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Temporal distribution and diversity of cold-water corals in the southwest Indian Ocean over the past 25,000 years

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Abstract :

Fossil cold-water corals can be used to reconstruct physical, chemical, and biological changes in the ocean because their skeleton often preserves ambient seawater signatures. Furthermore, patterns in the geographic and temporal extent of cold-water corals have changed through time in response to environmental conditions. Here we present taxonomic and dating results from a new collection of subfossil cold-water corals recovered from seamounts of the Southwest Indian Ocean Ridge. The area is a dynamic hydrographic region characterised by eastward flow of the Agulhas Return Current and the northernmost fronts of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. In total, 122 solitary scleractinian corals and 27 samples of colonial scleractinian material were collected from water depths between 172 and 1395 m, corresponding to subtropical waters, Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW), and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW). Fifteen species were identified, including eight species new to the region. The assemblage reflects the position of the seamounts in a transition zone between Indo-Pacific and Subantarctic biogeographic zones. Morphological variation in caryophyllids and the restriction of dendrophylliids to the southern seamounts could result from genetic isolation or reflect environmental conditions. Uranium-series dating using both rapid laser ablation and precise isotope dilution methods reveals their temporal distribution from the Last Glacial Maximum to the present day. Only one specimen of glacial age was found, while peaks in abundance occur around Heinrich Stadial 1 and the Younger Dryas, times at which ocean chemistry and food supply were likely to have presented optimal conditions for cold-water corals. A widespread regional preference of cold-water corals for UCDW over AAIW depths during the deglacial, the reverse of the modern situation, could be explained by higher dissolved oxygen concentrations and a temperature inversion that persisted into the early Holocene.

Highlights

► First described southern Indian Ocean subfossil cold-water coral collection. ► Eight new species to the region identified. ► Dated using rapid laser ablation and isotope dilution uranium series techniques. ► Abundance peak during late deglacial a possible response to optimal ocean chemistry. ► Striking similarities in temporal distribution to other Southern Ocean collections.

1. Introduction

1.1 Cold-water corals

Cold-water corals (henceforth CWCs) comprise non-symbiotic (azooxanthellate) cnidarian species of the orders Scleractinia, Octocorallia, Stylasteridae, and Antipatharia (Roberts et al., 2009). About half of all species of scleractinian corals are azooxanthellate, some of which can build structural habitats that provide refuge for many other species, although the majority are solitary or free-living (Roberts et al., 2009). Most species of scleractinian CWCs are

found in ocean temperatures that range from 1 to 20°C (Stanley and Cairns, 1988) at shallow to lower bathyal depths, with occasional records as deep as 6328 m (Keller, 1976).

Cold-water corals are particularly useful for unravelling changes in ocean biogeochemistry and circulation in the past (Robinson et al., 2014). They are found in abundance in the Southern Ocean, where other proxy archives such as foraminifera are sparse, and they can be preserved on the seafloor or within sediments for thousands of years (e.g. Burke et al. 2010; Margolin et al. 2014; Thiagarajan et al. 2013). Their depth range often covers intermediate and deep water masses, complementing and extending records from abyssal sediment cores. A record of seawater chemistry throughout their lifetime can be preserved in their carbonate skeleton (Robinson et al., 2014), and their high uranium content allows for application of precise uranium-thorium dating methods (Cheng et al., 2000a; Douville et al., 2010; Lomitschka and Mangini, 1999; Montero-Serrano et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2012, 2008).

The physiology of CWCs and their response to environmental stressors is understudied in comparison to their shallow-water counterparts. However, research volume has grown in recent years, in part because of concerns about the impact of human activity on CWC ecosystems (Guinotte et al., 2006). Water temperature is thought to be one of the most important controls on their range at a global scale (Davies and Guinotte, 2011), but responses to thermal stress have been shown to vary by species (e.g. Büscher et al., 2017; Gori et al., 2016). Cold-water corals rely on a food supply of zooplankton, algal material and particulate organic matter (Duineveld et al., 2007). Hydrography plays an important role in controlling supply of this nutrition, as well as in the dispersal of larvae (Dullo et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2010). Although dissolved oxygen is crucial for corals to maintain aerobic function, the limit of tolerance is unknown, with colonies of the coral *Desmophyllum pertusum* (formerly known as *Lophelia pertusa*) being found to survive at dissolved oxygen concentrations well below the limit suggested in laboratory experiments (Dodds et al., 2007). The extent to which carbonate ion concentration controls CWC range is also disputed. Although 95% of

branching CWCs are found above the aragonite saturation horizon (ASH; Guinotte et al., 2006), recent expeditions have also recovered scleractinians from undersaturated waters (e.g. Baco et al., 2017; Thresher et al., 2011). Regional fluctuations in seawater chemistry, productivity, and water mass structure at times in the past are therefore all likely to have exerted some control on regional habitat suitability for CWCs.

1.2 The deglacial Southern Ocean

In this study, we characterise and date a collection of subfossil CWCs from the southern Indian Ocean for the first time and explore the environmental controls on their distribution since the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM; ~23-19 ka). At this time, atmospheric CO_2 concentrations were 80-90 ppm lower than preindustrial values (Monnin et al., 2001). Enhanced carbon storage in the deep ocean resulted from a more effective biological pump (e.g. Wang et al., 2017) and reduced ventilation due to sea ice-induced stratification and/or equatorward wind shifts (Ferrari et al., 2014; Kohfeld and Chase, 2017; Stephens and Keeling, 2000). During the subsequent deglaciation, degassing of CO_2 from the deep ocean is thought to have been responsible for the co-variation in atmospheric CO_2 and Antarctic temperature change (Parrenin et al., 2013), characterised by two 'pulses' of CO_2 release separated by a cooling and stabilisation of atmospheric CO_2 during the Antarctic Cold Reversal (ACR; 14.5-12.7 ka; Stenni et al., 2011). Radiocarbon records indicate intervals of breakdown in the deep vertical stratification (Burke and Robinson, 2012; Chen et al., 2015a; Siani et al., 2013), while changes in pH conditions reflecting outgassing of CO_2 sourced from deep waters have been reconstructed using boron isotopes (Martínez-Botí et al., 2015; Rae et al., 2018).

The Indian sector of the Southern Ocean is an important location in which to study deglacial ocean biogeochemistry. Frontal movements in this region may have led to changes in the 'leakage' of warm, salty eddies from the Agulhas retroflection into the Atlantic Ocean, with

implications for Atlantic overturning circulation (e.g. Bard and Rickaby, 2009; Beal et al., 2011; Franzese et al., 2006). In addition, a lag between atmospheric cooling over Antarctica during the ACR (Stenni et al., 2001) and sea surface temperature decline in the southern Indian Ocean (Labracherie et al., 1989) has yet to be fully explained. To date, our understanding of these changes and their global significance has been limited by sparse proxy records from this region, motivating efforts to explore CWCs as a palaeoceanographic archive. By taxonomically cataloguing and dating a new regional sample of intermediate-water CWCs, this study provides a first step towards investigating these processes.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Sampling location and regional hydrography

Subfossil corals were collected from four seamounts along the Southwest Indian Ocean Ridge (SWIOR), which were surveyed in 2011 during expedition JC066 of the *RV James Cook*. From south to north these were: Coral Seamount (41°21’23” S, 42°50’31” E); Melville Bank (38°31’56” S, 46°45’74” E); Middle of What Seamount (henceforth ‘MoW Seamount’; 37°56’76” S, 50°22’16” E); and Atlantis Bank (32°42’01” S, 57°17’26” E; Fig. 1A; Table 1).

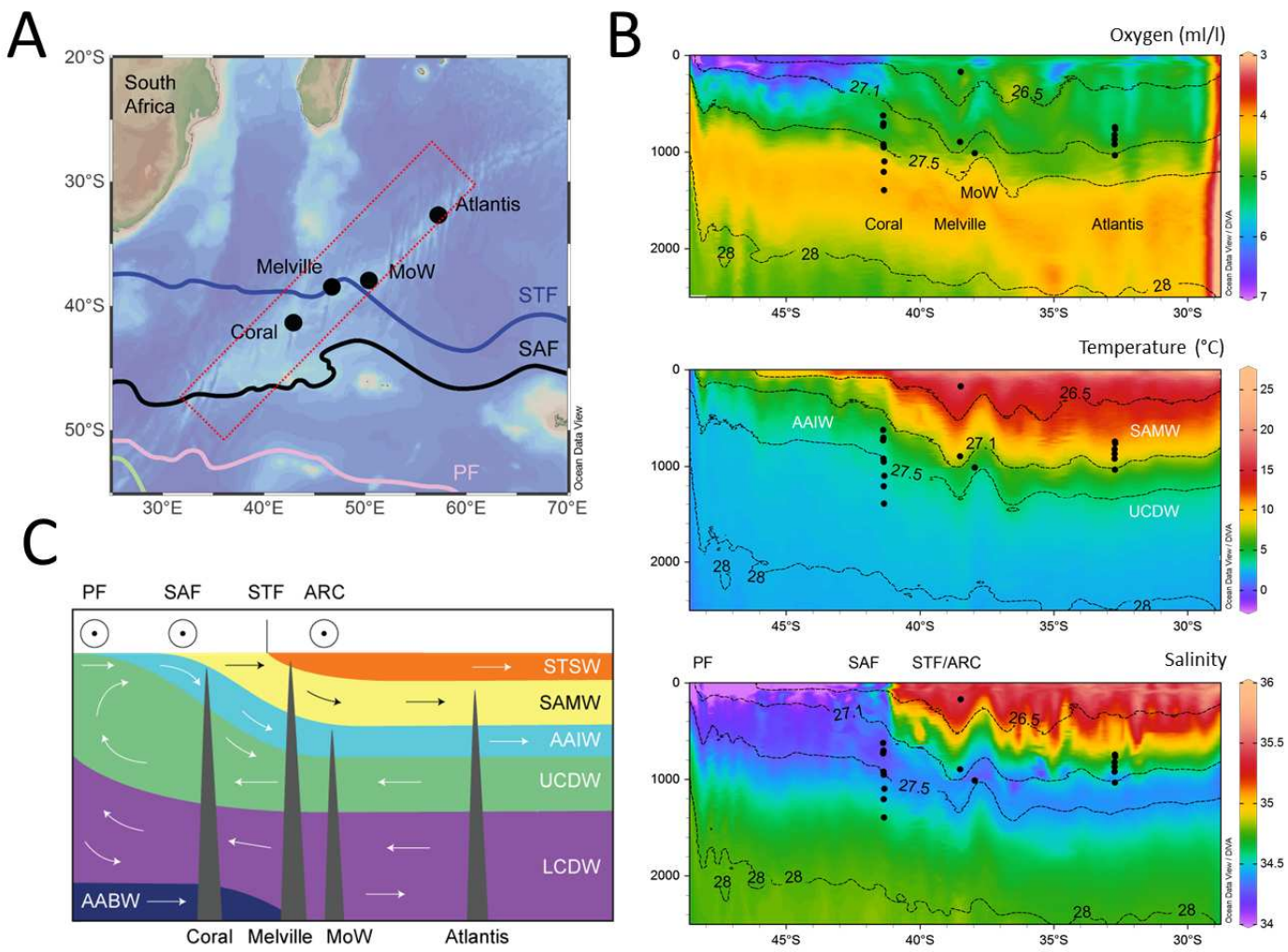
The modern Southwest Indian Ocean (SWIO) is dominated by two major hydrographic features, the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) and the Agulhas Current system. The Subantarctic Front (SAF), the northernmost front of the ACC, is strongly steered by bathymetry in the SWIO (e.g. Pollard et al., 2007), resulting in a latitude range of 48-43°S (Sokolov and Rintoul, 2009a; Fig. 1A). Further north, a 4°C increase in temperature and a sharp increase in salinity (Fig. 1B) marks the position of the Subtropical Front (STF), the boundary between subantarctic and subtropical surface waters, at around 40°S (Read and Pollard, 2017). The eastward flowing Agulhas Return Current (ARC), which results from overshoot and retroflection of the Agulhas Current south of the African continent, is found in close proximity to the STF in the SWIO (Belkin and Gordon, 1996; Lutjeharms and Van

Ballegooyen, 1988; Read and Pollard, 2017; Fig. 1B). Peak chlorophyll concentrations are found at the ARC/STF, but the highest surface particulate organic carbon concentrations and microorganism abundances are found between the two fronts, in the Subantarctic zone (SAZ; Djurhuus et al., 2017b).

Density surfaces rise upwards to the south, in geostrophic balance with the eastward flow of the ACC, affecting the depth at which specific water masses are present across the SWIO transect (Fig. 1B, C). The subsurface salinity minimum of Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) is found between 500m (Coral) and 1500m (Atlantis) in the southern Indian Ocean and was sampled at all seamounts (Fig. 1B, C). Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW), a high-nutrient water mass consisting of a combination of Indian and Pacific deep waters, with its upper bound defined by the 27.5 kg m^{-3} neutral density surface (Plancherel, 2012), intersected with sampling at Coral (~900 m) and MoW (~1050 m) seamounts. Lower Circumpolar Deep Water is found in the SWIO at depths of 2 to 3 km (van Aken et al., 2004; Fig. 1C), but such depths were not sampled during this study.

Sampling was opportunistic and not all fossil CWCs seen were collected. All but three of the specimens described here were collected during dives of the *Kiel 6000* Remotely Operated Vehicle (ROV), using manipulator arms, a suction sampler, nets and mini-box corers (Rogers and Taylor, 2011). The remaining specimens were extracted from a megacore sample (JC066_1116), a boxcore sample (JC066_115), and picked up on a dive of the HYBIS towed camera system (JC066_4309). On each seamount, ROV dives were made along deep to shallow transects to analyse the depth and spatial variation of benthic communities. Five ROV dives took place at Coral Seamount, four at Melville Bank, two at MoW Seamount, and three at Atlantis Bank. The 149 scleractinian samples in the collection, of which 122 were solitary, cover a depth range of 172 to 1395 m.

Figure 1: Modern day hydrography proximal to sample locations on the Southwest Indian Ocean Ridge (SWIOR). A, bathymetric map of the sampling region in the Southwest Indian Ocean with positions of fronts marked from north to south: Subtropical Front (STF), Subantarctic Front (SAF), Polar Front, (PF), Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front (green), from Sokolov and Rintoul, (2009). Sample locations are shown with black dots, and the red box highlights the transect along which sections are plotted. B, vertical sections with sampling locations shown with black dots. CTD data accessed from the World Ocean Database, plotted with Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2017). From top to bottom are plotted oxygen, labelled with seamount names; temperature, labelled with water masses Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW), Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW); and salinity, labelled with the three regional fronts. The path of the Agulhas Return Current (ARC) combines with the STF as it crosses the SWIOR. Contours of neutral density surfaces (kg m^{-3}) corresponding to water mass boundaries are shown on all three sections. C, schematic section of present-day circulation and positions of frontal jets of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current in the Indian sector of the Southern Ocean. Water masses depicted in addition to SAMW, AAIW and UCDW are subtropical surface waters (STSW); Lower Circumpolar Deep Water (LCDW) and Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW).



166

167 **2.2 Taxonomy**

168 Taxonomic identifications of the scleractinian coral specimens were based on monographs
169 which represent the most recent, extensive, and available documents on azooxanthellate
170 Scleractinia. These include Cairns (1982; Antarctic and Subantarctic), Cairns and Keller
171 (1993; SWIO), Cairns (1995; New Zealand), Cairns and Zibrowius (1997; Indonesia), Cairns
172 (2000; Caribbean), Kitahara et al. (2010) and Cairns and Polonio (2013; Indonesia).

173 Discrepancies in the boundaries and number of biogeographical realms exist between studies
174 of azooxanthellate Scleractinia (see Cairns, 2007) and more recent classifications using
175 benthic marine species and oceanographic proxies (most recently Watling et al., 2013). For
176 the purposes of this study, we use a combination of the two. Atlantis Bank, Melville Bank

and MoW Seamount fall within the Indian Lower Bathyal Province proposed by Watling et al. (2013) and the South-West Indian Ocean (SWIO) region following the terminology of Cairns (Cairns, 2007). The STF is designated as the northern boundary for the Subantarctic realm in Cairns (Cairns, 2007), whereas Watling et al. (2013) use the Polar Front. Therefore, Coral Seamount is located in the Subantarctic according to Cairns (Cairns, 2007), but in the Indian Province following Watling et al. (2013). To acknowledge this difference, along with the likelihood that the boundary is transitional, we place Coral Seamount in the 'Subantarctic Transition Zone'.

During taxonomic analysis, specimens were evaluated for preservation of aragonite (1 – highly degraded to 5 – intact) and the relative accumulation of authigenic coating (0 – no coating to 3 – fully coated). These qualitative metrics were combined into a 'preservation factor', by subtracting coating from aragonite preservation (see Appendix 4).

2.3 Laser ablation U-series dating

A total of 122 solitary scleractinian samples were prepared for laser ablation uranium-series age screening in the Bristol Isotope Group (BIG) facilities, following the method developed by Chen et al. (2015) and Spooner et al. (2016). Twenty-one specimens, predominantly of the genus *Balanophyllia,* were too delicate, small, or poorly preserved to proceed with laser ablation dating. Coral samples of a minimum size of 2 x 1.5 mm were cut using a Dremel® tool with a diamond blade, polished flat on one side using four increasingly fine grades of sandpaper, and rinsed with deionised water (18.2 MΩ. cm). Visibly altered or discoloured sections of aragonite were avoided. The samples were then mounted in batches of ~50 into trough-shaped sample holders.

Auto-focussed and pre-programmed 1.1 mm line scans were ablated automatically using 'Chromium 2.1' software linked to the Photon Machines Analyte G2 193 nm laser, which was coupled to a Thermo Finnigan Neptune MC-ICP-MS. The low abundance isotope ^{230}Th

was measured in sequence on a central ion counter, with ^{238}U measured simultaneously using Faraday cups (Spooner et al., 2016). Tuning was carried out using NIST 610 glass in order to maximise ^{230}Th signal intensity. An aragonite vein standard from the Salt Wash Graben, Green River, Utah (VS001/1-A) was used to bracket every three samples. Measurements consisted of 50 cycles for samples and bracketing standards, and background intensities were measured for 25 cycles following each standard measurement. Anomalous signal spikes in ^{230}Th were removed before calculation of mean isotope intensities, subtraction of the background intensity, and calculation of the isotope ratios; however, such spikes were rarely observed. Corrections for instrumental, elemental, and isotopic fractionation were applied using bracketing standards. Ratios were used to determine sample age by iteratively solving the age equation using the Newton-Raphson method (Kaufman and Broecker, 1965). Closed system behaviour was assumed, and the known modern seawater $\delta^{234}U_i$ value of 147 ± 7 ‰ (Reimer et al., 2009) was used in the calculation. Previous data indicates age corrections for initial ^{230}Th based on ^{232}Th fall within the usual age uncertainties for this method (Robinson et al., 2014; Spooner et al., 2016), and therefore no correction was made for detrital or seawater Th contribution. Standard errors on the measured ratios, the background measurements, and the errors on the isotope dilution MC-ICPMS isotope ratios of the standards were combined and propagated through each stage of standard corrections (Spooner et al., 2016). Final propagation of errors through the age equation was carried out using a Monte Carlo technique, whereby random Gaussian distributions for each ratio are generated and used to calculate a distribution of possible ages from which the final sample ages and errors are determined. For deglacial age corals these errors range between 500 and 1500 years. The background level was typically 1 count per second, with deglacial corals recording 10-20 cps.

2.4 Isotope dilution U-series dating

Fifty-two subsamples including two full procedural duplicates for combined U, Th, Nd chemistry (~ 0.6 to 5 g) were taken for precise isotope dilution U-series analysis. Physical and chemical cleaning procedures followed the development and assessment of methods performed before in the MAGIC group at Imperial College on cold-water corals (Crocket et al., 2014; van de Flierdt et al., 2010), building on methods developed by Cheng et al. (2000), Lomitschka and Mangini (1999) and Shen and Boyle (1988). All samples were rigorously physically cleaned with a Dremel tool, before undergoing a two-day oxidative-reductive chemical cleaning process. In the BIG laboratory facilities at the University of Bristol, cleaned coral fragments (~0.04 to 1.9g) were then dissolved and spiked with a ^{236}U-^{229}Th mixed spike calibrated to a 4.1‰ (2σ) uncertainty, described further by Burke and Robinson (2012). An iron co-precipitation procedure was utilised to separate trace metals from the carbonate matrix, before U and Th fractions were separated and purified using anion exchange chromatography using columns filled with an Eichrom pre-filter resin and 2 mL Biorad analytical grade anion exchange resin 1-X8 (100-200 mesh).

Uranium and Th isotopes were measured on a Neptune MC-ICP-MS in the BIG laboratories. Bracketing standards were used: for U, an international standard U112a, and for Th an in-house standard 'SGS'. A 45ppb U112a standard solution was used to tune the Neptune prior to U measurement, such that sensitivity for ^{238}U was ~ 250 V/ppm with a variation of < 2%, and between 5 and 95% peak height measured 0.1 amu or less. To correct for mass bias, U112a and SGS were used to bracket U and Th samples respectively. Using these bracketing standards, the activity ratios $^{238}U/^{234}U$, $^{232}Th/^{230}Th$, $^{232}Th/^{229}Th$, and $^{230}Th/^{229}Th$ were corrected for each sample. The isotopes ^{238}U, ^{236}U and ^{235}U were analysed in Faraday collectors, and ^{234}U on an ion-counter, in measurements of 100 cycles. The low concentration ^{229}Th and ^{230}Th isotopes were analysed on the secondary electron multiplier (SEM) by peak jumping in measurements of 50 cycles. ^{236}U, added as a spike to the Th cut, was measured

concurrently on a faraday cup. The latter was used to normalise the $^{230}Th/^{229}Th$ ratio for signal instability, by measuring $^{230}Th/^{236}U$ and $^{229}Th/^{236}U$ (Burke and Robinson, 2012; Chen et al., 2015b). The wash solution (i.e. blank) was analysed before every sample run in 10 cycles and subtracted from all absolute values before calculating isotope ratios. Machine accuracy was monitored by measuring Hu84.5 (U) and ThB (Th) standards before each session and every 3-4 samples. An HU84.5 standard was processed with each batch of column chemistry and yielded a long-term external reproducibility for $[^{230}Th/^{238}U]$ of 0.997 ± 0.002, and for $[^{234}Th/^{238}U]$ of 1.0007 ± 0.0008, within error of secular equilibrium (n=50). Errors including machine uncertainties and procedural blanks were propagated into the isotope ratios of $^{234}U/^{238}U$, $^{236}U/^{238}U$ and $^{229}Th/^{230}Th$. A Monte Carlo technique was used to propagate the errors of isotope ratios into the final reported uncertainties.

The isotope ^{232}Th was measured in addition to ^{230}Th in order to correct for non-radiogenic sources. Assuming any initial Th incorporated on calcification had a $^{230}Th/^{232}Th$ ratio equivalent to local modern-day seawater, the measured ^{232}Th can be used to estimate initial ^{230}Th. An initial atomic $^{232}Th/^{230}Th$ ratio of 12,500 ± 12,500 (2σ) was assumed, corresponding to modern subtropical Atlantic intermediate waters (Chen et al., 2015). This calculation dominates the final error for ages, with measured ^{232}Th correlating with the sample age error due to the greater uncertainty of initial ^{230}Th activity. Measured ^{232}Th ranged from 50 to 3806 ppt, and was the main factor determining the age errors, which ranged from 68 to 985 years for deglacial age corals.

The value $\delta^{234}U_i$ is the deviation (‰) from secular equilibrium of the $^{234}U/^{238}U$ activity ratio and is used to test for closed-system behaviour of the corals. The $\delta^{234}U_i$ of the SWIO corals ranged from 145.2 to 157.5 ‰. Two of the 50 corals analysed exhibited open-system behaviour with $\delta^{234}U_i$ outside of the modern-day ocean (147 ± 7 ‰; Reimer et al., 2009). Ages of the full procedural duplicates were within error.

3. Results

3.1 Taxonomy

Material from colonial species accounts for 27 of the 149 scleractinian samples, including *Solenosmilia variabilis*, *Madrepora oculata*, *Goniocorella dumosa*, and *Enallopsammia rostrata*. *Solenosmilia variabilis* appears to be the most common species represented among the colonial specimens. However, it is difficult to evaluate the relative abundance of these species as the number of samples cannot be considered representative of the communities found at each seamount.

Of the 122 solitary specimens, the majority represent the family Caryophylliidae, which includes *Desmophyllum dianthus* (*n* = 36), and *Caryophyllia diomedeae* (*n* = 32). Dendrophylliids are also common, including *Balanophyllia gigas, Balanophyllia malouinensis*, and *Leptopsammia stokesiana* (*n* = 31). The remaining solitary specimens comprise 13 flabellids (*Flabellum flexuosum* and *Javania antarctica*), two attached *Trochocyathus gordoni*, and free-living specimens of *Deltocyathus sp.* and *Dasmosmilia lymani*. Five solitary and four colonial samples were not identified to genus level due to poor preservation.

An annotated list detailing the 15 scleractinian taxa represented within the new collection is presented below (with further metadata in Appendix 1).

3.1.1 Species List

Order SCLERACTINIA

Family **OCULINIDAE** Gray, 1847

1. *Madrepora oculata* Linnaeus, 1758. Four fragments of this colonial coral, characterised by sympodial budding and anastomosed branches, were collected from patches of coral rubble at Melville Bank and MoW Seamount.

Family **CARYOPHYLLIIDAE** Dana, 1846

2. *Caryophyllia diomedeae* Marenzeller, 1904. Thirty specimens found at Coral Seamount, MoW Seamount and Atlantis Bank shared a hexameral S1=S2>S3≥S4 septal pattern, low, evenly spaced costae, sinuous pali on S3, and a columella formed of fascicular elements (Cairns, 1995; Cairns and Zibrowius, 1997; Kitahara et al., 2010). Two specimens displayed an irregular septal pattern, with 43 and 44 septa in total; similar variations have been described previously from the Atlantic (Zibrowius, 1980) and New Zealand (Cairns, 1995). At least eight specimens had fewer than three columella elements. A few specimens from Atlantis Bank and one from MoW Seamount have highly exert S1-2, up to 5mm (Fig. 2A); however, in most specimens from Coral Seamount and Melville Bank S1-2 were only moderately exert (Fig. 2B). This character arguably places the latter group closer to the range of *Caryophyllia laevigata*, a species described by Kitahara et al. (2010). In this case, the differences amongst specimens was not consistent enough to identify them as separate species, rather than considering a wide range of morphological variation of *C. diomedeae*. Another diagnostic feature, colour banding, was variably expressed and did not necessarily correlate with septal exertness. Finally, it is worth mentioning that most of the Atlantis Bank specimens exhibit fused costal granules near the calicular margin.

3. *Caryophyllia profunda* Moseley, 1881. One specimen of this taxa was collected, from Melville Bank (Appendix 5). Unlike specimens described by Cairns (1995, 1982), all septal edges are straight.

4. *Trochocyathus (T.)* cf. *gordoni* Cairns, 1995. One specimen composed of two budded coralla found at Coral Seamount was assigned to *T.* cf. *gordoni*, although poor preservation, especially of the pali, hampers conclusive identification (Appendix 5). As in the New Zealand specimens (Cairns, 1995), deep intercostal striae are present near calicular

edge, becoming less defined towards the pedicel. Both specimens have an irregular septal arrangement approaching decameral.

5. *Solenosmilia variabilis* Duncan, 1873. Fragments of *S. variabilis* were collected from Coral Seamount and Melville Bank.

6. *Goniocorella dumosa* (Alcock, 1902). Fragments were found at Coral Seamount only. Specimens display straight, cylindrical branches and right-angled budding as described in Cairns (1982).

7. *Dasmosmilia lymani* (Pourtalès, 1871). One specimen was found at Coral Seamount, having fewer columella components than described in Cairns (1995), but a similar septal arrangement, budding pattern, and serrate calicular edge.

8. *Desmophyllum dianthus* (Esper, 1794). The most common species with a total of 36 specimens collected from Coral Seamount, Melville Bank, and Atlantis Bank. They exhibit a wide range of variation within the species, from small juvenile to large adult specimens, straight to slightly bent corallum, and low to highly exert septa. A few specimens from Atlantis Bank are distinct in that they most clearly bear the characteristic features of *D. dianthus*: clear, ridged costae; highly exert, flared septa and finely granular theca (Fig. 2C; Cairns, 1982).

Family **DELTOCYATHIDAE** Kitahara et al., 2012

9. *Deltocyathus* sp. Milne Edwards and Haime, 1848. A single, small, free living specimen was found at Melville Bank. The specimen exhibits diagnostic characters of the genus *Deltocyathus*, having pali before septa of all but first cycle and axial edges of higher septa (S4) joining to faces of adjacent septa (S3). However, the poor preservation of the specimen hampers its identification to species level.

Family **FLABELLIDAE** Bourne, 1905

10. *Flabellum flexuosum* Cairns, 1982. Three specimens were collected at Coral Seamount. They exhibit a thin, porcellaneous theca, and sinuous, wrinkled edges of the inner septa (Cairns, 1982, Appendix 5). However, none have a fifth septal cycle.

11. *Javania antarctica* (Gravier, 1914). Seven specimens from Coral Seamount and one from Melville Bank were collected. Although similar in morphology to *F. flexuosum*, these specimens were distinguished by their distinctive chevron growth lines peaking at intersections with 'costae', as described in Cairns (1982; Appendix 5). Only one specimen displayed a rudimentary fifth septal cycle.

Family **DENDROPHYLLIIDAE** Gray, 1847

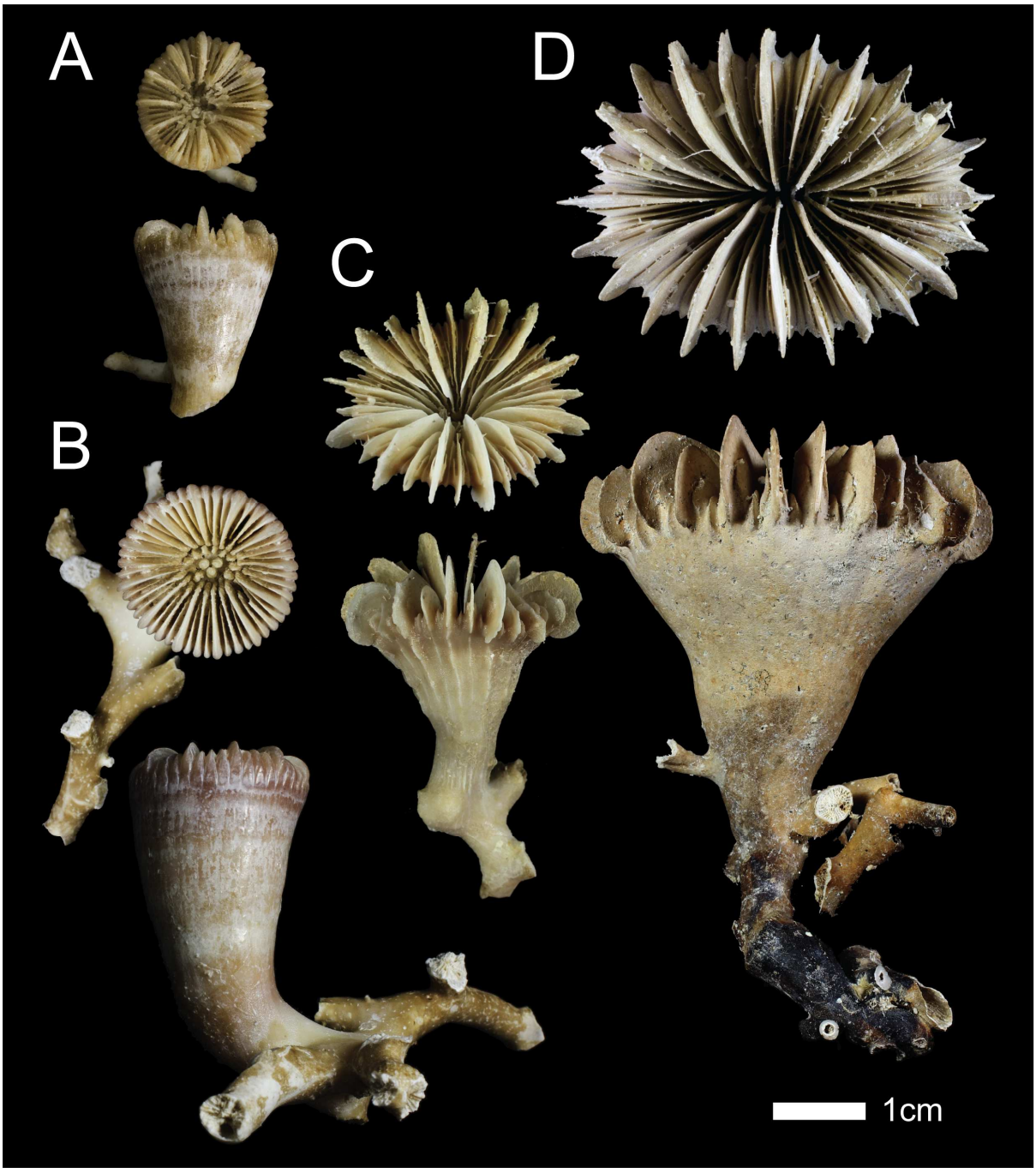
12. *Balanophyllia gigas* Moseley, 1881. Twenty-one specimens representing this species were found at Coral Seamount. It is likely that all specimens are juvenile, as none express a full Pourtalès plan septal arrangement and they are much smaller than specimens described from New Zealand (Cairns, 1995). The presence of banded epitheca above the synapticulotheca (Cairns and Zibrowius, 1997) is variable. They all have in common a deep, narrow fossa and relatively narrow septa (Appendix 5).

13. *Balanophyllia malouinensis* Squires, 1961. A total of five specimens were recovered from Coral Seamount and Melville Bank. They were distinguished from *B. gigas* by having a thick, spinose synapticulotheca and a shallower fossa with a larger columella (Cairns, 1982; Appendix 5). Like the *B. gigas* specimens, the septa are arranged only in a rudimentary Pourtalès plan.

14. *Leptopsammia stokesiana* Milne Edwards and Haime, 1848. Five specimens were found at Coral Seamount. Although similar in size and morphology to the other solitary dendrophylliids in the collection, these do not have a Pourtalès plan septal arrangement (Cairns and Zibrowius, 1997).

15. *Enallopsammia rostrata* (Pourtalès, 1878). In total four fragments of this robust, uniplanar colonial coral were found at Melville Bank and Atlantis Bank.

Figure 2: Morphological variability of CWCs across seamount transect. Calice and corallum of *Caryophyllia diomedeae* from A, Atlantis Bank (JC066_3741) and B, Coral Seamount (JC066_122); and calice and corallum of *Desmophyllum dianthus* from C, Atlantis Bank (JC066_3718) and D, Coral Seamount (JC066_127).



3.1.2 Taxonomic distribution

All solitary CWCs except the *C. profunda*, which was collected at the summit of Melville Bank at 172 m water depth, were found between 600 and 1400 m (Figs. 1, 3), covering

modern SAMW, AAIW, and UCDW depths, although the latter was only represented by specimens from Coral Seamount. This depth range is in part constrained by the position of the seamount summits, particularly at MoW Seamount (1100 m) and Atlantis Bank (750 m), and the maximum depth of the ROV surveys (see Table 1 and Fig. 3).

Table 1: Location, bathymetry, and number of specimens from SWIO seamounts

Seamount	Latitude (°S)	Longitude (°E)	Summit (m)	Max survey depth (m)	Solitary CWC specimens	CWC specimens dated
Coral	41°21’23” S	42°50’31” E	175	1395	89	72
Melville	38°31’56” S	46°45’74” E	91	1276	9	5
MoW	37°56’76” S	50°22’16” E	876	1414	7	7
Atlantis	32°42’01” S	57°17’26” E	690	1117	17	17

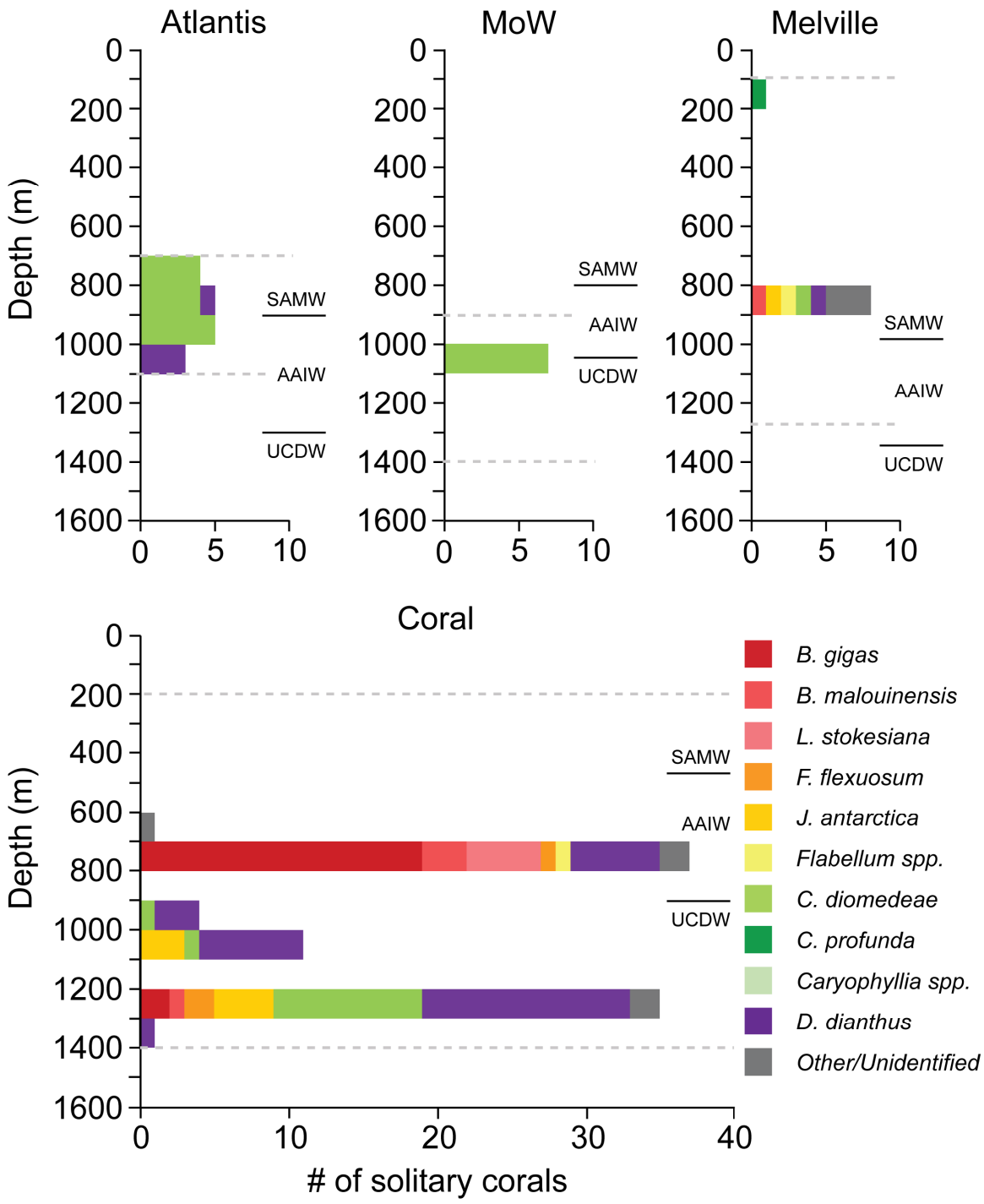
At Coral Seamount, the greatest number (n = 89) and diversity of CWCs was found, with 9 out of 11 solitary species represented (Fig. 3). Samples were collected between 624 and 1395 m, intersecting the boundary between AAIW and UCDW at ~900 m. Most corals of this collection were recovered at ~700 m, where 27 of the 30 Dendrophylliidae specimens are found, and ~1200 m, dominated by Caryophylliidae.

At Melville Bank and MoW Seamount, solitary CWC specimens were found near to the modern-day SAMW/AAIW and AAIW/UCDW boundaries, respectively (Fig.1B). Nine specimens from Melville Bank represent a minimum of five species (Fig. 3). All seven CWCs from MoW Seamount are *C. diomedeae*. At both seamounts the ROV transect extended a few hundred metres below where the deepest CWCs were found.

399 The 17 CWC specimens from Atlantis Bank span the full depth range surveyed from 700 to
400 1100 m. *Desmophyllum dianthus* and *C. diomedeae* were the only solitary species collected
401 in this locality (Fig. 3).

402 A range of preservation of the skeletal aragonite was observed, from near-perfect to heavily
403 bored and/or dissolved. Corals were often found coated with grey-brown authigenic deposits.
404 No significant correlation was found between water depth and individual coral mass or
405 preservation factor (Fig. 4A). On the whole, coating levels and aragonite degradation appear
406 to be positively correlated, i.e. poor aragonite preservation was linked to high coating levels
407 (see Appendix 4).

Figure 3: Depth distribution of subfossil CWCs at each seamount, colour coded by species. Seamount summits and the deepest vertical extent of ROV surveying are represented by dashed grey lines. Modern day water mass boundaries between Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW), Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW) are defined using the depths of neutral density for AAIW ($27.1 < \gamma_n < 27.5$; Plancherel, 2012) at each seamount, from World Ocean Database CTD data.



3.2 Ages

The 101 dated CWCs range in age from the LGM to the modern day (Fig. 6), except for a single 140 ka specimen from Melville Bank. Isotope dilution U-series dating of 50 of the samples demonstrated the accuracy of the laser ablation technique, with a close correlation and 33 samples giving ages within error of the laser ablation dates (Fig. 5). Only late Holocene CWCs were found at Atlantis Bank, whereas both Holocene and deglacial specimens were found at Coral Seamount, Melville Bank and MoW Seamount. There are relatively few samples from the mid-Holocene (~5 ka) and the Last Glacial Maximum (19 – 25 ka). The most well preserved and largest CWCs date from periods of greatest abundance, whilst the few corals found during the LGM and early- to mid-Holocene are poorly preserved (Fig. 4B).

Figure 4: Relationship of caryophylliid mass and preservation factor to A, depth and B, age, at all seamounts for the two most prevalent species (colour coded). Preservation factor is a qualitative metric that takes into account the amount of ferromanganese coating and aragonite dissolution, and ranges from -2 (least well preserved) to 5 (intact).

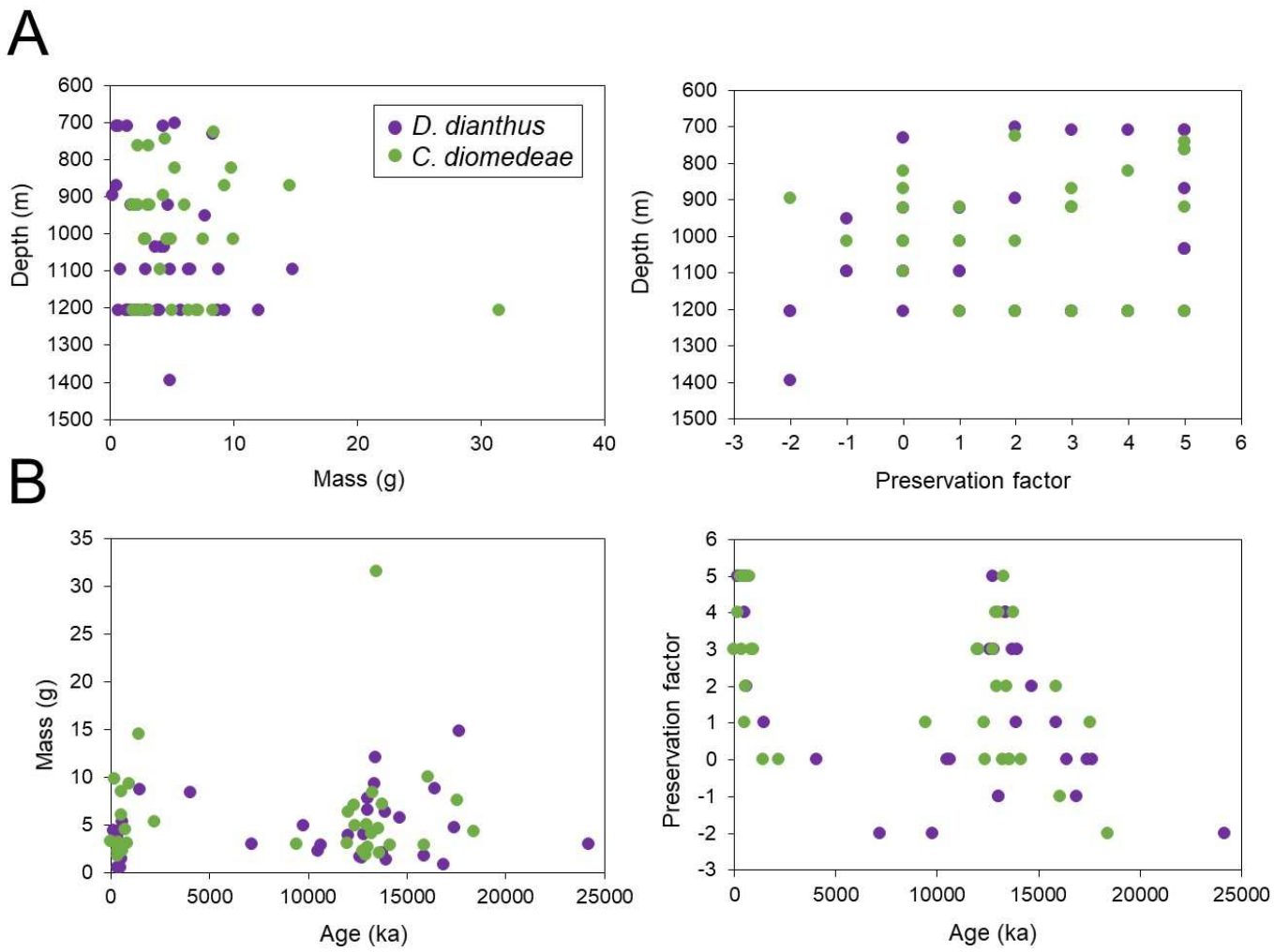
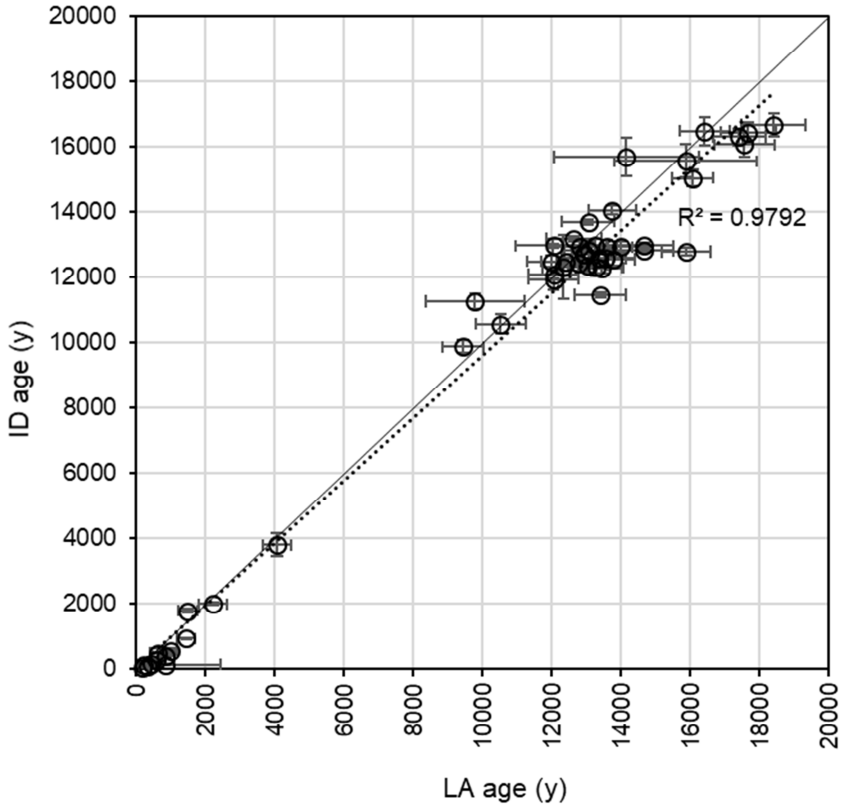


Figure 5: Comparison of laser ablation (LA) and isotope dilution (ID) U-series ages for 50 cold-water corals from south-west Indian Ocean seamounts. The 1:1 line (solid) and trendline (dashed) are shown.



434

435 **4. Discussion**

436 **4.1 Taxonomy**

437 *4.1.1 Range extensions*

438 Previous surveys of CWC diversity in the region include the works of Cairns and Keller
439 (1993) for southern Africa and Madagascar, and Cairns (1982) for the Antarctic and
440 Subantarctic. In the former, the scleractinian fauna is described as having influence from
441 Pacific, and to a lesser extent, Atlantic faunas, in addition to species endemic to the Indian
442 Ocean. The distribution of the species in this collection and their proposed extensions are
443 shown in Table 2. Of the 15 scleractinian deep-water coral species found in this study, six
444 have already been recorded from the SWIO and/or Subantarctic regions: the cosmopolitan
445 species *C. profunda*, *D. dianthus*, *M. oculata*, *E. rostrata* and *S. variabilis*, in addition to *G.*
446 *dumosa*, which is Indo-West Pacific (Cairns and Keller, 1993; Cairns, 1982). The genus

Deltocyathus is also widely distributed in all oceans; although as we were not able to identify the specimen to species level, future explorations and collection of well-preserved specimens from these localities will be needed to allow a better knowledge of this genus in the region. The remaining eight species represent extensions to their previously documented ranges (Table 2), increasing the known scleractinian diversity of the SWIO and Subantarctic Transition Zone. Surprisingly, none of the Dendrophylliidae or Flabellidae species described previously from the SWIO (Cairns and Keller, 1993) were observed in this collection.

The connectivity of Indian and Pacific surface waters through the Indonesian throughflow led Cairns and Keller (1993) to predict that representation of the 'Indo-West Pacific' fauna would increase with further exploration in the SWIO. The first record of three species in the Indian Ocean supports that prediction: *T. gordoni* (known only from the Kermadec Islands, New Zealand / Kerguelen province; Cairns, 1995), *B. gigas* (West Pacific and New Zealand / Kerguelen; Cairns and Zibrowius, 1997), and *D. lymani* (warm temperate Pacific and Atlantic; Cairns, 2000). Connectivity of the Southern Ocean through the ACC could also have contributed to the spread of these species. All three species were found at depths (700-1200 m) which extend their bathymetric distribution to deeper waters (Table 2).

The seamounts cover a transitional biogeographic zone between the Indian and Subantarctic regions, which is reflected both by the extension of species from the south into the Indian province, and from temperate regions into the Subantarctic. Known previously only from the Antarctic continent (Cairns, 1982), *F. flexuosum* was found north of the SAF at Coral Seamount. There is evidence that genetic dispersal of CWCs follows ocean density gradients and is less likely to occur vertically (Dullo et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2011). It is possible that *F. flexuosum* extend their distribution up to the SWIO thanks to northwards transport via intermediate waters, as it is found below its previously known depth range between 700 and 1200 m. *Javania antarctica* and *Balanophyllia malouinensis*, whose ranges were recently extended from the Antarctic / Subantarctic (Cairns, 1982) to the southwest Atlantic (Cairns

and Polonio, 2013), were also found at Coral Seamount as well as Melville Bank. Water temperature at Atlantis Bank may be above the tolerance of these Antarctic species. It is also possible that the ARC acts as a dispersal barrier to the Indian Ocean for CWC larvae, in a similar manner to the ACC (e.g. Dueñas et al., 2016); although to our knowledge this has not yet been modelled or evaluated.

Neither *C. diomedeae* nor *L. stokesiana* were listed in Cairns and Keller's (1993) SWIO monograph, but both have been found previously in the Indian and West Pacific provinces (Cairns and Zibrowius, 1997; Kitahara et al., 2010). As they were collected from Coral Seamount, their ranges are extended into the Subantarctic Transition Zone. This find also extends the range of *L. stokesiana* from shallow to bathyal waters.

Table 2: Distribution of subtropical and Subantarctic Transition Zone (TZ) south-west Indian Ocean (SWIO) and Indian Ocean (IO) Bathyal Province azooxanthellate Scleractinia discussed in this study. Depth range in bold signifies a proposed bathymetric extension. MoW: Middle of What seamount.

Species	Antarctic	Subantarctic	TZ	SWIO				Indian	West Pacific	New Zealand / Kerguelen	Atlantic	Cosmopolitan	Depth (m) (worldwide)	New record		
			Coral Seamount	Melville Bank	MoW seamount	Atlantis Bank	Other SWIO sites							SWIO *sensu* Cairns (1982)	IO Bathyal Province *sensu* Watling et al. (2013)	Subantarctic Transition Zone
Madrepora oculata		x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	55-1950			
Caryophyllia diomedeae			x		x	x		x	x	x	x		225-2200	x		x
Caryophyllia profunda	x	x		x			x	x		x		x	35-1116			
Trochocyathus (T). gordoni			x							x			**398-732**	x	x	x
Solenosmilia variabilis	x	x	x	x			x	x	x		x	x	220-2165			
Goniocorella dumosa		x	x				x	x	x	x			88-1488			
Dasmosmylia lymani			x						x	x	x		**37-1207**	x	x	x
Desmophyllum dianthus	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	8-2460			
Deltocyathus sp.				x			x	x	x				44-5080			
Flabellum flexuosum	x		x										**101-1207**	x	x	x
Javania antarctica	x		x	x							x		53-1280	x	x	x
Balanophyllia gigas			x						x	x			**90-1200**	x	x	x
Balanophyllia malouinensis	x	x	x	x							x		**75-1207**		x	
Leptopsammia stokesiana			x					x	x				**46-710**	x		x
Enallopsammia rostrata		x		x		x	x	x			x	x	110-2165			

4.1.2 Spatial variability

The seamounts in the SWIO form a transect across contrasting hydrographic and productivity regimes, with peak chlorophyll concentrations nearest to the ARC/STF frontal zone (Melville and MoW seamounts; Read et al., 2000). During the JC066 cruise, surface nutrient and particulate organic carbon (POC) concentrations were found to be highest at Coral Seamount (Djurhuus et al., 2017b), as was microorganism abundance (Djurhuus et al., 2017a). These features, along with the systematic variability in microbial community structure, led Djurhuus et al. (2017a) to separate the region into three biogeographic zones – south (Coral Seamount), convergence zone (Melville Bank and MoW Seamount), and north (Atlantis Bank). At depth, water masses were considered more influential, with similar taxa occurring below 200 m across the seamounts (Djurhuus et al., 2017a). The limited sample size and opportunistic nature of the sampling in this study makes a quantitative assessment of spatial variability patterns in CWCs difficult. Because of the differing seamount heights, the maximum depth of the ROV, and cruise time constraints (i.e. opportunistic sampling of subfossil CWCs), the full depth range of CWCs may not have been surveyed (Table 1). Nevertheless, notable variations in coral diversity are present in the dataset and warrant exploration.

Firstly, a larger number of samples and greater species diversity in subfossil Scleractinia was found at Coral Seamount relative to the other seamounts (Fig. 3). This could be explained by sampling bias, as ROV bottom time was approximately 35 hours at Coral, longer than at Melville (~ 29 hrs), Atlantis (~ 26 hrs) and MoW (~11 hrs); at MoW sampling was severely hampered by turbulent conditions. However, a wide variety of habitats was noted from video footage at Coral Seamount (Rogers and Taylor, 2011), and video surveys suggest it hosts the greatest diversity and number of species for corals and sponges (Frinault, 2017). It was also found to host the largest microbial community (Djurhuus et al., 2017a) and the highest surface chlorophyll concentrations of the four seamounts (Djurhuus et al., 2017b). There are several factors which could contribute to the favourability of Coral Seamount as a habitat for

CWCs. As a result of its position south of the STF, water temperatures at Coral were ~ 3°C to 5°C at the depths of coral collection (~ 600 – 1400 m; Fig. 1B). In contrast, at the three more northerly seamounts, temperatures above 12°C occur down to ~ 600 m and only fall below 5°C at ~ 1100 m. As scleractinian CWCs are most commonly found in waters of 4-12°C (Roberts et al., 2006), Coral Seamount may provide more suitable thermal conditions over a wider depth range. The location of Coral Seamount south of the STF, in the transition between two biogeographic provinces, could also contribute to its high diversity. In contrast, at the subtropical site of Atlantis Bank no flabellids or dendrophylliids were collected. The temperature profile at Atlantis Bank below 200 m is similar to Melville Bank, where dendrophylliids were present, but additional factors such as low POC concentration could reduce the viability of certain species at Atlantis Bank, even those known from temperate locations such as *B. gigas* and *L. stokesiana* (Cairns, 1995; Cairns and Zibrowius, 1997).

We also find some evidence of within-species variations between the four seamounts. A 'robust' morph of *C. diomedeae*, with exert, transversally ridged and laterally protruding septa was dominant at Atlantis Bank (Fig. 2A), whereas most specimens at Coral Seamount had less exert septa (Fig. 2B). It is worth noting that the Atlantis specimens are dated to the late Holocene, whereas all *C. diomedeae* from Coral Seamount are deglacial in age. A few specimens at Melville Bank and MoW Seamount share features of these two end members. To some extent a similar pattern is seen in *D. dianthus;* three specimens at Atlantis Bank have particularly flared septa and well-defined costae (Fig. 2C), whilst specimens to the south display a smoother corallum with less exert septa (Fig. 2D). These discrepancies exist between specimens of the same age at Atlantis Bank and Coral Seamount. Wide intraspecific variability is a characteristic of both of these species (Addamo et al., 2015; Kitahara et al., 2010), and could be due to phenotypic flexibility in different environmental conditions, or genetic isolation and divergence (Miller et al., 2011). Either explanation could apply here, but since the variation could best be described as a spectrum across the seamounts, it seems more

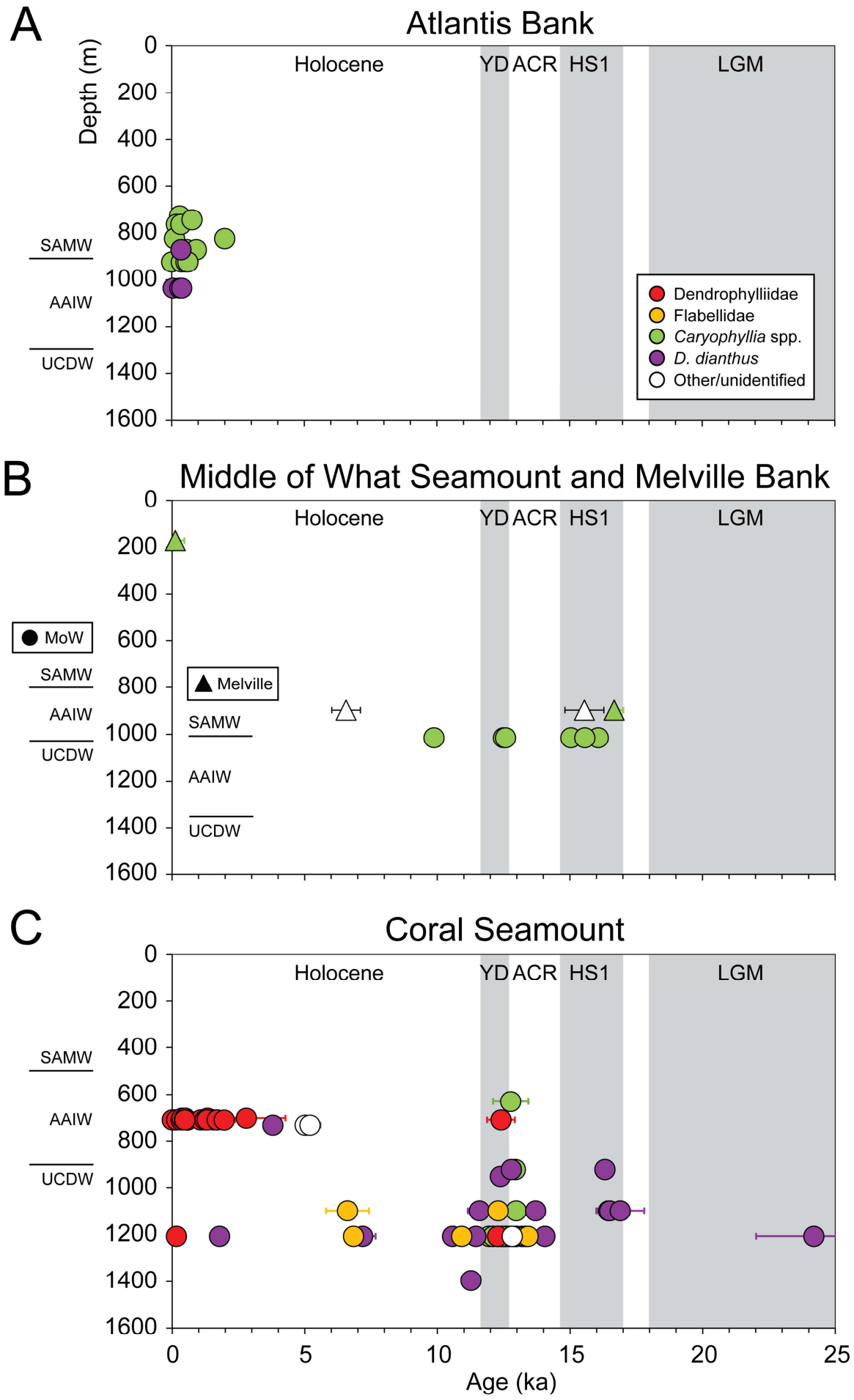
likely to be a response to environmental conditions such as temperature and/or food availability.

Overall, the variations in the subfossil CWC collection north and south of the STF give some support to the idea of biogeographic zonation. But there are also similarities in the species found, which may result from the water mass connectivity at depth. Without surveys and phylogenetic analyses on modern CWCs, the importance of these two factors cannot be quantified. The rarity of expeditions to the area and the disturbance of organisms and substrate because of trawling in the SWIO (Rogers and Taylor, 2011) are likely to inhibit these more robust investigations.

4.2 Temporal shifts in CWC populations

Uranium-series dating of the SWIO collection reveals variability in the distribution and diversity of CWCs over the past 25,000 years. Here we discuss patterns of coral abundance in relation to deglacial climate and regional oceanographic changes (Figs. 6-8).

Figure 6: Depths and ages of subfossil CWCs at A, Atlantis Bank; B, Melville Bank (triangles) and Middle of What Seamount (dots) and C, Coral Seamount, coloured coded by taxonomic category. Precise ages are given for samples which underwent isotope dilution U-series dating, and laser ablation ages are used for all other samples (see Appendices 1-3). Grey and white bars indicate the timings of the Holocene, Younger Dryas (YD), Antarctic Cold Reversal (ACR), Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1), and the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM). The depths of boundaries between Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW), Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW) at each seamount are indicated by black lines.


A
Atlantis Bank
Depth (m)
0
200
400
600
800
1000
1200
1400
1600
Holocene
YD
ACR
HS1
LGM
SAMW
AAIW
UCDW
Dendrophylliidae
Flabellidae
Caryophyllia spp.
D. dianthus
Other/unidentified
B
Middle of What Seamount and Melville Bank
MoW
Melville
SAMW
AAIW
UCDW
C
Coral Seamount
0
5
10
15
20
25
Age (ka)

4.2.1 The Last Glacial Maximum

One of the most notable aspects of the SWIO coral record is the absence, bar one *D. dianthus* specimen, of samples dating to the LGM (Figs. 5, 6). Preservation bias cannot be ruled out, though an older specimen, dated from MIS 6 (142 ± 8 ka) was found, and much older *D. dianthus* specimens from the subpolar region have previously been recorded (Burke and Robinson, 2012). It is unlikely that food supply was limiting; opal and organic carbon flux increases point to higher export production in the SAZ of both the Atlantic (Martínez-García et al., 2014) and Indian oceans (Dezileau et al., 2003) during the glacial. In general, coral recruitment will not occur unless there is a consistent supply of larvae to the region in question. Hence, the LGM absence of CWCs could indicate the existence of a barrier to larval dispersal into the SWIO at that time, for example, the ACC. In the Drake Passage, glacial age CWCs were found almost exclusively in the Antarctic Zone, leading Margolin et al. (2014) to suggest that the Polar Front posed a barrier to larval transport further north. As samples south of the Polar Front were not sampled in the SWIO, it is difficult to make direct comparisons. If larval dispersal to the SWIO seamounts from south of the ACC was inhibited during the glacial, a subsequent expansion of CWCs would require either a weakening of the ACC flow, or a northward shift of the Southern Ocean fronts. Reconstructions of glacial flow speeds suggest a similar current speed (Mastumoto et al., 2001; McCave et al., 2014) or lower flow speed (Roberts et al., 2017) compared to the Holocene. In terms of frontal position, it is likely that the Polar Front occupied its most northerly position during the LGM, moving poleward during the early deglacial (Barker et al., 2009; De Deckker et al., 2012). Therefore, evidence for the Polar Front and ACC posing a greater barrier to CWC distribution in the Subantarctic and Subtropical Southern Ocean during the LGM is unconvincing. If the deglacial appearance of CWCs resulted from enhanced larval transport from lower latitudes, we would perhaps expect to see earlier occurrences at Atlantis Bank. The circumpolar transport of the ACC, the influence of the ARC, and the overturning

circulation (Henry et al., 2014) could all have provided routes for widespread larval dispersal throughout the glacial and in the modern day.

Given the likelihood of an adequate food supply and open routes for larval dispersal northwards, we suggest that environmental boundary conditions limited CWC growth in the SWIO during the LGM. A broad consensus exists that a large proportion of glacial CO_2 was stored in the deep ocean as a result of a more effective biological pump and reduced deep ocean ventilation (Kohfeld and Chase, 2017). The resulting decrease in carbonate ion concentration and shoaling of the ASH (Sigman et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2010) may therefore have reduced the ability of CWCs to calcify, especially in deep waters. This environment may also have caused dissolution of existing subfossil CWCs, explaining the absence, bar one, of corals dating to earlier periods of more favourable climate conditions. Trace metal evidence also suggests intermediate waters were depleted in dissolved oxygen (Durand et al., 2018; Jaccard et al., 2016), likely resulting from stratification and increased isolation from the atmosphere (Burke et al., 2015). In addition, temperatures in intermediate waters are estimated to have been 3-5°C lower at this time compared to the Holocene, and deep waters ~3°C cooler than the deglacial maxima (Fig. 7E; Elmore et al., 2015; Roberts et al., 2016). We therefore suggest that a shoaled ASH and cool, deoxygenated intermediate waters contributed to unfavourable conditions for CWC growth during the glacial, outcompeting any possible benefits of enhanced food supply. Glacial subfossil coral abundance is also low south of Tasmania (Fig. 7B; Thiagarajan et al., 2013) and in the subantarctic Drake Passage (Fig. 7C; Margolin et al., 2014), supporting a consistent circumpolar response of CWCs to the glacial boundary conditions.

4.2.2 The early deglacial, Heinrich Stadial 1

The early deglacial appearance of CWCs at the three seamounts south of the STF (Coral, Melville and MoW; Fig. 6) is concurrent with the onset of Antarctic warming and Heinrich

Stadial 1 (HS1; 18-14.7 ka; Fig. 7A) ~18 ka ago. During this time interval, release of a deep inorganic carbon pool through processes in the Southern Ocean is thought to have contributed to the atmospheric CO_2 rise (Marcott et al., 2014). Increases in benthic $\delta^{13}C$ (Ninnemann and Charles, 2002; Roberts et al., 2016), reductions in deep water ventilation age (Burke and Robinson, 2012; Skinner et al., 2010), and increases in abyssal carbonate ion concentrations (Yu et al., 2010) all support the deep ocean ventilation hypothesis. These processes may have resulted in a deepening of the ASH and improved conditions for CWC calcification. However, such changes in the deep and abyssal oceans may not have reached depths less than 1400 m at which CWCs were found; on the contrary, depletions in intermediate water radiocarbon have been reported (Bryan et al., 2010; Romahn et al., 2014), likely reflecting transient transport of the deep stored carbon into shallower levels before its release to the atmosphere.

During HS1, increased oxygenation is recorded in the deep Southern Ocean (Jaccard et al., 2016) and the intermediate northern Indian Ocean (Jaccard and Galbraith, 2012), which would have contributed to improving conditions for CWC growth. It is also possible that coral population growth was boosted by increased food supply in the form of sinking particulate organic matter, given the increase in opal flux in the Pacific and Atlantic sectors of the Southern Ocean at this time (Anderson et al., 2009; Fig. 7D). We therefore suggest that the simultaneous appearance of subfossil corals in the SWIO, Tasmania (Thiagarajan et al., 2013), and the subantarctic Drake Passage (Margolin et al., 2014) during HS1 could have been facilitated by increasing oxygen concentrations and food supply, but was still limited by carbonate chemistry at mid-depths, particularly in the Indian and Pacific sectors of the Southern Ocean. Cold-water coral growth also seems to have been enhanced off the coast of Brazil during this time, potentially as a result of increased upwelling and food supply (Mangini et al., 2010).

4.2.3 The late deglacial

The greatest abundance of subfossil CWCs in the SWIO occurs in the late deglacial (33 specimens; Figs. 6, 7A), predominantly within the Younger Dryas (YD), between 13.5 and 11.5 ka. During this period, Coral Seamount supported a diverse community of at least seven solitary scleractinian species including *C. diomedeae*, *F. flexuosum* and *J. antarctica*. Notably, this peak in abundance is located at UCDW depths (~ 900-1400 m at Coral Seamount), with only four specimens found at modern-day AAIW depths. Late deglacial abundance peaks also occur at modern UCDW depths in the Tasmanian (Fig. 7B) and Drake Passage collections (Fig. 7C).

As AAIW depths appear to be preferable for CWCs in the late Holocene, it is tempting to explain their presence deeper in the water column during the deglaciation by a deepening of AAIW and displacement of the lower-oxygen UCDW. Water mass boundaries will have occupied deeper positions in the water column as a result of lower sea level; however this effect can only account for ~60 m displacement between the YD and Holocene, rather than the observed 200 – 500 m depth shift observed at Coral Seamount. Because of the sloping isopycnals in this region (Fig. 1), a more southerly position of the SAF would effectively deepen AAIW at the SWIO and seamounts and around Tasmania. However, reconstructions suggest the SAF occupied a similar position to the present day during the late deglacial (De Deckker et al., 2012; Roberts et al., 2017). A deepening of AAIW would also not explain the relative lack of corals from < 900 m. Hence, we consider other possible controls on the CWC distribution.

Oxygen concentrations below ~145 µmol/kg have been shown to limit respiration of certain *D. pertusum* (=*L. pertusa*) specimens in laboratory experiments (Dodds et al., 2007). An early- to mid-Holocene decline of CWC populations in the Mediterranean has been linked to a fall in oxygenation below ~180 µmol/kg (Fink et al., 2012), and low oxygen also appears to

affect the distribution of CWCs in the late Holocene south of Tasmania (Thiagarajan et al., 2013). Elevated oxygen concentrations recorded in the intermediate northern Indian Ocean (Jaccard and Galbraith, 2012) and the deep Southern Ocean (Jaccard et al., 2016) during the period of relative CWC abundance in the SWIO, suggest a plausible role for oxygenation. Intermediate water pH in the Drake Passage also peaked during this time (Rae et al., 2018). Although these ocean chemistry reconstructions cover density intervals below the corals in this collection, chemical changes could feasibly have been communicated to UCDW depths.

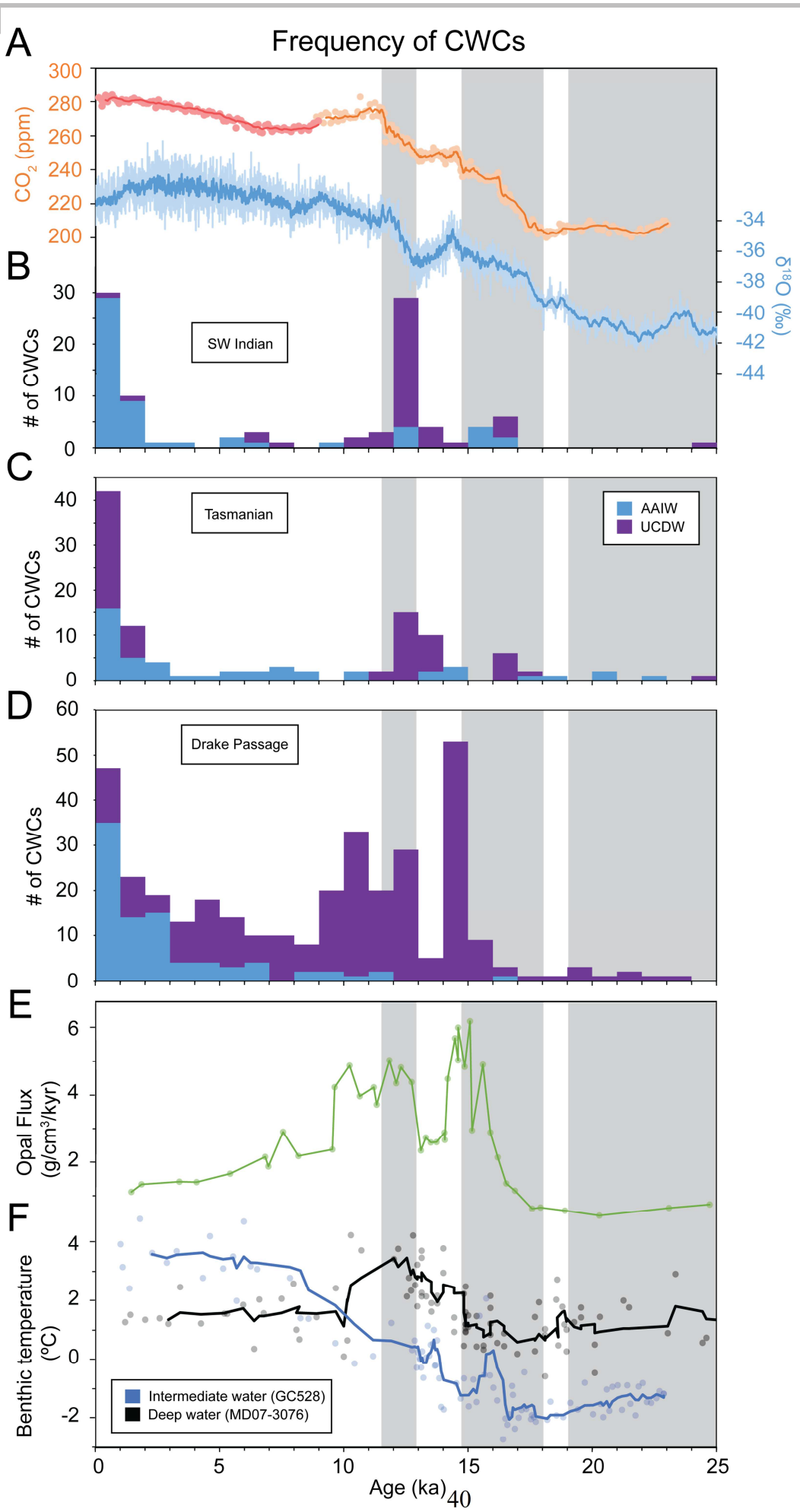
Increased food availability is also an important driver of CWC fitness (Naumann et al., 2011), and for cold water corals this consists of particulate organic carbon and microorganisms (Roberts et al., 2009). There is clear evidence for higher export production in the Antarctic Zone of the Atlantic Southern Ocean at 13-11.5 ka, coeval with the CWC abundance peak (Anderson et al., 2009; Fig. 7D). Enhanced export production could have resulted in higher POC concentrations at depth, supplying CWCs with nutrition in the SAZ. However, the most likely path for northward transport of this food supply would be in surface currents and AAIW via Ekman pumping (Marshall and Speer, 2012). In the SWIO, UCDW flows northward above 1500 m (McCave et al., 2005), so could also have advected POC northwards towards Coral Seamount, but it seems unlikely that it would have been the main conduit. Productivity peaks and an associated increase in food availability may explain the overall increase in abundance of CWCs during the late deglacial period, but do not explain the apparent preference for UCDW depths.

Global scale modelling of CWC distribution shows a strong correlation with temperature (Davies and Guinotte, 2011), and although a lower limit has not been tested in laboratory experiments (to our knowledge), CWCs are rarely found below temperatures of 1°C (Stanley and Cairns, 1988). *Desmophyllum dianthus* has been found in waters as cold as 1°C in the Drake Passage (Margolin et al., 2014), and in the late Holocene SWIO we find specimens at depths corresponding to modern temperatures of between ~16°C and 3°C. In the subantarctic

South Atlantic, Mg/Ca-derived temperature reconstructions suggest that intermediate waters were colder than deep waters for much of the deglacial interval, initially at -1 to -2°C and remaining below 1°C until the early Holocene (Roberts et al., 2016; Fig.7E). Deep waters were warmer at around 0-2 °C during the early deglacial and reached a peak of 4°C between 13 and 11ka, with a stable vertical density stratification being conserved because of higher salinities at depth (Adkins et al., 2002; Roberts et al., 2016). Therefore, we propose that low temperatures may have been an important factor in the relative paucity of CWCs from AAIW depths during the deglacial. In addition, we note that deep waters in the Indian, Pacific, and Atlantic oceans reached a peak in carbonate ion concentration between 15 and 10 ka (Yu et al., 2010). Such globally enhanced carbonate ion concentrations would have deepened the ASH, and possibly enabled the expansion of CWCs into CDW, which by that time had reached a warmer and more optimal temperature.

In summary, we propose that increased oxygenation, a deepened ASH, warmer temperatures, and a peak in regional food supply created suitable conditions for CWC growth in UCDW depths during the YD. In contrast, CWCs may have been unable to survive at AAIW depths until the salinity-controlled stratification broke down and temperatures increased in the Holocene.

Figure 7: Number of cold-water corals (CWCs) per 1000-year age bin at three Southern Ocean locations, coded by water mass, with Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) in blue and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW) in purple. Precise ages are given for samples which underwent isotope dilution U-series dating, and laser ablation ages are used for all other samples (see Appendices 1-3). A, SW Indian CWCs (this study), overlain with the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) Divide Core $\delta^{18}O$ record and 11-point moving average (WAIS Divide Project Members, 2015), and composite CO_2 record with 5-point moving averages from WDC (orange, Marcott et al., 2014) and EPICA (red, Monnin et al., 2001). B, Tasmanian *D. dianthus* abundances (Thiagarajan et al, 2013), assigned to water mass following Hines et al. (2015; AAIW 500-1500m). C, Drake Passage *D. dianthus* abundances, using water mass designations from Margolin et al. (2014). D, Opal flux record from South Atlantic core TN057-13-4PC (53.1728°S, 5.1275°E, 2848m; Anderson et al., 2009). E, Mg/Ca-derived benthic temperatures for intermediate (GC528, 598m; blue) and deep waters (MD07-3076, 3770m; black) from the subantarctic South Atlantic (Roberts et al., 2016).


A
Frequency of CWCs
300
280
260
240
220
200
CO2 (ppm)
-34
-36
-38
-40
-42
-44
δ18O (‰)
B
30
20
10
0
# of CWCs
SW Indian
C
40
30
20
10
0
# of CWCs
Tasmanian
AAIW
UCDW
D
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
# of CWCs
Drake Passage
E
6
4
2
Opal Flux (g/cm3/kyr)
F
4
2
0
-2
Benthic temperature (°C)
Intermediate water (GC528)
Deep water (MD07-3076)
0
5
10
15
20
25
Age (ka)

4.2.4 The Holocene

Specimens from the early- to mid-Holocene are notably scarce in the SWIO collection, with only seven specimens dating to between 5 and 10 ka, all collected from south of the STF (Figs. 5, 6A). Those that were found are poorly preserved (Fig. 4), possibly indicating greater susceptibility to degradation. During this time interval, deep water carbonate ion concentrations reached their lowest values (Yu et al., 2010). It is possible that a shoaled ASH reduced the suitability of UCDW, whilst the temperature of AAIW was still sub-optimal for coral growth (Fig. 7E; Roberts et al., 2016). Corals are present throughout this period in the Tasmanian and Drake Passage collections (Fig. 7B, C), but at much lower abundances than during the ACR (Margolin et al., 2014; Thiagarajan et al., 2013).

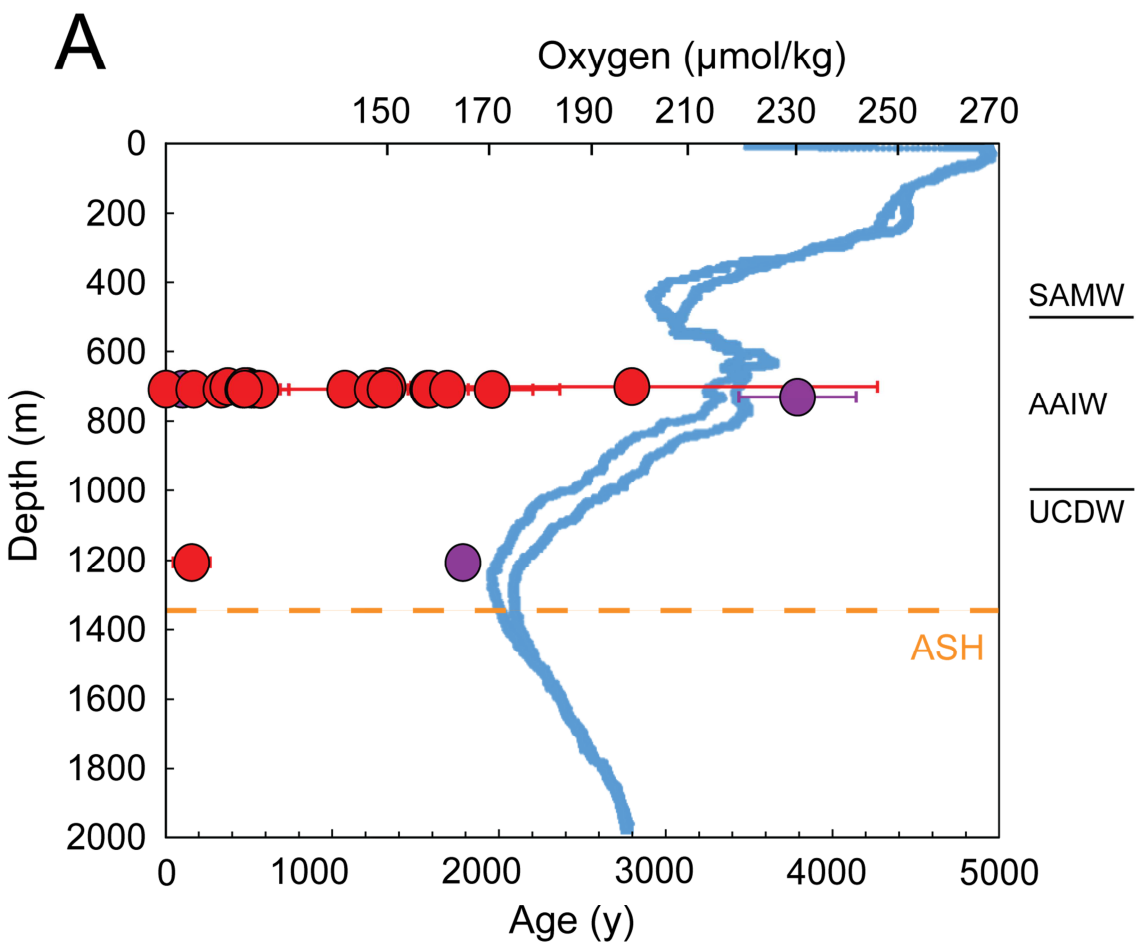
After this decrease in abundance, the number of CWC specimens increases at Coral and Atlantis (Fig. 6). Late Holocene CWC specimens are found at shallower depths compared to the deglacial period, with 95 % of CWC dated to < 6 ka being found in SAMW or AAIW (Fig. 7A). Only two specimens dated to < 6 ka are found below 750 m at Coral Seamount, within UCDW depths, and no live corals were seen below 700 m during ROV surveys (Rogers and Taylor, 2011). In the southeast Pacific (Cape Horn) and Drake Passage (Burdwood Bank), Late Holocene corals are also more common above 1000 m (Margolin et al., 2014; Fig. 7C). South of Tasmania, the CWCs undergo a depth expansion from 2000 to 2400 m in CDW depths, with abundant corals also at shallower AAIW depths, but with a 'hiatus' at depths of 1500-1800 m influenced by lower dissolved oxygen values (170-180 μmol/kg; (Thiagarajan et al., 2013).

In the modern subantarctic SWIO, 900-1000 m marks the upper boundary of UCDW, a water mass which brings in old, nutrient-rich deep waters from the northern Indian Ocean and which is associated with a similar dissolved oxygen minimum (< 180 μmol O_2 /kg from 1000

– 1500 m; Figs. 1B, 7) to the Tasmanian coral hiatus (Thiagarajan et al., 2013). The depth of the ASH, controlled mainly by temperature and pressure, is also approximately coincident with UCDW in the region of Coral Seamount (~ 1400 m; Sabine et al., 2002; Fig. 8). Because sampling did not take place below the ASH or oxygen minimum, it is difficult to evaluate their relative influence. However, the coincidence of most late Holocene CWCs between 600 and 800 m with the oxygen peak within AAIW (~220 μmol/kg) is striking.

The absence of CWCs from Atlantis Bank before the late Holocene (Fig. 6A) is difficult to explain in terms of any of the above discussed environmental factors, and may instead be an artefact of the limited depth survey performed there. Today, surface waters at Atlantis Bank have the lowest chlorophyll fluorescence of the four seamounts (Djurhuus et al., 2017b), indicating low productivity and a limited food source, although modern corals there may benefit from organic matter export via SAMW. If anything, food supply at Atlantis Bank is likely to have been higher in the past as a result of increased iron fertilisation (Kohfeld et al., 2005) and a northward-shifted STF (De Deckker et al., 2012; Sikes et al., 2009), making food supply an unlikely factor in controlling their absence. Similarly, temperatures were likely no warmer and oxygen concentrations similar throughout the Holocene at these depths. However, it could perhaps be the case that favourable calcification conditions arose only in the late Holocene, because the ASH shoals to the north in the modern day SWIO (Sabine et al., 2002), making this location particularly sensitive to changes in ocean carbonate chemistry.

Figure 8: Depths and ages (lower axis) of Late Holocene corals at Coral Seamount, colour coded by taxonomic grouping where red dots are Dendrophylliidae and purple dots are *Desmophyllum dianthus*. Precise ages are given for samples which underwent isotope dilution U-series dating, and laser ablation ages are used for all other samples (see Appendices 1-3). Blue curves show seawater oxygen concentration from CTD data at Coral Seamount (upper axis) and the approximate depth of the aragonite saturation horizon (ASH; Sabine et al., 2002) is indicated in orange. Modern day boundaries between Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW), Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW) are indicated with black lines.



5. Conclusions

The species assemblage of subfossil scleractinian corals recovered from SWIO seamounts indicates influences from the Indian, Pacific, and Antarctic biogeographic zones. Particular diversity and abundance of CWCs at Coral Seamount may be a result of its location in the SAZ, between the Antarctic and Indian biogeographic zones, and higher food availability. We also find indications of biogeographic controls on morphology across the seamount transect, with a more robust *D. dianthus* and *C. diomedeae* morphology occurring more commonly north of the STF, compared to specimens from intermediate and deep waters in the SAZ.

Striking similarities in the temporal distribution of CWCs from the SWIO with other Southern Ocean CWC collections hint at widespread impacts on coral habitats from deglacial changes in ocean stratification and biogeochemistry. As observed elsewhere in the subpolar Southern Ocean, solitary coral growth seems to have been limited during the LGM. Unfavourable carbonate, temperature, and oxygen conditions may have outweighed higher productivity in the SAZ. Although CWCs begin to appear during HS1, we argue that carbonate and oxygen conditions did not become optimal until the late deglacial (14 -11.5 ka), when a peak in abundance is seen in solitary CWC records from the SWIO, Tasmania, and the Drake Passage. This abundance peak is coincident with increased productivity in the Antarctic Zone, which could have provided enhanced supply of POC to the SAZ sites via advection. Water temperatures within AAIW may have been below the habitable range, a possible explanation for the relative lack of solitary CWCs at intermediate depths at this time. In contrast, warmer temperatures within UCDW, combined with greater oxygenation, higher deep-water carbonate ion concentrations and a deeper ASH than during the LGM, could have facilitated colonisation at UCDW depths.

In the late Holocene SAZ, the mid-depth oxygen minimum associated with the inflow of old deep waters from the Indian and Pacific Oceans appears to have been a less favourable habitat for solitary CWCs in the SWIO and Tasmania than well-oxygenated AAIW depths. This observation suggests that their survival here requires higher oxygen concentrations than cold-water coral reefs elsewhere. Future investigations on larger numbers of CWCs, collected in a systematic survey of this region, combined with a greater understanding of the responses of solitary CWC to environmental conditions, would likely provide stronger constraints on the patterns we describe, and on future responses of CWCs to environmental change.

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Contributions

All authors have contributed to this work. Their individual roles are detailed as follows: NP carried out sample identifications, prepared samples for dating, interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript with input from all authors; ADR and MLT carried out sample collection on the JC066 cruise, following the request of TvdF, and assisted with video analysis of sample locations; TC led the laser ablation and isotope dilution U-series dating and data processing, and Tao Li carried out part of the isotope dilution U-series analyses, under the supervision of LFR at the University of Bristol; NS provided training and guidance on taxonomic analysis of the specimens at the Natural History Museum and edits on the manuscript; LFR, TvdF, DJW and SHL aided discussions on data interpretation. All authors edited and have approved the final manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

Declarations of interest: none.

Notes for editor

Please use colour for all figures in print.

Manuscript entitled ‘Temporal distribution and diversity of cold-water corals in the southwest Indian Ocean over the past 25,000 years’.

Highlights

- First described southern Indian Ocean subfossil cold-water coral collection
- Eight new species to the region identified
- Dated using rapid laser ablation and isotope dilution uranium series techniques
- Abundance peak during late deglacial a possible response to optimal ocean chemistry
- Striking similarities in temporal distribution to other Southern Ocean collections