generalist and

shallow-only morphotypes (Pseudo-$F_{1,\,65}=62.73$, $p=0.0001$). For the SIMPER analysis of

morphotypes, CS (70.93%) and CD (13.74%) were the most influential metrics. Mann-Whitney

U tests also indicated that symbiont density, areal chlorophylls *a* and *c2*, and cellular

chlorophylls *a* and *c2* were significantly higher in the depth-generalist morphotype compared to

the shallow-only morphotype (Symbiont Density, $p=0.0028$; Chl *a:c2*, $p=0.071$; Areal Chl *a*,

$p=1.7e^{-8}$; Areal Chl *c2*, $p=7.2e^{-8}$; Cellular Chl *a*, $p=5.4e^{-5}$; Cellular Chl *c2*, $p=0.0051$; Table 4,

Fig 7)*,* despite being found in the same light regime and with similar *Symbiodinium* community

assemblages [66]. The single factor PERMANOVA identified a multivariate difference between

depth-generalist and shallow-only morphotypes across symbiont and chlorophyll metrics

(Pseudo-$F_{1, 65}$=11.329, p=0.0016), and the SIMPER attributed 100% of the contribution to

symbiont density.

Fig 4. Size distributions of dominant characters. Frequency distributions for the six

morphological metrics representing the majority of corallite variation across depth, including:

corallite diameter (CD), columella width (CW), corallite spacing (CS), theca height (TH),

corallite height (CH), and length of first cycle septa (L1S). The size threshold of CS (8.40 mm) is

represented in the orange vertical line, denoting two morphotypes distinguished primarily by

differences in corallite spacing. L1S also had a split distribution but had a less obvious threshold

(1.15 mm).

Fig 5. Comparison of morphotype assignment methods. Principal coordinates analysis

(PCoA) of corallite morphology across six sites in the Gulf of Mexico, with color overlays

corresponding to morphotypes. Morphotype assignments were made using a k-means cluster test

(left; kRCLUSTER: R=0.746) and by the threshold in corallite spacing (CS) measurements at

8.40 mm (right). Assignments using the CS method had a correct assignment rate of 93.87%

when compared to assignments from the k-means clustering method (13 incorrect out of 212

assignments, shown in gray).

Table 4. Morphotype sample means

Morphotype	Sample Size (n)	Size in mm ± SEM								Areal Chl (ug cm^{-2} ± SEM)		Cellular Chl (pg cm^{-2} ± SEM)		Chl $a:c_2$
		CD	CW	L1S	L4S	T1C	TH	CH	CS	chl a	chl c_2	chl a	chl c_2	
depth-generalist	20	5.85 ± 0.13	2.48 ± 0.06	1.59 ± 0.05	0.49 ± 0.02	0.34 ± 0.01	2.74 ± 0.18	2.82 ± 0.11	9.81 ± 0.20	11.13 ± 0.62	4.35 ± 0.44	7.05 ± 0.62	2.75 ± 0.31	2.71 ± 0.10
shallow-only	46	6.75 ± 0.17	2.97 ± 0.07	1.01 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.01	2.60 ± 0.06	2.30 ± 0.08	6.42 ± 0.13	6.42 ± 0.20	2.45 ± 0.08	4.86 ± 0.16	1.85 ± 0.06	2.64 ± 0.04

Mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) of eight measured corallite morphometrics and symbiont density across depth-generalist and shallow-only morphotypes from within the shallow depth zone of West and East Flower Garden Banks.

Fig 6. Morphotype sample means. Boxplots with sample overlays for corallite spacing (CS), corallite diameter (CD), corallite height (CH), and length of first cycle septa (L1S) across depth-generalist (n=20) and shallow-only (n=46) morphotypes sampled within shallow depth zone of West and East FGB. Overall p values represent Mann-Whitney U tests between morphotype for each metric.

Fig 7. Morphotype symbiont and chlorophyll means. Boxplots with sample overlays for symbiont density, chlorophyll $a:c2$, areal chlorophyll a, areal chlorophyll $c2$, cellular chlorophyll a, and cellular chlorophyll $c2$ across depth-generalist (n=20) and shallow (n=46) morphotypes. Overall p values represent Mann-Whitney U tests between morphotype for each metric.

Within the samples from West and East FGB, comparison of population structure using morphotype as a factor revealed that corallite variation had a weak relationship to genetic variation. The fixation index (F_{ST}), which represents the level of genetic differentiation between

populations, was low but demonstrated significant genetic structure between depth-generalist and

shallow-only morphotypes at both FGB sites (AMOVA: F_{ST}=0.007, p=0.008). A second

AMOVA using morphotype assignments according to the CS method also demonstrated

significant genetic structure (AMOVA: F_{ST}=0.007, p=0.005). However, structure analysis using

both assignment methods indicated that there was one genetic cluster (K=1, panmixia) found at

both FGB sites (S5 Table, S3 Fig), which is reflective of the results of a larger genotypic

examination of coral populations in the NW GOM [69].

Discussion

Variation among shallow and mesophotic *M. cavernosa*

Previous studies have observed that corallite diameter decreases and corallite spacing

increases with diminishing light in some scleractinian species [2,6,9,12,17,24]. This study

extends this trend to mesophotic depths with *M. cavernosa* [see also 69], as mesophotic corallites

were smaller and further apart than their shallow counterparts. Mesophotic corallites were also

taller (corallite height), but internally shallower (theca height) than shallow corallites (Fig 2).

The morphological variation across depth zones suggests two possible physiological responses to

environmental conditions at mesophotic depths: (1) maximization of tissue area for light capture

while minimizing self-shading and metabolic costs [15,25,30], and (2) maximization of tentacle

area exposed for food capture [43]. While colonies examined in this study were not observed for

polyp extension or feeding behavior, earlier studies with *M. cavernosa* hypothesized that smaller

corallites may also correspond with increased polyp expansion, although the tradeoffs between

photosynthetic and heterotrophic yields are not well understood [25,41]. Quantification of algal

symbiont density and chlorophyll concentration in these same colonies corroborated that

mesophotic corals appear photoadapted to low light environments [66,67]. Mesophotic *M.*

cavernosa from the NW GOM (Flower Garden Banks) and the SE GOM (Pulley Ridge)

contained more symbionts and chlorophylls *a* and *c2* than their shallow conspecifics from the

Flower Garden Banks and Dry Tortugas, respectively.

While increased pigmentation and symbiont densities are common photoadaptive

responses to lower-light environments [24,33,75,76], they are suspected to also reduce light

penetration to deeper coral tissue levels due to greater optical thickness via self-shading [24].

Furthermore, a recent study identified photoconvertible red fluorescent proteins that transform

poorly-absorbed blue-green light to orange-red wavelengths for increased light absorption by

symbionts, which were found more commonly in mesophotic corals [77]. However, while these

strategies may maximize light absorption, they likely result in lower tissue penetration. Corals in

light-limited environments such as mesophotic reefs may mitigate the negative effects of

photoadaptation with enhanced light scattering from skeletal structures [33,78]. Flat surfaces,

such as flattened mesophotic skeletons, can increase light scattering threefold within tissues, with

additional enhancement caused by concave surfaces in the interior of corallites and by complex

structures such as septa [79–82]. This study identified an increase in mesophotic septal length

[see also 2] and corallite height (Fig 2), which may provide increased light scattering at depth. It

is likely that a tradeoff exists between overall shallow and mesophotic morphologies, given

multiple responses at the symbiotic and skeletal levels, although their effect on coral physiology

and intraspecies competition is not well known at this time.

Identification of 'depth-generalist' and 'shallow-only' morphotypes

Investigation of corallite variation and feeding behavior within *M. cavernosa* has led to

one theory of potential cryptic speciation through the identification of morphotypes within the

species [25]. A diurnal morphotype had smaller but continuously open polyps, while a nocturnal

morphotype was characterized by larger polyps that were expanded only at night. There were

also significant differences in algal symbiont density and colony respiration between the two

morphotypes, where larger polyps allowed greater photosynthetic yields but subsequently higher

respiration rates. Currently, there is little molecular or reproductive evidence to support the claim

of cryptic speciation among the morphotypes [50,83], but surveys along a depth gradient in

Puerto Rico uncovered different vertical distributions for the morphotypes. The majority of

shallow (6 m) colonies were of the smaller diurnal morphotype, while 60% of the deeper (20 m)

colonies were the larger nocturnal morphotype, and the author proposed that morphological

variation was due to different environmental conditions across depths and tradeoffs between

photosynthesis and feeding rates [42]. It is important to note, however, that a comparable study

observed both morphotypes with no clear pattern across depths in Belize, implying that

phenotypic plasticity in response to environmental conditions is not the sole factor affecting

corallite phenotype [50].

Furthermore, this study identified distinct 'depth-generalist' and 'shallow-only'

morphotypes within *M. cavernosa* at six sites examined across the GOM (Fig 3). Differences in

overall corallite morphologies were mainly attributed to increased corallite spacing in the depth-

generalist type (Fig 1), but there were also significant differences in corallite diameter, corallite

and thecal height, and septal length. The depth-generalist morphotype was characterized by

smaller and more widely-spaced corallites that were taller over the surrounding skeleton (Fig 6).

We observed that the variation in corallite spacing alone was enough to predict the correct

morphotype assignment with a relatively high level of accuracy (93.87%) compared to a cluster

analysis of morphological variation across all eight characters (Fig 5). This is of potential interest

for rapid, non-consumptive morphotype identification of *M. cavernosa* colonies *in situ*, perhaps

allowing targeted sampling of morphotypes for comparative genotyping analyses. Assignment

accuracy using the CS method was also consistently high across large spatial scales in the GOM

(~1,000 km), suggesting the possibility of widespread presence of the two morphotypes. Similar

to previous studies that have examined possible morphotypes within *M. cavernosa* [25,42,50],

the findings of this study indicated the presence of smaller-polyped colonies across a wide depth

range and extended the identification of a depth-generalist morphotype into mesophotic depths.

This dichotomous variation in *M. cavernosa* morphotypes within sites was primarily

observed at West and East FGB, where individuals of the depth-generalist morphotype were

found in both depth zones. Shallow-only morphotypes were limited to the coral reef caps from

17–20 m, but it is important to note that there is no reef habitat shallower than 17 m at either

FGB site. There also appeared to be a potential spatial component affecting morphotype

distribution. Samples collected from shallow depth zones of the bank margins were all depth-

generalists, while the majority of the samples collected near the center of the bank caps were

shallow-only. While collections at shallow depths within West and East FGB were only ~165-

420 m apart, it is possible that local environmental conditions between marginal and mid-bank

habitats may have resulted in selection towards one morphotype over another. In particular,

current patterns on the margins may support increased upwelling of zooplankton [39,40],

possibly leading to an advantage for the smaller depth-generalist morphotype, but data regarding

fine-scale current dynamics and food availability are lacking for the Flower Garden Banks.

The exclusion of shallow-only morphotypes from mesophotic sites was consistent across

other sites in the NW GOM; *M. cavernosa* populations at Bright (50 m) and McGrail (50 m)

Banks were comprised almost exclusively of depth-generalist morphotypes (Fig 3). However,

this pattern did not hold in the SE GOM, as most mesophotic *M. cavernosa* at Pulley Ridge were

identified as the shallow-only morphotype based primarily on corallite spacing. Other

characteristics beyond corallite spacing, however, suggested that *M. cavernosa* at Pulley Ridge

may represent a hybrid of depth-generalist and shallow-only morphotypes. Colonies within

Pulley Ridge exhibited significant deviation in corallite structure (notably corallite diameter,

theca height, and corallite height) from the shallow-only morphotype. Variations of corallite size

and height were indicative of differences seen across shallow and mesophotic depths elsewhere

in the GOM and likely represent skeletal adaptation among the mesophotic corals at Pulley

Ridge better suited to low-light environments.

Light is considered to be one of the dominant environmental drivers of coral morphology

[20,21] and distinct separation of morphotype distribution has been observed in some studies

[8,10,42], though not in others [50,83]. The occurrence of both depth-generalist and shallow-

only colonies in the shallow depth zone at both FGB sites suggests that light or local

environments are not the only factors influencing corallite morphology and therefore phenotypic

plasticity may not be the dominant driver of coral morphology in this region [20,50]. Based on

the variable presence of the two observed morphotypes within the GOM, we hypothesize that

genotypic differences in *M. cavernosa* may be contributing to the observed distribution of

morphotypes. This hypothesis is contingent on many factors, including the ability of depth-

generalist genotypes to spread and survive in other environments beyond their source

populations. Such a pattern appears to be the case for mesophotic habitats within the GOM [69],

while coral larval characteristics also support such a dispersal pattern, as lipid-rich larvae tend to

float from deeper to shallower water [84,85].

Potential genotypic influence on morphotype

The comparison of genetic structure within the FGB determined that morphotype,

regardless of assignment method, had a small but significant effect on population differentiation.

Despite evidence that morphotypes were significantly differentiated, however, the structure

analysis predicted population panmixia (see also [69]). It appears that the slight differentiation is

the result of genotypic differences between morphotypes, although there was no evidence to

suggest the presence of cryptic speciation or a lack of gene flow between morphotypes.

However, it must be noted that microsatellites may not be as sensitive to detecting cryptic

morphotypes as nuclear markers such as *ß-tubulin* [50,86] or identifying selection as single

nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) [87]. Results from previous population genetics studies

suggest that there is a high degree of polymorphism within *M. cavernosa* populations across the

Tropical Western Atlantic through ecological timescales [50,83]. Polymorphism within this

species has led to the identification of multiple morphotypes in the absence of reproductive

isolation or adaptive radiation. The lack of strong genetic isolation observed across this species'

range is quite interesting and is yet unexplained by differences due to environmental or genetic

factors alone. Polymorphic differences may represent physiological tradeoffs among shallow and

mesophotic conspecifics pertaining to differences in feeding strategy, calcification, optical

properties and light capture, symbiont communities, and perhaps even stress resilience

[9,25,33,82], although research to establish a link between morphotypes and potential

physiological advantages is currently limited. The depth-generalist morphotype had skeletal

characteristics that likely contribute to enhanced light capture at mesophotic depths through

increased light scatter within the skeleton, including taller corallites and longer septa. The depth-

generalist morphotype also had higher symbiont densities and chlorophyll concentrations that

may support increased light capture (Fig 7) [25]. Corallite characteristics and increased symbiont

densities were retained in the depth-generalist morphotype even at shallow depths, suggesting

aspects of the symbiosis other than light availability control the abundance of algal cells and

chlorophyll content.

506   Under light-limited conditions, increased light scattering and symbiont densities are

advantageous and likely confer enhanced photosynthesis and possibly faster growth rates [80].

During high light conditions leading to thermal stress, however, increased light amplification can

result in more severe bleaching responses [88]. As symbiont density is reduced through

bleaching, the effect of light scattering increases and creates a positive feedback loop, exposing

additional symbionts to high intensities of light [82]. As a result, corals with higher light

scattering skeletal properties may confer lower bleaching resistance and be therefore less suited

to higher light environments. Bleaching events due to excess solar radiation may be more likely

in shallow reef habitats as compared to mesophotic habitats [26]. We hypothesize that the depth-

generalist morphotype may be therefore less abundant at shallow depths in the Flower Garden

Banks due in part to lower bleaching resistance.

517   To explain the sole presence of the shallow-only morphotype at both mesophotic Pulley

Ridge and shallow Dry Tortugas, we must also consider genetic variation beyond that attributed

to morphological differences. Given the patterns of morphotype depth distribution in the NW

GOM, Pulley Ridge would be expected to be comprised of primarily the depth-generalist

morphotype and Dry Tortugas would be expected to include a mixed population of both

morphotypes. The relative lack of the depth-generalist morphotype observed at both sites may

have instead resulted from low larval dispersal and population connectivity in the SE GOM.

Population genetics analyses suggest a relative isolation of Pulley Ridge *M. cavernosa* from

other sites in the GOM and TWA [47,69] and assessments of coral community structure show a

recent, sharp decline in coral abundance on Pulley Ridge [58,59]. It is possible that Pulley Ridge

and Dry Tortugas were initially colonized by the shallow-only morphotype, or alternatively, both

morphotypes have been recruited but environmental conditions in the region favor corals with

corallite spacing similar to the shallow-only morphotype. The former seems more likely given

the relative isolation of the SE GOM and the small population size of *M. cavernosa* at Pulley

Ridge estimated from migration models and surveys [58,59,69]. Divergence from the shallow-

only morphotype at Pulley Ridge toward a hybrid morphotype may have then been the result of

photoadaptation towards smaller corallites at mesophotic depths.

Throughout the fossil record for the past 25 million years, *M. cavernosa* populations in

other regions of the TWA have demonstrated remarkable and persistent morphological variation

that has not been attributed to any distinct genetic lineages [50,83]. The ability of multiple

morphotypes to be maintained in absence of selection, reproductive isolation, or cryptic

speciation may be due in part to high genetic diversity across much of this species' range [89].

Therefore, a combination of both environmental and genotypic factors likely drives

morphological plasticity. The patterns of low genetic diversity observed in the SE GOM support

the observed lack of the depth-generalist morphotype in this region, despite Pulley Ridge being

the deepest site examined in this study. This observation reinforces the notion that morphological

variation among *M. cavernosa* represents a combination of genotypic variation and phenotypic

plasticity rather than responses to environmental stimuli alone. Further examination into the

relationship between coral genotype and morphotype is required to understand differences

among shallow and mesophotic coral populations across the GOM. Assessments of skeletal

optical properties are also recommended to determine whether morphotypes in *M. cavernosa*

confer physiological and resilience tradeoffs. Lastly, complementary analyses of morphological

variation, metabolic physiology, and environmental conditions can allow investigation into the

relative roles of photosynthesis and heterotrophy in mesophotic environments [33,41]. A better

understanding of morphological variation within coral species may uncover how physiology

varies across individuals and how depth-generalist species can be successful in a variety of reef

habitats.

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the staff of Flower Garden Banks and Florida Keys National Marine

Sanctuaries; crews of the R/V *Manta* and M/V *Spree*; and L. Horn and J. White from the

University of North Carolina at Wilmington Undersea Vehicle Program for assistance with

sample collection and permits. J. Beal, J. Emmert, R. Susen, C. Ledford, J. Polinski, A. Alker, D.

Dodge, P. Gardner, M. McCallister, M. Ajemian, R. Christian, and M. Dickson provided diving

support. Special thanks to J. Polinski, D. Perez, H. Clinton, P. Gardner, and D. Dodge for

providing the algal symbiont and chlorophyll data, and to A. Alker for assisting with the

morphometrics data collection. This research was funded by the NOAA Office of Ocean

Exploration and Research under awards NA09OAR4320073 and NA14OAR4320260 to the

Cooperative Institute for Ocean Exploration, Research and Technology (CIOERT) at Florida

Atlantic University's (FAU) Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute (HBOI) and the NOAA

National Centers for Coastal Ocean Science under award NA11NOS4780045 to the Cooperative

Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Studies (CIMAS) at the University of Miami. Additional

funding was provided by the Banbury Foundation through the Robertson Coral Reef Research

and Conservation Program at HBOI, and by graduate student fellowships/grants from FAU. This

is contribution number XXXX from Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute at FAU.

Data reporting

All protocols included in this study can be found in a GitHub repository at

https://github.com/mstudiva/Mcav-morphometrics. Datasets generated for this study can be

found in a Dryad repository XXXX.

References

1. Paz-García DA, Hellberg ME, García-de-León FJ, Balart EF. Switch between morphospecies of *Pocillopora* corals. The American Naturalist. 2015;186: 434–440. doi:10.1086/682363

2. Amaral FD. Morphological variation in the reef coral *Montastrea cavernosa* in Brazil. Coral Reefs. Springer-Verlag; 1994;13: 113–117. doi:10.1007/BF00300771

3. Menezes N, Neves E, Kikuchi RKP, Johnsson R. Morphological variation in the Atlantic genus *Siderastrea* (Anthozoa, Scleractinia). Papéis Avulsos de Zoologia (São Paulo). 2014;54: 199–208. doi:10.1590/0031-1049.2014.54.16

4. Rocha RJM, Silva AMB, Fernandes MHV, Cruz ICS, Rosa R, Calado R. Contrasting light spectra constrain the macro and microstructures of scleractinian corals. PLOS ONE. 2014;9: e105863. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0105863

5. Budd AF, Fukami H, Smith ND, Knowlton N. Taxonomic classification of the reef coral family Mussidae (Cnidaria: Anthozoa: Scleractinia). Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society. 2012;166: 465–529. doi:10.1111/j.1096-3642.2012.00855.x

6. Soto D, De Palmas S, Ho MJ, Denis V, Chen CA. Spatial variation in the morphological traits of *Pocillopora verrucosa* along a depth gradient in Taiwan. PLOS ONE; 2018;13: e0202586. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0202586

7. Wirshing HH, Baker AC. Molecular evolution of calcification genes in morphologically similar but phylogenetically unrelated scleractinian corals. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution. Elsevier Inc.; 2014;77: 281–295. doi:10.1016/j.ympev.2014.04.015

8. Pandolfi JM, Budd AF. Morphology and ecological zonation of Caribbean reef corals: The *Montastraea "annularis"* species complex. Marine Ecology Progress Series. 2008;369:

89–102. doi:10.3354/meps07570

9.   Klaus JS, Budd AF, Heikoop JM, Fouke BW. Environmental controls on corallite

morphology in the reef coral *Montastraea annularis*. Bulletin of Marine Science. 2007;80:

233–260.

10.   Weil E, Knowton N. A multi-character analysis of the Caribbean coral *Montastraea*

annularis (Ellis and Solander, 1786) and its two sibling species, *M. faveolata* (Ellis and

Solander, 1786) and *M. franksi* (Gregory, 1895). Bulletin of Marine Science. 1994;55:

151–175.

11.   Willis BL, Ayre DJ. Asexual reproduction and genetic determination of growth form in

the coral *Pavona cactus*: biochemical genetic and immunogenic evidence. Oecologia.

1985;65: 516–525.

12.   Foster AB. Phenotypic plasticity in the reef corals *Montastraea annularis* (Ellis &

Solander) and *Siderastrea siderea* (Ellis & Solander). Journal of Experimental Marine

Biology and Ecology. 1979;39: 25–54. doi:10.1016/0022-0981(79)90003-0

13.   Via S, Lande R. Genotype-environment interaction and the evolution of phenotypic

plasticity. Evolution. 1985;39: 505–522.

14.   Barshis DJ, Stillman JH, Gates RD, Toonen RJ, Smith LW, Birkeland C. Protein

expression and genetic structure of the coral *Porites lobata* in an environmentally extreme

Samoan back reef: does host genotype limit phenotypic plasticity? Molecular Ecology.

2010;19: 1705–1720. doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2010.04574.x

15.   Bruno JF, Edmunds PJ. Clonal variation for phenotypic plasticity in the coral *Madracis*

mirabilis. Ecology. 1997;78: 2177–2190. doi:10.1890/0012-

9658(1997)078[2177:CVFPPI]2.0.CO;2

16.   Todd PA, Ladle RJ, Lewin-Koh NJI, Chou LM. Genotype x environment interactions in

transplanted clones of the massive corals *Favia speciosa* and *Diploastrea heliopora*.

Marine Ecology Progress Series. 2004;271: 167–182.

17.   Budd AF. Variation within coral colonies and its importance for interpreting fossil

species. Journal of Paleontology. 1985;59: 1359–1381. doi:10.2307/1304950

18.   Ayre DJ, Hughes TP. Genotypic diversity and gene flow in brooding and spawning corals

along the Great Barrier Reef, Australia. Evolution. 2000;54: 1590–1605.

doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2000.tb00704.x

19.   Benzie JAH. Genetic structure of coral reef organisms: ghosts of dispersal past. American

Zoologist. 1999;39: 131–145. doi:10.1093/icb/39.1.131

20.   Todd PA. Morphological plasticity in scleractinian corals. Biological Reviews. 2008;83:

315–337. doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2008.00045.x

21.   Beltrán-Torres AU, Carricart-Ganivet JP. Skeletal morphological variation in *Montastraea*

cavernosa (Cnidaria: Scleractinia) at Isla Verde Coral Reef, Veracruz, Mexico. Revista de

Biologia Tropical. 1993;41: 559–562.

22.   Graus RR, Macintyre IG. Variation in growth forms of the reef coral *Montastrea*

annularis (Ellis and Solander): a quantitative evaluation of growth response to light

distribution using computer simulation. Smithsonian Contributions to the Marine

Sciences. 1982;12: 441–464.

23.   Gleason DF. The control and adaptive significance of morphological variation in the reef

coral *Porites asteroides*. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Houston. 1992.

24.   Dustan P. Distribution of zooxanthellae and photosynthetic chloroplast pigments of the

reef-building coral *Montastraea annularis* (Ellis and Solander) in relation to depth on a

645  West Indian coral reef. Bulletin of Marine Science. 1979;29: 79–95.

646 25. Lasker HR. Phenotypic variation in the coral *Montastrea cavernosa* and its effects on

647  colony energetics. The Biological Bulletin. 1981;160: 292–302.

648 26. Lesser MP, Slattery M, Leichter JJ. Ecology of mesophotic coral reefs. Journal of

649  Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology. 2009;375: 1–8.

650  doi:10.1016/j.jembe.2009.05.009

651 27. Falkowski PG, Jokiel PL, Kinzie RA. Irradiance and corals. Ecosystems of the world.

652  1990;25: 89–107.

653 28. Leichter JJ, Wing SR, Miller SL, Denny MW. Pulsed delivery of subthermocline water to

654  Conch Reef (Florida Keys) by internal tidal bores. Limnology and Oceanography.

655  1996;41: 1490–1501. doi:10.4319/lo.1996.41.7.1490

656 29. Reed JK. Comparison of deep-water coral reefs and lithoherms off southeastern USA.

657  Hydrobiologia. 2002;471: 57–69. doi:10.1023/A:1016593018389

658 30. West JM, Harvell CD, Walls AM. Morphological plasticity in a gorgonian coral

659  (*Briareum asbestinum*) over a depth cline. Marine Ecology Progress Series. 1993;94: 61–

660  69. doi:10.3354/meps094061

661 31. Ow YX, Todd PA. Light-induced morphological plasticity in the scleractinian coral

662  *Goniastrea pectinata* and its functional significance. Coral Reefs. 2010;29: 797–808.

663  doi:10.1007/s00338-010-0631-4

664 32. Porter JW. Autotrophy, heterotrophy, and resource partitioning in Caribbean reef-building

665  corals. The American Naturalist. 1976;110: 731–742.

666 33. Lesser MP, Slattery M, Stat M, Ojimi M, Gates RD, Grottoli A. Photoacclimatization by

667  the coral *Montastraea cavernosa* in the mesophotic zone: light, food, and genetics.

Ecology. 2010;91: 990–1003. doi:10.1890/09-0313.1

34.   Slattery M, Lesser MP, Brazeau DA, Stokes MD, Leichter JJ. Connectivity and stability of

mesophotic coral reefs. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology. 2011;408:

32–41. doi:10.1016/j.jembe.2011.07.024

35.   Bongaerts P, Ridgway T, Sampayo EM, Hoegh-Guldberg O. Assessing the 'deep reef

refugia' hypothesis: focus on Caribbean reefs. Coral Reefs. 2010;29: 309–327.

doi:10.1007/s00338-009-0581-x

36.   Muscatine L, Porter JW, Kaplan IR. Resource partitioning by reef corals as determined

from stable isotope composition. I. $\delta13N$ of zooxanthellae and animal tissue versus depth.

Marine Biology. 1989;100: 185–193. doi:10.1007/BF00391957

37.   Muscatine L, Kaplan IR. Resource partitioning by reef corals as determined from stable

isotope composition. II. $\delta15N$ of zooxanthellae and animal tissue versus depth. Pacific

Science. 1994;48: 304–312. doi:10.1007/BF00391957

38.   Lesser MP, Slattery M. Ecology of Caribbean sponges: are top-down or bottom-up

processes more important? PLOS ONE. 2013;8: e79799.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079799

39.   Leichter JJ, Genovese SJ. Intermittent upwelling and subsidized growth of the

scleractinian coral *Madracis mirabilis* on the deep fore-reef slope of Discovery Bay,

Jamaica. Marine Ecology Progress Series. 2006;316: 95–103.

40.   Leichter JJ, Paytan A, Wankel S, Hanson K, Miller S, Altabet MA. Nitrogen and oxygen

isotopic signatures of subsurface nitrate seaward of the Florida Keys reef tract. Limnology

and Oceanography. 2007;52: 1258–1267. doi:10.4319/lo.2007.52.3.1258

41.   Lesser MP, Mazel C, Phinney D, Yentsch CS. Light absorption and utilization by colonies

of the congeneric hermatypic corals *Montastraea faveolata* and *Montastraea cavernosa*.

Limnology and Oceanography. 2000;45: 76–86. doi:10.4319/lo.2000.45.1.0076

42.   Ruiz Torres H. Morphometric examination of corallite and colony variability in the

Caribbean coral *Montastraea cavernosa*. M.Sc. Thesis, University of Puerto Rico,

Mayagüez. 2004.

43.   Sebens KP. Adaptive responses to water flow: morphology, energetics, and distribution of

reef corals. Proceedings of the 8th International Coral Reef Symposium, Panama City,

Panama. 1997;2: 1053–1058.

44.   Puglise KA, Hinderstein LM, Marr J, Dowgiallo MJ, Martinez FA. Mesophotic coral

ecosystems research strategy: international workshop to prioritize research and

management needs for mesophotic coral ecosystems, Jupiter, Florida, 12-15 July 2008.

NOAA National Centers for Coastal Ocean Science, Center for Sponsored Coastal Ocean

Research, and Office of Ocean Exploration and Research, NOAA Undersea Research

Program. NOAA Technical Memorandum NOS NCCOS 98 and OAR OER 2, Silver

Spring, MD; 2009.

45.   Goodbody-Gringley G, Marchini C, Chequer AD, Goffredo S. Population structure of

Montastraea cavernosa on shallow versus mesophotic reefs in Bermuda. PLOS ONE.

2015;10: 1–17. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0142427

46.   Goodbody-Gringley G, Waletich J. Morphological plasticity of the depth generalist coral,

Montastraea cavernosa, on mesophotic reefs in Bermuda. Ecology. 2018;

doi:10.1002/ecy.2232

47.   Serrano XM, Baums IB, O'Reilly K, Smith TB, Jones RJ, Shearer TL, et al. Geographic

differences in vertical connectivity in the Caribbean coral *Montastraea cavernosa* despite

high levels of horizontal connectivity at shallow depths. Molecular Ecology. 2014;23:

4226–4240. doi:10.1111/mec.12861

48.   Kahng SE, Garcia-Sais JR, Spalding HL, Brokovich E, Wagner D, Weil E, et al.

Community ecology of mesophotic coral reef ecosystems. Coral Reefs. 2010;29: 255–275.

doi:10.1007/s00338-010-0593-6

49.   Kahng SE, Copus JM, Wagner D. Recent advances in the ecology of mesophotic coral

ecosystems (MCEs). Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability. 2014;7: 72–81.

doi:10.1016/j.cosust.2013.11.019

50.   Budd AF, Nunes FLD, Weil E, Pandolfi JM. Polymorphism in a common Atlantic reef

coral (*Montastraea cavernosa*) and its long-term evolutionary implications. Evolutionary

Ecology. 2012;26: 265–290. doi:10.1007/s10682-010-9460-8

51.   Iglesias-Prieto R, Beltrán VH, Lajeunesse TC, Reyes-Bonilla H, Thomé PE. Different

algal symbionts explain the vertical distribution of dominant reef corals in the eastern

Pacific. Proceedings of the Royal Society B. 2004;271: 1757–1763.

doi:10.1098/rspb.2004.2757

52.   Clark R, Taylor JC, Buckel CA, Kracker LM. Fish and benthic communities of the Flower

Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary: science to support sanctuary management.

NOAA Technical Memorandum NOS NCCOS 179, Silver Spring; 2014.

53.   Hickerson EL, Schmahl GP, Johnston MA, Nuttall MF, Embesi JA, Eckert RJ. Flower

Garden Banks – a refuge in the Gulf of Mexico? Proceedings of the 12th International

Coral Reef Symposium, Cairns, Australia. 2012;1: 9–13.

54.   Hickerson EL, Schmahl GP, Robbart M, Precht WF, Caldow C. The state of coral reef

ecosystems of the Flower Garden Banks, Stetson Bank, and other banks in the

northwestern Gulf of Mexico. The state of coral reef ecosystems of the United States and

Pacific Freely Associated States: 2008. NOAA Technical Memorandum NOS NCCOS,

Silver Spring; 2008. pp. 189–217.

55.   Schmahl GP, Hickerson EL, Precht WF. Biology and ecology of coral reefs and coral

communities in the Flower Garden Banks region, northwestern Gulf of Mexico. In: Riegl

BM, Dodge RE, editors. Coral reefs of the USA. Dordrecht: Springer; 2008. pp. 221–261.

doi:10.1007/978-1-4020-6847-8_6

56.   Voss JD, Williams MA, Reed JK, Clark R. Benthic and fish communities in the mid and

lower mesphotic zone of the sanctuary. In: Clark R, Taylor JC, Buckel CA, Kracker LM,

editors. Fish and benthic communities of the Flower Garden Banks National Marine

Sanctuary: science to support sanctuary management. Silver Spring, MD: NOAA

Technical Memorandum NOS NCCOS 179; 2014. pp. 201–260.

57.   Jarrett BD, Hine AC, Halley RB, Naar DF, Locker SD, Neumann AC, et al. Strange

bedfellows–a deep-water hermatypic coral reef superimposed on a drowned barrier island;

southern Pulley Ridge, SW Florida platform margin. Marine Geology. 2005;214: 295–

307. doi:10.1016/j.margeo.2004.11.012

58.   Reed J, Farrington S, David A, Harter S, Moe H, Horn L, et al. Characterization of

mesophotic coral/sponge habitats and fish assemblages in the regions of Pulley Ridge and

Tortugas from ROV dives during R/V Walton Smith cruises of 2012 to 2015. NOAA

CIOERT, NOAA-NOS-NCCOS, NOAA Office of Ocean Exploration and Research.

Harbor Branch Oceanographic Technical Report Number 178, Fort Pierce; 2017.

59.   Slattery M, Moore S, Boye L, Whitney S, Woolsey A, Woolsey M. The Pulley Ridge deep

reef is not a stable refugia through time. Coral Reefs. 2018;37: 391–396.

doi:10.1007/s00338-018-1664-3

60.   Jaap WC. Stony coral (Milleporidae and Scleractinia) communities in the eastern Gulf of

Mexico: a synopsis with insights from the Hourglass collections. Bulletin of Marine

Science. 2015;91: 207–253. doi:10.5343/bms.2014.1049

61.   Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image

analysis. Nature Methods. 2012;9: 671–675. doi:10.1038/nmeth.2089

62.   Abràmoff MD, Magalhães PJ, Ram SJ. Image processing with ImageJ. Biophotonics

International. 2004. pp. 36–41. doi:10.1117/1.3589100

63.   Ogle D. FSA: fisheries stock analysis. R package version 0.8.17. 2017.

64.   Clarke KR, Gorley RN, Somerfield PJ, Warwick RM. Change in marine communities: an

approach to statistical analysis and interpretation, 3rd edition. PRIMER-E: Plymouth;

2014.

65.   Clarke KR, Gorley RN. PRIMER v7: User manual/tutorial. PRIMER-E: Plymouth; 2016.

66.   Polinski JM, Voss JD. Evidence of adaptation to mesophotic depths in the coral-

Symbiodinium symbiosis at Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary and

McGrail Bank. Coral Reefs. 2018; doi:10.1007/s00338-018-1701-2

67.   Polinski J. Coral-algal symbioses in mesophotic *Montastraea cavernosa* in the Gulf of

Mexico. M.Sc. Thesis, Florida Atlantic University. 2016.

68.   Kassambara A. ggpubr: "ggplot2" based publication ready plots. R package version 0.1.6.

2017.

69.   Studivan MS, Voss JD. Population connectivity among shallow and mesophotic

Montastraea cavernosa corals in the Gulf of Mexico identifies potential for refugia. Coral

Reefs. 2018; Forthcoming.

70. Peakall R, Smouse PE. GENALEX 6: genetic analysis in Excel. Population genetic

software for teaching and research. Molecular Ecology Notes. 2006;6: 288–295.

doi:10.1111/j.1471-8286.2005.01155.x

71. Peakall R, Smouse PE. GenAlEx 6.5: genetic analysis in Excel. Population genetic

software for teaching and research–an update. Bioinformatics. 2012;28: 2537–2539.

doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts460

72. Pritchard JK, Stephens M, Donnelly P. Inference of population structure using multilocus

genotype data. Genetics. 2000;155: 945–959. doi:10.1111/j.1471-8286.2007.01758.x

73. Evanno G, Regnaut S, Goudet J. Detecting the number of clusters of individuals using the

software STRUCTURE: a simulation study. Molecular Ecology. 2005;14: 2611–2620.

doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2005.02553.x

74. Earl DA, VonHoldt BM. STRUCTURE HARVESTER: a website and program for

visualizing STRUCTURE output and implementing the Evanno method. Conservation

Genetics Resources. 2012;4: 359–361. doi:10.1007/s12686-011-9548-7

75. Kaiser P, Schlichter D, Fricke HW. Influence of light on algal symbionts of the deep water

coral *Leptoseris fragilis*. Marine Biology. 1993;117: 45–52. doi:10.1007/BF00346424

76. Ziegler M, Roder CM, Büchel C, Voolstra CR. Mesophotic coral depth acclimatization is

a function of host-specific symbiont physiology. Frontiers in Marine Science. 2015;2: 4.

doi:10.3389/fmars.2015.00004

77. Smith EG, D'Angelo C, Sharon Y, Tchernov D, Wiedenmann J. Acclimatization of

symbiotic corals to mesophotic light environments through wavelength transformation by

fluorescent protein pigments. Proceedings of the Royal Society B. 2017;284: 20170320.

doi:10.1098/rspb.2017.0320

78.   Kahng SE, Hochberg EJ, Apprill A, Wagner D, Luck DG, Perez D, et al. Efficient light

harvesting in deep-water zooxanthellate corals. Marine Ecology Progress Series.

2012;455: 65–77. doi:10.3354/meps09657

79.   Enríquez S, Méndez ER, Iglesias-Prieto R. Multiple scattering on coral skeletons enhances

light absorption by symbiotic algae. Limnology and Oceanography. 2005;50: 1025–1032.

doi:10.4319/lo.2005.50.4.1025

80.   Scheufen T, Iglesias-Prieto R, Enríquez S. Changes in the number of symbionts and

Symbiodinium cell pigmentation modulate differentially coral light absorption and

photosynthetic performance. Frontiers in Marine Science. 2017;4: 309.

doi:10.3389/fmars.2017.00309

81.   Enríquez S, Méndez ER, Hoegh-Guldberg O, Iglesias-Prieto R. Key functional role of the

optical properties of coral skeletons in coral ecology and evolution. Proceedings of the

Royal Society B. The Royal Society; 2017;284: 20161667. doi:10.1098/rspb.2016.1667

82.   Marcelino LA, Westneat MW, Stoyneva V, Henss J, Rogers JD, Radosevich A, et al.

Modulation of light-enhancement to symbiotic algae by light-scattering in corals and

evolutionary trends in bleaching. PLOS ONE. 2013;8: e61492.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061492

83.   Goodbody-Gringley G, Woollacott RM, Giribet G. Population structure and connectivity

in the Atlantic scleractinian coral *Montastraea cavernosa* (Linnaeus, 1767). Marine

Ecology. 2012;33: 32–48. doi:10.1111/j.1439-0485.2011.00452.x

84.   Arai T, Kato M, Heyward A, Ikeda Y, Iizuka T, Maruyama T. Lipid composition of

positively buoyant coral eggs. Coral Reefs. 1993;12: 71–75.

85.   Holstein DM, Paris CB, Vaz AC, Smith TB. Modeling vertical coral connectivity and

mesophotic refugia. Coral Reefs. 2015;35: 23–37. doi:10.1007/s00338-015-1339-2

86. Nunes FLD, Norris RD, Knowton N. Implications of isolation and low genetic diversity in

peripheral populations of an amphi-Atlantic coral. Molecular Ecology. 2009;18: 4283–

4297. doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2009.04347.x

87. Reid NM, Proestou DA, Clark BW, Warren WC, Colbourne JK, Shaw JR, et al. The

genomic landscape of rapid repeated evolutionary adaptation to toxic pollution in wild

fish. Science. 2016;354: 1305–1308. doi:10.1126/science.aah4993

88. Cunning R, Baker AC. Excess algal symbionts increase the susceptibility of reef corals to

bleaching. Nature Climate Change. Nature Publishing Group; 2012;3: 259–262.

doi:10.1038/nclimate1711

89. Gillespie JH. Population genetics: a concise guide. 2nd ed. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins

University Press; 2010.