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Genetic features of the marine polychaete *Sirsoe methanicola* from metagenomic data

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The methane ice worm *Sirsoe methanicola* is the only marine polychaete species observed to colonize the methane hydrates of the Gulf of Mexico. Methane hydrates are ephemeral features of deep-sea cold seeps, and finding worm-colonized hydrates is rare; thus, little is known about these organisms. Recent metagenomic analysis predicted prokaryotic taxa and pathways from *S. methanicola* gut contents and worm fragments. Here, we increase the genetic information known about *S. methanicola* by assembling its nuclear rRNA genes (18S rRNA and 28S rRNA), mitochondrial genome (mitogenome), and other protein-coding genes from metagenomic data. Assembled 18S rRNA and 28S rRNA gene sequences of *S. methanicola* were near-identical to previously reported *S. methanicola* sequences. The 17,403-bp mitogenome of *S. methanicola* is the first mitogenome sequence of the family *Hesionidae*, consisting of 39.03% G+C content, 13 protein-coding genes, 24 tRNAs (including two split *trnM* genes), and 2 rRNA genes. Protein-coding genes in the *S. methanicola* metagenomes assigned to the phylum Annelida were involved in cell adhesion, signaling, ubiquitin system, metabolism, transport, and other processes. From the metagenomes, we also found 42 homologs of the cytochrome P450 (CYP) superfamily putatively involved in polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) metabolism. Our results encourage further studies into the genetic adaptations of *S. methanicola* to its methane hydrate habitat, especially in the context of deep-sea ecology and nutrient cycling.

KEYWORDS

deep-sea, Gulf of Mexico, methane hydrate, polychaete, worm, mitogenome

1 Introduction

Methane is a potent greenhouse gas, and methane hydrates represent one of the largest carbon reservoirs in the world; therefore, the dynamics of these deposits garner interest with regard to global carbon cycles, climate change, and as sources of alternative energy (National Energy Technology Laboratory, 2017). In marine cold seep locations, methane rises from the seafloor and may freeze into a crystalline clathrate structure under sufficiently low temperature and high pressure. These deposits are commonly known as methane hydrates (also called methane clathrates, gas hydrates, methane ice, hydromethane, or fire ice) (Kvenvolden, 1995; Tunnicliffe et al., 2003). A variety of species have been identified at cold seeps, such as chemosymbiotic bivalves, polychaetes, shrimps, amphipods, cnidarians, and sponges, but most invertebrates do not interact physically with gas hydrates (Desbruyères and Toulmond, 1998; Sibuet and Olu, 1998; Fisher et al., 2000; Tunnicliffe et al., 2003; Van Dover et al., 2003; Levin, 2005; Dubilier et al., 2008). A notable exception is the marine polychaete, *Sirsoe methanicola* (previously *Hesiocaeca methanicola*). First discovered in 1997 in the Green Canyon area of the Gulf of Mexico, USA, *S. methanicola* creates burrows in methane hydrates and inhabits them mostly with single occupancy (Desbruyères and Toulmond, 1998; Fisher et al., 2000). Members of the *Sirsoe* genus have also been found in deep-sea whale falls, vents, and seeps, but *S. methanicola* is the only known *Sirsoe* species to inhabit methane hydrates (Shimabukuro et al., 2019) and is the only macrofauna known to inhabit deposits in the Gulf of Mexico. Besides *S. methanicola*, a novel alvinocarid shrimp morphospecies has been found atop exposed methane hydrates in the Blake Ridge Diapir of the South Atlantic Bight (Van Dover et al., 2003).

Sirsoe methanicola could play important ecological roles in the methane hydrate habitat through bioturbation, methane release, and subsequent methane hydrate dissociation. *Sirsoe methanicola* is thought to introduce oxygen to a methane hydrate by generating water currents on the surface with its parapodia (Fisher et al., 2000). The resulting oxygen can support microaerophilic microbial growth and facilitate depression formation on the methane hydrate surface, leading to its subsequent dissociation (Fisher et al., 2000).

Sirsoe methanicola possesses a functional digestive system with a gut and appears to be a bacterivore feeding on a variety of bacteria from the surface of gas hydrates, although details of its life history or genetic capacities are not fully understood (Fisher et al., 2000; Becker et al., 2013). Methane hydrates provide a variety of potential substrates to support microbial life, including thermogenic methane, hydrogen sulfide, hydrocarbon gases (such as ethane, propane, isobutane, butane, and pentane), and carbon dioxide (Kvenvolden, 1995; Fisher et al., 2000; Lanoil et al., 2001; Joye et al., 2004; Mills et al., 2005). Despite the

“methane” moniker of the ice worm habitat, our recent metagenomic analysis of *S. methanicola* gut contents and worm fragments revealed a paucity of reads assigned to aerobic or anaerobic methanotrophic taxa (Lim et al., 2022). Metagenomes associated with *S. methanicola* were instead dominated by *Sulfurospirillum* and included other prokaryotic taxa capable of nitrogen, sulfur, and carbon cycling (Lim et al., 2022).

From the *S. methanicola* metagenomes, we identified microbial genes involved in the degradation of hydrocarbon compounds, such as alkanes, benzoate, toluene, xylene, and phenol (Lim et al., 2022). Results were consistent with reports of low and high molecular weight hydrocarbons found in the methane hydrate where *S. methanicola* was initially collected (Fisher et al., 2000) and the emanation of a petroleum smell from the guts of *S. methanicola* individuals during dissection (Lim et al., 2022). The high number of metagenomic reads sequenced during the microbiome study (>2M paired-end reads per library) provided an opportunity to mine for host-related genes (Lim et al., 2022). Here we recovered and analyzed mitogenome, gene, and cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzyme superfamily annotations to explore the genetic features of this deep sea polychaete in relation to its unique deep-sea ecology.

Although little is known about *S. methanicola*, the shallow marine polychaete *Capitella teleta* has been well studied. *Capitella teleta* feeds on shallow marine sediments rich in organic matter such as fuel oil and other pollutants (Blake et al., 2009). Degradation of the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) fluoranthene by *C. teleta* has been demonstrated, likely without aid from its gut microbiome (Forbes et al., 2001; Selck et al., 2003; Jang et al., 2020). Involvement of CYP was postulated because CYP-dependent activity and CYP expression in *C. teleta* increased with PAH exposure (Li et al., 2004; Dejong and Wilson, 2014). Sequencing has been described for the *C. teleta* genome (Simakov et al., 2013) with an annotated CYPome (Dejong and Wilson, 2014) and for the gut microbiome (Hochstein et al., 2019; Jang et al., 2020; Jang et al., 2021). Given the hydrocarbon rich habitat of *S. methanicola* (Fisher et al., 2000), we hypothesized that the *S. methanicola* genetic repertoire may include analogous hydrocarbon degradation capability.

2 Materials and methods

Procedures for sample collection, processing, sequencing, and metagenomic analyses were previously documented (Lim et al., 2022), including diagrams that illustrated sample collection design. Details of bioinformatic methods were provided in the supplemental information. Methods are re-summarized here for the readers' convenience, with additional details provided for analysis of eukaryotic sequences.

2.1 Sample collection and processing

Live *S. methanicola* specimens were collected as part of the R/V *Seward Johnson* cruise SJ-2009-GOM, operated by Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute, Fort Pierce, FL, USA. Using the manipulator arm of the crewed Johnson Sea-Link II, specimens were retrieved from a Gulf of Mexico methane hydrate in the Green Canyon area GC234 (27°44.7526' N, 91°13.3168' W) at a depth of 542.8 meters on October 3, 2009 at 10:31 am UTC during Dive #3751. All specimens were rinsed with 0.2- μ m filtered seawater prior to aseptic dissection to expose the worm gut, and five out of the seven dissected specimens were spawned on the ship prior to dissection.

Gut contents were extracted from the seven specimens with a sterile syringe without removal of the gut itself. Samples were placed into microcentrifuge tubes, centrifuged at 13,200 rpm for 15 minutes on the ship, and the supernatant was removed. The remaining pellet was preserved in 95% ethanol and frozen at -80°C on the ship and upon returning to the laboratory. The sample used for Illumina HiSeq sequencing (Tube A) contained gut contents pooled from two unspawned worms. The sample used for Illumina MiSeq sequencing (Tube D) contained the gut contents of one spawned worm. Worm fragments contained various tissues (including heads and bristles, and guts) left over from the dissection and gut content extraction. These were pooled in a 4-ml sterile polycarbonate tube, covered with 95% ethanol, and stored at -20°C on the ship and at -80°C upon returning to the laboratory. The sample used for HiSeq sequencing (Tube Loc-2) contained the worm fragments pooled from all seven dissected worms.

2.2 Library preparation and sequencing

DNA was extracted from all processed samples using the Qiagen DNeasy Tissue & Blood Kit (Valencia, CA, USA) on

February 6, 2012 and quantified using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). For Illumina HiSeq sequencing, 1 μ g of DNA each from Tube A and Tube Loc-2 was sheared into 200–300-bp fragments using the Covaris S2 instrument (Woburn, MA, USA) to produce library G and library W, respectively. The fragments were end-repaired and used for library preparation using the TruSeq DNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina) with 12 cycles of amplification. From each library, 200–250-bp fragments were selected using gel size selection for paired-end sequencing at Scripps Research (formerly The Scripps Research Institute; La Jolla, CA, USA) on a single lane of the Illumina HiSeq 2000 (2 x 100 bp) platform. For Illumina MiSeq sequencing, the Nextera XT library preparation kit (Illumina) was used to prepare metagenomic library G-Mi from Tube D. This library was quantitated using the QubitTM dsDNA assay (Life Technologies, Austin, TX, USA) and sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq (2 x 300 bp) platform at San Diego State University.

2.3 Metagenomic analysis

Reads from the three metagenomic libraries (W, G, and G-Mi) were assembled by various software to obtain full-length small subunit (SSU) rRNA sequences, whole metagenomes, and the worm mitogenome, as detailed below.

2.3.1 Full-length SSU rRNA sequence assembly

Reads from each library were assembled separately into full-length eukaryotic and prokaryotic SSU rRNA sequences using the default parameters of phyloFlash v3.4 (Gruber-Vodicka et al., 2020). Assembled sequences classified by phyloFlash as *S. methanicola* were searched against NCBI GenBank (Benson et al., 2018) via the NCBI blastn web interface (Johnson et al., 2008) to identify matching genes and sequences (Table 1).

TABLE 1 Taxonomic assignments to the polychaete *S. methanicola* based on nuclear 18S rRNA and 28S rRNA gene annotations recovered from the three metagenomic libraries.

GenBank Accession (this study)	Sequence length (bp)	Gene	Assembly method	Library Name	# reads mapped to sequence	GenBank best hit [accessed 8/4/22]			
						Accession	% identity	Alignment length (bp)	Reference
MZ224434	1,817	18S rRNA	phyloFlash	G-Mi	1,232	JN631332	100	1,778	Pleijel et al., 2012
MZ224435	1,781			W	246,713				
MZ224436	1,817			G	89,883				
OP169017	782	28S rRNA	MEGAHIT	G-Mi	not mapped	DQ442611	99	770	Ruta et al., 2007
OL704460	782			G	not mapped				
OL704461	782			W	not mapped				

2.3.2 Whole metagenome assembly

Reads were trimmed at Q-score threshold of 30 using Trim Galore! V0.6.5 (<https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore>), a wrapper tool around cutadapt (Martin, 2011), and FastQC (<https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>). Read qualities pre- and post-trimming were assessed with FastQC v0.11.9. Each metagenomic library was individually assembled on the KBase server (Arkin et al., 2018) using MEGAHIT v1.2.9 (Li et al., 2016) with the “meta-large” preset option for large and complex assembly (kmin=21, kmax=99, and kstep=20). Reads from the three metagenomic libraries were not co-assembled because of computational resource limitations. The MiSeq-sequenced library G-Mi from the gut contents in Tube D was additionally assembled using the “mega-sensitive” option of MEGAHIT (kmin=21, kmax=255, and kstep=20), the default parameters of IDBA-UD v1.1.3 (Peng et al., 2012), and metaSPAdes v3.13.0 (k=21,33,55,77,99,127) (Nurk et al., 2017). For consistency with other HiSeq-sequenced metagenomes, the metagenome assembled from G-Mi with the “meta-large” preset option was used for 18S and 28S rRNA gene sequence retrieval and functional annotations.

2.3.2.1 28S rRNA gene sequence retrieval

The 28S rRNA gene sequence from the ribosomal large subunit (LSU) of *S. methanicola* was retrieved by running blastn searches implemented in BLAST 2.10.1+ (Camacho et al., 2009). Published 28S rRNA gene sequence (NCBI accession: DQ442611) for *S. methanicola* (Ruta et al., 2007) were queried against the MEGAHIT-assembled metagenomes (Li et al., 2016) from the gut contents and worm fragments (Table 1).

2.3.2.2 Worm mitogenome assembly

Draft mitogenomes of *S. methanicola* were recovered by querying previously reported 16S rRNA gene sequence (NCBI accession: DQ442582) and cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I (*cox1*) sequence (NCBI accession: DQ513295) for *S. methanicola* (Ruta et al., 2007) against the MEGAHIT-assembled metagenomes from the gut contents and worm fragments using the blastn function in the BLAST+ application (Camacho et al., 2009). Matching 18,000-bp and 16,108-bp contigs from the gut content and worm fragment metagenomes, respectively, were searched against NCBI GenBank using the web blastn interface (Johnson et al., 2008). These contigs were deduced to be *S. methanicola* mitogenomic sequences, based on matches to mitochondrial sequences from the genus *Sirsoe* and matches to mitogenomes of Polychaeta species.

Sequences from both *S. methanicola* draft mitogenomes were compared against each other using the web blastn interface and annotated with the MITOS web server (Bernt et al., 2013) and MitoZ v2.3 (Meng et al., 2019) based on the

invertebrate mitochondrial code. The draft mitogenome assembled from the gut contents contained no missing genes, while the draft mitogenome from the worm fragments was missing 16 genes. The mitogenome assembled from the gut contents was retained for further annotation. Gene annotations produced by MITOS and MitoZ were manually reviewed and corrected by aligning the *S. methanicola* draft mitogenome with the *Goniada japonica* mitogenome (NC_026995/KP867019) (Chen et al., 2016), which was identified by MitoZ to be the most closely related to the *S. methanicola* draft genomes. Manual mitogenome annotation was aided by the blastn web interface with the Coding Sequences (CDS) feature display and performed according to tutorials published by NCBI (<https://support.nlm.nih.gov/knowledgebase/article/KA-05223/en-us>). Internal stop codons were identified in the sequences encoding cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I (*cox1*) and NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 (*nd2*). The internal stop codon in *cox1* was due to a 497-bp insertion in the *S. methanicola* draft mitogenome and these bases were manually removed. The internal stop codon in NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 (*nd2*) was due to an insertion causing a frameshift in the *S. methanicola* draft mitogenome. This frameshift was additionally verified by aligning the translated nucleotide sequence of *nd2* in the *S. methanicola* draft genome with the protein and nucleotide sequences of *nd2* in *Hesionides* sp. PA-2020 (MN855167/QHT64973) (Alves et al., 2020) using web blastx and tblastn searches against NCBI nr/nt. To correct the frameshift, a 100-bp gene region that was not homologous to *Goniada japonica* and *Hesionides* sp. PA-2020 *nd2* sequences was removed from the *S. methanicola* draft mitogenome. The original draft mitogenomes recovered from the gut content (18,000 bp) and worm fragment (16,108 bp) metagenomes are provided in the Supplementary Data, and the manually annotated *S. methanicola* mitogenome is deposited to NCBI RefSeq with the accession number NC_064058.

MitoZ (Meng et al., 2019) was used to compute the G+C content (window size=50) and sequencing depth of each library (library G-Mi, library G, and library W) along the final representative *S. methanicola* mitogenome. The GenBank annotations, G+C content, and depth data files were used to visualize the *S. methanicola* genome with circos v0.69-8 (Krzywinski et al., 2009), based on the circos configuration file templates generated by MitoZ. MEGAX (Kumar et al., 2018) was used to calculate the relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) in the *S. methanicola* mitogenome, which is the frequency of a codon divided by the average frequency of all synonymous codons for an amino acid (Sharp and Li, 1987). An RSCU value of 1 indicates no codon usage bias, while RSCU values above and below 1 represent positive and negative bias, respectively. Codons with RSCU values >1.6 were considered overrepresented, while codons with RSCU values <0.6 were considered underrepresented (Wong et al., 2010).

2.3.2.3 Phylogenetic analyses

Nucleotide sequences of 16S rRNA, 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *cox1* genes assembled from *S. methanicola* (see subsections 2.3.1, 2.3.2.1, and 2.3.2.2) were concatenated and used for phylogenetic analysis. Comparisons utilized a subset of species selected from Table 1 of Rouse et al. (Rouse et al., 2018) that had reference sequences available for all four of the analyzed genes (16S rRNA, 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *cox1*). These included 32 species from the family *Hesionidae* and the outgroup species *Dsyponetus caecus* from family *Chrysopetalidae* (Table 2). Sequences from the genus *Sirsoe*, including *S. methanicola*, *S. dalailamai*, *S. munki*, and *S. sirikos*, were part of a larger clade of the hesionid subfamily *Psamathinae* (Plejfel, 1998).

In addition, amino acid sequences of protein-coding genes (PCGs) annotated in the assembled *S. methanicola* mitogenome (see subsection 2.3.2.2) were compared with published mitogenomes. No assembled *Hesionidae* mitogenomes were available; therefore, 35 mitogenomes from the order *Phyllodocida* (Table S1) were retrieved from NCBI's Organelle Genome Resources (Sayers et al., 2021). Additionally, the *S. methanicola* mitogenome sequence was queried against NCBI GenBank (Benson et al., 2018) using the NCBI blastn web interface (Johnson et al., 2008) to identify two other *Phyllodocida* mitogenomes not listed in Organelle Genome Resources (Table S1). The mitogenome of *Hydroides elegans* from the polychaete order *Sabellida*, retrieved from Organelle Genome Resources, was used as the outgroup (Table S1). Phylogenetic analysis employed 12 of 13 PCGs annotated in these 37 *Phyllodocida* mitogenomes. The *atp8* gene encoding ATP synthase F0 subunit 8 was excluded because it was absent in three mitogenomes (Table S1).

All sequences were downloaded from the NCBI database. Sequences for each gene were separately aligned with MAFFT v7.475 using the L-INS-I option recommended for <200 sequences, which is an iterative refinement method that produces accurate multiple sequence alignments with local pairwise alignment information (Katoh and Standley, 2013). Conserved blocks within each multiple sequence alignment were identified using gblocks v0.91b (Castresana, 2000). Using gblocks, conserved blocks for 16S rRNA, 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *cox1* were concatenated into a single nucleotide sequence alignment, while conserved blocks for the protein-coding genes in the mitogenomes were concatenated into a single amino acid sequence alignment.

MEGAX (Kumar et al., 2018) was used to identify the best model for each concatenated alignment. For the concatenated 16S rRNA+18S rRNA+28S rRNA+*cox1* alignment, the best model was the General Time Reversible model (Nei and Kumar, 2000) with a discrete Gamma distribution that allows for evolutionary invariable sites (GTR+G+I). For the concatenated amino acid sequence alignment from

mitogenomes, the best model was the General Reversible Mitochondria model (Adachi and Hasegawa, 1996) with Gamma distribution and frequencies (mtREV24+G+F). Phylogenetic trees for both concatenated alignments were constructed separately in MEGAX (Kumar et al., 2018) using the Maximum Likelihood method with 1,000 bootstrap replicates. The Maximum Composite Likelihood (MCL) or Jones-Taylor-Thornton model (Jones et al., 1992) was used to estimate a pairwise distance matrix for the nucleotide and protein sequence alignments, respectively. These matrices were used to search for initial trees heuristically using Neighbor-Join and BioNJ algorithms. Subsequently, a tree topology with the highest log likelihood value was predicted for each concatenated alignment.

2.3.2.4 Mapping to reference genomes

Metagenomic reads obtained from *S. methanicola* gut contents (library G) and worm fragments (library W) were mapped separately to the genome of *C. teleta* (NCBI accession: GCA_000328365). Worm-related sequences were identified in these metagenomes by mapping trimmed reads using the default parameters of Bowtie2 v2.4.1 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) and SAMtools v1.10 (Li et al., 2009). Reads mapped to each *C. teleta* coding sequence were counted using HTSeq v0.12.4 (Anders et al., 2015). Each mapped *C. teleta* coding sequence was matched to the corresponding protein or nucleotide sequence in the *S. methanicola* metagenomes through blastp and tblastn searches performed using BLAST+ (Camacho et al., 2009), respectively. Mapping results of HiSeq-sequenced reads from libraries G and W were reported; results for MiSeq-sequenced reads from library G-Mi were not reported because of low coverage.

2.3.2.5 Metagenome annotation

From the metagenomes assembled by MEGAHIT (Li et al., 2016), 346,292 nucleotide sequences that did not bin into bacterial metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) (Lim et al., 2022) were retrieved from the three libraries W, G, and G-Mi. These sequences were combined and annotated using the WebAUGUSTUS server (Hoff and Stanke, 2013). A training set containing the nucleotide and protein sequences in the genome of *C. teleta* (GCA_000328365) (Simakov et al., 2013) was submitted to WebAUGUSTUS to generate parameters for eukaryotic gene prediction in *S. methanicola*. From the *C. teleta* genomic and protein data, eukaryotic protein-coding genes in the *S. methanicola* metagenomes were predicted *ab initio* by WebAUGUSTUS using the default parameters (report genes on both strands; no alternative transcripts; and predict partial and complete genes). Assembled contigs >1,000 bp from the *S. methanicola* metagenomes were used for eukaryotic gene prediction. Since WebAUGUSTUS has an input limit of

TABLE 2 GenBank accession numbers for *Hesionidae* and *Chrysopetalidae* (outgroup) species used for phylogenetic analysis. *Sirsoe methanicola* sequences assembled from this study are highlighted in bold.

Species	18S rRNA	16S rRNA	28S rRNA	cox1
<i>Dsyponetus caecus</i> (outgroup)	AY839568	EU555047	EU555028	AF221568
<i>Amphiduros fuscescens</i>	DQ442584	DQ442569	DQ442598	DQ442561
<i>Amphiduros cf. axialensis</i>	MG649239	MG523356	MG649243	MG517505
<i>Amphiduros pacificus</i>	JN631334	JN631324	JN631345	JN631312
<i>Gyptis brunnea</i>	JN631335	JN631323	JN631346	JN631313
<i>Gyptis hians</i>	JN571891	JN571880	JN571900	JN571824
<i>Gyptis pacifica</i>	JN631337	JN631322	JN631348	JN631314
<i>Gyptis robertscrippsii</i> sp. nov.	MG649238	MG523360	MG649247	MG517513
<i>Hesiospina aurantiaca</i>	JN631329	JN631319	JF317203	JN631342
<i>Hesiospina vestimentifera</i>	JN631330	JN631320	JN631343	JN631310
<i>Leocrates chinensis</i>	DQ442589	DQ442575	DQ442605	DQ442565
<i>Micropodarke dubia</i>	JN571888	DQ442576	JN571899	JN571825
<i>Neogyptis carriebowcayi</i>	JN631338	JN631325	JN631349	JN631315
<i>Neogyptis hinehina</i>	JN631340	JN631328	JN631350	JN631317
<i>Neogyptis julii</i>	KP745538	KP745535	KP745541	KP745532
<i>Neogyptis rosea</i>	JN571890	DQ442574	DQ442603	JN571826
<i>Neogyptis</i> sp. A AN-2012	JN631341	JN631327	JN631351	JN631318
<i>Nereimyra punctata</i>	DQ442591	DQ442577	DQ442606	DQ442566
<i>Oxydromus flexuosus</i>	DQ442592	DQ442578	DQ442607	DQ442567
<i>Oxydromus pugettensis</i>	DQ790086	KJ855069	KJ855081	KJ855074
<i>Podarkeopsis arenicolus</i>	JN571889	JN571879	DQ442609	JN571827
<i>Podarkeopsis perkinsi</i>	JN571892	JN571881	JN571901	JN571828
<i>Sirsoe dalailamai</i>	MG649240	MG523357	MG649245	MG517498
<i>Sirsoe methanicola</i>	JN631332	DQ442582	DQ442611	DQ513295
<i>Sirsoe methanicola</i> isolate G/G-Mi/W	MZ224436	NC_064058	OL704460	NC_064058
<i>Sirsoe munki</i>	MG649241	MG523358	MG649246	MG517510
<i>Sirsoe sirikos</i>	JN571893	JN571882	JN571902	JN571829
<i>Syllidia armata</i>	DQ442596	DQ442583	DQ442612	DQ442568
<i>Vrijenhoekia ahabi</i>	JN571898	JN571887	JN571907	JN571876
<i>Vrijenhoekia balaenophila</i>	JN571895	JN571884	JN571904	JN571831
<i>Vrijenhoekia falenothiras</i>	JN571897	JN571886	JN571906	JN571875
<i>Vrijenhoekia keta</i>	JN571896	JN571885	JN571905	JN571838
<i>Vrijenhoekia</i> sp. A MS-2015	KP745539	KP745536	KP745542	KP745533

250,000 sequences per prediction job, assembled *S. methanicola* nucleotide sequences from all metagenomes were split into two datasets containing 195,167 contigs that were $\geq 3,000$ bp long and 151,125 contigs that were $< 3,000$ bp.

Predicted protein sequences from the *S. methanicola* metagenomes were submitted to the ghostKOALA web server (Kanehisa et al., 2016) maintained by the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) (Kanehisa et al., 2020) for the

assignment of taxonomy and KEGG Orthology (KO) terms. Protein sequences classified by ghostKOALA as Annelids were extracted based on similarities to sequences in the KEGG Genome database (Kanehisa et al., 2020). All KO terms classified as Annelids were submitted to the KEGG mapper server to identify complete pathway modules. Protein sequences in the complete pathway module M00141 (C1-unit interconversion, eukaryotes) were verified to be homologs of annelid sequences through web blastp searches against NCBI nr (Johnson et al., 2008).

2.3.2.6 Cytochrome P450 annotation

We compared 84 CYP superfamily protein sequences described in *C. teleta* (Dejong and Wilson, 2014) with those predicted from the *S. methanicola* metagenomes to identify eukaryotic CYP homologs that may respond to or detoxify PAHs. Based on the HTSeq output, no reads were mapped to the P450 genomic regions. Cytochrome P450 protein sequences in *S. methanicola* were alternatively identified by clustering WebAUGUSTUS-predicted protein sequences in the *Sirsoe methanicola* metagenomes with *C. teleta* cytochrome P450 protein sequences sequentially at 100%, 90%, 80%, 70%, 60%, 50%, 40% and 30% (psi-cd-hit command) global identity thresholds using CD-HIT (Li and Godzik, 2006). *Sirsoe methanicola* protein sequences that clustered with *C. teleta*'s cytochrome P450 protein sequences were verified to be annelid CYP sequence homologs through web blastp searches against

NCBI nr (Johnson et al., 2008). Sequence clusters were visualized with the igraph v1.2.6 R package (Csárdi and Nepusz, 2006).

3 Results

A total of three metagenomic libraries were sequenced from *S. methanicola* specimens collected from a Gulf of Mexico methane hydrate located at GC234 (27°44.7526' N, 91°13.3168' W; Figure 1). Metagenomic sequencing provided the following numbers of paired-end reads: 1) 236.8M from gut contents pooled from two worms (HiSeq library G, Tube A); 2) 244.1M for non-axenic worm fragments containing gut tissues (HiSeq library W, Tube Loc-2); and 3) 1.3M for a gut content library sequenced with Illumina MiSeq (library G-Mi, Tube D). The text here details assignments associated with the host organism, *S. methanicola*. Analysis of prokaryotic diversity and function for this data set are provided under separate cover (Lim et al., 2022).

3.1 Nuclear rRNA genes in *S. methanicola*

Assembly by phyloFlash (Gruber-Vodicka et al., 2020) yielded 1,817-bp 18S rRNA gene sequences from library G and library G-Mi and a 1,781-bp 18S rRNA gene sequence from library W (Table 1). Based on web blastn alignments, these sequences were 100% identical to each other and to another

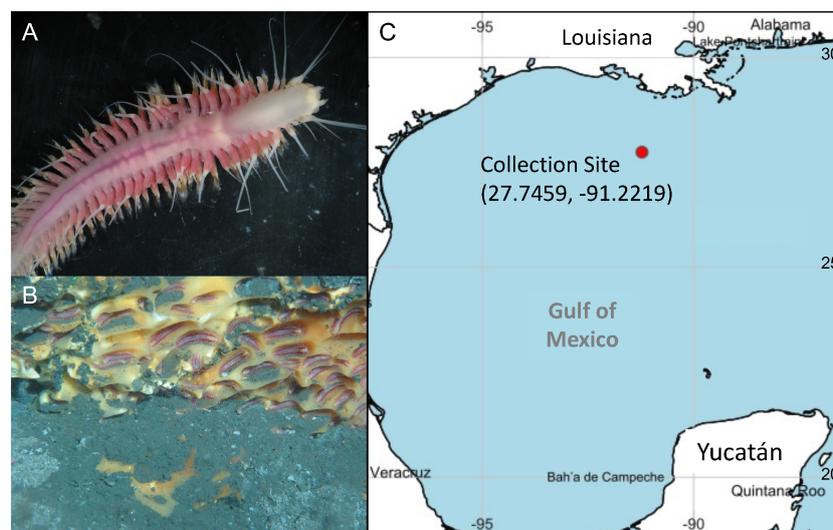


FIGURE 1

(A) *Sirsoe methanicola* individual viewed under a compound microscope (photo credit: R. Emler/C. Young aboard R/V Seward Johnson); (B) *S. methanicola* individuals colonizing depressions on a methane hydrate (photo credit: SJ-2009-GOM-JSL2-3751-014, Johnson Sea Link II, Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute); (C) Map showing location of the sampling site (generated from <https://www.simplerepp.net>. Accessed December 15, 2022).

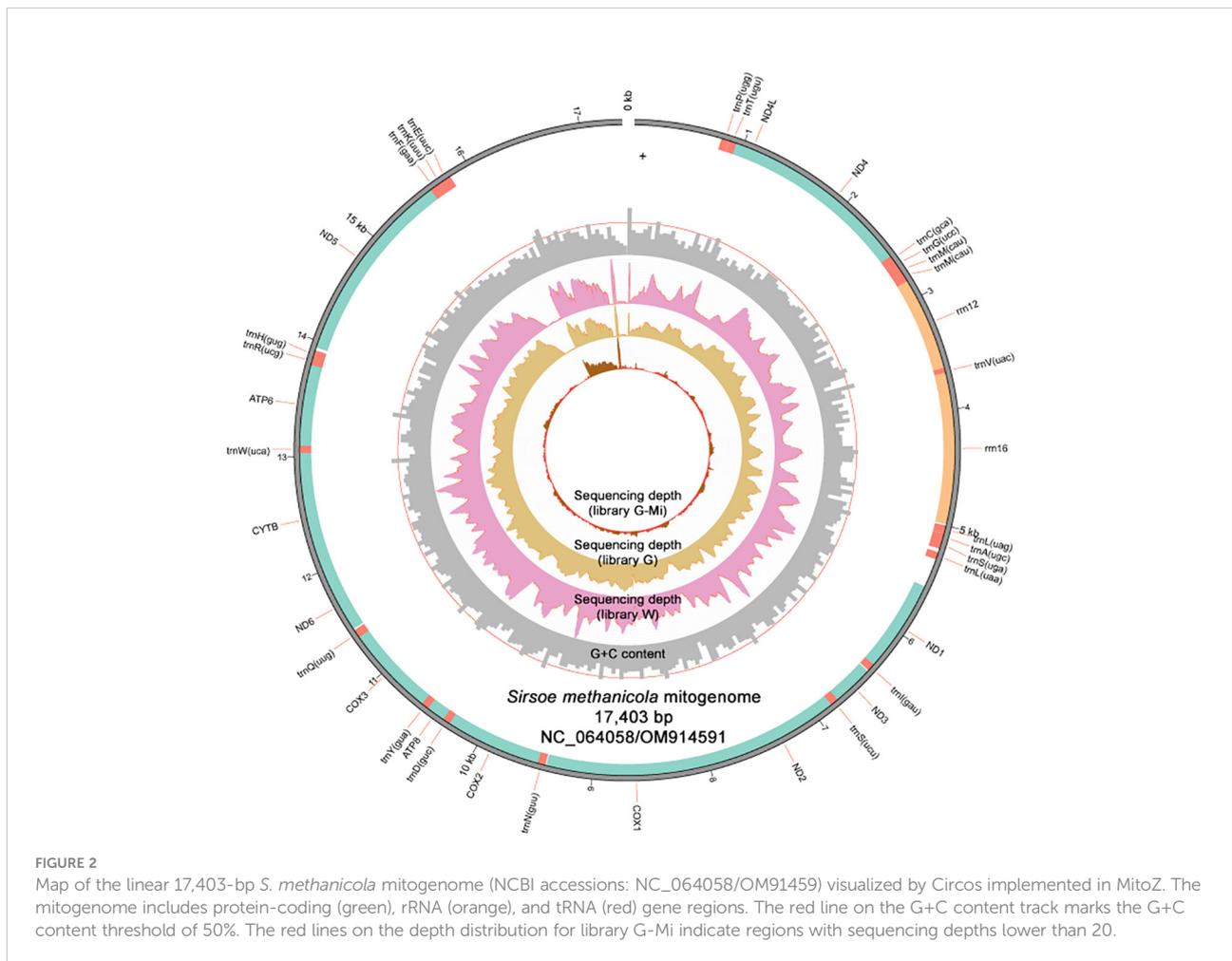
1,778-bp segment of the 18S rRNA gene sequence published for *S. methanicola* (NCBI accession: JN631332) (Pleijel et al., 2012) (Table 1). A previous 18S rRNA sequence (1,745 bp) obtained from a clone library using the *S. methanicola* samples collected in this study (Xin, 2013) showed 99% identity to JN631332.

All three metagenomes assembled with MEGAHIT (Li et al., 2016) identified 28S rRNA LSU gene sequences that were 782 bp in length and 100% identical to each other (Table 1). These sequences shared 99% global sequence identity with a 770-bp segment of the 28S rRNA gene sequence published for *S. methanicola* (NCBI accession: DQ442611) (Ruta et al., 2007), differing only by one gap at position 417 in the alignment with DQ442611 (Table 1).

3.2 *Sirsoe methanicola* mitogenome

From the metagenomes assembled with MEGAHIT (Li et al., 2016), we recovered draft mitogenomes of *S. methanicola* through sequence searches using the previously reported 16S

rRNA gene sequence (NCBI accession: DQ442582) and *cox1* sequence (NCBI accession: DQ513295) for *S. methanicola* (Ruta et al., 2007) as query. Searching against the gut content metagenome from the MiSeq-sequenced library G-Mi produced no hit. However, matching 16S rRNA and *cox1* sequences were identified in a 18,000-bp contig assembled from the HiSeq-sequenced library G and another 16,108-bp contig assembled from the HiSeq-sequenced library W. Both contigs were deduced to be *S. methanicola* mitogenomic sequences, based on matches to mitochondrial sequences from the genus *Sirsoe* and matches to mitogenomes of Polychaeta species in NCBI GenBank (Benson et al., 2018). Based on MITOS (Bernt et al., 2013) and MitoZ (Meng et al., 2019) annotations, these draft mitogenomes were non-circular. The draft mitogenome assembled from the gut contents contained 38 genes with no missing genes, while the draft mitogenome assembled from the worm fragments contained only 22 genes and was missing 16 genes. Local alignment using the blastn web interface showed a shared region of 10,066 bp between both mitogenomes with 99% sequence identity and one gap. The



mitogenome assembled from the gut contents was retained for downstream annotation and analysis to produce a representative mitogenome of *S. methanicola* (NCBI accessions: NC_064058/OM914591; Figure 2).

The *S. methanicola* mitogenome was non-circular, consisting of 17,403 bp with 39.03% G+C content. Regions of low sequencing depths across all three libraries were mostly observed at the end of the mitogenome between 16 kb and 17.3 kb (Figure 2). The mitogenome contained 13 PCGs, 24 tRNAs (including two split *trnM* genes), and 2 rRNAs (12S rRNA and 16S rRNA). All genes were located on the positive strand of the mitogenome. The full-length 1,302-bp 16S rRNA gene was 99% identical to a 538-bp partial 16S rRNA gene sequence reported for *S. methanicola* (NCBI accession: DQ442582) (Ruta et al., 2007), differing by four nucleotides. The full-length 1,536-bp *cox1* gene shared 99% identity with a 629-bp partial *cox1* gene sequence (NCBI accession: DQ513295) (Pleijel et al., 2008) with two nucleotide mismatches.

Most PCGs identified in *S. methanicola* used AUG as the start codon, except for three that used AUC as an alternative start codon. Stop codons used in the *S. methanicola* mitogenome included the truncated U- stop codon in seven PCGs, UAA in

four PCGs, and UAG in NADH dehydrogenase subunit 6 (*nd6*). Analysis of RSCU values of 64 codons showed positive bias for half of the codons (RSCU >1) and negative bias for the other half (Figure 3). UAA, the preferred stop codon over UAG, and amino acids with only two codons showed positive bias for one over the other (Figure 3). More than one codon was preferred for alanine, glycine, leucine, proline, serine, threonine, and valine (Figure 3). Among these, the UCU codon for serine was over-represented with RSCU >1.6 (Figure 3). Underrepresented codons with RSCU <0.6 included CUG for leucine, AUG for methionine, CCG for proline, ACG for threonine, GCG for alanine and AGU and AGG for serine (Figure 3).

3.3 Phylogenetic analyses

The phylogeny of concatenated 16S rRNA, 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *cox1* nucleotide gene sequences from the *S. methanicola* metagenome in relation to sequences available for the family *Hesionidae* (Figure 4) was consistent with the most recent published phylogeny (Rouse et al., 2018). *Sirsoe methanicola* sequences from this study were most closely

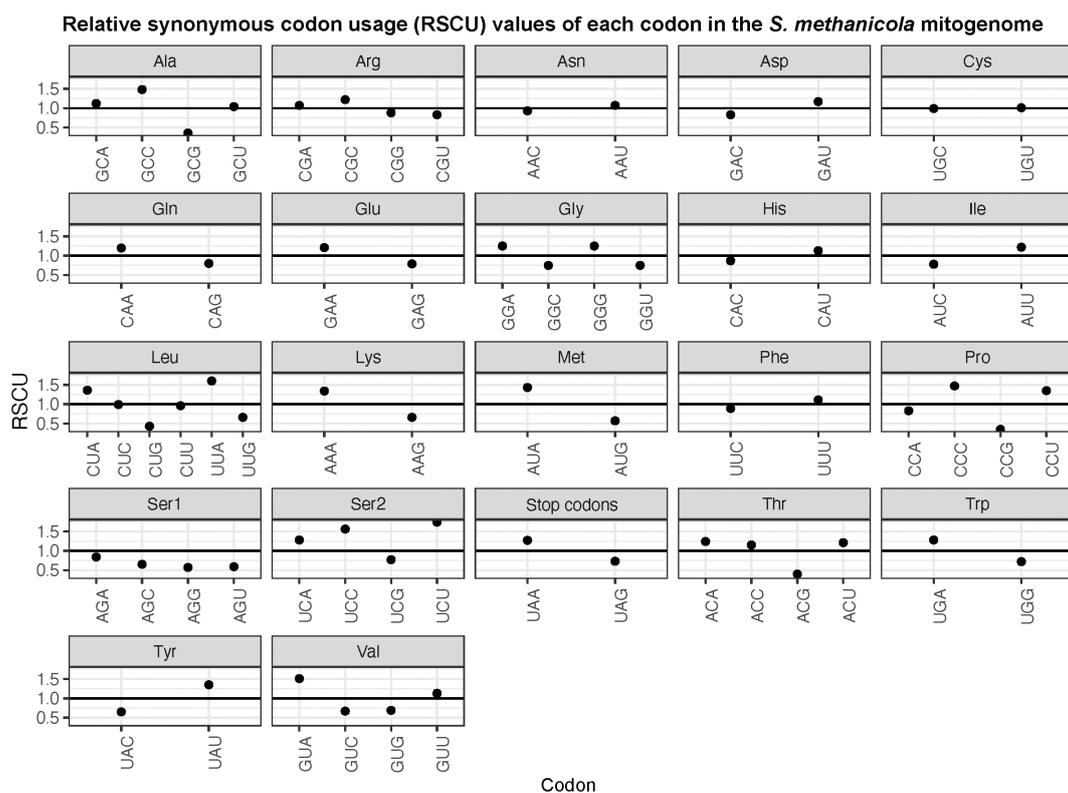


FIGURE 3

Relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) values for each codon of each amino acid in the *S. methanicola* mitogenome. The black horizontal line on each plot marks the RSCU threshold of 1.

Bootstrapped phylogenetic tree of Hesionidae from concatenated 16S rRNA, 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *cox1* nucleotide sequence alignment

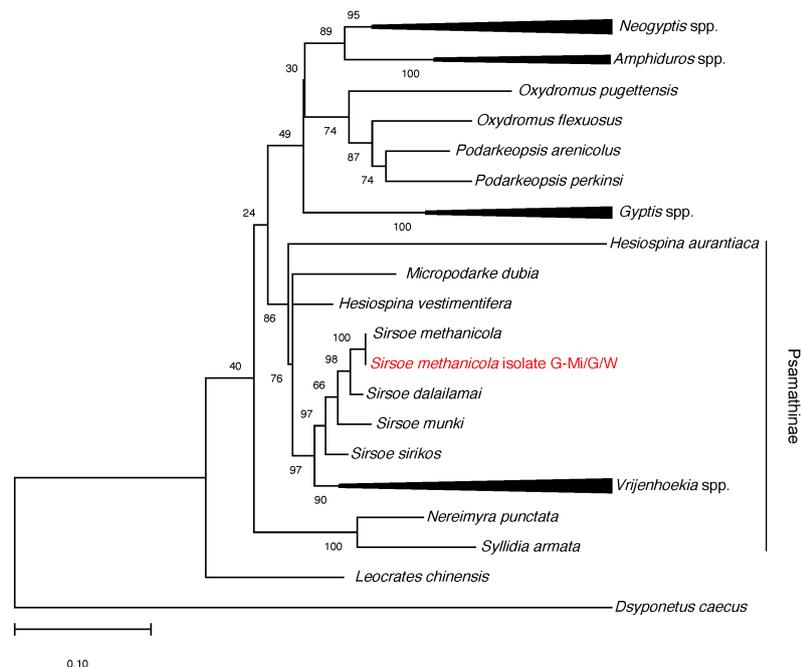


FIGURE 4

Bootstrapped maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of concatenated 16S rRNA, 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *cox1* nucleotide sequences from *S. methanicola* metagenomic libraries G/W/G-Mi (red text) in relation to sequences from other species in the family Hesionidae. The tree was constructed by MEGAX from the concatenated 1,446-bp alignment from 33 specimens. The tree with the highest log likelihood (−10081.68) is shown, with branch lengths indicating the number of substitutions per site. Bootstrap values on tree nodes indicate the percentage of trees, based on 1,000 replicates, in which taxa from a node are clustered together. The outgroup species used was *Dsyponetus caecus* from the polychaete family Chrysopetalidae. Accession numbers of these sequences are provided in Table 2.

related to previously published *S. methanicola* sequences (Ruta et al., 2007), and *S. methanicola* was most closely related to its sister species *S. dalailamai* (Rouse et al., 2018).

The phylogeny of amino acid sequences from the *S. methanicola* mitogenome in relation to 12 PCGs available for the order Phyllococida showed the *S. methanicola* mitogenome to be most closely related to the mitogenome of *Goniada japonica* (Chen et al., 2016) from family Goniadidae (Figure 5), as predicted by MitoZ (Meng et al., 2019). Both mitogenomes were placed in a well-supported clade (98% bootstrap confidence) with the mitogenomes of *Glyceria capitata* and *Hemipodia simplex* from the family Glyceridae (Figure 5). Of the 37 Phyllococida mitogenomes, most (n=19) were from the family Nereididae (Figure 5). The mitogenomes of the Chrysopetalidae species *Craseschema thysiricola* and *Chrysopetalum debile* did not cluster together on the phylogenetic tree (Figure 5). The *Chrysopetalum debile* mitogenome clustered with mitogenomes from the Hesionidae-Goniadidae-Glyceridae clade with only 62% bootstrap confidence (Figure 5). Similar to previously reported phylogeny (Cejp et al., 2022), the *Craseschema thysiricola* mitogenome clustered with the mitogenome of *Itheyomytilidicola*

lauensis from the family Nautiliniellidae with 100% bootstrap confidence (Figure 5). Both of these polychaetes are endosymbionts in deep-sea bivalves (Cejp et al., 2022).

3.4 Mapping to *Capitella teleta* genome

Reads from two *S. methanicola* metagenomic libraries (libraries G and W) predominantly mapped to the 28S-5.8S-18S rRNA operon of *C. teleta*. Mapping was also observed to genes encoding structural components (actin and collagen alpha), signaling proteins (enterin neuropeptide, Fc-receptor like 1 homolog, phosphodiesterase 8B homolog, and ankyrin repeat domain-containing protein 26 homolog), RNA-directed DNA polymerase from transposon BS, cilia- and flagella-associated protein 20, putative glycosyltransferase, acidic repeat-containing protein, and hypothetical proteins (Figure 6).

Using the nucleotide and protein sequences in the *C. teleta* genome as training data, we predicted 79,493 eukaryotic protein-coding genes in the assembled *S. methanicola* metagenomes

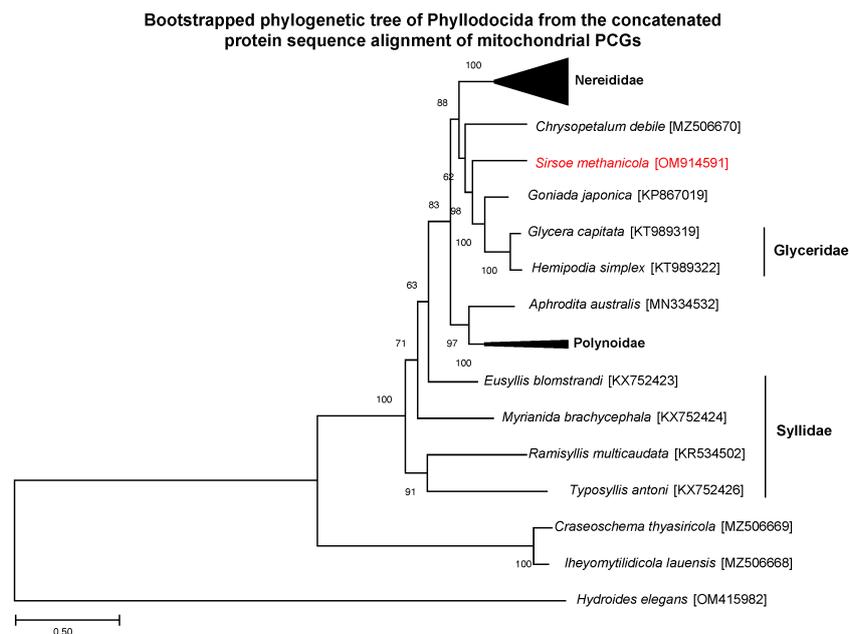


FIGURE 5

Bootstrapped maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of concatenated protein sequences of 12 PCGs from the *S. methanicola* mitogenome (red text) in relation to mitogenomes available from the order *Phyllodocida*. The tree was constructed by MEGAX from the concatenated 2,648-aa alignment from 35 mitochondrial genomes. The tree with the highest log likelihood (−62222.03) is shown, with branch lengths indicating the number of substitutions per site. Bootstrap values on tree nodes indicate the percentage of trees, based on 100 replicates, in which taxa from a node are clustered together. The outgroup species used was *Hydroides elegans* from the polychaete order *Sabellida*. Accession numbers of all mitogenome sequences used are provided in Table S1.

using WebAUGUSTUS (Hoff and Stanke, 2013). Of these protein sequences, ghostKOALA (Kanehisa et al., 2016) assigned taxonomy to 98% (77,530) and KO terms to 35% (28,270), based on mapping to complete genomes or functionally characterized individual protein sequences in the KEGG Genome database (Kanehisa et al., 2020). Protein sequences were mostly assigned to the KEGG-defined broad taxonomic groups “Animals” (77%; Table 3), with 2% (1,799) assigned to the phylum Annelida. All Annelid sequences were predicted based on mapping to sequences in the genome of the freshwater leech *Helobdella robusta* from class Clitellata (KEGG accession T0327 and NCBI accession GCF_000326865.1) (Simakov et al., 2013). Smaller numbers of protein sequences from the metagenomes were assigned to the groups “Bacteria”, “Plants”, “Fungi”, “Protists”, “Archaea” and “Viruses” (Table 3).

Of the Annelid sequences, the most abundant KEGG Orthology term mapped to *H. robusta* from *S. methanicola* metagenomes was innexin (Table 4). Other abundant KEGG Orthology terms were involved in cell adhesion, signaling, the ubiquitin system, metabolism, transport, and other processes (Table 4). KEGG mapper analysis mapping all Annelid KO terms to KEGG pathway modules revealed one complete pathway module associated with eukaryotic C1-unit interconversion (M00141). This module comprised two genes

assigned to K00600 (glycine hydroxymethyltransferase) and two genes assigned to K00288 (methylenetetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase (NADP+)/methenyltetrahydrofolate cyclohydrolase/formyltetrahydrofolate synthetase).

3.4.1 Cytochrome P450 homologs in *S. methanicola*

Using reference *C. teleta* CYP genomic annotations (Dejong and Wilson, 2014) to identify potential CYP sequences in *S. methanicola* that may respond to or detoxify PAHs, we identified 42 predicted protein sequences from the *S. methanicola* metagenomes that were homologous (30% to 79% identical) to 37 cytochrome P450 sequences in *C. teleta* (Figure 7 and Table S2). In *C. teleta*, expression of both CYP331A1 and CYP4AT1 was shown to increase with exposure to PAHs (Li et al., 2004). From the *S. methanicola* metagenomes, we identified a 177-aa protein sequence sharing ~38% local sequence identity and ~55% local sequence similarity to CYP331A1. This sequence was part of a 6,485-bp contig encoding only one protein product. The sequence also shared 49% identity to an unnamed protein product of the polychaete *Owenia fusiformis* (NCBI accession: CAH1774988), as well as 50% identity and 69% similarity to CYP 3A29-like sequences from the brachiopod *Linguna* found inhabiting an intertidal zone in Kasari Bay, Japan (NCBI

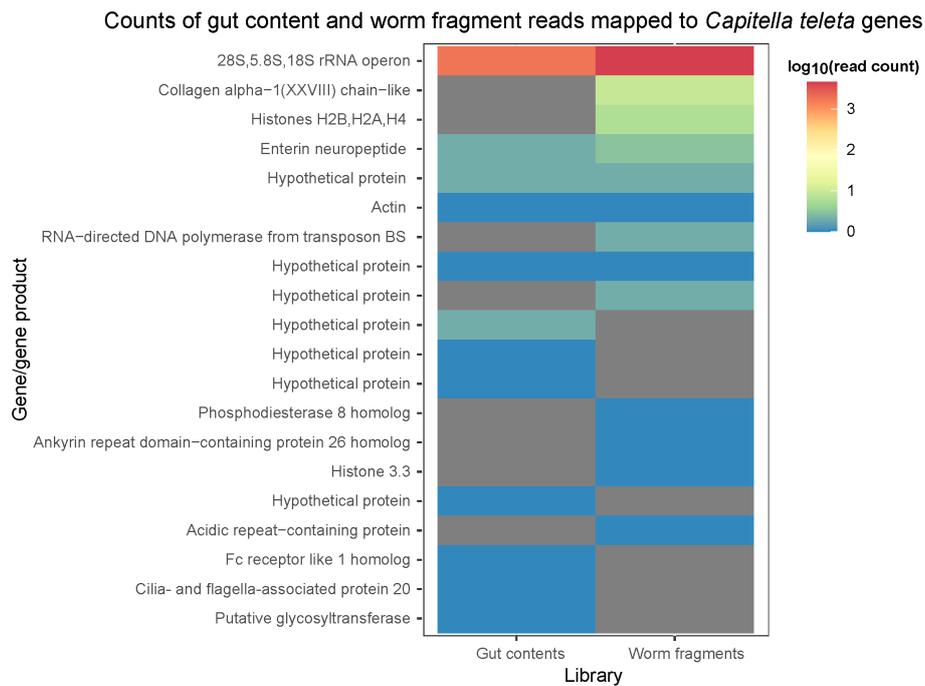


FIGURE 6
 \log_{10} -transformed counts of reads from library G and library W (x-axis) mapped to genes/gene products in the *Capitella teleta* genome (y-axis), as quantified using HTSeq. Zero read counts are represented as grey cells.

accessions: XP_023933140, XP_013408119, XP_013408125, XP_013408132, XP_013408139, XP_013408146, XP_013408154). We also identified another 63-aa protein sequence with ~37% local sequence identity and ~62% local sequence similarity to CYP4AT1. This sequence was part of a 5,913-bp contig encoding only one protein product. The sequence was 56% identical and 76% similar to a hypothetical

protein predicted in the *Helobdella robusta* genome (Simakov et al., 2013), and 48% identical and 82% similar to an unnamed protein product of *Owenia fusiformis*.

CYP sequences are considered to be the same family and subfamily if they share 40% and 55% identity, respectively, according to the CYP nomenclature committee (Nelson et al., 1996). Based on these criteria, both homologs from the *S.*

TABLE 3 Broad taxonomic classification of protein sequences annotated from the combined *S. methanicola* metagenomes by ghostKOALA, based on mapping to complete genomes or functionally characterized individual protein sequences in the KEGG Genome database.

Predicted taxonomic group	# protein sequences	% protein sequences
Animals	61,262	77.07
Bacteria	9,681	12.18
Plants	2,592	3.26
Fungi	1,680	2.11
Protists	1,572	1.98
Archaea	453	0.57
Viruses	280	0.35
Others (not in complete genomes)	10	0.01
Not assigned	1,963	2.47
Total	79,493	100.00

TABLE 4 Most abundant KEGG Orthology (KO) terms mapped by ghostKOALA from the *S. methanicola* metagenomes to Annelid sequences in the KEGG Genome database.

KO	Count	Name	Category
K22037	32	Innexin	Transporters
K04437	17	Filamin	Signaling
K16498	17	Protocadherin delta 1	Cell adhesion molecules
K11997	15	Tripartite motif-containing protein 2/3	Ubiquitin system
K00710	14	Polypeptide N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase	Metabolism
K07380	9	Contactin associated protein-like 2	Cell adhesion molecules
K06756	9	Neuronal cell adhesion molecule	Cell adhesion molecules
K11536	9	Pyrimidine nucleoside transport protein	Transporters
K14165	8	Atypical dual specificity phosphatase	Protein phosphatases and associated proteins
K02183	8	Calmodulin	Signaling
K01049	6	Acetylcholinesterase	Metabolism
K11643	6	Chromodomain-helicase-DNA-binding protein 4	Cancers
K13811	6	3'-phosphoadenosine 5'-phosphosulfate synthase	Metabolism
K00873	6	Pyruvate kinase	Metabolism
K21991	6	Protein unc-45	Chaperones and folding catalysts
K20526	6	Transgelin	Membrane trafficking
K01298	5	Carboxypeptidase A2	Pancreatic secretion
K00029	5	Malate dehydrogenase (oxaloacetate-decarboxylating)(NADP+)	Metabolism
K00643	5	5-aminolevulinic acid synthase	Metabolism
K24048	5	MAGUK p55 subfamily member 2/6	Signaling
K06569	5	Melanoma-associated antigen p97	Signaling
K22078	5	Protein-glucosylgalactosylhydroxylysine glucosidase	Glycosidase

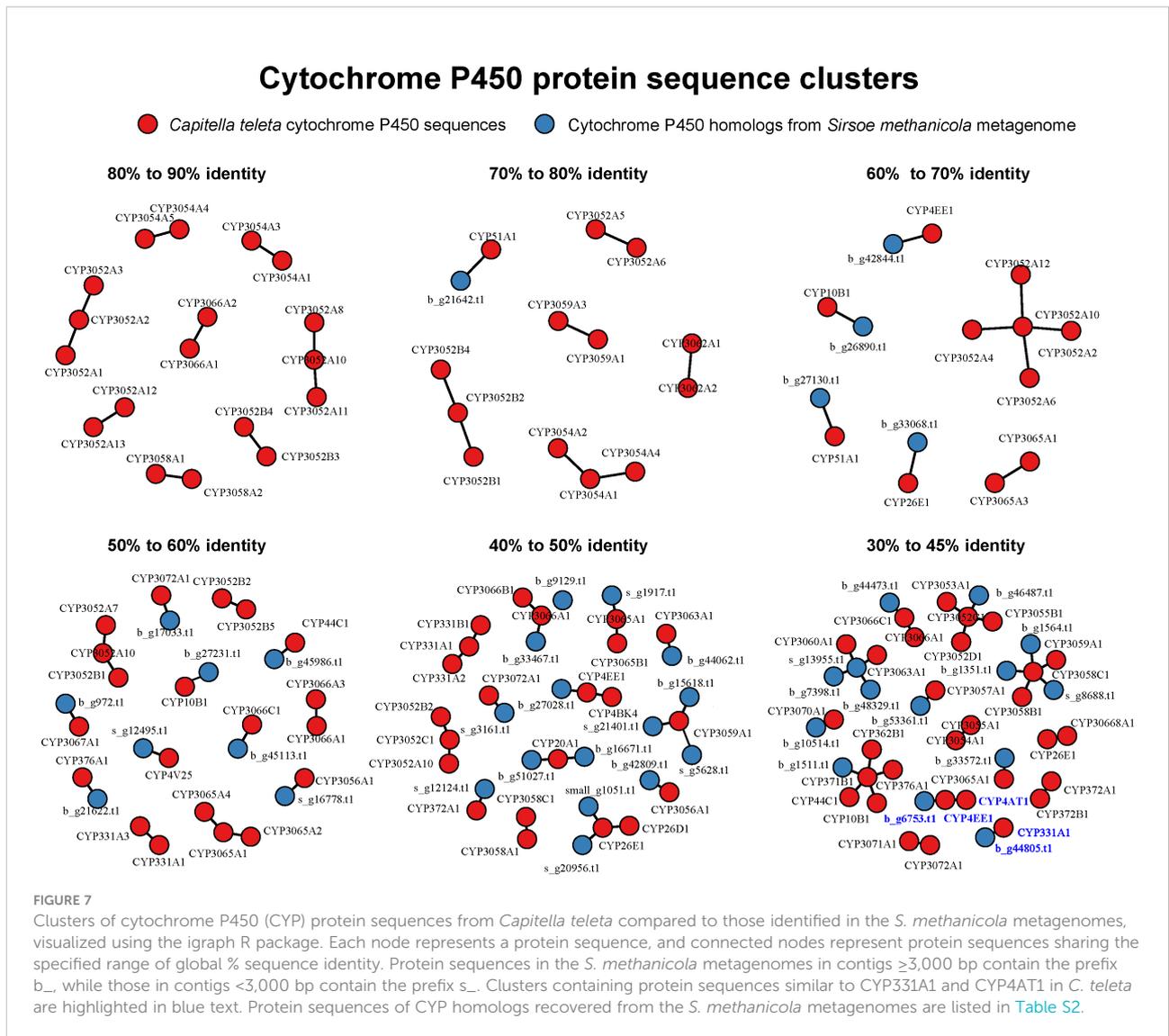
methanicola metagenomes did not belong to the CYP331 and CYP4 families. The protein sequence similar to CYP331A may belong to the CYP3 family, while the other protein sequence similar to CYP4AT1 was too short (66a) for CYP family assignment.

4 Discussion

The genomes of deep sea invertebrates are poorly represented in genetic databases (Taylor and Roterman, 2017). Here, we advance knowledge concerning the genetic repertoire of a rarely studied bristle worm that can be found inhabiting Gulf of Mexico methane hydrates (Fisher et al., 2000; Becker et al., 2013). This polychaete has previously been barcoded using 16S rRNA, 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, and *cox1* genes (Ruta et al., 2007). In this study, 18S rRNA and 28S rRNA genes, the mitogenome, and certain protein-coding genes were assembled using shotgun metagenomic sequencing of *S. methanicola* gut

contents and worm body fragments. The resulting nuclear 18S rRNA and 28S rRNA (Table 1) and mitochondrial 16S rRNA and *cox1* gene sequences were 99% to 100% identical to marker gene sequences previously published for *S. methanicola* (Ruta et al., 2007; Pleijel et al., 2008). The phylogeny inferred from the concatenated alignment of these genes (Figure 4) was consistent with the most recent phylogeny available for *Hesionidae*, which clustered *S. methanicola* with *S. dalailamai* (Rouse et al., 2018) and placed all *Sirsoe* species within the hesionid group Psamathinae (Pleijel, 1998).

The *S. methanicola* mitogenome reported here is the first from the family *Hesionidae* (Figure 2). Further polymerase chain reaction (PCR) attempts are needed to finish the *S. methanicola* mitogenome, particularly to verify regions with missing sequences, low coverage, and manually corrected annotations. The mitogenome of *S. methanicola* was found most closely related to the mitogenome of *Goniada japonica* (Chen et al., 2016) from the family *Goniadidae*, and these were clustered with the mitogenomes of *Glycera capitata* and *Hemipodia simplex*



from the family *Glyceridae* (Figure 5). Among these *S. methanicola* relatives, only the bristle worm *G. capitata* has been reported in the northern Gulf of Mexico at shallow (12–18 m) depth (Fauchald et al., 2009). Other *Goniadidae* and *Glyceridae* species have been found in shallow sediments (Fauchald et al., 2009) and deep-sea oil platform sediments (Granadosbarba and Solisweiss, 1997) of the Gulf of Mexico.

The *S. methanicola* mitogenome shared similar features with other reported annelid mitogenomes, including the common usage of AUG as the start codon, as well as the frequent occurrence of truncated U- stop codons which may be completed by alternative polyadenylation (Chen et al., 2016; Cejp et al., 2022). Additionally, UAA and UAG stop codons found in the *S. methanicola* mitogenome are the most common stop codons in polychaete mitogenomes species (Cejp et al., 2022). We also identified several codon biases in the *S.*

methanicola mitogenome. Previous mitogenomic analysis of the polychaete family *Chrysopetalidae* revealed relaxed selection, particularly in the cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit III (*cox3*) gene, in deep-sea compared to shallow-water species (Cejp et al., 2022). Similar codon usage comparisons within the family *Hesionidae* could reveal habitat-specific adaptations; however in-depth mitogenome analysis of *S. methanicola* was hampered by the paucity of mitogenomes taxonomically or ecologically related to the species.

This study provides the first functional profile for *S. methanicola*. Annotations of the metagenomic data included genes for putative cell adhesion, signaling, ubiquitin system, metabolism, and transport, as well as genes homologous to innexins and the CYP superfamily (Figure 6, Table 4, and Figure 7). Innexins form gap junctions between neurons and are potentially useful for studying annelid phylogeny (Kandarian

et al., 2012; Hughes, 2014). Using reference sequences from *C. teleta*, we predicted 42 CYP protein sequences in *S. methanicola* (Figure 7 and Table S2). Based on sequence identities, none of these sequences were assigned to the same family or subfamily as CYP331A1 and CYP4AT1, whose expression was shown to increase with PAH exposure in *C. teleta* (Li et al., 2004). Although we hypothesized that the worm may detoxify or consume organic compounds from the environment or its gut (Lim et al., 2022), further studies are required to validate the expression and functions of the cytochrome P450 protein sequences in *S. methanicola*.

This study provides the first mitogenome, protein-coding gene, and CYP enzyme superfamily annotations for *S. methanicola* living on the surface of a methane hydrate in the Gulf of Mexico. Future sampling will improve the genetic annotations of this poorly understood polychaete species, which has proven difficult to locate in the deep sea. Previous studies on *C. teleta* polychaetes harboring gut microbes had revealed important host-microbiome interface properties relevant to the cycling of environmental compounds (Dejong and Wilson, 2014; Jang et al., 2020; Jang et al., 2021). Our results encourage further comparative studies on the genomic and microbiome adaptations of this deep-sea worm to its unique habitat and how these adaptations contribute to the ecology and nutrient cycling of methane hydrates.

Data availability statement

The datasets presented in this study can be found in online repositories. The names of the repository/repository and accession number(s) can be found in the article/Supplementary Material.

Author contributions

SL conducted bioinformatics analyses and wrote the manuscript, under the guidance of LT. KG conceived this project and led manuscript editing. All authors edited the manuscript and approved the submission.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Supplementary material

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmars.2022.1067482/full#supplementary-material>

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