

1 **Towards the identification of the molecular toolkit involved in scale worm bioluminescence**
2 **(Polinoidea, Annelida).**

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14 **Abstract**

15 **Background:** Bioluminescence, or the ability of a living organism to produce light, has evolved
16 independently in numerous taxa inhabiting a panoply of ecosystems, although it is more frequent
17 among marine animals. Scale worms are a group of marine polynoid annelids characterized by
18 having dorsal scales, known as elytra, capable of emitting bioluminescent light by a mostly
19 unknown molecular mechanism that may involve a photoprotein called polynoidin. Here, we used
20 RNA-seq data to characterize the expression of genes potentially involved in light production in
21 the polynoid species *Harmothoe imbricata* (Linnaeus, 1767) and *Harmothoe areolata* (Grube,
22 1860) across tissues of the specimens. We also compared the transcriptomes of the selected
23 species with other bioluminescent and non-bioluminescent polynoids, to identify shared
24 orthologous genes potentially involved in light production. In addition, we investigated the
25 disposition of the photocytes on the elytra using confocal microscopy and histological analyses.

26 **Results:** Our results showed a total of 16 candidate genes, 15 orthologous genes and 12 enriched
27 GO terms potentially involved in bioluminescence, including genes related with oxidative stress,
28 cytoskeleton, nervous system, stress response, wounding response, eye constituents and metabolic
29 pathways. We also confirmed the presence of photocytes in both species, which appeared
30 distributed around the elyrophore.

31 **Conclusions:** Among the genes found potentially implicated in bioluminescence we suggest that
32 the oxidoreductase protein, peroxidasin, could be a polynoidin candidate since it appears
33 overexpressed in the elytra of both species and it is located in the endoplasmic reticulum, where
34 this photoprotein has been described to be found.

35 **Keywords:** bioluminescence, oxidoreductase, photocyte, polynoids, polynoidin.

36

37 **Background**

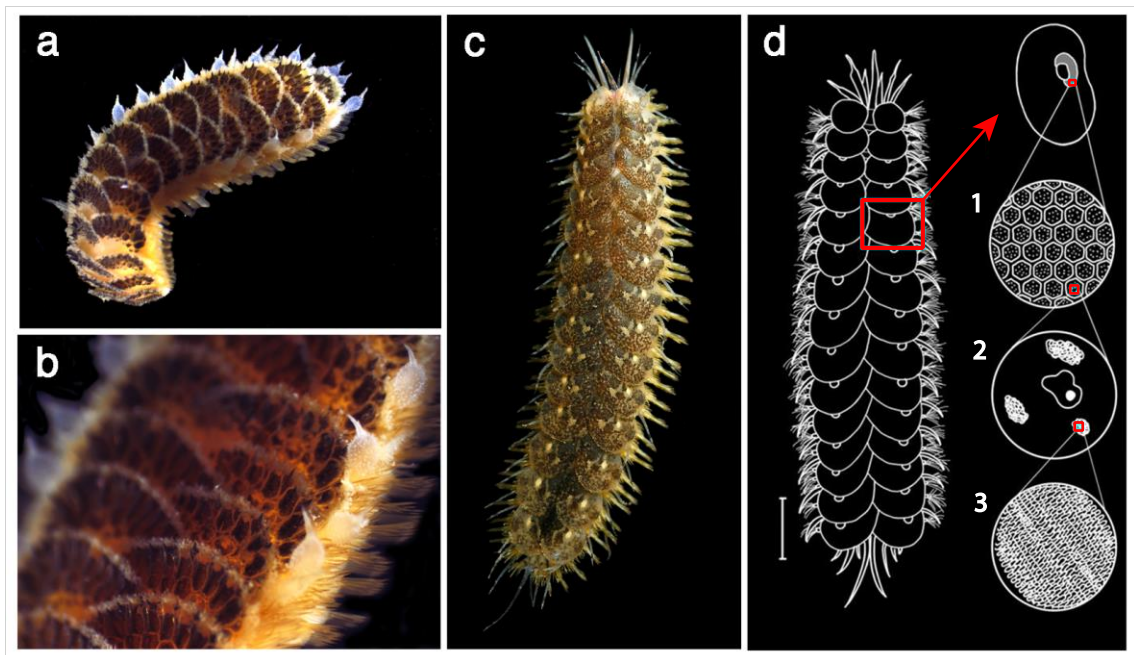
38 Bioluminescence, the ability to produce light by a living organism, is widespread through the Tree
39 of Life. The production of bioluminescence normally involves the oxidation of a light emitting
40 photoprotein, that in some organisms is called luciferin, in a chemical reaction catalysed by an
41 enzyme, called luciferase, resulting in the emission of a photon [1, 2]. Biological mechanisms
42 behind light emission have evolved independently in both terrestrial and aquatic organisms from
43 polar to tropical regions and from coastal waters to the open ocean [3], being more frequent among
44 marine dwellers [4]. There are more than 10,000 species that have disparate mechanisms for the
45 production of light [5], the majority of which are still unknown. The ability to produce light has
46 evolved independently in the different organism lineages, resulting unique mechanisms through
47 which the different taxa produce light. This has led to diversity not only in how each taxon
48 produces light but also in the wavelengths emitted and the specific functions associated with light
49 emission [4–11]. Although there is diversity in the chemical nature of the light-emitting proteins
50 responsible for the production of light, the generic terms of luciferase for the enzymes involved
51 and luciferin for the substrate have become widely accepted [3]. The most studied luciferin was
52 originally described from fireflies, and since then only a few have been characterized, some of

53 which are shared by different lineages [1, 12, 13]. The chemical reaction involved in
54 bioluminescence should be sufficiently energetic to produce an excited molecule that will
55 generate a visible photon when it relaxes, and oxidation reactions fit well into this description,
56 with the breakdown of peroxide bonds among the most widespread mechanism [3]. In this sense,
57 most animal lineages possess different kinds of luciferases for light production [5].

58 Only in the phylum Annelida, there are more than 100 bioluminescent species described
59 to date [11]. Among these, there are important differences in the chemistry of the bioluminescence
60 systems used by marine and terrestrial taxa, which suggests the independent origin of
61 bioluminescence [14–18]. Polynoids, also known as scale worms, are a group of marine annelids
62 with several bioluminescent species reported, including members of the genera *Gattyana*,
63 *Malmgrenia*, *Polynoe* and *Harmothoe* [11, 16, 19–21] and possibly *Neopolynoe* [10]. Polynoids
64 are characterized by a series of paired structures denominated scales or elytra which are arranged
65 in two rows covering entirely or partially the length of the dorsum [22] (Fig. 1). The elytra are
66 dorsal cirri modified into flat, circular disc-like plates that are attached to the body by a thin
67 layered structure called elyrophore (Fig. 1). The scales serve a wide variety of functions,
68 including egg brooding, facilitating water circulation and also enabling defensive behaviors [23,
69 24]. When threatened, luminous polynoids emit flashes of light to startle predators that come from
70 the ventral epithelium of the elytra, which has a layer of bioluminescent cells called photocytes
71 not found in non-luminous species [19, 25]. If the stimulus is strong, one or more glowing elytra
72 might be detached from the insertion zone of the elyrophore while the animal swims away [16,
73 19, 24–26]. The elytra, despite not being attached to the body anymore, continue producing
74 flashes of light for some time, catching the attention of the predator that follows the light source,
75 allowing the polynoid time to escape [24]. Under extreme danger, polynoids might autotomize
76 the entire posterior end of the body. When this happens, the elytra of the posterior end emits light
77 that attracts the predator while the rest of the animal remains dark and escapes to later regenerate
78 the missing segments [19, 27]. Therefore, bioluminescence in scale worms is thought to serve
79 mainly as a warning or distracting mechanism for defense, as elytra are easily autotomized and

80 emit bright flashes of light for some time, acting as a sacrificial lure and allowing the animal to
81 escape avoiding potential threats [1, 16, 19, 24, 28].

82 Morphologically, elytra are composed of a unicellular epidermis, which is interrupted by
83 the insertion of a muscular elyrophore, covered by a cuticular layer. A main nerve trunk traverses
84 the elyrophore branches into nerves that cover the whole structure. The efferent nerve fibres from
85 the main nerve trunk are connect to the photogenic cells, known as photocytes [19] located
86 ventrally, around the elyrophore zone. Each photocyte contains 30 to 50 fluorescent photosomes,
87 the bioluminescent organelles, arranged around the nucleus of the photocytes [29] and linked by
88 various junctions [30]. The polygonal-shaped photocytes exhibit a granular structure composed
89 of undulating microtubules (Fig. 1d), considered to produce secretions implicated in
90 bioluminescence production [29].



91

92 **Figure 1. Photographs of *H. areolata* and *H. imbricata* with a diagram representing the**
93 **bioluminescence system. (a-b).** Images of *Harmothoe areolata* with a close-up of the dorsum
94 with the elytra in detail. (c). Dorsal view of *Harmothoe imbricata*. (d). Diagram representing an
95 individual of the polynoidae family showing the disposition of the bioluminescent system. The
96 shaded zone of the elytra corresponds to the bioluminescent area. (1). Zoom of this area where
97 the photocytes are arranged in a mosaic pattern. (2). A magnified photocyte with three

98 photosomes and a nucleus. (3). The paracrystalline structure of the endoplasmic reticulum of the
99 photosomes. (Scale = 5 mm). Modified from *Ouldali et al., 2018* [31].

100

101 Light production in scale worms involves a membrane photoprotein of about 65 kDa
102 called polynoidin, located in the membrane of the photosomes [32] and triggered by superoxide
103 or hydroxyl radicals in the presence of Ca^{2+} and Fe^{2+} [30, 32]. The oxidation of the reduced flavin
104 present in the photosomes is hypothesized to produce the superoxide or hydroxyl radicals [16, 29]
105 to trigger light production. Interestingly, polynoidin is also present in non-luminescent scale
106 worms suggesting that bioluminescence might have originated from a mechanism able to quench
107 superoxide radicals [25]. Previous studies of polynoid bioluminescence have been mostly focused
108 on the morphology and ultrastructure of the elytra, the biochemistry of light emission by
109 polynoidin, and the electrophysiology of the photogenic epithelium [19, 25, 30, 32–35]. However,
110 the genetic machinery behind bioluminescence in this group of marine annelids is currently
111 unknown. Here, we take advantage of RNA-Seq based differential gene expression analysis to
112 identify genes potentially involved in scale worm bioluminescence and investigate the
113 morphology of the elytra and the structure of the bioluminescent system in two polynoid species:
114 *Harmothoe imbricata* (Linnaeus, 1767) [36] and *Harmothoe areolata* (Grube, 1860) [37]. For this
115 purpose, we generated RNA-Seq libraries of both elytra and the posterior end of the body and
116 performed differential expression analyses to identify candidate genes potentially involved in
117 light production. Our results suggest that a potential candidate for polynoidin could be a
118 peroxidase homolog that has been found overexpressed in the elytra of both studied
119 bioluminescent species. Furthermore, numerous transcripts were identified in connection with
120 secondary aspects of the bioluminescent mechanism, encompassing those linked to a response to
121 injury and stress, as well as others correlated with the composition of the photosomes.

122

123 **Results**

124 **Transcriptomic and differential expression analyses**

125 The sequencing of the six libraries prepared for *Harmothoe imbricata* resulted in a total of 96.9
126 million raw reads. The filtered reads examined with FastQC were assembled *de novo* producing
127 a reference transcriptome of 384,174 transcripts including 303,091,081 assembled base pairs (bp)
128 and an N50 value of 1,439 [see Additional file 1]. The sequencing of the six libraries prepared for
129 *H. areolata* resulted in a total of 153.4 million raw reads. The filtered reads examined with FastQC
130 were assembled *de novo* producing a reference transcriptome of 513,553 transcripts including
131 377,970,784 assembled base pairs (bp) and a N50 value of 807 [see Additional file 1]. The
132 completeness of the transcriptomes based on BUSCO values was high compared to that of other
133 transcriptomic analyses of annelids [38].

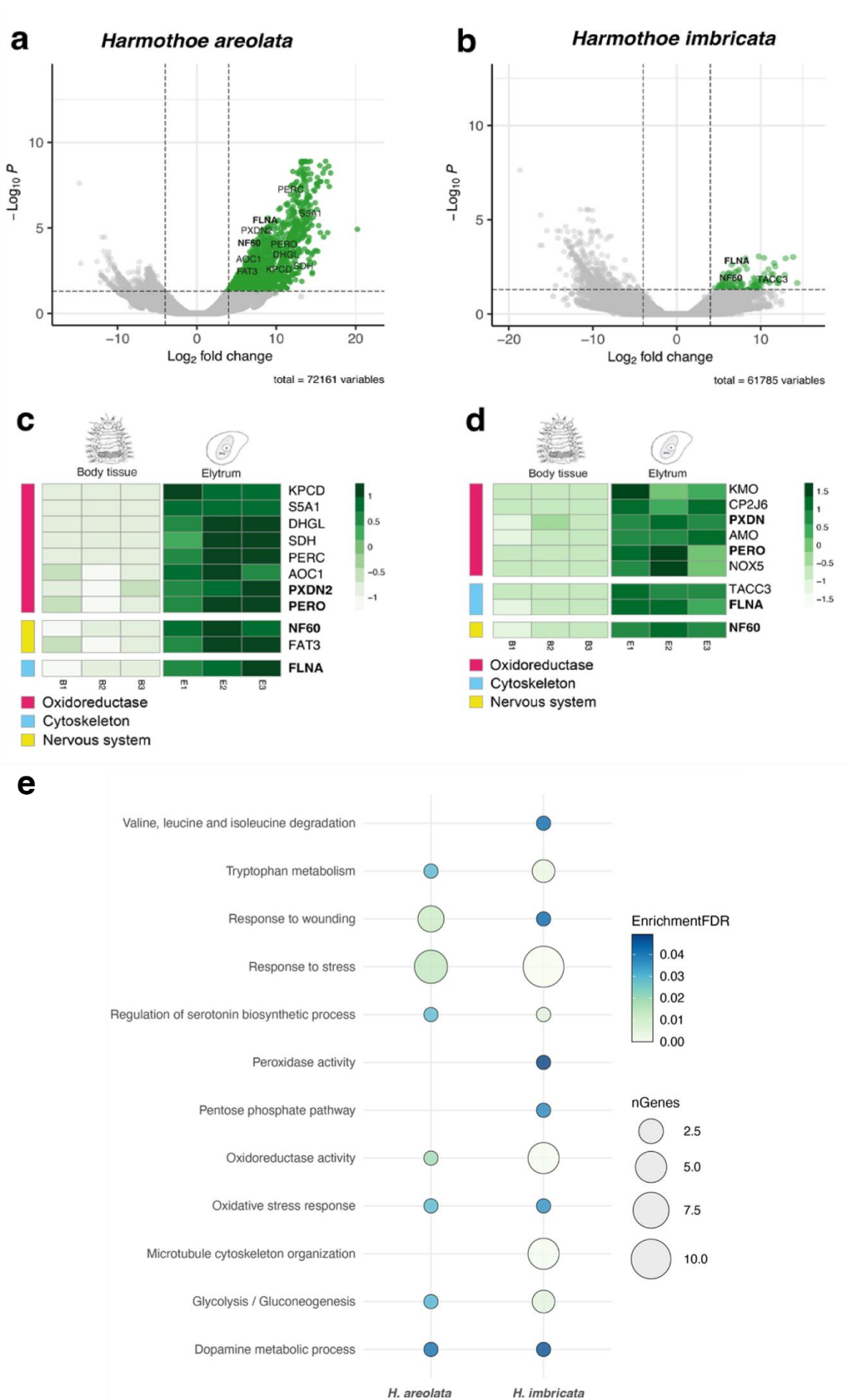
134 The differential gene expression (DGE) analysis for *H. imbricata* resulted in a total of
135 61,785 transcripts differentially expressed, of which 331 were upregulated in the elytra (Fig. 2a).
136 Of the upregulated transcripts, only 111 could be functionally annotated [see Additional file 2].
137 To identify genes potentially involved in bioluminescence production, we focused our
138 downstream analyses only on the annotated transcripts differentially expressed in the elytra. The
139 DGE analysis for *H. areolata* resulted in a total of 72,161 transcripts differentially expressed [see
140 Additional file 2], of which 475 were upregulated in the elytra (Fig. 2b). Of the upregulated
141 transcripts, only 65 could be functionally annotated, and again, we focused on those to identify
142 transcripts potentially involved in bioluminescence.

143 Of the 331 transcripts upregulated in the elytra of *H. imbricata*, only 3 were identified as
144 potentially involved in the bioluminescence production. The annotation of two of these transcripts
145 was related with the cytoskeleton: TACC3 (transforming acidic coiled-coil-containing protein 3)
146 [39] and FLNA (filamin-A) [40]. The remaining transcript blasted against a gene with functions
147 associated with the nervous system, NF60 (neurofilament protein)[41]. In *H. areolata* 475
148 transcripts were upregulated in the elytra and we selected 11 as possible candidates involved in
149 the bioluminescence process. Several of these transcripts had annotations related to
150 oxidoreductase function: AOC1(amiloride-sensitive amine oxidase) [42], DHGL (Glucose
151 dehydrogenase) [43], PERC (Chorion peroxidase)[44], PERO (Peroxidase) [45], PXDN2
152 (Peroxidasin homolog) [46], S5A1 (3-oxo-5-alpha-steroid 4-dehydrogenase) [47] and SDH (L-

153 sorbose 1-dehydrogenase) [48]. Another transcript was related with oxygen radical production,
154 KPCD (Protein kinase C delta type) [49]. We also found transcripts annotated to functions in the
155 nervous system, NF60 (neurofilament protein), shared by both species, and FAT3 (Protocadherin
156 Fat 3) [50]. Finally, we found a cytoskeleton related gene, FLNA, which also appeared
157 upregulated in *H. imbricata*.

158 Heat maps in Figure 2 (c–d) illustrate the expression levels of the transcripts selected in
159 the elytra and the body of both species. We found small differences in the expression profiles of
160 the replicates of each tissue but large differences between tissues, with higher levels of expression
161 in the elytra. For *imbricata*, 6 transcripts were additionally included, given their high expression
162 in the elytra (although they were not differentially expressed). These additional transcripts were
163 annotated to oxidoreductase function: AMO (Putative amine oxidase) [51], KMO (Kynurenine 3-
164 monooxygenase) [52], NOX5 (NADPH oxidase 5) [53] and CP2J6 (Cytochrome P450) [54].
165 Inside this group we include PERO and PXDN which are also found upregulated in the elytra of
166 *areolata*.

167 Besides oxidation-reduction processes, in our analyses, we retrieved functional
168 information from 1,149 transcripts of those found upregulated in the elytra in *H. imbricata* and
169 594 in *H. areolata*, which allowed us to identify various enriched GO terms potentially relevant
170 for bioluminescence (Fig. 2e). The shared pathways with a possible relation with bioluminescence
171 between the two species were: tryptophan metabolism, response to wounding, response to stress,
172 regulation of serotonin biosynthetic process, oxidoreductase activity, oxidative stress response,
173 glycolysis/gluconeogenesis and dopamine metabolic process (Fig. 2e). For *H. imbricata* we found
174 four additional pathways that could be involved in bioluminescence: valine, leucine and
175 isoleucine degradation, peroxidase activity, pentose phosphate pathway and microtubule
176 cytoskeleton organization. For more information of the enriched GO terms [see Additional file
177 3].



179 **Figure 2. Differential expression and gene enrichment in the elytra of *Harmothoe areolata***
180 **and *H. imbricata*. (a–b).** Volcano plots displaying the $-\log_{10}$ p value (false discover rate [FDR])
181 as a function of fold change in the scale and the body of *H. areolata* (a) and in *H. imbricata* (b).
182 Grey dots in the left represent upregulated genes in the body while green dots at the right
183 correspond to upregulated genes in the elytrum. (c–d). Heatmaps showing selected upregulated
184 genes in the elytrum with their associated functions in *H. areolata* (c) and in *H. imbricata* (d).
185 (e). Gene Ontology enrichment analysis of the upregulated annotated genes in the elytra of both
186 species.

187

188 **Identification of shared orthologs between bioluminescent species**

189 The reference transcriptomes of the elytra of *H. imbricata* and *H. areolata* were compared with
190 other bioluminescent and non-bioluminescent polynoid species. With this analysis, we identified
191 orthologous genes shared by bioluminescent species, and present in the elytra of the selected
192 species, but not present in non-bioluminescent species. We focused on the clusters of orthologous
193 genes shared only between the bioluminescent species to identify genes potentially involved in
194 bioluminescence.

195 All the polynoid species included in the analysis shared a total of 2,994 clusters while *H.*
196 *extenuata*, *H. imbricata* (GenBank), and the elytra of *H. imbricata* and *H. areolata* shared 400
197 clusters of orthologous genes [see Additional file 4]. Of those 400 shared clusters, we identified
198 15 that could be potentially related to bioluminescence and are listed in Table 1. Interestingly, the
199 Orthovenn analyses revealed a total of 7 clusters related with an oxidoreductase function shared
200 among the bioluminescent polynoids (i.e. Amine metabolic process, hydroquinone, 3-
201 hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase activity, positive regulation of lipid biosynthetic process, l-
202 ascorbic acid biosynthetic process, thioredoxin-disulfide reductase activity and octopamine
203 biosynthetic process). One cluster exhibited a connection to microtubule organization (i.e. Actin
204 binding), while two clusters were linked to the nervous system, sharing the same GO annotation
205 (i.e. Synaptic transmission, cholinergic), and another two were associated with response to
206 oxidative stress (i.e. Sulfur amino acid metabolic process and regulation of heme biosynthetic

207 process). Furthermore, three clusters demonstrated similarities to genes involved in visual sense
208 (i.e. Estructural constituent of eye lens, retinol metabolic process and visual perception).

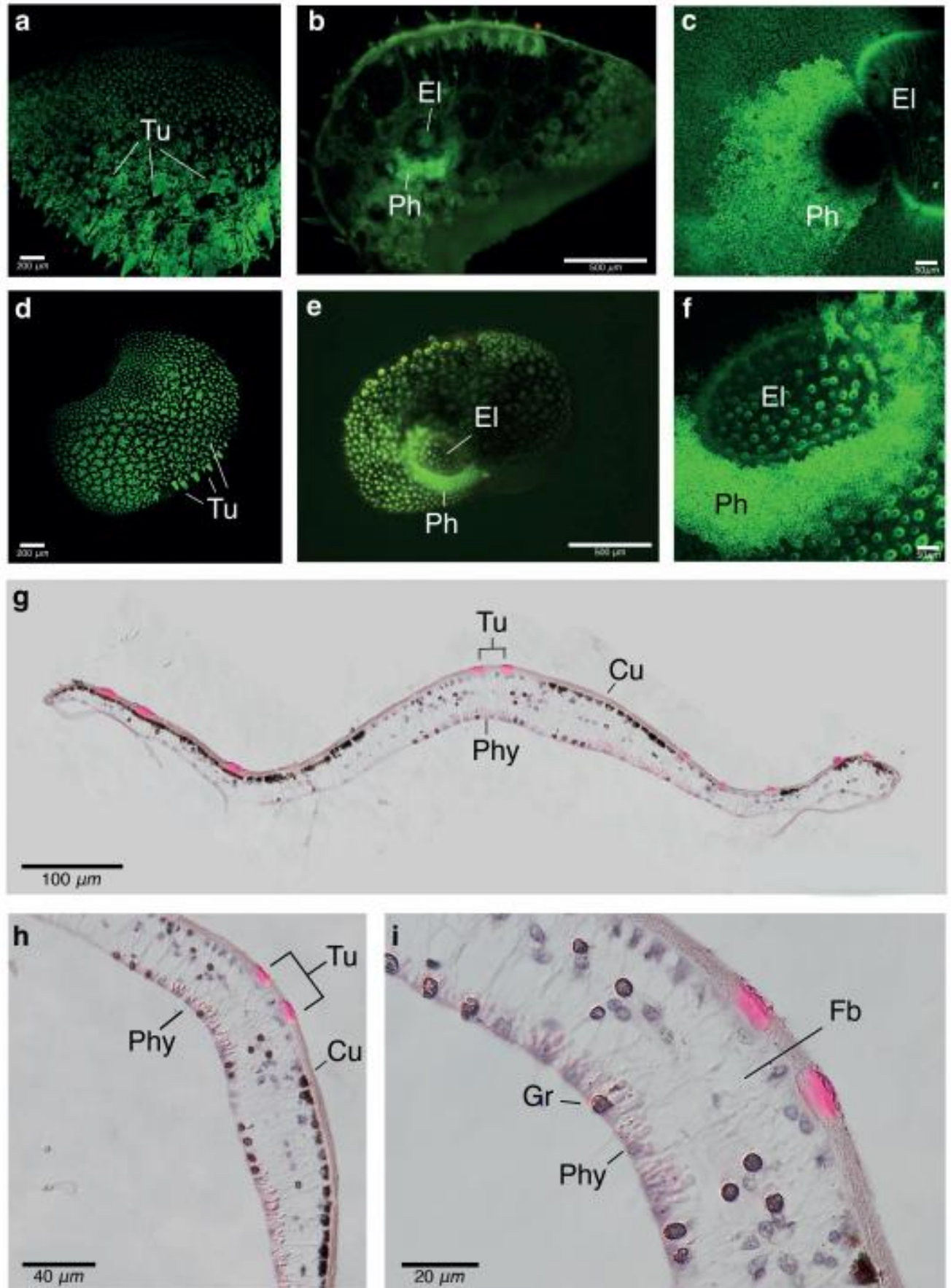
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210 **Histology and tissue organization of elytra**

211 The excitation light used to image the fluorescent photocytes was 405 nm and the fluorescent
212 structures of the elytra emitted within a range spectrum of 517 nm and 570 nm. Figure 3 shows
213 an image of the complete structure of the elytra in *H. imbricata* (Fig. 3a) and *H. areolata* (Fig.
214 3d) taken from a ventral position. It is known that tubercles covering the surface are
215 autofluorescent, as well as the photocytes [25]. Although the tubercles were located in the dorsal
216 part of the elytra, their autofluorescence was visible from the ventral part. The tubercles covering
217 the dorsum in *H. areolata* were much more conspicuous and with spines, while in *H. imbricata*
218 are rounded (Fig. 3a–f). In figures the ventral side, surrounding the elyrophore we observed a
219 dense mass of brighter fluorescent cells (Fig. 3b–c, e–f). These cells corresponded to the
220 fluorescent organelles of the photocytes, the photosomes, which are distributed within the
221 photogenic area (Fig. 3b–c, e–f). Normally there are 30-50 photosomes per photocyte, with a
222 diameter of 1 - 5 micrometres [29].

223 In the transversal histological sections of the elytra of *H. imbricata* (Fig. 3) we observed
224 several tubercles in the dorsal side (Fig. 3g). Beneath the cuticle we found a continuous upper
225 and lower monostratified epithelium. On the upper layer of the epithelium, we found cell bodies,
226 some of which contained pigment granules (Fig. 3i), nerves (*Fb*) connecting the cuticle with the
227 lower epithelium in a ganglion near the elytral stalk [55], although we could not identify the
228 ganglia in our sections. The lower epithelium was similar to the upper one, with the exception of
229 the presence of photocytes, which were modified epithelial cells, arranged near the elyrophore
230 (Fig. 3i). The insertion of the elyrophore was not clearly identified, although we observed
231 photocytes not following a continuous pattern (Fig. 3h). Photocytes appeared as calyx-shaped
232 cells (Fig. 3i) similar to what has been observed in other species [10].

233



234

235

236 **Figure 3. Confocal and light microscopy images of the elytra of *H. imbricata* (a–c) and *H.***
237 ***areolata* (d–f).** Absorption spectrum between 517 and 570 nm. (a). Dorsal picture of the whole
238 elytrum of *H. areolata* where dorsal tubercles (Tu) are observed as spines. (b). Ventral picture
239 of the whole elytrum of *H. areolata* with photosomes (Ph) arranged concentrically around the
240 elyrophore (El). (c). Detail of the photogenic area with the photosomes (Ph) in *H. areolata*
241 surrounding the elyrophore (El). (d). Dorsal picture of the whole elytrum of *H. imbricata* where
242 dorsal tubercles (Tu) are observed as small circles. (e). Ventral picture of the whole elytrum of
243 *H. imbricata* with photosomes (Ph) arranged concentrically around the elyrophore (El). (f).
244 Detail of the photogenic area with the photosomes (Ph) surrounding the elyrophore (El). (g–i).
245 Transversal Histological section of an elytrum of *H. imbricata* stained with haematoxylin-eosin
246 and mounted in DPX. (g). Picture of the elytrum the cuticle (Cu) and tubercles (Tu) appearing
247 dorsally and with photocytes (Phy) appearing ventrally. (h). Same section at a higher
248 magnification showing photocytes (Phy) at the ventral side breaking their continuity due to the
249 elyrophore. (i). Detail of the photocytes (Phy) where the calix shape of these cells is observed.
250 Pigmented granules (Gr) and fibres nerves (Fb).

251

252 **Discussion**

253 Our study aimed to identify the genetic machinery involved in the bioluminescence of the
254 polynoid worms *Harmothoe imbricata* and *Harmothoe areolata*. The search of candidate genes
255 with the different analyses led us to the identification of various transcripts in both species that
256 could potentially be involved in light production and additional processes associated with
257 bioluminescence. The DGE analysis allowed us to identify genes that were upregulated in the
258 elytra, the structures where the photogenic cells are located, and thus may be related to
259 bioluminescence production. Additionally, our comparative transcriptomic analysis allowed us to
260 identify orthologous genes shared only by bioluminescent species, which might also be involved
261 in light production. Finally, the morphological analyses with light and confocal microscopy
262 revealed the location and structure of the bioluminescent system within the elytra of both polynoid
263 species.

264 **Genes potentially involved in the bioluminescence chemical reaction**

265 Bioluminescence in polynoid worms takes place in the elytra. More specifically, this process
266 happens in the photosomes of the bioluminescent cells present in the photogenic area, thanks to
267 the photoprotein polynoidin which is activated by the emission of superoxide or hydroxyl radicals,
268 Ca^{2+} and Fe^{2+} [30, 32]. We identified several candidate transcripts and pathways involved in
269 bioluminescence in *H. imbricata* and *H. areolata*, sharing a total of 9 pathways between the two
270 species (Fig. 2e). A total of 11 genes were found differentially expressed and upregulated in the
271 elytra of both species involved in an **oxidoreductase** function. These were identified as the most
272 plausible candidates for luciferase function, given that the primary mechanism operating in
273 bioluminescence involves the breakdown of a peroxide bond [11]. In this sense, one of the most
274 accepted theories of the origin of bioluminescence is the antioxidative hypothesis, and it refers to
275 the evolutionary history of the bioluminescent substrate. Since luciferin has antioxidative
276 properties and high reactivity with reactive oxygen species (ROS), the antioxidative hypothesis
277 suggests that originally, the luciferin was a molecule implicated in reducing oxidative stress [56].
278 In marine ecosystems, organisms living in shallow waters attempting to escape from predators,
279 might have migrated to the deep ocean where oxidative stress is reduced, leading to a functional
280 change from the antioxidative to the chemiluminescent properties of this molecule [56]. These
281 proteins involved in oxidoreductase processes included Putative Amine Oxidase, Kynurenine 3-
282 monooxygenase, NADPH Oxidase 5 and Cytochrome P450 for *H. imbricata*, while for *H.*
283 *areolata* these were Amiloride-sensitive Amine Oxidase, Glucose dehydrogenase, Chorion
284 peroxidase, 3-oxo-5- α -steroid 4-dehydrogenase, L-sorbose 1-dehydrogenase and Protein
285 Kinase C (Table 2, Additional file 2). Interestingly, both species shared two genes, a peroxidase
286 and a peroxidasin homolog. Oxidoreductase enzymes are involved in controlling the amount of
287 oxygen radicals or reduced compounds that appear in the cells [57]. It is known that the
288 bioluminescent reaction in polynoids is triggered by superoxide radicals that result from the
289 oxidation of riboflavin [16]. Many of the genes selected have NAPH oxidase/dehydrogenase
290 function which are considered one of the major sources of reactive oxygen species [53].
291 Oxidoreductases are also involved in many other bioluminescent systems including fireflies [58],

292 bacteria [59], fungi [60] and other annelids [61]. Oxygen has been proved to be essential for the
293 luminescent reaction in polynoids [32], therefore, we hypothesize that the oxidoreductase
294 homologs identified here represent candidate polynoidins, the protein responsible of catalyzing
295 the bioluminescent reaction in polynoids. The two only genes that appeared shared by both species
296 are peroxidase (PERO) and peroxidasin (PXDN). The appearance of these genes in the two
297 bioluminescent species studied reinforces the possibility that one of them may be the elusive
298 polynoidin. Moreover, given that the peroxidasin homolog shared is found in endoplasmic
299 reticulum, where polynoidin has been described to be found, this gene appears as the most
300 possible candidate to catalyze the light production in *Harmothoe imbricata* and *H. areolata* [32].

301 Interestingly, two of the orthologous clusters shared by bioluminescent species and one
302 of the upregulated genes in the elytra of both species (NADPH oxidase 5) are involved in
303 **oxidative stress responses**. Oxidative stress is generated by reactive oxygen species [62],
304 between others, which could finally produce bioluminescence in polynoids. It is possible that
305 initially, bioluminescence occurred as an antioxidant mechanism in order to avoid oxidative stress
306 [56]. This response appearing in the genes overexpressed in the elytra confirms the idea that there
307 are products in the cells of the polynoids capable of acting against this oxidative stress and thus,
308 potentially leading to the production of light.

309

310 **Genes potentially involved in additional aspects of the bioluminescence process**

311 Besides the potentially direct production of light of the genes commented above, we identified a
312 battery of genes indirectly related to the bioluminescence process, including those potentially
313 involved in the formation of bioluminescent structures, or with the nervous signal triggering the
314 bioluminescence. Among them, we found two genes differentially expressed in the elytra of the
315 two worms and one shared orthologous cluster associated with the **cytoskeleton**. For both species
316 Filamin-A was upregulated in the elytra. But also, *H. imbricata* showed another gene upregulated
317 in their elytra, Transforming Acidic coiled-coil-containing Protein 3. The cytoskeleton plays an
318 important role in the formation of the photosomes as it is its main structural component. The
319 granules of the photosomes are composed of undulating microtubules that appear regularly

320 arranged in a paracrystalline organization continuous with the endoplasmic reticulum [29]. It has
321 been described that the photocytes of fireflies are also connected to the endoplasmic reticulum,
322 suggesting that this organelle plays a role in the light emission [63, 64]. The task carried out by
323 the gene found homolog to the Transforming Acidic coiled-coil-containing Protein 3 consists in
324 stabilizing the microtubules in the kinetochore fibers of the mitotic spindle [65]. This gene,
325 therefore, could be related with the formation of the paracrystalline organization which conforms
326 the photosomes where the bioluminescent reaction takes part. Filamin-A and the Actin binding
327 cluster, which are shared by both polynoids, are not related with the microtubule organization,
328 but with the actin cytoskeleton. Although the main structural component of the photosomes is
329 indeed the microtubule cytoskeleton, the intermediate filaments of the cytoskeleton, that are
330 formed of actin, are one of the principal elements of the desmosome junctions that join the
331 photosomes inside the photocytes [30]. It is also remarkable that in dinoflagellates, filaments of
332 the actin cytoskeleton are involved in the mechanotransduction of bioluminescence [66].
333 Consequently, these genes could potentially play an important role in the formation of the
334 photosomes as they have been proved to have relationships with their main structure and with the
335 junctions between them.

336 One of the most enriched GO categories in both species was **stress response**. The
337 mechanism of bioluminescence in polynoids has hypothesized to be a defensive strategy to escape
338 from predators [67]. It seems obvious that there must be a toolkit to perceive stress and respond
339 creating an impulse ending in light emission to escape. In other studies, similar analyses have also
340 revealed genes overexpressed in the luminal tissue with stress response functions in Terebellidae
341 species [68]. Our study suggests that these genes present upregulated in the elytra of the polynoid
342 worms might work under stress conditions when the animal is trying to escape from its predators.
343 [16][31, 33] We also found several genes related to the **nervous system** that are potentially
344 involved in the bioluminescence process. Bioluminescence in many taxa is controlled by the
345 nervous system, and this includes polynoids. Each elytrum has a central ganglion located near the
346 elyrophore from which nerves branch into nerve fibers in various directions covering the
347 periphery of the elytra [19]. In its upper part, sensory fibers connect with the tubercles or papillae

348 of the cuticle and in its lower part, efferent fibers travel until they reach the photocytes at the base
349 of the elytrum. The stimulus, thus, starts at the upper part and it is transmitted to the central
350 ganglion to reach the photocytes [69]. We identified two upregulated genes in the elytra,
351 Protocadherin Fat 3 and Neurofilament protein and as well as several shared orthologous clusters
352 involved in cholinergic synaptic transmission. Protocadherins homolog, present only in *areolata*,
353 are transmembrane proteins specialized in signaling. Specifically, fat cadherins are defined to
354 enable influence multiple features of neuronal development [50]. This Protocadherin may be
355 involved in the establishment of neuronal connections related to the bioluminescence signal, as
356 these proteins normally binds calcium. Calcium is one of the ions starting the action potential of
357 the luminous process [70] and it could be related to the transmission of the nerve impulse
358 triggering bioluminescence in *H. areolata*. The neurofilament protein, found upregulated in the
359 elytra of both species, is commonly present in neuronal tissue as it is the cytoskeletal constituent
360 of neurons [71]. As it appears overexpressed in both species, this gene may be in fact, one of the
361 genes being responsible of the formation of neurons performing in the elytra. A cholinergic
362 synapse is a chemical synapse that use acetylcholine molecules as neurotransmitter. Nicolas and
363 collaborators in 1978 specified that a cholinergic mechanism was indirectly involved in the
364 luminescence control, and previously it was confirmed a positive acetylcholinesterase
365 histochemical reaction of the elytral ganglion and nerves [72]. All the above mentioned genes
366 may be involved in the neurotransmission necessary for emission of light in polynoids.

367 Another function indirectly related with the process of bioluminescence is wounding,
368 which its related GO term, **wounding response**, was enriched in the upregulated component of
369 the elytra. When light is being produced, the polynoids detach their luminescent elytra while they
370 are glowing. When this occurs, the luminescent elytra keep on glowing as the same time that the
371 animal tries to scape [24]. The autotomization of the elytra leaves a wound in the worms, that is
372 repaired in the next 15 days, when a new elytrum is grown [73]. Genes capable of responding to
373 this loss of the elytra must be in the elytrum itself, as it must be repaired in order to serve the
374 polychaeta a defensive function.

375 Three orthologous clusters appeared shared by the bioluminescent species related to
376 **visual perception**. At first it seems strange that genes related to vision appear in the elytra of the
377 polynoids. We must remember that orthologous genes were obtained with the transcriptome of
378 the elytra of our target species and the whole transcriptome of *H. extenuata*. These results suggest
379 that there are homologous genes that are expressed both in the body of the bioluminescent species
380 and in their elytra. With these results we can verify genetically the study carried out by Bassot
381 and Nicolas in 1978 where they confirm that the paracrystalline endoplasmic reticulum
382 characteristic of the photogenic cells in polynoids appears also in the eyes, where it constitutes a
383 greater part of the lens. The relationship that exists in the appearance of the same structures in the
384 photoreceptors as in the photosomes of polinoid species is a mystery to be studied.

385 Two metabolic pathways related with glycolysis and tryptophan were enriched in the
386 elytra, and even though they have not been reported in bioluminescent systems of polynoids, they
387 have been proved to be involved in other bioluminescent species. The process of obtaining energy
388 out of the glycolysis metabolism, provides energy to an inhibitory mechanism that maintains the
389 photophores in a non-luminescent state in the teleost fish *Porichthys* [74]. In a more closely
390 related species, the earthworm *Lampito mauritii* [75], this metabolic pathway has also been shown
391 to activate a greenish light emission, when the celomic cells where exposed to stimulants and
392 some products of gluconeogenesis [76]. This could indicate that the glucose pathway may
393 interfere in the system of activation and deactivation of light production by polynoids. Also,
394 tryptophan metabolism is central to produce tryptophan compounds, which are one of the main
395 elements of the sea firefly luciferin, cypridinid luciferin [77, 78]. Polynoid's luciferin has not
396 been discovered yet and since the tryptophan metabolic pathway has been found to be
397 overexpressed in the elytra of polynoids, we propose that tryptophan or its derivatives may be
398 part of the composition of polynoid luciferin.

399 Finally, we retrieved two more enriched GO categories that were only present in *H.*
400 *imbricata*: valine, leucine and isoleucine degradation and pentose phosphate metabolism. The
401 generation of NADPH molecules is essential for the bioluminescent process in Polynoidae, as
402 these coenzymes provide reactive oxygen species [16]. Earlier, we indicated the importance of

403 oxidative stress in the reaction of luminescence. Pentose phosphate pathway and valine, leucine
404 and isoleucine degradation are both metabolic pathways in which NADPH is generated [79, 80].
405 Our study suggests that these pathways may be functioning to generate compounds necessary for
406 beginning the bioluminescent reaction in *H. imbricata*.

407

408 **Morphology of the bioluminescent system**

409 Light production in polynoid worms takes place in the photosomes, organelles located in
410 specialized cells called photocytes and found in the elytra. The photosomes are autofluorescent
411 and thus are responsible for the fluorescent properties of elytra, having the ability of emit light
412 under specific excitation wavelengths. In addition, the tubercles also show this autofluorescence.
413 First, it was thought that this property was only activated after the bioluminescent reaction was
414 triggered [81] but it has been proved that this fluorescence is permanently present in these
415 structures [25, 35]. Figure 3 shows images taken from individuals preserved in KINFix after three
416 months, confirming therefore that they effectively do not lose their autofluorescence and that it is
417 present independently of bioluminescence light emission. We confirmed that the excitation
418 wavelength that works best to see the arrangement of bioluminescent structures is UV light, as
419 suggested in previous studies [25, 82]. The green light emission spectrum (517-570 nm) is
420 consistent with that reported for this 20 and other species in previous articles (510-525 nm) [10,
421 16, 32, 83]. We observed two distinctive green autofluorescent zones: the papilla and tubercles
422 and the area around the insertion zone of the elytraphore. The disposition of the photosomes can
423 be observed more accurately on figure 3c and 3f, where they appear as a dense, tangled mass,
424 which may be due to the paracrystalline form of the endoplasmic reticulum from which they are
425 formed. Our histological sections show the disposition and structure of the photosomes, arranged
426 in the centre of the ventral side of the elytra (Fig. 3g, h, i). They are elongated cells that appear
427 together and close to one another. Each photocyte is connected by efferent fibres to the central
428 ganglion of the elytra, responsible for the transmission of the impulse that triggers
429 bioluminescence. These nerves are visualized as the thin transversal lines connecting both
430 epithelia (Fig. 3i). This innervation can also be seen in non-bioluminescent species, although they

431 lack photosomes [84]. In general, our morphological study is consistent with the organization of
432 light producing organs in other polynoids [10, 19, 25, 35, 82, 85].

433 Although the light production ability of the polynoid photoprotein system could not be
434 assessed, we identified an array of proteins involved in oxidoreductase processes that point to
435 both luciferase and luciferin proteins. Peroxidasin might correspond to the elusive polynoidin, the
436 photoprotein responsible of catalyzing bioluminescence reaction in polynoids. We have seen that
437 the oxidoreductase most likely to be polynoidin is a **peroxidasin homolog**, since it is
438 overexpressed in the elytra of both species and is found in the endoplasmic reticulum, which is
439 an essential part of the structure of photocytes and where this photoprotein has been described to
440 be found. Functional validation analysis must be done to confirm the role of this protein in the
441 bioluminescent system of *Harmothoe*. It will be necessary to search for this supposed polynoidin
442 in other bioluminescent polynoids to verify its role in the bioluminescence process within this
443 genus.

444

445 **Methods**

446 **Sample collection and preservation**

447 Six specimens of *Harmothoe imbricata* and six of *Harmothoe areolata* were collected by SCUBA
448 diving in O’Grove (42.498448, -8.865719, Galicia, Spain; 12 m depth) and near Blanes
449 (41.673245, 2.802646, NW Mediterranean Sea; 10 m depth) respectively, and kept alive in
450 seawater for transport to the laboratory. Taxonomic identification was done following the original
451 description of the species and relevant additional literature [36, 86] under a Zeiss Stemi 2000
452 stereoscope up to 35x magnification by experts on annelid taxonomy. Before sample preservation,
453 bioluminescence emission was confirmed in a dark room by disturbing the individual with
454 tweezers. For transcriptomic analyses, we preserved the specimens in RNAlater (Life
455 Technologies), during 24h at 4 °C, replaced it once, and stored samples at -80 °C until further
456 processing. For histological analyses, samples were preserved in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 1M PBS
457 and 0.34M NaCl and KINFix, which allows the sample to be used in examination by histological
458 or immunohistochemical techniques [87].

459

460 **RNA extraction, cDNA library preparation, and sequencing**

461 For RNA extraction, dorsal elytra and a portion of the posterior end of the body were dissected
462 from three specimens of each of the two species, totalling three replicates per tissue and per
463 species. Total RNA was extracted from the elytra and from the posterior end of the body with
464 TRIzol (Invitrogen), following the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA from each of the six
465 biological replicates of *H. areolata* was sent to New York University Center for Genomics and
466 Systems Biology (New York, USA) for cDNA library preparation and sequencing. A total of
467 twelve cDNA libraries were generated with Illumina TruSeq library prep kit v2, corresponding to
468 the three biological replicates of each tissue type. We verified the quality and integrity of the total
469 RNA and the cDNA library with an Agilent BioAnalyzer (RNA and high sensitivity DNA assay
470 respectively). Libraries were then sequenced using Illumina HiSeq 2500 v4 technology, at 150
471 base-pairs (bp) paired-end reads.

472

473 **De novo transcriptome assembly, annotation, and differential expression analysis**

474 The quality of the raw reads generated from each of the six libraries was evaluated using FastQC
475 v0.11.5 [88] and then, adapter sequences and low-quality bases (phred score < 30) were removed
476 using Trimmomatic [89]. Processed reads of all replicates were then pooled together and
477 assembled *de novo* using the software Trinity v2.4.0 ([90, 91] to generate a reference
478 transcriptome. Functional annotation of the reference transcriptomes was performed first by
479 blasting the transcripts with DIAMOND [92] against the UniprotKB database [93, 94] with a cut-
480 off E value of 1e-5. Transcripts with blast hits were further annotated using Gene Ontology (GO)
481 terms with BLAST2GO PRO [95].

482 To identify the genes significantly upregulated in the elytra and the posterior end of the
483 body, a differential gene expression (DGE) analysis was carried out with the Trinity module [90],
484 which incorporates Bowtie and RSEM [96], to map and estimate transcript abundance, and edgeR
485 [97] to identify differentially expressed transcripts [91] in both species. We later selected only
486 those genes showing a minimum of 2-fold change, and *p*-value cut off for FDR of 0.01. A GO

487 enrichment analysis was performed using the GO annotations of the significant differentially
488 expressed transcripts using gProfiler [98] with a FDR cutoff 0.05.

489

490 **Comparative transcriptomics of bioluminescent and non-bioluminescent polynoid species.**

491 To assess whether bioluminescent polynoids possess a unique set of proteins shared across the
492 family, we compared the transcriptomes of bioluminescent (including our reference
493 transcriptomes) and non-bioluminescent species using OrthoVenn2 [99]. For this, we assembled
494 the reference transcriptomes of the non-bioluminescent polynoids *Branchipolynoe pettibone*
495 (Miura & Hashimoto, 1991) [100] and *Lepidonotopodium* sp. [100, 101] and the bioluminescent
496 *Harmothoe extenuata* (Grube, 1840) [102], using the available reads in SRA (Table 2) and
497 applying the same bioinformatic pipeline as for our reference transcriptomes. Predicted protein
498 datasets from the transcriptomes were obtained with TransDecoder [90] and implemented in
499 OrthoVenn2 where we set a cut-off E value of 1e-5 for the comparisons. This served us to select
500 only those orthologous gene clusters shared by the luminous polynoid species (“bioluminescent
501 clusters”) for downstream analyses. Functional annotation of the shared bioluminescents clusters
502 was automatically performed in OrthoVenn2 against UniProtKB [93, 94] as well an additional
503 GO enrichment analysis.

504

505 **Histology analysis of elytra**

506 To identify the presence of photocytes, histological analyses were performed on the preserved
507 elytra of *H. imbricata*. Briefly, samples were rinsed in distilled water, dehydrated through an
508 ascending series of ethanol, bathed in xylene and embedded in paraffin overnight at 60°C. Serial
509 7µm-thick sections were then made with a Leitz 1512 microtome and stained with a standard
510 haematoxylin - eosin protocol and mounted with DPX. The resulting preparations were scanned
511 using an Olympus© BX51-P microscope and photographed with an Olympus DP-23 camera.

512 Confocal and light microscopy of elytra preserved in formalin was also performed taking
513 advantage of the autofluorescence of the photosomes present in the photocytes of the elytra of
514 both species. The excitation light used was of 405 nm in order to observe the disposition and

515 arrangement of the photocytes within the elytra. The confocal microscope used was an LSCM
516 Olympus FV1200 at Universidad Complutense de Madrid and the light microscope was a
517 Olympus BX53 at Museo Nacional de Ciencias Naturales (MNCN).

518

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529

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771

772 **Tables**

773 **Table 1: List of clusters shared between the bioluminescent species**

774

Cluster	Protein ID	Go Annotation	Relation with bioluminescence
cluster13850	Q9C0H6	Actin binding	Microtubule organization
cluster10051	P17644	Synaptic transmission, cholinergic	Nervous system
cluster11826	Q5IS76	Synaptic transmission, cholinergic	
cluster3310	H2A0M3	Amine metabolic process	Oxidoreductase
cluster5878	J9VQZ4	Hydroquinone:oxygen oxidoreductase activity	
cluster6532	O86034	3-hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase activity	
cluster8278	Q7Z5P4	Positive regulation of lipid biosynthetic process	
cluster16223	Q8HXW0	L-ascorbic acid biosynthetic process	

cluster5790	Q6PHY8	Thioredoxin-disulfide reductase activity	
cluster9970	Q6UVY6	Octopamine biosynthetic process	
cluster5785	P08761	Sulfur amino acid metabolic process	Response to oxidative stress
cluster4890	Q9CQN6	Regulation of heme biosynthetic process	
cluster2261	Q9EPF3	Estructural constituent of eye lens	Visual sense
cluster10748	Q9QYF1	Retinol metabolic process	
cluster11855	Q9GLM3	Visual perception	

775

776 The table shows the identification protein label (Protein ID), the annotation made by Orthovenn
 777 (Go Annotation), and the corresponding function related with bioluminescence
 778 (Bioluminescence).

779

780 **Table 2 Accession numbers.**

Species	Accession number NCBI
Harmothoe areolata	SAMN38153224
Harmothoe imbricata	SAMN38153218
Harmothoe imbricata elytra	SRR4841788
Harmothoe extenuata	SRR1237766
Branchipolynoe pettiboneae	SRR4419842
Lepidonotopodium sp.	SRR4419843

781

782 NCBI Reference numbers of the transcriptomes of the species used in the Orthovenn analyses.

783

784 **Ethics declarations**

785

786 - Ethics approval and consent to participate: Not applicable.

787 - Consent for publication: Not applicable.

788 - Competing interests: The authors declare no conflict of interests.

789

790 **Availability of data and materials**

791 The datasets generated and/or analyzed during the current study are available in the [Additional
792 files] repository,

793 [https://www.dropbox.com/sh/rqx5l06cglk7ojp/AAAdKFH_i9xSo_2_yeYJNpFQa?dl=0]

794

795 **Additional files:**

796 **Additional file 1 Sequencing information.** *De novo* transcriptome assembly metrics and
797 transcriptome completeness statistics based on BUSCO analysis with the Metazoa gene set.

798

799 **Additional file 2 Scale up subset.** Table showing the results of the Differential Expression
800 Analyses performed for both species (one species per sheet).

801

802 **Additional file 3 GO terms.** Results of the Gen Ontology analyses performed with the whole
803 transcriptome of the selected species as background. The results for each species are found on
804 separate sheets.

805

806 **Additional file 4 Orthovenn results.** Orthologous genes shared by the selected bioluminescent
807 species.