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Spatial Distribution and Recruitment of the Botrylloides violaceus and Botryllus schlosseri Tunicates in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey

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Abstract

Botrylloides violaceus and *Botryllus schlosseri*, colonial ascidians, are known invasive species of the North American Atlantic coast. The tunicates take residence and grow on native eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) blades, potentially negatively affecting eelgrass growth rate by means of smothering which reduces the plants ability to photosynthesize. *Zostera marina* is an important habitat, food source, and an indicator of environmental health. Invasive tunicates can decrease the amount of light that eelgrass receives which in turn, decreases the rate of growth of eelgrass. In the summer months of 2021, the relationship and abundance between the invasive tunicates *B. schlosseri* and *B. violaceus* and *Z. marina* were assessed in multiple locations in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey. Two collection methods were used in June and August. In June, a 2.4 meter transect (0.5m wide) was used to assess the presence of tunicate colonies on eelgrass blades in Barnegat Inlet and Oyster Creek. In August, Ham Island, Rt. 72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet were visited. A 90 meter transect was used and all grass present within a 25cm x 25cm quadrat at each 10 meter mark was excavated for analysis of the presence of invasive tunicates as well as plant demography. Four settling plates were also placed in Barnegat Inlet between June $30th$ – August $12th$ 2021 and August $12th$ – September 25th 2021 to observe the recruitment of each tunicate species on an artificial environment. A regression analysis indicated a positive relationship between the number of tunicate zooids and eelgrass blade area for both tunicate species in June, but only for the *B. violaceus* zooids at the Rt. 72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet sites in August. There was a negative relationship between the number of zooids and *Z. marina* blade area for *B. violaceus* tunicates in Ham Island and *B. schlosseri* at all three sites in August. In June, the most abundant tunicate species in Oyster Creek was *B. violaceus* and in Barnegat Inlet the dominant species was *B. schlosseri*. In August, *B. violaceus* tunicates were the most abundant

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at both Ham Island and Rt. 72 Bridge while the *B. schlosseri* tunicates were the most abundant at Barnegat Inlet. The tunicate abundance results from this study are consistent with results from a study conducted in the same area in 2017-2018. The abundance of *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates were similar for the two study periods in Barnegat Inlet and Ham Island. A difference was found between the sites over the abundance of the *B. violaceus* tunicates in Ham Island in 2017-2018 and in 2021 with the tunicates covering more area in Ham Island in 2021 and in Barnegat Inlet in 2017-2018. These results suggest that compared to past studies, the invasive tunicates are still present on the *Z. marina* blades and could have a potential negative impact on the plant. This research is the first evaluation of the number of zooids present on eelgrass blades in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey.

MONTCLAIR STATE UNIVERSITY

Spatial distribution and recruitment of the *Botrylloides violaceus* and *Botryllus schlosseri*

tunicates in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey

by

Kaitlyn Maguire

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SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION AND RECRUITMENT OF THE *BOTRYLLOIDES VIOLACEUS* AND *BOTRYLLUS SCHLOSSERI* TUNICATES IN BARNEGAT BAY, NEW JERSEY

A THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements

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Montclair, NJ

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Introduction

An ecologically important plant that dominates the eastern coasts of Northern America from Nova Scotia to North Carolina is the common eelgrass, *Zostera marina*. *Zostera marina* is known to grow in shallow marine and estuarine areas in patches known as beds or meadows all around the world (Green and Short 2003). This angiosperm is highly productive and provides food, shelter, substrate, and nursery-like habitats for many marine species (Thormar et al. 2016). Eelgrass alters sediment dynamics by reducing turbidity and minimizing hydrodynamic energy from waves, creating a habitat with finer sediments that could be resuspended into the environment (Bos et al. 2007; Widdows et al. 2008). However, the roots and rhizomes of the plant are able to stabilize sediments by binding particulate matter which increases sediment accumulation (Bos et al. 2007; Koch et al. 2007). The shoots of *Z. marina* are an important factor in maintaining water quality. The shoots provide a layer over different types of marine organisms and prevents the sediment from resuspending which decreases turbidity (Short and Short 1984). The plant can also aid in sedimentation and the uptake of a variety of different pollutants, as well as nutrients that could cause algal blooms. The nutrients are released from the plant through consumption and decomposition (Hemminga and Duarte 2000). Healthy eelgrass beds positively affect humans by providing nurseries for fish species that support offshore fisheries and other habitats such as shellfish beds, mangrove forests, and eelgrass is often consumed by coastal populations (Short et al. 2007).

Scientists have documented a decline in the global abundance of eelgrass beds due to natural and anthropogenic stressors. The most common cause of eelgrass declines is attributed to poor water quality (Orth et al. 2010). Poor water quality can be caused by runoff containing metals, fertilizers, pesticides, and other human-derived pollutants. Since eelgrass is an excellent

indicator of water quality, any reductions in its distribution and vitality could indicate poor water quality (Dennison et al. 1993). Specifically, in Chesapeake Bay, Virginia, *Zostera marina* beds have declined due to increased salinity, which caused a reduction in seed germination rates (Xu et al. 2016; Johnson et al. 2021). The decline of water quality is usually caused by nutrient loading from watersheds and from sewage systems (Nahirnick et al. 2020). This is a major problem since eelgrass meadows expand very slowly because of their clonal growth. Eelgrass goes through cell division in their apical rhizome meristem to create new branches and spread (Larkum et al. 2006). This method of growth is a slow process and for *Z. marina*, rhizomes that have a growth rate of 26 cm per year (Larkum et al. 2006), have a slower growth rate than smaller species. This makes it harder for these eelgrass meadows to grow back at a more rapid rate.

In recent years, the global spread of invasive ascidians has been shown to be a stressor to the growth and expansion of *Z. marina* beds throughout the Northwest Atlantic. These nonnative ascidians will attach themselves to the eelgrass, block them from sunlight and even cause canopy collapse by weighing down the plant's blades (Wong and Vercaemer 2012). In New England, *Didemnum vexillum* uses eelgrass as a substrate to grow on and is presumed to block the blades from sunlight, which can block the blades to release their seeds. (Carman and Grunden 2010). Non-native ascidian species are considered high profile due to their ability to consistently outcompete and displace native organisms (Costello et al. 2021). In a tide pool at Sandwich, Massachusetts, the invasive ascidian, *D. vexillum*, was shown to be responsible for smothering bivalves, sea scallops, mussels, oysters, and other marine invertebrates which negatively impacts shellfish aquaculture (Valentine et al. 2007). These invasive tunicates can also negatively affect aquaculture. In 2006, experiments suggest that there was a significant loss

of about 50% in the shellfish harvest in Canada after the overgrowth of the *Styela clava* ascidian (Colautti et al. 2006). Removal methods for the fouling tunicates include manual removal, chemical treatments, and biological treatments. However, these methods can be extremely labor intensive, costly, and dangerous to the native shellfish species (Switzer et al. 2011).

Tunicates are also able to survive and reproduce across a wide range of temperatures and salinities. The *D. vexillum* were shown to be able to reattach to eelgrass at temperatures ranging from 6-10°C in Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts (Carman et al. 2014). An experiment showed that the *Botryllus schlosseri* tunicate species can survive in environments with salinities from 10- 44psu, while the *Botrylloides violaceus* tunicates can survive in salinities above 15psu (Dijkstra et al. 2008). Another experiment that tested the temperature tolerance of the ascidian species showed that *B. violaceus* can survive in temperatures ranging from 5-25°C, while *B. schlosseri* can survive in temperatures ranging from 10-25°C, and *Botrylloides leachi* can survive in temperatures ranging from 16-26°C (Epelbaum et al. 2009a).

In Barnegat Inlet, a major stressor to *Z. marina* has been associated with the invasive ascidians *Botrylloides violaceus* and *Botryllus schlosseri* (Hoffman 2020). These tunicates have been observed smothering eelgrass that blocks the plant from direct sunlight. Smothering prevents eelgrass from properly photosynthesizing, which can kill the plant. The tunicate species *B. violaceus* is a native ascidian to the Northwest Pacific Ocean of Japan (Zhan et al. 2015) and *B. schlosseri* are a native species to the Mediterranean Sea, northeastern Atlantic Ocean, and the North Sea (Carver et al. 2006). Both species are types of colonial tunicates made up of zooids, which are tiny individual organisms that asexually bud to form sheet-like colonies, as well as sexually reproducing individuals that produce motile swimming larvae (sensu Kowarsky et al. 2021). The parent colonies of the tunicates are primarily hermaphroditic and will produce

tadpole larvae sexually or asexually in their blastozooids. The tadpole larvae, which are able to travel to new locations, will quickly turn into an oozooid, the first zooid of a brand new colony (Watterson 1945; Epelbaum et al. 2009b). The oozooids will then multiply asexually to form a colonial tunicate with multiple identical zooids (Epelbaum et al. 2009b). Specifically, *B. schlosseri* colonies are made up of small brown or purple zooids about 1-2mm in diameter and form a star-like or stellate pattern, giving them the name 'star tunicate' (Carver et al. 2006), while *B. violaceus* are made up of larger, orange-colored zooids that are about 2-4mm in size and form long, irregular rows that surround a common aperture (Carver et al. 2006). The zooids of the colonial tunicates form together in these intersiphonal bands that change over time to create unique patterns in the sheet-like formations (Watterson 1945). Within these bands, zooids continue to reproduce asexually, increasing the size of the colony. Although, after the new generation of zooids are produced, the parent zooids will degenerate or destroy themselves and the new zooids are responsible for reproducing and adding on to the colony (Watterson 1945). This method of reproduction allows the colonial tunicates to multiply rapidly and easily spread to other locations.

Since 1945, these invasive tunicate species have shown to be prevalent in eelgrass beds in the Northwest Atlantic waters (Carman et al. 2019). Similar to other widely dispersed invasive species, tunicates are likely transported around the world by attaching themselves to boat hulls (Ramsay et al. 2008). Anthropogenic structures along shorelines are a known contributor to the invasion process by giving the tunicate species a strong substrate use as attachment sites (e.g., floating docks, ships, and seawalls; Simkanin et al. 2012). When the tunicates attach to these artificial substrates, they transform into easily detachable lobes which can spread via bottom currents, allowing them to spread onto the sea floor and other surfaces (Tyrrell and Byers 2007).

Therefore, when tunicates are introduced to a new environment, they often initially use anthropogenic structures such as floating boat docks to establish their populations, and then later spread into eelgrass beds (Lins et al. 2018; Wagstaff 2017). Commonly, *B. schlosseri* can be found as deep as 200m, while *B. violaceus* are found in more shallow areas that are less than 50m deep (Carver et al. 2006). The spread and success of invasive tunicates throughout the Northwest Atlantic waters could be due to traits of the eelgrass growth and reproduction. Eelgrass provides a sturdy structure within sandy or muddy areas that would be unsuitable for tunicates to survive, therefore the blade structure increases potential recruitment area. Eelgrass might also serve as a dispersal mechanism for the tunicates, since eelgrass sheds dead leaves which drift away and could transport intact tunicate colonies to new areas (Carman et al. 2016).

Throughout the Northwest Atlantic, research has been conducted looking at the distribution and species contributions of invasive tunicate species present in eelgrass beds (Carman et al. 2016; Carman et al. 2019), including a 2017-2018 study in Barnegat Bay, NJ by Hoffman (2020). The research presented in this thesis assesses potential changes from previous surveys and better defines colony size and biomass of *Botrylloides violaceus* and *Botryllus schlosseri* among eelgrass beds to determine potential negative impacts of the presence of these invasive tunicate species on eelgrass beds in New Jersey.

Methods

Study Site

Barnegat Bay is a shallow back-barrier lagoon type estuary that is located on the Atlantic coast of central New Jersey. This bay is fed by two large rivers in the northern part of the bay, Toms River and Metedeconk River, as well as numerous smaller tributaries that feed into the

bay. Barnegat Bay is a eutrophic body of water that contains approximately 75% of the estuarine submerged aquatic vegetation habitats in the state of New Jersey (Lathrop et al. 2001). Due to nutrient loading, eutrophication, and shading from algal blooms, eelgrass beds are declining size in Barnegat Bay (Fertig et al. 2013). Specifically, the increased nutrients and sediments from the watersheds and the loss of adjacent natural habitats like salt marshes has negatively impacted the eelgrass population. Specific sites within Barnegat Bay were chosen based on known eelgrass beds that contained *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* from past studies (Carman et al. 2019; Hoffman 2020). Four sites, including Barnegat Inlet, Oyster Creek, Rt. 72 Bridge, and Ham Island, were visited between June and August 2021, with Barnegat Inlet being sampled on two occasions (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. Specific sites in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey that were sampled in the summer of 2021 for invasive tunicate presence over the course of three months. Site identification, GPS coordinates and dates of collection can be found in Appendices A and B.

Site-specific survey methods

On June 30th, 2021, the Barnegat Inlet and Oyster Creek sites were sampled. Water quality data were collected including dissolved oxygen (mg/L and %), temperature (\degree C), and salinity (ppt) using a YSI® multimeter. The GPS coordinates were recorded at each site (Appendix A) where the boat was anchored. The seagrass beds at both of these sites consisted of *Zostera marina*, although *Ruppia maritima* is known to also occur in these regions. To measure the spatial distribution of both *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* at Barnegat Inlet, a 2.4m long transect was placed on top of haphazardly selected eelgrass regions within the larger bed. Nine transects were completed by evaluating all of the tunicate colonies present within a 0.5m wide survey (0.25m on either side of the rope) along the length of the transect (area = 1.2 m²). For each transect, all of the eelgrass that had tunicate colonies present were collected in mesh bags and transferred to labeled Ziplock bags $(n = 9)$. The bags were placed on ice until they were transported back to Montclair State University where they were frozen prior to laboratory evaluations. The same procedure was used at Oyster Creek, but only in six randomly selected areas over eelgrass beds were sampled due to deteriorating weather (n=6). Three plastic (5cm x 5cm) and one ceramic (4.9cm x 4.9cm x 1cm) settling plates were strung together with rope and then tied to a marked buoy at Barnegat Inlet on June 30 and then retrieved on August 12, 2021 to assess tunicate larval recruitment in this environment. On August 12, 2021, these settling plates were placed in a Ziplock bag full of water from the site and kept in an ice cooler while being transferred back to Montclair State University. The plates were placed in saltwater aquaria with air diffusers to ensure organisms remained alive until the plates could be examined for the presence of recruiting tunicates.

On August 12^{th} , 2021, three sites were sampled including Ham Island, Rt. 72 Bridge, and Barnegat Inlet. A new method of collection was used for these sites which included using a 90m transect rope with marked labeling flags at every 10m and larger plastic PVC pipes $(\sim 3 \text{ m})$ that were placed across a seagrass bed at each site. The GPS coordinates (Appendix B) were recorded at regular intervals along the transect (0m, 30m, 60m, 90m) and the dissolved oxygen (mg/L and %), temperature (°C), and salinity (ppt) readings were taken using a YSI® multimeter. At 10m intervals along the transect line (0-90m), a $25cm \times 25cm$ (0.125m²) quadrat was placed on the benthos and all existing seagrass shoots were excavated from the sediment and collected in a mesh bag. The samples from each station (n=10) were then placed into plastic Ziplock bags and stored in an ice cooler until transported back to Montclair University where they were then placed in a freezer. This mode of collection was used at all three sites with the exception of Barnegat Inlet where extra samples were collected $(n = 12)$ due to sampling error. A second set of settling plates were placed at Barnegat Inlet from August 12 - September 25, 2021 to assess the tunicate recruitment during the end of the summer. After collecting the settling plates, they were placed in a Ziplock bag full of water from the site and kept in an ice cooler to be transferred back to Montclair State University. The plates were placed in saltwater aquaria with air diffusers to ensure organisms remained alive until the plates could be examined for the presence of recruiting tunicates.

Laboratory Evaluation of Samples

For the June samples, each sample bag with the eelgrass and tunicate colonies was removed from the freezer and placed in a glass container in cool water to defrost. The water from the container was drained after each sample was defrosted and the contents were placed into the

same glass container to be counted and measured. Before counting started, 57 mm disposable aluminum foil dishes for both *B. violaceus* or *B. schlosseri* colonies and a 12 cm x 6.3 cm x 5.2 cm aluminum loaf pan for the eelgrass were labeled with the site, transect number and weighed (g). Using a counter and ruler, all of the individual blades of eelgrass that had tunicate colonies present were counted and measure by their lengths and widths (cm) and then placed into the corresponding eelgrass tin. The tunicate colonies that were on the blades of eelgrass were peeled off using tweezers and placed into a plastic petri dish with tap water and observed under a dissecting microscope. Each zooid of each tunicate colony was counted and summed for each sample and then placed in the corresponding dish. The tins were then weighed for their wet weight (g) and then placed in an 80°C drying oven until all of the water had evaporated. After a few days, each tin was taken out of the drying oven and weighed to get the dry weight (g). Using aluminum foil, each tin was covered and placed in a 500°C muffle furnace for 12 hours to burn the eelgrass and tunicate samples. The tins were taken out of the muffle furnace and placed in the drying oven until the tins were cool enough to pick up and were then uncovered and weighed for the ash weight (g). The difference between the dry weight of the sample (Dry weight of sample $-$ Pan weight) and the ashed weight of the sample (Ashed Weight – Pan weight) was used to calculate the Ash Free Dry Weight (AFDW) of each sample. The average surface area of *Z. marina* per $m^2 \text{ (cm}^2\text{/m}^2)$ was calculated by taking the total surface areas from each sample and dividing that by the plot area $(1.2m^2)$ and then taking the average of all the surface areas per sample.

For the August samples, each bag was removed from the freezer, placed into a glass container and defrosted using cool tap water. When the samples were defrosted, the excess tap water was poured down the sink and the contents of the bag were placed into the same glass

container to be counted and measured. Before counting started, 57 mm disposable aluminum foil dishes for both *B. violaceus* or *B. schlosseri* colonies and a 12 cm x 6.3 cm x 5.2 cm aluminum loaf pan for the eelgrass were labeled with the site, transect number and weighed (g). Using a counter and ruler, individual blades that did not have the *B. violaceus* or *B. schlosseri* tunicates were counted and measured by length and width (cm) and placed into the corresponding eelgrass tin. The eelgrass blades that had the tunicates present were separated to be observed under a dissecting microscope. All of the tunicates on the blades of eelgrass were removed, isolated and counted. The eelgrass blades were then individually counted and measured by their lengths and widths (cm) and then placed in the same tin as the eelgrass without tunicates. Looking under the microscope, each zooid of a tunicate colony was counted and summed for each sample and then placed in the corresponding tin. Samples were then weighed, ashed, and re-weighed as described above to generate the AFDW of tunicate species and eelgrass biomass. The average surface area of *Z. marina* per $m^2 \text{ (cm}^2\text{/m}^2)$ was calculated by taking the total surface areas from each sample and dividing that by the plot area (0.125m^2) and then taking the average of all the surface areas per sample.

To assess tunicate presence on each of the 4 settling plates, the settling plates were removed from the salt water aquaria and into a big glass bowl that was filled with the same salt water from the aquaria. Each settling plate was placed into their corresponding glass bowl facing upwards and lined up in order to be evaluated under a dissecting microscope. Looking under the microscope, the percent coverage of each tunicate type along with other organisms (bacterial mats, algae, cnidaria, eggs, barnacles, etc.) on each side of the plates were recorded on a settling plate data sheet. For each settling plate, pictures were taken with an iPhone while the samples were under the microscope.

Statistical Analysis

Using the SAS° statistical system, a one-way ANOVA was used to assess the differences in the number of zooids per *Z. marina* blade surface area $(cm²)$, the number of zooids per $m²$, and AFDW of *Z. marina*, *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* among sites. Using the Microsoft© Excel data analysis, a regression analysis was also used to compare the number of zooids per *Z. marina* blade surface area. Sites were used as the independent variable against the measured dependent variables, with two independent analyses conducted for samples collected on June 30th, 2021 from Oyster Creek and Barnegat Inlet and samples collected on August $12th$, 2021 from Ham Island, Rt. 72 Bridge, and Barnegat Inlet.

Results

Oyster Creek and Barnegat Inlet June Results

On June 30th, 2021, both *Botrylloides violaceus* and *Botryllus schlosseri* tunicates were found on *Zostera marina* blades at both Barnegat Inlet and Oyster Creek (Table 1, see Appendices C and D). Between the two sites, there was no significant difference in the density of *B. violaceus zooids* (F_{1,13} = 1.56; P = 0.23) or in the number of *B. schlosseri zooids* (F_{1,13} = 0.66; $P = 0.43$). The average surface area per m² of the *Z. marina* blades with both tunicate species at each site/sample was calculated and found to be 244.65 cm²/m² for *B. violaceus* and 234.77 cm²/m² for *B. schlosseri* in Oyster Creek and 226.91cm²/m² for *B. violaceus* and 572.65 cm²/m² for *B. schlosseri* in Barnegat Inlet (Table 1, see Appendix E). The mean AFDW for *Z. marina* was significantly greater at Barnegat Inlet compared to Oyster Creek ($F_{1,13} = 5.56$; $P = 0.0333$), but the AFDW for *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* were not significant between the two sites (F_{1,13}) $= 0.11$; P = 0.786 BVWT; F_{1,13} = 1.21; P = 0.2916 BSWT). At both sites, there was a positive

relationship between the number of *B. violaceus* zooids and eelgrass blade area (cm²), showing that as the area of the blade increased, the number of zooids increased $(F_{1,71} = 320.1; P < 0.0001$ OCBV; F1,98 = 80.2; P < 0.0001 BIBV, Fig. 2). Oyster Creek had the highest number of *B. violaceus* zooids counted on a single colony with 2019 zooids. For the *B. schlosseri* tunicates, there was also a significant difference between the number of zooids and *Z. marina* blade area $(F_{1,95} = 121.1; P < 0.0001 \text{ OCBS}; F_{1,233} = 245.4; P < 0.0001 \text{ BIBS}, Fig. 3)$, showing that as the area of the eelgrass blades increased the number of zooids present increased. Just like the *B. violaceus* tunicates, Oyster Creek had the highest number of *B. schlosseri* zooids counted on a single colony with 3204 zooids. There were no significance differences between the average density of zooids for both tunicate species at each site $(F_{1,13} = 1.56; P = 0.23 \text{ BV}, F_{1,13} = 0.66; P$ = 0.43 BS). However, at Oyster Creek there was a higher average density of *B. violaceus* zooids than at Barnegat Inlet (Fig. 4), while the opposite was found with *B. schlosseri* with Barnegat Inlet having the higher average of 5478.4 zooids/ m^2 and Oyster Creek having a lower average of 4111.1 zooids/m² (Fig. 5).

Figure 2. Regression analysis showing the positive relationship between the total blade area (cm²) of *Z. marina* and the number of *B. violaceus* zooids at Oyster Creek and Barnegat Inlet on June 30th, 2021.

Figure 3. Regression analysis showing the positive relationship between the total blade area (cm²) of *Z. marina* and the number of *B. schlosseri* zooids at Oyster Creek and Barnegat Inlet on June 30th, 2021.

Figure 4. Average density of *B. violaceus* zooids (\pm SE) per m² at Oyster Creek and Barnegat Inlet in June 2021.

Figure 5. Average density of *B. schlosseri* zooids $(\pm$ SE) per m² at Oyster Creek and Barnegat Inlet in June 2021.

Ham Island, Rt. 72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet August Results

All three sites on August 12th, 2021 showed the presence of both *B*. *violaceus* and *B*. *schlosseri* tunicate species (see Appendices C and D). Among the three sites, there was no significant difference in the number of *B*. *violaceus* zooids ($F_{2,27} = 0.05$; $P = 0.95$) or in the number of *B. schlosseri* zooids (F_{2,27} = 0.73; P = 0.49). The total surface area of the *Z. marina* blades with both tunicate species at each site/sample was calculated. Ham Island had a blade area of 184.52 cm² with *B. violaceus* and 62.96 cm² with *B. schlosseri*, Rt. 72 had a blade area of 149.9 cm² with *B. violaceus* and 57.24 cm² with *B. schlosseri* and Barnegat Inlet had a blade area of 282.28 cm² with *B. violaceus* and 352.62 cm² with *B. schlosseri* (Table 2, see Appendix F). There was a significant positive linear regression between *B. violaceus* zooids and *Z. marina* blade area in the Rt. 72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet samples $(F_{1,10} = 16.9; P < 0.01$ RTBV; $F_{1,13} =$ 14.9; $P = 0.001$ BIBV, Fig. 6). However, in the Ham Island samples, there was a negative nonsignificant relationship between *B. violaceus* zooids and *Z. marina* blade area ($F_{1,14} = 0.001$; $P =$ 0.99, Fig. 6). For all sites and samples, there was a negative linear regression between *B. schlosseri* zooids and *Z. marina* blades; as the area of the eelgrass blade increased, the number of zooids decreased (F_{1,3} = 20.5; P = 0.02 HIBS; F_{1,4} = 1.3; P = 0.31 RTBS; F_{1,15} = 0.06; P = 0.82, Fig. 7). There was not a significant difference between the average density of *B. violaceus* zooids per m² among the three sites ($F_{2,27} = 0.05$; $P = 0.95$), but Ham Island had the highest average density of *B*. violaceus zooids with 2587.2 zooids/m², Rt. 72 Bridge had the next highest average of 2207.2 zooids/m², and Barnegat Inlet had the lowest average of 1887.2 zooids/m² (Fig. 8). There was also not a significant difference in the average density of *B. schlosseri* zooids among the three sites (F_{2,27} = 0.73; P = 0.49), but the pattern was reversed. Barnegat Inlet had the highest average density of *B. schlosseri* zooids, 3004 zooids/m² , then Rt. 72 Bridge with a narrowly

higher average than Ham Island with 1249.6 zooids/m² and Ham Island with the lowest average

of 1211.2 zooids/m² (Fig. 9). The average AFDW for *Z. marina* among the three sites was not

statistically different (F_{2,27} = 2.00; P = 0.15), as well as the AFDW for *B*. *violaceus* and *B*.

schlosseri (F_{2,27} = 0.08; P = 0.9; F_{2,27} = 0.35; P = 0.7, respectively).

Table 2. Characterization of the average total *Z. marina* blade area $\text{(cm}^2/\text{m}^2)$ with tunicate species present for all samples, *Z. marina* blade biomass (g AFDW) and average tunicate biomass (g AFDW) for all samples and water quality parameters for the sites visited on August 12th, 2021.

	THE D W T TOT an Samples and water quanty parameters for the shes visited on Fugust 12th, 2021.		
Site	Ham Island	Rt. 72 Bridge	Barnegat Inlet
Date	8/12/2021	8/12/21	8/12/21
Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	27.7	28.2	27.1
Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L)	6.86	7.10	10.44
Salinity (ppt)	28.0	25.0	26.9
Average area of all Z. <i>marina</i> blades with B.			
<i>violaceus</i> $\text{(cm}^2\text{/m}^2)$	147.62	119.92	225.82
Average area of all Z. marina blades with B.			
schlosseri (cm ² /m ²)	50.37	45.79	282.10
Average Z. <i>marina</i> biomass (g)	8.22	5.66	9.01
Average $B.$ violaceus biomass (g)	0.1229	0.1290	0.0809
Average B . <i>schlosseri</i> biomass (g)	0.0329	0.1078	0.0853

Figure 6. Regression analysis showing the relationships between the total blade area $(cm²)$ of *Z. marina* and the number of *B. violaceus* zooids at Ham Island, Rt. 72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet on August $12th$, 2021.

Figure 7. Regression analysis showing the negative relationships between the total blade area (cm²) of *Z. marina* and the number of *B. schlosseri* zooids at Ham Island, Rt. 72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet on August 12th, 2021.

Figure 8. Average density of *B. violaceus* zooids $(\pm \text{ SE})$ per m² at Ham Island, Rt.72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet in August 2021.

Figure 9. Average density of *B. schlosseri* zooids (\pm SE) per m² at Ham Island, Rt.72 Bridge and Barnegat Inlet in August 2021.

Barnegat Inlet June-August

Since there were two collection methods between June and August at Barnegat Inlet, the data were standardized per m^2 to allow for comparison. Between June and August, there was a

noticeable decline in the total surface area of *Z. marina* blades with the *B. schlosseri* colonies present at Barnegat Inlet, but not a big difference for *B. violaceus*. A positive linear regression is still observed between *Z. marina* blade area and *B. violaceus* zooids between June and August (Fig. 10). For the *B. schlosseri* tunicates, a positive linear regression between the number of zooids and blade surface area was observed at Barnegat Inlet in June, but a negative linear regression was observed in August (Fig. 11). There was a higher density of *B. violaceus* and *B.* schlosseri zooids/m² at Barnegat Inlet in June than there were in August (Fig. 12 and 13). In June, the average density was 2008.1 zooids/m² for *B*. *violaceus* and 5478.4 zooids/m² for *B*. schlosseri. In August, the average density of *B. violaceus* zooids was 1887.2 zooids/m² and for *B. schlosseri* tunicates the average was 3004 zooids/m² .

Figure 10. Regression analysis showing the relationships between the total blade area $\text{cm}^2\text{)}$ of *Z. marina* and the number of *B. violaceus* zooids at Barnegat Inlet between June and August 2021.

Figure 11. Regression analysis showing the relationships between the total blade area cm^2) of *Z. marina* and the number of *B. schlosseri* zooids at Barnegat Inlet between June and August 2021.

Figure 12. Density of *B. violaceus* zooids (\pm SE) per m² at Barnegat Inlet between June and August 2021.

Figure 13. Density of *B. schlosseri* zooids $(\pm$ SE) per m² at Barnegat Inlet between June and August 2021.

Settling plates June-September 2021

Between June $30th$ – August $12th$ 2021, both tunicate species had colonized the settling plates indicating sexual reproduction and larval release. On the first settling plate, there were no *B. violaceus* tunicates present, but the *B. schlosseri* tunicates had covered ~5% of the bottom of the plate (Fig. 14a). On the second settling plate, *B. schlosseri* covered ~1% of the bottom of plate 2 and *B. violaceus* covered ~10% (Fig. 14b). Both tunicate species were present on the third plate with *B. violaceus* covering <1% of the top of plate 3 and 40% of the bottom of plate 3, while *B. schlosseri* only covered 20% of the bottom (Fig. 14c). On the fourth ceramic settling plate, only *B. schlosseri* (red arrow) were present, but only covered <1% of the bottom of plate 4 (Fig. 14d). There were a variety of other organisms and plants that covered each settling plate. These species include, *Enteromorpha* algae, red filamentous algae, *Obelia spp.*, *Bugula turrita*, spirorbids, barnacles, and bacterial mats that covered anywhere between 1-100% of the plates (see Appendix G).

Figure 14. Photographs of *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicate settlement on four settling plates; plate 1 top/bottom (a), plate 2 top/bottom (b), plate 3 top/bottom (c), and plate 4 top/bottom (d) at Barnegat Inlet from June $30th$ – August $12th$, 2021.

The second deployment from August 12^{th} – September 25^{th} 2021, there was a higher percent coverage of both species on the settling plates. There were no tunicates present on either side of plate 1 (Fig.15a). Only the *B. schlosseri* tunicates were present on plate 2 and covered ~75% of the bottom (red arrow) (Fig. 15b). Both tunicate species were present on plate 3 with *B. violaceus* (yellow arrow) covering ~15% of the top and ~85% of side 2 and *B. schlosseri* (red arrow) covered <1% of the bottom (Fig. 15c). On the fourth ceramic settling plate, both species were present, but only covered the bottom. *B. violaceus* (yellow arrow) covered ~50% and *B. schlosseri* (red arrow) covered ~35% of the bottom (Fig. 15d). There were a variety of other organisms and algae that covered each settling plate including *Enteromorpha spp*., red filamentous algae, *Obelia spp.*, *Bugula turrita*, spirorbids, barnacles, egg cases/eggs and bacterial mats that covered anywhere between 1-100% of the plates (see Appendix H).

Figure 15. Photographs of *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicate settlement on four settling plates; plate 1 top/bottom (a), plate 2 top/bottom (b), plate 3 sides top/bottom (c), and plate 4 top/bottom (d) at Barnegat Inlet from August 12^{th} – September 25^{th} , 2021.

Discussion

This study focused on assessing any potential changes from previous surveys and to better define colony size and biomass of *Botrylloides violaceus* and *Botryllus schlosseri* among eelgrass beds and to determine their potential negative impacts on the eelgrass beds in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey. Though Barnegat Inlet had a higher total *Z. marina* blade surface area (cm²) than Oyster Creek, there was a higher density of *B. violaceus* zooids on eelgrass blades at Oyster Creek (Fig. 4). This could be due to the differences in water temperatures and salinities between the two sites. On June $30th$, 2021, the water temperatures and salinities measured were 27.5 \degree C and 27.5 ppt for Oyster Creek and 25.5°C and 26.4 ppt for Barnegat Inlet (Table 1). Both the *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates favor warmer temperatures for optimal growth as shown in an experiment by McCarthy et al. (2006). When compared to the aggressive *Didemnum spp.* tunicate in different temperature conditions, both the *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates showed an increase in growth in bins filled with water that was either 2°C above or 4-5°C above ambient temperatures. Another study showed that the *B. violaceus* tunicates tend to grow faster in warmer temperatures ranging from 19-23°C, than in colder temperatures ranging from 14.5- 19°C (Dijkstra et al. 2008). This study also found that lower salinities can delay the reproduction of this tunicate species and they found the best reproductive success at salinities above 20ppt (Dijkstra et al. 2008) and the salinity at all sites were higher than 20 ppt, which made it optimal for the *B. violaceus* to grow. Additionally, an experiment conducted by Epelbaum et al. (2009a) found that the optimal temperature and salinity for the growth of *B. violaceus* was 20-25°C and 26-38 ppt. However, it was found that with rising water temperatures throughout the world, the *B. violaceus* tunicates are able to acclimate and grow in these rising temperatures. Looking at the sexual and asexual cycles of the *B. violaceus* tunicates in the Gulf of Maine, there was an

increase in the brooding duration as the temperatures increased (10° C - 32° C) (Dijkstra et al. 2017). They predict that a 3°C increase will add more sexual generations of the *B. violaceus* tunicate.

For *B. schlosseri*, Barnegat Inlet had a higher density of zooids than Oyster Creek, but the biomass was the complete opposite. In an experiment conducted by Westerman et al. (2009) on the brooding patterns of the invasive tunicates, they found that the recruitment for *B. schlosseri* occurred at much cooler temperatures than *B. violaceus*. In one of their native environments, specifically in a lagoon in Venice, it was found that the adult tunicates are able to grow and survive optimally from temperatures of 11-26°C and salinities from 25-40 psu (Cima et al. 2015). In their non-native environment in British Columbia, it was found that the optimal growth temperature and salinity was found to be between 15-20°C and 20-30 ppt and the optimal reproductive temperature and salinity was 25°C and 26 ppt (Epelbaum et al. 2009a). Although the optimal growing temperatures for *B. schlosseri* are between 11-26°C, they can be found globally in temperatures ranging from 2.8-30.6°C and are predicted to increase in abundance as global water temperatures increase (Cockrell and Sorte 2013).

For the three sites in August, there was a higher density of *B. violaceus* zooids at Ham Island than there was at both Barnegat Inlet and Rt. 72 Bridge (Fig. 8). In Hoffman's study however, she found that in August 2017, Ham Island had a lower precent coverage of *B. violaceus* than at Barnegat Inlet and found no *B. violaceus* at Ham Island in 2018 (Hoffman 2020). In my study, a different pattern was observed with *B. schlosseri*, with Barnegat Inlet having the highest density, Rt. 72 Bridge having the second highest and Ham Island having the lowest density (Fig. 9). The same was found in Hoffman's (2020) study where the percent cover of *B. schlosseri* was higher at Barnegat Inlet than at Ham Island in August of 2017 and 2018.

There was no huge difference in temperatures between Ham Island and Barnegat Inlet between this study and Hoffman's 2017-2018 study. The temperatures in Ham Island and Barnegat Inlet for 2017-2018 were 26.8°C and 27.9°C in Ham Island and 28°C and 26.6°C in Barnegat Inlet respectively (Hoffman 2020). During my 2021 study, the temperature was 27.7°C at Ham Island and 27.1°C at Barnegat Inlet. With the differing dominance with the *B. violaceus* tunicates between Ham Island and Barnegat Inlet between the two studies, this could be due to the aggressive behavior of the tunicates. This was shown in one study in Woods Hole, Massachusetts on the colonization and recruitment of different non-native ascidians (Valentine 2016). In this study, he found that both the *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates had growth interactions with other colonial tunicates which resulted in competitive standoffs. The *B. violaceus* tunicates were able to outcompete and overgrow other tunicates such as *Schizoporella unicornis*, *D. vexillum*, and *B. schlosseri*; while the *B. schlosseri* tunicates were observed to compete with the *B. violaceus* and *Aplidium glabrum*, but *D. vexillum* were able to outcompete and overgrow *B. schlosseri* (Valentine 2016). Other than temperature differences, the aggressive growth behavior of both the *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates could contribute to the differences in dominance in Barnegat Inlet and Ham Island between the 2017-2018 and 2021 studies.

In August, Ham Island, Rt. 72 Bridge, and Barnegat Inlet had fewer blades of *Z. marina* with tunicates present than sites in June. There was still a positive linear regression for *B. violaceus* zooids and *Z. marina* blade surface area for Barnegat Inlet and Rt. 72 Bridge, but there was a negative relationship observed in Ham Island (Fig. 6). There was also a negative relationship between the *B. schlosseri* zooids and *Z. marina* blade surface area for all three sites (Fig. 7). This change in results for the August samples could be because of blade shedding due to temperature tolerance, and reduced light exposure. The survival of *Z. marina* blades in high

temperatures was studied by Hammer et al. (2018) at Goodwin Island, Virginia and it was found that there were negative effects on blade growth, survival and rhizome growth at 30°C with a heat stress threshold of 26-30°C. Since New Jersey waters heat up relatively fast throughout the summer months, heat stress becomes a huge factor for eelgrass and causes them to release their leaves. Another study conducted in Chesapeake Bay, Virginia showed that during the hotter months of the summer between June-August, there is a decreased presence of *Z. marina* in the environment (Shields et al. 2019). They found that there was a net decline when the marine temperatures were above the average of 26° C. More specifically, at temperatures $>28^{\circ}$ C there was more than a 50% decline in eelgrass in Chesapeake Bay (Shields et al. 2019). The water temperatures at all three sites did increase in August with temperatures ranging from 27.1°C at Barnegat Inlet to 28.2°C at Rt. 72 Bridge (Table 2). With these higher temperatures, there were fewer eelgrass blades with tunicates present in August than in June.

Another factor that causes eelgrass to shed their blades is reduced light exposure. Eelgrass growth is highly dependent on water temperature and light conditions. As water temperatures decrease, eelgrass only requires a low amount of light for photosynthesis, but as the temperatures increase, so does the light requirement for photosynthesis to balance respiratory demands of the plant (Kim et al. 2015). With events such as Brown-tides, microalgal blooms, inflows of turbidity plumes, sediment loading, and resuspension of organic matter from watershed development that reduce the water clarity, there has been a rapid decline in eelgrass abundance (Bologna et al. 2007; Kim et al. 2015; Lefcheck et al. 2017). Due to the ability of both *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates to rapidly grow and cover the eelgrass blade surface, the light availability to the eelgrass decreases, which blocks the plant from going through photosynthesis. This can ultimately kill the shoots, so the plant sheds the dead blades

with the tunicate colonies to minimize the stress. With less eelgrass present in a specific area, there will be fewer tunicates present on the blades (Shields et al. 2019). But as the eelgrass shed their blades, this can aid in tunicate dispersal. In their study, Carman et al. (2016) talk about how as the number of tunicates living on eelgrass blades increases, the eelgrass could be providing that dispersal mechanism for the tunicates by means of released plant debris.

At Barnegat Inlet in June and August, only the *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates were observed. In a similar study by Hoffman (2020) in Barnegat Inlet, they found the presence of the invasive tunicates *B. violaceus*, *B. schlosseri*, *D. vexillum*, and *A. aspersa*. Looking at the number of *B. violaceus* zooids per *Z. marina* blade surface area in Barnegat Inlet in June and August, there was a positive linear regression, but there were more total zooids and more blades that had tunicates present on them (Fig. 10). For the *B. schlosseri* zooids per *Z. marina* blade surface area, a positive linear regression was observed in June, but a negative linear regression was observed in August (Fig. 11). This could be due to the shedding of eelgrass blades because of heat shock or the smothering of the tunicates blocking the blades from sunlight and killing them. The density of *B. violaceus* zooids was higher in June than in August as well as the density of *B. schlosseri* zooids. (Figs. 12 and 13). Similarly, Hoffman (2020) observed a larger percent cover of *B. violaceus* than *B. schlosseri* in June 2017, as well as in June 2018. Since both *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates are known to be aggressive colonizers, one could be the dominant species one month and then the next month the other species could dominate more space (Carman et al. 2016; Dijkstra et al. 2017).

The tunicates show a similar pattern on the settling plates with their ability to cover the plates during the summer months. From June $30th - August 12th$, 2021, there was very minimal coverage of both the *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates with all but the third plate having a

minimal 1-5% coverage (Fig. 14). From August $12th$ – September 25th, 2021, there was a massive increase in the percent cover of both tunicate species on the plates with the highest percent cover of ~85% on plate 3 (Fig. 15). It is likely that active recruitment during this time lead to the increase in cover. This trend was also seen in a study comparing the spatial variation in the population dynamics of the *B. schlosseri* tunicates in Maine. It was found that population sizes varied based on the summer months with August-September reaching peak densities of the tunicates (Yund and Stires 2002). In another study testing the growth rate of invasive ascidians, it was found that with elevated temperatures, both *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* had an increased growth rate with elevated temperatures, but *B. violaceus* was able to double its growth rate and density in the warmer water conditions (Lord and Whitlatch 2015).

Future studies that look at the growth of *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* tunicates in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey can further assess how rapidly these invasive ascidians can grow during the summer months. Because these tunicates are known to be extremely aggressive colonizers (Carman et al. 2016), it is extremely important to monitor these species in order to find new ways to protect the eelgrass beds and other native species that these tunicates manage to outcompete.

Conclusion

There was a difference in the number of zooids per blade area $(cm²)$ and average density of zooids at the sites in June and August 2021. The sites in June had a higher density and number of zooids on blades of eelgrass for both tunicate species than the three sites in August. Compared to Hoffman's study, there was a difference in which tunicate species dominated Ham Island in 2017-2018 and 2021, with *B. violaceus* being the dominant species at Ham Island in

2021, rather than in Barnegat Inlet. This research is the first evaluation of the number of zooids present on eelgrass blades in Barnegat Bay, New Jersey. Due to the different sampling methods and a three month sampling window, more data needs to be collected in future years to be able to accurately assess the growth of *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* zooids in *Z. marina* beds.

Although *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* are ideal invasive organisms to study because of their

large temperature and salinity tolerances, they still pose a serious threat to marine communities.

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Appendix A. GPS coordinates for all sites visited in June 2021.

Appendix B. GPS coordinates of the transect markers (0, 30, 60, 90 meters) for the sites visited in August 2021

Appendix C. Raw data of *B. violaceus* zooids and *Z. marina* blade area collected from each site in the summer of 2021.

Appendix D. Raw data of *B. schlosseri* zooids and *Z. marina* blade area collected from each site in the summer of 2021.

Appendix E. Individual biomasses of *Z. marina*, *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* from each sample from the sites in June 2021.

Site Date Sample AFDW *Z. marina* **(g) AFDW** *B. violaceus* **(g) AFDW** *B. schlosseri* **(g)** Ham Island 8/12/21 0 meters 22.3 1.0116 0.3291 Ham Island $8/12/21$ | 10 meters | 5.77 | 0.028 | -Ham Island $8/12/21$ 20 meters 11.28 \vert - \vert Ham Island $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 8/12/21 & 30 \text{ meters} & 5.7 & \end{array}$ -Ham Island $8/12/21$ 40 meters 6.75 -Ham Island $8/12/21$ 50 meters 6.21 -Ham Island $8/12/21$ 60 meters 4.99 $-$ Ham Island $8/12/21$ 70 meters 6.94 0.0005 -Ham Island 8/12/21 80 meters 5.47 0.1892 -Ham Island $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 8/12/21 & 90 \text{ meters} & 6.78 & \end{array}$ -Rt. 72 Bridge $8/12/21$ 0 meters 3.39 -Rt. 72 Bridge $8/12/21$ 10 meters 6.35 - -Rt. 72 Bridge 8/12/21 20 meters 5.15 0.1213 - Rt. 72 Bridge $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 8/12/21 & 30 \text{ meters} & 7.94 \hline \end{array}$ Rt. 72 Bridge $8/12/21$ 40 meters 0.82 1.0647 1.0116 Rt. 72 Bridge $8/12/21$ 50 meters 7.23 Rt. 72 Bridge $8/12/21$ 60 meters 6.91 - 0.0512 Rt. 72 Bridge $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 8/12/21 & 70 \text{ meters} & 8.07 \hline \end{array}$ Rt. 72 Bridge $8/12/21$ 80 meters 4.39 0.1037 0.0156 Rt. 72 Bridge $8/12/21$ 90 meters 6.31 - - -Barnegat Inlet $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 8/12/21 & 0 \text{ meters} & 3.51 & \end{array}$ -Barnegat Inlet | 8/12/21 | 10 meters | 7.59 | 0.093 | 0.135 Barnegat Inlet | 8/12/21 | 20 meters | 13.07 | 0.0534 | Barnegat Inlet | 8/12/21 | 30 meters | 12.8 | 0.0002 | -Barnegat Inlet $8/12/21$ 40 meters 6.45 - 10.2353 Barnegat Inlet $8/12/21$ 50 meters 16.59 - 0.0179 Barnegat Inlet $8/12/21$ 60 meters 8.9 \vert - 0.3723 Barnegat Inlet | 8/12/21 | 70 meters | 8.48 | - | 0.0057 Barnegat Inlet | 8/12/21 | 80 meters | 6.41 | - | 0.087 Barnegat Inlet | 8/12/21 | 90 meters | 7.19 | 0.6621 | -

Appendix F. Individual biomasses of *Z. marina*, *B. violaceus* and *B. schlosseri* from each sample from the sites in August 2021.

Appendix H. Raw data of the percent coverage (%) of all organisms found on the settling plates at Barnegat Inlet from August 12^{th} – September 25^{th} , 2021.

