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18	Running title: Effects of an acute heatwave on barnacle beds
19	Extreme heatwave drives topography-dependent patterns of mortality in a bed-forming
20	intertidal barnacle, with implications for associated community structure
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40 Abstract

41 Heatwave frequency and intensity will increase as climate change progresses. Intertidal 42 sessile invertebrates, which often form thermally benign microhabitats for associated species, are 43 vulnerable to thermal stress because they have minimal ability to behaviourally thermoregulate. 44 Understanding what factors influence the mortality of biogenic species and how heatwaves might 45 impact their ability to provide habitat is critical. Here, we characterize the community associated 46 with the thatched barnacle, Semibalanus cariosus (Pallass 1788), in British Columbia, Canada. 47 Then, we investigate what site-level and plot-level environmental factors explained variations in 48 barnacle mortality resulting from an unprecedented regional heatwave in British Columbia, 49 Canada. Further, we used a manipulative shading experiment deployed prior to the heat dome to 50 examine the effect of thermal stress on barnacle survival and recruitment and the barnacle-51 associated community. We identified 50 taxa inhabiting S. cariosus beds, with variations in 52 community composition between sites. Site-scale variables and algal canopy cover did not 53 predict S. cariosus mortality, but patch-scale variation in substratum orientation did, with more 54 direct solar irradiance corresponding with higher barnacle mortality. The shading experiment 55 demonstrated that S. cariosus survival, barnacle recruitment, and invertebrate community 56 diversity were higher under shades where substratum temperatures were lower. Associated 57 community composition also differed between shaded and non-shaded plots, suggesting S. 58 cariosus was not able to fully buffer acute thermal stress for its associated community. While 59 habitat provisioning by intertidal foundation species is an important source of biodiversity, these 60 species alone may not be enough to prevent substantial community shifts following extreme 61 heatwaves. As heatwaves become more frequent and severe, they may further reduce diversity 62 via the loss of biogenic habitat, and spatial variation in these impacts may be substantial.

Keywords: diversity, facilitation, foundation species, heatwaves, intertidal zone, mortality,
 Semibalanus cariosus, temperature

65

66 Introduction

67 Anthropogenic climate change is marked not only by increasing mean temperatures 68 globally but also by increasing thermal variability (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018; Perkins-69 Kirkpatrick & Lewis, 2020). These shifting patterns in the thermal environment have far-70 reaching physiological and ecological consequences, as temperature is inextricably linked to 71 organism performance through biochemistry and metabolism (Brown et al., 2004). This 72 dependence is particularly important for ectotherms, which lack the physiological mechanisms to 73 regulate their internal body temperature (Dillon et al., 2010; Riemer et al., 2018). Thermal 74 extremes that exceed the physiological tolerance of organisms can lead to negative sublethal 75 effects and mortality, making increases in thermal variability a potentially greater threat to 76 organisms than increases in mean temperature (Vasseur et al., 2014). 77 Heatwaves, which are predicted to become longer, more frequent, and more severe over 78 time (Perkins-Kirkpatrick & Lewis, 2020), can have immense impacts on organisms and 79 ecological communities. Heatwaves are considered to occur when the 90th percentile of 80 temperature, derived from historical baseline data, is exceeded for three or more days in the case 81 of atmospheric heatwaves (Perkins & Alexander, 2013) or five or more days in the case of 82 marine heatwaves (Hobday et al., 2016). These events have been implicated both directly and 83 indirectly in the mortality of many marine ectotherms, among them habitat-forming corals

84 (Babcock et al., 2020), macroalgae (Román et al., 2020; Wernberg et al., 2013), mussels (Harley,

85 2008), oysters (Scanes et al., 2020), and seagrasses (Arias-Ortiz et al., 2018), motile fish (Genin

86 et al., 2020) and, when concomitant with drought stress, plants in terrestrial systems (De Boeck 87 et al., 2018; Bussotti et al., 2021). The impacts of heatwaves on organisms can affect higher 88 levels of biological organization by altering community structure (De Boeck et al., 2018; Pansch 89 et al., 2018; Sorte et al., 2010), increasing heterogeneity, as measured by beta diversity 90 (Robinson et al., 2019), and driving stochastic patterns in succession and community reassembly 91 (Kreyling et al., 2011; Seifert et al., 2015). While the negative effects of heatwaves are evident, 92 questions remain about what environmental factors and species traits shape mortality risk for 93 populations exposed to heatwaves (Harvey et al., 2022) and how biological interactions may be 94 affected.

95 The intertidal zone, at the intersection of marine and terrestrial realms, represents a 96 thermally challenging landscape. Within the intertidal zone, where many organisms live near 97 their thermal limits (Tomanek & Helmuth, 2002), there are often steeper thermal gradients found 98 over metres of shore than on a broader latitudinal scale (Helmuth et al., 2006; Jurgens & 99 Gaylord, 2018). While motile species can mitigate temperature stress by relocating to thermal 100 refugia (e.g., Hayford et al., 2015; Reid & Harley, 2021), sessile foundation species that have no 101 such recourse may be especially susceptible to heatwave impacts. For example, temperature can 102 set the upper extent of distribution for certain intertidal sessile invertebrates (Connell, 1961; 103 Connell, 1972; Harley, 2011). At a given shore level, small-scale topographic variation — such 104 as the orientation and angle of the substratum and shading by nearby physical features — can 105 affect solar irradiance and thus organism body temperature (Miller et al., 2009; Seabra et al., 106 2011). These differences in temperature can in turn drive topography-patterns of organism 107 mortality in response to thermal stress (Harley, 2008).

108	Many sessile invertebrate species facilitate epifaunal and infaunal communities by
109	creating biogenic habitat (Barnes, 2000; Bracken, 2018; McAfee & Bishop, 2019; van der
110	Ouderaa et al., 2021). In the intertidal zone, this habitat is often more thermally benign than the
111	surrounding shore, and thus the importance of facilitation in promoting the survival of associated
112	species may become more important as thermal stress increases (Bulleri et al., 2016; Jurgens et
113	al., 2021). For instance, the interstices created by Mytilus californianus mussel beds, which host
114	some 300 species (Suchanek, 1992), are both cooler and more thermally stable than nearby rock
115	clearings during summer (Jurgens & Gaylord, 2018). This dampening of thermal extremes, along
116	with the moisture retention provided by <i>M. californianus</i> beds, results in greater survival of
117	associated fauna within mussel beds compared to adjacent bare plots (Jurgens et al., 2021).
118	Similar thermally mediated facilitations have been measured for other invertebrate
119	foundation species including barnacles, a cosmopolitan intertidal functional group. In a
120	subtropical high intertidal system, all limpets associating with barnacles survived a six-hour
121	exposure to a 40 °C simulated heatwave, while 100% mortality was observed when barnacles
122	were absent (Cartwright & Williams, 2014). In addition to affecting temperature, heatwaves also
123	increase desiccation stress (Straub et al., 2019), which barnacles may mitigate by retaining
124	moisture. For example, in the desiccating environment of Argentinian Patagonia, areas with
125	moisture-retaining barnacles host a greater abundance of pulmonate limpets than areas without
126	barnacles (Hesketh et al., 2021). However, we do not fully know if there is an upper threshold of
127	abiotic stress above which such positive interactions weaken or cease entirely. Thus, to
128	understand how the facilitatory role of a given foundation species will be altered by heatwaves,
129	we must first ask: Can the foundation species in question survive heat stress? Survival may
130	depend on microclimatic conditions generated by habitat features or other foundation species in

the system. Second, where foundation species survive, can they maintain their facilitatory role in the face of thermally challenging conditions, thereby reducing the impacts of heatwaves on their associated community?

134 The 2021 Western North American Heat Dome of 2021 (hereafter, 'heat dome' for 135 brevity), which occurred in an area stretching from Oregon, USA, to northern British Columbia 136 (BC), Canada, represented an enormous thermal challenge for both human and non-human 137 communities throughout the region (Raymond et al., 2022; Thompson et al., 2022). In BC, the 138 heat dome occurred between 25–29 June 2021 and exceeded historical mean maximum daily 139 temperatures by over 18 °C and 5 °C in the Strait of Georgia and along the outer coast, 140 respectively (Climate Canada, 2022; see Fig. S1). These high temperatures coincided with some 141 of the lowest mid-day tides and longest days of the year, generating lethal conditions for many 142 sessile intertidal organisms.

143 One such organism within this region is the thatched barnacle, Semibalanus cariosus 144 (Pallass, 1788), a long-lived mid-intertidal species (Connell, 1972) that forms dense, biodiverse 145 beds where it occurs in high abundance (Dayton, 1971). Semibalanus cariosus commonly co-146 occurs with mussels (Mytilus spp.), smaller acorn barnacles (Balanus glandula and Chthamalus 147 dalli), clonal anemones (Anthopleura elegantissima), and algae (mostly notably Fucus distichus, 148 *Endocladia muricata*, and *Mastocarpus* spp.) throughout its range (Dayton 1971). While not as 149 speciose or diverse as co-occurring mussel beds, beds of S. cariosus are known to facilitate 150 numerous species such as limpets, littorine snails, whelks, isopods, amphipods, chitons, and 151 polychaete and nemertean worms (Gosselin & Chia, 1995; Harley, unpublished data). 152 Despite its importance as a facilitator, the ecological role of S. cariosus remains understudied 153 relative to other dominant spaceholders in this system.

154 In this study, we sought to characterize the importance of S. cariosus as a facilitator 155 across part of its distribution in coastal BC and determine how the heat dome affected the 156 survival of S. cariosus and the composition of its associated community. While barnacle 157 abundance is known to be affected by changes in mean sea temperatures (Southward, 1991; 158 Southward et al., 1995) and by aerial exposure to extreme cold (Crisp, 1964; Wethey et al., 159 2011), the effects of atmospheric heatwaves are not well understood. Here, we investigate what 160 factors, both among and within sites, might have contributed to heat dome-induced mortality 161 patterns in this species. Mortality data were collected through field surveys along a well-162 characterized thermal gradient from cooler conditions on the temperate outer coast of BC to 163 thermally stressful conditions in the eastern portion of the Salish Sea (Harley, 2011). We 164 expected that S. cariosus mortality would increase with air temperature, the timing (hour of day) 165 of the low tide, and at smaller angles of solar incidence — that is, on gently sloping shores facing 166 towards the solar azimuth where solar irradiance was most direct during the heat dome. We also 167 expected that mortality would decrease with decreasing algal cover, which mitigates thermal 168 extremes. Because these variables interact to affect substratum temperature, we hypothesized 169 two-way interactions between them. We then used a factorial experiment with crossed shading 170 and barnacle removal treatments deployed prior to the heat dome to measure how the community 171 associated with S. cariosus, along with barnacle mortality and recruitment, varied according to 172 differences in substratum temperature. During our shading experiment, we expected that shades 173 and the presence of barnacles would reduce substratum temperature, thereby increasing S. 174 *cariosus* survival, barnacle recruitment, and the diversity of the associated algal and invertebrate 175 communities. We also expected that associated fauna within S. cariosus beds would differ in

176 composition between shaded and unshaded barnacle beds due to species-specific differences in

177 thermal tolerance, and that communities inhabiting shaded barnacle beds would be more diverse.

178

179 Materials and Methods

180 Sampling locations

181 We performed surveys and collections of S. cariosus beds over a part of their distribution 182 in coastal British Columbia, Canada (Fig. 1; Table S1) between 13 April 2021 and 11 September 183 2021. Most study sites were concentrated in the Salish Sea along the southern tip of Vancouver 184 Island, with additional sites on Calvert Island along the central coast of BC. Shores were 185 predominately granitic bedrock aside from two sites in the Gulf Islands (TE and TK in Fig. 1), 186 which were sandstone bedrock, two sites on Vancouver Island (BO and KE in Fig. 1) that were a 187 mix of bedrock and pilings and bedrock and boulders, respectively, and a site near Vancouver, 188 BC (TS in Fig. 1) that was a granitic boulder shore. Sites ranged in wave exposure, with the 189 outer coast being more wave-exposed and waters toward the Strait of Georgia being more 190 sheltered. Note that Indigenous place names, where known, are used to refer to sites (Table S1). 191

192 Summary of data collected

This study occurred in three parts. First, we characterized the community associated with *S. cariosus* by destructively sampling barnacle beds at nine sites and counting the species therein (see Fig. 1 and Table S1), with the goal of better understanding the importance of this littlestudied barnacle as biogenic habitat. Second, we capitalized on the extreme thermal challenge presented by the heat dome to determine what environmental factors shaped patterns of heat-

induced *S. cariosus* mortality using field surveys. Third, we used a shading experiment deployed in advance of the heat dome at a single site (Sahsima; SA in Fig. 1) to examine the effect of ambient versus artificially reduced temperatures during the heat dome on *S. cariosus* and its associated community in both bare experimental plots and those containing intact barnacle beds.

202

202

203 Characterizing the barnacle-associated community

204 To characterize the diversity of fauna associated with S. cariosus, we collected 15×15 cm areas of S. cariosus beds from nine sites. Five replicate samples were collected at the majority of 205 206 sites after the heat dome had occurred, between 5 August 2021 and 11 September 2021, while 207 eight replicate samples were collected at Prasiola Point (PP in Fig. 1). For sampling purposes, we 208 chose areas of shore where live S. cariosus was the dominant spaceholder (>50% cover) and 209 scraped these areas clean of all species using a chisel and putty knife. We preserved samples 210 after collection until processing, either by storing in 70% ethanol at room temperature or 211 freezing. Associated species were identified and counted under a dissecting microscope, in most 212 cases identifying taxa down to genus or species, though polychaete worms were only identified 213 to family, amphipods and insects to order, one unknown bivalve species to class, and 214 platyhelminths and nematodes to phylum (see Table S2 for taxonomic details).

215

216 Barnacle mortality surveys

We performed transect-based mortality surveys at a total of 36 transects over 13 sites to measure patterns in mortality across sites. For all sites, we calculated the mean maximum daily temperature during the heatwave period (25–29 June 2021) using data from the most proximate

220 weather station (Climate Canada, 2022) and the mean time of the low tide from the most 221 proximate tidal data station (Fisheries and Oceans Canada, 2022; WWW Tide and Current 222 Predictor, 2021). We also noted the dominant seaward orientation of each transect from satellite 223 images, and from this computed the shore aspect in terms of degrees from the solar azimuth at 224 the peak of the heat dome (see Supplement 1 for estimation details). At each site, we documented 225 mortality along three 10 m transects placed parallel to the shoreline at haphazardly chosen 226 locations within the middle of S. cariosus beds. Along each transect, we randomly surveyed ten 227 12.7×12.7 cm square quadrats, one quadrat in each one-meter interval of the transect. In each 228 quadrat, we recorded the number of live and dead S. cariosus individuals and the percent cover 229 of algae overlying barnacles. Overlying algae was predominately F. distichus, with some 230 subcanopy Ulva spp., Mastocarpus spp., and E. muricata, but the cover of individual species was 231 not quantified. We surveyed only two transects at ke:?ioadl (Fishboat Bay; KE in Fig. 1, Table 232 S1) and one at CELKINES (Moses Point; CE in Fig. 1, Table S1), and in some cases fell short of 233 measuring mortality for all ten quadrats due to time constraints. In total, 347 quadrats were 234 surveyed within the 36 transects using these methods.

235 We performed additional mortality surveys at six sites to better capture the dependence of 236 mortality on substratum angle and orientation. For these surveys, we haphazardly placed 237 12.7×12.7 cm quadrats on shore, selecting for surfaces that varied in both the compass 238 orientation they faced and their angle relative to the horizontal. We recorded the compass 239 direction and angle of the substratum using the Commander Compass application (version 3.10.9) 240 for iOS) and recorded the number of live and dead S. cariosus within the quadrat as described 241 above to determine the proportion mortality of the barnacles therein. Note that the rarity of S. 242 cariosus at Thousand-and-one Steps (site TS in Fig. 1) meant that we recorded the mortality of

single barnacles in each quadrat area, resulting in mortality being either 0 (barnacle alive) or 1 (barnacle dead). The number of quadrats used varied between sites, ranging between 21 at Thousand-and-one Steps and 29 at Sahsima, but we recorded mortality in 152 total quadrats. To determine the angle of solar incidence (ASI) for each quadrat, we used the solar elevation and azimuth (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 2022) for what we estimated to be the hottest hour on 28 June 2021, the peak of the heat dome in coastal BC (Fig. S1; see Supplement 1 for estimation details).

All mortality surveys were performed between 19 July and 25 August 2021 (Table S1).
251

252 Shading experiment

253 To determine how S. cariosus and its associated community were affected by heat stress, 254 we installed a shading experiment at Sahsima in Victoria, British Columbia, which lies in the 255 traditional territory of the Songhees nation (latitude: 48.40578°, longitude: -123.32331°). We 256 used a randomized block design for this experiment, in which a shading manipulation (unshaded 257 or shaded), which acted as a passive thermal manipulation, was fully crossed with a barnacle 258 removal manipulation (barnacle bed intact or removed). There were 12 blocks, and in each 259 block, all four treatment combinations were present: UI (unshaded, barnacles intact); SI (shaded, 260 barnacles intact); UR (unshaded, barnacles removed); SR (shaded, barnacles removed). The 261 blocks were installed on gently sloping areas of southwest-facing shore where S. cariosus was 262 dominant at a shore level of 1.22 ± 0.19 m (mean \pm SE).

Within blocks, 15×15 cm experimental plots were established. For the shading
manipulation, we fabricated 25 cm ×25 cm x 5 cm shading cages from PVC-coated steel fencing
(2.54 cm mesh size; McMaster-Carr, IL, USA) covered in Vexar mesh (6.4 mm mesh size;

266 NorPlex Inc., WA, USA). Shading limited the solar irradiance reaching, and thus the temperature 267 of, the substratum (Fig. S4). We attached shades to the substratum by zip-tying the cages to 268 eyebolts drilled into the bedrock. To ensure motile invertebrates could access experimental plots, 269 shade structures were constructed with two open sides. We also ensured that closed sides were 270 installed with an orientation that maximized shading of the plot during the hottest part of the 271 afternoon. We marked the area of unshaded plots with stainless steel lag bolts to assist in 272 relocation. For the barnacle removal treatment, we chiselled away adult barnacles and any 273 attached species within the central 15x15 cm area of the plot and scraped biota away with a putty 274 knife.

275 To measure temperature differences between treatments, we installed iButton temperature 276 loggers (DS1921G-F5# Thermochron, Maxim Integrated, CA, USA) on the substratum surface 277 within five randomly chosen experimental blocks. Temperature loggers, which recorded 278 substratum temperature at hourly intervals, were wrapped in Parafilm (Bemis, WI, USA) and 279 embedded in a small amount of A-788 Splash Zone epoxy (Pettit Paints, NJ, USA) with fewer 280 than 5 mm of epoxy overlying the surfaces of the logger. Some iButtons were installed at the 281 edges of shaded plots and received full solar irradiance at some points during the heat dome. 282 These data were removed from later analysis of temperature differences between treatments 283 because they did not properly capture treatment effects.

The shading experiment was installed on 16 April 2021. We performed visual surveys of experimental plots at the time of installation (for intact treatments only), in early July 2021, and in late August 2021. During each survey, we identified and quantified the invertebrates and algae present and documented barnacle mortality and recruitment. At the end of the experimental period, we destructively sampled and preserved remaining experimental plots containing intact

barnacle beds as described previously to characterize differences in the composition and beta
diversity of the associated invertebrate community, meiofauna included, in response to shading
treatments.

292 Statistical analyses

293 We completed all analyses within R version 4.1.2 (R Core Development Team, 2021). 294 Unless otherwise noted, we constructed all linear models as random-intercept models using the 295 glmmTMB package (version 1.1.2.3, Brooks et al., 2017), inspected models using the DHARMa 296 package (version 0.4.4; Hartig, 2021), and tested models with either a Type III or Type II 297 ANOVA through the *car* package (version 3.0–12; Fox & Weisberg, 2019) depending on 298 whether an interaction term was or was not hypothesized, respectively. We generated maps with 299 Stamen Map tiles using ggmap (version 3.0.0.903; Kahle & Wickham, 2019). Further statistical 300 details including model structures, coefficients, and statistical outputs are in Supplement 2. 301 We modeled the transect-level mortality of S. cariosus resulting from the heat dome 302 using multiple regression. We included quadrat-level algal cover, the prevailing orientation of 303 each transect relative to the solar azimuth, and the mean hour of the low tide and the mean 304 maximum daily air temperature at each site during the heat dome (25–29 June 2021). We scaled 305 these variables and allowed two-way interactions between them. We utilized a Tweedie error 306 distribution after logistic and beta error distributions failed due to substantial zero inflation of the 307 data, and we included a random intercept of transect nested within site. We modeled mortality as 308 a function of the quadrat-level ASI separately using a weighted logistic regression, with 309 observations weighted by the total number of barnacles in each quadrat. Within this model, we 310 included a random-slope effect of survey site.

311 For the shading experiment, we analyzed treatment differences in the mean daily 312 maximum temperature, barnacle mortality and recruitment, algal cover, species richness, 313 Shannon diversity of algal and invertebrate communities, and community composition. Shading 314 and barnacle removal manipulations were fully crossed with blocks as a random effect. Mean 315 daily maximum temperature was analyzed using a Gaussian error distribution. We modeled 316 differences in barnacle mortality using a weighted logistic regression with the total number of 317 barnacles in each quadrat used to weight observations. Algal cover was modeled using a beta 318 distribution after first transforming cover to ensure values were between zero and one (Smithson 319 & Verkuilen 2006). For barnacle recruitment, we used a negative binomial error distribution for 320 analysis. We modeled species richness using a Poisson distribution with a log link. We chose to 321 analyze the Shannon diversity of the algal and invertebrate communities using a Tweedie and 322 Gaussian error distribution, respectively.

We analyzed community diversity using the *vegan* package (version 2.5–7; Okansen et al., 2020). Prior to PERMANOVA and PERMDISP analyses, we first used constrained ordination to visualize the data using the *capscale* function with default settings and 999 random starts. We ran PERMANOVA analyses using the *adonis2* function with constrained permutations within blocks. For PERMDISP analysis, we used the *betadisper* function and allowed bias adjustment to account for small sample sizes.



334 **Results**

335

336 Barnacle mortality surveys

337 Following the heat dome, we sought to determine what factors, both across and within 338 sites, affected the mortality of S. cariosus in response to extreme thermal stress. The mortality of 339 S. cariosus was not significantly explained by air temperature, the timing of the low tide, 340 transect-level shoreline orientation relative to the solar azimuth, algal cover, or the interaction of 341 these variables (Table S8). Although the coarse-scale orientation of shorelines was not related to 342 patterns of mortality, finer-scale orientation was. At the plot-scale, the angle of solar incidence 343 (ASI) had an inverse relationship with mortality following a logistic pattern. That is, a smaller 344 ASI (more direct sunlight) tended to correspond with higher barnacle mortality, while a larger ASI (less direct sunlight) was associated with lower mortality (Fig. 3; Type II ANCOVA: $\chi^2 =$ 345 346 5.899, df = 1, P = 0.01515).

347

348 Shading experiment

349 Using a shading experiment, we characterized how thermal stress and community 350 successional stage (the presence or absence of barnacle beds) affected S. cariosus survival, 351 barnacle recruitment, and the diversity of the community associated with S. cariosus. 352 Temperature differences between treatments were most pronounced during fortnightly spring 353 tides, and the heat dome coincided with some of the lowest daytime tides of the summer (Fig. 354 4a). During the heat dome at low tide, the mean substratum temperature in shaded plots was 6.1 355 ± 0.7 °C (mean \pm SE) lower than in unshaded plots. Even so, during this period, shaded plots 356 (mean temperature = 23.3 ± 0.5 °C) were still warmer during the heat dome than were unshaded 357 plots during the rest of the summer (mean temperature = 19.9 ± 0.1 °C). The mean maximum 358 daily substratum temperature recorded during low tide over the entire experimental period was 359 5.0 ± 0.9 °C lower on average in shaded versus unshaded plots, a significant difference (Fig. 4a– 360 b, Fig. S5; Type II ANOVA: $\chi^2 = 207.4$, df = 1, *P* < 0.001). Conditions were warmer in plots

361 where barnacles were removed ($\chi^2 = 6.766$, df = 1, *P* = 0.00929).

362 Semibalanus cariosus mortality was substantially higher in unshaded plots than shaded plots (Fig. 4c; Type II ANOVA: $\chi^2 = 65.53$, df = 1, P < 0.001). Barnacle recruitment (summed 363 364 across all three species present: S. cariosus; Balanus glandula; and Chthamalus dalli) was lower in unshaded plots (Fig. 4d; Type II ANOVA: $\chi^2 = 11.53$, df = 1, P < 0.001). Communities in 365 unshaded plots had lower species richness at the end of the summer than those in shaded plots 366 367 when barnacles were absent, but the presence of barnacles ameliorated the effect of high temperatures (Fig. 4e; Type III ANOVA: shading × removal, $\chi^2 = 4.538$, df = 1, P = 0.0332). A 368 similar pattern was found when considering the Shannon diversity of invertebrate communities, 369 370 which was high when barnacles, shade, or both were present, but low when both were absent (Fig. 4f; Type III ANOVA: shading × removal, $\chi^2 = 12.23$, df = 1, P < 0.001). The cover and 371 Shannon diversity of the algal community were generally low. While these measurements tended 372 373 to be slightly higher where barnacles were present at the end of the summer, no effect of shading 374 or barnacle removal treatments on algal cover or diversity was statistically supported (Fig. S6a; 375 Supplement 2).

Within destructively sampled barnacle bed samples at the end of the shading experiment, the composition of the associated community differed between shaded and unshaded plots (Fig. 5; PERMANOVA: $F_{1,16} = 5.1284$, $R^2 = 0.2427$, P = 0.0469). Communities were more heterogeneous (had higher beta diversity) in unshaded than in shaded communities (PERMDISP:

F_{1,16} = 9.3662, P = 0.00747). Results were similar when we removed rare species from the analysis (see Fig. S7 for details). In unshaded plots, the abundance, richness, and diversity of taxa present within *S. cariosus* beds tended to be negatively related to barnacle mortality (Fig. S8), but only the relationship between invertebrate abundance and barnacle mortality was statistically significant (Type I ANOVA: residual deviance = 7.9952, df = 7, P = 0.00873; Supplement 2).

386

387 **Discussion**

388 Through our study, we addressed the following questions: What diversity of species does 389 S. cariosus facilitate? What environmental factors affected the mortality of S. cariosus during the 390 heat dome? Was the facilitatory role of S. cariosus strengthened or weakened under substantial 391 thermal stress? We found that S. cariosus facilitates a speciose and diverse community across a 392 regional gradient of temperature and wave exposure, though the exact composition of the 393 community varied among sites. Semibalanus cariosus mortality caused by the heat dome was 394 extremely variable, ranging from 0–100% at the quadrat level. Contrary to our expectations, we 395 found that mortality was not explained well by any of the site- or transect-level factors 396 considered, algal cover, or the interaction of these factors. However, at the quadrat level, 397 Semibalanus cariosus beds on gently sloping substrata facing the sun during the hottest portion 398 of the low tide had greater mortality than those on surfaces angled more obliquely to incoming 399 solar radiation (e.g., steeply sloping and/or northeast facing surfaces). Experimental shading, 400 which lowered the substratum temperature, was associated with higher S. cariosus survival and 401 barnacle recruitment but had no apparent effect on algal communities. The presence of both 402 barnacles and shade had an interactive effect on species richness and invertebrate Shannon

403 diversity, indicating that facilitation by barnacles is stronger under stressful conditions. 404 Unshaded barnacle beds hosted a significantly different invertebrate assemblage at the end of the 405 summer than did shaded plots, which we expected, though beta diversity in unshaded beds was 406 greater, not less, than in shaded plots. 407 The diversity of species we observed within S. cariosus beds across the distribution 408 surveyed is consistent with the limited data available for this species. Semibalanus cariosus beds 409 in Barkley Sound, BC (location of site PP in Fig. 1) are known to facilitate minute clams (Lasaea 410 rubra) and juvenile mussels (Mytilus californianus) in the same abundance as do M. 411 *californianus* beds, providing prey as well as protection for juvenile *Nucella ostrina* whelks 412 (Gosselin & Chia, 1995). We found these same three species within S. cariosus beds during our 413 study, with M. californianus and L. rubra present in high abundances at West Beach (Calvert 414 Island) and Prasiola Point (Barkley Sound), the most wave-exposed sites. Across all sites, we 415 documented 50 unique taxa, some of which most likely included multiple species (e.g., Nereidae, 416 Amphipoda). Semibalanus cariosus beds collected at Calvert Island in 2017 contained 52 417 identified species (Harley, unpublished data), comparable to our findings here. Notably, the 418 assemblages sampled in our study differed in their composition between sites. Previous studies 419 of mussel beds have found that meiofauna community composition varies regionally, probably 420 driven by differences in the richness of the local species pool or in the substratum underlying the 421 biogenic habitat (Buschbaum et al., 2009). Interestingly, peak Shannon diversity coincided with 422 an intermediate level of wave exposure, consistent with the intermediate disturbance hypothesis 423 (Connell, 1978). As wave stress was not formally quantified and sample sizes were small for 424 these surveys, we cannot definitively ascribe this qualitative pattern to wave exposure alone. In 425 any case, certain species may have been abundant in some locations and not others depending on

their species-specific tolerances to abiotic stressors, since complex environmental and ecological
gradients are present over the geographic gradient sampled (Harley, 2011; Ianson et al., 2016;
Widdowson, 1965).

429 For intertidal species that are in close contact with the substratum, body temperature is 430 tightly coupled to substratum temperature (Helmuth, 1998; LaScala-Gruenewald & Denny, 431 2020). Thus, we would expect the body temperature of S. cariosus, and thus its survival, to be 432 affected by air temperature, prevailing shore orientation, and the timing of the low tide. For 433 example, even if aerial temperatures are high, low daily maximum substratum temperatures are 434 measured if low tides occur during evening or morning, while the highest maximum substratum 435 temperatures are observed only if low tides occur during the afternoon (Hayford et al., 2015). 436 East-facing shores are often warmer than equatorward-facing shores if low tides occur during the 437 morning, but if the low tide occurs during the afternoon, the reverse is true (Gilman et al., 2015). 438 However, none of these factors — nor their interactions — explained S. cariosus mortality well 439 in this study. The lack of significant effects may have occurred due to the lack of resolution for 440 these variables. Air temperatures were collected from the most proximate weather station to each 441 site, but more inland weather stations may not accurately reflect coastal temperatures. Here, too, 442 shore orientation was measured at the level of each transect, but this technique did not capture 443 small-scale topographic differences between quadrats in a transect.

While we expected algal cover to increase the survival of underlying barnacles via shading and evaporative cooling, cover had no significant effect on mortality. *Fucus distichus* — the dominant canopy-forming alga in this study — can decrease mid-intertidal invertebrate body temperatures by 2.3 °C on average and reduce the incidence at which lethal temperatures are recorded relative to adjacent sun-exposed areas (Gilman et al., 2015). The reduction in

449 temperature and desiccation stress provided by both subcanopy and canopy-forming algal 450 species has been implicated in increased barnacle survival (Dayton, 1971; Hawkins, 1983; 451 Leonard, 2000) and increased invertebrate abundance (Umanzor et al., 2017) and alpha diversity 452 (Lilley & Schiel, 2006) in the underlying community. Algal cover may have been too low in our study to provide adequate thermal and desiccation protection (e.g., Hay, 1981). Perhaps what 453 454 thermal protection algae did provide could not be sustained during the acute, prolonged thermal 455 stress of the heat dome as has been found for other algal facilitations under high levels of 456 environmental stress (Navarro-Barranco et al., 2022; Scrosati, 2017). Further, the exact 457 composition of algal species differed between sites and was not quantified; different species, by 458 virtue of their morphology, may vary in the extent to which they retain moisture and provide 459 thermal protection to underlying organisms. Canopy algae can also reduce the survival of small 460 barnacles through algal whiplash (Hancock & Petraitis, 2001; Hawkins, 1983; Jenkins et al., 461 1999), though the large size of the S. cariosus studied likely minimized this negative effect. 462 While across-site factors did not explain S. cariosus mortality, small-scale topographic 463 differences did. Previous studies have found that substratum temperature, which closely tracks 464 the body temperature of barnacles (Harley & Lopez, 2003), is highly correlated with the ASI at 465 the substratum surface (Harley, 2008). At temperate latitudes, equatorward-facing shores 466 experience both higher mean temperatures and more frequent extreme high temperatures than 467 poleward-facing shores (Amstutz et al., 2021). Similarly, in the northeast Pacific, the body 468 temperature of whelk biomimetics on sun-exposed south-facing shores were 2.8 °C hotter than 469 those on similarly sun-exposed east-facing shores (Gilman et al., 2015). These temperature 470 differences may translate to patterns in organismal mortality and distribution. Smaller values of 471 ASI have been linked to higher rates of mussel mortality and localized decreases in limpet

472 abundance, with both trends following a roughly logistic pattern (Harley, 2008). Similarly, the 473 upper limit of limpet distribution on shore was highest on poleward-facing shores (high ASI) and 474 lowest on shores facing towards the solar azimuth (low ASI; Miller et al., 2009). Despite an 475 overall significant relationship between ASI and mortality, the exact shape of this relationship 476 differed between sites, which may be due to site-level differences in the timing of low tides 477 during the heat dome, wave exposure, or other factors not captured by the underlying model. 478 In our shading experiment, which we conducted on a predominantly southwest-facing 479 shore with a low ASI, shades reduced substratum temperature by several degrees, which 480 generally benefited the underlying barnacle-associated community. Shading treatments, while 481 they reduce thermal stress, cannot be disentangled from a concurrent reduction in desiccation 482 stress and incoming light (Harley & Lopez, 2003; Morelissen & Harley, 2007). Thus, the effects

of shading cannot be wholly assigned to temperature differences for species that are strongly 484 influenced by desiccation and light availability (e.g., seaweeds). For heterotrophs that can resist 485 desiccation, including many shelled invertebrates such as barnacles, temperature would likely be 486 the most important environmental difference between shaded and unshaded areas. Barnacles

483

487 within shaded beds had lower mortality after exposure to hot summer temperatures than those in 488 unshaded control plots in our study, a pattern that has been documented by others (Levine et al.,

489 1999; Wethey, 1984). This mortality difference was likely driven by differences in the level of

490 physiological stress encountered in unshaded versus shaded plots. The upper limit of the

491 congener Semibalanus balanoides within the intertidal zone is known to be set by intolerance of

492 thermal and desiccation stress (Connell, 1961; Wethey, 1984). Mussels in sun-exposed areas,

493 even though they are better acclimated to withstand thermal stress, are still more likely to

494 experience lethal temperatures that exceed their critical upper limit of cardiac function than those

495 in shaded areas, resulting in higher mortality in sun versus shade (Li et al., 2021). Barnacle 496 recruitment was more successful in shaded plots, consistent with previous studies (Pardal-Souza 497 et al., 2017). Here, we found that the presence of barnacles had a small but significant effect in 498 reducing the maximum substratum temperature. Barnacles are known to reduce heat and 499 desiccation stress where present by providing shade (Cartwright & Williams, 2014) and 500 increasing moisture retention (Harley & O'Riley, 2011), enhancing community diversity in the 501 face of thermal stress (e.g., Kordas et al., 2018). Where shades were absent during the heat dome 502 and substratum temperatures were high, barnacles beds hosted similar species richness and 503 invertebrate Shannon diversity to shaded plots. The facilitatory role of barnacles was thus 504 stronger in the face of thermal stress, reducing the effect of heat on the barnacle-associated 505 community. However, we detected no effects of shading or barnacle presence on algal cover or 506 diversity, consistent with prior observations of macroalgal cover in response to shading 507 (Morelissen & Harley, 2007). Even if thermal stress is lower beneath shades, low light may have 508 limited algal growth (Pardal-Souza et al., 2017), preventing the benefit of reduced temperatures 509 from becoming apparent. High intertidal acorn barnacles tend to facilitate a greater abundance of 510 fleshy macroalgae in the northeast Pacific (Hesketh et al., 2021), so an effect of barnacle removal 511 on algae may also have been observed with a longer experiment. Further, the generally low 512 prevalence of algae in terms of both cover (0-20 % cover) and diversity (six species present) at 513 this site may have prevented the detection of any treatment effects. 514 Within destructively sampled barnacle beds, shading treatments altered the invertebrate 515 communities associated with S. cariosus, which may have been driven by differences in abiotic

tolerance between taxa, changes in the microhabitats available, or both. Shifts in community

517 composition in response to heatwaves have been documented in various systems and appear to

518 be mediated by species-specific responses to thermal stress (De Boeck et al., 2018; Pansch et al., 519 2018; Sorte et al., 2010; Tituskin et al., 2021). We observed that taxa dominating unshaded plots 520 at the end of summer were typically motile, small, and more thermally tolerant (e.g., littorine 521 snails, limpets, amphipods, isopods), while taxa in shaded plots were typically less motile, larger, 522 and/or less thermally tolerant (e.g., sea cucumbers, anemones, chitons, whelks). Highly motile 523 species, such as those dominating unshaded barnacle beds here, can more easily escape to 524 thermal refugia during stressful periods and/or recolonize following a disturbance, and thus may 525 be expected to re-establish in perturbed systems more quickly than less motile species following 526 a heatwave (Harvey et al., 2022). Larger organisms are less tolerant of short-term thermal stress 527 than smaller organisms (Peralta-Maraver et al., 2021), and calcified structures such as the shells 528 of high intertidal gastropods (e.g., family Littorinidae) confer protection against thermal and 529 desiccation stress (Vermeij, 1978). Thus, we might expect small, calcified invertebrates to be 530 more tolerant of heatwaves, which may explain the divergence in taxonomic assemblages 531 between shaded and unshaded barnacle beds following the heat dome. As S. cariosus mortality 532 increased in unshaded plots, the abundance of invertebrate taxa within destructively sampled 533 beds declined significantly. Similar effects were observed on invertebrate species richness and 534 Shannon diversity, but these lacked statistically significance, possibly due to the low sample size, 535 and thus low power, of this experiment. Other intertidal biogenic species have been found to 536 maintain their facilitative ability beyond the point of death, though sometimes the identity of 537 species associated with the biogenic habitat changes (Liversage et al., 2020; McAfee & Bishop, 538 2019; Uyà et al., 2020). Empty barnacle tests form important microhabitats for intertidal 539 organisms (Barnes, 2000) and may thus continue to facilitate communities of organisms adapted 540 to empty tests after barnacle death. While unshaded S. cariosus beds had higher beta diversity

than shaded beds, likely reflecting the stochastic nature of community assembly following
heatwave disturbances (Kreyling et al., 2011), empty barnacle tests are ultimately an ephemeral
habitat at higher risk of dislodgement than live barnacles (Reimer, 1976). As dead barnacles are
removed from shore, the effects of subsequent heatwaves may be greater due to the absence of
moisture-retaining foundation species.

546 Overall, our results suggest that heatwave-induced mortality of foundation species may be somewhat predictable at certain scales. The patchy mortality of S. cariosus was largely 547 548 explained by small-scale differences in intertidal topography. Barnacle beds on substrata that are 549 shaded or receive only oblique solar irradiance will likely be able to persist through future 550 heatwaves and continue to facilitate a diverse community, while populations on shores where 551 irradiance is high will be increasingly impacted, along with the species they facilitate. 552 Semibalanus cariosus that survived the heat dome were clearly able to acclimate to extreme 553 temperatures through physiological means (e.g., Muir et al., 2016), but the energetic costs 554 associated with this acclimation may have had sublethal effects on fitness (e.g., reduced 555 fecundity; Curd et al., 2022) not measured here. The ability of S. cariosus to adapt to increased 556 thermal stress is unknown, but given that aquatic invertebrates at mid-latitudes generally 557 demonstrate acclimation capacity to warm conditions (Morley et al., 2019) and that the 558 generation time of barnacles is relatively short, limited adaptation may be possible. Prediction of 559 mortality risk from heatwaves remains difficult given that this risk is affected not only by the 560 constitutive thermal tolerance of organisms, but also their degree of induced defense (e.g., 561 through production of heat shock proteins; Denny, 2018) and the duration (Peralta-Maraver et 562 al., 2021) and frequency (Siegle et al., 2018) of heatwaves. The Salish Sea region of BC is a 563 known "hot spot" (Helmuth et al., 2002), and thus S. cariosus in the study region may already be

564 close to the limits of their adaptive capacity. Further, S. cariosus, while its generation time may 565 be short, is at high risk of predation by whelks (*Nucella* spp.) until the age of two (Connell, 566 1972), and grows slowly thereafter (Sebens & Lewis, 1985); thus, it is unclear whether mature S. 567 cariosus beds can re-establish if repeated heatwaves occur in close succession. 568 While habitat provision by biogenic species remains an important mechanism by which 569 the environmental stress experienced by associated species can be mitigated (Jurgens et al., 570 2021; Jurgens & Gaylord, 2018), there may be an upper limit to the stress under which such 571 facilitations can occur (Navarro-Barranco et al., 2022; Scrosati, 2017). Extreme heatwaves like 572 the 2021 Western North American Heat Dome will only occur more frequently through time 573 (Perkins-Kirkpatrick & Lewis, 2020), and events of this magnitude may prove lethal for 574 foundation species or disrupt their ability to facilitate associated organisms. In order to assess the 575 potential benefit that facilitative interactions will provide to ecological communities in the 576 future, we must characterize not only the thermal tolerances of important foundation species 577 under single and repeated heatwaves of varying magnitudes, but also determine the thresholds 578 beyond which facilitative interactions collapse. Our results highlight the importance of 579 consistently monitoring populations of foundation species to capture the full effects of extreme 580 events and conserving foundation species, which may be critical to conserving biodiversity in the 581 face of climate change.

582

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Figure 1. Map of sites surveyed along the coast of British Columbia, Canada. Symbols associated with each site indicate which data were collected at that site (A = substratum angle/orientation, C = community, M = mortality), and symbol color is used to visually distinguish between sites. Note that not all data were collected at all sites. (a) Inset map of sites along the Strait of Juan de Fuca. (b) Inset map of sites on Calvert Island. (c) Inset map of sites on the south coast of Vancouver Island and in the Strait of Georgia region; note that site SA is the location at which the shading experiment was conducted. See Table S1 for site details.

928 Figure 2. (a) Taxonomic richness of invertebrate assemblages removed from 15×15 cm samples 929 of S. cariosus beds collected at sites along the west coast of British Columbia (see Table S1 for 930 site codes and locations; n=5 for all sites except WBS, where n=8). Note that collection sites are 931 arranged along the x-axis from the outer coast of BC (WBS; most exposed) to the Strait of 932 Georgia (TK; least exposed) going from left to right. (b) Shannon diversity of invertebrates from 933 the same samples. (c) Mean abundance of invertebrates counted within the same samples, with 934 colours corresponding to coarse taxonomic groupings. (d) Visual example of community 935 removed from one S. cariosus sample.

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Figure 3. The effect of the angle of solar incidence (ASI; direct sun = 0°) on the proportional mortality of *S. cariosus* within 12.7×12.7 cm quadrats (N =152). Thin coloured lines represent site-specific relationships, while the central black trendline represents values predicted by the generalized linear model when the site-level random effect is removed. The shaded ribbon about the best-fit line represents standard error.

943	Figure 4. (a) Mean daily maximum substratum temperature over time for each treatment
944	recorded by iButton temperature loggers. The grey box indicates the period of the heat dome
945	(25–29 June 2021). (b) Hourly temperature during the heat dome for each treatment. (c) The
946	effect of shading treatment on the mortality of adult S. cariosus in intact barnacle beds as
947	recorded on 21 August 2021 (n=12 for UI, n=10 for SI). (d) The effect of shading treatment on
948	the recruitment of barnacles (S. cariosus, B. glandula, and C. dalli) to barnacle removal plots
949	when recruits were most abundant (8 July 2021; n=12). (e) Differences in the overall species
950	richness of communities for each treatment group including both invertebrate and algal taxa at
951	the end of the experiment (21 August 2021; n=12). (f) Differences in the Shannon diversity of
952	invertebrate taxa between treatment groups at the end of the experiment (21 August 2021; n=12).
953	For treatment codes, U=unshaded plot, S=shaded plot, I=intact barnacle bed, R=removed
954	barnacle bed.

Figure 5. Two-dimensional capscale plot showing differences in associated community
composition between shaded and unshaded *S. cariosus* barnacle beds at Sahsima, Victoria,
British Columbia at the end of summer shading experiment (n=8). We collected all samples on
21 August 2021. Overlaid photos demonstrate stark visual differences in survival between an
unshaded (left) and shaded barnacle bed (right).