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Microbial utilization of rare earth elements at cold seeps related to aerobic methane oxidation

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Abstract

1 A major breakthrough in the field of rare earth element (REE) geochemistry has been the
2 recent discovery of their utility to microbial life, as essential metalloenzymes catalysing the
3 oxidation of methanol to formaldehyde. Lanthanide-dependent bacteria are thought to be
4 ubiquitous in marine and terrestrial environments, but direct field evidence of preferential
5 microbial utilization of REE in natural systems is still lacking. In this study, we report on the
6 REE and trace element composition of the tube of a siboglinid worm collected at a methane
7 seep in the Gulf of Guinea; a tube-dwelling annelid that thrives in deep-sea chemosynthetic
8 ecosystems. High-resolution trace element profiles along the chitin tube indicate marked
9 enrichments of lanthanum (La) and cerium (Ce) in its oxic part, resulting in REE distribution
10 patterns that depart significantly from the ambient seawater signature. Combined with various
11 geochemical and microbiological evidence, this observation provides direct support for an
12 active consumption of light-REE at cold seeps, associated with the aerobic microbial
13 oxidation of methane. To further evaluate this hypothesis, we also re-examine the available
14 set of REE data for modern seep carbonates worldwide. While most carbonate concretions at
15 cold seeps generally display REE distribution patterns very similar to those for reduced pore
16 waters in marine sediments, we find that seafloor carbonate pavements composed of aragonite
17 commonly exhibit pronounced light-REE enrichments, as inferred from high shale-
18 normalized La/Gd ratio ($> \sim 0.8$), interpreted here as possibly reflecting the signature of
19 lanthanide-dependent methanotrophic activity. This finding opens new perspectives for
20 revisiting REE systematics in ancient seep carbonates and other microbialites throughout the
21 Earth's history. In particular, the geochemical imprint of aerobic methane oxidation could be
22 possibly traced using REE in Archaean stromatolites and other archives of Precambrian
23 seawater chemistry, potentially providing new insights into the oxygenation of early Earth's
24 oceans and associated microbiogeochemical processes.

25

26 **Keywords:** tubeworms; Siboglinidae; Lanthanide-dependent bacteria; metalloenzymes;
27 methylotrophy; Regab; authigenic carbonates; Archaean

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Trace elements have long been known for their utility to biological systems, playing key
30 roles in metalloenzymes that mediate important biochemical reactions (*e.g.*, Bowen, 1966).
31 To some extent, the lanthanides, or rare earth elements (REE), also share biologically relevant
32 properties (Tyler, 2004). For instance, they are thought to stimulate plant growth when added
33 as fertilisers in agriculture (Tyler, 2004). However, compared to iron and other well-known
34 essential metals, the biological role of REE still remains largely unexplored and poorly
35 understood (Skrovan and Martinez-Gomez, 2015). A few years ago, a series of experimental
36 works showed that microorganisms involved in the aerobic oxidation of methane were
37 strongly dependent upon REE availability (*e.g.*, Fitriyanto et al., 2011; Nakagawa et al., 2012;
38 Pol et al., 2014), demonstrating that light-REE (LREE), especially lanthanum (La) and cerium
39 (Ce), were playing an active role as cofactors in a particular type (XoxF) of methanol
40 dehydrogenase; a quinoprotein that catalyses the conversion of methanol to formaldehyde.
41 Importantly, follow-up studies revealed that REE-dependent bacteria were probably
42 ubiquitous in both marine and terrestrial environments (Taubert et al., 2015; Ochsner et al.,
43 2019; Picone and Op den Camp, 2019). In a study that investigated the massive gas plume
44 released to the Gulf of Mexico during the *Deepwater Horizon* blowout, Shiller et al. (2017)
45 even proposed that aerobic methanotrophy could play a previously unrecognized role in the
46 marine geochemical cycle of the REE, acting as a net sink for dissolved LREE in seawater.
47 More recently, in a companion paper, we have reported the first documented evidence for
48 methanotrophy-driven La enrichments in cold seep mussels from the South China Sea, both in
49 the carbonate shells and associated soft tissues (Wang et al., 2020). A major finding of that
50 work was the discovery that thiotrophic bivalves from the same sites (*i.e.* associated with
51 sulphur-oxidizing bacteria) did not display any particular LREE enrichments, hence clearly
52 suggesting that their occurrence in chemosynthetic mussels was solely related to lanthanide-

53 dependent methanotrophy. To date, this latter study represents the only field evidence for
54 preferential REE utilization during methane oxidation processes in the marine environment.
55 Additional work is needed to clarify the mechanism by which REE may be consumed by
56 microbial activity in methane-rich environments, but also to assess whether authigenic
57 carbonates and other geological archives of past fluid seepage may provide a record for REE-
58 dependent methanotrophy.

59
60 Siboglinid tubeworms are ubiquitous chemosynthetic organisms at deep-sea hydrocarbon
61 seeps and hydrocarbon vents (*e.g.*, Sibuet and Olu, 1998; Bright and Lallier, 2010), where
62 they form large colonies (or ‘bushes’) at the seafloor, growing on hard substrates (Fig. 1a).
63 For nutrition, siboglinid annelids rely entirely on internal sulphide-oxidizing bacterial
64 symbionts, which are hosted within specialized cells in a specific organ called the trophosome
65 (*e.g.*, Boetius, 2005). At seeps, the required supply of sulphide comes from the underlying
66 anoxic sediment (via anaerobic oxidation of methane or AOM; $\text{CH}_4 + \text{SO}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{HS}^-$
67 $+ \text{H}_2\text{O}$), where the posterior extension of the tube is rooted, often anchored into carbonates,
68 but also, to a lesser extent, from the anterior fraction of the tube, thanks to in-tube water
69 circulation (Julian et al., 1999; Cordes et al., 2005). In contrast, oxygen is acquired
70 exclusively from overlying bottom waters at the anterior end of the animal via a large
71 branchial plume (*e.g.*, Freytag et al., 2001). Siboglinid tubes also act as a direct conduit for
72 seawater sulphate down to the buried posterior extension within the anoxic sediment (*e.g.*,
73 Cordes et al., 2005). This process further promotes AOM and subsequent *in situ* production of
74 dissolved sulphide that can be used as an additional source of energy for the internal
75 symbionts. Within the animal, both dissolved sulphide and oxygen are co-transported by a
76 specialized haemoglobin through the circulatory system to the trophosome (Flores et al.,
77 2005). Siboglinid tubes are composed of chitin crystallites embedded in a protein matrix

78 (Gaill et al., 1992), but also host abundant and diverse microbial communities, including
79 aerobic methane-oxidizing bacteria (Duperron et al., 2009; Medina-Silva et al., 2018). As
80 such, the chitin-rich tube of siboglinid worms represents an ideal archive for investigating the
81 links between trace elements and microbial activity at methane seeps and, in particular, to test
82 the hypothesis that aerobic oxidation of methane can result in the preferential microbial
83 utilization of light-REE.

84

85 In this study, we report REE and other trace element abundances along the tube of one
86 specimen of *Escarpia southwardae*; a tubeworm from the annelid family Siboglinidae that is
87 encountered in West African cold seeps (Andersen et al., 2004). This study builds upon an
88 earlier investigation of the same tubeworm, which combined the characterization of the
89 bacterial symbionts together with preliminary geochemical analyses (Mn, Fe, Sr, Zr) of the
90 chitin tube (Duperron et al., 2014). The new REE data reported here are found to display
91 major fluctuations along the tube, reflecting the combination of various factors, such as the
92 presence of detrital particles embedded within the tube matrix, changes in the relative
93 contribution of anoxic pore water versus oxic seawater, but also, importantly, the preferential
94 utilization of La and other light-REE due to the aerobic oxidation of methane.

95

96 **2. Material and methods**

97 *2.1. Study area and sample preparation*

98 The studied siboglinid tube was collected by remotely operated vehicle (ROV) at the
99 Regab cold seep using a hydraulically actuated Bushmaster device (5.798°S, 9.711°E; 3152 m
100 water depth; Fig. 1a). Regab is a ~800 m wide giant pockmark at the Western African
101 margin, characterized by intense methane seepage and the occurrence of gas hydrates,

102 massive carbonate deposits, and abundant chemosynthetic communities at the seafloor (*e.g.*,
103 Charlou et al., 2004; Ondréas et al., 2005; Olu-Leroy et al., 2007; Pop Ristova et al., 2012;
104 Marcon et al., 2014; Lemaitre et al., 2014). Upon recovery, the ~1-m-long chitinous tube was
105 cut in sections perpendicular to the length of the tube, with sections S1 and S55 corresponding
106 to the most anterior and posterior parts of the tube, respectively (Fig. 1b). All tube samples
107 were cleaned with ultrapure water in ultrasonic bath prior to being digested with twice sub-
108 boiled concentrated HNO₃.

109

110 2.32. Background information on the growth of siboglinid tubeworms and associated redox 111 processes

112 Siboglinid tubeworms include some of the longest-lived animals on earth, with life spans
113 extending up to 300 yr old (*e.g.*, Bergquist et al., 2000; Durkin et al., 2017). While the mode
114 of growth of siboglinid tubeworms still remains poorly constrained, it is generally assumed
115 that the tube can grow at both ends (*e.g.*, Gaill et al., 1997), resulting in the formation of
116 successive concentric growth lines in the anterior extension of the tube that is bathed by
117 ambient bottom waters. In situ growth measurements suggest that the tube of siboglinid
118 annelids grows at an average rate of ~1 cm/yr (*e.g.* Bergquist et al., 2000; Cordes et al., 2005;
119 Cordes et al., 2007; Durkin et al., 2017). The chitin-producing glands are located in the
120 anterior end of the animal, associated with a muscular organ called the vestimentum (*e.g.*,
121 Bright and Lallier, 2010). Several studies have suggested that chitin and protein dissolution
122 may occur in the basal part of the animal due to secretion of enzymes (*e.g.*, Gaill et al., 1997).

123

124 At cold seeps, all species of siboglinid worms share a common habitat, living at the redox
125 interface between oxic bottom waters and the reduced sediment. As mentioned above, a

126 preliminary set of data (Fe, Mn, Zr, Sr) has been already reported for the same tube of
127 *Escarpia southwardae* investigated in this study (Duperron et al., 2014), indicating the
128 presence of two distinct oxidation fronts along the tube. As inferred from Mn and Fe
129 concentrations (Fig. 2), a first redox front was shown to occur near the posterior root-like
130 extension of the tube (between sections S45-S49), corresponding to the redox interface
131 between oxic bottom waters and the anoxic sediment. In marine sediments, early diagenetic
132 processes proceed with the reduction of hydrogenous Fe-Mn oxyhydroxide phases under
133 oxygen-depleted conditions (e.g., Burdige, 1993). In organic-rich sediments or in areas
134 influenced by methane seepage, this process typically occurs within the first tens of
135 centimetres below the seafloor, releasing dissolved Mn^{2+} and Fe^{2+} into the surrounding pore
136 waters, which then diffuse upwards until they re-precipitate as diagenetic Fe-Mn
137 oxyhydroxides, when oxic conditions are met again near the seafloor or in bottom waters
138 (e.g., Burdige, 1993; Schulz et al., 1994; Bayon et al., 2011a; Pop-Ristova et al., 2012). A
139 second oxidative front was also identified at the anterior end of the tube (S1-S8), inferred
140 solely from Mn concentrations (Fig. 2), interpreted as the result of active oxygen uptake by
141 the branchial plume (Duperron et al., 2014). As proposed in this latter study, intense oxygen
142 consumption in the branchial plume region most likely result in a micro-redox gradient that
143 could locally foster microbial activity, possibly playing a key role in the metabolism of
144 siboniglids.

145

146 2.3. Methods

147 Concentrations for rare earth and other trace elements were determined at the Pôle
148 Spectrométrie Océan (Brest, France) on an Element2 ICP-MS, after addition of a Tm spike
149 and correction for polyatomic oxide and hydroxide interferences (Barrat et al., 1996). The
150 precision and accuracy of our measurements were assessed by replicate analyses of the MA-

151 A-1/TM certified reference material (International Atomic Energy Agency; IAEA). MA-A-1
152 corresponds to homogenized copepods (*Calanus cristatus*) collected from the Norwegian Sea
153 and composed of chitin. Precision (expressed as relative standard deviation in Table 1) was
154 better than 15% RSD for most elements, except Zr (18.7%), Mo (24%), Gd (18.1%) and Th
155 (15.8%). The accuracy of our procedure was evaluated by comparing our results to
156 recommended values for V, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn (Table 1; International Atomic Energy
157 Agency, 1990; Maher et al., 2001), demonstrating relatively good agreement (within 15%)
158 except for V (24%). For other elements, the accuracy was assessed by analysing MA-A-1
159 after an additional step of iron oxide co-precipitation; a method that allows quantitative
160 extraction of reactive trace elements (including REE) and separation from the sample matrix,
161 resulting in accurate results for various geological samples (Bayon et al., 2009a; Bayon et al.,
162 2011b). The good agreement obtained between the two datasets (Table 1) further validates
163 our procedure for the following elements: Mn, Y, REE and Th. The REE concentrations were
164 normalized to World River Average Silt (WRAS) abundances (Bayon et al., 2015). The La
165 and Ce enrichments in studied sections of the tube were quantified using the shale-normalized
166 (N) La (La/La^*) and (Ce/Ce^*) anomalies, where La^* and Ce^* correspond to theoretical
167 concentrations calculated geometrically assuming that the behaviour of their respective REE
168 neighbours is linear on a log-linear plot (Lawrence et al., 2006), with $\text{La}^* = \text{Pr}_\text{N} \times (\text{Pr}_\text{N}/\text{Nd}_\text{N})^2$
169 and $\text{Ce}^* = \text{Pr}_\text{N} \times (\text{Pr}_\text{N}/\text{Nd}_\text{N})$, respectively. Positive and negative La and Ce anomalies are
170 indicated by La/La^* and $\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^* > 1$ and < 1 , respectively.

171

172 **3. Results**

173 Measured trace element abundances in the tube sections are reported in Table 2. Selected
174 elemental profiles for REE (La, Gd) and other trace elements (Mn, Fe, Th, V, Mo, U and Cu)
175 along the tube are presented in Fig. 2. As previously shown for Fe and Zr (Duperron et al.,

176 2014), Th and other elements typically associated with the silicate detrital fraction of the
177 sediment (*e.g.*, Rb, Ba) display marked enrichments in both anterior and posterior extensions
178 of the tube (Fig. 2). The REE also display similar concentration profiles (*e.g.*, La, Gd; Fig. 2),
179 with La abundances fluctuating over more than one order of magnitude between the anterior
180 end of the tube (319 ng/g in section S1), to its middle (21 ng/g; S30) and posterior (417 ng/g;
181 S55) parts. However, while high Gd abundances in the anterior portion of the tube mainly
182 occur in sections S1 and S2, the observed La enrichment extends down to section S22
183 approximately, as clearly shown by higher $(La/Gd)_N$ in this portion of the tube (Fig. 2). Note
184 that the La and Gd (and other REE) also exhibit a small enrichment at ~ 85 cm, similar to that
185 previously observed for Mn and Fe (Duperron et al., 2014). Copper exhibits a slightly
186 different profile along the tube, characterized by high concentrations in the anterior part (> 10
187 $\mu\text{g/g}$ in sections S1-2) and a smooth decrease in the remaining part of the tube. Finally, the
188 three redox sensitive elements (V, Mo and U) display markedly different elemental profiles
189 along the tube, with their lowest concentrations being observed in the anterior extension of the
190 tube (Fig. 2). Along the tube, V, Mo and U display similar trends until ~80 cm, characterized
191 by a sudden increase of concentrations in the anterior part of the tube (*e.g.*, from ~ 0.2 to 10
192 $\mu\text{g/g}$ for U), followed by a gentle decrease to reach minimum values between sections S22
193 and S44. Below the seawater-sediment interface (~80 cm), Mo and V abundances increase
194 steadily, while U concentrations remain near constant (Fig. 2).

195

196 **4. Discussion**

197 *4.1. U, Mo and V constraints on changing redox conditions along the tube*

198 Our new set of data includes trace elements (V, Mo and U) that are more soluble in oxic
199 environments than under oxygen-depleted conditions (for a detailed review of the behaviour
200 of redox-sensitive elements in the marine environment, see Tribovillard et al., 2006 and

201 Smrzka et al., 2019). These redox elements are typically enriched in reduced organic-rich
202 sediments, being relatively unaffected by the presence of detrital silicate minerals. As such,
203 they are commonly used in sedimentary records as paleoproductivity and/or paleoredox
204 proxies (*e.g.*, Algeo and Maynard, 2004; Tribovillard et al., 2006). In seepage areas, the
205 presence of significant Mo and U enrichments in sub-surface sediment horizons has been also
206 interpreted as reflecting fossil evidence for past circulation events of methane-rich fluids
207 (Peketi et al., 2012; Sato et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2016). In the marine
208 environment, both Mo and V share strong affinities with Mn oxides and, as a consequence,
209 are strongly affected by the redox cycling of Mn at the seawater-sediment interface (*e.g.*,
210 Calvert and Pedersen, 1993; Crusius et al., 1996). Under oxygen-depleted conditions,
211 increasing levels of dissolved sulphide typically lead to enhanced sequestration of Mo and V
212 into various organic compounds and sulphide minerals in the sediment (*e.g.*, Tribovillard et
213 al., 2006). Unlike Mo and V, the enrichment of U in reduced marine sediments is not
214 influenced by the redox cycling of Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides, nor does it reflect the levels of
215 dissolved hydrogen sulphide in the surrounding environment (*e.g.*, Algeo and Maynard, 2004;
216 McManus et al., 2005).

217

218 Based on the above, the steady increase of V, Mo and U concentrations starting from the most
219 anterior part of the tube (i.e. the ‘upper’ 10 cm, between S1 and S8) is best explained as
220 reflecting a sharp redox gradient between oxic bottom waters (where V, Mo and U are mostly
221 present in soluble forms) and the branchial plume region associated with intense oxygen
222 consumption (where oxygen-depleted conditions are expected to result in the preferential
223 immobilization of these redox-sensitive elements). Due to their known affinity with Mn, it is
224 also possible that some of the observed enrichments for V and Mo in this part of the tube also
225 partly relate to the redox cycling of Mn. Between ~10 and 80 cm, the progressively

226 decreasing V and Mo concentrations along the tube (and to a lesser extent U) presumably
227 reflect the presence of less reduced conditions, although the persistence of relatively high U
228 concentrations in this portion of the tube may still point towards relatively low oxygen levels.
229 Finally, in the posterior part of the tube rooted in the sediment, below ~80 cm, the sharp
230 increase of Mo concentrations (and to a lesser extent V) most likely indicates the presence of
231 high levels of dissolved sulphide below the seawater-sediment interface. Overall, the
232 interpretations based on the use of these three redox-sensitive elements agree well with the
233 hypothesis proposed earlier by Duperron et al. (2014), confirming that siboglinid tubes are
234 associated with the presence of sharp redox gradients at both posterior and anterior
235 extensions.

236

237 *4.2. Pore water versus seawater REE signatures along the siboglinid tube*

238 In sections S1 and S2, high La and other REE abundances are best explained by the
239 presence of detrital particles embedded within the chitin-rich matrix, as inferred both from
240 corresponding high contents of Th and other terrigenous elements (Fig. 2; Table 2) and
241 relatively flat shale-normalized REE distribution patterns (Fig. 3a). This recently-secreted
242 portion of the tube is indeed much thinner than the rest of the chitinous tube (except for its
243 posterior root-like extension; Duperron et al., 2014), and hence most likely to be
244 'contaminated' with particles derived from ambient turbid bottom waters. Below the
245 seawater-sediment interface (between S45-S55), the observed increasing REE abundances
246 could also reflect to some extent the presence of detrital particles, but also, presumably, the
247 acquisition by the chitin tube of dissolved REE from surrounding pore waters. At ocean
248 margins, anoxic pore waters typically display mid-REE (MREE) enrichments and positive Ce
249 anomalies as a result of the reductive dissolution of Fe-Mn oxyhydroxide phases (*e.g.*,
250 Sholkovitz et al., 1989; Haley et al., 2004; Himmler et al., 2013; Abbott et al., 2015), with

251 corresponding distribution patterns that closely resemble those determined in the most
252 posterior sections of *Escarpia southwardae* (Fig. 3d). Instead, the anterior part of the tube,
253 located above the seawater-sediment interface, is characterized by REE distribution patterns
254 exhibiting a progressive increase of heavy-REE relative to the LREE; a feature that is typical
255 of seawater (Fig. 3d). This feature is most apparent in the portion of the tube located between
256 sections S22-S44 (Fig. 3c), where REE exhibit shale-normalized signatures very similar to
257 that of ambient seawater, including the presence of pronounced negative Ce anomalies
258 (Lemaitre et al., 2014; see the red dotted line in Fig. 3d). Taken together, these characteristics
259 indicate that ambient bottom waters most likely acted as the main source of dissolved REE in
260 this portion of the tube.

261

262 The relative influence of pore water *versus* seawater REE signatures in the studied siboglinid
263 tube can be further constrained using both Ce and La anomalies. Along the tube, Ce
264 anomalies display a general trend from positive (> 1) to negative (< 1) Ce/Ce* values from its
265 apical end to ~ 75 cm, followed, below the seawater-sediment interface, by a marked increase
266 up to Ce/Ce* ~ 1.4 (Fig. 2). Except for the first two sections S1-S2, La anomalies display a
267 similar depth-profile in the anterior part of the tube, characterized by a gradual decrease from
268 high (~ 3-4) to low (~ 1-2) La/La* values (Fig. 2). However, in contrast to Ce/Ce*, La
269 anomalies remain at low La/La* values (~ 1-2) below the seawater-sediment interface, except
270 for two samples (S51 and S52). This decoupling between Ce and La anomalies can be also
271 illustrated in a Ce/Ce* vs La/La* graph (Fig. 4), where our results for the tube sections are
272 compared to an extensive compilation of literature data for pore waters and seawater (see
273 Tables S1 and S2). Apart from sections S51 and S52, all the sections derived from the buried
274 posterior extension of the tube clearly plot within the field defined by pore waters, while
275 sections from the tube interval between sections S22 and S44 plot within the field of seawater.

276 This latter observation agrees well with the hypothesis that seawater actively circulates within
277 the tube (Cordes et al, 2005; Duperron et al, 2014). In Fig. 4, the tube sections between S22
278 and S44 are aligned along a general mixing relationship defined by bottom waters at Regab,
279 from both the seafloor (<1m elevation) and the overlying water column (>1m), and pore
280 waters, which suggests that while ambient waters probably act as a major source of REE in
281 the anterior part of the tube, their REE signature is also probably partially influenced by pore
282 waters.

283

284 *4.3. Evidence for microbial utilization of LREE related to aerobic oxidation of methane*

285 A striking feature of Fig. 4 is that most sections from the most anterior part of the tube
286 depart significantly from the ‘seawater & pore water’ array, displaying higher-than-normal La
287 anomalies. Between S3 and S21, changing REE abundances are also reflected by flatter shale-
288 normalized patterns and the absence of negative Ce anomalies (Fig. 3a,b), indicating that REE
289 decoupling probably occurs along this section of the tube. It is unlikely that this change in
290 shale-normalized patterns results from co-precipitation onto Mn oxyhydroxide phases, as
291 could be possibly inferred from increasing Mn contents in the same part of the tube. If this
292 was the case, one would expect similarly corresponding enrichments in trace elements such as
293 Co, which generally share strong affinities for Mn oxides (Table 2). Additionally, any
294 authigenic Mn-oxide phase associated with the chitin tube would be expected to display a
295 shale-normalized REE pattern similar to that of anoxic pore waters, hence without any
296 particular La anomalies. This is illustrated by the fact that leached Fe-Mn oxyhydroxide
297 phases from surficial Congo Fan sediments (Bayon et al., 2004) plot well within the field of
298 pore waters in Fig. 4. Instead, we propose below that the light-REE enrichments observed in
299 the anterior portion of the tube could be related to microbial processes.

300

301 There is plentiful evidence that active microbial activity takes place in the anterior part of
302 siboglinid tubes at cold seeps. For instance, recent studies conducted at methane seeps
303 recently identified Methylococcales and other methanotrophic bacteria as an abundant
304 microbial group in the anterior portion of chitin tubes of siboglinids, including *Escarpia*
305 *southwardae* (Medina-Silva et al., 2018; Rincón-Tomás et al., 2020). In addition to the
306 primary sulphur-oxidizing symbionts present in the animal itself, the presence of abundant
307 methanotrophic bacteria in the upper part of the tube of a *Lamellibrachia* species was also
308 supported using methanotroph-specific molecular probes and sequencing of a subunit of
309 methane monooxygenase (Duperron et al., 2009). While the nutritional role of these tube-
310 associated bacteria to their siboglinid hosts remains largely unknown (Hilario et al., 2011), all
311 the above evidence collectively suggest that methanotrophs are common colonizers of the
312 tubes of seep tubeworms worldwide, which could possibly contribute to the biomineralization
313 of the tube (. Like other families of aerobic methane-oxidising bacteria, most
314 Methylococcales possess both the methane monooxygenase (MMO) and methanol
315 dehydrogenase (MDH) enzymes, which catalyse the oxidation of methane to methanol and
316 subsequent conversion to formaldehyde, respectively (*e.g.*, Semrau et al., 2018). As
317 mentioned in the Introduction, the activity of the XoxF-type of methanol dehydrogenase is
318 now known to be strongly dependent on light-REE availability, especially La and Ce. Instead,
319 the first step of methane oxidation is mostly controlled by copper availability. When Cu is
320 abundant, methanotrophs express a membrane-bound Cu-containing enzyme called particulate
321 methane monooxygenase (pMMO), which catalyzes the oxidation of methane to methanol
322 (*e.g.*, Glass and Orphan, 2012). In the studied tube of *Escarpia southwardae*, the abundance
323 profile for Cu closely follows that for La (Fig. 2). Additionally, Cu contents, after
324 normalization to Th in order to correct from any effect related to the presence of detrital
325 particles, also display strong positive relationships with both La/Th and shale-normalized La

326 anomaly (Fig. 5). To a lesser extent, Cu also shows positive correlations with Ce/Th ratios
327 and Ce/Ce* in the anterior region of the studied tube, hence suggesting that these two
328 elements are also involved in the same biogeochemical processes along the tube. While the
329 magnitude of measured Ce anomalies along the studied tube is likely to be strongly influenced
330 by various diagenetic processes (presence of Mn oxyhydroxide phases) and source effects
331 (relative seawater *versus* pore water contributions), this observation is consistent with
332 previous investigations, which suggested that both La and Ce can be transported and used at
333 similar rates by methanotrophs and methylotrophs (e.g. Pol et al., 2014; Semrau, 2018;
334 Daumann, 2019; Picone and Op den Camp, 2019). Therefore, in agreement with our recent
335 findings on chemosynthetic mussels from the South China Sea (Wang et al., 2020), the above
336 lines of evidence strongly suggest that the aerobic oxidation of methane at cold seeps can
337 result in the combined uptake of both dissolved light-REE and Cu in the anterior extension of
338 cold seep siboglinid tubes.

339

340 *4.4. Revisiting REE systematics in modern cold seep carbonates*

341 Unlike the Gulf of Mexico, where intense LREE scavenging had occurred in the water
342 column following the *Deepwater Horizon* oil spill, no significant LREE depletion was
343 identified in the bottom waters at Regab (Lemaitre et al., 2014). The massive amounts of
344 methane accidentally released during the *Deepwater Horizon* disaster (Joye et al., 2011)
345 possibly accounted for as much as a few percent of the total flux of natural CH₄ emitted from
346 the seafloor at ocean margins annually (Boetius and Wenzhöfer, 2013), resulting locally in
347 unprecedented high rates of methane oxidation into the water column (Crespo-Medina et al.,
348 2014). Instead, at natural submarine seeps, *anaerobic* oxidation of methane represents an
349 effective filter for CH₄ in the sediment (Boetius and Wenzhöfer, 2013), so that rates of
350 *aerobic* methane oxidation in the overlying water column are consequently much reduced. At

351 Regab, the absence of any dissolved REE enrichment in bottom waters contrasted with the
352 behaviour of Mn and Fe, which both displayed significantly higher dissolved contents in the
353 water column overlying seepage sites (Lemaitre et al., 2014). This discrepancy between
354 elements generally exhibiting relatively similar geochemical behaviour in the marine
355 environment was interpreted as reflecting preferential removal of REE during precipitation of
356 authigenic carbonates in sub-surface sediments (Lemaitre et al., 2014). In the light of our
357 findings, future investigations should also investigate whether microbial REE uptake by
358 chemosynthetic communities could also account, at least to some extent, for REE removal at
359 cold seeps.

360

361 To further evaluate the hypothesis that aerobic methane oxidation can drive preferential
362 utilization of LREE at submarine methane seeps, we also re-examine the available set of REE
363 data for modern cold seep carbonates worldwide, which complements the recent literature
364 review by Smrzka et al. (2020). At cold seeps, authigenic carbonates represent a direct by-
365 product of the anaerobic pathway for methane oxidation (AOM), resulting from enhanced
366 alkalinity and carbonate saturation levels in the surrounding pore waters (*e.g.*, Aloisi et al.,
367 2002). The type and mineralogical composition of authigenic carbonates is strongly
368 dependent upon the upward methane flux and the depth at which the AOM takes place within
369 the sediment; the so-called sulphate-methane transition zone (SMTZ). In areas of high CH₄
370 fluxes, AOM typically proceeds near the seafloor, resulting in the formation of massive
371 carbonate pavements dominated by aragonite and associated with abundant chemosynthetic
372 fauna (*e.g.*, Greinert et al., 2001; Naehr et al., 2007). In contrast, in areas of reduced methane
373 seepage, the depth of the SMTZ is encountered deeper within the sediment column (*e.g.*,
374 Borowski et al., 1996), where AOM and the presence of sulphate-depleted conditions are
375 typically accompanied by the formation of homogeneous nodules of high-Mg carbonates,

376 such as high-Mg calcite, dolomite or siderite (*e.g.*, Aloisi et al., 2002; Gieskes et al., 2005;
377 Bayon et al., 2007; Naehr et al., 2007). Despite of the genetic link between AOM and
378 authigenic carbonates at cold seeps, the formation of aragonite at the seafloor has been
379 occasionally associated with the presence of oxic conditions, at least locally, as inferred from
380 the occurrence of negative Ce anomalies and various molecular fossils (biomarkers) of
381 aerobic methanotrophic bacteria (*e.g.*, Birgel et al., 2011; Himmler et al., 2015). As such,
382 seafloor carbonate pavements can represent potential archives for searching additional
383 evidence of the preferential microbial utilization of LREE through aerobic methane oxidation.

384

385 In Fig. 6, we investigate the relationships between Ce/Ce* and La/La* in modern cold seep
386 carbonates worldwide (Feng et al., 2008, 2009a, 2010; Himmler et al., 2010; Birgel et al.,
387 2011; Rongemaille et al., 2011; Bayon et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2014; Pierre et al., 2014; Wang
388 et al., 2014, 2015; Novikova et al., 2015; Crémère et al., 2016 ; Franchi et al., 2017 ; Yang et
389 al., 2018; Smrzka et al., 2019 ; Wang et al., 2019). Note that all these literature data for
390 modern seep carbonates are also compiled in Table S3. Authigenic carbonates were classified
391 into two groups depending on their dominant mineralogy: aragonite and high-Mg carbonates.
392 As expected, high-Mg carbonates clearly plot within the field of pore waters in Fig. 6a,
393 yielding average La and Ce anomalies of 1.14 ± 0.30 and 1.09 ± 0.24 (1SD; n=160),
394 respectively. Most aragonite crusts at cold seeps also plot in the field of pore waters, but
395 exhibit slightly lower Ce anomalies (0.97 ± 0.31) and higher La/La* average values ($1.21 \pm$
396 0.31 ; n=114). In Fig. 6a, a few aragonite samples associated with low Ce anomalies, hence
397 displaying a seawater-like REE signature, also appear to exhibit slightly higher La anomalies
398 (with La/La* > ~1.5). However, these values remain within the observed range of La/La*
399 values in seawater (between ~ 1 and 3), so their interpretation in terms of preferential La
400 microbial utilization cannot be conclusive.

401 In Fig. 6b, we also examine the relationships between shale-normalized La/Gd and Gd/Yb
402 ratios in the same set of seep carbonate samples. As recently shown (Bayon et al., 2020), this
403 graph is particularly well suited for investigating the general shape of shale-normalized REE
404 patterns, especially for discriminating between samples exhibiting a typical MREE bulge of
405 anoxic pore waters (characterized by relatively low $(La/Gd)_N$ and high $(Gd/Yb)_N$ values) and
406 those displaying seawater-like patterns (characterized by both low $(La/Gd)_N$ and high
407 $(Gd/Yb)_N$ values). In Fig. 6b, the observed range of $(La/Gd)_N$ and $(Gd/Yb)_N$ values in high-
408 Mg carbonates also remarkably overlaps with pore water data. However, while most aragonite
409 concretions do display similar $(La/Gd)_N$ and $(Gd/Yb)_N$ values, many of them appear to depart
410 significantly from the fields defined by pore waters and seawater, being characterized by
411 substantially higher shale-normalized La/Gd ratios (up to ~ 2.2 ; Fig. 6b). A similar
412 observation can be drawn when plotting $(Pr/Gd)_N$ versus $(Gd/Yb)_N$ for the same set of
413 authigenic carbonate samples (graph not shown here), indicating that these particular samples
414 are also enriched in other LREE relative to the MREE.

415 A shared characteristic of those carbonate samples with high $(La/Gd)_N$ ratios is that they
416 correspond to aragonite-rich seafloor carbonate pavements from the Gulf of Mexico (Feng et
417 al., 2009a; Birgel et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2014; Smrzka et al., 2019), the Niger delta
418 (Rongemaille et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2019), the Makran accretionary prism (Himmler et al.,
419 2010), and the Mediterranean Sea (Franchi et al., 2017), which are all closely associated with
420 abundant chemosynthetic fauna (*e.g.*, bathymodiolin mussels, tube worms) that live in
421 symbiosis with aerobic methane-consuming microbes (*e.g.*, Aharon, 1994; Greinert et al.,
422 2001; Teichert et al., 2005; Han et al., 2008). On this basis, the occurrence of anomalously
423 high $(La/Gd)_N$ in chemoherm carbonates at cold seeps could possibly reflect the presence of
424 shell fragments bearing the REE signature of the aerobic oxidation of methane. However,
425 considering the recent REE data obtained on methanotrophic mussels from the South China

426 Sea (with a mean shale-normalized La/Gd ratio ~ 3.7 ; Wang et al., 2020), this hypothesis
427 would be quite unlikely because REE concentrations in the carbonate shells are depleted by
428 about two orders of magnitude compared to seep carbonates. In the Gulf of Mexico, the
429 occurrence of pronounced LREE enrichments has been documented in laser-ablated aragonite
430 phases from carbonate pavements associated with asphalt volcanism, interpreted as reflecting
431 the degradation of liquid hydrocarbons (Smrzka et al., 2019; Fig. 6b). As proposed in that
432 latter study, such LREE enrichments could be taken as diagnostic features for the influence of
433 oil seepage at seep sites. Additionally, the presence of LREE enrichments in seafloor
434 aragonite concretions could also reflect their close association with the chemosynthetic
435 biomass, as proposed recently in an investigation of ancient seep carbonates by laser-ablation
436 ICP-MS (Zwicker et al., 2018; Fig. 6b). At cold seeps, spectacular LREE enrichments have
437 been indeed identified in the soft tissues of chemosynthetic mussels (with shale-normalized
438 La/Gd ratios of up to ~ 100), which were clearly attributed to reflecting the signature of REE-
439 dependent methanotrophy (Wang et al., 2020). Seafloor carbonate pavements are typically
440 traversed by a dense network of tubular holes, which marks the presence of ancient siboglinid
441 tubeworms whose tubes have now been dissolved (*e.g.*, Feng and Roberts, 2010; Feng et al.,
442 2013). This process probably occurs over short timescales (a few decades or centuries)
443 because recent carbonate crusts (as inferred from U-Th dating) commonly display the same
444 petrographic features (*e.g.*, Bayon et al., 2009b). Based on the above, we suggest that the
445 degradation of chitin tubes and/or other organic compounds bearing the geochemical
446 signature of lanthanide-dependent methanotrophy could possibly result locally in the release
447 of LREE-enriched dissolved signatures that would be subsequently incorporated into
448 authigenic aragonite. Such a process could possibly account for some of the observed LREE
449 enrichments in modern seep carbonates, in addition to providing a plausible explanation for

450 the presence of ‘aerobic’ geochemical signatures in authigenic carbonates formed otherwise
451 via AOM.

452

453 **5. Concluding remarks and future perspectives**

454 Our high-resolution trace element investigation of a one-meter long chitin tube of a deep-
455 sea siboglinid worm provides new evidence for the occurrence of aerobic microbial utilization
456 of light-REE at cold seeps. In the branchial plume region of the tubeworm, the combined
457 uptake of both Cu and LREE (especially La and Ce) from ambient seawater is inferred to be
458 associated with the presence of tube-associated methane-consuming bacteria, serving as
459 metalloenzymes for the transformation of methane to methanol, and subsequent conversion to
460 formaldehyde, respectively. A reassessment of REE data for modern authigenic carbonates
461 worldwide also suggests discernible signatures of lanthanide-dependent methanotrophy in
462 many seafloor aragonite pavements, as inferred from the presence of anomalously high La
463 contents compared to other REE (with shale-normalized La/Gd ratios $> \sim 0.8$). Such LREE
464 enrichments in seep carbonates could possibly reflect the acquisition of geochemical
465 signatures inherited from the degradation of chemosynthetic biomass supported by REE-
466 dependent methanotrophy.

467 In future studies, we anticipate that these findings and their application to fossil microbial
468 carbonates could provide new insights into the biogeochemical processes operating in ancient
469 oceans. This could include the re-evaluation of previous REE datasets for ancient seep
470 carbonates (*e.g.*, Feng et al., 2009b; Tong and Chen, 2012; Tribovillard et al., 2013; Della
471 Porta et al., 2015; Colin et al., 2015; Smrzka et al., 2016; Zwicker et al., 2018; Argentino et
472 al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2019), but also for various microbial archives of Precambrian oceans, at
473 times when methane levels were presumably much higher both in the atmosphere and oceans
474 (*e.g.*, Catling et al., 2001; Konhauser et al., 2009). For instance, many Late Archaean

475 stromatolites also display marked enrichments in La and other LREE (e.g., Kamber and
476 Webb, 2001; Planavsky et al., 2010; Kamber et al., 2014; Schier et al., 2018). Future work
477 could aim at investigating whether these particular features, generally taken as evidence for
478 the presence of severely depleted oxygen levels in shallow waters (e.g., Kamber et al., 2014),
479 could also possibly correspond to the geochemical imprint of lanthanide-dependent
480 methanotrophy in early Earth's oceans.

481

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488

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808

809 **Figure captions**

810

811 **Figure 1. (a)** Seafloor photographs of bushes of siboglinid tubeworms (*Escarpia*
812 *southwardae*) at the Regab pockmark. **(b)** The chitin-rich tube of *Escarpia southwardae*
813 investigated in this study, with location of the sections analysed for trace elements.

814

815 **Figure 2.** Concentration profiles for selected trace elements ($\mu\text{g/g}$ or ng/g), La and Ce
816 anomalies, and shale-normalized La/Gd ratios along the tube. The anterior part of the tube

817 (from sections S1 to S8) corresponds to a redox front between ambient oxic seawater and the
818 branchial plume region, characterized by oxygen-depleted conditions (horizontal orange
819 band). The part of the tube between sections S1 and S44 was bathed by bottom water, while
820 sections S44 to S55 correspond to the root-like posterior extension buried in the anoxic
821 sediment. The second redox front between sections S44 to S49 corresponds to the seawater-
822 sediment interface (horizontal orange band). The vertical grey shaded areas indicate the range
823 of $(La/Gd)_N$, La and Ce anomalies in bottom waters at Regab (Lemaitre et al., 2014). The
824 dashed lines correspond to La/La^* and $Ce/Ce^* = 1$, which indicate the absence of any La and
825 Ce anomalies, respectively. Note that Mn and Fe concentrations are from Duperron et al.
826 (2014).

827

828 **Figure 3.** Shale-normalized (WRAS) REE patterns for the studied siboglinid tube between (a)
829 sections S1 and S8, (b) sections S9-S21, and (c) sections S22-S44 and S45-S55. (d) Also
830 shown for comparison are the average REE patterns for Regab bottom waters (Lemaitre et al.,
831 2014), together with global seawater and pore waters having shale-normalized Gd/Yb ratio >1
832 (considered as representative of anoxic pore waters). The references used for the global
833 compilation of seawater and pore water data are listed in Supplementary Tables S1 and S2.
834 Note that the tube samples from sections S22-S44 (black circles) and S45-S55 (blue squares)
835 display REE patterns typical ambient bottom waters at the Regab pockmark and anoxic pore
836 waters, respectively. In contrast, samples from sections S8-S21 (orange triangles) and S3-S7
837 (red diamonds) are characterized by pronounced La enrichments and the absence of Ce
838 anomalies. The observed flat shale-normalized patterns for sections S1 and S2 reflect the
839 presence of detrital sediment particles.

840

841 **Figure 4.** Relationship between Ce and La anomalies in studied siboglinid tube sections. The
842 other REE data used for comparison include a global compilation of Ce/Ce* and La/La* for
843 seawater and pore water (Tables S1 and S2), bottom waters at the Regab pockmark (Lemaitre
844 et al., 2014) collected just above the seafloor (<1 m absf) and in the overlying water column
845 (>1 m absf) (Lemaitre et al., 2014), and the Fe-Mn oxyhydroxide fraction extracted from
846 Congo fan seafloor sediment (yellow star; Bayon et al., 2004). The tube sections from the
847 buried posterior extension between sections S45-S55 plot within the field of pore waters
848 (except for S51 and S52), while the sections S22-S44 plot between the fields for pore waters
849 and ambient bottom waters at Regab. In contrast, most of the sections from the anterior part of
850 the tube display clear La enrichments that depart from expected pore water and seawater
851 signatures.

852

853 **Figure 5.** Relationships between light-REE and Cu in the siboglinid tube sections. (a) La/Th
854 vs Cu/Th. (b) La/La* vs Cu/Th. (c) Ce/Th vs Cu/Th. (d) Ce/Ce* vs Cu/Th. The observed co-
855 enrichments of Cu, La and (to a lesser extent) Ce and in the anterior portion of the tube are
856 interpreted as reflecting their uptake by aerobic methane-oxidising bacteria, as
857 metalloenzymes catalyzing the transformation of methane to methanol, and methanol to
858 formaldehyde, respectively.

859

860 **Figure 6.** Revisiting REE systematics in modern cold seep carbonates using (a) Ce/Ce* vs
861 La/La* and (b) (La/Gd)_N vs (Gd/Yb)_N relationships. The REE data and references used for the
862 compilation of cold seep carbonates are listed in Table S3. Most cold seep carbonates overlap
863 with pore waters, except for some seafloor aragonite-rich chemohierms displaying particular
864 La enrichments, as inferred from high (La/Gd)_N (> ~ 0.8). These LREE enrichments are
865 interpreted here as possibly reflecting the signature of REE-dependent methanotrophic

866 activity at the seafloor. Also shown for comparison are average laser-ablation data for pure
867 aragonite in seep carbonates from the Makran accretionary prism (Himmler et al., 2010), in
868 seep carbonates influenced by oil seepage in the Gulf of Mexico (Smrzka et al., 2019), and in
869 ancient Phanerozoic seep carbonates (Zwicker et al., 2018).

870

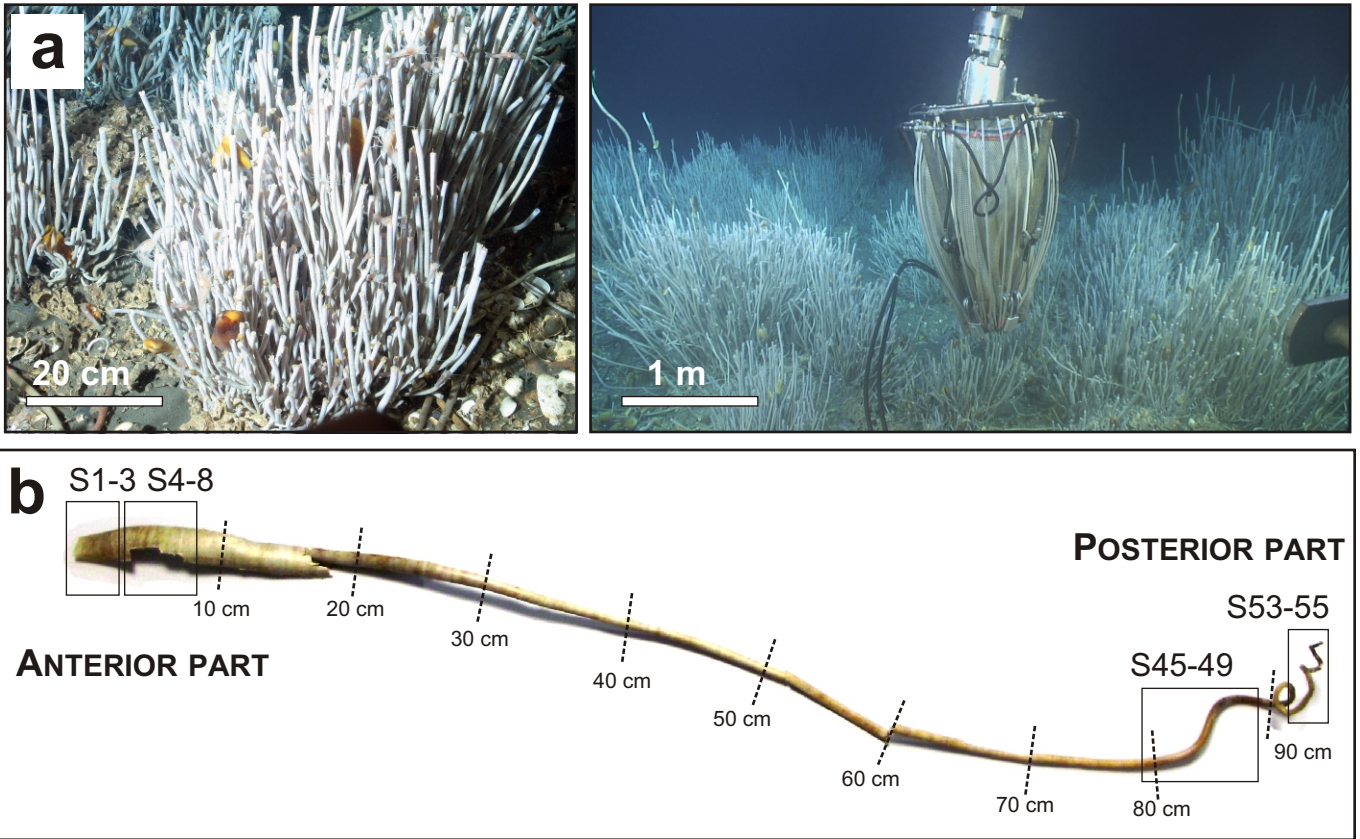


Fig. 1

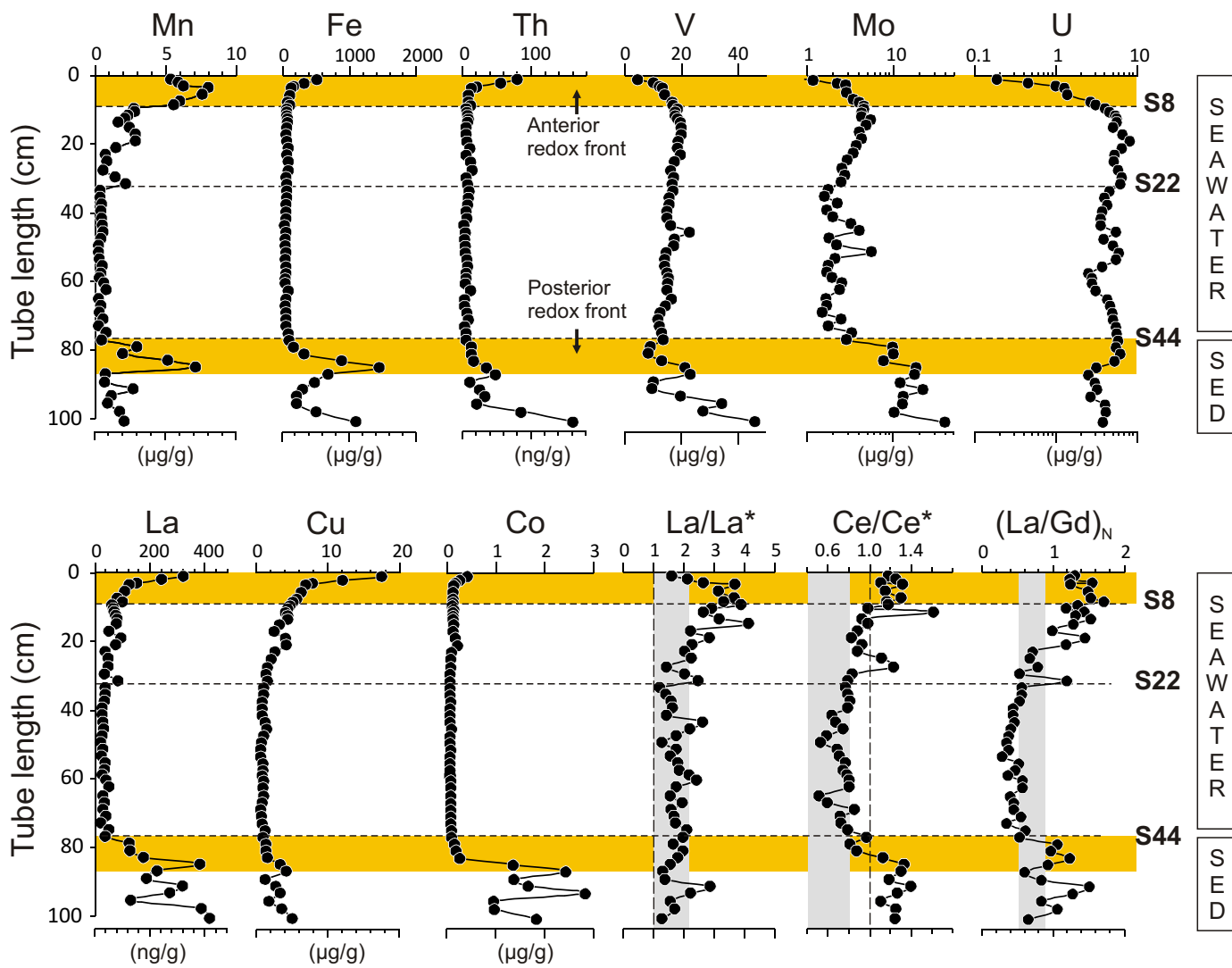


Fig. 2

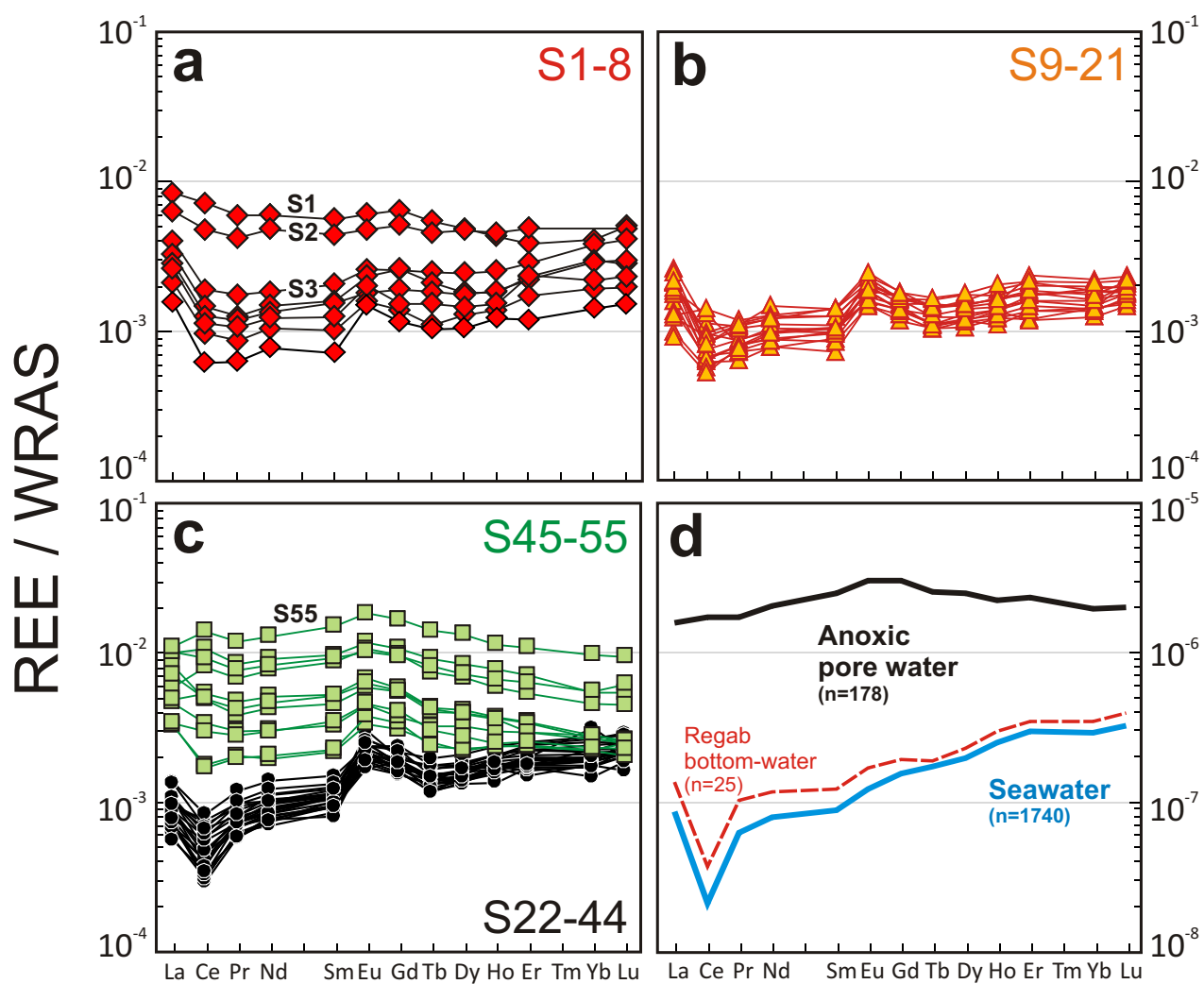


Fig. 3

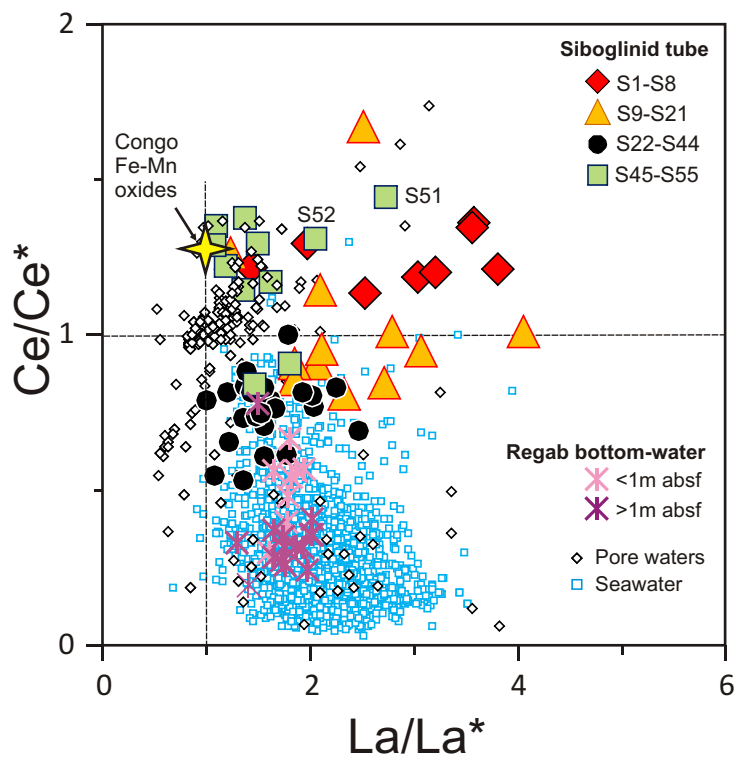


Fig. 4

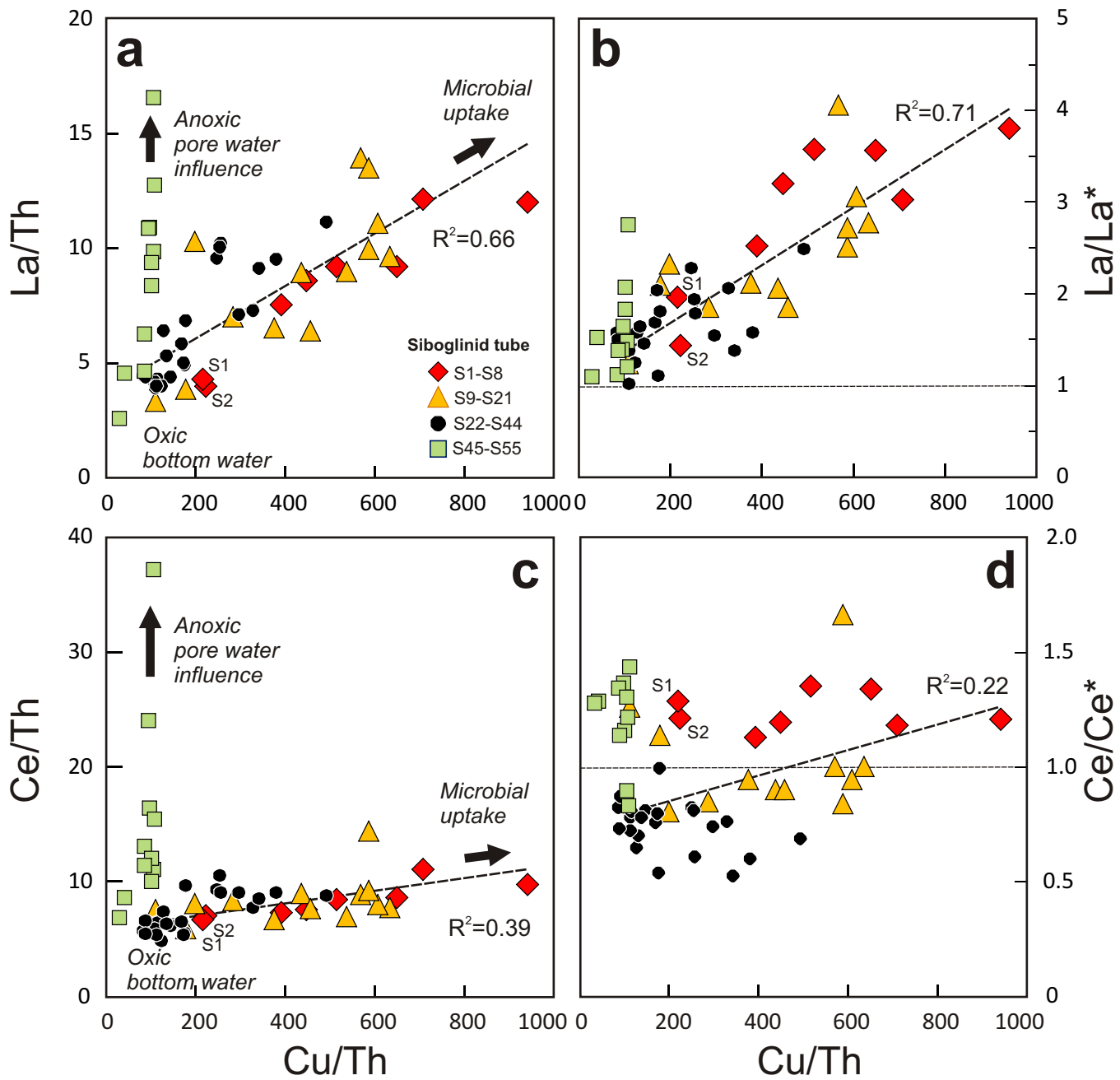


Fig. 5

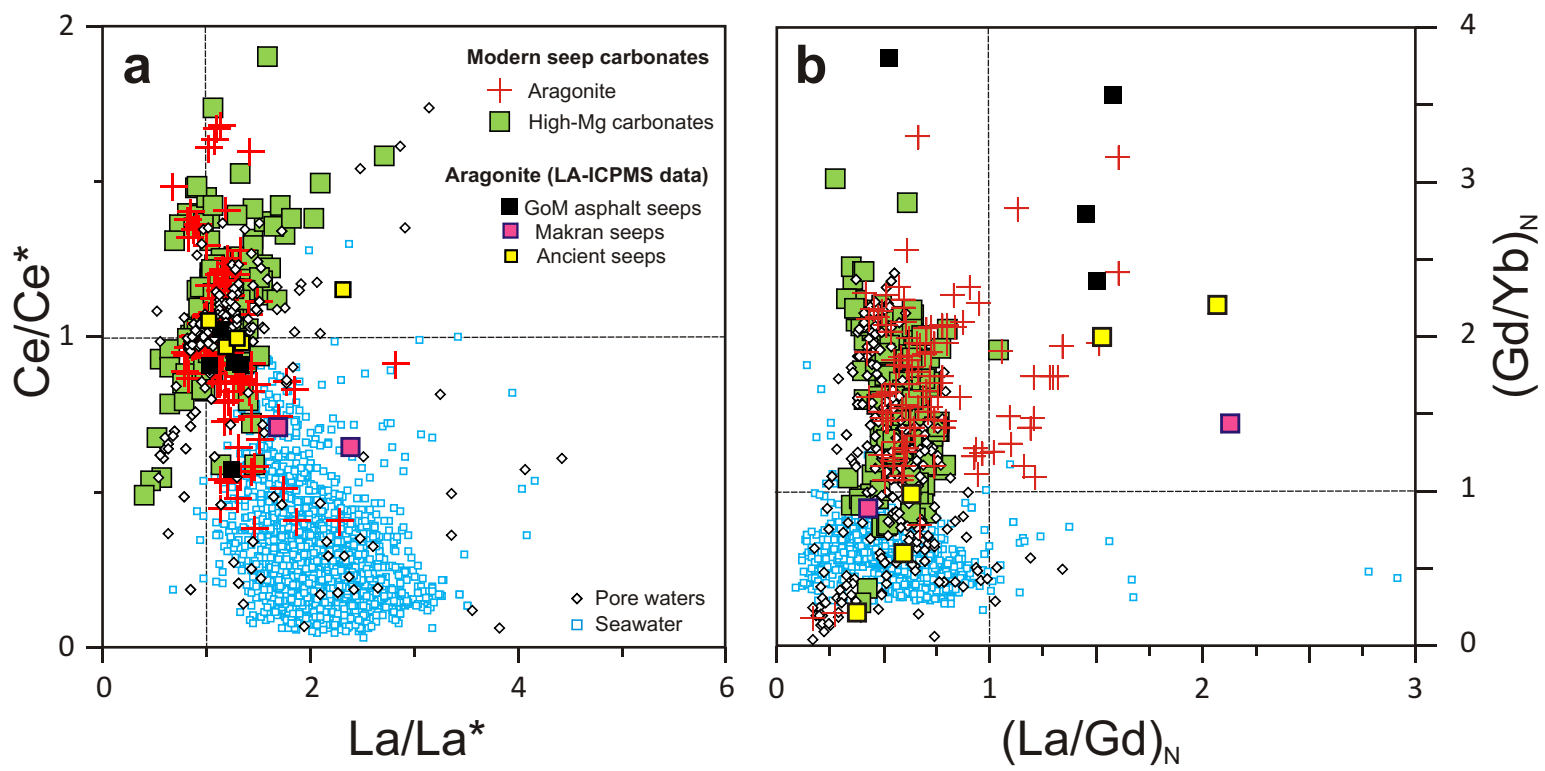


Fig. 6

Table 1. Trace element concentrations for MA-A-1 (Copepod Homogenate)

Element	Mean concentration (n=4)	s	RSD (%)	After Fe-ox coprecipitation (n=1)	Certified values (IAEA, 1990)	Other reference values (Maher et al., 2001)
µg/g						
V	3.29	0.16	4.7			4.1
Mn	2.94	0.30	10.3	2.90	2.8	2.8
Fe	60.7	3.0	5.0		58	64
Co	0.122	0.009	7.5		0.14	0.13
Ni	1.52	0.12	8.1		1.62	1.83
Cu	6.71	0.17	2.6		7.51	7.05
Zn	166	12	7.5		160	155
Rb	2.48	0.14	5.6			
Sr	53.4	1.3	2.5			
Zr	0.05	0.01	18.7			
Mo	0.26	0.06	24.0			
Ba	1.00	0.07	7.3			
U	0.83	0.04	5.2			
ng/g						
Y	19.3	1.4	7.0	18.5		
La	30.1	2.5	8.3	30.6		
Ce	48.3	2.2	4.6	49.3		
Pr	5.6	0.4	7.2	5.8		
Nd	21.8	1.1	4.9	21.5		
Sm	4.1	0.3	6.2	4.2		
Eu	0.64	0.08	12.3	0.96		
Gd	3.16	0.57	18.1	2.72		
Tb	0.48	0.04	8.8	0.65		
Dy	2.81	0.25	8.8	2.86		
Ho	0.52	0.08	14.8	0.57		
Er	1.61	0.15	9.3	1.46		
Yb	1.26	0.10	8.3	1.26		
Lu	0.17	0.02	13.1			
Th	3.29	0.52	15.8	3.44		

