

Synergistic effects of temperature and light affect the relationship between Taonia atomaria and its epibacterial community: a controlled conditions study

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1	Synergistic effects of temperature and light affect the relationship
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4	
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23 Originality-Significance Statement

We developed an experimental set up using controlled conditions, supplied by natural seawater, to test an algal holobiont response to changes of temperature combined with those of irradiance over 14 days, and using a multi-omics approach coupling algal surface metabolomics and metabarcoding.

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30 Summary

31 In a context of global warming, this study aimed to assess the effect of temperature and irradiance 32 on the macroalgal Taonia atomaria holobiont dynamics. We developed an experimental set up 33 using aquaria supplied by natural seawater with three temperatures combined with three 34 irradiances. The holobiont response was monitored over 14 days using a multi-omics approach 35 coupling algal surface metabolomics and metabarcoding. Both temperature and irradiance appeared to shape the microbiota and the surface metabolome, but with a distinct temporality. 36 37 Epibacterial community firstly changed according to temperature, and later in relation to 38 irradiance, while the opposite occurred for the surface metabolome. An increased temperature 39 revealed a decreasing richness of the epiphytic community together with an increase of several 40 bacterial taxa. Irradiance changes appeared to quickly impact surface metabolites production 41 linked with the algal host photosynthesis (e.g. mannitol, fucoxanthin, DMSP), which was 42 hypothesized to explain modifications of the structure of the epiphytic community. Algal host 43 may also directly adapt its surface metabolome to changing temperature with time (e.g. lipids 44 content) but also in response to changing microbiota (e.g. chemical defenses). Finally, this study 45 brought new insights highlighting complex direct and indirect responses of seaweeds and their 46 associated microbiota under changing environments.

48 Keywords: holobiont, surface metabolome, surface microbiota, metabolomics, controlled49 condition experiments, multi-omics

51 Introduction

52 As marine holobionts, macroalgae are known to establish intimate relationships with their 53 epiphytic microbiota (Hollants et al., 2013). Notably, macroalgae are capable of controlling their 54 epibacterial consortia through chemical defenses as well as chemoattractants released at their 55 surface (Harder et al., 2012; Wahl et al., 2012; Wichard et al., 2015). Such negative or positive 56 chemical mediations play an important role for the host physiology and, for example, can be 57 associated to immune or development processes (Wichard and Beemelmanns, 2018). As sessile 58 organisms in intertidal and infralittoral zones, marine macroalgae are subject to many 59 environmental changes often linked to anthropogenic stresses, such as global warming or marine 60 coastal pollution (Dittami et al., 2014; van der Loos et al., 2019). Concerns are notably raised to 61 understand how climate changes will drive seaweed-bacteria interactions in the future (Campbell 62 et al., 2011; Egan et al., 2014; Egan and Gardiner, 2016). As for other marine holobionts such as 63 corals and sponges, temperature increase and seawater acidification are the most investigated 64 factors for macroalgae in this context of global changes (van der Loos et al., 2019).

65 Among macroalgae, the bleaching disease of the Rhodophyta *Delisea pulchra* has been directly 66 correlated to the temperature increase. This alga produces chemical defenses, identified as 67 halogenated furanones, known to act as quorum sensing inhibitors and protecting the seaweed 68 against bleaching disease (Maximilien et al., 1998; Harder et al., 2012). However, algae that 69 bleach in response to water temperature increases, features lower levels of these defenses 70 (Campbell et al., 2011; Case et al., 2011). In these specific conditions, several opportunistic 71 bacteria (e.g. Nautella italica and Phaeobacter sp.) are observed at the algal surface and have 72 been proposed to be involved in the bleaching phenomenon (Case et al., 2011; Fernandes et al., 73 2011; Campbell et al., 2014; Kumar et al., 2016). Even if temperature alone failed to explain the 74 bleaching disease (Zozaya-Valdés et al., 2016), a global decrease of macroalgal health and 75 dysbiosis should be a plausible scenario to anticipate in the context of global warming (Egan et 76 al., 2014).

In the last few years, the combined effect of the rise of temperature and seawater acidification on macroalgal physiology and surface microbiota has been increasingly studied through controlled conditions experiments. While for the Chlorophyta *Caulerpa taxifolia* mitigating effects 80 are observed (Roth-Schulze et al., 2018), predicted future climate conditions influence the microbiota structure for the Phaeophyceae Eklonia radiata (Qiu et al., 2019), Macrocystis pyrifera 81 (Minich et al., 2018), Fucus vesiculosus forma mytili (Mensch et al., 2016) and the Rhodophyta 82 83 Amphiroa gracilis (Huggett et al., 2018). Moreover, the host physiology is also disturbed with 84 blistered tissues and reduced photosynthetic efficiency for E. radiata, bleaching disease for A. 85 gracilis and growth reduction for C. taxifolia, M. pyrifera, and F.v. mytili. In the case of the well-86 studied brown alga Fucus vesiculosus (Saha et al., 2014), effects of light and temperature have 87 been investigated independently through the study of the surface concentrations of three 88 metabolites [i.e. proline, dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) and fucoxanthin] known as 89 bacterial settlement inhibitors. The potential effect of the variations of these surface compounds 90 on the epibacterial community structure has been also studied. To our knowledge, this is the only 91 mesocosm study focusing simultaneously on surface microbiota and metabolites, with chemical 92 analyses specifically limited on these three compounds. The direct impact of both parameters 93 appears relatively limited on these metabolites, but variations of their surface concentrations 94 could possibly modify the relative proportions of major bacterial families, as shown when DMSP 95 concentration increases. However, if light and temperature seem to be key factors for shaping 96 the overall epibacterial community of marine algae, their combined effects have not been 97 investigated so far in controlled laboratory conditions, especially in relationships with the whole 98 surface chemical environment.

99 While most surface metabolites playing a potential role in the surface microbiome assembly (such 100 as DMSP or fucoxanthin) were presumably attributed to the host production (Lachnit et al., 2010; 101 Saha et al., 2011; Grosser et al., 2012; Saha et al., 2014), little is known on the relative importance 102 of bioactive compounds from the epibacterial community at the holobiont scale. These later, 103 could participate actively to the shift of a community structure, through antagonistic interactions 104 within the microbiome for example (antibiotic, quorum quenching activities, ...) (Wietz et al., 105 2013). One of the most clear evidence of the role of microbial secondary metabolites on the host 106 was the morphogenesis-promoting factors required for the growth and morphogenesis in the 107 case of the sea lettuce Ulva spp. (Ghaderiardakani et al., 2017, 2019). Taonia atomaria 108 (Woodward) J. Agardh is an annual photophilic marine Phaeophyceae widely reported along the

109 Mediterranean and the NE Atlantic coasts (Guiry and Guiry, 2020). This seaweed is known to 110 produce at its surface several compounds displaying anti-adhesion activities (e.g. gleenol and 111 geranylgeranylglycerol) (Othmani et al., 2016) against a panel of marine bacteria. Such 112 metabolites have been hypothesized to be part of the algal chemical defenses and involved in the 113 selection of a specific epibacterial community. Furthermore, strong seasonal correlations occur, 114 notably during spring and summer, between specific surface metabolites and some epibacterial 115 taxa (Paix et al., 2019). In the light of these results and those previously obtained for the algal 116 model *F.v. mytili*, the increase of temperature has been hypothesized as a key factor shaping the 117 dynamics of such interactions. However, in the case of T. atomaria, the field studies have not 118 delineated the respective effects of colinear factors such as temperature and light. Due to their 119 temporal covariations, their relative importance is now questioned according to the important 120 seasonal effect observed as part of in situ studies (Paix et al., 2019, submitted).

121 The objective of this "controlled conditions experiment" was to decipher the respective and 122 synergistic effects of temperature and irradiance on the interactions between T. atomaria and its 123 epibacterial community. The temperature values were chosen according to the natural in situ 124 variations observed during the summer, when the epibiotic community is stabilized (Paix et al., 125 2019). As temperatures follow an increase and then a decrease from the beginning to the end of 126 the summer along coasts of north Brittany, three different temperatures were chosen: an 127 ambient one corresponding to the field measures in June (18°C named AT for ambient 128 temperature), together with a higher and a lower ones corresponding to the extremes observed 129 within this period (13°C and 22°C named LT and HT, respectively for low and high temperatures). 130 Additionally, the HT condition corresponded to +4°C compared to the AT condition, which suited 131 with the predictions made for 2081-20100 with the RCP 8.5 model in the Global Change context 132 (Collins et al., 2013). The different irradiance conditions were chosen in accordance with in situ 133 variations mainly linked to the different depths, according to the changing tide conditions, and 134 the range of photosynthetic saturation points (I_k) previously described in the literature for brown 135 seaweeds. Located at the limit between the intertidal and the infralittoral zones, Taonia 136 populations on Brittany coasts can vary from 2 to 8m depth. Consequently, contrasted degrees 137 of light penetration (according to the tide changes in this environment) were considered (Roberts et al., 2018). Additionally, the three light treatments (20, 120 and 350 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, named LI, AI and HI, respectively for low, ambient and high irradiances) were chosen since the corresponding irradiance values were respectively located below, within and above the I_k range generally observed for brown seaweeds (100 - 200 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) (Forster and Dring, 1994; Hanelt et al., 1995; Murakami et al., 2004). Such a choice was considered in order to compare three different states of the seaweed based on its photosynthetic capacity.

These three temperatures and irradiances were combined and sampling was performed after three different times of incubation after the acclimatation period (t₁, t₂ and t₃: one day, one week and two weeks, respectively). The resulting surface microbiota and metabolome were subjected to a multi-omics analysis. Untargeted LC-(+)-ESI-MS metabolomics dedicated to the analysis of surface metabolites was coupled to 16S rRNA gene metabarcoding and flow cytometry, for the analysis of epiphytic prokaryotic dynamics.

151 Results

152 Physicochemical parameters

153 Several physicochemical parameters measured in the aquaria showed a low variability during the 154 whole study, such as salinity, pH, dissolved O₂ levels, and [Si(OH)₄] with mean values of 35.8 ppt 155 [Standard deviation (SD) = ± 0.2 ppt], 8.1 (SD = ± 0.05), 90% (SD = ± 1.4 %), and 1.93 μ M 156 (SD = \pm 0.28 μ M), respectively (Table S1). However, some parameters showed a higher variability, such as $[NO_3]$ and $[PO_4^3]$ with mean values of 1.27 μ M (SD = ±0.58 μ M) and 0.209 μ M 157 158 (SD = $\pm 0.097 \,\mu$ M), respectively. Significant changes appeared only for [PO₄³⁻] according to the 159 three-way ANOVA test with the time factor only (Table S2), revealing an increase from t₁ to t₃ 160 confirmed with a Tukey's test. No significant interaction between time, irradiance and 161 temperature factors was observed according to three-way ANOVA tests (Table S2). Moreover, 162 when comparing natural and aquaria seawater, only [Si(OH)₄] exhibited significant differences 163 (one-way ANOVA: p < 0.05), with mean values decreasing by a 3-fold factor from field to 164 controlled conditions (Table S1).

165 Physiological assessment

166 The maximum quantum yield of photosynthetic energy conversion (F_v/F_m) measured for all 167 samples showed mean values of 0.71 (SD = \pm 0.1, Fig. S1A). Measures of thalli length showed mean values of 16.6 cm (SD = ± 3.4, Fig. S1B). For these two parameters, three-way ANOVA tests 168 169 did not show any significant change whatever the conditions (sampling time, temperature, or 170 irradiance) whether considered independently or interacting (p-values > 0.05). As a proxy of the 171 light limitation stress for the seaweed, variations in the relative concentrations of mannitol (Fig. 172 S1C) revealed a significant interaction between time and irradiance factors (three-way ANOVA 173 tests, Table S2). However, no significant differences in the relative concentration of mannitol 174 were observed when comparing the sampling times, each other according to the multivariate 175 pairwise results (Fig. S1C). Moreover, no visible evidence of thalli deterioration (e.g., bleaching or 176 fragmentation) was observed throughout the time of the whole experiment.

177 Flow cytometry analyses

Abundances of heteroprokaryotic cells at the surface of *T. atomaria* were estimated through flow cytometry and revealed densities ranging from 1.2×10^5 to 1.8×10^7 cells.cm⁻² (Fig. S2). When comparing samples over time, a significant increase was observed from field to t_2 and then t_3 samples (Table S2, Fig. S2). However, no significant difference in cell densities were observed between the different irradiance and temperature conditions (Table S2). No significant factors interactions were also observed when considering the possible combinations between time, temperature, and irradiance conditions (Table S2).

185 Epibacterial community diversity

NOCHL primers were recently designed for studies on algal-associated bacterial communities, to avoid the contamination of 16S rRNA gene sequences from plastids (Thomas et al., 2020). In this study, this combination was firstly compared to 515F-Y/926R primers, leading to similar patterns of community structure (Fig. S3, details in SI, Mantel test at the order level: p = 0.001, r = 0.8). NOCHL were chosen because no chloroplast 16S rRNA gene sequence was obtained, which could have been a particular issue in this study due to the high number of sporophytes noticed at the algae surface (details in SI).

While no difference appeared between field and to samples, a global increase of the Shannon 193 194 index was observed over time from t₀ to t₃ (Fig. S4). More precisely, t₀ and t₁ samples exhibited a 195 significantly lower α -diversity in comparison with t₂ and t₃ samples. Moreover, at t₃ and for AI, 196 Shannon index showed significant lower values for samples at HT (Fig. S4, Table S2). Chao1 values 197 for field samples were significantly lower than those of all the controlled conditions samples (Fig. 198 S4, Table S2). At t₃, whatever the irradiance condition, Chao1 showed significant lower values for 199 HT samples compared to those at AT. At AI and HI, HT samples showed also lower values than 200 those of LT samples (Fig. S4, Table S2). No significant factor interactions were observed between time, temperature and irradiance for both α -diversity indexes (Table S2). 201

202 Considering the β -diversity, the first axis of the weighted-Unifrac based NMDS revealed a global 203 shift from field to controlled conditions samples, despite a relatively high heterogeneity among 204 controlled conditions samples (Fig. 2A). Moreover, a shift of the prokaryotic community was 205 observed on the same axis over time from t_1 to t_3 samples (PERMANOVA test using the time 206 factor: p = 0.001, Table S3). The corresponding multivariate pairwise test showed that field, t_1 , t_2 207 and t₃ samples appeared significantly different from each other while t₀ samples were not 208 differentiated from field and t₁ ones (Table S4). On the second axis of the NMDS, differences 209 appeared according to temperatures with a cluster of HT samples distinct from AT and LT samples 210 (Fig. S5A, PERMANOVA test using the "Temperature" factor: p = 0.001, Table S3). A significant 211 interaction between time and temperature was also observed according to the PERMANOVA test 212 (Table S3). The three conditions (LT, AT and HT) appeared significantly distinct from each other 213 when compared with a multivariate pairwise test (Table S4). For irradiance, HI samples were 214 significantly differentiated from AI and LI ones, while no differences were observed between the 215 two latter groups. When considering t_1 , t_2 , or t_3 samples independently (Fig. 3), the resulting 216 NMDS plots showed separated clusters for each temperature (PERMANOVA and pairwise tests: p 217 = 0.001, Tables S3 and S4). However, no significant differences were observed within the three 218 irradiances for t_1 or t_2 samples (Table S4). Finally, t_3 samples were discriminated according to 219 irradiance as HI and LI samples were significantly different (Table S3 and S4).

A Venn diagram (Fig. S6) revealed that the percentage of OTUs and sequences shared between all samples (field and controlled conditions samples) reached 53.8 and 88.7%, respectively. The percentages of OTUs and sequences common to only controlled conditions samples (t_0 , t_1 , t_2 and t_3) corresponded to 20 and 8.3%, respectively.

224 Considering the taxonomic affiliation of the epibacterial community, differences between field 225 and controlled conditions samples were observed at the family level, (Fig. S7). In field samples, 226 the main families observed were Hyphomonadaceae (Alphaproteobacteria), Alteromonadaceae, 227 Thiohalorbdaceae (Gammaproteobacteria) and Saprospiraceae (Bacteroidetes) representing 21, 228 15, 15 and 14 % of the community, respectively. Hyphomonadaceae appeared as a discriminant 229 taxon of field samples (LDA > 4, Table S5). Thioharlobdaceae and Hyphomonadaceae were mainly 230 represented by the genera Granulosicoccus and Litorimonas contributing up to 8 and 6% to the 231 dissimilarity between field and t₀ samples, respectively (Table S6).

In contrast, the community structure of controlled conditions samples was mainly characterized by the occurrence of Alteromonadaceae and Rhodobacteraceae with relative percentages ranging from 9 to 61% and 9 to 44%, respectively (Fig. S7). The Alteromonadaceae family appeared mainly represented by the genera *Alteromonas* and *Paraglaciecola* which were discriminant taxa specific to t₀ samples (Table S5) and contributed to 13 and 3% of the overall dissimilarity between field and t₀ samples, respectively (Tables S6).

From t_0 to t_3 , and whatever the temperature/irradiance conditions, a clear decrease of Alteromonadaceae and an increase of Spongiibacteraceae, Rhizobiaceae (mainly represented by the genus *Lentilitoribacter*) and Cellvibrionaceae was noticed (Fig. S7). These three latter families appeared as discriminant taxa specific to t_3 samples (LDA > 4, Table S5).

242 For the analysis of discriminant taxa, a focus was made on t_3 samples since it was expected to 243 offer the most marked differences in line with the changing conditions (Table S7; Fig. 4; Fig. S8). 244 Actually, the highest number of discriminant taxa of a specific irradiance/temperature condition 245 for a same LDA threshold was observed for t_3 , whatever the taxonomical rank. More precisely, 246 for thresholds of 3.4 and above, t₃ samples gathered approximately two and four times more 247 discriminant genera than t_2 and t_1 samples, respectively. Overall, discriminant taxa specific of t_3 248 samples mostly differed according to the temperature (Fig. 4). The genus Oleiphilus occurred 249 mainly among LT samples, whatever the irradiance, and appeared as an example of taxa 250 displaying a similar trend for t_1 and t_2 samples (Fig. S8). Several other genera showed a similar 251 tendency under particular conditions of irradiance, such as Kordia at AI and Neptuniibacter at LI. 252 In contrast, some genera occurred mainly in samples at HT, such as *Sulfitobacter*, *Congregibacter* 253 and Parvularcula at AI, Hirschia at LI, Congregibacter and Parvularcula at HI. Moreover, some 254 genera also differed according to the irradiance conditions, such as Kordia at LT which occurred 255 mainly at AI compared to LI and HI. At HT, Lentilitoribacter and Parvularcula were found in 256 significantly higher percentages at HI compared to LI. A similar tendency was observed for 257 samples subjected to AT for the genus Jannaschia.

258 Surface metabolome fingerprinting and variations of discriminant metabolites

When all samples were included, differences of surface metabolome profiles between field and 259 260 controlled conditions samples appeared on the second component of the PCA score plot (Fig. 2B). 261 Moreover, a global shift of the surface metabolomes was observed over time on the first 262 component from t₁ to t₃. Finally, a discrimination was also observed on the second component of 263 the PCA between HI and LI samples (Fig. S5B). The PERMANOVA test conducted with the three 264 experimental factors (time, temperature, and irradiance) validated significant differences within 265 each factor, but also a significant interactive effect of the three factors (Table S8). The multivariate 266 pairwise analysis revealed at first that all sampling times were significantly different from each 267 other except t_3 with field, t_0 and t_2 on one hand, and t_1 with t_0 on the other hand (Table S9). When 268 comparing the three groups of samples obtained with different irradiances, all of them were 269 significantly different from each other, while for temperature conditions, HT samples were 270 significantly discriminated from AT and LT samples on the basis of their surface metabolome.

271 The PCA plot obtained only with the t₁ samples did not reveal any clear differences between the 272 temperature/irradiance conditions (Fig. 5). However, multivariate tests showed that LI and HI 273 samples were statistically different (Table S9). In the case of t₂ samples, the resulting PCA plot 274 (Fig. 5) allowed to discriminate: (i) HT samples from the two other temperature conditions on the 275 first component, (ii) on the second component, LI from HI samples (PERMANOVA tests with 276 "temperature" or "irradiance" factors: p = 0.001, Table S8). Pairwise comparisons showed 277 significant differences between HT samples and those at the two other temperatures on one 278 hand, and between LI samples and those obtained at the two other irradiances on the other hand 279 (Table S9). Finally, the corresponding PCA plot (Fig. 5) for t₃ samples showed a discrimination 280 between HI and LI samples on one hand, and between HT and LT samples on the other hand. In 281 term of pairwise comparisons, samples were significantly different between each temperature 282 (Tables S9). LI samples appeared also significantly different from samples obtained at the two 283 other irradiances (Table S9). Moreover, the interaction of temperature and irradiance was found 284 to be significant only for t_3 , in contrast to the two previous sampling times (Table S8).

285 When comparing field and t₀ samples, the most discriminant compounds identified according to 286 their Variable Importance in Projection (VIP) scores were fucoxanthin (VIP score: 1.87) and 287 phenylalanine (VIP score: 1.85). These two compounds were more produced in t_0 samples 288 compared to field samples (Fig. S9) with a fold change of 7.0 and 6.2, respectively.

Subsequently, a focus was made on the variations of a panel of annotated and discriminant surface compounds (Fig. 6; Fig. S9; Table S10) differentially expressed in t_3 samples according to each condition (VIP score > 0.6), since this sampling time offered the largest number of significant and discriminant variations. Such variations were not systematically observed in samples collected at previous sampling times (Fig. S9).

294 At LT, DMSP, mannitol, several diacylglycerylhydroxymethyl-N,N,N-trimethyl- β -alanine (DGTAs) 295 [such as DGTA (C42:11), DGTA (C40:8), DGTA (C36:4) and DGTA (C36:9)] and a diacylglycerol [DG 296 (C36:9)] were found in higher concentrations in HI samples compared to those at LI. Moreover, 297 mannitol and DGTA (C36:4) were also more produced in AI compared to LI, while DGTA (C42:11) 298 and DG (C36:9) were found in higher concentrations at HI rather than AI. At AT, mannitol was 299 found in higher amounts at AI and HI rather than at LI and gleenol was also found in higher 300 concentrations in AI rather than at LI. A quite opposite tendency was observed for fucoxanthin 301 which appeared in higher amounts in samples at LI compared to those obtained at HI. At HT, 302 fucoxanthin, tryptophan and an unknown sesquiterpene with the molecular formula $C_{15}H_{18}O_2$ 303 were produced in lower concentrations in samples at LI rather than those at HI while the opposite 304 tendency was observed for mannitol.

At LI, DGTA (C36:4), gleenol and phenylalanine were more produced in HT samples rather than those at LT. At AI, proline betaine and DG (C36:9) were found in higher concentrations in LT samples compared to HT ones. DG (C36:9) was also more produced in samples at LT compared to those obtained at AT. Gleenol was found in higher concentrations at AT than at HT. At HI, DGTA (C42:11) and DGTA (C36:0) were produced in higher concentrations in LT samples compared to AT and HT samples.

311 Discussion

In a general context of global change, the impact of environmental factors on the surface microbiota of marine holobionts is still poorly studied through controlled conditions experiments and the combination with the surface host's metabolome characterization remains rare. In the case of *T. atomaria*, the concurrent temporal increase of temperature and irradiance has been hypothesized to play a key role in controlling seaweed-microbiota interactions in natural environment (Paix et al., 2019, Paix et al., *in prep.*), while a decrease of these parameters had been never investigated before. The aim of this study was to decouple these two factors to understand their specific and synergistic effects on the host-surface microbiota interactions.

Through this study, we also aimed to confirm the efficiency of NOCHL primers to avoid plastid 16S rRNA gene amplification. Their amplification led to a decrease of the sequencing depth for prokaryotic 16S rRNA sequences which can prevent a full assessment of the diversity of prokaryotic communities associated to plants or algae. We compared this set of primers with 515F-Y/926R primers which previously lead up to 36% of chloroplast 16S rRNA gene sequences (Paix et al., 2020). We confirmed the results from Thomas et al., 2020, since the efficiency of NOCHL primers was clearly observed with no sequences affiliated to chloroplasts.

327 Conditioning effect on the holobiont system

328 Heteroprokaryotic densities and richness of the epiphytic community appeared higher for 329 controlled conditions samples after the one-week acclimation period compared to field ones. A 330 difference in β -diversity was also observed between these two sets of samples. Besides, a 331 relatively high percentage of OTUs number (20%) were specific to controlled conditions samples. 332 However, these specific OTUs represented a lower proportion in terms of sequences (8.3%), 333 compared to their percentage based on the number of OTUs. Two plausible scenarios could 334 explain the presence of such epibionts at the surface of controlled conditions samples despite 335 they had not been observed within field samples. Firstly, these OTUs could be rare taxa in field 336 samples, removed with the 0.005% filtering process of the FROGS pipeline (used for filtering the 337 sequencing artefacts, Bokulich et al., 2013) or with the rarefaction of the OTU-table. These taxa 338 may benefit from the algal conditioning and become more abundant at the algal surface in 339 aquaria. Another source could be the pre-filtration process of the running seawater. Once 340 pretreated, the running coastal seawater provided to the aquarium device was filtered (with 341 ultimately 1 to 3 μ m filters) and then sterilized using UV radiations. However, despite these 342 filtration steps, some exogenous colonizers might come from the planktonic community from the 343 coastal sea, or also from biofilms on the surfaces of the experimental devices (e.g. tubes or filters).

Considering these two scenarios, it cannot be excluded that these rare or/and exogenous taxa may also benefit from the change of uncontrolled and/or not measured parameters throughout the experiment. Such hypothesis might explain the significant interaction observed between time and temperature factors and could be considered as a limitation for this study, raising the importance of monitoring a large panel of environmental parameters to adjust and improve the stability of the experimental setup.

350 The effect of a controlled conditioning on the surface microbiota was already investigated for the 351 Rhodophyta Delisea pulchra and a similar scenario was also proposed by the authors (Zozaya-352 Valdés et al., 2016). 15 days after the transfer of *D. pulchra* from field to aquaria, a change of 353 microbiota structure was observed with specific enriched OTUs. The main ones were affiliated to 354 Kordiimonadales (mainly the genus Kordiimonas), Alteromonadales (mainly the genus Glaciecola) 355 and Cytophagales. In our study, the main taxa promoted after one week of acclimation also 356 belonged to Alteromonadales with the genera Alteromonas and Paraglaciecola. Several strains 357 belonging to these two genera have been previously described for their ability to degrade 358 seaweed polysaccharides (Akagawa-Matsushita et al., 1992; Schultz-Johansen et al., 2016; Bech 359 et al., 2017). Moreover, the genus Alteromonas was already identified as increasing during 360 mesocosm experiments (Schäfer et al., 2000). Alteromonas macleodii in particular is well known 361 as a r-strategist, possibly taking advantage of nutrient-enriched environments (Zemb et al., 2010; 362 Romera-Castillo et al., 2011; Tada et al., 2011; Lawes et al., 2016). Despite we used a 363 metabolomics approach which did not allowed to investigate algal polysaccharides, we 364 hypothesized that a shift of the global chemical composition at the algal surface (e.g. an increase 365 of polysaccharides biosynthesis) after the conditioning might constitute a selective advantage for 366 Alteromonas and Paraglaciecola spp., which could metabolize such a carbon source and quickly 367 grow at the surface of *T. atomaria*.

In contrast, two other genera of the Alteromonadales, *Litorimonas* and *Granulosicoccus* spp. significantly decreased when algal samples were transferred in aquaria. These two genera have been already described at the surface of *T. atomaria* as specific, core and pioneer taxa and are known to quickly decrease over time on Mediterranean sites (Paix et al., 2019, 2020, Paix et al., *submitted*). Even if environmental conditions from the sampling site of this study clearly differ from those of the Mediterranean ones, these taxa could be sensitive to environmental changes.
Among changes mediated by the conditioning from field to mesocosms, decrease of
hydrodynamics and modification of the selective pressure associated to predation or viral lysis
might constitute crucial factors (Cram et al., 2016).

377 For the surface metabolome, several metabolites were differentially produced after the transfer 378 of *T. atomaria* from field to aquaria. For example, phenylalanine and fucoxanthin were observed 379 with higher concentrations after the transfer in aquaria while field samples were characterized 380 by a higher expression of DGTAs. Within diverse algal species, phenylalanine and fucoxanthin 381 production is known to increase with higher UV-B radiations (Heo and Jeon, 2009; Hartmann et 382 al., 2015). Hence, the metabolomics shift linked to the transfer of T. atomaria from field to 383 aquaria, might be explained by a change of light conditions/quality associated to the LED/filter 384 system. As hypothesized for polysaccharides, such chemical variations at the algal surface might 385 also be considered as potential factors shaping differences of epibacterial composition.

386 Finally, the physiological assessment of the macroalgae was more generally determine through 387 analyses of the algal growth, the relative concentration of mannitol, and the maximum quantum 388 yield of PSII (F_v/F_m). Linked to the algal photosynthetic activity, these two latter parameters aimed 389 to decipher the light limitation of CO_2 fixation, and the photosynthetic efficiency of the seaweed. 390 The variations of the mannitol concentrations during the experiment suggested that 391 photosynthetic CO₂ fixation appeared mainly linked to irradiance level during the experiment and 392 was limited according to the sampling times when compared independently. Moreover, F_v/F_m 393 values did not changed significantly whatever the factors considered. Similarly, the algal growth 394 assessed through the measurement of thalli samples, did not showed any significant differences 395 neither with time, irradiance, or temperature conditions. Hence, regardless of conditions of 396 irradiance and temperature, these results suggested a relative stable physiological status of the 397 seaweed throughout the experiment.

398 Short-term responses of algal surface microbiota and metabolome

Through multivariate analyses conducted within t_1 samples, the short-term responses (24h) of the surface microbiota and metabolome were found to clearly differ. On one hand, short-term 401 differences of prokaryotic β -diversity only appeared with the change of temperature (increase 402 and decrease). More particularly, the Oleiphilus genus was a major discriminant taxon which 403 differed after t₁, with higher percentages at LT compared to AT and HT. Conversely, the absence 404 of a direct effect of irradiance on the global structure of the bacterial community at t₁ could be 405 linked to the absence of major phototrophic taxa in the initial community. The NOCHL primers 406 did not allow to amplify sequences of 16S rRNA gene from Cyanobacteria (Thomas et al., 2020). 407 However, Cyanobacteria sequences constituted less than 0.1% of the overall community for 408 samples tested (t_0 and t_1) with the 515F-Y/926R primers. Moreover, when focusing on aerobic 409 anoxygenic phototrophs [AAP, a functional group gathering various subgroups within Alpha-, 410 Beta- and Gammaproteobacteria, composed of facultative photoheterotrophs which use 411 bacteriochlorophyll to harvest light energy (Koblížek, 2015)], the main genera identified in the 412 dataset were Roseobacter, Congregibacter, Erythrobacter and Jannaschia, but these genera 413 represented less than 0.01% of all the sequences and did not vary significantly according to 414 irradiance conditions in t₁ samples. Moreover, the absence of a direct effect of irradiance changes 415 at t₁ on the epibacterial community could be explained by the fact that the growth of these main 416 phototrophic taxa would require a longer period (e.g. one week or more, see the next section 417 below on long-term effects).

418 On the other hand, short term differences between surface metabolomes were observed only 419 when the irradiance conditions varied. The highest irradiance rapidly induced an increase of the 420 production of mannitol at the algal surface. This polyol is a photosynthetic product which 421 constitutes the main form of energy storage for brown algae (Lehvo et al., 2001; Rousvoal et al., 422 2011; Weinberger et al., 2011) and a similar observation has previously been made for *F*. 423 *vesiculosus* (Saha et al., 2014).

Interestingly, these results indicated that the short-term responses of the two components of the holobiont system are not susceptible to the same factor. Consequently, we hypothesized this change of algal host and surface microbiota would correspond to responses firstly inherent to their respective physiological specificities, and that reciprocal interactions at the holobiont scale could only occur later. An interesting approach to confirm that irradiance could constitute a primary and direct parameter acting on the algal host, in contrast to the temperature, would be

to work on similar experiments with an axenic host as suggested by van der Loos et al., 2019.
Despite the methodological complexity of cultivating such a model, this type of study would allow
to decouple factors effects on the host without the risk that epibiotic bacterial metabolites
interfere.

Effect of irradiance on surface microbiota: an indirect long-term effect mediated by the algal host? 434 435 After the conditioning, differences appeared only after two weeks between samples exposed to 436 HI and LI, and this even more in the case of HT. The genera Lentilitoribacter, Parvularcula, 437 Congregibacter (at HT), and Jannaschia (at AT) constituted taxa which seemed to be especially 438 adapted to higher irradiance. Pelagimonas and Kordia were genera especially adapted to AI 439 conditions in the case of HT and LT, respectively. The case of Jannaschia and Congregibacter is 440 interesting since one species is known to produce the bacteriochlorophyll a pigment and is 441 described as an AAP (Fuchs et al., 2007; Yoon et al., 2010; Pujalte et al., 2014; Selyanin et al., 442 2016). Higher irradiances could have constituted a beneficial condition thanks to its phototrophic 443 metabolism, and the delayed response is consistent with clear effects of light observed on natural 444 AAP communities in the long terms (Koblížek, 2015). As no evidence of phototrophic metabolism 445 was observed for Parvularcula, Pelagimonas and Kordia, irradiance could then constitute an 446 indirect factor explaining the selection of these taxa. Moreover, it was clearly established that 447 surface metabolome was directly impacted by the irradiance changes during the whole 448 experiment. Consequently, several surface algal metabolites differentially expressed according to 449 light intensity could be considered as potential factors shaping microbiota light-dependent 450 differences with time.

451 After two weeks, mannitol, fucoxanthin and DMSP were the main metabolites involved in the 452 surface metabolome changes in connection with irradiance conditions. As already observed after 453 one day, mannitol remained discriminant but with increasing concentrations in the case of HI, 454 which may still result from a higher algal photosynthetic activity. Mannitol constitutes a 455 preferential source of carbon for a large bacterial diversity but it is also a compatible solute known 456 to play a role in osmoprotection (Kets et al., 1996; Sand et al., 2013; Zahid et al., 2015). Mannitol 457 catabolism has been notably investigated through a genomic approach with Zobellia 458 galactanivorans, a Flavobacteriia closely associated to several macroalgae (Barbeyron et al.,

459 2001; Groisillier et al., 2015). The operon associated to mannitol assimilation for this bacterial 460 strain has been identified and also found in other genomes among Flavobacteriaceae (Groisillier 461 et al., 2015). Interestingly, this bacteria has the ability to degrade various algal polysaccharides 462 such as alginates and fucans of Ochrophyta, or agars and carrageenans of Rhodophyta (Thomas 463 et al., 2012, 2013; Barbeyron et al., 2016). In addition to mannitol, algal polysaccharides could 464 also constitute an important source of carbon for epiphytic bacteria particularly adapted to 465 macroalgal niches (Gobet et al., 2018). Consequently, such primary or secondary products of the 466 algal photosynthesis could then be considered as key factors involved in epibacterial communities 467 shaping, especially in the case of changing irradiance. An interesting perspective would be to 468 investigate the polysaccharide production of T. atomaria, notably under distinct irradiances and 469 to focus on microbial functions associated with the degradation of such biopolymers.

470 For fucoxanthin, a higher expression was observed in the case of a LI. Increasing amounts of this 471 carotenoid have been observed with depth or shade increase in other macroalgae such as F. 472 vesiculosus, Ascophyllum nodosum, Udotea petiolate, and Dictyota dichotoma. These data 473 illustrating the adaptation of the photosynthetic performances of seaweeds with a lower quantity 474 and quality of light (Ramus et al., 1977; Perez-Bermudez et al., 1981). Here, we suggested that a 475 similar shade-light adaptation occurred in *T. atomaria* to compensate the irradiance decrease. 476 Through culture dependent approaches, fucoxanthin was also found to display inhibiting activities 477 against bacterial adhesion (Viano et al., 2009; Saha et al., 2011). However, the selective effect of 478 fucoxanthin on the epibacterial community structure of macroalgae is always a matter of 479 discussion (Lachnit et al., 2010; Saha et al., 2011; Egan et al., 2013). In Saha et al., 2014, 480 correlations between fucoxanthin and several bacterial taxa were investigated and several 481 "fucoxanthin-positive" and "-negative" taxa have been determined. The Flavobacteriaceae family 482 was notably found positively correlated to fucoxanthin suggesting that members of this family 483 could be attracted by this compound. Here, no clear correlation was observed between Flavobacteriaceae and fucoxanthin (linear regression: $R^2 < 0.2$). Through in vitro and in vivo field 484 485 experimental approaches, the anti-adhesion activity of fucoxanthin and of potentially 486 unidentified compounds of a non-polar fraction of the surface extracts of *F. vesiculosus*, has been 487 previously supported. However, fucoxanthin has not been found to impact the community structure of *F. vesiculosus* and cautions have been raised to avoid any premature causality links
(Lachnit et al., 2013). A low selective range of activity may be important to consider (Egan et al.,
2013) and further investigations still need to be conducted to clearly understand the effect of
fucoxanthin on macroalgal epibacterial communities under ecological relevant conditions.

492 In a previous work on Mediterranean samples of *T. atomaria*, DMSP was found to increase at the 493 algal surface from February to July and such a variation was hypothesized to be correlated with 494 the temporal increase of temperature and/or irradiance (Paix et al., 2019). In the present study, 495 DMSP increased significantly with the irradiance intensity in the case of LT conditions. The DMSP 496 concentrations of total extracts have been previously investigated under different light conditions 497 in other seaweeds, such as the green algae Ulothrix implexa, Ulothrix subflaccida, Enteromorpha 498 bulbosa, Acrosiphonia arcta, Ulva rigida, Blidingia minima (Karsten et al., 1990, 1992), Ulva 499 lactuca (Van Alstyne and Puglisi, 2007), Codium fragile (Lyons et al., 2010) and the brown alga F. 500 vesiculosus (Saha et al., 2014). In accordance with our results, Karsten et al., 1990, 1992 and Lyons 501 et al., 2010, have found in their respective algal models that DMSP concentrations were higher 502 with an increasing irradiance. Taken together, these results may strengthen the hypothesis of a 503 light-dependent DMSP biosynthesis, especially in the case of low temperature conditions (Karsten 504 et al., 1992). Moreover, DMSP is also produced by many microalgae, including dinoflagellates and 505 diatoms (Bullock et al., 2017), and the potential origin of DMSP at the surface of T. atomaria could 506 also be linked to such epiphytes that were identified on several Dictyotaceae including T. 507 atomaria (Ternon et al., 2020). Besides, DMSP constitutes a source of carbon and sulfur for a large 508 diversity of bacteria, especially those from the Roseobacter clade (Howard et al., 2008; Curson et 509 al., 2011; Dogs et al., 2017). DMSP is also known as a chemo-attracting compound released at the 510 surface of Ulva mutabilis which allows the "gardening" and mutualistic interactions with 511 Roseovarius sp. (Wichard et al., 2015; Kessler et al., 2018). At the surface of T. atomaria, several 512 discriminant taxa such as Sulfitobacter and Jannaschia, specific to a condition of temperature and 513 irradiance at t₃, have been already described for their DMSP catabolic activity (Mou et al., 2005; 514 Curson et al., 2008; Howard et al., 2008). More precisely, an interactive effect of temperature and 515 irradiance was observed for the genus Jannaschia, with a maximum abundance under HI and AT 516 conditions as mentioned above. Then, the higher DMSP production induced by a higher irradiance could also positively affect the growth and development of members of this genus at the surfaceof *T. atomaria*.

519 Effect of temperature on the holobiont dynamics

520 The increase of seawater temperature was predicted to potentially affect macroalgae health at a 521 global scale (Egan and Gardiner, 2016; Bindoff et al., 2019; van der Loos et al., 2019). At the 522 holobiont scale, temperature affects microbial shifts for a large number of seaweeds in controlled 523 condition studies, such as D. pulchra from the Tasman sea (Zozaya-Valdés et al., 2016), 524 Neogoniolithon fosliei from the Coral sea (Webster et al., 2011), Macrocystis pyrifera from NE 525 Pacific coasts (Minich et al., 2018), Amphiroa gracilis from the SE Indian ocean (Huggett et al., 526 2018), Fucus vesiculosus f. mytili from the North sea (Mensch et al., 2016) and F. vesiculosus from the Baltic sea (Stratil et al., 2013). Concerns are notably raised since lower health conditions and 527 528 chemical defenses caused by increasing temperature can result to a microbiota dysbiosis (Egan 529 et al., 2014; Egan and Gardiner, 2016; Minich et al., 2018). More precisely, the development of 530 opportunistic pathogens could be promoted through the activation of virulence factors (Case et 531 al., 2011; Fernandes et al., 2011; Gardiner et al., 2017).

532 Among epiphytic bacteria which are known to be favored by an increase of seawater 533 temperature, the Rhodobacteraceae family is particularly represented (Case et al., 2011; 534 Fernandes et al., 2011; Stratil et al., 2013; Saha et al., 2014; Qiu et al., 2019). In the case of D. 535 pulchra, pathogens from the Roseobacter group have been particularly observed, especially for 536 bleached algae under high temperature conditions (Case et al., 2011; Zozaya-Valdés et al., 2015, 537 2016). However, pathogens of *D. pulchra* are not specifically restricted to this family (Kumar et 538 al., 2016). In the present study, Rhodobacteraceae family appeared to be the main family 539 increasing with the temperature, with notably the genus *Sulfitobacter*. Interestingly, the genus 540 Sulfitobacter was also found to be positively correlated to the temperature at the surface of M. 541 *pyrifera* harvested[BP1][c2] on the Chilean coasts (Florez et al., 2019). Attention was also paid on 542 variations of several taxa from this family known as potential pathogens, such as Nautella, 543 Phaeobacter and Aquimarina (Fernandes et al., 2011; Kumar et al., 2016). The contribution of 544 these potential pathogens to the overall microbiota shift in response to an increase of

545 temperature was not significant. Moreover, no clear disease event (bleaching, blistered or 546 disrupted tissues) was observed on thalli of *T. atomaria* during the whole study.

547 However, a lower α -diversity in terms of richness, was observed when temperature increases. 548 Considering that a decrease of richness but not diversity (in HI and LI conditions) might indicate a 549 loss of "rare" taxa, this change of α -diversity could constitute a transient phase before a newly 550 more diversified and stable state.

However, in the case of human holobiont, a decrease of α -diversity constitutes a sign of a potential dysbiosis (Pitlik and Koren, 2017). For marine holobionts, including seaweeds, a high diversity is often considered to be essential for the stability and the resilience of the holobiont system under changing conditions (Loreau et al., 2001; Moore, 2005; Longford et al., 2019). Consequently, even if no clear pathogens were identified at the surface of *T. atomaria*, a decreasing richness under higher temperatures may suggest a lower fitness of the holobiont.

557 A global shift of the β -diversity of the surface microbiota of *T. atomaria* was observed after one 558 day under high temperature conditions while modifications of the surface metabolome were only 559 observed after one week. For the β -diversity, significant interactions were observed between 560 time and temperature, suggesting a continuous shift toward a stable structure occurring after a 561 long-term period. For the metabolome, significant interactions between temperature and 562 irradiance were observed only at t₃. We hypothesized that temperature may directly modify the 563 microbiota community structure over time and later induce an adaptive response of the algal 564 metabolome which in turn regulate the epibiosis. In Othmani et al., 2016, the anti-adhesion 565 activity of several sesquiterpenes found at the surface of *T. atomaria* has been investigated 566 against several bacterial strains isolated from marine biofilms. The gleenol, a spiroaxane 567 sesquiterpene, has shown strong anti-adhesion activities at relevant natural concentrations. This 568 compound has been proposed to play an important role on the chemical selection of a specific 569 microbial community at the surface of T. atomaria (Othmani et al., 2016). In the present study, 570 the amounts of gleenol at the algal surface appeared to reach their maximal level at HT/LI and AT/AI for t₃ samples. The differential production of this metabolite could possibly constitute a 571

host adaptation to limit quantitatively and/or qualitatively the dynamics of the microbiotacomposition induced by the change of temperature.

574 Changes of the surface metabolome of *T. atomaria* linked to temperature variations could also 575 be attributed directly to physiological processes inherent to the algal host. Among other 576 metabolites which differ significantly according to temperature, several polyunsaturated 577 membrane lipids were identified, including diacylglycerols (DGs) and DGTAs. These lipids were 578 mainly expressed in the case of LT. Here, we hypothesized that thalli of *T. atomaria* exposed to 579 HT express less polyunsaturated lipids in order to decrease the fluidity of its membrane. Such 580 changes in membrane lipid composition for seaweeds has been already described as a mean to 581 maintain an optimal membrane fluidity under changing temperature conditions (Eggert, 2012). 582 Besides, this process is also well known in the case of microalgae (Sato and Murata, 1980, 1982; Schüler et al., 2017). This adaptation to temperature change could thus play a crucial role to 583 584 maintain the integrity of several membrane process, including enzymatic mechanisms such as the 585 induction of heat-shock genes during the membrane rigidification of Synechocystis (Inaba et al., 2003; Los and Murata, 2004; Eggert, 2012). 586

587 Conclusion

588 To our knowledge, this is the first multi-omics study, coupling untargeted metabolomics and 16S 589 rRNA gene metabarcoding, to study a seaweed holobiont responses to experimentally controlled 590 environmental conditions. Through such anapproach, we showed that the seaweed-holobiont 591 dynamics of the Phaeophyceae T. atomaria was shaped by both temperature and irradiance. The 592 response to temperature changes appeared to be faster for the microbiota than for the 593 metabolome at the surface of the alga. Conversely, irradiance changes may impact firstly the algal 594 surface metabolome and, only then, its associated microbiota. We suggested that indirect effects 595 could occur only after few days. Algal metabolome variations resulting from a differential 596 photosynthetic activity induced by a shift of irradiance could be a factor shaping thereafter the 597 epiphytic microbiota. Several metabolites, such as mannitol, fucoxanthin and DMSP, known to play important roles on seaweed-microbiota interactions could be involved. Overall, bacterial 598 599 richness appeared lower in the case of a higher temperature with a positive selection of several 600 specific taxa (notably from the Rhodobacteraceae family), probably taking advantage over other families (such as Oleiphilaceae and Flavobacteriaceae, mainly represented by the genera
 Oleiphilus and *Kordia*, respectively). These results suggested to better investigate the algal fitness
 in future studies.

604 Experimental procedures

605 Aquarium experimental device

606 The whole experimental device was set up at the "Roscoff Aquarium Services" structure (Centre 607 de Ressources Biologiques Marines, Station Biologique de Roscoff, France) in a thermostated 608 room at 16°C. The room had three shelves, each of them with three floors. Each floor gathered 609 three replicate aquaria (15L each), resulting in a total of 27 aquaria (Fig. S10 and S11). Each shelves 610 system was supplied by the same independent semi-open water circuit with pre-treated running 611 seawater pumped from Roscoff coasts [details of pre-treatment in Supplementary information 612 (SI)]. At first, the pre-treated seawater went through an independent 50L tank for each shelf and 613 was UV-treated with a Reeflex UV 800 system (Eheim, Deiziau, Germany). The water temperature 614 within each tank was conditioned by TK500/TR10 chiller/heater systems (TECO refrigeration 615 technologies, Ravenna, Italy). Seawater was then distributed to each aquarium through a Compacton 2100 pump (Eheim). When arriving to aquaria, the mean water flow was 36.5 L h⁻¹ 616 617 (SD = ± 7.5). Finally, the water from each aquarium went back by overflowing to the first tank 618 through a micron bag (100 µm; Red Sea, Düsseldorf, Germany). Two rows of 12V LED ribbons (LED 5050, Inovatlantic, Nantes, France) were set up on the top of each floor resulting in an irradiance 619 of 120 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ measured at the bottom of each aquarium (SD = ±8.1). This 620 621 irradiance intensity corresponds approximatively to the mean in situ irradiance going up to 5m 622 depth on NW French Atlantic coasts in summer (Martin et al., 2006). Each light system was set on 623 a 16h:8h light:dark cycle during the whole experiment, which corresponds to the natural 624 day:night cycle at that time. To avoid any position bias between aquaria, particular cautions were 625 taken when LED ribbons were set up, to ensure a homogenous irradiance intensity for each 626 replicate of aquarium within the floors, during the whole experiment (SD < 9%). Additionally, 627 external source of irradiance or heat from the thermostated room were avoided by keeping the 628 room in the dark and each floor closed by a specific door.

629 Sampling and biological material

Approximatively 120 thalli of *Taonia atomaria* (Woodward) J. Agardh (Dictyotaceae,
Phaeophyceae) were collected by diving at Guimaëc (The Channel, 48°41'39.9"N 3°41'50.7"W) in

July 2018 at low tide (2 to 4m depth). Thalli were stored in cool boxes filled with surroundingseawater and transported at lab within one hour after sampling.

Once at lab, only thalli with a length between 20 and 30 cm were kept considering only individuals within the same development period. Furthermore, thalli showing evidence of macrofouling at their surface were not considered and ultimately a total of 87 thalli were kept. Among them, three thalli haphazardly selected were considered as triplicates of field samples and directly used for cytometry, metabarcoding and metabolomics analyses.

639 Controlled conditions experiment

640 The 84 remaining thalli were haphazardly selected and distributed in the 27 aquaria as described 641 in Fig. 1. The whole study was conducted with triplicates of aquaria for each condition. For each 642 thallus, holdfasts were carefully attached to stainless steel screws in order to ballast the thallus 643 at the bottom of the aquarium. The seawater temperature and the irradiance intensity in all aquaria were set to field conditions at 18°C (SD = ± 0.2) and 120 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ 644 645 $(SD = \pm 10.5)$, respectively, and used for an acclimation period of one week. At the end of the 646 acclimation (t₀), three replicates were sampled (t₀ samples, Fig. 1) and analyzed. After this 647 sampling, all the aquaria contained three thalli (on for each following sampling times) and the 648 conditioning period was started with 9 distinct conditions: three temperature coupled with three 649 irradiances. The three chiller/heater systems from each shelf were set to $13^{\circ}C$ (SD = ± 0.6), kept to $18^{\circ}C$ (SD = ± 0.2) or set to $22^{\circ}C$ (SD = ± 0.5). These "low", "ambient" and "high" temperature 650 651 conditions were named LT, AT and HT, respectively. The change of temperature was progressively 652 done during 3h. For each floor, the irradiance of (i) bottom floors was set to 20 μ mol photons m⁻² 653 s^{-1} (SD = ± 0.75) by adding a solar film (F339-2000, d-c Fix[®]), (ii) mid floors was kept to 120 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ (SD = \pm 10.5), (iii) top floors was set to 350 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ (SD = \pm 10.6) by 654 turning on two supplementary LED ribbons. These "low", "ambient" and "high" irradiances 655 656 conditions were named LI, AI and HI, respectively.

657 One day after, one thallus per aquarium was chosen haphazardly and sampled, consisting in 27 t_1 658 samples (9 cross-conditions in triplicates, Fig. 1). One and two weeks after t_0 , two other samplings 659 were performed in the same way with 27 t_2 and 27 t_3 samples, respectively (Fig. 1). For all

sampling points, each replicate of sample (i.e. an individual thallus) was subjected to four types of analyses : (i) measurement of maximum quantum yield $[F_v/F_m]$ of photosynthetic energy conversion, (ii) flow cytometry, (iii) 16S rRNA gene metabarcoding, (iv) and UHPLC metabolomics analyses, using four distinct fronds from the same thallus [average surface of a frond: 13.5 cm² (SD = ±7.4)].

665 Physicochemical parameters measurements

Temperature, irradiance, pH, salinity and dissolved O_2 level were monitored daily in each aquarium (details in SI). Concentrations of nitrates (NO₃⁻), orthophosphates (PO₄³⁻), and silicates [Si(OH)₄] were determined in field and aquarium seawater at each sampling time (details in SI). Measurement methods were done as described in Briand et al., 2017.

670 Physiological assessment

671 Before extraction procedures, the maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) of photosynthetic energy 672 conversion of the photosystem II (PSII) of each sample was measured using a pulse-amplitude 673 modulated chlorophyll fluorometer (JUNIOR-PAM teaching Chlorophyll Flurorometer, Walz, 674 Germany). A frond of each replicate was kept 2 min in the dark and three measures were done 675 by placing directly the optic fiber along three surface areas chosen haphazardly on the algal frond. 676 The mannitol being a main primary source of energy for brown seaweeds, its concentration can 677 be used as a proxy linked with CO₂ fixation through the seaweed photosynthesis (Saha et al., 678 2014). The relative concentration of this primary metabolite was determined through the 679 metabolomics analysis (see below). The algal growth was investigated throughout the experiment 680 by measuring the length of all thalli sampled for the cytometry, metabolomics and metabarcoding 681 experiments, and then kept in the herbarium. Furthermore, a particular attention was paid during 682 the whole experiment to identify any visual evidence of thallus deteriorations such as bleaching 683 or other types of tissue degradation.

684 Flow cytometry analyses

Flow cytometry (FCM) analyses were used to assess the densities of heterotrophic prokaryotes at the surface of the algal samples. Epiphytic cells were collected by scraping the surface of an entire frond of each sample with a sterile scalpel, prefiltered using 40 μ m cell strainers, fixed in 4 mL of 688 1% glutaraldehyde filtered seawater solution and conserved at -80°C. The other fronds of each 689 thalli samples were kept for metabarcoding and metabolomics analyses. Aggregated cells were 690 dissociated with an optimized sonication time of 2 min. Samples were centrifugated at 800*g* for 691 1 min and 200 μ L of supernatant were stained using SYBR Green I (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). 692 Cells were enumerated using a BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) 693 as previously described (Paix et al., 2020). Results were expressed as densities of cells (cells.cm⁻²) 694 using the measured surface area of each algal sample.

695 16S rRNA gene metabarcoding analyses

Epiphytic cells were collected by scraping the surface of an entire frond of each sample with a
sterile scalpel. DNA extraction was performed using the DNeasy PowerBiofilm kit (MoBio, Qiagen,
Germantown, MD, USA) and samples were conserved at -80°C (Paix et al., 2019, 2020).

The NOCHL primers were previously designed specifically to minimize the contamination from plastid 16S rRNA gene (Thomas et al., 2020). At first, they were tested to estimate their efficiency to avoid amplification of chloroplastic 16S rRNA gene and were compared to the 515F-Y/926R primers sets (Parada et al., 2016). Both pairs of primers were tested on triplicates of t₀ and t₁ (AT/AI) samples. The treatment of sequences for these analyses with both primers pairs was performed as described below.

705 Following these analyses, 16S rRNA genes of all samples were amplified using the NOCHL primers. 706 Amplicons were sent to Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany) for MiSeq Illumina sequencing 707 $(2 \times 300 \text{ bp})$. 16S rRNA gene reads were processed using the FROGS workflow under the Galaxy 708 environment (Escudié et al., 2018). Clustering step for generating operational taxonomic units 709 (OTUs) was performed using SWARM with a clustering aggregation distance set to 3 (Mahé et al., 710 2014). Chimeric sequences were *de novo* removed using VSEARCH (Rognes et al., 2016). OTUs 711 representing less than 0.005% of all the sequences were removed. OTUs were affiliated with the 712 silva132 16S rRNA gene database. The final matrix was obtained by performing a rarefaction to 713 the minimum library size (21 642 reads) using the "phyloseq" R package (McMurdie and Holmes, 714 2013).

α-diversity was estimated using Chao1 and Shannon indexes. β-diversity was analyzed with a non metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) using weighted UniFrac distances allowing to consider
 phylogenetic relationships between OTUs. These analyses were performed using the "phyloseq"
 R package and graphical outputs were generated using the "ggplot2" R package.

719 A Venn diagram was constructed to reveal percentages of OTUs and sequences shared between 720 the samples collected at different sampling times. An OTU was considered as common to all the 721 sampling times when it was found a least in one replicate of each sampling time. The Venn 722 calculated with diagram was the Venn webtool 723 (http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/). LEfSe analyses were conducted to reveal 724 discriminant taxa whether specific to a sampling time (from field to t₃ samples) or a particular 725 controlled cross-condition (n = 9). LEfSe analyses were performed under the Galaxy environment 726 with a LDA threshold set to 3.4. A focus on specific comparisons was made with SIMPER analyses 727 to reveal the main contributing genera involved in the dissimilarity between field and to samples. 728 SIMPER analyses were conducted with the "vegan" R package with p values calculated through 729 999 permutations.

730 UHPLC metabolomics analyses

Extraction of surface metabolites and sample preparation were performed as described in Paix et al., 2019, 2020 (details in SI), using an entire frond of each sample. Surface extracts were analyzed using a UHPLC-ESI-HRMS system (Dionex Ultimate 3000 rapid Separation; Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with an analytical core-shell reversed phase column (150 × 2.1 mm, 1.7 μ m, Kinetex Phenyl-Hexyl; Phenomenex, Le Pecq, France) and coupled with an ESI-QToF Impact II mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany) using a positive ionization mode (details in SI).

Raw UPLC-MS data were converted into netCDF files using DataAnalysis software (v. 4.3; Bruker,
Germany) and processed for peak finding, integration and alignment using MzMine 2 (version
2.53, Pluskal et al., 2010; details in SI). Data were filtered according to Favre et al., 2017, by taking
into account signal/noise ratio, coefficient of variation and coefficient of correlation. The resulting
data matrix (101 features) was log₁₀-transformed, mean-centered, normalized using the sum of

the chromatographic peak areas according to Paix et al., 2020. The data matrix was then analyzed
using principal component analysis (PCA) and partial least-square discriminant analysis (PLS-DA)
to determine the chemical biomarkers of a specific condition of temperature and irradiance.

746 The global annotation was performed as described in Paix et al., 2019, 2020; Carriot et al., 2020. 747 Briefly, the annotation was based on the use of an "in-house" database described in Carriot et al., 748 2021, gathering metabolites annotated through the use of molecular networks (details in SI). 749 Based on the PLS-DA components, VIP scores were calculated and indicated the importance of 750 each m/z feature in the discrimination between each group of samples, allowing then to identify 751 the main biomarkers of a specific condition of temperature and irradiance. A particular attention 752 was paid on compounds with a VIP score above 0.6 (details in SI). Thus, among the 101 features 753 of the data matrix, the 30 metabolites with the highest VIP scores were annotated. In brief, 754 annotation was assessed by comparison of MS/MS spectra with those of our in-house database 755 (purified compounds and commercial standards listed in SI), and public databases such as MetLin, 756 MoNA or Lipidmaps. To confirm the annotation, elucidation of the MS/MS fragmentation 757 pathway was performed and when possible compared to the literature (details in SI).

758 Statistical tests

759 Three-way ANOVA tests were conducted to assess the significance of physicochemical 760 parameters, PAM measures, metabolites, densities, according to each experimental condition 761 (time, irradiance and temperature). ANOVA tests were followed by pairwise multiple comparison 762 tests. Tukey's post-hoc tests were performed for PAM measures, discriminant metabolites, 763 densities and α -diversity metrics. Duncan test with Benjamini-Hochberg method for p-value 764 correction was performed as a multiple testing method to evaluate differences between groups 765 for discriminant taxa. Following NMDS and PCA, overall differences between 766 temperature/irradiance conditions were statistically tested with PERMANOVA and followed by a multivariate pairwise test. These analyses were conducted on R with "ade4", "agricolae", "vegan" 767 768 and "RVAideMemoire" packages. PLS-DA were subjected to cross validations using 769 MetaboAnalyst 4.0 (https://www.metaboanalyst.ca).

770

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782 Data accessibility

Sequences data were deposited and are publicly available in the NCBI Sequences Read Archive (SRA) under the BioProject ID PRJNA684487 accession number. Raw data for LC-ESI-(+)-MS/MS experiments were deposited and are publicly available in the MassIVE platform under the ID MSV000084512, respectively.

787

788 Author contributions

BP, GC, JFB, CL and PP designed the study. BP and PP performed field sampling. BP and GS designed and constructed the whole experimental devices. BP performed the controlled conditions experiments, PAM measurements, metabolomics and metabarcoding experiments. BP and BM performed cytometry analyses. NL and CLP performed chemical analyses of seawater samples. BP, GC, JFB, PP and CL analyzed all the data. All authors participated to the writing of the manuscript.

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1159 Figure legends

Figure 1. Experimental design of the study. (A) Workflow of the full experiment over time. (B)
Details of the waterflow circulating within the experimental devices.

Figure 2. Multivariate analyses of surface microbiota and surface metabolomes including all samples of *T. atomaria*, represented according to their sampling time. (A) weighted UniFrac based NMDS plots showing β -diversity differences of epibacterial communities. (B) PCA score plots showing differences of surface metabolomes.

Figure 3. Weighted UniFrac based NMDS plots showing differences of β -diversity of epibacterial communities of *T. atomaria* samples collected at a specific sampling time: (A) t₁, (B) t₂, and (C) t₃.

Figure 4. Summary of significant variations of discriminant bacterial genera at the surface of *T*.
 atomaria samples collected at t₃ according to cross-conditions of temperature and irradiance.

An arrow between two aquaria indicates a significant difference of relative abundance of a discriminant genus (Duncan's test and Benjamini-Hochberg *p*-value adjustment) between two conditions. \neg and \searrow symbols after a genus name indicate whether a significant increase or decrease is respectively observed from the condition where the arrow starts to the condition where the arrow ends.

Figure 5. PCA score plots showing differences of surface metabolomes of *T. atomaria* depending on the sampling time: (A) t_1 samples, (B) t_2 samples, and (C) t_3 samples.

Figure 6. Summary of significant variations of discriminant surface metabolites of *T. atomaria*according to cross-conditions of temperature and irradiance at t₃.

An arrow between two aquaria indicates a significant difference of the normalized concentrations
of a chemical biomarker (ANOVA and Tukey's tests) between two conditions. *A* and *b* symbols
after a compound name indicate whether a significant increase and decrease is respectively
observed, from the condition where the arrow starts to the condition where the arrow ends.











