UNIVERSIDADE DE BRASÍLIA INSTITUTO DE CIÊNCIAS BIOLÓGICAS DEPARTAMENTO DE BIOLOGIA CELULAR PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM BIOLOGIA MOLECULAR

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INFLUÊNCIA DA PLUMA DO RIO AMAZONAS NO MICROBIOMA DAS ESPONJAS DO GRANDE SISTEMA DE RECIFES DO AMAZONAS

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Defesa apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Biológicas (Biologia Molecular) da Universidade de Brasília, como requisito parcial para obtenção do título de doutor em Biologia Molecular nos conformes do Artigo 51, parágrafo 5° do regulamento da PPGBIOMOL.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Ricardo Henrique Krüger

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RESUMO

O Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas (GARS) fica sob uma camada de lama que atenua a entrada de luz e, em vez de corais, as esponjas são a principal epifauna para o qual pouco se sabe sobre a função do microbioma. Aqui, recuperamos genomas a partir de dados metagenômicos para investigar como o microbioma das esponjas do GARS suporta o hospedeiro e supera a indisponibilidade de luz. Recuperamos 205 MAGs de esponjas Agelas e Geodia com completude >70% e contaminação <10%. As análises de beta diversidade com base no gene rRNA 16S indicaram que o microbioma das esponjas da Amazônia e do Caribe são distintos (P <0,01), com estilo de vida predominantemente heterotrófico para o microbioma de esponjas da Amazônia (P < 0.05). No entanto, detectamos genes que indicam a presença de vias de fixação de carbono para o ciclo 3-hidroxipropionato/4-hidroxibutirato, 3hidroxipropionato biciclo, ciclo redutivo do ácido tricarboxílico e ciclo de Calvin-Benson-Bassham, mesmo que em baixa abundância. Dectamos a presença de cianobactérias tanto por rRNA 16S quanto por MAGs de baixa qualidade, indicando incidência de luz no recife. A pluma do rio Amazonas tem maior influência indireta na composição do microbioma de esponjas do GARS. Os taxa encontrados em maior abundância no microbioma do GARS sugerem adaptações para ambientes termófilos e com para baixa disponibilidade de oxigênio. O perfil metabólico mostra que o microbioma das esponjas do GARS possui genes para redução de sulfato, redução de óxido nítrico, oxidação de amônia, redução de nitrato, amonificação de nitrito, oxidação de nitrito e redução de nitrito, indicando que o microbioma pode desempenhar um papel na desintoxicação do holobionte. Concluímos que nem a fotossíntese é limitada pela pluma, camada de lama, nem os produtores primários sustentam a entrada de carbono orgânico para as esponjas, que provavelmente vivem do carbono orgânico associado ao rio Amazonas e a microbiota heterotrófica.

Palavras-chave: Holobionte, Associado ao hospedeiro, Genomas montados a partir do metagenoma (MAGs), Microbioma de esponjas, O Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas (GARS)

Pinto, O. H. B. 2022. Plume layer influences the Great Amazon Reef System sponge microbiome. 91 pp. Thesis (Doctoral) – Departamento de Biologia Celular, Universidade de Brasília, Brasília, 2022.

ABSTRACT

The Great Amazon Reef System (GARS) stays under a plume layer that attenuates the entry of light, and instead of corals, sponges are the major reef epifauna, for which little is known about the function of the associated microbiome. Here, we used genome-resolved metagenomics to investigate how the sponge microbiome supports its host and overcomes the reduced light availability, recovering 205 MAGs from Agelas and Geodia sponges with completeness >70% and contamination <10%. Beta diversity estimates based on the 16S rRNA genes indicated the microbiomes of Amazon and Caribbean sponges to be distinct (P<0.01), with heterotrophic lifestyles being prevalent in Amazon sponge microbiomes (P<0.05). Nevertheless, genes indicating the carbon fixation pathways 3-Hydroxypropionate/4-Hydroxybutyrate cycle, 3-Hydroxypropionate bicycle, Reductive Tricarboxylic Acid Cycle, and Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle could be recovered in low abundance. The presence of Cyanobacteria, represented by both 16S rRNA analyses and low-quality MAGs indicated light incidence on the reef. The Amazon River plume influences the sponge GARS microbiome composition indirectly. GARS significant taxa suggest adaptations to thermophilic and low oxygen availability habitats. The metabolic profile shows that the GARS sponge microbiome had genes for sulfate reduction, sulfur oxidation, nitric oxide reduction, ammonia oxidation, nitrate reduction, nitrite ammonification, nitrite oxidation, and nitrite reduction, indicating that the microbiome might play a role in detoxification of the holobiont. We conclude, that neither the plume-limited photosynthesis of the sponge microbiome nor the primary producers sustain the organic carbon input for the sponges, which likely live off plume-associated organic carbon and their heterotrophic microbiota.

Keywords: Holobiont, Host-associated, Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs), Sponge microbiome, the Great Amazon Reef System (GARS)

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LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS

- CBB Calvin-Benson-Bassham
- DC/4-HB Ciclo dicarboxilato/4-hidroxibutirato
- DNA Ácido desoxirribonucleico
- DOC Carbono orgânico dissolvido
- DOM Matéria orgânica dissolvida
- DON Nitrogênio orgânico dissolvido
- DOP Fósforo orgânico dissolvido
- EDTA Ácido etilenodiamino tetra-acético
- GARS Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas
- GC Conteúdo de guanina-citosina
- HMM Modelos ocultos de Markov
- KO KEGG Orthology
- MAG Genomas montados a partir do metagenoma
- *MW-score* Pontuação de peso metabólico
- OMS Organização Mundial de Saúde
- PCoA Análise de Coordenadas Principais
- PCR Reação da polimerase em cadeia
- PERMANOVA Análise de Variância Permutacional Multivariada
- POC Carbono orgânico particulado
- POM Matéria orgânica particulada
- PON nitrogênio orgânico particulado

- POP Fósforo orgânico particulado
- RDP Ribosomal Database Project
- rRNA Ácido ribonucleico ribossómico
- rTCA Ciclo redutivo do ácido tricarboxílico
- SCBD O índice de contribuição de espécies para beta diversidade
- WL Wood-Ljungdahl
- 3HP 3-hidroxipropionato biciclo
- 3HP/4HB 3-hidroxipropionato/4-hidroxibutirato

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1. INTRODUÇÃO

Recentemente foi descoberto um novo sistema de recifes biogênicos na foz do rio Amazonas. Esse novo sistema biológico recebe grande aporte de água rica em matéria orgânica que gera mudanças de salinidade, pH, luminosidade, oxigenação e sedimentação. Por muito tempo acreditou-se que essas características de estresse impediam a formação de recifes biogênicos. No entanto, colaboraram para a existência de um ambiente único que possui alta biomassa bacteriana e baixa abundância de epifauna e meiofauna. Essas condições adversas contribuíram para que esse rico e complexo sistema permanecesse desconhecido, abrigando uma inexplorada diversidade de organismos como, peixes, algas e esponjas (MOURA et al., 2016). Esse recife é predominante ocupado por esponjas que são os organismos mais promissores para prospecção de produtos bioativos e vias metabólicas no meio marinho (BLUNT et al., 2017). Esses compostos estão intimamente relacionados com a diversidade microbiana das esponjas que podem compor 35% da sua biomassa. Dessa forma, este trabalho focará em estudar a influência da pluma do rio Amazonas no microbioma das esponjas. Além de estudar as relações ecofisiológicas entre as esponjas e sua microbiota em um ambiente único e adverso.

2. REVISÃO DA LITERATURA

2.1.Recifes tradicionais

Os recifes são formações biológicas criadas a partir da deposição de carbonato de cálcio que servem como base para organismos sésseis em meio marinho (DRAKE et al., 2020). Apesar de ocuparem cerca de 0,2% do fundo do mar, são um dos ecossistemas mais diversos do planeta (CONNELL, 1978), responsáveis por abrigarem e alimentarem pelo menos um quarto da vida marinha (KNOWLTON; JACKSON, 2001). Os corais escleractíneos são os principais construtores de recifes, podendo ser construídos também por algas calcárias, hidróides calcários e esponjas (LEWIS, 2006; PRATT et al., 2001; WANG et al., 2021).

O sucesso dos corais está intimamente relacionado à relação de endossimbiose com algas microscópicas, geralmente dinoflagelados do gênero *Symbiodinium*, denominadas zooxantelas. Essas algas disponibilizam carbono aos corais pela fotossíntese oxigênica utilizando o ciclo de Calvin-Benson-Bassham (CBB) (STANLEY JR, 2006). As taxas de fixação de carbono em recifes podem se equiparar com às encontradas em florestas tropicais (ALLDREDGE; CARLSON; CARPENTER, 2013; MA et al., 2015; VAN HOYTEMA et al., 2016). Além de aumentar a deposição de carbonato de cálcio, essa relação supre 90% das necessidades nutricionais dos corais (MUSCATINE; PORTER, 1977). Altos níveis nutricionais prejudicam indiretamente as zooxantelas, pois viabilizam o aumento de organismos que competem por nutrientes e espaço. Devido a essas características, os corais preferem águas rasas, tropicais e oligotróficas. O carbono fixado nos corais e utilizado para produção de muco, alimento rico, composto por proteínas, triglicerídeos e ceras éster. O muco é dissolvido pela água e consumido por bactérias planctônicas, que servem de alimento para níveis tróficos mais altos, assim sustentando toda uma cadeia trófica (**Figura 1**) (WILD et al., 2004).



Figura 1. Esquema de disponibilizam de carbono em recifes de corais para níveis tróficos mais altos (setas vermelhas): Conversão de carbono inorgânico (CO2) em carbono orgânico por zooxantelas em endossimbiose com os corais. Liberação de muco (DOM) pelos corais, seguida de consumo pelas bactérias heterotróficas. Parte do fitoplâncton e das bactérias heterotróficas (POM) são consumidas pelo zooplâncton, e o carbono é posteriormente transferido para níveis tróficos mais altos. Alça microbiana (setas pretas): As bactérias heterotróficas consumem a matéria orgânica dissolvida na água (DOM) e convertem em matéria orgânica particulada (POM) para os níveis tróficos mais altos. A lise celular das bactérias e do fitoplâncton pelo viroplâncton contribui para a liberação da matéria orgânica dissolvida (carbono orgânico dissolvido (DOC), nitrogênio orgânico dissolvido (DON) e fósforo orgânico particulado (PON) e fósforo orgânico par

2.2. Recife Amazonas

Águas barrentas muitas vezes inibem a formação de recifes de corais à medida que os sedimentos diminuem a disponibilidade de luz para a zooxantela (ERFTEMEIJER et al., 2012). Contudo, essas características não impediram a formação de recifes biogênicos na foz do rio Amazonas. O Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas (GARS) fica localizado a cerca de 120 km da foz do rio Amazonas com extensão da Guiana Francesa ao estado do Maranhão, com área de ~56.000 km² (FRANCINI-FILHO et al., 2018). Alguns autores especulavam a existência do GARS em 1977 (COLLETTE; RÜTZLER, 1977), no entanto, a confirmação só veio em 2016 (MOURA et al., 2016). Com a descrição do GARS foi iniciado uma discussão a respeito de concessões para blocos de exploração de gás natural e petróleo por companhias na região (BHP-Billiton, Queiroz Galvão, Ecopetrol, Total, BP e Petrobras), tendo como principais contrapontos a diversidade única ainda pouco explorada e o alto valor econômico dos recursos lá presentes.

O GARS recebe água do maior sistema fluvial do mundo, responsável por 20% da descarga global no Oceano Atlântico (DAI; TRENBERTH, 2002; RICHEY et al., 1990). Os materiais suspensos e dissolvidos carreados pelo rio Amazonas formam uma camada espessa que varia de 5 a 25 m de profundidade, chamada área de pluma (MOURA et al., 2016). A pluma pode viajar centenas de quilômetros e cobrir ~ 2 milhões de km² (COOLEY et al., 2007; KÖRTZINGER, 2003; LENTZ, 1995a, 1995b). A cobertura da pluma sobre a água delimita o recife em três setores, norte, central e sul. O setor norte tem a camada mais espessa, o central intermediária e o sul recebe baixa influência da pluma (MOURA et al., 2016).

O GARS possui um gradiente claro de profundidade que varia de 70 a 220 m. As áreas mais profundas são as que apresentam maior cobertura de epifauna, compostas principalmente por esponjas, octocorais e corais pretos, já as porções rasas são cobertas por sedimento (FRANCINI-FILHO et al., 2018). Também são encontrados holobiontes fotossintetizantes, mesmo que em baixa abundância, como corais escleractíneos e as algas calcárias que são as principais construtoras do recife (MOURA et al., 2016).

Dentre os organismos que habitam o GARS, o que mais chama a atenção é a alta diversidade de esponjas que se concentram em maior diversidade e abundância no setor central. Ao todo, o recife abriga 61 espécies de esponjas que são comumente encontradas em regiões caribenhas. Dentre essas, as mais abundantes são: *Agelas* spp., *Aplysina* spp., *Callyspongia vaginalis, Clathria nicolea, Monanchora arbuscula, Oceanapia bartschi* e *Geodia* spp., ubíqua em todos os setores (MOURA et al., 2016).

2.3. Esponjas

As esponjas (filo Porifera) são organismos ancestrais que compõem um grupo irmão dos metazoários (REDMOND; MCLYSAGHT, 2021), sua organização é simples, sem simetria corporal, tecidos e órgãos verdadeiros. As esponjas são conhecidas pelo importante papel ecológico de filtrar matéria orgânica dissolvida (DOM) e disponibilizar matéria orgânica particulada (POM) em forma de debris celulares para os níveis tróficos mais altos, processo conhecido como alça da esponja (DE GOEIJ et al., 2013). Esse processo é altamente eficiente podendo remover mais de 90% do bacterioplâncton presente na água. As esponjas podem remover a mesma quantidade de DOM em 30 minutos que os microrganismos levariam 30 dias (DE GOEIJ et al., 2008; DE GOEIJ; DUYL, 2007).

Os coanócitos são as células-chave nesse processo, eles criam um fluxo de água para dentro dos poros da esponja pelo movimento flagelar, a matéria orgânica e bacterioplâncton presentes na água são capturados por um colar com microvilosidades em forma de rede. Posteriormente são transportados para os arqueócitos, células móveis totipotentes que fagocitam e transportam nutrientes para os outros tipos celulares (**Figura 2**). A medida que as células velhas das esponjas são liberadas na água elas são consumidas por organismos detritívoros como crustáceos e poliquetas que servem de alimento para níveis tróficos mais altos (HILL; HILL, 2009).



Figura 2. Estruturas celulares das esponjas envolvidas na conversão de matéria orgânica dissolvida (DOM) em matéria orgânica particulada (POM). Figura adaptada de https://www.freepik.com.

A relação das esponjas com os microrganismos vai além da relação alimentar, elas coevoluíram por mais de 800 milhões de anos (TURNER, 2021). A junção da microbiota com a esponja é tratada como um único organismo ou holobionte (PITA et al., 2018; WEBSTER; THOMAS, 2016). A microbiota das esponjas pode representar aproximadamente 35% da biomassa do holobionte (TAYLOR et al., 2007). Mais de 47 filos já foram descritos em esponjas, alguns encontrados exclusivamente nesses invertebrados (REVEILLAUD et al., 2014). Além da diversidade taxonômica, os microrganismos associados às esponjas apresentam alta diversidade metabólica (PIEL, 2006) fornecendo ao holobionte a capacidade de fixar carbono, metabolizar nitrogênio, enxofre e fosfato (PITA et al., 2018). Muitas esponjas em ambientes tropicais são consideradas fototróficas devido a sua relação com a microbiota fotossintetizante que pode suprir 80% de duas necessidades nutricionais (HILL; HILL, 2009).

As esponjas marinhas têm atraído interesse biotecnológico, tendo sido caracterizado uma ampla variedade de produtos naturais com propriedades farmacológicas diversas, derivados desses organismos (BLUNT et al., 2008). Organismos sésseis como esponjas e outros invertebrados, incluindo os corais, dependem de compostos químicos para defesa contra predadores, competidores e organismos invasores como bactérias, vírus e

microeucariotos. Curiosamente, em muitos casos, os compostos isolados das esponjas são produzidos por microrganismos associados a elas (MORI et al., 2018). A microbiota associada às esponjas é considerada a mais rica dentre os invertebrados marinhos (REVEILLAUD et al., 2014).

2.4. Microbioma

Acessar os microrganismos presentes em uma amostra ambiental é um desafio, visto que muitos são de difícil cultivo, devido a requisitos de crescimento desconhecidos (LEWIS; ETTEMA, 2019). A metagenômica vem como uma alternativa para acessar os genes e genomas presentes em uma amostra ambiental (ZHANG et al., 2021). O microbioma no que lhe concerne é a parcela da microbiota dentro do metagenoma, ou seja, todo material genético relacionado a microrganismos dentro de uma amostra (FAN; PEDERSEN, 2021).

Os primeiros estudos do microbioma baseavam-se no sequenciamento de um único gene, RNA ribossômico 16S, estratégia conhecida como *amplicon sequencing* (PACE, 1997). Nessa estratégia, sondas oligonucleotídicas são projetadas para anelar em regiões conservadas do DNA para guiar a reação da polimerase em cadeia (PCR) (RAMESH; MUNSHI; PANDA, 1992). Os produtos da PCR, *amplicons*, são sequenciados e comparados contra sequências de bancos de dados (Greengenes, RDP e SILVA), descrevendo os grupos taxonômicos presentes em uma amostra. Essa estratégia revelou que somente 0,1 a 10% da comunidade microbiana é cultivada em laboratório (RAPPÉ; GIOVANNONI, 2003).

Outra estratégia utilizada para acessar o material genético dos microrganismos, consiste em fragmentar todo o DNA de uma amostra e sequencia-lo, estratégia conhecida como *shotgun metagenome sequencing* (JOSEPH; PE'ER, 2021). Os dados gerados por essa abordagem fornecem uma visão geral dos grupos taxonômicos e do potencial metabólico da microbiota, sem permitir a reconstrução metabólica dos microrganismos presentes.

Recentemente, com o desenvolvimento de novas ferramentas de bioinformática, tornouse possível a montagem de genomas a partir de dados metagenômicos (MAGs), permitindo que vias responsáveis por um metabolismo específico fossem ligadas a um grupo taxonômico e um contexto ambiental (ANANTHARAMAN et al., 2018; HERNSDORF et al., 2017; TYSON et al., 2004). Essa ferramenta consiste em agrupar *contigs* do metagenoma, baseando-se em métricas de conteúdo GC, profundidade de cobertura, filiação taxonomia e tetranucleotídeos (SIEBER et al., 2018; TEELING et al., 2004; TYSON et al., 2004).

Essa ferramenta limita-se a recuperar genomas com cobertura suficiente e devido a desafios em agrupar e distinguir a origem desses *contigs*, eles podem ser agrupados erroneamente e são tipicamente incompletos. Assim, genes ortólogos são utilizados para avaliar a completude e contaminação desses genomas (PARKS et al., 2015).

Essa nova abordagem foi utilizada para descrever um novo grupo bacteriano, ainda não cultivado, simbionte da esponja marinha *Theonella swinhoei*, denominado "*Candidatus* Entotheonella sp.". Esse grupo apresenta enorme potencial metabólico e as informações obtidas a partir da metagenômica estão sendo utilizadas para definir estratégias de cultivo para essa bactéria (LACKNER et al., 2017). Nos genomas de microrganismos ambientais estão armazenadas uma miríade de sequências genéticas, muitas das quais podem ser úteis para aplicações na biologia sintética. O alinhamento de sequências e a análise de homologia com base em domínios funcionais tem se mostrado como uma abordagem precisa para predição de função proteica a partir de sequências de DNA (LOEWENSTEIN et al., 2009), facilitando a descoberta de novos fármacos, pois a caracterização laboratorial de todas as sequências não é viável.

Com a metagenômica também é possível fazer inferências ecológicas, assim como estudar adaptações da microbiota das esponjas do GARS. Para isso são utilizadas análises de alfa e beta diversidade. As análises de alfa diversidade refletem as métricas de diversidade de uma amostra, ou seja: riqueza (variedade de espécies presentes em uma amostra); abundância (quantidade de indivíduos de cada espécie); e equitabilidade (distribuição das espécies em uma amostra) (WILLIS, 2019) (**Figura 3A**). Já as análises de beta diversidade são utilizadas para comparar diferenças ou dissimilaridades entre a diversidade de duas, ou mais amostras (LEGENDRE; DE CÁCERES, 2013). Essas se baseiam em eventos como substituição de espécies e diferença de riqueza (**Figura 3B**) que nos ajudam a entender processos ecossistêmicos (LEGENDRE, 2014).



Figura 3. Índices de alfa diversidade (A) ilustrando as métricas de riqueza, abundância e equitabilidade, com exemplos comparativos, alta na parte de cima e baixa na parte de baixo. Índices de beta diversidade (B) ilustrando métricas utilizadas para comparar dissimilaridades entre duas amostras, sobreposição de espécies, substituição de espécies e diferença de riqueza. Figura autoral.

O estudo da microbiota associada às esponjas, que compõem o novo recife amazônico, utilizando técnicas de cultivo independente, metagenômica e técnicas avançadas de bioinformática apresenta grande potencial para a descoberta de novos compostos bioativos e descrição de vias metabólicas de interesse biotecnológico. Além de contribuir para o entendimento das adaptações ecológicas e diversidade do holobionte esponja em um ambiente tão adverso como o recém-descoberto recife Amazonas. Os dados gerados neste trabalho poderão ser utilizados para o desenvolvimento de novos fármacos e produtos biotecnológicos, assim como para o monitoramento da diversidade em um ambiente suscetível a estresse antropogênico.

3. JUSTIFICATIVA

O estudo e prospecção da biodiversidade são estratégicos para o desenvolvimento econômico e social das nações. Como resultado de prospecção, somente nos anos de 2014 e 2015 foram descritos 1378 e 1340 novos compostos naturais bioativos, respectivamente, considerando-se somente aqueles de origem marinha (BLUNT et al., 2017). Nesse sentido, os países desenvolvidos investem grandes somas de recursos nessa temática.

Por outro lado, a Biotecnologia marinha no Brasil ainda se encontra em estágio embrionário, particularmente no que tange a inovação em genômica e pós-genômica. O Brasil não conseguiu acompanhar os desenvolvimentos e avanços de outras nações e hoje detém vasta biodiversidade marinha desconhecida favorecendo a descoberta de novas moléculas.

Dentre as moléculas de interesse farmacológico estão os policetídeos que são frequentemente encontrados em microrganismos associados com esponjas. Essas moléculas são uma alternativa aos antibióticos convencionais que vêm se tornando cada vez mais ineficientes. Um relatório divulgado pela Organização Mundial de Saúde (OMS) em 2014 alerta que a humanidade está se aproximando de uma era pós-antimicrobianos (ORGANIZATION; OTHERS, 2014), na qual doenças e infecções tratadas de forma eficiente com antibióticos voltarão a ser letais. Atualmente, a maioria dos produtos naturais precursores de fármacos e moléculas bioativas utilizadas na indústria farmacêutica são de origem terrestre, indicando a necessidade iminente de estudos voltados ao meio marinho. Além disso, o Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas (GARS) se encontra em região próxima a grandes companhias petrolíferas (exemplo: BHP-Billiton, Queiroz Galvão, Ecopetrol, Total, BP e Petrobras) que podem ameaçar a biodiversidade local. Nesse contexto, justifica-se o acesso ao microbioma de esponjas em fontes ricas e inexploradas que podem ser utilizados para procura de precursores de fármacos e genes com interesse biotecnológicos. Além de ser um registro para o monitoramento da diversidade em área passível de impacto antropogênico.

4. OBJETIVOS

Avaliar a influência da pluma do rio Amazonas no microbioma de esponjas do recém-descoberto recife biogênico brasileiro.

4.1.Objetivos específicos e metas a serem alcançadas

✓ Descrever pela primeira vez os grupos taxonômicos do microbioma de esponjas do recém-descoberto recife Amazônico brasileiro (GARS);

✓ Comparar a diversidade do microbioma do GARS com o de amostras relacionadas, como da água da pluma amazônica e o microbioma de esponjas do Caribe;

 \checkmark Acessar genes e funções metabólicas presentes no microbioma de esponjas do GARS.

5. HIPÓTESES

- ✓ O microbioma de esponjas do GARS é o mesmo presente no ambiente;
- ✓ As características do GARS impactam a diversidade microbiana das esponjas;
- ✓ O microbioma de esponjas do GARS é conservado entre espécies;
- ✓ A pluma amazônica inviabiliza microrganismos fotossintetizantes;
- ✓ Microrganismos autotróficos não fotossintetizantes são a base da cadeia trófica do microbioma de esponjas do GARS.

6. METODOLOGIA

6.1. Coleta de amostras e extração de DNA

As esponjas foram coletadas no Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas (GARS) no setor central em 27 de setembro de 2014, latitude 1°17'59,3"N e longitude 46°46'43,9"W. As esponjas selecionadas foram Agelas dispar, Agelas clathrodes, Agelas clathrodes, Geodia cf. corticostylifera, Geodia neptuni e Geodia sp (Figura 4). O critério utilizado para a seleção das esponjas foi a disponibilidade de pelo menos três indivíduos do mesmo gênero. O material coletado foi armazenado em recipientes de plásticos contendo 20 L de água do mar a aproximadamente 24 °C e transportado para o laboratório. No laboratório, as esponjas foram transferidas para um recipiente com 250 mL de água do mar estéril e deixadas de 5 a 10 minutos para remover microrganismos da água não associados às esponjas. O tecido esponjoso foi então seco e dissecado com bisturi, removendo cuidadosamente os organismos macroscópicos associados. Cerca de 1 g de tecido de esponja foi congelado em nitrogênio líquido e pulverizado. O DNA foi extraído e purificado usando cloridrato de guanidina 4 M, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8,0, 0,05 M EDTA, 0,5% de N-lauroilsarcosina de sódio e 1% de □-mercaptoetanol, seguido por uma etapa de fenol/clorofórmio, precipitação por isopropanol e ressuspensão em 50 µL de água ultrapura (TRINDADE-SILVA et al., 2012). Material fornecido pelo grupo de pesquisa do professor Dr. Fabiano Thompson da Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro.



Figura 4. Espécimes de *Agelas clathrodes* (vermelha) e *Geodia neptuni* (amarela) do GARS. Figura adaptada de *doi:10.1126/sciadv.1501252.*

6.2. Preparo da biblioteca e sequenciamento de DNA

As bibliotecas genômicas foram construídas para cada amostra usando o kit TruSeq Nano DNA (Illumina®) e sequenciadas com o sistema Novaseq (Illumina®) a 20 GB de profundidade de sequenciamento com sequências (*paired-end*) 2 x 150 pb. As sequências foram cortadas usando Sickle (https://github.com/najoshi/sickle; versão 1.33) com parâmetros padrão; BBtools (https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/; versão 35) foi utilizado para remover adaptadores Illumina e sequências phiX. Cada metagenoma foi montado individualmente usando MetaSpades versão 3.1.3 (NURK et al., 2017) com parâmetros padrão, *scaffolds* menores que 1 kb foram removidos.

6.3. Composição taxonômica do RNA ribossômico 16S e beta diversidade

Metaxa2 foi utilizado para extrair sequências do RNA ribossômico 16S (rRNA 16S) de sequências brutas do metagenoma de esponjas do GARS que foram contrastadas contra o banco de dados padrão (BENGTSSON-PALME et al., 2015). Essas amostras foram comparadas com sequências de rRNA 16S (*amplicon sequencing*) do microbioma de esponjas do gênero *Agelas* (SRR7068155, SRR7068157, SRR7068159, SRR7068173, SRR7068176 e SRR7068181) (INDRANINGRAT et al., 2019) e *Geodia* (SRS9041395, SRS9041405, SRS9041416, SRS9041427, SRS9041573 e SRS9041575) do Caribe. Sequências do microbioma da pluma do rio Amazonas também foram utilizados (*shotgun metagenome sequencing*), dados disponíveis no NCBI Bio-Project PRJNA796108 (SILVA et al., 2017) (**Figura 5**). Essas sequências foram classificadas utilizando Metaxa2 como descrito acima.

Para inferir a influência do rio Amazonas no microbioma das esponjas, os dados de classificação do rRNA 16S foram normalizados para suas respectivas profundidades de sequenciamento (abundância relativa) e subsequente raiz quadrada com o método Hellinger, função "decostand" do pacote R vegan (OKSANEN et al., 2013). As dissimilaridades de Bray-Curtis foram calculadas usando a função "vegdist" e visualizadas em um gráfico de Análise de Coordenadas Principais (PCoA). O índice de contribuição de espécies para beta diversidade calculado utilizando (SCBD) foi pacote do R adespatial v0.3-16 0 (https://github.com/sdray/adespatial) com a função "beta.div" pelo método de Hellinger.

Análise de Variância Permutacional Multivariada (PERMANOVA) foi utilizada para testar as diferenças entre o microbioma de esponjas do GARS, do Caribe e da água da pluma amazônica, com o comando "adonis2" no pacote vegan com 10.000 permutações e $\alpha = 0,05$. O teste de Kruskal-Wallis foi utilizado para avaliar as diferenças estatísticas entre análises com três ou mais grupos (índice de Shannon, *MW-score*). O teste de Wilcoxon foi utilizado para comparações com dois grupos (avaliar os taxa estatísticamente diferentes entre o microbioma

do GARS e Caribe), o valor de p foi ajustado com o método Benjamini-Hochberg (BENJAMINI; HOCHBERG, 1995). Nós construímos o diagrama de Venn dos taxa desse estudo utilizando o pacote "venn" do R (<u>https://github.com/dusadrian/venn</u>).



Figura 5. Mapa da localização de coleta das amostras utilizadas nesse estudo. As esponjas amazônicas estão marcadas em vermelho (GARS), esponjas do Caribe em azul e amostras de água da pluma amazônica em marrom. Figura autoral.

6.4. Montagens de metagenoma, binning e análises funcionais

Usamos MaxBin2 v2.2.4 com 40 e 107 marcadores (WU; SIMMONS; SINGER, 2016) para recuperar genomas a partir de dados metagenômicos (MAGs). MAGs foram agregados usando DASTOOL v1.1.2 (SIEBER et al., 2018) e curados manualmente com base no conteúdo GC, cobertura e taxonomia usando uBin v0.9.14 (BORNEMANN et al., 2020). Os MAGs foram desreplicados com dRep v.3.2.2 (OLM et al., 2017), a qualidade foi verificada com CheckM v1.0.13 (PARKS et al., 2015) e a abundância relativa dos MAGs foram recuperados separadamente, cada um de seu respectivo metagenoma de esponja (seis), mas apresentados de forma conjunta na seção dos resultados.

MAGs com completude >70% e contaminação <10% foram considerados como de alta qualidade e utilizados para análises subsequentes. METABOLIC v4.0 (*METabolic And BiogeOchemistry anaLyses In miCrobes*) (ZHOU et al., 2022) foi utilizado para anotar funções

metabólicas e atribuir a taxonomia dos MAGs selecionadas. O *MW-score* (pontuação de peso metabólico) foi usado como métrica para representar as funções metabólicas nos MAGS de alta qualidade: visão geral (mapa de calor e análise de rede); comparação do metabolismo autotrófico e heterotrófico, assim como para a comparação entre genes do ciclo do nitrogênio e enxofre. O *MW-score* é calculado pela soma da cobertura de genes que participam de uma determinada função metabólica e subsequentemente normalizados para a cobertura geral de genes.

METABOLIC determinou a completude de vias metabólicas relacionadas a fixação de carbono identificando *KEGG Orthology* (KO) com modelos ocultos de Markov (HMM) nos módulos do banco de dados do KEGG. Para as vias metabólicas ciclo dicarboxilato/4-hidroxibutirato (DC/4-HB), Wood-Ljungdahl (WL) e ciclo redutivo do ácido tricarboxílico (rTCA) foram utilizados corte de completude gênica padrão de 75%. Para as vias metabólicas ciclo 3-hidroxipropionato/4-hidroxibutirato (3HP/4HB), 3-hidroxipropionato biciclo (3HP), e CBB foram utilizados cortes personalizadas. Esse parâmetro foi determinado utilizando Hmmsearch (https://hmmer.org/; HMMER 3.1b2) contra genomas conhecidos por participarem das vias metabólicas citadas acima; esse também foi utilizado para identificar genes faltantes utilizando uma linha de corte menos restrita. Para a via 3HP/4HB foi definido completude de 36% e o gene-chave 4-hidroxibutiril-CoA desidratase/vinilacetil-CoA-Delta-isomerase (K14534); para 3HP foi utilizado completude de 58% e CBB completude de 70% e o gene da Rubisco.

A classificação taxonômica também foi feita no *pipeline* do METABOLIC utilizando GTDB-Tk database versão 202 (PARKS et al., 2018). O GTDB-Tk concatena um conjunto de 120 genes marcadores de cópia única do domínio Bacteria e 122 genes marcadores de cópia única do domínio Archaea para construir a filogenia (PARKS et al., 2017). Genomas de referência não diretamente relacionados com os MAGs de alta qualidade foram removidos da árvore para melhorar a visualização. O alinhamento das sequências foi feito com MAFFT v7.405 (KATOH, 2002) no modo padrão. A árvore filogenética foi obtida com FastTree v2.1.11 (PRICE; DEHAL; ARKIN, 2010) e visualizada no Geneious Prime 2022.0.1 (https://www.geneious.com). Para a raiz da árvore de Archaea foi utilizado o organismo modelo *Methanosarcina acetivorans* (RS_GCF_000007345.1), para a árvore de Bacteria *Mycoplasma genitalium* (RS_GCF_000027325.1). SingleM v0.13.2 (https://github.com/wwood/singlem) foi

utilizando para determinar quanto a montagem representa o metagenoma e quanto do metagenoma é representado pelos MAGs. Os dados desse estudo (MAGs e sequências) foram depositados no NCBI Bio-Project PRJNA795684.

7. RESULTADOS

7.1.O microbioma das esponjas do GARS é conservado entre espécies

Ao todo 1,26 bilhões de sequências brutas no formato fastq foram recuperadas do metagenoma das esponjas do Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas (GARS). Esses pertencem a *Agelas dispar* (16,27%), *Agelas clathrodes* (18,02%), *Agelas clathrodes* (17,06%), *Geodia cf. corticostylifera* (14,84%), *Geodia neptuni* (13,81%) e *Geodia sp.* (20%). Ao menos 90% dos pares de base possuem índice de qualidade *phred* superior a 30.

Com base na análise da composição do RNA ribossômico 16S (rRNA 16S) (**Figura 6**), o microbioma das esponjas de *Agelas* e *Geodia* do GARS mostrou ser conservado a nível de filo. A análise mostrou alta abundância relativa de microrganismos não classificados (25,8 \pm 2,90%). A abundância relativa mostra que Proteobacteria (30,3 \pm 5,1%) são os mais abundantes em todas as amostras. As classes dominantes no superfilo Proteobacteriota são Gammaproteobacteria (14,38 \pm 2,79%), Alphaproteobacteria (7,46 \pm 2,39%) e Deltaproteobacteria (4,54 \pm 0,84%). Betaproteobacteria também foram detectadas, mas em menor proporção. Outros filos abundantes foram Firmicutes (16,5 \pm 4,3%), Actinobacteriota (8,8 \pm 1,2%), Cloroflexota (4,7 \pm 0,9%), Acidobacteriota (4,0 \pm 1,3%), Termoproteota (3,9 \pm 1,7%), Nitrospirota (2,1 \pm 0,5%), e Spirochaetota (1,7 \pm 0,7%).



Figura 6. Abundância relativa de sequências de RNA ribossômico 16S (rRNA 16S) no microbioma de esponjas amazônicas (GARS), esponjas caribenhas e água da pluma amazônica. Amostras de esponjas amazônicas (GARS) estão destacadas com uma barra vermelha abaixo: 1, *Agelas dispar*; 2, *Agelas clathrodes* 1; 3 *Agelas clathrodes* 2; 4, *Geodia cf. corticostylifera*; 5, *Geodia neptuni*; 6, *Geodia* sp. As amostras de esponjas caribenhas estão destacados com uma barra azul abaixo. *Geodia* sp.: 7, SRS9041575; 8, SRS9041573; 9, SRS9041427; 10, SRS9041416; 11, SRS9041405; 12, SRS9041395. *Agelas sventres*: 13, SRR7068181; 14, SRR7068176; 15, SRR7068173; 16, SRR7068159; 17, SRR7068157; 18, SRR7068155. As amostras de água da pluma amazônica estão destacadas com uma barra marrom abaixo: 19, St15; 20, St11; 21, St10; 22, St6; 23, St5; 24, St4; 25, St3; e 26, St1. Abundância relativa de sequências de rRNA 16S estão coloridas conforme a taxonomia. "Outros" são filos que compõem menos de 1% da abundância relativa do microbioma. O superfilo Proteobacteria foi dividido em classes.

Os filos raros que compõem menos de 1% do microbioma dessas esponjas são Cyanobacteria, Deinococcus-Thermus, Aquificae, Ternericutes, Bacteroidetes, Thermotogae, Chlorobi, Synergistetes, Euryarchaeota, Gemmatimonadetes, Dictyoglomi, Verrucomicrobia, Elusimicrobia, Lentisphaerae, Plantomycetes, Chlamydiae e Thermodesulfobacteria. Alguns filos foram detectados somente em uma das amostras, mesmo que em baixa proporção. Chrysiogenetes foi detectada apenas em *Geodia sp.*, Fusobacteria apenas em *Geodia neptuni* e Nanoarchaeota apenas em *Agelas dispar*. Por outro lado, alguns filos raros não foram detectados em esponjas específicas, Deferribacteres em *Agelas dispar*, Candidate division TM7 e Crenarchaeota em *Agelas clathrodes e Geodia cf. Corticostylifera*.

7.2. O microbioma das esponjas do GARS é mais diverso do que o das esponjas do Caribe

O índice de Shannon (**Figura 7**) indicou maior diversidade no microbioma de esponjas do GARS, seguido pela água da pluma amazônica e microbioma de esponjas do Caribe (teste de Kruskal-Wallis, *chi-squared* = 16,328, df = 2, P < 0,001).



Figura 7. Variação da diversidade de Shannon no microbioma de esponjas do GARS (vermelho), do Caribe (azul) e água da pluma amazônica (marrom) (teste de Kruskal-Wallis, *chi-squared* = 16,328, df = 2, P < 0,001). O (n) representa o número de amostras em cada grupo. Todos os grupos testados foram significativamente diferentes (teste de Wilcoxon, P < 0,05).

Em nível de classe, foram detectados 32 taxa (**Figura 8**) que contribuíram para as diferenças entre o microbioma de esponjas do GARS e Caribe (teste de Wilcoxon, P < 0,05). A maioria desses taxa foram detectados em maior proporção no microbioma das esponjas do GARS, apenas Thermoproteota e Bacilli foram detectados em maior proporção no microbioma do Caribe. Além disso, foi possível visualizar um aumento em relação a seis taxa a nível de classe de Chloroflexota.


Figura 8. Diferenças de taxa entre o microbioma de esponjas do GARS e do Caribe a nível de classe. Círculos pretos representam a mediana da abundância relativa para cada táxon. As cores dos asteriscos indicam o grupo a qual os taxa a nível de classe foram mais abundantes. O microbioma de esponjas do GARS está destacado em vermelho, enquanto o microbioma das esponjas do Caribe está destacado em azul. As cores dos círculos do lado de fora do gráfico indicam a taxonomia a nível de filo no banco de dados GTDB.

7.3.A pluma amazônica contribui para um microbioma único e altamente diverso nas esponjas do GARS

O microbioma das esponjas do GARS mostrou ser o mais distinto com 1476 taxa exclusivos. A água da pluma amazônica influencia o microbioma das esponjas do GARS com 92 taxa compartilhados de forma única, contra 20 que foram exclusivamente compartilhados com as amostras de esponjas do Caribe. As amostras de esponjas do GARS e Caribe compartilharam exclusivamente 488 taxa e 199 foram ubíquos nos três grupos testados (**Figura 9**).



Figura 9. Diagrama de Venn dos taxa únicos ou compartilhados entre o microbioma de esponjas do GARS (vermelho), do Caribe (azul) e da água da pluma amazônica (marrom).

A análise de beta diversidade (**Figura 10**) mostrou que a composição do microbioma das esponjas do GARS diferiu das amostras do Caribe e da água da pluma amazônica (PERMANOVA, df = 2, F = 8,6343, R² = 0,42884, P < 0,001). O microbioma das esponjas do GARS é mais semelhante ao das esponjas caribenhas e mais diferente das amostras de água da pluma. Dentre os seis microbiomas do GARS, *Agelas dispar* foi o mais diferente. Detectamos subgrupos entre as amostras do Caribe em relação às *Agelas* de Curaçao e *Geodia* das Ilhas Cayman e Belize (marcadas em azul).



Figura 10. Beta diversidade do microbioma de esponjas do GARS (vermelho), do Caribe (azul) e água da pluma amazônica (marrom) por análise de coordenadas principais (PCoA) pela dissimilaridade de Bray-Curtis ($R^2 = 0,43$ P=0,0001). Cada ponto representa um microbioma, *Agelas* spp. estão representadas por círculos, *Geodia* spp. por retângulos e amostras de água por hexágonos.

Cyanobacteria foi o táxon a nível de classe que mais contribuí para a dissimilaridade entre as amostras do microbioma do GARS e Caribe. No entanto, Cyanobacteria, Clostridia, Cytophagia, Thermoleophilia e Aquificae não compõem os taxa que são estatisticamente diferentes entre o microbioma do GARS e Caribe. Acidobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria, Deltaproteobacteria, Bacteria e Chloroflexi, estão entre os dez taxa a nível de classe que mais contribuíram para as diferenças entre o microbioma do GARS e do Caribe e também foram estatisticamente mais abundantes no microbioma do GARS (**Figura 11**). A amostra de *Agelas dispar* foi excluída dessa análise por não formar um grupo claro com as outras amostras do GARS.



Figura 11. Contribuição de espécies para a beta diversidade (SCBD) a nível de classe. Dez taxa que mais contribuíram para a dissimilaridade das amostras do microbioma do GARS e Caribe. As cores representam a taxonomia a nível de filo no banco de dados GTDB.

7.4.Os MAGs sugerem adaptações do microbioma do GARS a influência da sua pluma

Um total de 1.054 genomas montados a partir do metagenoma (MAGs) foram recuperados do microbioma de seis esponjas do GARS. Destes, 205 MAGs apresentaram completitude superior a 70% e contaminação inferior a 10%. Dentre esses 205 MAGs de alta qualidade, recuperamos genomas bacterianos pertencentes a Proteobacteria (49), Chloroflexota (47), Acidobacteriota (18), Actinobacteriota (16), Desulfobacterota (14), Bdellovibrionota (10), Poribacteria (10), Latescibacterota (8), Gemmatimonadota (5), Spirochaetota (4), Nitrospinota (3), Nitrospirota (3), Verrucomicrobiota (3), Deinococcota (2), Bacteroidota (1) e SAR324 (1). Para Archaea, recuperamos Thermoproteota (10) e Nanoarchaeota (1) (**Figura 12**). Dentre esses 1.054 MAGs, dois MAGs de cianobactérias foram identificados, mas não foram incluídos em nossas análises porque não atenderam ao corte de qualidade. Os genes de rRNA 16S de Firmicutes foram um dos mais abundantes no metagenoma, mas careceram de representantes nos MAGs de alta qualidade.



Figura 12. MAGS de alta qualidade recuperados dos seis metagenomas de esponjas do GARS. A numeração corresponde ao número de MAGs, a cor das barras corresponde à afiliação taxonômica dos MAGs. A cor destacada no fundo corresponde ao domínio que os MAGs foram classificados, amarelo (Bacteria) e rosa (Archaea).

Apenas parte das sequências do metagenoma foram montadas, sendo as seguintes proporções: *Agelas dispar* (85,4%), *Agelas clathrodes* espécime 1 (77,4%), *Agelas clathrodes* espécime 2 (69,5%), *Geodia cf. corticostylifera* (46,8%), *Geodia neptuni* (42,9%) e *Geodia sp.* (50,7%). Os MAGs representaram as seguintes proporções para cada metagenoma de esponja do GARS: *Agelas dispar* (60,1%), *Agelas clathrodes* espécime 1 (24,5%), *Agelas clathrodes* espécime 2 (37,3%), *Geodia cf. corticostylifera* (13,3%), *Geodia neptuni* (10,6%) e *Geodia sp.* (12,4%).

Essa amostragem implicou que o perfil metabólico dos MAGs de alta qualidade foi representado de forma diferente para cada esponja, mesmo que o microbioma das esponjas do GARS tenha uma composição conservada. Os grupos metabolicamente dominantes (*MW-score*) foram representados principalmente por Acidobacteriota (vermelho), Proteobacteria (azul), Poribacteria (amarelo), Chloroflexota (verde) e Thermoproteota (roxo) (**anexo 1**).

MAGs de alta qualidade de Acidobacteriota e Gammaproteobacteria foram as que apresentaram maior abundância e diversidade metabólica. Acidobacteriota se destacou pelas funções: oxidação do etanol, oxidação de metanol, amonificação de nitrito (nirBD), oxidação de tiossulfato e amonificação de nitrito (nrfADH), enquanto Gammaproteobacteria se destacou pelas funções: oxidação de enxofre (dsrAB), oxidação de metilamina, oxidação de formaldeído e oxidação de formato. Outros grupos taxonômicos se destacaram por apresentarem genes relacionados a determinadas funções como SAR324, por redução de nitrito (nirKS); Desulfobacterota e Thermoproteota, oxidação de amônia; Actinobacteriota, redução de selenato; Poribacteria, desproporção de tiossulfato (sulfato de enxofre) e redução de óxido nítrico. Também foi possível visualizar um agrupamento com genes amplamente presentes nos MAGs de alta qualidade do microbioma de esponjas do GARS. Agrupamento composto pelos seguintes genes: oxidação de enxofre (sdo), redução de arseniato, fermentação, oxidação do acetato, utilização de aminoácidos, degradação de aromáticos, redução de sulfato, metanotrofia, oxidação de CO, degradação de carbonos complexos e degradação de ácidos graxos (**Figura 13**).



Figura 13. Mapa de calor do perfil metabólico dos MAGs de alta qualidade do microbioma de esponjas do GARS. Os filos estão no eixo y enquanto os genes no eixo x. Os dados estão representados pelo *MW-score* (pontuação de peso metabólico).

7.5.O metabolismo heterotrófico prevalece contra o metabolismo autotrófico nos MAGs de alta qualidade das esponjas do GARS

Conforme a **Figura 14**, os genes relacionados ao metabolismo autotrófico dos MAGs de alta qualidade representam uma pequena porção da comunidade. 3HB/4HP e 3HP foram as vias autotróficas mais significativas e pontuaram mais do que rTCA (teste de Wilcoxon, P < 0,01). O metabolismo CBB obteve a menor pontuação de todas as redes autotróficas estudadas. Os genes relacionados as vias WL e DC/4-HB não foram detectados. O metabolismo heterotrófico representado pelas funções de fermentação, oxidação de acetato, degradação complexa de carbono e degradação de aromáticos foi mais abundante do que o

metabolismo autotrófico nos MAGs de alta qualidade segundo o *MW-score* (teste de Kruskal-Wallis, P < 0.05).



Figura 14. Comparação do perfil metabólico autotrófico e heterotrófico dos MAGs de alta qualidade do microbioma de esponjas do GARS com base no peso metabólico (*MW-score*). Autotróficos: 3-hidroxipropionato/4-hidroxibutirato (3HP/4HB), 3-hidroxipropionato biciclo (3HP), ácido tricarboxílico redutor (rTCA) e ciclo de Calvin–Benson–Bassham (CBB); heterotróficos: fermentação, oxidação de acetato, degradação de carbonos complexos e degradação de compostos aromáticos. Letras diferentes indicam grupos com diferenças estatísticas em P < 0,05; letras iguais indicam não haver diferença estatística.

7.6. Metabolismo do ciclo do nitrogênio e enxofre

A redução de sulfato foi a função mais abundante identificada nos MAGs de alta qualidade do microbioma do GARS, as funções de oxidação de enxofre e redução de óxido nítrico também foram abundantes (**Figura 15**). A redução de sulfato foi detectada em MAGs de 13 filos, Chloroflexota (32), Gammaproteobacteria (14), Acidobacteriota (13), Thermoproteota (10), Poribacteria (9), Latescibacterota (6), Alphaproteobacteria (4), Gemmatimonadota (3), Verrucomicrobiota (3), Actinobacteriota (2), Deinococcota (2), Desulfobacterota (1), Nitrospinota (1) e Nitrospirota (1). A oxidação do enxofre foi prevista em nove filos, incluindo MAGs de alta qualidade de Gammaproteobacteria (15), Alphaproteobacteria (14), Desulfobacterota (13), Thermoproteota (10), Actinobacteriota (9), Chloroflexota (8), Acidobacteriota (7), Bdellovibrionota (1), Latescibacterota (1) e Poribacteria

(1). Detectamos MAGs de nove filos previstos a participar da função de redução de óxido nítrico; Gammaproteobacteria (13), Desulfobacterota (10), Poribacteria (9) e Acidobacteriota (5), Alphaproteobacteria (3), Nitrospinota (3), Chloroflexota (2), Spirochaetota (2), Latescibacterota (1) e Nitrospirota (1).

Detectamos a presença de outras redes metabólicas, embora não tão abundantes, como oxidação de tiossulfato, oxidação de amônia, redução de nitrito, oxidação de nitrito e redução de nitrato.



Figura 15. Comparação do perfil metabólico de genes do ciclo do enxofre e nitrogênio dos MAGs de alta qualidade do microbioma de esponjas do GARS com base no peso metabólico (*MW-score*). Letras diferentes indicam grupos com diferenças estatísticas em P < 0,05; letras iguais indicam não haver diferença estatística.

Conforme as **Figuras 16 e 17**, dos 205 MAGs de alta qualidade, 36 foram preditos a participarem de vias do metabolismo autotrófico. Previmos o maior número de MAGs relacionados a via rTCA, pertencentes a Acidobacteriota (6), Actinobacteriota (4), Gammaproteobacteria (2), Chloroflexota (2), Latescibacterota (2), Bacteroidota (1), Verrucomicrobiota (1) e Spirochaetota (1). As enzimas-chave succinato desidrogenase/ fumarato redutase e 2-oxoglutarato/2-oxoácido ferredoxina oxidorredutase foram detectadas em todos os MAGs selecionados, no entanto, o gene-chave da subunidade alfa da ATP-citrato liase não foi identificada pelo METABOLIC, mas foi detectado com hmmsearch utilizando valor de E com corte entre 2,00E-71 e 7,7E-68. O METABOLIC detectou o gene da subunidade alfa da ATP-citrato liase em MAGs de Nitrospirota e Desulfobacterota, no entanto, esses não foram selecionados, pois, apresentaram completude de genes para a via 3HP entre 66-41%.

O ciclo CBB foi identificado em quatro MAGs. A Rubisco do tipo I foi predita em um MAG de Alphaproteobacteria Rhodobacterales e um MAG de Gammaproteobacteria Arenicellales. Rubisco tipo IV foi predita em um MAG de Dehalococcoidia dentro de Chloroflexota e um MAG de Rhodobacterales.

Observamos a maior completitude dos genes 3HP (58,3%) em quatro MAGs Rhodobacteraceae. Os genes-chave: malonil-CoA redutase/3-hidroxipropionato desidrogenase (NADP+) e acrilil-CoA redutase (NADPH)/3-hidroxipropionil-CoA desidratase/3hidroxipropionil-CoA sintetase foram detectados apenas utilizando um valor de E menos estringente.



Figura 16. Filogenia de bactérias dos MAGs de alta qualidade recuperados do microbioma do GARS. A árvore foi enraizada com *Mycoplasma genitalium* (RS_GCF_000027325.1). Os MAGs relacionados as vias de fixação de carbono estão destacados por círculos coloridos: ácido tricarboxílico redutor (rTCA), amarelo; ciclo Calvin–Benson–Bassham (CBB), verde; 3-hidroxipropionato/4-hidroxibutirato (3HP/4HB), azul; 3-hidroxipropionato biciclo (3HP), roxo. Os MAGs que não atenderam ao corte para as vias de fixação de carbono estão marcados em cinza (não predito). O número de MAGs relacionados a cada via de fixação de carbono é mostrado entre parênteses. A filogenia dos MAGs está sombreada por filo, o super filo Proteobacteria foi dividido em classes. As barras vermelhas ao lado de cada MAG representam a cobertura (%) no microbioma de sua respectiva esponja do GARS.

Selecionamos oito Thermoproteota Nitrosopumilaceae e uma Desulfobacterota com possível envolvimento no ciclo 3-hidroxipropionato/4-hidroxibutirato (3HP/4HB). Todos os MAGs selecionados apresentaram a enzima chave 4-hidroxibutiril-CoA desidratase/vinilacetil-CoA-Delta-isomerase. Esses genomas mostraram 36% de completude máxima para o 3HP/4HB. Os MAGs de Thermoproteota apresentaram todos os genes ausentes quando considerado um valor de E menos estringente. No entanto, o gene para malonil-

CoA/succinil-CoA redutase (NADPH) permaneceu ausente em Desulfobacterota mesmo utilizando condições de busca menos estringente.



Figura 17. Filogenia de Archaea dos MAGs de alta qualidade recuperados do microbioma do GARS. A árvore foi enraizada com *Methanosarcina acetivorans* (RS_GCF_000007345.1). Os MAGs relacionados as vias de fixação de carbono estão destacados com círculos coloridos: 3-hidroxipropionato/4-hidroxibutirato (3HP/4HB), azul. Os MAGs não relacionados às vias de fixação de carbono estão marcados em cinza (não predito). O número de MAGs em cada via de fixação de carbono é mostrado entre parênteses. A filogenia dos MAGs está sombreada por filo. As barras vermelhas ao lado de cada MAG representam a cobertura (%) no microbioma de sua respectiva esponja do GARS.

8. DISCUSSÃO

Descobrimos que o Grande Sistema de Recifes do Amazonas (GARS) abriga esponjas com microbioma único. O microbioma das águas turvas da pluma do rio Amazonas influencia no microbioma das esponjas do GARS. No entanto, os dados sugerem que a maior influência se da devido às características do ambiente e não a microbiota compartilhada. Significativamente e em contraste com outros sistemas de recife, os microrganismos fotossintetizantes (cianobactérias) estavam presentes apenas em baixa proporção nas análises de rRNA 16S e MAGs. A alta diversidade do microbioma de esponjas do GARS sugere que a camada da pluma amazônica não restringe ou enriquece a microbiota para um grupo taxonômico específico.

Além disso, 32 taxa a nível de classe foram estatisticamente diferentes entre o microbioma das esponjas do GARS e de recifes tradicionais do Caribe, indicando que a água barrenta contribui para uma microbiota adaptada. Ao contrário de recifes turvos originados pela recente ação antropogênica, a turbidez do GARS tem como origem a constante descarga de água do rio Amazonas que viabilizou o desenvolvimento de uma microbiota única e adaptada. Comparações entre o microbioma do Caribe (Curaçao, Ilhas Cayman e Belize) e região amazônica usando esponjas de gêneros diferentes e distintas localidades do Caribe mostram que os resultados encontrados neste estudo são mais gerais do que seriam se tivéssemos feito essa comparação usando um único gênero e localização. Um estudo indica que a luz no fundo do GARS é fraca, mas suficiente; esse estudo mostra a presença de radiação fotossinteticamente disponível (PAR) entre 0,01 e 19,3 µE m-2 s-1 (FRANCINI-FILHO et al., 2018; OMACHI et al., 2019). Tal proporção pode suportar a fotossíntese de algas coralinas que são as principais construtoras desse recife, presentes no GARS há pelo menos 4487 anos (MOURA et al., 2016). Cyanobacteria foram detectadas em proporção superior a 1% somente em amostras de Agelas do Caribe e não nas amostras de Geodia do Caribe, sugerindo que a luz não é o fator limitante que torno o microbioma de esponjas do GARS único. Estudos sugerem a alta sedimentação como principal fator de estresse no GARS, resultando na cobertura total ou parcial do fundo do GARS por sedimentos (MOURA et al., 2016; OMACHI et al., 2019).

Os taxa encontrados em maior abundância no GARS estão relacionados a ambientes anaeróbicos, microaerofílicos e termofílicos, sugerindo uma dinâmica metabólica diferente de outros recifes (BELAY; BOOPATHY; VOSKUILEN, 1997; GODON et al., 1997; HUBER et al., 1986; KIELAK et al., 2016; NORDGÅRD et al., 2017; XIA et al., 2016). Outro grupo encontrado em maior proporção foi o de bactérias não classificadas. O banco de dados do Metaxa2 utilizado para fazer a classificação das sequências do rRNA 16S é composto por sequências curadas, indicando que pelo menos parte dos taxa presentes nesse grupo estão relacionados a membros de filos *Candidatus*. Os dados de cobertura dos MAGs de alta qualidade corroboram com essa hipótese, dado que um único MAG afiliado ao filo *Candidatus* Poribacteria compõe 14% do metagenoma de *Agelas dispar*.

Os dados metabólicos indicam um estilo de vida predominante heterotrófico para a microbiota das esponjas do GARS. A abundância de matéria orgânica transportada pelo rio Amazonas pode explicar o sucesso das esponjas nesse ecossistema (MEDEIROS et al., 2015; MOURA et al., 2016). Esponjas são competidores vorazes por nutrientes e espaço, elas perfuram a estrutura do recife e crescem sobre outros invertebrados sésseis (COBB, 1969; STUBLER; FURMAN; PETERSON, 2015). Um estudo revelou que o carbono orgânico dissolvido na região do GARS varia de 102,3 a 165,69 µM, e o carbono orgânico particulado de 4,1 a 6,21 µM (dados não publicados).

A microbiota das esponjas também recicla e se beneficia do DOM (AZAM et al., 1983) e contribui para mais da metade da dieta das esponjas (BART et al., 2021; KAZANIDIS et al., 2018; RIX et al., 2020). Estima-se que um quilo de esponja possa filtrar 50.000 L de água diariamente e remover mais de 90% dos micróbios da água (HILL; HILL, 2009). Estudos demonstraram que a redução da rede fotossintética e o aumento da capacidade heterotrófica são respostas adaptativas para superar condições extremas em recifes turvos (BURT et al., 2020).

Microrganismos autotróficos têm um papel auxiliar no microbioma das esponjas do GARS. O *MW-score* indica a via Calvin–Benson–Bassham (CBB) como a menos relevante na fixação de carbono no microbioma de esponjas amazônicas adaptadas à pluma, em contraste com o oceano aberto, onde cianobactérias e algas são os principais fixadores de carbono pela via CBB (BOWLER; VARDI; ALLEN, 2010; RAVEN, 2009). Nossa análise metabólica dos MAGs previu a ocorrência de CBB em Rhodobacterales e Arenicellales. A Rubisco do tipo IV, detectada em um MAG Chloroflexota, possui função não relacionada com a fixação de carbono (TABITA et al., 2007a, 2007b). A presença de genes do ciclo CBB, especialmente Rubisco, em Proteobacteria e Rhodobacterales, já foi descrita, incluindo no microbioma de esponjas (ASPLUND-SAMUELSSON; HUDSON, 2021; BADGER; BEK, 2008).

As previsões metabólicas indicaram 3HP/4HB como a via de fixação de carbono mais relevante no microbioma das esponjas do GARS, significativamente mais abundante que CBB e rTCA (teste de Wilcoxon, P < 0,05). Previmos a ocorrência de 3HP/4HB em Thermoproteota e uma MAG de Desulfobacterota. A capacidade de 3HP/4HB para Desulfobacterota MAG permanece incerta, pois um dos dois genes marcadores, malonil-CoA/succinil-CoA redutase (NADPH), não pôde ser identificado neste MAG. Além disso, a 4-hidroxibutiril-CoA desidratase bacteriana está envolvida na fermentação do aminobutirato (BUCKEL; GOLDING, 2006). As inferências metabólicas desse estudo foram baseadas em observações de conteúdo e cobertura de genes em MAGs de alta qualidade - não são dados de expressão. Além disso, é importante mencionar que a metagenômica resolvida pelo genoma recupera apenas uma fração dos genomas presentes na comunidade microbiana. O objetivo desta análise nesse estudo foi utilizar dados *in silico* para acessar a capacidade funcional microbiana de amostras para as quais não há informações experimentais disponíveis.

A variação da via 3HP/4HB em Thaumarchaeota (Thermoproteota) é bem descrita, considerada a via aeróbia de fixação de carbono mais eficiente em termos energéticos (KONNEKE et al., 2014; PESTER; SCHLEPER; WAGNER, 2011; WALKER et al., 2010). Estudos demonstraram a presença de Thaumarchaeota na água da pluma amazônica e no microbioma de esponjas (ENGELBERTS et al., 2020; PINTO et al., 2020). Nossos dados indicam que esses microrganismos desempenham múltiplos papéis na fisiologia do holobionte esponja; além da fixação de carbono, previmos as funções de oxidação de amônia, oxidação de enxofre e redução de sulfato. A amônia é o principal resíduo nitrogenado das esponjas que é tóxico quando em níveis altos. A oxidação da amônia pode impedir seu acúmulo nos tecidos da esponja. O mesmo acontece com a oxidação do enxofre, que previne níveis altos de sulfeto de hidrogênio (TAYLOR et al., 2007).

Outra via de fixação de carbono prevista foi 3-hidroxipropionato biciclo (3HP). Esta via foi descrita pela primeira vez em *Chloroflexus aurantiacus*, um membro da Chloroflexaceae capaz de realizar fotossíntese anoxigênica (HERTER et al., 2001; ZARZYCKI et al., 2009). Em nossa análise taxonômica, identificamos a presença de MAGs afiliados a Chloroflexota relacionados às famílias Anaerolineae, Dehalococcoidia e UBA223, não descritas anteriormente como tendo essa via. Os MAGs previstos para codificar essa via em nosso microbioma de esponjas do GARS foram classificados como Rhodobacteraceae. Um estudo sugeriu *Dinoroseobacter shibae*, um membro de Rhodobacteraceae, com metabolismo mixotrófico, assimilando glicose pela via Entner-Doudoroff e fixando carbono por 3-hidroxipropionato biciclo (TOMASCH et al., 2011). Vias alternativas de fixação de carbono podem facilitar a assimilação de substâncias orgânicas simples, conferindo uma vantagem competitiva sobre autótrofos ou heterótrofos obrigatórios (HÜGLER; SIEVERT, 2011). A comparação genômica dos genes 3HP entre nossos MAGs e *D. shibae* mostrou que eles são semelhantes.

A mesma incerteza para predição de vias de fixação de carbono acontece para rTCA, o gene ATP-citrato liase foi detectado utilizando o programa hmmsearch apenas com um corte menos restrito. A via rTCA foi predita como a mais difundida no microbioma das esponjas do GARS, presente em MAGs de Acidobacteriota, Gammaproteobacteria, Latescibacterota, Bacteroidota, Chloroflexota, Actinobacteriota, Verrucomicrobiota e Spirochaetota. O rTCA incompleto já foi descrito em estudos com Acidobacteriota (FERNANDEZ et al., 2020), Bacteroidota *Salinibacter ruber* (BAGHERI; MARASHI; AMOOZEGAR, 2019) e outros filos como Actinobacteriota e Chloroflexota (VIKRAM et al., 2016). Entre nossos MAGs de baixa qualidade, recuperamos membros de Aquificota, que como Chlorobiota e Campylobacterota são frequentemente descritos a participarem do rTCA (HÜGLER; SIEVERT, 2011). Devido à sensibilidade das enzimas dessa via ao oxigênio, ela é geralmente encontrada em ambientes anaeróbios associados a fontes hidrotermais de profundidade, oceanos escuros e em microganismos encontrados em condições microaerofílicas (BERG, 2011; ERB, 2011). Esses dados corroboram com os valores de oxigênio dissolvido (3,25-3,81 mg. L-1) relatados no GARS (dados não publicados).

A predição de vias metabólicas complexas foi um dos principais desafios desse estudo. Essas vias possuem muitos genes promíscuos, o que dificulta estabelecer seu envolvimento. Além disso, os perfis de banco de dados estão incompletos. Alguns genes já conhecidos a participarem de uma via não estão incluídos em bancos de dados. Um exemplo é a via 3HP/4HB que carece de genes de Thaumarchaeta no perfil do KEGG – dificultando a identificação de vias não clássicas. Nesse exemplo, o banco de dados do KEGG para a via 3HP/4HB contém apenas genes de Crenarchaeal Sulfolobales. Além disso, a caracterização metabólica de organismos com base em seu potencial metabólico utilizando dados *in silico* não pode ser usada para confirmar seu metabolismo *in vivo*. Assim, é necessária uma validação experimental adicional, por métodos independentes de cultivo, como, por exemplo, metatranscritoma e proteoma, ou por de cultivo seguido de caracterização em cultura.

Outra limitação desse estudo é a falta de amostras controle propriamente adequadas. As amostras controle utilizadas correspondem a esponjas do mesmo gênero em região próxima (Caribe) que não recebem influência da pluma do rio Amazonas. Essas amostras vieram de dados da literatura com diferentes métodos de extração de DNA e sequenciamento que podem enviesar as análises (QUINCE et al., 2017). Para minimizar esse viés foram escolhidas amostras controle de diferentes estudos. Muitos dos taxa que mais contribuem para a dissimilaridade entre as amostras desse estudo não foram estatisticamente diferentes, mostrando que a metodologia aplicada conseguiu diferenciar os taxa relacionados as diferenças entre o microbioma das esponjas do GARS e Caribe e os que estavam relacionados as diferenças de amostras específicas.

Na anotação taxonômica de alguns taxa da amostra *Agelas dispar* foram acrescentados extra "*Uncultured*", fazendo com que essa amostra fosse mais dissimilar (**Figura 10**) às outras amostras do GARS e apresenta-se um número maior de taxa únicos (**Figura 9**). Essa classificação é mais perceptível em nível de espécie, não ficando claro se esses "*Uncultured*" foram adicionados devido a serem taxa diferentes ou a um viés metodológico do Metaxa2. No entanto, essa amostra foi mantida, porque a remoção dela não alterou as inferências relatadas nesse estudo.

9. CONCLUSÕES

Em resumo (Figura 18), nossos dados indicam que a pluma não impede completamente a ocorrência de organismos fotossintetizantes no microbioma das esponjas do GARS. Encontramos predominância de metabolismo heterotrófico em comparação ao autotrófico na comunidade microbiana de esponjas da Amazônia adaptada à pluma. Propomos que no GARS as esponjas acumulam matéria orgânica dissolvida (DOM), assimilada por elas e pela microbiota heterotrófica. Além disso, a microbiota das esponjas pode atuar na desintoxicação de compostos tóxicos liberados pela esponja. Outros recifes turvos apresentam condições de luminosidade ou sedimentação semelhantes às encontradas no GARS (ZWEIFLER (ZVIFLER) et al., 2021). No entanto, nenhum desses ambientes recebe um fluxo de água tão grande. O rio Amazonas descarrega 20% da água doce global no Oceano Atlântico (DAI; TRENBERTH, 2002; RICHEY et al., 1990). Esse enorme fluxo de água no oceano altera drasticamente os parâmetros ambientais, como salinidade, pH, luminosidade, oxigenação e sedimentação, criando assim um ambiente único. Este estudo mostra uma estratégia de acumulação de biomassa diferente do encontrado em esponjas de recifes tradicionais. Estudos mostram uma tendência das esponjas se tornarem dominantes em recifes turvos, a principal hipótese apontada se refere a capacidade das esponjas criarem um fluxo de água para remover os sedimentos de seu tecido (BELL et al., 2013; BIGGERSTAFF et al., 2017).

A singularidade do microbioma das esponjas do GARS está pronta para a prospecção biotecnológica, considerando que novos genes e precursores de drogas podem ser descobertos. Além disso, do ponto de vista ecológico, os dados do microbioma das esponjas do GARS podem ser úteis para explorar possíveis impactos ambientais que podem ser gerados devido à ação antropogênica de companhias petrolíferas próximas a essa região.



Figura 18. Resumo das principais inferências do estudo da influência da pluma do rio Amazonas no microbioma das esponjas do GARS. Figura autoral.

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11. PRODUÇÃO DURANTE O DOUTORADO

11.1. Using metabarcoding to assess Viridiplantae sequence diversity present in

Antarctic glacial ice



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MICROBIOLOGY

Using metabarcoding to assess Viridiplantae sequence diversity present in Antarctic glacial ice

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Abstract: Antarctica contains most of the glacial ice on the planet, a habitat that is largely unexplored by biologists. Recent warming in parts of Antarctica, particularly the Antarctic Peninsula region, is leading to widespread glacial retreat, releasing melt water and, potentially, contained biological material and propagules. In this study, we used a DNA metabarcoding approach to characterize Viridiplantae DNA present in Antarctic glacial ice. Ice samples from six glaciers in the South Shetland Islands and Antarctic Peninsula were analysed, detecting the presence of DNA representing a total of 16 taxa including 11 Chlorophyta (green algae) and five Magnoliophyta (flowering plants). The green algae may indicate the presence of a viable algal community in the ice or simply of preserved DNA, and the sequence diversity assigned included representatives of Chlorophyta not previously recorded in Antarctica. The presence of flowering plant DNA is most likely to be associated with pollen or tissue fragments introduced by humans. **Key words:** Algae, Angiosperms, DNA, biodiversity.

INTRODUCTION

Glaciers and ice sheets cover about 15 million km² globally, or about 10% of the Earth's land surface (Anesio & Laybourn-Parry 2012). A limited number of microorganisms (bacteria, various groups of algae, and fungi) are known to be able to survive the harsh conditions within ice (Sanyal et al. 2018, Perini et al. 2019). Many of these microorganisms exhibit a range of adaptations that protect their metabolism from the damaging effects of harsh environmental conditions such as extreme temperatures and lack of liquid water (Siddiqui & Cavicchioli 2006, Margesin & Miteva 2011), including some of potential biotechnological interest. Some microbial communities present in glacial ice are biochemically active (Price 2000, Anesio et al. 2009, Hodson et al. 2010). However, available reports are mostly restricted to bacteria and from studies in the Northern Hemisphere (Sheridan et al. 2003, Miteva & Brenchley 2005).

Antarctica contains most of the world's glacial ice (de Menezes et al. 2020), representing about 70% of freshwater globally (Sadaiappan et al. 2020). Formed by the accumulation of snow gradually compressed over many years, Antarctic glacial ice may provide a unique habitat for microorganisms that could have been trapped for many thousands of years (Abyzov 1993, Gunde-Cimerman et al. 2003), with the oldest ice yet drilled in Antarctica being dated to several hundred thousand years (Elzinga 2012).

In recent decades, parts of Antarctica have experienced the impacts of anthropogenic warming. In the Antarctic Peninsula region, the temperature increase already exceeds 1.5°C over pre-industrial temperatures (Turner

An Acad Bras Cienc (2022) 94(Suppl.1)

11.2. Diversity of Viridiplantae DNA present on rock surfaces in the Ellsworth Mountains, continental Antarctica

Original Paper | Published: 10 February 2022

Diversity of Viridiplantae DNA present on rock surfaces in the Ellsworth Mountains, continental Antarctica

<u>Paulo E. A. S. Câmara</u> ⊠, <u>Graciéle C. A. de Menezes</u>, <u>Fábio S. Oliveira</u>, <u>Caroline Delpupo Souza</u>, <u>Eduardo T.</u> <u>Amorim</u>, <u>Carlos E. G. R. Schaefer</u>, <u>Peter Convey</u>, <u>Otavio H. B. Pinto</u>, <u>Micheline Carvalho-Silva</u> & <u>Luiz H.</u> <u>Rosa</u>

 Polar Biology
 45, 637–646 (2022)
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Abstract

The Ellsworth Mountains experience frigid desert conditions. No macroscopic vegetation is present, with only very few published records of microalgae, and the range has received virtually no formal biological survey. Rocks, including gypsum crusts, were sampled from five specific locations in part of the region during the austral summer of 2012/13. These underwent DNA extraction and a metabarcoding approach using high-throughput sequencing, targeting plant DNA. This detected the presence of DNA assigned to a total of 48 taxa, including six Chlorophyta (green algae), four Bryophyta (mosses), and 40 Magnoliophyta (flowering plants). Cluster analyses suggested that the diversity found was not related to rock type or exposure age or sampling location, and there was limited similarity between locations. Thirtyfour of the taxa assigned were consistent with a South American origin. The high diversity of DNA representing Poaceae (grasses; 12 taxa) is consistent with aerial transfer, most plausibly via pollen; this study provides an important means of better understanding the arrival and movement of biological material in Antarctica either through natural means or in association with human activities.

11.3. Plume Layer Influences the Amazon Reef Sponge Microbiome Primary

Producers

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ORIGINAL RESEARCH published: 19 May 2022 doi: 10.3389/fmars.2022.867234



Plume Layer Influences the Amazon Reef Sponge Microbiome Primary Producers

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Symbiont relationships between corals and photosynthetic microorganisms sustain coral reef existence. However, the Great Amazon Reef System (GARS) stays under a plume layer that attenuates the entry of light, and instead of corals, sponges are the major reef epifauna, for which little is known about the function of the associated microbiome. Here, we used genome-resolved metagenomics to investigate how the sponge microbiome supports its host and overcomes the reduced light availability, recovering 205 MAGs from Agelas and Geodia sponges with completeness >70% and contamination <10%. Beta diversity estimates based on the 16S rRNA genes indicated the microbiomes of Amazon and Caribbean sponges to be distinct (P<0.01), with heterotrophic lifestyles being prevalent in Amazon sponge microbiomes (P<0.05). Nevertheless, genes indicating the carbon fixation pathways 3-Hydroxypropionate/4-Hydroxybutyrate cycle, 3-Hydroxypropionate bicycle, Reductive Tricarboxylic Acid Cycle, and Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle could be recovered in low abundance. The presence of Cyanobacteria, represented by both 16S rRNA analyses and low-quality MAGs indicated light incidence on the reef. The metabolic profile shows that the GARS sponge microbiome had genes for sulfate reduction, sulfur oxidation, nitric oxide reduction, ammonia oxidation, nitrate reduction, nitrite ammonification, nitrite oxidation, and nitrite reduction, indicating that the microbiome might play a role in detoxification of the holobiont. We conclude, that neither the plume-limited photosynthesis of the sponge microbiome nor the primary producers sustain the organic carbon input for the sponges, which likely live off plumeassociated organic carbon and their heterotrophic microbiota.

Keywords: Carbon fixation, Host-associated, Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs), Sponge microbiome, the Great Amazon Reef System (GARS)

Front. Mar. Sci. 9:867234. doi: 10.3389/fmars.2022.867234

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11.4. Fungal diversity in a sediment core from climate change impacted Boeckella

Lake, Hope Bay, north-eastern Antarctic Peninsula assessed using metabarcoding

Extremophiles (2022) 26:16 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00792-022-01264-1

ORIGINAL PAPER

Fungal diversity in a sediment core from climate change impacted Boeckella Lake, Hope Bay, north-eastern Antarctic Peninsula assessed using metabarcoding

Luiz Henrique Rosa¹ · Mayara Baptistucci Ogaki¹ · Juan Manuel Lirio² · Rosemary Vieira³ · Silvia H. Coria² · Otávio Henrique Bezerra Pinto⁴ · Micheline Carvalho-Silva⁵ · Peter Convey^{6,7} · Carlos Augusto Rosa¹ · Paulo Eduardo Aguiar Saraiva Câmara⁵

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Abstract

We studied the fungal DNA present in a lake sediment core obtained from Trinity Peninsula, Hope Bay, north-eastern Antarctic Peninsula, using metabarcoding through high-throughput sequencing (HTS). Sequences obtained were assigned to 146 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) primarily representing unknown fungi, followed by the phyla *Ascomycota, Rozellomycota, Basidiomycota, Chytridiomycota* and *Mortierellomycota*. The most abundant taxa were assigned to Fungal sp., *Pseudeurotium hygrophilum, Rozellomycota* sp. 1, *Pseudeurotiaceae* sp. 1 and *Chytridiomycota* sp. 1. The majority of the DNA reads, representing 40 ASVs, could only be assigned at higher taxonomic levels and may represent taxa not currently included in the sequence databases consulted and/or be previously undescribed fungi. Different sections of the core were characterized by high sequence diversity, richness and moderate ecological dominance indices. The assigned diversity was dominated by cosmopolitan cold-adapted fungi, including known saprotrophic, plant and animal pathogenic and symbiotic taxa. Despite the overall dominance of *Ascomycota* and *Basidiomycota* and psychrophilic *Mortierellomycota*, members of the cryptic phyla *Rozellomycota* and *Chytridiomycota* were also detected in abundance. As Boeckella Lake may cease to exist in approaching decades due the effects of local climatic changes, it also an important location for the study of the impacts of these changes on Antarctic microbial diversity.

Keywords Antarctica · Ecology · Fungi · Extremophile · Taxonomy

Communicated by A. Oren.

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Published online: 02 May 2022

Introduction

Only a small proportion of Antarctica is free of permanent snow and ice. Among these, freshwater lake ecosystems support well-developed microbial communities, including benthic microbial mats (Laybourn-Parry and Pearce 2007). As described by Vincent (2000), Antarctica hosts a range of lake types, representing different depths, trophic status and ages, allowing studies of their diversity, ecology and evolution. Antarctic lake sediments provide some of the best regional climatic archives available (Chaparro et al. 2017; Píšková et al. 2019) as well as containing unique microbial communities comprising bacteria, cyanobacteria, viruses, protists and fungi. They receive a constant input of particles deposited from the air column, snow melt and surrounding habitats, accumulating archives of climatic information and biological diversity over potentially many thousands of years (Ogaki et al. 2020a).

11.5. Assessment of fungal diversity present in lakes of Maritime Antarctica using

DNA metabarcoding: a temporal microcosm experiment

Extremophiles (2021) 25:77–84 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00792-020-01212-x

ORIGINAL PAPER

Assessment of fungal diversity present in lakes of Maritime Antarctica using DNA metabarcoding: a temporal microcosm experiment

Láuren M. D. de Souza¹ · Mayara B. Ogaki¹ · Paulo E. A. S. Câmara² · Otávio H. B. Pinto³ · Peter Convey⁴ · Micheline Carvalho-Silva² · Carlos A. Rosa¹ · Luiz H. Rosa¹

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Abstract

We evaluated the fungal diversity in two lakes on the South Shetland Islands, using DNA metabarcoding through highthroughput sequencing (HTS). A microcosm experiment was deployed for two consecutive years in lakes on Deception and King George islands to capture potential decomposer freshwater fungi. Analyses of the baits revealed 258,326 DNA reads distributed in 34 fungal taxa of the phyla *Ascomycota*, *Basidiomycota*, *Mortierellomycota*, *Chytridiomycota* and *Rozellomycota*. *Tetracladium marchalianum*, *Tetracladium* sp., *Rozellomycota* sp., Fungal sp. 1 and Fungal sp. 2 were the most common taxa detected. However, the majority of the communities comprised intermediate and rare taxa. Both fungal communities displayed moderate indices of diversity, richness and dominance. Only six taxa were detected in both lakes, including the most dominant *T. marchalianum* and *Tetracladium* sp. The high numbers of reads of the known aquatic saprotrophic hyphomycetes *T. marchalianum* and *Tetracladium* sp. in the baits suggest that these fungi may digest organic material in Antarctic lakes, releasing available carbon and nutrients to the other aquatic organisms present in the complex lake food web. Our data confirm that the use of cotton baits together with HTS approaches can be appropriate to study the diversity of resident freshwater fungi present in Antarctic lakes.

Keywords Antarctica · Freshwater · Fungi · Ingoldian · Pounds

Introduction

Antarctica represents one of the most pristine regions of the world and hosts extreme ecosystems that face combinations of cold, dry, oligotrophic and radiation-exposed conditions, offering unique opportunities to discover extremophile

Communicated by A. Oren.

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microorganisms living at the edge of life (de Hoog et al. 2005; Gonçalves et al. 2012). Among these ecosystems are diverse Antarctic lakes (Ogaki et al. 2019). Most lakes in the Antarctic Peninsula region (maritime Antarctica) are shallow systems (<10 m deep), chronically cold, often oligotrophic and subject to high levels of UV radiation and, combined, these factors affect the resident microbial diversity (Izaguirre et al. 1993; Gonçalves et al. 2012). These lakes are also in a region subject to rapid regional environmental change, even magnifying the rates of change widely documented in atmospheric temperature (Quayle et al. 2002, 2003).

Fungi occur in virtually all of the diverse habitats of the planet. In Antarctica, different fungal communities have been catalogued in recent years (Bridge and Spooner 2012); however, Antarctic fungal diversity remains poorly known, along with its proportional contribution to global fungal diversity (Rosa et al. 2019). Fungi have been described from many Antarctic terrestrial and marine environments such as soils, associated with plants, lichens and macroalgae, snow, ice, rocks, seawater and marine sediments, and freshwater

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11.6. Fungal diversity in seasonal snow of Martel Inlet, King George Island, South

Shetland Islands, assessed using DNA metabarcoding

	https://doi.org/10.1007/s00300-022-03014-7		
1	ORIGINAL PAPER	Check for updates	
0	Europal diversity in seasonal snew of M	artal Inlat. King Goorge Island	
3	South Shetland Islands, assessed using	DNA metabarcoding	
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4	Luiz Henrique Rosa ^{1,8} 0 · Graciéle Cunha Alves de Meneze	s ¹ · Otávio Henrique Bezerra Pinto ² ·	
6	Peter Convey * • Micheline Carvano-Silva • Jenerson Car Paulo Eduardo Aguiar Saraiva Câmara ⁵		
7 8	Received: 14 August 2021 / Revised: 27 December 2021 / Accepted: 18 Janu © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany	ary 2022 part of Springer Nature 2022	
9	Abstract		
Q2	Antarctic snow represents a microhabitat directly linked with	atmospheric precipitation, and composed of dust, sea spray,	
12	organic materials and microbial propagules. Among the microorganisms that inhabit Antarctic snow, fungi are not well		
13	George Island (South Shetland Islands, maritime Antarctica	using DNA metabarcoding by high-throughput sequencing	
14	We detected 65 fungal amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) d	ominated by the phyla Ascomycota Basidiomycota and Mor-	
15	tierellomycota. In addition. ASVs of the basal cryptic uncom	non Chytridiomycota and Rozellomycota phyla were detected.	
16	Fungal species <i>Microbotryomycetes</i> sp. 1, <i>Chytridiomycota</i> s	p. and <i>Leucosporidiales</i> sp. 1 were the most dominant ASVs.	
17	Twenty-nine fungal ASVs could only be identified at higher ta	axonomic levels and may represent previously unknown fungi,	
8	taxa unreported in the database and/or new records for Antar	ctica. The community detected in the seasonal snow displayed	
19	moderate diversity, richness and dominance. The fungal assemblages included cosmopolitan, psychrophilic, saprophytic,		
20	mutualistic, and plant and animal pathogenic taxa. DNA me	tabarcoding revealed higher fungal sequence diversity accu-	
22	mulated during the previous winter when compared with prev	yous culturing, including taxa of the basal cryptic uncommon	
23	changes in the last few decades: therefore, the high unculture	I fungal diversity detected in this study reinforces the need for	
24	further taxonomic ecological, life history strategies and genetic studies across Antarctica to understand the fungal biology		
25	and potential for biotechnological applications.		
26	Keywords Antarctic Peninsula · Ecology · Environmental DN	A · Fungi · Taxonomy	
27	Introduction	covers most parts of Anteratical providing a low tempera	
	Introduction	ture and nutrient-restricted habitat exposed seasonally to	
28	Antarctic ecosystems are considered a biological labora-	high levels of ultraviolet radiation (Miteva 2008: de Men-	
29	tory, offering unique opportunities to study how biota sur-	ezes et al. 2019a). Ice features highly in the snow matrix,	
30	vive, colonize and disperse under extreme conditions. Snow		
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11.7. Diversity of Fungi Present in Permafrost in the South Shetland Islands, Maritime

Antarctic

Microbial Ecology https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-021-01735-6

ENVIRONMENTAL MICROBIOLOGY



Diversity of Fungi Present in Permafrost in the South Shetland Islands, Maritime Antarctic

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Abstract

We assess the fungal diversity present in permafrost from different islands in the South Shetland Islands archipelago, maritime Antarctic, using next-generation sequencing (NGS). We detected 1,003,637 fungal DNA reads representing, in rank abundance order, the phyla *Ascomycota, Mortierellomycota, Basidiomycota, Chytridiomycota, Rozellomycota, Mucoromycota, Calcarisporiellomycota* and *Zoopagomycota*. Ten taxa were dominant these being, in order of abundance, *Pseudogymnoascus appendiculatus, Penicillium* sp., *Pseudogymnoascus roseus, Penicillium herquei, Curvularia lunata, Leotiomycetes* sp., *Mortierella* sp. 1, *Mortierella fimbricystis*, Fungal sp. 1 and Fungal sp. 2. A further 38 taxa had intermediate abundance and 345 were classified as rare. The total fungal community detected in the permafrost showed high indices of diversity, richness and dominance, although these varied between the sampling locations. The use of a metabarcoding approach revealed the presence of DNA of a complex fungal assemblage in the permafrost of the South Shetland Islands including taxa with a range of ecological functions among which were multiple animal, human and plant pathogenic fungi. Further studies are required to determine whether the taxa identified are present in the form of viable cells or propagules and which might be released from melting permafrost to other Antarctic habitats and potentially dispersed more widely.

Keywords Antarctica · Climate change · Fungi · Frozen soil · Metabarcoding

Introduction

Faced with the threat of global climatic changes and associated impacts, biodiversity studies are a priority in Antarctica [1]. The Antarctic Peninsula is a critical region of the planet experiencing the effects of warming, and was one of the three

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fastest warming areas globally in the latter half of the twentieth century [2-5]. Research focusing on the taxonomy, diversity and ecology of different organisms carried out in the Antarctic Peninsula region has provided important insights into the effects of different environmental drivers and of change processes on biodiversity [6, 7]. Permafrost is a key cold environment habitat impacted by the effects of climate changes. Permafrost is defined as substrate that remains continuously below 0 °C for 2 years [8]. Permafrost is widespread in ice-free areas of the continental and maritime Antarctic, including in the South Shetland and South Orkney Islands, but not on the sub-Antarctic islands [9]. It is considered extremely sensitive to climate change. Between the years 2007 and 2016, an increase of 0.37 \pm 0.10 $^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ was observed in the temperature of permafrost across the entire continent [10]. Globally, the large majority of permafrost in the polar regions is found in the Arctic, where it is recognized that permafrost thaw will release considerable reserves of stored carbon as well as the biological activation of the resident microbial community, generating a strong positive feedback further amplifying global climate change [10, 11].

11.8. Green algae (Viridiplantae) in sediments from three lakes on Vega Island, Antarctica, assessed using DNA metabarcoding

> Mol Biol Rep. 2022 Jan;49(1):179-188. doi: 10.1007/s11033-021-06857-1. Epub 2021 Oct 22.

Green algae (Viridiplantae) in sediments from three lakes on Vega Island, Antarctica, assessed using DNA metabarcoding

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Affiliations + expand PMID: 34686990 DOI: 10.1007/s11033-021-06857-1

Abstract

Background: Vega Island is located off the eastern tip of the Antarctic Peninsula (Maritime Antarctica), in the Weddell Sea. In this study, we used metabarcoding to investigate green algal DNA sequence diversity present in sediments from three lakes on Vega Island (Esmeralda, Copépodo, and Pan Negro Lakes).

Methods and results: Total DNA was extracted and the internal transcribed spacer 2 region of the nuclear ribosomal DNA was used as a DNA barcode for molecular identification. Green algae were represented by sequences representing 78 taxa belonging to Phylum Chlorophyta, of which 32% have not previously been recorded from Antarctica. Sediment from Pan Negro Lake generated the highest number of DNA reads (11,205), followed by Esmeralda (9085) and Copépodo (1595) Lakes. Esmeralda Lake was the richest in terms of number of taxa (59), with Copépodo and Pan Negro Lakes having 30 taxa each. Bray-Curtis dissimilarity among lakes was high (~ 0.80). The Order Chlamydomonadales (Chlorophyceae) gave the highest contribution in terms of numbers of taxa and DNA reads in all lakes. The most abundant taxon was Chlorococcum microstigmatum.

Conclusions: The study confirms the utility of DNA metabarcoding in assessing potential green algal diversity in Antarctic lakes, generating new Antarctic records.

Keywords: Chlorophyta; Diversity; High throughput sequencing; James Ross archipelago; Polar biology.

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11.9. Fairy ring disease affects epiphytic algal assemblages associated with the moss *Sanionia uncinata* (Hedw.) Loeske (Bryophyta) on King George Island, Antarctica

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Fairy ring disease affects epiphytic algal assemblages associated with the moss Sanionia uncinata (Hedw.) Loeske (Bryophyta) on King George Island, Antarctica

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Affiliations + expand PMID: 34643818 DOI: 10.1007/s00792-021-01246-9

Abstract

Since the nineteenth century, a ring-forming disease attacking Antarctic mosses has been reported. However, to date, only the effects on the mosses themselves are known. In this study, we used DNA metabarcoding to investigate the effects on the moss epiphytic algal community at different stages of disease progression. As the disease progressed, algal species richness decreased, although overall abundance was not significantly affected. Prasiolales appeared unaffected, whereas Ulotrichales were more sensitive. Trebouxiales dominated the advanced disease stage, suggesting a possible benefit from the disease, either through the elimination of competition or creation of new niches. Infection is responsible for moss death, leading to habitat loss for other organisms, but pathogenic effects on algae cannot be ruled out. Our data indicate that the disease not only impacts mosses but also other groups, potentially resulting in loss of Antarctic biodiversity. This study provides the first report of the disease effects on epiphytic algal communities of Antarctic bryophytes.

Keywords: Chlorophyta; Epiphytic; Fairy rings; Fungal disease.

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11.10. Diversity of fungal DNA in lake sediments on Vega Island, north-east Antarctic

Peninsula assessed using DNA metabarcoding

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ORIGINAL PAPER



Diversity of fungal DNA in lake sediments on Vega Island, north-east Antarctic Peninsula assessed using DNA metabarcoding

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Abstract

We assessed the diversity of fungal DNA present in sediments of three lakes on Vega Island, north-east Antarctic Peninsula using metabarcoding through high-throughput sequencing (HTS). A total of 640,902 fungal DNA reads were detected, which were assigned to 224 taxa of the phyla *Ascomycota, Rozellomycota, Basidiomycota, Chytridiomycota* and *Mortierellomycota*, in rank order of abundance. The most abundant genera were *Pseudogymnoascus, Penicillium* and *Mortierella*. However, a majority (423,508, 66%) of the reads, representing by 43 ASVs, could only be assigned at higher taxonomic levels and may represent taxa not currently included in the sequence databases used or be new or previously unreported taxa present in Antarctic lakes. The three lakes were characterized by high sequence diversity, richness, and moderate dominance indices. The ASVs were dominated by psychrotolerant and cosmopolitan cold-adapted *Ascomycota, Basidiomycota* and *Mortierellomycota* and *Mortierellomycota* and *Chytridiomycota* species not previously reported in Antarctic lakes. The assigned diversity was composed mainly of taxa recognized as decomposers and pathogens of plants and invertebrates.

Keywords Antarctica · Fungi · Extremophile · High-throughput sequencing · Taxonomy

Communicated by A. Oren.

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Introduction

Despite Antarctica being almost completely covered by ice, in some regions, there is a remarkable array of freshwater lake ecosystems in the limited ice-free areas or oases, which support a restricted biodiversity (Laybourn-Parry and Pearce 2007). Some Antarctic lakes have even remained sealed by their ice covering for possibly hundreds of thousands of years or longer and represent an opportunity for exploring microbial diversity, ecology and evolution (Vincent 2000).

Vega Island, located in the north-east Antarctic Peninsula region north of James Ross Island, harbors several lagoons and lakes, which have played an important role in paleoclimatic studies (Moreno et al. 2012; Lecomte et al. 2016). Their sediments contain some of the best continuous climatic archives available (Chaparro et al. 2017; Pisková et al. 2019). Antarctic lakes also receive a constant input of particles deposited from the air column, snow melt and surrounding habitats, accumulating an archive of climatic information and biological diversity over potentially many thousands of years (Ogaki et al. 2020a).

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11.11. Fungal diversity present on rocks from a polar desert in continental Antarctica

assessed using DNA metabarcoding

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ORIGINAL PAPER



Fungal diversity present on rocks from a polar desert in continental Antarctica assessed using DNA metabarcoding

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Abstract

We evaluated the fungal diversity associated with carbonate veins and two types of salt encrustation in rocks in a polar desert region of continental Antarctica using DNA a metabarcoding approach. We detected 262,268 reads grouped into 517 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) assigned to the phyla *Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Mortierellomycota* and *Mucoromycota*. Fourteen ASVs belonging to the genera *Trichosporon, Mortierella, Penicillium, Aspergillus, Cladosporium, Coprinellus, Pleurotus* and *Pseudogymnoascus* were assessed to be dominant taxa. The fungal communities of the three habitats sampled displayed high diversity indices when compared with other habitats of Antarctica, although differing in detail, with the highest diversity indices in the gypsum crust type 2. Only 48 of the 517 ASVs (9.28%) were detected in all three habitats, including dominant, intermediate and minor components. In contrast with previous studies of fungal communities living in the ultra-extreme conditions of continental Antarctica, application of metabarcoding revealed the DNA of a rich and complex resident fungal community. The ASVs detected included fungi with different ecological roles, with xerophilic, human- and animal-associated, phytopathogenic, saprotrophic, mutualistic, psychrotolerant and cosmopolitan taxa. This sequence diversity may be the result of deposition of fungal propagules over time driven by air currents, precipitation or human activities in the region.

Keywords Antarctica · Ecology · Environmental DNA · Rock inhabiting fungi · Taxonomy · ITS rDNA

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Introduction

Despite its extreme conditions, Antarctica hosts a wide range of microbial ecosystems (Rosa et al. 2019). Among these are a range of lithic (rock associated) habitats, inhabitants of which face multiple extreme environmental conditions combining drastic changes in temperature over the daily cycle, seasonally intense solar radiation, lack of nutrients and low water availability (Friedmann 1982; Russell et al. 1998; Gueidan et al. 2008; Gonçalves et al. 2017a, b). Endolithic ecosystems include a range of microorganisms, including cyanobacteria, microalgae, chemoorganotrophic bacteria as well as lichenized and non-lichenized fungi (Gorbushina 2007).

The Kingdom Fungi includes many taxa that are extremely well adapted for survival in diverse harsh environments globally, facing stresses including extreme temperatures, prolonged desiccation and intense solar radiation using features of their physiology and morphology,

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11.12. Fungi Present in Antarctic Deep-Sea Sediments Assessed Using DNA

Metabarcoding

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ENVIRONMENTAL MICROBIOLOGY



Fungi Present in Antarctic Deep-Sea Sediments Assessed Using DNA Metabarcoding

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Abstract

We assessed fungal diversity in deep-sea sediments obtained from different depths in the Southern Ocean using the internal transcribed spacer 2 (ITS2) region of nuclear ribosomal DNA by metabarcoding through high-throughput sequencing (HTS). We detected 655,991 DNA reads representing 263 fungal amplicon sequence variants (ASVs), dominated by *Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Mortierellomycota, Mucoromycota, Chytridiomycota* and *Rozellomycota*, confirming that deep-sea sediments can represent a hotspot of fungal diversity in Antarctica. The community diversity detected included 17 dominant fungal ASVs, 62 intermediate and 213 rare. The dominant fungi included taxa of *Mortierella, Penicillium, Cladosporium, Pseudogymnoascus, Phaeosphaeria* and *Torula*. Despite the extreme conditions of the Southern Ocean benthos, the total fungal community detected in these marine sediments displayed high indices of diversity and richness, and moderate dominance, which varied between the different depths sampled. The highest diversity indices were obtained in sediments from 550 m and 250 m depths. Only 49 ASVs (18.63%) were detected at all the depths sampled, while 16 ASVs were detected only in the deepest sediment sampled at 1463 m. Based on sequence identities, the fungal community included some globally distributed taxa, primarily recorded otherwise from terrestrial environments, suggesting transport from these to deep marine sediments. The assigned taxa included symbionts, decomposers and plant-, animal- and human-pathogenic fungi, suggesting that deep-sea sediments host a complex fungal diversity, although metabarcoding does not itself confirm that living or viable organisms are present.

Keywords Antarctica · Ecology · Fungi · Marine · Metabarcoding · Taxonomy

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Introduction

The Southern Ocean contributes 30% of global ocean area, surrounding the Antarctic continent [1,2]. It is characterized by extreme conditions for life, including chronically low temperature, salinity, pH variability and low nutrient availability, stressors that have strongly influenced the life that inhabits its ecosystems. Even today, the Southern Ocean is a unique region where microbial studies are still in their infancy [3], even though its varied substrates and habitats have the potential to support diverse microbial life [2].

The deep-sea benthos is one of the least known microbial environments on the planet. Its microbial ecosystems include bacteria, archaea [4] and fungi [5–7]. Fungi in marine ecosystems include saprophytic, pathogenic and symbiotic taxa, which are found from shallow coastal to deep-sea environments [8,9]. Fungi are among the most ecologically successful eukaryotic groups and have been detected at 10,897 m depth in the Mariana trench [10]. However, despite their ecological

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11.13. The largest moss carpet transplant in Antarctica and its bryosphere cryptic

biodiversity

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ORIGINAL PAPER

The largest moss carpet transplant in Antarctica and its bryosphere cryptic biodiversity

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Abstract

As part of the reconstruction of the Brazilian Antarctic Station on King George Island, three areas of moss carpet were transplanted to minimize the impact of the new facilities on the local biodiversity. A total of 650 m² of moss carpet was transplanted to neighboring but previously uncolonized locations and has subsequently survived for the last 3 years. Antarctic moss carpets typically comprise low moss species diversity and are often monospecific. We investigated the cryptic biodiversity that was transplanted along with the carpets using a metabarcoding approach through high throughput sequencing. We targeted 16S rRNA for Bacteria and Archaea, ITS for Fungi and Viridiplantae and Cox1 for Metazoa. We detected DNA representing 263 taxa from five Kingdoms (Chromista, Fungi, Metazoa, Protista and Viridiplantae), two Domains (Archaea and Bacteria) and 33 Phyla associated with the carpet. This diversity included one Archaea, 189 Bacteria, 24 Chromista, 19 Fungi, eight Metazoa, seven Protista and 16 Viridiplantae. Bacteria was the most abundant, rich and diverse group, with Chromista second in diversity and richness. Metazoa was less diverse but second highest in dominance. This is the first study to attempt transplanting a significant area of moss carpet to minimize anthropogenic environmental damage in Antarctica and to use metabarcoding as a proxy to assess diversity associated with Antarctic moss carpets, further highlighting the importance of such habitats for other organisms and their importance for conservation.

Keywords Antarctica · Moss carpet · Sanionia · Metabarcode · Diversity · HTS

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Introduction

Antarctica is well known for its extreme environmental conditions. Its terrestrial vegetation comprises only two native angiosperms and about 116 species of Bryophyta (Ochyra et al. 2008; Ellis et al. 2013a, b, 2013a; Sollman et al. 2015; Câmara et al. 2019). However, Antarctic vegetation is still poorly characterized in terms of genetic diversity and few studies using molecular tools have yet been carried out (Biersma et al. 2018a, b, 2020; Câmara et al. 2018, 2019). In particular, although the dominant bryophyte vegetation of the maritime Antarctic provides the habitats occupied by multiple other groups of organisms (e.g. Block et al. 2009), molecular tools are yet to be widely applied in assessing the overall biodiversity potentially occupying and relying on the bryosphere.

Antarctica is governed under the Antarctic Treaty, an international treaty that was negotiated in 1959 and came into force in 1961. Antarctic Treaty governance applies to

11.14. Ecological succession of fungal and bacterial communities in Antarctic mosses

affected by a fairy ring disease

Extremophiles https://doi.org/10.1007/s00792-021-01240-1

ORIGINAL PAPER

Ecological succession of fungal and bacterial communities in Antarctic mosses affected by a fairy ring disease

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Abstract

We evaluated fungal and bacterial diversity in an established moss carpet on King George Island, Antarctica, affected by 'fairy ring' disease using metabarcoding. A total of 127 fungal and 706 bacterial taxa were assigned. *Ascomycota* dominated the fungal assemblages, followed by *Basidiomycota*, *Rozellomycota*, *Chytridiomycota*, *Mortierellomycota* and *Monoblepharomycota*. The fungal community displayed high indices of diversity, richness and dominance, which increased from healthy through infected to dead moss samples. A range of fungal taxa were more abundant in dead rather than healthy or fairy ring moss samples. Bacterial diversity and richness were greatest in healthy moss and least within the infected fairy ring. The dominant prokaryotic phyla were *Actinobacteriota*, *Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidota* and *Cyanobacteria*. *Cyanophyceae* sp., whilst consistently dominant, were less abundant in fairy ring samples. Our data confirmed the presence and abundance of a range of plant pathogenic fungi, supporting the hypothesis that the disease is linked with multiple fungal taxa. Further studies are required to characterise the interactions between plant pathogenic fungi and their host Antarctic mosses. Monitoring the dynamics of mutualist, phytopathogenic and decomposer microorganisms associated with moss carpets may provide bioindicators of moss health.

Keywords Antarctica · Climate change · Environmental DNA · Metabarcoding · Plant diseases

Introduction

Antarctic vegetation is dominated by bryophytes, with 116 species currently recognised representing cosmopolitan, endemic and bipolar taxa (Ochyra et al. 2008; Câmara et al.

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2019). Mosses may form extensive carpets in some parts of Antarctica, particularly in the maritime Antarctic, contributing to the greatest development of 'fellfield' communities globally and providing habitats and ameliorating Antarctica's extreme environmental conditions for contained microbial and invertebrate communities (Smith 1984; de Carvalho et al. 2019; Prather et al. 2019). Well established Antarctic moss carpets may act as "sentinels" sensitive to environmental changes, particularly in temperature and hydration, across the Antarctic Peninsula region (Prather et al. 2019). Moss carpet health has been a subject of research attention since the early years of Antarctic terrestrial research (Robinson et al. 2018). One of the most frequently reported concerns relating to moss health is that of attack by initially unidentified organism(s) resulting in the formation of a concentric ring ('fairy ring') visible on the surface of the carpet which eventually results in the death of the moss (Wilson 1951; Racovitza 1959; Hawksworth 1973; Longton 1973; Fenton 1983; Ochyra et al. 2008; Tojo et al. 2012; Pawłowska et al. 2017). Most recently, Rosa et al. (2020a) recorded the development of fairy rings on previously unreported moss

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11.15. Draft Genome Sequence of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia Strain PE591, a

Polyethylene-Degrading Bacterium Isolated from Savanna Soil







Draft Genome Sequence of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia Strain PE591, a Polyethylene-Degrading Bacterium Isolated from Savanna Soil

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Tayná Diniz Frederico and Julianna Peixoto contributed equally to this work. Author order was determined by equal contribution on the DNA sequencing efforts and final data analysis.

ABSTRACT We report the genome sequence of a polyethylene-degrading bacterial strain identified as Stenotrophomonas maltophilia strain PE591, which was isolated from plastic debris found in savanna soil. The genome was assembled in 16 scaffolds with a length of 4,751,236 bp, a GC content of 66.5%, and 4,432 predicted genes.

tenotrophomonas maltophilia strain PE591 was isolated from plastic debris found in S the soil of the Brazilian Cerrado biome (1). The strain showed both metabolic activity and cellular viability after incubation with unpretreated polyethylene (PE) (molecular weight, 191.000) films as the sole carbon source for periods of up to 90 days (1). Moreover, S. maltophilia PE591 was capable of inducing significant physicochemical changes in PE after a 90-day incubation, revealing its great potential for plastic biodegradation processes (1). The Stenotrophomonas genus currently comprises 20 species, and its first species, S. maltophilia, was described in 1993 (2-4). S. maltophilia is a Gram-negative, obligate aerobic, rodshaped, and motile bacterium that is considered to be an important human pathogen (5). Stenotrophomonas species are ubiquitous microorganisms that colonize multiple natural (e.g., soils and plants) and clinical environments (6, 7). In addition, Stenotrophomonas spp. may have resistance to different metals and antibiotics; therefore, they qualify as promising microorganisms for bioremediation applications (6).

S. maltophilia strain PE591 was grown in 5 ml of nutrient broth medium (Difco, Holland) and incubated for 24 h at 28°C with agitation (150 \times g). Subsequently, cells were harvested by centrifugation at 5.500 \times a for 5 min at 4°C. Bacterial DNA was purified using the GenElute bacterial genomic DNA kit (Sigma-Aldrich, USA). A sequencing library was created using the MiSeg reagent kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions, the MiSeq system user guide, revision L (part number 15027617; Illumina), was used in the sequencing protocol, and genome sequencing was performed with the Illumina MiSeg system (2 imes 300-bp paired-end reads) (Macrogen, Seoul, South Korea). The resultant reads were subjected to quality analysis using FastQC software v. 0.11.3 (8). Sequence reads were de novo assembled following the A5-miseq pipeline, which includes Trimmomatic v. 0.35 to trim lowguality sequences (Phred scores of <20) and IDBA-UD v. 1.1.1 to assemble contigs (9–11). The package Stats from BBmap v. 38.76 was used to generate assembly statistics (12). The genome was annotated with Prokka v. 1.14.6 using the UniProt database (13). The completeness and contamination of genomic data were estimated by CheckM v. 1.0.13 (14). Coverage was assessed with SAMtools v. 1.9, Bowtie2 v. 2.3.4.1, and the package Pileup from BBmap v. 38.76 (12, 15, 16). Default parameters were used for all software unless otherwise noted. Finally, the

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11.16. Fungi in the Antarctic Cryosphere: Using DNA Metabarcoding to Reveal Fungal

Diversity in Glacial Ice from the Antarctic Peninsula Region

Microbial Ecology https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-021-01792-x

ENVIRONMENTAL MICROBIOLOGY



Fungi in the Antarctic Cryosphere: Using DNA Metabarcoding to Reveal Fungal Diversity in Glacial Ice from the Antarctic Peninsula Region

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Abstract

We assessed fungal diversity present in glacial from the Antarctic Peninsula using DNA metabarcoding through highthroughput sequencing (HTS). We detected a total of 353,879 fungal DNA reads, representing 94 genera and 184 taxa, in glacial ice fragments obtained from seven sites in the north-west Antarctic Peninsula and South Shetland Islands. The phylum *Ascomycota* dominated the sequence diversity, followed by *Basidiomycota* and *Mortierellomycota*. *Penicillium* sp., *Cladosporium* sp., *Penicillium atrovenetum*, *Epicoccum nigrum*, *Pseudogymnoascus* sp. 1, *Pseudogymnoascus* sp. 2, *Phaeosphaeriaceae* sp. and *Xylaria grammica* were the most dominant taxa, respectively. However, the majority of the fungal diversity comprised taxa of rare and intermediate relative abundance, predominately known mesophilic fungi. High indices of diversity and richness were calculated, along with moderate index of dominance, which varied among the different sampling sites. Only 26 (14%) of the total fungal taxa detected were present at all sampling sites. The identified diversity was dominated by saprophytic taxa, followed by known plant and animal pathogens and a low number of symbiotic fungi. Our data suggest that Antarctic glacial ice may represent a hotspot of previously unreported fungal diversity; however, further studies are required to integrate HTS and culture approaches to confirm viability of the taxa detected.

Keywords Antarctica · Ecology · Environmental DNA · Extremophiles

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Introduction

Despite its generally extreme conditions, Antarctica hosts diverse environments dominated by microorganisms, which are present in the most extreme environments of the continent [1-3]. Antarctica's continental ice sheets contain the largest volume of glacial ice, inherently characterized by unfavorable conditions to life, including low temperatures, low water activity, low nutrient availability, and, in their surface layers, exposure to high levels of solar radiation [4, 5]. Glacial ice is formed through the precipitation, accumulation, compaction and recrystallization of snow. Fungi are among the microorganisms reported from components of the Antarctic cryosphere such as soils, snow, rocks, and associated with plants and animals [6]. However, despite their recognized importance for ecosystem functioning in Antarctica and elsewhere, few studies have attempted to recover and identify fungal species from glacial ice and, until now, few species, mainly representing the phyla Ascomycota,

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11.17. Periphyton diversity in two different Antarctic lakes assessed using

metabarcoding

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Periphyton diversity in two different Antarctic lakes assessed using metabarcoding

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Abstract: Antarctic lakes have generally simple periphyton communities when compared with those of lower latitudes. To date, assessment of microbial diversity in Antarctica has relied heavily on traditional direct observation and cultivation methods. In this study, sterilized cotton baits were left submerged for two years in two lakes on King George Island and Deception Island, South Shetland Islands (Maritime Antarctic), followed by assessment of diversity by metabarcoding using high-throughput sequencing. DNA sequences of 44 taxa belonging to four kingdoms and seven phyla were found. Thirty-six taxa were detected in Hennequin Lake on King George Island and 20 taxa were detected in Soto Lake on Deception Island. However, no significant difference in species composition was detected between the two assemblages (Shannon index). Our data suggest that metabarcoding provides a suitable method for the assessment of periphyton biodiversity in oligotrophic Antarctic lakes.

Received 10 November 2020, accepted 6 June 2021

Key words: Deception Island, high-throughput sequencing, internal transcribed spacer, King George Island

Introduction

Antarctica hosts some of the most pristine environments on Earth, as well as experiencing some of the planet's most extreme conditions (Convey *et al.* 2014). Such extreme conditions act as environmental filters (Gonçalves *et al.* 2012). Antarctic lakes are an example of one such extreme environment, often being shallow (< 10 m deep) and typically cold, highly transparent (allowing penetration of high levels of solar radiation) and, in many cases, oligotrophic (Butler *et al.* 2000, Ogaki *et al.* 2019).

Lakes in the climatically less extreme Maritime Antarctic region usually host more complex communities than those of the continental Antarctic and often contain more abundant microcrustacean populations (Butler *et al.* 2000). Typically, continental Antarctic lakes are dominated by photosynthetic and heterotrophic protozoa and a limited number of algae, fungi, bacteria and viruses. Antarctic lakes have a trophic structure that is simple when compared with those of lower latitudes, and energy and nutrient flows are generally dominated by the microbial loop (Laybourn-Parry & Pearce 2007). Lakes of the Maritime Antarctic islands, as exemplified by studies on Signy Island (South Orkney Islands; Butler *et al.*

2000), have more diverse communities, but even in these metazoan diversity is low (Laybourn-Parry & Pearce 2007).

Coastal shallow lakes in the Maritime Antarctic may be subject to eutrophication through the activities of marine vertebrates (e.g. seals and penguins), leading to increased biomass (Izaguirre et al. 2020). Algal diversity is lower than in other parts of the world, although, as is often the case in studies of other microbial groups, the recent application of molecular approaches is starting to reveal higher levels of biodiversity than previously recognized based on traditional morphological techniques (Izaguirre et al. 2020). Protozooplankton or metazooplankton are the top predators in Antarctic lakes (Laybourn-Parry & Pearce 2007). Lacustrine protozooplankton comprise heterotrophic flagellates and ciliates (Izaguirre et al. 2020). Representatives of these groups belonging to the genera Brachionus, Halteria, Notholca, Keratella, Lepadella, Hartmannella, Vannella and Vexillifera have been reported in the freshwater zooplankton of the Antarctic Peninsula, South Shetland Islands and South Orkney Islands (Butler et al. 2000, Hansson et al. 2012). Periphyton, which can be defined as a mixture of autotrophic and heterotrophic organisms embedded in an organic matrix (Peter & Lodge 2009), is usually poorly studied overall (Hansson 1992), and very few studies to date have focused on periphyton

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11.18. Exploring the plant environmental DNA diversity in soil from two sites on Deception Island (Antarctica, South Shetland Islands) using metabarcoding

Antarctic Science page 1 of 10 (2021) © Antarctic Science Ltd 2021



Exploring the plant environmental DNA diversity in soil from two sites on Deception Island (Antarctica, South Shetland Islands) using metabarcoding

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Abstract: The few Antarctic studies to date to have applied metabarcoding in Antarctica have primarily focused on microorganisms. In this study, for the first time, we apply high-throughput sequencing of environmental DNA to investigate the diversity of Embryophyta (Viridiplantae) DNA present in soil samples from two contrasting locations on Deception Island. The first was a relatively undisturbed site within an Antarctic Specially Protected Area at Crater Lake, and the second was a heavily human-impacted site in Whalers Bay. In samples obtained at Crater Lake, 84% of DNA reads represented fungi, 14% represented Chlorophyta and 2% represented Streptophyta, while at Whalers Bay, 79% of reads represented fungi, 20% represented Chlorophyta and < 1% represented Streptophyta, with ~1% of reads being unassigned. Among the Embryophyta we found 16 plant operational taxonomic units from three Divisions, including one Marchantiophyta, eight Bryophyta and seven Magnoliophyta. Sequences of six taxa were detected at both sampling sites, eight only at Whalers Bay and two only at Crater Lake. All of the Magnoliophyta sequences (flowering plants) represent species that are exotic to Antarctica, with most being plausibly linked to human food sources originating from local national research operator and tourism facilities.

Received 30 November 2020, accepted 4 May 2021

Key words: Crater Lake, eDNA, HTS, ITS2, next-generation sequencing, Whalers Bay

Introduction

With only two native angiosperms, ~116 moss species (Ochyra *et al.* 2008, Câmara *et al.* 2019) and ~27 liverwort species (Bednarek-Ochyra 2000), Antarctic vegetation is often overlooked. Diversity levels have largely yet to be assessed using molecular tools and are likely to be underestimated. Recent studies of Antarctic plant molecular diversity (Biersma *et al.* 2018b, Câmara *et al.* 2019) have served to emphasize major gaps in knowledge of bryophyte diversity in the Maritime Antarctic.

It has long been considered that Antarctic coastal areas, where most contemporary terrestrial biodiversity is found, were largely covered by ice during the last glacial maximum (*ca.* 18–20 ky BP), as well as previous glaciations from the Miocene onwards (for overviews, see Convey *et al.* 2020, Fraser *et al.* 2012). If so, this would suggest that most plants present today should be relatively recent in origin, colonizing as ice retreated. This possibility has been widely challenged in recent years by a range of molecular biological and biogeographical studies across multiple groups of invertebrates, microbes and plants (Chong *et al.* 2015, Iakovenko *et al.* 2015, Biersma *et al.* 2018b, Cakil *et al.* 2021, Verleyen *et al.* 2021) that support a much more ancient origin and Antarctic distinctness of much of the contemporary terrestrial biota that must therefore have survived *in situ* in Antarctica during repeated glaciations (Convey *et al.* 2020). However, some studies of both mosses (Biersma *et al.* 2018a) and the native angiosperm *Colobanthus quitensis* (Biersma *et al.* 2020) have pointed to species with more recent, mid- to late Pleistocene, origins in Antarctica. This suggests that both persistence and *de novo* colonization have played important roles in forming the contemporary Antarctic botanical diversity.

Although studies have addressed the generalities of Antarctic colonization processes (e.g. Hughes *et al.* 2006), very few have yet documented or quantified stages in its occurrence, such as natural dispersal in air currents or zoochoric attachment to bird plumage (documented at a local scale within Antarctica (Parnikoza *et al.* 2012) but not in birds arriving from lower latitudes). No instances of natural colonists becoming established in

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11.19. Genome-resolved metagenomics analysis provides insights into the ecological

role of Thaumarchaeota in the Amazon River and its plume

Pinto *et al. BMC Microbiology* (2020) 20:13 https://doi.org/10.1186/s12866-020-1698-x

RESEARCH ARTICLE

BMC Microbiology

Open Access

Genome-resolved metagenomics analysis provides insights into the ecological role of Thaumarchaeota in the Amazon River and its plume

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Abstract

Background: Thaumarchaeota are abundant in the Amazon River, where they are the only ammonia-oxidizing archaea. Despite the importance of Thaumarchaeota, little is known about their physiology, mainly because few isolates are available for study. Therefore, information about Thaumarchaeota was obtained primarily from genomic studies. The aim of this study was to investigate the ecological roles of Thaumarchaeota in the Amazon River and the Amazon River plume.

Results: The archaeal community of the shallow in Amazon River and its plume is dominated by Thaumarchaeota lineages from group 1.1a, which are mainly affiliated to *Candidatus* Nitrosotenuis uzonensis, members of order Nitrosopumilales, *Candidatus* Nitrosoarchaeum, and *Candidatus* Nitrosopelagicus sp. While Thaumarchaeota sequences have decreased their relative abundance in the plume, *Candidatus* Nitrosopelagicus has increased. One genome was recovered from metagenomic data of the Amazon River (ThauR71 [1.05 Mpb]), and two from metagenomic data of the Amazon River plume (ThauP25 [0.94 Mpb] and ThauP41 [1.26 Mpb]). Phylogenetic analysis placed all three Amazon genome bins in Thaumarchaeota Group 1.1a. The annotation revealed that most genes are assigned to the COG subcategory coenzyme transport and metabolism. All three genomes contain genes involved in the hydroxypropionate/hydroxybutyrate cycle, glycolysis, tricarboxylic acid cycle, oxidative phosphorylation. However, ammonia-monooxygenase genes were detected only in ThauP41 and ThauR71. Glycoside hydrolases and auxiliary activities genes were detected only in ThauP25.

Conclusions: Our data indicate that Amazon River is a source of Thaumarchaeota, where these organisms are important for primary production, vitamin production, and nitrification.

Keywords: Thaumarchaeota, Amazon River, Amazon River plume, Metagenome-assembled genome

Background

Thaumarchaeota was proposed as an archaeal phylum in 2008 [1]. These organisms were previously known as "mesophilic Crenarchaeota" based on phylogenetic analyses of the large-subunit and small-subunit rRNA gene, which weakly suggested that they form a sister group with Crenarchaeota [1–3]. However, analysis of ribosomal

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proteins and comparisons of specific proteins showed that Thaumarchaeota represents a phylum more closely related to Euryarchaeota than to Crenarchaeota [1, 4–6]. In addition, genomic analysis showed that Thaumarchaeota possesses genomic features that are not present in either Euryarchaeota or Crenarchaeota [1, 7].

Thaumarchaeota has several lineages that are not yet well defined; the most commonly used nomenclature for these lineages is Groups 1.1a, 1.1a-associated, 1.1b, ThAOA, 1.1c, and 1.3 [8–11]. Groups 1.1a, 1.1a-associated, ThAOA, and 1.1b, which comprise the class

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11.20. Unraveling the xylanolytic potential of Acidobacteria bacterium AB60 from

Cerrado soils



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RESEARCH LETTER - Physiology & Biochemistry

Unraveling the xylanolytic potential of Acidobacteria bacterium AB60 from Cerrado soils

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ABSTRACT

The presence of genes for glycosyl hydrolases in many Acidobacteria genomes indicates an important role in the degradation of plant cell wall material. Acidobacteria bacterium AB60 was obtained from Cerrado oligotrophic soil in Brazil, where this phylum is abundant. The 16S rRNA gene analyses showed that AB60 was closely related to the genera Occallatibacter and Telmatobacter. However, AB60 grew on xylan as carbon source, which was not observed in Occallatbacter species; but growth was not detected on medium containing carboxymethyl cellulose, as observed in Telmatobacter. Nevertheless, the genome analysis of AB60 revealed genes for the enzymes involved in cellulose as well as xylan degradation. In addition to enzymes involved in xylan degradation, α -L-rhamnosidase was detected in the cultures of AB60. Functional screening of a small-insert genomic library did not identify any clones capable of carboxymethyl cellulose degradation, but open reading frames coding α -L-arabinofuranosidase and α -L-rhamnosidase were present in clones showing xylan degradation halos. Both enzymes act on the lateral chains of heteropolymers such as pectin and some hemicelluloses. These results indicate that the hydrolysis of α -linked sugars may offer a metabolic niche for slow-growing Acidobacteria, allowing them to co-exist with other plant-degrading microbes that hydrolyze β -linked sugars from cellulose or hemicellulose backbones.

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11.21. Soil Acidobacteria Strain AB23 Resistance to Oxidative Stress Through

Production of Carotenoids

Microbial Ecology https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-020-01548-z

SOIL MICROBIOLOGY



Soil Acidobacteria Strain AB23 Resistance to Oxidative Stress Through Production of Carotenoids

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Abstract

Metagenomic studies revealed the prevalence of *Acidobacteria* in soils, but the physiological and ecological reasons for their success are not well understood. Many *Acidobacteria* exhibit carotenoid-related pigments, which may be involved in their tolerance of environmental stress. The aim of this work was to investigate the role of the orange pigments produced by *Acidobacteria* strain AB23 isolated from a savannah-like soil and to identify putative carotenoid genes in *Acidobacteria* genomes. Phylogenetic analysis revealed that strain AB23 belongs to the *Occallatibacter* genus from the class *Acidobacteriia* (subdivision 1). Strain AB23 produced carotenoids in the presence of light and vitamins; however, the growth rate and biomass decreased when cells were exposed to light. The presence of carotenoids resulted in tolerance to hydrogen peroxide. Comparative genomics revealed that all members of *Acidobacteriia* with available genomes possess the complete gene cluster for phytoene production. Some *Acidobacteriia* members have an additional gene cluster that may be involved in the production of colored carotenoids. Both colored and colorless carotenoids are involved in tolerance to oxidative stress. These results show that the presence of carotenoid genes is widespread among *Acidobacteriia*. Light and atmospheric oxygen stimulate carotenoid synthesis, but there are other natural sources of oxidative stress in soils. Tolerance to environmental oxidative stress provided by carotenoids may offer a competitive advantage for *Acidobacteria* in soils.

Keywords Acidobacteria genome · Occallatibacter · Oxidative stress · Pigments · Carotenoids

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-020-01548-z) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

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Introduction

Acidobacteria is the second most abundant phylum in soil, after Proteobacteria. The Class Acidobacteria (former subdivision 1) is among the dominant Acidobacteria populations in soils [1], and initial studies indicated that these bacteria are slow-growing [2]. This abundance of Acidobacteria is unexpected, since other phyla composed of slow-growing bacteria, such as Chloroflexi, Gemmatimonadetes, and Planctomycetes, are less abundant in soil [3]. Metagenomic analyses revealed that members of Acidobacteria are not only abundant in soil but are also found in polluted environments contaminated with petroleum, linear alkylbenzene sulfonate, p-nitrophenol, and heavy metals such as uranium and nickel [4–9]. Several studies using metagenomics have attempted to explain the ubiquity and abundance of Acidobacteria [2], but fewer use the physiological characteristics of cultured isolates.

Some physiological features related to environmental persistence are well known and were previously linked to

11.22. Seasonal Variations in Soil Microbiota Profile of Termite (Syntermes wheeleri)

Mounds in the Brazilian Tropical Savanna





Article Seasonal Variations in Soil Microbiota Profile of Termite (Syntermes wheeleri) Mounds in the Brazilian Tropical Savanna

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Abstract: Eusocial animals, such as the termites, often build a nest-like structure called a mound that provides shelter with stable internal conditions and protection against predators. Termites are important components of the Brazilian Cerrado biota. This study aimed to investigate the bacterial community composition and diversity of the Syntermes wheeleri termite-mound soil using culture-independent approaches. We considered the vertical profile by comparing two different mound depths (mound surface and 60 cm) and seasonality with samplings during the rainy and dry seasons. We compared the mound soil microbiota to the adjacent soil without the influence of the mound to test the hypothesis that the Cerrado soil bacterial community was more diverse and more susceptible to seasonality than the mound soil microbiota. The results support the hypothesis that the Cerrado soil bacterial community is more diverse than the mound soil and also has a higher variability among seasons. The number of observed OTUs (Operational Taxonomic Units) was used to express bacterial richness, and it indicates that soil moisture has an effect on the community distribution and richness of the Cerrado samples in comparison to mound samples, which remain stable across seasons. This could be a consequence of the protective role of the mound for the termite colony. The overall community taxonomic profile was similar between soil samples, especially when compared to the taxonomic composition of the Syntermes wheeleri termite's gut, which might be explained by the different characteristics and functionality between the soil and the gut microbial community.

Keywords: termite; mound; soil; Cerrado; soil microbiology; environmental microbiology

1. Introduction

Cerrado is the richest tropical savanna in the world [1]. It represents 24% of the Brazilian territory and it is the second largest biome after the Amazon rainforest [2,3]. The Cerrado soils are predominantly Oxisols characterized by their acidity, red color, low nutrient concentrations, and high clay content and aluminum concentration [3–5]. This biome is characterized by dry winters and rainy summers, with markedly seasonal rainfall having a great impact on the soil microbiology function [6,7].

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11.23. Diversity and Ecology of Chlorophyta (Viridiplantae) Assemblages in Protected and Non-protected Sites in Deception Island (Antarctica, South Shetland Islands) Assessed Using an NGS Approach

Microbial Ecology https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-020-01584-9

ENVIRONMENTAL MICROBIOLOGY



Diversity and Ecology of Chlorophyta (Viridiplantae) Assemblages in Protected and Non-protected Sites in Deception Island (Antarctica, South Shetland Islands) Assessed Using an NGS Approach

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Abstract

Assessment of the diversity of algal assemblages in Antarctica has until now largely relied on traditional microbiological culture approaches. Here we used DNA metabarcoding through high-throughput sequencing (HTS) to assess the uncultured algal diversity at two sites on Deception Island, Antarctica. The first was a relatively undisturbed site within an Antarctic Specially Protected Area (ASPA 140), and the second was a site heavily impacted by human visitation, the Whalers Bay historic site. We detected 65 distinct algal taxa, 50 from within ASPA 140 and 61 from Whalers Bay. Of these taxa, 46 were common to both sites, and 19 only occurred at one site. Algal richness was about six times greater than reported in previous studies using culture methods. A high proportion of DNA reads obtained was assigned to the highly invasive species *Caulerpa webbiana* at Whalers Bay, and the potentially pathogenic genus *Desmodesmus* was found at both sites. Our data demonstrate that important differences exist between these two protected and human-impacted sites on Deception Island in terms of algal diversity, richness, and abundance. The South Shetland Islands have experienced considerable effects of climate change in recent decades, while warming through geothermal activity on Deception Island itself makes this island one of the most vulnerable to colonization by non-native species. The detection of DNA of non-native taxa highlights concerns about how human impacts, which take place primarily through tourism and national research operations, may influence future biological colonization processes in Antarctica.

 $\textbf{Keywords} \hspace{0.1 cm} \text{Antarctica} \cdot \text{Green algae} \cdot \text{High-throughput sequencing} \cdot \text{South Shetland Islands}$

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-020-01584-9) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

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Introduction

Deception Island, located in the South Shetland Islands, with a maximum altitude of 576 m a.s.l., is one of very few active volcanoes in the Antarctic Treaty area (above latitude 60° S) and one of only two in the region that has had humanwitnessed eruptions [1]. It is a relatively young volcanic island, with an age less than 100 kya [2] and is still undergoing colonization. Deception Island is horseshoe-shaped with a diameter of ca. 15 km. Its inner flooded caldera forms Foster Bay, and about 57% of its land surface is currently covered by ice [1, 3]. Two national Antarctic research stations are presently active on the island (the Argentinean Decepción and Spanish Gabriel de Castilla), and historically Chile and the UK also operated stations on the island. The Chilean station was destroyed and the British station heavily damaged during the most recent series of eruptions on the island in the late 1960s [3]. Whalers Bay (62° 59' S, 60° 34' W) was also the

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11.24. Muricauda brasiliensis sp. nov., isolated from a mat-forming cyanobacterial

culture

Brazilian Journal of Microbiology https://doi.org/10.1007/s42770-020-00400-3



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Muricauda brasiliensis sp. nov., isolated from a mat-forming cyanobacterial culture

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Abstract

Strain K001 was isolated from a cyanobacterial culture derived from Abrolhos, a reef bank microbial mat (South Atlantic Ocean—Brazil). Cells of K001 are Gram stain–negative, catalase and oxidase-positive, non-motile, rod-shaped, and with or without appendages. Phylogenetic analysis based on 16S rRNA gene sequences showed that strain K001 belongs to the genus *Muricauda*. The highest strain K001 16S rRNA gene identity, ANI, and dDDH, respectively, are with *M. aquimarina* (98.90%, 79.23, 21.60%), *M. ruestringensis* (98.20%, 80.82, 23.40%), and *M. lutimaris* (97.86%, 79.23, 22.70%). The strain grows at 15–37 °C and between 0.5 and 10% NaCl. The major fatty acids of strain K001 are iso-C_{15:0}, iso-C_{15:1} G, iso-C_{17:0} 3-OH, and summed feature 3 (C_{16:1} ω 6c and/or C_{16:1} ω 7c). The polar lipids are represented by phosphatidylethanolamine, three unidentified aminolipids, and three unidentified polar lipids. The major respiratory quinone is MK-6. The G+C content of the DNA of strain K001 is 41.62 mol%. Based on polyphasic analysis of strain K001, it was identified as a novel representative of the genus *Muricauda* and was named *Muricauda brasiliensis* sp. nov. The type strain is K001 (=CBMAI 2315^T = CBAS 752^T).

Keywords Flavobacteriaceae · Muricauda brasiliensis · Cyanobacterial culture · Abrolhos reef bank

In order to investigate heterotrophic bacteria associated with cyanobacterial cultures from Abrolhos reef bank (South Atlantic Ocean—17° 57' S, 38° 42' W), several strains were

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isolated. The strain K001 was selected for further analysis in

part due to its potential for pigment production. Based on 16S

rRNA gene sequence analyses, strain K001 belongs to the genus

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11.25. DNA Metabarcoding to Assess the Diversity of Airborne Fungi Present over Keller Peninsula, King George Island, Antarctica

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FUNGAL MICROBIOLOGY



DNA Metabarcoding to Assess the Diversity of Airborne Fungi Present over Keller Peninsula, King George Island, Antarctica

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Abstract

We assessed fungal diversity present in air samples obtained from King George Island, Antarctica, using DNA metabarcoding through high-throughput sequencing. We detected 186 fungal amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) dominated by the phyla *Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Mortierellomycota, Mucoromycota*, and *Chytridiomycota*. Fungi sp. 1, *Agaricomycetes* sp. 1, *Mortierella parvispora, Mortierella* sp. 2, *Penicillium* sp., *Pseudogymnoascus roseus, Microdochium lycopodinum, Mortierella gamsii, Arrhenia* sp., *Cladosporium* sp., *Mortierella fimbricystis, Moniliella pollinis, Omphalina* sp., *Mortierella antarctica*, and *Pseudogymnoascus appendiculatus* were the most dominant ASVs. In addition, several ASVs could only be identified at higher taxonomic levels and may represent previously unknown fungi and/or new records for Antarctica. The fungi detected in the air displayed high indices of diversity, richness, and dominance. The airborne fungal diversity included saprophytic, mutualistic, and plant and animal opportunistic pathogenic taxa. The diversity of taxa detected reinforces the hypothesis that the Antarctic airspora includes fungal propagules of both intra- and inter-continental origin. If regional Antarctice environmental conditions ameliorate further in concert with climate warming, these fungi might be able to reactivate and colonize different Antarctic ecosystems, with as yet unknown consequences for ecosystem function in Antarctica. Further aeromycological studies are necessary to understand how and from where these fungi arrive and move within Antarctica and if environmental changes will encourage the development of non-native fungal species in Antarctica.

Keywords Antarctic Peninsula · Ecology · Fungi · Metabarcoding · Taxonomy

Introduction

The pristine environments of Antarctica offer unique opportunities to study how biological diversity disperses and

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colonizes habitats under extreme conditions. Among the barriers that isolate Antarctica from other Southern Hemisphere landmasses (such as South America, Africa and Oceania) are the atmospheric circumpolar vortex (resulting in the consistently strong westerly winds flowing around the continent) and the continent's extreme environmental conditions including cold temperatures and typically oligotrophic conditions [1–3]. Nonetheless, over time, Antarctic ecosystems receive a rain of microbial particles from other parts of the world [4–8], the so-called diaspore rain [9]. However, how viruses, bacteria, microalgae, and fungi, as well as plant propagules, arrive and circulate in Antarctica remains poorly understood [8, 10, 11].

Fungi occur in virtually all terrestrial ecosystems of Antarctica. Many fungi have small and light spores and other propagules that in principle can be easily dispersed by air currents globally, which may arrive in Antarctica. Among the fungal diversity currently known from Antarctica, globally cosmopolitan taxa often appear to dominate in many

11.26. DNA metabarcoding of fungal diversity in air and snow of Livingston Island, South Shetland Islands, Antarctica

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OPEN DNA metabarcoding of fungal diversity in air and snow of Livingston Island, South Shetland Islands, Antarctica

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We assessed fungal diversity present in air and freshly deposited snow samples obtained from Livingston Island, Antarctica, using DNA metabarcoding through high throughput sequencing (HTS). A total of 740 m³ of air were pumped through a 0.22 µm membrane. Snow obtained shortly after deposition was kept at room temperature and yielded 3.760 L of water, which was filtered using Sterivex membranes of 0.22 μm mesh size. The total DNA present was extracted and sequenced. We detected 171 fungal amplicon sequence variants (ASVs), 70 from the air and 142 from the snow. They were dominated by the phyla Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Mortierellomycota and Mucoromycota, Pseudogymnoascus, Cladosporium, Mortierella and Penicillium sp. were the most dominant ASVs detected in the air in rank order. In snow, Cladosporium, Pseudogymnoascus, Penicillium, Meyerozyma, Lecidea, Malassezia, Hanseniaspora, Austroplaca, Mortierella, Rhodotorula, Penicillium, Thelebolus, Aspergillus, Poaceicola, Glarea and Lecanora were the dominant ASVs present. In general, the two fungal assemblages displayed high diversity, richness, and dominance indices, with the assemblage found in snow having the highest diversity indices. Of the total fungal ASVs detected, 29 were only present in the air sample and 101 in the snow sample, with only 41 present in both samples; however, when only the dominant taxa from both samples were compared none occurred only in the air and, among the rare portion, 26 taxa occurred in both air and snow. Application of HTS revealed the presence of a more diverse fungal community in the air and snow of Livingston Island in comparison with studies using traditional isolation methods. The assemblages were dominated by cold-adapted and cosmopolitan fungal taxa, including members of the genera Pseudogymnoascus, Malassezia and Rhodotorula, which include some taxa reported as opportunistic. Our results support the hypothesis that the presence of microbiota in the airspora indicates the possibility of dispersal around Antarctica in the air column. However, further aeromycology studies are required to understand the dynamics of fungal dispersal within and beyond Antarctica.

Antarctica represents one of the most pristine regions of the planet and, despite the multiple extreme conditions that characterize it, harbours a considerable terrestrial biodiversity, mainly of microorganisms, that are able to survive and colonize its different environments. Due the continent's isolation from lower latitudes by the oceanic Antarctic Circumpolar Current and atmospheric circulation, the lack of trophic complexity, and the vulner-ability of its endemic biodiversity to environmental changes and anthropogenic influences, Antarctica provides a unique opportunity for microbial aerobiology studies seeking to understand how airspora are transported to and within Antarctica.¹². The extent to which Antarctic environments receive microbial propagules, potentially including globally cosmopolitan species from outside Antarctica, emains largely unstudied, although they have been detected in the air column and after deposition, for instance in snow and ice¹⁻⁷. According to Archer et al.², microbial communities present in ecosystems of isolated regions of Antarctica, as the Victoria Land Dry

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11.27. DNA metabarcoding uncovers fungal diversity in soils of protected and nonprotected areas on Deception Island, Antarctica

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OPEN DNA metabarcoding uncovers fungal diversity in soils of protected and non-protected areas on Deception Island, Antarctica

Luiz Henrique Rosa¹, Thamar Holanda da Silva¹, Mayara Baptistucci Ogaki¹, Otávio Henrique Bezerra Pinto², Michael Stech³, Peter Convey⁴, Micheline Carvalho-Silva⁵, Carlos Augusto Rosa¹ & Paulo E. A. S. Câmara⁵

We assessed soil fungal diversity at two sites on Deception Island, South Shetland Islands, Antarctica using DNA metabarcoding analysis. The first site was a relatively undisturbed area, and the second was much more heavily impacted by research and tourism. We detected 346 fungal amplicon sequence variants dominated by the phyla Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Mortierellomycota and Chytridiomycota. We also detected taxa belonging to the rare phyla Mucoromycota and Rozellomycota, which have been difficult to detect in Antarctica by traditional isolation methods. Cladosporium sp., Pseudogymnoascus roseus, Leotiomycetes sp. 2, Penicillium sp., Mortierella sp. 1, Mortierella sp. 2, Pseudogymnoascus appendiculatus and Pseudogymnoascus sp. were the most dominant fungi. In addition, 440,153 of the total of 1,214,875 reads detected could be classified only at the level of Fungi. In both sampling areas the DNA of opportunistic, phytopathogenic and symbiotic fungi were detected, which might have been introduced by human activities, transported by birds or wind, and/or represent resident fungi not previously reported from Antarctica. Further long-term studies are required to elucidate how biological colonization in the island may be affected by climatic changes and/or other anthropogenic influences.

The pristine environments of Antarctica are used as field laboratories to support taxonomic, ecological, evolutionary and biotechnological studies. Antarctic environments experience multiple extreme conditions including low temperatures, acidic and alkaline pH, ultra-oligotrophic conditions, freeze-thaw cycles, salinity stress, desiccation, wind abrasion and high radiation levels¹ and, for these reasons, offer unique opportunities to study the diversity of fungi².

In the latter part of the Twentieth Century, the Antarctic Peninsula region was one of the regions of the planet most affected by climatic changes. Deception Island, located in the South Shetland Islands is one of very few active volcances in the Antarctic Treaty area. Two summer-only research stations are presently active on the island (the Argentinian Decepción and Spanish Gabriel de Castilla). In addition, a shore-based whaling station operated in Whalers Bay in the early Twentieth Century². The combination of unique geology, history, biota and aesthetic values, as well as the active presence of multiple national operators, underlie the designation of the entire island as an Antarctic Specially Managed Area (ASMA 4). In addition, Deception Island includes two Antarctic Gpecially Protected Areas (ASPAs), designated as ASPAs 140 (terrestrial, formed of multiple sub-sites) and 145 (marine). Deception Island is one of the best-known locations in Antarctica, visited by both researchers and tourists⁴, with more than 55,489 tourists visiting the island in the summer of 2018–2019 (https://iaato.org/tourism-statistics-327mnsyd), which generates pressure on its ecosystems. The island is an exceptional location even within Antarctica, as it is a young volcanic island formed less than 100 kya⁵ and still in the process of biological colonization.

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Anexo 1. Análise de rede do perfil metabólico dos MAGs de alta qualidade recuperados do microbioma de esponjas do GARS. (A) *Agelas dispar*; (B) *Agelas clathrodes* 1; (C) *Agelas clathrodes* 2; (D) *Geodia cf. corticostylifera*; (E) *Geodia neptuni*; (F) *Geodia* sp.. As cores estão preenchidas pela taxonomia. A espessura das redes representa a média da cobertura. Os círculos pretos representam a quantidade de redes para as funções metabólicas.

12. ANEXO