Ultrastructure, Molecular Phylogenetics, and Chlorophyll a Content of Novel Cyanobacterial Symbionts in Temperate Sponges

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Abstract Marine sponges often harbor photosynthetic symbionts that may enhance host metabolism and ecological success, yet little is known about the factors that structure the diversity, specificity, and nature of these relationships. Here, we characterized the cyanobacterial symbionts in two congeneric and sympatric host sponges that exhibit distinct habitat preferences correlated with irradiance: *Ircinia fasciculata* (higher irradiance) and *Ircinia variabilis* (lower irradiance). Symbiont composition was similar among hosts and dominated by the sponge-specific cyanobacterium *Synechococcus spongiarum*. Phylogenetic analyses of 16S–23S rRNA internal transcribed spacer (ITS) gene sequences revealed that Mediterranean *Ircinia* spp. host a specific, novel symbiont clade ("M") within the *S. spongiarum* species complex. A second, rare cyanobacterium related to the ascidian symbiont *Synechocystis trididemni* was observed in low abundance in *I. fasciculata* and likewise corresponded to a new symbiont clade. Symbiont communities in *I. fasciculata* exhibited nearly twice the chlorophyll a concentrations of *I. variabilis*. Further, *S. spongiarum* clade M symbionts in *I. fasciculata* exhibited dense intracellular aggregations of glycogen granules, a storage product of photosynthetic carbon assimilation rarely observed in *I. variabilis* symbionts. In both host sponges, *S. spongiarum* cells were observed interacting with host archeocytes, although the lower photosynthetic activity of Cyanobacteria in *I. variabilis* suggests less symbiont-derived nutritional benefit. The observed differences in clade M symbionts among sponge hosts suggest that ambient irradiance conditions dictate symbiont photosynthetic activity and consequently may mediate the nature of host–symbiont relationships. In addition, the plasticity exhibited by clade M symbionts may be an adaptive attribute that allows for flexibility in host–symbiont interactions across the seasonal fluctuations in light and temperature characteristic of temperate environments.

Introduction

Invertebrate–photosymbiont associations are common in shallow water marine environments, typically involving sponge or cnidarian hosts and cyanobacterial or algal symbionts [61, 68]. The photosynthetic capacity of these symbionts and translocation of fixed carbon to host organisms can boost invertebrate metabolism and increase overall holobiont fitness. Similar to photosymbionts in scleractinian corals [3] and ascidians [23], the relationship between host sponges and their associated Cyanobacteria are often mutually beneficial. Indeed, some host sponges acquire supplemental nutrition from the by-products of symbiont photosynthesis [16, 69] while cyanobacterial symbionts receive a sheltered habitat within sponge tissue (e.g., reduced grazing pressure and UV exposure) and possibly benefit from the nitrogenous end products of host (animal) metabolism. In addition to nutrient translocation, symbiotic Cyanobacteria may also provide a source of defensive secondary
metabolites [15, 62]. Accordingly, cyanobacterial symbionts appear to contribute to the competitive ability and ecological success of host sponges and represent a key functional component of the complex sponge microbiota.

Photosymbionts are prevalent in sponge communities of coastal ecosystems worldwide [63], accounting for one third to three fourths of coral reef sponges in the tropical regions [11, 53, 70] and over half of sponges from temperate ecosystems [27, 41]. In general, Cyanobacteria are the dominant photosynthetic symbiont group in sponge hosts [11, 63], although zooxanthellae and filamentous algae are also found in association with marine sponges [7, 22]. The genetic diversity of sponge-associated Cyanobacteria spans multiple phylogenetic lineages and forms ten monophyletic and sponge-specific sequence clusters related to the genera *Synechococcus*, *Synechocystis*, *Oscillatoria*, *Lyngbya*, and *Cyanobacterium* [52, 54, 59].

The most commonly reported and widespread cyanobacterial symbiont is “*Candidatus Synechococcus spongianus*” [66], a single-celled cyanobacterium that occurs in peripheral (ectosomal) regions of the sponge body in diverse hosts from tropical and temperate marine environments across the globe [20, 52, 54, 59]. *S. spongianum* symbionts account for up to 85% of sponge–photosymbiont associations in Caribbean reefs [11] and exhibit variable functional significance to host sponges [2, 12, 16, 30, 71]. Molecular evidence from 16S to 23S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequences recently revealed cryptic diversity among populations of *S. spongianum*, with 12 distinct symbiont clades structured by both geography and host phylogeny [13]. Additional studies targeting clade-level diversity in the *S. spongianum* species complex may shed new light on the variability of host–symbiont interactions described for this widespread cyanobacterium.

Cyanobacterial symbionts related to the genera *Synechocystis* and *Prochloron* have also been described from marine sponges, primarily based on microscopic observations and ultrastructural morphology [9, 44]. To date, molecular characterization of *Synechocystis* symbionts in marine sponges has been conducted for hosts in the genus *Lendenfeldia* from the Indo-Pacific [40] and Western Indian Ocean [54], *Spongia* sp. and *Mycale* sp. from Western Australian [27], and *Ectyoplasia ferox* from the Caribbean [50], while a single *Prochloron*-affiliated sequence has been reported in the Japanese sponge *Halichondria okadai* (GenBank acc. no. HM100971). In fact, the best studied *Synechocystis* and *Prochloron* symbionts, *Synechocystis trididemni* and *Prochloron didemni*, are associated with didemnid ascidian hosts [26, 28, 29, 32]. Among sponge hosts, the specificity and ecological importance of *Synechocystis* and *Prochloron* symbionts are currently unknown and further studies are needed to understand the biodiversity of these Cyanobacteria and their interactions with host sponges.

In this study, we examined the diversity and activity of cyanobacterial symbionts in Mediterranean *Ircinia* spp. using electron microscopy, molecular characterization, and chlorophyll *a* quantification. The host sponges *Ircinia fasciculata* and *Ircinia variabilis* were chosen due to previous reports of cyanobacterial symbionts in these species [8, 46, 64, 65], their close phylogenetic relationship [14], and their distinct zonation patterns within the littoral benthos of the NW Mediterranean Sea [14]. Typical of a phototrophic sponge species, *I. fasciculata* occurs preferentially in exposed and high irradiance zones, while *I. variabilis* is more common in semi-sciophilous (“shade-loving”) communities of vertical walls and shaded crevices. However, distribution patterns associated with light availability can also occur in non-phototrophic sponge species [4], necessitating a detailed study of putative photosymbiont communities to confirm their presence and activity in host sponges. The objective of our study was to compare the genetic diversity, ultrastructural morphology, and chlorophyll *a* content of cyanobacterial symbionts in two conspecific temperate sponges. By targeting both partial 16S rRNA and entire 16S–23S ITS gene sequences, our study allowed for both comparative phylogenetic analysis and fine-scale resolution of closely related cyanobacterial symbionts.

**Methods**

**Sample Collection**

The marine sponges *I. fasciculata* (Pallas, 1766) and *I. variabilis* (Schmidt, 1862) were collected from shallow (3 to 8 m and 8 to 12 m, respectively) littoral zones at two neighboring sites (<12 km apart) along the Catalan Coast (Spain) in the northwestern Mediterranean Sea. *I. fasciculata* colonies (*n*=6) were sampled at Punta de S’Agulla (Blanes; 41°40′54.87″ N, 2°49′00.01″ E) and *I. variabilis* (*n*=6) at Mar Menuda (Tossa de Mar; 41°43′13.62″ N, 2°56′26.90″ E) by SCUBA in March 2010. Tissue samples were collected from sponges using a clean scalpel blade then preserved in 100% ethanol and stored at −20°C for genetic analyses or processed immediately for chlorophyll *a* analysis and electron microscopy (see below).

**Chlorophyll *a* Quantification**

Chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) concentrations were determined for *I. fasciculata* (*n*=3) and *I. variabilis* (*n*=3), following Erwin and Thacker [12]. Briefly, 0.25 g of freshly collected ectosomal tissue (blotted wet weight) from each individual was separately extracted in 5 ml of 90% acetone, held overnight at 4°C. Absorbance values of supernatant aliquots were determined at 750, 664, 647, and 630 nm and chl *a*
concentrations were calculated using the equations of Parsons et al. [35], standardized by sponge mass extracted. Chl a concentrations were compared between host sponge species with a Student’s t test using the software SigmaPlot (version 11).

Transmission Electron Microscopy

To visualize the diversity and ultrastructure of cyanobacterial symbionts in *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis*, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observations were conducted on small ectosome tissue pieces (ca. 4 mm³), following the methods of Erwin et al. [14]. Briefly, tissue pieces were fixed and incubated (overnight at 4°C) in a solution of 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2% paraformaldehyde (buffered with filtered seawater) then rinsed and stored in filtered seawater. Following dehydration in a graded ethanol series, samples were embedded in Spurr resin (room temperature), sliced into ultrathin sections (ca. 60 nm), and contrasted with uranyl acetate and lead citrate for ultrastructural observation [39]. TEM observations were performed at the Microscopy Unit of the Scientific and Technical Services of the University of Barcelona on a JEOL JEM-1010 (Tokyo, Japan) coupled with a Bioscan 972 camera (Gatan, Germany).

Cell dimensions were measured by digital image analysis with ImageJ software (version 1.43) [36]. To avoid underestimating cell size, only cells that exhibited a clear cell center and peripheral thylakoids were measured. For *S. spongiarum* symbionts, a total of 65 and 44 cells were measured in *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis*, respectively. For *Synechocystis* sp. symbionts, a total of seven cells were recovered and measured in *I. fasciculata*. Two measurements were recorded for each cell: the maximum cell diameter (hereafter, “length”) and the cell diameter perpendicular to the maximum (hereafter, “width”). Cell dimensions were compared between host sponge species with a Student’s t test using the software SigmaPlot (version 11).

DNA Extraction and PCR Amplification

Metagenomic DNA extracts were prepared from samples of sponge tissue (ectosome and choanosome) from *I. fasciculata* (*n*=3) and *I. variabilis* (*n*=3) using the DNaseasy® Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen®), following the manufacturer’s animal tissue protocol. Diluted DNA extracts (1:10) were used as templates in PCR amplification with the universal cyanobacterial forward primer 359F [34] and reverse primer 23S1R [24] to amplify a cyanobacterial rRNA gene fragment corresponding to the 3’ end of the 16S region (1,140 to 1,142 bp), the entire 16S–23S ITS region (258 to 443 bp), and the 5’ end of the 23S region (25 bp). Total PCR reaction volume was 50 µl, including 10 pmol of each primer, 10 nmol of each dNTP, 1× reaction buffer (Ecogen), and 5 units of BIOTAQ™ polymerase (Ecogen). Thermocycler reaction conditions were an initial denaturing time of 2 min at 94°C, followed by 30 cycles of 1 min at 94°C, 0.5 min at 50°C, 1.5 min at 72°C, and a final extension time of 2 min at 72°C. To minimize PCR amplification biases, a low annealing temperature and low cycle number were used and three separate reactions were conducted for each sample. PCR amplification products were gel-purified and cleaned using the QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen®), then triplicate PCR products were combined and quantified using a Qubit™ fluorometer and Quant-iT™ dsDNA Assay Kit (Invitrogen™). 

Clone Library Construction and Sequencing Analysis

Purified PCR products (ca. 75 ng) were ligated into plasmids using the pGEM®-T Vector System (Promega). Individual clones were PCR-screened using vector primers and clones with ca. 1,650 bp inserts were purified and sequenced at Macrogen, Inc. Bidirectional sequencing with vector primers provided two overlapping sequence reads per clone and allowed the retrieval of the entire cloned amplicons. Raw sequence data were processed in Geneious [10] by aligning high-quality forward and reverse reads to yield a final consensus sequence for each clone. Quality-checked sequences are archived in GenBank under accession nos. JQ410235 to JQ410319. Consensus sequences were subject to nucleotide–nucleotide BLAST searches [1] to recover closely related sequences in the GenBank database and pairwise genetic distance (uncorrected p-distance) among sequences and rarefaction analysis by individual sponge host were conducted using the software package mothur [49].

Phylogenetic Analyses

Phylogenetic reconstructions were based on different regions of the recovered rRNA gene fragments for *Synechococcus* and *Synechocystis*, due to the resolution required for each symbiont phylogeny and the availability of reference sequences in the GenBank database. For *S. spongiarum* clones, phylogenies were constructed using 16S–23S rRNA ITS sequences, since 16S rRNA genes sequences do not exhibit sufficient variability for clade-level resolution of *S. spongiarum* and ITS sequences from *S. spongiarum* are available for comparative analyses [12, 13]. For *Synechocystis* symbionts, phylogenies were constructed using 16S rRNA gene sequences. 16S rRNA gene sequences were sufficient to resolve a novel clade of *Synechocystis* symbionts in *I. fasciculata*, and few ITS sequences from *Synechocystis* spp. are available for comparative analyses. Consensus 16S–23S rRNA ITS sequences from *S. spongiarum* clones recovered herein were compared with 12
previously described *S. spongiarum* clades (A to L) [13] to determine the subspecific clade affiliations of *S. spongiarum* symbionts in *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis*. A single consensus sequence was used for identical clones (100 % identity) from the same individual. Unique sequences from *I. fasciculata* (*n*=20) and *I. variabilis* (*n*=26), representative sequences from *S. spongiarum* clades A to L (*n*=39), and congeneric outgroup sequences from cultures (*n*=4) and environmental sources (*n*=3) were aligned using MAFFT [25]. Maximum likelihood phylogenies were constructed in PHYML [19] with the Hasegawa–Kishino–Yano model of nucleotide substitution and a gamma distribution of variable substitution rates among sites (HKY+G), as suggested by FINDMODEL; data were resampled using 100 bootstrap replicates. Bayesian inference was used to calculate posterior probabilities of branch nodes in MrBayes [42] implemented with the HKY+G model. Markov Chain Monte Carlo Markov (MCMC) analysis was performed with four chains (temp=0.2) and run for 2,000,000 generations, with a sampling frequency of 400 generations (burn-in value = 1,250). After 1,957,000 generations, the average standard deviation of split frequencies among chains reached less than 0.01.

Consensus partial 16S rRNA gene sequences from *Ircinia*-derived clones related to the genera *Synechocystis* and *Prochloron* were compared with previously published sequences from top GenBank matches (*n*=64) and outgroup sequences from related cyanobacterial genera (*n*=17) to determine the phylogenetic affiliation of *Synechocystis*-like symbionts in *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis*. Sequence alignment and phylogenetic analyses were conducted as described above for *S. spongiarum* clones. During MCMC analysis, the average standard deviation of split frequencies among chains reaches less than 0.01 after 1,278,000 generation cycles. Additional sponge-derived sequences related to *Synechocystis* have been reported from *Spongia* sp. (GenBank acc. nos. EU383035 and EU383036), *Mycale* sp. (EU383038), and *E. ferox* (EF159744); however, these partial sequences were excluded because their short length (<600 bp) precluded accurate phylogenetic placement, destabilized phylogenetic reconstructions, and obscured relationships among the remaining sequences in the dataset.

**Results**

**Chlorophyll a Concentrations**

Chl *a* concentrations in *I. fasciculata* ranged from 205.6 to 300.4 μg/g, averaging 248.1±27.8 μg/g (±SE). In *I. variabilis*, chl *a* concentrations ranged from 113.5 to 140.0 μg/g and averaged 131.0±15.1 μg/g. Differences in chl *a* concentrations between the two sponge species were significant (*t*=-4.022, *df*=4, *P*<0.05), with *I. fasciculata* averaging nearly twice the level of chl *a* of *I. variabilis* (89 % increase).

**Morphology, Abundance, and Activity of Cyanobacterial Symbionts**

Dense populations of cyanobacterial cells were observed in the ectosome of *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis* (Figs. 1 and 2) and corresponded to two distinct symbiont cell morphologies. The dominant symbiont cells represent the sponge-specific symbiont, “*Candidatus S. spongiarum*” [66], diagnosed by the characteristic spiral thylakoids that occur in the cell perimeter surrounding a finely granulated cell center (Fig. 1). Few central cytoplasmic inclusions were identifiable in these cells. In both host sponges, *S. spongiarum* cells occurred in intercellular mesohyl areas and were actively reproducing via cell elongation, central constriction (yielding a figure 8 shape), and separation into two daughter cells. *S. spongiarum* cells also appeared to interact with host cells, often seen surrounding and interfacing with sponge archeocytes (Fig. 1). Symbiont cells were occasionally engulfed by host archeocytes, although no clear evidence of symbiont consumption (phagocytosis) was observed (Fig. S1).

Comparing *S. spongiarum* symbiont populations between the two host sponge species revealed two differentiating factors: cell size and glycogen abundance. Symbiont cells in *I. variabilis* were significantly larger than resident cells in *I. fasciculata* (Table 1), in terms of both cell length (*t*=5.590, *df*=107, *P*<0.001) and cell width (*t*=9.467, *df*=107, *P*<0.001). On average, *I. variabilis* symbiont cells were 18.8 % larger than conspecific populations in *I. fasciculata*, although *S. spongiarum* cells exhibited overlapping values in cell length (1.35 to 2.78 μm in *I. fasciculata*; 1.72 to 3.03 μm in *I. variabilis*) and width (1.17 to 1.91 μm in *I. fasciculata*; 1.45 to 2.14 μm in *I. variabilis*) and were within previously reported cell size ranges from different host species (Table 1). A more consistent difference among symbiont populations occurred in the abundance of glycogen granules (fine black dots, 20 to 35 nm in diameter) between the lamellae of the thylakoids in *S. spongiarum* cells [45]. In *I. fasciculata*, symbionts exhibited a high abundance of glycogen granules and similar granules were observed in host cells interfacing with symbiont cells (Fig. 1). In *I. variabilis*, glycogen granules were also present in *S. spongiarum* cells and neighboring sponge cells, though in much lower abundance (Fig. 1e).

A second morphotype of symbiotic Cyanobacteria was observed in *I. fasciculata* and occurred rarely (*n*=7) within the host tissue (Fig. 2). Cell shape was spherical and cell size was over three times larger than *S. spongiarum* cells (Fig. 2a), averaging 7.11±1.36 μm in length and 7.11±1.43 μm in width. Parallel thylakoids occurred around the
Figure 1  Electron micrographs of *S. spongiarum* symbionts in the host sponges *I. fasciculata* (left panel) and *I. variabilis* (right panel).  

a, b Dense aggregations of intercellular *S. spongiarum* cells in host sponge tissue, often undergoing cell division (white arrowheads) and occurring among sponge fibers (f).  

c, d Sponge amoebocytes (*am*) interacting with *S. spongiarum* cells (*s*).  

e, f Individual *S. spongiarum* cells exhibiting the characteristic spiral thylakoid membrane (*t*) with glycogen granules (*g*) very abundant in *S. spongiarum* cells from *I. fasciculata* and nearby host cells.  

f, h Reproducing *S. spongiarum* cells in host sponge mesohyl. Scale bars equal 5 μm (*a–d*) and 1 μm (*e–h*).
cell periphery and multiple cytoplasmic inclusions were observed in the cell center, including carboxysomes and polyphosphate bodies (Fig. 2b). These characteristics are diagnostic of Cyanobacteria in the genus *Synechocystis* and matched previous descriptions of sponge symbionts [46, 65]. Unlike *S. spongiarum*, *Synechocystis* symbionts were not observed in reproductive processes and no close contact with sponge cells occurred, due to separation of symbionts from the sponge mesohyl by a lacunar space (0.5 to 2 μm) surrounding each *Synechocystis* cell (Fig. 2c).

**Genetic Diversity of Cyanobacterial Symbionts**

Consistent with electron microscopy observations, clone libraries revealed the presence of two distinct cyanobacterial symbionts in *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis* hosts. Rarefaction analysis revealed sufficient sampling to reach saturation in all host sponge individuals examined (Fig. S2). Analysis of the 16S rRNA gene regions (1,140 to 1,142 bp) revealed that the majority of clones from *I. fasciculata* (*n*=34, 85 %) and all clones from *I. variabilis* (*n*=45, 100 %) corresponded to the sponge-specific cyanobacterium “*Candidatus S. spongiarum*” (99 % sequence identity) [66]. The remaining clones (*n*=6 from a single *I. fasciculata* individual) corresponded to the genus *Synechocystis*, matching most closely (>97 %) to uncultured *Synechocystis* symbionts from marine sponges and ascidians, including the cyanobacterium *S. trididemni*. In addition, *Synechocystis* clones matched nearly identically (>99 %) to symbiont clones derived from another dictyoceratid sponge, *Spongia* sp. (GenBank acc. nos. EU383035 and EU383036); however, these partial 16S rRNA gene sequences were short (<430 bp), precluding their inclusion in subsequent phylogenetic analyses.

The analysis of the 16S–23S rRNA ITS gene sequences recovered from *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis* revealed a novel clade of *S. spongiarum* distinct from all previously described symbiont clades (A to L; Fig. 3). This new symbiont clade, here labeled clade “M”, exhibited reciprocal monophyly and greater than 3 % sequence divergence (average=9.6 %, range=6.2–21.5 %) from sister clades, thus satisfying the precedent criteria for defining a new clade of *S. spongiarum* [13]. Within clade M, sequence divergence values were low (average=0.41 %, range=0–1.3 %) and no consistent genetic differentiation by host
species was observed, as clones from *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis* formed a mixed cluster (Fig. 3).

Phylogenetic analysis of partial 16S rRNA gene sequences recovered from *I. fasciculata* revealed a novel symbiont clade within the *Synechocystis* evolutionary lineage (Fig. 4). Four robust and distinct *Synechocystis* symbiont clades were resolved: a sponge symbiont clade specific to the host species *I. fasciculata*, two closely related sponge symbionts clades specific to the host genus *Lendenfeldia*, and an ascidian symbiont clade corresponding to *S. tridemni* (Fig. 4). Additional sequences derived from sponges (n=2) and ascidians (n=2) were positioned within the *Synechocystis* lineage, although their relationships with other *Synechocystis* clades were unresolved. *Synechocystis* sequences clustered as a sister lineage to *Prochloron* sequences and together formed a well-supported monophyletic clade comprised solely of symbiont-derived sequences (Fig. 4). *Prochloron* sequences were closely related to ascidian symbiont, *P. didemni*, and recovered almost exclusively from ascidian hosts, with the exception of one sponge-derived (*H. okadai*) and one coral-derived (*Muricea elongata*) sequence (Fig. 4).

**Discussion**

Symbiotic Cyanobacteria in the temperate sponge hosts, *I. fasciculata* and *I. variabilis*, were shown to exhibit similar species composition yet different levels of photosynthetic pigments (chl *a*) and storage products (glycogen granules) that correlated with the irradiance conditions of preferred host habitats. In both hosts, symbiont communities were dominated by a novel clade (M) of the unicellular cyanobacterium, *Synechococcus spongiarum*. A second single-celled cyanobacterium, *Synechocystis* sp., was also observed in *I. fasciculata*, though rarely (seven total cells) and sporadically (one of the three host individuals). Symbiont communities associated with the photophilic host *I. fasciculata* exhibited nearly twice the chl *a* concentrations of *I. variabilis* and abundant accumulation of glycogen granules, a polysaccharide storage product of photosynthetic carbon assimilation. Notably, similar (putatively glycogen) granules were also observed in host cells interfacing with active symbionts in *I. fasciculata*, indicating the potential transfer of surplus carbon stores to the host sponge. These results suggest that ambient irradiance conditions play a role in dictating the photosynthetic activity of sponge-associated Cyanobacteria and possibly mediate the nature of host–symbiont interactions among different host sponge species.

The phylogenetic signature of cyanobacterial symbionts in temperate *Ircinia* spp. was quite different from congeneric species in the Caribbean, which lack *Synechocystis* symbionts, and host distinct *S. spongiarum* clades [13]. The fine-scale phylogenetic resolution afforded by 16S–23S rRNA ITS sequence data has important implications in host specificity, as the interpretation of symbiont specificity varies with molecular marker resolution. For example, based on 16S rRNA gene sequences, clade M symbionts recovered from Mediterranean *Ircinia* spp. herein matched nearly
identically (99.1–99.5 % sequence identity) to 16S rRNA gene sequences from clade J symbionts described in Caribbean *Ircinia* hosts. In contrast, 16S–23S rRNA ITS gene sequences showed that clade M symbionts were clearly differentiated from clade J symbionts based on sequence similarity (90.2–91.1 % identity) and phylogenetic analysis (distinct monophyletic clades), revealing cryptic biogeographic trends in symbiont structure among *Ircinia* hosts.

The biogeographic distribution of *S. spongiarum* suggests that unique clades inhabit hosts from different regions. In addition to the Mediterranean clade M symbionts described herein, distinct *S. spongiarum* clades have also been
reported in the Indo-Pacific (Palau, clade F) and eastern Atlantic (Canary Islands, clade E) [13]. In fact, the majority of clades described to date are specific to a single geographic region (Fig. 5). However, the clade diversity within a region is strongly correlated with the number of host species surveyed (Fig. 5), indicating that additional sampling is required to fully elucidate the diversity and distribution of *S. spongiarum* clades. Indeed, even in the well-studied coral–zooxanthellae symbioses, the sampling of new hosts and environments continues to reveal novel subclades and expand the distribution of known clades of *Symbiodinium* symbionts [6].

Clade-level differentiation of *S. spongiarum* symbionts is a recently described phenomenon [13] and whether this cryptic genetic diversity relates to differences in symbiont functioning and host benefit is currently unknown.
presence of a single, shared *S. spongiarum* clade in *Ircinia* spp. provides new insight into clade-level symbiont physiology through the comparative analyses of cellular ultrastructure and photosynthetic pigment concentrations in clade M symbionts from hosts in high (*I. fasciculata*) and low (*I. variabilis*) irradiance habitats. Clade M symbionts were smaller in *I. fasciculata* compared to *I. variabilis*, suggesting morphological plasticity in cell size in response to the ambient irradiance levels. *I. fasciculata* exhibited greater chl *a* concentrations compared to *I. variabilis* and dense aggregations of glycogen granules in symbiont cells, indicators of higher photosynthetic activity. Glycogen accumulation is consistent with high photosynthetic output, representing a key storage polysaccharide for fixed carbon in Cyanobacteria [33, 57]. Together, these data suggest flexibility among populations of clade M symbionts and acclimation to environmental irradiance gradients, rather than expulsion and compositional shifts as reported for coral-zooxanthellae symbioses [43].

Previous investigations of sponges hosting *S. spongiarum* have reported high variability in the functional role of symbiotic Cyanobacteria and dependence of host sponges on photosymbiont communities. Among some host sponges, symbiont loss has little effect on host growth rates [12, 60, 71], secondary metabolite production [18], stress response [30], and host mortality [31]. In contrast, other host species exhibit decreased growth rates [12], metabolic collapse [2], and mass mortality of local host populations [17] in response to the reduction or loss of *S. spongiarum* symbionts. Similar data and experiments are unavailable for *Ircinia* hosts; however, symbiont loss due to temperature extremes has been suggested to contribute to mass mortality events of *I. fasciculata* in the Mediterranean [8].

Further, the sponge *Petrosia ficiformis* hosts a related, facultative cyanobacterium, *Synechococcus feldmannii* [66], that occurs in hosts from light-exposed habitats yet is absent in conspecific sponges from dark caves [47]. The plasticity of this unique sponge–cyanobacteria symbiosis allows for comparative analyses of symbiotic and aposymbiotic *P. ficiformis* individuals and has yielded insight into the genetic regulation and metabolic implications of host–symbiont interactions [47, 55].

Notably, our results also indicate high photosynthetic capacity in some temperate sponge–cyanobacteria symbioses, as chl *a* levels in *I. fasciculata* were consistent with values reported for tropical *Ircinia* spp. [11] and similar glycogen accumulation has been observed in symbionts of the tropical sponge *C. nucula* [45]. In contrast, low symbiont activity in *I. variabilis* hosts may indicate less dependence on symbiont photosynthetic output. Alternatively, symbiont populations may be actively regulated by *I. variabilis* to avoid specialist predators attracted to cyanobacteria-rich sponges [5] and reduce the oxidative stress of reactive oxygen species produced by symbiont photosynthesis [37, 38]. Additional studies are required to resolve specific host–symbiont interactions, with emphasis on fine-scale symbiont characterization, as well as, more refined metrics of host–symbiont metabolic interactions [16, 58].

*Synechocystis* symbionts formed a monophyletic clade specific to the Mediterranean host *I. fasciculata* and distinct from related sponge and ascidian-associated symbionts. The morphology of these symbionts matched previous descriptions of symbionts characterized as *Aphanocapsa raspaigellae* in *I. variabilis* [46, 65]. Reclassification of this cyanobacterium to the genus *Synechocystis* was suggested by previous authors [26, 63] and is supported by the phylogenetic analyses herein. *Synechocystis* symbionts formed a monophyletic cyanobacterial lineage and exhibited a close phylogenetic relationship with *Prochloron* symbionts, consistent with previous molecular phylogenies [51] and the ultrastructural similarity of these symbiont genera [9, 21].

The ecological significance of *Synechocystis* symbionts in marine sponges remains unclear, as these photosymbionts exhibit variable incidence and abundance among different populations of *Ircinia* host sponges. In the current study, *Synechocystis* symbionts in *I. fasciculata* occurred rarely and sporadically among the sponge individuals studied and were observed to have limited interactions with host cells. Previous investigations of *Ircinia* spp. from different regions of the Mediterranean have reported more abundant *Synechocystis* populations in host sponges from Bari, Italy [46] and Marseille, France [65], suggested biogeographic variability in these photosymbiont communities. Consistent among these previous reports and the present study is the physical separation of *Synechocystis* from host sponge tissue by a lacunar space surrounding each symbiont cell. The lack of direct contact with sponge tissue may limit host–symbiont interactions, although cellular secretion from intact *Synechocystis* symbionts and
leakage from disintegrating cells has been observed [46]. Further, the occurrence of Synechocystis symbionts as secondary to dominant cyanobacterial populations in Ircinia spp. [46, 65; this study] and Lendenfeldia spp. hosts [40] suggests that these symbionts may be opportunistic and exploiting host habitats receptive to photosymbionts (e.g., distributed in high irradiance zones, tolerant of oxidative stress) while providing minimal ecological benefit. Additional study is clearly required to test such hypotheses as well as assess potential contributions to host ecology beyond symbiont-derived photosynthates (e.g., secondary metabolite production).

Environmental irradiance gradients represent an important factor in structuring invertebrate–photosymbiont associations and may dictate the nature of host–symbiont interactions. In the symbiosis between cnidarian hosts and zooxanthellae, irradiance exposure and intensity have been shown to influence the density, physiology, and composition of photosymbiont communities [3, 48]. Similarly, the cyanobacterial symbionts studied herein exhibited physiological and morphological differences in related host sponges from different light environments, including photosynthetic pigment content (chl a concentrations), fixed carbon accumulation (glycogen granules), and symbiont cell size. In contrast to cnidarian symbionts, whose cladal composition can shift across small-scale irradiance gradients [43], sponge photosymbiont communities were dominated by clade M symbionts in both host sponges regardless of irradiance conditions, suggesting that less dynamic and more versatile host–symbiont interactions occur in Ircinia–Synechococcus associations. Thus, the temperature clade M of S. spongicola described herein appears to represent a flexible symbiont able to survive in sponge hosts under different environmental conditions, a potential hallmark of symbiotic Cyanobacteria occurring in temperate ecosystems that must tolerate large seasonal fluctuations in light and temperature. Future research on temperate sponge–cyanobacteria interactions targeting the fine-scale characterization of symbiont communities and temporal monitoring of host–symbiont interactions are required to test such hypotheses and determine the contributions of these symbiotic systems to host ecology and microbial biodiversity.

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