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1 Microbiome acquisition during larval settlement of the barnacle *Semibalanus*
2 *balanoides*

3

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 Barnacles are conspicuous members of rocky intertidal communities and settlement of the final larval stage, the
10 cyprid, is influenced by the presence of biofilms. While modulation of cyprid settlement by biofilms has been
11 studied extensively, the acquisition of a specific microbiome by the settling larva has not. This study investigated
12 settlement in the field of *Semibalanus balanoides* in two consecutive years when the composition of the benthic
13 bacterial community differed. In both years, settling cyprids adopted a specific sub-set of benthic bacteria that
14 was distinct from the planktonic cyprid and the benthos. This microbiome was consistent, regardless of annual
15 variability in the benthic community structure, and established within hours of settlement. The results imply that
16 a natural process of selection occurs during the critical final transition of *S. balanoides* to the sessile form. The
17 apparent consistency of this process between years suggests that optimal growth and survival of barnacles could
18 depend upon a complex inter-kingdom relationship, as has been demonstrated in other animal systems.

19

20 Introduction

21 Barnacles are key ecosystem engineers [1] as well as commercially and environmentally important marine
22 biofouling species [2]. As adults they are mostly sessile and gregarious, the latter being critical during larval
23 settlement and for reproduction as mature adults. The cypris larva explores immersed surfaces to determine
24 suitability for permanent attachment. Cyprids are highly discriminatory and surface selection is informed by a
25 range of physical and biological cues [3].

26
27 Benthic biofilms are important stimuli for some settling organisms, such as tubeworms [4, 5] and algal spores [6,
28 7]. In some cases, specific bacterial taxa are required [8]. The barnacle literature is ambiguous, with conflicting
29 observations from different barnacle species, and biofilms of varying composition [9-13]. Experiments using
30 bacterial isolates from laboratory-cultured barnacles have suggested that the bacterial flora of barnacle shells and
31 the adjacent substratum differ, and that shell-associated bacteria have an inductive effect on settlement [14].
32 The biofilms present in the barnacle's natural environment, however, are more complex and dynamic than those
33 that survive in the laboratory. Suffice it to say that bacterial films are one of several important cues that enable
34 cyprids to locate a suitable habitat [3].

35
36 There is growing evidence that during metamorphosis from the cyprid to the juvenile barnacle [15], and
37 subsequent growth to adulthood [16], bacteria between the metamorphosing cyprid and the surface to which it
38 is attached are either removed or killed. Barnacles nevertheless retain a significant population of bacterial cells
39 post-metamorphosis, and their intervention in the natural development of their microbiome suggests a
40 relationship between barnacles and bacteria that is more complex than simple acquisition of the local microbial
41 consortium. The suggestion that benthic bacteria could, in addition to serving as a marker of a suitable habitat,
42 also serve as an inoculum for the barnacle 'holobiont' [e.g. 17] has never been explored.

43
44 The annual settlement of *Semibalanus balanoides* in the North Sea provides an opportunity to study this process
45 *in situ*. Adults of the species release nauplius larvae into the water column only once per year, in early spring. The
46 larvae progress through six ecdyses to the cyprid stage, which settles over a short and intense settlement season
47 of around two weeks in late April/early May. This window of settlement activity was exploited to chart the early

48 development of the barnacle microbiome relative to its surroundings. It was presumed that settling larvae would,
49 over the course of their early development, acquire a bacterial consortium similar to that of the surrounding
50 benthos. It is also intuitive that the most dramatic shift in the barnacle's microbial community might be
51 immediately following metamorphosis from the settled cyprid to the juvenile barnacle, at which point feeding
52 commences. Clarification of these points was considered to be an essential basis for further investigation of the
53 natural relationship between barnacles and bacteria.

54

55 **Materials and Methods**

56 *Sample collection:* Experiments were conducted in two settlement seasons, May 2017 and May 2018. The site
57 chosen was the north sea-wall at Cullercoats Bay, UK (Figure 1A; 55°02'07.1"N 1°25'51.7"W). During this period,
58 cyprids of *Semibalanus balanoides* are the dominant zooplankton and easily distinguishable from other species by
59 their large size (approx. 1mm in length). In both seasons, cyprids were collected by trawling the water of the bay
60 immediately below the surface, as well as by collecting settled cyprids and juvenile barnacles in three locations
61 along the wall, each separated by 3 m horizontally. Between trawls, the plankton net was soaked overnight in 5%
62 Decon 90® and rinsed thoroughly before re-use. Trawls of <30 mins were conducted twice in 2016 and three times
63 in 2017 on consecutive high-tides. 30 Larvae were selected at random for sequencing on each occasion from the
64 thousands collected and all samples were processed immediately after collection. Settled individuals were
65 collected 1) after permanent attachment but before metamorphosis to a juvenile, 2) shortly after metamorphosis
66 to a juvenile but before calcification, and 3) post-metamorphosis during initial calcification (Figure 1B). 30
67 individuals of each life stage were collected in each of the three locations 5 h after each high tide. Care was taken
68 during removal of the individuals to contact only the animal using a sterile mounted needle – one per location &
69 life stage. Laboratory experiments were then designed to replicate the natural settlement process in the absence
70 of the benthic biofilm. Cyprids collected from the final plankton trawl in each year were washed thoroughly using
71 5x changes of autoclaved seawater. In each year several hundred larvae were then allowed to settle,
72 metamorphose and calcify in the laboratory in a single 2 L beaker of autoclaved seawater, circulated using a
73 magnetic stirrer and containing a sterile slate block as a settlement substrate, from which settled individuals were
74 sampled. Environmental samples included scrapings from barnacle shells adjacent to settled larvae in the field,
75 rock containing no settled individuals and, in the laboratory, scrapings of the slate substrate. Analysis by

76 PERMANOVA (SUP1) was used to distinguish 'lab vs field' samples and 'planktonic vs pooled-settled stages vs
77 benthos' samples. For the planktonic cyprid sample n = 7 (2016/17 combined), for pooled settled stages (settled,
78 metamorphosed and calcified) n = 27 (2016/17 combined) and for benthos n = 10 (2016/17 combined).
79 Differences between specific benthic life stages (settled, metamorphosed, calcified) and between years were not
80 analysed formally, and discussion of them is therefore based upon visual interpretation of principal coordinate
81 analysis (PCoA) plots and Bray-Curtis distance (SUP1).

82

83 *16S DNA sequencing and analysis:* For details of the sequencing procedure, please refer to supplementary file
84 SUP1. Raw data are available in SUP2.

85

86 **Results and Discussion**

87 Although adhered to a surface, the settled cyprid prior to metamorphosis is fundamentally unchanged from the
88 planktonic, lecithotrophic stage. During metamorphosis to a juvenile, the cyprid carapace is lost through ecdysis
89 along with any associated epibionts, and feeding commences. A consequential shift in the bacterial community
90 was expected. It was surprising, therefore, when results indicated that the greatest difference in associated
91 bacterial community was between the planktonic and settled cyprids. Shannon diversity was significantly higher
92 ($p = 0.043$) in the combined settled samples (Figure 1C), which had greater relative abundance of e.g.
93 *Flavobacteriaceae* (unclassified), *Lewinella*, *Granulosicoccus* and *Maribius* (Figure 1D). Planktonic cyprids had
94 higher abundance of e.g. *Bizionia*. While it appeared that settled cyprids and metamorphosed individuals differed
95 in terms of their bacterial communities ('Metamorphosis' stage; Figure 1E), the magnitude of this difference was
96 less than that between planktonic and settled cyprids ('Settlement' stage; Figure 1E). The difference in community
97 structure between planktonic cyprids, settled individuals (all stages) and the benthos was significant
98 (PERMANOVA $R^2=0.143$, $F=3.25$, $p<0.001$). PERMDISP and ANOVA were performed to rule out dispersal as a
99 factor and found to be insignificant ($p=0.29$).

100

101 There was considerable overlap between the taxa associated with the barnacle shell and the adjacent rock, so for
102 presentation in Figure 1E these were combined together as 'benthos'. Principle coordinate analysis did not cluster
103 benthos data by location, but there was broad separation by year with samples from 2016 and 2017 being

l04 separated across principle component 2, suggesting differing community structures (Figure 1E). The same was
l05 not true for settling barnacles, where 2016 and 2017 data visually clustered in terms of their bacterial
l06 communities at all life-stages. The microbiome of early barnacle life-stages therefore appeared independent of
l07 their immediate environment and maintained despite temporal changes in the community structure of the
l08 benthos. Since settled cyprids metamorphose to the juvenile within a day, the adoption of the settled-barnacle
l09 microbiome must be rapid. After settlement, changes to the microbiome were less dramatic, although there
l10 appeared to be a progression through metamorphosis to calcification (Figure 1E).

l11
l12 The dramatic shift in the composition of the cyprid microbiome upon settlement in the field did not occur in the
l13 laboratory (Figure 1E; PERMANOVA $R^2=0.124$, $F=5.52$, $p<0.001$), confirming that the inoculum for development
l14 of the juvenile barnacle microbiome was not present on the swimming cyprid and must have been acquired from
l15 the benthos. The number of recorded OTUs (Figure 2A) was higher in the laboratory, but the abundance of e.g.
l16 *Shewanella* sp. and *Colwellia* sp. (Figure 2B) on laboratory-reared individuals agrees with their documented
l17 tolerance for a broad range of environmental conditions, perhaps enabling them to better survive transfer out of
l18 the natural habitat of the host (See SUP3 for alternative presentation of these data).

l19
l20 It was evident that the microbiome of cyprids changed fundamentally within hours of settlement, and that the
l21 bacterial consortium acquired from the benthos evolved through metamorphosis and calcification of the juvenile.
l22 The results suggest that the same consortium of bacteria was associated with settling larvae in two years when
l23 the composition of the benthic biofilm differed. However, it is known that bacterial assemblages differ spatially
l24 as well as temporally [18]. Pertinent questions for future work would therefore be, how resistant is the barnacle
l25 microbiome to environmental change? And how important is microbiome composition to the overall fitness of
l26 these important intertidal species [17]?

l27
l28 **Conclusion**

l29 While bacteria were relatively scarce on planktonic cyprids, naturally settled cyprids were colonised rapidly by a
l30 precise bacterial consortium that differed relative to planktonic cyprids and the surrounding benthos. Laboratory
l31 experiments confirmed that the natural microbiome of juvenile barnacles originated from the benthos. The
l32 benthic community differed in two sampling years, but the consortium associated with newly settled barnacles

l33 did not. The composition of the benthos was therefore not the major determinant of the barnacle microbiome
l34 and this observation provides the first evidence for selective association of specific bacterial taxa with developing
l35 barnacles. At this stage we do not suggest either that the barnacle attracts, passively or actively, specific bacterial
l36 strains or that the bacteria most strongly associated with barnacles require the barnacle as a host. Evidently,
l37 however, there has evolved a complex inter-kingdom relationship between barnacles and bacteria that may have
l38 implications for barnacle growth and survival, and this will be subject of future work.

l39

l40 **Ethics**

l41 There are no local or national restrictions on sampling marine invertebrate larvae.

l42

l43 **Data Accessibility**

l44 Raw data are available in supplementary file SUP2 and Dryad DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.85g65v8>.

l45

l46 **Authors' Contributions**

l47 NA and AN designed the study. NA collected and prepared samples, while AN conducted the 16S sequencing. NA
l48 and AN contributed equally to the preparation of the manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the
l49 manuscript and agree to be held accountable for the content therein.

l50

l51 **Competing Interests**

l52 The authors declare no competing interests.

l53

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l57

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198

199 **Figure 1: (A)** The sampling location at Cullercoats Bay, North-East England. **(B)** Barnacles (*Semibalanus balanoides*)
200 at different life-stages. A = adult, S = settled cyprid, M = metamorphosed juvenile, C = calcified juvenile. **(C)**
201 Shannon diversity index (y-axis), indicating significant differences between planktonic cyprids and pooled settled
202 samples. **(D)** Bacterial taxa that differentiated significantly between planktonic cyprids and pooled settled
203 samples. **(E)** PCoA of all developmental stages and replicates for two sampling years in the laboratory and field
204 (statistics refer to PERMANOVA-based comparisons). There is clear progression of microbiome development in
205 the field (orange ellipse) from planktonic cyprids (black) to settled cyprids (brown), metamorphosed juveniles
206 (orange) and calcified juveniles (light orange), with samples from both years (2016/2017) clustering at each life
207 stage. The same was not true in the laboratory (blue ellipse – settled cyprids dark blue, calcified juveniles lightest
208 blue). Environmental samples from local rocks and barnacle shells were highly variable (green) but appeared to
209 separate by year, in contrast to barnacle samples.

210

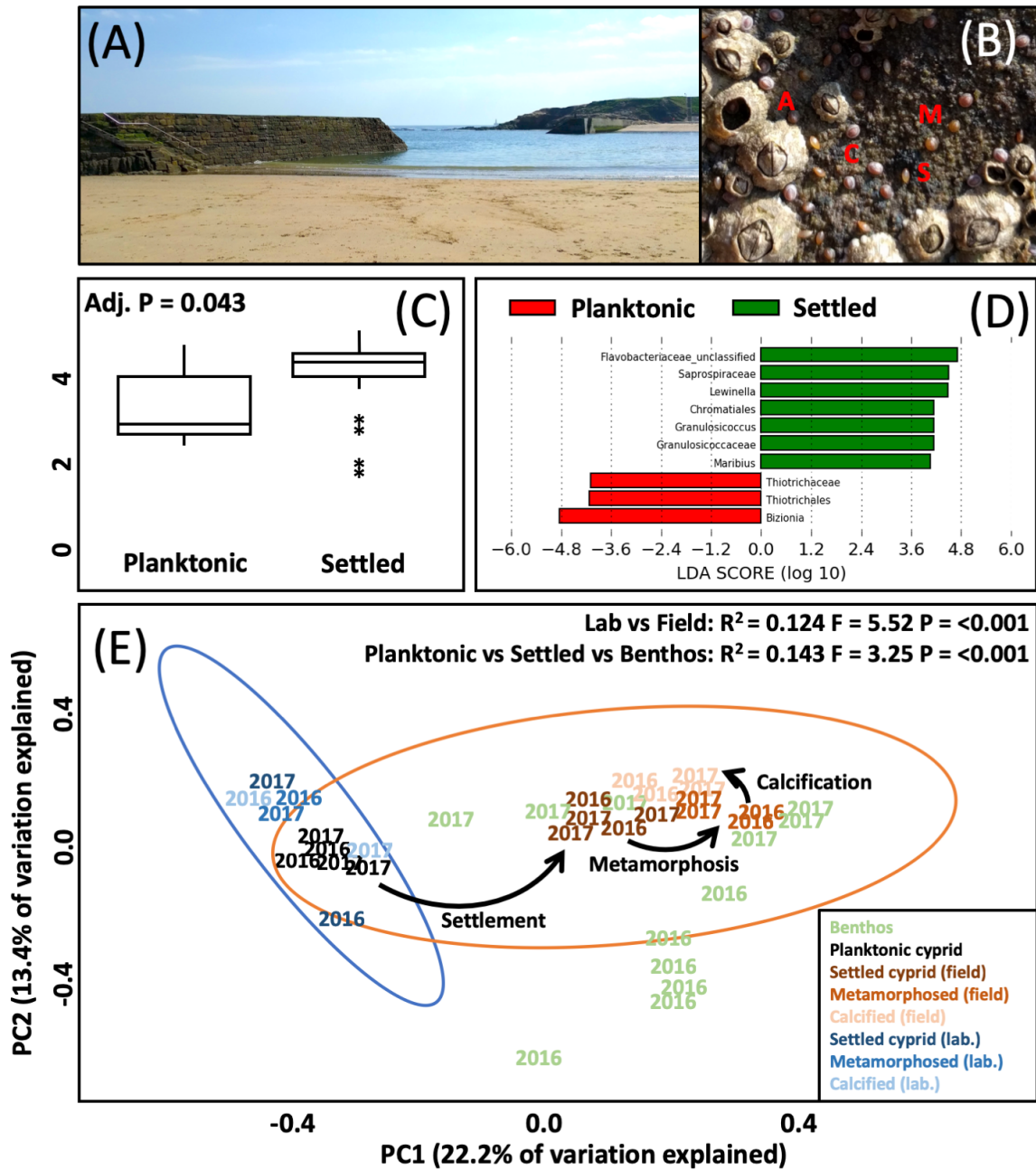
211 **Figure 2: (A)** The number of bacterial OTUs recorded in field and laboratory experiments. **(B)** A linear discriminant
212 analysis effect size (LEfSe) plot, presenting bacterial taxa that differentiated between barnacles settled in the
213 laboratory and in field. Only significant taxa are displayed on the plot ($P < 0.05$).

214

215 **SUP3:** A linear discriminant analysis effect size (LEfSe) plot, indicating bacteria that differentiated between
216 barnacles settled in the laboratory and the natural environment. Concentric rings indicate progressively lower
217 taxonomic levels outwards from the center. Taxa highlighted in different colours are significantly differentiated.

218

219

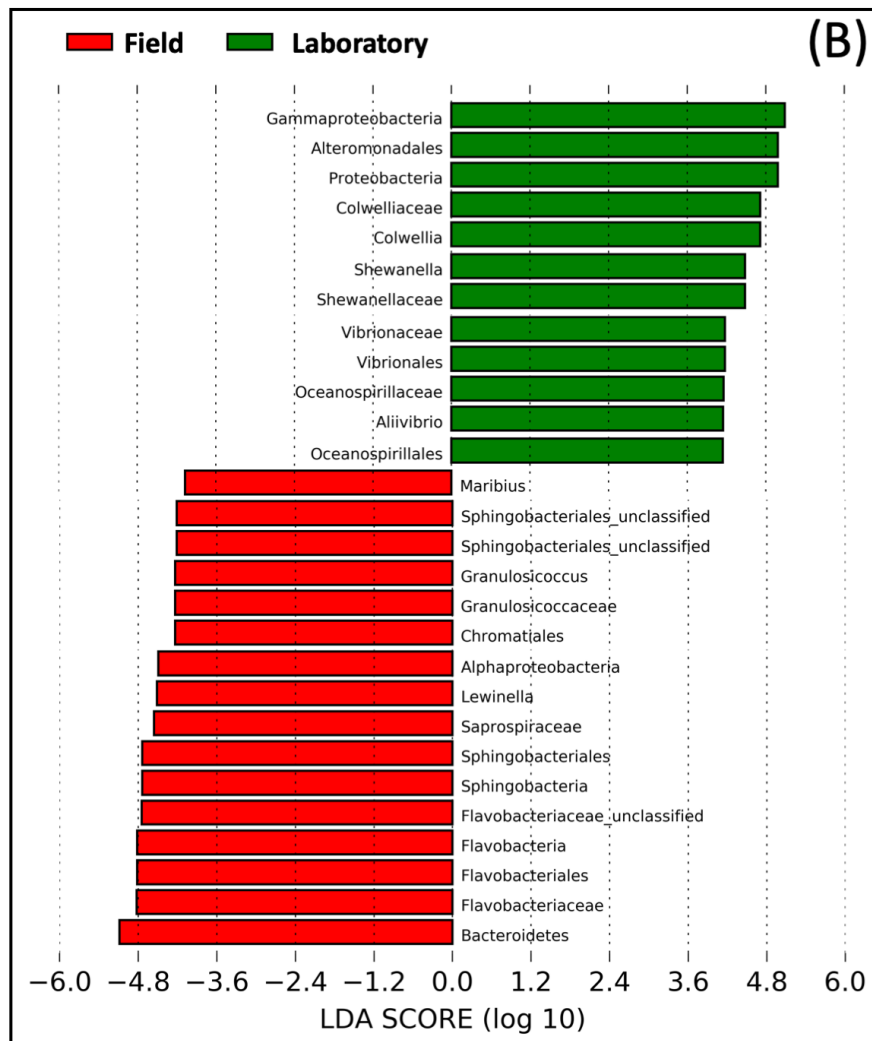
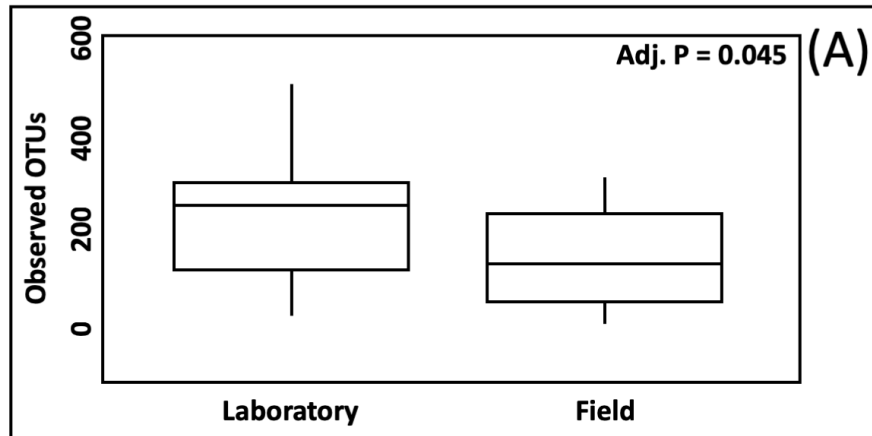


220

221

Figure 1

222



223

224

Figure 2

225

SUP3: A linear discriminant analysis effect size (LEfSe) plot, indicating bacteria that differentiated between barnacles settled in the laboratory and the natural environment. Concentric rings indicate progressively lower taxonomic levels outwards from the center. Taxa highlighted in different colours are significantly differentiated.

