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 sediments of a diatom-dominated intertidal mudflat (Marennes-Oléron,
 France).

4 Guillaume Pierre ^{1,2*}, Jean-Michel Zhao ², Francis Orvain ³, Christine Dupuy ²,
5 Marianne Graber ², Thierry Maugard ²

- 6 (1) Clermont Université, Université Blaise Pascal, Institut Pascal, UMR 6602 CNRS Polytech Clermont7 Ferrand, 24 avenue des Landais, BP206, F-63174 Aubière cedex, France
- 8 (2) UMR 7266 CNRS ULR LIENSs. Université de La Rochelle, UFR Sciences, Bâtiment Marie Curie,
 9 avenue Michel Crépeau, 17042 La Rochelle, France.
- 10 (3) Université de Caen Basse-Normandie, CNRS FRE 3484 BioMEA, esplanade de la Paix, 14032 Caen,
 11 France.

12 * Tel: +33 (0) 4 73 40 74 22 Fax: +33 (0) 4 73 40 78 29 E-mail: guillaume.pierre@univ-bpclermont.fr

13 Abstract

Numerous field-based investigations have highlighted that the production of Extracellular 14 Polymeric Substances (EPS) is physico-chemically and ecologically essential for intertidal 15 mudflats. EPS are largely secreted by marine benthic diatoms and their quantity and quality 16 are environmental-dependant. This paper focused on the dynamic pathways, concentration 17 rates and monosaccharides composition of colloidal, bound and residual carbohydrates 18 19 extracted by using a cationic exchange resin from a diatom-dominated intertidal mudflat (Marennes-Oléron, France) during two different sampling periods: winter (February 2008) 20 and summer (July 2008). A wide range of biotic and abiotic parameters were also studied to 21 22 better understand the effect of environmental parameters, e.g. chlorophyll a, salinity, pore water, emersion time, luminosity, C:N ratio or tidal coefficient. Multiple colorimetric assays 23 coupled to gas chromatographic analyses were carried out to perform the biochemical 24

characterizations. Firstly, the quantity of carbohydrates produced during winter was more 25 important than during summer. Yet, more proteins were found during summer especially for 26 the colloidal and bound fractions. Further investigations showed that the dynamic pathways 27 were equivalent between winter and summer: bound carbohydrates (BC) quantities increased 28 during the sediment emersion periods on the contrary to colloidal carbohydrates (CC) which 29 tended to drop throughout the emersion time. The quality in monosaccharides was fraction-30 dependant, whatever the season. CC were always glucose-rich confirming their role of carbon 31 source. BC were mainly composed of rhamnose whose the ratio increased during the 32 emersion period, thus conferring adhesive properties to the extracellular matrix bounding 33 diatoms cells. Residual carbohydrates (RC) were composed of various monosaccharides and a 34 major increase of glucose content was found at the end of emersion, corresponding to 35 intracellular C-storage in prevention to immersion times. Summer-RC were composed of 36 37 fucose, a monosaccharide specific to these fractions and which was non-present during the winter campaign. Environmental parameters, as salinity, pore water, tidal coefficient could 38 have a significant impact on the concentration rates and pathways of carbohydrates. 39

Key words: Extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), carbohydrates, diatoms, seasonal
impacts, mudflat

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43 **1. Introduction**

Intertidal mudflats are extremely productive areas and may provide up to 50 % of the primary
and secondary production of estuaries (Underwood and Kromkamp, 1999), especially due to
the formation of diatom-dominated biofilms at their surface (Falciatore and Bowler, 2002).
Subject to periodic tidal exposure, the physical and chemical properties of these biofilms
change (Christie et al., 2000; de Brouwer and Stal, 2001). Thus, some authors noted that

variations in sediment dynamics and compositions could result from seasonal fluctuations 49 (Frostick and McCave, 1979), and particularly Extracellular Polymeric Substances (EPS) 50 composing benthic biofilms. Benthic biofilms are composed of water, microalgae, 51 prokarvotes (bacteria, archeae), other eukarvotic microbes, virus and inorganic particles 52 entangled in an EPS matrix (Yallop et al., 1994). This EPS matrix is rich in a wide variety of 53 polysaccharides, proteins, glycoproteins, lipids and nucleic acids (Wingender et al. 1999). 54 Besides, marine diatoms are known to produce various kinds of EPS depending on the 55 environmental conditions and the tidal periods (Underwood et al., 2004). On one hand, 56 colloidal EPS are excreted in the microenvironment of the benthic biofilms (Underwood et al., 57 1995) and are used by different microorganisms, e. g. the glucose-rich exudates consumed by 58 heterotrophic bacteria (van Duyl et al., 1999; Hofmann et al. 2009). On the other hand, bound 59 EPS are secreted as mucilaginous slime coating the cells (Underwood and Paterson, 2003). 60 61 These EPS play key roles in microbial and physico-chemical defense (Decho, 1990), in the motility of epipelic diatoms (Stal and Défarge, 2005), in cells/cells or cells/substratum 62 63 adhesion (Wimpenny et al. 2000) and sediment biostabilisation (Spears et al., 2008). Several studies have reported large variability of EPS composition, abundance and properties, thus 64 highlighting the scientific challenge to extract and analyze consistently EPS by biochemical 65 methods (Azerado et al., 2003; de Brouwer and Stal, 2004). In this way, Underwood and 66 Paterson (2003) have pointed the importance of the biochemical methodology to accurately 67 reflect the biological utility or relevance of EPS in benthic biofilms. Recently, an alternative 68 method for *in situ* EPS extraction and determination (Takahashi et al., 2009), applied during 69 70 two field studies (Pierre et al., 2010; Pierre et al., 2012), has shown the possibility to separate three major classes of EPS through the use of a cationic exchange resin (Fig. 1). Moreover, 71 72 the use of diluted polar solvents in these works allowed the size separation of EPS: shortchain to long-chain oligosaccharides, *i.e.* low molecular weight (LMW) compounds and high 73

molecular weight (HMW) compounds (Decho, 2000; Bellinger et al., 2005). Such
characterization of EPS is a necessary step to determine and understand their roles in benthic
biofilms, especially if we focus on the influence of biotic and abiotic parameters.

The goal of this study was to investigate the temporal distribution and compositional changes 77 of EPS, in relation to seasonal dynamics. A challenging aim was also to compile numerous 78 79 data obtained on the same field to clearly show the impact of seasons on the EPS composition of a microphytobenthic biofilm and, a fortiori, on the trophic involvement of intertidal 80 mudflats. The EPS samples were collected from a diatom-dominated biofilm (Marennes-81 Oléron Bay, France) during different ecological periods in the chemistry and biology of tidal 82 flats, *i.e.* in February 2008 (winter) and July 2008 (summer), when the microphytobenthic 83 biofilm development and its EPS composition are supposed to be drastically dissimilar. 84

85 2. Material and methods

86 2.1. Field sampling

87 The sediment samples were collected from Marennes-Oléron Bay (Atlantic Coast of France), during only one week in February 2008 (winter) due to strong field constraints and two weeks 88 in July 2008 (summer) at low tide (Fig. 2). The field sampling was organized as a chessboard 89 where square sampling units (2m-side) separated by alleys (2 m in width) were defined. Every 90 day, three squares were randomly considered for spatial heterogeneity. Sediment samples 91 from each square were collected by using core diameter of 20 cm. Three cores of each 92 selected square were sampled every hour during the tidal periods. For each core, the top 1cm 93 was collected three times and pooled. After each sampling, sediment pools were brought back 94 from the field for an immediate EPS extraction on fresh sediments. Biochemical analyses 95 were then performed in triplicate on the colloidal, bound and residual fractions (864 96 fractions). 97

98 2.2. Biotic and abiotic measurements

The chlolophyll a concentration in the sediment was measured using fluorometry method 99 (Lorenzen, 1966). Light was measured using a Li-Cor sensor which was recorded every 100 minute during sampling days. Salinity, pore water, C:N ratio were also followed. Enumeration 101 performed by microscopy, after 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole 102 of bacteria was dihydrochloride (DAPI) labeling (x 1000, Axioskop, Zeiss) using the method of Porter and 103 Feig (1980). All missing data were due to experiment constraints. 104

105 *2.3. Material*

106 Solvents, cationic resin (Dowex Marathon C), assay kits, protein (Bovine Serum Albumin, 107 BSA) and carbohydrate standards (dextran, dextran sulftate, glucose, galactose, rhamnose, 108 fucose, fructose, xylose, arabinose, ribose, mannose, *myo*-inositol, glucuronic and 109 galacturonic acids) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. The DB-1701 J and W Scientific 110 column (30 m, 0.32 mm, 1 μ m) for Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry analysis 111 (GC/MS) was obtained from Agilent.

112 2.4. EPS extraction and fractionation

The extraction method (Takahashi et al., 2009) was done immediately after sampling and 113 sediment mixing on the field. 20 mL of fresh mudflat was continuously mixed with 20 mL of 114 Artificial Sea Water (ASW 30 Practical Salinity Units) during 1 h in darkness at 4 °C and 115 then centrifuged at 3500 g and 4 °C for 10 min. The supernatant containing colloidal EPS was 116 collected and stored at 4 °C. 20 mL of ASW and 1 g of activated Dowex Marathon C, 117 previously prepared in Phosphate Buffer Saline for 1 h in the dark, was added to the sediment 118 pellet. The samples were mixed gently at 4 °C for 1 h in the dark and then centrifuged at 3500 119 g and 4 °C for 10 min. A supernatant containing the bound EPS and a cap containing 120 intracellular and residual polymers were obtained. The cap was then frozen. The residual 121

polymers were extracted from the frozen sediment samples by sonication at 100 W for 3 min on ice after resuspension in 20 mL in ASW. For each fraction (colloidal, bound and residual polymers), absolute ethanol at -20 °C was added to the sample to obtain a final ethanol concentration of 75 % (v/v). The solution was gently mixed and stored overnight at -20 °C. The solution was then centrifuged at 3500 g and 4 °C for 15 min to obtain a supernatant (LMW fraction) and a precipitate pellet (HMW fraction). Finally, the fractions were dried under air flow and stored at -20 °C.

129 2.5. Carbohydrate, uronic acid and protein analysis

Total sugar content was determined by the phenol-sulfuric acid assay, using glucose as a 130 standard (Dubois et al., 1956). Total sugar amounts for the fractions were measured and 131 normalized to chlorophyll a (chl a), thus allowing the overestimation of diatom EPS, 132 comparing to other EPS sources (Underwood and Paterson, 2003). Uronic acid content was 133 determined using the meta-hydroxydiphenyl method (MHDP), with galacturonic and 134 glucuronic as standards (Blumenkrantz and Asboe-Hansen, 1973; Filisetti-Cozzi and Carpita, 135 1991). Protein content was determined by the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) method, using bovine 136 serum albumin (BSA) as a standard (Smith et al., 1985). 137

138 2.6. Gas Chromatography coupled to Mass Spectrometry (GC/MS) to characterize the
139 carbohydrate of EPS fractions

EPS fractions were solubilized in 5 mL of ultrapure water, dialyzed (6-8 KDa) and freezedried. EPS were then dissolved in 2 M HCl at 50 mg/mL and heated at 90 °C for 4 h. The preparation was then freeze-dried and stored at -20 °C. Analyses were carried out by GC/MS using a Varian CP-3800 GC/Varian Saturn 2000. 400 μ L of pyridine and 400 μ L of BSTFA: TMCS (99: 1) was added to 2 mg of purified monosaccharides. The solution was mixed for 2 h at room temperature, then injected into a DB-1701 J&W Scientific column (30 m, 0.32 mm, 146 1 μ m) at a flow of 1 mL/min. The helium pressure was 8.8 psi. The temperature of the 147 injector was set at 250 °C. The rise in temperature in the oven was programmed for a first step 148 at 150 °C for 0 min, then an increment of 10 °C/min up to 200 °C with a final step at 200 °C 149 for 35 min. The ionization was performed by Electronic Impact (EI, 70 eV), the trap 150 temperature was set at 150 °C and the target ion was fixed at 40-650 m/z.

151 2.7. Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were run using the statistical software XLStat (Addinsoft). One-way 152 ANOVA was used to analyze changes in carbohydrate and uronic acid amounts among abiotic 153 154 parameters for each day (sampling location and emersion time). Data transformations (root) were performed to check application conditions (normality) each time it was required. Post 155 hoc procedures (Tukey test) were performed to analyze pairwise differences. t and Z-tests 156 157 were conducted to determine significant differences between values of variables at the beginning and at the end of the emerged period. Pearson correlation tests were done with the 158 complete data set to investigate the relationships between the different EPS fractions with 159 biotic (bacterial abundance, Chl a) and abiotic (luminosity, salinity) parameters. Principal 160 component analyses were used to highlight and group fractions with closed monosaccharides 161 distributions. 162

163 2.8. Abbreviations and nomenclature

In accordance with the literature (Underwood et al., 2010), the term "carbohydrates" refers to the total sugars (neutral and acidic sugars) determined by Dubois assays and GC/MS. The term "uronic acids" corresponds only to the uronic assays clearly measured by the BCA method or GC/MS analyses. Concerning the abbreviations, W and S correspond to winter and summer, the two sampling periods. LMW and HMW refer to the size of the carbohydrates: low molecular weight and high molecular weight. CC, BC and RC refer to the carbohydrates extracted from the three main fractions: colloidal carbohydrates (CC) are water-extractable,
bound carbohydrates (BC) are obtained by using Dowex Marathon C, and residual
carbohydrates (RC) correspond to the fractions rich in intracellular carbohydrates and
refractory EPS.

174 **3. Results and discussion**

175 3.1. Relationships between EPS and environmental parameters: a seasonal heterogeneity?

The total carbohydrate quantities and the contribution of neutral carbohydrates, uronic acid 176 and proteins were determined for the three main EPS fractions extracted in winter and 177 summer (Fig. 3). At this step, it is noteworthy that the sugar amounts were normalized to Chl 178 *a* in order to overestimate diatom EPS production, compared to other EPS sources (Haubois et 179 al., 2005). In average and regardless the emersion time, more colloidal carbohydrates were 180 extracted from the sediment in winter (5.28 μ g. μ g chl a^{-1}) than summer (2.04 μ g. μ g chl a^{-1}). 181 182 The same observations were done for the bound and residual carbohydrates since 2.5 times more carbohydrates were found in the winter samples (Fig. 3A). Concerning the relative 183 contribution of neutral and acidic sugars, the results showed that neutral sugars were the main 184 component of the fractions both in summer and winter although the ratios varied during these 185 two periods. For the colloidal and bound fractions, the neutral sugar ratios dropped from 78 % 186 to 61 % and 87 % to 63 % respectively (relative % w/w) due to the presence of proteins in the 187 fractions extracted in summer. 188

However, if we focus only on the carbohydrate part, no significant change (p < 0.01) was observed for the neutral sugar ratios. Previous papers noted that variations in sediment dynamics resulted from seasonal changes in biological influences (Frostick and McCave, 192 1979), EPS quality and quantity being excellent indicators to measure the impact of these modifications. In this way, correlations were found between the level of EPS and the diatom

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biomass in the sediment, *i.e.* EPS quantities reduced when the diatom biomass decreased 194 (Staats et al., 2001). Ambient light climate play an essential role on the photosynthetic power 195 of epipelic diatoms, which move up to the sediment (Serôdio et al., 1997). Microphytobenthic 196 biofilms can have high rates of photosynthesis and a large part of the photo-assimilated 197 carbon is excreted into the environment as exopolymers (Underwood and Paterson, 2003). 198 During our sampling periods, the luminosity was around 1600 ± 400 µmol photons.m⁻².s⁻¹ in 199 summer and 440 \pm 250 µmol photons.m⁻².s⁻¹ in winter. The level of chl *a* measured on the 200 sediment was significantly lower (p < 0.01) in summer (8.1 \pm 1.2 $\mu g.g$ dry sediment $^{\text{-1}}$) than 201 in winter $(20.2 \pm 0.9 \,\mu\text{g.g} \text{ dry sediment}^{-1})$. This difference was attributed to the intense level 202 of grazing by *Peringia ulvae* whose the density was higher in summer (17.2 ind.m⁻² \pm 7.08) 203 than in winter (5.77 ind.m⁻² \pm 2.99). Moreover, the classical normalization with chl a 204 enhanced the gap between the values in summer and winter. Besides, intertidal mudflats are 205 206 living areas whose the primary trophic production is non-negligible. Indeed, diatoms and their EPS production are responsible for 40 to 50 % of the total global primary production in 207 208 marine systems (Medlin, 2002). So, biota living in the intertidal zone are adapted to use EPS 209 as food or as protection against environmental dynamics which dominate tidal flats (Widdows and Brinsley, 2002). During summer periods, consumers of EPS (carbon source) are much 210 more active and directly responsible in a drop of sediment stability (Andersen, 2001). This 211 212 greater summer consumption could also explain the differences between the amounts of 213 carbohydrates measured in summer and winter.

Thirdly, the amounts of proteins detected during summer were interesting because specific of this period (Fig.3, B). Yet, proteins were also found in colloidal and bound fractions collected in summer. During summer, pore water in the sediment was significantly lower than in winter (p < 0.05) and positive correlations were found with S-LMW CC and S-LMW BC (Table 1, p < 0.05). Some authors have suggested that EPS (carbohydrates and proteins) could protect microphytobenthos from high desiccation levels and salinity (Spears et al., 2008). Thus, we concluded that the presence of proteins combined to specific carbohydrates during summer could be a response to desiccation stress, explaining the positive correlations found (Table 1). These fractions could be correlated to osmoregulatory and hydratation properties to fight against extensive salinity. Besides, proteins can also be used as additional C-storage which can explain their presence in residual fractions, composed of intracellular (chrysolaminaran) and refractory EPS.

A number of authors have pointed at the rapid changes, in order to hour, which occur at the 226 surface sediments during periodic tidal exposures but the patterns varied even if colloidal 227 carbohydrates are often involved (Taylor and Paterson, 1998; Christie et al., 2000, Hofmann 228 229 et al. 2009, Pierre et al. 2012). The fate of colloidal and bound carbohydrate amounts between the beginning and the end of the emersion periods during winter and summer was then 230 investigated in this work (Fig. 4). LMW colloidal carbohydrate amounts tended to decrease 231 232 during the emersion period. This drop observed in winter was not significant (p < 0.05) but significantly visible in summer (p < 0.01). Besides, HMW colloidal carbohydrate amounts 233 remained stable all over the emersion time, in winter or summer. These results were 234 contradictory to other works which reported an increase of colloidal EPS in the early part of 235 the tidal exposure and near to the end of the emersion (Taylor, 1998). Nevertheless, 236 237 Underwood and Paterson (2003) nuanced these results and argued that the evolution of colloidal EPS during the emersion period was often misinterpreted due to the extraction 238 techniques used. In this way, previous studiesdid not specifically work on colloidal EPS but 239 on fractions containing a part of bound and residual polymers. The Dowex extraction that we 240 performed allowed a fine separation between true colloidal and bound EPS surrounding 241 diatom cells and/or entangled in the EPS matrix (Fig. 1). We already demonstrated that the 242 243 use of this procedure in situ averted mixing a part of colloidal EPS with LMW bound EPS

(Pierre et al., 2012). It can be estimated that the levels and production patterns of colloidal
EPS that we found in the present study were then closer to their function(s) and fate. Thus,
many authors highlighted that colloidal EPS were C-sources in the trophic network of tidal
mudflats, especially for heterotrophic bacteria and other micro-consumers (van Duyl et al.,
1999; Hanlon et al. 2006; Pierre et al. 2012).

249 On the other hand, the amounts of bound carbohydrates increased all over the tidal exposure. Even if this observation was not significant for W-LMW BC due to a lack of experimental 250 values (p < 0.05), significant increases were observed in summer (p < 0.01). Owing to the use 251 of the Dowex procedure, it was possible to distinguish the fate of true colloidal carbohydrates 252 whose the amounts dropped and bound carbohydrates whose the concentrations increased 253 254 during the emerged period. A part of this result was already observed (Pierre et al., 2012), leaving us to suggest that bound fractions could be involved in the formation and adhesion of 255 the microphytobenthic biofilm. The role of microphytobenthos as sediment stabilizers was 256 257 well documented (Underwood and Paterson, 1993; Paterson and Black, 1999, Thornton et al., 2002; Widdows and Brinsley, 2002; Spears et al., 2008) and a reduction in erosion state was 258 already correlated with increasing of carbohydrates concentrations (Sutherland et al., 1998). 259 Numerous authors suspected the role of colloidal EPS in general on the sediment dynamics 260 but not of a very specific and separate part of these exopolymers. Nevertheless, recent works 261 brought colloidal and especially bound EPS to the fore, whose the production could be light-262 dependant (Giroldo et al., 2003; Underwood and Paterson, 2003; Hofmann et al. 2009; Pierre 263 et al., 2011). Anyway, we noted that no light-dependant production was found for the bound 264 265 fractions on the contrary to colloidal fractions whose the production was tidal coefficientdependant (Table 1, p < 0.05). 266

Numerous authors try to understand how the composition and dynamic of EPS produced bybenthic diatoms change depending on environmental conditions (Underwood and Paterson,

2003). Thus, biochemical nature, production pathways, role and fate of EPS in intertidal 269 ecosystems are widely studied. In general, all authors point that chemical and physical 270 properties of EPS produced in situ vary significantly in response to biotic and abiotic 271 272 parameters. That is why important abiotic and biotic parameters were followed in this study, as chl a, light, salinity, pore water, bacterial abundance, tidal coefficient, C:N ratio, in view of 273 understanding their involvement in EPS dynamic productions. We previously showed that 274 salinity, pore water, light and chl a have to be considered when the seasonal dynamics of EPS 275 are studied. But it was also interesting to note that tidal coefficients could have a significant 276 impact (Table 1) which was logical since tidal coefficients influence the degree of periodic 277 278 tidal emersions and the light degree. Besides, no significant patterns were found for bacterial abundance or C:N ratios. It was not possible to correlate C:N ratios with the presence of 279 marine bacteria/microalgae, terrestrial or degraded organic matter. 280

3.2. Monosaccharide composition of EPS: roles and functions of the different fractions

Monosaccharide composition of EPS was investigated for colloidal, bound and residual 282 fractions extracted in winter and summer (Fig. 5). The monosaccharide composition was 283 heterogeneous depending on the concerned fractions and the low standard deviations (< 5 %) 284 indicated that the types and quantities of EPS were finely controlled during the short-term 285 emerged periods. Colloidal carbohydrates were rich in glucose (> 50%), xylose, galacturonic 286 acid and inositol, regardless the sampling period. Indeed, colloidal carbohydrates are known 287 288 as carbon trophic sources due to their high quantity of glucose (Abdullahi et al., 2006; 289 Hofmann et al. 2009). Nevertheless, we noted that the colloidal carbohydrates collected in summer were richer in glucose than in winter (+4%, p value [5%] = 0.003). The same 290 291 observation was also done for bound and residual fractions (+ 40 and 45 % respectively). On the one hand, the high glucose ratio in residual fractions (22 to 42 %) was not surprising since 292 these samples correspond essentially to intracellular carbohydrates. The majority of the 293

glucosyl units found in these fractions are components of storage polymers as 294 295 chrysolaminaran (Underwood and Paterson, 2003). On the other hand, it seemed important to focus on the increase of glucose content in colloidal and bound fractions during summer. We 296 297 suggested that the phenomenon was a seasonal response to environmental needs due to Cconsumers, as nematods, hydrobia or herbivorous zooplankton, which are more abundant and 298 more active in summer. Thus, colloidal carbohydrates dropped during the emersion time (Fig. 299 4) but glucose content were higher (Fig. 5). It is therefore possible that carbohydrate EPS are 300 selectively used by heterotrophic bacteria depending on season. In this way, bacteria could 301 use the different monosaccharide as substrate but with different degrees of induction. Besides, 302 303 the ratios of structural hexoses (xylose and mannose) and uronic acids (galacturonic acids) were lower in summer for colloidal and bound fractions. 304

Rhamnose was the monosaccharide widely found in LMW (> 25 %) and HMW (18 to 34 %) 305 bound carbohydrates in winter and summer. The high levels of deoxy sugars in this fraction 306 307 were already observed in winter on the same sampling site (Pierre et al., 2011) and other studies (Hanlon et al., 2006). Owing to their surface-active properties, deoxy sugars can 308 promote the biostabilisation of sediments (Zhou et al, 1998; Giroldo et al, 2003) by 309 facilitating the coagulation of particles and macromolecules (Khodse et al., 2007). Rhamnose 310 could also play a role of biochemical sensor in microphytobenthic biofilms as a target of 311 proteins involved in cell-cell transmission signals. However, the level of rhamnose was lower 312 in summer for the HMW bound fractions, *i.e.* for carbohydrates closely attached to diatom 313 cells. This observation suggested a potential lower biostabilisation of the sediment in summer 314 315 (LMW BC: 25.6 %, HMW BC: 18 %).

Fucose, a monosaccharide missing during winter samplings, was found in residual fractions (10 %) collected in summer. We previously attributed the lack of fucose to the physiological state of the growing biofilm studied in winter (Pierre et al., 2012). During summer, colloidal and bound fractions did not contain fucose, in contrary to many works (Abdullahi et al., 2006; Hanlon et al., 2006; Hofmann et al., 2009; Takahashi et al., 2009). It is relevant to highlight that fucose is a monosaccharide involved in the metabolic pathways occurring during the degradation of β -1,3-glucan storage in diatom cells (Granum, 2002), which could explain its unique presence in residual fractions.

In the same way, another surprising sugar, inositol, was also found in the different samples and particularly in colloidal fractions (7 to 17 %). As we already reported (Pierre et al., 2012), this monosaccharide could be a growth factor for heterotrophic microorganisms involved in the microphytobenthic biofilm formation and synergistic relationships between benthic diatoms and bacteria (Lubarsky et al., 2010). Moreover, its production seemed to be nonseasonal dependant (- 5 %).

330 A principal component analysis (ACP) along dominant sugar vectors was performed to clearly identify the differences in monosaccharide distributions of the EPS fractions (Fig. 6). 331 Three distinct clusters were highlighted by ACP (C1 to C3). C1 was a cluster constituted of 332 carbohydrates rich in glucose and inositol. Colloidal carbohydrates were sorted in C1. 333 However, a significant seasonal difference was found between the monosaccharide 334 distribution of W-LMW CC and S-LMW CC. Light and pore water could play a significant 335 role in this dissimilarity (Table 1, p < 0.05). So, the monosaccharide distribution of LMW CC 336 could be seasonal dependant (no cluster). These fractions are extremely labile and can be 337 selectively consumed by heterotrophic bacteria. Cluster 2 represented fractions rich in 338 rhamnose, xylose and galacturonic acid. Bound fractions, excepting S-HMW BC, belonged to 339 C2. Previously, we noted that the rhamnose content was lower in S-HMW BC and we 340 341 suggested that this ratio could play a major impact on sediment biostabilisation.

It was noteworthy that residual carbohydrates were rich in glucose. However, galacturonic acid, galactose, fucose and mannose were ACP sugar vectors to take into account to sort these fractions (C3). Anyway, the results highlighted a strong heterogeneity of carbohydrate distributions in residual fractions which could be further investigated.

346 3.3. *In situ* modification of monosaccharides distribution: specific pathways?

The mechanisms allowing diatoms to rapidly change the EPS types being produced are not 347 well understood (Underwood and Paterson, 2003; Hofmann et al., 2009). Moreover, this is the 348 selective consumption of carbohydrate EPS by heterotrophic bacteria which seems to play the 349 major role in these EPS changes (Giroldo et al., 2003). Previously, we showed that four major 350 monosaccharides (glucose, xylose, galacturonic acid, rhamnose) characterized the different 351 fractions with some ratios above 20 %. Fucose was only found during summer specifically in 352 353 residual fractions. Moreover, these monosaccharides were representative sugars vectors in ACP analyses to identify clusters. That is why the standing stocks of these five 354 monosaccharides were followed during the emerged periods in order to highlight possible 355 356 specific pathways of selective consumption (Fig. 7). The first important observation to note was that the same monosaccharide distribution patterns were observed during winter and 357 summer. Combined to our previous conclusions, this major result indicated that the 358 distribution of monosaccharides in the fractions seemed to follow the same process regardless 359 the season and also that the carbohydrate production, in term of amounts, could vary in 360 response to environmental parameters (cf. part 3.2.). Bacterial interactions, adhesion and 361 362 biofilm formation, protection against salinity or migration into the sediment could be ecological and physico-chemical phenomena involving EPS changes. 363

364 In details, the results showed that all over the emersion periods, glucose amounts stayed stable 365 whatever a possible consumption of colloidal carbohydrates by heterotrophic bacteria.

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Galacturonic acid amounts dropped and rhamnose concentrations slightly increased for 366 colloidal fractions extracted in winter and summer. The evolution in the galacturonic acid 367 distribution was interesting and suggested that colloidal fractions were not only used as C-368 369 sources. Uronic acids are involved in several marine environmental processes including the production of macroaggregates, microbial adhesion and biofilm formation, binding of 370 extracellular enzymes or ion sequestration (Decho, 1990; Sutherland, 2001; Bhaskar et al., 371 2005). This drop of uronic acids amounts could have an impact on the biofilm community, 372 maybe by protecting diatoms from extreme salinity conditions. 373

If we focus on bound fractions, rhamnose amounts increased during the emersion time. We 374 extensively discussed about the potential role of deoxy sugars in part 3.2 (cell-cell 375 376 interactions) and this observation seemed to confirm the involvement of rhamnose in adhesion phenomena or in the motility of diatom cells. Finally, residual fractions, rich in intracellular 377 carbohydrates and refractory EPS were very complex in accordance with the literature. The 378 379 important point to highlight was the slight drop of glucose amounts during the first hours of emersion, followed by a large increase of glucose ratios. This result could be due to the use of 380 C-storage during the emerged period (metabolism) then to a drastic storing of carbon to 381 survive during periods of darkness (Hanlon, 2006). 382

383 4. Conclusion

Based on extensive data set (> 800 fractions), this paper focused on the seasonal dynamics of EPS and extensively carbohydrates produced on an intertidal mudflat during two different sampling periods (winter and summer). Firstly, colloidal carbohydrates, well known as Csources for heterotrophic bacteria and other C-consumers, were steadily produced suggesting that an ecological equilibrium maybe existed between carbon production and consumption. The increase of bound carbohydrate levels during emersion times could show their

involvement in adhesion/cohesive properties and/or in the locomotive properties of diatom 390 cells which have to migrate back into the sediment at the end of emersion time. These 391 dynamic pathways were identical between winter and summer, even if the data numbers 392 393 allowed us to significantly confirm this hypothesis only for summer. The presence of proteins during summer was correlated to an additional C-storing for diatoms cells (residual fractions) 394 and to a potential protection against high desiccation and salinity degrees. A number of 395 abiotic/biotic parameters seemed to have impact on EPS dynamics and production as salinity, 396 397 pore water, light or tidal coefficient. At last, GC/MS analyses showed that colloidal carbohydrates were glucose-rich, bound carbohydrates were significantly composed of 398 rhamnose and residual fractions presented a wide variety of monosaccharides. All the 399 fractions were richer in glucose during summer than winter, maybe to response to greater 400 trophic needs. ACP analyses allowed refining the results and highlighted that colloidal 401 402 carbohydrates formed a first cluster (glc, ino). Cluster 2 (xyl, rham) was constituted of bound carbohydrates and cluster 3 (fuc, gal. acid, gal, man) of residual carbohydrates. The evolution 403 404 of five representative monosaccharides (glc, gal. acid, xyl, rham, fuc) was also followed in 405 function of the tidal emersion periods and the results showed again that the distribution pathways did not change in winter or summer in contrary to monosaccharide amounts. We 406 noted that the levels of galacturonic acid varied for colloidal and bound fractions, which could 407 have an effect on binding forces, protection (via ion sequestration for instance) and cell-cell 408 409 interactions in microphytobenthic biofilms. Besides, C-storage consumption and C-storing (glc, fuc, man) were observed in residual fractions during the emerged periods. To conclude, 410 411 many results were consistent with the literature and additional information were obtained concerning the influence of seasonal parameters on EPS productions and dynamics. It should 412 413 be interesting to check whether these conclusions could be observed on a much larger data set, specifically targeting light, salinity and pore water, tidal coefficient as major parameters. 414

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Table 1. Matrix of Pearson's correlation coefficients between carbohydrate contents of the different fractions (LMW/HMW: low and high molecular weight, CC: colloidal carbohydrates, BC: bound carbohydrates, RC: residual carbohydrates) and biotic/abiotic parameters measured on the sediment and during the two sampling periods (W: winter, S: summer). Values of r significant at * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01 and *** p < 0.001.

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Figure 1. Location hypothesis of the different EPS fractions collected by the Dowex method,adapted from the model of Underwood & Paterson (2003).

Figure 2. Location of the study area (Brouage mudflat, France) where samples of surficialintertidal sediment were collected.

Figure 3. Total carbohydrate quantities ($\mu g \cdot \mu g$ chlo *a*⁻¹) and relative contribution (% w/w) of neutral carbohydrates (light grey), uronic acid (dark grey) and proteins (grey) for each EPS fraction extracted during (A) winter and (B) summer campaigns. Bars represent the heterogeneity of the three sampling sites.

Figure 4. Comparison of carbohydrates quantities (μg . g dry sediment⁻¹) during winter and 567 summer of the extracted EPS fractions, at the beginning of the emerged periods with their 568 values at the end of the emerged period. Abbreviations W, S, LMW, HMW, CC, BC and RC 569 570 correspond respectively to winter, summer, low molecular weight, high molecular weight, colloidal carbohydrates, bound carbohydrates and residual carbohydrates. Regression lines are 571 used to read the graphs. Data points in the upper left part correspond to variable which 572 increased over the emerged period; data points in the lower right part correspond to variable 573 574 which decreased during the same period. Data points close to the line: no change over the 575 emerged period.

Figure 5. Monosaccharide composition (% w/w) of the different fractions extracted in winter
and summer. See fig 4. for abbreviations meaning.

Figure 6. Principal component analysis scatter plot grouping monosaccharide profiles of the
different fractions along dominant sugar vectors. See fig 4. for abbreviations meaning.

Figure 7. Effect of the emersion time (average on the three sampling sites) on the major monosaccharide contents. Glucose, xylose, galacturonic acid, rhamnose and fucose are representative monosaccharides reported in fig. 6 as characteristics of the physicochemical properties of the colloidal, bound and residual fractions. The variability within true sample replicates was less than 5 %. See fig 4. for abbreviations meaning.

a) Winter	W-LMW CC	W-HMW CC	W-LMW BC	W-HMW BC	Light	Salinity	Pore water	Bacterial	Tidal	C:N
								abundance	coefficient	
Chl a	-0.114	0.291	-0.087	0.007	0,257	0,417	0.556	-0.524	-0.391	nd
W-LMW CC	х	0.656*	0.852**	-0.185	0.698*	-0.387	0.083	-0.323	0.200	nd
W-HMW CC	х	х	0.795**	0.276	0.347	-0.393	-0.176	-0.126	0.427	nd
W-LMW BC	х	х	х	0.189	0.422	-0.733*	-0.241	-0.222	0.585	nd
W-HMW BC	х	х	х	х	-0.621	-0.272	-0.433	0.514	0.776**	nd
Light	х	х	х	х	х	0.097	0.522	-0.682*	-0.423	nd
Salinity	х	х	х	х	х	х	0.618	-0.008	-0.763*	nd
Pore water	х	х	x	х	x	х	x	-0.558	-0.654*	nd
b) Summer	S-LMW CC	S-HMW CC	S-LMW BC	S-HMW BC	Light	Salinity	Pore water	Bacterial abundance	Tidal coefficient	C:N
Chl a	0.409*	0.108	-0.122	-0.375*	0.037	0.306	0.600***	0.405*	0.163	0.086
S-LMW CC	х	-0.033	-0.062	0.097	0.027	0.061	0.362*	0.307	0.091	0.090
S-HMW CC	х	х	-0.576***	-0.304	0.288	0.120	0.293	-0.072	0.536***	-0.175
S-LMW BC	х	х	х	0.292	0.014	0.128	-0.338*	-0.136	-0.024	-0.046
S-HMW BC	х	х	х	х	-0.344*	-0.249	-0.090	-0.114	-0.267	0.163
Light	х	x	х	х	х	0.330*	-0.196	-0.033	0.507**	-0.231
Salinity	х	х	х	х	х	х	-0,421*	0.103	0.417*	0.066
Pore water	х	х	х	х	х	х	х	0.317	-0.009	-0.030

TABLE 1

588 nd: non determined



FIGURE 1











600

601

FIGURE 3



-31-



FIGURE 5



609

FIGURE 6



-34-