

Relative abundances of methane- and sulfur-oxidizing symbionts in gills of the deep-sea hydrothermal vent mussel Bathymodiolus azoricus under pressure

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- 1 Relative abundances of methane- and sulfur-oxidizing symbionts in gills of the deep-sea
- 2 hydrothermal vent mussel *Bathymodiolus azoricus* under pressure.
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24 Abstract

25 The deep-sea mussel Bathymodiolus azoricus dominates hydrothermal vent fauna in the the Azores 26 region. The gills of this species house methane- and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria that fulfill most of the 27 mussel's nutritional requirements. Previous studies suggested that the ratio between methane- and 28 sulfur-oxidizers could vary in response to the availability of electron donors in their environment, 29 and this flexibility is considered a key factor in explaining the ecological success of the species. 30 However, previous studies were based on non-isobaric recovery of specimens, with experiments at 31 atmospheric pressure which may have induced artifacts. This study investigates the effect of 32 pressure-related stress during recovery and experimentation on the relative abundances of bacterial 33 symbionts. Mussel specimens were recovered for the first time using the pressure-maintaining 34 device PERISCOP. Specimens were subsequently transferred into pressurized vessels and exposed to various chemical conditions. Using optimized fluorescence in situ hybridization-based 35 36 approaches, relative abundance of symbionts were measured. Our results show that the recovery 37 method (isobaric versus non-isobaric) does not influence the abundances of bacterial symbionts. 38 Significant differences occur among specimens sampled from two contrasting sites. Exposure of 39 mussels from the deeper site to sulfide and bicarbonate, and to bicarbonate alone, both resulted in a 40 rapid and significant increase in the relative abundance of sulfur-oxidizers. Results reported herein 41 are congruent with those from previous reports investigating mussels originating from shallow sites 42 and kept at ambient pressure. Isobaric recovery and maintenance allowed us to perform in vivo 43 experiments in specimens from a deeper site that could not be maintained alive at ambient pressure, 44 and will greatly improve the chances of identifying the molecular mechanisms underlying the 45 dialogue between bathymodioline hosts and symbionts.

46 Introduction

47 Bathymodiolinae mussels (family Mytilidae) are part of the remarkable fauna colonizing 48 ecosystems such as hydrothermal vents and cold seeps in the deep-sea (Desbruyères et al., 2000; 49 Duperron, 2010; Duperron et al., 2009; von Cosel et al., 1999, 2001). These mussels rely upon 50 sulfur- or methane-oxidizing (SOX and MOX) bacteria occurring in their gill epithelial cells for all 51 or part of their nutrition (Cavanaugh et al., 1981; Felbeck, 1981). The symbionts of mussels exploit 52 compounds present in vent or seep fluids for their metabolism (Van Dover, 2000; Van Dover et al., 53 2002). Although sulfide is toxic to animals, symbiotic sulfur-oxidizers use hydrogen sulfide from 54 the fluids as the source of energy for their metabolism and to fix inorganic carbon (Cavanaugh et 55 al., 1988). Methane-oxidizing bacteria use methane both as a carbon and an energy source (Cavanaugh et al., 1992; Childress et al., 1986). Organic carbon compounds are subsequently 56 57 transferred to their animal host and ultimately contribute to ecosystem productivity in habitats 58 where only a small fraction of the photosynthetic primary production from upper layers of the 59 oceans is brought in by sedimentation or advective transport (Cavanaugh, 1983; Corliss et al., 1979; 60 Karl et al., 1980).

61 Bathymodiolus azoricus and its sister species B. puteoserpentis dominate several vent sites on the 62 Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR). They possess both sulfur- and methane-oxidizing symbionts in their 63 gill bacteriocytes, as demonstrated through ultrastructural studies, 16S rRNA-encoding gene 64 sequence analyses, and enzyme assays (Cavanaugh et al., 1992; Distel et al., 1995; Duperron et al., 65 2006; Fiala-Medioni et al., 2002; Fisher et al., 1993). Dual symbiosis is thought to increase the 66 environmental tolerance of hosts because the distinct metabolism of the sulfur- and methane-67 oxidizing symbionts may help the holobiont adapt to varying availability of reduced sulfur and 68 methane (Distel et al., 1995; Fiala-Medioni et al., 2002). Several studies point to a high flexibility 69 of the symbiont populations (Kádár et al., 2005; Riou et al., 2008). Bacteria indeed disappear from 70 B. azoricus gill bacteriocytes when subjected to starvation in sulfide- and methane-free sea-water, but can be recovered when mussels return to sulfide-enriched aquaria (Kádár et al., 2005). The 71 72 relative volume occupied by each symbiont type in bacteriocytes of B. azoricus varies within vent 73 sites, and between sites displaying different chemical signatures (Halary et al., 2008). Experiments 74 using mussels maintained in controlled conditions at atmospheric pressure with one, both or none of 75 the electron donors necessary for endosymbiont metabolism confirm that symbiont relative 76 abundances can change rapidly in response to changes in the availability of their respective 77 substrates (Halary et al., 2008; Riou et al., 2010, 2008).

However, the previously mentioned results suffer numerous potential biases. First, specimen
 recovery from the MAR vent sites, which are located at depths between 800 m (Menez Gwen) and

80 3500 m (Logatchev), involved rapid (usually a few hours) and large de-pressurization of specimens (8 to 35 MPa). This results in high levels of stress, ultimately resulting in the death of specimens 81 82 from the deepest sites (Halary et al., 2008). Second, specimens used in in vivo experiments are 83 usually from shallower vent sites (Menez Gwen) and maintained in the laboratory at atmospheric 84 pressure, i. e. ~80-fold lower than in situ conditions (Kádár et al., 2005; Riou et al., 2008). Results from these studies are thus potentially affected by artifacts associated with depressurization, and it 85 86 remains to be confirmed whether observed symbiont dynamics were the consequence of these 87 stresses or true biological responses. Another issue is with the quantification of symbionts itself. 88 Several studies are based on a 3D fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) approach, which 89 measures the fraction of the total volume occupied by each type of symbiont within bacteriocytes 90 (Halary et al., 2008; Riou et al, 2008; Duperron et al, 2011). Although reliable, this approach is time 91 consuming because it involves the acquisition of 3D images of gill sections, manual cropping of 92 individual bacteriocytes, and computing volumes using a dedicated ImageJ plugin (Halary et al., 93 2008). This has limited the number of specimens that could be analyzed, reducing the statistical 94 power of comparisons (Prosser, 2010).

95 Several pressurized vessels for live maintenance and pressurized recovery that prevent or reduce 96 pressure-related stress have become available in recent years (Boutet et al., 2009). The first aim of 97 the present study is to investigate relative symbiont abundances in B. azoricus mussels recovered 98 from the Menez Gwen (800 m depth) and Rainbow (2300 m depth) vent sites using the pressure-99 maintaining PERISCOP sampling cell (Shillito et al., 2008). The second aim is to investigate these 100 abundances in Rainbow specimens exposed to substrates used by the sulfide-oxidizing bacteria at 101 their native pressure in the IPOCAMP vessel (Shillito et al., 2014). The percentage of total bacterial 102 volume corresponding to methane- plus sulfur-oxidizing symbionts is measured by means of FISH 103 and image analysis. In order to optimize the method, we compare results from three FISH-based 104 approaches, and images acquired from the anterior and posterior regions of the gills. We then 105 compare isobaric vs. non-isobaric recovery, Menez Gwen and Rainbow specimens, and the effect of 106 treatments applied to live specimens from Rainbow. Results are discussed in relation to 107 improvements of the methods used to investigate symbiont dynamics in animal tissue in light of previous reports, based on specimens from non-isobaric recoveries and exposed to various 108 109 experimental conditions at atmospheric pressure.

110 Material and methods

111 Sampling sites

112 *Bathymodiolus azoricus* mussels (Bivalvia, Mytilidae) (von Cosel et al., 2001) were collected from 113 two hydrothermal vent sites during the 2013 BioBaz cruise to the Mid-Atlantic Ridge aboard RV *Pourquoi Pas*? using the ROV *Victor 6000*. Specimens were sampled from the vicinity of active smokers at Menez Gwen (MG2 marker, 37°50.669' N 31°31.156' W, 830 m depth) and Rainbow (France5 marker, 36°13.766' N 33°54.117' W, 2270 m depth) (Figure 1). Active vents were colonized by fauna typical for MAR vents, including one bivalve (*Bathymodiolus azoricus*) and three shrimp species (*Rimicaris exoculata, Mirocaris fortunata* and *Chorocaris chacei*) (Desbruyères et al., 2001).

120 Isobaric and non-isobaric recovery

At each sampling site, specimens were recovered in clean watertight BioBoxes, which were brought 121 122 to the surface by the ROV or the shuttle within a few hours (non-isobaric sampling). Others were placed inside a 'CROCO' sampling cell that was fit into the pressure-keeping vessel PERISCOP 123 124 (isobaric recovery, Shillito et al., 2008). PERISCOP was then closed and the shuttle to which it was attached was released within a few minutes, and surfaced within 45 minutes. Pressure was 125 126 monitored during surfacing with autonomous pressure sensor (SP2T4000, NKE Instruments, 127 France). Once onboard, PERISCOP was opened and mussels were recovered and either dissected 128 and fixed, or transferred to the IPOCAMP pressure vessel within 10 minutes.

129 Exposure to bicarbonate and sulfide in pressurized vessels

130 Six mussels from Rainbow, recovered using the PERISCOP, were taken out and used in incubation 131 experiments (shell length: 44.4-100.5 mm). Due to the limited volume of the IPOCAMP chamber 132 and the size of specimens, only two specimens were transferred in each of three 1 liter NalgeneTM bottles filled with 11.8 µM NaHCO₃ and 36.4 µM Na₂S; with 11.8 µM NaHCO₃; or with filtered 133 sea-water alone (control). These concentrations were within the range of values recorded in mussel 134 135 aggregates on the site, and similar to values used in previous studies (Halary et al., 2008; Riou et al., 136 2008). Bottles were tightly closed and re-pressurized in IPOCAMP aquariums within 5 minutes. Mussels were incubated at 23MPa and 8°C for 5 h, then dissected immediately and fixed. 137

138 Sample fixation onboard

139 Anterior and posterior parts of mussel gill tissue were dissected at 4°C and fixed for fluorescence *in*

140 situ hybridization (FISH). Gill fragments were transferred to 4% formaldehyde in twice-filtered sea-

141 water (TFSW) (4°C, 2–4 h), rinsed, and dehydrated in increasing ethanol (50, 70 80, and 96%, 15

142 min each). The density of gill filaments per millimeter was measured under a dissecting143 microscope.

144 Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)

Fragments of gills were embedded in polyethylene glycol distearate (PEG):1-hexadecanol (9:1), cut
into 8 µm-thick sections and deposited on SuperFrost Plus slides (VWR International, USA). Wax

was removed and tissue rehydrated in decreasing ethanol series (96% to 70%). Sections were
hybridized using 40% formamide for 1–3 h at 46°C as previously described (Duperron et al., 2008),
rinsed, and mounted in DAPI-containing "Slow Fade" (Life Technologies) under a coverslip. Three
16S rRNA-specific probes were applied simultaneously on every section. FISH probes used are

151 summarized in Table 1.

152 Image acquisition and analysis

153 Slides were observed under a BX61 epifluorescence (Olympus, Japan) or a SP5 confocal (Leica, Germany) microscope, and images were acquired at 400x magnification using ImagePro 6.0 154 155 (Olympus, Japan). On each section, a 2D image was first acquired by overlaying signals from the three probe-associated fluorochromes (2D acquisition). Second, an image stack was built by 156 acquiring images every 0.3 µm over the thickness of the section (3D acquisition). Images were 157 analyzed using ImageJ (Abramoff et al., 2004) and the total volume occupied by bacteria and 158 respective proportions of the sulfur- and methane-oxidizing symbionts were computed for 2D and 159 160 3D images using the Symbiont plug-in as previously described, but applying the procedure to the 161 whole field of view without isolating individual bacteriocytes (Halary et al., 2008). SymbiontJ 162 applies filters and thresholds to the different color channels and computes the number of voxels 163 corresponding to each symbiont type. Finally, ten bacteriocytes were manually cropped from each 164 3D acquisition, analyzed using SymbiontJ, and the mean percentage of volume occupied by each 165 bacterial type was computed (bacteriocyte acquisition).

166 Statistical analyses

The percentage of bacterial volume occupied by methane-oxidizing bacteria was used for all 167 analyses, after an Arcsine transformation (Halary et al., 2008). Values were then used for 168 169 transformation-based redundancy analyses (tb-RDA). Sampling site (Menez Gwen versus 170 Rainbow), recovery mode (isobaric versus non-isobaric), acquisition method (2D, 3D or 171 bacteriocyte), gill region (anterior versus posterior), and specimen were used as factors into the constrained redundancy analysis (RDA), in order to estimate their contribution to the global 172 173 variance. Significance was assessed using permutation tests (n=9999) using a full model, with separate test for each term (constraining variable). Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed non-normal 174 175 distribution of the data, and non-parametric tests were thus applied for inter-groups comparisons. 176 The Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon (MWW, for 2 class factors) and Kruskal-Wallis (KW, for 3 or more 177 class factors) tests were used to compare percentages of methanotrophs. All statistical analyses were performed using R (R Development Core Team, 2013); 'vegan' package was used for the 178 179 constrained redundancy analysis.

180 **Results**

181 In order to optimize the 3D FISH method (Halary et al., 2008), three types of images were acquired and compared. For each mussel specimen, 10 acquisitions in 2D and 10 in 3D were obtained. From 182 each of the later 3D acquisitions, 10 randomly chosen bacteriocytes were analyzed, resulting in 100 183 184 bacteriocytes per specimen. These acquisitions were obtained from at least 5 different sections, each 185 containing 10-20 filaments. Results are summarized in Table 2, and a micrograph showing gill tissue with bacteriocytes containing the two symbionts is presented on Figure 2. The analyses of 186 187 2D, 3D, and bacteriocytes did not yield significantly different results (KW test on all measurements including anterior and posterior gill regions, p-value = 0.09). 188

189 The filament density per mm gill length along the anterior-posterior axis decreased significantly with increasing shell length (R^2 =65%, Pearson's correlation test: p-value < 0.001, Figure 3). Gills 190 191 form and grow from the posterior end. Percentages of methanotrophs (MOX) in the anterior and 192 posterior regions of gill from 3 specimens per treatment (12 specimens) were computed using 2D and 3D methods, yielding in total 480 measurements (Table 2, Table S1). The percentage of volume 193 194 occupied by methanotrophs was not significantly different between anterior and posterior regions of the gills (MWW test, p-value = 0.64). Subsequent analyses were thus made only on the anterior part 195 196 of gills, for which more specimens were available.

When recovered in BioBoxes, mussels from Menez Gwen and Rainbow experienced pressure loss of around 8.3 and 23 MPa, respectively. The use of PERISCOP prevented that, and mussels arrived onboard at pressures close to those of the deep waters (Table 2). Percentages of volume occupied by methanotrophs were $46.5\% \pm 5.8$ and $56.3\% \pm 6.4$ in Menez Gwen and Rainbow mussels recovered in BioBoxes, and $44.3\% \pm 5.7$ and $56.3\% \pm 8.3$ in mussels recovered using PERISCOP (Figure 4, Table 2). A MWW test based on 1140 values from the anterior and posterior regions of the gills indicated no significant difference between the two types of recovery (p-value = 0.12).

Mussels from Menez Gwen and Rainbow sites displayed significantly different percentages of methanotrophs in their gills (MWW test, W = 36185.5, p-value < 2.2e-16). A unilateral test confirmed that methanotrophs occupied a higher fraction of the overall volume in bacteriocytes of *B. azoricus* from the deeper Rainbow site (Figure 4, Table 2, Table S1).

The influence of each aforementioned factor was estimated by constrained redundancy analysis (RDA) and ANOVA permutation tests. Overall, our model could explain 56% of the total variance. Sampling site was the most influential factor (41%; df = 1; F = 1026.1), followed by interindividual differences, which accounted for more than 14% (df = 27; F = 13.3) of the total variance. Other factors explained much lower fractions of the variance: recovery mode (0.3%; df = 1; F = 7.7), acquisition method (0.3%; df = 2; F = 3.8) and gill region (0.04%; df = 1; F = 0.1) (Table S2).

Each experimental condition could be applied to 2 specimens only from Rainbow because of the

215 limited volume of bottles and the limited number of bottles that could be incubated at once in pressurized vessels. Nevertheless, 2 different treatments (NaHCO₃ + Na₂S or NaHCO₃ alone) and 2 216 control experiments (10 mussels fixed immediately after recovery using PERISCOP and 2 217 incubated in filtered sea-water in the same conditions as above) were applied, and 320 218 219 measurements were made using 2D and 3D methodologies (Figure 5, Table S3). There was no 220 significant difference between 2D and 3D FISH acquisition methods in this dataset (MWW test, p-221 value = 0.54). The different treatments under pressure resulted in significant differences in 222 percentages of methanotrophs (KW test, p-values < 0.011). The percentage of sulfur-oxidizers was 223 twice higher in specimens exposed to sulfide and bicarbonate than in the sea-water treatment, with 224 $90.1\% \pm 17.6$ versus $38.5\% \pm 4.9$ (Figure 5, Table S3). Specimens exposed to bicarbonate alone 225 also displayed a markedly higher percentage of sulfur-oxidizers (SOX) than in the sea-water 226 treatment. SOX in the bicarbonate treatment occupied $76.0\% \pm 23.0$ of the bacterial volume. The 227 percentage of SOX was slightly lower in mussels incubated in filtered seawater than prior to 228 treatments (38.5 \pm 4.9 versus 42.5% \pm 7.6). Constrained RDA indicated that the overall variance 229 was mainly explained by the 'treatment' factor (68.5%; df = 3; F = 506.7) and by inter-individual 230 variability (18%; df = 12; F = 32.8), while 0.4% (df = 1; F = 0.9) was due to the method of image 231 acquisition (Table S4).

232 Discussion

233 Image based quantification of volumes occupied by symbionts

234 Three FISH approaches were applied in this study, based on acquisition of 2D (Figure 2A) and 3D images, and of individual bacteriocytes (Figure 2B). They did not yield significantly different 235 results. Although the results are similar, the bacteriocyte-based method used in previous studies 236 237 (Riou et al., 2010) is by far the most time-consuming, because it involves manually cropping and 238 computing percentages of methanotrophs in at least 10 bacteriocytes from each 3D image. If the aim is to maximize the number of acquisitions, the 2D or 3D approaches are equally suitable and far 239 240 less time-consuming. In this study we managed to analyze a total of 36 specimens with two to three 241 of these methods (Table 2), while previous studies using 3D-FISH were based 20 or fewer 242 individuals (Duperron et al., 2011, 2007; Halary et al., 2008; Lorion et al., 2012; Riou et al., 2010, 243 2008).

244 Sampling methodology

The density of gill filaments was negatively related to shell length, *i.e.* the longer the shell was, the less dense gill filaments were (Figure 3). Similar filament densities and size-related trend are reported for the mussel *Mytilus edulis* (Jones et al., 1992). The gill forms and grows from the posterior end in bivalves (Cannuel et al., 2009; Wentrup et al., 2014); this process could result in differences in symbiont relative abundances between the 'young' posterior part and 'old' anterior one, but this was not confirmed by our data. It is likely that the absolute number of symbionts in each filament, which was not computed here, is different in the respective gill regions, in particular in the posterior-most budding zone (Wentrup et al., 2014). Measuring absolute numbers of symbionts would be necessary, but a reliable method still remains to be implemented (Boutet et al., 2011).

The two sites analyzed differed in depth (850 m at Menez Gwen and 2300 m at Rainbow) but non-255 256 isobaric recovery in BioBoxes involved significant pressure loss and potential physiological stress in both cases. Recovery stress is a major criticism often addressed to deep-sea biologists and 257 258 physiologists by many colleagues who are dubious about reports from ex situ experiments. In the present study, mussels were for the first time recovered under their natural pressure until opening of 259 260 the PERISCOP vessel on board, and compared with specimens recovered using classical, non-261 isobaric BioBoxes. Results indicate that, as far as symbiont relative abundances in gills are 262 concerned, the recovery mode did not have any significant influence, not even for the deeper Rainbow site (Figure 4). This major finding validates a posteriori previous studies dealing with 263 264 symbiont relative abundances that did use classical non-isobaric recovery methods involving pressure loss (Duperron et al., 2011, 2006; Halary et al., 2008; Lorion et al., 2012; Riou et al., 2010, 265 266 2008). However, although non-isobaric sampling is appropriate for studies focusing on symbiont 267 relative abundances, isobaric recovery probably makes a difference when dealing with physiological parameters such as host and symbiont activities and gene expression. FISH signal 268 269 intensities (but not areas and volumes) were indeed usually higher in specimens recovered using 270 PERISCOP, suggesting that ribosomes to which FISH probes attach were less abundant in the latter 271 (unpublished data).

272 Site-related differences in symbiont abundances

273 Besides depth, the Menez Gwen and Rainbow sites differ by several characteristics, including the 274 chemical composition of end-member fluids. Fluids at Menez Gwen indeed display slightly lower 275 concentrations of methane compared to Rainbow (Charlou et al., 2002). Sulfide concentrations are 276 similar, but sulfide interacts with the high concentrations of iron at Rainbow, and is thus not readily 277 available to organisms (Desbruyères et al., 2000; Le Bris and Duperron, 2010). Geochemical 278 modeling applied to the mixing zone where mussels actually live indicate that more energy can be 279 gained from sulfide at Menez Gwen compared to methane, while the opposite situation is 280 encountered at Rainbow (Le Bris and Duperron, 2010). The result at Rainbow is however less clear-281 cut when including hydrogen, an alternative energy source for sulfur-oxidizing symbionts (Petersen 282 et al., 2011). The ratio between sulfide and methane has been shown to influence the relative 283 abundance of sulfur- versus methane-oxidizers in mussel gills, and methanotrophs are more abundant than thiotrophs at Rainbow (Duperron et al., 2006). Previous estimations of symbiont 284 relative abundances indicated that sulfur-oxidizers represented $53.1\% \pm 10.3$ of the total volume of 285 286 symbionts at Menez Gwen, compared to 39.4% at Rainbow (Halary et al., 2008; Le Bris and 287 Duperron, 2010). Our results from PERISCOP-recovered specimens were remarkably close (52.6% \pm 4.9 and 43.7% \pm 6.4 respectively; Table 2). This is in line with the hypothesis that symbiont 288 289 relative abundances depend on the availability of their respective substrates (Fiala-Medioni et al., 290 2002; Riou et al., 2008; Trask and Van Dover, 1999). Furthermore, the unexpected similarity 291 between measurements made on specimens sampled in 2006 and 2013 suggests a certain level of 292 long term stability in site-related differences, although short-term fluctuations certainly have 293 occurred (Duperron et al., 2006; Halary et al., 2008).

294 Symbiont response to bicarbonate and sulfide pulses under pressure

Starvation experiments and exposure to increased concentrations of different chemosynthesis 295 296 substrates have already been performed by several groups (Halary et al., 2008; Kádár et al., 2005; 297 Riou et al., 2008), but most often on B. azoricus from the shallower Menez Gwen site and at 298 ambient pressure. Here, we tested the effect of sulfide and bicarbonate exposure on pressurized B. 299 azoricus from the deeper Rainbow site (2300 m depth). Mussels from this site are not easily 300 maintained in the lab at ambient pressure (authors' personal observation). PERISCOP-recovered 301 mussels were transferred to pressure vessels and maintained at 8°C and 23 MPa. A 5h incubation 302 period with bicarbonate and sulfide resulted in doubling of the relative abundance of thiotrophs in 303 the gills (Figure 5). Exposure to bicarbonate alone also significantly increased the relative 304 abundance of thiotrophs (Figure 5). These rapid changes confirm that observations reported in 305 Halary et al. 2008 and other works on mussels from Menez Gwen were not artifacts, and not linked 306 to recovery stress or experimentation at atmospheric pressure. The increase in thiotroph relative 307 volume observed in the present study is even more spectacular (65.0% in Halary et al., 2008). In another study, mussels subjected to a one-month starvation followed by 4 days of constant sulfide 308 309 supply showed a 96% bacterial volume occupation by thiotrophs (Riou et al., 2008). Here, we show 310 that non-starved *B. azoricus* can shift to an almost thiotrophic symbiosis within 5 hours of exposure 311 to sulfide and bicarbonate (Figure 5). Unfortunately, only two specimens could be subjected to each 312 treatment because of space limitations in IPOCAMP. So although the trend is clear, data from more 313 specimens is needed to reliably estimate the true amplitude of this effect. Thiotrophic symbionts fix 314 inorganic carbon using ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate Carboxylase Oxygenase (RubisCO) in the Calvin 315 cycle (Cavanaugh et al., 1988). This process requires energy from the oxidation of reduced sulfur 316 compounds (Cavanaugh et al., 1988). The less spectacular increase in relative abundance of 317 thiotrophs when only bicarbonate was available also suggests that another source of energy may have been used for chemosynthesis. Over a short period, bacteria might have used sulfur stored in 318 compounds such as taurine or thiotaurine (Pruski and Fiala-Médioni, 2003). Alternatively, 319 320 hydrogen, not measured in our study, has been demonstrated to be an alternative energy source for 321 hydrothermal vent symbioses (Amend and Shock, 2001; Petersen et al., 2011). Although the increase in thiotrophs relative abundance could result directly from an actual increase in their 322 323 number, it could alternatively result from a decrease in methanotrophs, whose substrate was absent 324 and which may have been digested by host bacteriocytes before thiotrophs. Methanotrophs are 325 indeed located more basally within bacteriocytes, closer to phagolysosome-like bodies (Distel et al., 326 1995; Duperron et al., 2005). It is not known which mechanisms on the host and symbionts sides 327 control the dynamics of bacterial populations within bacteriocytes. Mussel symbionts have been shown to divide and to be digested within bacteriocytes, but additional mechanisms may explain 328 329 their variations, including symbiont uptake from the environment by adults, as suggested in B. 330 brevior, and symbiont release as documented in corals (Dubilier et al., 1998; Lesser, 2011; Thurber 331 et al., 2009). Whatever the underlying mechanisms, the symbiont population as a whole seems to be rapidly and significantly affected by changes in the availability of energy and carbon sources, 332 333 although results from more specimens are necessary.

334 Conclusions

335 In this study, a FISH-based method was used to quantify relative abundances of endosymbionts in 336 gills of *Bathymodiolus azoricus*. Abundances in the anterior and posterior regions of the gill were 337 similar. Mussels sampled in isobaric and non-isobaric recovery devices displayed similar relative 338 volumes of the two types of symbionts indicating that non-isobaric recovery does not induce a 339 major bias in measured volume occupation. However, the physiological status of mussels and their 340 endosymbionts is probably not the same and isobaric recovery is certainly to be recommended for 341 physiological or expression studies of specimens from the deepest sites. Symbiont relative volumes were different between the Menez Gwen and Rainbow sites, and similar to those previously 342 343 measured on specimens sampled 7 years ago. On the other hand, symbiont populations displayed 344 high flexibility in exposure experiments performed in pressurized aquaria. As postulated previously, 345 this flexibility is certainly an advantage because physico-chemical micro-environments at 346 hydrothermal vents are highly variable in time and space (Chevaldonné et al., 1991; Johnson et al., 347 1994, 1986; Le Bris et al., 2005), and maybe the key for the domination of Bathymodiolus azoricus at various hydrothermal vent sites of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (Desbruyères et al., 2001, 2000; Von 348 349 Cosel et al., 1999). More experiments involving methane, hydrogen, toxic compounds, but also 350 thermal stress and symbiont release experiments will be necessary to further explore this flexibility.

- 351 The next step will then be to unravel the mechanisms that control this flexibility by exploring cell
- division patterns, genes and protein expressions of host and symbionts in various conditions.

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361 Table legends

362 Table 1: Probes, target groups, and labels used in FISH experiments.

Table 2: Sites, number of individuals, and percentages of methane- (MOX), and sulfur-oxidizers (SOX), standard deviation (SD) measured using the 2D, 3D, and bacteriocyte-based FISH methods in the anterior region of the gill. Maintained pressure during recovery has been calculated as follow: $P_{min}/P_{max} \times 100\%$, where P_{max} is the pressure at sampling site, P_{min} – the minimal pressure during recovery.

- Table S1: Sites, number of individuals, and percentages of methane- (MOX), and sulfur-oxidizers (SOX), standard deviation (SD) measured using the 2D and 3D -based FISH methods in the posterior region of the gill.
- Table S2: Redundancy analysis estimating the contribution of factors site (SITE), recovery method
 (REC), FISH method (METH), localization in the gill (GILL), and inter-individual variability
 (IND) to the variability observed in percentages of methane-oxidizers in gills among Menez Gwen
 and Rainbow specimens.
- Table S3: Percentages of methane- (MOX), and sulfur-oxidizers (SOX) and standard deviation (SD) measured using the 2D- and 3D -based FISH methods in the anterior region of the gill of Rainbow specimens upon recovery using PERISCOP (T0) and those exposed to 5-hours experimental treatments in pressurized vessels at 23 MPa.
- Table S4: Redundancy analysis estimating the contribution of factors treatment (TREAT), FISH method (METH), and inter-individual variability (IND) in the variance observed in percentages of methane-oxidizers in gills among Rainbow specimens exposed to chemical treatments in pressurized vessels.

383 Figure legends

- Figure 1: Localization of sampling sites on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. MG Menez Gwen site (830 m
 depth); Rb Rainbow site (2270 m depth).
- Figure 2: Overview (A) and detail (B) of transverse sections through *B. azoricus* gill filaments observed at 400× magnification. Filaments were cut parallel to the plane defined by the animals anterior-posterior and left-right axes, and perpendicular to its dorso-ventral axis. Nuclei from host tissue are labeled with DAPI (blue). FISH-labeled bacterial symbionts appear in pink (sulfuroxidizers) and green (methanotrophs).
- Figure 3: Density of gill filaments versus antero-posterior length of the shell. Fitted line is a linear regression ($R^2=65\%$, Pearson's correlation test: p-value < 0.001).
- 393 Figure 4: Mean percentage and standard deviation of total bacterial volume occupied by methane-
- 394 oxidizers in gill tissue of *B. azoricus* specimens from Menez Gwen and Rainbow recovered in

395 BioBoxes (non-isobaric) and PERISCOP vessels (isobaric). Shades of grey correspond to the three

- 396 FISH methods as indicated (see text for details).
- 397 Figure 5: Mean percentage and standard deviation of total bacterial volume occupied by sulfur-
- 398 oxidizers in gill tissue of B. azoricus specimens from Rainbow upon recovery using PERISCOP
- 399 (T0) and exposed to experimental treatments in pressurized vessels (NaHCO₃ + Na₂S, NaHCO₃,
- 400 filtered sea-water). Shades of grey correspond to the two FISH methods as indicated (see text for 401 details).

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Probe	Target	Sequence [5' $ ightarrow$ 3']	Cy3	Cy5	FITC	Channel colour	Reference
EUB_338	Eubacteria	GCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT	+	+	+	red	Amann <i>et al.</i> , 1990
Imed_M-138	MOX	ACCATGTTGTCCCCCACTAA	+	-	-	green	Duperron et al., 2008
Bang_T-642	SOX	CCTATACTCTAGCTTGCCAG	-	+	-	blue	Duperron et al., 2005
NON_338	negative control	ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGC	+	+	-	-	Wallner et al., 1993

Site	•	M	enez Gwen	Rainbow		
Poin	t		MG2	France 5		
Dept	h		830 m	2270 m		
Positi	on	37°50.669 N 31°31.156 W		36°13.766 N 33°54.117 W		
Recovery	mode	BioBox	PERISCOP	BioBox	PERISCOF	
Maintained	pressure	0%	83.60%	0%	76.50%	
Number of individuals		7	10	3	16	
Shell length mm (min-		32-47	26.3-39	88-97	67-88.5	
	% MOX	47.2	44.6	56.3	57.5	
2D FISH	% SOX	52.8	55.4	43.7	42.5	
	S.D.	5.4	5.1	6.6	7.6	
	% MOX	46.5	44.3	56.3	56.3	
3D FISH	% SOX	53.5	55.7	43.7	43.7	
	S.D.	5.8	5.7	6.4	8.3	
	% MOX	48.1	47.5	56.3	55.6	
0 bacteriocyte	% SOX	51.9	52.5	43.7	44.4	
	S.D.	3.8	4.2	4.6	6.3	



36°13.766 N 37°50.669 N









