

Microbial associates of an endemic Mediterranean seagrass enhance the access of the host and the surrounding seawater to inorganic nitrogen under ocean acidification

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- 1 Title: Microbial associates of an endemic Mediterranean seagrass enhance the access of the host 2 and the surrounding seawater to inorganic nitrogen under ocean acidification
- Catherine A. Pfister^{1*}, Ulisse Cardini², Alice Mirasole², Luis M. Montilla², Iva Veseli³, Jean Pierre Gattuso^{4,5}, Nuria Teixido^{2,4}
- ¹*The Department of Ecology and Evolution, The University of Chicago, Chicago IL, USA,
 cpfister@uchicago.edu
- ²Integrative Marine Ecology Department, Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn National Institute
 of Marine Biology, Ecology and Biotechnology, Naples, Italy.
- 9 ³Biophysical Sciences Program, The University of Chicago, Chicago IL, USA
- 10 ⁴Sorbonne Université, CNRS, Laboratoire d'Océanographie de Villefranche, 181 chemin du
- 11 Lazaret, Villefranche-sur-mer 06230, France.
- ⁵Institute for Sustainable Development and International Relations, Sciences Po, 27 rue Saint
 Guillaume, F-75007 Paris, France
- 14 For Scientific Reports
- 15
- 16 Abstract
- 17 Seagrasses are important primary producers in oceans worldwide. They live in shallow coastal
- 18 waters that are experiencing carbon dioxide enrichment and ocean acidification. *Posidonia*
- 19 *oceanica*, an endemic seagrass species that dominates the Mediterranean Sea, achieves high
- 20 abundances in seawater with relatively low concentrations of dissolved inorganic nitrogen. Here
- 21 we test whether microbial metabolisms associated with *P. oceanica* and surrounding seawater
- 22 enhance seagrass access to nitrogen. Using stable isotope enrichments of intact seagrass with
- amino acids, we show that ammonification by free-living and seagrass-associated microbes
- 24 produce ammonium that is likely used by seagrass and surrounding particulate organic matter.
- 25 Metagenomic analysis of the epiphytic biofilm on the blades and rhizomes support the ubiquity
- 26 of microbial ammonification genes in this system. Further, we leveraged the presence of natural

carbon dioxide vents and show that microbial ammonification was reduced at lower pH. The
presence of *P. oceanica* enhanced the uptake of nitrogen by water column particulate organic
matter, increasing carbon fixation by a factor of 8.6 to 17.4 with the greatest effect at CO₂ vent
sites. Seagrass and its microbial associates thus enhanced water column productivity and were a
locus for nutrient cycling.

32 Introduction

33 Associations between marine species and microbes have been increasingly identified with 34 genomic methodologies, revealing many hidden species interactions between eukaryotic and prokaryotic partners ^{1–3}. In addition to affecting host fitness, these interactions may affect global 35 36 biogeochemical cycles, through the use and cycling of carbon, nitrogen and other elements ^{4,5}. 37 Seagrasses are marine angiosperms and are foundational species in coastal ecosystems that are 38 critical in structuring ecosystems and modulating the flux of nutrients and energy. They provide habitat for other species ^{6,7}, are key primary producers ^{8,9}, and also act as carbon sinks by 39 sequestering carbon^{10,11}. Marine angiosperms are some of the most widely distributed plants on 40 the planet ¹², and recent studies suggest they host a diversity of microbial taxa^{13,14}, with some 41 42 functional partnerships demonstrated ^{15,16}.

Among seagrasses, a number of microbial taxa have been identified as important to nutrient cycling, including microbes capable of nitrogen fixation ¹⁵, ammonification ¹⁶ and sulfur oxidation ^{13,14}. *Posidonia oceanica*, the seagrass species that dominates the Mediterranean Sea, achieves high abundances in coastal habitats with relatively low seawater dissolved inorganic nitrogen concentrations. Microbial partnerships may partly explain its productivity. First, the low oxygen environment surrounding the roots provides a microenvironment for nitrogen fixation 49 ^{15,17} and other reducing metabolisms. Second, seagrasses might have access to the dissolved 50 organic nitrogen from the surrounding seawater. A related species of *Posidonia* in Australia has 51 microbial associates that ammonify amino acids - resulting in dissolved inorganic nitrogen that is 52 taken up as ammonium ¹⁶. Although it has been claimed that seagrasses can directly take up 53 dissolved organic nitrogen sources (e.g ¹⁸), we know of no studies that show this while 54 controlling for the role of bacteria.

55 Bacteria that deaminate amino acids to produce ammonium are likely abundant in nature, given that there is a diversity of enzymes that cleave carbon-nitrogen bonds producing¹⁴. Whether these 56 57 bacteria are consistently associated with hosts is relatively little studied, including what 58 determines their abundance. Studies that focus only on the taxonomy of microbes (e.g. amplicon 59 sequencing) do not allow strong inference about the functional capacity of microbes. Information 60 on amino acids in seawater in the environments where marine macrophytes are abundant are also 61 lacking and infrequently quantified. Nonetheless, dissolved organic compounds can be abundant in coastal waters and can be a key part of nutrient recycling ¹⁹. 62

While the discovery of host-microbe interactions is still nascent, populations of many marine 63 macrophytes are in decline ^{6,20,21}. For seagrasses, global environmental change, including ocean 64 65 acidification and warming, pollution, and physical disturbances such as increased turbidity represent key threats ²². Future ocean conditions will include a continued decrease of pH and a 66 67 change in carbonate system parameters. While marine angiosperms such as P. oceanica may benefit from increased bicarbonate concentrations²³, little is known about how their associations 68 69 with microbes may be altered. If increased bicarbonate access improves carbon fixation and 70 fitness, host fitness might increase and microbial associates may benefit. If the availability of

71 inorganic carbon increases while nitrogen remains the same, the release of excess carbon via 72 stoichiometric overflow, could increase ²⁴, also perhaps benefitting host-associated microbes. 73 However, if low pH is a stressor to the host and host health, this may be important to host-74 associated microbes, and microbial function and diversity might change. Microbes may also be 75 resistant or indifferent to any changes in host biogeochemistry. The seagrass Cymodocea nodosa 76 showed taxonomic differences in rhizome microbes but not leaf microbes across a pH gradient driven by the natural release of carbon dioxide (CO_2) at vents in the Mediterranean ²⁵, though the 77 78 functional differences were unexplored.

79 At CO₂ vent sites in the Mediterranean the seagrass *P. oceanica* shows a number of differences 80 compared to areas without the influence of venting CO₂. Benthic communities near vents show a decline in calcified species ^{26,27}, and accordingly, calcareous epiphytes of *P. oceanica* are much 81 reduced in proximity to the vents ^{8,28}. Additionally, herbivorous fish are more abundant near the 82 vents ²⁹ and *P. oceanica* has a shorter stature, fewer epiphytes, increased tissue nitrogen content 83 30 , and increased shoot density 28,31 . Seawater pH is variable in the areas surrounding CO₂ vent 84 sites and *P. oceanica* is often in pH conditions around 7.7²⁷. Proximity to vents can increase *P*. 85 86 oceanica productivity at the scale of individual leaves, but shows variable results at the 87 community level⁸.

The foundational role that *P. oceanica* plays in the Mediterranean ²⁹, its economic importance ³², and concern about its health status ³³ makes this species an important one to investigate hostassociated microbial function in a global change context, particularly under ocean acidification. We thus investigated microbial function at natural CO₂ venting areas and reference areas with no venting and ambient pH. We focused on nitrogen dynamics, a relatively little studied aspect of

93 ocean acidification (but see 34). Populations of *P. oceanica* may have spent generations in 94 association with decreased pH, allowing tests of community interactions and functional changes, 95 including host-microbe interactions. We quantified whether ammonification, or the ability of 96 microbes to make dissolved organic nitrogen available as ammonium, occurred in P. oceanica 97 and if it differed in areas of low pH influenced by the vents versus areas of ambient pH. 98 Ammonification involves deamination of amino acids to liberate ammonium; we quantified 99 ammonium production in situ with stable isotope enrichments of amino acids and in the presence 100 of Posidonia plants and the surrounding seawater. We tested carbon fixation rates, dissolved 101 organic carbon release rates, and tissue nitrogen values as possible plant traits that differed 102 among sites. We used metagenomics to describe the microbial taxa in association with Posidonia 103 blades and roots, and probe their functions, both at a site with CO₂ venting with low pH and at a 104 nearby site unaffected by vent activity with ambient pH.

105 Results

106 The daylight carbon fixation rates per unit tissue mass of P. oceanica did not differ whether 107 Posidonia was in proximity to CO₂ vents at Castello South (CS) or in control areas with ambient 108 pH (Sant' Anna, SA) (p=0.646, Figure 1a, Table S3). At night, respiration rates too were 109 indistinguishable (Figure 1a). The nitrogen content in *Posidonia* tissue did not differ between the 110 vent and control site, either in the meristem (t=0.993, p=0.360) or midblade (t=0.517, p=0.623), 111 and averaged 2.1% in the meristem and 1.5% in the midblade region overall (Suppl Fig 1a). The 112 C:N ratio of *P. oceanica* tissue did not differ among sites, whether we considered the meristem 113 tissue or the midblade underneath epiphytes (Suppl Fig 1b). Initial conditions for the incubation 114 bottles are in Table S1; statistics and all measurements of P. oceanica are in Supplementary

115 Tables 2 and 3, respectively.

There were differences in the fate of the ¹⁵N amino acids that were incubated with *P. oceanica* versus seawater only, with enrichment of seawater ammonium greatest at the control site of SA and greatest when in association with *P. oceanica* (Figure 2a). The ¹⁵N in ammonium in seawater $(\delta^{15}N \text{ of } NH_4)$ increased during the first 7 daylight hours ('day') and increased again overnight ('night').

121 The ammonification rate in nmol per hour across the two locales, quantified with equation (1), 122 revealed greater ammonification rates at the site with ambient pH compared with the vent site, 123 both in seawater and when P. oceanica was present (Figure 2b, p=0.002); overall, 124 ammonification rates were more that 4 times greater at ambient sites. P. oceanica was not 125 significantly associated with greater ammonification rates than seawater (ANOVA, p=0.060), 126 though ammonification with seagrass was 2.5 times greater when both sites were combined. 127 Rates did not differ between night and day (p=0.732). Comparing the ammonification rates 128 where *P. oceanica* was in the incubation bottles, there was no diel pattern, while seawater 129 particulate organic matter (POM) was associated with greater ammonification during the day. 130 P. oceanica plants showed ¹⁵N enrichment in their tissues in the meristem and the midblade. 131 Enrichments were higher on the blade under epiphytes (Table S3). While all tissue types showed

a similar pattern, we relied on the very newest tissue growth in the meristem for analysis. There
was almost 3 times greater uptake of ¹⁵N-enriched ammonium in the meristem during the day
compared to night (p=0.002), but the increase seen at the vent during the day switched at night to
greater uptake in control sites (interaction between time of the experiment and locale, p=0.020,

Figure 2c). Rates of ammonium uptake by *Posidonia* reached up to 6-8 μmol N per g dry mass
per hour based on estimates of ¹⁵N enrichment and using equation (2) (Figure 2c, Table S3).

138 The dynamics of dissolved organic nutrients was affected by *P. oceanica*, locale and time of day. 139 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was elevated when *P. oceanica* was present, with a nearly 140 significant interaction between time of day (day or night) and locale (p=0.059) but no significant 141 main effect of locale (p=0.726) or time of day (p=0.171) (Figure S2a). DON release in P. 142 oceanica showed no difference between locales (p=0.580) but was significantly elevated during 143 the day when *P. oceanica* was fixing the most carbon (p=0.001, Figure S2b). The pattern of 144 dissolved organic release in seawater only showed that DOC was greater at the vent site 145 (p=0.005) and greater at night (p=0.041). DON release was also greater at the vent site, though 146 the interaction between locale and time of day (p<0.001) indicated that DON release was greater 147 during the day at the vent site and greater at night at the control site (p<0.001). DOC and DON 148 tended to have net production during the day and net uptake at night. The use of inorganic 149 nutrients during daylight hours is illustrated by decreased concentrations of nitrite, nitrate and 150 silica (Figure S2).

151 The presence of *P. oceanica* was associated with increased uptake of ¹⁵N in POM during 152 nighttime hours, an effect that was greatest in the control site of SA, based on the interaction 153 between locale and treatment (p=0.033, Figure 2d). Combining the day and night interval, POM 154 ¹⁵N uptake was always greater with *P. oceanica* (Table S2), resulting in 1.6 times more nitrogen 155 uptake in chambers with *P. oceanica* compared with seawater at SA, and 2.5 times higher at the 156 CS vent site.

157 Carbon uptake by POM was also enhanced with *P. oceanica* though only during the day; POM

158 carbon uptake decreased with *P. oceanica* at night (Fig 1b). Over all estimates of POM, the C:N

159 ratio was 5.09 at SA and 5.97 at the CS vent site (Table S3). If the carbon:nitrogen uptake by

160 POM is relatively constant, water column carbon uptake was increased 8.6 times (1.6 x 5.09) at

161 SA and 17.4 times (2.5 x 5.97) at the vents due to the contribution of bacteria that metabolize

amino acids in association with *P. oceanica*.

163 <u>Metagenome analyses</u>

164 After quality control and filtering, we obtained an average of 33.7 million sequence reads per

165 sample (range 28.6 to 43.8 million). Metagenomic short reads were assembled into contigs of at

166 least 1,000 nucleotides in length, resulting in 26,460 to 123,697 contigs per sample with a mean

167 of 68,852 across all 6 samples (Table S4). Across all the metagenomes in our study, the

168 taxonomy of *Posidonia* blades had the greatest alpha diversity, with rhizomes at the vent having

169 the fewest (Figure 3, Table S4), though we are precluded from statistical tests of diversity, due to

170 lack of replication in each tissue type and locale.

171

172 The metagenomic reads allowed us to construct metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs),

173 ranging from only a single MAG on rhizomes at the vent site to 21 MAGs on a blade

174 metagenome at the control site. We used Bowers et al ³⁵ criteria to define a MAG as high quality

175 if it had a competition score of >90% and a redundancy (or contamination) of <10% (Table S5),

176 yielding 22 high quality MAGs. A remaining 42 were medium quality MAGs that had

177 completion scores between 42% and 90% and redundancy scores between 0% and 11% (Table

178 S5). All MAGs were bacterial and represented 5 phyla (Figure 3a). A notable difference among

179 blades versus rhizomes was the presence of the Cyanobacteria and Bacteroidota phyla on blades

180 but not on rhizomes. In three cases, we were unable to taxonomically resolve a metagenome-

assembled genome. Taxonomic diversity at the Class and Family level was higher on rhizomescompared with blades (Figure 3b,c).

183

184 The metabolism of these metagenomes was diverse, with some functional differences (Figure 4). 185 Photosynthetic and anoxygenic photosystem II were present only on blades, an expected result 186 given the presence of Cyanobacteria only on blades. Nitrogen fixation was indicated only on 187 rhizome tissue and at the control site (Figure 4). Ammonification was a prevalent metabolism 188 across all bacterial MAGs on P. oceanica. Of the 67 MAGs, all had enzymes classified as 189 EC:1.4.* or EC:3.5.*, while 61 MAGs had enzyme function classified as EC:4.3.1* (Table S6). 190 Nitrate reduction capability was present in the rhizome of seagrass from control areas (MAG 1 191 and MAG4), including denitrification in control rhizomes (MAG4). 192 193 Other microbial metabolisms that could be beneficial to P. oceanica included the presence of B 194 vitamin metabolism on both tissue types at both vent and control areas. Vitamin B6 (pyridoxal)

195 biosynthesis was only present in control rhizomes, while thiamin biosynthesis, vitamin B1, was

197 MAGS in both tissue types and locales. Vitamin B12 (cobalamin) synthesis was suggested in

present in all samples except vent rhizomes and vitamin B7 (biotin) biosynthesis was in multiple

198 multiple MAGs at both sites, with aerobic biosynthesis only on the blades and anaerobic

199 biosynthesis suggested in MAGs from all samples. Multiple MAGs on blades and rhizomes at

200 both locales had sulfur oxidizing capability.

201

196

202 **DISCUSSION**

203 Posidonia in proximity to CO₂ vents with low pH did not differ in carbon fixation rates from

204 those that were in ambient pH areas. Carbon fixation rates were similar to the rates estimated at 205 the same location previously ⁸ for blades without epiphytes. The NPP values reported by 206 Berlinghof et al⁸ in µmol O₂ convert to ~0.7 to 0.9 mg C per g dry mass per hour, assuming a 207 photosynthetic quotient of 1.0 (a 1:1 molar ratio of oxygen release to carbon uptake), a range 208 nearly identical to what we estimated, though they show increased net primary production in 209 proximity to vents. Here, our estimates of primary production included the rhizome tissue which 210 may have obscured carbon fixation differences due to respiration. Ambient DIN values were 211 similar between the two sites at the single timepoint when we estimated them and previously 212 published values indicate also cite similar low nitrate concentrations regardless of venting that are $<1 \mu M^{36,37}$. Estimates of ammonification were greater in control areas, with microbes at both 213 214 ambient and vent sites capable of increasing nitrogen access locally to the host. Thus, despite 215 differences in plant morphology and grazing pressure, P. oceanica productivity was similar. 216 Water column processes did differ between ambient and vent area, possibly due to microbial 217 nitrogen processing.

218 The presence of seagrass enhanced water column nitrogen uptake to 2.5 times at the vent site and 219 1.6 times at the ambient site when we integrated over both day and night intervals (Figure 2d). 220 With a POM C:N ratio was 5.09 at SA and 5.97 at the CS vent site (Table S3), this yields 8.6 221 times more carbon uptake at the control site and 17.4 times more carbon at the vent site due to 222 the contribution of bacteria that metabolize amino acids in association with *P. oceanica*. Direct 223 measurements of carbon uptake by POM further indicated increased carbon fixation, but only 224 during the day (Figure 1b). A possible reason for enhanced POM carbon and nitrogen uptake is 225 the increased dissolved organics available to heterotrophic bacteria when POC is present (Figure 226 S2). Nitrogen cycling in association with P. oceanica has been shown previously to be elevated

227 near vents 34 .

228 Benthic-pelagic coupling and enhancement of pelagic productivity through the host-associated 229 microbes on *P. oceanica* have implications due to global declines in seagrass cover ³⁸ and the 230 prevalence of seagrass wasting diseases ³⁹. Marine macrophytes have increasingly been shown to 231 host a species rich microbiome ⁴⁰, with diverse functions that include not only ammonification, but also nitrogen fixation ^{8,34,41}, nitrification ⁴² and nitrate reduction ^{14,43}. Seagrasses are 232 233 important to carbon sequestration due to carbon fixation ⁴⁴ and the carbon storage in the root phyllosphere 45 and sediment. Seagrasses also ameliorate pH decreases 46 . Here we show that P. 234 235 oceanica enhances carbon fixation in the water column, suggesting that the contribution of 236 seagrass on the carbon cycle is likely greater than previously recognized due to water column 237 effects. P. oceanica mirrors the findings for other foundational species, such as corals and sponges ^{4,47,48} where there are indirect effects through a food web due to the nutrient 238 239 provisioning by particular species. Our findings with P. oceanica suggests that its role as a host 240 for an active microbiome amplifies its role in these shallow Mediterranean systems. 241 Ammonification occurred during day and night and with or without P. oceanica, suggesting that 242 there is an abundance of microbes that metabolize amino acids and enhance carbon fixation and 243 primary productivity in seagrass ecosystems. Further, every genome that we assembled had the 244 functional capacity for deamination of amino acids to ammonium (Table S6). The use of 245 unfiltered, in situ seawater allowed us to quantify ammonification in the water column, both with 246 and without P. oceanica. Bacteria in the water column was likely a significant contributor to ammonification. ¹⁵N uptake to water column POM was detected in all incubation bottles, though 247 248 an unknown amount of this uptake could be due to bacteria or eukaryotic phototrophs.

249

Regardless of whether the ¹⁵N went into bacteria first, then into water column phytoplankton, the presence of *Posidonia* enhanced the uptake of ¹⁵N into POM, suggesting that seagrass-associated bacteria, or even fungi, enhance water column productivity both at vent sites and controls. The comparison of light versus dark uptake of ¹⁵N into POM demonstrated that at least some of this uptake was likely bacteria given the continued incorporation of ¹⁵N into POM at night (Figure 2d).

256

257 One enigmatic aspect of our results is ammonification rates in units of nmol per hour, while ¹⁵NH₄ uptake rates could be in umol per hour. We can think of several explanations for this, 258 259 including that amino acid concentrations that were greater than the 1uM that we assumed would 260 have overestimated enrichment (R_{source}) and underestimated ammonification in equation (1). A 261 second reason is that these processes could be spatially restricted, where microbial production in 262 a biofilm could be immediately followed by host use, causing us to underestimate 263 ammonification in the water column. Thirdly, if amino acid metabolisms are rapid and amino 264 acid concentrations have high flux, we may have underestimated the processing and recycling of 265 nitrogen during incubation.

266

Ammonium concentrations are often not measured to the extent that nitrate concentrations are measured, despite preferential use of the former by macrophytes ^{49,50}. Estimates of ammonium use and turnover in nature are high ⁵¹, though bacterial ammonification has been measured only rarely⁵². Also measured rarely is the concentration of DON, including any component parts such as amino acids. Amino acid concentrations have been estimated at 05-1.9 uM in other areas in

the Mediterranean ^{53,54}, but a single flux estimate in the Caribbean suggests the flux could be
high⁵² and the importance of DON as a persistent supply of ammonium could be even greater.

Our demonstration of increased δ^{15} N in seagrass tissue does not conclusively prove that these 275 276 plants are taking up ¹⁵NH₄ from microbial processes. Only pulse-chase experiments with more precise imaging, for example using NanoSIMS^{15,16}, could show that microbial metabolism was 277 278 the intermediate between ¹⁵N-amino acids and the higher $\delta^{15}N$ of macrophyte tissue. However, 279 ammonification genes were ubiquitous across MAGs here (Table S4) and in other studies ^{14,55}, 280 and suggests that microbes may mediate the availability of ammonium. Several previous studies 281 that suggest seagrasses directly take up DON did not control or account for microbial activity¹⁸, 282 and thus direct DON uptake by marine angiosperms remains unknown.

283

284 Amino acid concentrations in the ocean are rarely reported, though there are several studies in 285 the Mediterranean in proximity to *P. oceanica* beds that report 0.5 to 1.9 uM dissolved free 286 amino acids (DFAA) concentrations ^{53,54}, several orders of magnitude greater than those reported 287 in open ocean settings ^{56,57}. DFAA can be a reduced source of nitrogen for both phytoplankton and bacteria ¹⁹, and may be rapidly renewed via the release from animals ^{58,59}, phytoplankton ⁶⁰, 288 289 and possibly the host themselves, such as P. oceanica here 53. Concentrations can be greater in 290 the sediment surrounding *P. oceanica* when compared to the water column 53 . Although 291 estimates are that DFAA is only from 1 to 10% of DON in coastal areas ⁶¹, the estimates are few 292 and DFAA and DON may have rapid turnover rates which make their contribution to overall 293 nitrogen use difficult to estimate.

294 Our estimates of ammonium uptake by *P. oceanica* during the day from the addition of ¹⁵N

enriched amino acids ranged from 1.17 to 15.33 umol per g dry mass per hour, comparable to the
2.77 umol rate estimated in ⁵¹ for *P. oceanica* in the Mediterranean and suggesting amino acids
from deamination may be significant to ammonium uptake rates here and in other areas.

298 P. oceanica has other means of acquiring dissolved inorganic nitrogen from microbial associates. 299 Nitrogen fixation genes were found in a MAG from the rhizome at the control site and is 300 consistent with other studies that have determined that nitrogen fixation 62 , nifH genes 63 , or 301 nitrogen-fixing taxa in association with P. oceanica¹⁵ in low-oxygen environment of the 302 rhizomes. Mohr et al.¹⁵ assembled a MAG for a novel taxon that fixes nitrogen within the cells 303 of *P. oceanica* roots. We did not find the '*Candidatus* Celerinatantimonas neptuna' they 304 described in any of the MAGs we assembled, nor in the family Celerinatantimonadaceae, 305 perhaps due to either incomplete DNA sequencing or to our use of surface swabs rather than 306 grinding the root tissue of P. oceanica, as they did. Our analysis of P. oceanica blades did not 307 reveal *nifH* genes. Dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium is an additional bacterial 308 metabolism that may help the seagrass host access nitrogen. We found genes for this function in 309 rhizomes in control areas, consistent with previous studies of denitrification in association with 310 seagrass⁶⁴.

311

Estimates of ammonification were greater in control areas, though *P. oceanica* carbon fixation did not differ between the control area and the CO₂ vent area. Ambient nitrate values were similar between the two sites at the single timepoint when we estimated them; previously published values also cite similar low nitrate concentrations regardless of venting that are <1uM 36,37 . Both vent and ambient sites had microbes that could increase nitrogen to enhance *P. oceanica* primary production. In addition to the abundance of enzymes with deaminating

318 function (Table S4), nitrate reduction genes were indicated, as was nitrogen fixation.

319

320	There were microbial metabolisms that were unique to <i>P. oceanica</i> tissue types, such as
321	cyanobacteria and anoxygenic photosynthesis only on seagrass blades. B vitamin synthesis was
322	also prevalent, but the rhizomes in vent sites lacked Vitamin B1 and B6 synthesis. Vitamin B12,
323	suggested to be auxotrophic for marine eukaryotic hosts ^{65,66} was in some MAGs in both tissue
324	types and locales. Whether it plays a critical role in host fitness that has been demonstrated for
325	other marine macrophytes (e.g. ¹) remains to be investigated. In general, alpha diversity and the
326	number of high quality MAGs was low in vent samples. Whether this reflects lower bacterial
327	abundance in these areas is unclear, though certain functions were absent.
328	
329	Our finding that <i>P. oceanica</i> and its microbial associates stimulate water column carbon fixation
330	adds an important dimension to the role of seagrass beds in the carbon cycle. Seagrasses are
331	suggested to alter the dissolved organic nitrogen ⁵² and seaweeds can influence water column
332	microbes ⁶⁷ . Understanding whether there are general mechanisms by which the seagrass enhance
333	the productivity of the surrounding water column are a necessary aspect of quantifying the role
334	of seagrass in the marine carbon cycle.

335

336 Methods

337 <u>Study System</u>

Underwater CO₂ vent systems are a powerful tool for exploring the effects of low pH on the
features of species and biological systems. In Ischia, Italy, CO₂ vent-influenced *P. oceanica*

340 meadows (here, Castello South (CS)) is separated by less than a km from areas unaffected by 341 CO₂ vents and (Ambient pHsite, Sant' Anna (SA)). The vent sites at Castello South have a mean pH near 7.7, while the Ambient pH site at Sant' Anna has ambient pH ~7.95²⁷. Seawater 342 343 temperature and other environmental variables (e.g. depth, light, salinity) are similar in CO₂ vent 344 and in ambient pH sites ²⁷. While carbon dioxide is the main gas from the vents, other gasses 345 include N₂ (3.2–6.6%), O₂ (0.6–0.8%), Ar (0.08–0.1%), and CH₄ (0.2%–0.8%) but no sulfur gas 346 ³¹. Trace metal concentrations can be elevated near vents, although detrimental effects on P. 347 *oceanica* have not been recorded ⁶⁸.

348 <u>¹⁵N amino acid incubation with</u> *P. oceanica*

349 *P. oceanica* was collected *in situ* at the Ambient pH site SA at 1000h and the CO₂ vent site CS at 350 1040h on 14 Sept 2021. At each site, blades attached to a single rhizome unit were selected via 351 SCUBA to have both a new blade developing as well as a corresponding older blade that was 352 generally free of epiphytes. The rhizome was removed so that the blades (from 4-6) remained 353 within a sheath. P. oceanica wet mass was quantified with a Pesola and ranged from 2.0 to 3.5 g 354 (mean=2.75 g). At each site, 8 P. oceanica shoots were collected. While we collected plants that 355 were approximately a half meter distant from each other, we do not know if individuals were 356 genetically distinct.

Simultaneously, gas-tight 500 ml polycarbonate bottles (actual volume is 660 ml) were filled at 1-2 m depth at each site, holding the bottle underwater above the *P. oceanica* beds, filling to eliminate all bubbles, and capping underwater. For each site, *P. oceanica* was immediately added to 8 of the bottles, while 4 held seawater only to quantify water column processes. Oxygen and temperature were recorded immediately with 3 mm optical fiber probe (#OXROB3, Pyroscience, Germany) and temperature sensor (Firesting FS02-4, Pyroscience, Germany) assuming 38 ppt
Salinity.

364 We amended each of the 16 bottles with P. oceanica and the 8 with seawater only with amino 365 acids that were enriched in ¹⁵N (98%, Cambridge Isotope, NLM-2151, Lot#PR-24163). We 366 assumed a concentration of dissolved free amino acids (DFAA) of 1 uM based on previous work in Mediterranean *Posidonia* beds that ranged from 0.5 to 1.9 uM^{53,54}. We added 50 uL of a .05M 367 368 solution to an assumed existing concentration of 1 uM to achieve an enrichment of ~ 0.76 at %. 369 The bottle was gently inverted 5 times to distribute the isotope, then attached to a line with dive 370 weights at either end and were deployed at 2 m depth at noon. All 32 bottles were deployed 371 across 4 lines in the same embayment (Cartaromana Bay) where both sets of seagrasses 372 originated, though in waters that were unaffected by the vent activity. The bottles rested on the 373 benthos and thus received natural light and some gentle water surge throughout the experiment. 374 To quantify nitrogen metabolic processes during the daylight versus darkness, we analyzed half

376 remaining 16 experimental units were removed from the water immediately after sunrise the377 following day on 15 Sept 2021 (0720h).

of the *P. oceanica* and seawater contained within the bottles after 6 hours at 1800h; the

375

For each of the end of day and end of night censuses, the oxygen concentration in each bottle was measured and seawater was preserved for dissolved organic matter concentration, inorganic nutrient concentrations, including the concentration of ¹⁵N-ammonium. We also filtered 360-420 ml of seawater through a 0.7 uM gf/f filter (25 mm, Whatman) to quantify the ¹⁵N of particulate organic matter (POM) in the seawater and dried at 50°C for 48 h. Dissolved inorganic nutrient samples were filtered through a 0.2 um PE filter and frozen at -20°C. Seawater samples for

384 dissolved organic C and N analysis were filtered through pre-combusted GF/F filters into acid-

385 washed HDPE vials, immediately fixed with 160 uL of 18.5% HCl and stored at 4°C until

analysis on a total organic carbon analyzer (TOC-L with TNM-L Unit, Shimadzu Corporation,

387 Japan). DON was obtained from TDN subtracting total dissolved inorganic N (nitrate, nitrite and

ammonium), determined on seawater samples preserved frozen and analyzed on a Continuous

389 Flow Analyzer (Flowsys, SYSTEA SpA., Italy).

390 We analyzed the changes to both organic nutrient (DOC and DON) and inorganic nutrients

391 (nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, phosphorus, silica) when incubation bottles had seawater only or *P*.

392 *oceanica*, using a univariate two-way ANOVA with locale and time of day and their interaction.

393 All statistical analyses were performed in R (www.R-project.org), version 4.2.2 (2022-10-31)

394 with modules *ggplot* and *dplyr*.

395 Quantifying Nitrogen dynamics

We quantified the amino acid mineralization rate (ammonification) using the source-sink model from Lipschultz ⁶⁹. The model quantifies the transfer from the source (¹⁵N amino acids) at the beginning of the experiment to the 'sink', which is the ¹⁵NH4 in the seawater, either at the end of the day or the end of the night. The rate from T_0 to T_f was based on the following difference equation:

401 Amino Acid Mineralization Rate =
$$\frac{R(t)_{sink} - R(t)_{source}}{(R_{source} - R(0)_{sink})*t} * [NH_4]$$
 (equation 1)

402 where *R* is the isotopic ratio of the sink or source, t is the length of the incubation, and 403 $[NH_4]$ represents the average concentration of ammonium over the course of the experiment. By 404 quantifying the metabolism of ¹⁵N from amino acids (the source) to ammonium in the water 405 column (the sink), we estimated the hourly rate in nmol for the approximately 7 hour daytime 406 incubation, as well as the entire 20 hours until the next morning. We then separated the 407 ammonification rate for the night only by assuming the $R(0)_{sink}$ was the mean value at the end of 408 the day. We quantified equation (1) for all 8 bottles with unfiltered seawater and 16 incubation 409 bottles with both *P. oceanica* and unfiltered seawater. We used unfiltered seawater from 410 immediately adjacent to the *P. oceanica* used in the experiment to quantify activity by water 411 column versus host-associated microbes.

412 Because we needed a concentration of ¹⁵NH₄ in seawater that we could detect, given the

413 relatively low concentrations of [NH₄], we added 77.6 μ L of .05M NH₄Cl, effectively adding 1.4

414 mg/L of NH₄. The δ^{15} NH₄ value of the NH₄Cl was known, allowing for reliable detection of

415 ammonium without diluting the $^{15}NH_4$ signal 55 .

416

417 We tracked the uptake of ¹⁵N to *P. oceanica* tissue to estimate ammonium uptake rates,

418 following methods in ⁷⁰. This method uses the following equation:

419
$$NH_4^+uptake\ rate = \frac{particulate\ 15N\ at\%\ excess}{(R*t)} * NT$$
 (equation 2)
420

421 where tissue ¹⁵N atom% excess is the final ¹⁵N atom% minus the initial ¹⁵N atom%, *R* is the 422 mean ¹⁵N atom% enrichment in the NH₄⁺ pool, *t* is the duration of the incubation, and N_T is the 423 amount of nitrogen in *P. oceanica* in µmols. We also used equation (2) to estimate ¹⁵N uptake by 424 particulate organic matter (POM); for POM the ¹⁵N could have been in the form of ammonium or 425 amino acids.

426

427 The percent carbon, nitrogen and δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C of *P. oceanica* tissue was measured from a 1 cm 428 section of the midblade where we scraped off all epiphytes, as well as new meristematic tissue at

429	the base that was always free of epiphytes. P. oceanica tissue was sampled prior to enrichment,
430	at the end of the daylight hours, and following the nighttime period. The tissue was dried, ground
431	to a fine powder in a GenoGrinder Spex (Metuchen, NJ), and analyzed on an elemental-
432	analyzer-isotope-ratio mass spectrometer at Northwestern University Stable Isotope
433	Biogeochemistry Laboratory (NUSIBL).
434	
435	Metagenome Analyses
436	The surface microbiome of <i>P. oceanica</i> was sampled with a sterile cotton swab on the upper
437	rhizome tissue; the mid blade region (corresponding to 2 above) and the older tissue with
438	epiphytes (3. above) was sampled with both a cotton swab and Dentek brush to ensure a
439	complete surface sample on blade tissue. All were placed in -20°C and shipped to storage at -80°
440	C, then shipped frozen to the University of Chicago. DNA was extracted with a Qiagen
441	PowerSoil Kit and multiple samples were pooled for each of 6 metagenome samples to increase
442	DNA quantity and possible discovery. The concentration of DNA was less on Castello South
443	(CS) vent site samples compared with the non-venting site (SA), so we pooled all 6 sampled
444	individuals into a single sample for each of the vent blade and vent rhizome. Thus, P. oceanica
445	blade samples were pooled from 6 plants at CS and 3 plants each at SA; rhizome samples were
446	also pooled from 6 plants at CS and 3 plants each at SA. We thus had duplicated samples for
447	control blades and rhizomes but only a single sample for CS vent tissue type.
448	
449	The above 6 samples were run over 1 lane on a HiSeq 2500 (2x150) with TruSeq DNA library
450	preps at Argonne National Laboratory. For each sample, resulting DNA sequences were first
451	quality filtered ⁷¹ , then assembled with IDBA-UD v1.1.3 ⁷² with a minimum scaffold length of 1

452 kbp. Metagenomic short reads from each sample were then recruited back to their corresponding assembled contigs using Bowtie2⁷³. Samtools⁷⁴ was used to generate sorted and indexed BAM 453 files. Anvi'o v7.0⁷⁵ was used as the command line environment for all downstream analyses. 454 455 'anvi-gen-contigs-database' was used to generate anvi'o contigs databases, during which 456 Prodigal v2.6.3⁷⁶ identified open reading frames, and 'anvi-run-hmms' was used to identify genes matching to archaeal and bacterial single-copy core gene collections using HMMER ⁷⁷. 457 458 We quantified overall alpha diversity with 'anvi-estimate-scg-taxonomy'. We then reconstructed 459 genomes from the assembled metagenomes, we used a combination of automatic binning via CONCOCT v1.1.0⁷⁸, followed by a manual curation of each MAG that had greater than 50% 460 completion, following guidance by ⁷⁹ Genome taxonomy was determined using the GTDB 461 (v.1.3.0, ⁸⁰) database and 'anvi-run-scg-taxonomy'. We also inferred gene-level taxonomy using 462 Centrifuge v1.0.4⁸¹ to aid manual curation. 463

464

We examined the metabolic capability of the bacterial MAGs associated with *P. oceanica* using 'anvi-estimate-metabolism' on the manually refined bins that were >50% complete and <10% redundancy ⁸². We classified a metabolic module as complete if 75% percent of the genes within the module were complete.

469

We further quantified the presence of genes that could increase host access to nitrogen. Our experiment specifically tested whether amino acid deamination occurred, so we searched within our assembled MAGs for ammonification hydrolases, including ureases and ammonia-lyases that cleave the C-N bonds in amino acids and make ammonium available to the host. We identified these enzymes through the Enzyme Commission numbers, and searched for EC numbers

475	cla	ssified as acting on CH-NH ₂ bonds (EC:1.4.*), acting on carbon-nitrogen bonds other than
476	pep	otides (EC:3.5.*), or ammonia lyases (EC:4.3.1*), where * indicates any subset of these
477	cla	ssifications, and determined whether a MAG had each of these 3 classes of enzymes (e.g. ¹⁴).
478	Th	e Kegg Orthologs associated with each of these EC numbers is shown in Supplemental Table
479	5. 1	We searched for evidence of nitrogen fixation genes (<i>nifH</i>), as well as other nitrogen cycling
480	ger	nes and functions that could benefit the host.
481		
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698

699 Author Contributions

- 700 CAP, NT, UC, AM, JPG designed the study and CAP, NT, UC, AM, LM carried out all field and
- 101 laboratory analyses. CAP, UC, IV analyzed data. All individuals contributed to the writing of the

- 702 manuscript.
- 703

704 Data Availability

- 705 Environmental data have been archived at Zenodo, doi: 10.5281/zenodo.7834043, while
- 706 metagenomic data are at NCBI, #SUB13085574.

707 Figures and captions

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711 Figure 1. Carbon uptake rates by a. *P. oceanica* and b. seawater. In a, carbon fixation or

respiration, in mg C per hour per g *P. oceanica* dry mass in incubation bottles during daylight

and nighttime hours. *P. oceanica* carbon fixation was based on oxygen change, following

subtraction of water column rates. *P. oceanica* carbon fixation was greater during the day, but

715 did not differ between control and vent sites. Two-way ANOVA (site effect 0.646, diel effect

p < 0.001, interaction p=0.728). In b, carbon uptake by unfiltered seawater (in mg C per L per

hour) is shown for both sites and in incubation bottles with and without *P. oceanica*. POM

carbon uptake differed between day and night (p<0.001) and with *P. oceanica* (p=0.002); there

719 were significant interactions with time of day and locale (p=0.004) and time of day and treatment

(p<0.001). Boxplots show mean values and delimit 25th and 75th percentiles; all points are
 shown, statistical tests in Table S2.





724 725 Figure 2. The fate of ¹⁵N amino acids added to incubation bottles with and without *P. oceanica*. In a, δ^{15} N ammonium (‰) in seawater in incubation bottles with *P. oceanica* or seawater only. A 726 727 comparison of the values during the end of day census and the end of experiment census, showed 728 a significant increase in the bottles at the end of the night, with increased values at SA and with

729 P. oceanica. There was also an interaction between time and treatment; the increase with time

730 was highest with *P. oceanica*. In b. The ammonification rate in nmol per hour across the two

731 locales and attributed to *P. oceanica* and seawater versus seawater only based on equation (1).

732 The control site had greater ammonification compared with the vent sites (p=0.002) and P. 733 oceanica was nearly associated with greater ammonification rates than seawater (p=0.060), while

rates did not differ overall between night and day (p=0.732). Examining *P. oceanica* separate 734

735 from seawater during day versus night, *P.oceanica* has no diel pattern, while the POM in

736 seawater is associated with greater ammonification during the day, perhaps due to the greater

737 supply of DOC. In c, ammonium uptake rate in umol N per g dry mass per hour in the Posidonia

738 meristem during both day and night periods using equation (2). Uptake was greater during the 739

day (p=0.002), with a significant interaction (p=0.020), indicating a relatively greater uptake of ¹⁵N ammonium at night in the control site. In d., the uptake of ammonium by POM was greater 740

741 when *P. oceanica* is absent from the incubation bottles during the day, and this effect was

742 greatest in the control SA site, based on the interaction between locale and treatment (p=0.033).

743 At night, the situation is reversed and the incubation bottles with *P. oceanica* resulted in a greater

744 incorporation of ¹⁵N into the POM in the seawater compared with bottles that had no *P. oceanica* (p=0.013). Statistical analyses are in Table S2. 745



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Figure 3. The taxonomic assignments of 67 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) in the 6 samples from the blade or rhizome surface of Posidonia as a. Phylum, b. Class and c. Family. There were 22 high quality MAGs and 42 medium quality MAGs, while taxonomy was not

found for 3. In c, alpha diversity in each sample is shown and based on 'anvi-estimate-scg-

taxonomy'. See Supplemental Table S4 and S5.



Figure 4. The metabolisms in 67 microbial metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) assembled on P. oceanica at Ischia, Italy across 5 Phyla and on four different tissue types. The completion

(black=complete, white=absent) in each microbial MAG for metabolic modules that showed

differences across many of the MAGs. A full list of MAG metabolisms are in Table S7. Every

MAG had some ammonification genes (Table S6). The figure was generated from anvi'o⁸³.

766

767 Supplementary Figures

768

Supplemental Figure 1



- Supplementary Figure 1. *P. oceanica* tissue and POM carbon and nitrogen content. The ratio of
- tissue carbon to nitrogen did not differ in the a. meristem (n=6, t=1.057, p = 0.334) or b. the
- midblade region (t = 0.888, p= 0.401), nor were there differences in the overall nitrogen content for either a manifesture and midblade. All data in Table S2
- for either c. meristem or d. midblade. All data in Table S3.



Supplementary Figure 2. Patterns of organic and inorganic nutrients in the incubations
throughout the experiment, quantified as the change in uM per hour. Initial values are in Table
S1.

782 Supplementary Tables 1-7 are combined in a single Excel file.