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Inter- and intraspecific diversity in bacterial communities associated with two crustose

coralline algae from the NW Mediterranean Sea

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Abstract

 Crustose coralline algae (CCAs) are key components and primary builders of coralligenous reefs, which are among the most biodiverse marine habitats in the Mediterranean Sea. Beyond their structural role, CCAs play a crucial role in promoting larval settlement in a variety of invertebrate species, including corals. In addition, CCAs form complex holobionts through association with symbiotic microorganisms that can modulate their ability to induce larval settlement and provide information on their health status. Despite their ecological significance and potential for biomonitoring, the microbial communities associated with Mediterranean CCA holobionts remain largely understudied. Using electron microscopy and barcoding techniques, we identified *Lithophyllum stictiforme* complex and *Macroblastum dendrospermum*, two widespread CCAs from the Western Mediterranean Sea, living in sympatry with gorgonians. The 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing revealed that these CCAs host distinct and diverse bacterial communities, even among thalli of the same species, with closer thalli showing more similar bacterial assemblages. Our findings suggest that the primary factors influencing the bacterial communities include the host genotype, local environmental conditions at the individual thallus scale, and possible horizontal transfer between adjacent thalli. The predominance of bacterial sequences affiliated to the *Blastopirellula* genus and *Pir4_lineage* in phylum Planctomycetes across all CCA individuals examined is noteworthy. These bacterial groups have been hypothesized to promote coral larvae settlement in tropical regions, raising the possibility of a similar facilitative interaction between CCAs and Mediterranean coral larvae.

 Keywords: marine holobiont, microbiome, *Lithophyllum sticitiforme*, *Macroblastum dendrospermum*, marine monitoring, coralligenous habitat

1. Introduction

 Crustose coralline algae (CCAs) are a group of rhodophytes characteristic of coastal and mesophotic seascapes (Kahng et al., 2010; Castellan et al., 2022; Schubert et al., 2020). In the Mediterranean, they are key structural components of coralligenous concretions, which, due to 45 their wide spatial and bathymetric extent (up to $2,700 \text{ km}^2$ in area and from 20 to 130 m depth; Martin et al., 2014, Iborra et al., 2022), constitute one of the most representative and biodiverse benthic habitat in the region (Ballesteros, 2006; Bracchi et al., 2022). Mediterranean CCAs also form a highly biodiverse group, potentially harboring significant cryptic diversity at both species and genus level (Pezzolesi et al., 2019; Rindi et al., 2019). Through their calcareous three- dimensional thalli, CCAs serve as ecosystem engineers fostering high species richness (Asnaghi et al., 2015; Pezzolesi et al., 2017; Piazzi et al., 2022). Like their tropical counterparts, Mediterranean CCAs are increasingly affected by climate change and pathogenic diseases (Martin & Gattuso, 2009; Short et al., 2015; Quéré et al., 2019; Cornwall et al., 2022; Vitelletti et al., 2023), with widespread documented cases of mortality (Hereu & Kersting, 2016). As a whole, this context underscores the urgent need for targeted research on CCAs to better assess coralligenous biodiversity and health status.

 Although the taxonomy, biology, and distribution of CCAs have been studied for a limited number of species, one of the least explored aspects is their associated microbiome (Rindi et al., 2019). To date, only two studies have addressed this topic focusing on *Neogoniolithon brassica- florida* (Quéré et al., 2019; Gefen-Treves et al., 2021). These studies provided crucial insights into CCA-bacteria associations and emphasized the need for further investigations into the functioning of these holobionts. There is growing evidence that CCAs harbor species-specific microbiomes (Barott et al., 2011; Cavalcanti et al., 2014; Sneed et al., 2015), with the associated bacteria playing a key role in the morphological development of the algae and exhibiting antifouling properties against epibionts (Singh & Reddy, 2016; Gómez-Lemos & Diaz-Pulido, 2017; Singh et al., 2017). For instance, bacteria can facilitate the settlement of *Ulva* spores (Joint et al., 2002), produce bioactive compounds that promote algal morphogenesis (Matsuo et al., 2005), and even form biofilms on CCAs that inhibit colonization by epiphytes, thereby reducing competition for light (Gómez-Lemos & Diaz-Pulido, 2017). The microbial community associated with algae may also serve as an indicator of algal and habitat health status (Glasl et al., 2017; Quéré et al., 2019). For instance, Zozaya-Valdes and colleagues (2015) identified a pathogen affecting the alga *Delisea* *pulchra*, providing valuable information for predicting the spread of disease. Studies on Mediterranean CCA holobionts are crucial for establishing a foundation for future biomonitoring and conservation measures.

 CCAs are also known to facilitate the recruitment process of several invertebrate species (Lau et al., 2005; O'Leary et al., 2017; Seabra et al., 2019), promoting the settlement and metamorphosis of tropical coral larvae through chemical cues (Gómez-Lemos et al., 2018; Siboni et al., 2020; Jorissen et al., 2021). In the Mediterranean, field observations and an experimental study also showed gorgonian-CCA facilitative interactions (Toma et al., 2022; Zelli et al 2020). Gorgonian species, which are priority for conservation, are highly threatened by climate change and local impacts (Iborra et al., 2022; Tignat-Perrier et al., 2022; Chatzimentor et al., 2023). In recent decades, mass mortalities related to marine heat waves have severely affected shallow gorgonian populations (10-40 m, Garrabou et al., 2022; Bramanti et al., 2023). Efforts are currently underway to reintroduce these species to their natural habitat (e.g., Bramanti et al., 2007; Linares et al., 2008; Montseny et al., 2019; Casoli et al., 2022). Understanding how CCA holobionts interact with gorgonians (e.g., fostering larval settlement) could provide valuable insights for restoration strategies.

 In this study, we analyzed the diversity of the bacterial communities associated with two widespread CCAs from the Western Mediterranean, *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and *Macroblastum dendrospermum,* both of which are either colonized by or in close proximity to gorgonians. To ensure consistent sampling, algae were collected in a restricted geographical area (approximately $\,$ 30 m²) to maximize the likelihood of obtaining thalli from the same species in similar environmental conditions. Previous research, in fact, has shown that bacterial communities associated with macroalgae, including CCAs, can vary considerably between individuals of the

 same species due to diverse environmental conditions and exogenous factors (Staufenberger et al. 2008; Burke et al. 2011; Barott et al. 2011; Miranda et al. 2013; Gefen-Treves et al., 2021).

 Given the high cryptic diversity of CCAs (Rindi et al., 2019), which often makes identification based on morphological characters alone difficult, we used a combination of morphological traits and molecular techniques to identify these CCA species. To investigate species-specific bacterial associations, we characterized the diversity of bacteria associated with CCAs at different taxonomic levels using DNA metabarcoding. We further investigated both the common and distinct components of bacteria diversity, as well as the differential enrichment of bacterial taxa in CCA holobionts. These analyses were performed both between individuals of the two algal species and among individuals within the same CCA taxonomic group.

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Samples collection and preparation

 Thalli of CCAs (ca. 5 cm wide and 5-10 cm long) were collected in December 2022 at the Canadels site in Banyuls-sur-Mer, France (42°26.900' N, 3°10.347' E). The sampling area hosts populations of two octocoral species: the white gorgonian (*Eunicella singularis)* and the Mediterranean red coral (*Corallium rubrum)*. The thalli of each CCA species were collected at three neighboring sites (*L. stictiforme*: ST25, ST27, ST7; *M. dendrospermum*: ST12, ST13, ST17), in three replicates per 113 site, $(n = 18)$. Samples were collected using hammer and chisel at 25 m depth by SCUBA diving. 114 The sampling area covered approximately 30 $m²$ and the distance between the samples and the octocoral colonies varied from 30 cm and 2 m.

 In the laboratory, the epiphytes were carefully removed from the CCA surfaces with sterile forceps. After cleaning, each thallus was divided into fragments. One half was immediately frozen at -80°C for DNA extraction, the other half was air-dried and stored in plastic bags with silica gel for morpho-anatomical characterization and DNA extraction.

2.2 Morpho-anatomical characterization of CCA

 For detailed morpho-anatomical characterization, all samples were examined with a scanning electron microscope (SEM) according to Kaleb et al. (2018). Small fragments of thalli were mounted on aluminum stubs with acrylic adhesive, coated with a thin layer of chromium (Quorum Q150T ES coater), and analyzed with a SEM Zeiss Gemini300 at a working distance (WD) between 8 and 11 mm.

2.3 CCA DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

 The silica-dried CCA samples were pulverized using sterile mortars, and the DNA was extracted following the modified protocol of the Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK) by Broom et al. (2008) and quantified with the use of Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Life Technologies). The psbA gene was PCR-amplified with the use of the forward and reverse primers psbA-F 5'-ATGACTGCTACTTTAGAAAGACG-3' and psbA-R2 5'- TCATGCATWACTTCCATACCTA-3' according to Pezzolesi et al. (2017, 2019), and the QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit (Qiagen) according to the instructions. The amplification protocol consisted of a HotStarTaq DNA polymerase activation step at 95°C for 15 min, followed by a 3- step cycling with denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec, annealing at 57°C for 90 sec, extension at 72°C for 90 sec for 35 cycles, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. The mitochondrial COI-5P fragment was PCR-amplified in *M. dendrospermum*, to increase the number of reference sequences available for the subsequent alignment, following Peña et al. (2015), with the use of the forward and reverse primers GazF1 5′-TCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3′ and GazR1 5′- ACTTCTGGATGTCCAAAAAAYCA- 3′ (Saunders, 2005). The amplification protocol consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C for 2 min followed by 40 cycles of 30 s denaturation at 94°C, 40 s annealing at 50°C and 40 s of extension at 72°C followed by an additional 5 min at 72°C. PCR products were visualized in 1.5% agarose gels stained with Midori Green using Low DNA Mass Ladder (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) as a reference, and PCR products with expected lengths and yields were purified and sequenced by BMR Genomics (Padua, Italy). Specifically, PCR products were treated with ExoSap (Applied Biosystems™, ThermoFischer Scientific, Walthman, MA, USA), and sequencing was performed with BrilliantDye Terminator v1.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Nimagen, The Netherlands) following the manufacturer's instruction on a AB3730xl DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems™, ThermoFisher Scientific, Walthman, MA, USA).

2.4 CCA sequence alignments and phylogenetic analyses

 The quality of the sequences was assessed by visual inspection of the electropherograms using the Chromas software (Version 2.6.6; Technelysium Pty LTD, South Brisbane, Australia). All sequences were scored as high quality, without double or confounding peaks, and were all retained for the alignment and phylogenetic analyses. Alignment was performed using ClustalW and default settings in AliView software (Version 1.28; Larsson, 2014) and phylogeny constructed by means of MEGA software (Version 11.0.13, [www.megasoftware.net;](http://www.megasoftware.net/) Tamura et al., 2021). In addition, NCBI database [\(www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) was searched for publicly available sequences of *Lithophyllum stictiforme* complex and *Mesophyllum* genus (as *Mesophyllum macroblastum* was only recently recognized as *Macroblastum dendrospermum,* Athanasiadis & Ballantine, 2024), and some representatives were selected to be included in the alignments. The alignment was

 assembled after a series of preliminary phylogenetic analyses aimed at correct selection of ingroup and outgroup taxa. Therefore, *psb*A sequences of *Lithophyllum dentatum* (Kützing) Foslie*, L. hibernicum* Foslie*,* and *L. bathyporum* Athanasiadis & D.L.Ballantine, and psbA and COI-5P sequences of the Melobesioideae *Phymatolithon calcareum* (Pallas) W.H. Adey & McKibbin and *Lithothamnion corallioides* (P.L. Crouan & H.M. Crouan) P.L. Crouan & H.M. Crouan were included as outgroups in the respective data sets, according to previous studies (Pezzolesi et al, 2019; Peña et al., 2015). The sequences' alignment of *L. stictiforme* psbA sequences was 825 bp long, while those of *M. dendrospermum* ranged from 598 (S17R1), 684 (S17R2), 725 (S12R1) to 851 base pairs (bp). The COI-5P of *M. dendrospermum* alignment resulted in 608 bp. Neighbor- Joining (NJ) distance analyses were performed on all data sets using Maximum Composite Likelihood model in MEGA software, with nodal support assessed by 1,000 bootstrap (BR) resamplings. Phylogenetic relationships were inferred using Maximum Likelihood (ML) analyses in MEGA software, under a generalized time-reversible with gamma+invariant sites heterogeneity model (GTR+G+I), and a generalized time-reversible gamma distributed (GTR+G) alignments, for the COI-5P and psbA alignments, respectively. The bootstrap consisted of 1000 replicates with complete deletion option, i.e. eliminating the positions containing gaps and missing data (Saitou & Nei, 1987; Nei & Kumar, 2000; Pezzolesi et al., 2019).

 Genetic distances in *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and *Macroblastum dendrospermum* were computed within and between clades using the Kimura distance (Kimura-2 parameter, Kimura, 1980) from 183 the alignments in MEGA (v.11.0.13).

2.5 Bacteria DNA extraction and sequencing

 Frozen CCA samples were pulverized using sterile mortars. Total genomic DNA was extracted from 18 CCA samples using Power Soil DNA Isolation kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). After DNA quantification with the use of DeNovix DS11 [Spectrophotometer -](https://openiris.io/) Fluorometer (DeNovix Inc., Delaware), analyses of the prokaryotic 16S rDNA sequences were conducted through amplicons generation with the use of the forward and reverse primers 341F 5′-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3′ and 785R 5′- GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3′ amplifying the bacterial V3-V4 region (Klindworth et al., 2013). Sequencing was performed on the Illumina MiSeq V3 platform at the Integrated Microbiome Resource (IMR, imr.bio, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada) to obtain 2x300 paired-end sequences. Complete details of the protocols applied for library preparation and sequencing procedures can be found in Comeau and Kwawukume (2023).

2.6 Bacteria sequence analyses and statistics

 Bacteria sequences were processed with the DADA2 R package, version 1.16 (Callahan et al., 2016; https://benjjneb.github.io/dada2/) in R 4.2.3 (R Core Team, 2023). After inspection of quality control profiles, the filtering parameters were set as follow: truncLen=c(280,220), trimLeft=c(17,21), maxN=0, maxEE=c(2,5), truncQ=2, rm.phix=TRUE, compress=TRUE, multithread=TRUE. The sequences were then dereplicated, denoised by removing sample inference and chimeras, and merged. Representative amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were classified against the SILVA version 138.1 database (McLaren & Callahan, 2021). The dataset was cleaned from chloroplast, Archaea, unknown ASVs at the phylum level and singletons with 207 the R package phyloseq (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013). After cleaning, a total of 503,450 reads and 2599 ASVs were retained.

 Rarefaction curves were produced by rarefying the dataset to 9310 sequences through the use of vegan package in R (Oksanen et al., 2013), and all samples were retained for analyses. The curves reached a plateau for all samples indicating that the CCA-associated bacteria diversity was well covered (Supp. Fig. 1).

 To estimate CCA-bacteria communities alpha diversity, the phyloseq package was used to calculate the Shannon Index with the *diversity* function. Significant differences among alpha diversity values at both inter and intra-CCA species levels were tested. The Shapiro Wilk test was applied to test for normality of data. When data were normal, the One-Way ANOVA with *aov* function followed by the Tukey test for pairwise comparison of samples were used. In case of non- normal data, the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the Dunn test (dunn.test package) with the Benjamini-Hochberg method were performed. A multidimensional scaling ordination (MDS), based on Bray-Curtis distance matrix computed from Hellinger ASV transformed data (i.e., square root of relative abundance), was constructed with the vegan package to visualize similarities in bacteria community composition both between CCA species and within samples of the same CCA. A permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was used to test for significant differences among bacteria communities associated with thalli of different and same CCA species on Bray Curtis distance matrix of Hellinger transformed ASV data using 999 permutations under reduced model with the vegan package by applying the *adonis2* function. Intraspecific differences of CCA bacteria communities were further analysed by the *pairwise.adonis2* function for pairwise comparison of samples considering the sampling sites as source of variance. Statistically 229 significant differences were considered with p -value ≤ 0.05 .

 To identify the core microbiomes, i.e. ASVs shared between individual CCA-bacteria communities within and between CCA species, as well as the core ASVs unique to each CCA

 species and sampling site, i.e. shared only at CCA species level, the microbiome package (Lahti et al., 2017) and the *core_members* function (Salonen et al., 2012) with detection = 0.01 (with relative abundance ≥1%) and prevalence = 0.75 (present in at least 75% of samples) were used*.* The results were represented through Venn diagrams produced with the use of the ggvenn package. To gain more details on the potential functional traits of the most contributing bacteria taxa among 237 both the shared and unique ASVs associated to the two CCAs and characteristic of each species, the five most abundant ASVs were selected for further taxonomic analysis through a manual BLAST search against the NCBI nucleotide library [\(https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi\)](https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi).

 A differential abundance analysis was carried out to compare ASV data from the two CCA species. The analysis was done by applying DESeq2 analyses (Love et al., 2014) using phyloseq package in R v.4.4.1 (R Core Team, 2024) with *phyloseq_to_deseq2* function followed by *DESeq*. Significance was determined using a Wald test with a Benjamini and Hochberg adjusted *p*-value. 244 An adjusted *p*-value ≤ 0.01 was used as the minimal cut-off, and analysis results were shown by 245 selecting the ASVs with a significance ≤ 0.001 . The 20 ASVs with the most significant different abundance were further represented with a heatmap showing also the hierarchical clustering of samples produced with microViz package and *comp_heatmap* function on clr transformed data (Barnett et al., 2021). Based on CCA phylogeny results (see section 3.2), the differential abundance analysis was carried out on ASVs associated with *L. stictiforme* thalli belonging to two different clades to deepen the comparison at intraspecific level. Species clade was adopted as comparison 251 factor and ASVs meeting the minimal cut-off of an adjusted *p*-value ≤ 0.01 were considered.

3. Results

3.1 CCA morpho-anatomy

 Based on the morpho-anatomical analyses, all *Lythophyllum stictiforme* individuals were confirmed to belong to *L. stictiforme* complex (Supp. Fig. 2A-G) with no substantial differences in diagnostic features observed across the three sampling sites. The thalli were encrusting with a free laminar margin and the surface was either flat or slightly undulating. In all individuals, the epithallus was abraded (Suppl. Fig. 2H), occasionally revealing the underlying cell layer.

 The *M. dendrospermum* individuals displayed encrusting to warty thalli (Supp. Fig. 3A) and exhibited the key diagnostic traits for this species (Supp. Fig. 3A-H). In surface view, large areas of shedding epithallial cells were observed in all samples (Fig. 2B), and the epithallial cells were flared.

3.2 CCA phylogeny

 The molecular phylogenetic analysis based on the *psb*A marker confirmed that all 9 individuals of *Lithophyllum stictiforme* belonged to the complex, previously described as formed by numerous clades (Pezzolesi et al., 2019). Clade 3B comprised 6 samples from this study, belonging to two of the three collection sites, together with some reference sequences from Italy and two from France, including also one (isolate LLG3464) from the sampling area of the present study (S27 and S7; Fig. 1). Replicates collected at site S25 all belonged to a distinct haplogroup defined as C3 (de Jode et al., 2019). It contained closely similar reference sequences (99% similarity) from samples previously collected from the same study area (Banyuls-sur-Mer). The Kimura distances within clades C3 and 3B were 0.0000, while the highest distance within clades was found for clades 2 and 5 having a distance of 0.0042 and 0.0051, respectively. The genetic distance between clades C3 and 3B was 0.0180. The mean distance to the reference group (outgroup) was 0.0591 for clade C3 and 0.0550 for clade 3B (Table S1).

 As for *Macroblastum dendrospermum* thalli, 8 out of the 9 psbA sequences generated in this study clustered with a Mediterranean *Mesophyllum macroblastum* specimen (voucher VPF00506, now *Macroblastum dendrospermum*; Athanasiadis & Ballantine, 2024), collected in the Alboran Sea (Spain), and with the Uncultured Corallinales clone LBC0055, collected at less than 10 km distance from the area of collection (42.497219 N, 3.135617 E; Bittner et al., 2010; Fig. 2). The last sequence (S12R2) was closely related to the main cluster. The Kimura distance within this main group was 0.0018, while the mean distance with S12R2 or the outgroup was 0.0192 and 0.1095, respectively. The mean distance between the 8 specimens and the Uncultured Corallinales from France (GQ917716) was 0.0009, while with *M. macroblastum* from Spain (KJ638230) was 0.0028. For the COI-5P marker, only 5 sequences were generated as all amplification attempts for station 13 samples were unsuccessful. The phylogenetic tree obtained from the ML analysis of the COI-5P alignment was congruent with the psbA tree (Supp. Fig. 4) and grouped our sequences within a big clade of Mediterranean *M. macroblastum* with high support (99%), well separated from the other *Mesophyllum* species (*M. alternans, M. expansum, M. lichenoides, M. erubescens*, and *M. sphaericum*) (Supp. Fig. 4). The genetic distance within this group was 0.0125, while with the reference group (outgroup) was 0.2044.

3.3 Bacterial community diversity associated to CCAs

297 The average Shannon values ranged between 4.7 ± 0.1 and 5.5 ± 0.2 , and between 5.7 ± 0.3 and 6±0.1 in *L. stictiforme* and *M. dendrospermum* samples, respectively (Fig. 3a). The lowest values were recorded for *L. stictiforme* taken at site ST27. In *M. dendrospermum* sampling sites ST13 and ST17 values were significantly higher than in ST27 (one of *L. stictiforme* sampling site, *p*-value < 0.05*, Fig. 3a, Table S2). In ST13 the value was also significantly higher than in *L. stictiforme* sampling site ST25 (*p*-value < 0.05*, Fig. 3a, Table S2). Bacteria diversity values at intraspecific level differed only between individuals belonging to *L. stictiforme* complex, 304 specifically between ST7 and ST25, and ST7 and ST27 (*p*-value $< 0.05^*$ and *p*-value $< 0.01^{**}$, respectively; Fig. 3a, Table S3). The observed ASV numbers varied between 302 and 898 in the low diversity site ST25 (*L. stictiforme*; on average 335-600 ASVs among sampling sites), and one sample at site ST13 (*M. dendrospermum*; on average 626-740 ASVs among sampling sites), respectively (Fig. 3b).

 In the MDS ordination of microbial community composition, *L. stictiforme* samples clustered separately from *M. dendrospermum* ones (Fig. 4). Among *L. stictiforme* samples, those from ST27 and ST7 were closer to each other than those from ST25. *M. dendrospermum* samples from sites ST12 and ST17 clustered together more closely than those collected in site ST13.

 The comparison of CCA–associated bacteria communities, both between samples of the two CCA species and between samples of the same CCA species collected in different sites, 315 showed significant differences (p -value = 0.001 ^{***}, between CCA species; p -value = 0.005 ^{**}, between *L. stictiforme* sampling sites; *p*-value = 0.002**, between *M. dendrospermum* sampling sites; Table S4). Intraspecific pairwise comparison did not capture significant differences between any sample pair, but higher F values could indicate a larger difference between *L. stictiforme* bacteria communities in ST7 and ST25, and *M. dendrospermum* bacteria communities in ST12 and ST13, and ST17 and ST13 (Table S6).

3.4 CCA bacterial community composition

 The taxonomy of CCA-associated bacteria was first analyzed at the class and order levels considering the five most contributing taxa as relative abundance across the dataset. At the class level, the bacterial communities of both CCA species were dominated by Alphaproteobacteria, which accounted for 40% and 46% of the sequences in *L. stictiforme* and *M. dendrospermum*, respectively (Supp. Fig. 5A, C). They were followed by Gammaproteobacteria (18% and 10%), Acidimicrobiia (12% and 5%), Planctomycetacia (9% and 18%), and Bacteroidia (5% and 7%). At the order level, the most abundant group in *L. stictiforme* was Rhizobiales (15%), while in *M. dendrospermum* it was Pirellulales (18%) (Supp. Fig. 5B, D). These two orders were shared among the two CCAs. Order Rhodobacterales was also shared, while Cellvibrionales and Microtrichales (8% and 12%), and Flavobacteriales and Rhodovibrionales (6% and 7%) were abundant only in *L. stictiforme* and *M. dendrospermum* bacteria communities, respectively.

 At the family level, among the 20 most contributing families, Pirellulaceae (phylum Planctomycetes) were abundant in all CCA bacteria assemblages, contributing on average 4.5- 15% to *L. stictiforme* bacteria communities in ST25 and ST7, and 13-23.4% to *M. dendrospermum* bacteria communities in ST13 and ST12, respectively (Fig. 5a, b). Shared bacteria families were also Microtrichaceae (phylum Actinobacteria) and Rhodobacteraceae (class Alphaproteobacteria), more abundant in *L. stictiforme* (average percentage contribution 7.4-15% in ST7 and ST25 samples, and 5.8-11.4% in ST25 and ST7 samples, respectively), and Kiloniellaceae (class Alphaproteobacteria) and Flavobacteriaceae (class Bacteroida), more abundant in *M. dendrospermum*, with average contribution of 3.1-12.5% in ST12 and ST13 and 4.1-6.9% in ST13, respectively.

 Despite these similarities, differences were observed at the family level both between- and within-CCA species. Spongiibacteraceae (class Gammaproteobacteria) and Stappiaceaea (class

 Alphaproteobacteria) were mainly found in *L. stictiforme*. Within this species Spongiibacteraceae were abundant in ST27 and Stappiaceaea in ST25, representing on average 23.2% and 6.8% of the bacterial community, respectively (Fig. 5a).

 At the genus level, among the 10 most contributing genera only three were shared between the two CCA species: undefined Geminicoccaceae, *Pir4_lineage* and *Blastopirellula* (Supp. Fig. 6). All the other genera were uniquely associated with one of the two CCAs. In particular, undefined Microtrichaceae (phylum Actinobacteria) and BD1-7_clade were abundant in *L. stictiforme*, while an unknown genus belonging to Alphaproteobacteriaceae and *Bythopirellula* highly contributed to *M. dendrospermum* microbiome (Supp. Fig. 6).

3.5 Core shared and unique and differently abundant bacteria

 A total of 65 ASVs (2.5% of the ASVs) constituted the core microbiome (ASVs present in at least 75% of samples) shared between *L. stictiforme* and *M. dendrospermum* (Fig. 6a). A total of 86 (3.3%) and 154 (5.9%) ASVs were uniquely associated to the core microbiome of *L. stictiforme* and *M. dendrospermum*, respectively. When comparing sampling sites, in *L. stictiforme*, 23 ASVs (0.5% of the total ASVs of *L. stictiforme* bacteria) were present as core taxa at all sites, with sites ST7 and ST27 further sharing the highest number of ASVs (20) (Fig. 7b). For individuals collected in the same site, 4.2 to 7.5% of core ASVs were shared among samples of ST27 and among samples of ST25, respectively (Fig. 6b). In *M. dendrospermum*, 84 core ASVs (1.4% of the total *M. dendrospermum* bacteria ASVs) were found in all sites, and ST12 and ST17 further shared the most core ASVs (40). For *M. dendrospermum* samples collected in the same site, the percentage of core ASVs ranged between 11.3-15.4% among samples of ST12 and ST13, respectively (Fig. 6c).

 Among the core ASVs, ASVs 13 and 24 were identified as belonging to *Filomicrobium* species, ASV 39 was classified as *Ruegeria atlantica*, ASV 48 was ascribed to *Sva0996_marine_group*, and ASV 14 belonged to the family Rhizobiaceae (Table 1). Among the core ASVs unique to each CCA species, ASVs of the genera *Pir4_lineage* and *Blastopirellula* were present in all CCA bacteria assemblages.

 A total of 152 ASVs were differently abundant between CCA species. Among them, 89 375 were the most significantly different, meeting an adjusted *p*-value ≤ 0.001 ***, and belonged mainly to the families Pirellulaceae, Rhodobacteraceae, Flavobacteriaceae and Rubritaleaceae (Fig. 7a). Among these, the 20 most differently abundant showed distinct distributional patterns between CCA species that clustered separately (Fig. 7b), and felt within the list of non-shared ASVs between the two algal species (Table 1). The complete list of differently abundant ASVs between CCA species is reported in Table S7.

 Between *L. stictiforme* clades 3B and C3, 17 ASVs were significantly different in abundance, among which ASV876 Desulfobulbaceae, ASV686 Microtrichaceae, ASV47 and ASV212 Geminicocacceae presented the highest log2 fold change values, and ASV20 Prochloraceae, ASV9 undefined Gammaproteobacteria and ASV1 Spongiibacteraceae presented the lowest ones (Fig. 8a). Distinct distributional patterns of ASVs between clades are shown in Fig. 8b. Samples belonging to the two clades clustered separately, as well as samples of clade 3B when comparing ST7 and ST27 sampling sites. Detailed results are reported in Table S8.

4. Discussion

 The results from both morpho-anatomical and molecular taxonomy confirmed the assignment of the analyzed CCA thalli to *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and *Macroblastum dendrospermum.* Our study shows that individuals belonging to diverse haplotypes of the *L. stictiforme* complex can coexist within a restricted area. Indeed, molecular taxonomy results revealed that two of the three sampling sites hosted individuals of clade 3B, while the CCAs from ST25 belonged to haplotype C3. The latter haplotype was previously and uniquely identified in the same sampling area (Pezzolesi et al., 2019; de Jode et al., 2019), indicating a possible Banyuls endemism.

 The bacterial assemblages associated with the CCA samples showed similar or higher diversity compared to CCA microbiomes from other marine regions (e.g., Barott et al., 2011; Hester et al., 2016 and Yang et al., 2021). Mediterranean CCAs may therefore represent a reservoir of bacterial diversity, emphasizing the need for further research on the role of microbial communities in coralligenous habitat functioning.

 In both CCA species, Proteobacteria dominated the bacterial communities, especially the Alpha and Gammaproteobacteria classes, followed by Planctomycetacia, Acidimicrobiia and Bacteroidia. These groups have been frequently detected in most of the investigated CCAs (Barott et al., 2011; Sneed et al, 2015; Brodie et al., 2016; Cavalcanti et al., 2018; Gefen-Treves et al., 2021). At the order level, Rhodobacterales, Rhizobiales and Rhodovibrionales (all Alphaproteobacteria) were among the dominant taxa, which is consistent with previous studies (Cavalcanti et al., 2014; Hester et al., 2016; Quéré et al., 2019). This shows that Mediterranean CCAs host bacterial communities that are taxonomically similar to those of other CCAs worldwide, at least at the class and order levels. In our study, the dominant bacterial families were also the most shared among the CCAs. Microtrichaceae and Rhodobacteriaceae, which were abundant in *L. stictiforme* individuals, were also well represented in *M. dendrospermum*, while Kiloniellaceae and Flavobacteriaceae, which predominate in *M. dendrospermum*, were also abundant in *L. stictiforme* bacterial communities. Nonetheless, bacterial communities were found to differ between the two CCA species, with *M. dendrospermum* exhibiting higher bacterial alpha diversity based on the Shannon index. Studies from other regions have similarly reported species- specific microbiomes in other CCA species (e.g., see Barrott et al., 2011 - Caribbean; Sneed et al., 2015 - Belize; Brodie et al. 2016 - UK). At the family level, the bacterial taxa that contributed differentially to CCAs included Thiohalorhabdaceae and Illumatobacteraceae, which were exclusively associated with *L. stictiforme*, and Desulfobulbaceae and NB1-j, which occurred only in *M. dendrospermum*. These families were also unevenly distributed among host individuals. Indeed, bacterial communities differed not only between CCA species, but also between individuals of the same species, even if they were collected within a small geographical area (ca. $\,$ 30 m²). CCA intraspecific variability of bacterial communities has previously been linked to geographical distance, depth gradient, seasonality, and anthropogenic influences (Gefen-Treves et al., 2021). Host genotype can also influence microbial diversity, as shown by studies on seaweeds (Wood et al., 2022; Vadillo Gonzalez et al., 2023). However, environmental conditions often play a more important role than genotype in shaping holobiont microbial communities, driving adaptive responses in the microbiome (Pearman et al., 2024; Wood et al., 2022; Baldassarre et al., 2023; Dubé et al., 2021).

 Remarkably, we found two highly predominant bacteria families exclusively present in *L. stictiforme*, namely Spongiibacteriaceae and Stappiaceaea. Spongiibacteriaceae occurred almost exclusively in clade 3B of ST27, while Stappiaceae was predominant only in clade C3. Spongiibacteriaceae are Gammaproteobacteria potentially able to use proteorhodopsin to exploit light as an additional energy source (Holert et al., 2018). This group was found in association with the CCA *Neogoniolithon trichotomum* in the Gulf of California, at high temperature and silicate concentration (Valdespino-Castillo et al., 2021), and in Mediterranean sponges as steroid- degrading bacteria (Spring et al., 2015). In this sense, steroids may act as immune defense boosters under thermal stress and they have been associated to anti-inflammatory, antioxidant and antifouling effects in corals (Kong et al., 2012; Dembitsky, 2023; Ochsenkühn et al., 2023). They can also be produced by the tropical CCA *Hydrolithon boergesenii,* potentially acting as triggers for coral larval settlement (Quinlan et al., 2023). Stappiaceae have been found associated with benthic organisms (e.g., sponges, corals, anemones). They have genetic traits that hint to a possible role in sulfur cycling and dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) production, a scavenge ROS compound with antioxidant potential, and in increased abundance in response to thermal stress (Couceiro et al., 2021; Heric et al., 2023). The reason behind the selective abundance of these two families in two of the three *L. stictiforme* sampling sites remains unclear. We can hypothesize that the effects of the individual genotype on the microbial communities' composition, combined with microenvironmental variations (e.g., light and nutrients availability, presence of localized stressors) within and around CCA tissues, (see for instance Valdespino-Castillo et al., 2021), cause the observed differences between individuals of the same species. Furthermore, different thalli may vary in age, possibly influencing the diversity of the microbiome that has been shown to increase with age (Bengtsson et al., 2012; Sneed et al., 2015). Differential predation pressure on CCA thalli may also induce the proliferation of protective, biofilm-forming bacteria (Matz et al., 2008).

 At the ASV level, only 2.5% of the total ASVs were shared between CCA species, while those that were differentially abundant corresponded to the 5.9%. The number of shared ASVs between individuals of the same CCA species was also low compared to previous studies (Miranda et al., 2013; Brodie et al., 2016; Valdespino-Castillo et al., 2021). In *L. stictiforme*, not only few ASVs were shared between taxonomic clades, but also between thalli of the same clade. Hierarchical clustering on differently abundant ASVs showed *L. stictiforme* samples clustering primarily in relation to the clade they belonged to, and subsequently according to the sampling site. Indeed, these ASVs differently enriched the bacterial communities associated with clade 3B thalli collected in different sampling sites. These results further indicated that both genetic and environmental factors drive the composition of bacterial associations with CCAs, not only at species but also at haplotype level, and that CCA holobionts can possess a high level of adaptation to environmental changes. The percentage of shared ASVs only increased (4.2-7.5%) when individuals collected from the same sampling sites were compared. These results suggest a third potential driver in holobiont composition: the physical proximity between hosts may promote the development of more similar bacterial assemblages. We can hypothesize that this proximity effect could be due to bacteria horizontal transfer (Hester et al., 2016). These hypotheses need to be further investigated by specifically targeting these bacteria.

 Among the core bacteria, we found ASVs shared among individuals of the two species. These ASVs were similar to some earlier found in biofilms, but also in endolithic communities of marine outcrops or in sponges and seaweeds (see Table 1). Diverse ASVs of *Blastopirellula* and *Pir4_lineage* fell within the list of top five abundant ASVs of both CCA species. Planctomycetes are commonly associated with red algae being able to resist the action of several algal antimicrobial compounds, and to live in biofilms taking advantage of the polysaccharides commonly produced by the algae, especially sulphated heteropolysaccharides (agars and carrageenans) (Lage & Bondoso, 2014; Wegner et al. 2013; Bergstrom et al., 2023). In particular, *Blastopirellula* and the *Pir4_lineage* can exploit such compounds thanks to sulfatase enzymes (Bondoso et al., 2017).

 Interestingly, sulfated glucosaminoglycan, together with other glucosamine and galactose residues, can be produced by certain CCAs and act as potential triggers for coral larvae settlement 485 and metamorphosis (Morse & Morse, 1991). Although these ASVs were not shared between the two CCA species, they were predominantly shared among individuals either of *L. stictiforme* and *M. dendrospermum*. These findings suggest that the facilitative interaction between Mediterranean CCAs and gorgonians could be mediated by bacteria, deserving further investigation.

5. Conclusions

 Our results showed that both *Litophyllum stictiforme* and *Macroblastum dendrospermum* host holobiont-specific bacterial communities, potentially serving as reservoirs of bacterial diversity. The composition of these microbial communities differed also among individual CCA thalli. We hypothesize three main drivers of such differences: i) microbiome associations linked to host genotype, ii) adaptation of bacterial communities to exogenous factors acting at the scale of individual thalli, and iii) potential host-to-host bacteria transfer between holobionts in close proximity. These hypotheses should be further tested by examining bacterial communities responses to stress conditions, both in field and through manipulative experiments, also exploring their possible seasonal and geographical variability. In the two CCA species studied, we identified predominant bacterial genera affiliated with taxa known to potentially promote coral larval settlement in tropical environments. These findings offer promising insights for future research on the positive interaction between CCA holobionts and coral larvae, mediated by bacteria, in the Mediterranean Sea.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interests.

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Supplementary Information

The link to the electronic supplementary material can be found online. Crustose coralline algae

(CCAs) and bacterial sequences are accessible at the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA;

- https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/home) under the project accession numbers PRJEB83080
- and PRJEB82879, respectively.

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 Fig. 1 *Lithophyllum stictiforme* phylogenetic tree. Phylogenetic tree inferred from ML analysis of the psbA sequences of Mediterranean *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and other publicly available sequences for this complex. Bootstrap ML values > 60% are shown for each node. *L. dentatum, L. hibernicum* and *L. bathyporum* were used as outgroup. Clades 1 to 13 refer to the classification provided by Pezzolesi et al. (2019), while C3 corresponds to the haplotype identified by de Jode et al. (2019). Scale bar: 0.01 substitutions per site. Sequences generated in the present work are marked in bold

 0.02

 Fig. 2 *Macroblastum dendrospermum* phylogenetic tree of the psbA sequences. Phylogenetic tree inferred from ML analysis of the psbA sequences of Mediterranean *Mesophyllum* and other publicly available sequences for this genus as *Mesophyllum macroblastum* was only recently recognized as *Macroblastum dendrospermum* (Athanasiadis and Ballantine, 2024). Bootstrap ML values > 60% are shown for each node. Members of the subfamily Melobesioideae were used as outgroup. Scale bar: 0.02 substitutions per site. Sequences generated in the present work are marked in bold

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 Fig. 3 Alpha diversity of bacterial communities associated with the CCA *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and *Macroblastum dendrospermum*. **a.** Mean values of the Shannon index in prokaryotic communities associated with CCAs from the six sampling sites. Significant differences are reported coded by letter and "*" (p-value < 0.05). **b.** Bacterial community richness (as observed ASVs) reported in each CCA individual.

 Fig. 4 Beta diversity of bacterial communities associated with CCA hosts. Multidimensional scaling ordination (MDS) based on Bray-Curtis distance matrix computed from Hellinger transformed data showing the distribution and dispersion of bacteria communities associated with the CCAs *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and *Macroblastum dendrospermum* sampled at different sites at the ASV level.

 Fig. 5 CCA bacteria taxonomy at the family level. Relative abundance of the 20 most abundant bacteria families associated with the two CCA species: **a.** Individuals of *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and **b.** of *Macroblastum dendrospermum* presented by site.

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 Fig. 6. Venn diagrams of shared core microbiomes. **a.** Core ASVs at 75% prevalence shared between bacteria communities associated with *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and *Macroblastum dendrospermum* samples. **b.** Core ASVs at 75% prevalence shared between bacteria communities associated with *Lithophyllum stictiforme* at the three sampling sites. **c.** Core ASVs at 75% prevalence shared between bacteria communities associated with *Macroblastum dendrospermum* at the three sampling sites.

 Fig. 7. Differently abundant ASVs between CCA species. **a.** Only ASVs presenting adjusted *p*-value  ≤ 0.001 are shown. The bacterial families to which the ASVs belong are reported in the legend. **b.** The 20 903 ASVs most significantly different in abundance, with a significance ≤ 0.001 , are represented in the a heatmap.

 Fig. 8. Differently abundant ASVs between *L. stictiforme* clades. **a.** ASVs presenting adjusted *p*-value  ≤ 0.01 are shown. The bacterial families to which the ASVs belong are reported in the legend. **b.** ASVs are represented in the heatmap.

911 Table 1 Five most abundant shared and unique bacteria ASVs. ASVs are shown per category: shared

912 between all CCA, all *Lithophyllum stictiforme* specimens and all *Macroblastum dendrospermum*

913 specimens, and unique to all *Lithophyllum stictiforme* and all *Macroblastum dendrospermum* specimens

