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1 **Radular tooth coating in members of Dendronotidae and Flabellinidae (Nudibranchia, Gastropoda,**
2 **Mollusca)**

3
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17
18 **Abstract**

19 Nudibranchs, with their mesmerizing diversity and ecological significance, play crucial roles in marine
20 ecosystems. Central to their feeding prowess is the radula, a chitinous structure with diverse
21 morphologies adapted to prey preferences and feeding strategies. This study focuses on elucidating
22 wear coping mechanisms in radular teeth of carnivorous molluscs, employing *Dendronotus lacteus*
23 (*Dendronotidae*) and *Flabellina affinis* (*Flabellinidae*) as model species. Both species forage on
24 hydrozoans. Through scanning electron microscopy, confocal laser scanning microscopy,
25 nanoindentation, and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, the biomechanical and compositional
26 properties of their teeth were analysed. Results revealed distinct autofluorescence patterns and
27 elemental compositions correlating with mechanical properties. Notably, tooth coatings, composed of
28 calcium and silicon and high hardness and stiffness compared to the inner tooth structure, with varying
29 mineral contents across tooth regions and ontogenetic zones, were found. The findings suggest that
30 tooth mechanical properties are intricately linked to species ecology and function, with teeth adapted
31 to prey type and feeding behaviors. Moreover, the presence of Ca and Si in the tooth coating highlight
32 their role in enhancing wear resistance. Overall, this study provides valuable insights into the
33 biomechanical adaptations of nudibranch radular teeth, shedding light on the intricate interplay
34 between tooth structure, elemental composition, and ecological function in marine molluscs.

35
36 **Keywords**

37 Molluscs, elemental composition, biomineralization, feeding, mechanical properties

38
39 **Introduction**

40 Nudibranchs, a captivating group of marine gastropod mollusks, have long time fascinated scientists
41 and enthusiasts alike due to their striking diversity in morphology, behavior, and ecological roles. With
42 over 3,000 described species, nudibranchs exhibit an astonishing array of colours, shapes, and
43 patterns, making them iconic inhabitants of marine ecosystems worldwide. Beyond their aesthetic
44 appeal, nudibranchs play vital roles in marine food webs and ecosystem dynamics, largely driven by
45 their diverse feeding ecology [e.g., 1].

46 Their feeding habits encompass a broad spectrum, including herbivory, carnivory, scavenging, and
47 symbiosis with photosynthetic organisms [e.g., 2–12]. By targeting various prey items, such as sponges,
48 bryozoans, tunicates, cnidarians, nudibranchs occupy diverse ecological niches and play crucial roles
49 in controlling prey populations and shaping benthic communities. Furthermore, nudibranchs have
50 evolved fascinating mechanisms for obtaining and processing food, ranging from specialized radular
51 structures to chemical defenses derived from ingested prey. Understanding nudibranch diversity and

52 feeding ecology not only sheds light on the intricacies of marine ecosystems, but also underscores the
53 importance of conserving these fascinating creatures and their habitats.

54

55 Food gathering is mainly performed by the radula, a characteristic feature of molluscs, consisting of a
56 chitinous membrane, in which rows of teeth are embedded. These teeth display adaptations in
57 morphology and arrangement based on the preferred ingesta (i.e., food, prey items, particles on the
58 food, substrate to which the food is attached, etc.), as evidenced in various studies [13–24]. The radula
59 is comprised of tightly packed chitin fibres and associated proteins, which extend from the membrane
60 to the tooth base, stylus, and ultimately to the cusps [25, 26]. Across different molluscan species, the
61 membrane and teeth may be accompanied by odontophoral cartilages on either side, facilitating the
62 bending of the radula, which leads to a certain 3-dimensional tooth arrangement. In addition, the
63 radula is supported by cartilages of different sizes and shapes depending on the species. Muscles
64 associated with feeding movements control the radula, allowing for precise and coordinated feeding
65 actions. Food particles are then retained by adhesive forces of the saliva [27]. In some taxa, the radula
66 co-operates with chitinous plates, the jaws, which reinforce the foregut and act as a counterpart to
67 the radula to cut and hold the ingesta.

68

69 During feeding activities, like piercing or scratching, radular teeth must transfer high forces onto hard
70 target surfaces, leading to strong stress concentrations, without experiencing significant structural
71 failure. This is facilitated by tooth morphology, such as providing broad and thick cusps during
72 scratching actions, or by mechanical property gradients along the tooth structure, typically with the
73 cusp or tip being the stiffest region and the embedment in the membrane being the most flexible
74 region [e.g., 17,28–44]. This arrangement increases strain at the base, reducing stress values at the
75 tooth tip, when interacting with food, while simultaneously allowing for bending or swerving, when
76 stress becomes too high. Furthermore, in certain taxa, this bending enables teeth from adjacent rows
77 to interlock [17,45,46], distributing stress across multiple teeth, a phenomenon recently studied
78 experimentally and termed the "collective effect" [20,37,47]. Mechanical property gradients,
79 facilitating this biomechanical behavior, can stem from various factors, including tooth morphology
80 (e.g., ratio of its width to its height), distribution of inorganic compounds (more minerals at the cusp)
81 [e.g., 30–32,37,48–55], distribution of proteins, degree of tanning and cross-linking of chitin [34,37–
82 40,56–58], chitin fiber density [26], and water content of teeth and radular membrane [20,37,47].
83 Finally, radular supporting structures like odontophoral cartilages and radular bolsters [e.g., 59–61]
84 appear to support the radular membrane and reduce stress concentration by acting as a cushion or
85 muscular hydrostat [22,62–66].

86

87 Teeth and membrane are continuously produced in the building zone or the radular sac, undergoing
88 maturation during their course towards the radular working zone [see e.g., 12,67–69], where they
89 directly act onto the ingesta. Over time, the utilized teeth are shed in the degenerative zone. Despite
90 the constant renewal of the radula, certain wear coping mechanisms aim at reducing wear and
91 structural failure. In members of Polyplacophora [30,37,49–51,53–55], Cephalopoda [44], and
92 members of the gastropod groups Patellogastropoda [e.g. 31,32,48,52], Paludomidae [26,70],
93 Cephalaspidea [39], and some Nudibranchia [40], this involves the incorporation of elevated levels of
94 iron (Fe), calcium (Ca), or silicon (Si) into the superficial regions of teeth that interact with ingesta. This
95 results in harder tooth cusps capable of withstanding hard and abrasive ingesta, like Porifera spiculae,
96 crustacean carapaces, Foraminifera, or algae attached to stone surfaces. In Polyplacophora and
97 Patellogastropoda, the tooth cusps of the dominant teeth are filled with such incorporations, whereas
98 in the examined cephalopod, paludomid, heterobranch and nudibranch taxa, only a thin outer layer
99 with high concentrations of Ca or Si is present on the tooth cusps, which seems to reduce abrasion.
100 Despite of these studies, wear coping mechanisms are, however, understudied.

101

102 In this study, we elucidate wear coping mechanisms in radular teeth of two members of the
103 Nudibranchia. As model species, we used *Dendronotus lacteus* (Thompson, 1840) (Dendronotidae),
104 and *Flabellina affinis* (Gmelin, 1791) (Flabellinidae), both primarily feeding on hydrozoans [71,72]. With
105 regards to radular teeth, taxa from these genera were previously investigated in the context of radular
106 formation [67,69], the fine morphology of the radular apparatus [73], and trophic specialisation [74].
107 Biomechanical and compositional properties of the teeth of both species are here assessed using a
108 variety of methodological approaches, including scanning electron microscopy (SEM), confocal laser
109 scanning microscopy (CLSM), nanoindentation, and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX, EDS).
110 To determine, how well the coating is bound in the chitin-protein composite material of teeth and how
111 the reduction in Ca and Si content might affect the material properties of the coating, some *D. lacteus*
112 radulae were treated with acid and then tested. Based on the findings, a hypothesis about the
113 interaction between ingesta and radular teeth was formulated.

114

115 **Results**

116 *Morphology and wear of teeth nanostructure*

117 By SEM examination, we observed that the *Dendronotus lacteus* specimen typically possess
118 approximately 6–8 lateral teeth per row on each side of the prominent central tooth. Lateral teeth are
119 very often smooth. The central rhachidian tooth shows small denticles (Figure 3). *Flabellina affinis*
120 possess one prominent central tooth, flanked to each side by one large lateral tooth (Figure 4). The
121 central teeth bear strong denticles and the lateral ones pointy ones. In both species, the inner tooth
122 structure was fibrous (Figure 3H). The tooth surface towards the membrane was covered by an
123 extremely thin smooth outer layer, measuring no more than 100 to 200 nm in thickness, and devoid
124 of fibres (Figure 3G, only *D. lacteus* depicted). Conversely, the tooth surface towards the membrane
125 was rather smooth and fibrous (Figure 3E).

126

127 *Autofluorescence signals*

128 In both species, mature teeth displayed a consistent autofluorescence pattern. In the natural radulae
129 from *D. lacteus*, teeth predominantly emitted a vibrant green signal (Figure 5A). At the tips of the
130 central teeth and the central sides of the lateral teeth, the areas emitted blue autofluorescence. In the
131 demineralized radulae of *D. lacteus*, which were documented with the same settings as the natural
132 radulae, the central tooth tips emitted fewer blue autofluorescence (Figure 5B). In the central teeth of
133 *F. affinis*, the tips and the cusps to the oral cavity emitted a blue signal, while the tips and the cusps to
134 the membrane displayed a prominent green fluorescence (Figure 5C). In the lateral teeth, the blue and
135 green signals are rather mixed.

136

137 *Mechanical properties*

138 The Young's modulus (E) delineates the stiffness of a solid material and signifies the relationship
139 between tensile stress and axial strain. This mechanical parameter reflects the material's capacity to
140 transmit force and withstand failure. The hardness (H) is the measure of the resistance to local plastic
141 deformation induced by indentation or abrasion.

142

143 In the case of *D. lacteus* and *F. affinis*, all radulae displayed a notably strong positive correlation
144 between E and H ($r = 0.94\text{--}1.00$, $p < 0.0001^*$; see Supplementary Tables 1–10). *D. lacteus* and *F. affinis*
145 possessed teeth with similar E and H values (see Figure 6 and Supplementary Tables 11–12 for means
146 and standard deviations). In both species, E and H values increased during ontogeny from the building
147 zone to the maturation zone (Figure 6; Supplementary Tables 11–12). From the maturation zone to
148 the working zone, however, mean values decreased.

149 In each species, the central teeth were harder and stiffer than the lateral ones. Upon comparing the
150 inner structures of the central and lateral teeth, similar H and E values were observed for both species
151 (Figure 6; Supplementary Tables 11–12). The coating of the teeth was always highly significantly harder
152 and stiffer than the inner tooth material with regard to both parameters in all ontogenetic zones

153 (Figure 6). With regard to the tooth coating of the central teeth in *D. lacteus*, the tip was highly
154 significantly harder and stiffer than the cusp in both the building and working zone. In the maturation
155 zone of this species, tip and cusp were not different. In *F. affinis*, the coating of the tip and the cusp of
156 the central tooth were not different in the maturation and working zone, but were highly significantly
157 softer and more flexible in the building zone (Figure 6). With regard to the coatings of the lateral teeth,
158 the central sides in the working zones were always significantly harder and stiffer than their lateral
159 sides. In the maturation zone, most central sides were significantly harder and stiffer than the lateral
160 ones. In the building zone, the mechanical properties of the sides were rather similar and did not show
161 many differences. The coatings of the tips were, in the mature teeth, harder and stiffer, followed by
162 the coatings of the styli and the bases (Figure 6).

163 The teeth in partially demineralized radulae were softer and more flexible than those of the natural
164 radulae (see Figure 7 and Supplementary Table 11 for means and standard deviations).

165

166 *Elemental composition*

167 The elemental compositions of the inner tooth structure and the tooth coatings were assessed using
168 EDX, which is, however, not capable to determine the bounding conditions of the elements. We found
169 for both species, that most elements (Cl, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, P+Pt, S, and Zn) were present in small
170 proportions (<1 atomic %) (see Figure 8 and Supplementary Tables 13–16 for means and standard
171 deviations). With regard to Ca and Si, their contents in the inner tooth structure were also <1 atomic
172 %. However, they were significantly higher in the coating (up to 12 atomic %, depending on the region)
173 (Figure 8; Supplementary Tables 13–16). This was observed in both species.

174 The Ca content of the central teeth was highest in the tooth tip coating, whereas the Si content was
175 highest in the cusp coating (Figure 9; Supplementary Tables 13–16). In the lateral teeth, the coatings
176 of the central sides contained more Ca, whereas the coatings of the lateral sides contained significantly
177 more Si.

178 When Ca and Si were sorted to orientation of the teeth, the tooth coatings towards the membrane
179 always contained significantly less Si and Ca than the tooth coatings towards the oral cavity (Figure 10;
180 Supplementary Tables 13–16).

181 Content of the elements increased from the building zone to the maturation zone, but from the
182 maturation to the working zone most mean values decreased (Figures 8–10).

183 Demineralization of the radulae resulted in lesser amounts of the discussed elements (see Figure 11
184 and Supplementary Tables 13–14 for means and standard deviations).

185

186 *Relationship between autofluorescence, elemental composition and mechanical properties*

187 Our analysis revealed strong to very strong positive correlations between the values of the Young's
188 modulus E and the hardness H with the content of calcium (Ca), silicon (Si), and the sum of Ca and Si
189 (see Figure 12 for relationship and Supplementary Tables 1–10 for correlation coefficients). This
190 relationship was also detectable in the partially demineralized radulae.

191

192 **Discussion**

193 This is the first time that two individuals of the nudibranch taxon Cladobranchia are investigated.
194 *Dendronotus lacteus* (Dendronotidae) is a member of the Dendronotida, a group known to mainly feed
195 on hydrozoan species, especially members of the Thecata. *Flabellina affinis* (Flabellinidae) belongs to
196 the Aeolidida, where most members are feeding on athecate members of the Hydrozoa.

197

198 *Properties of the tooth material*

199 The mechanical characteristics of materials play a pivotal role in shaping the mechanical behavior of
200 biological structures. Young's modulus (E) is a measure of tensile or compressive stiffness, representing
201 a material's capacity to transfer force and the resistance to fail during e.g. puncturing [75–79; for
202 review on puncture mechanics see 80]. The hardness (H) on the other hand, quantifies the resistance
203 to local plastic deformation induced by indentation or abrasion. Given the diverse forces and types of

204 ingesta encountered during foraging [47,65,66,81–83], molluscan teeth exhibit different mechanical
205 properties that reflect their specific functions and ecological niches.

206

207 Functional gradients and variations in biological materials can arise from various factors such as the
208 structure's architecture, degree of tanning, and inorganic content [for review, see 84]. In chiton and
209 limpet radular teeth, these gradients are mostly influenced by the high mineral content [for reviews,
210 see 85–87], while in partially demineralized radular teeth, mechanical properties seem to be
211 influenced by chitin fiber architecture, the distribution of proteins and degree of tanning [26,38].

212

213 While our understanding of the mechanical properties of molluscan radular teeth still remains
214 incomplete, existing data suggest that E and H values, along with the presence or absence of gradients
215 within each tooth, are intricately linked to species ecology. Species feeding on soft ingesta (i.e., algae
216 grazed from soft substrates like sand or mud) typically possess softer and more flexible teeth (values
217 of the inner tooth structure: $E \leq 8$ GPa and $H \leq 1$ GPa) [43], capable of deforming to reduce the risk of
218 structural failure and facilitate particle gathering. Animals specialised on solid ingesta, as members of
219 the Polyplacophora, Fissurellidae, Patellogastropoda, and paludomid gastropods, foraging on algal
220 films covering rocks, or have some interactions with hard ingesta, as the nudibranch gastropods
221 *Felimare picta* and *Doris pseudoargus* feeding on Porifera with hard spiculae, the cephalaspidean
222 gastropod *Gastropteron rubrum* feeding on Foraminifera, or the cephalopod *Loligo vulgaris* piercing
223 crustacean carapaces have harder and stiffer teeth, better equipped to withstand higher forces
224 without failure.

225 The lateral teeth of the polyplacophoran *Cryptochiton stelleri* and *Lepidochitona cinerea* are nearly the
226 stiffest and hardest teeth described, with E values ranging from 30 to 130 GPa and H from 4 to 12 GPa.
227 High contents of inorganic components between the chitin fibres are responsible for the elevated
228 values [30,37,88]. Due to the abundant incorporation of silica, the dominant teeth of *Patella vulgata*
229 (Patellogastropoda) can even exceed these values (E : 52–150 GPa; H : 3–7 GPa) [31,32]. Partially
230 demineralized teeth, such as those found in the vetigastropod *Megathura crenulata* with a broad food
231 spectrum, exhibit greater flexibility. Here, the chitin fibres are cross-linked by Ca- and Mg-ions and lack
232 substantial mineral content (E of the inner tooth structure: 16 GPa) [34]. The teeth of Porifera-
233 consuming Nudibranchia and of the cephalopod *L. vulgaris*, which also have low inorganic content,
234 display similar E and H values (values of the inner tooth structure: nudibranchs *F. picta* and *D.*
235 *pseudoargus*: $E = \sim 5\text{--}15$ GPa, $H = \sim 0.1\text{--}0.9$ GPa [40]; of *L. vulgaris*: $E = 2\text{--}9$ GPa, $H = 0.07\text{--}0.38$ [44]).
236 Teeth of the cephalaspidean *G. rubrum* and some paludomid gastropods foraging on solid ingesta are also
237 softer and more flexible compared to members of the Polyplacophora and Patellogastropoda (values
238 of the inner tooth structure: *G. rubrum*: $H = \sim 0.1\text{--}1.0$ GPa and $E = \sim 1\text{--}17$ GPa [39]; paludomids: $H =$
239 ~ 0.4 GPa and $E = \sim 8$ GPa [35,36,38,43]). Despite their softer nature, however, these teeth can distribute
240 stress between rows, allowing them to withstand forces similar to highly mineralized teeth of
241 Polyplacophora ("collective effect" [20,22,37,47]).

242 The teeth of the here studied nudibranch species *Dendronotus lacteus* and *Flabellina affinis* contain
243 comparably low contents of Ca, Si, Zn, Cu, etc. in their inner structure. The values for E and H are
244 comparable to the values of the teeth of paludomids that feed on soft substrates. This can be explained
245 by the nature of the diet of the species studied here, which consists of relatively soft and flexible food
246 components. They feed mainly on hydrozoans, whose tissues show no calcification or further
247 mineralisation.

248

249 The mechanical properties are also related to the function of the radular teeth. Tooth morphologies
250 and mechanical properties may be similar or may vary within one row, which indicates that the teeth
251 on the radular membrane either have a similar function ("monofunctional" radula) or distinct functions
252 ("multifunctional" radula [40,43]). In certain molluscs, like Polyplacophora and limpets, the lateral
253 teeth (dominant teeth) differ significantly from the central and marginal ones [37]. These dominant
254 teeth irrespective of their position in the radular rows exhibit exceptional hardness and stiffness values

255 allowing them to reduce wear during interaction with rocks. The other teeth likely play a role in
256 gathering loosened food particles and transporting them into the mouth cavity. A similar pattern was
257 determined in paludomid gastropods foraging on solid ingesta, where the central teeth are the stiffest
258 and hardest elements, followed by the lateral, and finally the marginal teeth [35,36,38,43]. Their
259 central and lateral teeth probably loosen the algae from rocks, whereas the marginal teeth collect the
260 particles. In *G. rubrum*, the teeth also have different functions, with some teeth being primarily
261 responsible for grasping and holding the ingesta, while others have a supporting function as bolsters
262 [39]. In *Dendronotus lacteus* and *Flabellina affinis*, the mechanical properties of the central and lateral
263 teeth are similar, which indicates that the tooth materials have to withstand similar stresses. As the
264 central teeth are broader and have a larger attachment area with the membrane, these teeth are
265 probably capable of transferring higher forces onto the ingesta surface than the laterals. The prey item
266 is probably first grasped (and perhaps even cut) by the elongated free edges of the large jaws. Then,
267 the tips of the central teeth from the active radular region pierce and tear the prey, so that larger
268 pieces can be transported into the oral cavity during radular retraction. The lateral teeth, which are
269 longer and thinner, probably support this process by piercing or stabilizing the prey parts from the
270 sides.

271

272 *Coating*

273 Wear prevention has been extensively documented for Polyplacophora and Patellogastropoda teeth,
274 where high proportions of Fe and Si are incorporated into the thick interacting edges of the dominant
275 teeth (i.e. leading edges [see e.g., 30–32,48–55,89]). In almost unmineralized teeth of the nudibranch
276 gastropods *D. pseudoargus* and *F. picta*, some paludomids, the heterobranch gastropod *G. rubrum*,
277 and the cephalopod *L. vulgaris*, a similar wear-coping mechanism involving high proportions of Ca or
278 Si on the interacting surfaces has been observed [37,39,40,70]. In comparison to polyplacophoran and
279 patellogastropod teeth, which are fully packed with iron oxides or silica, these teeth possess, however,
280 only a thin superficial layer. This layer is significantly harder and stiffer than the inner tooth structure
281 (documented for *D. pseudoargus* and *F. picta*: $E_{\max.} = 45$ GPa and $H_{\max.} = 2.3$ GPa [40]), potentially
282 reducing abrasion during interactions with substrates. For *D. lacteus* and *F. affinis*, we documented a
283 thin superficial layer with high content of Ca and Si as well, which was also observed at fractures in
284 SEM images. This coating was especially prominent on the tooth surfaces, which were oriented
285 towards the oral cavity and thus have an intimate interaction with the ingesta. Interestingly, we
286 detected that Ca and Si were not evenly distributed across the tooth surface, but was distributed in a
287 clear pattern. It is possible that the cells that secrete the central side of the lateral tooth covering and
288 the central tooth tip surfaces provide more Ca, while the cells that secrete the lateral side of the lateral
289 tooth covering and the central tooth cusps tend to provide more Si. This, however, needs further
290 investigations. By nanoindentation we were able to determine the E and H values of the coating
291 towards the oral cavity, which were significantly higher than the values of the inner tooth structure.
292 The E and H values of the coating were, however, noticeably lower than the coating of the Porifera-
293 consuming nudibranchs *D. pseudoargus* and *F. picta*. These differences can be explained by the
294 different ingesta of the latter species. Teeth of *D. pseudoargus* and *F. picta* are more prone to wear,
295 as they can interact with the hard silicate spiculae of the sponges, whereas the cuticular parts of the
296 prey of *D. lacteus* and *F. affinis* are less abrasive. We determined that the central coating of the lateral
297 teeth is harder and stiffer than their lateral coating. During piercing, the central sides of the teeth
298 potentially have more frequent and more intimate interactions with the ingesta, which require a higher
299 degree of abrasion resistance.

300

301 To document the degree of tanning and the distribution of proteins, a method using laser excitation
302 by CLSM was previously established on arthropods [90], which revealed autofluorescence signals
303 relating to material composition [see e.g., 91]. In arthropods, the emitted autofluorescence signal
304 relates to the following composition: blue signals are related to high proportions of resilin or other
305 matrix proteins. Red signals are related to sclerotized cuticle and green signals to weakly-sclerotized

306 chitin. When, however, higher mineral content is present, the CLSM signal can be corrupted: blue
307 signals then can be related to high Ca content, as was shown for crustaceans [92–94] and the Porifera-
308 consuming nudibranch *D. pseudoargus* [40]. Green can indicate a high content of Si, as documented in
309 Porifera-consuming nudibranch *F. picta* [40], the heterobranch *G. rubrum* [39], and the cephalopod *L.*
310 *vulgaris* [44]. In the here studied species, we found, that the regions of the teeth emitting a strong blue
311 autofluorescence contain higher proportions of Ca in their coatings. The regions with high Si-content
312 in the tooth coating related to a strong green signal, which highlight the importance of implementing
313 elemental analyses in addition to CLSM imaging in the case of mineralised or metal ions bearing tissues.

314
315 Our analysis revealed positive correlations between the mechanical properties (Young's modulus and
316 hardness) and the content of Ca and Si in the radular tooth coating, despite the smaller proportions of
317 elements, when compared to other molluscs. The presence of certain elements, like Ca, P, Cl, and F,
318 suggests the presence of apatite, a mineral found in various molluscan radular teeth [e.g., 51,53,95–
319 100]. Other elements, like Mg, K, S [e.g., 57,101,102] or Cu, Fe, and Zn, may also contribute to stiffness
320 and hardness, even though the contents of the here studied species are rather small in comparison to
321 the previously examined chiton and limpet taxa [e.g., 37,54,89,99,100,103–108]. Si, probably in the
322 form of silica [e.g., 86,96,97,100,104,109,110], appears to enhance the mechanical properties of the
323 tooth coating of the here studied two Nudibranchia species. This assumption is supported by the
324 observation that the mechanical properties values still correlate with the elemental content, when the
325 teeth are partially demineralized.

326
327 In our study, we found out that in the working zone, elemental content together with *E* and *H* values
328 decreased, compared to the maturation zone. A reduction in biomineral content indicates chemical
329 wear, which contributes to decay and potential loss of functionality. This decline may be attributed to
330 the leaching of elements by surrounding water or saliva. Saliva, known to be slightly or highly acidic in
331 gastropods, especially in carnivorous ones, aids in extra intestinal digestion [e.g., 111–115]. This acidity
332 could explain the decrease observed in the working zone of the radula in the two species studied. This
333 pattern during ontogeny was previously also reported for the carnivorous gastropod *Anentome helena*
334 [116]. Saliva also contains enzymes, such as aminopeptidase [115], which additionally could damage
335 tooth material and enhance element leaching. However, the pH values and composition of saliva
336 remain unknown across species. Further investigation is needed to understand the impact of saliva on
337 the elemental composition of radular teeth during their formation.

338
339 In the present study, we found out, that despite differences in the morphology of the radulae, the
340 mechanical properties and the tooth compositions are similar in both species. Further studies are
341 needed to investigate, whether these similarities are related to phylogeny and are ancestral in
342 Cladobranchia or rather to the feeding ecology, which might have triggered convergent evolution of
343 tooth structures. Increasing the number of cladobranch species could provide stronger insights into
344 this scientific problem.

345 346 **Material & Methods**

347 *Specimens and preparation*

348 Individuals of *Dendronotus lacteus* were collected between 1964 and 1966 by Annetrudi Kress in
349 Plymouth, England and fixed in 80% EtOH. *Flabellina affinis* was collected by Heike Wägele at Mataró,
350 Spain on 05/23/2006 and fixed in formaldehyde and later transferred to 80% EtOH. 17 adult specimens
351 of *D. lacteus* and 10 of *F. affinis* were dissected. Radulae were carefully extracted and cleaned with a
352 brief ultrasonic bath in 80% ethanol. These were first analysed to confirm the identification based on
353 external characteristics. To receive partially demineralized radulae, six radulae of *D. lacteus* were
354 placed in acetic acid (100%, Carl Roth GmbH & Co. KG, Karlsruhe, Germany) for two days.

355 For the central (rhachidian) teeth, we differentiated between the tips and the cusps, and for the lateral
356 teeth, between the bases, styli, and the tips (see Figure 1 for regions). The lateral teeth consist of a

357 central/medial side, i.e. facing the central (rhachidian) tooth, and a lateral side, which faces outwards.
358 CLSM and SEM documentation was performed with the intact and whole radula. EDX analyses of the
359 inner tooth structure were performed with embedded radulae (see below) and of the tooth surface
360 (coating) with whole teeth. The latter analysis was conducted at the tooth coating towards the
361 membrane and the coating towards the oral cavity (Figure 1). Nanoindentation was performed on the
362 inner tooth structure of embedded radulae (see below) and of the tooth coating with whole teeth. The
363 latter analysis was only performed with the coatings facing towards the oral cavity. A summary of the
364 workflows is depicted in Figure 2.

365

366 *Confocal laser scanning microscopy*

367 To capture the natural fluorescence of the tooth material by confocal laser scanning microscopy
368 (CLSM), we prepared two cleaned radulae per group (*D. lacteus*, *F. affinis*, demineralized *D. lacteus*)
369 on glass slides following the method outlined by [90]. Each radula was enclosed by multiple
370 reinforcement rings filled with glycerine (99.5% or higher purity, water-free, Carl Roth GmbH & Co. KG,
371 Karlsruhe, Germany) and covered with a glass slip. Following the procedure described by [38,100], we
372 documented the samples using a Zeiss LSM 700 confocal laser scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss
373 Microscopy GmbH, Jena, Germany). Four stable solid-state lasers emitting at 405 nm, 488 nm, 555 nm,
374 and 639 nm wavelengths were utilized. Specific bandpass or longpass emission filters (ranging from
375 420–480 nm, 490 nm or higher, 560 nm or higher, and 640 nm or higher) were employed accordingly.
376 The four *D. lacteus* radulae were scanned with the same settings to enable comparison between the
377 natural and demineralized radulae. Post-scanning, the autofluorescence images were combined (using
378 maximum intensity projection) with Zeiss Efficient Navigation (Zen) software (Carl Zeiss MicroImaging
379 GmbH). Finally, we assigned blue color to the autofluorescence signal from the 405 nm laser, green to
380 488 nm, and red (50% saturation) to both 555 nm and 639 nm. Afterwards, the radulae were cleaned
381 in 70% EtOH in an ultrasonic bath to remove the glycerine and used for SEM (Figure 2).

382

383 *Scanning electron microscopy and 3D visualization*

384 To document the morphology of the radulae using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), the radulae
385 from CLSM and, additionally, four radulae of each species and two demineralized radulae (Figure 2)
386 were attached onto SEM specimen holders using double-sided adhesive carbon tape, air-dried and
387 coated with a 5 nm layer of platinum. We utilized a SEM Zeiss LEO 1525 (One Zeiss Drive, Thornwood,
388 NY, USA) for visualization. To document the orientation of the teeth in a more natural environment,
389 we critically point-dried two radulae of *D. lacteus* and one of *F. affinis* that were still embedded in the
390 odontophoral cartilage. These radulae were treated with a series of increasing alcohol concentrations
391 (80%, 90%, 100%, 100% EtOH, for 1 h each) and then placed in a 1:1 solution of 100% EtOH and 100 %
392 acetone, followed by 100 % acetone (for 1 h each). Critical point drying with carbon dioxide was
393 performed with the Leica EM CPD300 (Leica Camera AG, Wetzlar, Germany) at 20 cycles. Afterwards,
394 samples were attached to SEM sample holders, sputter-coated and visualized with the SEM Zeiss LEO.
395 For three-dimensional (3D) visualization of *D. lacteus* radula (Figure 1), the SEM images were used.
396 With Blender v2.83 software (Blender Foundation, Amsterdam, Netherlands), the teeth were manually
397 modelled while constantly comparing the 3D visualization with SEM images captured from the various
398 perspectives. This process was conducted in a manner consistent with the protocol previously outlined
399 in [19,66].

400

401 *Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy*

402 To analyse the elemental composition of the inner tooth structure (inside) by energy dispersive X-ray
403 spectroscopy (EDX, EDS), we used three radulae of *D. lacteus*, three of *F. affinis*, and two demineralized
404 ones, which were all previously documented by SEM. Overall, we tested 1721 small areas by EDX (see
405 below).

406 Following our established procedure [100,116,117], we attached these radulae to glass slides using
407 double-sided adhesive tape. Each radula was encircled by a small metallic ring, which was then filled

408 with epoxy resin (Reckli Epoxy WST, RECKLI GmbH, Herne, Germany) to completely cover the radula.
409 After allowing the resin to polymerize for three days at room temperature, we removed the glass slides
410 and adhesive tape. The samples were then polished using sandpapers of varying roughness until the
411 cross-sections of the teeth were visible, and further smoothed with a suspension of aluminium oxide
412 polishing powder with a grain size of 0.3 µm on a polishing machine (Minitex 233/333, PRESI GmbH,
413 Hagen, Germany) to achieve a uniformly smooth surface. This embedding and smoothing process was
414 crucial to prevent artefacts such as electron scattering during the subsequent energy-dispersive X-ray
415 spectroscopy (EDX, EDS) analysis.

416
417 The embedded samples were cleaned in an ultrasonic bath for five minutes, mounted on SEM sample
418 holders, and sputter-coated with a 5 nm layer of platinum. Elemental composition analysis was carried
419 out using the SEM Zeiss LEO 1525 equipped with an Octane Silicon Drift Detector (SDD) (microanalyses
420 system TEAM, EDAX Inc., New Jersey, USA). For each test, the same settings were applied (e.g.,
421 acceleration voltage of 20 kV, same working distance and lens opening). Prior to analysis, the detector
422 was calibrated using copper.

423 We conducted point analyses (no mapping) on small areas to collect data on various elements present.
424 The detected elements and their proportions included Al (aluminium), C (carbon), Ca (calcium), Cl
425 (chlorine), Cu (copper), Fe (iron), H (hydrogen), K (potassium), Mg (magnesium), N (nitrogen), Na
426 (sodium), O (oxygen), P (phosphorus), Pt (platinum), S (sulphur), Si (silicon), and Zn (zinc). Some
427 elements, such as H, C, N, and O, were not discussed as they constitute the elemental basis of chitin
428 and proteins, while Pt is from the coating and Al and O are from the polishing powder.

429 For quality control, we performed 10 additional EDX tests on the epoxy to identify any potential
430 contamination arising from mechanical application, embedding, or polishing. No Si (which is present
431 in the sandpaper) or any other elements discussed further as part of the resin's composition were
432 detected. Therefore, their presence was attributed to the teeth.

433 Due to the overlap between the peaks of phosphorus (P) and platinum (Pt), the software could not
434 reliably distinguish between these two elements. Consequently, the P content was discussed together
435 with Pt (P+Pt). To estimate the proportion of P in the teeth, we measured the Pt content in 20 areas
436 of pure epoxy, yielding a mean value of 0.12 ± 0.02 atomic %. Overall, 416 point measurements of the
437 inner tooth structure were conducted (thereof 140 of natural *D. lacteus*, 136 of *F. affinis*, 140 of the
438 demineralized radulae). After EDX analysis, these samples were used for nanoindentation of the inner
439 tooth structure.

440
441 To conduct EDX analyses on the tooth coating towards the oral cavity, we used three radulae of *D.*
442 *lacteus*, three of *F. affinis*, and two demineralized ones, which were all previously documented by SEM.
443 The same settings and analyses were used as for the inner tooth structure. A total of 798 point
444 measurements (thereof 267 of natural *D. lacteus*, 264 of natural *F. affinis*, 267 of the demineralized
445 radulae) were conducted on the teeth coating towards the oral cavity, distributed across different
446 regions.

447 To investigate parts located on the underside of the teeth and close to the radular membrane, the
448 radulae were detached from the adhesive carbon tape by 70% EtOH and the Pt coating was removed
449 by an ultrasonic bath in 70% EtOH lasting 30 s. Then, the upper side of the radulae (the tooth cusps
450 and tips) were gently pressed into the adhesive carbon tape on the SEM sample holders. Then, each
451 membrane was grabbed at one side by tweezers and the radula was gently bent. By this, some tooth
452 tips were still attached to the tape, the membrane was bent away and the tooth surface (coating),
453 oriented towards the membrane, was thus visible in the SEM. These tooth surfaces were tested by the
454 EDX. Afterwards, the radulae were detached from the SEM sample holder by 70% EtOH, the Pt coating
455 removed, and the procedure repeated in another area of the radula, to increase the sample size of
456 investigated teeth and to test teeth from different ontogenetic regions. A total of 507 point
457 measurements (thereof 191 of natural *D. lacteus*, 187 of natural *F. affinis*, 129 of the demineralized
458 radulae) were conducted on the coating towards the membrane, distributed across different regions.

459

460 *Nanoindentation*

461 The mechanical properties of the surfaces (coatings) towards the membrane could not be tested by
462 nanoindentation, because the height of the bent radula hindered the movement of the nanoindenter
463 head across the sample. However, the coating towards the oral cavity and the inner tooth structure,
464 overall 1222 regions, was tested using three radulae of *D. lacteus*, three of *F. affinis*, and two
465 demineralized radulae. These radulae had not previously been used for any other task before (Figure
466 2). Following the protocol outlined in [118], radulae were carefully ripped into small pieces and
467 attached with their membranes and the teeth hanging over the membrane to the nanoindenter
468 sample holder with double sided adhesive tape and air-dried. Important was, that teeth had a large
469 contact area with the tape to avoid movement of the sample during indentation. A nanoindenter SA2
470 (MTS Nano Instruments, Oak Ridge, Tennessee, USA) equipped with a Berkovich indenter tip and a
471 dynamic contact module (DCM) head was utilized. Hardness (*H*) and Young's modulus (*E*) were
472 determined from force-distance curves using the continuous stiffness mode (CSM). All tests were
473 conducted under normal room conditions (relative humidity 28–30%, temperature 22–24 °C), with
474 each indent and corresponding curve manually controlled. The values of *E* and *H* were determined at
475 penetration depths ranging from 100 to 300 nm. Approximately 40 values were obtained from the
476 different indentation depths for each site, which were then averaged to calculate one mean *H* and one
477 mean *E* value per indent. Overall, the coatings to the oral cavity of 806 localities were tested by
478 nanoindentation (thereof 271 of natural *D. lacteus*, 264 of natural *F. affinis*, 271 of the demineralized
479 radulae).

480 For the inner tooth structure, the embedded and polished samples were tested. Due to the Pt sputter
481 coating, *E* and *H* were determined at penetration depth ranging from 800 to 1000 nm. Overall, 416
482 localities of the inner structure were tested by nanoindentation (thereof 140 of natural *D. lacteus*, 136
483 of *F. affinis*, 140 of the demineralized *D. lacteus* radulae).

484

485 *Statistical analyses*

486 All statistical analyses were conducted using JMP Pro, Version 14 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, 1989–
487 2007). Mean values and standard deviations were calculated, and the Shapiro-Wilk test was employed
488 to assess normality. Since the data was found to be non-normally distributed, a Kruskal-Wallis test was
489 performed. Subsequently, pairwise comparisons were conducted using the Wilcoxon method.
490 Correlation coefficients and relationships between parameters were calculated with JMP as well.

491

492 **Supporting Information**

493 File (Supplementary Material, PDF file format) with correlation coefficients, results from
494 nanoindentation and elemental analysis.

495

496 **Declarations**

497 **Ethics approval and consent to participate.** Not applicable.

498 **Consent for publication.** Not applicable

499 **Data Availability Statement.** The data on mechanical properties and elemental analysis can be found
500 in the Supplementary Material.

501 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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511

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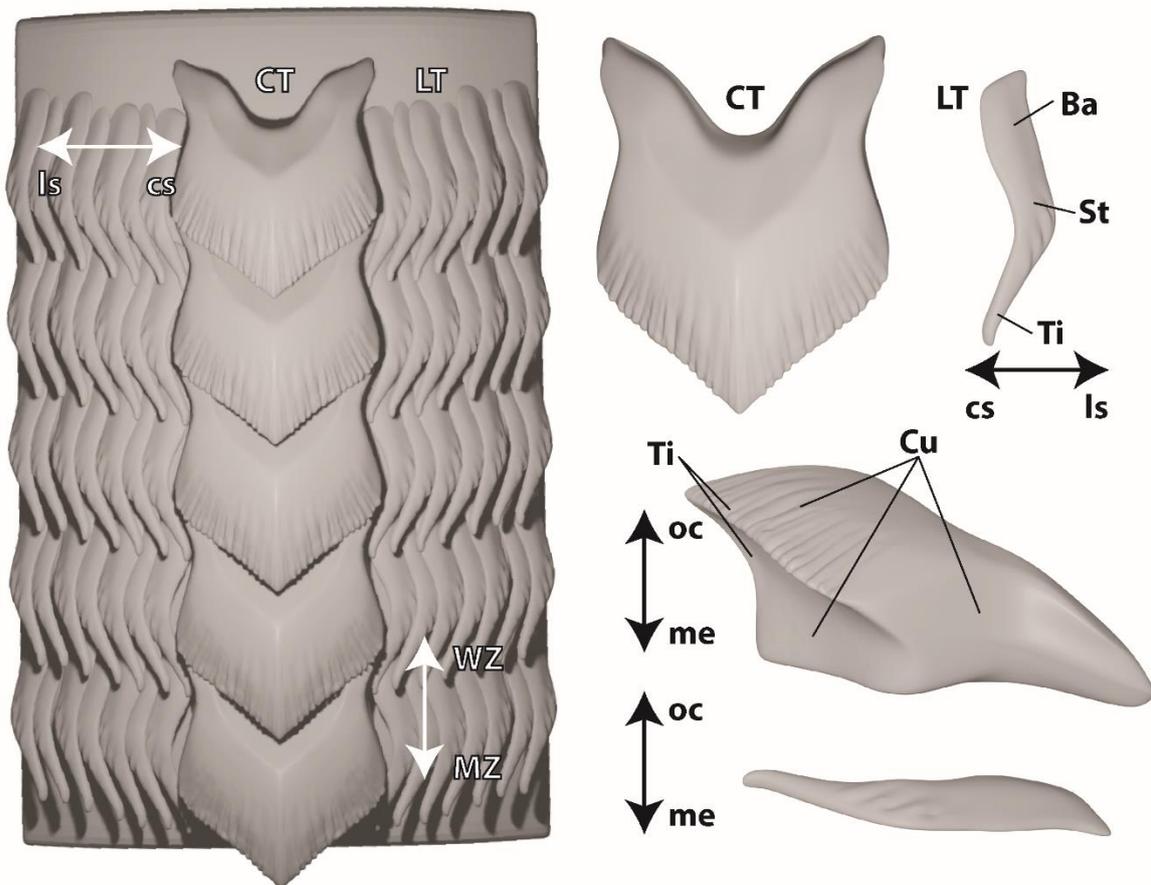
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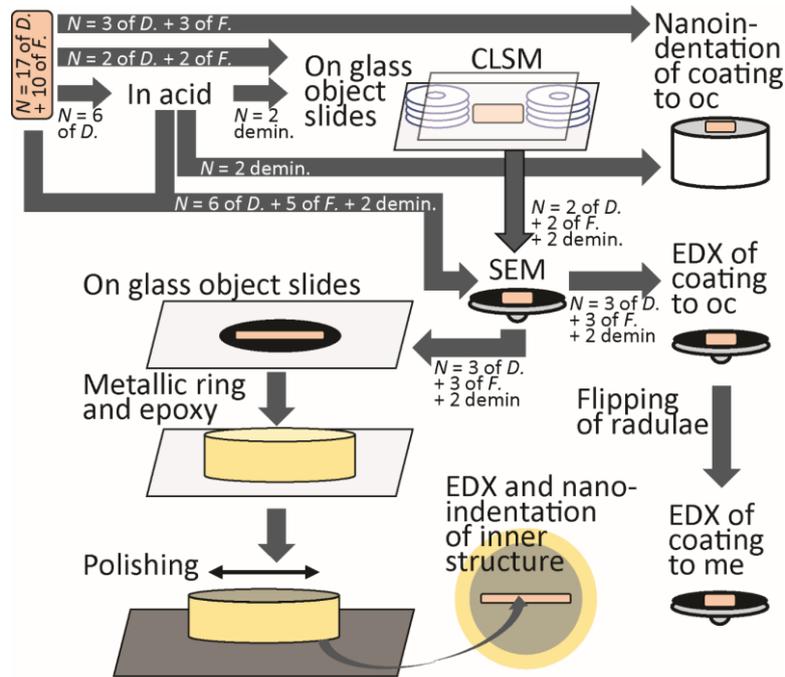
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 672 **Figures and legends**
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 676 **Figure 1.** 3-dimensional model of the *Dendronotus lacteus* radula in frontal and lateral views, displaying
 677 the regions of interest. Abbreviations: Ba, tooth basis; cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central
 678 (rhachidian) tooth; CT, central tooth (rhachidian); ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth; LT, lateral
 679 tooth; me, tooth coating towards the radular membrane; oc, tooth coating towards the oral cavity; St,
 680 tooth stylus; Ti, tooth tip; WZ, working zone.

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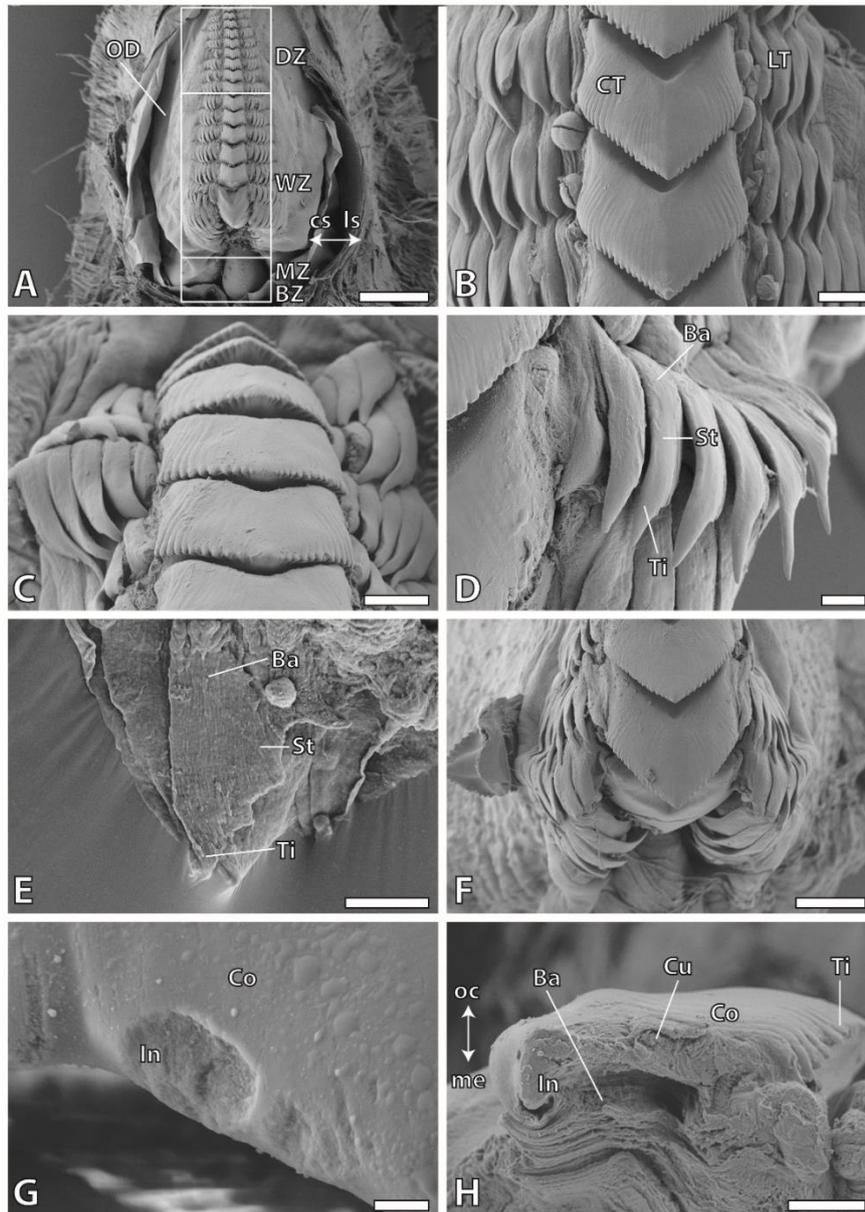


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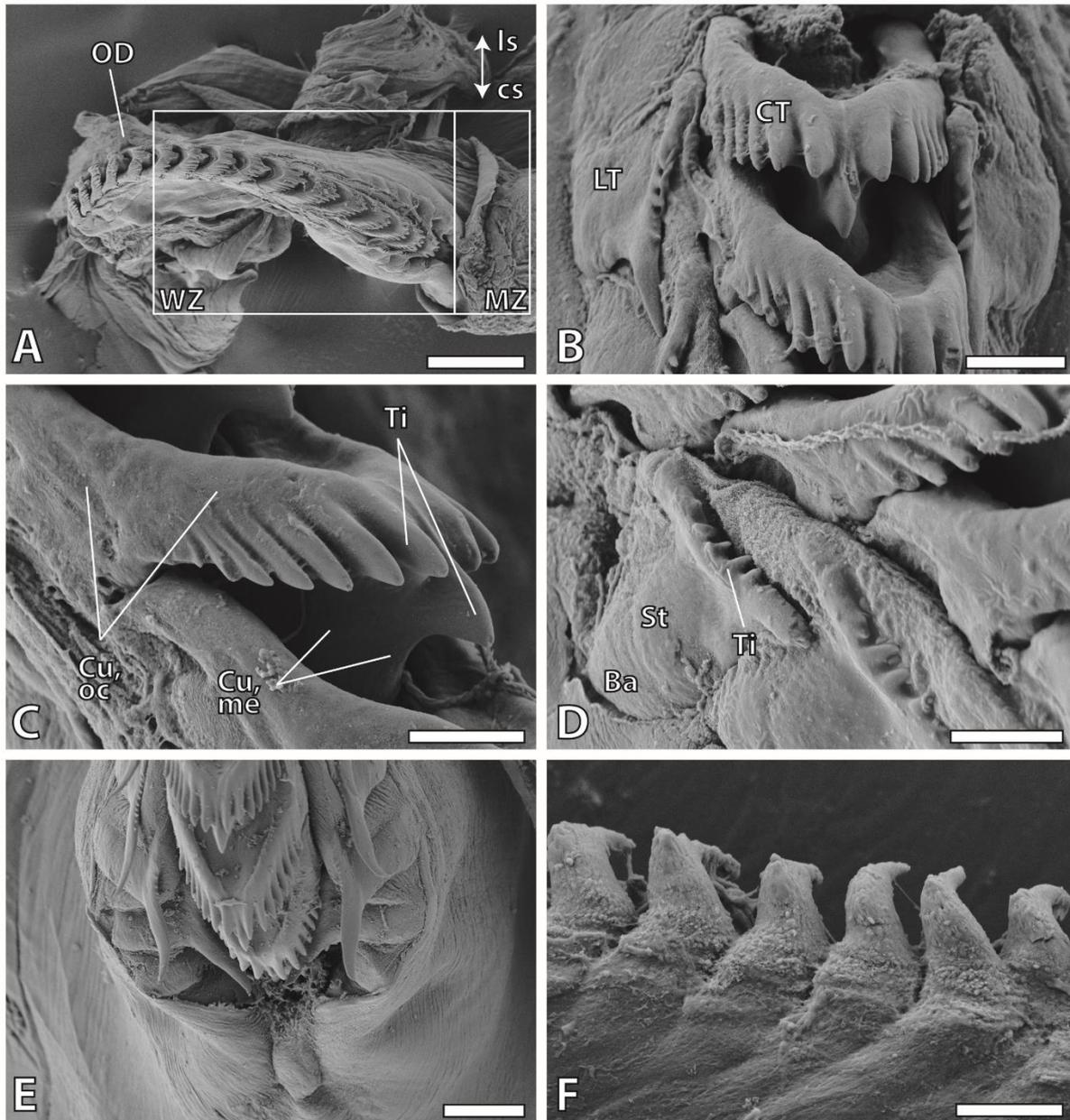
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685 **Figure 2.** Workflows used in the study. Overall, 17 radulae of *Dendronotus lacteus* and 10 of *Flabellina*
 686 *affinis* were mechanically extracted and subsequently treated differently to perform CLSM, SEM, EDX,
 687 and nanoindentation analyses. Different experimental pathways were necessary, to not allow to use
 688 the same radula for another analysis (e.g., the sputter coating from SEM hinders CLSM analysis or the
 689 nanoindentation of the coating towards the oral cavity). Abbreviations: CLSM, confocal laser scanning
 690 microscopy; *D.*, *D. lacteus*; Demin., demineralized; EDX, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy; *F.*, *F.*
 691 *affinis*; me, membrane; *N*, number of radulae used; oc, oral cavity; SEM, scanning electron microscopy.



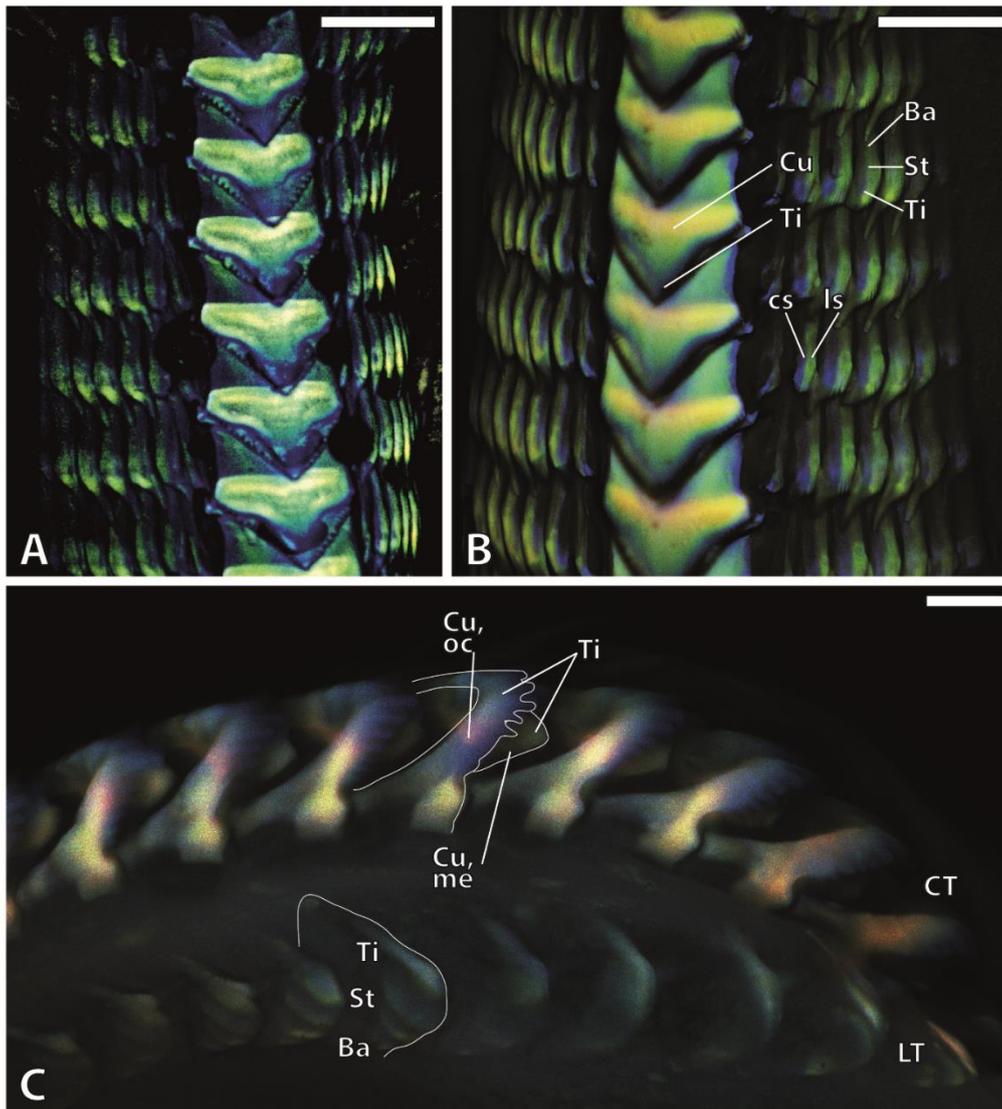
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694 **Figure 3.** SEM images of natural radulae (not demineralized) of *Dendronotus lacteus*. A. Overview of
695 one critically-point dried radula showing the working zone and degeneration zone with attached
696 odontophoral cartilage. The maturation zone and building zone are located underneath the working
697 zone. B–D. Magnifications of the central and lateral teeth. E. Surface of the lateral teeth towards the
698 membrane. These surfaces are less smooth and more fibrous than the surfaces towards the oral cavity.
699 F. Magnification of the radular working zone of one critically-point dried radula. G. Surface (coating) of
700 one central tooth. H. Central tooth, broken with tweezers, to show the fibrous inner tooth structure,
701 the tooth’s anchorage in the membrane, and the smooth coating. Abbreviations: Ba, tooth basis; Co,
702 tooth coating; cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central (rhachidian) tooth; CT, central tooth; Cu,
703 tooth cusp; DZ, degenerative zone; In, inner structure of tooth; ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth;
704 LT, lateral tooth; me, tooth coating towards the radular membrane; MZ, maturation zone; oc, tooth
705 coating towards the oral cavity; St, tooth stylus; Ti, tooth tip; OD, odontophoral cartilage; WZ, working
706 zone. Scale bars: A, 200 μm ; B, C, 40 μm ; D, E, H, 20 μm ; F, 80 μm ; G, 2 μm .



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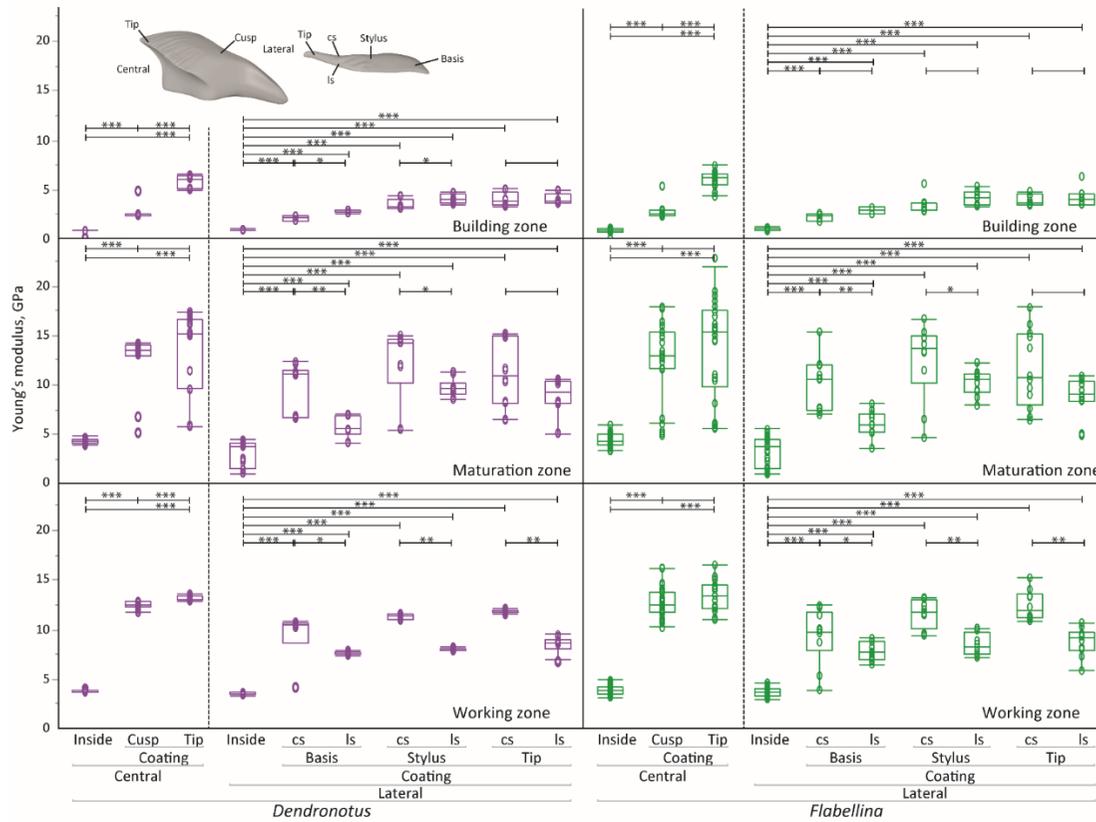
709 **Figure 4.** SEM images of radulae of *Flabellina affinis*. A. Overview of one radula with attached
710 odontophoral cartilage. The maturation and building zone is still covered by the epithelium that forms
711 the teeth. B–D. Magnifications of the central and lateral teeth. E. Magnification of the radular working
712 zone of one critically-point dried radula. F. Denticles of the masticatory processus of the jaw.
713 Abbreviations: Ba, tooth basis; cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central (rhachidian) tooth; CT,
714 central tooth; Cu, tooth cusp; ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth; LT, lateral tooth; me, tooth
715 coating towards the radular membrane; MZ, maturation zone; oc, tooth coating towards the oral
716 cavity; OD, odontophoral cartilage; St, tooth stylus; Ti, tooth tip; WZ, working zone. Scale bars: A, 100
717 μm ; B, C, D, 10 μm ; E, 20 μm .



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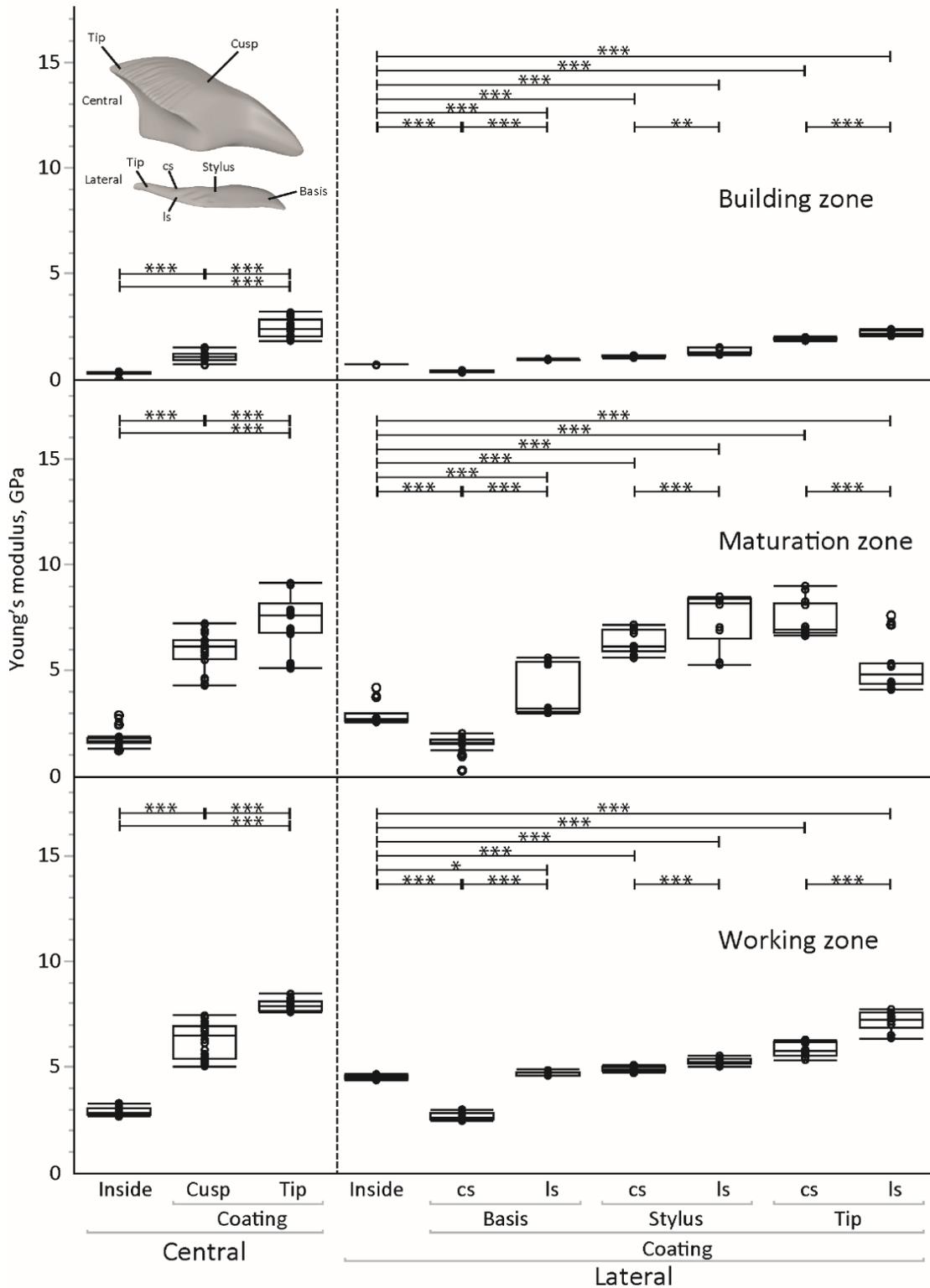
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720 **Figure 5.** CLSM images of one natural *Dendronotus lacteus* radula (A), one demineralized *D. lacteus*
 721 radula (B) and one natural *Flabellina affinis* radula (C). Abbreviations: Ba, tooth basis; Cu, tooth cusp;
 722 cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central (rhachidian) tooth; CT, central tooth; ls, outer/lateral side
 723 of the lateral teeth; LT, lateral tooth; me, tooth coating towards the radular membrane; St, tooth
 724 stylus; Ti, tooth tip; oc, tooth coating towards the oral cavity. Scale bars: A, B, 120 μ m; C, 30 μ m.



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727 **Figure 6.** The results from nanoindentation experiments. The Young's modulus E (in GPa) for
 728 the natural radulae of *Dendronotus lacteus* and *Flabellina affinis*. The statistical results are
 729 from pairwise comparison. Abbreviations: cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central
 730 (rhachidian) tooth; ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth.



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Figure 7. The results from nanoindentation experiments. The Young's modulus E (in GPa) for demineralized radulae of *Dendronotus lacteus*. The statistical results are from pairwise comparison. Abbreviations: cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central (rhachidian) tooth; ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth.

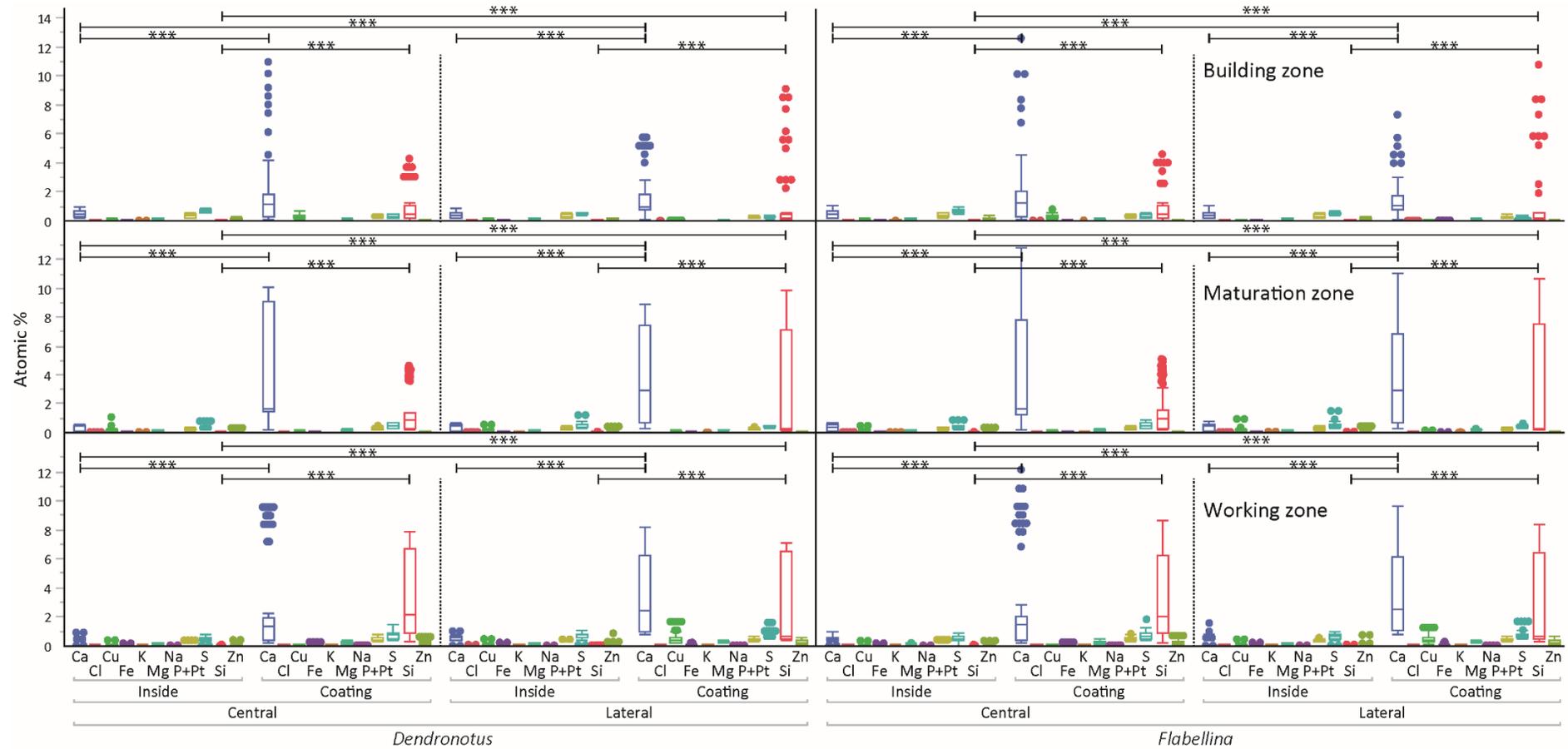


Figure 8. The results from the EDX analysis of natural radulae of *Dendronotus lacteus* and *Flabellina affinis*. For each of the discussed elements, the results are given in atomic %. The statistical results are from pairwise comparison.

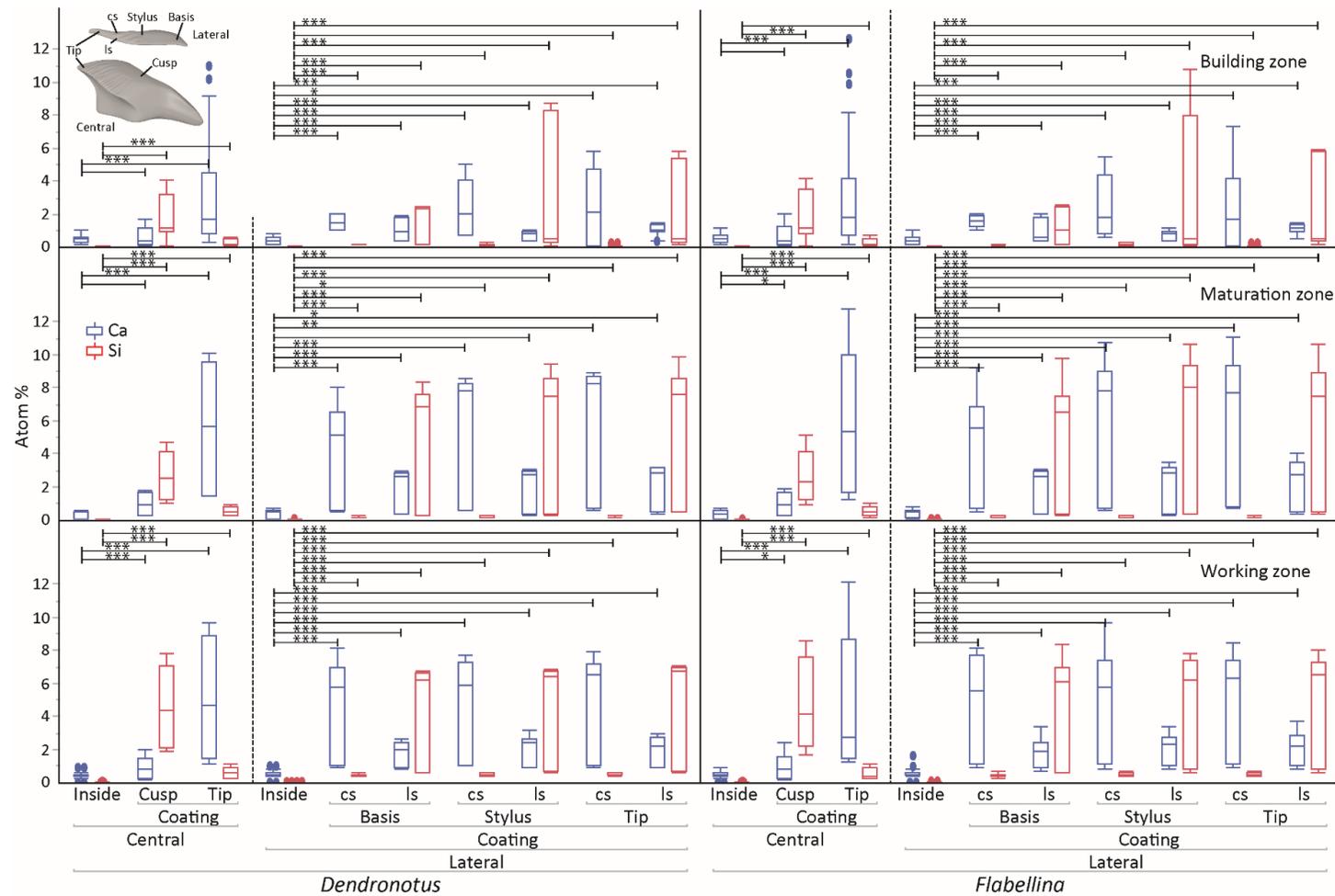


Figure 9. The results from the EDX analysis for Ca and Si in natural radulae of *Dendronotus lacteus* and *Flabellina affinis*. The results are given in atomic %. The results of the coating towards the oral cavity and towards the membrane are pooled together. The statistical results are from pairwise comparison. Abbreviations: cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central (rhachidian) tooth; ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth.

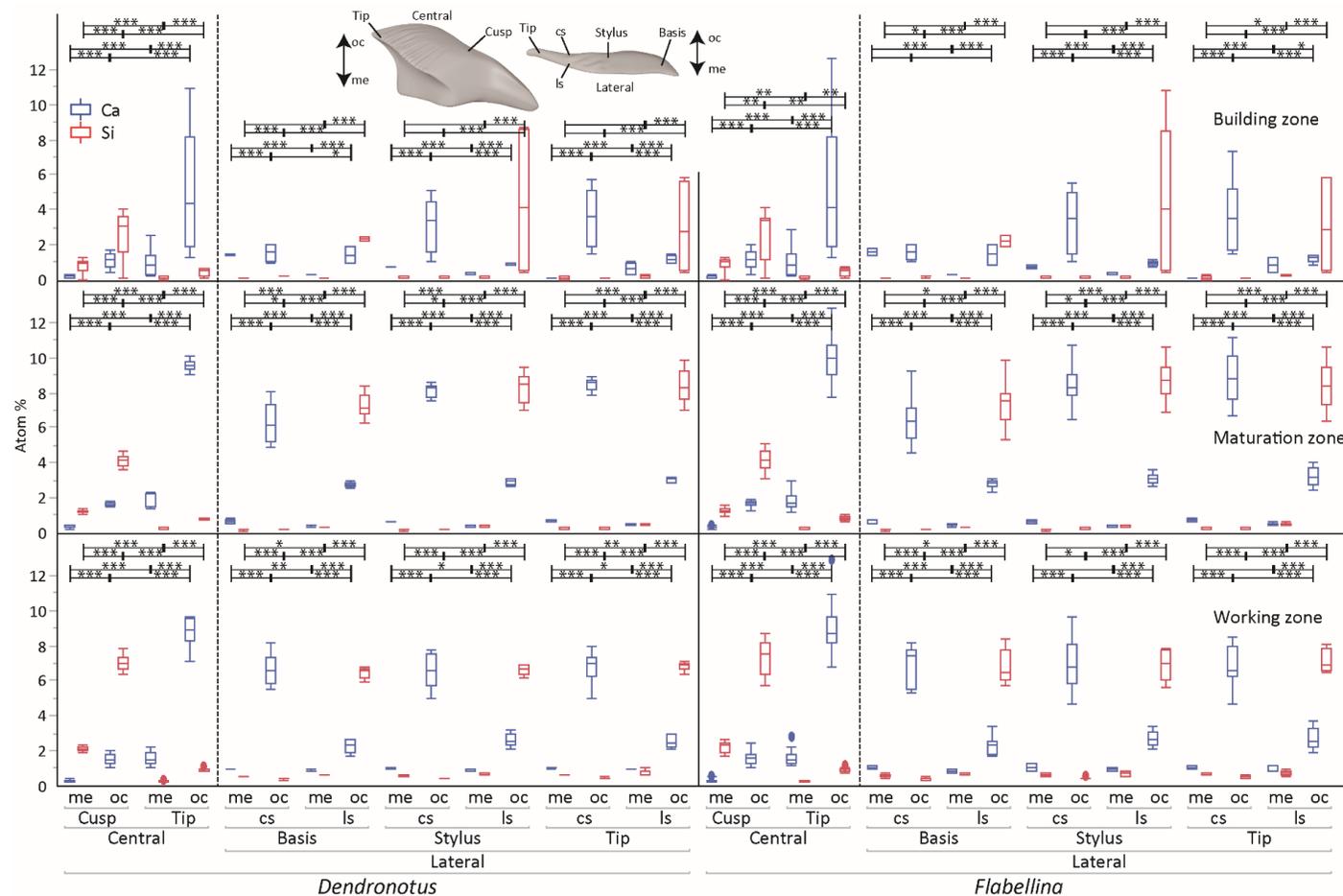


Figure 10. The results from the EDX analysis for Ca and Si of coatings of the natural radulae in *Dendronotus lacteus* and *Flabellina affinis*. The results are given in atomic %. The results of the coating towards the oral cavity and towards the membrane are not pooled together. The statistical results are from pairwise comparison. Abbreviations: cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central (rhachidian) tooth; ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth; me, tooth coating towards the membrane; oc, tooth coating towards the oral cavity.

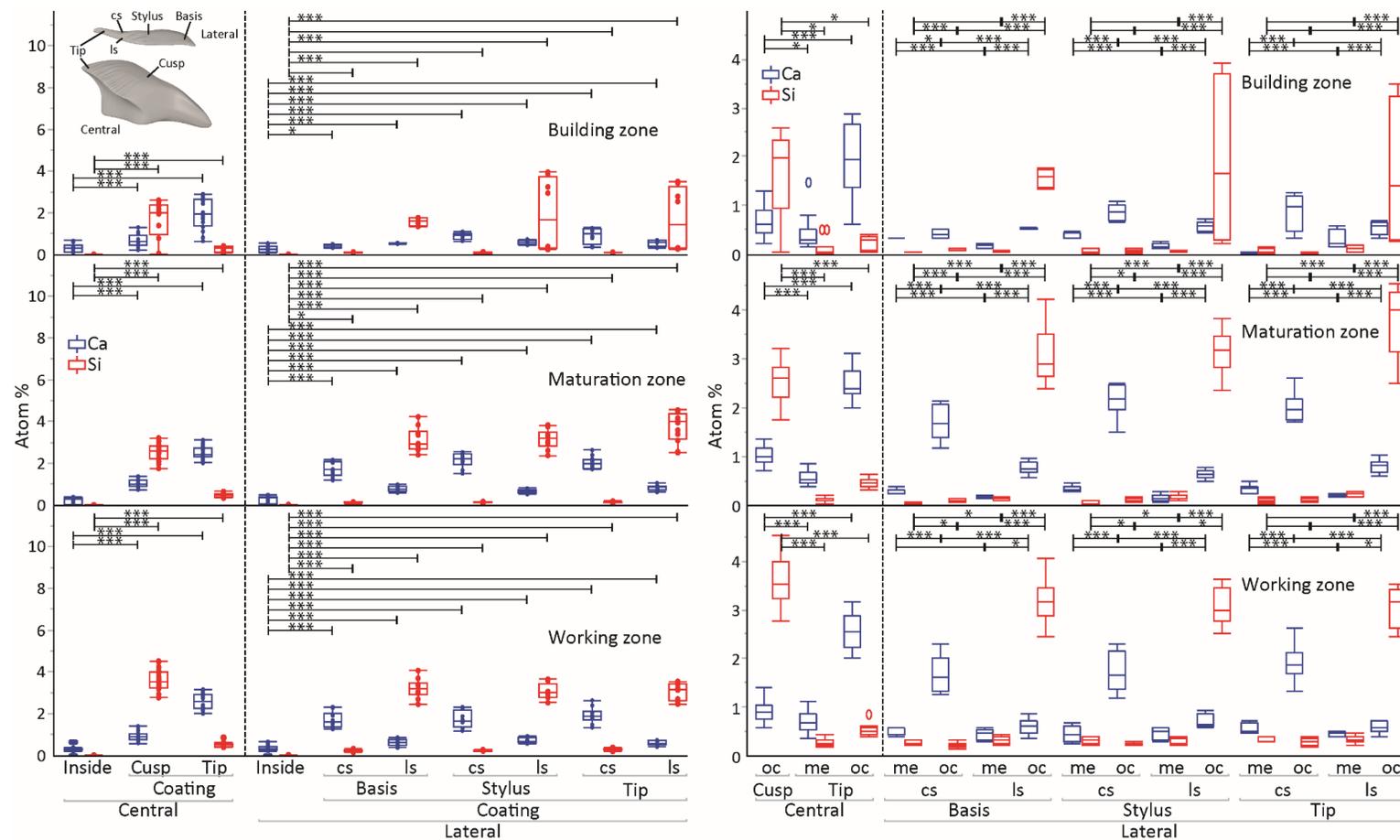


Figure 11. The results from the EDX analysis in demineralized radulae of *Dendronotus lacteus*. The results for Ca and Si are given in atomic %. Left side: The results of the coating towards the oral cavity and towards the membrane are pooled together. Right side: Only the coating is plotted. The EDX results on the coating towards the oral cavity and towards the membrane are not pooled together. The statistical results are from pairwise comparison. Abbreviations: cs, side of the lateral teeth facing the central (rhachidian) tooth; ls, outer/lateral side of the lateral teeth; me, tooth coating towards the membrane; oc, tooth coating towards the oral cavity.

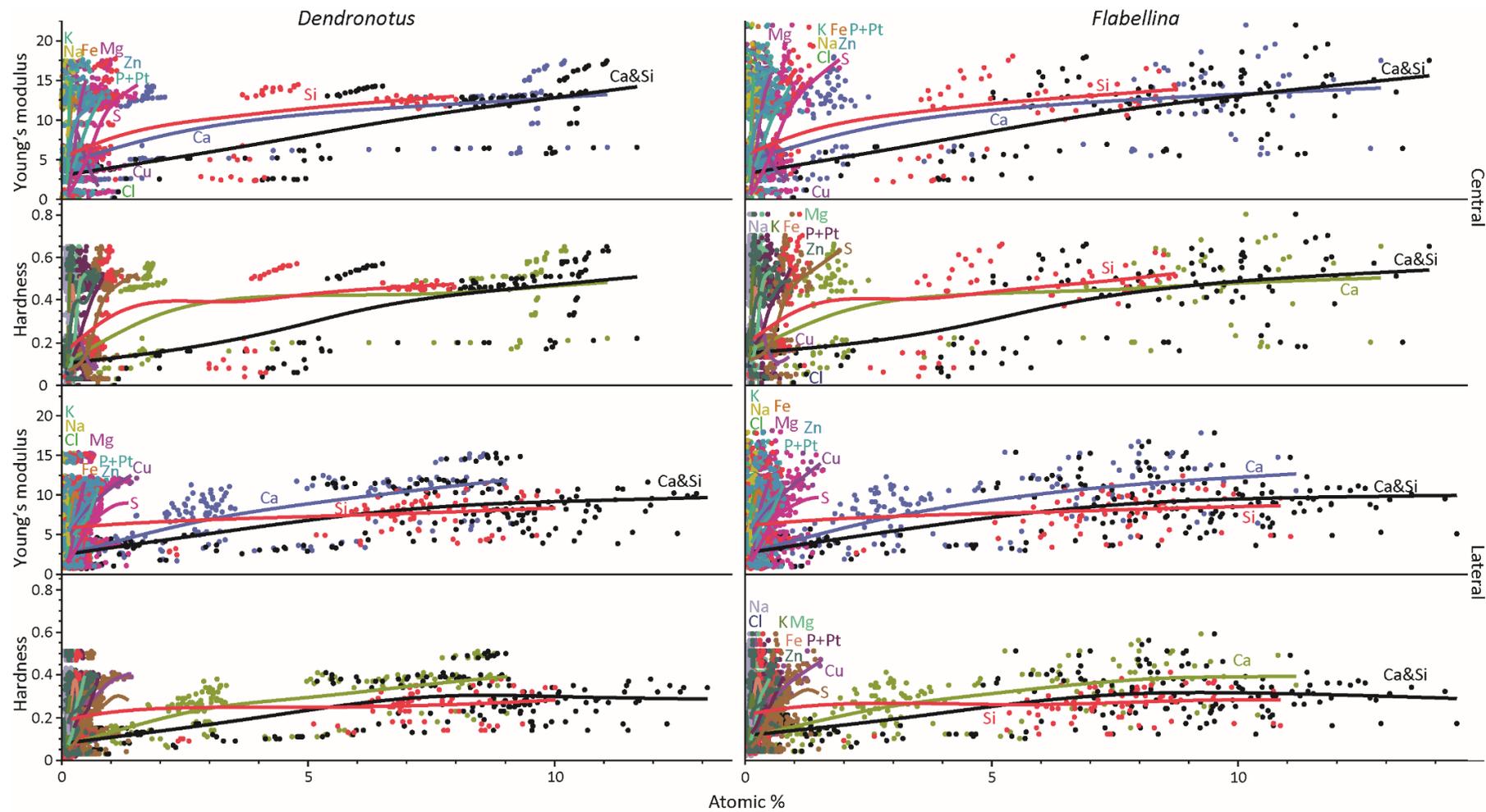


Figure 12. *Dendronotus lacteus* and *Flabellina affinis*, natural radulae. Relationship between the hardness (H) and Young's modulus (E), both given in GPa. The EDX results on discussed elements are given in atomic %. The amount of Ca and Si show a clear positive relationship with the mechanical properties.