

1 **Salinity-depending algae uptake and subsequent carbon and nitrogen**
2 **metabolisms of two intertidal foraminifera (*Ammonia tepida* and**
3 ***Haynesina germanica*)**

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10
11 **Abstract**

12 Benthic foraminifera are abundant marine protists which play an important role in the transfer
13 of energy in the form of organic matter and nutrients to higher trophic levels. Due to their
14 aquatic lifestyle, factors such as water temperature, salinity and pH are key drivers controlling
15 biomass turnover through foraminifera. In this study the influence of salinity on the feeding
16 activity of foraminifera was tested. Two species, *Ammonia tepida* and *Haynesina germanica*,
17 were collected from a mudflat in northern Germany (Friedrichskoog) and cultured in the
18 laboratory at 20 °C and a light / dark cycle of 16: 8 h. A lyophilized algal powder from
19 *Dunaliella tertiolecta*, which was isotopically enriched with ¹³C and ¹⁵N, was used as a food
20 source. The feeding experiments were carried out at salinity levels of 11, 24 and 37 practical
21 salinity units (PSU) and were terminated after 1, 5 and 14 days. The quantification of isotope
22 incorporation was carried out by isotope ratio mass spectrometry. *Ammonia tepida* exhibited a
23 10-fold higher food uptake compared to *H. germanica*. Furthermore, in *A. tepida* the food
24 uptake increased with increasing salinity but not in *H. germanica*. Over time (from 1-5 d to 14
25 d) food C retention increased relative to food N in *A. tepida* while the opposite was observed
26 for *H. germanica*. This shows, that if the salinity in the German Wadden Sea increases, *A.*
27 *tepida* is predicted to exhibit a higher C and N uptake and turnover than *H. germanica*, with
28 accompanying changes in C and N cycling through the foraminiferal community. The results
29 of this study show how complex and differently food C and N processing of foraminiferal
30 species respond to time and to environmental conditions such as salinity.

31
32 keywords: benthic foraminifera, feeding experiments, salinity, isotope tracing

33
34 **1. Introduction**

35 The intertidal zone is one of the most extreme habitats on earth. This ecotone, also known as
36 the foreshore or seashore, is determined by tidal activity. It is an important habitat for various
37 living organisms like starfishes, sea urchins, corals and foraminifera (Allen 2000). Due to the
38 alternating presence/absence of water, organisms living here must adapt to the specific
39 environmental conditions. Important factors shaping the intertidal environment are the
40 fluctuating water temperature and salinity, pH, available food sources, sediment organic matter

41 content and fresh water supply. These environmental factors significantly influence the activity
42 of foraminifera (e.g. Schafer et al. 1996, Caldeira and Wickett 2005, Keul et al. 2013, Wukovits
43 et al. 2017).

44 Foraminifera are unicellular organisms, which live predominantly in marine environments. A
45 recent field study showed that benthic foraminifera can account for up to 84% of total protozoan
46 biomass in mudflats (Lei et al. 2014). Many foraminifera feed on phytoplankton (algae,
47 diatoms) and thus play an important role in passing on energy in form of organic matter to
48 higher trophic levels (Azam et al. 1983, Beringer et al. 1991). Due to the large quantity of
49 foraminifera in the deep and shallow ocean waters and their large contribution to the uptake of
50 primary produced organic material, foraminifera significantly contribute to the global marine
51 carbon and nitrogen cycles (Altenbach 1992, Graf 1992, Gooday et al. 1992, Nomaki et al. 2008,
52 Glock et al. 2013).

53 Foraminifera can even change between active feeding and passive ingestion diets
54 depending on how much food is available (Sliter 1965). Some foraminifera can retain organelles
55 (chloroplasts) from certain food sources and integrate them into their own metabolic cycle. This
56 process is commonly referred to as kleptoplastidy. Currently nine benthic foraminiferal genera
57 are known to follow this lifestyle: *Bulimina*, *Elphidium*, *Haynesina*, *Nonion*, *Nonionella*,
58 *Nonionellina*, *Reophax*, *Stainforthia* und *Virgulinema* (Lopez 1979, Lee et al. 1988, Cedhagen
59 1991, Bernhard & Bowser 1999, Correia & Lee 2000, Grzymiski et al. 2002, Goldstein et al
60 2004, Pillet et al. 2011, Lechliter 2014, Tsuchiya et al. 2015). In the temperate Wadden Sea,
61 being a part of the North Sea, two foraminifera species occur most frequently, *Ammonia tepida*
62 and *Haynesina germanica*, and have been relatively well studied in terms of trophic ecology.
63 While *Ammonia* does not seem to be able for kleptoplastidy (Jauffrais et al. 2016), *H. germanica*
64 possesses chloroplasts which are absorbed from food (microalgae) and are retained as organelles
65 (Lopez 1979). Cesborn et al. (2017) demonstrated that the plastids in *H. germanica* are
66 photosynthetically active, based on changes in O₂ consumption rates during dark-light
67 transitions. *Haynesina germanica* therefore follows a mixotrophic lifestyle, with autotrophic
68 and heterotrophic nutrition (Cesborn et al. 2017). While *Ammonia* can rapidly ingest organic
69 carbon (Moodley et al. 2000) and *A. tepida* has a higher potential to convert algal organic matter
70 into cellular biomass in a short time frame compared to *H. germanica* (Wukovits et al. 2018),
71 the latter species (*H. germanica*) can eventually reduce its dependency on external food due to
72 the presence of kleptoplasts.

73 The uptake of food by foraminifera depends on several factors such as food quality and
74 quantity, temperature and salinity (Lee et al. 1966, Dissard et al. 2009, Wukovits et al. 2017).
75 Past experiments with *A. tepida* and *H. germanica* showed that increasing temperature had a
76 negative effect on food uptake of foraminifera (Wukovits et al. 2017). Highest food uptake rates
77 were recorded at 20 °C in comparison the other tested temperatures 25 and 30 °C. As the
78 temperature increased foraminifera of both species consumed less food (Wukovits et al. 2017).
79 Today not only increasing temperature but also salinity changes play an important role in the
80 oceans, mainly because of anthropogenic influence, however effects of salinity on food uptake
81 and digestion by foraminifera have not yet been studied. Based on the strong variability and
82 fluctuations in salinity levels in the intertidal systems we studied food uptake of *A. tepida* and

83 *H. germanica* at different salinity levels to provide a better understanding of the turnover of
84 phytoplankton by foraminifera with changing physical conditions (salinity).

85

86 **2. Materials and Methods**

87

88 2.1. Sampling

89 The sample material was collected in May 2018 during low tide at Friedrichskoog Spitze
90 (German Wadden Sea, at 54° 02' N, 8° 50' E). At that time the seawater had a salinity of 24.2
91 PSU and a temperature of 13 °C, and the air temperature was 11 °C. The collected sediment
92 was directly wet-sieved with seawater from the location at the site through a 125 and a 63 µm
93 sieve to remove larger meiofauna and smaller organic particles. In the laboratory, the sediments
94 (size class 63-125 µm) containing living benthic foraminifera were fed regularly with
95 *Dunaliella tertiolecta* (green algae) until the start of the experiment and were kept at a
96 temperature of 21 °C and a salinity of 24 PSU. 1 PSU (1 practical salinity unit) corresponds
97 approximately to 1 g salt per kg seawater.

98

99 2.2. Preparation of ¹³C¹⁵N-labeled phytodetritus

100 A f/2 medium (Guillard & Ryther 1962, Guillard 1975), enriched with ¹³C (1.5 mmol
101 NaH¹³CO₃/L) and ¹⁵N (0.44 mmol Na¹⁵NO₃/L) was used as a nutrient solution for the cultivation
102 and production of isotopically labeled *D. tertiolecta*, a common food source in laboratory
103 experiments with benthic foraminifera (e.g. Heinz et al. 2002, Wukovits et al. 2017). It should
104 be noted that *H. germanica* prefers to eat diatoms (Austin et al. 2005), however significant
105 uptake of *D. tertiolecta* was also previously reported (Wukovits et al. 2017). The algal culture
106 was kept in an incubator at 20 °C with a light/dark cycle of 16:8 h. Once the algae had grown
107 to high density in the medium, they were collected by centrifugation at 800 xg for 10 minutes.
108 The algal pellet was washed three times with artificial seawater (Enge et al. 2011). After each
109 washing step the culture was centrifuged and the supernatant decanted. For the storage of the
110 labelled algae, the pellet was shock frozen in liquid nitrogen and then lyophilized for 4 days at
111 0.180 mbar. The labeled algal powder was isotopically enriched at about 3.3 at% ¹³C and 32.3
112 at% ¹⁵N (C:N ratio is about 5,58).

113

114 **3. Sample preparation and analysis**

115

116 3.1. Sample preparation

117 The experiment was run in triplicates. For each salinity level (11, 24 and 37 PSU) and each time
118 point of harvest (1, 5 and 14 days) three glass crystallization dishes were setup for *A. tepida* and
119 for *H. germanica*. The selected salinities correspond to a brackish milieu (11 PSU), to the
120 natural conditions in the North Sea (24 PSU) and to a highly saline basin (37 PSU). For *A.*
121 *tepada* 55 individuals and for *H. germanica* 60 individuals were prepared per replicate to obtain
122 a dry mass of cytoplasm between 1 and 2 mg. The crystallization dishes were filled with 280 ml
123 of filtered (pore size: 0.45 µm) natural seawater from the sampling site. The salinity was
124 previously adjusted to the desired PSU value by adding NaCl or distilled water. The

125 foraminifera were then placed in the dishes (without sediment) and acclimated at 20 °C and a
126 light/dark cycle of 16:8 h for three days in an incubator. The crystallization dishes were sealed
127 tightly with parafilm.

128 For our experiments, we only used foraminifera with densely filled cytoplasm. In addition, we
129 only used individuals with an intense yellowish color of the cytoplasm. The incubation time of
130 foraminifera in the crystallization dishes before feeding was used for the „crawling test“.
131 Foraminifera were placed in the center of the crystallization dish immediately after removal
132 from the cultures. After 24 hours individuals could be identified that have moved away from
133 the center. Accordingly, these individuals have active pseudopodia and are alive. In all
134 experiments it was very rare (below 4%), that single individuals did not show colored cytoplasm
135 and they were therefore counted as “survive”. Completely empty tests, which would clearly
136 stand for dead individuals, were not found.

137 In order not to disturb the experiments, no water change was carried out. O₂ and pH were also
138 not measured, since we did not expect a significant change due to the small amount of added
139 food.

140 Following the acclimation period, 5 mg lyophilized labelled algal powder was added as the only
141 food source to each replicate and left in the incubator for the desired incubation time. The algae
142 powder settled down on the bottom of the dish and was available for foraminifera. In addition,
143 untreated (not fed) foraminifera were taken to obtain the natural abundance of ¹³C and ¹⁵N as a
144 reference. At the end of the experiments a precipitate of the algal powder was still visible in the
145 crystallization dishes, which confirms the continuous availability of food during the
146 experiments. The salinity was checked daily and corrected when necessary.

147

148 3.2. Sample preparation and processing

149 Before the start of the experiments all glassware was cleaned by combusting at 500 °C for 5 h
150 in a muffle furnace. The „picking tools“ and tin capsules were cleaned by rinsing with a 1:1
151 (v:v) mixture of dichloromethane (CH₂Cl₂) and methanol (CH₃OH). After the incubation period,
152 foraminifera were removed from the crystallization dishes, cleaned and washed three times with
153 distilled water. Then they were transferred into the tin capsules (Sn 99,9%, IVA
154 Analysentechnik GmbH & Co. KG) and excess water was removed. The samples were air dried
155 for three days (Enge et al. 2018) and then decarbonated with 4% HCl (3 x 5 µL for *A. tepida*
156 and 2 x 5 µL for *H. germanica*). During the decarbonatization of foraminiferal tests, the samples
157 were kept at 60 °C for 24 h. Finally, the samples were dried for three days at 60 °C, before being
158 weighed to the nearest hundredth of a milligram.

159

160 3.3. Analyses

161 The measurements of C and N contents as well as the isotope ratios of the samples were carried
162 out in the Stable Isotope Laboratory for Environmental Research (SILVER) laboratory of the
163 University of Vienna. The ratios of ¹³C/¹²C and ¹⁵N/¹⁴N were measured by an isotope ratio mass
164 spectrometry (IRMS, Delta^{PLUS}, coupled by a ConFlo III interface to an elemental analyzer EA
165 1110, Thermo Finnigan). In the following calculations, X stands for the heavy isotopes of C and
166 N, i.e. ¹³C and ¹⁵N, respectively. The atomic percentage of heavy isotopes (at% ¹³C and at% ¹⁵N)

167 was calculated using the measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values and the international standards for C
 168 (Vienna PeeDee Belemnite $R_{\text{VPDB}} = 0.0112372$) and N isotopes (atmospheric nitrogen $R_{\text{atmN}} =$
 169 0.0036765) according to the following equations:

170

$$171 \quad \delta X = (R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

172

173 where R depicts the ratio of heavy isotope to light isotope i.e. $^{13}\text{C}:^{12}\text{C}$ or $^{15}\text{N}:^{14}\text{N}$ in samples and
 174 international standards, respectively.

175

$$176 \quad \text{at. \%} = \frac{100 \times R_{\text{standard}} \times \left(\frac{\delta X_{\text{sample}}}{1000} + 1\right)}{1 + R_{\text{standard}} \times \left(\frac{\delta X_{\text{sample}}}{1000} + 1\right)} \quad (2)$$

177

178 Subsequently, the values needed to be corrected for the at%X present in the natural
 179 environment, i.e. in unlabeled foraminifera. The so-called isotope excess (E) was calculated
 180 according to Middelburg et al. (2000):

181

$$182 \quad E = \frac{\text{atom}X_{\text{sample}} - \text{atom}X_{\text{background}}}{100} \quad (3)$$

183

184 In the next step, the isotope incorporation was determined according to the following equation:

185

$$186 \quad I_{\text{iso}} [\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}] \text{ or } [\mu\text{g ind}^{-1}] = E \times C \text{ (N)} [\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}] \text{ or } [\mu\text{g ind}^{-1}] \quad (4)$$

187

188 Depending on the biomass units used, I_{iso} results in the unit $\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}$ (based on dry matter of the
 189 cytoplasm) or $\mu\text{g ind}^{-1}$ (based on the number of individuals).

190

191 Finally, the uptake of phytodetrital C (pC) and phytodetrital N (pN) was calculated for the
 192 cytoplasm of foraminifera:

$$193 \quad pX = \frac{I_{\text{iso}}}{\frac{\text{at. \%}X_{\text{phyto}}}{100}} \quad (5)$$

194

195 where $\text{at\%}_{\text{phyto}}$ represents the isotopic enrichment in ^{13}C and ^{15}N of the labelled *D. tertiolecta*
 196 food. All results were additionally converted to time-based food uptake rates ($\mu\text{g mg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$).

197

198 3.4. Statistics

199 Regression analysis was applied to statistically test for time effects on food uptake, and linear
 200 and curvilinear models were tested. The best models were selected based on the highest
 201 coefficient of determination (R^2). Three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to test
 202 for main effects of species, salinity and time, and two-way ANOVA for salinity and time effects

203 on pC and pN within species, followed by Fisher's LSD post hoc tests. All statistical tests were
204 performed using R (R development Core Team, 2008).

205

206 4. Results

207

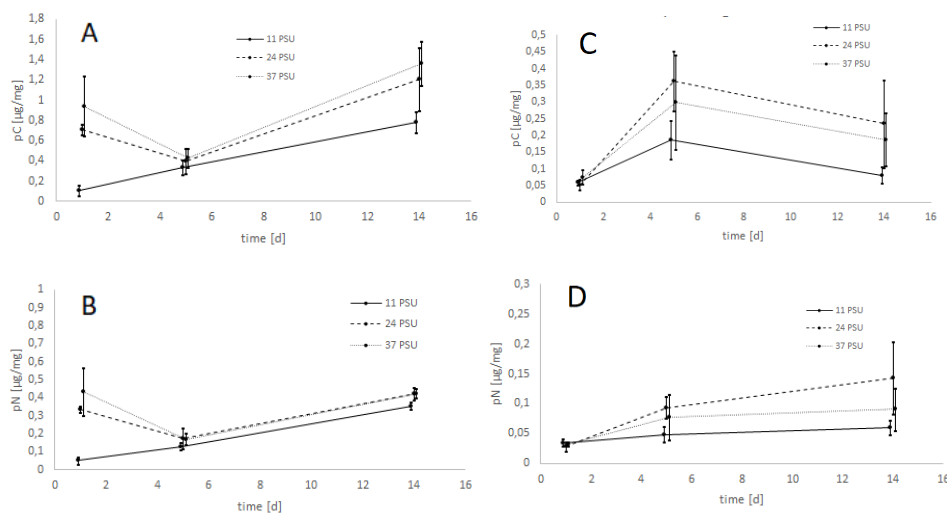
208 4.1. Carbon uptake

209 The isotope measurements showed that the offered labeled food source was utilized by both, *A.*
210 *tepid*a and *H. germanica*. Three-way ANOVA showed a significant effect of species (*A.*
211 *tepid*a > *H. germanica*, $p < 0,001$), time ($p < 0,001$) and salinity ($p < 0,001$) on pC. Moreover, two-
212 way ANOVA highlighted a significant effect of time ($p < 0,001$) and salinity ($p < 0,001$) on pC
213 in *A. tepida*, and of time ($p < 0,001$) but not salinity ($p = 0,0739$) on pC in *H. germanica*. Salinity
214 had a major impact on food uptake (pC) only in *A. tepida*.

215 As shown in Fig. 1A, *A. tepida* had the highest pC value at a salinity level of 37 PSU
216 for the most dates, followed by 24 PSU. At lowest salinity (11 PSU) pC further decreased. It
217 should be noted that from day 1 to day 5 the uptake of C at 24 PSU and 37 PSU decreased
218 considerably before it increased again towards day 14. This intermediate minimum was not
219 recognizable at 11 PSU. At 11 PSU pC increased linearly with time ($f(d) = 0.05163 * d +$
220 0.06530 , $R^2 = 0.9985$, based of mean values of pC).

221 Time kinetics were different for *H. germanica*. After one feeding day the measured pC
222 values did not differ between salinity levels and were lowest. Food C uptake peaked after five
223 days and thereafter declined. However, salinity did not affect pC in this species.

224



225

226

227 Figure 1: Time kinetics of algal C and N uptake (pC, pN) by (A, B) *A. tepida* and (C, D) *H. germanica*. pC and pN were
228 measured at three salinity levels: 11, 24 and 37 PSU.

229

230 In addition to pC values, C uptake rates for the 1 day sample were also determined. *Ammonia*
231 *tepid*a showed highest uptake rates at 24 (0,029 µg/(mg*h)) and 37 PSU (0,036 µg/(mg*h))
232 after one day of food supply. For 11 PSU, C uptake rates were much lower (0,004 µg/(mg*h)).
233 For *H. germanica*, C uptake rates at salinities of 11 (0,002 µg/(mg*h)), 24 (0,003
234 µg/(mg*h)) and 37 (0,002 µg/(mg*h)) PSU are in the same area.

235

236 4.2. Nitrogen uptake

237 Two-way ANOVA showed a significant effect of salinity ($p < 0,001$) and time ($p < 0,001$) on
238 nitrogen uptake (pN) for *A. tepida*. For *H. germanica*, as with pC, pN was only affected by time
239 ($p = 0,0027$) but not by salinity ($p = 0,0690$).

240 Nitrogen uptake of *A. tepida* showed a highly comparable pattern to C uptake (Figure
241 1). Minimum N uptake was always recorded at the lowest salinity level. However, the uptake
242 of N after 5 days was approximately the same at 24 and 37 PSU, and reached here a minimum
243 at both salinities. The development of pN at 11 PSU could be described by a straight line ($f(d)$
244 $= 0.02354*d + 0.02011$) with a very high coefficient of determination ($R^2 = 0.9978$).

245 *Haynesina germanica* exhibited lower values of pN compared to *A. tepida* (Figure 1D).
246 The highest N uptake after 5 and 14 days was at the moderate salinity level (24 PSU), though
247 this was not significant. Again, food N uptake increased linearly with time ($f(d) = 0.00185*d +$
248 0.03522 , $R^2 = 0.9317$) at the lowest salinity level, but showed a saturating behavior at 24 and
249 37 PSU.

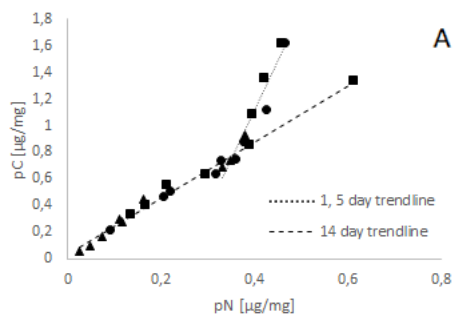
250 Food N uptake rates are also calculated. For *A. tepida* the N uptake rates is similar to
251 the C uptake rates and C uptake rates were approximately twice as high as N uptake rates. For
252 *H. germanica* the average N uptake rates were very close at all three salinity levels, suggesting
253 similar N uptake rates independent of salinity in *H. germanica*.

254

255 4.3. Relations between food C and N incorporation

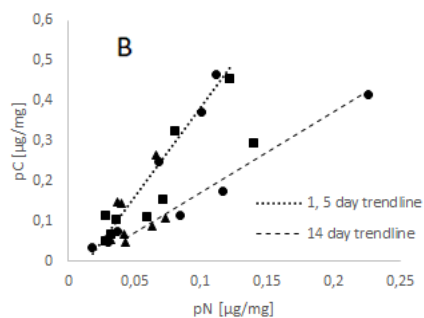
256

257 All data of C and N uptake obtained in this study were plotted as pC to pN relationships in
258 Figure 2.



259

260



261

262

263 Fig. 2: Relationship between food N uptake (pN) and food C uptake (pC) for *A. tepida* (A) and *H. germanica* (B) for
264 the time windows day 1 to 5, and day 14. Regressions were run separately for these time windows. The triangles
265 correspond to the values at 11 PSU, the circles to those at 24 PSU, and the squares to the values at 37 PSU.

266
267 *Ammonia tepida* showed a continuous increase in pC with pN (Fig. 2). The 1-day and 5-day
268 samples were all plotting on a straight line, with the lowest salinity samples having the lowest
269 pC and pN values. At later stages (day 14) the slope and therefore the pC:pN ratios increased
270 markedly (from 2.1 to 7.4). *Haynesina germanica* also showed a general increase in pC with
271 pN. However, the slope between both of them decreased over time in contrast to *A. tepida*,
272 indicating a decrease in pC:pN (from 4.5 at day 1 and 5 to 2.0 at day 14) and thereby an increased
273 relative retention of food N compared to food C over time.

274

275 5. Discussion

276

277 5.1. Influence of salinity on food uptake

278 Both examined foraminifera species showed different responses to salinity variations in terms
279 of food uptake and food uptake rates. The time course of pC and pN in *A. tepida* showed a
280 noticeably minimum after five days. This partial decrease in pC and pN was already reported in
281 experiments testing the effects of temperature on food uptake in the same species (Wukovits et
282 al. 2017). In the latter study food uptake was highest on day one and then decreased sharply (5
283 days) and remained nearly constant thereafter (14 days). These data suggest that *A. tepida* was
284 „starved“ due to the 3-day acclimatization period and immediately responded with rapid food
285 uptake, when food was added. The pseudopodia of *A. tepida* are particularly stimulated by the
286 green algae *Dunaliella* (Lee et al 1961). Excessive food uptake in the short time (1 day) can
287 lead to longer lasting saturation, which explains the significantly lower uptake rates at the
288 intermediate time points.

289 There are some points, which could lead to the low (0,1%) uptake of food in comparison to
290 the biomass of the foraminifera. An important aspect to consider is the method used when
291 processing the samples. Foraminiferal tests are dissolved with hydrochloric acid and due to
292 that carbonate is lost, but also new mineral phases are formed which influence the total weight
293 of the sample. This step is needed to remove the ¹³C, which may be bound in the test.

294 Comparing with other studies like Wukovits et al. (2017), it can be seen, that the uptake
295 values of our experiments lay in the same order of magnitude. In comparison, *A. tepida* showed
296 an average amount of C between 0.8-1 µg/mg and N of about 0.3 µg/mg in our experiments.
297 Wukovits et al. (2017) recorded about 2 µg/mg for C and 0.5 µg/mg for N in their experiments
298 (at 20 °C) with *A. tepida*. The amount of C absorbed by *H. germanica* is in both (our
299 experiments and Wukovits et al. 2017 at 20 °C) at about 0.3 µg/mg and N amounts to 0.05-1
300 µg/mg.

301 Another aspect is, that foraminifera are stressed during experimental conditions and therefore
302 may have a lower turnover. It should be noted, that the food uptake is determined by the
303 isotope content in the cytoplasm, which can also vary over time.

304 Since these experiments were all carried out under laboratory conditions, we would not
305 consider pC and pN as absolute values, due to seasonal and environmental fluctuations.

306 The time course of food uptake at the lowest salinity level was different in *A. tepida*,
307 starting slow but then pC and pN increased continuously over time. This might be caused by
308 lowest salinity levels being suboptimal in the short term and that therefore metabolic
309 activation takes longer, causing the linear increase in pC and pN. This explanation supported
310 by the observation that after five days food uptake was similar across all three salinity levels.
311 *Haynesina germanica* showed a different pattern than *A. tepida* in terms of time-dependency
312 of pC and pN. In the former species the presence of kleptoplasts may have attenuated the
313 „starvation effect“, with the result that only a small amount of ingested C and N can be
314 measured after one day. This low initial C and N uptake can be related to the results of
315 Cesborn (2017), which show that kleptoplasts are potential C or N sources for foraminifera in
316 starvation periods. However, it should be considered that *H. germanica* less readily absorbed
317 the offered food compared to *A. tepida*. Although there was a greater increase in pN between
318 day 1 and 5 than between day 5 and 14, the C and N uptake rates were much lower than those
319 of *A. tepida*.

320 It must be noted that while food C and N uptake are related through the C:N of the food
321 source, internal foraminiferal metabolism and release processes can cause a decoupling of C
322 and N metabolism and of isotope labeling patterns. Carbon is incorporated into organic
323 molecules as well as into the calcareous shells or simply released during cellular respiration
324 (e.g. Hannah et al 1994). The latter leads to a release of carbon into the environment, whereby
325 the measured values of C isotope incorporation are influenced. Nitrogen is also utilized for the
326 production of organic molecules such as DNA or proteins (DeLaca 1982, Nomaki et al 2014).
327 Again the release of nitrogen-rich excretion products into the environment has an impact on the
328 nitrogen isotope incorporation patterns.

329 It should be mentioned, that the processing method could result in loss of the cytoplasm. After
330 the experiment, foraminifera were washed with distilled water to remove any salts around their
331 tests, which could influence the mass. This washing process should be carried out carefully,
332 because the tests could burst. In general, all samples were always treated the same way, which
333 means they were all washed with the same volume of distilled water. This way any impact that
334 may have arisen from using the distilled water has the same effect on all samples.

335 According to Stouff et al. (1999) *A. tepida* shows hardly any shell deformations at
336 normal marine conditions of 37 PSU. This observation is consistent with the results of this
337 study, as *A. tepida* had a higher uptake and turnover of organic matter at higher salinities (24 –
338 37 PSU) and therefore its optimal living conditions at higher salinity levels. Yet, in the
339 hypersaline environment (50 PSU) this species generates a high number of deformed juvenile
340 individuals (Stouff et al. 1999). The German Wadden Sea is subject to seasonal salinity
341 fluctuations and has a mean salinity of 30.7 – 32.5 PSU (Postma 1983). Depending on the
342 supply of fresh water and evaporation rates, the water in this region can drop to salinities of 25
343 and reach up to 37 PSU (Maywald 1991). Our experiments showed that the change in salinity
344 from 24 to 33 PSU had a smaller impact on food uptake than that between 11 and 24 PSU.
345 This shows once again that the two commonly occurring species, *A. tepida* and *H. germanica*,

346 have adapted very well to these fluctuations. The lowest salinity (11 PSU) in our experiments
347 represents the transition from brackish to a marine milieu. It turned out that at this salinity
348 level the food uptake tended to be the lowest for both species. From the literature it is known
349 that such brackish marshes are mainly inhabited by agglutinated foraminifera (Sen Gupta
350 1999). Considering the uptake of C and N by *A. tepida* and *H. germanica* in our experiments
351 (Fig. 1), it can be seen that the low salinities do not correspond to the optimum conditions of
352 these foraminifera.

353

354 5.2. Effect of salinity on cytoplasmic C:N ratios and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values

355 Foraminiferal C:N ratios and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures in the cytoplasm have been applied as a salinity
356 proxy for marine systems for some time (e.g. Scott and Medioli 1986, Chmura and Aharon
357 1995, Mackie et al. 2005). According to Mackie et al. (2005) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the range of -16 to
358 -22‰ represent organic matter and organisms of marine origin. Brackish and freshwater
359 organisms have lighter $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (-22 to -25‰ and -25 to -30‰ respectively) (Mackie et al.
360 2005). The foraminiferal species studied here showed background $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of -13.9‰ (*H.*
361 *germanica*) and -15.9‰ (*A. tepida*). These values clearly point towards marine isotope
362 signatures, concordant with a salinity of 24.2 PSU measured during the sampling of the
363 foraminifera.

364 A change in cytoplasmic C:N ratio of foraminifera in intertidal habitats is fundamentally
365 influenced by two factors: on the one hand by the composition of the local fauna and flora (food)
366 (Stelzer and Lamberti 2001, Bowman et al 2005, LeKieffre 2018) and on the other hand by
367 changes in the physiological processes in the organisms themselves (Frost and Elser 2002, Cross
368 et al 2005). Both benthic foraminifera species showed divergent changes in C versus N
369 metabolism of ingested food over time. *Ammonia tepida* showed an increase in pC:pN with
370 feeding time, resulting from a combination of altered N metabolism (storage of N in form of
371 proteins or DNA versus N excretions) and/or changes in C metabolism (investment of C into
372 cellular components versus losses by cellular respiration). The observed increase in pC:pN may
373 therefore represent either an increase in C incorporation relative to N incorporation due to lower
374 stress (less cellular respiration) or a decrease in N retention (increased N excretion) in the
375 foraminifera after a prolonged feeding time. *Haynesina germanica* also showed a general
376 increase in pC with pN. However, the slope between pC and pN decreased over time, indicating
377 a decrease in pC:pN and thereby an increased relative retention of food N compared to food C.
378 In our experiments the change in salinity did not affect the pC:pN ratios. In other words the
379 salinity did not cause a change in relative C versus N metabolism in both species. Investigating
380 the behavior of other nutrients such as P or Mg alongside C and N might provide further
381 interesting insights into the intake and metabolism of food and its biochemical constituents.
382 Phosphorus serves as an important building block in nucleic acids and phospholipids and might
383 be an indicator for cellular energy status because it is used for the formation of energy storage
384 molecules such as ATP. The behavior of P at changing environmental conditions may therefore
385 indirectly indicate the stress behavior of foraminifera. Magnesium is an important component
386 of chlorophyll. Based on the Mg content of foraminifera it is possible to reconstruct the amount
387 of chlorophyll and therefore the presence of chloroplasts. It is also possible to quantify

388 chlorophyll directly, for example via spectroscopy. However, this is only possible if the pure
389 cytoplasm is examined without the residues of the shells.

390 An important point is the different affinity of foraminifera to food. As *H. germanica*
391 possesses kleptoplasts, which are absent in *A. tepida*, the two species have different metabolisms
392 and food dependencies. *Ammonia tepida* showed an approximately 10-fold higher food uptake
393 as *H. germanica*, partially explained by the preference of *A. tepida* for the green algae
394 *Dunaliella sp.* (Lee et al 1961) which served as the food source here while *H. germanica* prefers
395 to eat diatoms due to kleptoplastidy.

396 Furthermore, the alteration and aging of food sources can play an important role
397 affecting feeding and food metabolism, as indicated by the preference for „fresh“ or
398 „younger“ phytodetritus (Lee et al 1966). In the experiments here food from the same
399 lyophilized algal batch was always used to avoid this effect. Moreover, selective food uptake of
400 different species of foraminifera needs to be considered, and this was clearly demonstrated in a
401 study where a total of 28 different diatom and chlorophyte species were fed to three littoral
402 benthic foraminifera species but only 4-5 of these food sources were consumed at significant
403 rates (Lee and Müller 1973). Ultimately one needs to be aware that contamination by bacteria
404 or other microbes cannot be ruled out, particularly in longer-term experiments, as these
405 organisms also use the food offered as a C or N source (Murray et al 1986. Dobbs et al 1989.
406 Middelburg et al. 2000. Gihring et al 2009).

407

408 5.3. Effects of salinity on the foraminiferal community

409 The foraminifera of the mudflats of Friedrichskoog have been investigated for their
410 responses to environmental parameters such as temperature and organic matter flux (Llobret-
411 Brossa et al. 1998. Brasse et al. 1999. Tillmann et al. 2000). In this study we could show that *A.*
412 *tepida* and *H. germanica* reacts with a lower food uptake compared to a decreasing salinity. At
413 low tide the benthic organisms are strongly exposed to the ambient weather conditions such as
414 wind, rain or sunlight. Due to the geographic location the growth of organisms is strongly linked
415 to the spring and summer months. Past data from Tillmann et al. (2000) showed that growth of
416 phytoplankton in winter is limited or almost zero. During spring local phytoplankton blooms
417 may occur with a daily water column particulate gross production up to 2200 mg C m⁻² day⁻¹
418 (Tillmann et al. 2000). Over this period food availability is not a limiting factor for foraminifera
419 and this situation corresponds to the conditions in our experiments.

420 The composition of the foraminiferal community in the German Wadden Sea changes
421 within small areas (subzones) (Müller-Navarra et al. 2016). The specific microhabitats are
422 formed by natural parameters such as sediment grain size, pH or food source availability but
423 also by anthropogenic influences such as diking, ditching or sheep grazing (Müller-Navarra et
424 al. 2016). This leads to changes in the hydrological situation, and in combination with natural
425 factors such as precipitation or seepage of ground water, the salinity in mudflats varies
426 significantly in relation to the open ocean (De Rijk 1995). It seems that the assemblage of
427 foraminifera in such human-influenced salt marshes is controlled mainly by changes in salinity
428 (De Rijk 1995). De Rijk (1995) showed that in areas with widely varying salinity only few
429 different types of foraminifera occur. Moreover, it was shown that in years with high

430 precipitation the salinity in areas such as the Wadden Sea or in salt marshes is reduced, causing
431 the density of foraminifera to decrease sharply. (Murray 1968). So the tidal habitats in the region
432 around Friedrichskoog are characterized by multiple environmental factors. This leads to the
433 formation of subzones, where particularly physical influences such as pH, salinity, temperature
434 or tides play an important role. This area is also of particular interest for the future as the
435 anthropogenic impact on fluctuating ecosystems can be monitored very well here. Changes in
436 salinity therefore are a major factor shaping the composition and activity of foraminiferal
437 communities. In this study we could show that the two tested foraminiferal species, *A. tepida*
438 and *H. germanica*, responded very differently to salinity in terms of food intake and C and N
439 metabolism. Moreover, a former study demonstrated that the temperature response and
440 temperature optima also differ between these two most abundant foraminifera species of the
441 German Wadden Sea (Wukovits et al. 2017). Therefore environmental and climate change can
442 strongly affect the composition of the foraminiferal community, thereby causing changes in the
443 feeding rates and in the C-N metabolism of the foraminiferal community, and ultimately altering
444 the C-N cycling of these intertidal ecosystems.

445

446

447 **6. Literature**

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