Dissecting the microbiome of a polyketide-producing ascidian across the Anvers Island archipelago, Antarctica.

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Running title: Core microbiome of palmerolide-producing ascidians

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ABSTRACT

The ascidian, *S. adareanum*, from the Antarctic Peninsula near Anvers Island, is known to

produce a bioactive compound, palmerolide A (PalA) that has specific activity to melanoma, a

particularly invasive and metastatic form of skin cancer. The combined non-ribosomal peptide

polyketide structure of PalA has similarities to microbially-produced macrolides which

motivated this study utilizing culture-dependent and -independent investigations coupled with

PalA detection to improve our understanding of the host-associated microbiome and relationship

to PalA. Cultivation efforts yielded seven different bacteria, none of which produced PalA under

the conditions tested. The genome sequence was mined for one of the most abundant members of

the microbiome, *Pseudovibrio* sp. str. TunPSC04-5.I4, revealing eight biosynthetic gene clusters,

none supporting the potential for PalA biosynthesis. PalA was ubiquitous and abundant across a

collection of 21 ascidians (3 subsamples each) sampled from seven sites across the Anvers Island

archipelago. These 63 samples were used to assess microbiome composition (V3-V4 16S rRNA

gene sequence variants) which revealed a core suite of 21 bacteria, 20 of which were distinct

from regional bacterioplankton. Co-occurrence analysis yielded several subsystems that may

interact functionally and, although the levels of PalA detected were not found to correlate with

specific sequence variants, the core members appeared to occur in a preferred optimum and

tolerance range of PalA levels. Sequence variant relative abundance and biosynthetic potential of

related organisms pointed to a subset of the core membership as potential PalA producers which

provides a gateway to identifying the producer of palmerolides in future work.

IMPORTANCE

Palmerolide A (PalA), has potential as a chemotherapeutic agent to target melanoma. Uniform,

high levels of PalA were present across a regional survey of the PalA-producing Antarctic

ascidian, *Synoicum adareanum*, based on multi-lobed colonies sampled in the Anvers Island

archipelago. Likewise, we identified a core suite of microorganisms that occur concurrently with

the PalA-containing ascidians which spanned four phyla with lineages representing both

heterotrophic and chemoautotrophic (nitrifying) metabolisms and are distinct from the

bacterioplankton. These represent leads for the PalA producer. Cultivation efforts yielded several

isolates; however, none were found to produce PalA under laboratory growth conditions. One of

these isolates was a member of the core microbiome of the PalA-producing *S. adareanum*,

although the appropriate biosynthetic genes were not found in its genome. Recognition of the

ascidian core microbiome informs downstream studies with a target population of potential

PalA-producing microorganisms.

INTRODUCTION

Palmerolide A (PalA) is in a family of polyketide macrolide natural products that have been

isolated from the Antarctic polyclinid ascidian *Synoicum adareanum*. PalA has been found to

harbor anticancer properties, with selective activity against melanoma when tested in the

National Cancer Institute cell-line panel (1). This result is of particular interest, as there are few

natural product therapeutics for this devastating form of cancer. PalA inhibits vacuolar ATPases,

which are highly expressed in metastatic melanoma. That this Antarctic ascidian harbors this

bioactive compound is perhaps not entirely surprising, as ascidians are known to be rich sources

of bioactive natural products (2). However high latitudes are understudied concerning marine

natural products overall (3, 4), yet a few Antarctic studies have reported on additional

compounds derived from ascidians (5-7). Growing evidence suggests that in many instances,

ascidian-associated microbiota are responsible for bioactive natural products (e.g. anticancer,

antibacterial or UV-protecting activity (8, 9). We have hypothesized the same to be the case for

the biosynthesis of PalA based on its structure.

Natural products isolated from ascidians fall into polyketide, terpenoid, peptide, alkaloid

and a few other classes of natural products, of which the majority have cytotoxic and

antimicrobial activities. The diversity of ascidian-associated microbial producers currently

recognized are affiliated with bacterial phyla including Actinobacteria (which dominates the

diversity recognized), Cyanobacteria, Firmicutes, Proteobacteria (both Alphaproteobacteria and

Gammaproteobacteria) and Verrucomicrobia in addition to many fungi (9, 10). A few of these,

e.g. Cyanobacteria-affiliated *Prochloron* spp. (11), Gammaproteobacteria-affiliated *Candidatus*

Endoecteinascidia frumentensis (12), Alphaproteobacteria-affiliated *Candidatus*

Endolissoclinum faulkneri (13), and Verrucomicrobia-affiliated *Candidatus* Didemnitutus

mandela (14), have been identified using cultivation-independent approaches. However, this is

most certainly an under-representation of the diversity of ascidian-associated microorganisms

with biosynthetic capabilities, given the wealth of ascidian biodiversity (15).

One of the primary questions concerning marine benthic invertebrate-microbiome

associations is whether they are randomly arranged, or whether there are persistent species-

specific host-microbe relationships. Note that here we will use the term 'microbiome,' which

encompasses all the microbes and the environment in which they live. The associations may be

either obligate or facultative with a functional relationship that spans the spectrum from

mutualism to parasitism (16). The vast majority of such studies have been conducted at low- and

mid-latitudes from coastal to deep-sea sites. The recent application of cultivation-independent

studies enabled by next-generation sequencing has allowed for more extensive comparative

biogeographic studies of marine sponge and coral microbiomes. Ascidian-associated

microbiomes – studied to a lesser degree – have also been limited to low and mid-latitudes.

Current trends suggest that sponges across the world's oceans have a high degree of sponge

species-specificity of bacterial microbiomes (17), although representatives of just over 40% of

recognized sponge 16S rRNA gene sequence clusters have been detected in the rare biosphere in

marine systems (18). Corals also have a small set of conserved, core bacteria across ocean

habitats and basins (e.g. 19, 20), in which the structure has been proposed to occur at the level of

the individual (21). Ascidians have been less well studied regarding the persistence of host-

microbiome association, though there is supporting evidence that ascidian-associated microbiota

tend to have species specificity (22) and that their composition is likely linked to secondary

metabolite production (8). Overall, habitat and biogeographic forces appear to have strong

influences on marine benthic invertebrate microbiome structure and function (23-25).

High latitude benthic marine invertebrate-associated microbiome studies are currently

limited to the Antarctic, where just the tip of the iceberg has been investigated for different host-

microbe associations (26). Antarctic marine invertebrates tend to have a high degree of

endemicity at the species level, often display circumpolar distribution, and in many cases have

closest relatives associated with deep-sea fauna. Whether endemicity dominates high latitude

benthic invertebrate microbiomes is currently not known, nor is the extent of diversity

understood within and between different host-associated microbiomes. The few polar host-

associated microbiome studies to date have documented a variety of results ranging from low

species-specificity in sponge microbiome compositions between sub-Antarctic to South Shetland

Island *Mycale* species (27) and higher levels of species specificity were observed in McMurdo

Sound sponges (28) and across several Antarctic continental shelf sponge species (29). Webster

and Bourne (30) found species-specificity of bacteria across soft corals (*Alcyonium antarcticum*)

sampled in McMurdo Sound. Another Cnidarian, the novel ice shelf burrowing sea anemone

Edswardsiella andrillae, contained novel microbiota, though the composition across a limited set

of individuals was only moderately conserved (31).

Although several studies have linked ascidians with microorganisms that are natural

product producers (32), Antarctic studies have yet to link natural product biosynthesis to a

microbial producer. The structural similarities between PalA and microbially synthesized

macrolides motivated our initial investigation into host-associated microbiota of *S. adareanum*.

We found that bacteria of limited rRNA gene sequence diversity (including Actinobacteria,

Bacteroidetes, several Proteobacteria, Verrucomicrobia, and TM7) populate the *S. adareanum*

microbiome (33). Also, holobiont DNA screening revealed several ketosynthase sequences

homologous to bacterial encoded *trans*-AT polyketide genes. Together, these results motivated

further investigation into the *S. adareanum* microbiome given that the initial study was limited to

a single individual with genetic potential for PKS production.

Here we have designed a study to investigate the potential that there is a core microbiome

that persists with PalA producing *S. adareanum* holobionts. We conducted spatial survey of *S.*

adareanum in which we studied coordinated specimen-level detection and quantitation of PalA

along with the host-associated microbiome diversity and community structure across the Anvers

Island archipelago on the Antarctic Peninsula (Fig. 1). The results point to a core suite of

microbes associated with *S. adareanum*, distinct from the bacterioplankton, which will lead to

downstream testing of the hypothesis that the PalA producer is part of the core microbiome.

Further, these results advance us a few steps closer to realizing the goal of this study which is

compelled by the fact that by identifying the producer, genome sequencing could then provide

information on PalA biosynthesis which could lead to the development of a potential therapeutic

agent to fight melanoma.

RESULTS

Characterization of host-associated cultivated bacteria. Given our interest in identifying a

PalA producing microorganism, we executed a cultivation effort with *S. adareanum* homogenate

on three different marine media formulations at 10 °C. 16S rRNA gene sequencing revealed

seven unique isolates (of 16 brought into pure culture) at a level of > 99% sequence identity. All

but one of the isolates was affiliated with marine Gammaproteobacteria, including five different

genera (*Shewanella, Moritella, Photobacterium, Psychromonas and Pseudoalteromonas,* of

which nine were highly related). In many cases, we characterized their near neighbors as marine

psychrophiles, many from polar habitats (Fig. S1). The exception to this was the isolation of an

Alphaproteobacterium associated with the *Pseudovibrio* genus (*Pseudovibrio* sp. str. TunPSC04-

5.I4), in which we isolated two nearest neighbors from a sponge and another ascidian. This result

identifies the first *Pseudovibrio* sp. cultivated from high latitudes. HPLC screening results of

biomass from all sixteen isolates did not reveal the presence of PalA.

Variation in holobiont PalA levels across ascidian colonies and collection sites. Typical

procedures for natural products chemistry samples utilize bulk specimen collections for

chemistry extraction (~ 30 individual ascidian lobes per extraction in the case of *S. adareanum*).

Prior to this study, variation in PalA content at the individual lobe or colony level (inset, Fig. 1)

was unknown. Our sampling design addressed within and between colony variation at a given

sampling site, as well as between site variation. The sites were constrained to the region that was

logistically accessible by zodiac in the Anvers Island Archipelago off-shore of the United States

Antarctic Program (USAP)-operated Palmer Station. *S. adareanum* colonies were sampled across

seven dive sites (Fig. 1) in which three lobes per multi-lobed colonies were sampled at three

colonies per dive site, totaling 63 lobes for PalA comparison. PalA stands out as the dominant

peak in all LC/MS analyses of the dichloromethane:methanol soluble metabolite fraction of all

samples analyzed (e.g. Fig. 2a). The range in PalA levels varied about an order of magnitude

$0.98 \times 10^{11} – 8.12 \times 10^{11}$ ions per g host dry weight across the 63 lobes surveyed. Our study

design revealed lobe-to-lobe, intra-site colony level and some site-to-site differences in PalA

levels ($p < 0.05$) in the archipelago **(**Figs 2b, S2). Within a given colony, the lobe-to-lobe

variation was often high and significantly different in 17/21 colonies surveyed. Significant

differences in PalA levels between colonies were also observed within some sites (Janus Island

(Jan), Bonaparte Point (Bon), Laggard Island (Lag), and Litchfield Island (Lit); see Fig 1) in

which at least one colony had significantly different levels compared to another colony or both.

Despite this, we found differences between some of the sites. Namely Bon was significantly

lower than all six other sites. This site is the closest to the largest island, Anvers Island, and

Palmer Station. Samples from Killer Whale Rocks (Kil) and Lit sites were also found to have

significantly higher PalA levels than Jan, Bon and Norsel Point (Nor), although these did not

appear to have a particular spatial pattern or association with sample collection depth.

***Synoicum adareanum* microbiome (SaM).** To test the primary hypothesis that PalA is a

microbial product, we first needed to understand the nature of conservation in the composition of

the host-associated microbiome of *S. adareanum*. We identified the microbiome structure and

diversity (based on the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene) with sections of the 63 samples

used for holobiont PalA determinations. It resulted in 461 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs)

distributed over 14 bacterial phyla (Table 1). The core suite of microbes, defined as those present

in > 80% of samples (referred to as the Core80), included 21 ASVs (six of which were present

across all 63 samples). The Core80 ASVs represented the majority of the sequenced Illumina

sequence tags (iTags; 95% on average across all 63 samples), in which the first four ASVs

dominated the sequence set (Fig. 3). The ASVs present in 50-79% of samples represented the

Dynamic50 category and contained 14 ASVs, which represented only 3.3% of the data set. The

remaining ASVs fell into the Variable fraction, which included 426 ASVs, representing 1.7 % of

the iTag sequences, yet the majority of phylogenetic richness (Table 1). Comparative statistical

analyses were conducted with the complete sample set, which was subsampled to the lowest

number (9987) of iTags per sample. This procedure was limited by one sample (Bon1b) that

underperformed in terms of iTag sequence yield. After the elimination of this sample from the

analysis, the 62-sample set had 19,003 iTags per sample with a total of 493 ASVs, the same 21

sequences in the Core80 (with seven common to all 62 samples), the same 14 Dynamic50

sequences, and a total of 458 Variable ASVs.

The Core80 microbiome category included a relatively high degree of phylogenetic

novelty, with nearly a third of the membership having low (< 95.0%) sequence identities to

nearest neighbors. At the same time, the rest of the Core80 ASVs (14) matched mostly

uncultivated marine taxa from polar seas or sediments, in many cases with identities > 97%.

Several of the nearest neighboring sequences originated from marine invertebrate microbiomes.

The Core80 ASVs were distributed across five phyla (Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria,

Nitrospirae, Verrucomicrobia and Bacteroidetes; Table 1) in which seven highly related ASVs

were associated with the Gammaproteobacteria genus *Microbulbifer,* and dominated the ASV

sequences (Fig. S1). Two other Gammaproteobacteria ASVs in the Core80 were affiliated with

the *Endozoicomonas* genus (SaM_ASV7) and *Nitrosospira* (SaM_ASV13). There were several

Alphaproteobacteria with nearest neighbors falling in *Pseudovibrio, Hoeflea, Sulfitobacter,* and

Octadecabacter, genera. A Rhodospiralleles-related sequence was only distantly related to

known taxa with an 86.6% sequence identity to its nearest neighbor. A Deltaproteobacteria

Bdellovibrio-related ASV was also part of the Core80 microbiome (SaM_ASV9) that was also

unique, with a sequence identity of 90.3% to its nearest neighbor. The Actinobacteria-affiliated

core ASV (SaM_ASV20) was related to an uncultivated Solirubrobacterales sequence. ASV11

most closely matched a Nitrospirae-sequence from Arctic marine sediments. There were two

Verrucomicrobium-affiliated sequences represented in different families (Puniceicoccaceae,

SaM_ASV14, and Opitutacae, SaM_ASV15). Lastly, there were two Bacteroidetes affiliated

ASVs: one related to polar strain, *Brumimicrobium glaciale* (SaM_ASV19), and the other to a

marine *Lutibacter* strain (SaM_ASV12).

Five Dynamic50 ASVs were affiliated with marine Bacteroidetes (Cryomorphaceae and

Flavobacteriacae-related), in addition to six Gammaproteobacteria (including four additional

Microbulbifer-related sequences). There was also a sponge-affiliated relative of a

Verrucomicrobia isolate, and a Planktomycetes-related ASV (Table 1, Fig. S1). A number of

these ASVs were most closely related to isolates from marine sediments.

Interestingly, five sequences identified from earlier cloning and sequencing efforts with

this host-associated microbiome (Fig. S1; 33) matched sequences in the Core80 and Dynamic50

data sets. Phylogenetic comparisons also revealed that the SaM isolates were distinct from the

Core80 and Dynamic50 except for the *Pseudovibrio* sp. TunPSC04-5.I4 isolate, which was

present in both the Core80, and the clone and sequencing study.

The hierarchical clustering of Core80 ASVs (based on Bray-Curtis similarity) across all

63 samples did not reveal strong trends in site or colony specific patterns (Fig. 3). There were

eight instances where 2 of 3 lobes paired as closest neighbors, and 4 of 8 primary clusters that

included three lobes derived from the same colony. Sample Bon1b clustered apart from them all.

In some cases, clusters could be attributed to specific ASVs. For example, cluster 2 (Fig. 3) had

the highest relative levels of SaM_ASV15 (an Opitutaceae-affiliated sequence), whereas 3(Fig.

3) had the highest relative levels of ASV4 (affiliated with *Microbulbifer* spp.).

Overall the community structures in the *S. adareanum* microbiomes across the 63 lobes

surveyed had a high degree of similarity. Bray-Curtis pairwise similarity comparisons between

lobes and colonies within each site were higher than 54% in all cases. When comparing the

averages of pairwise similarity values within and between colonies, all sites, other than Lag, had

higher similarity values within lobes in the same colony (ranging from 69.9 - 82.2%) compared

to colonies within a site (66.5-81.0%; Fig. S3), although the differences were small (1.2-6.2%),

and variation relatively high in both cases. We performed a two-dimensional tmMDS analysis

based on Bray-Curtis similarity to investigate the structure of the microbiome between sites (Fig.

4a). The microbiomes sampled at Kil and Lit had the highest overall degree of clustering (>75%

similarity) while Kil, Lag, Lit, and Jan samples all clustered at a level of 65%. The microbiomes

from DeLaca Island (Del) were the most dissimilar which was supported by SIMPER analysis in

which two of the most abundant ASVs in the Core80 were lower than the average across other

sites (SaM_ASV1 and 3) while others in the Core80 (SaM_ASV4, 15, and 17) were higher than

the average across sites. We also performed a 2D tmMDS on the SaM fractions (Core80,

Dynamic50, Variable) with and without permutational iterations which showed similar trends

although partitioning of community structures between sites was more evident with the

permutations (Fig. S4). Site-based clustering patterns shifted to some degree in the different SaM

fractions. For the Core80 alone, Jan samples clustered apart from the others. For Dynamic50,

both Jan and Kil were outliers. Finally, for Variable fraction, Kil and Del samples clustered apart

from the other sites. Variable fraction was more homogeneous, obscuring any site-to-site

variability, while the core displayed tighter data clouds that showed a modest level of dispersion.

A PERMANOVA analysis investigated the drivers of variability in community structure

in which we tested the role of colony-level, site-level, and stochastic environmental variation.

When evaluating the whole community (all sites and ASVs), site-to-site differences explained

25% of the variability in the microbiome (Table S1). Colony-to-colony differences explained

28%, while the remaining 47% of the variability was unexplained and is likely attributed to

stochastic environmental variation. When the SaM fractions were analyzed separately, the most

significant difference (p < 0.05) was in the Variable fraction of the microbiome in which the site-

to-site differences explained only 19.2% of the variation and the residual (stochastic) level

increased to 58.4% (Table S1). Conversely, PERMDISP (Fig. 4), a measure of dispersion about

the centroid calculated for each site (a measure of β-diversity), revealed differences in the

community structures in each SaM fraction across sites, as well as differences between the

microbiome fractions. The Core80 had a low level of dispersion (PERMDISP average of 9.1,

range: 6.8-12.1), compared to the Dynamic50 (average 28.6, range: 24.5-38.6), which were

moderately dispersed about the centroid, and were more variable with differences between the

sites more apparent; Bon, Del, and Nor had higher values compared to the other four sites. The

Variable fraction had high PERMDISP values (average 54.7, range: 51.6-57.6), representing

high differences in β-diversity in which values were relatively close across the seven sites.

ASV co-occurrences, and relationship to PalA. To further investigate the ascidian-microbiome

ecology, we performed a network analysis of the ascidian holobiont with a particular emphasis

on ASV co-occurrence and ASV ecological niche associated with PalA. The co-occurrence

network depicted a sparse graph with 102 nodes and 64 edges (average degree 1.255; diameter

15; average path length 5.81) that associated ASVs from similar SaM fractions (assortativity

coefficient of 0.41), confirming the robustness of the above discrimination. Upon inspection of

the co-occurrence network, a dominant connected component contained 42.1% of ASVs, in

which we identified three highly connected modules (via the application of an independent

network analysis WGCNA, soft threshold = 9, referred to here as subsystems; Fig. 5). The three

subsystems were not significantly associated with PalA (resp. Corr = -0.23; 0.033; -0.17 for

subsystems 1, 2 and 3). The network also contained several smaller systems (2-6 nodes), and 30

singletons, only one of which was in the Core80 (*Endozoicomonas*-affiliated). The three

subsystems included ASVs from the Core80, Dynamic50 and Variable SaM fractions, but were

unevenly distributed. Mostly driven by Core80 SaM fractions, Subsystem 1 harbored most of the

highly represented ASVs, including the *Microbulbifer*-related ASVs as well as the *Pseudovibrio*

ASV. Subsystem 2, interconnecting Subsystems 1 and 3, is mostly driven by Variable fraction

ASVs and includes lower relative abundant Core80 *Hoeflea* and the Opitutaceae ASVs, as well

as several Bacteroidetes taxa. Finally, Subsystem 3 was smaller. It included several diverse taxa

dominated by Dynamic50 fraction, but still including two representatives from the Core80,

Lentimonas, and Cryomorphaceae-affiliated ASVs. The overall role of Variable ASVs in the

network is surprising, as they appear to be critical nodes linking the Subsystems, via 13 edges

that lie between Subsystems 2 and 3. Another, perhaps noteworthy smaller connected component

is in the lower left of the graph in which three Core80 ASVs, including the chemoautotrophic

ammonia and nitrite oxidizers, *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrospira*, were linked along with an

uncharacterized Rhodospiralles-related ASV, and a Variable ASV.

281   To address the first-order question as to whether there was a relationship between the

PalA concentration levels detected in the LC/MS analysis and the semi-quantitative ASV

occurrences of *S. adareanum* ASVs, we performed three complementary analyses: correlation

analysis, weighted co-occurrence networks analysis (WGCNA) and niche robust optima with

PalA concentration as a variable. The Pearson correlation between ASV and PalA concentrations

ranged from -0.45 to 0.26 at the highest, suggesting little relationship at the gross level of dry

weight normalized PalA and ASV relative abundance. This indicated that relative abundance of

ASV is not a good predictor of PalA. A complementary WGCNA result showed no significant

association between subsystem co-occurrence topology and PalA, pointing to the lack of

relationship between microbial community structure and PalA. Finally, another aspect of the

relationship between ASV occurrence and PalA levels was explored using the robust optimum

method, which estimates the ecological optimum and tolerance range for ASVs about PalA. In

this case we calculated the PalA niche optimum for each ASV and ranked them based on the

median (**Fig. S5**). Core80 ASVs showed a consistent PalA niche range. Furthermore, the median

optima values of the Dynamic50 ASVs lie, for the most part, in lower or higher PalA optima

compared to the Core80, with a substantial niche overlap between Core80. The Variable ASVs

collectively lie at the lower and higher extremes of the optimum and tolerance range. Altogether,

these complementary analyses advocated for not considering an individual nor a community

effect on PalA, but rather, acclimation to the high levels of PalA observed that likely rely on

unknown metabolic or environmental controls.

Culture collection:microbiome and bacterioplankton comparisons. Representation of isolates

in the 16S rRNA gene ASV data set was estimated by comparing the two sequence data sets,

albeit different ascidian samples were used for the culture collection and the *S. adareanum*

survey. Excepting *Pseudovibrio* sp. TunPSC04-5I4 that was present in the Core80 with a 100%

sequence match, two other isolates also had 100% matches to sequences in the Variable SaM

(BONS.1.10.24 and BOMB.9.10.19). Three other isolate 16S rRNA sequences (BOMB.3.2.14,

BOMB.9.10.16, BOMB.9.10.21) were found to match sequences in the Variable microbiome at a

level of 97% or higher. Only the *Pseudoalteromonas*-related isolate and the *Shewanella*-related

isolate sequences were not detected with relatives at a level of at least 97% identity to the *S.*

adareanum microbiome ASVs. The bacterioplankton composition was dominated by

Gammaproteobacteria ASVs (47.35% of all ASVs; Table S2) in which six of the isolates

(BOMB.9.10.21, BONS.1.10.24, BOMB.9.10.16, BOMB.3.2.20, BOMB.3.2.14,

BONSW.4.10.32) matched sequences in the bacterioplankton data set at > 99.2% identity; even

at a level of 95% sequence identity the remaining ten isolates did not match sequences in the

plankton, including the *Pseudovibrio* sp. str. TunPSC04-5I4 isolate.

Microbiome:bacterioplankton comparisons. Although at a high taxonomic level

Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes phyla dominated the microbiome and bacterioplankton (Table

S2), the relative proportions varied and the taxa represented were quite different. Membership

between *S. adareanum* microbiome and the bacterioplankton data set indicated a low-level

overlap at 100% identity (Fig. S6), with 39 of 604 perfectly matched ASVs. At 100% ASV

sequence identity, the results indicate a single, Core80 *S. adareanum* microbiome ASV was a

perfect match with the bacterioplankton data set – the *Microbulbifer*-associated sequence that is

the most abundant across all 63 *S. adareanum* microbiome data sets. Interestingly, this sequence

was only identified in one bacterioplankton sample (IPY-225-9) at a low occurrence (14 of >

1.18 million tags distributed across 604 ASVs). There were three (of 14) Dynamic50 ASVs that

were perfect matches with the bacterioplankton ASVs. These were affiliated with a poorly

classified Bacteroidetes family Flavobacteraceae ASV (77% of SaM samples), a

Gammaproteobacteria-associated *Sinobacterium* (73% of SaM samples), and a second

Gammaproteobacteria-associated ASV that is associated with *Candidatus* Tenderia (71% of SaM

samples). The remaining 35 perfect match ASVs between the two data sets were classified as

part of the Variable microbiome. These sequences fell across four phyla and nine classes, 13 of

which were well-distributed across the Bacterioplankton data set samples (>50%).

At a level of 97% ASV sequence identity, there were three additional matches between

the Bacterioplankton data set and the Core80. These included an Alphaproteobacteria-related

Hoeflea and *Halocynthibacter*-related sequences, and a Nitrospira-related sequence. There were

also two other Dynamic50-related ASVs: these were both related to unclassified

Flavobacteriaceae. The rest (79 ASVs) of the matches at >97% were affiliated with the Variable

fraction of the microbiome.

Potential for *Pseudovibrio* sp. str. TunPSC04-5.I4 to produce PalA. Since it is not known

whether PalA is constitutively expressed, or the experimental conditions that would be required

to induce its expression if induced, we sequenced the genome of *Pseudovibrio* sp. str.

TunPSC04-5I4 even though LC/MS screening of the laboratory culture grown at 10 °C was

negative for PalA. The 16S rRNA gene sequence of this strain suggests it is a predominant

member of the Core80 (third most abundant ASV across all samples), thus sequencing the

genome served as a validation check for the presence of candidate putative PalA biosynthetic

gene clusters. The biosynthetic gene cluster (BGC) annotation pipeline (antiSMASH, 34)

suggested several BGC pathways including 4 non-ribosomal peptide (NRP), 1 Type I polyketide

synthase (PKS), 2 Type 3 PKS, a terpene-producing cluster, and a bacteriocin cluster (Fig. 6).

The Type I PKS cluster was not congruent with what would be expected for PalA production.

DISCUSSION

The ultimate goal of our research is to identify the palmerolide-producing microorganism and to

delineate the biosynthetic gene cluster for PalA so the system can be developed into a pipeline

for PalA research and development as a chemotherapeutic agent to treat melanoma. Along this

path, this study reports our growing understanding of the microbiome composition of *S.*

adareanum. To enhance our understanding of the ecology of the PalA-containing ascidian,

Synoicum adareanum, we investigated the ascidian colonies at an individual lobe level, and

compared the ascidian microbiome to the plankton. This comparison allowed us to address

questions regarding variability in PalA content and whether a conserved core microbiome occurs

across these PalA-containing Antarctic ascidians, thereby supporting the logic that if a microbial

producer synthesizes PalA, the producing organism should be present in all PalA-containing *S.*

adareanum samples. Before this study, however, we did not have quantitative data at the level of

the individual ascidian lobe that forms the pedunculated *S. adareanum* colonies (Fig. 1). This

discussion focuses on the core microbiome, then takes a broader look at secondary metabolite

distributions about the microbiome and in other marine invertebrates as well as the biosynthetic

potential of core membership, and concludes with information gained from our initial cultivation

effort.

Core microbiome. Ascidian (host)-microbiome specificity is an active area of research.

Compared to sponges and corals, for example, ascidian microbiomes are less-well characterized.

We found that the Antarctic ascidian *S. adareanum* has a persistent core microbiome across the

Anvers Island archipelago that is distinct from the plankton. This dissimilarity between ascidian

host-associated microorganisms and bacterioplankton appears to be a consistent observation

across the global ocean (e.g. (35-38). The Core80 is comprised of ASVs that numerically

dominate the community, as well as those representing only a fraction of a percent of the

sequences surveyed. Although ascidian symbioses have not yet been systematically studied in

the Antarctic, better-studied lower latitude ascidian microbiomes provide several examples for

comparison. The overall trend across ascidian microbiome studies to date suggests that there is a

high degree of both geographical as well as host-species level specificity of microbiome

composition (e.g. 35, 36, 39). The same appears to be true of *S. adareanum.* Though this study

was restricted to a small geographical region, we identified a conserved core of 21 16S rRNA

gene sequence types across 63 individual pedunculate lobes studied. We attribute the detection of

this high degree of persistent members in part to the uniform homogenization, extraction, and

sequencing methodological pipeline applied. Microbiome analysis is sensitive to sequencing

depth, quality parameter choices, and algorithmic differences in data-processing pipelines

(amplicon sequence variants vs. cluster-derived operational taxonomic units), which can impact

direct comparisons between studies. Along these lines, the numerous highly related

Microbulbifer ASVs would have fallen into a single OTU (97% sequence identity), resulting in a

core with 14 members. These limitations aside, our findings are in line with several other

ascidian microbiome studies from lower latitudes in terms of the relative size of core

membership (where core definitions vary to some degree between studies). For example, *Styela*

plicata, a solitary ascidian, was reported to have a core membership of 10 (40) to 16 OTUs (41).

Other solitary ascidians, including *Herdmania momus* had a core of 17 OTUs (40), while two

Ciona species ranged from 8-9 OTUs. Temperate colonial ascidians *Botryliodes leachi* and

Botryllus schlosseri ranged from 10-11 members in their core microbiomes (39). Also, an

extensive survey of 10 different ascidian microbiomes (representing both solitary and colonial

forms) conducted on the Great Barrier Reef reported core memberships ranging from 2 to 35

OTUs (35), while the numbers of individuals surveyed in each case were only 2-3. Note that a

few other studies reported much higher numbers of shared OTUs ranging from 93-238 (37, 38);

the scale of sequencing was higher in these later studies.

Predicted metabolic abilities of the Core80 taxa suggest aerobic heterotrophy,

microaerophily and chemoautotrophy are themes amongst the Core80, in which the most

abundant ASVs are high molecular weight carbon degraders. The *Microbulbifer* genus has

members known to degrade cellulose (42), and perhaps non-coincidently, ascidians are the only

known invertebrate capable of cellulose biosynthesis in the marine environment (e.g., 2, 10).

From this, we could speculate that the *Microbulbifer* strains associated with *S. adareanum* could

occupy a commensal, if not somewhat antagonistic relationship (43). In support of this

possibility is the fact that the only overlapping sequence between the Core80 and the

bacterioplankton was a *Microbulbifer* sequence, which was a rare sequence in the plankton –

suggesting it may be an opportunistic member of the *S. adareanum* microbiome. Besides, free-

living and sponge-associated isolates from the *Microbulbifer* genus have been found to produce

bioactive compounds including pelagiomicins (44) and parabens (45), respectively. This

observation, in the least, suggests that the *Microbulbifer*(s) is/are likely well-adapted to their

ascidian host and might be considered a potential PalA producing organism.

The ammonia-oxidizing *Nitrosopumulis*-related Thaumarchaeota have been commonly

detected in ascidian microbiomes (35, 40, 41, 46) which contrasts phylogenetically, but not in

terms of overall function with the ammonia-oxidizing *Nitrosomonas*-ASV that was part of the

SaM core. The niche however has been reported to be different for the archaeal and bacterial

ammonia oxidizers in which the archaea tend to be found in oligotrophic systems, while the

bacteria (e.g. *Nitrosomonas*) can tolerate high levels of dissolved ammonia (reviewed by 47).

This result might reflect both the environment, and in situ *S. adareanum* tissue ammonia levels

where it may accumulate, as several studies have reported on the high levels of oxidizing

ammonia Thaumarchaeota in the coastal waters of the Anvers Island archipelago. This group,

however, is numerous only in winter to early spring waters (48-50), while this study was

conducted with samples collected in Fall when the ammonia-oxidizing Thaumarchaeota are not

abundant in the coastal seawater (48), advocating for the comparisons between the SaM with

bacterioplankton collected in both summer and winter periods.

In a similar vein, although we did not intentionally conduct a temporal study, the data

from samples collected in 2007 and 2011, appear to suggest that a number of the core

microorganisms are stable over time. We found several ASVs in 2011 samples that matched (at

100% sequence identity) cloned sequences from samples collected in 2007. Stability of the

ascidian microbiome over time has been reported in a few studies (32, 26, 46). Studying the

persistence of the core membership over the annual cycle would be interesting (and provide

compelling evidence for stable relationships) in this high latitude environment where light,

carbon production, and sea ice cover are highly variable.

The co-occurrence analysis indicated a few subsystems of ASVs that may interact

functionally within *S. adareanum*. A small side-network included the two taxa involved with the

2-step nitrification process, including the *Nitrosomonas* ASV mentioned above. Even though at

present, the functional underpinnings of the host-microbial system have not been studied, the co-

occurrence relationships provide fodder for hypothesis testing in the future. One interaction

network that warrants mentioning here is the ASVs in Subsystem 1, which harbor several Core80

Microbulbifer ASVs, and the *Pseudovibrio* ASV are linked to a *Bdellovibrio* ASV that is also a

member of the Core80. Members of the *Bdellovibrio* genus are obligate bacterial predators (43)

that penetrate the outer membrane and cell wall of their prey. The linkage position in the

subsystem is compelling in the sense that the *Bdellovibrio* could potentially control the

abundance of the "downstream" less connected members of the network. Lastly, the positions of

a couple of Dynamic and several the Variable ASVs in the network, as links between the

subsystems, was unexpected. The central positions of these ASVs suggest that they may not be

merely stochastic members of the microbiome; that they could play opportunistic, adaptive or

ecological roles in the functionality of the microbiome subsystem(s) which potentially participate

in different aspects of the holobiont system in particular, by promoting the switch between

different ecological modes supported by different subsystems. Such roles were proposed for

dynamic members of the *Styela plicata* microbiome (40).

Secondary metabolite distributions and bioaccumulation in marine biota. Although the

results of the archipelago spatial ascidian survey did not support a direct relationship between

PalA levels and the relative abundance of microbiome ASVs, the results of the PalA niche

analysis suggests that the Core80 ASVs occur in a preferred optimum and tolerance range of

PalA levels. The lack of specific ASV-PalA patterns may not be entirely surprising, as secondary

metabolites result from a complex combination of metabolic reactions that require a fine-tuning

to environmental conditions and further metabolic modeling for the sake of understanding.

Furthermore, these metabolites have been found to accumulate in the tissues in several different

marine invertebrates. The Optimal Defense Theory can be applied to marine invertebrates and

reflects the hypothesis that secondary metabolites are distributed in specific tissues based on

exposure and anatomic susceptibility for predation (51). For example, nudibranchs sequester

toxic compounds, which have been biosynthesized by the gastropod or acquired from their prey.

The toxins are concentrated in the anatomical space of their mantles, the most vulnerable portion

of their soft, exposed bodies (52-54). Bioaccumulation of secondary metabolites in invertebrates

with less anatomical differentiation is also known to occur. In the phylum Porifera, different cell

types and layers have been studied to determine spatial and anatomical differences in secondary

metabolite concentrations (55-57). Compounds have been found to be concentrated spatially on

the surface (e.g., 58) or apical parts of the sponge (59) in some cases. Sponges may be able to

differentially bioaccumulate secondary cytotoxic metabolites based on tissues more susceptible

to predation (60). Metabolite distribution investigations that are ascidian-specific are less well

documented; however, there is also evidence of ascidian secondary cytotoxic metabolite

bioaccumulation. The patellazoles, marine macrolides from the ascidian *Lissoclinum patella,*

bioaccumulate in the ascidian tissues to concentrations up to seven orders of magnitude higher

than their cytotoxic dose in mammalian cell lines (13, 61). Additionally, there are other instances

in which bioaccumulation in ascidian host tissues suggests metabolic cooperation of producer

and host as well as compound translocation from producer to host (1, 8, 62). Although the PalA

levels were normalized to grams of dry lobe weight, tissue-specific spatial localization is a

potentially confounding factor in the statistical analyses investigating the ASV:PalA relationship.

Biosynthetic potential of the core. We investigated the natural product biosynthetic potential of

the nine genera associated with 15 of 21 Core80 ASVs using antiSMASH (**Table 2, Table S3**).

From this, it appears that all genera had at least one relative at the genus level with biosynthetic

capacity for either polyketide or non-ribosomal peptide biosynthesis or both. Even though the

number of genomes available to survey were highly uneven, there is quite a disparity of

biosynthetic capacity between the genera analyzed, thus, it appears that *Pseudovibrio,*

Nitrosomonas, Microbulbifer, Nitrospira have the greatest capacities (in that order). Likewise,

Microbulbifer, *Pseudovibrio, Hoeflea and Opitutaceae* might be prioritized as candidate PalA

producers based solely on relative abundance ranking (Table 2; 32). Although we did not

conduct this analysis for the six ASVs that were classified at best at the family or order level, a

few of these might be worth considering as potential producers considering their higher-level

relationships with marine natural product producing lineages. For example, marine actinobacteria

are classically associated with the production of numerous bioactive natural products (e.g. 63,

64), although speculation is difficult with actinobacteria SaM_ASV20 in the core as it is only

distantly related to known natural product producers. Likewise, Opitutaceae-related

SaM_ASV15 is ranked 7 in terms of average relative abundance and falls in the same family the

ascidian-associated *Candidatus* Didemnitutus mandela, which harbors the biosynthetic gene

cluster predicted to produce mandelalide, a glycosylated polyketide (14). From this we might

prioritize the *Microbulbifer*, *Pseudovibrio,* and Opitutaceae ASVs as being likely PalA

producing candidates, with the lower relative abundance *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrospira* ASVs

also holding some potential given the perhaps surprising abundance of biosynthetic gene cluster

content in these chemoautotrophic, and generally small genome size taxa.

Culture dependent investigations. The culturing effort succeeded in isolating a *Pseudovibrio*

strain that is a crucial member of the Core80. In addition, several other Gammaproteobacteria-

affiliated strains which matched sequences in the Variable SaM and the bacterioplankton were

cultivated. It is likely that additional media types and isolation strategies could result in

additional cultivated diversity. There are a number of taxa with heterotrophic lifestyles in the

Core80 that have been brought into pure culture (e.g. *Microbulbifer, Hoeflea*). One challenge we

experienced using the nutrient replete media was overgrowth of plates, even at 10 °C.

We were motivated to sequence the *Pseudovibrio* sp. str. TunPSC04-5I4 genome based

on several factors. First, it was present as part of the core microbiome, and ranks highly in terms

of relative abundance, and appears to be host-specific. Likewise, this follows the logic presented

by Tiarno et al. (32) that bioactive compound producers are often abundant, and host-specific.

Second, the *Pseudovibrio* genus has been reported to be an efficient natural product producer

(65). Lastly, even though the extracts were surveyed for PalA from str. TunPSC04-5I4 were

negative for PalA, the presence of silent (not transcribed) biosynthetic gene clusters has received

much attention (e.g. 66), thus required evaluation. The biosynthetic gene clusters identified (8 in

total) were interrogated for three elements, which we have predicted would be required for PalA

biosynthesis. First – we predict that PalA requires a hybrid non-ribosomal peptide and polyketide

pathway. Second – we anticipate that there are two key enzymatic domains leading to placement

of two distinct structural features of the polyketide backbone, a carbamoyl transferase that

appends a carbamate group at C-11 of the macrolide ring, and an HMGCoA synthetase that

inserts a pendant methyl group on an acetate C-1 position of the macrolide structure. None of

these potential indicators were identified in the *Pseudovibrio* sp. str. TunPSC04-5.I4 genome.

Thus, together with the data showing no correlation between the ASV occurrence and abundance

of PalA from tissues, albeit some trends in niche optima of particular taxa, the results suggest

this is likely not a PalA producing microorganism.

In conclusion, this work has advanced our understanding of the Antarctic ascidian, *S.*

adareanum, PalA distributions and microbiome in several ways. First, we found PalA to be a

dominant product across all samples, with some variation but no coherent trends with the site,

sample, or microbiome ASV. The results point to a conserved, core, microbiome represented by

21 ASVs, 20 of which appear to be distinct from the bacterioplankton. The phylogenetic

distribution of these taxa was diverse, and distinct from other ascidian microbiomes in which

organisms with both heterotrophic and chemosynthetic lifestyles are predicted. The co-

occurrence analysis suggested the potential for ecologically interacting subsystems that may play

out in the future as we improve our understanding of this ascidian-microbiome-natural product

biosynthesis system. Likewise, based on the occurrence and likelihood of natural product

biosynthesis, we have narrowed down the number of potential producers to less than five taxa.

Metagenomics may, therefore, be a means for biosynthetic gene cluster exploration in this

interesting Antarctic ascidian.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cultivation-dependent effort. *S. adareanum* samples collected by SCUBA in 2004 and 2007

were used for cultivation (Table S4). The 2004 specimen were archived in 20% glycerol at -80

°C until processing by manual homogenization using sterilized mortar and pestle prior to plating

a suspension onto marine agar 2216 plates in 2006. The 2007 samples were homogenized

immediately following collection using sterilized mortar and pestle, and suspensions were

prepared in 1X marine broth or filter-sterilized seawater then transferred at 4 °C to DRI. Shortly

after (within 1 month of collection), the 2007 isolates were cultivated on three types of media in

which suspensions initially stored in marine broth were plated onto marine agar (2216), while

homogenate preparations stored in seawater were plated onto VNSS agar media (67) and

amended seawater plates (3 grams yeast extract (Difco), 5 g peptone (Difco), and 0.2 grams

casein hydroslyate (Difco) per liter). Colonies were selected from initial plates, and purified

through three rounds of growth on the same media they were isolated on.

Field sample collections for cultivation-independent efforts. Next, a spatial survey of

Synoicum adareanum was executed in which samples were collected by SCUBA in austral fall

between 23 March and 3 April 2011. Seven sampling sites (depths 24.7 - 31 m; Table S5) around

the region accessible by Zodiac boat from Palmer Station were selected in which we sampled in

a nested design where three multi-lobed colonies were selected from each site, and three lobes

per colony were sampled (Fig. 1). Underwater video (68) was taken at each site, then video

footage was observed to note general ecosystem characteristics (% cover of major benthic

species and algae). In total, 63 *S. adareanum* lobes were sampled (9 from each site). Samples

were transported to Palmer Station on ice, and frozen at -80 °C until processing at DRI and USF.

Frozen *S. adareanum* lobes were cut longitudinally in half for parallel processing through DNA

and palmerolide detection pipelines.

Then, to address whether the composition of the *Synoicum adareanum* microbiome

(SaM) was distinct from the free-living bacterioplankton (< 2.5-μm fraction), we considered the

overlap in membership between the SaM and bacterioplankton in the water column. To

accomplish this, we used a reference seawater data set represented by samples that had been

collected in February-March 2008 (five samples) and in August-September 2008 (nine samples)

from LTER Station B near Anvers Island (east of the Bonaparte Point dive site), and at a few

other locations in the region (Table S6). Seawater samples were collected by a submersible pump

and acid washed silicone tubing at 10 m at Station B, and using a rosette equipped with 12 L

Niskin bottles for the offshore samples at 10 m and 500 m (2 samples each depth). The February-

March seawater samples were processed using in-line filtration with a 2.5 μm filter (Polygard,

Millipore) to screen larger organisms and bacterioplankton were concentrated using a tangential

flow filtration system and the cells were harvested on 25 mm 0.2 μm Supor filters (Millipore).

The August-September seawater samples were processed using inline filtration with a 3.0 μm

filter (Versapor, Millipore), and then bacterioplankton was collected onto 0.2 μm Sterivex

(Millipore) filters using a multichannel peristaltic pump (Masterflex). All filters were immersed

in sucrose lysis buffer (69) and stored frozen at -80 °C until extraction.

Palmerolide A screening. Sixty-three frozen *Synoicum adareanum* lobes were cut in half. Half

lobes were lyophilized and then exhaustively extracted using dichloromethane for three days,

followed by methanol for three days. The extracts were combined and dried on a rotary

evaporator. The extracts were filtered, dried down, and reconstituted at 1.0 mg/mL to ensure the

injected concentration was consistent. The residue was subjected to Liquid Chromatography-

Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis using a H_2O:ACN gradient with constant 0.05% formic

acid. The high-resolution mass spectra were recorded on an Agilent Technologies 6230

electrospray ionization Time-of-Flight (ESI-ToF) spectrometer. LC-MS was performed using a

C-18 Kinetex analytical column (50 x 2.1 mm; Phenomenex). The presence of PalA was verified

using MS/MS on an Agilent Technologies 6540 UHD Accurate-Mass QTOF LC-MS.

The *S. adareanum*-associated microbial culture collection was screened for the presence

of PalA. Isolates were cultivated in 30 mL volumes, and the resulting biomass was lyophilized

and screened by HPLC. Each sample was analyzed in ESI-SIM mode targeting masses of 585

amu and 607 amu. The reversed-phase chromatographic analysis consisted of a 0.7 mL/min

solvent gradient from 80% H$_2$O:CH$_3$CN to 100% CH$_3$CN with constant 0.05% formic acid using

the same C-18 column as above. The analysis was conducted for over 18 min. PalA had a

retention time of approximately 14 min. The twenty-four sample sequence was followed by a

PalA standard to confirm its analytical characteristics.

***S. adareanum*-associated microbial cell preparation.** The outer 1-2 mm of the ascidian tissue,

which could contain surface-associated microorganisms, was removed using a sterilized scalpel

before sectioning tissue subsamples (~0.2 g) of frozen (-80 °C) *S. adareanum* (½ lobe sections).

Tissue samples were diced with a scalpel before homogenization in sterile autoclaved and

filtered seawater (1 mL) in 2 mL tubes. Each sample was homogenized (MiniLys, Bertin

Instruments) using sterile CK28 beads (Precellys, Bertin Instruments) 3X at 5000 rpm for 20 sec,

samples were placed on ice in between each homogenization. Homogenates were centrifuged at

500 × g at 4 °C for 5 min to pellet tissue debris. The supernatant was removed to a new tube for

a second spin at the same conditions. This supernatant was decanted and the cell suspension

centrifuged at 12,000 × g at 4 °C for 5 min to collect the microbial cells. Suspensions were

stored on ice, then entered an extraction pipeline in which 12 samples were processed in parallel

on the QIAvac 24 Plus Manifold (Qiagen).

DNA extractions. *S. adareanum*-associated microbial cell preparations were extracted with

Powerlyzer DNEasy extraction (Qiagen) following manufacturer's instructions starting at with

the addition of the lysis solution. Samples were processed in parallel in batches of twelve at a

time using the QiaVac 24 Plus Vacuum Manifold (Qiagen). The lysis step (2X at 5000 rpm for

60 seconds each with incubation on ice was performed on the MiniLys (Precellys, Bertin

Instruments) using the 0.1 mm glass beads that come with the Powerlyzer kit. DNA

concentrations of final preparations were estimated using Quant-iT Picogreen dsDNA Assay Kit

(Invitrogen) fluorescence detection on a Spectramax Gemini (Molecular Devices).

DNA from bacterioplankton samples was extracted following (69), and DNA from

bacterial cultures was extracted using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen) following

manufacturer's instructions. High molecular weight (HMW) genomic DNA was prepared using a

standard protocol (70). All DNA concentrations were estimated using Picogreen, and the HMW

gDNA was run on an agarose gel (0.8%) to check for quality.

16S rRNA gene sequencing. Illumina tag sequencing for the *S. adareanum* microbiome (SaM)

targeted the V3-V4 region of the rRNA gene using primers 341F CCTACGGGNBGCASCAG

and 806R GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT. The first round of PCR amplified the V3-V4

region using HIFI HotStart Ready Mix (Kapa Biosystems). The first round of PCR used a

denaturation temperature of 95 ºC for 3 min, 20 cycles of 95 ºC for 30 sec, 55 ºC for 30 sec and

72 ºC for 30 sec and followed by an extension of 72 ºC for 5 minutes before holding at 4 ºC. The

second round of PCR added Illumina-specific sequencing adapter sequences and unique indexes,

permitting multiplexing, using the Nextera XT Index Kit v2 (Illumina) and HIFI HotStart Ready

Mix (Kapa Biosystems). The second round of PCR used a denaturation temperature of 95 ºC for

3 minutes, 8 cycles of 95 ºC for 30 seconds, 55 ºC for 30 seconds and 72 ºC for 30 seconds and

followed by an extension of 72 ºC for 5 minutes before holding at 4 ºC. Amplicons were cleaned

up using AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter). A no-template control was processed but did

not show a band in the V3-V4 amplicon region and was sequenced for confirmation. A Qubit

dsDNA HS Assay (ThermoFisher Scientific) was used for DNA concentration estimates. The

average size of the library was determined by the High Sensitivity DNA Kit (Agilent) and the

Library Quantification Kit – Illumina/Universal Kit (KAPA Biosystems) quantified the prepared

libraries. The amplicon pool sequenced on Illumina MiSeq generated paired end 301 bp reads

was demultiplexed using Illumina's bcl2fastq.

The bacterioplankton samples sent to the Joint Genome Institute (JGI) for library

preparation and paired end (2 x 250 bp) MiSeq Illumina sequencing of the variable region 4 (V4)

using primers 515F (5′-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3′) and 806R (5′-

GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3′) (71). Sequence processing included removal of PhiX

contaminants and Illumina adapters at JGI.

The identity of the cultivated isolates was confirmed by16S rRNA gene sequencing using

Bact27F and Bact1492R primers either by directly sequencing agarose-gel purified PCR

products (Qiagen), or TA cloning (Invitrogen) of PCR fragments into *E. coli* following

manufacturer's instructions in which three clones were sequenced for each library, plasmids

were purified (Qiagen) at the Nevada Genomics Center, where Sanger sequencing was

conducted on an ABI3700 (Applied Biosystems). Sequences were trimmed and quality checked

using Sequencer, v. 5.1.

Bioinformatic analysis of 16S rRNA gene tag sequences. We employed a QIIME2 pipeline

(72) using the DADA2 plug-in (73) to de-noise the data and generate amplicon sequence variant

(ASV) occurrence matrices for the *S. adareanum* microbiome samples. The rigor of ASV

determination was used in this instance given the increased ability to uncover variability in the

limited geographic study area, interest in uncovering patterns of host-specificity, and ultimately

in identifying the conserved, core members of the microbiome, at least one of which may be

capable of PalA biosynthesis. Sequence data sets were initially imported into QIIME2 working

format and the quality of forward and reverse were checked. Default trimming parameters of

quality 2 were used, in addition, the first 10 bases were trimmed, and reads shorter than 250

bases were discarded. Next the DADA2 algorithm was used to de-noise the reads (corrects

substitution and insertion/deletion errors and infers sequence variants). After de-noising, reads

were merged. The ASVs were constructed by grouping the unique full de-noised sequences (the

equivalent of 100% OTUs, operational taxonomic units). The ASVs were further curated in the

QIIME2-DADA2 pipeline by removing chimeras in each sample individually if they can be

exactly reconstructed by combining a left-segment and a right-segment from two more abundant

"parent" sequences. A pre-trained SILVA 132 99% 16S rRNA Naive Bayes classifier

(https://data.qiime2.org/2019.1/common/silva-132-99-nb-classifier.qza) was used to perform the

taxonomic classification. Compositions of the SaM ASVs were summarized by proportion at

different taxonomy levels, including genus, family, order, class, and phylum ranks. In order to

retain all samples for diversity analysis, we set lowest reads frequency per sample (n = 62

samples at 19003 reads; n = 63 samples at 9987 reads) as rarefaction depth to normalize the data

for differences in sequence count. ASVs assigned to Eukarya or with unassigned taxa (suspected

contaminants) were removed from the final occurrence matrix such that the final matrix read

counts were slightly uneven with the lowest number of reads per sample with 9961 reads.

The *S. adareanum* microbiome ASVs were binned into Core (highly persistent) if present

in ≥80% of samples (Core80), Dynamic if present in 50-79% of samples (Dynamic50) and those

that comprise the naturally fluctuating microbiome, or Variable fraction that was defined as those

ASVs present in <50% of the samples (19, 20). We used these conservative groupings of the

core microbiome due to the low depth of sequencing in our study (20).

ASV identities between the SaM, the *S. adareanum* bacterial isolates and the

bacterioplankton data sets were compared using CD-HIT (cd-hit-est-2d; http://cd-hit.org). The

larger SaM data set which included 19,003 sequences per sample was used for these comparisons

to maximize the ability to identify matches; note that this set does exclude one sample, Bon1b

which had half as many ASVs, though overall this larger data set includes nearly 200 additional

sequences in the Variable fraction for comparison. ASVs with 100 and 97% identity between the

pairwise comparisons were summarized in terms of their membership in the Core, Dynamic or

Variable fractions of the SaM. Likewise, CD-HIT was used to dereplicate the isolate sequences

at a level of 99% sequence identity, and then the dereplicated set was compared against the

bacterioplankton iTag data set.

Phylogenetic analysis of the *S. adareanum* microbiome ASVs, *S. adareanum* bacterial

isolates, and 16S rRNA gene cloned sequences from Riesenfeld et al. (33) was conducted with

respect to neighboring sequences identified in the Ribosomal Database Project and SILVA and

an archaea outgroup. Two maximum likelihood trees were constructed; the first with the Core80

ASVs, and the second with both Core80 and Dynamic50 ASVs. A total of 369 aligned positions

were used in both trees. A total of 1000 bootstrap replicates were run in both instances, in which

the percentage (≥ 50 %) of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together are shown next to

the branches.

Statistical analyses. T-tests were run in Statistica (v. 13) to determine significance ($p < 0.05$) of

site-to-site, within and between colony variation in PalA concentrations. Similarity-matrix and

hierarchical clustering analyses were performed using PRIMER v.7 and PERMANOVA+

(PRIMER-e). Analyses were performed on the complete microbiome as well as the three

microbiome fractions in most cases. The ASV occurrence data was square root transformed for

all analyses. A heat map based on the Core80 ASV occurrence was generated with the

transformed data, and hierarchical clustering with group average parameter was employed,

which was integrated with SIMPROF confidence using 9,999 permutations and a 5%

significance level. Bray-Curtis resemblance matrixes were created using ASV occurrences

without the use of a dummy variable. To determine basic patterns in community structure within

vs. between colony and site differences the significance was determined by t-test using Statistica

v. 13. Then threshold metric Multi-Dimensional Scaling (tmMDS) was conducted based on

Kruskal fit scheme 1, including 500 iterations, and a minimum stress of 0.001. Similarity profile

testing through SIMPROF were performed based on a null hypothesis that no groups would

demonstrate differences in ASV occurrences. This clustering algorithm was also used to generate

confidence levels on the MDS plot, which were set to 65% and 75%. In addition, 95% bootstrap

regions were calculated with 43 bootstraps per group, set to ensure a minimum rho of 0.99. In

order to assess the contribution of each factor to the variance of the microbial community in this

nested experimental design, Site(Colony), permutational multivariate analysis of variance

(PERMANOVA) was used. Site-based centroids were calculated and the PERMDISP algorithm

was used to determine the degree of dispersion around the centroid for each site. Overall site-to-

site difference in dispersion was determined and pairwise comparisons were also calculated with

9,999 permutations used to determine significance (P(perm) < 0.05). Exploratory analysis of the

major ASV contributors to similarity was performed using the SIMPER procedure based on sites

and colonies, with a cut off for low contributions set to 70%.

Co-occurrence networks were constructed using filtered ASV occurrence data sets in

which the ASV were filtered to only those that were present in at least five samples resulting in a

102 ASV data set. The 102 x 63 matrix was provided as input to FlashWeave v1.0 (74) using

default parameters, and visualized in Gephi v. 0.9.2 (75). Then to consider whether the ASVs in

the Core80, Dynamic50, or Variable fractions of the SaM were affiliated with particular levels of

PalA in the ascidian lobes, PalA niche robust optimum and range were computed using the

occurrence and dry weight normalized contextual data (76). Weighted gene correlation network

analysis (WGCNA package in R; 77) was used to identify modules and their correlation with

PalA levels. The matrix was total-sum normalized (78), and WGCNA was used in signed mode.

There were few modules detected, although they were not correlated with PalA. Modules were

projected on the FlashWeave co-occurrence network and called subsystems.

***Pseudovibrio* sp. TunPSC04-5.I4 genome sequencing and biosynthetic gene cluster analysis**.

The draft genome of str. TunPSC04-5.I4 was generated using the Pacific Biosciences (PacBio)

sequencing technology (79). A PacBio SMRTbell™ library was constructed and sequenced on

the PacBio RS platform, which generated 138,864 filtered subreads totaling 669.1 Mbp. All

general aspects of library construction and sequencing performed at the DOE Joint Genome

Institute (JGI) in Walnut Creek, CA, USA can be found at http://www.jgi.doe.gov. The raw reads

were assembled using the Hierarchical Genome Assembly Process (HGAP version: 2.3.0,

protocol version 2.3.0, method RS HGAP Assembly.3, smrtpipe.py v1.87.139483; 80). The final

draft assembly contained 8 scaffolds, totaling 6.550 Mb in size. The input read coverage was

53.1X. The genome was deposited into the Joint Genome Institute's (JGI) database and at

GenBank. The biosynthetic gene clusters associated with this genome were analyzed using a

web-based annotation and cluster finding tool, antiSMASH (34).

Subsequently, in order to predict the likelihood of Core80 ASVs harboring the potential

for PalA biosynthesis we designed a meta-analysis of neighboring genomes found at the

Integrated Microbial Genomes (IMG) database (81). The analysis was conducted only for ASVs

in which confidence of taxonomic assignment was at the genus level. Therefore, genomes were

harvested from IMG that were associated with a total of 9 genera (*Microbulbifer* (16 genomes),

Pseudovibrio (24 genomes), *Endozoicomonas* (11 genomes), *Nitrosomonas* (19 of 68 total

genomes in this genus*), Nitrospira* (14 genomes), *Hoeflea* (7 genomes), *Lutibacter* (12

genomes), *Halocynthilibacter* (2 genomes), and in the case of *Lentimonas*, since no genomes

were found, we harvested 8 genomes from the *Puniciococcaceae* family). This results in 113

genomes that were submitted to antiSMASH for analysis. The genomes and counts of

biosynthetic gene clusters assigned to non-ribosomal peptide synthase, polyketide synthase, or

hybrid of the two classes were tabulated (Table S2).

Data availability. *Synoicum adareanum* microbiome Illumina sequence information and

associated metadata are described under NCBI BioProject PRJNA597083

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA597083), and the *S. adareanum* culture

collection 16S rRNA gene sequences were deposited in GenBank under MN960541

- MN960556. The bacterioplankton sequence information and associated metadata are described

under NCBI BioProject PRJNA602715

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA602715). The *Pseudovibrio* sp. str.

TunPSC04-5.I4 nucleotide sequence data was deposited into the JGI-IMG database (IMG

Genome ID # 2636416046), the European Nucleotide Archive (accession # FNLB01000001-

FNLB01000008; https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/FNLB01), and NCBI GenBank (accession

FNLB00000000; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/?term=FNLB00000000). Records for

these Antarctic metadata and associated sequences depositions are also reflected in the mARS

database (http://mars.biodiversity.aq).

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1049

 TABLES AND FIGURES

 Table 1. Relative proportions (average +/- standard deviations, n=63) of Phyla (and class for the
 Proteobacteria) across the different microbiome fractions.

Phlya or Class	Whole Community	Core80	Dynamic50	Variable
Proteobacteria				
Gammaproteobacteria	71.99 ± 6.64	73.28 ± 6.33	51.3 ± 23.16	43.71 ± 23.63
Alphaproteobacteria	22.9 ± 5.39	23.83 ± 5.93		23.83 ± 19.7
Deltaproteobacteria	0.17 ± 0.1	0.16 ± 0.1		1.11 ± 2.00
Bacteroidetes	2.83 ± 2.14	0.79 ± 0.69	46.55 ± 22.91	17.4 ± 14.69
Verrucomicrobia	1.56 ± 2.8	1.59 ± 2.93		2.83 ± 3.97
Nitrospirae	0.27 ± 0.23	0.29 ± 0.24		0.02 ± 0.17
Planctomycetes	0.12 ± 0.13		2.15 ± 3.06	4.6 ± 12.84
Actinobacteria	0.1 ± 0.08	0.05 ± 0.05		3.15 ± 3.53
Patescibacteria	0.02 ± 0.09			0.84 ± 2.05
Dadabacteria	0.02 ± 0.03			1.22 ± 2.03
Uncl. Bacteria	0.009 ± 0.017			0.72 ± 1.53
Dependentiae	0.004 ± 0.018			0.34 ± 1.99
Chlamydiae	0.002 ± 0.006			0.19 ± 0.83
Acidobacteria	0.000 ± 0.003			0.02 ± 0.13
Chloroflexi	0.000 ± 0.003			0.02 ± 0.13
Epsilonbacteraeota	0.000 ± 0.001			0.01 ± 0.07

Table 2. Taxonomic affiliations of core microbiome, relative abundance rank, and potential of
affiliated genus in natural product gene cluster biosynthesis. Taxonomy is shown according to
genome taxonomy database (GTDB) classification and NCBI taxonomy is included
(GTDB/NCBI) where they differ. Biosynthetic potential only calculated for ASVs with Genus-
level taxonomic assignments was based on representative genome biosynthetic gene cluster
content in the same genus (See Fig. S3 for list of genomes). ASVs in bold ranked in the top 10.
Where more than one ASV was found per genus, the average relative abundance and standard
deviations were summed. n=63 individuals.

1064

ASV_ID	Phylum, highest taxonomic assignment	Average Relative abundance (%)	Rank	Nearest neighbor % identity	NRP BGC	PKS BGC	Combined NRP-PKS
SaM_ASV1, 2, 4, 5, 10, 17, 18	**Proteobacteria, Microbulbifer**	**77.54 ± 21.86**	**1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10**	**97.42**	**+**	**+**	
SaM_ASV7	Proteobacteria, Endozoicomonas	0.47 ± 0.51	13	96.71	+	+	
SaM_ASV13	Proteobacteria, Nitrosomonas	0.46 ± 0.35	14	99.77	+	+	+
SaM_ASV3	**Proteobacteria, Pseudovibrio**	**19.92 ± 4.74**	**3**	**98.75**	**+**	**+**	**+**
SaM_ASV6	**Proteobacteria, Hoeflea**	**1.59 ± 1.36**	**6**	**99.25**	**+**	**+**	**+**
SaM_ASV16	Proteobacteria, Halocynthiibacter	0.63 ± 0.64	11	99.75	+		
SaM_ASV11	Nitrospirota/ Nitrospirae, Nitrospira	0.27 ± 0.23	15	98.32	+	+	+
SaM_ASV12	Bacteroidota/ Bacteroidetes, Lutibacter	0.50 ± 0.55	12	94.54	+		+
SaM_ASV14	Verrucomicrobiota/ Verrucomicrobia, Lentimonas	0.16 ± 0.22	19	99.77	+		+
Sam_ASV21	Proteobacteria, Rhodobacteraceae	0.18 ± 0.26	18	98.75			
SaM_ASV8	Proteobacteria, Rhodospirillales	0.22 ± 0.22	17	86.60			
SaM_ASV9	Bdellovibrionota/ Proteobacteria, Bdellovibrionaceae	0.15 ± 0.09	20	90.35			
SaM_ASV19	Bacteroidetes, Cryomorphaceae	0.24 ± 0.23	16	89.10			
SaM_ASV15	**Verrucomicrobiota/ Verrucomicrobia, Opitutaceae**	**1.34 ± 2.77**	**7**	**90.14**			
SaM_ASV20	Actinobacteria, Solirubrobacterales	0.05 ± 0.05	21	91.80			

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Fig. 1. Bathymetric map of the study area off Anvers Island. *Synoicum adareanum* collection
sites are shown with red triangles. The map was generated by Environmental Research &
Assessment, Cambridge, UK, using Arthur Harbor bathymetry data from the PRIMO survey
project 2004-06 (Dr. Scott Gallagher and Dr. Vernon Asper). Inset: Colonial ascidian, *S.*
adareanum, which occurs in clusters of multiple lobes connected by a peduncle which together
comprise a colony on the seafloor, collected at depths ranging from 24-31 m. Sampling site
abbreviations in text: Bonaparte Point (Bon); DeLaca Island (Del); Janus Island (Jan); Killer
Whale Rocks (Kil); Laggard Island (Lag); Litchfield (Lit); Norsel Point (Nor).

Fig. 2. Palmerolide A (PalA) detection in *S. adareanum* holobionts. (a) Mass spectra derived from sample Lit-1a. The PalA peak dominates the dichloromethane-methanol fraction of the *S. adareanum* extract. (b) Levels of PalA normalized to tissue dry weight detected by mass spectrometry in *S. adareanum* holobiont tissues (three lobes per colony) surveyed in three colonies per site across the Anvers Island archipelago. Error represents individual lobe technical replication (standard deviation). Colonies with significant differences in PalA levels within a site are indicted with triangles, in which the direction of point indicates a significantly higher or lower colony. Filled triangles = significance ($p < 0.05$) in comparison to the other two colonies, and open triangles are those that were different from only one of the two colonies. Most colonies had significant lobe-lobe differences in PalA concentration, and some site-level differences were observed (Fig. S2).

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Fig. 3. Heatmap of square root transformed ASV occurrence data for the core microbiome. ASVs
(ranked and numbered) are shown on the y-axis, and 63-samples were hierarchically clustered,
shown on the y-axis (site-based; square root transformed abundance data). Nodes with
significant clusters are indicated from left to right (p < 0.05); order of clustering inside the node
was not significant. The horizontal line drawn below SaM_ASV6 demarcates those ASVs that
were present in all 63 samples.

a

b

Fig. 4. Similarity relationships amongst the *S. adareanum* microbiome samples in the Anvers
Island archipelago. (a) tmMDS of Bray-Curtis similarities of square root transformed ASV
occurrence data representing the microbiome of the 63 *S. adareanum* lobe samples using the
complete ASV occurrence profiles. Microbiome samples with significant levels of similarity are
shown (see legend). (b) Beta-diversity across Anvers Island archipelago sites represented by
PERMDISP (9999 permutations) reveals differences between the highly persistent core, dynamic
and variable portions of the *S. adareanum* microbiome (standard error shown). The degree of
dispersion (variance) around the centroid changes significantly ($p < 0.0001$) for the different
microbiome classifications, which the lowest levels of dispersion are found in the core
microbiome.

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1145
1146 Fig. 5. ASV co-occurrence network. The largest connected component of the co-occurrence
1147 network (seeded with ASVs found in at least 5 samples, 102 in total) identified three subsystems.
1148 Node colors represent the microbiome fractions (Core80, green; Dynamic50, blue; Variable,
1149 pink). Taxonomic identities of the ASVs are shown next to the nodes, with the phylum_highest
1150 level taxon identified shown.

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1152
Fig. 6. *Pseudovibrio* sp. TunPSC04-5.I4 genome map showing relative positions of biosynthetic
gene clusters (BGC) on genome scaffolds. The IMG contig ID is listed to the left of the contigs,
this corresponds to scaffolds in GenBank FNLB01000001.1 - FNLB01000008.1. Scaffold
lengths are listed at the right of the grey bars. The estimated genome size is shown while the
contig order is not currently known. BGC structural categories are identified by color shown in
the key.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS
1160
1161 Table S1. PERMANOVA allows the components of this nested experimental design, site and
1162 colony, to be evaluated as drivers of variability. Note, all values presented in the table are
1163 statistically significant (P(perm)< 0.05).
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	All ASVs (%)	Core (%)	Dynamic (%)	Variable (%)
Site-to-Site	25.0	26.2	28.4	19.2
Colony-to-Colony	27.8	31.5	27.2	22.3
Residual	47.2	42.3	44.4	58.4

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1166 Table S2. Taxonomic distribution of bacterioplankton ASVs. Phyla and assigned classes are
1167 indicated, along with average representation across the 15-sample data set. Average values below
1168 0.005 are represented as 0.00%.
1169

Phylum_Class	Average Representation
Acidobacteria_Acidobacteriia	0.00%
Acidobacteria_Subgroup 26	0.00%
Acidobacteria_Subgroup 6	0.01%
Actinobacteria_Acidimicrobiia	0.96%
Actinobacteria_Actinobacteria	0.05%
AncK6_Unclassified	0.01%
Atribacteria_JS1	0.00%
Bacteroidetes_Bacteroidia	13.10%
Chlamydiae	0.03%
Chloroflexi_Dehalococcoidia	0.49%
Chloroflexi_JG30-KF-CM66	0.03%
Oxyphotobacteria/Plastid	7.39%
Dadabacteria_Dadabacteriia	0.06%
Dependentiae_Babeliae	0.00%
Epsilonbacteraeota_Campylobacteria	0.32%
Fibrobacteres_Chitinivibrionia	0.00%
Fibrobacteres_Fibrobacteria	0.00%
Firmicutes_Bacilli	0.03%
Firmicutes_Clostridia	0.01%
Fusobacteria_Fusobacteriia	0.03%
Gemmatimonadetes_BD2-11 terrestrial group	0.12%
Hydrogenedentes_Hydrogenedentia	0.00%
Kiritimatiellaeota_Kiritimatiellae	0.00%
Latescibacteria_Latescibacteria	0.00%
Lentisphaerae_Lentisphaeria	0.01%
Lentisphaerae_Oligosphaeria	0.00%
Lentisphaerae_Unclassified	0.00%
Margulisbacteria_Unclassified	0.04%
Marinimicrobia (SAR406 clade)_Unclassified	2.72%
Nitrospinae_Nitrospinia	0.31%
Nitrospinae_P9X2b3D02	0.00%
Nitrospinae_Nitrospira	0.00%
Unclassified_Omnitrophicaeota	0.00%
Patescibacteria_Gracilibacteria	0.03%

Patescibacteria_Parcubacteria	0.00%
PAUC34f_Unclassified	0.13%
Planctomycetes_BD7-11	0.01%
Planctomycetes_Brocadiae	0.00%
Planctomycetes_OM190	0.03%
Planctomycetes_Phycisphaerae	0.10%
Planctomycetes_Pla3 lineage	0.01%
Planctomycetes_Pla4 lineage	0.00%
Planctomycetes_Planctomycetacia	0.15%
Planctomycetes_SGST604	0.00%
Planktomycetes_unclassified	0.00%
Poribacteria_Unclassified	0.00%
Proteobacteria_Alphaproteobacteria	15.57%
Proteobacteria_Deltaproteobacteria	2.81%
Proteobacteria_Gammaproteobacteria	47.35%
Proteobacteria_Unclassified	0.00%
Stramenopiles	0.00%
Spirochaetes_Spirochaetia	0.00%
Tenericutes_Mollicutes	0.00%
Verrucomicrobia_Verrucomicrobiae	0.28%
Unclassified_Bacteria	0.07%
Thaumarchaeota_Nitrososphaeria	6.29%
Euryarchaeota_Halobacteria	0.00%
Euryarchaeota_Thermoplasmata	1.39%
Nanoarchaeota_Woesearchaeia	0.00%

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1171   Table S3. Bacterial genomes related to Core80 SaM genera with selected biosynthetic gene
1172   clusters identified using antiSMASH. Genome sequence identifiers are indicated (initially
1173   identified in the Integrated Microbial Genomes database, IMG) in addition to NCBI accession
1174   numbers, where possible, along with the number of gene clusters identified that were related to
1175   polyketide biosynthesis (PKS) or non-ribosomal peptide synthesis (NRPS).

	IMG taxon_oid	NCBI BioSample Accession	NCBI Bioproject Accession	NCBI assembly Accession	Genome Name	T1PKS	T3PKS	transAT-PKS NRPS	T1PKS T3PKS and T3PKS T1PKS	T1PKS bacteriocin	NRPS	NRPS-Like	NRPS-T1PKS	T1PKS NRPS-like	NRPS T1PKS terpene	NRPS T1PKS bacteriocin
Endozoicomonas	2839589109	SAMN08174373	PRJNA422318	GCA_002864045.1	*Endozoicomonas acroporae* Acr-14											
	2651870311	SAMN03407264	PRJNA279233	GCA_001562015.1	*Endozoicomonas arenosclerae* Ab112											
	2651870310	SAMN03444428	PRJNA279233	GCA_001562005.1	*Endozoicomonas arenosclerae* E-MC227											
	2627853506	SAMN03956932	PRJNA291958	GCA_001646945.1	*Endozoicomonas ascidiicola* AVMART05											
	2775507270	SAMN03978955	PRJNA292506	GCA_001647025.2	*Endozoicomonas atrinae* WP70						1	1				
	2574179787	SAMN02851610	PRJNA252578	GCA_000710775.1	*Endozoicomonas elysicola* MKT110											
	2515154160	SAMN02440436	PRJNA169813	GCA_000373945.1	*Endozoicomonas elysicola* MKT110, DSM 22380											
	2687453173	SAMN04155633	PRJNA66389	GCA_001583435.1	*Endozoicomonas montiporae* CL-33											
	2574179789	SAMN02851611	PRJNA252578	GCA_000722565.1	*Endozoicomonas montiporae* UMG 24815											
	2574179790	SAMN02851612	PRJNA252578	GCA_000722635.1	*Endozoicomonas numazuensis* DSM 25634											
	2681813502				putative Gammaproteobacteria family (bin U_52270)		1									
Endozoicomonas-sum					**Genome count: 11**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Nitrosomonas	2737471630	SAMN08777538	PRJNA444064	GCA_003046585.1	*Nitrosomonas aestuarii* Nm36											
	2675903044	SAMN05421882	PRJNA330477	GCA_900106545.1	*Nitrosomonas communis* Nm110							1	1			
	2588253501	SAMN02743940	PRJNA185244	GCA_900143275.1	*Nitrosomonas cryptotolerans* ATCC 49181							1	1			
	637000195	SAMEA3138193	PRJNA52	GCA_000009145.1	*Nitrosomonas europaea* ATCC 19718	1										
	637000196	SAMN02598323	PRJNA13913	GCA_000014765.1	*Nitrosomonas eutropha* C91	1										
	2675903041	SAMN05421881	PRJNA330480	GCA_900107165.1	*Nitrosomonas halophila* Nm1						1	2	1			
	2671180082	SAMN05216325	PRJNA323340	GCA_900110145.1	*Nitrosomonas marina* Nm22											
	2834530931	SAMEA4505502	PRJEB15545	GCA_900103035.1	*Nitrosomonas mobilis* ERS1404681						1	1	1			
	2671180218	SAMN05421880	PRJNA330481	GCA_900114795.1	*Nitrosomonas nitrosa* Nm146								1			
	2737471629	SAMN08777537	PRJNA444079	GCA_003050805.1	*Nitrosomonas oligotropha* Nm49	1					1	1			1	
	2675903042	SAMN05421755	PRJNA329788	GCA_900107265.1	*Nitrosomonas* sp. 33 Nm33							1			1	
	2675903038	SAMN05428952	PRJNA329786	GCA_900100485.1	*Nitrosomonas* sp. 41 Nm132							1				
	2675903037	SAMN05421690	PRJNA329790	GCA_900111165.1	*Nitrosomonas* sp. 51 Nm51	1						1				
	650716066	SAMN00002570	PRJNA32989	GCA_000175095.2	*Nitrosomonas* sp. AL212											
	2834527210	SAMN08707727	PRJNA438189	GCA_003011925.2	*Nitrosomonas* sp. APG5								1			
	2747843217				*Nitrosomonas* sp. HKU-PRO10						2					
	650716067	SAMN02232044	PRJNA452837	GCA_000219585.1	*Nitrosomonas* sp. IS79A3	1										
	2724679654	SAMN06298227	PRJNA370067	GCA_003664085.1	*Nitrosomonas* sp. Nm120	1							1			
	2671180029	SAMN05216406	PRJNA323344	GCA_900105875.1	*Nitrosomonas ureae* Nm10								1			
Nitrosomonas-sum					**Genome count: 19**	**6**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**5**	**8**	**7**	**0**	**2**	**0**
Halocynthiibacter	2775507242	SAMN03252591	PRJNA269208	GCA_000812665.2	*Halocynthiibacter arcticus* PAMC 20958							1				
	2636415494	SAMN03254441	PRJNA269555	GCA_000812685.1	*Halocynthiibacter namhaensis* RA2-3			1								
Halocynthiibacter-sum					**Genome count: 2**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Nitrospira	2684623072	SAMEA3560316	PRJEB10818	GCA_001458695.1	*Candidatus* Nitrospira inopinata ENR4						1					
	2690315930	SAMEA3638996	PRJEB11446	GCA_001458775.1	*Candidatus* Nitrospira nitrificans COMA2								1			
	2690315890	SAMEA3638995	PRJEB11445	GCA_001458735.1	*Candidatus* Nitrospira nitrosa COMA1	1							1			
	2654587964	SAMN06268482	PRJNA366768	GCA_001303205.1	*Nitrospira* bacterium SG8_3											
	2654587963	SAMN06268482	PRJNA366768	GCA_001303305.1	*Nitrospira* bacterium SG8_35_1							1				
	2654587962	SAMN06268482	PRJNA366768	GCA_001303405.1	*Nitrospira* bacterium SG8_35_4							1				
	2654587939	SAMN06268417	PRJNA366184	GCA_001303745.1	*Nitrospira* bacterium SM23_35								1			
	649633030	SAMEA2272290	PRJEA46433	GCA_000196815.1	*Nitrospira defluvii*						1					
	2757321055	SAMEA17758918	PRJEB18128	GCA_900169565.1	*Nitrospira japonica* NJ1						1	1				
	2833481757	SAMEA4623285	PRJEB26290	GCA_900403705.1	*Nitrospira lenta* N. lenta BS10						1	1				
	2596583682	SAMN05660474	PRJNA262287		*Nitrospira marina* Nb-295											
	2639762945	SAMN03702441	PRJNA283178	GCA_001273775.1	*Nitrospira moscoviensis* NSP M-1						1	1	1			
	2833524137	SAMEA17758168	PRJEB18127	GCA_900170025.1	*Nitrospira* sp. ND1						2					
	2724679713				*Nitrospira* sp. QS2205	1					15	1				
Nitrospira-sum					**Genome count: 14**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**21**	**7**	**5**	**0**	**0**	**1**
Lutibacter	2724679779	SAMN06265371	PRJNA363559	GCA_900188235.1	*Lutibacter agarilyticus* DSM 29150											
	2622736608	SAMN04488111	PRJNA303615	GCA_900188355.1	*Lutibacter flavus* DSM 27993											
	2622736611	SAMN04488006	PRJNA303385	GCA_900116115.1	*Lutibacter maritimus* DSM 24450											
	2710264748	SAMN06265796	PRJNA364304	GCA_003384935.1	*Lutibacter oceani* 325-5											
	2837442332	SAMN09780835	PRJNA485024	GCA_003426875.1	*Lutibacter oceani* JCM 30924											
	2693429896	SAMN05444411	PRJNA331369	GCA_900106565.1	*Lutibacter oricola* DSM 24956											
	2663763042	SAMN04299808	PRJNA304382	GCA_001543325.1	*Lutibacter profundi* LP1											
	2839499322	SAMN08813454	PRJNA447935	GCA_003260195.1	*Lutibacter* sp. 1KV19											
	2597490376	SAMN03159350	PRJNA265337	GCA_007827455.1	*Lutibacter* sp. Hel_I_33_5											
	2718218033	SAMN05726020	PRJNA341557	GCA_001761325.1	*Lutibacter* sp. LP80138											
	2823967136	SAMN12024057	PRJNA546748		*Lutibacter* sp. SG786								1			
	2839507965	SAMN09759694	PRJNA484105	GCA_003449015.1	*Lutibacter* sp. SM1352		1									
Lutibacter-sum					**Genome count: 12**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Puniceicoccaceae	2786546861	SAMEA2622923		GCA_002689065.1	*Puniceicoccaceae* bacterium ARS1008	0										1

IMG taxon_oid	NCBI BioSample Accession	NCBI Bioproject Accession	NCBI assembly Accession	Genome Name	T1PKS	T3PKS	transAT-PKS NRPS	T1PKS T3PKS and T3PKS T1PKS	T1PKS bacteriocin	NRPS	NRPS-like	NRPS-T1PKS	T1PKS NRPS-like	NRPS T1PKS terpene	NRPS T1PKS bacteriocin
2786546862	SAMEA2622923		GCA_002690565.1	Puniceicoccaceae bacterium MED739											
2786546866	SAMEA2620855		GCA_002704545.1	Puniceicoccaceae bacterium MED785											
2786546863	SAMEA2620230		GCA_002704415.1	Puniceicoccaceae bacterium MED802											
2786546868	SAMEA2620929		GCA_002703145.1	Puniceicoccaceae bacterium MED840											
2786546867	SAMEA2620929		GCA_002729725.1	Puniceicoccaceae bacterium NP23	1										
2786546865	SAMEA2621812		GCA_002723335.1	Puniceicoccaceae bacterium SP237											
2786546864	SAMEA2621812		GCA_002717975.1	Puniceicoccaceae bacterium SP4032											
Puniceicoccaceae -sum				Genome count: 8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2740891889	SAMN05877838	PRJNA346220	GCA_900220985.1	Hoeflea halophila KCTC 23107											
2770939490	SAMN09074944	PRJNA463379	GCA_003182275.1	Hoeflea marina DSM 16791											
2663763045	SAMN02436119	PRJNA19311	GCA_000154705.2	Hoeflea phototrophica DFL-43							1				
2517434009	SAMN02441719	PRJNA169687	GCA_000372965.1	Hoeflea sp. 108									3		
2617271323	SAMN03069733	PRJNA261244	GCA_000759435.1	Hoeflea sp. BAL378											
2654588011	SAMN03375744	PRJNA276494	GCA_001011155.1	Hoeflea sp. IMCC20628											
2788500370	SAMEA2620929		GCA_002707605.1	Hoeflea sp. SAT27	1										
Hoeflea-sum				Genome count: 7	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0
2615840717	SAMN04488518	PRJNA303594	GCA_900114245.1	Pseudovibrio ascidiaceicola DSM 16392				3							
2744054490	SAMN04147116	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623255.1	Pseudovibrio axinellae Ad2		1	2	1		1					
2684622848	SAMN05421798	PRJNA330493	GCA_900110875.1	Pseudovibrio axinellae DSM 24994			2			1					
2693429873	SAMN05444141	PRJNA331415	GCA_900116575.1	Pseudovibrio denitrificans DSM 17465					2			1			
2681812989	SAMD00000429	PRJDB661	GCA_001310815.1	Pseudovibrio denitrificans JCM 12308					2	1		1			
2744054961	SAMN04192297	PRJNA299034	GCA_001561995.1	Pseudovibrio hongkongensis UST20140214-015B				6							
2841905807	SAMN05729687	PRJNA341851	GCA_001941685.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Ab134				3		1					
2744054491	SAMN04147117	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623225.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Ad13				3		1					
2744054492	SAMN04147118	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623245.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Ad14				3		1					
2744054493	SAMN04147119	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623285.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Ad26				3		1					
2744054494	SAMN04147120	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623075.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Ad37				3		1					
2744054495	SAMN04147121	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623065.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Ad46				3		2					
2744054496	SAMN04147122	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623095.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Ad5				3		1		1			
2841887973	SAMEA19232668	PRJEB18465	GCA_900143565.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Alg231-02				3		1					
2606217185			GCA_900312785.1	Pseudovibrio sp. AU243				6							
2511231065		PRJNA73563	GCA_000236645.1	Pseudovibrio sp. FO-BEG1	1	1		3		1		1			
2728369655	SAMD00000393	PRJDB1714	GCA_001310715.1	Pseudovibrio sp. JCM 19062		1				1	1				
647533200	SAMN02436269	PRJNA19345	GCA_000156235.1	Pseudovibrio sp. JE062											
2651869879	SAMN03217285	PRJNA268231	GCA_001431305.1	Pseudovibrio sp. POLY-S9				3		3		1			
2636416046	SAMN04515695	PRJNA311457	GCA_900104145.1	Pseudovibrio sp. Tun.PSC04-5.4	2	2		3		4					
2744054497	SAMN04147123	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623145.1	Pseudovibrio sp. W64				3		1					
2744054498	SAMN04147124	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623085.1	Pseudovibrio sp. W74				3		1					
2744054499	SAMN04147125	PRJNA298121	GCA_001623165.1	Pseudovibrio sp. WM33				3		1					
2791355020	SAMN04192298	PRJNA299035	GCA_001562055.1	Pseudovibrio stylochi UST20140214-052											
Pseudovibrio-sum				Genome count: 24	3	4	4	58	4	24	1	5	0	0	0
2772190780	SAMN06311449	PRJNA371746	GCA_001999945.1	Microbulbifer agarilyticus GP101						1	1				
2547132385	SAMN02470156	PRJNA67843	GCA_002205052	Microbulbifer agarilyticus S89						1					
2751185758	SAMN04334609	PRJNA305828	GCA_001750105.1	Microbulbifer aggregans CCB-MM1						1					
2619618825	SAMN04487965	PRJNA303547	GCA_900129095.1	Microbulbifer donghaiensis CGMCC 1.7063											
2791355005	SAMN05214359	PRJNA324768	GCA_002009015.1	Microbulbifer mangrovi DD-13											
2667527380	SAMN05216562	PRJNA323126	GCA_900107725.1	Microbulbifer marinus CGMCC 1.10657											
2834404499	SAMN08463771	PRJNA432855	GCA_002959965.1	Microbulbifer pacificus LD25											
2824280218	SAMN12025179	PRJNA546710		Microbulbifer rhizosphaerae CECT 8799						1					
2609459990	SAMN02641169	PRJNA236345	GCA_000708675.1	Microbulbifer sp. HZ11	1					1					
2690315924	SAMN04349613	PRJNA294922	GCA_001639145.1	Microbulbifer sp. Q7							2				
2744054596	SAMN04419353	PRJNA309016	GCA_001641755.2	Microbulbifer sp. WRN-8						1					
2728369117	SAMN04376035	PRJNA307149	GCA_001507605.1	Microbulbifer sp. ZGT114						1					
2687453240	SAMN04556710	PRJNA315367	GCA_001611625.1	Microbulbifer thermotolerans DAU221						2					
2599185213	SAMN05660479	PRJNA262321	GCA_900112305.1	Microbulbifer thermotolerans DSM 19189						2					
2519899636	SAMN02441043	PRJNA185297	GCA_000380565.1	Microbulbifer variabilis ATCC 700307						1	3				
2667528184	SAMN05216212	PRJNA323127	GCA_900100355.1	Microbulbifer yueqingensis CGMCC 1.10658											
Microbulbifer-sum				Genome count: 16	1	0	0	0	0	11	6	0	0	0	0

1177

1178 Table S4. *Synoicum adareanum* collections and preparations for microbiome cultivation.
1179 Temperature was estimated using dive computer.

1180

S. adareanum sample ID	Collection Site	GPS Location	Date	Depth (m)	Temperature (°C)
PSC04	Norsel Point	S 64° 45.638' W 64° 05.874'	2004	28.3	n.d.
P7-AM17	Bonaparte Point	S 64° 46.662' W 64° 03.986'	2-May-07	23.4	-1.1

1181

Table S5. *Synoicum adareanum* collections for palmerolide A and microbiome characterization by V3-4 rRNA gene tag sequencing. Temperature was estimated using dive computer. Qualitative analysis of dive videos was used to determine benthic cover at dive sites.

Sample	Dive Site	Collection Date	GPS Location	Depth (m)	Water Temp (°C)	Presence of Red Algae	Presence of Brown Algae	Presence of Sponge	Presence of Bryozoan
Bon-1	Bonaparte Point	24-Mar-11	S 64° 46.679', W 64° 04.013'	26.2	2	+	+	+	+
Bon-2	Bonaparte Point	24-Mar-11	S 64° 46.679', W 64° 04.013'	25.3	1	+	+	+	+
Bon-3	Bonaparte Point	24-Mar-11	S 64° 46.679', W 64° 04.013'	26.5	1	+	‑	‑	+
Del-1	DeLaca Island	28-Mar-11	S 64° 46.749', W 64° 05.945'	25.0	1	‑	+	‑	‑
Del-2	DeLaca Island	28-Mar-11	S 64° 46.749', W 64° 05.945'	22.0	1	‑	+	‑	+
Del-3	DeLaca Island	28-Mar-11	S 64° 46.749', W 64° 05.945'	22.9	1	+	+	+	‑
Jan-1	Janus Island	23-Mar-11	S 64° 47.062', W 64° 05.857	24.1	1	+	+	‑	‑
Jan-2	Janus Island	23-Mar-11	S 64° 47.062', W 64° 05.857	24.1	1	+	+	+	‑
Jan-3	Janus Island	23-Mar-11	S 64° 47.062', W 64° 05.857	24.1	1	+	+	+	‑

Sample	Site	Date	Coordinates							
Kil-1	Killer Whale Rocks	2-Apr-11	S 64° 46.771', W 64° 06.725'	26.5	1	+	+	+	+	+
Kil-2	Killer Whale Rocks	2-Apr-11	S 64° 46.771', W 64° 06.725'	25.6	1	+	+	+	+	–
Kil-3	Killer Whale Rocks	2-Apr-11	S 64° 46.771', W 64° 06.725'	25.3	1	+	+	+	+	–
Lag-1	Laggard Island	31-Mar-11	S 64° 48.497', W 64° 00.564'	26.2	1	+	+	+	–	+
Lag-2	Laggard Island	31-Mar-11	S 64° 48.497', W 64° 00.564'	24.7	1	+	–	+	–	+
Lag-3	Laggard Island	31-Mar-11	S 64° 48.497', W 64° 00.564'	26.5	1	+	+	+	–	–
Lit-1	Litchfield Island	3-Apr-11	S 64° 46.464', W 64° 05.280	26.2	1	+	+	+	+	+
Lit-2	Litchfield Island	3-Apr-11	S 64° 46.464', W 64° 05.280	22.6	1	+	+	+	–	+
Lit-3	Litchfield Island	3-Apr-11	S 64° 46.464', W 64° 05.280	23.8	1	–	+	+	+	–
Nor-1	Norsel Point	27-Mar-11	S 64° 45.620', W 64° 05.883'	28.4	2	+	+	+	+	+
Nor-2	Norsel Point	27-Mar-11	S 64° 45.620', W 64° 05.883'	25.6	1	+	+	–	+	+

1186   Table S6. Picoplankton collections used in v4 rRNA gene tag sequencing.
1187

Picoplankton sample ID	Collection Site	GPS Location	Date	Depth (m)	Temperature (°C)
Palmer PEL 1 2-22-08	B-C	S 64° 47.009' W 64° 46.656'	22-Feb-08	10	0.5
Palmer PEL 2 2-25-08	B-C	S 64° 47.009' W 64° 46.656'	25-Feb-08	10	1.5
Palmer PEL 4 2-2-08	B-C	S 64° 47.009' W 64° 46.656'	29-Feb-08	10	1.6
Palmer PEL 5 3-3-08	B-C	S 64° 47.009' W 64° 46.656'	3-Mar-08	10	1.6
Palmer PEL 6 3-6-08	B-C	S 64° 47.009' W 64° 46.656'	6-Mar-08	10	1.6
IPY-206-3	B	S 64° 46.769' W 64° 04.353'	24-Jul-08	10	-0.9
IPY-210-4	B	S 64° 46.769' W 64° 04.353'	28-Jul-08	10	-0.7
IPY-225-9	B	S 64° 46.769' W 64° 04.353'	12-Aug-08	10	-1.5
IPY-243-14	Palmer Deep	S 64° 55.556' W 64° 82.962'	30-Aug-08	500	-1.7
IPY-243-15	Palmer Deep	S 64° 55.556' W 64° 82.962'	30-Aug-08	10	-1.7
IPY-245-16	Gerlache Strait	S 64° 38.628' W 62° 53.343'	1-Sep-08	500	-0.7
IPY-245-17	Gerlache Strait	S 64° 38.628' W 62° 53.343'	1-Sep-08	10	-1.8
IPY-246-19	LaPeyrére Bay	S 64° 25.275' W 63° 16.974'	2-Sep-08	10	-1.1
IPY-256-21	B	S 64° 46.769' W 64° 04.353'	12-Sep-08	10	n.d.

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1189

Fig. S1. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree based on X aligned bases. Archaeon,
Haloquadratum walsbyi was used as an outgroup. Core (green diamonds) and dynamic (blue
diamonds) ASVs are shown, along with cultivated isolates from the *Synoicum adareanum*
microbiome (light blue triangles) and cloned rRNA gene sequences from an earlier study with *S.*
adareanum collected in 2006 (Riesenfeld et al. 2008). *[note upon final submission, this figure*
will appear as a standalone PDF in which it will be in full size]

1196

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1198
1199 Fig. S2. Results of pairwise t-tests of PalA levels determined by mass spectrometry in which
1200 significant ($p \leq 0.05$) paired comparisons are indicated in red, and nonsignificant in black. n=9
1201 for the site to site comparisons in (a); n=3 for colony to colony comparisons in (b); and n=3 for
1202 lobe:lobe comparisons in (c).

1203
1204 Fig. S3. Average pairwise similarity within (labels with -L, black bars) and between *S.*
1205 *adareanum* colony microbiome community structures (labels with -C, gray bars) at each dive site
1206 (abbreviations for sites as in Fig. 3). Standard deviation shown, n=9 for lobes and n=27 for
1207 colonies. Bray Curtis similarity was calculated with square-root transformed occurrence data.

Fig. S4. tmMDS plots (Bray-Curtis; square root transformed ASV occurrence data) representing
the microbiome of the 63 *S. adareanum* samples using the ASV occurrence profiles for the core
(a), dynamic (c), and variable (e) microbiome fractions. Bootstrapped data MDS plots (43
bootstraps) for subgroups are also provided (b, d, and f); the resulting data cloud for each site is
shaded to aid visualization of the cluster. The site-based centroid is demarcated by its respective
symbol in black.

1253
1254 Fig. S5. PalA niche optimum for *S. adareanum* microbiome ASVs. PalA range and median
1255 values (diamond symbols) are shown according to microbiome membership (Core80, green;
1256 Dynamic50, blue; Variable, pink). Data were ordered from low to high PalA niche values (i.e.
1257 ASVs found in low PalA-containing tissues at the top, and those found associated with high PalA
1258 tissues at the bottom). Taxonomic phyla and highest level of assignment are indicated.