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Pierre-Yves Pascal, Olivier Gros, Henricus T.S. Boschker. Temporal fluctuations in the trophic role of large benthic sulfur bacteria in mangrove sediment. Food Webs, 2016, 7, pp.20-28. hal-01968168

HAL Id: hal-01968168 https://hal.univ-antilles.fr/hal-01968168

Submitted on 2 Jan 2019

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TEMPORAL FLUCTUATIONS IN THE TROPHIC ROLE OF LARGE BENTHIC

SULFUR BACTERIA IN MANGROVE SEDIMENT

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1	Key Words: <i>Beggiatoa</i> , mangrove, benthic food web, seasonality, meiofauna,
1	6nematode, Ceratocephale, stable isotope
1	7 Running Head: Fluctuations in trophic role of sulfur bacteria

18 **Abstract**

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19 Filamentous sulfur bacteria of the genus Beggiatoa form large mats covering the 20sediment in the shallow waters of a Guadeloupean mangrove (French West Indies). The 21abundance of these bacteria varies over the year and their trophic role may, therefore, also 22vary. We investigated this variation by conducing a survey examining the stable isotopic 23compositions of four grazers and four food sources during nine sampling sessions in three 24different periods of the year. We analyzed bulk isotopic compositions for each component 25except for the bacterial and diatom communities, for which we carried out a compound-26specific ¹³C analysis of phospholipid-derived fatty acids (PLFA). Correlations between 27isotopic compositions revealed a predominance of diatoms in the diet of nematodes and the 28important role of detritus and bacteria in the diet of the polychaete *Ceratocephale* sp. None of 29the grazers had an isotopic composition correlated with that of *Beggiatoa* suggesting that 30sulfur bacteria were not a predominant part of the diet of any grazer. *Beggiatoa* has a large 31central vacuole, resulting in a very low carbon content-to-volume ratio, potentially accounting 32for its low level of attractiveness to grazers. Mangrove sediments are habitats rich in organic 33carbon, in which, the addition of a food source, such as *Beggiatoa*, would have a limited 34effect on the structure of the food web over the course of the year.

35 **Introduction**

Bacteria are an important resource in pelagic food webs (Sherr et al., 1987). Despite 37bacterial abundance 1000 times higher in sediment than in the water column, the trophic role 38of bacteria has been little studied in benthic systems due to methodological difficulties 39(Kemp, 1990). Benthic bacteria are generally thought to make a limited contribution to the 40diet of grazers, satisfying less than 10% of the total carbon demand of the meiofauna from 41estuarine (van Oevelen et al., 2006a; van Oevelen et al., 2006b) and deep-sea environments 42(Gontikaki et al., 2011). By contrast, benthic microalgae constitute a major food source for 43many coastal meiofaunal species (Middelburg et al., 2000; Montagna et al., 1989; Riera et al., 441996). Previous grazing experiments with dual-labeled food items (bacteria and diatoms) have 45shown that meiofauna grazers, which are smaller and have a higher selection efficiency than 46the macrofauna, preferentially ingest benthic microalgae (Pascal et al., 2008; Pascal et al., 472013).

These organisms may preferentially ingest algae rather than bacteria for a number of 49reasons. The benthic microalgae have a high nutritional value (Kathiresan and Bingham, 502001) and contain essential components, such as fatty acids, lacking from bacteria (Zhukova 51and Kharlamenko, 1999). Differences in the spatial distributions of these two types of food 52source may also have an effect. Benthic algae are usually concentrated in biofilms, whereas 53benthic bacteria are more evenly distributed over a vertical gradient within the sediment 54(Joint, 1978; Nugteren et al., 2009) and are attached to sediment particles. The ingestion of 55algae, rather than bacteria, thus entails energy savings in the search for food and through 56prevention of the ingestion of indigestible material. This hypothesis could be tested by 57determining whether the consumption of bacteria by benthic organisms is greater when the 58bacteria are concentrated in mats.

Beggiatoa are multicellular, filamentous white bacteria and are among the largest 60prokaryotic organisms (Larkin et al., 1994). Members of this genus are found within and just 61above highly reduced, organic or hydrocarbon-rich sediments (Jørgensen, 1977). Those 62chemolithotrophic microorganisms are located at the oxic/anoxic interface, where they 63oxidize sulfides to generate elemental sulfur (that can be intracellularly stored), which they 64then oxidize further to generate sulfate (Jørgensen, 1977). They are widespread in fresh and 65marine waters, from coastal to abyssal depths, and from tropical to polar latitudes. They are 66found in diverse environments such as mud volcanoes, hydrothermal vents (Jannasch et al., 671989), hydrocarbon and methane cold seeps (Montagna and Spies, 1985; Powell et al., 1986) 68and below productive upwelling areas (Schulz and Jørgensen, 2001). These bacteria form 69mats that may be up to 3 cm thick and have a patchy distribution (Lloyd et al., 2010).

Abyssal communities are dependent principally on photosynthetic material from the 71surface that is partially mineralized by the time it reaches the deep-sea floor. The limited 72nature of this energy resource generally results in a steady decrease in the abundance of the 73benthic fauna from the shelf to the abyss (Rex and Etter, 2010). Organic carbon generated by 74chemosynthesis constitutes islands of primary production in the otherwise monotonous and 75food-limited deep-sea environment. Carbon from chemoautotrophs is ingested in the deep sea 76and contributes to increase standing stocks of macro (Desmopoulos et al., 2010) and 77meiofauna (Pape et al., 2011; Van Gaever et al., 2006). The flux of particles from surface 78waters typically decreases with increasing water depth, and the dependence of the fauna on 79material generated by chemosynthetic processes therefore increases with depth (Levin and 80Mendoza, 2007; Levin and Michener, 2002). However, chemosynthetic bacteria are also 81ingested by the meiofauna in shallower environments in hydrothermal vents (Kamenev et al., 821993), brine (Powell et al., 1986) and hydrocarbon seeps (Kamenev et al., 1993; Spies and 83DesMarais, 1983). In temperate shallow waters, observations reveal ingestion of filamentous

84sulfur bacteria by nematode (Bernard and Fenchel, 1995). A trophic role of these bacteria has 85also been demonstrated in a Caribbean mangrove, in which comparisons of the isotopic 86composition in natural conditions and after artificial enrichment revealed that sulfur bacteria 87were ingested by the meiofauna (Pascal et al., 2014).

88 Beggiatoa mats follow a succession of patterns (Bernard and Fenchel, 1995) over 89different time scales. In response to changes in O₂ and H₂S concentration gradients, they can 90move rapidly into the sediment by gliding motility (Dunker et al., 2010). In sediments 91containing photosynthetic microorganisms, Beggiatoa are known to perform diurnal 92migrations, being more abundant in the superficial sediment at night but moving down below 93the layer of sediment with photosynthetic activity in the light (Fenchel and Bernard, 1995; 94Garcia-Pichel et al., 1994; Nelson and Castenholz, 1982). The distribution of filamentous 95sulfur bacteria is also influenced by unusual weather, as turbulent water flow can swept these 96bacteria away or increase the oxygenation of the overlying water inducing the downward 97migration of *Beggiatoa* deeper into the sediment (Elliott et al., 2006; Grant and Bathmann, 981987; Jørgensen, 1977). The species composition of mats of sulfur bacteria depends on the 99age of the mat (Bernard and Fenchel, 1995). Total Beggiatoa biomass may also vary 100considerably between seasons (Bernard and Fenchel, 1995; Jørgensen, 1977) and, over longer 101times scales, variations in the abundance of these bacteria are used to monitor 102remediation of contamination due to organic waste from fish farming (Brooks et al., 2004; 103Hamoutene et al., 2015).

In a mangrove on the Caribbean island of Guadeloupe (French West Indies), a 105previous study based on a spatial approach revealed that despite the ingestion of sulfur 106bacteria, the presence of mats did not increase the general contribution of bacteria to the diet 107of the fauna present (Pascal et al., 2014). As the abundance of sulfur bacteria fluctuates during 108the course of the year, the conclusions drawn in this spatial study could not necessarily be

109extended to other periods. The diet of meiofaunal grazers is influenced by food availability 110(Giere, 2009; Moens and Vincx, 1997) and there are alternative dynamic states of microbial 111food webs with an inverse correlation between the ingestion of algae and bacteria by grazers 112(Epstein, 1997; Montagna et al., 1995a). The trophic role of sulfur bacteria may therefore 113depend on the availability of other food sources.

The goal of this study was to determine the contribution of sulfur bacteria to the 115meiofaunal diet during a survey in a mangrove on Guadeloupe. This survey was set up so as 116to cover a large range of environmental conditions. We evaluated the abundances and natural 117isotopic compositions of potential food sources, including *Beggiatoa* mats and consumers 118were evaluated. It was not possible to pick up individually bacterial and diatom communities. 119We therefore evaluated their δ^{13} C through their phospholipid-derived fatty acids (PLFA) 120(Boschker and Middelburg, 2002). Due to the small size of the meiofauna and the low N 121content of these organisms, δ^{15} N was not always measurable. We therefore focused principally 122on δ^{13} C measurements. We evaluated trophic links by evaluating correlations between changes 123in the δ^{13} C content of food sources and consumers.

124 Material and method

- 125 Study area
- "Manche à eau" is a small tropical lagoon connected to the marine channel "Rivière 127Salée" separating the two mains island of Guadeloupe (French West Indies) (Fig. 1). In this 128lagoon, tides are semidiurnal with mean tidal amplitude of 30 cm (Tide gauge of Pointe-à-129Pitre, REFMAR®). Temperature and salinity at 0.5 m depth were relatively constant, with 130average values of 28°C and 35, respectively.
- The lagoon is bordered by a mangrove forest dominated by *Rhizophora mangle*. The

132sediment (< 1 m water depth) between mangrove trees roots is characterized by high sulfide 133concentrations up to 750 μM (Maurin, 2009). In some places, the sediment is covered by 134patches of large (20-60 μm diameter) filamentous white sulfur bacteria visible with unaided 135eyes. *Beggiatoacea* bacteria belong to, at least, two genus: *Maribeggiatoa* and *Isobeggiatoa* 136(Jean et al., 2015). Along the year, the size of those bacterial patches is highly variable 137covering often several square meters. High numbers of interstitial organisms such as ciliates, 138nematodes and turbellarians are associated with the mats (Pascal et al., 2014).

139 *Period of sampling*

140 The sampling strategy was set up to explore highest variations in environmental 141 conditions along the year evaluating small time scale changes during three distinct seasons. 142Total of 9 sampling sessions were performed with one-week interval during cyclonic season 143(7, 14 and 20 of September 2011), wet season (28 of November and 5 and 12 of December 1442011) and dry season (10, 17 and 24 of March 2012). During each sampling session, samples 145were collected by snorkeling in three fixed locations spaced of 10 m from each other with a 146water depth of \sim 0.5 m (Fig. 1). In each location, 20 tubes (inside diameter = 55 mm) were 147randomly placed in 2 m² and gently pushed in sediment to avoid sediment suspension. 148Syringes were used to collect i) 10 samples of the thin layer of surficial mate until white 149filaments were no longer visible for *Beggiatoa* analyses and ii) 10 samples of the surficial 150sediment (1cm) for all other analyses. Two types of sediment samples collected were 151independently mixed and the suspended sediment samples were split several times with 152Motoda splitter in order to reach concentration adapted for analyses of abundance of 153Beggiatoa and meiofauna. Motoda splitter is commonly used in plankton ecology to equally 154fractionate water samples (Motoda, 1959). This sub-sampling step was taken into account in 155 order to report abundances per unit surface area.

156 Abundance and isotopic composition

In *Beggiatoa* samples, the imaging software ImageJ (Abràmoff et al., 2004) was used to 158measure surface covered by *Beggiatoa* after dilution with Motoda splitting box (n = 30 per 159sample) and average diameter of *Beggiatoa* filament (n = 30 per sample). Surface and 160diameter measurements were both used to evaluated *Beggiatoa* biovolume by assuming 161simple geometric shape of cylinder of bacterial filament. *Beggiatoa* suspension of a known 162biovolume was filtered on 0.2 μ m pre-weighted filters. Filters were weighted again after 163drying at 60°C for 24 hours in order to determine the ratio between biovolume and dry weight 164of *Beggiatoa*. Dry weight were converted to carbon content based on elemental-analyzer 165isotope ratio mass spectrometer data. Dilution steps were taken into account in order to 166express results in carbon weight per surface unit.

Sediment was freeze-dried and phospholipid-derived fatty acids (PLFA) were extracted 168 and their isotopic composition was determined using a gas-chromatograph combustion-169 interface isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (GC-c-IRMS) following protocol in Boschker *et al.* 170(1999). Concentrations and δ^{13} C PLFA specific to all bacteria (i14:0, i15:0, ai15:0, i16:0, 171C18:1 ω 7c and cy19:0) and diatoms (C20:4 ω 6, C20:5 ω 3, C22:5 ω 3 and C22:6 ω 3) were used to 172 estimate the relative contribution of these groups to the total PLFA pool and their weighted-173 average δ^{13} C composition. The carbon content of all bacteria and diatoms was evaluated using 174 carbon PLFA/carbon biomass ratios of 0.056 and 0.035, respectively (Boschker and 175 Middelburg, 2002). The C/N ratio and isotopic composition of bulk sediment containing 176 bacteria and diatom communities was determined for each sample from untreated sub-sample 177 for 15 N content and from acid (1 M HCl)-treated sub-samples for 13 C content. Using mass-178 balance equations, isotopic compositions and abundances of bacteria and diatom communities 179 evaluated with PLFA were used to calculate isotopic composition of detritus free of bacteria 180 and diatoms.

For fauna abundance evaluations, samples were fixed with formalin 2% and stained with 182rose Bengal whereas samples for stable isotope analysis were untreated. Rotifers, nematodes 183and polychaetes were extracted from sediment using Ludox HS40 (de Jonge and Bouwman, 1841977). Rotifers and polychaetes were previously identified using morphological traits as 185*Rotaria* spp. and *Ceratocephale* sp. (Pascal et al., 2014). For each stable isotope sample, 1500 186*Rotaria* spp. and 100 *Ceratocephale* sp. were pooled whereas 600 specimens from the 187nematode community were randomly collected and gathered. Sediment sampled from 188bacterial mats was allowed to settle few minutes in the lab until until *Macrostomum* sp. 189migrated above the *Beggiatoa* biofilm created and for each sample 100 specimens were 190individually picked alive.

Isotope samples were analyzed at the Isotope Facility at the University of California, 192Davis, using an elemental-analyzer isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Samples were reported 193 relative to the standards atmospheric N_2 and Vienna PeeDee Belemnite carbon. Stable isotope 194 values are reported in δ notation (in ∞):

195
$$\delta^{13}$$
C or δ^{15} N = $[(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 10^3$

196where R is ${}^{13}\text{C}/{}^{12}\text{C}$ or ${}^{15}\text{N}/{}^{14}\text{N}$, respectively. Using standards, analytical precision was 197estimated to 0.2% for both ${}^{13}\text{C}$ and ${}^{15}\text{N}$.

198 Data analyses

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for differences in *Beggiatoa* 200abundances. Normality of residuals was tested using Shapiro-Wilk tests before performing 201ANOVA. When overall ANOVA tests were significant, Tuckey test were used for post hoc 202comparisons. To analyse the variability of food items that potentially influence grazers, 203principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using the R package FactoMineR (Lê et

204al., 2008) on abundances of *Beggiatoa*, all bacteria and diatom, C:N of sediment and δ^{13} C of 205*Beggiatoa*, all bacteria, diatoms and sediment (n =27).

Spearman rank (r_s) correlations were performed to investigate the relationships between 207abundances and isotopic compositions of preys and grazers.

208 **Results**

209 *Prey*

During the survey, filaments of *Beggiatoa* presented an average width of $45.3 \pm 5.0 \, \mu m$ 211(n=390) and a carbon content of $24.4 \pm 9.4\%$ (n=27). Filtration of *Beggiatoa* solution 212revealed a carbon content per volume of $2.6 \, \mathrm{fg} \, \mathrm{C} \, \mu \mathrm{m}^{-3}$. Along the year, evaluation of 213*Beggiatoa* biomass through picture analyses revealed an average biomass of $118.2 \pm 19.9 \, \mathrm{mg}$ $214\mathrm{C} \, \mathrm{m}^{-2}$ (n=27). Biomass was similar between sampling locations or sampling seasons 215(ANOVA, not significant) whereas they were significantly different between weeks (ANOVA, 216p<0.01). *Beggiatoa* biomass was considerably lower than the average biomass of all bacteria 217and diatoms, as evaluated through PLFA analyses, reaching respectively $11.5 \pm 6.4 \, \mathrm{g} \, \mathrm{C} \, \mathrm{m}^{-2}$ 218and $5.4 \pm 4.1 \, \mathrm{g} \, \mathrm{C} \, \mathrm{m}^{-2}$, respectively (n=27) (Tab. 1). Biomass of *Beggiatoa* was not related to 219all bacteria and algal biomass as p-values of Spearman correlation analysis were not 220significant.

Among potential food items of mangrove sediment, Beggiatoa were always more 222depleted in 13 C (Fig. 2). Along the year, they presented a mean δ^{13} C of -28.9 \pm 3.2% whereas 223all bacteria, diatoms and bulk detritus had a higher δ^{13} C with respectively: -25.4 \pm 1.5%, 224-25.8 \pm 4.3% and -25.2 \pm 0.5% (n = 27). Beggiatoa δ^{13} C was not significantly correlated with 225 δ^{13} C of all bacteria, diatoms and detritus (Tab. 2). Also δ^{13} C of all bacteria and diatom were 226not linked (r_s = 0.558, n.s.), whereas δ^{13} C of detritus and all bacteria were slightly correlated 227(r_s = 0.405, p<0.05). Detritus presented lower variability in their 13 C composition than other

228food source (Fig. 3). As PLFA analyses do not allow measurements of δ^{15} N, *Beggioata* were 229the only prey analyzed and they present a mean δ^{15} N of 2.9 ± 1.8‰ (n = 27) (Fig. 4).

The PCA performed on characteristics of food items that potentially influence grazers 231(Fig. 4), showed that spatial and week variations appeared to be lower than seasonal 232variations. The F1 and the F2 axes together explained 62% of observed variability and data 233points clustered according to seasons (Fig. 5). The cyclonic period was characterized by high 234 δ ¹³C of all food items (*Beggiatoa*, all bacteria, diatom and detritus) and wet season was 235characterized by high abundance of all bacteria and diatoms whereas dry season samples 236showed high C:N ratio and higher abundance of *Beggiatoa* (Fig. 5).

237 Grazers

- Individual weights of grazers were derived from stable isotope samples (n = specimen 239per sample × replicates). The weight per specimen (means \pm SD) was 115.7 \pm 96.3 ng for 240rotifers (n = 1500 × 18), 449.3 \pm 334.3 ng for nematodes (n = 600 × 27), 2.8 \pm 2.1 µg per 241*Ceratocephale* sp (n = 100 × 27) and 10.6 \pm 10.4 µg for *Macrostomum* sp. (n = 100 × 24).
- Along the survey (n = 27), in the surficial centimeter of sediment, most abundant 243grazers were rotifers ($269 \pm 230 \ 10^3 \ ind/m^2$) followed by nematodes ($242 \pm 181 \ 10^3 \ ind/m^2$), 244polychaete ($46 \pm 34 \ 10^3 \ ind/m^2$) and copepods ($11 \pm 12 \ 10^3 \ ind/m^2$). Fluctuations of grazer 245biomass are presented in Table 1. Among grazers, polychaete represented the highest biomass $246(56 \pm 42 \ 10^3 \ mg \ C/m^2)$ followed by nematodes ($51 \pm 38 \ 10^3 \ mg \ C/m^2$), rotifers ($13 \pm 11 \ mg \ 247C/m^2$) and copepods ($4 \pm 4 \ mg \ C/m^2$).
- None of the grazer biomass data were correlated with all bacteria and diatom biomass 249(Tab. 3). However, biomass of rotifers ($r_s = -0.535$, p < 0.01) and polychaetes ($r_s = -0.477$, 250p < 0.05) were negatively correlated with *Beggiatoa* biomass (Tab. 3).
- Among grazers, rotifers presented the δ^{13} C value with the lowest variability (δ^{13} C = 252-24.6 \pm 0.3‰, n = 16). 13 C compositions of other grazers presented higher standard deviation

253among samples: nematode (δ^{13} C = -24.5 ± 2.5‰, n = 27), Macrostomum sp. (δ^{13} C = -22.3 ± 2542.5‰, n = 23) and polychaete (δ^{13} C = -22.0 ± 2.4‰, n = 27) (Fig. 2). Measurement of δ^{15} N 255was not possible for rotifer and Macrostomum sp. due to low sample amount. Mean δ^{15} N (n = 25627) was 6.6 ± 0.7 ‰ for nematode community and 5.1 ± 1.4 ‰ for polychaete (Fig. 4).

None of the grazers δ^{13} C data correlated with δ^{13} C of *Beggiatoa* (Tab. 2). The δ^{13} C of 258nematode community was strongly linked with δ^{13} C of diatoms ($r_s = 0.666$, p < 0.001) (Tab. 2). 259 δ^{13} C of polychaetes were strongly correlated with δ^{13} C of all bacteria ($r_s = 0.643$, p < 0.001) 260and detritus ($r_s = 0.645$, p < 0.001). δ^{15} N of *Beggiatoa* was not correlated either with δ^{15} N of 261*Ceratocephale* sp. ($r_s = -0.239$, n.s.) and nematode community ($r_s = -0.022$, n.s.). δ^{15} N of other 262grazers were not available due to low samples biomass.

264 **Discussion**

A) Methodological considerations

The abundance of *Beggiatoa* varies over different time scales (Bernard and Fenchel, 2671995). Biomass displays seasonal variation (Bernard and Fenchel, 1995; Jørgensen, 1977) but 268can also change rapidly due to the migration behavior of this bacteria (Fenchel and Bernard, 2691995; Garcia-Pichel et al., 1994; Nelson and Castenholz, 1982) and to unusual weather 270conditions (Elliott et al., 2006; Grant and Bathmann, 1987; Jørgensen, 1977). This survey 271suggests that the abundance of *Beggiatoa* varies more at the weekly than at the seasonal scale 272although multivariate analyses revealed a greater fluctuation of general environmental 273conditions over the seasonal time scale. Sampling strategy designed to explore variations at 274both the weekly and seasonal time scales should, therefore, cover a large range of 275environmental conditions.

We used several approaches simultaneously to investigate the trophic role of *Beggiatoa* 277mats in a Guadeloupean mangrove. Each of these approaches presents potential bias that 278should be borne in mind when interpreting the results obtained.

Trophic relationships between grazers and their prey were evaluated by assessing 280changes in the respective abundances of these organisms. Such surveys are easy to perform 281but can be difficult to interpret, because grazers may affect their prey through processes other 282than grazing: (*i*) many meiofauna organisms secrete mucus which has been shown to increase 283microbial growth (Moens et al., 2005; Riemann and Schrage, 1978) and (*ii*) bioturbation by 284the meiofauna increases the fluxes of oxygen and nutrient through the sediment (Alkemade et 285al., 1992; Bonaglia et al., 2014). Both these activities influence the production and diversity of 286microbial compartments, including *Beggiatoa* mats (Salvadó et al., 2004).

The role of *Beggiatoa* as a food item has also been evaluated through stable isotope. 288This method has been widely used over the last few decades, to provide information about

289food webs in estuaries and oceans (Boecklen et al., 2011; Layman et al., 2012). The stable 290isotope compositions of consumers differ from those of their food source in a predictable 291manner and can therefore be used to evaluate dietary composition (Fry, 2006). However, 292stable isotopes are more useful in studies of systems with food sources presenting different 293isotope values (Moncreiff and Sullivan, 2001). In the mangrove environment studied, 294*Beggiatoa* present a δ^{13} C lower than that of other food sources due to its chemoautotrophic 295growth (Güde et al., 1981). Enrichment experiments artificially enhance difference in isotopic 296compositions of food items and were previously used to confirm that stable isotopes are 297reliable for evaluation of the contribution of *Beggiatoa* to the diet of grazers from the studied 298mangrove (Pascal et al., 2014). We determined the isotopic composition of bacterial and 299diatom communities by measuring the δ^{13} C of specific phospholipid-derived fatty acids 300(PLFA) (Boschker and Middelburg, 2002). Strong trophic links between a prey and a grazer 301result in parallel fluctuations in their isotopic compositions. In this survey, we evaluated the 302correlation between the δ^{13} C of prey and grazers. A lack of covariation between δ^{13} C of the 303different food sources is required for this approach and was previously verified (Tab. 2).

During each sampling session, samples were collected from three different sites 305separated by 10 m. δ^{13} C of food sources and grazers appeared to be highly variable, with 306considerable differences between sites (Fig. 2). Nevertheless, this approach was found to be 307suitable for the evaluation of trophic links as it highlighted the role of particular food sources 308in the diet of consumers, revealing the importance of diatoms in the diet of nematodes, for 309example.

In this study, we used a combination of approaches to decrease the uncertainty 311associated with potential biases and to strengthen our conclusions. The time scales over which 312changes in meiofaunal abundance and isotopic composition occur are different, so the results

313obtained may differ between approaches. However, both approaches yielded similar results in 314our study: *Beggiatoa* mats made only a minor contribution to the diet of grazers.

315 2) Diet of grazers

316 Rotifers were the most abundant members of the meiofauna in this survey. Rotifers are 317common members of the benthic and pelagic communities in fresh and brackish waters, 318whereas they are thought to be rare in marine environments (Fontaneto et al., 2006; Schmid-319Araya, 1998). Nevertheless, rotifers can occasionally dominate the marine benthos in terms of 320both abundance (Sommer et al., 2007; Sommer et al., 2003) and biomass (Johansson, 1983). 321They have been found in sulfide-rich sediments containing *Beggiatoa* in coastal (Bernard and 322Fenchel, 1995; Fenchel and Riedl, 1970) and deep sea areas (Sommer et al., 2007; Sommer et 323al., 2003). Bdelloid rotifers have different modalities of food collection: suspension feeding, 324scraping or browsing (Melone et al., 1998). They can consume diverse type of prey (bacteria, 325algae and yeasts) and are able to ingest their prey in a selective manner (Mialet et al., 2013). 326The possible uptake of sulfur-oxidizing bacteria by rotifers has already been suggested 327(Fenchel and Riedl, 1970) and isotope enrichment experiments confirmed that Beggiatoa was 328ingested by rotifers in the mangrove studied (Pascal et al., 2014). However, rotifers were 329unlikely to be very dependent on this food resource as they were also present in sediments 330adjacent to mats in the mangrove (Pascal et al., 2014) and in deep-sea habitats without 331Beggiatoa (Sommer et al., 2003). The weak links observed between Beggiatoa and rotifers in 332the present survey also suggest that these bacteria are not the principal component of the 333rotifer diet.

Macrostomum spp were shown to ingest sulfur-oxidizing bacteria in a ¹³C labeling study 335(Pascal et al., 2014). *Macrostomum lignano* is a turbellarian species that is cultured with 336diatoms in experimental conditions (Ladurner et al., 2005). Our results suggest that, in natural

337environments, *Macrostomum* spp. have a mixed diet not dominated by a single item such as 338diatoms or *Beggiatoa*.

339 The ingestion of sulfur-oxidizing bacteria by nematodes has been observed (Bernard and 340Fenchel, 1995) and detected on the basis of isotopic composition (Pascal et al., 2014; Spies 341and DesMarais, 1983; Van Gaever et al., 2006). Some deep-sea nematode species feed 342exclusively on *Beggiatoa* (Spies and DesMarais, 1983), whereas the nematodes in this study 343appeared to be less dependent on these bacteria as a food source. The correlation between $344\delta^{13}$ C of diatoms and nematodes revealed a strong trophic role of algae. Benthic diatoms can 345develop in environments with high sulfide concentrations (Admiraal and Peletier, 1979; 346Round, 1979). Compared to adjacent sediments, Beggiatoa mats can host diatoms with 347similar (Montagna and Spies, 1985) and even higher abundances (Powell et al., 1986) as 348already reported for the mangrove studied (Pascal et al., 2014). Stable isotope composition 349studies have revealed that the microphytobenthos is the principal food source of the nematode 350community in temperate intertidal mudflats (Moens et al., 2002; Montagna et al., 1995b; 351Riera et al., 1996; Rzeznik-Orignac et al., 2008). However, the contribution of these algae 352may be smaller in other environments such as salt marshes (Riera et al., 1999), in which other 353where other food sources are available such as detritus from marine phanerogams (Couch, 3541989) or allochtonous stranded macroalgae (Riera and Hubas, 2003). Mangrove and saltmarsh 355ecosystems have similar profiles of organic carbon sources in their surface sediments 356(Middelburg et al., 1997). In mangroves, microalgae are generally considered to have only a 357small input, due to light limitation and inhibition by tannins (Alongi, 1994). However, despite 358this minor contribution to the total productivity of the ecosystem, the microphytobenthos can 359represent a major source of carbon for the benthic macrofauna (Bouillon et al., 2004; Bouillon 360et al., 2002) and play a key role in supporting higher trophic levels (Robertson and Blaber,

3611992). The results presented here also suggest that the microalgae play an important role as 362the principal source of food for the nematode community.

363 Ceratocephale sp. belong to the Nereididae family and their isotopic compositions 364indicate that, among food source studied, bacterial community and detritus present higher 365importance in their diet. δ^{13} C of detritus and bacteria are linked, as the particulate organic 366carbon of detritus is the main source of carbon for bacteria (Boschker et al., 2005). The 367members of the Nereididae are remarkably diverse in their potential diets as the different 368species may be carnivorous, deposit feeder, selective or non-selective suspension feeder or 369microbial "gardener" based on the laying and the ingestion of mucus trap lines (Jumars et al., 3702015). Moreover, some species are omnivorous, displaying dietary plasticity (Grippo et al., 3712011; Scaps, 2002). Observations of the gut contents of Ceratocephale from the Middle 372Atlantic Bight suggested that the diet of this organisms consisted largely of detritus (Gaston, 3731987). Stable isotope labeling experiments in the Carolina margin identified *Ceratocephale* as 374one of the most active consumers of phytodetritus among polychaetes (Levin and Blair, 3751999). Our findings also suggest a strong role of detritus in the diet of *Ceratocephale*. During 376in situ experiments with dual-labeled preys, polychaetes appeared to ingest bacteria 377selectively whereas nematodes preferentially ingested microphytobenthos (Montagna, 1984). 378The results of the present survey revealed similar trends in the dietary compositions of each of 379the grazers analyzed in this tropical marine sulfide-rich environment.

380 3) Trophic role of *Beggiatoa*

The lack of correlation of abundance and isotopic composition between potential grazers 382and *Beggiatoa* suggests that none of the grazers has a diet dominated by these large sulfur-383oxidizing bacteria. Moreover, the trophic role of *Beggiatoa* does not seem to be influenced by 384the abundances of other trophic resources. Despite the potential biases inherent to these 385correlation approaches, they are appropriate because they clearly demonstrated the dominance

386of diatoms in the nematode diet and the important role of detritus and all bacteria in the diet of 387*Ceratocephale* sp. This limited trophic role of *Beggiatoa* is consistent with the findings of 388previous studies in this mangrove, which suggested that *Beggiatoa* are ingested but that the 389presence of this bacteria does not modify the overall contribution of all bacteria to the diet of 390grazers (Pascal et al., 2014).

In food-limited deep sea habitats, sulfur bacteria increase the food supply and are 392ingested in large numbers by grazers, leading to an increase in grazer abundance (Levin, 3932005). Sulfur bacteria may have a similar structuring role in the food webs of shallower 394environments in conditions in which food resources are limiting (Powell et al., 1986). The 395contribution of chemosynthetic carbon to the diet of grazers increases with increasing depth 396and decreasing levels of photosynthetic primary production (Levin, 2005; Levin and 397Michener, 2002). Mangrove sediments are rich in organic carbon sources, some of which are 398locally produced (mangrove leaves, diatoms and cyanobacteria), whereas others originate 399from adjacent systems (Kristensen et al., 2008; Victor et al., 2004). In the mangrove 400environment, the addition of a food source such as *Beggiatoa* is therefore likely to have a 401much smaller effect than that in environments with fewer food sources. This survey suggests 402that these bacteria played a limited role that remained constant throughout the year.

The limited trophic contribution of *Beggiatoa* may be due to its low organic matter 404content. *Beggiatoa* of the present study had a carbon content of only 2.6 fg C μm⁻³, which is 405more than an order of magnitude lower than the lowest volume reported for bacteria 406(Fagerbakke et al., 1996) and bacteria with volumes below 0.05 μm³ can even reach values of 407500 fg C μm⁻³ (Troussellier et al., 1997). As this ratio decreases with increasing bacterial cell 408size (Lee and Fuhrman, 1987; Simon and Azam, 1989) and as *Beggiatoa* are among the 409largest known prokaryotes (Schulz and Jørgensen, 2001), this bacteria would be expected to 410have a particularly low carbon content. Moreover, this ratio is directly related to the water

411content of the bacteria (Fagerbakke et al., 1996). *Beggiatoa* has a large central vacuole and its 412confined cytoplasm accounts for less than 16% (Jannasch et al., 1989) or 2% of the total 413biovolume (Schulz and Jørgensen, 2001), depending on the study considered. This 414"hollowness" of *Beggiatoa* (Larkin and Henk, 1990) decreases its dry-matter content. 415Consistently, an analysis of PLFA content along a transect in the mangrove studied revealed 416that total bacterial abundance in the uppermost centimeter of sediment was not significantly 417higher in *Beggiatoa* mat sediments than in adjacent sediment without mats (Pascal et al., 4182014). *Beggiatoa* thus accounted for a much smaller amount of dry matter than suggested by 419its volume (Bernard and Fenchel, 1995) and the biomass of *Beggiatoa* would therefore have 420been smaller than that of other bacteria and other food sources. This lower organic matter 421content may have reduced its nutritive value and attractiveness for grazers.

In the mangrove studied, a spatial approach revealed that the presence of mats of sulfur 423bacteria had no effect on the general structure of the benthic food web and the role of bacteria 424in the diet of grazers (Pascal et al., 2014). This survey revealed that this conclusion was valid 425throughout the year, as the trophic role of *Beggiatoa* was limited at all sampling times, 426regardless of the fluctuations in available food sources. Thus, in habitat in which food 427resources are not limiting, the spatial concentration of bacteria in mats does not make them 428more attractive than other food resources.

Acknowledgements

P–Y Pascal conducted this research while being supported by a postdoctoral fellowship 431funded by "Région de la Guadeloupe" and "Fond Social Européen".

We thank Sébastien Cordonnier for his assistance in the field and Maeva Bouzat for her 433help in meiofaunal counting. We thank Lucienne Desfontaines (ASTRO – INRA Antilles-434Guyane) for her help in preparation of freeze dried sediment samples.

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1 Tables

Season		Cyclonic			Wet			Dry	
Week	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
	10.1 ±		_			_			_
Carbon / Nitrogen of sediment		10.7 ± 0.9	13.1 ± 1.4	10.9 ± 0.8	10.4 ± 0.9	11.8 ± 0.8	13.3 ± 0.5	13.7 ± 1.0	14.0 ± 1.0
	1.4								
	$79.5 \pm$	$102.1 \pm$	$139.6 \pm$	$136.5 \pm$	$107.4 \pm$		$127.1 \pm$		$138.9 \pm$
Beggiatoa mat biomass (mg C m ⁻²)						116.0 ± 4.4		116.7 ± 23.1	
	4.6	14.8	25.4	14.6	23.9		23.7		4.7
Total bacterial biomass (g C m ⁻²)	7.0 ± 2.8	8.3 ± 3.2	8.1 ± 2.5	18.9 ± 7.2	16.8 ± 4.0	15.7 ± 3.2	10.9 ± 4.2	11.4 ± 9.2	4.0 ± 3.8
Diatom biomass (g C m ⁻²)	1.7 ± 0.4	3.6 ± 1.1	3.9 ± 0.7	8.0 ± 1.7	12.3 ± 4.9	9.1 ± 1.2	3.3 ± 3.2	1.5 ± 1.1	3.4 ± 0.5
	$19.2 \pm$	31.9 ± 0.6	6.7 ± 2.5	11.3 ± 8.9	9.8 ± 2.5	27.6 ± 6.1	0.6 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 1.4	5.2 ± 1.8
Rotifer community biomass (mg C m ⁻²)									
	4.1								
Nematode community biomass (mg C m ⁻²)	42 ± 17	35 ± 5	26 ± 13	22 ± 7	54 ± 12	56 ± 26	27 ± 9	63 ± 26	134 ± 50
Ceratocephale sp. biomass (mg C m ⁻²)	81 ± 32	131 ± 14	101 ± 32	37 ± 14	36 ± 17	57 ± 20	16 ± 10	31 ± 19	17 ± 4
Copepod community biomass (mg C m ⁻²)	3.9 ± 1.1	4.6 ± 1.6	10.2 ± 8.2	3.0 ± 0.4	1.2 ± 0.3	6.1 ± 1.4	0.7 ± 0.4	1.6 ± 1.0	0.6 ± 0.3
		•	-						

2Table 1. C/N ratio of sediment and abundances of prey and grazers in surficial centimetre of sediment through the year (means \pm SD, n = 3)

	Beggiatoa ¹³ C	Bacterial 13C	Diatom 13C	Detritus 13C
All bacteria ¹³ C	0.135			
Diatom ¹³ C	0.002	0.244		
Detritus ¹³ C	-0.056	0.405*	-0.061	
Rotifer community ¹³ C	0.278	0.421	0.492	0.216
Nematode community 13C	-0.056	0.292	0.663***	0.027
Ceratocephale sp. ¹³ C	0.355	0.643***	0.094	0.645***
Macrostomum ¹³ C	0.283	0.513*	0.533*	0.259

4Table 2. Correlation coefficients (r_s , Spearman rank) of isotopic compositions of food

5sources and grazers (n = 27; * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001)

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	Beggiatoa biomass	Total bacterial biomass	Diatom biomass
	g C m ⁻²	g C m ⁻²	g C m ⁻²
Rotifer community g C m ⁻²	-0.535**	0.121	0.389
Nematode community g C m ⁻²	0.109	-0.276	-0.036
Ceratocephale sp. g C m ⁻²	-0.477*	0.068	0.156
Copepod community g C m ⁻²	0.149	0.226	0.301

7Table 3. Correlation coefficients (r_s , Spearman rank) on abundances of food sources

8and grazers (n = 27; * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001)

Figure

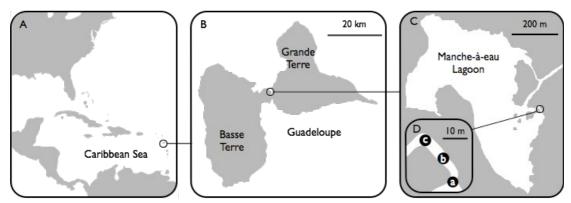


Figure 1. A: location of Guadeloupe archipelago in the Caribbean Sea, B: location of Manche-à-Eau lagoon in Guadeloupe, C: location of sampling area, D: location of sampling stations (a, b, c)

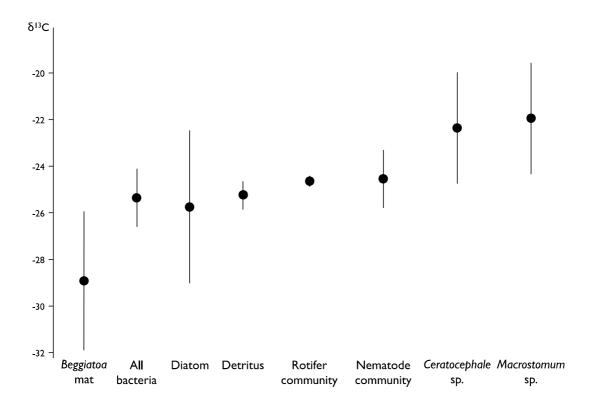


Figure 2. Mean carbon isotopic composition (‰) of food sources (Beggiatoa mat, all bacteria, diatom and detritus) and grazers (rotifer community, nematode community, Ceratocephale sp. and Macrostomum sp.) along the year (means \pm SD, n = 27 except for rotifer community n = 18)

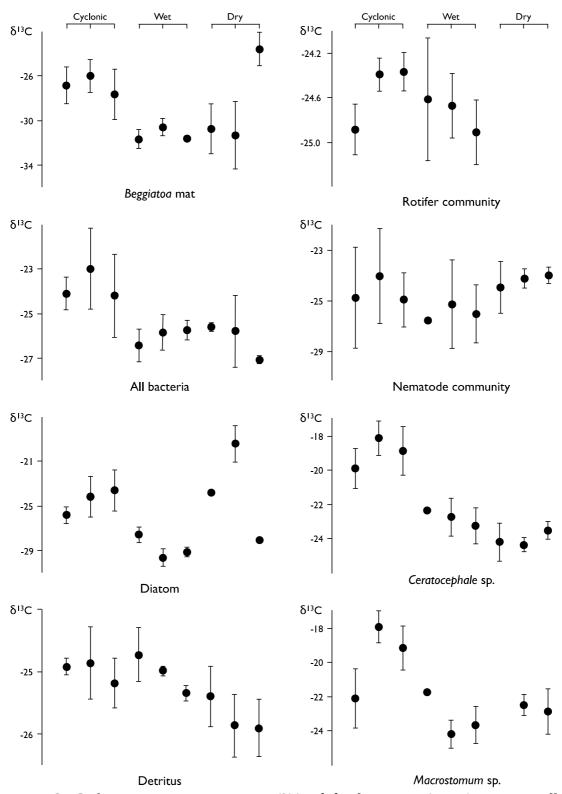


Figure 3. Carbon isotopic composition (‰) of food sources (Beggiatoa mat, all bacteria, diatom and detritus) and grazers (rotifer community, nematode community, Ceratocephale sp. and Macrostomum sp.) during each sampling session (means \pm SD, n = 3)

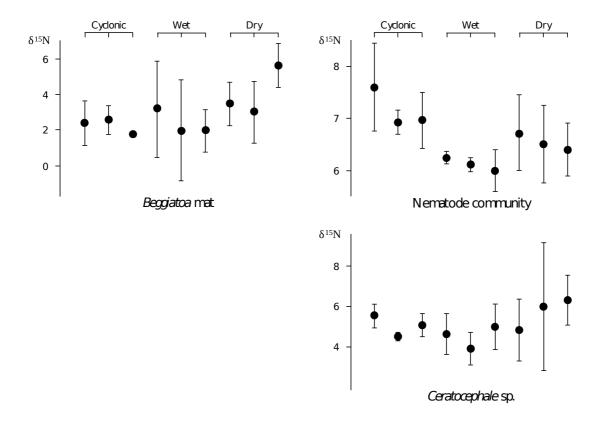


Figure 4: Nitrogen isotopic composition (‰) of *Beggiatoa* mat, nematode community and *Ceratocephale* sp.during each sampling session (means \pm SD, n = 3)

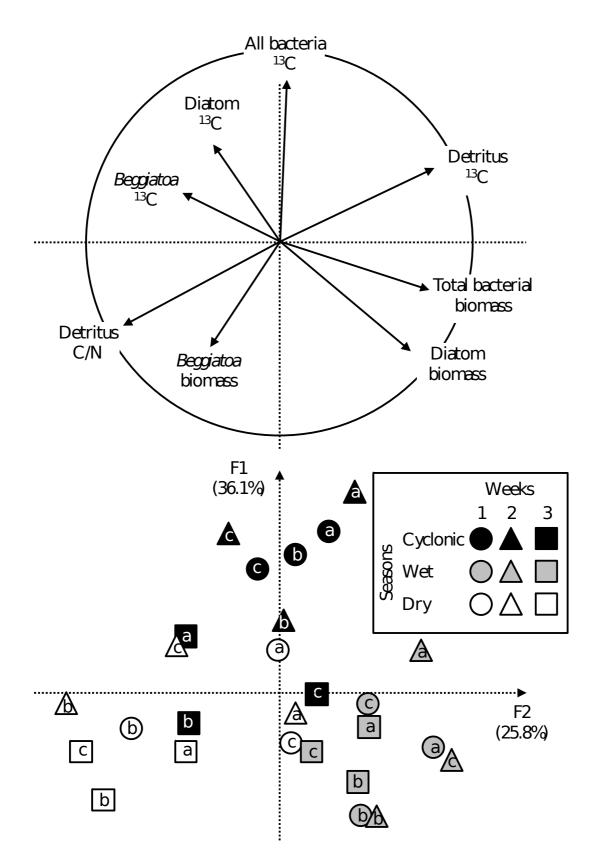


Fig 5. PCA calculated using 27 observations (replicates a, b and c during 3 weeks during 3 seasons) and 8 variables. For each variable, the circle of correlation is reported