



Cooccurring Activities of Two Autotrophic Pathways in Symbionts of the Hydrothermal Vent Tubeworm *Riftia pachyptila*

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ABSTRACT Genome and proteome data predict the presence of both the reductive citric acid cycle (rCAC; also called the reductive tricarboxylic acid cycle) and the Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle (CBB) in “*Candidatus* Endoriftia persephona,” the autotrophic sulfur-oxidizing bacterial endosymbiont from the giant hydrothermal vent tubeworm *Riftia pachyptila*. We tested whether these cycles were differentially induced by sulfide supply, since the synthesis of biosynthetic intermediates by the rCAC is less energetically expensive than that by the CBB. *R. pachyptila* was incubated under *in situ* conditions in high-pressure aquaria under low (28 to 40 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) or high (180 to 276 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) rates of sulfide supply. Symbiont-bearing trophosome samples excised from *R. pachyptila* maintained under the two conditions were capable of similar rates of CO_2 fixation. Activities of the rCAC enzyme ATP-dependent citrate lyase (ACL) and the CBB enzyme 1,3-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RubisCO) did not differ between the two conditions, although transcript abundances for ATP-dependent citrate lyase were 4- to 5-fold higher under low-sulfide conditions. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of internal dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) pools were varied and did not correlate with sulfide supply rate. In samples taken from freshly collected *R. pachyptila*, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of lipids fell between those collected for organisms using either the rCAC or the CBB exclusively. These observations are consistent with cooccurring activities of the rCAC and the CBB in this symbiosis.

IMPORTANCE Previous to this study, the activities of the rCAC and CBB in *R. pachyptila* had largely been inferred from “omics” studies of *R. pachyptila* without direct assessment of *in situ* conditions prior to collection. In this study, *R. pachyptila* was maintained and monitored in high-pressure aquaria prior to measuring its CO_2 fixation parameters. Results suggest that ranges in sulfide concentrations similar to those experienced *in situ* do not exert a strong influence on the relative activities of the rCAC and the CBB. This observation highlights the importance of further study of this symbiosis and other organisms with multiple CO_2 -fixing pathways, which recent genomics and biochemical studies suggest are likely to be more prevalent than anticipated.

KEYWORDS CO_2 fixation, reductive citric acid cycle, Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle, hydrothermal vent, *Riftia pachyptila*, *Candidatus* Endoriftia persephona, carbon dioxide fixation

Vestimentiferan tubeworms are often the dominant macrofauna at deep-sea hydrothermal vents and cold seeps (1). Bushes of these bacteria-invertebrate symbioses flourish in sulfidic deep-sea habitats (2, 3). Numerous organisms either consume them

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or live among their tubes; vestimentiferan tubeworms function as ecosystem-structuring primary producers (4, 5).

These chemolithoautotrophic symbioses obtain organic carbon via CO₂ fixation by intracellular sulfur-oxidizing autotrophic bacteria ("*Candidatus* Endoriftia persephoniae" [6–9]). The sulfide ($\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}; = \text{H}_2\text{S} + \text{HS}^- + \text{S}^{2-}$), O₂, and CO₂ needed for chemolithoautotrophy are absorbed by the plume, an anterior gas exchange organ (10). As the gases dissolve into the tubeworm's blood, they are bound by extracellular hemoglobins, which deliver them to the trophosome, a well-vascularized organ that fills the body cavity and is comprised primarily of bacteriocytes that house the endosymbionts (11, 12). The endosymbionts use sulfur oxidation to power CO₂ fixation, and the host tubeworm assimilates organic carbon from the endosymbionts (9, 13, 14).

One unusual aspect of tubeworm endosymbiont physiology is the presence of two pathways for autotrophic CO₂ fixation. "Omics," enzyme, and stable isotope data all provide evidence for the operation of both the Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle (CBB) and the reductive citric acid cycle (rCAC) in these organisms (15–19). Autotrophic microorganisms typically rely on a single pathway for CO₂ fixation, but genome studies are revealing several with the genetic potential to use two pathways (19–21), which challenges the current understanding of the ecophysiology of CO₂ fixation. Why or how both pathways would operate in a single organism is not clear; among other factors, the rCAC and CBB have very different tolerances for O₂, with the CBB being generally more robust to the presence of this dissolved gas (22) (but see Lückner et al. [23]). Since biomass synthesis via the CBB is more energetically expensive than that via the rCAC (24), it has been suggested that the endosymbionts might differentially regulate the pathways based on $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ availability in their habitat. It has been proposed that the rCAC could predominate when $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ is scarce, while the CBB could be used when $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ is more abundant (15).

This hypothesis is particularly compelling when considering hydrothermal vent tubeworms such as *Riftia pachyptila*, since $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in their habitat can be quite erratic (25). At vents, $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ is supplied from dilute hydrothermal fluid emitted from cracks in the basalt substratum. As this warm (2 to 40°C), anoxic fluid meets cold (2°C) bottom seawater, eddies are formed. As a result, *R. pachyptila* bushes are subject to seconds- to days-long oscillations in $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ (0 to 725 μM) and O₂ (0 to 100 μM) (17, 26, 27).

R. pachyptila has adaptations to maintain a steady supply of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ and O₂ to the symbionts despite the environmental heterogeneity. The hemoglobin-containing blood and coelomic fluids have a high capacity for both gases and likely dampen these oscillations in availability considerably (11, 28). However, longer-term changes in $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ availability are likely to have an impact on the symbionts. *R. pachyptila* trophosomes differ considerably in hue, which is correlated with elemental sulfur content. Elemental sulfur is an intermediate in $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ oxidation by "*Ca. E. persephoniae*." Yellow or green trophosomes have a high elemental sulfur content, while black trophosomes have lower elemental sulfur content, due to depletion of stored elemental sulfur by the symbionts (29). *R. pachyptila* freshly collected from hydrothermal vents has trophosomes with a range of sulfur contents (30), and it has been inferred that trophosome color corresponds to the $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ of the collection site; tubeworms with darker trophosomes are inferred to inhabit lower $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ habitats, while those with lighter trophosomes are inferred to inhabit higher $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ habitats (29). This range in sulfur contents suggests that long-term changes in external $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply result in changes in the internal supply of reduced sulfur electron donors available to the symbionts, which are likely to elicit responses in symbiont physiology, including expression of CO₂-fixing pathways.

Thus far, the evidence is mixed for differential regulation of the rCAC and the CBB as a response to $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply. Trophosome proteomes from freshly collected *R. pachyptila* with dark (low-sulfur) trophosomes sometimes show higher levels of rCAC-associated proteins compared to those of yellow or green (high-sulfur) trophosomes

(15, 31), but sometimes they do not (17, 32). Transcript abundances and proteome data from size-fractionated “*Ca. E. persephona*” also do not suggest a clear pattern of differential regulation of the rCAC and the CBB in response to $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply. Larger symbiont cells contain larger amounts of elemental sulfur, suggesting exposure to higher $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply; if $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply regulates the two carbon-fixing pathways, CBB enzymes should be more abundant in larger symbiont cells, while rCAC enzymes should be more abundant in smaller symbiont cells. Transcript abundances for *cbbM* (form II ribulose 1,3-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase [RubisCO], EC 4.1.1.39; CBB), the sole RubisCO gene in the symbiont genome, are higher (~5-fold) in large symbionts, as is that of CbbM protein (1.8-fold higher), appearing to confirm a correlation between high $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply and the CBB. However, transcript abundances of *aclB* (β subunit of ATP-dependent citrate lyase [ACL], EC 2.3.3.8; rCAC) are also higher (~1.4-fold) in large symbionts (32), as is that of AclA protein (α subunit of ACL; 1.8-fold higher). Oddly, the abundance of the AclB protein (β subunit of ACL) is 1.2-fold lower in these cells (32).

R. pachyptila biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ($= [(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{std}}) - 1]$, where $R_{\text{sample}} = ^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ in a sample and $R_{\text{std}} = ^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ in the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard [33, 34]) suggest inputs from both the rCAC and the CBB. Provided that organisms are drawing from sources of environmental dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC; $= \text{CO}_2 + \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{CO}_3^{2-}$) with “typical” values of -1 to $+1$ ‰, as has been measured at the hydrothermal vents inhabited by *R. pachyptila* (35, 36), autotrophs using the rCAC typically have biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of -9 to -13 ‰, while those using the CBB typically have values of -24 to -26 ‰ (37–43). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for *R. pachyptila* are -9 to -16 ‰ (44). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of proteins from “*Ca. E. persephona*” from dark trophosome samples are more ^{13}C -enriched than those from yellow or green trophosome samples, suggesting added input of carbon fixation via the rCAC in these symbionts (32). Lipid-specific $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values can also provide evidence for the activities of rCAC and CBB. Autotrophic organisms using the CBB introduce carbon into glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, while those using the rCAC introduce carbon into the citric acid cycle (24). The acetyl-coenzyme A (CoA) needed to synthesize fatty acids to incorporate into cell membrane phospholipids is generated differently when organisms are using the CBB versus the rCAC. For organisms using the CBB, carbon is passed through the final reactions of glycolysis, and the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex (EC 1.2.4.1, 2.3.1.12, and 1.8.1.4) introduces it to the oxidative citric acid cycle to make precursor compounds for biosynthesis. Some of the acetyl-CoA produced by pyruvate dehydrogenase is used for fatty acid synthesis. Pyruvate dehydrogenase discriminates against ^{13}C (45) and, as a result, the acetyl moieties of the acetyl-CoA molecules that it synthesizes are enriched in ^{12}C , resulting in more negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for the lipids synthesized from this acetyl-CoA (46). For organisms using the rCAC, the acetyl-CoA needed for fatty acid synthesis is formed by ACL, and lipids in these organisms are not enriched in ^{12}C (46). As a result, lipid $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values have been used to infer the activities of rCAC and CBB in autotrophic organisms (46); surprisingly, they have not been reported for *R. pachyptila*.

These previous studies relied on samples taken from *R. pachyptila* that had been freshly collected by submersible from the deep-sea hydrothermal vent environment, which has the potential to confound interpretation of resulting data. If *R. pachyptila* was gathered at the very end of the submersible dive, it had an hour-long transit to the surface (K. M. Scott, personal observation), followed by many hours in a cold room before dissection (31). The environmental conditions experienced by these worms was inferred indirectly via trophosome color, which is used as a proxy for environmental $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ (15, 31, 32). Results from these studies may be compromised by changes in transcriptome and proteome that could occur between collection and analysis, as well as uncertainty about the conditions the organisms had experienced prior to collection.

This study was designed to address the hypothesis that the rCAC and the CBB are differentially regulated in response to $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$, using *R. pachyptila* individuals that were placed in high-pressure aquaria immediately upon recovery at the surface and

maintained at pressures, temperatures, and $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ and O_2 concentrations spanning the range measured *in situ*. Conditions in high-pressure aquaria were monitored for 2 to 3 days, providing a measured history of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ exposure, and *R. pachyptila* samples were dissected immediately upon depressurization.

RESULTS

Comparison of parameters measured from *R. pachyptila* individuals maintained in aquaria with previously reported measurements. Physiological parameters measured from *R. pachyptila* individuals maintained in high-pressure aquaria are listed individually in Tables S1 to S3 in the supplemental material, and are similar to previously reported measurements. Concentrations of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ in mixtures of blood and coelomic fluid were 0.012 to 4.008 mM, overlapping with the range previously observed in *R. pachyptila* individuals maintained in high-pressure aquaria (blood and coelomic fluid $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ to 10 mM [47]). Other parameters spanned the range observed in freshly collected *R. pachyptila* specimens. Trophosome sulfur content ranged from 3 to 22.6% (for freshly collected individuals, 0.4 to 10.3% [30]). Trophosome CO_2 fixation rates were 3.67 to 26.4 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$, similar to those measured from freshly collected *R. pachyptila* samples and incubated under similar conditions (11 to 25 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ [48]). Enzyme activities also matched previously measured values (RuBisCO, this study, 0.002 to 0.0117 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg protein}^{-1}$; in previous studies, 0.006 to 0.029 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg protein}^{-1}$ [49, 50]; ACL, this study, 0.04 to 0.459 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg protein}^{-1}$; in a previous study, 0.032 $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg protein}^{-1}$ [15]). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of biomass (−10.3 to −13.5‰) also resemble those previously collected from fresh individuals (−9 to −16‰ [51]).

Impact of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply on internal forms of sulfur in *R. pachyptila*. *R. pachyptila* individuals maintained in aquaria with low concentrations of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ due to low rates of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply (Fig. 1) had low $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in blood and coelomic fluid. *R. pachyptila* individuals incubated in aquaria with high concentrations of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ had higher $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in blood and coelomic fluid (Fig. 2A and Table 1, $P < 0.01$; see also Tables S1 and S2). Trophosome elemental sulfur content was often much higher in *R. pachyptila* individuals incubated under higher $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ conditions (Fig. 2B), but the correlation between trophosome elemental sulfur content and aquarium $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentration or supply was weaker (Table 1; $P = 0.079$ and 0.225, respectively). Trophosome elemental sulfur content did reflect the $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in blood and coelomic fluid (Table 1; $P = 0.014$).

Impact of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ and O_2 supply on symbiont CO_2 fixation parameters. Symbiont autotrophic potential, which was assayed by measuring the CO_2 fixation rate by trophosome samples that had been gently disrupted to keep the symbionts intact, did not reflect $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in, or rates of supply to, aquaria (Table 2 and Table S1). Trophosome CO_2 fixation rates also did not reflect the concentration of $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ measured in the blood and coelomic fluid of the *R. pachyptila* individuals from which the trophosome samples had been excised, nor did they reflect the trophosome elemental sulfur content (Table 2).

Activities of ACL and RuBisCO also did not correlate with $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ abundance in the aquaria with or $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in blood and coelomic fluid (Table 2 and Fig. 3). The ACL assay detected similar levels of activity of this enzyme in both trophosome and vestimentum samples (see Table S4 in the supplemental material), which suggests that the ACL activities measured in the trophosome are a combination of host and symbiont enzyme activities.

$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, calculated from differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of internal and external DIC (Tables S2 and S3), did not reflect internal or external $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ abundance, or elemental sulfur content. If the rCAC predominates when reduced sulfur compounds are scarce, and the CBB predominates when they are more abundant, positive correlations are expected, as the CBB discriminates far more strongly against ^{13}C -DIC than the rCAC does (46). This should result in more positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for DIC in trophosome or blood and coelomic fluid samples compared to those for DIC in the aquarium water.

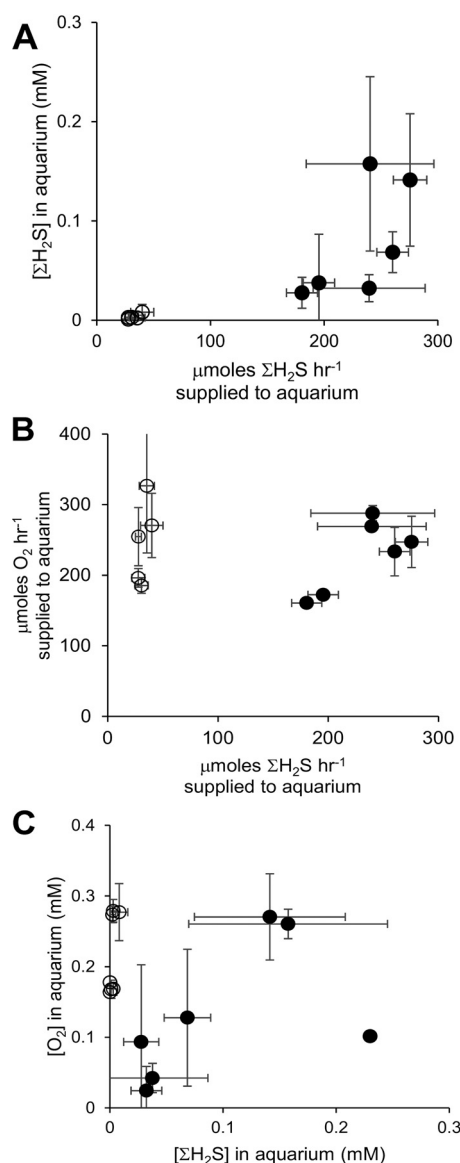


FIG 1 $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ and oxygen concentrations in high-pressure flowthrough aquaria used to maintain *Riftia pachyptila*. (A) $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in the aquaria as a function of the rate of $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply to the aquaria. (B) Rate of $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply to the aquaria versus rate of supply of O_2 . (C) O_2 concentrations versus $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in the aquaria. Open symbols indicate “low $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ” aquaria, and filled symbols indicate “high $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ” aquaria. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of the data.

Instead, some comparisons had positive correlations, others had negative correlations, and none of the models fitting the data were strongly supported (Table 2).

Likewise, there did not appear to be a connection between O_2 supply and symbiont CO_2 fixation parameters (Table 3). While $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values regressed on O_2 supply sometimes resulted in models with strong support ($P = 0.008$ to 0.044 ; Table 3), one correlation was negative and two were positive, which does not provide support for rCAC or CBB activity responding to environmental O_2 concentrations.

Symbiont CO_2 fixation parameters did not correlate with each other (Table 4). Neither RubisCO nor ACL activity correlated with trophosome CO_2 fixation rates or with $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. However, ACL and RubisCO activity may be positively correlated ($P = 0.056$).

Impact of $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply rate on transcription of genes encoding CBB and rCAC enzymes. Transcripts per million (tpm) of both subunits of ACL were more abundant under low $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ conditions than under high $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ conditions (Fig. 4; $P < 0.05$), with β values of 2.3 and 2.04 for the alpha and beta subunits of ACL. These values correspond

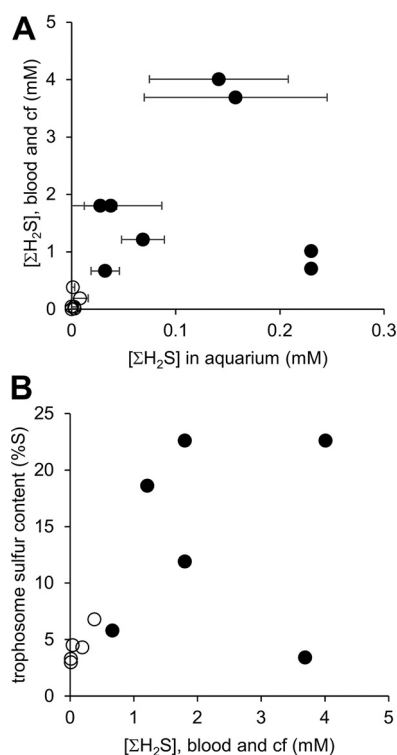


FIG 2 Internal and external sulfur parameters of *Riftia pachyptila* maintained in high-pressure flowthrough aquaria. (A) $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in *R. pachyptila* mixed blood and coelomic fluid as a function of the $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in the aquaria. (B) trophosome sulfur content as a function of $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in *R. pachyptila* mixed blood and coelomic fluid. Open symbols indicate low $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ aquaria, and filled symbols indicate high $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ aquaria. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of the data.

to 4.9- and 4.1-fold increases. In contrast, RubisCO transcript abundance did not differ between low and high $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ treatments.

Stable isotope compositions of lipids and biomass. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of fatty acids and biomass from trophosome samples and “*Ca. E. persephona*” from freshly collected *R. pachyptila* samples suggest input from both the rCAC and CBB (Table 5). Trends from *Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus* and *Chlorobium tepidum* are consistent with their CO_2 fixation pathways (CBB and rCAC, respectively); relative to biomass, lipids from *H. crunogenus* were ^{13}C depleted, and *C. tepidum* lipids were enriched (Table 5). Lipids from *R. pachyptila* trophosome samples and “*Ca. Endoriftia persephona*” were also enriched in ^{13}C , but to a lesser extent than those measured for autotrophs relying entirely on the rCAC (Table 5).

DISCUSSION

We hypothesized that “*Ca. E. persephona*” would predominantly use the rCAC for CO_2 fixation when exposed to low $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ conditions, since the rCAC requires less

TABLE 1 Rank correlations between internal and external sulfur compounds in *Riftia pachyptila* maintained in high-pressure aquaria

Comparison ^b	r^2	Positive or negative	F	P	n^a
Blood and CF $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ vs $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply rate	0.647	+	16.5	0.002	11
Blood and CF $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ vs $[\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}]$ in aquarium	0.582	+	26.4	0.000	21
Trophosome sulfur content vs $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply rate	0.303	+	3.91	0.079	11
Trophosome sulfur content vs $[\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}]$ in aquarium	0.159	+	1.70	0.225	11
Trophosome sulfur content vs blood and CF $[\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}]$	0.506	+	9.21	0.014	11

^aNo. of *R. pachyptila* individuals.

^bCF, coelomic fluid.

TABLE 2 Rank correlations between sulfur compounds and CO₂ fixation parameters in *Riftia pachyptila* maintained in high-pressure aquaria

Comparison ^b	r ²	Positive or negative	F	P	n ^a
Trophosome CO ₂ fixation rate vs \sum H ₂ S supply rate	0.113	+	1.15	0.312	11
Trophosome CO ₂ fixation rate vs [\sum H ₂ S] in aquarium	0.044	+	0.41	0.537	11
Trophosome CO ₂ fixation rate vs blood and CF [\sum H ₂ S]	0.013	+	0.12	0.739	11
Trophosome CO ₂ fixation rate vs trophosome sulfur content	0.001	—	0.01	0.912	11
RubisCO activity vs \sum H ₂ S supply rate	0.021	+	0.19	0.670	11
RubisCO activity vs [\sum H ₂ S] in aquarium	<0.001	—	<0.01	0.958	11
RubisCO activity vs blood and CF [\sum H ₂ S]	0.003	—	0.02	0.878	11
RubisCO activity vs trophosome sulfur content	0.007	+	0.07	0.803	11
ACL activity vs \sum H ₂ S supply rate	0.004	—	0.04	0.853	11
ACL activity vs [\sum H ₂ S] in aquarium	<0.001	+	<0.01	0.958	11
ACL activity vs blood and CF [\sum H ₂ S]	0.099	—	0.99	0.346	11
ACL activity vs trophosome sulfur content	0.199	—	2.24	0.169	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})^c$ vs \sum H ₂ S supply rate	0.024	+	0.22	0.649	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})$ vs [\sum H ₂ S] in aquarium	0.028	+	0.41	0.533	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})$ vs blood and CF [\sum H ₂ S]	0.122	+	1.80	0.203	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})$ vs trophosome sulfur content	0.079	+	0.77	0.403	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{trophosome}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})$ vs [\sum H ₂ S] in aquarium	0.305	+	1.75	0.256	6
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{trophosome}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})$ vs blood and CF [\sum H ₂ S]	0.516	—	3.20	0.172	5
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{trophosome}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}})$ vs [\sum H ₂ S] in aquarium	0.750	—	9.00	0.058	5
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{trophosome}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}})$ vs blood and CF [\sum H ₂ S]	0.800	—	3.56	0.200	4

^aNo. of *R. pachyptila* individuals.^bCF, coelomic fluid; ACL, ATP-dependent citrate lyase.^c $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_a - \text{DIC}_b) = (\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C of DIC}_a) - (\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C of DIC}_b)$.

energy to synthesize biomass from CO₂ than the CBB does (24). The results from this study did not provide strong support for this hypothesis. Trophosome CO₂ fixation rates, enzyme activities, and $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values varied considerably between samples collected from different *R. pachyptila* and did not correlate with \sum H₂S supply to aquaria in which they had been maintained (Table 2 and Fig. 3; see also Tables S1 to S3 in the supplemental material). The abundance of transcripts of the gene encoding RubisCO were similar under low \sum H₂S versus high \sum H₂S conditions (Fig. 4). Transcripts of genes encoding the two subunits of ACL were the only parameters to have a consistent and measurable response to \sum H₂S supply, with their abundance moderately elevated (4.1- to 4.9-fold more abundant) under low \sum H₂S conditions (Fig. 4). Based on these results, which are the first to be collected for *R. pachyptila* samples whose environmental conditions were extensively measured prior to analysis, the environmental \sum H₂S conditions tested here do not result in large changes in the use of the rCAC or the CBB.

In order for this conclusion to be warranted, it is necessary for *R. pachyptila* to have been maintained for sufficient time for the conditions within *R. pachyptila*, where “*Ca. E. persephonae*” is housed, to reflect external conditions. This does appear to have been the case for the *R. pachyptila* samples used for this study, which had been maintained under low or high \sum H₂S conditions for 48 to 72 h. Their internal sulfur stores (blood and coelomic fluid \sum H₂S and trophosome elemental sulfur content) reflected external \sum H₂S concentrations. Low \sum H₂S conditions resulted in lower \sum H₂S concentrations in the blood and coelomic fluid, and *R. pachyptila* with elevated \sum H₂S concentrations in the blood and coelomic fluid had higher trophosome elemental sulfur content (Table 1 and Fig. 2). Since internal sulfur availability reflected external \sum H₂S conditions, it is reasonable to expect that if the rCAC or the CBB were differentially regulated in response to environmental \sum H₂S, there should have been a measurable and consistent change in the CO₂ fixation parameters measured here.

Given that ACL transcript levels were elevated under low \sum H₂S conditions, it is puzzling that ACL enzyme activities were not (Fig. 3 and Table 2). It is likely that the ACL activities measured in trophosome samples were a mixture of animal and bacterial ACL activities, since ACL activities were also detected in samples of *R. pachyptila* vestimentum, which do not contain symbionts (see Table S4 in the supplemental material). The host tubeworm, like other animals, may be using ACL for fatty acid biosynthesis (52). The

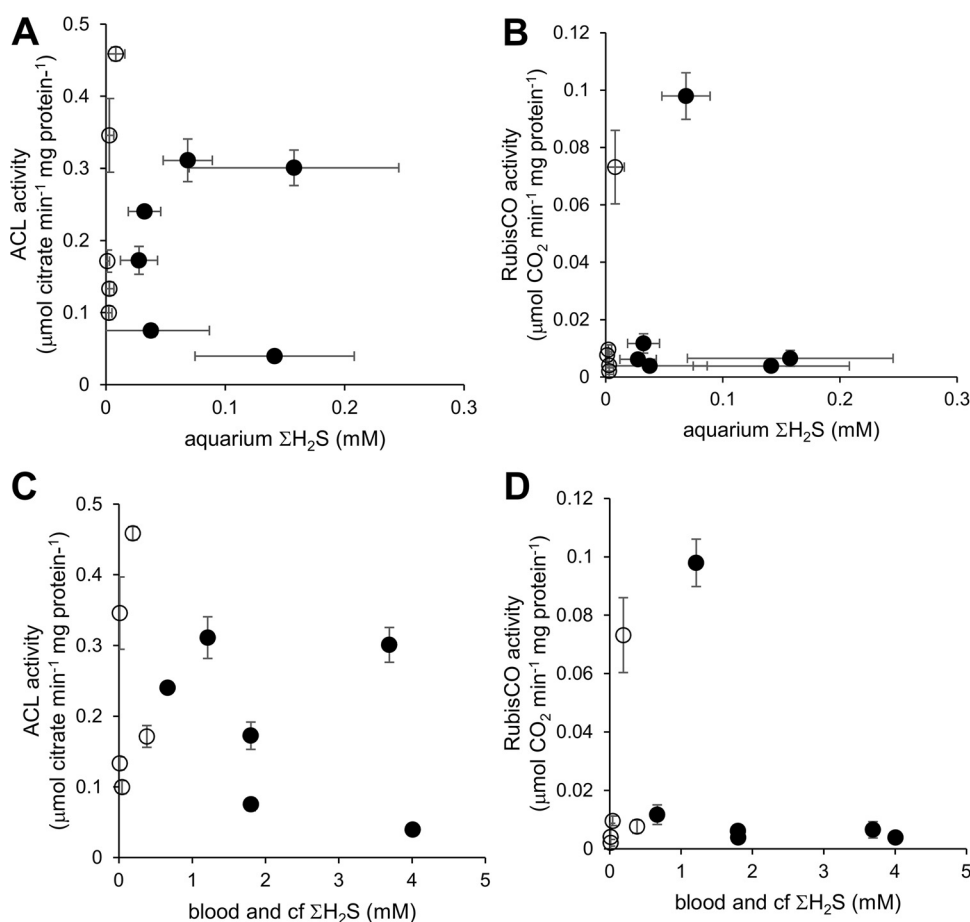


FIG 3 Enzyme activities of trophosome samples from *Riftia pachyptila* maintained in high-pressure flowthrough aquaria. (A) ATP-dependent citrate lyase (ACL activity) and (B) RubisCO activity as a function of $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in the aquaria. (C) ACL activity and (D) RubisCO activity as a function of the $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations in *R. pachyptila* mixed blood and coelomic fluid. Open symbols indicate low $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ aquaria, and filled symbols indicate high $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ aquaria. Error bars indicate the standard deviations of the data.

presence of “animal” ACL activities could obscure differences in levels of “bacterial” ACL in trophosome samples, especially if these differences are small. It is difficult to predict the differences in enzyme activity resulting from 4.1- to 4.9-fold differences in bacterial ACL transcript levels. Differences of a similar magnitude (~5-fold higher) in transcript abundance for the gene encoding “*Ca. E. persephona*” RubisCO were correlated with a

TABLE 3 Rank correlations between oxygen and CO_2 fixation parameters in *Riftia pachyptila* maintained in high-pressure aquaria

Comparison ^b	r^2	Positive or negative	F	P	n ^a
Trophosome CO_2 fixation rate vs O_2 supply rate	0.250	+	3.00	0.118	11
Trophosome CO_2 fixation rate vs $[\text{O}_2]$ in aquarium	0.056	+	0.53	0.484	11
RubisCO activity vs O_2 supply rate	0.126	+	1.29	0.284	11
RubisCO activity vs $[\text{O}_2]$ in aquarium	0.040	–	0.38	0.555	11
ACL activity vs O_2 supply rate	0.010	+	0.09	0.770	11
ACL activity vs $[\text{O}_2]$ in aquarium	<0.001	–	<0.01	0.979	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})^c$ vs O_2 supply rate	0.088	–	0.87	0.377	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})$ vs $[\text{O}_2]$ in aquarium	0.260	–	4.92	0.044	16
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{trophosome}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{aquarium}})$ vs $[\text{O}_2]$ in aquarium	0.857	+	24.00	0.008	6
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{trophosome}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}})$ vs $[\text{O}_2]$ in aquarium	0.900	+	27.00	0.014	5

^aNo. of *R. pachyptila* individuals.

^bACL, ATP-dependent citrate lyase.

^c $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_a - \text{DIC}_b) = (\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C of DIC}_a) - (\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C of DIC}_b)$.

TABLE 4 Rank correlations among CO₂ fixation parameters in *Riftia pachyptila* maintained in high-pressure aquaria

Comparison ^b	<i>r</i> ²	Positive or negative	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>n</i> ^a
RubisCO activity vs trophosome CO ₂ fixation rate	0.001	—	<0.01	0.937	11
ACL activity vs trophosome CO ₂ fixation rate	0.036	—	0.34	0.574	11
ACL activity vs RubisCO activity	0.349	+	4.83	0.056	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{vessel}})^c$ vs RubisCO activity	0.065	+	0.63	0.449	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{vessel}})$ vs ACL activity	0.030	+	0.28	0.611	11
$\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_{\text{blood and CF}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{vessel}})$ vs trophosome CO ₂ fixation rate	0.143	—	1.50	0.252	11

^aNo. of *R. pachyptila* individuals.^bACL, ATP-dependent citrate lyase.^c $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{DIC}_a - \text{DIC}_b) = (\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C of DIC}_a) - (\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C of DIC}_b)$.

1.8-fold higher abundance of RubisCO protein (32). This raises the possibility that the differences in ACL transcript abundance measured in this study also resulted in small differences in symbiont ACL activity, which could have been obscured by the presence of “animal” ACL activities in trophosome samples.

What is clear is that further exploration is needed to decipher whether environmental cues could influence the proportion of CO₂ fixed by the rCAC and the CBB in this symbiosis. One possibility is that it may take longer than 48 to 72 h for the CO₂-fixing pathway expressed by “*Ca. E. persephonae*” to respond to conditions external to the host. If logistically possible, it would be good to determine whether longer exposures to different environmental conditions would elicit the anticipated changes. Alternatively, it is possible that exposure to a larger span in environmental $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations could make up- or down-regulation more obvious. However, the $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations chosen for this study reflect those present *in situ*, making interpreting the results from a broader range problematic. Another possible approach would be to explore the influence of oxygen concentrations,

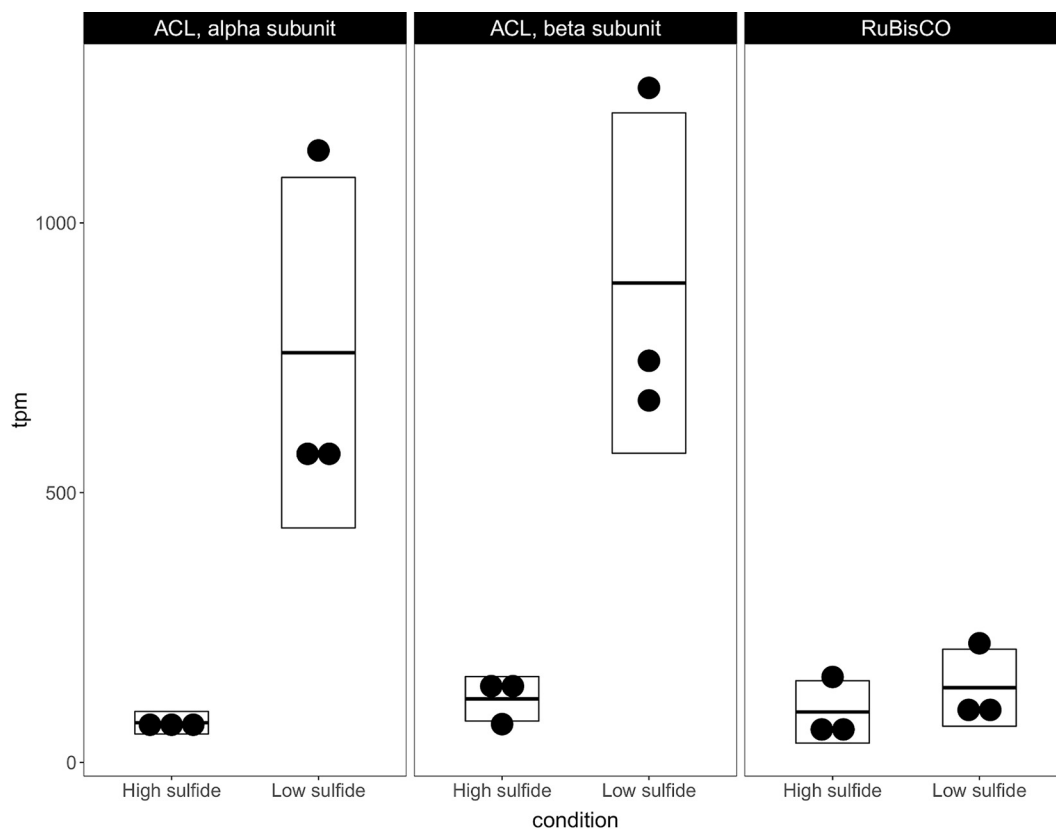


FIG 4 Transcripts per million (tpm) from genes encoding primary enzymes from the rCAC (ACL alpha and beta subunits) and the CBB (RubisCO), from *Riftia pachyptila* individuals maintained in high-pressure aquaria under high or low $\Sigma\text{H}_2\text{S}$ conditions. Each black circle represents transcripts from a different *R. pachyptila* specimen (3 per treatment). Boxes represent the mean and two standard deviations from the mean.

TABLE 5 Stable isotope composition of autotrophic microorganisms and bulk biomass and lipids from trophosome and symbiont samples from freshly collected *Riftia pachyptila*

Sample	Autotrophic pathway ^a	Biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) ^b	16:0 $\delta^{13}\text{C}^c$ (‰)	18:0 $\delta^{13}\text{C}^c$ (‰)	$\epsilon_{\text{biomass}/16:0}^d$ (‰)	$\epsilon_{\text{biomass}/18:0}^d$ (‰)
<i>Synechocystis</i> UTEX 2470	CBB				7.6 ^e	
<i>Nitrosomonas europaea</i>	CBB				6.9 ^e	
<i>Allochromatium vinosum</i>	CBB				4.8 ^e	
<i>Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus</i>	CBB	−39.9	−44.3 ± 0.9	−46.9 ± 0.6	4.4	7
" <i>Ca. Endoriftia persephona</i> " ^f		−13.7	−12.2 ± 0.3	−14.2 ± 1.9	−1.5	0.5
<i>R. pachyptila</i> 1 trophosome		−13.5	−11.9 ± 0.3	−7.1 ± 1.6	−1.6	−6.4
<i>R. pachyptila</i> 2 trophosome		−9.8	−7.5 ± 0.2	−5.1 ± 1.4	−2.3	−4.7
" <i>Ca. Endoriftia persephona</i> " from <i>R. pachyptila</i> 2 trophosome ^f		−9.9	−6.8 ± 0.4	−6.6 ± 0.9	−3.1	−3.3
<i>Magnetococcus</i> sp.	rCAC				−3.6 ^e	
<i>R. pachyptila</i> trophosome		−13.7	−8.8 ± 0.1	−9.0 ± 2.1	−4.9	−4.7
" <i>Ca. Endoriftia persephona</i> " from <i>R. pachyptila</i> 1 trophosome ^f		−13.7	−8.6 ± 0.4	−7.1 ± 1.1	−5.1	−6.6
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i>	rCAC	−20.4	−11.3 ± 0.4	ND	−9.1	
<i>Chlorobium limnicola</i>	rCAC				−16 ^e	

^aCBB, Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle; rCAC, reductive citric acid cycle.^bStandard deviation of biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values is approximately 0.2‰.^c16:0 and 18:0 are palmitic and stearic acids, respectively, and are ± standard deviation.^d $\epsilon_{\text{biomass}/16:0} = \text{biomass } \delta^{13}\text{C} - 16:0 \delta^{13}\text{C}$; $\epsilon_{\text{biomass}/18:0} = \text{biomass } \delta^{13}\text{C} - 18:0 \delta^{13}\text{C}$.^eValues are from references 61 and 75–77.^f"*Ca. Endoriftia persephona*" was enriched from trophosome samples by centrifugation through Percoll.

especially given that the rCAC in many organisms is more sensitive to oxygen than the CBB (22). Care was taken here to prevent correlations between $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ concentrations and oxygen concentrations and to prevent oxygen concentrations from getting very low (Table 6 and Fig. 1C). It would be interesting to determine whether the relative inputs from the rCAC and the CBB responded to oxygen concentrations under conditions where the $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ was maintained at particular target values. Genes encoding seven oxoacid:ferredoxin oxidoreductases are present in the incomplete "*Ca. E. persephona*" genome. Among these seven proteins, pyruvate synthase (EC 1.2.7.1) and 2-oxoglutarate synthase (EC 1.2.7.3) are needed for the rCAC to operate. In *Hydrogenobacter thermophilus*, a more oxygen-tolerant version of 2-oxoglutarate synthase facilitates growth under low-oxygen conditions (53). The presence of multiple isoforms of either or both of these enzymes in "*Ca. E. persephona*" may be an adaptation for maintaining rCAC function when oxygen concentrations vary.

It is also clear that both the rCAC and CBB are active in "*Ca. E. persephona*." Differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values between fatty acids and biomass ($\epsilon_{\text{biomass}/16:0}$ and $\epsilon_{\text{biomass}/18:0}$; Table 5) fall between the ranges measured for organisms using either the rCAC or the CBB. It is possible that both pathways are constitutively expressed, providing "*Ca. E. persephona*" with the advantage of being able to provide intermediates from either cycle to its host in the presence of variable concentrations of environmental $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ and oxygen. This could be an advantage because the rCAC and the CBB rely on different cellular electron carriers (ferredoxin-rCAC versus NADH/NADPH-CBB and -rCAC); the simultaneous activity of both pathways could help to maintain redox balance within the trophosome. A similar role for redox balance maintenance has been suggested for "*Ca. E. persephona*" hydrogenase (54).

"*Ca. E. persephona*" was the first bacterium discovered to have the potential to express both the CBB and the rCAC (15). Since then, the genetic potential to use both pathways has been observed in "*Ca. Thiomargarita nelsonii*" and *Thioflavococcus mobilis*, free-living members of *Gammaproteobacteria*, as well as in the symbionts from multiple vestimentiferans (19–21). It has also been observed that citrate synthase can operate in a citrate cleaving direction, and the CAC can operate in a reductive, CO_2 -fixing direction to facilitate autotrophic growth in organisms lacking ACL genes (55–57). All of these observations suggest that dual activities of these two pathways within a single organism may be more prevalent than once thought. This in turn highlights the importance of uncovering the advantages that operating both the CBB and the rCAC might offer to these organisms, whether differentially regulated or not.

TABLE 6 Rank correlations between environmental parameters in high-pressure aquaria

Comparison	r^2	Positive or negative	F	P	n^a
[Σ H ₂ S] in aquarium vs Σ H ₂ S supply rate	0.877	+	64.00	0.000	11
[O ₂] in aquarium vs O ₂ supply rate	0.308	+	3.997	0.077	11
O ₂ supply rate vs Σ H ₂ S supply rate	0.008	+	0.075	0.794	11
[O ₂] vs [Σ H ₂ S] in aquarium	0.109	–	1.707	0.212	16

^aNo. of aquaria.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

***R. pachyptila* collection and maintenance.** *R. pachyptila* individuals were collected from hydrothermal vent fields at the 9°N Integrated Study Site in the East Pacific (9°50'N, 104°18'W, 2,500-m depth) using the human-occupied vehicle (HOV) *Alvin* during November 2014 (*Alvin* cruise AT-26) and October 2016 (*Alvin* cruise AT-37). Collections of *R. pachyptila* took place at the end of the *Alvin* dive. Individuals small enough to maintain in high-pressure aquaria (3 to 18 g) were placed in a thermally insulated Biobox during the 1-h transit to the surface, where they were either sampled immediately (see details below) or individually incubated in high-pressure aquaria under *in situ* conditions (250 atm; DIC = 2.7 to 4.1 mM; O₂ = 0.02 to 0.26 mM; pH = 5.9 to 6.7; 15°C [14]). Viability was monitored for 12 h via observation ports to verify minimal damage to the worms during collection.

Subsequently, Σ H₂S was supplied to the aquaria at either of two rates in order to generate concentrations inside the aquaria that bracket those present among *R. pachyptila* *in situ*, namely, low Σ H₂S supply (28 to 40 μ mol · h^{–1}, resulting in <0.001 to 0.008 mM Σ H₂S in the aquaria) or high Σ H₂S supply (180 to 275 μ mol · h^{–1}, resulting in 0.032 to 0.141 mM in the aquaria). Rates of Σ H₂S supply correlated strongly with Σ H₂S concentrations in the aquaria, but not with oxygen supply or concentration (Fig. 1 and Table 6). *R. pachyptila* incubated under these conditions had previously been shown to have very different metabolic rates, with worms incubated under Σ H₂S conditions having considerably higher rates of DIC uptake, suggesting a potential shift in metabolic mode (14). Worms were maintained under these conditions for 48 to 72 h, with DIC, Σ H₂S, and oxygen concentrations in the aquaria monitored via gas chromatography (58) and pH via an AR15 pH meter (Accumet) equipped with a calomel-referenced pH electrode (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA) calibrated with National Bureau of Standards (NBS) standards (pH 4.0, 7.0, and 10.0).

Worms were removed for tissue analyses and trophosome preparations by depressurizing the aquaria rapidly (~5 min); they were then immediately dissected in a cold room (10°C). Mixed samples of vascular and coelomic fluid were drawn into gastight syringes and stored refrigerated, and dissolved gases were quantified within 6 h. Trophosome and vestimentum samples for enzyme assays, sulfur, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analyses of organic carbon were immediately freeze-clamped and stored at –80°C. Trophosome samples were also taken for immediate ¹⁴C assays for autotrophic potential and were prepared as described below. Mixed samples of vascular blood and coelomic fluid, as well as trophosome, were also removed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analyses of DIC, as described below.

Impact of Σ H₂S supply on *R. pachyptila* tissues. Σ H₂S concentrations in vascular and coelomic fluid were quantified with a gas chromatograph front-ended with an extractor that facilitated stripping dissolved gases from these fluids when acidified, and by introducing the gases into a two-column system to resolve them for quantification with a thermal conductivity detector (58). The elemental sulfur content of trophosome samples was determined at the USF Stable Isotope Lab with an ECS4010 elemental analyzer (Costech, Valencia, CA), using the Mass 66 collector on a Delta V Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) as the detector, calibrated with organic standards ranging from 0.09 to 5.59% sulfur (59).

Impact of Σ H₂S supply on symbiont CO₂ fixation parameters. To determine whether Σ H₂S availability in aquaria influenced the autotrophic potential of the bacterial endosymbionts, trophosome samples were taken from *R. pachyptila* individuals incubated under high or low Σ H₂S conditions. These samples were homogenized, and their rates of CO₂ fixation were measured radiometrically as in Scott et al. (50), with DIC raised to 10 mM to ensure that CO₂ fixation was CO₂ saturated (60). ¹⁴C-DIC was added (50), and incubations were conducted at 18°C in 5-ml stainless steel high-pressure syringes, maintained at 250 atm with a neMESYS high pressure syringe system (Cetoni GmbH, Korbussen, Germany). Syringe contents were agitated with stir bars and micro stir plates. Samples were removed at 5-min intervals for a 30-min time course and were added to 100 μ l 1.2 N HCl in a scintillation vial, vortexed, and sparged with air for 2 h to remove residual CO₂. Samples were treated to minimize scintillation quenching caused by trophosome. They were bleached for 20 min with 20 μ l H₂O₂ and 200 μ l ScintiGest (Fisher Scientific). Scintillation fluid (3 ml of ScintiVerse BD scintillation cocktail; Fisher Scientific) was added to the vials. After 12 h, radioactivity was measured on a scintillation counter.

Trophosome and vestimentum extracts for enzyme assays were prepared from samples stored at –80°C. Samples (0.1 to 0.5 g) were homogenized in 3 ml ice-cold sonication buffer [30 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM NaHCO₃, 1 mM Na₂EDTA, 2.5 mM dithioerythritol (DTE), and 100 mM sodium 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (NaHEPES) (pH 7.5)], supplemented with 0.5 g acid-washed glass beads (<160 μ m; Sigma, St. Louis, MO), and sonicated on ice (3 × 15 s, determined to maximize enzyme activity release; data not shown) using a sonic dismembrator (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA). Between

sonications, samples were bubbled gently for 1 min with argon while on ice. Sonicate was centrifuged (5 min, 4°C, 10,000 × g). High rates of NADH oxidation in ACL assays without added substrate were diminished by desalting the extracts; therefore, for all assays, supernatant was desalted into sonication buffer with PD-10 desalting columns (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK).

ACL was assayed spectrophotometrically by tracking oxaloacetate synthesis from citrate, combining previous methods (61, 62), conducted at 20°C. Although ACL activity has been found to be robust under aerobic conditions when reducing agents are present (e.g., DTE [63, 64]), assays were conducted under anaerobic conditions as a precaution. Assay buffer (30 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM DTE, and 30 mM Na-HEPES [pH 8]) was sparged with argon, and 1-ml portions were sealed in gastight cuvettes (Pyrex). Adenosine 5'-triphosphate disodium salt (1.5 mM), coenzyme A-free acid trihydrate (0.1 mM), β-NAD, disodium salt, hydrate (NADH, 0.1 mM), and malate dehydrogenase (200 U, from porcine heart, EC 1.1.1.37; MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH) were added to the cuvette. Final concentrations are shown in parentheses. Desalted homogenate was added, and sodium citrate was injected to begin the reaction (0.1 mM final concentration). Activity was determined spectrophotometrically while sealed under an argon headspace. Oxaloacetate produced by ACL was reduced to malate via malate dehydrogenase, and NADH oxidation by this enzyme was monitored via A₃₄₀ measurements taken every 30 s for 2.5 min ($\epsilon_{340} = 6.2 \text{ mM}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$). ACL activities were calculated by subtracting the rates measured in the absence of added citrate from those in which this substrate was added. ATP-independent citrate lyase activity [e.g., via citrate (pro-3S)-lyase, EC 4.1.3.6] was not anticipated, as this enzyme is not encoded in the symbiont genome. However, it should be noted that if any ATP-independent citrate lyase activity is present, it was included in values determined here.

RubisCO was assayed radiometrically, with a modified protocol based on Schwedock et al. (65), conducted at 20°C. Assay buffer (10 mM NaHCO₃, 30 mM MgCl₂, 2.5 mM DTE, and 100 mM NaHEPES [pH 7.5]) was bubbled with argon, and 430-μl portions were sealed in glass vials with argon headspace. Trophosome extract (50 μl) and ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate sodium salt hydrate (10 μl, 0.1 mM final concentration) were added, and 10 μl NaH¹⁴CO₃ solution was injected to begin the reaction (50 mCi/mmol; MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA). Samples (100 μl) were removed at 20-s intervals over a 2-min time course and treated as described above for assays of symbiont autotrophic potential.

For both ACL and RubisCO, pilot assays were conducted to determine temperatures and pH values where activity was high, verify that activity was stimulated by substrate, and to determine whether measured activity was proportional to the amount of extract added (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental materials). Protein concentrations in the assays were measured using an RC DC Protein assay kit (Bio-Rad).

Natural-abundance δ¹³C values were determined for DIC in aquarium water, samples of mixed vascular and coelomic fluid, and liquified trophosome (the trophosome disruption protocol is described below). For DIC samples, 12-ml exetainers were loaded with 1 ml 10 mM CuSO₄ in 43% phosphoric acid, sealed, and flushed with helium. Aquarium water and body fluids (0.1 to 0.5 ml) were injected into these vials, shaken to acidify them, and stored for <2 months; samples stored this way were stable (data not shown). Samples were analyzed at the USF Stable Isotope Lab with a Delta V Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Prior to injection into exetainers, trophosome samples were liquefied as follows: two glass Luer-Lok gastight syringes were prepared for each sample. One contained 2 ml deionized, distilled water bubbled with argon and verified, via gas chromatography, to be DIC free. Trophosome (0.5 to 1 g) was sealed into the other syringe with zero headspace. Both syringes were coupled to the ends of a 22-gauge emulsifying needle, and distilled water was injected into the syringe containing the trophosome sample. Trophosome and distilled water were passed through the needle 2 or 3 times, and a 0.1- to 0.5-ml portion of this fluid was injected into an exetainer prepared as described above. To verify that liquification did not affect trophosome DIC δ¹³C values, 7.5 mM DIC was dissolved in saline with ionic composition similar to that of *R. pachyptila* vascular blood (66), and this saline was treated using the same protocol as for trophosome samples. The stable isotope composition of the DIC in the saline before treatment ($-1.4 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$; $n = 2$) and after treatment ($-1.5 \pm 0.0\text{‰}$; $n = 3$) were similar.

R. pachyptila trophosome and vestimentum samples were prepared for measurement of organic carbon δ¹³C values by fuming 100-mg samples overnight with 12 N HCl and drying them at 60°C for 48 h. δ¹³C values were measured by continuous flow elemental analyzer isotope ratio mass spectrometry (CF-EA-IRMS) at the University of South Florida College of Marine Science Stable Isotope Biogeochemistry Laboratory using commonly accepted procedures (67). Isotope compositions were measured on a Thermo Finnigan Delta+XL isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan). Secondary reference materials (NIST 8574 δ¹³C = $+37.63 \pm 0.10\text{‰}$; NIST 8573 δ¹³C = $-26.39 \pm 0.09\text{‰}$) were used to normalize raw measurements to the VPDB (δ¹³C) scale (68–70). Measurement uncertainties, expressed as ±1 standard deviation of $n = 5$ measurements of a laboratory reference material (NIST 1570a δ¹³C = $-27.17 \pm 0.19\text{‰}$) were ±0.23‰.

Impact of ΣH₂S supply rate on transcription of genes encoding CBB and rCAC enzymes. Symbiont-containing trophosome samples were excised from *R. pachyptila* individuals maintained under high and low ΣH₂S conditions. Samples were immediately homogenized and stored in TRIzol reagent at −80°C. Total RNA was extracted and rRNA removed, and mRNA was sequenced and analyzed as described previously (54). Transcripts for ACL subunit alpha, ACL subunit beta, and RuBisCO (GenBank accession numbers WP_005962054.1, EGV53537.1, and WP_005960001.1, respectively) were calculated using kallisto and sleuth, as described previously (54).

Stable isotope compositions of lipids and biomass from freshly collected *R. pachyptila* individuals. Samples from *R. pachyptila* individuals freshly recovered from the vents were used to determine δ¹³C values for lipids extracted from trophosome, vestimentum, and “*Ca. E. persephonae*” enriched from fresh

trophosome samples via centrifugation through Percoll (60). For comparison, lipids were also extracted from *Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus* (CBB) and *Chlorobium tepidum* (rCAC). Both organisms were cultivated autotrophically (58, 71), and cell pellets were stored at -80°C until use. *C. tepidum* pellets were kindly provided by Thomas Hanson (University of Delaware), and *H. crunogenus* XCL-2 (72) was originally provided by Douglas Nelson (UC Davis). Lipids were extracted and derivatized as described previously (73). At the University of South Florida College of Marine Science Stable Isotope Biogeochemistry Laboratory, samples were evaporated under ultrahigh-purity N₂ streams to dryness and rehydrated to 1 ml in hexane (GC-Resolve; Fisher Scientific). Aliquots (100 μl) were split into autosampler vials for injection. Samples were prescreened for target compound presence and concentration on a Varian 3800-GC/310-MS system (scanning 50 to 500 atomic mass units [AMU], HP DB-Wax column [30 m \times 0.25 mm \times 0.25 μm], initial temperature of 50°C , 3-min hold; $30^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ to 120°C ; $8^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ to 355°C , 5.0-min hold). Splitless injections (1 to 4 μl depending on relative concentration of target compounds) were chromatographed through an Agilent 6890A gas chromatograph (GC) using the same column and program described above. Chromatographed compounds were transmitted through a modified GC-Combustion-III oxidation reactor (Thermo Fisher) and open-split interface into a Delta+XL IRMS analyzer for measurement. Raw measurements were normalized to the VPDB scale using an esterified known octadecanoic acid laboratory reference material ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = -28.73 \pm 0.09\text{‰}$).

Statistics. Rank regressions were used to determine whether physiological parameters and enzyme activities from *R. pachyptila* individuals correlated with $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ or oxygen supply, or correlated with each other. Values were ranked from smallest to largest and regressed against each other. Rank regressions were used, as the nature of the relationships between the parameters was not known and rank regressions are robust to nonlinearity in the relationships (74).

To compare transcript levels from *R. pachyptila* individuals incubated under low or high $\sum\text{H}_2\text{S}$ supply rates, a Wald test was done in R using the *sleuth* package, with the function "*sleuth_prep*(... , transformation_function=function(x) log₂(x + 0.5))", which provides β values, which are biased estimates of log₂ fold change.

Data availability. Transcriptome data have been deposited under accession number PRJNA736714 in the NCBI BioProject database.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material is available online only.

SUPPLEMENTAL FILE 1, PDF file, 0.1 MB.

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