



1 **Carbonic anhydrase is involved in benthic foraminiferal calcification**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 Marine calcification is an important component of the global carbon cycle. The mechanism by which some
13 organisms take up inorganic carbon for the production of their shells or skeletons, however, remains only partly
14 known. Although foraminifera are responsible for a large part of the global calcium carbonate production, the
15 process by which they concentrate inorganic carbon is debated. Some evidence suggests that seawater is taken up
16 and participates relatively unaltered in the process of calcification, whereas other results suggest the involvement
17 of transmembrane transport and the activity of enzymes like carbonic anhydrase. Here, we tested whether inorganic
18 carbon uptake relies on the activity of carbonic anhydrase using incubation experiments with the large benthic,
19 symbiont-bearing foraminifer *Amphistegina lessonii*. Calcification rates, determined by the alkalinity anomaly
20 method, showed that inhibition of carbonic anhydrase by acetazolamide (AZ) stopped most of the calcification
21 process. Inhibition of photosynthesis by either 3-(3,4-Dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) or by
22 incubating the foraminifera in the dark, also decreased calcification rates, but to a lesser degree than with AZ.
23 Results from this study show that carbonic anhydrase plays a key role in biomineralization of *Amphistegina*
24 *lessonii* and indicates that calcification of those large benthic foraminifera might, to a certain extent, benefit from
25 ocean acidification.

26 **1 Introduction**

27 Fossil fuel burning and land use changes have been steadily increasing atmospheric CO₂ levels. About 1/3rd of the
28 added carbon has been taken up by the ocean and the resulting increase in seawater dissolved carbon dioxide and
29 associated acidification are lowering the saturation state of sea water and hence likely affects marine calcifiers.
30 Even a modest impact on the production of carbonate shells and skeletons may have important consequences for
31 the global carbon cycle. Foraminifera are responsible for almost 25% of the total marine calcium carbonate
32 production (Langer, 2008) and their response to ongoing acidification is therefore important to predict future
33 marine inorganic carbon cycling. Despite its relevance for future CO₂ scenarios, it is still unclear how increased
34 pCO₂ in seawater will affect foraminiferal calcification. Previous research has shown discrepancies in their results:
35 in some cases a higher pCO₂ increased the growth rate of foraminifera, while in other cases calcification decreased
36 or halted (Haynert et al., 2014; Hikami et al., 2011).



37 Addition of CO₂ to sea water not only reduces saturation state but also increases the total dissolved inorganic
38 carbon (DIC) concentration. At surface seawater pH, the dominant DIC species is HCO₃⁻ and it has been suggested
39 that foraminifera acquire inorganic carbon by actively pumping HCO₃⁻ from the surrounding seawater to their site
40 of calcification (SOC). In this case, ocean acidification would be detrimental as this shifts the carbonate system
41 from HCO₃⁻ to CO₂. Alternatively, CO₂ may be the inorganic carbon source of choice for benthic foraminifera, as
42 it diffuses relatively easily through lipid membranes. The latter uptake mechanism would facilitate foraminiferal
43 calcification as ongoing CO₂ dissolution increases total DIC and hence the availability of building blocks for
44 chamber formation. Since this uptake mechanism is crucial for calcification in a rapidly changing ocean and it
45 because it is essentially unknown how foraminifera take up inorganic carbon, it remains difficult to predict the
46 reaction of benthic foraminifera to ongoing environmental change.

47 It was recently suggested that CO₂ uptake by foraminifera is achieved through proton pumping (Glas et al., 2012;
48 Toyofuku et al., 2017). which increases the pCO₂ directly outside the SOC. The elevated pH at the foraminifers'
49 site of calcification (Bentov et al., 2009; de Nooijer et al., 2009) and reduced pH outside the cell results in a strong
50 inward-outward pCO₂ gradient, enabling inward CO₂ diffusion. If calcification in foraminifera relies on inward
51 CO₂ diffusion, the conversion from HCO₃⁻ may be a limiting step. This process may be catalyzed by an enzymatic
52 conversion by carbonic anhydrase (CA), which is present in many prokaryotes and virtually all eukaryotes. This
53 enzyme is essential in calcification in many organisms, including corals, sponges and coccolithophores (Bertucci
54 et al., 2013; Medaković, 2000; Müller et al., 2013; Le Roy et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017). Also for foraminiferal
55 calcification it has been hypothesized that CA is used to enhance carbon uptake. Indirect evidence for such a role
56 in calcification comes from the observed slope between the carbon and oxygen isotopes (Chen et al., 2018), but
57 direct evidence is, however, still missing.

58

59 To test whether carbonic anhydrase is involved in biomineralization of benthic foraminifera we incubated
60 calcifying specimens of *Amphistegina lessonii* with acetazolamide (AZ), a membrane impermeable inhibitor of
61 this enzyme. Calcification and respiration were determined by measuring changes in alkalinity and DIC of the
62 incubated seawater over the course of the experiment. An additional experiment was conducted in parallel to test
63 whether CA is directly involved in calcification or that the effect is indirect. The latter would imply that CA drives
64 photosynthesis by the symbionts and that observed effects would be due to reduced photosynthesis impairing
65 calcification through reduced energy transfer from the symbionts to the foraminifer.

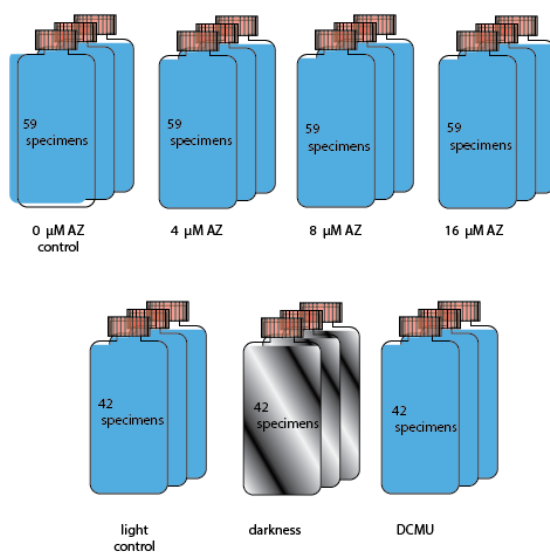
66 2 Material and methods

67 2.1 Foraminifera and incubations

68 Surface sediments were collected from the Indo-Pacific Coral reef aquarium in Burgers' Zoo (Arnhem, the
69 Netherlands; Ernst et al., 2011). The sediments were kept at 24 °C, with a day/night cycle of 12h/12h. Living
70 specimens of *Amphistegina lessonii* showing a dark cytoplasm and pseudopodial activity were manually selected,
71 using a fine brush under a stereomicroscope and transferred to Petri dishes. They were fed with freeze-dried
72 *Dunaliella salina* and incubated in North Atlantic seawater in which calcein was added at a final concentration of
73 5 mg/L. After a week, viable specimens were collected and divided over eight experimental conditions, each of
74 them consisting of three groups. Each group consisted of 40-60 specimens with a similar size distribution.
75 Foraminifera were placed in air-tight glass vials of 80 ml (24°C, 12h day-light cycle) for 5 days.



76
77 In the first experiment, the impact of acetazolamide (AZ) on calcification was tested. A stock solution was prepared
78 by dissolving acetazolamide (Sigma-Aldrich) in dimethyl sulfoxide at a final concentration of 90 mM. The AZ
79 stock solution was diluted with seawater from North Atlantic to achieve AZ concentrations of 4, 8 and 16 μM ,
80 which were used to incubate the foraminifera in. In a second experiment, inhibition of photosynthesis was tested
81 by 1) addition of 3-(3,4-Dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU) and 2) darkness. DCMU was added to
82 seawater at a final concentration of 6 μM , whereas covering the vials with aluminum foil prevented light-dependent
83 reaction and hence photosynthesis in a second set of incubations (Fig. 1).



84
85 **Figure 1:** 59 specimens were placed in one culture vial, with three replicate vials for each concentration of acetazolamide
86 (upper row). Similarly, 42 specimens were incubated under light, in the dark and with the inhibitor DCMU (lower row).

87
88 **2.2 Alkalinity, DIC and nutrient analysis**

89
90 To quantify calcification and respiration, total alkalinity (TA) and the concentration of dissolved inorganic carbon
91 [DIC] were determined at the beginning and end of every incubation. Total alkalinity was analyzed immediately
92 at the end of each experiment, whereas subsamples to determine nutrient concentrations and DIC analyses were
93 stored at -20°C (nutrients) and 4°C (DIC). The samples for DIC analyses were poisoned with mercury chloride
94 (DIC) until analysis. These samples first passed a $0.2\ \mu\text{m}$ syringe filter.

95
96 Alkalinity measurements were performed using an Automated Spectrophotometric Alkalinity System (ASAS), as
97 described by (Liu et al., 2015). Briefly, 60 mL of seawater are placed in a borosilicate vial and automatically
98 titrated with a solution of 0.1 M HCl. Before the start of the titration, 45 microliters of bromocresol purple (10
99 mmol/L) was added to the seawater and pH evolution is followed by spectrophotometry. Certified reference
100 material (CRM; Dr. Dickson, Scripps Institution of Oceanography) was analyzed at the beginning of every series
101 (5-10 samples) of measurements. Reproducibility of the obtained TA was $\sim 3\ \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (SD), based on 50
102 measurements of untreated seawater.



103

104 Nutrient samples were analysed on a QuAatro continuous flow analyzer (SEAL Analytical, GmbH, Norderstedt,
 105 Germany) following GO-SHIP protocol (Hydes et al., 2010). DIC was measured on an autoanalyzer TRAACS
 106 800 spectrophotometric system as described in Stoll et al. (2001).

107

108 2.3 Calcification rate

109

110 Changes in DIC and alkalinity between start and end of the experiments were used to calculate the net respiration
 111 and calcification (Fig. 2). Total measured alkalinity is defined as the contribution of the following anions:

$$112 T_{\text{Ameasured}} = [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{T}} + 2[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{T}} + [\text{OH}^-]_{\text{T}} + 3[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]_{\text{T}} + [\text{HPO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{T}} + [\text{NO}_3^-]_{\text{T}} - [\text{H}^+]_{\text{T}} - [\text{NO}_4^+] \quad (1)$$

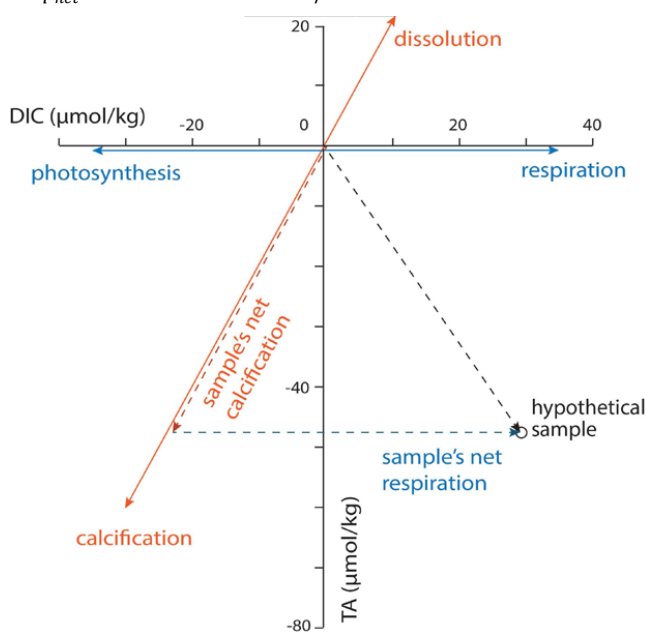
113 Concentrations of boron and silicon were neglected as the first one is constant the second present at a low
 114 abundance. In order to account for the alkalinity change related to the inorganic carbon system only, we subtracted
 115 the combined concentrations of the nutrients from the measured alkalinity so that the observed change in alkalinity
 116 over time is defined as:

$$117 T_{\text{A}} = [\text{HCO}_3^-]_{\text{T}} + 2[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{T}} + [\text{OH}^-]_{\text{T}} - [\text{H}^+]_{\text{T}} \quad (2)$$

118

119 Resp_{net} is defined as the difference between respiration and photosynthesis. Here, we consider the respiration of
 120 the holobiont (foraminifera and its symbionts), which is calculated by:

$$121 \text{Resp}_{\text{net}} = \text{delta DIC} - \text{delta TA}/2 \quad (3)$$



122

123 **Figure 2: Calcification and net respiration of foraminifera deduced from changes in DIC and total alkalinity over time.**

124

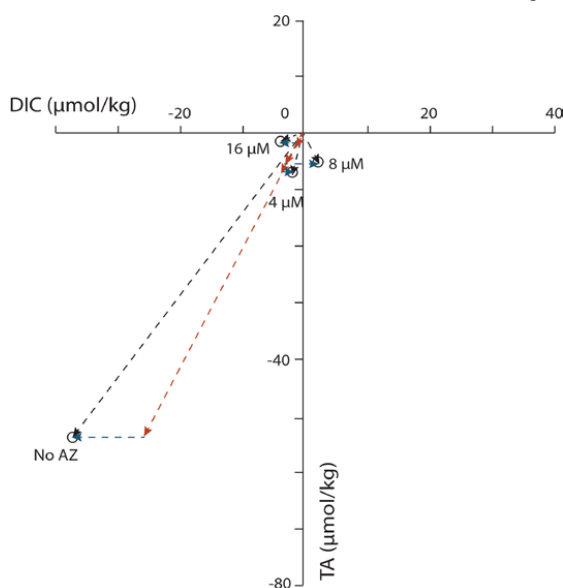


125 **3 Results**

126 **3.1 Carbonic anhydrase inhibition**

127

128 Without acetazolamide, T_A decreased on average by $53 \mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$ and DIC by $38 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ during the incubation
 129 (table 1). This corresponds to 2.74 g/L of precipitated calcite. Contrastingly, when the seawater contained
 130 acetazolamide (even at the lowest concentration of $4 \mu\text{M}$), alkalinity and DIC did not change or decreased only
 131 marginally during the incubation (less than 0.4 g/L of calcite precipitated). When comparing the changes in T_A
 132 and DIC between treatments, calcification is minimized by the AZ and net respiration slightly increases (Fig. 3).
 133 The concentration of AZ has no discernible effect on the magnitude of changes in calcification/ respiration.



134

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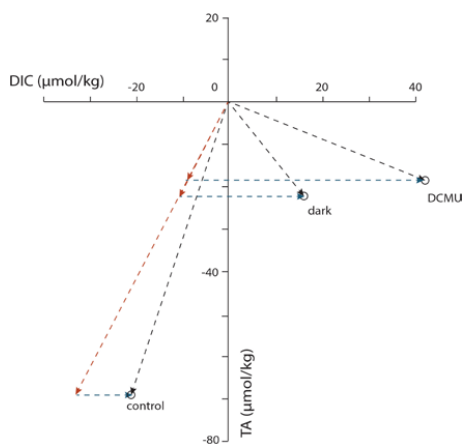
136 **Figure 3: Changes in total alkalinity versus DIC for all**
 137 **concentrations of acetazolamide (AZ) used. Every circle represents**
 138 **the average change in DIC-TA for one triplicate of incubations.**
 139

[AZ] (μM)	Initial T_a	ΔT_a	Initial DIC	ΔDIC
0	2283.9	53.2 ± 8.3	2109.7	37.9 ± 9.0
4	2285	6.9 ± 1.2	2105.4	1.6 ± 2.1
8	2285.4	5.1 ± 1.2	2105.3	-2.7 ± 6.7
16	2292	1.6 ± 3.6	2108.8	3.4 ± 5.7

Table 1 : Total alkalinity and DIC values
 measured in the vials



140 **3.2 Photosynthesis inhibition**



Vial	Initial Ta	Δ Ta	Initial DIC	Δ DIC
control	2280.1	69.7 \pm 7.3	2115	21.0 \pm 9.0
DCMU	2286	22.3 \pm 9.3	2090.7	-42.2 \pm 13.8
dark	2280.1	18.6 \pm 5.6	2115	-16.3 \pm 5.2

141
 142

143 **Figure 4:** Changes in total alkalinity versus that in DIC for
 144 incubations in light-dark alternation (control), in the dark and with
 145 the photosynthetic inhibitor DCMU. Every circle represents the
 146 average change in TA and DIC between the initial and the final
 147 values for each triplicate. Arrows show the calcification (red) and net
 148 respiration (blue) effects.
 149

Table 2: Total alkalinity and DIC change for every triplicate.
 Confidence interval: 1 STD (taking biological variability into
 account)

150 When photosynthesis was not impaired (light control), alkalinity decreased within the vials by 69.7 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ and
 151 DIC increased by 21 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (table 1). Given the relative standard deviations, this is similar to the changes in
 152 TA and DIC in the control vials for the AZ-experiments. These changes correspond to approximately 3.75 $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$
 153 of precipitated calcite. In contrast, when foraminifera were cultivated in the dark or in presence of the
 154 photosynthesis inhibitor DCMU, DIC increased by 37.7 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ whereas the total alkalinity decrease was only
 155 22.8 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, which corresponds to less than a third of the amount of calcite precipitated when photosynthesis
 156 was not hampered (Fig. 4).

157 **4. Discussion**

158 **4.1 Growth rates and the effect of AZ**

159 In the control experiments (incubations with unaltered seawater), foraminiferal calcification resulted in a decrease
 160 in alkalinity of the culture media by approximately 65 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ over a period of 5 days (table 1). On average, this
 161 equals a growth rate of 1.0 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{Ind.}^{-1}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$, which is low when compared to some previously reported rates (~6-
 162 60 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{Ind.}^{-1}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$; (Evans et al., 2018; Glas et al., 2012; Keul et al., 2013). These studies, however, all used
 163 different species than the one incubated here. The only previous study using *Amphistegina* spp. (Segev and Erez,
 164 2006) reported growth rates similar to those observed here (0.53-1.0 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{Ind.}^{-1}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$), based on changes in dry
 165 weight. The similarity in growth rates despite the different approaches used, suggests that the alkalinity anomaly
 166 method reflects growth rates accurately.
 167

168 Addition of AZ lowered calcification rates by approximately 20 times (Fig 2), while increasing net respiration.
 169 The concentration of the inhibitor (4-16 μM) did not affect the magnitude by which net calcification decreased,



170 nor does it appear to affect the increase in net respiration (Fig. 3). The inhibition of calcification caused by AZ
171 suggests that carbonic anhydrase plays a crucial role in foraminifera biomineralization. With the inhibitor present
172 foraminifera produced little to no calcite (figure 3), indicating that either biomineralization relies on CA, or is
173 negatively impacted through an effect of CA on photosynthesis. Whether calcification depends directly on
174 extracellular carbonic anhydrase (eCA) or that calcification depends on photosynthesis and thereby indirectly on
175 CA, can be inferred from comparing the two sets of experiments (Fig. 1).

176

177 **4.2 Effect of photosynthesis on calcification**

178 The inhibition of photosynthesis with DCMU and darkness decreases calcification comparably (Fig. 3).
179 Simultaneously, net respiration increases after addition of DCMU, as well as by blocking light (Fig. 4). The
180 similarity in the effect of darkness and DCMU indicates that photosynthesis has an effect on calcification. It was
181 previously suggested that light, irrespective of photosynthesis, enhances calcification in foraminifera (Erez, 2003).
182 Since the latter study used the planktonic, low-Mg calcite *Globigerinoides sacculifer*, the discrepancy between
183 results may be caused by differences in the process involved in calcification between these species.
184 Foraminiferal calcification and endosymbiont photosynthesis both require inorganic carbon. Therefore, it seems
185 reasonable to suggest that those two mechanisms are competing with each other for inorganic carbon, as was
186 shown by (Ter Kuile et al., (1989b, 1989a). However, our results show that preventing photosynthesis by the
187 symbionts actually decreases foraminiferal calcification. This implies that benefits from photosynthesis overcomes
188 an eventual competition with calcification, which is in agreement with results from Duguay (1983) and Hallock
189 (1981) who showed that both calcium- and inorganic carbon uptake into the cell is enhanced by light.

190

191 A positive effect of photosynthesis on calcification has been observed previously for other marine calcifiers as
192 well. For example, in coccolithophores, decreasing CO₂ can hamper calcification through reduced photosynthesis
193 (Mackinder et al., 2010). This can be explained by production of organic molecules linked to photosynthesis,
194 which act as organic templates for calcification. We here hypothesize that a similar effect may explain decreased
195 calcification in foraminifera as a consequence of inhibited photosynthesis (Fig. 3). If so, the type of organic
196 molecules produced by the foraminifer's endosymbionts and their fluxes will need to be assessed to test the extent
197 of the dependency of calcification on photosynthesis. However, it has been shown that symbiotic dinoflagellates
198 and zooxanthellae can trigger the activity of carbonic anhydrase in their host organisms (giant clams and sea
199 anemones) (Leggat et al., 2003; Weis, 1991; Weis and Reynolds, 2002; Yellowlees et al., 2008), thereby explaining
200 how photosynthesis enhances calcification.

201

202 **4.3 Role of CA in calcification**

203 In calcifiers other than foraminifera, carbonic anhydrase plays a direct role in calcification. In for example, giant
204 clams (Chew et al., 2019), corals, gastropods (Le Roy et al., 2012) and oysters (Wang et al., 2017), CA helps to
205 concentrate inorganic carbon in the fluid from which calcium carbonate precipitates. In scleractinian corals, CA
206 promotes conversion of metabolic CO₂ into bicarbonate after the carbon dioxide diffused into the sub-calicoblastic
207 space. Although the inorganic carbon would take the same route in absence of CA, the hydration of CO₂ is
208 relatively slow and ion fluxes and calcification rates would be a fraction what they are with the catalytic activity
209 of CA. This role of CA fits with the localization of (membrane-bound) CA observed at the walls of the calicoblastic



210 cells by immunolabelling (Moya et al., 2008). In addition, by facilitating an inward flux of inorganic carbon,
211 involvement of CA can explain the co-variation of oxygen and carbon isotopes in coral aragonite (Chen et al.,
212 2018; Uchikawa and Zeebe, 2012). Also by the reversed process, the dissolution of CaCO_3 by excavating sponges,
213 CA plays an important role, especially in the dark where increased CA activity promotes outward diffusion of CO_2
214 resulting from CaCO_3 dissolution (Webb et al., in prep).

215

216 In larger benthic foraminifera, CA likely plays different roles: it helps concentrating CO_2 by the symbionts and
217 aids foraminiferal calcification. It still remains to be investigated which molecular types of CA are involved and
218 where they are located precisely within the larger benthic foraminifera. Analogous to other calcifying organisms
219 and based on existing models of foraminiferal calcification, we hypothesize that CA helps to convert HCO_3^- into
220 CO_2 directly outside the calcifying chamber. This would help to further increase the $p\text{CO}_2$ outside the foraminifer
221 in addition to the shift in inorganic carbon chemistry resulting from active proton pumping and subsequent low
222 pH (Glas et al., 2012; de Nooijer et al., 2009; Toyofuku et al., 2017). Although not directly targeted by our
223 experimental approach, as the inhibitor we used is membrane impermeable, it is likely that a form of CA within
224 the calcifying fluid increases the rate by which the diffused CO_2 is converted into bicarbonate.

225 The involvement of CA in calcification may explain why foraminifera can be relatively resilient to ocean
226 acidification. If they rely on CA for conversion of HCO_3^- to CO_2 and take up inorganic carbon by diffusion of
227 CO_2 , additional dissolved atmospheric CO_2 may be beneficial for calcification in foraminifera. If they exclusively
228 rely on bicarbonate ions, a reduction in pH would lower the $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$ and thereby hamper calcification.
229 Manipulation of the inorganic carbon speciation in relation to calcification and the aid of enzymes therein, will
230 allow predicting rates of calcification as a function of ongoing ocean acidification.

231 5 Conclusions

232 The alkalinity anomaly method allowed us to quantify growth rates in incubation experiments, equalling addition
233 of $1 \mu\text{g}/\text{individual}/\text{day}$. Calcification and photosynthesis in the benthic foraminifer *Amphistegina lessonii* and its
234 symbionts both depend on carbonic anhydrase (CA) as shown after inhibition by acetazolamide (AZ). Since the
235 inhibitor is membrane-impermeable, the CA may well be localized at the outside of the foraminifer's cell
236 membrane. Our results also show that inhibiting photosynthesis by DCMU or incubation in darkness reduce
237 calcification similarly. This suggests that not light, but photosynthesis itself promotes calcification. We also
238 suggest that CA plays a role in concentrating inorganic carbon for calcification, possibly by promoting conversion
239 of bicarbonate into carbon dioxide outside the foraminifer.

240 Data availability

241 The data on which this publication is based can be found through the following DOI: 10.4121/uuid:afcdcdc1-2591-
242 4822-bade-806119cdd724

243

244 Authors contribution:

245 SdG and LJdN designed the experiment and SdG carried it out. SdG and AEW analysed the seawater inorganic
246 chemistry. SdG and LJdN analysed the data and prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.



247

248 **Competing interests**

249 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest

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