

# Phylogenetic and molecular clock inferences of cyanobacterial strains within *Rivulariaceae* from distant environments

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genera (600-400 MYA).

Abstract

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cyanobacteria; *Nostocales*, *Rivulariaceae*; molecular clock; phylogeny.

## Introduction

Cyanobacteria have evolved to become one of the most diverse groups of bacteria (Waterbury, 1991; Whitton & Potts, 2000; Castenholz, 2001). They contribute significantly to global primary production via photosynthesis and some contribute considerably to the nitrogen cycle via dinitrogen ( $N_2$ ) fixation. Genome-scale analyses suggest that oxygenic photosynthesis evolved early in the cyanobacterial radiation (Swingley *et al.*, 2008). The capacity to use water as an electron donor in oxygenic photosynthesis, with its consequent generation of molecular oxygen, most likely appeared by 2700 million years ago (MYA) or earlier (Falcón *et al.*, 2010).

Nitrogen fixation is restricted to Bacteria and Archaea, and is present throughout the cyanobacteria (albeit not in all species), that are among the ecologically most important nitrogen fixers (Capone *et al.*, 1997; Raymond *et al.*, 2004). In contrast to photosynthesis, the capacity to fix nitrogen is a paraphyletic event within the cyanobacterial radiation (Swingley *et al.*, 2008). The 'patchy' distribution of nitrogen fixation in cyanobacteria has been inferred to be a result of lateral gene transfer and/or gene duplication (Swingley *et al.*, 2008). The origin of nitrogen fixation among cyanobacteria is dated at 3000–2500 MYA (Shi & Falkowski, 2008; Falcón *et al.*, 2010), and probably appeared three times independently (Swingley *et al.*, 2008).

Heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria are important players at both evolutionary and

ecological scales, but to date it has been difficult to establish their phylogenetic

affiliations. We present data from a phylogenetic and molecular clock analysis of

heterocystous cyanobacteria within the family Rivulariaceae, including the genera

Calothrix, Rivularia, Gloeotrichia and Tolypothrix. The strains were isolated from

distant geographic regions including fresh and brackish water bodies, microbial

mats from beach rock, microbialites, pebble beaches, plus PCC strains 7103 and

7504. Phylogenetic inferences (distance, likelihood and Bayesian) suggested the

monophyly of genera *Calothrix* and *Rivularia*. Molecular clock estimates indicate that *Calothrix* and *Rivularia* originated  $\sim$ 1500 million years ago (MYA) ago and

species date back to 400-300 MYA while Tolypothrix and Gloeotrichia are younger

Taxonomic classification has divided Cyanobacteria in five subsections/groups: (1) Order *Chroococcales* includes unicellular cells with binary reproduction; (2) Order *Pleurocapsales* includes unicellular cells with reproduction by multiple bipartition; (3) Order *Oscillatoriales* includes filamentous colonies without heterocysts and cell division in one plane; (4) Order *Nostocales* includes filamentous colonies that divide in one plane and include heterocysts; (5) Order Stigonematales includes filamentous colonies with heterocysts that divide in more than one plane (Rippka et al., 1979; Waterbury, 1991; Castenholz, 2001). Nitrogenfixing cyanobacteria separate their oxygenic photosynthesis and oxygen-intolerant nitrogenase activity via temporal and spatial strategies (Bergman et al., 1997; Sandh et al., 2009; Berman-Frank et al., 2001). Heterocystous cyanobacteria including Nostocales and Stigonematales (true branching) separate CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> fixation spatially. Heterocysts are terminal, intercalary or both, differentiated cells specialized for nitrogen fixation, which lack the oxygen-producing photosystem II and have thick cell walls that are less permeable to gases, efficiently protecting the oxygen-sensitive nitrogenase and allowing nitrogen fixation to occur during the daytime (Haselkorn, 2007).

Morphological and molecular-based classifications verify that heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria constitute a monophyletic group (Honda *et al.*, 1998; Tomitani *et al.*, 2006; Gupta & Mathews, 2010). Cyanobacterial orders that form heterocysts are usually intermingled in terms of their genealogies, and it has been difficult to precisely establish their phylogenetic affiliations (Rajaniemi *et al.*, 2005; Sihvonen *et al.*, 2007; Berrendero *et al.*, 2008).

Tomitani et al. (2006) suggested, based on genetic distances and fossil calibrations, that heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria arose within the age range of 2450-2100 MYA. Later, molecular clock dating confirmed the age of the appearance of heterocystous cyanobacteria to 2211-2057 MYA (Falcón *et al.*, 2010). These time frames coincide with the Great Oxidation Event (~2450 MYA), the time period when free oxygen starts to be traced in the fossil record (Holland, 2002).

Although heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria are important players at an evolutionary and an ecological scale, our knowledge is also scant with regard to their natural history and phylogenetic affiliations. Attempts have been made to unravel life history patterns of certain heterocystous cyanobacteria, including those pertaining to the multigenera Order Nostocales (Anabaena, Aphanizomenon, Aulosira, Trichormus, Nostoc, Nodularia, Mojavia, Calothrix, Gloeotrichia, Tolypothrix, Rivularia, Sacconema, Isactis, Dichothrix, Gardnerula, Microchaete, Cylindrospermopsis and Raphidiopsis) (Lehtimäki et al., 2000; Castenholz, 2001; Henson et al., 2004; Lyra et al., 2005; Rajaniemi et al., 2005; Sihvonen et al., 2007; Berrendero et al., 2008; Lukesová et al., 2009; Stucken et al., 2010; Thomazeau et al., 2010). Nevertheless, sequences available for the Rivulariaceae 16S rDNA gene are restricted to the four genera Rivularia, Calothrix, Gloeotrichia, and Tolypothrix (Narayan et al., 2006; Tomitani et al., 2006; Sihvonen et al., 2007; Berrendero et al., 2008), which has hindered the advancement of our knowledge with regard to their evolutionary relationships.

The aim of this study was to advance our knowledge on the phylogenetic affiliations of heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria within the *Rivulariaceae* (order *Nostocales*), specifically including representatives of the genera *Calothrix*, *Rivularia*, *Gloeotrichia* and *Tolypothrix* collected from different environments. These genera form nitrogen-fixing, globally widespread benthic communities, primarily in aquatic but also in terrestrial ecosystems, and have potential ecological significance. Recently, the importance of *Calothrix rhizosoleniae* has been acknowledged as open ocean symbionts in a variety of diatoms (Foster *et al.*, 2010). Nevertheless, to date no estimate of the overall influence in the C and N cycles of the genera within *Rivulariaceae* has been attempted and questions remain open regarding their phylogenetic organization.

## **Materials and methods**

Strains examined in this study were isolated from natural populations such as microbial mats, microbialites and rocky shore biofilms, summarized in Table 1. Unicyanobacterial cultures were obtained from enrichment cultures, and individual tapering filaments with heterocysts were picked using light microscopy (Axioscope 40, Carl Zeiss, Germany). Individual cultures were grown in 50- or 100-mL flasks in an incubation chamber at an average temperature of 29 °C, 14/10 light/dark cycles (Pozas Azules), 18 °C, 12/12 light/dark cycles (Heron Island). All cultures were grown in 50–100  $\mu$ E m<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Cultures were transferred to new media lacking reduced forms of nitrogen every 3 weeks.

### **Nucleic acid extraction**

DNA was extracted from individual cultures (approximately 500  $\mu$ L) that were incubated overnight at 50 °C with 10 × extraction buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5–8.2, 50 mM EDTA, 20 mM NaCl) and proteinase K (final concentration 0.25 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>). Proteins and lipids were separated with two

 Table 1. Isolated cyanobacterial strains used in this study indicating geographical origin, growth medium and culture collection

Strains	Medium	Culture collection
Baltic Sea (Askö, Sweden): 3, 14, 16, 12	Z8	Department of Botany, SU (Sweden)
Great Barrier Reef (Heron Island): 14, 15	SN-	Department of Botany, SU (Sweden)
Pozas Azules I (Mexico): 1PA1, 1PA3, 1PA4, 1PA5, 1PA9, 1PA10, 1PA12, 1PA17 1PA18, 1PA19, 1PA20, 1PA21, 1PA22, 1PA23, 5PA13, 5PA11, 7PA3, 7PA4, 7PA6 7PA9, 7PA14	SN- ,	Institute of Ecology, UNAM (Mexico)

SU, Stockholm University; UNAM, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México.

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phenol and one chloroform extraction and DNA was precipitated with sodium acetate (3 M) and absolute ethanol, followed by a 45-min incubation at -20 °C. DNA pellets were stained with GlycoBlue<sup>TM</sup> (Ambion, Austin, TX) and resuspended in water.

#### 16S rRNA gene amplification and analysis

A fragment consisting of almost the complete 16S rRNA gene, the intergenic transcribed spacers and part of the 23S rRNA gene was amplified from all strains using universal primer 27F (5'AGA GTT AGA GTT TGA TCM TGG CTC AG 3') (Lane, 1991) and cyanobacteria-specific B23S (5'CT T CGC CTC TGT GTG CCT AGG T 3') (Gkelis et al., 2005). The amplification reaction had a final volume of 50 µL with  $1 \times$  reaction buffer, 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 0.6  $\mu$ M of each primer and 5 U Taq DNA polymerase. The thermal cycle included an initial denaturalization at 94 °C for 2 min, followed by 25 cycles of 94 °C for 45 s; 54 °C for 45 s; 68 °C for 2 min and a final extension of 30 min at 68 °C. The PCR products obtained (approximately 1800 bp) were gel-extracted (Qiagen, Austin, TX) and sequenced. Sequences were obtained on a capillary sequencer (Applied Biosystems Avant-100) with five reactions including primers 27F, 1492R (5'TAC GGY TAC CTT GTT ACG ACT T 3') (Lane, 1991) and B23S (Gkelis et al., 2005).

Sequences were assembled and aligned with SEQUENCHER 3.1.1 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI), and identified with the Greengenes dataset (http://greengenes. lbl.gov/cgi-bin/nph-index.cgi) with BASIC LOCAL ALIGNMENT SEARCH TOOL (BLAST). The 27 sequences obtained from the different strains analyzed in this study (plus sequences for PCC 7103 and PCC 7504) were aligned to 56 cyanobacterial sequences from Greengenes with a final consensus of 1290 bp (Table 2). The alignment was verified with MACCLADE 4.033 PCC software (Sinauer Associates Inc., Sunderland, MA) and phylogenetic analysis were run with PAUP\* 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002). Maximum-likelihood (ML) reconstruction considered the Akaike Information Criterion as a model of nucleotidic evolution after a MODEL TEST analysis (Posada & Crandall, 1998). The model with the best fit was GTR+I+G, where I=0.3894 (proportion of invariable sites) and G = 0.5246 (gamma distribution). Topologies were also inferred with neighbor-joining (NJ) (Kimura 2 Parameters) and maximum parsimony (MP). Bootstrap considered 500 (ML, NJ) and 1000 (MP) replicates, respectively. Crocosphaera watsonii, a unicellular nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria, was included as the outgroup.

#### Maximum a posteriori (MAP) topology

Molecular clock estimates were inferred from a MAP topology calculated from a Bayesian phylogenetic analysis with MRBAYES v3.1.2 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist 2001) using

the model with best fit to the data set. Bayesian analysis consisted of two independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo runs, performed by four differentially heated chains of  $5 \times 10^6$  generations. Phylograms with a topology identical to the MAP topology were recovered with PAUP\* 4.0b10 and 100 were chosen to conduct age estimates. The timing of phylogenetic divergence was calculated with R8s v1.71 (Sanderson, 2006) with penalized likelihood (Sanderson, 2002). The node defining Cyanobacteria was fixed at 2700 MYA and a minimum age for the heterocystous cyanobacteria was defined at 1618 MYA (Falcón *et al.*, 2010). The outgroup was *Chloroflexus aurantiacus*, a green nonsulfur bacterium.

Sequences generated in this study are deposited in the NCBI database with accession numbers: FJ660972-FJ661026. Sequences FJ660972-FJ660992 correspond to isolates from microbialites in Pozas Azules I, a desert pond in Cuatro Ciénegas, México; FJ660993 and FJ660994 are from a microbial mat on a beach rock in Heron Island at the Great Barrier Reef, Australia; FJ660995-FJ661005 and FJ66101-FJ661021 are from separate isolates obtained from type cultures of Tolypothrix sp. PCC 7504 and Calothrix sp. PCC 7103 maintained in culture at the Department of Botany at Stockholm University, Sweden; and FJ661006-FJ661009 correspond to isolates from the shore line of a rocky islet outside the Stockholm University Marine Research Station at Askö in the Baltic Sea, Sweden.

## **Results and discussion**

## Phylogenetic ordination of *Calothrix*, *Tolypothrix* and *Rivularia*

Phylogenetic differentiation was well sustained, suggesting three natural groups pertaining to *Calothrix* from Askö (Sweden), also including the strain PCC 7103, *Rivularia* from strains in Pozas Azules I (Mexico) and *Tolypothrix* including the strain PCC 7504 (Fig. 1). These genera were earlier defined based on molecular identities (Rajaniemi *et al.*, 2005; Taton *et al.*, 2006; Sihvonen *et al.*, 2007).

Topologies of inferred genealogies with NJ (Kimura 2parameters), ML and MP were congruent, and bootstrap values for NJ and MP are shown in the ML topology (Fig. 1). Sequences of nonheterocyst-forming unicellular and filamentous cyanobacteria of groups I, II and III were used as outgroups.

The 16S rRNA genealogy revealed four clades. Clade I was formed by the unicellular genera *Synechococcus*, *Prochlorococcus* and the filamentous genus *Phormidium*; clade II contained all cyanobacterial sequences originating from Pozas Azules, a desert pond in northern Mexico, plus three sequences assigned to *Rivularia* from the Baltic Sea **Table 2.** Cyanobacterial strains included in this study (*Nostocales*), indicating code, affiliation, geographic origin, habitat and 16S rDNA gene sequence accession numbers (GenBank)

Strain code	Phylogenetic affiliation	Geographical origin	Habitat	Reference	Accession number
PCC 7103	Calothrix sp.	Unknown	Unknown	Rippka et al. (2001)	AM230700
MU27 UAM 315	Calothrix sp.	Muga River, Spain	Epilithic Freshwater	Berrendero <i>et al.</i> (2008)	EU009152.1
TJ12 UAM 371	Calothrix sp.	Tejada Strean, Spain	Epilithic Freshwater	Berrendero <i>et al</i> . (2008)	EU009154.1
PCC7102	Calothrix desertica	Antofagasta, Chile	Sand	Rippka & Herdman (1992)	AF132779
MU24 UAM305	<i>Calothrix</i> sp. (proposed in this study)	Muga River, Spain	Epilithic Freshwater	Berrendero <i>et al</i> . (2008)	EU009149.1
BECID6	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Periphytic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230691
XP11C	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Sediment Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230698
BECID26	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Epilithic	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230695
PCC 8909	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea	Brackish Unknown	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230693
XP2B	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Brackish Periphytic	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230689
BECID9	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Epilithic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230688
Askö 3	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Sweden	Epilithic Brackish	This study	FJ661007
Askö 14	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Sweden	Epilithic Brackish	This study	FJ661006
Askö 16	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Sweden	Epilithic Brackish	This study	FJ661009
Askö 12	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Sweden	Epilithic Brackish	This study	FJ661008
UKK3412	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Unknown Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230681
BECID16	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Epilithic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230682
BECID33	Calothrix sp.	Baltic Sea, Finland	Epilithic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230683
IAM M-249	Calothrix brevissima IAM M-249	Palau island, Palau	Soil	Ichimura & Itoh (1977)	AB074504
Mk1-C1	Calothrix sp. Mk1-C1	Mikurajima island, Japan	Liquen	Miura & Yokota (2006)	AB275345.1
PCC 7504	Tolypothrix sp.	Sweden	Freshwater aquarium	Rippka <i>et al.</i> (2001)	AM230706
PCC 7415	Tolypothrix sp.	Sweden	Green house soil	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230668
IAM M-259	Tolypothrix sp. IAM M-259	Unknown	Unknown	Seo & Yokota (2003)	AB093486
240292	Anabaena variabilis ATCC 29413	Lake Tankanyika, Africa	Plankton	West, 1907	AY584512.1
BC Ana 0025	<i>Anabaena solitaria sp</i> . BC Ana 0025	Cotswold Water Park, UK	Plankton	N. A. El Semary & P. K. Hayes (unpublished data)	DQ023200
PCC 7120	Nostoc sp. PCC 7120	Unknown	Unknown	Rippka <i>et al.</i> (2001)	AF317631.1
PYH14	Gloeotrichia echinulata PYH14	Lake Pyhäjärvi, Säkylä, Finland	Freshwater	Sihvonen <i>et al</i> . (2007)	AM230704
PYH6	Gloeotrichia echinulata PYH6	Lake Pyhäjärvi, Säkylä, Finland	Freshwater	Sihvonen <i>et al</i> . (2007)	AM230703
URA3	Gloeotrichia echinulata URA3	Lake Pyhäjärvi, Säkylä, Finland	Freshwater	Sihvonen <i>et al</i> . (2007)	AM230705
BY1	Nodularia baltica	Baltic Sea	Plankton	Lehtimäki <i>et al.</i> (2000)	AJ133177
Huebel 1987/311	Nodularia spumigena	Baltic Sea	Plankton	Lyra <i>et al.</i> (2005)	AJ781133
T. doliolum 1	<i>Trichormus doliolum</i> str. doliolum 1	Unknown	Unknown	Rajaniemi <i>et al</i> . (2005)	AJ630455
7PA4	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite Freshwater	This study	FJ660989
7PA14	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite Freshwater	This study	FJ660992

<b>C</b> L <b>1</b>			11.1.2		Accession
Strain code	Phylogenetic affiliation	Geographical origin	Habitat	Reference	number
1PA5	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite Freshwater	This study	FJ660982
1PA3	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite Freshwater	This study	FJ660973
1PA17	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660974
1PA20	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660977
1PA1	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660972
1PA9	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660983
1PA4	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660981
1PA21	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660978
1PA12	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660985
1PA10	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660984
7PA3	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660988
7PA9	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660991
7PA6	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660990
1PA19	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660976
1PA23	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660980
1PA22	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660979
5PA13	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660986
5PA11	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660987
1PA18	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Pozas Azules I, Mexico	Microbialite	This study	FJ660975
ERIVALH2	Rivularia sp. uncultured	Alharabe river, Spain	Epilithic	Berrendero <i>et al</i> . (2008)	EU009142
BIR KRIV1	Rivularia atra	Baltic Sea, Finland	Periphytic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230674
XP16B	<i>Rivularia</i> sp. XP16B	Baltic Sea, Finland	Epilithic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230676
BIR MGR1	<i>Rivularia</i> sp. BIR MGR1	Baltic Sea, Finland	Epilithic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230675
XP27A	<i>Rivularia</i> sp. XP27A	Baltic Sea, Finland	Epilithic Brackish	Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	AM230667
PCC 7116	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.	Baja California, Mexico	Epilithic Marine	Rippka <i>et al.</i> (2001)	AM230677
HI15	Unknown	Heron island, Australia	Microbial mat Marine	This study	FJ660993
HI14	Unknown	Heron island, Australia	Microbial mat Marine	This study	FJ660994

Table 2. Continued.

Strains given in bold represent strains maintained in the Pasteur Culture Collection (PCC).





0.01 substitutions/site

Fig. 1. Phylogram (1290 bp) of cyanobacterial gene fragments generated with ML, including part of the 16S rRNA gene, intergenic transcribed spacers and the 23S rRNA gene. Strains given in bold represent those isolates for which new sequences were obtained in the course of the present study. Bootstrap values for 1000 replicates are shown at branch nodes (NJ/MP). Vertical labels indicate geographic sites for analyzed isolates.

(AM230665, AM230675), Baja, Mexico (AM230677) and one sequence (AY493597) assigned to *Calothrix* from Antarctica, which we propose belongs to the genus *Rivularia*. Clade III grouped the sequences of *Tolypothrix* PCC 7504 originating from the Baltic Sea, *Tolypothrix* AB093486, *Calothrix* AB074504, from Palau island, which we propose to be a *Tolypothrix*, *Anabaena variabilis* and *Nostoc* PCC 7120. Clade IV was a *Calothrix* clade, and included all sequences from the Baltic Sea and the strain PCC 7103. The cyanobacterial sequences from Heron Island (Australia) grouped more closely to *Rivularia*, although they showed enough genetic distance to be considered as a separate clade.

Recent molecular-based analysis has attempted to disentangle the evolutionary relationships between Calothrix and closely related genera (Hongmei et al., 2005; Sihvonen et al., 2007; Berrendero et al., 2008). Using a region of the 16S rRNA gene, strains morphologically identified as Calothrix were found to be representatives of Gloeotrichia and Tolypothrix (Sihvonen et al., 2007). Further, the work of Berrendero et al. (2008) suggest a phylogenetic analysis that strains from calcareous rivers and streams attributed based on morphological traits to Calothrix actually pertain to Rivularia, a genus that has been proposed to be extremely abundant in calcareous freshwater habitats (Pentecost & Whitton, 2000). Nevertheless, due to differences between morphologic and phylogenetic classifications, Sihvonen et al. (2007) and Berrendero et al. (2008) supported the idea that the genus Calothrix is polyphyletic and suggested that it should be divided into different genera. Berrendero et al. (2008) also suggested that Rivularia is not monophyletic.

In contrast to the above, our Bayesian phylogenetic inference analyses showed a robust separation of *Calothrix* and *Rivularia*, suggesting that they represent monophyletic genera (Figs 1 and 2). The sequences obtained in the present study for the strains *Calothrix* PCC 7103 and *Tolypothrix* PCC 7504 were found to be heterogenous (Fig. 1), and are clearly monophyletic, showing the interspecific divergence of these strains. It is also clear from our data that *Tolypothrix* and *Gloeotrichia* constitute phylogenetic groups with imprecise demarcations according to existing sequences in public databases. Both of these clades were intermingled with various genera in the MAP topology (Fig. 2).

It has been stated that approximately 50% of deposited strains in major cyanobacterial collections are misidentified (Komárek & Anagnostidis, 1989), causing confusion in the literature. Here we propose based on MAP, NJ, MP and ML topologies that *Calothrix* AB074504 pertains to *Tolypothrix* and that sequence EU009149 pertains to *Calothrix*. We also conclude, like Stucken *et al.* (2010), that morphologic characteristics do not suffice for detailed classification of filamentous, heterocystous cyanobacteria, whereas robust phylogenetic analysis can clarify phylogenetic affiliations.

#### Ancestry of Rivulariaceae genera and species

Molecular clock estimates of the 27 strains of *Rivulariaceae* examined here revealed interesting features. The heterocystous clade dated at  $2061 \pm 38$  MYA, which coincides with recent molecular clock estimates of the origin for this group (Falcón *et al.*, 2010), as well as with previous estimates based on genetic distance and fossil calibrations (Tomitani *et al.*, 2006). The monophyly of the heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria is reflected in this and other studies based on 16S rRNA gene sequences as well as with other phylogenetically informative regions (*nifH* and *hetR*) (Honda *et al.*, 1998; Marquardt & Palinska, 2006; Tomitani *et al.*, 2006).

The robust MAP topology was used to date times of separation between genera and species within the *Rivulariaceae* strains included in our study (Fig. 2). The molecular clock estimated that dates for the appearance of both genera *Calothrix* (1346 ± 108 MYA) and *Rivularia* (1132 ± 53 MYA) fell within the same time span. The time of appearance of the strains *Calothrix* PCC 7103 (338 ± 37 MYA), *Tolypothrix* PCC 7504 (372 ± 58 MYA) and *Rivularia* spp. from Pozas Azules I in México (380 ± 88 MYA) and *Calothrix* from Askö in the Baltic Sea in Sweden (290 ± 52 MYA) also coincided. In contrast, the clade representing the strains from the subtropical Great Barrier Reef (Heron Island) appeared about the same time as the genera *Calothrix* and *Rivularia* (1458 ± 151 MYA), and together with the genetic



**Fig. 2.** Bayesian phylogenetic analysis showing the MAP between the three heterocystous genera *Rivularia*, *Tolypothrix* and *Calothrix*. Divergence time estimate intervals for the appearance of each clade are shown in parentheses. The tree was calibrated fixing the cyanobacterial clade at 2700 MYA.

distance that separates this clade from the others, suggests they may constitute one genus. The molecular clock-estimated dates for the appearance of *Tolypothrix*  $(610 \pm 89 \text{ MYA})$  and *Gloeotrichia*  $(494 \pm 46 \text{ MYA})$  suggest that these genera are much younger than *Calothrix, Rivularia* and the strains from Heron Island (Australia). The above is the first suggestion that not all the genera of cyanobacteria may have appeared during a single evolutionary explosion.

Schopf (1994) proposed, based on similarities between fossils and extant groups of cyanobacteria, that they are evolving at exceptionally slow rates (hypobradytelic). In fact it seems that cyanobacteria have not shown any apparent morphological changes over hundreds, or even thousands of millions of years. The hypobradytelic mode of evolution may have been characteristic of the Precambrian history of life. Our study is the first attempt to make a time estimate for genera and strains within cyanobacteria. The lapses of time presented here agree with the hypobradytelic hypothesis, indicating extremely large time points for the evolution and separation of genera (~1400 MYA) and strains ( $\sim$ 300 MYA). Schopf (1994) suggests that this slow mode of evolution is in accordance with what Simpson defined in his study 'Tempo and Mode in Evolution' (1944). Hypobradytely would apply to species with a large population size, ecologic versatility and a large degree of adaptation to an ecological position and continuously available environment. Cyanobacteria fit this definition, being a remarkable lineage considering their longevity, ease of dispersal (resulting in a wide cosmopolitan distribution), as seen in low-temperature ecotypes (Jungblut et al., 2010), and their ability to survive wide abiotic ranges, including intense desiccation and radiation. Also, analysis of cyanobacterial populations from hot springs and geothermal environments following a molecular ecology approach has shown that geographic isolation can play an important role in shaping phylogenies and distribution patterns in certain environments (Papke et al., 2003). The need to generate additional information aimed at unraveling the evolutionary relationships within Cyanobacteria is evident. To date, approximately 50 sequenced cyanobacterial genomes (complete or in progress) are available. However, 41 represent members of the unicellular subsection/group I, with the vast majority being representatives of only two genera: Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus. Only eight genomes of the genus-rich group IV heterocystous cyanobacteria have been sequenced despite their obvious evolutionary and ecological importance, and deeper phylogenetic inferences are needed to clear relationships within this group.

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