All you can eat: the functional response of the cold-water coral *Desmophyllum dianthus* feeding on krill and copepods

Juan Höfer¹,², Humberto E. González¹,², Jürgen Laudien³, Gertraud M. Schmidt¹, Verena Häussermann⁴,⁵ and Claudio Richter³,⁶

¹Instituto de Ciencias Marinas y Limnológicas, Universidad Austral de Chile, Valdivia, Chile
²Centro FONDAP de Investigación en Dinámica de Ecosistemas Marinos de Altas Latitudes (IDEAL), Valdivia, Chile
³Alfred-Wegener-Institut, Helmholtz-Zentrum für Polar und Meeresforschung, Bremerhaven, Germany
⁴Facultad de Recursos Naturales, Escuela de Ciencias del Mar, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso, Valparaíso, Chile
⁵Huinay Scientific Field Station, Huinay, Chile
⁶Fachbereich Biologie/Chemie, Universität Bremen, Bremen, Germany

ABSTRACT

The feeding behavior of the cosmopolitan cold-water coral (CWC) *Desmophyllum dianthus* (Cnidaria: Scleractinia) is still poorly known. Its usual deep distribution restricts direct observations, and manipulative experiments are so far limited to prey that do not occur in CWC natural habitat. During a series of replicated incubations, we assessed the functional response of this coral feeding on a medium-sized copepod (*Calanoides patagoniensis*) and a large euphausiid (*Euphausia vallentini*). Corals showed a Type I functional response, where feeding rate increased linearly with prey abundance, as predicted for a tentaculate passive suspension feeder. No significant differences in feeding were found between prey items, and corals were able to attain a maximum feeding rate of 10.99 mg C h⁻¹, which represents an ingestion of the 11.4% of the coral carbon biomass per hour. These findings suggest that *D. dianthus* is a generalist zooplankton predator capable of exploiting dense aggregations of zooplankton over a wide prey size-range.

Subjects Ecology, Marine Biology

Keywords *Desmophyllum dianthus*, Cold-water coral, Functional response, Coral feeding, *Euphausia vallentini*, *Calanoides patagoniensis*

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, cold-water corals (CWC) have received increasing attention from the scientific community as they were considered particularly vulnerable to global warming and ocean acidification (Doney et al., 2009; Maier et al., 2012; Jantzen et al., 2013a, 2013b; Lebrato et al., 2016). Although there are recent findings on how CWC may response to global change (Maier et al., 2012, 2013; Jantzen et al., 2013b; McCulloch et al., 2012a, 2012b; Findlay et al., 2014; Gori et al., 2016), there are still several uncertainties about their adaptive capacity. Part of them are due to the paucity of basic knowledge of the biology of CWC species, particularly in terms of growth, life cycle, and feeding. For example,
several CWCs seem able to up-regulate the pH of their internal calcifying fluid in order to cope with lower seawater pH (McCulloch et al., 2012a). However, the capacity to withstand unfavorable conditions likely depends on the nutrition level and the overall fitness of the corals (Guinotte et al., 2006; Jantzen et al., 2013a).

*Desmophyllum dianthus* (Esper, 1794) is a cosmopolitan CWC species (Cairns, 1983; Cairns, Försterra & Häussermann, 2005), that forms solitary polyps of up to 40 cm in height and 6.3 cm in diameter (Försterra & Häussermann, 2003), and usually lives beyond the reach of divers between 35 and 2,460 m depth (Cairns, 1995). In the northern hemisphere, it is often found in deep-water coral communities (Freiwald et al., 2004; Roberts et al., 2009) associated with *D. pertusum* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Madrepora oculata* Linnaeus, 1758 (Reveillaud et al., 2008; Heindel et al., 2010). In the southern hemisphere it constitutes the main CWC species in shallow coral banks off New Zealand and Chile (Squires, 1965; Cairns & Stanley, 1982). However, the geographical distribution of *D. dianthus* may probably shrink in the near future due to physiological stress caused by ocean acidification and especially global warming (Gori et al., 2016).

In the Comau Fjord (northern Patagonia, Chile; 42° 22.767 S, 72° 25.534 W) *D. dianthus* is abundant (Försterra & Häussermann, 2003; Jantzen et al., 2013a, 2013b; Fillinger & Richter, 2013) and locally dominates the benthic hard-bottom community (Försterra & Häussermann, 2003; Cairns, Försterra & Häussermann, 2005). Here, the coral banks attain abundances of up to 1,500 coral individuals per square meter (Cairns, Försterra & Häussermann, 2005) and single individuals have been found as shallow as seven m (Försterra et al., 2005). A surface layer of brackish water limits the upper coral distribution around 12 m depth (Försterra & Häussermann, 2003; Cairns, Försterra & Häussermann, 2005), while in the deep basin of the fjord the reduction of its abundance seems to be related to higher metabolic costs due to lower oxygen concentration combined with lower pH (Fillinger & Richter, 2013). This shallow upper distribution in the Comau Fjord represents a unique opportunity to collect *D. dianthus* for manipulative experiments by scientific SCUBA diving.

In the past, the role of zooplankton in the diet of CWC has been questioned due to the low abundance of zooplankton in deep CWC habitats (Kiriakoulakis et al., 2005) and an insufficient number of nematocysts to properly capture zooplankton (Lasker, 1981). However, recent findings suggest that zooplankton may play an important role in the diet of *D. dianthus* (Carlier et al., 2009; Mayr et al., 2011) being a major energy source for this CWC species (Naumann et al., 2011). The few direct estimates of *Desmophyllum* feeding rates available are based on laboratory experiments with non-naturally occurring prey, that is, *Artemia salina* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Tsounis et al., 2010), thus, the feeding behavior of this CWC on natural zooplankton is virtually unexplored.

The functional response examines predator–prey interactions that have direct implications for population dynamics of both prey and predator (Holling, 1965; Murdoch, 1977), and constitutes a key concept in trophic ecology (Holling, 1959, 1966), as it describes a species capability to exploit resources for survival, growth, and recruitment, which in the case of corals also affects their mortality risk due to environmental stress.
The main goal of this study was to examine the natural feeding behavior of the CWC *D. dianthus*. In the Mediterranean Sea, stable isotopes and observations suggest that copepods and euphausids may be important prey items for *Desmophyllum* (Carlier et al., 2009; Tsounis et al., 2010). Our own observations show that this seems to be the case also for *D. dianthus* in the Comau Fjord. We therefore quantified the functional response of Patagonian *D. dianthus* feeding on two corresponding natural zooplankters: *Calanoides patagoniensis* Brady, 1883, a medium-sized copepod, and *Euphausia vallentini* Stebbing, 1900, a large euphausiid. The comparison between the functional responses on each prey allows us to attain a first and comprehensive view of *D. dianthus* natural feeding behavior.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### D. dianthus sampling

*D. dianthus* was collected by scientific SCUBA divers in the Comau Fjord (Northern Patagonia, Chile; see details in Försterra et al., 2005; Fillinger & Richter, 2013) during September and December 2016 and May 2017 (i.e., spring, summer, and fall season). The collection of corals was approved by the sub-secretariat of fisheries and farming within the Chilean Ministry of Economy, Development & Tourism (file number: 1760). In each season circa twenty specimens of similar size (3–4 cm long, 1.5–2 cm diameter) were individually chiseled off highly populated rocks near 42° 14.935 S, 72° 30.880 W at 18–20 m depth. Corals with polyp tissue almost down to their basis were selected to avoid infestations by endolithic or boring sponges (Försterra et al., 2005; Jantzen et al., 2013b). Immediately after their collection, corals were placed in a plastic container filled with their ambient seawater for transportation. This prevented corals from suffering an osmotic shock when divers ascended through the shallow brackish surface layer present within this fjord (Schwabe et al., 2006). Corals were immediately transported to Huinay Scientific Field Station (HSFS), where they were placed in flow-through aquaria constantly supplied with unfiltered fjord water from 24 m water depth to resemble their natural conditions. Parts of the skeletons not covered with tissue were cut underwater with a diamond blade equipped rotary tool (DREMEL Europe, Breda, The Netherlands) before removing all epibionts (e.g., microbial mats, tube-dwelling polychaetes, bryozoans) and gluing the corals to polyethylene screws (Super Flex Glue Gel; UHU GmbH & Co KG, Bühl, Germany). Corals were allowed to acclimatize for at least 48 h before the incubation experiments started. During this period, corals were regularly checked and only healthy corals with extended tentacles during night hours were used for the experiments. Then, the functional response of corals feeding on krill and copepods was assessed (see details below and in Table 1).

### Zooplankton sampling

Zooplankton samples were collected in front of HSFS during sunset and the first night hours. Several vertical hauls from 100–150 m depth to the surface were made using a bongo net (mouth of 40 cm diameter) equipped with a non-filtering cod end to reduce zooplankton stress during sampling. For sampling medium-sized zooplankton...
(i.e., *C. patagoniensis*) the bongo net was equipped with a 200 μm mesh size, whereas, 500 μm mesh size was used for larger zooplankton (i.e., *E. vallentini*). Immediately after sampling, the zooplankton was placed in a cooler filled with unfiltered seawater from 24 m depth and transported to HSFS. There, healthy individuals of the target species were identified and selected under a stereomicroscope. Selected individuals of *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* were then placed in 500 mL Schott bottles (Schott AG, Mainz, Germany) filled with 790 mL of seawater filtered through a 20 μm sieve to remove all zooplankters. Bottles containing zooplankton were then placed in a dark room for 2 or 3 h inside tanks with a constant flow of seawater from 24 m depth, maintaining zooplankton at their environmental temperature while reducing their stress. All bottles were checked immediately before performing functional response incubations and bottles containing unhealthy zooplankton (i.e., non-swimming) were discarded (see Table 1).

### Functional response incubations

Normally, eight or nine specimens of *D. dianthus* (see Table 1) were placed upside down, similar to their natural orientation, inside bottles containing healthy zooplankton (Fig. 1A), then moved from HSFS laboratory to HSFS jetty and deployed hanging from the jetty at ≈8 m depth. This experimental set up simulates in situ conditions of temperature and light. On different days (i.e., one for each prey type), corals experienced increasing zooplankton concentrations from 1.26 to 11.39 euphausiids L⁻¹ and from 2.53 to 50.63 copepods L⁻¹ (see incubation details in Table 1). Incubations started around midnight and lasted 3 h to avoid oxygen consumptions larger than 10%, which might alter coral feeding behavior during the experiments (Table 1). Initial and final

| Date       | Prey type | Min PA | Max PA | N  | Start time | End time | O₂ con |
|------------|-----------|--------|--------|----|------------|----------|--------|
| 11/09/2016 | EV        | 1.26   | 11.39  | 9  | 00:30      | 03:30    | 8.8    |
| 13/09/2016⁺ | CP        | 2.53   | 22.78  | 6  | 23:30      | 02:30    | 1.7    |
| 15/12/2016 | EV        | 1.26   | 10.12  | 8  | 01:00      | 04:00    | 5.4    |
| 17/12/2016 | CP        | 5.06   | 25.31  | 9  | 23:00      | 02:00    | 2.2    |
| 06/05/2017⁺ | EV        | 1.26   | 11.39  | 8  | 23:30      | 02:30    | 3.2    |
| 14/05/2017⁺ | CP        | 6.33   | 50.63  | 8  | 23:30      | 02:30    | 4.1    |
| global     | EV        | 1.26   | 11.39  | 25 |            |          | 5.8    |
| global     | CP        | 2.53   | 50.63  | 23 |            |          | 2.7    |
| Date       | Mean carbon biomass (mg C) | SE |
|------------|---------------------------|----|
| Desmphyllum dianthus | 96.198 | 8.5000 |
| Euphausia vallentini | 4.713  | 0.3300 |
| Calanoides patagonensis | 0.043  | 0.0063 |

**Notes:**

Date of the incubation, prey type, minimum prey abundance (Min PA, prey L⁻¹), maximum prey abundance (Max PA, prey L⁻¹), number of corals used (N), incubation starting time (Start time), incubation ending time (End time) and mean % of oxygen consumed during incubations (O₂ con). CP and EV stand for *Calanoides patagoniensis* and *Euphausia vallentini*, respectively.

⁺ During this incubation two bottles were discarded before starting the functional response experiment due to unhealthy (i.e., non-swimming) copepods.

b, c The corals used for these incubations were collected on different days.

---

Höfer et al. (2018), *PeerJ*, DOI 10.7717/peerj.5872
oxygen concentrations were measured using a Hach HQ40D multiparameter probe. We checked if the tentacles of the corals were extended at the beginning and end of the incubations in order to discard any coral without totally extended tentacles, although no coral was discarded due to this reason. Back at the laboratory of HSFS, corals were returned to the acclimatization tanks. The remaining zooplankton (i.e., not captured by corals) was collected from the incubation bottles using a 20 μm sieve and then counted under a stereomicroscope. Zooplankton and corals were subsequently frozen at -20 °C and transported to the laboratory, where corals and zooplankton were retrieved and dried in an oven at 58 °C for 48 h. Euphausiids and copepods were ground to a fine powder with a mortar and pestle, while corals were previously decarbonated by immersion in liquid HCl (10%) at room temperature following the procedure also used for Desmophyllum samples by Carlier et al. (2009). For elemental analysis, one coral (D. dianthus), one euphausiid (E. vallentini), and 20 copepods (C. patagoniensis) pooled together, were placed on pre-combusted glass fiber filters and assayed for carbon biomass content (Table 1). Samples were weighed into tin cups (3.3 x 5 mm), combusted at 900 °C, and analyzed in a continuous flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Flash EA200 IRMS Delta Series; Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany).

**Data analysis**

Statistical analyses were performed using the program R version 3.1.0 (R Core Team, 2012). First of all, we analyzed if there were significant differences in the functional responses for each prey among different seasons. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed using the aov function from the package stats to check if the slopes for each prey and season were significantly different. Since the slopes for E. vallentini (n = 25, F = 0.002, p-value = 0.97) and C. patagoniensis (n = 23, F = 1.911, p-value = 0.18) were not significantly different among seasons, all data for each prey were pooled together for subsequent analysis.
Holling’s (1959) functional response describes three different types (i.e., I, II, and III) of relationship between predator feeding rate and the abundance of its prey. In short, Type I consists of a linear increase in the feeding rate with higher prey abundances, whereas Type II depicts a feeding rate that increases with a decelerating rate with higher prey abundances until the feeding rate reaches an asymptote (i.e., maximum feeding rate) that represents the saturation of the predator and directly depends on the prey handling time. Type III is similar to Type II, predator saturation with high prey abundances, but, with low prey abundances the increase in feeding rate is closer to an exponential fit than a linear one. This is the consequence of the predator learning time, that is, the improvement in the attack and handling efficiency of the predator feeding on that particular prey (see details in Holling, 1959).

Second-order logistic regressions were used to test which type of functional response was exhibited by *D. dianthus* preying on *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* (see details in Trexler, McCulloch & Travis, 1988; Juliano, 2001; Alexander et al., 2012). The effect of prey abundance (i.e., food availability) on the proportion (parts per unit) of prey ingested by corals was explored using the function *glm* from the *stats* package. Type I responses present non-significant linear terms (Buckel & Stoner, 2000); whereas Type II has a significantly negative first-order term and Type III responses show a significantly positive first-order term, followed by a significantly negative second-order term (Juliano, 2001).

According to functional response Type I, ingestion rate increases linearly with prey abundance. Model selection was used to test which kind of fit, linear or logarithmical, better explained the relationship between coral ingestion rate and prey abundance. Model selection was performed using second order Akaike Information Criteria (AICc). Functions *lm* (package *stats*) and *aictab* (package *AICcmodavg*) were used for linear regressions and model selection, respectively. *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* represent two different prey types due to their differences, for example, in size, swimming ability and feeding behavior. To examine if *D. dianthus* displayed different feeding responses related to the prey type, the relationship between coral daily ration (% of coral carbon biomass ingested d$^{-1}$) and prey biomass (mg C L$^{-1}$) was compared for each prey item. If the prey type does not affect the response of *D. dianthus*, the linear regressions for *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* should present similar slopes. The similarity of the slopes for *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* was tested by an ANCOVA performed using the *aov* function from the package *stats*.

**RESULTS**

Krill and copepods were actively swimming inside the incubation bottles at the end of each experiment, while corals had their tentacles fully extended (Fig. 1B). Oxygen consumption during all incubations was always lower than the 10% of the initial oxygen concentration (Table 1). All these evidences support the reliability of the results obtained during the incubations.
Functional response type

The proportion of prey (parts per unit) ingested by *D. dianthus* showed no pattern over a wide range of prey abundances for *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* (Fig. 2). The second-order logistic regressions for *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* (Fig. 2) did not present any significant term (Table 2) pointing out that *D. dianthus* displayed a functional response Type I when feeding on both prey. Corals actually feeding ate a mean 21.99% and 18.22% of copepods and euphausiids, respectively (Fig. 2), with only a marginally significant difference between the percentage of krill and copepods eaten (Kruskal–Wallis, $\chi^2 = 2.88$, $p$-value = 0.09). The proportion of prey eaten was approximately constant and did not depend on the number of prey offered (Fig. 2), which means that coral ingestion rate would increase linearly with prey abundance (Fig. 3).

### Table 2 Functional response type.

| Prey                        | First-order term | Second-order term |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| *Calanoides patagoniensis*  | 0.63 (0.81)      | −1.08 (0.68)      |
| *Euphausia vallentini*      | 4.38 (0.34)      | −3.11 (0.43)      |

**Note:**

Terms and their $p$-value (inside brackets) for the second-order logistic regressions used to analyze the relationship between prey abundance and the proportion of prey ingested by corals (i.e., analysis to determine functional response type).

---

**Figure 2** Scatter plot showing the prey abundance (number of prey L$^{-1}$) and the proportion of prey (parts per unit) ingested by corals (*º/ h$^{-1}$). (A) Data for *C. patagoniensis* incubations. (B) Data for *E. vallentini* incubations. Solid black lines represent the mean proportion of prey ingested by feeding corals, while dashed gray lines correspond to the non-significant second-order logistic regression fits.

**Table 2** Functional response type.

| Prey                        | First-order term | Second-order term |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| *Calanoides patagoniensis*  | 0.63 (0.81)      | −1.08 (0.68)      |
| *Euphausia vallentini*      | 4.38 (0.34)      | −3.11 (0.43)      |

**Note:**

Terms and their $p$-value (inside brackets) for the second-order logistic regressions used to analyze the relationship between prey abundance and the proportion of prey ingested by corals (i.e., analysis to determine functional response type).
Effect of prey abundance on *D. dianthus* ingestion rate

Coral ingestion rate showed a good linear fitting with the abundance of prey (*Fig. 3*) agreeing with the results expected for a functional response Type I (non-significant terms in *Table 2*). Model selection indicates that the linear fitting model is the most probable one for both prey items, explaining the 85% and 68% of the variance for *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini*, respectively (*Table 3*).

**Table 3** Model selection for the linear and logarithmic models fitted to coral ingestion rate and prey abundance for *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini*.

| Prey                  | Fit      | AICc   | Delta AICc | AICc Wt | Cum Wt | $R^2$ | p-value |
|-----------------------|----------|--------|------------|---------|--------|-------|---------|
| *Calanoides patagoniensis* | Linear   | 237.42 | 0.00       | 0.93    | 0.93   | 0.85  | <0.001  |
| *Calanoides patagoniensis* | Logarithmic | 242.74 | 5.33       | 0.07    | 1.00   | 0.81  | <0.001  |
| *Euphausia vallentini*   | Linear   | 108.37 | 0.00       | 0.79    | 0.79   | 0.68  | <0.001  |
| *Euphausia vallentini*   | Logarithmic | 111.08 | 2.71       | 0.21    | 1.00   | 0.64  | <0.001  |

Note: The best fitting model according to second order Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) is bolded. The table also shows the difference in AICc between both models (Delta AICc), the relative weight of each model (AICc Wt), the cumulative weight of the models (Cum Wt), the proportion of the variance explained by each model ($R^2$) and model significance (p-value).

Effect of prey abundance on *D. dianthus* ingestion rate

Coral ingestion rate showed a good linear fitting with the abundance of prey (*Fig. 3*) agreeing with the results expected for a functional response Type I (non-significant terms in *Table 2*). Model selection indicates that the linear fitting model is the most probable one for both prey items, explaining the 85% and 68% of the variance for *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini*, respectively (*Table 3*).

Effects of prey type on the daily ration of *D. dianthus*

The daily ration of *D. dianthus* feeding on *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* ranged from 0 to 8.19% and from 0 to 274.37% of coral carbon biomass $d^{-1}$, respectively (*Fig. 4*). Coral daily ration presented a similar response to the amount of carbon biomass offered despite of the different prey types supplied, that is, *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini*.
According to ANCOVA results the slopes displayed by *D. dianthus* feeding on both prey items did not differ significantly ($F = 0.002$, $p$-value = 0.9685), which means that *D. dianthus* feeds similarly regardless of the prey type.

**DISCUSSION**

The CWC *D. dianthus* was able to efficiently prey on medium and large sized zooplankton, even when corals faced prey abundances much higher than natural ones. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first direct assessment of *D. dianthus* feeding on naturally co-occurring zooplankton. *D. dianthus* displayed a functional response Type I, which implies that coral ingestion rate increases linearly with prey abundance. This response is typical for suspension feeders in general (Jeschke, Kopp & Tollrian, 2004) and corals in particular (Anthony, 1999), which passively extend their crown of nematocyst-laden tentacles and minimize handling by effectively paralyzing their prey, even at high densities. *D. dianthus* exhibited this response, that is, functional response Type I, when feeding on a medium-sized copepod (*C. patagoniensis*) and a large euphausiid (*E. vallentini*). Besides, the daily ration of corals increased similarly with the carbon biomass offered to corals regardless of the prey species, suggesting that *D. dianthus* is potentially able to feed on a wide variety of zooplankton prey.

**D. dianthus functional response feeding on zooplankton**

The proportion of prey ingested by *D. dianthus* did not show any clear pattern with prey abundance (Fig. 2; Table 2), indicating a functional response Type I when corals feed on *C. patagoniensis* and *E. vallentini* (Fig. 3). Functional response Type I implies that prey handling time is so brief that it has a negligible effect on the coral food uptake, which leads to the high ingestion rates display by more effective predators (Haddaway et al.,...
D. dianthus is able to instantly paralyze even large krill (personal observation J. Höfer 2016), explaining its non-saturation state when facing very high abundances of krill.

Previous studies using stable isotopes suggested that D. dianthus may feed mainly on zooplankton instead of directly assimilate particulate organic matter, even presenting a slightly higher trophic level than planktivorous fishes (Carlier et al., 2009; Mayr et al., 2011). Laboratory studies also showed that Desmophyllum was able to capture Artemia (Tsounis et al., 2010), which sustained coral respiration, growth and organic matter release (Naumann et al., 2011). However, to this point, evidence of D. dianthus feeding effectively on naturally occurring zooplankton was lacking.

**Effect of prey abundance and prey type on D. dianthus feeding**

The ingestion rate of corals feeding on C. patagoniensis and E. vallentini increased linearly with prey abundance (Fig. 3). During incubations corals experienced prey abundances (2.53–50.63 copepods L\(^{-1}\) and 1.26–11.39 euphausiids L\(^{-1}\)) that were two to five orders of magnitude higher than the natural abundances registered for copepods (0.19 copepods L\(^{-1}\)) and euphausiids (0.0004 euphausiids L\(^{-1}\)) within the Comau Fjord (Sánchez, González & Iriarte, 2011). Despite these very large abundances, the feeding of D. dianthus displayed no saturation, suggesting that D. dianthus is able to feed effectively on dense zooplankton aggregations swimming near corals. Here, we recorded a maximum capture rate of 7.67 prey polyp\(^{-1}\) h\(^{-1}\) during C. patagoniensis incubations, agreeing with previous records (8.48 prey polyp\(^{-1}\) h\(^{-1}\)) of Desmophyllum feeding on Artemia under optimal current conditions (Tsounis et al., 2010), which supports our findings that D. dianthus was effectively feeding under very high prey abundances. Previous studies have shown that zooplankton aggregations increase coral feeding (Genin et al., 2005) and zooplankton swarms are common in fjord boundaries (Hirche, Laudien & Buchholz, 2016) such as the steep slopes surrounding the inner part of the Comau Fjord (Fillinger & Richter, 2013). Therefore, being able to feed properly on moving zooplankton swarms might be an adaptive strategy for CWC living in a patchy and zooplankton scarce environment (Kiriakoulakis et al., 2005).

D. dianthus daily ration showed the same relationship with the carbon biomass offered regardless of the prey type, that is, slopes showed no significant difference in Fig. 4 (ANCOVA, F = 0.002, p-value = 0.9685). Additionally, Desmophyllum is able to effectively capture microzooplankton like nauplii (Tsounis et al., 2010), giving further support to D. dianthus as a skilled generalist zooplankton predator. D. dianthus was able to capture a slightly higher percentage of copepods (21.99%) than krill (18.22%), which is surprising since copepods are known to display an actual escape response to avoid predators (Strickler & Bal, 1973; Yen et al., 1992). Copepods escape from predators when they detect the hydromechanical disturbances caused by them (Kerfoot, 1978; Haury, Kenyon & Brooks, 1980). The magnitude of this signal (i.e., velocity difference between predator and the environment) determines the efficiency of predator detection and therefore copepod and nauplii escape success against filter feeders, swimming, and ambush predators (Viitasalo et al., 1998; Kiørboe, Saiz & Visser, 1999; Green et al., 2003; Titelman & Kiørboe, 2003).
However, CWC (including *D. dianthus*) passively extend their tentacles to feed, which probably makes them virtually undetectable for copepods and nauplii since the passively extended tentacles are very difficult to distinguish from the surrounding waters using hydromechanical cues. The feeding strategy of *D. dianthus* enables its ability to effectively capture copepods and nauplii, acting as a “ghost predator”.

**General insights into *D. dianthus* feeding ecology**

Cold-water corals were expected to not feed on zooplankton due to its paucity in the waters surrounding them (*Kiriakoulakis et al., 2005*). However, stable isotopes (*Duineveld, Lavaleye & Berghuis, 2004; Carlier et al., 2009; Mayr et al., 2011*), laboratory experiments (*Tsounis et al., 2010; Naumann et al., 2011*), and the present findings suggest that zooplankton is a major food source for CWC, including *D. dianthus*. Zooplankton behavior promotes the formation of dense aggregations or swarms (*Folt & Burns, 1999*; and references therein). Although these swarms may be spatially and temporally scattered for corals, our results suggest that *D. dianthus* is able to prey effectively on dense zooplankton aggregations such as krill swarms performing diel vertical migration. *E. vallentini* plays a major role in the pelagic food webs of the Chilean fjord region (*González et al., 2009, 2010, 2011, 2016*), where *E. vallentini* migrates from 200 m depth to surface waters (*Hamame & Antezana, 2010*), representing an optimal feeding opportunity for *D. dianthus* according to our findings. These dense vertical migrating swarms of *E. vallentini* within the Comau Fjord might be fueling the high growth rates registered there (2.2–10 mm year$^{-1}$, *Jantzen et al., 2013b*) compared to other areas (0.5–2.2 mm year$^{-1}$, *Adkins et al., 2004*). Besides, this extra food supply may help *D. dianthus* to cope with the low pH (*McCulloch et al., 2012a*) that part of its population experiences within the Comau Fjord (*Jantzen et al., 2013a; Fillinger & Richter, 2013*).

Cold-water corals, such as *D. dianthus*, live in cooler waters than their tropical relatives, which implies less energy losses due to metabolic costs. Although zooplankton may be available only during short pulses, *D. dianthus* is able to seize these dense aggregations to feed actively as it is shown by the present and previous findings (*Tsounis et al., 2010*). These short “feeding windows” may be enough for *D. dianthus* to avoid starvation and grow, while, between these “feeding windows” corals might exploit particulate (detritus, nano- and microplankton) and/or dissolved organic matter as it has been recorded for other corals (*Orejas et al., 2001; Orejas, Gili & Arntz, 2003; Ribes, Coma & Rossi, 2003; Tsounis et al., 2006*).

**CONCLUSIONS**

The ingestion rate of *D. dianthus* increased linearly with prey abundance (i.e., functional response Type I) even when corals experienced prey abundances that were much higher than the natural ones. This implies that *D. dianthus* is a capable zooplankton predator that seems to be adapted to exploit dense zooplankton aggregations when they pass by. Finally, *D. dianthus*, feeding response showed no differences when preying upon a medium-sized copepod or a large euphausiid, which evidences, along with previous studies, that this CWC is able to effectively feed on a wide variety of zooplankton prey.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
We are very grateful to the staff of Huinay Scientific Field Station, especially G. Försterra, for their logistical support. F. Beaujot, A. Thomasberger and M. Schiønning assisted collecting corals, while P. Martis and N. García-Herrera helped during incubations. This is a contribution of the IDEAL research center and publication number 160 with contribution from Huinay Scientific Field Station. N. García-Herrera kindly provided the pictures for Fig. 1. Useful comments from the editor and two reviewers helped us to improve the manuscript.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND DECLARATIONS

Funding
This work was supported by the bilateral Chilean-German PACOC Project (CONICYT-BMBF 20140041; BMBF 01DN15024) as well as CONICYT FONDAP-IDEAL 15150003 and AWI (PACES II, Topic 1, WP6). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Grant Disclosures
The following grant information was disclosed by the authors:
Bilateral Chilean-German PACOC Project: CONICYT-BMBF 20140041; BMBF 01DN15024.
CONICYT FONDAP-IDEAL 15150003 and AWI: PACES II, Topic 1, WP6.

Competing Interests
The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Author Contributions
- Juan Höfer conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, analyzed the data, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, prepared figures and/or tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
- Humberto E. González conceived and designed the experiments, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
- Jürgen Laudien conceived and designed the experiments, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
- Gertraud M. Schmidt contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
- Verena Häussermann contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
- Claudio Richter conceived and designed the experiments, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
Field Study Permissions
The following information was supplied relating to field study approvals (i.e., approving body and any reference numbers):

The collection of animals for scientific purposes was approved by the sub-secretariat of fisheries and farming within the Chilean Ministry of Economy, Development & Tourism (file number: 1760).

Data Availability
The following information was supplied regarding data availability:

Höfer, Juan; García Herrera, Nur; Martis, Paula; Laudien, Jürgen; González Estay, Humberto; Richter, Claudio (2018): Functional response of the cold-water coral Desmophyllum dianthus feeding in vitro on krill and copepods. Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Center for Polar and Marine Research, Bremerhaven, PANGAEA, https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.893159.

REFERENCES

Adkins JF, Henderson GM, Wanga S-L, O’Shea S, Mokadem F. 2004. Growth rates of the deep-sea scleractinia Desmophyllum cristagalli and Enallopammia rostrata. Earth and Planetary Science Letters 227(3–4):481–490 DOI 10.1016/j.epsl.2004.08.022.

Alexander ME, Dick JTA, O’Connor NE, Haddaway NR, Farnsworth KD. 2012. Functional responses of the intertidal amphipod Echinogammarus marinus: effects of prey supply, model selection and habitat complexity. Marine Ecology Progress Series 468:191–202 DOI 10.3354/meps09978.

Anthony KRN. 1999. Coral suspension feeding on fine particulate matter. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 232(1):85–106 DOI 10.1016/s0022-0981(98)00099-9.

Anthony KRN, Hoogenboom MO, Maynard JA, Grottoli AG, Middlebrook R. 2009. Energetics approach to predicting mortality risk from environmental stress: a case study of coral bleaching. Functional Ecology 23(3):539–550 DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2435.2008.01531.x.

Buckel JA, Stoner AW. 2000. Functional response and switching behavior of young-of-the-year piscivorous bluefish. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 245(1):25–41 DOI 10.1016/s0022-0981(99)00155-0.

Cairns SD. 1983. Antarctic and subantarctic Scleractinia. Antarctic Research Series 34:1–74 DOI 10.1029/ar034p001.

Cairns SD. 1995. The marine fauna of New Zealand: Scleractinia (Cnidaria: Anthozoa). New Zealand Oceanographic Institute Memoir 103:210.

Cairns SD, Försterra G, Häussermann V. 2005. A review of the Scleractinia (Cnidaria: Anthozoa) of Chile, with the description of two new species. Zootaxa 118(1):15–46 DOI 10.11646/zootaxa.1018.1.2.

Cairns SD, Stanley GDJ. 1982. Ahermatypic coral banks: living and fossil counterparts. In: Proceedings of the 4th International Coral Reef Symposium Marine Sciences Center. Vol. 1. Manila: University of the Philippines, 611–618.

Carlier A, Le Guilloux E, Olu K, Sarrazin J, Mastrototaro F, Taviani M, Clavier J. 2009. Trophic relationships in a deep Mediterranean cold-water coral bank (Santa Maria di Leuca, Ionian Sea). Marine Ecology Progress Series 397:125–137 DOI 10.3354/meps08361.
Doney SC, Fabry VJ, Feely RA, Kleypas A. 2009. Ocean acidification: the other CO$_2$ problem. *Annual Review Marine Science* 1:169–192 DOI 10.1146/annurev.marine.010908.163834.

Duineveld GCA, Lavaleye MSS, Berghuis EM. 2004. Particle flux and food supply to a seamount cold-water coral community (Galicia Bank, NW Spain). *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 277:13–23 DOI 10.3354/meps277013.

Fillinger I, Richter C. 2013. Vertical and horizontal distribution of *Desmophyllum dianthus* in Comau Fjord, Chile: a cold-water coral thriving at low pH. *PeerJ* 1:e194 DOI 10.7717/peerj.194.

Findlay HS, Hennige SJ, Wicks LC, Navas JM, Woodward EMS, Roberts JM. 2014. Fine-scale nutrient and carbonate system dynamics around cold-water coral reefs in the northeast Atlantic. *Scientific Reports* 4(1):3671 DOI 10.1038/srep03671.

Folt CL, Burns CW. 1999. Biological drivers of zooplankton patchiness. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 14(8):300–305 DOI 10.1016/S0169-5347(99)01616-X.

Försterra G, Häussermann V. 2003. First report on large scleractinian (Cnidaria: Anthozoa) accumulations in cold-temperate shallow water of south Chilean fjords. *Zoologische Verhandelingen Leiden* 345:117–128.

Försterra G, Häussermann V. 2005. Shallow-water *Desmophyllum dianthus* (Scleractinia) from Chile: characteristics of the biocoenoses, the bioeroding community, heterotrophic interactions and (paleo)-bathymetric implications. In: Freiwald A, Roberts JM, eds. *Cold-Water Corals and Ecosystems*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag, 937–977.

Freiwald A, Fossa JH, Grehan A, Koslow T, Roberts JM. 2004. *Cold-Water Coral Reefs, Out of Sight-No Longer Out of Mind*. Cambridge: UNEP-WCMC.

Genin A, Jaffe JS, Reef R, Richter C, Franks PJS. 2005. Swimming against the flow: a mechanism of zooplankton aggregation. *Science* 308(5723):860–862 DOI 10.1126/science.1107834.

González HE, Castro L, Daneri G, Iriarte JL, Lizárraga L, Martínez R, Menschel E, Silva N, Carrasco C, Valenzuela C, Vargas CA, Moline C. 2010. Primary production and plankton dynamics in the Reloncaví Fjord and the interior Sea of Chiloé, northern Patagonia, Chile. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 402:13–30 DOI 10.3354/meps08360.

González HE, Graeve M, Kattner G, Silva N, Vargas CA, Giesecke R, Sánchez N. 2011. Seasonal plankton variability in Chilean Patagonia fjords: carbon flow through the pelagic food web of *Aysen Fjord* and plankton dynamics in the Moraleda Channel basin. *Continental Shelf Research* 31(3–4):225–243 DOI 10.1016/j.csr.2010.08.010.

González HE, Daneri G, Iriarte JL, Yannicelli B, Menschel E, Barría C, Pantoja S, Lizárraga L. 2009. Carbon fluxes within the epipelagic zone of the Humboldt current system off Chile: the significance of euphausiids and diatoms as key functional groups for the biological pump. *Progress in Oceanography* 83(1–4):217–227 DOI 10.1016/j.pocean.2009.07.036.

González HE, Graeve M, Kattner G, Silva N, Castro L, Iriarte JL, Osmán L, Daneri G, Vargas CA. 2016. Carbon flow through the pelagic food web in southern Chilean Patagonia: relevance of *Euphausia vallentini* as a key species. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 557:91–110 DOI 10.3354/meps11826.

Gori A, Ferrier-Pagès C, Hennige SJ, Murray F, Rottier C, Wicks LC, Roberts JM. 2016. Physiological response of the cold-water coral *Desmophyllum dianthus* to thermal stress and ocean acidification. *PeerJ* 4:e1606 DOI 10.7717/peerj.1606.

Green S, Visser AW, Titelman J, Kiorboe T. 2003. Escape responses of copepod nauplii in the flow field of the blue mussel, *Mytilus edulis*. *Marine Biology* 142(4):727–733 DOI 10.1007/s00227-002-0996-1.
Guinotte JM, Orr J, Cairns S, Freiwald A, Morgan L, George R. 2006. Will human-induced changes in seawater chemistry alter the distribution of deep-sea scleractinian corals? *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment* 4(3):141–146 DOI 10.1890/1540-9295(2006)004[0141:whcisc]2.0.co;2.

Haddaway NR, Wilcox RH, Heptonstall REA, Griffiths HM, Mortimer RJG, Christmas M, Dunn AM. 2012. Predatory functional response and prey choice identify predation differences between native/invasive and parasitised/unparasitised crayfish. *PLOS ONE* 7(2):e32229 DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0032229.

Hamame M, Antezana T. 2010. Vertical diel migration and feeding of *Euphausia vallentini* within southern Chilean fjords. *Deep-Sea Research II* 57(7–8):642–651 DOI 10.1016/j.dsr2.2009.10.013.

Haury LR, Kenyon DE, Brooks JR. 1980. Experimental evaluation of the avoidance reaction of *Calanus finmarchicus*. *Journal of Plankton Research* 2(3):187–202 DOI 10.1093/plankt/2.3.187.

Heindel K, Titschack J, Dorschel B, Huvenne VAI, Freiwald A. 2010. The sediment composition and predictive mapping of facies on the propeller mound—a cold-water coral mound (Porcupine Seabight, NE Atlantic). *Continental Shelf Research* 30(17):1814–1829 DOI 10.1016/j.csr.2010.08.007.

Hirche H-J, Laudien J, Buchholz F. 2016. Near-bottom zooplankton aggregations in Kongsfjorden: implications for pelago–benthic coupling. *Polar Biology* 39(10):1897–1912 DOI 10.1007/s00300-015-1799-4.

Holling CS. 1959. The components of predation as revealed by a study of small-mammal predation of the European pine sawfly. *Canadian Entomology* 91(5):293–320 DOI 10.4039/ent91293-5.

Holling CS. 1965. The functional response of predators to prey density and its role in mimicry and population regulation. *Memoirs of the Entomological Society of Canada* 97(S45):1–60 DOI 10.4039/entm9745fv.

Holling CS. 1966. The functional response of invertebrate predators to prey density. *Memoirs of the Entomological Society of Canada* 98(S48):5–86 DOI 10.4039/entm9848fv.

Jantzen C, Häussermann V, Försterra G, Laudien J, Ardelan M, Maier S, Richter C. 2013a. Occurrence of a cold-water coral along natural pH gradients (Patagonia, Chile). *Marine Biology* 160(10):2597–2607 DOI 10.1007/s00227-013-2254-0.

Jantzen C, Laudien J, Sokol S, Försterra G, Häussermann V, Kupprat F, Richter C. 2013b. In situ short-term growth rates of a cold-water coral. *Marine Freshwater Research* 64(7):631–641 DOI 10.1071/mf12200.

Jeschke J, Kopp M, Tollrian R. 2004. Consumer–food systems: why type I functional responses are exclusive to filter feeders. *Biological Reviews* 79(2):337–349 DOI 10.1017/s1464793103006286.

Juliano SA. 2001. Nonlinear curve fitting: predation and functional response curves. In: Scheiner SM, Gurevitch J, eds. *Design and Analysis of Ecological Experiments*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 178–196.

Kerfoot WC. 1978. Combat between predatory copepods and their prey: *Cyclops, Epischura* and *Bosmina*. *Limnology and Oceanography* 23(6):1089–1102 DOI 10.4319/lo.1978.23.6.1089.

Kiorboe T, Saiz E, Visser A. 1999. Hydrodynamic signal perception in the copepod *Acartia tonsa*. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 179:97–111 DOI 10.3354/meps179097.

Kiriakoulakis K, Fisher L, Freiwald A, Grehan A, Roberts M, Wolff GA. 2005. Lipids and nitrogen isotopes of two deep-water corals from the North-East Atlantic: initial results and implications for their nutrition. In: Freiwald A, Roberts JM, eds. *Cold-Water Corals and Ecosystems*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag, 159–170.

Lasker HR. 1981. A comparison of the particulate feeding abilities of three species of gorgonian soft coral. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 5:61–67 DOI 10.3354/meps005061.
Lebrato M, Andersson AJ, Ries JB, Lamare MD, Koeve W, Ooschiles A, Iglesias-Rodríguez MD, Thatje S, Amsler M, Vos SC, Jones DOB, Ruhl HA, Gates AR, Mcclintock JB. 2016. Benthic marine calcifiers coexist with CaCO$_3$-undersaturated seawater worldwide. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 30(7):1038–1053 DOI 10.1002/2015GB005260.

Maier C, Schubert A, Sánchez MMB, Weinbauer MG, Watremez P, Gattuso JP. 2013. End of the century pCO$_2$ levels do not impact calcification in Mediterranean cold-water corals. PLOS ONE 8(4):e62655 DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0062655.

Maier C, Watremez P, Taviani M, Weinbauer MG, Gattuso J-P. 2012. Calcification rates and the effect of ocean acidification on Mediterranean cold-water corals. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences 279(1734):1713–1723 DOI 10.1098/rspb.2011.1763.

Mayr CC, Försterra G, Häussermann V, Wunderlich A, Grau J, Zieringer M, Altenbach AV. 2011. Stable isotope variability in a Chilean fjord food web: implications for N- and C-cycles. Marine Ecology Progress Series 428:89–104 DOI 10.3354/meps09015.

McCulloch M, Falter J, Trotter J, Montagna P. 2012b. Coral resilience to ocean acidification and global warming through pH up-regulation. Nature Climate Change Letter 2(8):623–627 DOI 10.1038/nclimate1473.

McCulloch M, Trotter J, Montagna P, Falter J, Dunbar R, Freiwald A, Försterra G, López Correa M, Maier C, Rüggeberg A, Taviani M. 2012a. Resilience of cold-water scleractinian corals to ocean acidification: boron isotopic systematics of pH and saturation state up-regulation. Geochimica Cosmochimica Acta 87:21–34 DOI 10.1016/j.gca.2012.03.027.

Murdoch WW. 1977. Stabilizing effects of spatial heterogeneity in predator-prey systems. Theoretical Population Biology 11(2):252–273 DOI 10.1016/0040-5809(77)90028-4.

Naumann MS, Orejas C, Wild C, Ferrier-Pagès C. 2011. First evidence for zooplankton feeding sustaining key physiological processes in a scleractinian cold-water coral. Journal of Experimental Biology 214(21):3570–3576 DOI 10.1242/jeb.061390.

Orejas C, Gili JM, Arntz W. 2003. The role of the small planktonic communities in the diet of two Antarctic octocorals (Primnois antarctica and Primnoella sp.). Marine Ecology Progress Series 250:105–116 DOI 10.3354/meps250105.

Orejas C, Gili JM, López-González PJ, Arntz WE. 2001. Feeding strategies and diet composition of four Antarctic cnidarian species. Polar Biology 24(8):620–627 DOI 10.1007/s003000100272.

R Core Team. 2012. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. Vienna: The R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Available at http://www.R-project.org/.

Reveillaud J, Freiwald A, Van Rooij D, Le Guilloux E, Altuna A, Foubert A, Vaneusel A, Roy KO-L, Henriot JP. 2008. The distribution of scleractinian corals in the Bay of Biscay, NE Atlantic. Facies 54(3):317–331 DOI 10.1007/s10347-008-0138-4.

Ribes M, Coma R, Rossi S. 2003. Natural feeding of the temperate asymbiotic octocoral-gorgonian Leptogorgia sarmentosa. Marine Ecology Progress Series 254:141–150 DOI 10.3354/meps254141.

Roberts MJ, Wheeler AJ, Freiwald A, Cairns S. 2009. Cold-Water Corals. The Biology and Geology of Deep-Sea Coral Habitats. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sánchez N, González HE, Iriarte JL. 2011. Trophic interactions of pelagic crustaceans in Comau Fjord (Chile): their role in the food web structure. Journal of Plankton Research 33(8):1212–1229 DOI 10.1093/plankt/fbr022.

Schwabe E, Försterra G, Häussermann V, Melzer R, Schrödl M. 2006. Chitons (Mollusca: Polyplacophora) from the southern Chilean Comau Fjord, with reinstatement of Tonicia calbacensis plate, 1897. Zootaxa 1341:1–27 DOI 10.11646/zootaxa.1341.1.1.
Strickler JR, Bal AK. 1973. Setae of the first antennae of the copepod *Cyclops scutifer* (Sars): their structure and importance. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **70**(9):2656–2659 DOI 10.1073/pnas.70.9.2656.

Squires DF. 1965. Deep-water coral structure on the Campbell Plateau, New Zealand. *Deep Sea Research and Oceanographic Abstracts* **12**(6):785–788 DOI 10.1016/0011-7471(65)90800-4.

Titelman J, Kiorboe T. 2003. Predator avoidance by nauplii. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* **247**:137–149 DOI 10.3354/meps247137.

Tsounis G, Orejas C, Stéphanie Reynaud S, Gili JM, Allemand D, Ferrier-Pages C. 2010. Prey-capture rates in four Mediterranean cold water corals. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* **398**:149–155 DOI 10.3354/meps08312.

Tsounis G, Rossi S, Laudien J, Bramanti L, Fernández N, Gili J-M, Arntz W. 2006. Diet and seasonal prey capture rates in the Mediterranean red coral (*Corallium rubrum* L.). *Marine Biology* **149**(2):313–325 DOI 10.1007/s00227-005-0220-1.

Trexler JC, McCulloch CE, Travis J. 1988. How can the functional response best be determined? *Oecologia* **76**(2):206–214 DOI 10.1007/BF00379954.

Viitasalo M, Kiorboe T, Flinkman J, Pedersen LW, Visser AW. 1998. Predation vulnerability of planktonic copepods: consequences of predator foraging strategies and prey sensory abilities. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* **175**:129–142 DOI 10.3354/meps175129.

Yen J, Lenz PH, Gassie DV, Hartline DK. 1992. Mechanoreception in marine copepods: electrophysiological studies on the first antennae. *Journal of Plankton Research* **14**(4):459–512 DOI 10.1093/plankt/14.4.495.