

1 **Structural integrity of *Ellisolandia elongata* reef: a mechanical approach to compare tensile**  
2 **strengths in natural and controlled environments**

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29 **Abstract**

30 Geniculate coralline algae are oases of biodiversity, providing nursery areas and shelter for the  
31 species that live among their fronds.

32 The key of their success in the intertidal is the ability to withstand hydrodynamic forces. Under  
33 culturing conditions most of the physical and ecological stressors such as intense hydrodynamic  
34 forces and grazing are extremely reduced, thus affecting species mechanical properties and their  
35 response to external threats.

36 The aim of the present study is to investigate tensile mechanical properties of *Ellisolandia*  
37 *elongata* cluster of fronds from natural (sheltered and exposed reef) and culturing conditions (after  
38 one month of culturing). The tensile test showed that the first failure stress ( $\sigma_l$ ) was not significantly  
39 different between the natural and culturing conditions indicating that the two reefs were  
40 characterized by the same distribution of pre-existing, inherent structural flaws. Interestingly the  
41  $\sigma_{max}$  (maximum stress before rupture) was significantly different between the two conditions, with  
42 the culturing condition being more resistant to average load compared to the natural conditions. The  
43 maximum stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{max}$ ) showed the influence of the environment in reducing strength  
44 and elasticity of the fronds.

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## 59 Introduction

60 In the marine realm, intertidal environments present some of the most demanding conditions on  
61 the planet: large temperature fluctuation, desiccation, exposure to solar radiation, waves and  
62 currents (Morris and Taylor, 1983; Larcher, 2003; Raffaelli and Hawkins 2012). Despite these  
63 physical limits, intertidal environments host diverse and productive assemblages of organisms,  
64 mainly dominated by algae. The success of seaweeds in this mechanically very demanding  
65 environment is due to the strength in their attachment to the substrates and the ability to reduce  
66 hydrodynamic forces by either passively bending or changing shape and size when subject to flow  
67 (Vogel, 1994; Harder et al., 2004).

68 Wave swept habitats are susceptible to physical disturbance which results in major changes of  
69 their community structure and diversity. While active rapid adaptive processes to flow conditions  
70 are common in animals, algae and plants have to rely on passive means to cope with various flow  
71 regimes (Harder et al., 2004). Thus, the various structural units of a plant body have to be flexible  
72 enough to allow rapid adjustments to the shape of the organism (Vogel, 1984). The overall  
73 morphology of intertidal algae subsequently is adapted to survive in flow dominated habitats,  
74 thereby hosting a rich assemblage of associated organisms.

75 In the Mediterranean Sea, both geniculate and non-geniculate coralline algae create intertidal  
76 underwater architectures which include the association of *Lithophyllum cystosirae* (former  
77 *Lithophyllum papillosum* var. *cystosirae* (Hauck) Lemoine and *Polysiphonia* spp., the  
78 'encorbellement' of *Lithophyllum byssoides* (Lamarck) Foslie (Laborel et al., 1994) and  
79 *Lithophyllum tortuosum* (Esper) Foslie, concretions of *Neogoniolithon brassica-florida* (Harvey)  
80 Setchell & L.R.Mason and the 'bourellet' or 'corniche' of *Ellisolandia elongata* (J. Ellis & Solander)  
81 K.R.Hind & G.W. Saunders (Laborel et al., 1994; Nannini et al., 2015).

82 Approximately 100 million years ago crustose coralline algae developed flexible joint (genicula)  
83 which are primary responsible for bending in flowing water (Aguirre et al., 2010). This evolutionary  
84 step was fundamental for some of the rigid calcified algae since flexibility is essential to survive in  
85 exposed rocky shores with intense hydrodynamic forces. Some genera such as *Calliarthron* proved  
86 to have a near optimal morphology achieved by having the basal genicula longer and more resistant  
87 than the apical ones which maximize bending and minimize amplification of stress contributing to  
88 the survival of the fronds under breaking waves (Martone et al., 2010; Martone and Denny, 2008a).  
89 This strategy has been successful and allows erect coralline algae to be the dominant competitors  
90 for space in the intertidal zone at many wave-exposed sites around the globe (Denny et al., 2013).

91 *E. elongata* (Rhodophyta, order Corallinales, family Corallinaceae) is a geniculate (i.e.  
92 articulated) alga, originating from a crustose base with flexible feather-like fronds (up to 200 mm  
93 long). Fronds, which typically branch in one plane, are characterized by dense and simple lateral

94 pinnate branchlets separated by inconspicuous gaps resulting from narrow branch-angles combined  
95 with short intergenicula in the main axes (Brodie et al., 2013). In the Mediterranean Sea, species'  
96 distribution range from the North-West Mediterranean Sea (from Southern coast to the Spain to  
97 Greece) to the South-East Mediterranean Sea (Cabiocch et al., 1992) (from Lebanon to Algeria, with  
98 the highest concentration in Tunisia) (Bressan and Babbini, 2003). By favouring life in highly  
99 exposed sites, *E. elongata* represent a 'model' species being characterized by distinct morphological  
100 and mechanical properties that, like other articulated coralline algae, maximise flexibility and  
101 reduce the risk of breakage.

102 This coralline alga creates an important carbonate structure, hereinafter termed as 'reef', which  
103 comprises the physical structure provided by the algae but also the structural organization of the  
104 community itself, the composition and relative proportions of the hosted species (Hiscock, 2014).

105 *E. elongata* 'reef' is a physical structure which is essential in maintaining species richness and  
106 influencing ecosystem processes; it provides microhabitats and refuges from predation, including  
107 grazing, and protection from adverse conditions such as current and waves.

108 In the last decade, there has been an increase in long term culturing experiments, mainly due to  
109 the threat of climate change. However, under culturing conditions most of the physical challenges  
110 such as intense hydrodynamic forces, grazing, abrading sediments and air exposure are extremely  
111 reduced, and their potential in influencing the growth of organisms is not extensively considered.  
112 These physical and ecological stressors can cause damage to the organisms through cuts, holes and  
113 scars in the thallus (De Bettignies et al., 2012) making it more prone to structural failure and crack  
114 propagation leading to loss in structural integrity. In this context, mechanical properties are a key  
115 point for understanding species response to environmental forces, and need to be taken into  
116 consideration during the lab experiments.

117 The aim of the present study is to investigate tensile mechanical properties of *E. elongata* reefs  
118 grown under natural (sheltered and exposed sites) and culturing conditions. Differently from  
119 previous studies that considered the mechanical properties of a single frond, our approach was to  
120 investigate macroscopic tensile strength of cluster of fronds (i.e. simulating the frond clusters  
121 composing the reef) in order to understand how structural properties of the geniculate algae could  
122 potentially affect the reef structure. In detail, the objectives of the present study were 1) to design a  
123 new experimental set-up for testing tensile strength by simulating natural environmental forces (e.g.  
124 waves) experienced by *E. elongata* reef; 2) to estimate fundamental quantities as tensile stress and  
125 elastic modulus of *E. elongata* frond clusters living under natural and culturing conditions.

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## 127 **Materials and methods**

128 *Sample collection and experimental set-up*

129 *Ellisolandia elongata* was collected from two different reefs: in April-May 2015 from floating  
130 pontoons (site 1) in Santa Teresa bay (44°04'54.3" N; 9°52'54.5" E) and in October-November 2015  
131 from a vertical cliff in Palmaria Island (site 2) (44°02'19.3" N; 9°50'30.3" E) (Gulf of La Spezia, N-  
132 W Mediterranean Sea). In both sites, 16 bushes (5cm x5cm, including base and substratum) of *E.*  
133 *elongata* were collected using hammer and chisel. After both collections, *E. elongata* bushes were  
134 put in plastic bags with seawater and brought to the lab using a refrigerated trolley.

135 While samples collected from both sites in May and November were transported to the lab and  
136 the cluster of fronds were directly tested for changes in the mechanical properties (F1 and F2, Table  
137 1), samples collected from both sites in April and October were placed in the experimental system  
138 for 1 month (L1 and L2, Table 1). At the end of each experiment, May and November respectively,  
139 clusters of fronds were tested for changes in the mechanical properties.

140 The experimental set-up consisted of a recirculating closed system composed of 4 experimental  
141 glass tanks (size: 50 x 35 x 35 cm; capacity: 50 L), a fibreglass sump (capacity: 170 L) pumping  
142 430 L/h (Pump: NewaJet 2300 L/h, valve CALABER with 4 exits for water distribution) of water in  
143 each tank; a chiller BOYU (model: L-075, Voltage: 240 V - 50 Hz, Power: 1/8 HP, Aquarium Size:  
144 80-400 L, Flow Rate: 600-2000 L/h) provided with a NewaJet 3000 L/h pump for temperature  
145 control and skimmer created *ad-hoc* for the system (cylinder:  $\varnothing$  5 cm, height: 50 cm; pump Newjet  
146 400 L/h pumping 200 L/h; pump NewaJet 3000 L/h and aerator (Wave Aerator Mouse 54 L/min)).

147 Each experimental tank was provided with one pump for circulation and wave (Hydor Koralia  
148 Circulation & Wave Pump 2200 L/h) and one surface pump (SUNSUN HJ-311 300 L/h). Each  
149 aquarium, containing *E. elongata* reef (25 x 25 cm) was exposed to 2 ceiling lights (Radior TS 150  
150 NDL/230V) provided with 2 bulbs (HQI Metal-Halide Lamp; HITLITE 150 W, 10.000 K).  
151 Photoperiod and light intensity were kept constant (10:14 dark light cycle; light intensity of 1000 -  
152 1200  $\mu\text{mol s}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$ ) (LI-COR LI-250A Light Meter).

153 Seawater was collected weekly in the bay next to the lab by using an industrial pump from the  
154 mussel farm Headquarter (Cooperativa Mitilicoltori Spezzini, IT) and transported in the laboratory  
155 by using 20 L and 30 L tanks. Once in the lab the water was processed using Mechanical (0.1  $\mu\text{m}$ )  
156 and UV filters (Vecton V2 600). Renewal rate was 50% of water *per* week in the entire system (200  
157 L/week) allowing salinity and nutrients to follow the seasonal trend of natural conditions (see Table  
158 2a, b). Temperatures in the system were set according to in-field temperature (Table 2) in the Gulf  
159 of La Spezia (March- April 2015: min- max= 13-15 °C; end of September-October 2015 min-max=  
160 20-24 °C; frequency of collection: one-day campaigns with 4H PocketFerry Box- JENA  
161 engineering GmbH, temperature probe SBE 45).

162 Environmental variables in the laboratory were measured daily: pH (Mettler Toledo SevenGo pH  
163 meter with electrode Mettler Toledo inLAB® 413 SG/2m), salinity (Hach HQ30d Flexi + Hach

164 Conductivity Probe), Oxygen (Hach HQ30d Flexi + Hach LDO Probe), temperature (Hanna HI  
165 935005 K-Thermocouple Thermometer). Nutrients were randomly sampled weekly and measured  
166 by means of the auto-analyser (3 Bran+ Lu Ebbe).

167 Differences in environmental parameters (pH, temperature, salinity) for both experiments (April  
168 and October) were analysed by using ANOVA (Underwood, 1997). The Student Newman Keuls test  
169 (SNK) was performed *a posteriori* whenever a significant difference was found. Prior to analysis, a  
170 Cochran's C test was employed to assess the homogeneity of variance. These statistical analyses  
171 have been performed by using Statistica 8®.

172

### 173 *Sample preparation*

174 *E. elongata* fronds were detached from their natural bases in order to remove the 'substrate  
175 effect' since different substrates can determine different strength of the reef (Madin, 2005). For the  
176 algae cultured in the lab, only fronds that grew more than 1 cm were used for the tensile tests. A  
177 total of 400 fronds (40 samples, 10 fronds each) have been tested in this experiment. In order to  
178 determine the mean diameter of the algae populations, a total of 170 fronds were photographed with  
179 a USB stereo-microscope (Dyno-Lite) and measured (5 replicates for each frond) with ImageJ ®  
180 software. Chi-square test and Gaussian-fit were used to assess the normal distribution of thallus  
181 diameters. Each sample consisted of 10 fronds of the same length mounted between two empty  
182 aluminum cylinders, with a base of epoxy resin each (HoldFast, USA) (Fig. 1). The aluminum  
183 cylinders aimed to ensure a proper mechanical coupling to the testing machine. All of the fronds  
184 composing each sample were oriented in the same direction: the distal and proximal parts of fronds  
185 were inserted into the cylinders and held with a cyanoacrylate gel-type glue (Loctite SuperGlue,  
186 Henkel, USA). In order to avoid any damage due to frond deterioration, samples were prepared and  
187 tested in few days, and kept in the aquaria before being tested. The length of each sample ( $L_{\text{length}}$  =  
188 internal distance between the two cylinders used for the tensile tests) was measured (i.e. three  
189 replicated measures for each sample) by using a 0.05 mm resolution caliper.

190

### 191 *Experimental apparatus and procedure*

192 A mechanical setup (Fig. 1) was designed (by using Autodesk Inventor Professional 2015) and built  
193 to coupling samples to MTS electro-hydraulic machine used for the tensile tests in the thermo-  
194 mechanical Research Laboratories at ENEA-Faenza.

195 The testing machine consisted mainly of a 100 kN two-column frame, a 5000/500 N strain-gauge  
196 load-cell and a 200 mm stroke piston, whose displacements were measured by high-sensitivity  
197 inductive-type transducer. All sensors are periodically calibrated so that the metrological traceability  
198 of force and displacement outputs is guaranteed according to international standards. Because of the

199 sample characteristics (very low forces to be applied the tensile test), the load cell accuracy was  
200 preventively and successfully verified in the range up to 15 N by means of a proper set of calibrated  
201 masses (Fig. 2). Piston speed of a tensile test is directly connected to the duration of the test itself,  
202 i.e. to the time necessary to pull to break the sample. This duration was actually an unknown  
203 parameter, so it was set under the following hypothesis: in natural environment, the frond clusters  
204 composing the reef will be exposed to several fatigue cycles until a ‘critical wave’ will cause the  
205 rupture. Due to the limit to measure the real wave period of such ‘critical wave’, this period has  
206 been estimated by using the mean wave period in the study area. All wave parameters were  
207 extracted from time-series data (from 1989 to 2001) provided by the altimeter wave buoy closest to  
208 sampling sites, where *E. elongata* were sampled (Fig. 3). The mean wave period calculated from the  
209 time series was approximately 4 s. Thus, piston speed for the tensile test was set according to the  
210 criterion that the sample should be pulled to break under the mean wave period experienced in  
211 natural conditions. From a preliminary test, we estimated that in order to break the samples under  
212 this condition, the mean piston speed needed to be equal to 0.5 mm/s. Once the piston speed was  
213 determined, the tests were performed automatically by acquiring the signals of time [s], load [N]  
214 and displacement [mm] by means of the proper software that manages the testing machine. Data  
215 acquisition was carried out with a frequency of 500 samples/s. Data were successively elaborated  
216 by a custom-made software (LabVIEW®).

217

#### 218 *Physical quantities measured by the tensile test*

219 Pull-to-break tensile test generated three main parameters: the first failure stress ( $\sigma$ ), the maximum  
220 stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{\max}$ ) and the modulus of elasticity ( $E$ ). The modulus of elasticity was  
221 calculated using the best estimate of the strain compatibly with the testing conditions ( $\Delta L_{\text{length}} /$   
222  $L_{\text{length}}$ , where  $\Delta L_{\text{length}}$  was the displacement measured while pulling the sample and  $L_{\text{length}}$  was the  
223 initial length of the sample). A typical stress vs strain diagram obtained during this experimental test  
224 (Fig. 4) shows the zone of linearity selected for the calculation of  $E$  by linear regression and the  
225 stress at the first failure of the sample. Mean stress failures were calculated by taking into account  
226 the mean values measured for the two forces (first and maximum failures) and resistant sections.  
227 The dispersion of measured values was used to estimate the standard combined uncertainty  
228 associated with the analyzed parameters, as indicated by the current standards on the uncertainty  
229 evaluation (JCGM 100:2008 - Evaluation of measurement data – Guide to the expression of  
230 uncertainty in measurement).

231

## 232 **Results**

233 *Preparatory phase*

234 In order to determine the cross section of the samples, it was assumed that the section of the  
235 thallus of each frond was circular. The total resistance of the section of each sample was given by  
236 the sum of the resistance sections of each frond (total number of fronds per cluster = 10). The  
237 diameter of the frond thallus was determined by an a-priori characterization (as mean diameter) of  
238 the original algal population from which the fronds under test were sampled (Table 1). The overall  
239 thallus diameter resulted  $0.51 \pm 0.01$  mm and  $0.58 \pm 0.01$  mm (mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.) for group F<sub>1</sub> (Field, first  
240 sampling) and L<sub>1</sub> (Lab, first sampling) fronds; values of  $0.54 \pm 0.01$  mm and  $0.56 \pm 0.02$  mm were  
241 similarly obtained for group F<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> fronds. The experimental distribution of thallus diameter  
242 values was verified to be reasonably comparable to a normal distribution by means of both Chi-  
243 square test (positive outcome) and Gaussian fit (values of the coefficient of determination R<sup>2</sup>  
244 approximately equal to 1), thus excluding systematic bias due to both samples and measurement  
245 processes. In figure 5, experimental distributions of the stem diameters are shown for group F<sub>1</sub> and  
246 L<sub>1</sub> algae. Furthermore, mean value of each sample “L<sub>length</sub>” was measured and obtained values were  
247  $2.14 \pm 0.62$  cm and  $1.61 \pm 0.37$  cm (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) for group F<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>1</sub> samples, respectively; values of  
248  $1.46 \pm 0.12$  cm and  $0.89 \pm 0.38$  cm (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) were similarly obtained for group F<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> samples.

249

250 *Experiment*

251 The comparison between groups F<sub>1</sub>, F<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>1</sub>, L<sub>2</sub> fronds was performed by analysing three  
252 mechanical parameters, whose average values were determined experimentally by means of pull-to-  
253 break tests: i) the tensile stress at first failure ( $\sigma_1$ ), ii) the maximum stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{\max}$ ) and  
254 iii) the estimated elastic (or Young’s) modulus ( $E$ ).

255 For  $\sigma_1$ , values of  $2.7 \pm 0.4$  MPa and  $3.4 \pm 0.4$  MPa (mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.) were measured for group F<sub>1</sub> and  
256 L<sub>1</sub> samples, respectively. The overlapping of the uncertainty bars suggests that F<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>1</sub> fronds do  
257 not show any significant difference on the stress in correspondence of the first failure (Figure 6a).  
258 For  $\sigma_{\max}$ , values of  $3.4 \pm 0.5$  MPa and  $5.4 \pm 0.5$  MPa (mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.) were measured for group F<sub>1</sub> and  
259 L<sub>1</sub> samples, respectively; in this case, the difference between the two mean values seems to be  
260 significant as indicated by the lacking of overlap between the uncertainty bars. The same conclusion  
261 can be drawn for the mean values measured for the  $E$  quantity ( $35 \pm 6$  MPa and  $48 \pm 7$  MPa (mean  $\pm$   
262 s.e.m.) for group F<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>1</sub> samples, respectively).

263 In order to assess the differences among mean values of F<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>1</sub> parameters, a two-tailed t-test  
264 was performed. The first failure stress did not show any significant difference of the sample means;  
265 differently, both the maximum stress before rupture and the estimated elastic modulus shown



266 significant differences of the sample means (Table 3).

267 The results from the reef collected in October and November, even if based on a less significant  
268 statistical basis, confirm this trend: L<sub>2</sub> samples showed more performing values of mechanical  
269 parameters than F<sub>2</sub> ones. In particular, for  $\sigma_1$ , values of  $1.6\pm 0.3$  MPa and  $2.8\pm 0.9$  MPa (mean  $\pm$   
270 s.e.m.) were measured for group F<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> samples; for  $\sigma_{max}$ , values of  $2.1\pm 0.4$  MPa and  $3.5\pm 1.0$   
271 MPa (mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.) were measured for group F<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> samples; finally, for  $E$ , values of  $17\pm 4$   
272 MPa and  $36\pm 12$  MPa were measured for group F<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> samples, respectively.

273 The comparison among groups (F<sub>1</sub>, L<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub>, L<sub>2</sub>) revealed that L/F ratios of all mechanical  
274 parameters (First failure stress ( $\sigma_1$ ), Max stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{max}$ ), elastic modulus ( $E$ )) were  
275 comparable (Tab. 4). The overlapping of uncertainty bars suggests that reefs tested in both sites,  
276 although characterized by some differences, maintain the same intrinsic contents for what concerns  
277 mechanical properties (Figure 6b).

278 Environmental data of the system (pH, temperature and salinity) during the experiments  
279 (Months: April and October) revealed differences between months for temperature (Two-way  
280 ANOVA:  $F_1 = 182.8$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and salinity ( $F_1 = 230.96$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). No differences were found  
281 among tanks within each month and for the combination of month\*tank.

282

## 283 Discussion

284 Growth reactions as an adaptation or response to physical loads are widespread in plants,  
285 typically taking place on a time scale of hours, days or even years (Wainwright et al., 1976; Ennos,  
286 1999). *E. elongata* living in habitats dominated by high flow velocities may have adaptive  
287 mechanisms involving growth reactions that maximise flexibility and reduce the risk of breakage.  
288 Most of the experiments in the laboratory (Martin and Gattuso, 2009; Form and Riebesell, 2012;  
289 Ragazzola et al., 2012; Ragazzola et al., 2013; Kato et al., 2014; Nannini et al., 2015) used pumps  
290 to recreate water motions however the algae are not exposed to the full range of oscillatory motion  
291 with changes in forces due to different waves heights and periods that natural populations would  
292 experience and important for mechanical studies. High flow velocities, grazing and abrading  
293 sediment are very difficult to be recreated in the aquaria during the experiments, however it's  
294 important to determine the growth reaction and their structural properties. Our experiment showed  
295 that *E. elongata* reefs growing in the lab and growing in the field withstand mechanical stress in  
296 slightly different ways.

297 First failure stress ( $\sigma_1$ ) proved to be not significantly different meaning that probably the clusters  
298 of fronds coming from the two reefs are characterized by the same distribution of pre-existing,  
299 inherent structural flaws. A possible explanation is that even if the samples growing in the lab were  
300 cultured in a controlled environment, without any mechanical stress, this wasn't sufficient to change

301  $\sigma_1$  showing that the overall reef structure has more weight than the environment for the point of  
302 breakage.

303 Flexible thalli bend, reorient and move with the flow by making the species able to withstand  
304 under wave action and bioerosion, while maintaining a structurally and functionally complex  
305 habitat. The maximum stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{\max}$ ) shows the fundamental role played by the  
306 environment. The  $\sigma_{\max}$  is significantly different between the two groups, with the cultured cluster of  
307 fronds being more resistant to average load compared to the clusters from the natural reefs. Studies  
308 from Mach and coauthors (Mach et al., 2007) showed the importance of notches (cracks or different  
309 type of discontinuities) in reducing strength. The stress in the material at the crack tip exceeds the  
310 applied stress in the entire thallus. In this case, the breakage can happen even if the applied force is  
311 not considered to be sufficient to cause the breakage. While in the natural environment we have  
312 conditions that can damage the algae, in the laboratory all these conditions are buffered. Together  
313 with the crack, another factor that could possibly influence the  $\sigma_{\max}$  is the rupture of the genicula.  
314 The genicula don't usually break abruptly (Martone, 2007) but the cell frayed sequentially with  
315 increasing force. The culturing condition could have modified the speed of the rupture. The tensile  
316 moduli ( $E$ ) of samples group F<sub>1</sub>, F<sub>2</sub> decrease in respect to those group L<sub>1</sub>, L<sub>2</sub> implying an increased  
317 flexibility and reduce tissue stress under culturing conditions (Martone and Denny, 2008b).

318 The different exposure of the reefs (sheltered and exposed sites) and the different stage of algal  
319 development do not seem to affect the mechanical properties of the fronds cluster. In both sites  
320 (sheltered and exposed) analysed in May and November respectively, the lack of physical and  
321 ecological stressors under culturing conditions are the key factors in determining the difference in  
322 flexibility and tissue stresses in the cluster of fronds. Further experiments need to be performed in  
323 order to confirm our preliminary observations and investigate the reef forming algae through the  
324 entire life cycle in different exposed environments.

325 Previous bio-mechanical analyses on corallinales have been focusing on single fronds, with  
326 particular emphasis to the genicula (Telewiski et al., 1986) in order to elucidate the mechanisms  
327 behind the resistance to breaking waves and other forces (Martone and Denny, 2008b). Martone  
328 showed the mitigating effect of neighbouring fronds on breakage and within dense stands,  
329 streamlining of individuals probably plays a minor role, as neighbouring fronds may interact and  
330 thus form a drag-reducing aerodynamic unit with higher wind velocities (Harder et al., 2004). Our  
331 studies integrate these previous findings by investigating the tensile properties of the cluster instead  
332 of the single frond in order to simulate the neighbouring effect within the reef.

333 Coastal irregular topography produces exceptionally complicated flows which are hard to define  
334 (Gaylord, 1999), the fluid trajectories under breaking waves become energetically disorganized due  
335 to the degeneration of the waveform. Wave's velocities in the intertidal routinely exceed 5 m/s

336 (Gaylord, 1999; Koehl, 1982, 1984) but the level of variation in velocity through a wave change  
337 substantially with time. All the information we have regarding flow data on the intertidal refers to  
338 temporal variation of velocity and acceleration in one single point in space, therefore we still do not  
339 have information on the overall spatial structure of the flow fields under breaking waves. In our  
340 experiment, we simulated the stress conditions experienced by the algae in natural environment by  
341 inducing the breakage in a temporal frame comparable to the mean wave period recorded in the  
342 Gulf of La Spezia.

343 In this study, we used a single application of force, equivalent to a single wave rushing past an  
344 alga. A previous study (Mach et al., 2007) highlighted that single application of force might predict  
345 lower rates of breakage and dislodgment than those actually observed. Repeated loadings imposed  
346 by waves and cracks in the algae thallus could break/dislodge them even when individual forces are  
347 not sufficient to cause complete fracture. However, even if the absolute number of the applied force  
348 leading to the breakage should be interpreted with caution, we proved that the culturing set up have  
349 an influence on the structural integrity of the organism.

350

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### 354 **Competing interests**

355 The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

### 356 **Author contributions**

357 FR, GR, and CL designed the study, did experimental work and drafted the manuscript; GR did  
358 statistical analyses; PF and MS did all mechanical tests and revised the manuscript; MF and MN did  
359 the experimental work and sample preparation; all authors gave final approval for publication.

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451 **Tables and captions**

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453 **Table 1.** Table summarizing the characteristic of the samples at the different site. Site 1: Santa  
454 Teresa bay (44°04'54.3" N; 9°52'54.5" E); site 2: Palmaria Island (44°02'19.3" N; 9°50'30.3" E).

455 Sample group: L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> are the samples used in one-month experiment in the Laboratory, while F<sub>1</sub>  
456 and F<sub>2</sub> refers to the samples collected in the Field and directly tested for the material properties  
457 without prior culturing. Number of fronds per sample: 10. Sample length and frond diameter shown  
458 as mean  $\pm$  s.d and mean  $\pm$  s.e.m., respectively.

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Sampling site	Month	Sample group	Number of samples	Sample length (cm)	Frond diameter (mm)
1	April	L <sub>1</sub>	15	2.14 $\pm$ 0.62	0.51 $\pm$ 0.01
	May	F <sub>1</sub>	15	1.61 $\pm$ 0.37	0.58 $\pm$ 0.01
2	October	L <sub>2</sub>	5	1.46 $\pm$ 0.12	0.54 $\pm$ 0.01
	November	F <sub>2</sub>	5	0.89 $\pm$ 0.38	0.56 $\pm$ 0.02

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479 **Table 2.a**, Environmental parameters of the experimental system. PH, temperature and salinity in  
 480 the experimental setup (April and October). Data (mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.) are reported *per* tank. **b**, Nutrients  
 481 monitored in the experimental system. NO<sub>3</sub>, PO<sub>4</sub>, Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (mean  $\pm$  s.e.m.) in the  
 482 experimental treatments for April and October, respectively

**a**

Month	Tank	pH	Temperature (°C)	Salinity (‰)
April	1	8.08 $\pm$ 0.04	14.29 $\pm$ 0.21	36.45 $\pm$ 0.15
	2	8.08 $\pm$ 0.04	14.29 $\pm$ 0.22	36.47 $\pm$ 0.16
	3	8.08 $\pm$ 0.04	14.27 $\pm$ 0.22	36.48 $\pm$ 0.17
	4	8.08 $\pm$ 0.03	14.29 $\pm$ 0.22	36.52 $\pm$ 0.19
May	1	8.09 $\pm$ 0.01	17.15 $\pm$ 0.25	34.81 $\pm$ 0.15
	2	8.10 $\pm$ 0.01	17.01 $\pm$ 0.23	34.85 $\pm$ 0.14
	3	8.11 $\pm$ 0.01	16.92 $\pm$ 0.22	34.88 $\pm$ 0.12
	4	8.11 $\pm$ 0.01	16.95 $\pm$ 0.22	34.90 $\pm$ 0.12

**b**

	pH				Temperature				Salinity			
	df	MS	F	<i>p</i>	df	MS	F	<i>p</i>	df	MS	F	<i>p</i>
Months	1	0.01	2	0.13	1	42.51	182.8	*0.00	1	135.25	230.96	*0.00
Tank	3	0.00	0	0.96	3	0.02	0.1	0.97	3	0.05	0.09	0.96
M*T	3	0.00	0	0.98	3	0.00	0.0	0.99	3	0.04	0.08	0.97
Error	75	0.00			67	0.23			71	0.59		

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488 **Table 3.** Two-tailed t-test results between the mean values of  $F_1$  and  $L_1$  parameters (Site1, May  
 489 2015). Significance level: 0.05 -  $F_1$  and  $L_1$  populations considered as independent - null hypothesis:  
 490 mean ( $F_1$ ) = mean ( $L_1$ ).

Parameter under test	Null hypothesis	d.o.f.	Student's $t$	p	Results
First failure stress ( $\sigma_1$ )	$\sigma_{1F} = \sigma_{1L}$	28	1.697	0.101	null hypothesis: <b>accepted</b>
Max stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{max}$ )	$\sigma_{max_F} = \sigma_{max_L}$	28	3.916	< 0.001	null hypothesis: <b>rejected</b>
Elastic modulus ( $E$ )	$E_F = E_L$	28	2.609	0.014	null hypothesis: <b>rejected</b>

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493 **Table 4.** Ratio L/F for mechanical parameters (first failure stress ( $\sigma_1$ ), max stress before rupture  
 494 ( $\sigma_{max}$ ), elastic modulus ( $E$ )) of *Ellisolandia elongata* reefs estimated by means of tensile tests for  
 495 Site 1 (May) and Site 2 (November), respectively.  $u_r$  (L/F): relative standard uncertainty,  $u$  (L/F):  
 496 absolute standard uncertainty.

	$\sigma_1$			$\sigma_{max}$			$E$		
	L/F	$u_r$ (L/F) (%)	$u$ (L/F)	L/F	$u_r$ (L/F)(%)	$u$ (L/F)	L/F	$u_r$ (L/F) (%)	$u$ (L/F)
Site 1	1.28	18	0.23	1.61	17	0.27	1.37	22	0.30
Site 2	1.79	38	0.68	1.71	33	0.56	2.19	40	0.87

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## 513 **Figures Legend**

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518 **Figure 1.** Views of the experimental apparatus (figures not in scale). First row: design of the  
519 mechanical grips used to mount the sample on the testing machine. Second row (from left to right):  
520 testing machine, mounted sample (cylinder dimensions are:  $\phi_{\text{ext}} = 10$  mm,  $\phi_{\text{int}} = 8$  mm, height = 15  
521 mm) before and after the test.

522 **Figure 2.** A) Metrological tests with a load-cell of 5 kN verified in the range of 15 N force. B)  
523 Calibration curve: mean difference of load-cell from the reference values was approximately of 4%.

524 **Figure 3. a,** Positions of  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  (arrowed) sites and of the buoy (circle) in the Gulf of La Spezia  
525 (Coordinates:  $43^\circ 55' 41.99''$  N,  $9^\circ 49' 36.01''$  E).**b,** Distribution of the mean wave period.

526 **Figure 4.** Example of a stress vs strain diagram obtained performing a tensile test. The two sliders  
527 identify the zone of linearity selected for the calculation of  $E$  by linear regression. The cross pointer  
528 identifies the stress at the first failure of the sample.

529 **Figure 5.** Experimental distribution of the stem diameters (mm) for group  $F_1$  and  $L_1$  algae (Site 1,  
530 May 2015).

531 **Figure 6. a,** Mechanical parameters (first failure stress ( $\sigma_1$ ), max stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{\text{max}}$ ),  
532 elastic modulus ( $E$ )) of *Ellisolandia elongata* reefs estimated by means of tensile tests (Error bars =  
533 s.e.m).  $F_1$  and  $L_1$ : site 1, May 2015,  $n = 15$ .  $F_2$  and  $L_2$ : Site 2, November 2015,  $n = 5$ . **b,** Ratios L/F  
534 of all mechanical parameters (first failure stress ( $\sigma_1$ ), max stress before rupture ( $\sigma_{\text{max}}$ ), elastic  
535 modulus ( $E$ )) measured for site 1 (May 2015,  $n = 15$ ) and 2 (November 2015,  $n = 5$ ), respectively  
536 (error bars = s.e.m).

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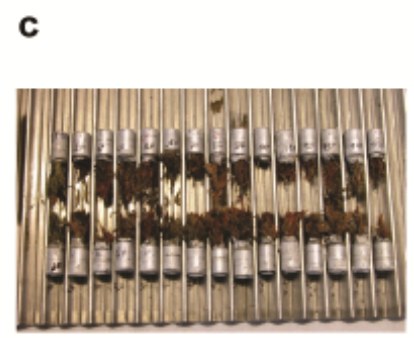
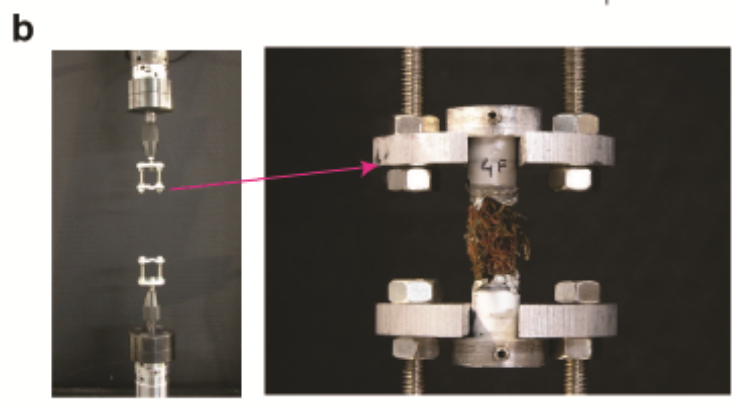
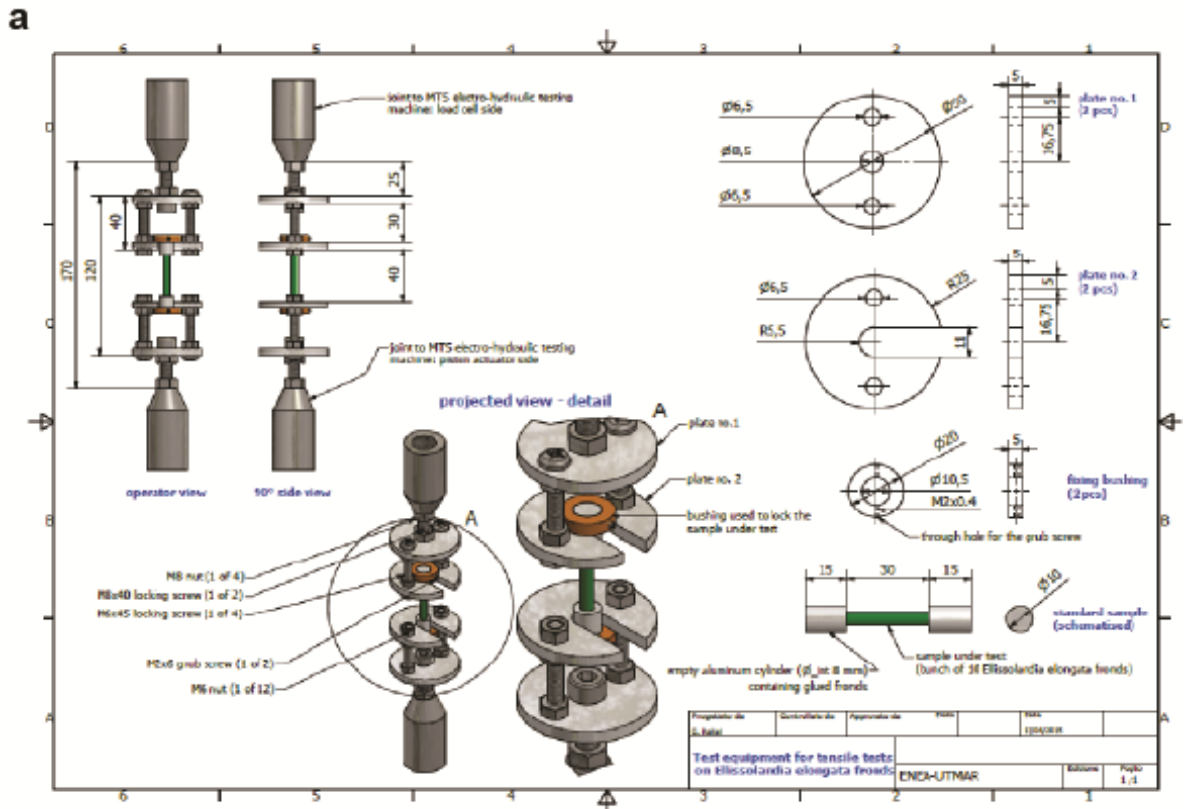
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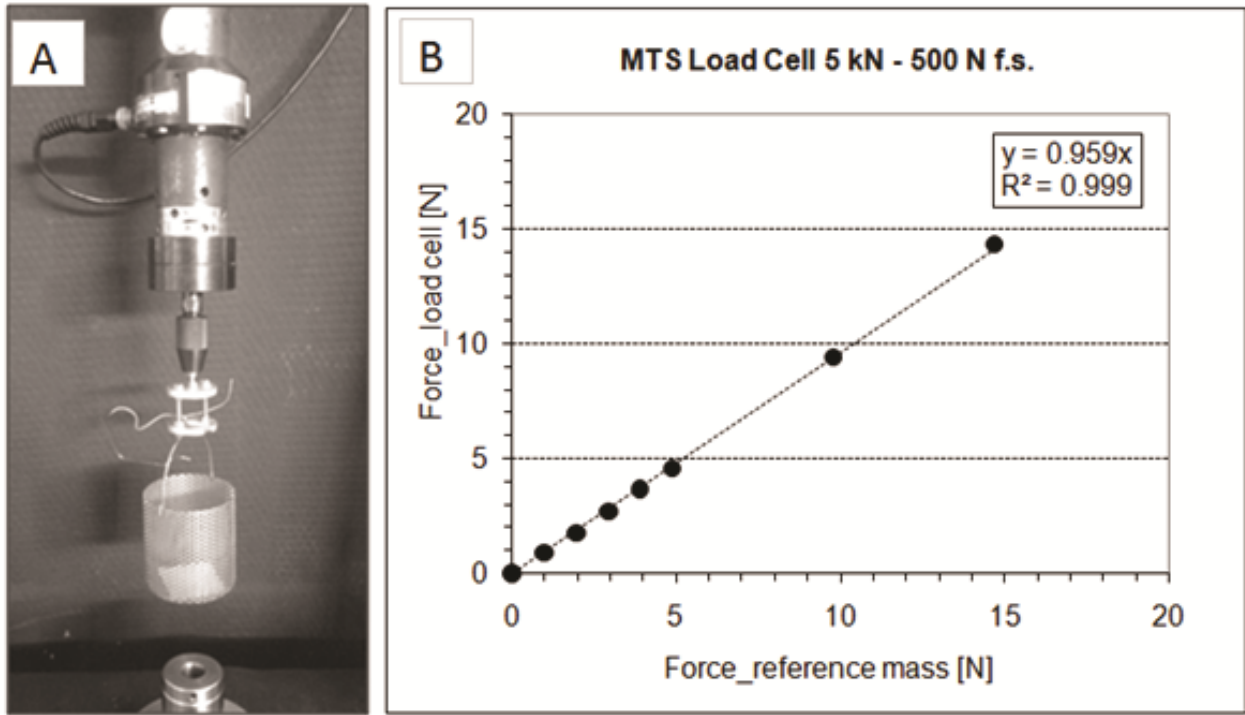
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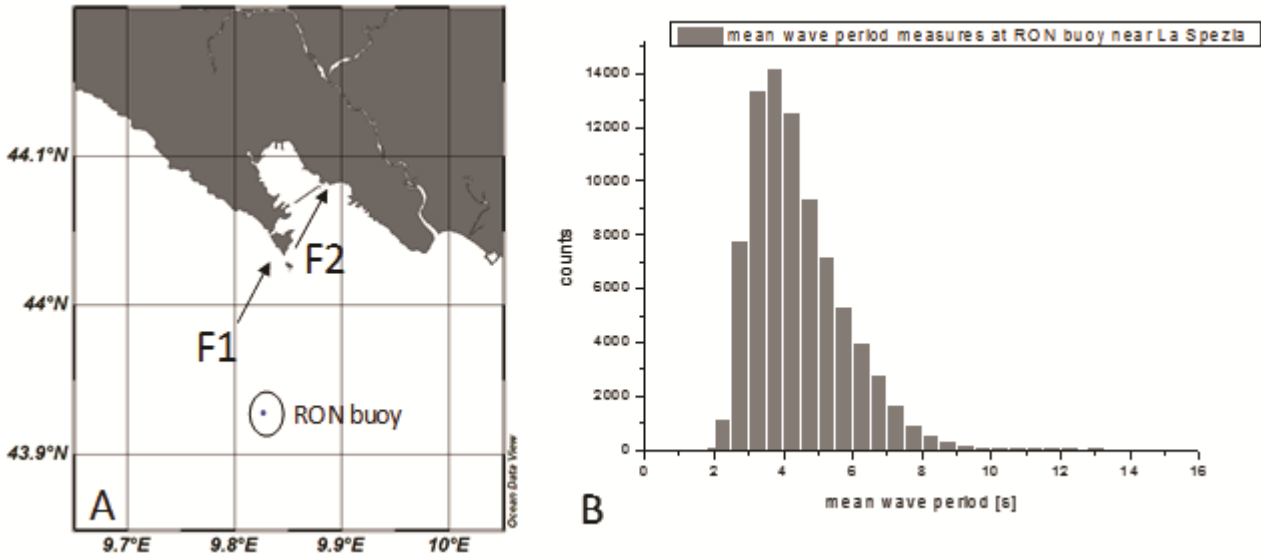


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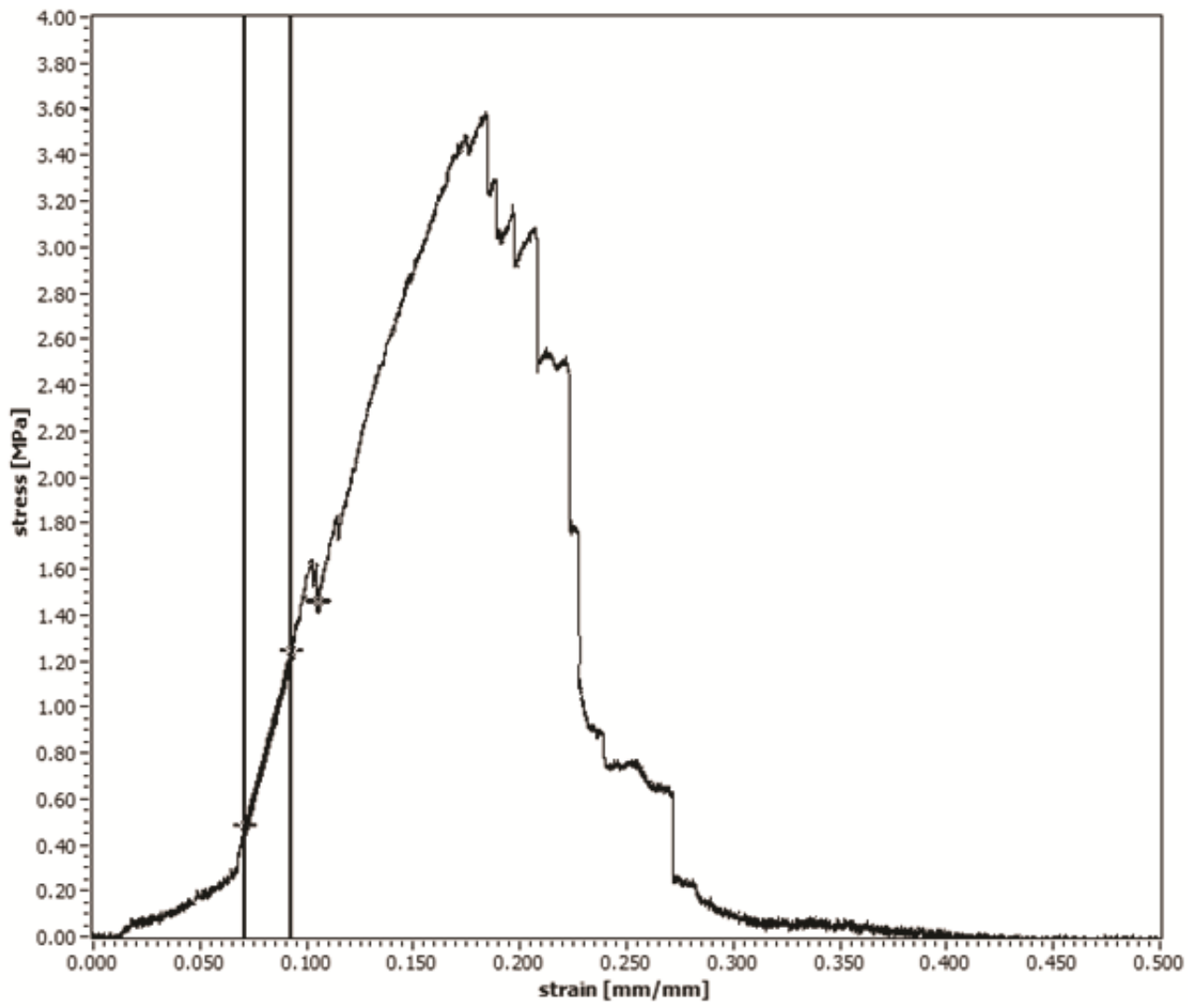
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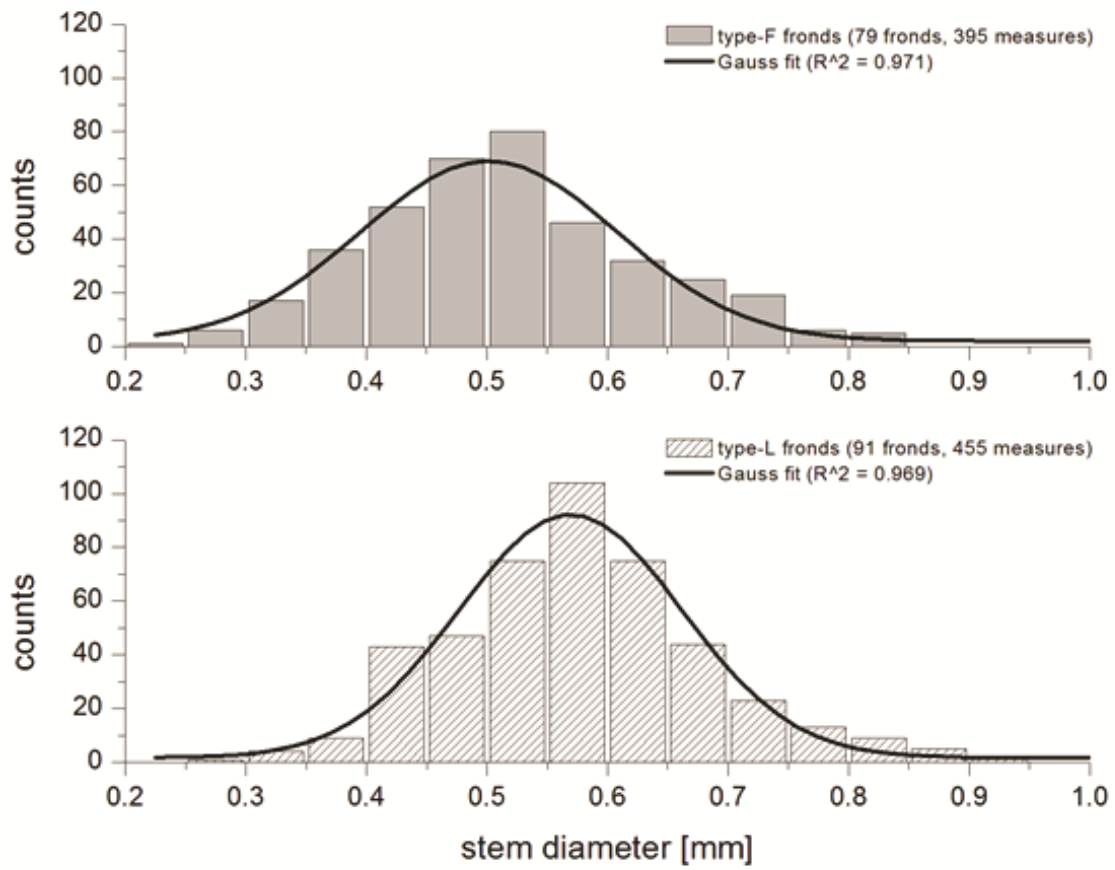
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