

# Sediment reworking of intertidal sediments by the benthic foraminifera Haynesina germanica: the importance of motion behaviour and densities

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Noémie Deldicq, Florian Mermillod-Blondin, Vincent M P Bouchet. Sediment reworking of intertidal sediments by the benthic foraminifera Haynesina germanica: the importance of motion behaviour and densities. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 2023, 290 (1994), 10.1098/rspb.2023.0193. hal-04061694

# HAL Id: hal-04061694 https://hal.science/hal-04061694v1

Submitted on 7 Apr 2023  $\,$ 

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1	Sediment reworking of intertidal sediments by the benthic foraminifera Haynesina
2	germanica. The importance of motion behaviour and densities.
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### 28 Abstract

29 This study aimed to describe for the first time the vertical motion behaviour of the intertidal foraminifera Haynesina germanica and its contribution to bioturbation. Its infaunal behaviour 30 leads to the creation of one-end tube within the first centimetre of sediment. In addition, a 31 vertical trail following behaviour was described for the first time in foraminifera, which may 32 be linked to the sustainability of the biogenic sedimentary structures. As a consequence, H. 33 34 germanica produces a vertical transport of both mud and fine sediment fractions similarly to the sediment reworking mode reported for gallery-diffusor benthic species. This finding 35 allows us to refine the bioturbating mode of H. germanica previously classified as surficial 36 37 biodiffusor. Furthermore, sediment reworking intensity appeared to be dependent on the 38 foraminiferal density. H. germanica would adapt its motion behaviour to deal with the intraspecific competition for food and space that may occur when density increases. Consequently, 39 40 this behavioural modification would affect both the species and the individual contribution to sediment reworking processes. In fine, sediment reworking in H. germanica may further 41 42 contribute to the bioirrigation of intertidal sediments which has implications on oxygen availability in sediments and on aerobic microbial processes involved in carbon and nutrient 43 44 cycling at the sediment-water interface.

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#### 46 Keywords

47 Intertidal foraminifera – *Haynesina germanica* - Motion behaviour – Tube building species 48 Vertical sediment reworking – Density-dependent effect

49 1. Introduction

50 Bioturbation, which is the biological transport of particles and associated dissolved 51 elements, constitutes a major process driving the benthic ecosystem functioning of marine 52 soft-sediment, contributing to carbon and nutrient cycling and organic matter mineralisation

(Gilbert et al., 1996; Mermillod-Blondin and Rosenberg, 2006; Volkenborn et al., 2016, 53 54 2012). The role of benthic macro-invertebrate species as bioturbators generally depends on their mode of sediment reworking that is further modulated by species-specific traits and the 55 time allocation patterns between these traits (De Backer et al., 2011; Francois et al., 1997; 56 Gérino et al., 2003; Grémare et al., 2004; Kristensen et al., 2012; Pascal et al., 2019). 57 Conversely to macrofaunal taxa, the contribution of meiofauna to fluxes (i.e. sediment 58 59 particles and dissolved elements) at the sediment-water interface has been far less studied (Bonaglia et al., 2014; Giere, 2009; Nascimento et al., 2012; Pike et al., 2001), and barely 60 considered in an attempt to estimate community bioturbation potential based on a review of 61 62 1033 benthic invertebrate species from the northwest European continental shelf (Queirós et al., 2013). 63

Nevertheless, meiofaunal species display distinct biological activities (e.g. crawling, 64 65 burrowing, construction and maintenance of burrows, ingestion/defecation of particles) suggesting a significant contribution to sediment reworking processes and therefore to the 66 geochemical and microbial structuration of the sedimentary environment (Chandler and 67 Fleeger, 1984; Nehring et al., 1990; Pike et al., 2001; Reichelt, 1991; Bonaglia et al., 2020, 68 2014; Middelburg and Meysman, 2007; Rysgaard et al., 2000). Until recently, studies 69 70 assessing meiofaunal bioturbation in soft-bottom sediments focused on the effect of the whole meiofauna communities without considering the role of individual species (Alkemade et al., 71 1992; Bonaglia et al., 2020, 2014; Nascimento et al., 2012; Rysgaard et al., 2000). Moreover, 72 73 most publications on the role of benthic meiofauna focused on nematodes and harpacticoid copepods while they may not be the dominant taxa in all soft-bottom communities (see 74 Schratzberger and Ingels (2018) for a review). Amongst meiobenthic organisms, benthic 75 foraminifera is a key group of the meiofauna in soft-bottom sediments; representing up to 76 50% of the eukaryotic biomass (Murray, 2006). Nevertheless, they are still relatively poorly 77

studied for their bioturbation activities despite their significant role in carbon and nitrogen
cycling (Moodley et al., 2002, 2000; Risgaard-Petersen et al., 2006).

In soft-bottom habitats, motion behaviour of intertidal foraminifera can generate horizontal 80 displacement of sediment particles (Bouchet and Seuront, 2020; Deldicq et al., 2021a, 2021b). 81 Some species may be involved in the vertical transport of sediment as they actively burrow in 82 the sediment (Kitazato, 1988; Deldicq et al. 2021b; 2020) either to reach their preferential 83 84 microhabitat (Geslin et al., 2004; Linke and Lutze, 1993; Moodley et al., 1998) or to escape after being buried by a storm or by macro-invertebrate bioturbation (Bouchet et al., 2009; 85 Thibaut de Chanvalon et al., 2015; Maire et al., 2016). Such vertical movements may (i) have 86 87 major impacts on the stability and erodibility of the surficial sediment layer (Coull, 1999; Nehring, 1993), (ii) produce a substantial downward transport of particles and (iii) enhance 88 fluxes of dissolved oxygen and solutes at the sediment-water interface (Aller and Aller, 1992; 89 90 Schratzberger and Ingels, 2018). To our knowledge, only one study estimated the sediment reworking rates generated by a benthic foraminiferal community to  $Db = 0.19 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$  (Db : 91 92 bioturbative diffusion rate) in the upper 5 mm (Gross, 2002).

93 The present study aimed at filling the gap between the motion behaviour and the sediment reworking induced by benthic foraminifera, a key group in intertidal sediments. To do so, we 94 95 considered the species *Haynesina germanica*, a key foraminiferal species in tidal mudflats. In detail, it is one of the most abundant species in intertidal mudflats (Francescangeli et al., 96 2020), and it has an intense and constant displacement in and on the sediment suggesting that 97 it contributes significantly to sediment reworking (Seuront and Bouchet, 2015; Deldicq et al., 98 99 2020; 2021a). In this context, the objectives of this study were twofold. Firstly, we aimed at characterizing the vertical motion behaviour of this species by experimentally describe its 100 displacements and the biogenic sedimentary structures built below the sediment-water 101 interface. Secondly, we aimed at quantifying species vertical sediment reworking induced by 102

*H. germanica* considering different densities similar to those observed in its environment. To do so, thin ant-like aquaria and particle-tracer method were used to monitor the behaviour of the species, its putative effects on both sediment matrix (i.e. production of biogenic structure) and sediment reworking rates (downward transport of particles). Such experimental approaches may provide new insights on the microhabitat choice of *H. germanica* in the sediment, which ultimately provides a better characterisation of the spatial distribution and the intensity at which sediment particles are displaced by this species.

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## 111 2. Material and Methods

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# 2.1. Vertical motion behaviour

#### 113 2.1.1. Collection of living H. germanica

Surface sediment (i.e. 0-1 cm) was collected at the end of February-early March in 2019 at 114 low tide in the Authie Bay (50°22'20''N, 1°35'45''E, Fig. 1). Samples were stored in plastic 115 containers (100 ml) and transported to the Laboratory of Oceanology and Geosciences at the 116 Marine Station of Wimereux (France), then washed through a 125 µm sieve. Individuals of 117 Haynesina germanica were sorted with a brush and kept 24h-long for acclimation to the 118 experimental condition in a controlled-temperature room at 18°C (MIR-154, Panasonic, 119 Japan; temperature fluctuation  $\pm 0.3$  °C, light intensity 170 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). One day after, only 120 active individuals (i.e. producing a displacement track on a thin layer of sediment to 121 distinguish living from dead specimens) were selected for the experiments. 122



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**Figure 1.** Map showing sampling sites in the Hauts-de-France in the eastern English Channel (France). In red: Boulogne-sur-Mer harbor and in blue: the Authie bay.

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2.1.2. Experimental set-up

Experiments were conducted in thin aquaria (10 x 1 x 10 cm, n = 3) filled with thawed 127 sediment from the Authie Bay (depth of 7-8 cm) and overlain with oxygenated natural sea 128 water (Fig. 2). All aquaria were maintained at 18°C for 2 weeks prior to the introduction of 129 130 foraminifera. For each experiment, about 150 active individuals were randomly placed at the sediment surface corresponding to a density of 15 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>. The displacement of each 131 individual in and on the sediment was recorded using time-lapse photography (i.e. one image 132 every 10 min; Nikon V1 with a Nikkor 10-30 mm lens). In total, 3 experiments were 133 performed: one in February (48 h long, Experiment R1) and two in March (72 h long, 134 Experiments R2 and R3). 135



Figure 2. Experimental set-up for time-lapse assessment of foraminiferal motion-traits over a 48 and 72 h periods.

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#### 2.1.3. Quantification of behavioural traits

Images were analysed by using the software Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). The method allowed to visually follow each individual and extract the coordinates from each image combined by the computer program. The coordinates thereby gave the individual's trajectory during the time of the experiment. During the experiment, it was only possible to track individuals that are visible along the wall of the aquarium that face the camera. We therefore only kept individuals that exhibited visible tracks throughout the whole 48 and 72 h experiments. In total, we followed the trajectories of 35 individuals.

Three motion traits were investigated following Seuront and Bouchet (2015) and Deldicq et al. (2020): the activity index, the travelled distance and the vertical position of the individuals. The level of activity (i.e. time allocated to locomotion by each individual) was estimated with the activity index  $A_i$  which correspond to the ratio between  $t_{move}$  and  $t_{active}$  as follows:

$$A_i = 100 \times (t_{active} / t_{move})$$

where  $t_{move}$  includes the total time taken by an individual to move from its initial to its final position, which thereby includes the time periods when individual remains inactive. In contrast,  $t_{active}$  only considers the time periods when an individual actually moves between its initial and final position.

155 The distance travelled by each individual between two images (i.e. 10 min) was assessed as 156 follows:

$$D_t = \sqrt{((x_t - x_{t+1})^2 + (y_t - y_{t+1})^2)}$$

where  $(x_t, y_t)$  and  $(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})$  are the coordinates between two successive images taken at times t and t + 10 min and the total distance travelled within 48 and 72 h was then calculated and normalized by the experiment duration to obtain velocity.

To assess the preferential position of *Haynesina germanica*, the vertical position of each individual in the sediment was recorded for every picture based on a 2-depth classification depending on the test position, i.e. "surface" when the test remained visible at the surface and "Burrowed" when the test was below the sediment-water interface. The number of individuals was estimated for each position and each 10-min period during the time of the experiment.

In addition, based on preliminary observations, the intensity and the occurrence of trail following behaviour in existing burrow were monitored for each individual. Thus, the time taken by an individual to perform trail following during the experiment was estimated and expressed in percentage of time.

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# 2.1.4. Quantification of the biogenic structure built by Haynesina germanica

The maximum depth reached by *Haynesina germanica* specimens for each experiment was recorded by measuring the distance of the deepest biogenic structure from the interface. In addition, to quantify how much *H. germanica* could alter the sediment matrix, the length and width of each visible burrow were measured every 2 hours for each experiment. The surface
occupied by each burrow (*Si*) was then estimated as follow:

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#### Si = Length x Width

Then the surface occupied by all the burrows (hereafter *SB*) within the first centimetre of the
sediment was estimated every 2 hours by summing together all the individual burrow surfaces *Si.*

- 181
- 182 2.2. Quantification of sediment reworking
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# 2.2.1. Sediment and living fauna sampling

Sediment cores  $(1 \times 1 \times 5 \text{ cm}, N = 15)$  and surface sediment were collected in August 2020 184 in Boulogne-sur-Mer harbour (50°43'6"N, 1°34'25"E, Fig. 1), an intertidal mudflat located on 185 186 the French coasts of the English Channel. Please note that sediments collected from the two sampling sites i.e. Authie Bay and Boulogne sur Mer harbour and used in the present study 187 had comparable grain size distributions (20 % and 80 % of sand and silt, respectively), TOC 188 contents (between 1 and 2%) and salinity values (33.8 PSU). After collection, cores were 189 stored during 48 h in a freezer (-20°C) to ensure that the sediment was free of macro- and 190 meio-organisms that could produce sediment reworking. Frozen sediment cores were disposed 191 in a 15 litre aquarium (35 x 20 x 25 cm) filled with natural filtered and oxygenated sea water. 192 193 The aquarium was kept in temperature-controlled incubators (MIR-154, Panasonic, Japan) at 194 18°C with a 12h:12h light/dark cycle for few days. Surface sediment samples were stored in plastic containers (100 ml), transported to the laboratory, and washed through a 125 µm 195 mesh-size sieve. Individuals of Haynesina germanica were subsequently sorted with a brush 196 197 and then acclimated for 24 hours in temperature-controlled incubators at 18°C with filtered natural seawater. 198

Luminophores i.e. natural sediment particles coloured with fluorescent paint (Mahaut and 201 Graf, 1987) were used to estimate sediment reworking rates by foraminifera. Two size 202 fractions of luminophores were used: <63  $\mu$ m pink silt (D<sub>50</sub>  $\approx$  10-20  $\mu$ m, Environmental 203 Tracing LLC, UK) and >125  $\mu$ m green sand (D<sub>50</sub>  $\approx$  175-200  $\mu$ m, Environmental Tracing 204 LLC, UK) to fit with the *in situ* grain size distribution of the sediment. Moreover, the use of 205 206 two size fractions of luminophores with only one fraction that can be ingested by foraminifera (pink luminophores with a size  $< 63 \mu m$ ) could inform about the influence of ingestion-207 egestion mechanisms by foraminifera on sediment reworking. 208

Four experimental treatments were performed: (1) without foraminifera (Control, N= 3), (2) with a low foraminiferal density (LD = 10 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>, N = 3), (3) with a medium density (MD = 30 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>, N = 3), and (4) with a high foraminiferal density (HD = 90 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>, N = 3). Experimental densities were determined following local *in situ* densities of *Haynesina germanica* reported through a year (Bouchet, *unpubl. data*).

Before running the experiments, active individuals were extracted from previously acclimated individuals then gently deposited on the sediment surface in sediment cores corresponding to LD, MD and HD treatments. Considering that living foraminifera usually start to move within a few minutes (Bouchet and Seuront, 2020; Deldicq et al., 2020; Seuront and Bouchet, 2015), a mixture of 20 mg of pink silt and 20 mg of green sand luminophores were homogeneously and gently spread on the sediment surface of each core with a Pasteur pipette one hour after foraminifera introduction.

The experiment lasted for 14 days. At the end of the experiment, the water was immediately removed and sediment cores were frozen in order to stop all foraminiferal movements. The next day, the top 2 cm of sediment was sliced in 0.2 cm-thick layers.

Each layer was homogenized and dried at 50°C and subsequently photographed under UV 226 lights using a digital camera (Nikon V1 with a Nikkor 10-30 mm lens). Settings were 227 228 adjusted for adequate fluorescent detection and the photographic field  $(10 \times 8 \text{ cm})$  allowing to visualize luminophore particles. Images were then analysed with the image-analysis software 229 230 Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012) for luminophore counting. Briefly, luminophores were selected using an appropriate set of RGB threshold levels that differentiated fluorescent particles from 231 the sediment. Pixels above and below the threshold were added to a binary matrix where 232 luminophore pixels were assigned a value of 1 and sediment pixels a value of 0 and were 233 234 counted using the Analyze Particle tools. The number of luminophores counted in one layer 235 was converted into percentage of tracer found in this layer comparatively to the total number of luminophores recovered from the whole core. Then, we obtained the vertical distribution of 236 luminophores in sediments for each core. 237

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# 2.2.4. Sediment reworking coefficients

The effect of Haynesina germanica on particle transport was estimated using the diffusion-240 advection-nonlocal model in non-steady state conditions (Mugnai et al., 2003). This model 241 links a nonlocal component to a diffusion-advection model (Gérino et al., 1994; Officer and 242 Lynch, 1982). Biological diffusive transport (diffusion (D),  $cm^2 year^{-1}$ ) was defined as 243 244 omnidirectional transport in the sediment column and is analogous to molecular diffusion in water. Biodiffusion spreads tracers in the sediment column (Guinasso and Schink, 1975) by 245 the exchange of small amounts of material with adjacent parcels of sediment. Biologically 246 mediated vertical transports account for advective transport and nonlocal transport. 247 Bioadvection (V, centimetres per year) is created by head-down deposit-feeders like worms 248 that feed in the deeper sediment and egest faecal pellets at the surface (conveyor belt 249

organisms). This feeding mode causes an accelerated rate of sediment burial within the feeding zone. Nonlocal transport results from largely open burrows into which surface particles may fall. This nonlocal reworking is modelled as a removal function that simulates the transport of surface material (expressed in grams of transported tracer per day) in a deposition zone.

255 The basic equation is:

$$\frac{\partial C_{(z,t)}}{\partial_t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C_{(z,t)}}{\partial_z^2} - V \frac{\partial C_{(z,t)}}{\partial_z} + K_{(z,t)} - R_{(z,t)}$$
(eq. 1)

where C is the normalized tracer concentration, t is time (years), z is depth (centimetres), D 256 is the diffusive reworking rate  $(cm^2 vear^{-1})$ . V is the advective transport rate (centimetres per 257 year), R is the removal function that determines the mass of tracer (grams per day) removed 258 from the surface and K is the injection function of the nonlocal transport that simulates tracer 259 inputs (grams per day) into the deposition zone of the sediment column;  $K_e$  is a constant 260 parameter (per day) estimated from the model, and depths  $Z_{min}$  and  $Z_{max}$  represent the upper 261 262 and lower limits of the deposition zone, respectively. The nonlocal transport is thus quantified by a flux of sediment removed from the surface. In this case,  $R_{(z,t)} = 0$  for z > 0 and  $R_{(z,t)} = K_{(z,t)}$ 263  $(Z_{max} - Z_{min})$  for z = 0 and  $K_{(z,t)} = \text{Ke}$  for  $z \in [Z_{min}, Z_{max}]$  and  $K_{(z,t)} = 0$  for  $z \in [Z_{min}, Z_{max}]$ . As 264 luminophores were added as pulse input at the surface of the sediment at the beginning of 265 each experiment, the model was applied under non-steady-state conditions. Thus, model eq. 1 266 was used with the upper boundary condition of an instantaneous source of unit strength 267 (maximal C of tracer) at z = 0 at t = 0, a lower boundary  $C \rightarrow 0$  at  $z \rightarrow \infty$ , and initial condition 268 C = 0 at z > 0. The general solution was given by Officer and Lynch (1982) as: 269

$$C_{(z,t)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi D_t}} exp\left[\frac{-(z-V_T)^2}{4D_t}\right] - \frac{V}{2D} exp\left(\frac{V_z}{2D}\right) erfc\left(\frac{z+V_t}{4D_t}\right) - R_e t + K_e \quad (eq. 2)$$

270 with

$$R_e = K_e(Z_{max} - Z_{min})$$

271 and

$$erfc(x) = 1 - \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

where *c* is a normalized concentration relative to unit input. The model allows the calculation of the theoretical tracer concentration given suitable values of the parameters *D*, *V*,  $Z_{min}$ ,  $Z_{max}$ , and  $K_e$ . These parameters were obtained from profiles that produced the best fit with the experimental data using the least squares method.

276 Sediment reworking coefficients (i.e. biodiffusion, advection and nonlocal transport) were 277 calculated for each core. In addition, to assess the effect of density on species' vertical 278 sediment reworking, sediment coefficients were also estimated per individual by dividing it 279 by the density within each replicate (Duport et al., 2006).

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281 2.3. Statistical analysis

A linear mixed model has been used to determine whether the instantaneous velocity of individuals significantly depended on their vertical position and their trail following behaviour. In the linear model, vertical position (i.e. surface, burrowed) and trail following (i.e. yes, no) were fixed factor and individual was included as repeated factor (corresponding to individual random effect estimated from several measurements made on the same individual).

Vertical distributions of luminophores were presented with the mean  $\pm$  SD of the three replicate cores. The influences of luminophore grain sizes on sediment reworking coefficients (i.e. biodiffusion, nonlocal transport and advection) and maximum penetration depth ( $Z_{max}$ ) were tested using repeated-measures ANOVAs (RM-ANOVAs) to consider the nonindependence of measurements performed with pink and green luminophores in the same

cores. As no significant differences in sediment reworking variables were detected between 293 294 luminophore sizes (see results), sediment reworking coefficients and maximum penetration depth were calculated by using the addition of the percentages of pink and green 295 luminophores for each layer of each core. Then, these sediment reworking variables were 296 compared among foraminifera treatments using one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA). 297 Both sediment coefficients and maximum penetration depth values were ln(x+1) transformed 298 to homogenize variances after the homoscedasticity of variances and the normality 299 distribution of the residuals were tested using Bartlett's and Shapiro's tests, respectively. 300 Bonferroni-Dunn post hoc tests were subsequently performed if significant differences were 301 302 detected among foraminiferal treatments to evaluate which density treatments differed (Zar, 2009). All statistical analyses were performed using R.3.5.2. Software (R Core Team, 2019). 303

304

#### 305 **3. Results**

# 306 3.1. Vertical motion behaviour

307 Individuals actively moved during the experiment, being active almost  $73\pm7\%$  (mean  $\pm$ SD) of their time in the sediment. Noticeably, some individuals showed a permanent activity 308 throughout the longer experiment i.e. 72h-long. The distance travelled by individuals ranged 309 from 7 to 52 mm with a mean distance of 26 mm. In the three experiments, all the individuals 310 that started to move exhibited a similar behaviour i.e. surface displacement for several 311 minutes consistently followed by active burial. However, individuals showed different types 312 of strategy: (i) staying a long period burrowed in the sediment (i.e. below the top millimetres) 313 or (ii) rapidly get back to the top millimetres though they rarely return to the sediment surface. 314 When some individuals reached the sediment surface, they preferentially returned just below 315 316 the top millimetres of sediment after several minutes crawling at the surface. Hence, the majority of individuals spent more than 70% of their time burrowed in the sediment. The 317

- instantaneous individual velocity of individuals burrowing in the sediment was 32% lower
- than those of individuals dwelling at the sediment surface (p < 0.05; Table 1).

**Table 1.** Statistical results assessing the effects of vertical position and trail following on individual instantaneous velocity (linear mixed model). (df: degree of freedom, \*: p<0.05, \*\*\*: p<0.001)

Predictor	Estimate	Std. Error	df	<i>t</i> <sub>value</sub>	$p_{value}$
Vertical position	0.15	0.07	17	2.1	$0.04^{*}$
Trail following	0.47	0.06	7.9	7.3	8 x 10 <sup>-5</sup> ***

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In addition, 19 out of the 35 individuals were observed having a trail following behaviour i.e. moved through existing gallery previously built either by another congener or by itself. Noticeably, individuals typically spend ~15±19% of their time using existing tracks. Trail following behaviour increased by 15% the instantaneous individual velocity of individuals (p<0.05; Table 1, Fig. 3).

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Figure 3. Example of temporal change in the instantaneous velocity of an individual of *H. germanica*. The black
 line corresponds to a situation when the individual is moving without trail following behaviour while the grey
 line corresponds to a situation when the individual is performing a trail following behaviour. The red-line is the
 3-order simple moving average of the velocity.

333

# 334 3.2. Effect of *Haynesina germanica* on the sediment matrix

335 During the experiment, individuals built an intense network of burrows which persisted 336 throughout the experiment. Precisely, visible galleries could reach a maximum depth of 1 cm 337 and the majority of individual dwelled below ~0.5 cm depth (Fig. 4).



**Figure 4.** Archetypical structuration of the gallery network consecutive of the displacement of *H. germanica* in the sediment after 24 of the experiment R2. Scaled bar = 1 cm.

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The surface occupied by burrows ( $S_B$ ) rapidly increased within the first 32h of the experiments to reach a steady value of 6 and 8% for experiment R3 and experiments R1/R2 respectively (Fig. 5). Then, the increase was much slower the last 40h, to reach a  $S_B$  of 8 and 10% (experiment R3 and experiments R1/R2 respectively, Fig. 5).



Figure 5. Temporal changes in the surface occupied by the gallery network (S<sub>G</sub> in %) for the three experiments:
R<sub>1</sub> (grey square). R<sub>2</sub> (grey triangle), R<sub>3</sub> (black diamonds).



#### 3.3.1. Influence of sediment grain size

The vertical profiles of the two size fractions of luminophores (i.e. green sand and pink silt) were comparable (Suppl. Mat. Fig. 1). Thus, no significant differences in sediment reworking coefficients and maximum penetration depth were found between the green sand fraction and the pink silt fraction (repeated-measures ANOVAs, p > 0.35 for sediment reworking coefficients and maximum penetration depth) despite the fact that only the pink silt fraction could be ingested by foraminifera. For this reason, the two size fractions were pooled together to calculate a percentage of luminophores per layer for each core.

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*3.3.2. Effect of density* 

The average percentage of luminophores recovered at the sediment surface (0–0.2 cm layer) at the end of the experiment was 92% in the control columns and decreased with foraminifera to 77, 50% and 54% in LD, MD and HD treatments, respectively (Fig. 6).

In treatments with foraminifera, luminophore vertical profiles were characterized by 371 exponential decreases of luminophores with depth, indicating a biodiffusive reworking of 372 sediment by foraminifera. Only 1.5 to 5 % of total luminophores added to cores were found 373 below 1.8 cm in the sediment (Fig. 6). The maximum penetration depth ( $Z_{max}$ ) of 374 luminophores varied between 1 cm in the control treatment to 1.87 cm, 1.93 cm and 1.53 cm 375 in the LD, MD and HD treatments, respectively (Table 2). Noticeably, the maximum 376 penetration depth was significantly higher in the MD treatment than in the other three 377 treatments (Bonferroni-Dunn test, p < 0.05). 378



**Figure 6.** Depth profiles (means  $\pm$  SD) of luminophores (black diamonds) in the four treatments and calculated profiles obtained with the advection–diffusion–nonlocal model (grey circles). Treatments: Control, LD (10 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>), MD (30 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>), HD (90 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>).

Treatment	Advection	Biodiffusion	Nonlocal	$Z_{min}$	Z <sub>max</sub>
	$(\text{cm y}^{-1})$	$(cm^2 y^{-1})$	transport	(cm)	(cm)
			$(g d^{-1})$		
Control	0 (0)	0.14 (0.03)	0.02 (0.02)	0.47	1.00
LD (10 indiv $\text{cm}^{-2}$ )	0 (0)	0.19 (0.09)	0.07 (0.03)	0.27	1.87
MD (30 indiv $cm^{-2}$ )	0 (0)	0.21 (0.08)	0.29 (0.15)	0.40	1.93
HD (90 indiv $cm^{-2}$ )	0 (0)	0.23 (0.1)	0.29 (0.27)	0.40	1.53

**Table 2.** Mixing rates of sediment estimated in the four treatments. Advective, diffusive and nonlocal transport coefficients are presented as means (SD) (N=3 for each treatment).  $Z_{min}$  and  $Z_{max}$  are the respective upper and

lower limits of the sediment layer influenced by nonlocal transport.

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Modelled data were fitted adequately to experimental data (Fig. 7). Sediment reworking 391 392 coefficients obtained from model simulations are shown in Table 3. No bioadvection was observed in the experiments. Biodiffusion and nonlocal transports coefficients varied 393 significantly among treatments (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05; Tables 2, 3). Biodiffusion rate 394 was the highest in the HD treatment with  $0.23 \pm 0.1$  cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> (Bonferroni-Dunn test, p < 0.05; 395 396 Table 3). The highest nonlocal transport rates were measured in the MD and HD treatments with 0.29  $\pm$  0.15 g d<sup>-1</sup> and 0.29  $\pm$  0.27 g d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Bonferroni-Dunn test, p < 0.05; 397 Table 3). 398

**Table 3.** Effect of each density treatment on coefficient of sediment reworking (comparison with the control treatment) and maximum penetration depth ( $Z_{max}$ ). Bonferroni-Dunn test with N=3 for each treatment. 0: no significant difference; +: significant increase.

Variable		Density treatment			
-	LD	MD	HD		
	$(10 \text{ indiv cm}^{-2})$	(30 indiv cm <sup>-2</sup> )	$(90 \text{ indiv cm}^{-2})$		
Biodiffusion	0	0	+		

Nonlocal transport	0	+	+
Maximum penetration depth	0	+	0

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- 401

The individual contribution to biodiffusion significantly decreased with the foraminiferal density (Bonferroni-Dunn test, p < 0.05, Fig. 7A). In comparison, the individual contribution to nonlocal transport was significantly higher in the MD treatment than in the HD and LD treatments (Bonferroni-Dunn test, p < 0.05, Fig. 7B).



**Figure 7.** Biodiffusion (A) and nonlocal transport (B) per individual as a function of *H. germanica* density. Values for each replicate are presented with dark circles and mean value for the three replicates with grey diamonds.

406

## 407 4. Discussion

# 408 4.1. *Haynesina germanica* is an infaunal species

During the experiments, *Haynesina germanica* occasionally moved at the surface, but the species preferentially dwelled in the first centimetre of the sediment; in accordance with its previously reported positive geotaxis (i.e. moving downward; Seuront and Bouchet, 2015). Furthermore, *H. germanica* specimens rapidly created sustainable one-end tubes that may confirm a preference of *H. germanica* for an infaunal mode (Seuront and Bouchet, 2015). Burrowing is energetically expensive as it implies displacing particles within a cohesive sediment matrix (Dorgan et al., 2006, 2005; Hunter and Elder, 1989; Trevor, 1978). As a consequence, displacement in muddy sediment requires morphological (e.g. body deformation, appendages) and behavioural (e.g. reduce activity, reuse existing track) adaptations (Dorgan et al., 2006, 2005).

In the present study, individuals preferentially reused existing tubes, a well-known strategy 419 to reduce the cost of locomotion. For example, trail following in gastropod species reduces 420 421 their mucus production which is a considerable energetic burden (Davies and Blackwell, 2007; Tankersley, 1989). Benthic foraminifera are also able to produce mucus (e.g. Langer 422 and Gehring, 1993) of the same nature than gastropod mucus (Ng et al., 2013). Besides 423 allowing individuals to adhere to the substrate and move faster, mucus may also stabilize the 424 sediment as particles are bound together by extracellular polymeric substance secreted by 425 organisms (Nehring, 1993; Nehring et al., 1990; Reichelt, 1991; Riemann and Schrage, 1978). 426 The sustainability of the biogenic sedimentary structures built by *H. germanica* may be thus 427 enhanced by individual mucus production which would contribute to the stabilisation of the 428 429 sediment matrix. Mucus layers may also enhance bacterial and fungi development (Moens et al., 2005) which are potential food sources for benthic foraminifera (Langer and Gehring, 430 1993; Mojtahid et al., 2011). Therefore, the trail-following behaviour of Haynesina 431 germanica reported from the present study may be an adaptive response to the physical 432 constrain triggered by cohesive sediment but it may be also linked to feeding activities on 433 434 microbial communities favoured by tube-associated mucus.

436 4.2. *Haynesina germanica* is a tube-building species generating a non-selective437 transport of sediment

The sediment reworking induced by Haynesina germanica was characterized by two proc-438 esses: the biodiffusion of sediment particles likely occurring in the surface layer and the 439 nonlocal transport of particles fallen in one-end tube structures produced by the species. This 440 mode of sediment reworking is similar to the one of the two polychaete species Hediste diver-441 sicolor and Allita virens that are classified as gallery biodiffusors (Duport et al., 2006; Fran-442 cois et al., 2002; Gilbert et al., 2007; Michaud et al., 2005). Thus, our findings suggest that 443 Haynesina germanica, which was initially classified as a surficial biodiffusor species, may be 444 redefined as a gallery biodiffusor species. Indeed, surficial biodiffusor species like the cockle 445 446 Cerastoderma edule (Richard et al., 2021) do not display a burrow-dwelling behaviour and hence do not generate biogenic sedimentary structures such as burrows and tubes in the sedi-447 ment (Kristensen et al., 2012; Mermillod-Blondin et al., 2003). Furthermore, this work further 448 contributes to confirm the infaunal microhabitat of H. germanica (Seuront and Bouchet, 449 450 2015).

In turn, H. germanica did not produce any bioadvective transport of particles. Classically, 451 this phenomenon is associated with the feeding behaviour of conveyor species which produce 452 a transport of sediments through their gut from the sediment-water interface to their egestion 453 depth (e.g. Gérino et al., 2003). For example, downward-conveyor deposit species such as 454 Cirriformia grandis ingest fine particles (size range: 16-32 µm) at the sediment surface and 455 egest them at depth in the sediment (Ruddiman et al., 1980; Shull and Yasuda, 2001; Wheat-456 croft, 1992; Wheatcroft and Jumars, 1987). Therefore, the fact that H. germanica did not pro-457 duce bioadvection and reworked sediment particles irrespectively of their sizes (only pink 458 luminophores could be ingested for foraminifera in the present experiment) showed that 459

sediment reworking induced by *H. germanica* was not related to particle ingestion and eges-tion.

In conclusion, H. germanica produces a vertical transport of sediment particles through 462 their burrows, as observed in gallery-diffusor benthic species like the amphipod Corophium 463 volutator (De Backer et al., 2011, 2010). The tube building activity of foraminifera has been 464 previously reported and described for *Quinqueloculina impressa* (Severin et al., 1982; Severin 465 and Erskian, 1981) and Rotaliidae (Langer and Gehring, 1993). Other meiobenthic taxa (e.g. 466 nematode, copepod, ostracod) are able to disturb the sediment through their biogenic sedi-467 mentary structures (Bonaglia et al., 2014; Cullen, 1973; Kristensen et al., 2012). These bio-468 469 genic sedimentary structures alter sediment properties but also water exchanges at the sediment-water interface by bioirrigation (Aller and Aller, 1992; Coull, 1999; Giere, 2009; Mer-470 millod-Blondin et al., 2004). Thus, the present experiment suggests that the production of 471 472 tubes and the sediment reworking by H. germanica may contribute to biogeochemical processes at the sediment-water interface. 473

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#### 475

# 4.3. Sediment reworking in *Haynesina germanica* is constrained by density

In the present study, the burial depth and the percentage of tracer recovered at the sediment 476 surface at the end of the experiment significantly differed among density treatments. For 477 example, we reported that the maximum penetration depth of luminophores was significantly 478 higher in the MD treatment than in the LD treatment. In fact, increasing density may force 479 Haynesina germanica to increase their burrowing depth in the thin aquaria. Such change in 480 the burrowing behaviour may provide an advantage to H. germanica to limit intra-specific 481 competition for food and space that occurred at the sediment-water interface when the density 482 increases as previously evidenced for macrofauna (Michaud et al., 2010). It has been well 483 described for macro-invertebrate organisms, like in brittle star and polychaetes that increase 484

their prospecting area toward deep sediment layer when density increases (Duport et al., 2006; 485 Peterson and Andre, 1980; Rosenberg et al., 1997). However, individuals from the HD 486 treatment (90 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>) exhibited a lower burrowing depth compared to the MD treatment, 487 suggesting that they may be a threshold beyond which density may limit the prospection 488 ability of *H. germanica*. Although speculative, we may hypothesize that congeners 489 interactions or competition become too intense at higher densities. Thereby, the alternance 490 between infaunal and epifaunal modes observed in the present study may be a behavioural 491 response of *H. germanica* to both space and food competition. It further suggests that the 492 species can actively modify its vertical position in response to environmental factors 493 according to its ecological requirements. 494

In addition, a positive effect of Haynesina germanica densities was detected on 495 biodiffusion and nonlocal transport processes. A significant increase in biodiffusion transport 496 was measured between the MD (30 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>) and the HD (90 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>) treatments. 497 Furthermore, the nonlocal transport of luminophores was four time higher in the MD 498 treatment than in the LD treatment (10 indiv cm<sup>-2</sup>). Previous studies dealing with biodiffusors 499 species of macro-invertebrates also reported higher sediment reworking with increasing 500 densities (Duport et al., 2006; Ingalls et al., 2000; Ouellette et al., 2004; Sandnes et al., 2000; 501 Sun et al., 1999). However, most of these studies showed a density threshold beyond which 502 the mean contribution of each individual on total sediment reworking rate decreased. The 503 present results were consistent with these previous studies as we observed a significantly 504 lower individual contribution to biodiffusion and nonlocal transport with a density of 90 indiv 505  $cm^{-2}$  than with a density of 30 indiv  $cm^{-2}$ . Thus, at the highest density, the competition for 506 trophic resource and space might hamper the individual feeding rate and crawling behaviour 507 (Ingalls et al., 2000; Levinton, 1985, 1979; Miron et al., 1992, 1991; Sandnes et al., 2000; Sun 508 et al., 1999). 509

511 Conclusion

The results of the present study open new perspective on the understanding of the 512 contribution of intertidal benthic foraminifera to sedimentary fluxes at the sediment-water 513 interface. Specifically, it provides new insights in *Haynesina germanica* specific behavioural 514 traits and their effect on the vertical transport of surface sediment. This species may be 515 516 classified as a gallery-biodiffusor species with a non-negligible contribution to biodiffusion and nonlocal transport processes. Such gallery diffusion mode commonly enhances the 517 exchange of water and dissolved elements (e.g. oxygen, orthophosphate, sulphates) between 518 519 sediment and water and therefore is prone to affect geochemical processes and micro- and meiobenthic communities (Aller, 1994; Mermillod-Blondin and Rosenberg, 2006; Michaud et 520 al., 2009). Therefore, the motion behaviour of organisms is intrinsically linked to their 521 522 foraging activity (Pyke, 1984). Further studies are needed to understand the benefit of tubebuilding behaviour for H. germanica and its effects on dissolved fluxes. Our results also 523 highlighted a density-dependent effect of both community and individual sediment reworking 524 intensity and depth. To simulate the role of complex communities of foraminifera in soft-525 bottom sediments, it would be interesting to evaluate the relationship between foraminiferal 526 density and sediment reworking by considering different bioturbation functional groups of 527 foraminifera (i.e. epifaunal-, surficial- and gallery biodiffusors, Deldicq et al., 2020) occurring 528 in natural environments. 529

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# 531 Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Région Hauts-de-France, the Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur etde la Recherche and the European fund for regional economic development for their financial

support through the attribution of the CPER research project CLIMIBIO. Noémie Deldicq

535 PhD fellowship is funded by the Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche.

536

# 537 Authors' contribution

538 N.D., V.M.P.B. and F.M-B conceived the idea of this study and V.M.P.B. obtained financial

539 support. N.D. and V.M.P.B. provided significant input on experimental design. N.D. per-

540 formed the behavioural experiments and analysed the images. N.D. and F.M-B. analysed the

541 data and performed the statistical analyses. N.D., F.M-B. and V.M.P.B. contributed to the

542 interpretation of the data and the discussion of the results presented in the manuscript. N.D.

- 543 wrote the draft manuscript. N.D., F.M-B. and V.M.P.B. revised the article critically for intel-
- 544 lectual content and gave final approval of the submitted version.
- 545

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