

Isotopic labelling of cultured macroalgae and isolation of 13 C-labelled cell wall polysaccharides for trophic investigations

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¹ Isotopic labelling of cultured macroalgae and isolation of ¹³C-labelled cell

- 2 wall polysaccharides for trophic investigations
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15 Abstract

Macroalgae are considered as major primary producers in coastal environments, acting as a 16 17 global carbon sink. This abundant biomass contains up to 50% of storage or cell wall polysaccharides, which therefore represent a reservoir of organic matter for potential algal 18 consumers. Tracking of natural isotopic abundance (δ^{13} C vs. δ^{15} N) in macroalgae-colonized 19 habitats such as kelp forests and rocky shores previously evidenced the importance of the 20 algal resource to support local and adjacent trophic webs mostly via the microbial detrital 21 pathway. However, such bulk isotopic measures of natural abundances cannot inform 22 precisely on the microbial actors and processes at play for the degradation of selected algal 23 compounds. To overcome these limitations, we developed a stable isotope labelling procedure 24 for cultures of the brown alga Laminaria digitata and tested its ability to yield labelled 25 polysaccharides. Sporophytes of L. digitata were grown in controlled conditions for three 26 months in seawater regularly amended with ¹³C-labelled sodium bicarbonate. Elemental 27 analysis - isotope ratio mass spectrometry of algal specimens showed a significant 28

enrichment after 10 days of treatment, reaching a maximum of $At\%^{13}C = 3.5321\%$ after 80 days. Sequential polysaccharide extraction from this labelled algal biomass allowed retrieving both alginate and fucose-containing sulphated polysaccharide fractions with high isotopic enrichment ($At\%^{13}C = 3.6279\%$ and 3.5868\%, respectively). This labelling protocol opens the way for future studies combining coastal ecosystems trophic interactions and microbial activities towards macroalgal biomass degradation.

35 **Keywords:** (5 to 10)

36 Stable isotope enrichment, alginate, fucose-containing sulphated polysaccharides (FCSPs),

37 macroalgae, degradation, microbial pathway

38

39 Introduction

The total biomass of macroalgae on Earth is estimated at 280 million tons (Carpenter & 40 Liss, 2000), covering an area of ca. 3.5 million km² for a net primary production of up to 41 1,500 TgC.year⁻¹ (Krause-Jensen & Duarte, 2016). Macroalgae are thus considered as major 42 primary producers in coastal areas, acting as a carbon sink and playing a crucial role in 43 biodiversity and in global carbon flows (Dayton, 1985). The algal chemical composition 44 differs drastically from that of plants and animals. It consists primarily of complex cell wall 45 and storage polysaccharides (more than 50% of the dry weight), with additional lipids, 46 proteins, pigments and phlorotannins (Deniaud-Bouët et al., 2014). In particular, macroalgae 47 synthesize unique polysaccharides that are absent from other organisms and specific to each 48 phylum, e.g sulfated agars and carrageenans in red algae, alginate and sulfated fucans in 49 brown algae, and ulvan in green algae (Popper et al., 2011). This specific composition of the 50 algal biomass can influence the processes mediating its trophic use. 51

In marine environments, the availability of organic matter derived from macrophytes for 52 consumers depends on trophic mediation by associated microorganisms (Adin & Riera, 2003; 53 54 Crosby, Newell, & Langdon, 1990; Langdon & Newell, 1990). Several studies highlighted 55 that bacteria growing on marine phanerogam detritus can facilitate the transfer of carbon to consumers (Benner, Lay, K'nees, & Hodson, 1988; Tenore, 1977). Laboratory experiments 56 showed that 6-60% of oyster C requirements could be met by utilization of detrital complexes 57 58 comprising senescing tissues and associated bacteria (Crosby et al., 1990; Langdon & Newell, 1990). Previous studies have pointed out that only about 10% of the net macroalgal 59 production is consumed directly by grazers (Mann, 1982; Pomeroy, 1980). This low direct 60 grazing pressure on living macroalgal tissues is mostly due to the presence of recalcitrant 61 components including lignocellulosic compounds, and polyphenols like phlorotannins in 62 brown algae (Buchsbaum, Valiela, Swain, Dzierzeski, & Allen, 1991; Duggins & Eckman, 63

1997). On the other hand, about 90% of the net macroalgal production enter detritus food 64 chains mostly via microbial degradation (Mann, 1982; Pomeroy, 1980). The pool of detritus 65 derived from macroalgae can be predominant within the total suspended particulate organic 66 matter and represents a readily available food source for many consumers inhabiting kelp 67 forests or nearby areas (Duggins & Eckman, 1997; Kaehler, Pakhomov, Kalin, & Davis, 68 2006). This microbial reinjection of macroalgal biomass into marine food webs plays a 69 quantitative role of prime importance, especially during winter when the phytoplankton 70 production can be very low (Bustamante & Branch, 1996; Duggins, Simenstad, & Estes, 71 1989). 72

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Stable isotopes have been successfully used to trace transformations of organic matter 74 during trophic flows and discriminate among various primary producers as food sources in 75 76 consumers' diets (Bustamante & Branch, 1996). Indeed, the isotopic composition of a consumer depends on the diet isotopic composition, and the isotopic fractionation during food 77 processing. Many natural isotopic signatures have been determined for macroalgae during the 78 last decades (Mercado, de los Santos, Lucas Pérez-Lloréns, & Vergara, 2009; Pinnegar & 79 Polunin, 2000; Schaal, Riera, & Leroux, 2010) indicating a wide range of $\delta^{13}C$ values. In 80 general, average δ^{13} C are more ¹³C-enriched in Chlorophyta, intermediate in Phaeophyta and 81 lowest in Rhodophyta (Maberly, Raven, & Johnston, 1992; Marconi, Giordano, & Raven, 82 2011; Mercado et al., 2009). In a kelp forest in western Brittany (France), $\delta^{13}C$ were more 83 negative for red algae (-38.0 to -15.5‰) compared to brown algae (- 24.9 to -13.5‰) (Leclerc 84 et al., 2013). Significant differences among species in δ^{13} C and/or δ^{15} N were also observed 85 for living macroalgae or strandline algal species (Adin & Riera, 2003; Dauby, 1989). The δ 86 ¹³C of marine macroalgae depends largely on their ability to use HCO₃⁻ rather than dissolved 87 CO_2 as carbon source (reviewed in (Raven et al., 2002)). Macroalgae displaying very low δ 88

¹³C likely use dissolved CO₂ as their main source of inorganic carbon, while δ ¹³C close to -89 10% corresponds to a preferential fixation of HCO₃- during primary production. Other factors 90 influencing δ^{13} C of marine macroalgae include the photosynthesis rates and the molecular 91 composition of algal tissues. These distinct natural isotopic values can be used to assess the 92 93 contribution of different macroalgal species as food sources for associated consumers. Analyses of stable isotope signatures in kelp forest trophic webs have evidenced the relevance 94 of detrital material as a major food source for the associated benthic communities (Fredriksen, 95 96 2003). For example, in a kelp forest dominated by Laminaria digitata, filter-feeders derived 35% to 50% of their diet from macroalgae-derived detritus (Schaal et al., 2010). Overall, 97 approaches based on natural stable isotopes confirmed the importance of the microbial detrital 98 pathway to re-inject macroalgal primary production into marine food webs. However, such 99 bulk isotopic measurements of natural abundances cannot inform precisely on the specific 100 101 contribution of selected algal molecules and on the microbial processes involved in their degradation. A thorough knowledge of these bacterial processes is essential because they 102 directly condition the fate of macroalgal organic matter in marine ecosystems. 103

A powerful approach to overcome these limitations is to use isotopic enrichment 104 experiments. Experiments based on isotopically labelled biomass have allowed to test specific 105 hypotheses on the fate of distinct food sources and to quantify the trophic fluxes in a variety 106 of marine ecosystems. Stable isotopes enrichments were carried out to selectively label 107 various food sources such as benthic diatoms or bacteria and to determine their relative 108 contribution to the diet of macroinvertebrates (Herman, Middelburg, Widdows, Lucas, & 109 Heip, 2000; Middelburg et al., 2000). Similarly, the specific uptake of microalgae-derived 110 carbon by the Polychaeta Lanice conchilega or the Echinodermata Echinocardium cordatum 111 was quantified through *in situ* experiments using ¹³C-labelled diatoms (Kamp & Witte, 2005). 112 In addition, differential labelling experiments allowed to assess the preferential uptake of ¹⁵N-113

labelled bacteria or ¹³C-labelled diatoms by pelagic larvae and foraminiferans (Leroy et al., 114 2012; Moodley et al., 2000; Pascal, Dupuy, Richard, & Niquil, 2008). So far, stable isotope 115 enrichment studies in marine food webs almost exclusively focused on trophic transfers 116 within planktonic communities or between microorganisms (e.g. microalgae, bacteria) and 117 benthic grazers. By contrast, such approaches are currently lagging behind for macroalgae. 118 Few studies have implemented stable isotope labelling techniques on adult specimens of the 119 red algae Gracilaria spp. and Solieria chordalis to assess their fate in benthic systems 120 (Hardison, Canuel, Anderson, & Veuger, 2010; Legrand, Martin, Leroux, & Riera, 2018). 121 However, they used the labelled tissues as bulk biomass and did not investigate the allocation 122 of ¹³C to specific algal compounds. Some high molecular weight compounds such as cell wall 123 structural polysaccharides can have slower turnover time compared to soluble molecules (e.g. 124 osmolytes, carbon storage compounds) (Brinkhuis, 1977; Macler, 1986) and thus require 125 126 active growth and longer incubation times to incorporate significant amounts of stable isotopes. Given their high proportion in macroalgal tissues, it appears essential to ensure 127 sufficient labelling of cell wall polysaccharides to fully decipher the fate of macroalgal 128 biomass in marine food webs. In the present study, we developed an adapted protocol to 129 enrich actively growing macroalgae in ¹³C and obtain isotopically labelled cell wall 130 polysaccharide fractions. 131

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133

134 Material and Methods

135 *Materials*

136 Natural seawater for algal cultures was collected in opaque containers from the Astan site 137 (GPS coordinates $48^{\circ}46'40''$, $-2^{\circ}56'15''$) offshore Roscoff (France), filtered on a 100 μ m cartridge and autoclaved before use. ¹³C-enriched sodium bicarbonate NaH¹³CO₃ (99% ¹³C)
was purchased from Eurisotop (Saarbrücken, Germany). Unless otherwise stated, all other
chemicals were from Sigma-Aldrich.

141 Algal culture procedures

Laminaria digitata life cycle consists of microscopic haploid gametophyte phase, alternating 142 with macroscopic diploid sporophytes. In this study, all experiments were done on the 143 macroscopic diploid individuals. To obtain young laboratory-grown sporophytes, mature L. 144 *digitata* sporophytes showing sorus reproductive tissues were harvested at the "Roches Duon" 145 site (GPS coordinates 48°43'32", -3°55'20"). Spores were released from sorus pieces in 146 seawater for 3 h at 18°C with an irradiance of 20 umol.s⁻¹.m⁻² and further kept at 13°C at an 147 irradiance of 5 μ mol.s⁻¹.m⁻² to allow the development of gametophytes and random crosses. 148 The developing young L. digitata sporophytes (ca. 5 mm) were cultured in flasks containing 149 10 L of autoclaved seawater enriched with 1.5 ml of modified Provasoli solution (92 mM 150 H₃BO₃, 1.5 mM FeCl₃, 4.9 mM MnSO₄, 0.4 mM ZnSO₄, 0.09 mM CoSO₄, 27 mM EDTA, 9 151 mM (NH₄)₂Fe(SO₄)₂, 824.6 mM NaNO₃, 46.3 mM C₃H₇Na₂₀₆P, 0.001 mM cyanocobalamine, 152 0.3 mM thiamine, 0.004 mM biotine, 413 mM Tris) (Starr & Zeikus, 1993), with continuous 153 bubbling of 0.2 µm-filtered air in a culture cabinet at 13°C illuminated with daylight-type 154 fluorescent lamps at an irradiance of 20 µmol.s⁻¹.m⁻² for 12 hours per day. Two separate 155 batches were prepared (¹²C-control and ¹³C-enriched) and were regularly amended with 1 g.L⁻ 156 ¹ solutions of either NaHCO₃ with natural isotopic composition (98.9 ¹²C%) or labelled 157 NaHCO₃ (99 13 C%) previously sterilized on 0.2 µm filters. To favour the growth of larger 158 sporophytes, each batch was subdivided in separate 10L-flasks after 42 and 66 days of 159 160 cultures. Culture media were renewed biweekly during the first month and weekly afterwards. At each medium renewal, sporophytes were visually examined to eliminate individuals 161 showing signs of necrosis or microbial contamination. All manipulations were performed 162

under a sterile laminar flow hood with ethanol-sterilized instruments. At each sampling time
(0, 10, 18, 28, 35, 52, 66, 95 days), three sporophytes were sampled from each batch and
frozen at -20°C for isotopic analysis. After 95 days of cultures, the total algal biomass was
collected on a strainer and excess water was removed by spinning for 1 min in a salad tosser.
Algae were weighed to estimate the fresh mass, dried at 40°C in a ventilated oven for 2 days
and stored at room temperature until polysaccharide extraction.

169 Polysaccharide extraction

Cell wall polysaccharides were retrieved sequentially using a modified chemical extraction 170 171 (Deniaud-Bouët et al., 2014; Hogsett & Quatrano, 1975; Vauchel, Kaas, Arhaliass, Baron, & Legrand, 2008). Dried algae were pulverized in a MM200 mixer mill (Retsch) at 30 Hz for 90 172 173 seconds. Seven to ten grams of algal powder were homogenized in 300 mL of 70% ethanol 174 and filtered on a 100 µm nylon mesh placed on a G3 glass filter funnel. The powder was repeatedly rinsed with sequential baths (250 mL, 10 min each) in 70% ethanol (3 L total), 175 80% ethanol (3 L total), 96% ethanol (3 L total), methanol / chloroform 50:50 (v/v, 2 L total) 176 and acetone (0.5 L total) until colourless and finally dried overnight in a ventilated oven at 177 40°C to yield alcohol-insoluble residues (AIR). AIRs were resuspended in 0.5 L of 2% (w/v) 178 aqueous CaCl₂ and mixed for 4 h at 80°C, followed by centrifugation for 15 min at 10000 179 rpm to separate the calcium-soluble supernatant that contains fucose-containing sulphated 180 polysaccharides (FCSP) from the calcium-insoluble pellet containing alginate. The calcium-181 insoluble fraction was resuspended in 0.5 L of 4% (w/v) aqueous Na₂CO₃ for 2 h at 80°C 182 183 followed by centrifugation for 15 min at 10000 rpm. The supernatant was adjusted to pH 2 with slow addition of 10 mL H₂SO₄ to eliminate carbonates and precipitate alginic acid, 184 185 which was retrieved by pressing in a 100 µm nylon mesh. The precipitate was dissolved in 200 mL distilled water and neutralized with NaOH. FCSPs and alginate were retrieved from 186 their respective fraction by precipitating with 6 vol. of 96% ethanol. For recovery, alginate 187

was pressed on a 100 µm nylon mesh and FCSPs were centrifuged for 20 min at 9000 rpm.
Both fractions were lyophilized for long-term storage.

190 Isotopic analysis

191 Triplicate algal samples were dried at 50°C for two days in a ventilated oven, pulverized using a mortar and pestle and inserted in tin capsules (1-2 mg per sample). Carbon isotopic 192 ratios were measured on an elemental analyser (Flash EA1112, ThermoScientific) coupled to 193 an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS Delta plus, ThermoScientific) via a gas interface 194 (Conflo III, ThermoScientific). To measure carbon quantities, expressed in micrograms, a 195 calibration was performed for each run with a certified standard compound (acetanilide, 196 Sylab), a correction for linearity using casein (Sylab) and a two-point linear normalisation 197 (Coplen et al., 2006; Paul, Skrzypek, & Fórizs, 2007) using the international standards IAEA-198 199 600 and IAEA-CH6. Data were expressed in the standard δ notation in ∞ according to the following equation: 200

201
$$\partial^{13}C = \left(\frac{R_{sample} - R_{reference}}{R_{reference}}\right) \times 1000$$
, where R = ${}^{13}C / {}^{12}C$.

These abundances were calculated in relation to the certified reference materials Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite-limestone (V-PDB), with $R_{reference} = 0.0112372$. The V-PDB was achieved using in-house casein standards, calibrated against IAEA-600 and IAEA-CH6 reference materials. The standard deviation of repeated measurements of δ^{13} C of nBS-19 was 0.10 ‰ versus V-PDB.

 13 C atom percent were calculated as follows:

$$208 \qquad \text{At}\%^{13}\text{C} = \frac{R_{sample}}{R_{sample}+1} \times 100$$

209

¹³C uptake was calculated in two different ways. Cumulative ¹³C uptakes ($cUp^{13}C$) were calculated for each time point (t) by comparing algae from ¹³C-enriched batch to algae from control batch at the same time point, as follows:

$$cUp^{13}C_t = \frac{At\%^{13}C_{labelled,t} - At\%^{13}C_{control,t}}{100} \times C_{conc}$$

The first term of the equation represents the ${}^{13}C$ atom excess, where At% ${}^{13}C_{labelled,t}$ and At% ${}^{13}C_{control,t}$ are the ${}^{13}C$ atom percent values at time t calculated for algae from batches amended with labelled or natural NaHCO₃, respectively. C_{conc} is the carbon concentration in dry algal biomass measured by the elemental analyser.

In addition, time-resolved ¹³C uptakes ($tUp^{13}C$) were calculated for each time point (t) by comparing algae from ¹³C-enriched batch at time t to algae from the same batch at time t-1 and expressed as daily uptake, as follows:

$$tUp^{13}C_{t} = \frac{At\%^{13}C_{labeled,t} - At\%^{13}C_{labeled,t-1}}{100} \times C_{conc} \times \frac{1}{n_{days}}$$

The first term of the equation represents the ${}^{13}C$ atom excess compared to previous time, where At% ${}^{13}C_{labeled,t}$ and At% ${}^{13}C_{labeled,t-1}$ are the ${}^{13}C$ atom percent values at time t and t-1, respectively. C_{conc} is the carbon concentration in dry algal biomass measured by the elemental analyser, and n_{days} is the number of days between sampling times t and t-1.

The percentage of 13 C from sodium bicarbonate incorporated into algal biomass was calculated for the final time point as follows:

226 ${}^{13}C_{incorp\%} = \frac{M_{tot} \times cUp^{13}C_{tfinal}}{0.99 \times {}^{13}C_{bicarb}}$, where M_{tot} is the total dry algal biomass harvested at the end of 227 the cultivation period, $cUp^{13}C_{tfinal}$ is the cumulative ${}^{13}C$ uptake after 95 days of culture, and 228 $^{13}C_{bicarb}$ is the total amount of carbon from sodium bicarbonate added during the cultivation 229 period.

230

231 **Results**

The protocol developed to obtain stable isotope-labelled brown algal biomass is summarized in Figure 1. Labelling of cultured *L. digitata* sporophytes was tested using periodic additions of ¹³C-labelled sodium bicarbonate into seawater, over a 3-months period. In parallel, a control batch of sporophytes from the same fecundation event was prepared with addition of natural abundance sodium bicarbonate.

237 [Insert Figure 1 here]

In total, each batch was amended with 7.2 g of sodium bicarbonate, corresponding to 1.1 g of carbon. Sporophytes grew from 5 mm to ca. 5-10 cm in length in 3 months, yielding 123 g and 95 g wet biomass in the ¹²C-control and ¹³C-enriched batch, respectively. The water content estimated from the dry biomass was 85%. The ¹³C isotopic composition and ¹³C uptake of algal specimens collected at different time points are reported in Figure 2.

243 [insert Figure 2 here]

At the beginning of the culture, juvenile sporophytes showed a δ^{13} C of -0.50 ± 2.96 ‰. Typical values obtained from wild adult populations of *L. digitata* in the vicinity of Roscoff range from δ^{13} C = -17‰ to -12‰ (Schaal, Riera, & Leroux, 2009; Schaal et al., 2010). The higher ¹³C-enrichment shown here might reflect differences due to the age of the algal tissues or the specific conditions of cultivation in the laboratory (e.g. amendments with Provasoli solution, air bubbling, etc.). In the control batch, stable isotope compositions remained stable over the 3 months cultivation period (Figure 2A), ranging from At%¹³C = 1.0855 to 1.1416,

with an overall average of At% 13 C = 1.1116 ± 0.0201 (n=27). By contrast, we observed a 251 rapid enrichment of algal biomass in the ¹³C-enriched batch (Figure 2), already showing 252 At%¹³C = 1.9735 ± 0.0987 after 10 days of culture. The ¹³C content kept increasing until 80 253 days of culture, when it reached a plateau. The final isotopic composition of labelled algae 254 after 95 days was At% 13 C = 3.3381 ± 0.3490% (Figure 2A). Cumulative 13 C uptakes were 255 calculated at each time point (Figure 2B), and showed a final value of 5.59 mg ¹³C.g⁻¹ dry 256 algal biomass after 95 days of culture. When extrapolated to the total dry mass of ¹³C-257 enriched sporophytes harvested at the end of the experiment (14.14 g), this corresponds to an 258 incorporation of 7.26 \pm 1.76% of ¹³C atoms from sodium bicarbonate into algal biomass. 259 Furthermore, we calculated daily ¹³C uptakes between each sampling time point (Figure 2B). 260 This showed that most of the enrichment occurred during the first 40 days, before the plateau. 261 Daily uptakes became close to zero after 80 days of culture. 262

A sequential chemical extraction was used to purify cell wall polysaccharides from control and ¹³C-enriched sporophytes (Figure 3) obtained after 95 days.

265 [insert Figure 3 here]

Alginate was retrieved as the calcium-insoluble fraction of alcohol-insoluble residues whereas the calcium-soluble fraction contained FCSPs, with final yields of ca. 20% and 7.5% of the dry weight, respectively (Table 1).

269 [insert Table 1 here]

Isotopic analysis revealed strongly significant enrichment of polysaccharide fractions extracted from ¹³C-enriched algal biomass compared to controls (Table 2). Alginate and FCSPs showed stable isotope content of At%¹³C = 3.6279 ± 0.0009 % and 3.5868 ± 0.0064 %, respectively, corresponding to ¹³C uptakes of 7.02 ± 0.07 and 7.07 ± 0.03 mg ¹³C.g⁻¹ dry polysaccharide, respectively. This shows that carbon from sodium bicarbonate was allocated to cell wall synthesis. In particular, 26% and 9% of ¹³C incorporated into algal biomass was
allocated to alginate and FCSPs, respectively.

277 [insert Table 2 here]

278

279 **Discussion**

Several studies have shown that it is possible to selectively label different food sources 280 and follow their fate within food chains. The ¹³C-enriched labelling can be focused on a 281 source of organic matter considered in its entirety (e.g., whole macroalgae). Experiments 282 based on the ¹³C-labelled red macroalga *Gracilaria* spp (9 At%¹³C) under decomposition in 283 sediments revealed transfers of isotopic label to bacterial biomass through the ¹³C enrichment 284 of specific bacterial amino acids or fatty acids (Hardison et al., 2010). Recently, a dual stable 285 isotope labelling experiment was performed on adult specimens of the red alga Solieria 286 chordalis using both $H^{13}CO_3^{-1}$ and $^{15}NH_4$ additions to investigate the uptake of whole algal 287 288 tissues by the sea urchin Psammechinus miliaris under different temperature regimes (Legrand et al., 2018). However, stable isotope labelling studies considering macroalgae as a 289 bulk biomass do not inform on (1) the labelling of different molecular fractions of the algae, 290 (2) quantitative transfers of specific algal compounds to different consumers and, (3) the 291 specialization of consumers towards the degradation of specific compounds. When 292 considering the trophic fate of algal constituents, cell wall polysaccharides are of particular 293 interest since they can represent up to 45% of the dry weight (Mabeau & Kloareg, 1987), are 294 chemically distinct from those found in other primary producers (Popper et al., 2011), 295 constitute one of the first physical barrier to be attacked by consumers and are generally 296 recognized as more recalcitrant than other small (e.g. simple sugars) or high molecular weight 297 298 compounds (e.g. proteins). A deeper understanding of the trophic impact of cell wall

polysaccharides and on the microorganisms specialized in their turnover is therefore crucial tofully understand macroalgal biomass recycling.

In the present study, stable isotope labelling was performed on actively growing 301 juvenile brown algae for 3 months, contrasting with the shorter incubation periods (1-2 302 weeks) previously used on red algae (Hardison et al., 2010; Legrand et al., 2018). This was 303 required to ensure incorporation of ¹³C-label into cell wall polysaccharides, which can have a 304 long turnover time compared to smaller compounds (Macler, 1986). Indeed, seminal 305 incubation studies of brown algae with ¹⁴CO₂ or H¹⁴CO₃ showed that among sugar 306 constituents, alginate has a slow rate of radioactive carbon incorporation, whereas mannitol is 307 the most rapidly and strongly labelled (Bidwell, 1958; Hellebust & Haug, 1972; Yamaguchi, 308 Ikawa, & Nisizawa, 1966). Isotopic ¹³C enrichments obtained on brown algae in the present 309 study are consistent with levels previously observed on sources characterized by high 310 311 polysaccharide contents. Recent labelling experiments were performed on fresh leaves of terrestrial source (i.e. alders) with an isotopic ¹³C enrichment of about 2.5 At%¹³C to assess 312 their assimilation by isopods in groundwater (Francois et al., 2016). A mean ¹⁵N labelling of 313 the seagrass *Posidonia oceanica* around 4.5 At%¹⁵N was also obtained for a quantitative 314 experimental study (Lepoint, Millet, Dauby, Gobert, & Bouquegneau, 2002). Our detailed 315 time course of ¹³C-incorporation showed that the extent of labelling reached a plateau at the 316 317 end of the 3-months period and that most of the ¹³C uptake occurred within 40 days. This suggests that longer incubations in the present experimental setup may not yield a greater 318 incorporation. If even higher ¹³C enrichments are needed for specific applications, additional 319 ventilation with 13 CO₂ could be tested. 320

The present results appear very promising for future experimental studies related to the fate and trophic transfers of macroalgal biomass in general and of cell wall polysaccharides in particular. The protocol developed here for the kelp *L. digitata* can be

applied to other species of brown, red or green algae for which laboratory cultivation is 324 available. Therefore, the present method complements the toolbox for quantitative trophic 325 ecology approaches to trace ¹³C-labelled macroalgal biomass within complex pelagic or 326 benthic communities of marine ecosystems. Furthermore, this study is to our knowledge the 327 first to report the purification of ¹³C-labelled cell wall polysaccharide fractions containing 328 alginate and FCSPs. Macroalgae are generally considered as a unique pure source in trophic 329 models, although they in fact comprise diverse molecular compounds potentially at the base 330 of different food chains due to their specific utilization by micro- and macro-organisms in 331 aquatic ecosystems. By giving access to specific ¹³C-labelled polysaccharide fractions, the 332 333 present protocol will help improving the definition of these distinct trophic niches and paves the way for detailed investigations of the diversity and functional processes of uncultured 334 specialized microorganisms responsible for the reinjection of algal polysaccharides into 335 trophic chains via the detrital pathway. To this end, various stable-isotope-enabled microbial 336 ecology techniques are available, such as Stable Isotope Probing (SIP) combined to high-337 throughput sequencing (Dumont & Murrell, 2005), Raman single-cell microspectroscopy 338 (Wagner, 2009) or nano-scale chemical imaging by secondary ion mass spectrometry 339 (nanoSIMS) (Musat, Foster, Vagner, Adam, & Kuypers, 2012). Such studies using ¹³C-340 labelled polysaccharides as substrates would allow linking specific members of natural 341 microbial communities to their function as degraders of the macroalgal biomass in situ, 342 greatly enhancing our current knowledge on the carbon cycle in marine regions. 343

344

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517 **Tables**

Table 1: Yields of cell wall polysaccharide extraction from *L. digitata* cultured sporophytes

519 from the ¹²C-control and ¹³C-enriched batch. FCSP: fucose-containing sulphated 520 polysaccharides

	¹² C-control	¹³ C-enriched
Starting dry biomass	10 g	7.5 g
Alcohol-insoluble residues ^a	5.73 g (57.3%)	4.41 g (58.8%)
Alginate ^a	1.92 g (19.2%)	1.57 g (20.9%)
FCSP ^a	0.83 g (8.3%)	0.53 g (7.1%)

^a Values in brackets are yields based on starting dry biomass

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Table 2: Stable isotope ratios of polysaccharide fractions extracted from 12 C-control and 13 Cenriched *L. digitata* sporophytes. Values are mean \pm standard deviation of technical triplicates.

Samula	At% ¹³ C					
Sample	Alginate	FCSP				
¹² C-control	1.1337 ± 0.0004	1.1454 ± 0.0008				
¹³ C-enriched	3.6279 ± 0.0009	3.5868 ± 0.0064				

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528 Figure legends

529	Figure 1: A	. Schematic o	verview o	of the algal	cultivation	protocol f	or stable isoto	ope labelling	•
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B. Photograph of the experimental setup for cultivation of *L. digitata* sporophytes.

531 Figure 2: A. ¹³C atom percent of algal specimens collected at different time points in the

532 control (blue) and ¹³C-enriched culture batches. Values are mean \pm standard deviation (n=3).

B. Uptake in ¹³C calculated for algae in the ¹³C-enriched culture batch, calculated either in a

⁵²¹

- 534 cumulative way compared to algae from control batch (black, left axis) or as a daily uptake
- calculated for each time point compared to previous time point (white, right axis).
- **Figure 3:** Schematic overview of the polysaccharide extraction process. EtOH, ethanol.
- 537 MeOH, methanol. FCSP, fucose-containing sulphated polysaccharides.

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