Circatidal control of gene expression in the deep-sea hot vent shrimp

Shinkaicaris leurokolos

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Abstract

Biological clocks are a ubiquitous feature of all life, enabling the use of natural environmental cycles to track time. Although studies on circadian rhythms have contributed greatly to the knowledge of chronobiology, biological rhythms in dark biospheres such as the deep sea remain poorly understood. Despite a lack of day-night cycles, the deep sea is still affected by the tide, and some recent evidences suggest that the tidal cycle likely has non-negligible temporal effects on deep-sea organisms. Here, based on a free-running experiment, we reveal potentially endogenous biological rhythms in the gene expression of the deep-sea hydrothermal vent shrimp *Shinkaicaris leurokolos*. Oscillations with ~12-hour periods, likely reflecting tidal influence, greatly prevail over others in the temporal transcriptome. The tidal oscillated rhythms exhibit an antiphased expression pattern divided into two internally synchronized clusters, correlated with wide-ranging biological processes in the nucleus and cytoplasm, respectively. In some cases, circadian clock genes are necessary for circatidal rhythms and can be adjusted to tidal frequency. However, almost none of the identified *S. leurokolos* circadian clock genes show obvious rhythmicity, likely indicating an independent circatidal clock. These findings provide new insights into the temporal adaptations in deep-sea organisms and suggest that deep-sea hydrothermal vent organisms may be intriguing models for chronobiological studies.

Introduction

As an adaptation to natural periodic environmental changes, biological clocks have been evolving in all kingdoms of life to keep track of time [1-3]. Numerous organisms anticipate daily changes including light, temperature, and food availability, resulting in persistent rhythms dominated by circadian periodicity of ~24 hours at behavioral, physiological, and molecular levels [4-6]. To achieve this, animals rely on their internal circadian clock systems like transcription-translation feedback loops (TTFLs) that can be entrained to match the environmental cycles [7]. In dark biospheres such as the underground and deep-sea habitats, however, the absence of sunlight veils organisms there from the direct effects of everlasting day-night transitions. How organisms living in the dark schedule their activities through time, as an adaptation to darkness, remains obscure [8, 9].

The deep ocean, the largest but the least studied habitat on Earth [10], is of great interest for chronobiology research due to its distinct ecological environment [11]. With increasing depth the intensity, spectral composition, and degree of polarization of sunlight decrease dramatically, and are eventually absorbed and scattered completely at approximately 1000 m [12]. From the ecological perspective, it is more appropriate for deep-sea organisms to synchronize their biological rhythms with other zeitgebers (e.g., geophysical cycles) instead of the light cycle [13, 14]. Indeed, various environmental fluctuations related to tidal cycles have been observed in the deep, especially in hydrothermal vent ecosystems [15-18]. Vent faunas rely strongly on their local environment, and survive on organic compounds produced by chemosynthetic microbes through chemosynthesis utilizing dissolved chemicals in the vent fluids [19]. Therefore, vent animals are likely to be affected by spatial and temporal variations in environmental factors modulated by tides. Several previous studies have reported potential tide-related rhythms of behavior and community dynamics in deep-sea organisms from chemosynthetic ecosystems [13, 20-22], and a recent study revealed tidal cycles dominated the gene expression of the deep-sea vent mussel *Bathymodiolus azoricus* through periodic *in situ* sampling across 24.8 hours [23]. Although these evidences suggest that vent organisms exhibit biological rhythms in the wild, whether they need endogenous rhythms or clocks to accommodate and anticipate local environmental changes to maximize their fitness is still poorly understood.

In the Iheya North hydrothermal vent field of the Okinawa Trough, the alvinocaridid shrimp *Shinkaicaris leurokolos* lives in close proximity to the vigorously venting orifice

(0.2-0.8 m and occasionally less than 0.2 m from the vent [24]) where the hot plume and
cold surrounding seawater mix spontaneously and dramatically (Fig 1A and 1B) [25].
This differs from bathymodioline mussels that inhabit more peripheral areas of vent
fields (0.8-2.5 m and mostly greater than 2.5 m from the vent orifice [24]). In the central
areas where *S. leurokolos* occurs, however, environmental factors fluctuate frequently at
the seconds-minutes scale due to the vigorous mixing between hot vent fluid and cold
surrounding seawater, possibly masking any detectable tidal effects in terms of
temperature and chemistry. Considering the trade-off between tolerance and escape
response [26-28], perhaps an internal clock could help *S. leurokolos* respond to
occasional events (e.g., temperature anomalies) [29]. Therefore, we hypothesised that *S.*
leurokolos could schedule its activities either by direct response to environmental
changes or by an endogenous clock. Here, we addressed the biological rhythms of gene
expression in the vent shrimp *S. leurokolos* and tested if it can maintain rhythmicity
under constant environmental conditions through a free-running experiment across 72
hours.
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Results and discussion

Transcriptome analysis of deep-sea vent shrimp *S. leurokolos*
We reanalysed a published long-term temperature measurement (Mean ± SD = 4.4 ±
0.1□) [30] recorded at the periphery of the Iheya North vent field where bathymodioline
mussels typically occur, and found a steady semidiurnal tidal cycle with a periodicity of
12.4 hours (Fig 1C). Despite that, the temperature measured in the *S. leurokolos* colony
rapidly fluctuated between 7.63 to 17.74°C in approximately 2.5 minutes (Mean ± SD =
10.16 ± 1.71°C), and other environmental factors likely co-vary in the same period (Fig
1D) [31]. This dynamic environment likely masks any detectable tidal signals, which
could be potential synchronization cues for *S. leurokolos*.
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S. leurokolos shrimps were then collected from the top of the actively venting NBC
mound at the Original Site of Iheya North hydrothermal vent field (126°53.80'E,
27°47.45'N; 982 m depth) (Fig 1B), and immediately recovered in a
temperature-insulated biobox. Once on-board the ship, shrimps were transferred into a
lightproof seawater container in a dark cold room set to 4°C for the subsequent
free-running experiment. To our knowledge, the localization of the central clock in
crustaceans remains unclear [32], we thus fixed the whole cephalothorax and abdominal
segments of each shrimp every 4 hours for a total duration of 72 hours to see the overall
gene expressions in *S. leurokolos*.

The reference *de novo* transcriptome assembled from 57 samples (3 replicates per time

point) comprised 313,108 contigs with an N50 of 720 bases and contained 90,755

predicted open reading frames (ORFs), which showed 92% completeness (S:83.8%,

D:8.2%) with the BUSCO score. Candidate protein-coding transcripts with low

expression were filtered out, leaving 23,905 transcripts with a 60.4% annotation rate for

rhythmic analyses. A principal components analysis (PCA) of normalized gene

expression showed a rough trend from the start of sampling (0 hours) to the end (72 hours,

S1A Fig). Performing the Mann-Kendall trend test on the raw dataset, we found that

10,273 transcripts (i.e., 42.97% of the transcriptome) had a significant monotonic trend

(*P*-value < 0.05). The trend was then removed using CEEMDAN [33] to produce a steady

baseline and enhance the strength of rhythm detection methods (S1B Fig) [34]. In the

PCA results plotted using detrended gene expression, the trend disappeared and sample

points from different sampling times clustered together (Fig 1E), indicating a minimal

external effect on the experiment as the shrimps were seemingly experiencing the same

conditions.

General biological rhythms in the temporal transcriptome of *S. leurokolos*

We first used the eigenvalue/pencil [35] and ECHO [36] algorithms to carry out

unbiased identification of any potential periodic oscillations in the gene expression of *S.*

leurokolos. The results uncovered similar rhythmicity that most cycling transcripts were

identified as ultradian rhythms, which oscillated in the tidal range of 10-14 hours, while

much fewer cycling transcripts oscillated in the daily range of 22-26 hours (Fig 2A).

The eigenvalue/pencil algorithm was able to identify superimposed oscillations from

one cycling transcript. For cycling transcripts with multiple components composed of

tidal and daily oscillations, the amplitude of the tidal component is significantly larger

(Fig 2B), suggesting a stronger rhythmicity. Despite the high sensitivity of detecting

weak ultradian rhythms, the eigenvalue/pencil method could have high positive false

rates [37]. To validate the results, we compared several statistical rhythm detection

methods (S1 Table), and then detected cycling transcripts with two robust

nonparametric algorithms, RAIN [38] and empirical JTK_CYCLE (eJTK) [39].

Searching for cycling transcripts (FDR < 0.05) with periods in the range of 8-28 hours

at regular intervals of 4 hours, we found the number of rhythmic transcripts identified

by RAIN and eJTK both reached a peak at the 12-hour period that corresponded to a

tidal cycle (S2A Fig). Interestingly, the Venn diagram showed that ECHO shared many

common cycling transcripts with RAIN (60.8% of transcripts) and eJTK (65.8% of

transcripts) but detected numerous extra tidal transcripts (Fig 2C), likely due to the
inclusiveness of identifying different harmonics of oscillating elements [40]. Combining
the results of these three methods, we identified a total of 8,122 rhythmic transcripts
(33.98% of the transcriptome) in the tidal range (Fig 2C), versus 1,230 rhythmic
transcripts (5.15% of the transcriptome) in the daily range (Fig 2D). We then calculated
the root mean square (RMS) amplitude using LimoRhyde2 [41] to estimate the
biological effect sizes and found the tidal transcripts generally exhibited stronger
rhythmicity (Fig 2E).

Notably, there was an overlap of 600 rhythmic transcripts between the tidal oscillated
group and the daily oscillated group (S2B Fig). Ostensibly, 24-hour daily patterns could
not only reflect circadian effects but also generate in parallel with mixed semidiurnal
tidal cycles (see S2C Fig), diurnal tidal cycles, and inertial oscillations (about 26.4
hours at the sampling latitude). Here, influences of the latter two can be excluded
according to the Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis performed before (see Fig 1C).
Nearly 60% of the overlapped transcripts obtained lower adjusted *P*-values when
identified as tidal oscillations rather than daily oscillations, reflecting higher statistical
significance in the tidal component (S2D Fig). Furthermore, we calculated the RMS
amplitude of tidal and daily components and the results showed that most transcripts
had larger amplitude in tidal oscillations, indicating the tidal cycles contribute more
biologically relevant effects to the overlapping rhythmic transcripts (S2E Fig).
Therefore, in the temporal transcriptome of *S. leurokolos*, the proportion of rhythmic
transcripts dominated by approximately 24-hour daily cycles is considerably less than
the value obtained statistically, and the former is likely close to the proportion (2.6% of
the transcriptome) reported in the previous study on deep-sea vent mussels [23].

These results demonstrate sustainable endogenous rhythmic gene expression in *S.*
leurokolos under constant conditions. The temporal transcriptome is dominated by the
approximately 12-hour tidal rhythms, which greatly prevail over other oscillations with
different periods, especially the 24-hour daily transcripts that are likely unrelated to the
circadian rhythm.

Patterns of tidal gene expression in *S. leurokolos*
To uncover the biological rhythms ticking in the deep, we then focused on the dominant
tidal rhythms in the temporal transcriptome of *S. leurokolos*. Our 72-hour duration of
sampling covered approximately six tidal cycles, allowing us to test the stability and

robustness of rhythmicity in the tidal gene expression [41]. To capture the amplitude
changes over time, we fitted the gene expression to an extended fixed-amplitude model
using ECHO [36] and categorized the results into different oscillation types based on the
value of the amplitude change coefficient (see Materials and methods for details). For
convenience of analysis, we concentrated on the tidal transcripts identified by the ECHO
algorithm (Benjamini-Hochberg corrected P-values < 0.05). The analysis revealed five
types of oscillation groups, of which two (overexpressed type and repressed type) were
considered arrhythmic due to the sharp increase or decrease in amplitude, respectively.
For the rest of the tidal rhythmic transcripts, the harmonic group with stable amplitudes
comprised 23.57% (n = 1,499 of 6,361) of transcripts and the forced group with
amplified amplitudes comprised 24.65% (n = 1,568 of 6,361) of transcripts, whereas
51.78% (n = 3,294 of 6,361) of transcripts with reduced amplitudes were included in the
damped group (Fig 3A).
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Although there was a significantly amplified or reduced amplitude in at least 75% of
tidal rhythmic transcripts, the period and phase of most tidal cycles were seemingly
fixed. Interestingly, the whole tidal transcriptome exhibited an antiphased expression
pattern with many transcripts reaching the peak at the same time. We then divided the
tidal transcriptome into two clusters by gene expression using K-Means clustering (S3A
and S3B Fig). Cluster 1 and 2 showed a generally antithetical gene expression pattern
over time, and the phases were almost complementary in the tidal cycle (Fig 3B and 3C).
This bimodal expression pattern is widely observed in the circadian rhythms of
terrestrial organisms that experience transcriptional 'rush hours' preceding dawn and
dusk, which is considered to assist in making preparations for the impending change in
lighting [5, 6, 42]. Likewise, *S. leurokolos* could schedule its peak of tidal gene
expression around high tide and low tide to provide intrinsic fitness, as observed in
other marine organisms [43-45].
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The rhythmicity of 3,837 transcripts in cluster 1 was relatively stable with almost
equivalent amounts of modest forced, harmonic, and damped oscillations, whereas the
2,524 transcripts in cluster 2 were nearly occupied by damped oscillations that
decreased obviously in amplitude, particularly during the second half of experiment.
Considering the effects of raw gene expression on rhythmicity detection, we calculated
the significance of transcript overlaps between subgroups categorized by the original
trend or the oscillation type using Fisher's exact test, and found an extremely high
association between the two (S2 Table). Indeed, there was seemingly a strong

correlation between trend directions and oscillation types (S3C Fig). In other words, a

tidal transcript with a decreasing expression trend was more likely to have a reduced

amplitude, and vice versa. This likelihood was extremely high in cluster 2 where over

94% of tidal transcripts with a downward trend were also damped. Since we isolated *S.*

leurokolos shrimps from the hydrothermal vent and cultivated them under constant

conditions for 72 hours, there were unsurprisingly considerable changes in the gene

expression over time corresponding to transcriptional responses to potential stresses

such as decompression. Therefore, the amplitude likely decreases as a byproduct of

declining gene expression levels, especially for most transcripts in cluster 2. Although

desynchronization between different tissues of *S. leurokolos* could lead to arrhythmic

gene expression in our free-running study, we still detected a considerable number of

rhythmic transcripts with highly synchronized expression, suggesting the effect of

desynchronization was likely not significant.

Wide range of biological processes related to tidal cycles in *S. leurokolos*

The tidal rhythmic transcripts could be categorized by gene expression, oscillation types,

and original trends, all of which included several subgroups that likely reflected similar

or different biological relevance. To search for potential biological functions modulated

by tidal rhythms, we performed functional enrichment analyses over the tidal

transcriptome based on these three classification schemes using clusterProfiler [46].

Gene ontology (GO) and KEGG pathway analyses revealed that tidal rhythms generally

affected various biological processes such as DNA repair, regulation of transcription,

translation, transport, organelle organization, and citrate cycle (Fig 3D and S4 Fig). There

was an expected high correlation between the biological functions of classified subgroups.

For example, terms enriched in cluster 2 were more or less the same as those in the

damped or downward subgroup. Notably, rhythmic processes related to the nucleus

such as chromatin organization, DNA biosynthetic process, and transcription were

uniquely enriched in cluster 1; whereas rhythmic processes supported by the cytoplasm

such as translation, protein folding, vesicle-mediated transport, and oxidative

phosphorylation were highly enriched in cluster 2. Thus, it is likely that *S. leurokolos*

shrimps can organize various rhythmic biological processes in terms of spatial and

temporal expression patterns to coordinate their internal physiology, regardless of the

presence of clear zeitgebers.

In hydrothermal vents, particularly near the fluid orifice where *S. leurokolos* inhabits,

hot, anoxic fluids with abundant potentially toxic chemical substances (e.g., hydrogen

sulfide) mix dramatically with the cold surrounding seawater, resulting in an extreme
and variable environment. Vent organisms have evolved various adaptive strategies at
morphological, physiological, and biochemical levels [19]. We hypothesized that
intrinsic rhythms could help vent animals schedule their activities to cope with the harsh
environment, and as expected, we found many transcripts related to various cellular
stress response processes were tidally oscillated. These tidal oscillations include
sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase (SQR), 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase (3-MST)
and sulfotransferases (SULTs) genes that play a key role in sulfur metabolism (Fig 4A)
[47], together with catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione
S-transferase (GST), glutathione peroxidase (GPX), and several enzymes from the
Cytochrome P450 family, which are involved in the reactive oxygen species (ROS)
homeostasis and cellular detoxification (Fig 4B) [48, 49]. In addition, tidal genes
influence other cellular processes such as heat and hypoxia response, including heat
shock proteins (HSPs), hypoxia up-regulated protein 1 (HYOU1), hypoxia-inducible
factor 1-alpha inhibitor (FIH-1), egl nine homolog 1 (EGLN1) (Fig 4C). Most of these
transcripts showed damped rhythmic expression over time under constant conditions,
suggesting that *in situ* environmental cues were necessary for the maintenance and
synchronization of rhythmic processes related to stress responses. In contrast, most tidal
genes involved in the innate immune response of decapods, such as cathepsin L, relish,
akirin 2, prophenoloxidase-activating factor (PPAFs), and a homolog of *Rimicaris*
exculata (another alvinocaridid vent shrimp) C-type lectin 1, showed steady or
amplified expression over time (Fig 4D) [50, 51]. The results reveal broad tidal
regulation of gene expression in the cellular response to various environmental stresses,
suggesting an adaptive advantage for *S. leurokolos* living in harsh, fluctuating
environments.
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Mounting evidence suggests the presence of cross-talking between circadian clocks and
the cell cycle [52, 53]. Here, we found the annotation of many tidal transcripts was
related to the cell cycle. The transition between G1 and S is controlled and regulated by
key genes involved in the checkpoint pathways, of which several were tidally oscillating
in the transcriptome, including cyclin D2, tumor suppressor protein p53, c-Myc binding
protein 2 (MYCBP2), retinoblastoma-like protein 1 (RBL1), transcription factor E2F2
and E2F5, TIMELESS-interaction protein (TIPIN), and E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase
MDM2 (S5A Fig) [52-55]. In addition, major components of the RAD9-RAD1-HUS1
clamp complex that play pivotal roles in DNA repair oscillate in the tidal range (S5B
Fig) [56]. As crucial elements of the spindle assembly checkpoint (SAC), genes such as

mitotic arrest deficient 2 (MAD2), serine/threonine-protein kinase BUB1 and BUB3
that regulate chromosome separation were also found to be tidally cycling (S5C Fig)
[57]. Taken together, tidal rhythms appear to generally regulate the progression of the
cell cycle in *S. leurokolos* to cope with DNA damage derived from periodic intrinsic
and environmental stresses.
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Possible molecular basis and zeitgebers of biological rhythms in *S. leurokolos*
We reveal broad rhythmic gene expression of *S. leurokolos* under constant conditions,
and many of the oscillations show a high stability of rhythmicity over several cycles,
indicating the possible presence of endogenous oscillators that govern the dominant
tidal rhythms in *S. leurokolos*. Based on circatidal locomotor and gene expression
rhythms observed in various coastal and marine animals, two much-debated major
hypotheses have been proposed to explain the molecular mechanisms underlying
circatidal rhythms [58]. Generally, the circatidal rhythms could rely on either (a) an
independent circatidal oscillator (a unimodal 12.4-hour clock [59] or two coupled
unimodal antiphase 24.8-hour clocks [60]) that are not associated with the circadian
clock or (b) a single bimodal clock that could transform rhythms between circatidal and
circadian patterns depending on the dominant zeitgeber [61].
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We searched for and identified *S. leurokolos* homologs of the canonical circadian clock
genes that form the molecular oscillator in the fruitfly *Drosophila melanogaster*,
including Clock, Period (PER), Timeless (TIM), Cryptochrome (CRY), Clockwork
orange (CWO), Double-time (DBT, also known as casein kinase 1ε), Vrille (VRI), and
PDP1ε [7] (S6A-D Fig). These well-conserved core clock components form a negative
feedback loop containing transcriptional repressors Period and Timeless and
transcriptional activators Clock and Bmal/Cycle. However, no Bmal/Cycle transcript
was identified in *S. leurokolos* and the Clock transcript exhibited extremely low
expression that rendered it unfeasible for rhythm analysis. Indeed, all *S. leurokolos*
clock gene homologs lacked obvious 24-hour rhythmicity (Fig 5A-G). Although there
was a possibility that some clock genes oscillated in certain tissues, and were detected
as disorganized because of the desynchronization of expression from multiple tissues,
we found a relatively low number of 24-hour oscillated transcripts in the temporal
transcriptome of *S. leurokolos*. This may provide intrinsic fitness for these hydrothermal
vent shrimps that are likely completely isolated from the surface as adults [62].
Moreover, most clock genes showed a lack of rhythmicity in the tidal range as well,
except for Double-time, a kinase taking part in the post-translational modifications of

biological rhythms [63] (Fig 5E). The Period transcript tidally oscillated in the first half of the free-running experiment while becoming disordered and showing the opposite expression compared to the Timeless transcript in the second half (Fig 5A and 5B). Since a robust endogenous clock is required to be free-running with a self-sustained period for maintaining the rhythmicity of tidal oscillations in *S. leurokolos*, we hypothesize that there is a circatidal clock with independent molecular components from the circadian clocks. Separate circadian and circatidal clocks were also reported in the intertidal isopod *Eurydice pulchra* [64] and mangrove cricket *Apteronemobius asahinai* [65]. Nevertheless, the core clock genes still encode functional proteins with conserved domains (S6E Fig), and we cannot exclude the possibility that some core circadian clock genes are necessary for tidal rhythms [66, 67], even though they lose free-running transcription rhythmicity. These circadian clock genes may also be useful during the larval dispersal stage of the shrimp, which may take place in the photic zone [68].

Although *S. leurokolos* shrimps likely generate tidal rhythms using an endogenous circatidal clock, it is still difficult to understand and test how they synchronized their intrinsic rhythms given the highly variable environmental factors at their habitat. Temperature is likely not an appropriate zeitgeber due to the dramatic fluctuation with frequency at the seconds-minutes scale, which tends to disturb the entrainment. Moreover, the molecular heat stress response was observed to be rarely mobilized in the natural populations of alvinocaridid shrimps [28]. They choose to live in the thermal preferendum (10 to 25°C) most of the time and at the molecular level, are likely not sensitive to temperature changes [26]. As a phenotypic adaptation to the dark deep ocean, alvinocaridid shrimps such as *Rimicaris* and *Shinkaicaris* evolved a 'dorsal eye' instead of the externally differentiated eye [69]. Despite the lack of image-forming optics, this specialized organ is thought to be capable of detecting extremely dim light from the vent [70]. We then searched for phototransduction genes in *S. leurokolos*, including two main protein families, opsins and cryptochromes. We found a lack of light receptive-type cryptochrome transcript in *S. leurokolos*, but one transcript of transcriptional repressor-type cryptochrome involved in the regulation of the circadian clock showed a disordered expression (Fig 5C). For opsins, three transcripts were identified, including two middle wavelength-sensitive (MWS) opsins and one long wavelength-sensitive (LWS) opsin (S7 Fig). All three opsin transcripts were statistically arrhythmic, and quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed to validate the results (Fig 5H-K). Therefore, potential light sources at vents, including thermal radiation from the chimney and

possible non-thermal emission mechanisms [71], are more likely to serve as a constant

direction indicator to locate chimneys and therefore vent fluid, rather than acting as a

principal zeitgeber for *S. leurokolos*. Given temperature and chemistry fluctuate

dynamically, we suggest that food source [72, 73], pressure [74, 75], or even

soundscape cues from the surface [76, 77] could be potentially useful zeitgebers for the

deep-sea hydrothermal vent shrimp *S. leurokolos*.

Rhythmicity comparison of two vent species living in different microenvironments

A previous study on the Atlantic deep-sea hydrothermal vent mussel *Bathymodiolus*

azoricus revealed *in situ* biological rhythms predominated by tidal gene expression [23],

and here we report dominant free-running tidal rhythms in another vent species, *S.*

leurokolos. Despite the different geographic localities of the two species, they both

show similar biological rhythm patterns, likely reflecting a general influence of tidal

modulations on deep-sea vent fauna.

From an ecological perspective, the plasticity of biological systems permits organisms

to adjust their rhythms to cope with different environmental stresses [78]. For example,

in the intertidal zone, high-shore animals exhibited more pronounced behavioral and

transcriptional oscillations than the low-shore ones [43, 79]. In hydrothermal vents,

local geochemical environments are important factors determining the

micro-distribution of faunal assemblages, promoting vent organisms to evolve different

adaptation strategies [80]. A long-term *in situ* monitoring revealed high stability in a *B.*

azoricus mussel assemblage, and the temperature fluctuated mildly in both larger

mussels (Mean ± SD = 6.2 ± 1.5□) and smaller mussels (5.0 ± 0.1□) [80]. However, *S.*

leurokolos lives near the vent chimney, where the hot plume and cold surrounding

seawater mix spontaneously, and the temperature fluctuates more dynamically at the

seconds-minutes scale (Mean ± SD = 10.16 ± 1.71°C). Therefore, these two vent

organisms likely evolved different strategies in biological rhythms to cope with their

microenvironment variations.

To minimize the influence of rhythm analysis, we applied our transcriptome analysis

and rhythm detection pipeline to the published *in situ* gene expression dataset of vent

mussel *B. azoricus* [23]. Our analysis generated a total of 31,813 transcripts for rhythm

detection analysis, which was near the number of contigs assembled in the published

study (n = 34,196). As expected, rhythmic oscillations in the tidal range predominated

the *in situ* temporal transcriptome of *B. azoricus*. Compared to *S. leurokolos*, however,

the proportion of tidal transcripts in the transcriptome was lower in *B. azoricus*
regardless of the detection algorithm used (S8A and S8B Fig). Indeed, considering that
rhythmic gene expression was organ-specific [5], the result was disputable as we
detected overall rhythmicity within mixed tissues of *S. leurokolos*, whereas the study on
B. azoricus only worked on gills. We further examined and compared the strength of
tidal rhythms in the two species by calculating the rhythmicity index (RI) using the
autocorrelation analysis, and the results suggested the general rhythmicity of tidal gene
expression was greater in *S. leurokolos* (S8C Fig). This is unexpected since it should be
easier for *B. azoricus*, living in a relatively distant area from the vent orifice with stable
diffuse flow, to detect environmental factors influenced by tidal cycles. A possible
explanation is that *S. leurokolos* needs to depend on a strong pacemaker to predict
environmental fluctuations and prepare for transcriptional regulation, whereas *B.*
azoricus could schedule the transcription by either relying on an endogenous clock or
responding directly to the tidal-modulated environmental cues [23]. Why *S. leurokolos*
inhabiting a more dynamic environment shows more robust rhythms compared to *B.*
azoricus is an intriguing topic warranting future studies, although this could also be
related to intrinsic differences between mussels and shrimps.
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Conclusion

In this study, our analyses provide evidence for endogenous biological rhythms in the
deep-sea hydrothermal vent shrimps *Shinkaicaris leurokolos* through a 72-hour
free-running experiment and constrain the possible zeitgeber for biological clocks
ticking in the deep, shedding light on biological rhythms in the light-absent biosphere
(Fig 6). We propose that rhythms with a period of 24 hours driven by the conventional
circadian clock largely decrease or even disappear in adult deep-sea hydrothermal vent
fauna. Instead, rhythmic gene expression coordinated with approximately 12-hour tidal
cycles, which are likely controlled by an independent circatidal clock, evolved as a
temporal adaptation to the environmental fluctuations in hydrothermal ecosystems.
Independent of solar energy but being influenced by tidal cycles, organisms in the deep
sea may be powerful models for chronobiologists to decipher the evolution and
molecular mechanisms of circatidal clocks, important across a wide range of living
organisms.
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Materials and methods

Environmental temperature monitoring

The local fluctuations in the temperature of a *Shinkaicaris leurokolos* colony on the NBC chimney (126°53.80'E, 27°47.45'N; 982 m deep) of the Original Site, Iheya North vent field were measured using a RINKO dissolved oxygen and temperature sensor (JFE Advantech Co., Ltd.) during dive #1610 of the remotely operated vehicle (ROV) *Hyper-Dolphin* on-board R/V *KAIYO* cruise KY14-01 for 162 seconds, and data were recorded every second. Published temperature data in a peripheral area of the original site, Iheya North vent field far away from active chimneys, which were recorded continuously every 10 min from the 4th of September 2010 to the 20th of August 2011, were re-analyzed [30]. We used the Lomb-Scargle periodogram to detect periodicity in the temperature time series.

Sampling procedure and experiment design

A total of 184 adult individuals of *Shinkaicaris leurokolos* were collected by a suction sampler from the top of the NBC chimney at the Original Site, Iheya North hydrothermal field during dive #1613 of ROV *Hyper-Dolphin* on-board R/V *KAIYO* during the cruise KY14-01. *S. leurokolos* were kept alive in a sealed temperature-insulated biobox, and transferred into total darkness under constant temperature (4°C) after recovery on-board. After 2.5 hours, five *S. leurokolos* individuals were collected by a meshed scoop, dissected and fixed every 4 hours for a total duration of 72 hours. During the sampling, we did not provide any food source as the previous laboratory study on behaviors of vent shrimps revealed that the introduction of food largely increased the activities of these shrimps [73]. As a possible zeitgeber [81], external food source gives an opportunity for shrimps to synchronize their activities and even gene expression at a certain time, which should be avoided in the free-running experiment. Despite that, *S. leurokolos* may feed on bacteria attached to other individuals. We did not find any dead shrimps during the sampling, which might reflect the health conditions of *S. leurokolos*. The cephalothorax and abdominal segments of each individual were preserved in RNAlater (Invitrogen), kept at 4°C overnight, and then stored at -80°C until RNA extraction.

RNA extraction and sequencing

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol reagent (ThermoFisher) following the manufacturer's protocol. The quality of RNA was examined by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. The mRNA from each shrimp tissue was enriched by Oligo-dT probes

and further reverse transcribed to first-strand cDNA for library construction. All cDNA

libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform with 150 bp paired-end

mode.

***De novo* transcriptome assembly**

A total of 57 RNA-Seq samples were generated from *S. leurokolos* during 72 hours of

sampling at 4-hour intervals with three replicates per time point. Raw reads were firstly

trimmed using Trimmomatic version 0.39 (set parameters: LEADING:10 TRAILING:10

SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:50; [82]) in the paired-end mode, and then

potentially associated bacteria contamination reads were removed with Kraken2 version

2.0.8-beta [83]. In the absence of an available genome reference of *S. leurokolos*, *de novo*

assembly was performed with Trinity version 2.11.0 (set jaccard clip option; [84]). The

transcripts with the highest expressed isoforms were kept. Salmon version 1.4.0 [85] was

used to quantify the expression of each assembled transcript. Benchmarking Universal

Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO) version 5.0.0 [86] was employed to evaluate the

transcriptome completeness against the "metazoa_odb10" ortholog database.

Gene quantification and annotation

The Trimmed Means of M values (TMM) cross-sample normalization method [87] was

applied to remove the sequencing variations and potential "batch effects" among samples

using the abundance_estimates_to_matrix.pl script in the Trinity toolkit. The coding

sequences were translated into proteins using TransDecoder version 5.5.0

(https://github.com/TransDecoder/TransDecoder) and only the single best open reading

frame (ORF) was retained for each transcript. In addition, lowly expressed transcripts

with 0 counts in at least 38 samples (i.e. two-thirds of all 57 samples) were filtered out,

leaving 23,905 transcripts for subsequent analyses. The predicted proteins were

annotated by searching the candidate protein sequences against the NCBI non-redundant

(NR) database using BLASTP with DIAMOND version 2.0.13 [88] with ultra-sensitive

mode and E-value threshold of 1×10^{-5}, the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes

(KEGG) database via KEGG Automatic Annotation Server (KAAS), and the Gene

Ontology (GO) via BLAST2GO version 6.0 [89]. The gene enrichment analyses were

performed with ClusterProfiler version 4.2.2 [46].

Gene expression analyses

The principle components analysis (PCA) was performed using the plotPCA function in

R package DESeq2 version 1.34.0 [90]. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance

(PERMANOVA) and analysis of similarities (ANOSIM) were applied to test the

statistical significance of the PCA results. The potential monotonic trends in the raw gene

expression of all transcripts were determined with the Mann-Kendall trend test, and we

pinpointed two overall clusters of transcripts that had either an upward trend (S score > 0

and P-value < 0.05) or a downward trend (S score < 0 and P-value < 0.05). To remove the

trend and produce a steady baseline for subsequent rhythm analyses, we used

CEEMDAN [25], an adaptive decomposition method designed for non-stationary and

non-linear time series signals. The ceemdan detrend was performed with the R package

Rlibeemd [91] (set parameters: num_imfs $= 0$; noise_strength $= 0.4$; S_number $= 0$;

num_siftings $= 50$; ensemble_size $= 250$).

Rhythm detection analyses

Without benchmarking approaches for genome-scale analyses of biological rhythms [92,

93], we implemented the rhythmic analyses exploratorily under the considerations as

follows: (a) choose the appropriate rhythm detection algorithms; (b) generate an

overview of rhythmicity in our gene expression dataset using unbiased methods that can

detect a wide range of periods; (c) detect the rhythmicity for each transcript using

specialized methods with certain periods.

For *S. leurokolos*, we knew nothing about its biological rhythm, and no golden-standard

circadian or non-circadian genes were available for evaluating the detection power (such

as AUC values and ROC curves) of different algorithms [94, 95]. Thus, we assessed

various rhythm detection methods based on our experiment design (for details see

S1Table). Overall, we chose four rhythm detection algorithms in this study, the

mathematic method eigenvalue/pencil [35] (carried out with customized scripts), the

Extended Circadian Harmonic Oscillator application (ECHO; [36]), and two

non-parametric statistical methods RAIN [38] and empirical JTK_CYCLE (eJTK; [39]),

which were designed to detect asymmetric waveforms. For eigenvalue/pencil and ECHO,

rhythmic transcripts with the periodicity of 10-14 hours and 22-26 hours were considered

as tidal and daily oscillated [44]. Oscillations with the largest amplitude in one transcript

for eigenvalue/pencil were considered the dominant oscillation [37]. For RAIN and eJTK,

rhythmic transcripts with the periodicity of 12 hours and 24 hours were considered as

tidal and daily cycling. Multiple-testing was carried out to adjust P-values using the

Benjamini-Hochberg method for RAIN and ECHO, and an empirical method based on

the gamma distribution for combining dependent P-values for eJTK. Transcripts with an

FDR ≤ 0.05 were considered statistically rhythmic. The amplitude and Rhythmicity

Index (RI) of rhythmic transcripts were calculated by LimoRhyde2 [96] and
autocorrelation analysis, respectively. Significance of amplitude and detected P-values
between tidal and daily oscillations was examined with the unpaired Student's t-test,
while the paired Student's t-test was conducted on the tidal and daily component of
rhythmic transcripts. We also used ECHO to fit data with an extended fixed amplitude
model and categorize the oscillation type using amplitude change coefficient (γ) as forced
($-0.15 < \gamma < -0.03$; amplified amplitude), harmonic ($-0.03 \leq \gamma \leq 0.03$; steady amplitude),
damped ($0.03 < \gamma < 0.15$; reduced amplitude), overexpressed ($\gamma \leq -0.15$), and repressed ($\gamma >$
0.15), of which the latter two are considered arrhythmic [36]. The significance of
overlaps between rhythmic transcripts with different original trends and oscillation types
was examined using Fisher's exact test.

For the clustering of circatidal transcripts, we assessed four different clustering methods
with different numbers of clusters by validation measures using the R package clVaild
version 0.7 [97] and found the kmeans method with two clusters was estimated to be the
most optimal one. Heatmaps were drawn with ComplexHeatmap version 2.10.0 [98] on
Z-score normalized expression. All analyses and plots were performed in R version 4.1.1,
except for eJTK which was performed using Python version 2.7.

Identification of putative circadian clock genes
We searched for putative circadian clock genes in our *de novo* assembled transcriptome
using the proteic Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLASTP) carried out by
DIAMOND with a series of known core clock and clock-associated genes as queries.
For candidate circadian clock transcripts, sequences were scanned against the coding
regions and conserved functional domains using the InterProScan tools [99]. To
determine the sequence homology of candidate transcripts, we further conducted the
phylogenetic analysis. The amino acid sequences were first aligned using MAFFT
version 7.490 [100] and then trimmed using trimAl version 1.4.1 with the '-automated1'
option [101]. The maximum-likelihood trees were then constructed using the IQ-Tree
version 2.1.3 [102] with the ultrafast bootstrap approximation (UFBoot) and
ModelFinder for examining the best-fit model. Overall, we reconstructed four
phylogenetic trees by using the Q.insect+G4 model for the Clock and Bmal/Cycle tree,
the Q.insect+I+G4 model for the Period tree and the Timeless/Timeout tree, and the
LG+R4 model for the Photolyase/Cryptochrome tree. In the identified circadian clock
genes, the Clock transcript exhibited extremely low expression and was thus excluded
from the rhythm detection. Visualization of all phylogenetic trees was performed with

ggtree version 3.8.2 [103].

Quantitative PCR (qPCR) and phylogenetic analysis of opsin genes

To validate the gene expression levels deduced in the sequencing-based transcriptome

analysis, we also performed qPCR analysis on one target gene (*opsin*) and one gene

(*tubulin*) that serves as the internal standard in qPCR. In brief, the extracted RNA was

treated with DNAse I (Invitrogen), and sequentially reverse-transcribed into

single-strand cDNA by using the high-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied

Biosystems). QPCR was performed on A LightCycler 480 instrument II (Roche), and

the relative gene expression level was analyzed based on the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method.

Their primer sequences are listed below:

>Tubulin_F

AACACGGCATTGAACCAACC

>Tubulin_R

CTATCCATTGTCCCCGGCTC

>Opsin_F

GCATCCTCGACTCCTGTAGC

>Opsin_R

CACGCATGGCTTTTTCGTGA

As it was unclear about the maximum absorption of identified opsin genes, a

phylogenetic analysis was used to show the genealogy of the opsins of *S. leurokolos*

together with other arthropod opsins. We collected a total of 94 opsin sequences from

arthropods (including crustaceans, chelicerates, and insects), together with 5 vertebrate

opsin clade sequences as an outgroup. The phylogenetic analysis was performed with

the same procedure in the identification of candidate circadian clock genes. The

maximum-likelihood phylogeny was finally built using IQ-Tree with 1000 replicates of

the ultrafast bootstrap and LG+F+G5 model as the suggested best-fit model [102].

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Investigation: TY, CC

Writing – Original Draft: HYZ

Writing – Review & Editing: JS, CC

Visualization: HYZ and QQJ

Supervision: JS and TY

Project Administration: JS, P-YQ and TY

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability

Raw RNA-Seq data are available on NCBI as BioProject PRJNA993859. The *de novo* reference transcriptome of *Shinkaicaris leurokolos* is available in figshare (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23667327.v2). All original codes used in this work are available at GitHub (https://github.com/belphe/Shinkaicaris).

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Figure Legends

Fig 1. Deep-sea chronobiology study on the hydrothermal vent shrimp *Shinkaicaris leurokolos*. (A) *S. leurokolos* shrimps (in the green circle) live in the central zone where hydrothermal fluids mix with cold surrounding seawater spontaneously. (B) This work was performed with the *S. leurokolos* colony from the top of the active NBC mound at the Iheya North vent field, Okinawa Trough (126°53.80'E, 27°47.45'N; 982 m depth). (C) Time series of published temperature data covering 351 days recorded at the peripheral area of our sampling site. Lomb-Scargle (LS) periodogram analysis reveals a strong semidiurnal tidal cycle dominated by the M2 tidal constituent, the possible 26.4-hour inertial oscillation is extremely weak. (D) Time series of *in situ* temperature and dissolved oxygen records during 162 seconds when the sensor was placed in the *S. leurokolos* colony showing frequent environmental fluctuations with high variability. (E) Principal components analysis (PCA) plot showing the detrended transcriptomic data from the free-running experiment samples (n = 57). Significance of inter-group differences was examined by the PERMANOVA (*P*-value = 0.376) and ANOSIM (*P*-value = 0.958) analysis both on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities.

Fig 2. The *S. leurokolos* temporal transcriptome was dominated by tidal oscillations under constant conditions. (A) Distribution of the periods of oscillations identified by the eigenvalue/pencil method and the ECHO application. Oscillations with a period range of 10-14 hours and 22-26 hours are regarded as tidal and daily cycling, respectively. (B) Paired *t*-test plot of amplitude for the rhythmic transcripts with both tidal and daily components. (C, D) Venn diagrams detailing the number of rhythmic transcripts (FDR < 0.05) identified by ECHO, RAIN, and eJTK in the tidal range (C) and daily range (D). (E) Raincloud plot of the root mean square (RMS) amplitude for 12-hour tidal transcripts and 24-hour daily transcripts. The stars indicated the level of significance: **** *P*-value < 0.0001.

Fig 3. Free-running tidal transcriptomic patterns of *S. leurokolos*. (A) Density distribution based on amplitude change coefficient (γ) of tidal transcripts detected by ECHO. Oscillation types are categorized as forced (-0.15 < γ < -0.03; amplified amplitude), harmonic (-0.03 ≤ γ ≤ 0.03; steady amplitude), damped (0.03 < γ < 0.15; reduced amplitude), overexpressed (γ ≤ -0.15), and repressed (γ > 0.15), and the latter two are considered arrhythmic. (B) Rose chart showing phase distribution comparison of tidal transcripts in cluster 1 and cluster 2. For each oscillation, the phase is divided by period length and then times 360 (degrees) to normalize phases of transcripts with

different period lengths. (C) Heatmap showing highly synchronized gene expression of tidal transcripts (ECHO FDR < 0.05). Each row represents a transcript with three individuals per time point. Transcripts are clustered and ordered by phases, oscillation type, and monotonic trend. Expression of each gene is Z-score normalized. (D) Bubble diagram showing significantly enriched gene ontology (GO) terms related to biological processes of tidal subgroups categorized by three classification schemes (from left to right: cluster, oscillation type, trend). Cross symbols represent a lack of enriched terms in the corresponding subgroup.

Fig 4. Expression profiles of examples of tidal transcripts of interest. The listed tidal genes are potentially involved in various cellular stress response processes, including (A) sulfur metabolism, (B) response to heat or hypoxia, (C) antioxidation and detoxification, and (D) innate immune response. Data points are displayed as mean values ± SEM (n = 3 biological replicates per time point). Normalized expression curves are fitted via the generalized additive model (GAM). Minimum *P*-values of each tidal transcript identified by RAIN, eJTK, and ECHO are presented in the plot.

Fig 5. Expression profiles of core circadian clock genes and opsin genes. (A-G) Temporal expression of *S. leurokolos* homologs of candidate circadian clock genes for (A) PER, (B) TIM, (C) CRY2, (D) CWO, (E) DBT, (F) VRI, (G) PDP1ε. (H-J) Temporal expression of three identified opsin genes, including (H) one long-wavelength-sensitive (LWS) opsin and (I, J) two middle-wavelength-sensitive (MWS) opsins. (K) Opsin expression profile validated by quantitative PCR (qPCR). For RNA-Seq data, data points are displayed as mean values ± SEM (n = 3 biological replicates per time point). For qPCR data, normalized expression curves are fitted via the generalized additive model (GAM). Minimum *P*-values of results from tidal or daily detection of each transcript are presented in the plot. Significant levels of oscillations are indicated with stars: * FDR < 0.05.

Fig 6. A new perspective of biological rhythms in the dark biosphere. Terrestrial and shallow-water organisms largely rely on circadian clocks for anticipating periodic environmental changes such as the day-night transition. Living away from direct sunlight, subterranean mole rats scarcely depend on circadian rhythms for survival, and the endogenous circadian system is understood to be in the process of regression, even though still present. In this work, we found that in addition to the vent mussel *B. azoricus*, the vent shrimp *S. leurokolos* also shows robust free-running gene expression

1057   with a period of approximately 12 hours, likely reflecting the general effects of tidal

1058   cycles on deep-sea vent organisms.