



1 **Deposit feeding of a foraminifera from an Arctic methane seep site**
2 **and possible association with a methanotroph revealed by**
3 **transmission electron microscopy**

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20 **Abstract.** Several foraminifera are deposit feeders that consume organic detritus (dead particulate
21 organic material along with entrained bacteria). However, the role of such foraminifera in the
22 benthic food-web remains understudied. As foraminifera may associate with methanotrophic
23 bacteria, which are ^{13}C -depleted, feeding on them has been suggested to cause negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
24 in the foraminiferal cytoplasm and/or calcite. To test whether the foraminiferal diet includes
25 methanotrophs, we performed a short-term (1 d) feeding experiment with *Nonionellina*
26 *labradorica* from an active Arctic methane-emission site (Storfjordrenna, Barents Sea) using the
27 marine methanotroph *Methyloprofundus sedimenti*, and analyzed *N. labradorica* cytology via
28 Transmission Electron microscopy (TEM). We hypothesized that *M. sedimenti* would be visible,
29 as evidenced by their ultrastructure, in degradation vacuoles after this feeding experiment.
30 Sediment grains (mostly clay) occurred inside one or several degradation vacuoles in all
31 foraminifers. In 24% of the specimens from the feeding experiment degradation vacuoles also
32 contained bacteria, although none could be confirmed to be the offered *M. sedimenti*. Observations
33 of the area adjacent to the aperture after 20 h incubation revealed three putative methanotrophs,
34 close to clay particles. These methanotrophs were identified based on internal characteristics such
35 as a type I stacked intracytoplasmic membranes (ICM), storage granules (SG) and gram-negative
36 cell walls (GNCW). Furthermore, *N. labradorica* specimens were examined for specific
37 adaptations to this active Arctic methane-emission site; we noted the absence of bacterial
38 endobionts in all specimens examined but confirmed the presence of kleptoplasts, which were
39 often partially degraded. Based on these observations, we suggest that *M. sedimenti* can be
40 consumed by *N. labradorica* via untargeted grazing in seeps and that *N. labradorica* can be
41 generally classified as a deposit feeder at this Arctic site. These results suggest that if
42 methanotrophs are available to the foraminifera in their habitat, their non-selective uptake could
43 make a substantial contribution to altering $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{test}}$ values. This in turn may impact metazoans
44 grazing on benthic foraminifera by altering their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature.

45
46

47 benthic foraminifera – feeding experiment – grazing - marine methanotrophs – Arctic methane
48 seeps– transmission electron microscopy – ultrastructure – kleptoplasts- protist – molecular
49 identification



50 1. Introduction

51 In methane seep sites, the upward migration of methane affects the pore-water chemistry of near-
52 surface sediments, where benthic foraminifera inhabiting the sediment interface have been shown
53 to live (e.g. Dessandier et al., 2019). Extremely light isotopic signals of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ have been measured
54 in seep-associated foraminiferal calcite tests (Wefer et al., 1994; Rathburn et al., 2003; Hill et al.,
55 2004b; Panieri et al., 2014). One explanation of low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signals in foraminifera could be due to
56 the ingestion of ^{13}C -depleted methanotrophs (McCorkle et al., 1990; Wefer et al., 1994; Rathburn
57 et al., 2003; Panieri, 2006). Recently, specimens of the foraminifer *Melonis barleeanus*
58 (Williamson, 1858) collected from an active methane seep site were closely associated with
59 putative methanotrophs at their apertural region (Bernhard and Panieri, 2018).

60 The observation by Bernhard and Panieri (2018) brought to light the need to examine feeding
61 habits of foraminifera living on or around methane seeps. The species *M. barleeanus* could feed
62 on aerobic methane-oxidizing bacteria (methanotrophs), which are abundant in the water column
63 around methane seeps (Tavormina et al., 2010). Methanotrophs produce the biomarker diplopterol,
64 which has an extremely light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature (-60‰) and makes methanotrophs isotopically very
65 light themselves (Hinrichs et al., 2003). If foraminifera accidentally or intentionally ingest
66 methanotroph, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of foraminiferal cytoplasm should be altered by such phagocytosis.
67 However, experimental evidence was inconclusive whether isotope labelling of food can influence
68 foraminiferal calcite, as no new calcite was produced during experiments using the foraminifera
69 *Haynesina germanica* and *Ammonia beccari* (Mojtahid et al., 2011). Experiments using a novel
70 high-pressure incubator on *Cibicides wuellerstorfi* illustrated the difficulty to measure the
71 relationship between methane exposure, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{test}}$, as whole cores were incubated, the
72 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ of the seawater was impossible to keep constant and to compare $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{test}}$ formed in the
73 presence of methane to normal marine conditions (Wollenburg et al., 2015).

74 Several studies found that the lightest isotopic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were measured in tests coated by
75 methane-derived authigenic carbonate (MDAC) overgrowth (Torres et al., 2010; Panieri et al.,
76 2014; Consolaro et al., 2015; Panieri et al., 2017; Schneider et al., 2017). MDACs represent a
77 diagenetic alteration of the foraminiferal test that alters the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the foraminiferal isotope record
78 It can form high-Mg-calcite coatings contributing to the bulk of foraminiferal carbonate up to 58
79 wt% MgCO (Schneider et al., 2017). MDACs are formed at the SMTZ, the sulfate-methane-
80 transition zone (SMTZ), near the sediment-water interface where the upward flow of methane



81 encounters the downward diffusion of sulfate from overlying seawater (Bian et al., 2001;
82 Schneider et al., 2017).

83 Light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of foraminiferal calcite have been explained as being formed in the presence of
84 methane as an active uptake of methane-derived carbon produced by anaerobic oxidation of
85 methane (AOM) (Rathburn et al., 2003; Hill et al., 2004a; Panieri et al., 2014). Within the zone of
86 active AOM, the Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC) exhibits the maximum ^{13}C -depletion
87 (Whiticar, 1999; Ussler and Paull, 2008). One hypothesis to explain extremely light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
88 recorded in benthic foraminiferal calcite is that foraminifera assimilate the carbon as ^{13}C -depleted
89 methane-derived DIC, which would lead to extremely light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. The possibility that ^{13}C -
90 depleted DIC from the pore water can be assimilated by foraminifera is currently debated. Some
91 studies suggest it is not possible (Herguera et al., 2014) while others assert feasibility if
92 foraminifera calcify close to seeps (Rathburn et al., 2003; Hill et al., 2004a; Panieri et al., 2014).
93 However, light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values remain in many tests after MDACs are removed (Panieri et al., 2014)
94 and have been measured also in primary calcite, without MDACs, from tests in methane-rich
95 environments (e.g. Mackensen, 2008; Dessandier et al., 2019). These observations again point to
96 the role of food organisms influencing the cytoplasmatic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and could be incorporated into the
97 geochemistry of the test.

98 Foraminifera play an important role in the carbon cycle on the deep seafloor (Nomaki et al., 2005)
99 where feeding behavior and food preference vary with species (Nomaki et al., 2006). Selected
100 species of deep-sea benthic foraminifera have been shown to feed selectively on ^{13}C -labeled algae
101 from sedimentary organic matter, but unselectively on ^{13}C -labeled bacteria of the strain *Vibrio*
102 (Nomaki et al., 2006). A study from the seafloor around Adriatic seeps suggested that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of
103 foraminiferal cytoplasm could be influenced by feeding on the sulfur-oxidizing bacterium
104 *Beggiatoa*, whose abundance was also positively correlated with foraminiferal densities Panieri,
105 (Panieri, 2006). Generally, foraminifera can ingest dissolved organic matter (DOM), some are
106 herbivorous, carnivorous, suspension feeders and most commonly deposit feeders reviewed in
107 (Lipps, 1983). Deposit feeders are omnivorous, gathering fine-grained sediment (e.g., clay) and
108 associated bacteria, organic detritus (dead particulate organic material) and, if present, diatom cells
109 using their pseudopodia. Hence, bacteria are involuntarily part of the “food-mix” (Levinton, 1989).
110 The fact that bacteria are sometimes part of the “food mix” made us investigate if *Nonionellina*
111 *labradorica* associated with methanotrophs, e.g. *Metyloprofundus sedimenti*, in a short-term



112 feeding experiment. *Nonionellina labradorica* is a benthic foraminifera that can reach substantial
113 sizes, is an abundant species in the North Atlantic, and is the northern-most species of the
114 Nonionellidae (Cedhagen, 1991). It also occurs together with *N. digitata* in Svalbard fjord
115 sediments (Hald and Korsun, 1997; Shetye et al., 2011; Fossile et al., 2020). The genus *Nonionella*
116 is potentially capable to denitrify, which as demonstrated on the species *Nonionella* cf. *stella*
117 (Risgaard-Petersen et al., 2006), and NIS *Nonionella* sp. T1 (Choquel et al., 2021), and has been
118 speculated also for *Nonionellina labradorica* (reviewed (Charrieau et al., 2019). Next to its wide
119 distribution, it is an especially interesting experimental species, because it hosts kleptoplasts, *i.e.*
120 sequestered chloroplasts, of diatom origin inside its cytoplasm (Cedhagen, 1991; Jauffrais et al.,
121 2018). SEM images of *N. labradorica*'s aperture show a specific ornamentation, possibly a
122 morphological adaptation to this “predatory” mode of life for obtaining the kleptoplasts (Bernhard
123 and Bowser, 1999). It is speculated that in deep-sea specimens the function of kleptoplasts is rather
124 related to the sulfur cycle rather than with photosynthesis (Jauffrais et al., 2019). Our study does
125 not concentrate on kleptoplasts but rather analyzed feeding preferences and contents of the
126 degradation vacuoles of this species from an active methane-emitting site in the Arctic
127 (Storfjordrenna, Barents Sea).

128

129 **2. Materials and methods**

130 **2.1. Site description and sampling living foraminifera**

131 The sampling site was located app. 50 km south of Svalbard at 382m water depth at the mouth of
132 Storfjordrenna (Serov et al., 2017). The site is characterized by several large gas hydrate pingos
133 (GHP), which actively vent methane spread over an area of 2.5 km². At this site our sample was
134 taken at GHP3 is referred as an underwater gas hydrate-bearing mound (Hong et al., 2017; Hong
135 et al., 2018). GHP3 is a ~500-m diameter, 10-m tall mound that actively vents methane (Fig. 1).
136 Marine sediment samples were collected during CAGE cruise 18-05 supported by the research
137 vessel *Kronprins Haakon* on in October 2018 and sampled from the seafloor by the Remotely
138 Operated Vehicle (ROV) *Ægir*. A blade corer (surface dimensions 27 x 19 cm, Fig. 1c) was used
139 to sample living foraminifera; it was placed directly in the vicinity of bacterial mats. The blade
140 corer containing the sediment sample was opened immediately once onboard. A small aquarium



141 hose was used to sample the upper most surface layer (0-1 cm). The wet sediment was collected
142 in petri dishes and wet sieved to a size range of 250-500 μm , which served as source of living
143 (cytoplasm containing) foraminifera. The species *N. labradorica*, which was the visibilly
144 abundant, was subsequently used for feeding experiments described in detail below. A previous
145 study on GHP1 in Storfjordrenna showed also *N. labradorica* is also occurring in other sediment
146 cores (MC_902 and MC_919) in the top 2 cm (Carrier et al., 2020).
147

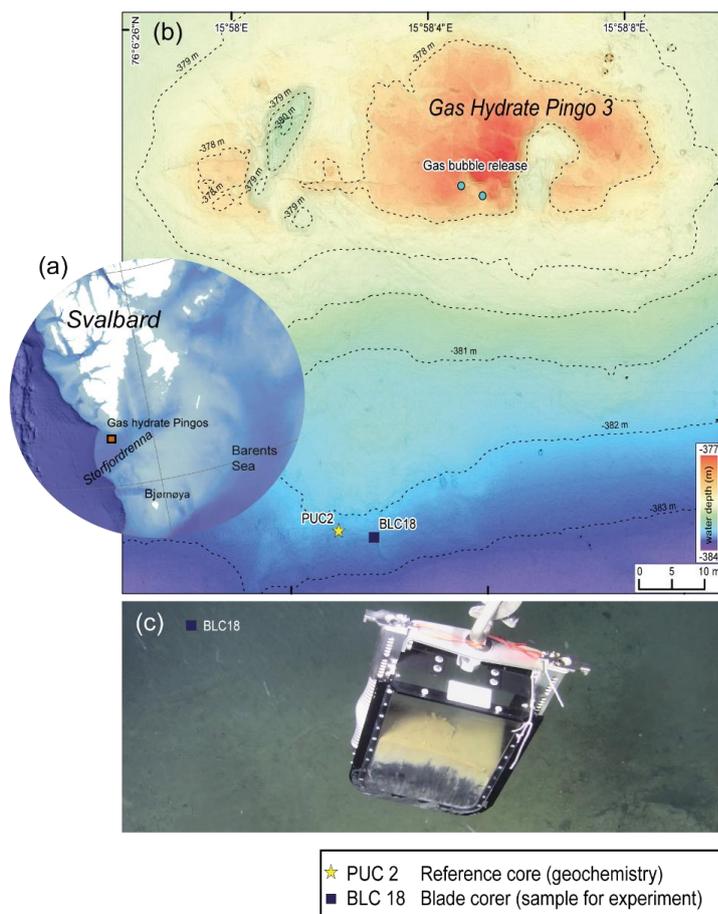


Figure 1 Description of the sampling site Gas hydrate Pingo 3 (GHP3), a gas-hydrate bearing mount, which actively vents methane, located in Storfjordrenna Barents Sea (a) Map illustrating Svalbard archipelago and the distance towards the sampling site is app. 50 km (b) Map of sampling site GHP3, active gas bubble release is marked on the top of the underwater mount, yellow star indicates location of push corer PUC2 taken for geochemical analysis, black squared box indicates the location of the blade corer BLC18 from which the sediment was derived for the experiment. (c) Underwater image of retrieval of BLC18 taken by camera of ROV (remotely operated vehicle) illustrating the coloration of sediment and the sea-floor visible in background.



148 2.2. Geochemistry

149 For geochemical analysis a push corer (PUC2) was used (referred to as geochemistry core) to
150 obtain measurements on $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and sulfate, as blade corer (BLC18) did not allow those
151 measurements. PUC2 was taken in close vicinity to BLC18, ~5m apart (Fig 1). Pore-water samples
152 were taken from PUC2 using rhizons that were inserted through pre-drilled holes in the core tube
153 at intervals of 1 cm. Acid washed 20-ml syringes were attached to the rhizons for pore water
154 collection. Depending on the amount of pore water collected, the samples were split for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$
155 and sulfate measurements. To the samples 10 μL of saturated HgCl_2 (aq) was added to stop
156 microbial activity, and stored in cold conditions (5°C). $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ was determined using a
157 ThermoScientific Gasbench II coupled to a ThermoScientific MAT 253 IRMS at the Stable Isotope
158 Laboratory (SIL) at CAGE, UiT. Anhydrous phosphoric acid was added to small glass vials
159 (volume 4.5 mL), that were closed and flushed with helium 5.0 gas before the pore water sub-
160 sample was measured. A pore-water sub-sample (volume 0.5 mL) was then added through the
161 septa with a syringe, followed by equilibration for 24 h at 24°C to liberate the CO_2 gas. Three solid
162 calcite standards with a range of +2 to -49 ‰ were used for normalization to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -VPDB.
163 Correction of measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ by -0.1 ‰, was done to account for fractionation between (g) and
164 (aq) in sample vials. Instrument precision for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ on a MAT253 IRMS was $1\sigma \pm 0.1$ ‰. Sulfate
165 was measured with a Metrohm ion chromatography instrument equipped with column Metrosep
166 A sup 4, and eluted with 1.8 mmol/L Na_2CO_3 + 1.7mmol/L NaHCO_3 at the University of Bergen.

167 2.3. Culturing of the marine methanotroph *M. sedimenti*

168 *Methyloprofundus sedimenti* PKF-14 had been previously isolated from a water-column sample
169 collected at Prins Karls Forland, Svalbard in the laboratory at UiT in Tromsø. *Methyloprofundus*
170 *sedimenti* were cultured in 10-ml batches of a 35:65 mix of 1/10 Nitrate Mineral Salt medium
171 (NMS) and sterile filtered sea water using 125-mL Wheaton® serum bottles with butyl septa and
172 aluminum crimp caps (Teknolab®). Methane was injected to give a headspace of 20% methane in
173 air, and the bottles were incubated without shaking at 15°C in darkness. Purity of the cultures and
174 cell integrity was verified by microscopy and by absence of growth on agar plates with a general
175 medium for heterotrophic bacteria (tryptone, yeast extract, glucose and agar).
176 Transmission Electron Microscopy was performed on culture aliquots to allow morphological
177 comparison to previously published work (Tavormina et al., 2015). *Methyloprofundus sedimenti*
178 strain PKF-14 cells have a gram-negative cell wall, coccoid to slightly elongated shape and



179 characteristic stacked intracytoplasmic membrane (ISM) and storage granules (SG) (Fig 2c).
180 Additionally, 16S rRNA gene sequencing was performed (data not shown) to confirm it to be
181 similar to the published *Methyloprofundus sedimenti* (Tavormina et al., 2015).

182 **2.4. Experimental setup**

183 On the ship, *Nonionellina labradorica* (Fig. 2) specimens showing a dark greenish brown
184 cytoplasm were picked using sable artist brushes under a stereomicroscope immediately after wet
185 sieving the sediment using natural seawater delivered from the ship pump. Living specimens had
186 a partly inorganic covering surrounding the test, which was gently removed using fine artist
187 brushes. Another Nonionellidae, *Nonionella iridea*, was similarly embedded with a cyst / covering
188 in sediment

189 Our specimens were subsequently rinsed twice in filtered artificial seawater to remove any
190 sediment before placing them into the experimental petri dishes. Care was taken that those were
191 minimally exposed to light during preparation of the experiment, as kleptoplasts are known to be
192 highly light sensitive in this foraminifer (Jaufrais et al., 2018).

193 The 20-h feeding experiment with *M. sedimenti* started after a short starvation phase where
194 organisms resided in petri dishes with ASW for 2-4 h and were not fed or manipulated during this
195 time. The feeding experiment consisted of several small petri dishes (3.5 cm Ø, 3 mL) each
196 containing five foraminifera in ASW at ambient salinity 35 (Red Sea Salt). Petri dishes were sealed
197 with Parafilm® and covered with aluminum foil and placed inside the incubator in complete
198 darkness. Temperature inside the chamber was maintained at 2-3°C, which is within the range of
199 the site's bottom-water temperature (-1.8 – 4.6°C) (Hong et al., 2017). The feeding of *M. sedimenti*
200 was performed once at the beginning of the experiment by adding 100 µL of culture to 3 mL of
201 artificial seawater to produce a final concentration of ~1E10⁶ bacteria / mL in the experiment.
202 Previously conducted feeding studies were used as guides: Muller and Lee (1969) used 1E10⁴
203 bacteria/mL seawater and Mojtahid et al. (2011) used 4E10⁸ bacteria/mL seawater.

204 Five foraminifera, which served as initial/field specimens (Table 1), were fixed without *M.*
205 *sedimenti* incubation. The respective petri dishes, were incubated for 4, 8 and 20 h to determine if
206 incubation duration influenced response of the foraminifera to the methanotroph. One petri dish
207 containing five foraminifera, which were un-fed and fixed at 20 h, served as a negative “control”.
208 After the end of the respective incubation times, each foraminifer was picked with a sterilized fine



209 artist brush, which was cleaned in 70% ethanol between each specimen, and placed individually
210 into a fixative solution (4% glutaraldehyde and 2% paraformaldehyde dissolved in ASW).

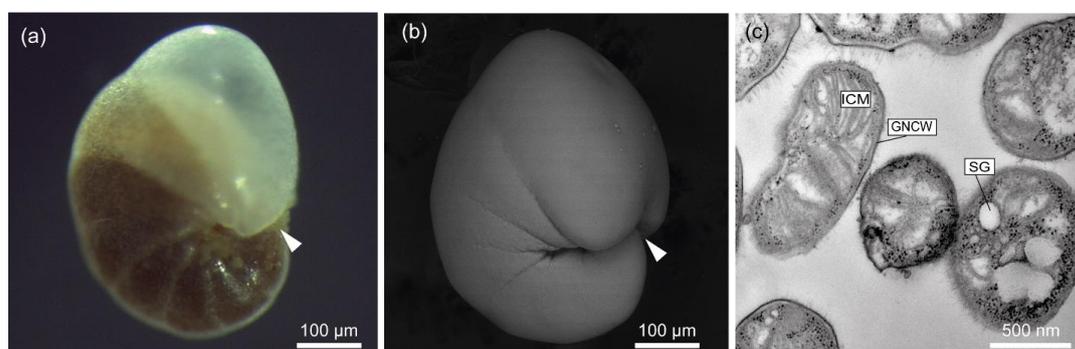


Figure 2 Exemplary illustration of *Nonionellina labradorica*, utilized in this study. (a) Reflected light microscopy image from a specimen directly after sampling, white arrowhead indicates aperture location (b) Scanning electron image from a specimen before molecular analysis was performed, white arrowhead indicates aperture location. (c) Transmission electron microscopy image of a culture of *Methyloprofundus sedimenti*, the marine methanotroph used in the feeding experiment. Characteristic features for methanotroph identification include typical type I ICM=intracytoplasmic membranes, SG=storage granules, and GNCW=gram-negative cell wall

211 2.5. Transmission Electron microscopy (TEM) preparation

212 Samples preserved in fixative solution were transported to the University of Angers, where they
213 were prepared for ultrastructural analysis using established protocols (Lekieffre et al., 2018).
214 Embedded foraminiferal cells were sectioned using an ultramicrotome (Leica® Ultracut S)
215 equipped with a diamond knife (Diatome®, ultra 45°). Grids were stained using UranylLess® EM
216 Stain (EMS, USA). Ultra-thin sections (70 nm) were observed with a JEOL JEM-1400 TEM at
217 the SCIAM facility, University of Angers.

218 To document the ultrastructure of *Methyloprofundus sedimenti*, a sub-sample of the culture used
219 for experiments was imaged with TEM (Fig. 2). To do so, an exponentially growing culture was
220 collected, centrifuged, pre-fixed with 2.5 % (w/v) glutaraldehyde in growth medium overnight,
221 washed in PBS (Phosphate Buffered Saline), then post fixed with 1% (w/v) aqueous osmium
222 tetroxide for 1.5 hours at room temperature. After dehydration in an ethanol series, the samples
223 were embedded in an Epon equivalent (Serva) epoxy resin. Ultra-thin sections were cut on a Leica
224 EM UC6 ultramicrotome, and stained with 3 % (w/v) aqueous uranyl acetate followed by staining
225 with lead citrate (Reynolds, 1963) at 20 °C for 4–5 min. The samples were examined with a JEOL



226 JEM-1010 transmission electron microscope at an accelerating voltage of 80 kV with a Morada
227 camera system at the Advanced Microscopy Core Facility (AMCF), Faculty of Health Science,
228 UiT The Arctic University of Norway.

229 **2.6. Foraminifera ultrastructural observation and image processing**

230 Four specimens per experimental time point (4-20 h) plus one un-fed (control) specimen were
231 examined. From each specimen, a minimum of 50 TEM images was taken, including images
232 detailing the degradation vacuoles (5-27 images of degradation vacuoles per specimen). The
233 ultrastructure was examined at different parts of the images focusing (a) in the cell interior to
234 document vitality, (b) on degradation vacuoles to determine their content, and (c) at the exterior to
235 survey for microbes entrained in remnant “reticulopodial trunk” material, which can be extended
236 outside foraminiferal tests during feeding and locomotion (Anderson and Lee, 1991). Images are
237 deposited at PANGAEA with DOI number XXX. To obtain an overview of the entire specimen
238 and localize putative methanotrophs at the test (shell) aperture, images were compiled
239 automatically using the stitching-feature in Adobe Photoshop CS2.

240 **2.7. Molecular genetics and morphology**

241 DNA metabarcoding and morphological documentation were performed on 13 specimens of *N.*
242 *labradorica*. Briefly, live specimens were dried on micropaleontological slides and transported in
243 a small container, cooled with ice-pads to the University of Angers. All specimens were imaged
244 for morphological analysis using a Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM; EVOLVS10, ZEISS, Fig.
245 S1) followed by individually extracting total DNA in DOC buffer (Pawlowski, 2000). To amplify
246 foraminiferal DNA, a hot start PCR (2 min. at 95°C) was performed in a volume of 25µl with 40
247 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at 50°C and 2 min at 72°C, followed by 10 min at 72°C for final
248 extension. Primers s14F3 and sB were used for the first PCR and 30 cycles at an annealing
249 temperature of 52°C (other parameters unchanged) for the nested PCR with primers s14F1 and J2
250 (Pawlowski, 2000; Darling et al., 2016). Positive amplifications were sequenced directly with the
251 Sanger method at Eurofins Genomics (Cologne, Germany). For taxonomic identification, DNA
252 sequences were compared first with BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) (Altschul et al.,
253 1997) and then within an alignment comprising other Nonionids implemented in SeaView (Gouy
254 et al., 2010) and corrected manually.



255 **3. Results**

256 **3.1. Sample description and geochemistry**

257 The visual observation of the sediments within the blade corer BLC18 immediately after sampling
258 (Fig. 1) indicated that the sediment appears light grey – yellowish in the upper part until app. 13
259 cm and dark brown from app. 13 cm to the bottom. At approximately 13 cm the sulfate measured
260 in the pore water of the geochemistry core (PUC2) declined from ~2750 ppm at the sediment-
261 water interface to ~706 ppm. A decline in sulfate concentration indicates that the anaerobic
262 oxidation of methane (AOM) occurred at app. 13 cm depth. The SMTZ (Sulfate Methane
263 Transition Zone) characterized by a reduced $\delta^{13}\text{C-DIC}$ -32‰ at app. 13 cm sediment depth can be
264 considered shallow on the global average (Egger et al., 2018).

265

266 **3.2. Ultrastructure of methanotroph culture used in the feeding experiment**

267 *Metyloprofundus sedimenti* is characterized by a typical type I intracellular stacked membrane
268 (ISM), storage granules (SG) and typical gram-negative cell wall (GNCW) (Fig. 2). These features
269 were used to identify *M. sedimenti*.

270

271 **3.3. Foraminiferal ultrastructure from an Arctic seep environment**

272 **3.3.1 General ultrastructure**

273 All 17 specimens were considered living at the time of observation (Fig. 3), as the mitochondria
274 had characteristic double membranes and occasionally visible cristae (Nomaki et al., 2016).
275 Cytoplasm exhibited several vacuoles and kleptoplasts concentrated in the youngest chambers
276 (Fig. 3a) and, in some specimens, the nucleus with nucleoli was visible (Fig. 3b). Kleptoplasts
277 were numerous throughout the cytoplasm and occurred in the form of a single chloroplast (Fig.
278 3a-b), or as double chloroplasts (Fig. S2). Not all kleptoplasts were intact, some showed peripheral
279 degradation of the membranes indicated by an increasing number of white areas between pyrenoid,
280 lamella and thylakoids (Fig. S2). Peroxisomes in *N. labradorica* occurred mostly as pairs (Fig. 3c)
281 or small clusters of 3-4 spherical organelles (Fig. S1a-b). The mitochondria occurred often in small
282 clusters of two to five throughout the cytoplasm and were oval, round or kidney-shaped in cross
283 section (Fig. 3e-f). Sometimes, but not always, peroxisomes were associated with endoplasmic
284 reticulum (Fig. S1c) but could also occur alone. Golgi apparatus (Fig 3d) had intact membranes,
285 often occurring near mitochondria.



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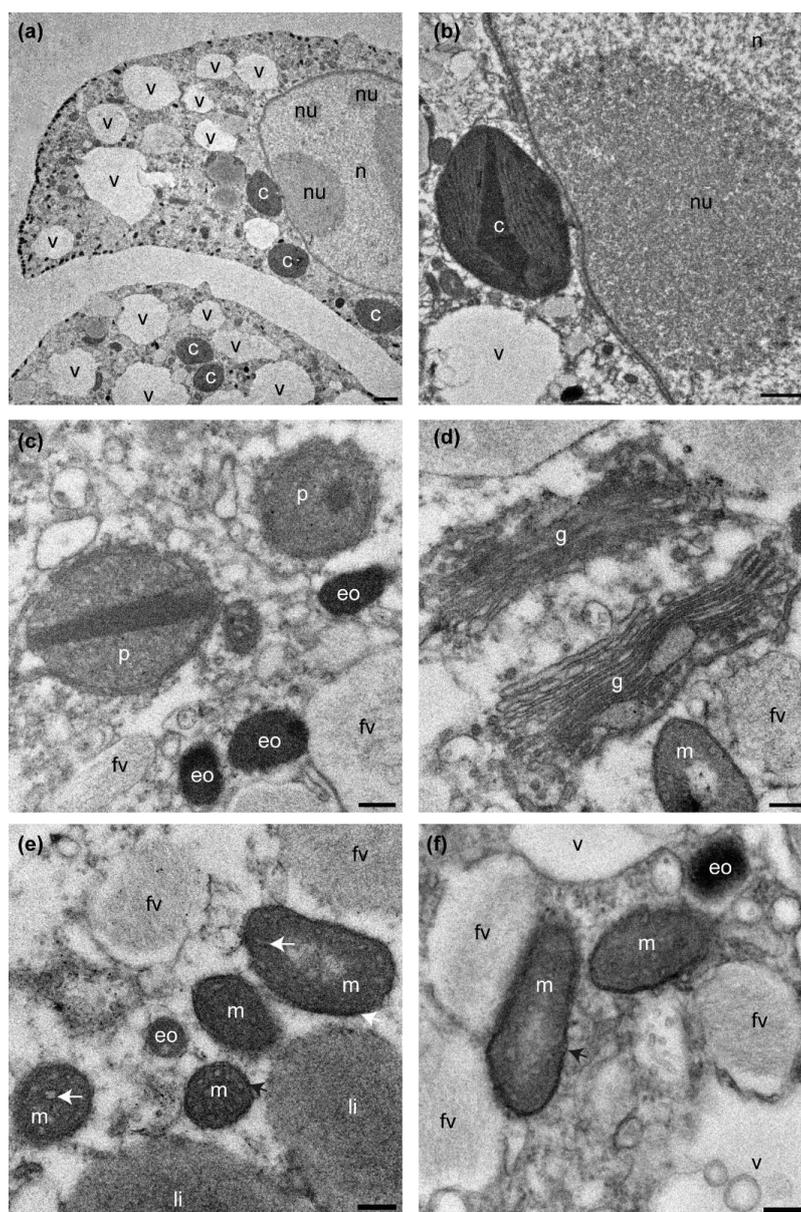


Figure 3 Transmission electron micrographs showing cellular ultrastructure of *N. labradorica*. (a) Cytoplasm showing parts of two chambers, with nucleus with nucleoli, vacuoles and several kleptoplasts, (b) nuclear envelope, nucleoli, and kleptoplasts, (c) peroxisomes and electron opaque bodies, (d) Golgi, (e-f) mitochondria. v=vacuole, c=kleptoplast, nu=nucleoli, n=nucleus p=peroxisome, eo=electron opaque body, m=mitochondrion, fv=fibrillar vesicle, li=lipid droplet. Scales: (a) 2 µm, (b) 1 µm, (c-f) 200 nm



287 **3.3.2 Ultrastructure of aperture-associated bacteria**

288

289 In total three putative methanotrophs were identified in the vicinity of two foraminifer specimens
290 (sample E39, Fig. 4; E37, Fig. 5). Those were identified next to reticulopodial remains in the cross-
291 section (Fig. 4b). As an aid for identification of *M. sedimenti* we used the characteristics shown in
292 the literature (Tavormina et al. 2015) and a our own TEM observation obtained from *M. sedimenti*
293 culture (Fig. 2c). As noted, *Methyloprofundus sedimenti* is characterized by a typical type I
294 intracellular stacked membrane (ISM), storage granules (SG) and typical gram-negative cell wall
295 (GNCW) (Fig. 2). On specimen E39 from the 20 h treatment, we found the methanotroph
296 exhibiting the clearest internal structure, having both typical type I stacked intracytoplasmic
297 membranes (ICM+SG) and a second putative methanotroph showing SG+GNCW (Fig. 4).
298 Specimen E36, from the 20 h treatment, hosted another putative methanotroph showing three large
299 SG (Fig. 5). Storage granules occur throught this putative methanotroph (Fig. 5c).

300

301



302

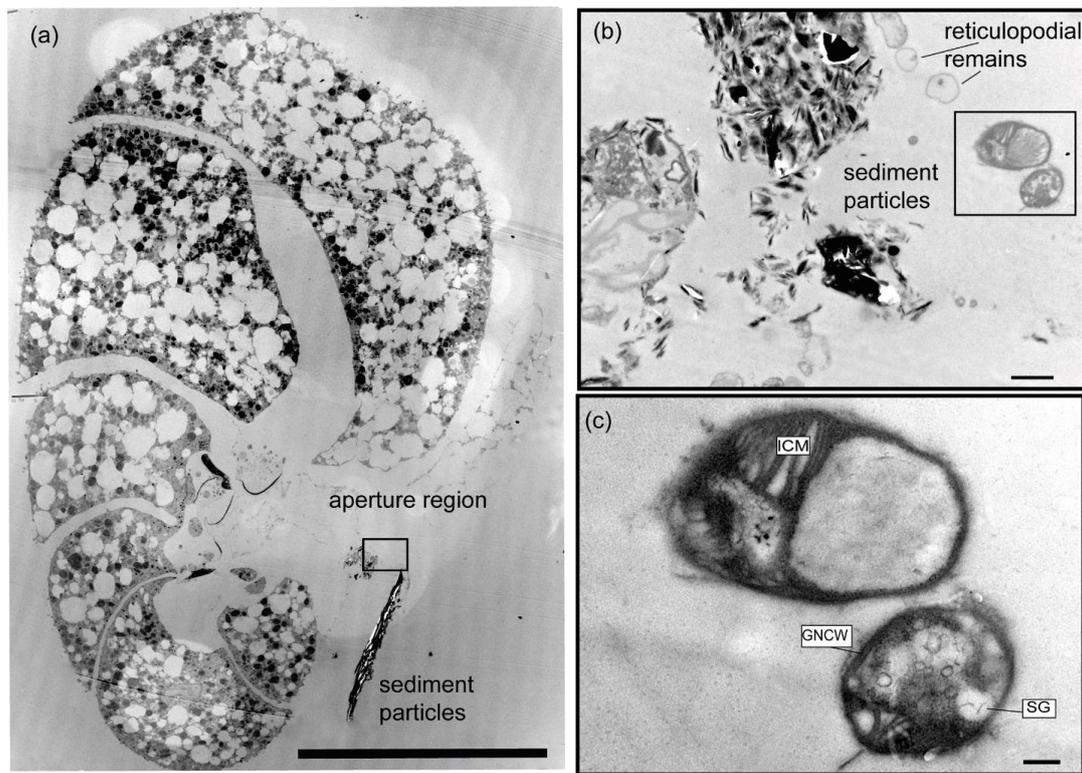
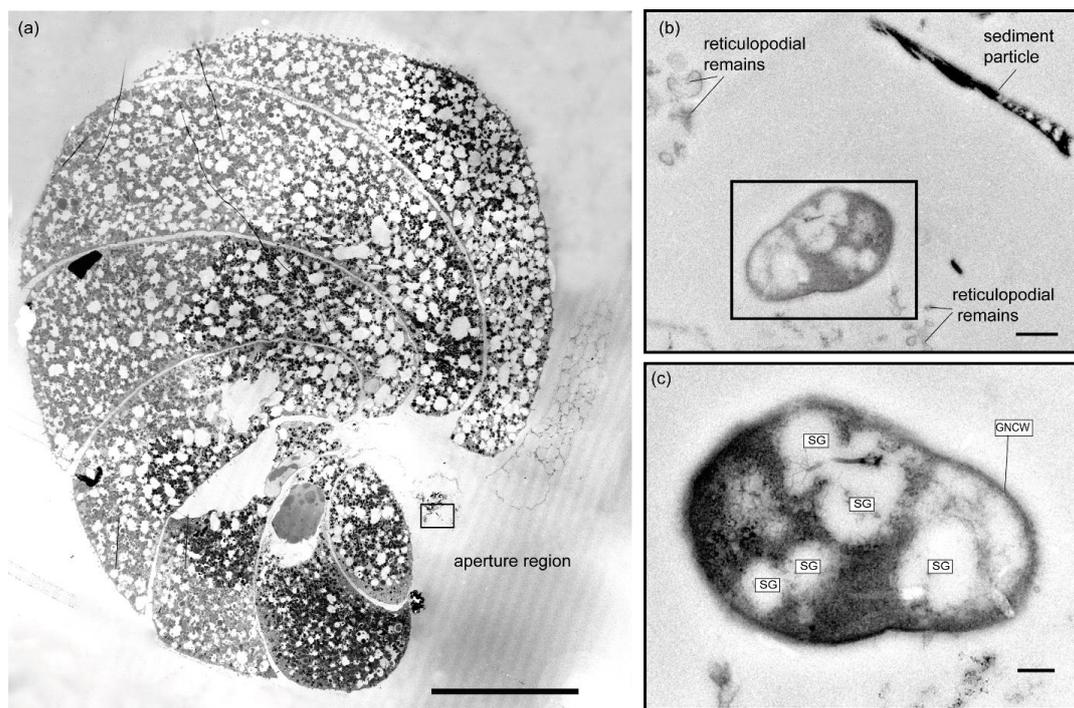


Figure 4 Transmission electron micrographs of *N. labradorica* from 20 h treatment (sample E39) (a) Stitched cross section of TEM images showing location of methanotroph at the aperture region (black rectangle) (b) Location of two putative methanotrophs next to sediment particles and putative reticulopodial remains. (c) Close up of two putative methanotrophs revealing detailed feature for identification, such as stacked membranes (ISM), storage granules (SG), and gram-negative cell wall (GNCW), scale bars: a: 100 μ m, b: 1 μ m, c: 200 nm.



303

Figure 5 Transmission electron micrographs of *N. labradorica* from 20 h treatment (sample E37) (a) Stitched cross section of TEM images showing location of putative methanotroph (black rectangle) at the aperture region. (b) Location of the putative methanotroph next to sediment particles and sections of the putative reticulopodial remains (c) Close up of putative methanotroph showing several SG throughout its cell, scale bars: a: 100 μm , b: 0.5 μm , c: 200 nm.

304

305 3.3.3 Contents degradation vacuoles

306 Digestive vacuoles and food vacuoles are often summarized as degradation vacuoles in the
307 literature (Lekieffre et al., 2018) and this makes sense for our study as well. A degradation vacuole
308 is a vacuole where enzymatic activities degrade contents, often making them unidentifiable (Bé et
309 al., 1982; Hemleben et al., 2012). Sediment particles were present in many degradation vacuoles.
310 The sediment grains are easy to recognize in the TEM image as angular grains spiking out of the
311 vacuoles, next to organic debris, which can have many different shapes. Each specimen had at
312 least one degradation vacuole with sediment particles present (Table 1). If a sediment particle was
313 visible, the vacuole was defined as a degradation vacuole (dv), and if it was not then it was defined
314 as a standard vacuole (v) (Fig. 6). Sediment particles are likely the remains of clay grains from the
315 seafloor, and hence show that the vacuole must contain cell foreign objects, around which
316 degradation processes have started. Next to sediment particles, 4 out of 17 specimens examined
317 (23%) had a few bacteria of various sizes inside their degradation vacuoles (Fig 6 b-c).



318

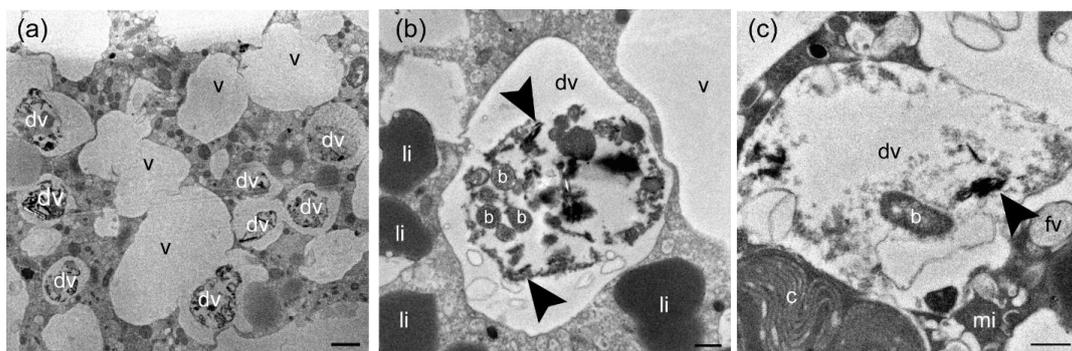


Figure 6 TEM micrographs of *N. labradorica*. (a) Overview of degradation vacuoles (dv) in relation to empty vacuoles (v) in the youngest chambers of specimen E5 (field). (b) Bacteria in degradation vacuoles (white b) next to clay particles (black arrow) in specimen E14 (8 h incubation). (c) Elongated bacterium inside degradation vacuole adjacent to clay particles of specimen E37 (20 h incubation), scale bars: a: 2 μm , b,c: 0.5 μm .

319 **3.4. Foraminiferal genetics**

320 Six of 13 specimens analyzed for genetics were positively amplified and sequenced (Fig. S3). The
321 sequences are deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers MN514777 to MN514782.
322 When comparing them via BLAST, they were between 98.6% and 99.6% identical to published
323 sequences belonging to foraminifera identified as the morphospecies *N. labradorica*, from the
324 Skagerrak, Svalbard and the White Sea (Holzmann and Pawlowski, 2017; Jauffrais et al., 2018).
325 Sequences were also included in an alignment comprising other nonionids implemented in
326 Seaview (not shown) and corrected manually to check the BLAST search. This step confirmed the
327 BLAST identification.

328
329
330
331



332 **4. Discussion**

333 4.1. Sampling site and geochemistry

334 The sampling site of blade corer BLC18 was in close proximity (~50 m) to an active methane-vent
335 releasing methane bubbles at the gas hydrate Pingo (GHP3) (Serov et al., 2017). At such sites with
336 high methane flux, the SMTZ (sulfate methane transition zone) is shallow, as sulfate from the
337 sediment is readily consumed in the first tens of (Barnes and Goldberg, 1976; Iversen and
338 Jørgensen, 1993) by sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) (reviewed in Carrier et al., 2020).
339 Geochemical analysis of PUC2, revealed an SMTZ at app. 13 cm. The depth of 13 cm is rather
340 shallow (Egger et al., 2018), as it can also be several meters deep in other sites (reviewed in Panieri
341 et al., 2017). Geochemical characteristics can be considered similar at the sampling location of
342 living specimens (BLC18) and the core taken for geochemistry (PUC2).

343

344 4.2. Association with putative methanotrophs

345 The association with the three putative methanotrophs could be identified on two foraminifera
346 specimens based on comparing internal bacterial characteristics to published literature (Tavormina
347 et al., 2015). Transmission electron microscopy is a powerful tool to reveal ultrastructural features
348 outside of the foraminiferal cytoplasm. The documentation of this association with putative
349 methanotrophs likely originating from the food given in the experiment, is evidence that
350 methanotrophs can indeed be a food source to *N. labradorica*. The feeding strategy is likely that
351 methanotrophs are ingested via untargeted grazing in seeps, as *N. labradorica* appears to be a non-
352 selective feeder.

353 After conducting this study and comparing to the result of observations on *Melonis barleeanus*
354 (Bernhard and Panieri, 2018) an association of foraminifera and methanotrophs has been clearly
355 demonstrated. Whether foraminifera feed methanotrophs and under which environmental
356 conditions remains speculative. It has been shown that large scale biofilms of methanotrophs can
357 occur in sediment pockets close to the Sulfate Methane Transition Zone (SMTZ)(Gründger et al.,
358 2019). This is also the location where Anaerobic Oxidation of Methane (AOM) occurs (Boetius et
359 al., 2000). The SMTZ is characterized by sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB), and a consortium of
360 ANME that are driving the AOM (Boetius et al., 2000; Wegener et al., 2015). However, this is not
361 the main habitat for living foraminifera, as the SMTZ can be several meters deep and alters
362 foraminiferal tests with secondary overgrowths of methane-derived authigenic carbonates



363 (MDAC) (reviewed in Panieri et al., 2017). It has also been suggested that foraminifera may
364 sometimes be transported into seeps and can also occur at the SMTZ, but they likely not live in
365 those sediment layers permanently (Bernhard and Bowser, 1999). Foraminifera in general have
366 several metabolic strategies to cope with anoxic environments (Gomaa et al., 2021) of which many
367 remain to be understudied.

368

369 4.3. Feeding on other bacteria and contents of degradation vacuoles

370 Our results of the feeding experiment and experimental specimens show that only 23% of the
371 examined *N. labradorica* specimens contained bacteria inside their degradation vacuoles. That is
372 not a large quantity compared to sediment particles which occurred in 100% of the examined
373 degradation vacuoles. We infer that *N. labradorica* at this site is a deposit feeder, feeding on
374 organic detritus and associated bacteria. The bacteria observed in the degradation vacuoles
375 resembled those from other deep-sea foraminifera (*Globobulimina pacifica* and *Uvigerina*
376 *peregrina*) and the shallow-dwelling genus *Ammonia* (Goldstein and Corliss, 1994). Salt-marsh
377 foraminifera also feed on bacteria and detritus, as observed in TEM studies (Frail-Gauthier et al.,
378 2019). Scavenging on bacteria has also been observed by other foraminifera from intertidal
379 environments such as *Ammonia tepida* or *Haynesina germanica* (Pascal et al., 2008) and is a
380 logical consequence from detritus feeding. Certain foraminifera have been shown to selectively
381 ingest algae/bacteria according to strain (Lee et al., 1966; Lee and Muller, 1973). From laboratory
382 cultures we know that several foraminifera cultures require bacteria to reproduce, as antibiotics
383 inhibited reproduction (Muller and Lee, 1969). Future studies will need to employ additionally
384 molecular tools to additionally determine the food contents inside the cytoplasm (e.g. (Salonen et
385 al., 2019). A recent study by used metabarcoding to assess the contribution of bacterial OTUs
386 associated with intertidal foraminifera, and revealed that *Ammonia* sp. T6 can predate on metazoan
387 taxa, whereas *Elphidium* sp. S5 and *Haynesina* sp. S16 are more likely to ingest diatoms
388 (Chronopoulou et al., 2019).

389

390 4.4. General ultrastructure of *N. labradorica* collected in a seep environment

391 Our observations also included the major organelles of the species, as this was essential to conclude
392 vitality after the experiment (Nomaki et al., 2016). Mitochondria were generally homogeneously
393 distributed throughout the cytoplasm confirming previous observations of six *N. labradorica* from



394 the Gullmar Fjord (Jauffrais et al., 2018; Lekieffre et al., 2018). If mitochondria are concentrated
395 predominately under pore plugs, it can be an indicator that the electron acceptor oxygen is scarce
396 in their environment, as the pores are the direct connection from the cell to the environment. This
397 has been observed in several other studies where mitochondria were accumulated under pores in
398 *N. stella* (Leutenegger and Hansen, 1979) and *Bolivina pacifica* (Bernhard et al., 2010).
399 For the samples from our particular site, we also observed kleptoplasts abundantly and evenly
400 distributed throughout the cytoplasm, confirming previous TEM studies on the species from fjord
401 sediments (Cedhagen, 1991; Jauffrais et al., 2018). Occasionally, kleptoplasts were degraded,
402 which could happen a) during sampling, b) due to exposure to microscope lights or c) due to the
403 age and condition of kleptoplasts inside host. Kleptoplasts in *N. labradorica* have been studied in
404 detail describing their diatom origin, sensitivity to light and missing photosynthetic functionality
405 (e.g. (Cedhagen, 1991; Jauffrais et al., 2018). It has been suggested that kleptoplasts could function
406 as a seasonal energy reservoir (e.g. in winter) (Jauffrais et al., 2016).

407 5. Conclusions

408 Based on the content of degradation vacuoles observed, we conclude that *N. labradorica* is a
409 deposit feeder, as it ingests sediment particles together with bacteria as part of consuming detritus
410 on the sea floor. At the aperture region of two different foraminifera specimens, next to
411 reticulopodial remains and sediment particles, we observed three putative marine methanotrophs
412 after 20 h incubation. One of the putative methanotrophs had characteristic ISM, which resemble
413 the methanotroph *M. sedimenti* in culture. We conclude that it is possible that *N. labradorica*
414 ingests *M. sedimenti* via “untargeted grazing” in seeps. Further studies are needed on feeding
415 strategies of several paleo-oceanographically relevant foraminifera to detangle the relationship
416 between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measured in foraminiferal calcite, cytoplasm and contribution to their diet.

417

418 6. Data availability

419 Data in form of TEM images will be deposited at PANGAEA under doi:

420 Molecular data will be deposited before publication at Genbank.

421

422 7. Sample availability

423 Samples are available upon request and TEM thinsections archived at the University of Angers.



424 **8. Acknowledgments**

425 We thank the captains, crew members and scientists onboard R/V *Kronprins Haakon* and ROV
426 *Ægir* Team for their assistance; Anne-Grethe Hestnes for growing the methanotroph culture.
427 Florence Manero, Romain Mallet and Rodolphe Perrot at the SCIAM microscopy facility
428 University of Angers are to thank for their expertise with the TEM and SEM. We thank Sunil
429 Vadakkepuliymbatta for helping to prepare the map presented in Figure 1; Sophie Quinchard
430 (LPG-BIAF) for supporting the molecular analysis. Funding was received through the Research
431 Council of Norway, CAGE (Center for Excellence in Arctic Gas Hydrate Environment and
432 Climate, project number 223259) and NORCRUST (project number 255150) to GP, EG, and CS.
433 CS position was funded through the MOPGA (Make Our Planet Great Again) fellowship by
434 CAMPUS France, the NORCRUST project and the University of Angers. JMB was partially
435 supported by US NSF 1634469, WHOI's Investment in Science Program, and by the Région Pays
436 de la Loire through the FRESCO Project.

437 **Author Contributions**

438 Designed the project and experiment: GP, EG, CS; Collected samples: CS, EG; Performed
439 experiment: CS; Sample preparation: CS, HR; TEM observations and interpretations: CS, JMB,
440 EG, CL; Conducted molecular genetics: MSc; Wrote the paper: CS, GP, JMB; Provided critical
441 review and edits to the manuscript: EG, CL, MSv, MSc, HR; Contributed
442 reagents/materials/analysis tools: MSv, MSc, CL.
443



444 **Table I.** Summary of TEM observations of *Nonionellina labradorica* comparing field specimens
 445 and experimental specimens. Field specimens (initials) were not fed, nor was a non-fed control
 446 preserved after a 20 h incubation. The only putative methanotrophs were observed and imaged in
 447 specimens from the 20 h incubation. Bacteria of unknown origin were described as rod shaped
 448 cells in the degradation vacuoles.
 449

Duration of experiment (h)/field samples	Food provided (yes (x)/no)	Sample ID	Cytoplasm: Degradation vacuole Contents		Aperture region: (putative) Methanotrophs
			bacteria	Clay/in-organics	
Field samples (Initials)	No	E1	no	x	no
	No	E3	no	x	no
	No	E5	no	x	no
	No	E6	no	x	no
4	x	E25	no	x	no
	x	E27	x	x	no
	x	E28	no	x	no
	x	E29	no	x	no
	x	E14	x	x	no
8	x	E15	no	x	no
	x	E16	no	x	no
	x	E17	no	x	no
	x	E36	x	x	1 x
20	x	E37	x	x	no
	x	E38	no	x	no
	x	E39	no	x	2 x
Control (20)	no	E44	no	x	no

450

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