

1 **Deep-sea mussels from a hybrid zone on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge host**
2 **genetically indistinguishable symbionts**
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4 Merle Ücker^{1,2}, Rebecca Ansorge^{1,3}, Yui Sato¹, Lizbeth Sayavedra^{1,3}, Corinna Breusing⁴, Nicole
5 Dubilier^{1,2,*}

6 ¹Max Planck Institute for Marine Microbiology, Bremen, Germany

7 ²MARUM – Center for Marine Environmental Sciences of the University of Bremen, Bremen,
8 Germany

9 ³Quadram Institute Bioscience, Norwich, Norfolk, United Kingdom

10 ⁴University of Rhode Island, Graduate School of Oceanography, Narragansett, RI, United States
11 of America

12 *Corresponding author
13

14 **Abstract**

15 The composition and diversity of animal microbiomes is shaped by a variety of factors, many of
16 them interacting, such as host traits, the environment, and biogeography. Hybrid zones, in which
17 the ranges of two host species meet and hybrids are found, provide natural experiments for
18 determining the drivers of microbiome communities, but have not been well studied in marine
19 environments. Here, we analysed the composition of the symbiont community in two deep-sea,
20 *Bathymodiolus* mussel species along their known distribution range at hydrothermal vents on the
21 Mid-Atlantic Ridge, with a focus on the hybrid zone where they interbreed. In-depth
22 metagenomic analyses of the sulphur-oxidising symbionts of 30 mussels from the hybrid zone, at
23 a resolution of single nucleotide polymorphism analyses of ~2500 orthologous genes, revealed
24 that parental and hybrid mussels have genetically indistinguishable symbionts. While host
25 genetics does not appear to affect symbiont composition in these mussels, geographic location of
26 the mussels on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge explained 45 % of symbiont genetic variability based on
27 redundancy analyses. We hypothesize that geographic structuring of the free-living symbiont
28 population plays a major role in driving the composition of the microbiome in these deep-sea
29 mussels.

30 **Introduction**

31 The community composition of an animal's microbiome is the product of multiple interacting
32 factors that include the environment, geography and host genetics (Benson et al., 2010;
33 Davenport, 2016; Rothschild et al., 2018; Spor et al., 2011; Yatsunenko et al., 2012). To which
34 extent host genetics affect microbiome composition is currently a topic of intense debate, in part
35 as high-throughput sequencing is revealing the genetic makeup of host and symbiont populations
36 in ever higher resolution (Di Bella et al., 2013; Ellegren, 2014; Luikart et al., 2003). Animal
37 hybrids are useful for assessing the effects of host genotype on microbiomes (Lim &
38 Bordenstein, 2020). Studies of lab-reared animal hybrids, such as wasps (Brucker & Bordenstein,
39 2013), fish (Li et al., 2018; Rennison et al., 2019; Sevellec et al., 2019) and mice (Korach-
40 Rechtman et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2015) found that these hosts had different gut microbiota
41 than their parental species, based on sequencing of the microbial 16S rRNA gene. These altered
42 gut microbiomes of hybrids affected the fitness of some hosts, suggesting that microbiomes play
43 an important role in determining species barriers (Brucker & Bordenstein, 2013). Studies on lab-
44 reared hosts cannot, however, fully reflect the environmental conditions animals experience in
45 their natural habitat. Hybrid zones, in which parental species interbreed and produce hybrid
46 offspring, are excellent natural experiments for teasing apart the impact of host genotype,
47 environment and geographic distance on microbiome composition. Yet surprisingly few studies
48 have investigated the microbiota of hybrids from the wild, and these have yielded mixed results.
49 For example, in a hybrid zone of the European house mouse, the gut microbiota of hybrids
50 differed from that of their parental species (Wang et al., 2015). In contrast, in African baboons
51 there were no significant differences between hybrids and their parental species, and gut
52 community composition was best explained by the environment (Grieneisen et al., 2019). To
53 date, such studies, whether on lab-reared animals or those from the wild, have been based on the
54 sequencing of only a few microbial genes, with the vast majority of analyses based on the 16S
55 rRNA gene, or only a variable region of this gene. These studies were therefore limited to
56 determining microbial community composition at the genus level or higher, and could not
57 distinguish closely related species or strains.

58 Almost nothing is known about the microbial communities of hosts from marine hybrid zones,
59 despite the pervasiveness of such zones in many regions of the oceans. Hydrothermal vents on

60 the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR), an underwater mountain range extending from the Arctic to the
61 Southern Ocean, provide an ideal setting for investigating the microbiomes of hosts in natural
62 hybrid zones. Many of the vents on the MAR are dominated by *Bathymodiolus* mussels that live
63 in a nutritional symbiosis with chemosynthetic bacteria. Two mussel species colonise the
64 northern MAR, *B. azoricus*, which is found at vents from 38°N to 36°N, and *B. puteoserpentis*,
65 which inhabits vents further south from 23°N to 13°N. A hybrid zone between these two host
66 species occurs at the Broken Spur vent field at 29°N on the MAR, where *B. puteoserpentis* co-
67 occurs with hybrids between *B. azoricus* and *B. puteoserpentis* (Breusing et al., 2017; O'Mullan
68 et al., 2001; Won, Hallam, O'Mullan, & Vrijenhoek, 2003).

69 The symbionts of bathymodiolin mussels are transmitted horizontally from the environment to
70 juvenile mussels, yet each mussel species harbours a highly specific symbiont community
71 (Dubilier et al., 2008; Van Dover et al., 2002; Won, Hallam, O'Mullan, Pan, et al., 2003). This
72 specificity suggests that the genetics of bathymodiolin mussels plays an important role in
73 determining symbiont composition. In this study, we took advantage of the natural hybrid zone
74 of *Bathymodiolus* mussels at the Broken Spur vent field to investigate how host genotype,
75 geographic distance, and the vent environment affect the composition of their sulphur-oxidising
76 (SOX) symbionts. The recent discovery of a high diversity of SOX symbiont strains in
77 *Bathymodiolus* from the MAR, with as many as 16 strains co-occurring in single *Bathymodiolus*
78 mussels (Ansorge et al., 2019; Ikuta et al., 2016; Picazo et al., 2019), made it critical to resolve
79 genetic differences at the strain level of the SOX symbiont community (strain is defined here as
80 suggested by Van Rossum et al., 2020, as subordinate to subspecies, in our study >99 % average
81 nucleotide identity). We achieved this resolution through multilocus phylogeny, genome-wide
82 gene profiling, and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)-based population differentiation
83 analyses of 30 *Bathymodiolus* hybrid and parental individuals collected in 1997 and 2001 at the
84 Broken Spur vent field.

85 **Materials & Methods**

86 A detailed description of samples and methods is available in the Supplementary Information
87 and an overview of the analyses of SOX symbionts used in this study is provided in
88 Supplementary Table S 4. Data files and scripts used for the analyses can be found in the GitHub
89 repository (https://github.com/muecker/Symbionts_in_a_mussel_hybrid_zone).

90 Broken Spur parental mussels (13 *B. puteoserpentis*) and hybrids (17 F2 – F4 generation hybrids,
91 see supplement) were identified as described previously (Breusing et al., 2016, 2017) (no
92 parental *B. azoricus* were found at Broken Spur). Briefly, mussels were genotyped based on 18
93 species-diagnostic markers and identified as parental or hybrid mussels using bioinformatic
94 analyses of population structure, admixture and introgression (Supplementary Table S 2). After
95 DNA extraction and sequencing, we assembled metagenomes per mussel individual from
96 Illumina short-read sequences. Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) of the SOX symbionts
97 from each mussel individual were binned (for statistics of symbionts MAGs, see Supplementary
98 Table S 3), representing the consensus of all SOX symbiont strains in each host individual.

99 To evaluate genetic differences between symbionts from the northern MAR at the level of
100 bacterial subspecies (sensu Van Rossum et al., 2020, here between 97 % and 99 % average
101 nucleotide identity), we used 171 single-copy, gammaproteobacterial marker genes for
102 phylogenomic analysis of the SOX symbiont MAGs and their closest symbiotic, e.g. symbionts
103 of *B. azoricus* from vents north of Broken Spur and *B. puteoserpentis* mussels from vents south
104 of Broken Spur, and free-living relatives (see Supplementary Table S 5). To understand which
105 factors affect symbiont composition on the strain level at the northern MAR, we assessed the
106 influence of geographic distance, host species, vent type (basaltic versus ultramafic rock) and
107 depth on SOX symbiont allele frequencies using redundancy analysis (RDA). We analysed
108 Broken Spur symbiont MAGs at the genome-wide level by comparing their average nucleotide
109 identities (ANI) to resolve differences on the subspecies level. To resolve strain-level differences
110 between SOX symbionts from Broken Spur, we analysed pairwise F_{ST} values based on SNPs in
111 2496 orthologous genes from Broken Spur SOX symbiont MAGs. To identify genes that differed
112 between hybrid and parental symbiont populations, we analysed the presence/absence and
113 differential abundance of these orthologues, and further investigated pairwise F_{ST} values of all
114 2496 orthologous genes.

115 **Results & Discussion**

116 Phylogenomic analysis of 171 single-copy genes revealed the presence of two SOX symbiont
117 subspecies, one specific to *B. azoricus* from the more northern vents Menez Gwen, Lucky Strike
118 and Rainbow, and one specific to *B. puteoserpentis* from the vents further south, Logatchev and
119 Semenov (Figure 1 A, C).

Figure 1 | Phylogenetic relationships of *Bathymodiolus* SOX symbionts and their mussel hosts. (A) Overview tree based on 171 single-copy marker genes. The *Bathymodiolus* SOX symbionts from the northern Mid-Atlantic Ridge (blue, yellow and pink) form a clade within the gammaproteobacterial SUP05 clade. *Thiomicrospira* spp. and *Ca. T. singularis* PS1 were used as outgroups. MAG accessions are listed in supplementary table S 5. (B) Host phylogeny based on published mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI) sequences. “*B.*” *childressi* was used as an outgroup. Sequence accessions are listed in the supplement (“1.3 Reconstruction of *Bathymodiolus* phylogeny”) (C) Phylogeny of *Bathymodiolus* SOX symbionts from vents on the northern Mid-Atlantic Ridge, based on 171 single-copy marker genes. Colours correspond to vent sites shown in the map. Hybrid individuals from Broken Spur are marked with a grey star. *Bathymodiolus* SOX symbionts from the vent sites Clueless (5°S) and Lilliput (9°S) were used as outgroups.

B.: *Bathymodiolus*, MAR: Mid-Atlantic Ridge, GoM: Gulf of Mexico, EPR: East Pacific Rise, J: Japan, NP: North Pacific.

121 This substantiates previous analyses based on sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene and internal
122 transcribed spacer that these two *Bathymodiolus* species harbour different SOX symbiont
123 subspecies of the same bacterial species (DeChaine et al., 2006; Duperron et al., 2006; Won,
124 Hallam, O’Mullan, Pan, et al., 2003). Our phylogenomic analyses revealed that all
125 *Bathymodiolus* individuals from Broken Spur harboured a third SOX symbiont subspecies
126 (Figure 1 A, C). This new subspecies is most closely related to the *B. puteoserpentis* SOX
127 symbiont subspecies from mussels collected south of Broken Spur. These two symbiont
128 subspecies form a sister group to the SOX symbiont subspecies of *B. azoricus* collected at vents
129 north of Broken Spur.

130 To evaluate if the SOX symbionts of Broken Spur parental and hybrid *Bathymodiolus* differed,
131 we compared their average nucleotide identities (ANI) and estimated genomic differentiation
132 (F_{ST}) based on ~2500 orthologous genes. We found no significant differences, and also did not
133 see an effect of the year in which the mussels were collected (Figure 2). Our analyses of SNPs
134 per individual gene revealed that not even one of the ~2500 orthologous genes had significantly
135 differing F_{ST} values (Mann-Whitney U test of F_{ST} per gene between versus within symbionts of
136 hybrids and parental mussels). Similarly, there was also no significant difference between
137 hybrids and parental individuals in the abundance of symbiont genes (based on a general linear
138 model and Kruskal-Wallis test in ALDEx2 using Benjamini-Hochberg corrected p-value <
139 0.05) or their presence/absence. These results indicate that the composition and gene repertoire

140 of SOX symbionts in Broken Spur mussels is highly similar or identical in hybrids and parental
141 *B. puteoserpentis*. A study of SOX symbionts in hybrids of *B. thermophilus* and *B. antarcticus* at
142 23°S in the eastern Pacific also found that these could not be distinguished from parental
143 mussels, based on PCR analyses of seven bacterial marker genes in five parental and three hybrid
144 individuals (Ho et al., 2017).

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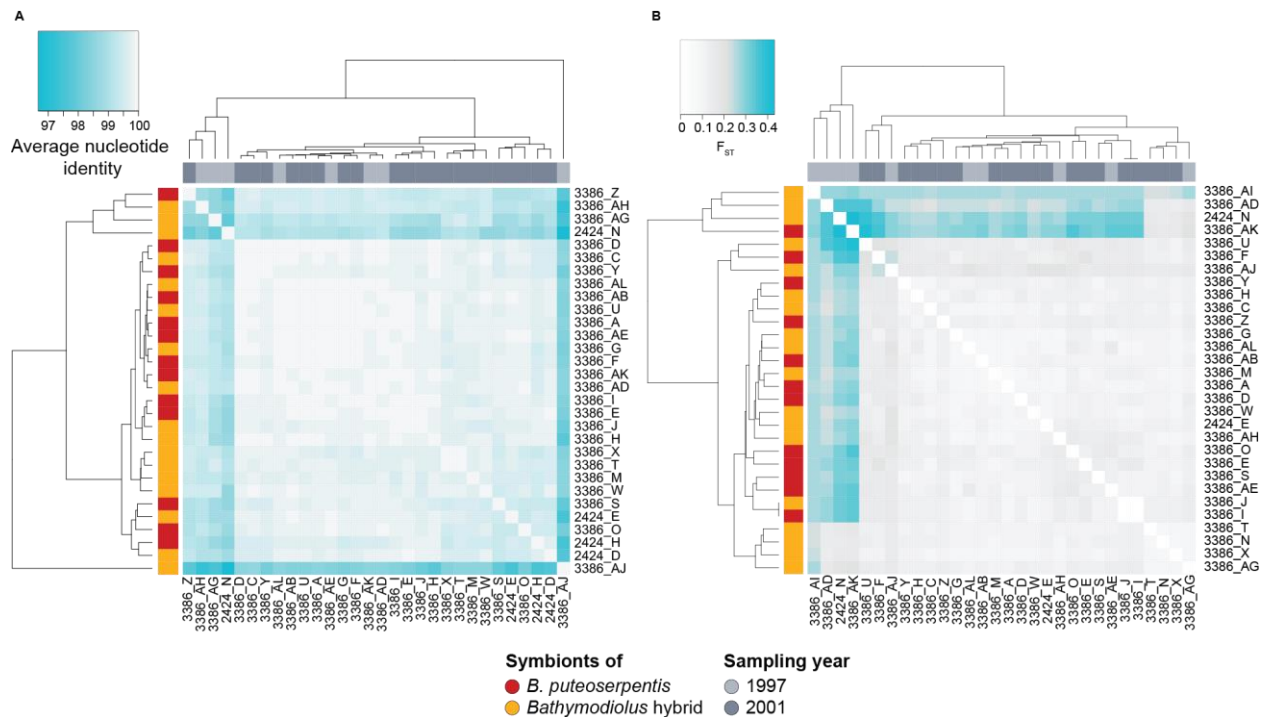


Figure 2 | Genome-wide differentiation of *Bathymodiolus* SOX symbionts at Broken Spur based on (A) pairwise average nucleotide identity, and (B) pairwise average F_{ST} based on 2496 orthologous genes. Colour bars represent host genotypes (red: *B. puteoserpentis*, yellow: hybrids) and the sampling year (light grey: 1997, dark grey: 2001). Turquoise indicates a higher differentiation or more dissimilar genomes. Neither clustering based on ANI (A), nor F_{ST} (B) correlates with host genotype (A: $r = 0.054$, $p = 0.222$, B: $r = 0.006$, $p = 0.435$) or sampling year (A: $r = -0.191$, $p = 0.949$, B: $r = 0.105$, $p = 0.150$).

146

147 Our results raise the question at what level of genetic divergence between two host species
148 differences in their symbiont communities evolve. *B. brooksi* and *B. heckerae*, which regularly
149 co-occur in the Gulf of Mexico, harbour different symbiont species that are only distantly related
150 to each other (Figure 1 A, B). These two mussel species have an estimated splitting time of
151 15.4 Mya (Faure et al., 2015), and are not known to hybridise. More closely related hosts, such

152 as *B. thermophilus* and *B. antarcticus* (estimated splitting time of 2.5 – 5.3 Mya (Won, Young,
153 Lutz, & Vrijenhoek, 2003)), and *B. azoricus* and *B. puteoserpentis* (estimated splitting time of
154 8.4 Mya (Faure et al., 2015)), produce fertile hybrids (Johnson et al., 2013; O’Mullan et al.,
155 2001), and have genetically indistinguishable symbionts in zones where they hybridise. This
156 suggests that specificity at the symbiont species level in these horizontally transmitted symbioses
157 evolves only after extended divergence times of tens of millions of years, during which these
158 hosts become genetically dissimilar enough to evolve specific symbiont selection mechanisms.

159 While *Bathymodiolus* mussels on the northern MAR host the same SOX symbiont species, our
160 phylogenomic analyses revealed clear genetic differentiation in three SOX symbiont subspecies:
161 *B. azoricus*, *B. puteoserpentis* and Broken Spur subspecies (Figure 1). To better understand the
162 factors that drive this symbiont differentiation, we tested which influence host species,
163 geographic distance, vent type (basaltic versus ultramafic rock) and depth have on symbiont
164 allele frequencies. All variables were highly collinear. For example, the water depth of the vents
165 studied here increases with geographic distance, from 800 m at 37.8°N, to 3050 m at 14.7°N
166 (only the southernmost vent at 13.5°N and 2320 m depth interrupted this pattern). Of the 49 % of
167 the SOX symbiont differentiation that could be explained, host species, depth and vent type
168 explained 23 %, 20 % and 14 % respectively. Geographic distance had by far the strongest effect
169 with 45 % of variation explained (p -value < 0.001, Figure 3).

170 There are at least two explanations for why geographic distance has such a large effect on the
171 SOX symbiont composition of *Bathymodiolus* mussels from the northern MAR. The first is that
172 genetic differences between the hosts increase with geographic distance. However, population
173 genetic analyses of *B. azoricus* and *B. puteoserpentis* from the same vents as in our study
174 indicated no genetic structuring within each of these host species (Breusing et al., 2016). This
175 indicates that host genetics do not play a major role in structuring the SOX symbiont
176 composition. The second, more likely explanation is that the free-living pool of SOX symbionts
177 is geographically structured. *Bathymodiolus* mussels acquire their symbionts horizontally from
178 the environment, presumably when the larvae settle on the seafloor (Won, Hallam, O’Mullan,
179 Pan, et al., 2003), and must therefore take up the free-living symbionts present in the surrounding
180 water. At Broken Spur, hybrids and *B. puteoserpentis* host genetically indistinguishable
181 symbionts, and these differ from the symbionts of *B. azoricus* and *B. puteoserpentis* from vent

182 sites to the north and south of Broken Spur. This indicates that in these two closely related host
183 species, geographic location but not host genetics drives the composition of their SOX symbiont
184 communities.

185

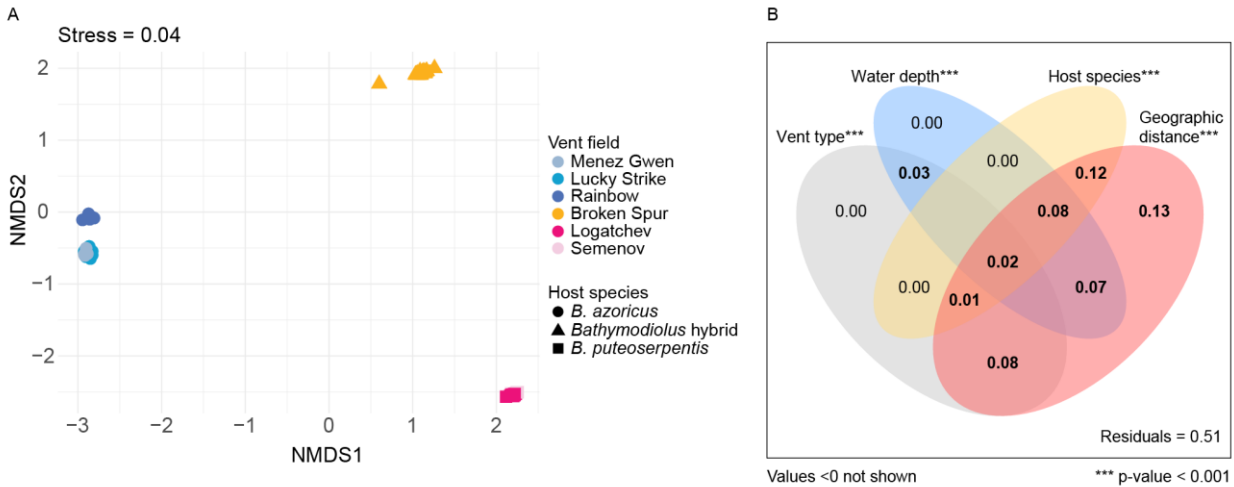


Figure 3 | Differentiation of *Bathymodiolus* SOX symbionts at the northern Mid-Atlantic Ridge and the influence of geographic distance, host species and environmental parameters (vent type and water depth). (A) NMDS plot of SOX symbiont allele frequencies show clear separation of the three symbiont subspecies at the northern MAR: *B. azoricus*, *B. puteoserpentis* and Broken Spur symbiont subspecies. Symbionts from Broken Spur cluster together regardless of the species affiliation of their host (hybrid versus *B. puteoserpentis*). Colours correspond to vent fields, shapes to host species. (B) Variation partitioning of explanatory variables used in the RDA (Supplementary Figure S 3). The variables vent type, water depth, host species and geographic distance explain 49 % of the total variation, with 45 % of the variation explained by geographic distance. P-values are based on permutation tests with 1000 repetitions.

186

187 Understanding the biogeography of the free-living stages of microbial symbionts and other as yet
188 uncultured microorganisms is currently one of the biggest challenges in microbial ecology.

189 While there is evidence that 'everything is everywhere, but the environment selects' (Baas
190 Becking, 1934; Wit & Bouvier, 2006), there is also increasing data showing that dispersal
191 limitation shapes the biogeography of marine microorganisms (Dick, 2019; Martiny et al., 2006).

192 Almost nothing is known about the biogeography of uncultivable marine microorganisms at the
193 subspecies or strain level, as most species are rarely abundant enough to allow phylogenetic
194 analyses at such high resolution. Advances in high-throughput short-read, and particularly long-

195 read sequencing, coupled with bioinformatic methods for revealing genetic structuring of
196 microbial populations, are now providing us with the tools for resolving the intraspecific
197 diversity of environmental microorganisms. Our study highlights the importance of gaining a
198 better understanding of the free-living community of microbial symbionts to disentangle the
199 genetic, environmental and geographic factors that contribute to the ecological and evolutionary
200 success of animal–microbe associations in which the symbionts are acquired from the
201 environment.

202 **Data availability**

203 Sequence data (metagenomes and symbiont MAGs) are available in the European Nucleotide
204 Archive (ENA) at EMBL-EBI under project accession number PRJEB36976
205 (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB36976>). The data, together with their metadata,
206 were deposited using the data brokerage service of the German Federation for Biological Data
207 (GFBio (Diepenbroek et al., 2014)), with the standard information on sequence data provided as
208 recommended (Yilmaz et al., 2011).

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222 **Contributions**

223 MÜ, RA, LS and ND conceived the study. MÜ performed laboratory work and analyses of
224 symbionts and hosts, prepared figures and tables, submitted data and code, and wrote the initial
225 draft. YS, RA and LS contributed to analyses of the symbionts. CB provided samples and
226 contributed to analyses of the host. MÜ, RA, YS and ND interpreted the results with advice from
227 the other co-authors. MÜ, RA, YS and ND revised the final manuscript with input from all co-
228 authors.

229 **Conflict of interest**

230 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

231 **Supplementary information**

232 Supplementary information is available at <https://www.biorxiv.org>.

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