Seasonal variation of planktonic chrysophytes with special focus on *Dinobryon*

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Abstract: The diversity of chrysophytes is often underestimated in morphological surveys because of the limited amount of detectable characters under the light microscope. Addressing biodiversity issues solely based on morphological characters is further problematic since molecular analyses revealed a huge genetic diversity within morphotypes, even showing polyphyly in some morphological defined species. In order to address the seasonal variations of chrysophytes, 10 samples were collected in 2007 from the oligotrophic lake Fuschlsee (Salzkammergut, Austria). By using *Dinobryon* as a case study, we compared different gene phylogenies of single cells of the 18S, ITS (including ITS1, 5.8S, partial ITS2) and the mitochondrial marker COI. No clear molecular phylogenetic separation between morphological identified cells of D. divergens and D. bavaricum could be accomplished based on the 18S rDNA sequences. ITS and COI sequence data revealed a higher genetic diversity then the 18S, with several independent lineages consisting of D. divergens cells. We further encountered divergent phylogenies by comparing 18S/ITS sequence data with COI data within D. pediforme, D. sociale and D. bavaricum lineages. By combining the results of the single cell approach with seasonal data based on 454 pyrosequencing, we addressed the question in how far one morphological species may dominate in the water column over the course of a single year. The results of the 454 pyrosequencing revealed that the D. divergens/D. bavaricum lineage shows the highest abundance from all Chrysophyceae/Synurophyceae and strong seasonal variations with peaks in May and October.

Key words: chrysophytes, Dinobryon, diversity, phylogeny, 454 pyrosequencing, single-cell PCR

Introduction

In the past, the exploration of protist diversity in lakes was either focused on microscopic determination of morphological characters (PADISÁK et al. 1998) or genetic surveys, by cloning and subsequent Sanger sequencing of selected clones (Levèvre et al. 2008; Luo et al. 2011). Molecular investigations of different organismal groups revealed high phylogenetic diversity within one morphotype, showing the difficulties in addressing biodiversity issues based solely on morphological characters (Bock et al. 2011a; Krienitz et al. 2012; JENA et al. 2014). On the other hand, the ecology of many protists is still understudied. The same morphospecies may occur in nearby habitats, but is represented by different genotypes, demonstrating the inadequate knowledge of the ecology of many protist groups (Auinger et al. 2008; Pfandl et al. 2009; Bock et al. 2011b). Morphological convergence, often a response to habitat or herbivore pressure, further adds to the problem of assigning morphospecies to phylogenetic lineages. Specifically, simple body forms can lead to an underestimation of genetic diversity, as was shown in the example of the "green ball" *Chlorella*, which was detected in several independent phylogenetic lineages corresponding to different molecular defined genera and species (Huss et al. 1999; Krienitz et al. 2004; Neustupa et al. 2009) or for the colourless chrysophyte *Spumella* (Findenig et al. 2010). However, despite the general tendency to underestimate diversity in morphological analyses, the opposite, i.e. phenotypic plasticity as a response to habitat or herbivore pressure, has also been demonstrated for several algal species, like *Scenedesmus* or *Micractinium* (e.g. Trainor 1998; Lürling 1998, 1999; Luo et al. 2005, 2006).

Since the development of next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies, the analyses of biodiversity shifted more to focusing on genetic variation within a given sample. Short sequences obtained by NGS technologies are searched against a nucleotide database (NCBI or similar databases). In undersampled/understudied groups of organisms, these searches obtain no or misleading results, as

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many of the sequences cannot be assigned to a specific name or group of organism since the molecular data is missing, or no taxonomic information is assigned to the reference sequences. An abundant group of mainly unicellular or colonial planktonic protists are chrysophytes (Chrysophyceae, Stramenopiles). They occur in marine and freshwater habitats and are one of the most prominent phytoplankton groups in alpine lakes (Tolotti et al. 2003; Willén 2003). They encompass varying nutritional strategies, including phototrophy, heterotrophy and mixotrophy, and are therefore important primary producers in aquatic systems as well as grazers of bacteria-sized microorganisms (Finlay & Esteban 1998; Boenigk & ARNDT 2002). One dominant mixotrophic chrysophyte in temperate lakes is Dinobryon Ehrenberg 1834 (SILVER & CHOCK 1986; HITCHMAN & JONES 2000; WATSON et al. 2001; Kamjunke et al. 2007). This distinctive cylindrical, vase- or funnel-shaped chrysophyte was firstly described by Ehrenberg in 1834 on the basis of Dinobryon sertularia Ehrenberg and is mainly found in oligotrophic and phosphorus-poor freshwater habitats (Lee 1980; Sandgren 1988; Canter-Lund & LUND 1995). The genus itself is known for its spring peak in the early stages of the thermal stratification in temperate lakes and forms a second, less abundant peak in late autumn (REYNOLD 1980; ARMSTRONG 1985; Tas 2010). The members of this group are morphologically separated by the form and shape of the lorica consisting of cellulosic microfibrils. However, even for such morphologically distinct and abundant protist genera the taxonomic value of morphological criteria on the species level is doubtful (Medinger et al. 2011). Molecular phylogenies revealed that the distinct morphotype of Dinobryon divergens is either a polyphyletic cryptic species complex or comprises morphological variants of a much broader 'biological' species (Jost et al. 2010; Medinger 2011).

In order to address the seasonal variations of chrysophytes, 10 samples were collected from the oligotrophic lake Fuschlsee (Salzkammergut, Austria), from the time of ice brake throughout the summer period to the winter season. By using *Dinobryon* as a case study, we compared different gene phylogenies based on single cells and 454 pyrosequencing data to investigate how far one morphological species may dominate the water column over the year and the suitability of the V4 region as marker gene.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling. The molecular diversity and seasonality of the chrysophytes (including Synurophyceae) of the oligotrophic Lake Fuschlsee, Salzkammergut, Austria was evaluated based on a regular sampling campaign in 2007 (Medinger et al. 2010; Nolte et al. 2010). Between March 2007 and October

2007, integrated samples covering the upper 10 m of the water column within the pelagic zone were collected every three weeks (10 samples in total, starting in week 13 at the end of March). Samples were filtered onto 0.2 µm polycarbonate filters, the filters air dried and frozen at -80 °C until DNA extraction for the high-throughput sequencing occurred. Additional samples were taken for single cell analysis with a 6 µm plankton net. The net samples were immediately transferred into 100 ml nontransparent flasks and preserved with Lugol's iodine solution (2% final concentration). Net-samples were stored at 4 °C in the dark until further processing and preparation for morphological analysis and single-cell PCR. Additionally, Lugol's iodine solution preserved Net-samples from the nearby lakes Loibersbacher Teiche (LO), Wallersee (Wa), Mondsee (Mo), Wolfgangsee (Wo), Grafenbergsee (GF) and Bad Heratingersee (He) were analyzed by light microscopy; if present, cells/colonies with Dinobryon morphology were picked for single cell analyses.

Sample preparation for Next Generation Sequencing and Bioinformatic analyses. Genomic DNA was extracted from the 0.2 µm polycarbonate filters with the DNeasy Tissue kit (Qiagen Gmbh Hilden, Germany) and amplified by HPLC purified PCR primers for the V3-V4 region of the SSU rRNA gene (fw: 5'- ATTAGGGTTCGATTCCGGAGAGG-3', rv: 5'-CTGGAATTACCGCGGSTGCTG - 3') following the protocol of Nolte et al. (2010). PCR products were pooled and sequenced on one full picotiterplate on a 454 Roche FLX sequencer. The quality filtering included adapter and primer clipping, removal of sequences that include uncertain bases (Ns), a quality score < 24 when averaged across the read after clipping adapters and primers or a minimum sequence length below 200 bp (including PCR primers) (for details see Nolte et al. 2010; PANDEY et al. 2010). Taxonomic classification and bioinformatic analyses were done as already described by Nolte et al. (2010) and Pandey et al. (2010). Reads which were classified as Chrysophyceae or Synurophyceae according to NCBI blast search were extracted and further processed. This resulted in 293 different sequences of approximately 180 bp lengths.

Standardization of reads and abundance data. In order to compare the abundance counts between samples taken at different times, the sequence count data were set to the same number by randomly selecting the equal number of sequences in each sample until the number from the date with the lowest amount of sequences were matched (for details see the already described protocol in Nolte et al. 2010).

Phylogenetic placement of the 454 reads and seasonal data. A dataset of 160 SSU rRNA gene reference sequences with 1218 bases, representing the major clades of the Chrysophyceae, was initially aligned using ClustalW (THOMPSON et al. 1994) and manually adjusted by eye. RAxML 7.2.7 with the General Time Reversible model of nucleotide substitution (STAMATAKIS et al. 2005) was used to create the phylogenetic reference tree (Fig. S1). The 293 different sequences from the 454 pyrosequencing ("query" sequences) were manually aligned and merged with the reference alignment. Query sequences were then placed on a phylogenetic tree by using pplacer v1.1 (Matsen et al. 2010). Lineages containing only 454 reads were manually collapsed and combined to one lineage on a 99% similarity threshold. The corresponding phylogenetic tree was divided in two parts (Figs 1, S2, S3). The uncertainty of a placement was

evaluated with the EDPL method (implemented in pplacer) using maximum likelihood and posterior probability for the weight. The EDPL is the expected distance between placement locations. The values are visualized on the phylogenetic tree in square brackets after the read ID.

Light microscopy. Aliquots of 10 ml Lugol fixed samples were settled in Utermöhl chambers onto coverslips (Utermöhl 1958) and analyzed by light microscopy at a total magnification of 200 (Zeiss Axiovert200, Zeiss, Jena, Germany). The samples were scanned for *Dinobryon* cells and appropriate cells were documented with Nikon NIS Elements software and identified according to Starmach (1985).

Single cell PCR. To obtain 18S, ITS (including ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2) and COI gene sequences from as many different Dinobryon cells as possible, we applied a modified multiplex single-cell PCR (SC PCR) approach after Jost et al. (2010). Briefly, Dinobryon colonies and single cells were isolated from plankton samples preserved with Lugol's iodine solution according to the protocol of AUINGER et al. (2008). The picked cells were washed with sterile medium to remove freely dissolved DNA from the sample (MEDINGER et al. 2010). The multiplex single-cell PCR followed the protocol of Jost et al. (2010), using the primers Eukf (5'-GAAACTGCGAATGGCTCATTATATCAG - 3') (modified EK82f primer after AUINGER et al. 2008) and ITSJ1ar (5'- GCTTAAATTCAGCGGGTATTCTT - 3') (Jost unpublished) for the SSU-ITS2 fragment and Coxf (5'-TCTAGTATATTAGGAACCACGATGTC - 3') and Cox1br (5'- ACGGTAAACATATGATGAGCCCAAAC - 3') for COI (Jost et al. 2010; Jost unpublished). Amplification of the COI gene of Dinobryon pediforme cells was carried out using DpedCO1f(5'-GCGCAGCTTATGTATCCAGGTG-3') and DpedCO1r (5'- CATAAGCCATGCCTAGATAGCC -3') (Jost unpublished). As this primer pair did not work in liaison with the primer targeting the ribosomal operon in the multiplex approach, we split the solution with the disrupted single cell and amplified the ribosomal operon and the COI separately for D. pediforme. The COI amplification failed for all D. sociale strains. NCBI accession numbers of the newly sequenced cells are provided in Table S1.

Phylogenetic analyses on SSU, ITS and COI on single cells. Three different alignments were constructed for the phylogenetic analyses with the newly obtained sequences and additional sequences obtained from NCBI (http://www. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) on the basis of previous publications (e.g. Jost et al. 2010; Medinger et al. 2010; Silberfeld et al. 2010; Klaveness et al. 2011). The sequences were initially aligned using ClustelW (THOMPSON et al. 1994) and adjusted by eye using the SequentiX Alignment Editor (HEPPERLE 2004). Ambiguous aligned regions were excluded from the alignment. The phylogeny of the 18S (Fig. S4) was inferred from an aligned dataset including 129 chrysophycean sequences based on 1197 characters. Four sequences (Synchroma grande DQ788730, Leukarachnion sp. FJ356265, Nannochloropsis granulata JF489984, Picophagus flagellatus AF185051) were chosen as outgroup according to previous publications (PATIL et al. 1999; KLAVENESS et al. 2011). The concatenated 18S–ITS (including 18S, ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2) phylogeny (Fig. 2) was inferred from a partitioned dataset of 96 Dinobryon- sequences with 2012 bases. Ambiguous aligned regions were excluded from the alignment. The COI phylogeny (Fig. 3) was inferred from 141 genomic sequences with 567 characters. Since three sequences of *Dinobryon pediforme* (culture LO226KS, cells LO236_ 2, LO236_3) derivate strongly in their sequence from other chrysophytes, a NCBI blastn search for somewhat similar sequences were conducted and the resulted related sequences of the major clades of the Phaeophyceae were chosen to represent this group. The *Dinobryon* clusters were designated according to Jost et al. (2010).

Each phylogeny presented here was inferred by maximum likelihood settings using Treefinder (Jobb et al. 2004). The most appropriate substitution models were estimated using the AICc criteria within Treefinder (for SSU: GTR+I+G model; partitioned dataset: SSU: TN, ITS1: HKY, 5.8S: HKY, ITS2: J2; COI: HKY). Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP) were calculated by using MrBayes version 3.1 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003). For each presented tree, two runs with four chains of Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) iterations were performed with tree sampling every 100 generations. The GTR+G model with gamma shape parameter and proportion of invariable sites were chosen for the datasets. For the partitioned dataset the parameters were unlinked and allowed to vary across the partitions. Tracer V1.4 (RAMBAUT & DRUMMOND 2007) was used to check the stationary phase and to identify an appropriate burn in value. The first 25% of the trees were discarded as burn–in and 50% majority-rule consensus trees were calculated for posterior probabilities. To test the confidence of the tree topologies, bootstrap analyses were carried out for distance (neighbor joining, NJ; 1000 pseudoreplicates) and maximum parsimony analyses (MP, 1000 pseudoreplicates; with heuristic search options based on random taxon addition, tree-bisectionreconnection (TBR) branch swapping algorithm and Multrees option enabled) using PAUP*, portable version 4.0b10 (Swofford 2002), and for maximum likelihood using Treefinder (ML, 1000 pseudoreplicates; settings as described above), respectively.

RESULTS

Due to the phylogenetic placement of the 454 reads, huge seasonal variations could be observed for several lineages (see Figs 1, S2, S3). An alternate pattern occurred within the Paraphysomonadidae (ID 122, ID 127, ID 103); within lineages related to *Apoika* sp. (ID 6, ID 106); within Synurales (IDs 107, 28) and Chromulinales (IDs 51, 65). The highest abundance was observed for the ID 1 (Dinobryon divergens/ bavaricum lineage) within the Ochromonadales. The main peak occurred in the first third of the year, and a second peak in October. The same peaks could be observed on a smaller scale for the ID 58 within the Dinobryon sociale lineage. The results of the SC PCR and the corresponding phylogenies show that D. divergens contains a high genetic diversity based on ITS and COI data (Figs 2, 3). Divergent clustering could be observed for D. pediforme who clustered within the Phaeophyceae based on COI information.

Phylogenetic placement of 454 reads and seasonal abundance

After the standardization of the reads, NCBI blast resulted in 27.698 sequence reads out of 139.318 reads which were classified as Chrysophyceae/Synurophyceae as the nearest NCBI blast hit. These sequences were applied to a reference alignment (see reference tree Fig. S1) and phylogenetically placed on the ML phylogram by using the program pplacer v1.1 (MATSEN et al. 2010).

The reads clustered in all major clades of the Chrysophyceae (Figs 1, S2). In the applied abundance data, a recurring seasonal pattern for a broad range of phylogenetic lineages could be observed. Noticeable was an alternate occurrence of three lineages within the Paraphysomonadidae. Seq. ID 122 (related to Paraphysomonas bandaiensis) had its main peak in the first third of the year, intersecting with ID127, which last from May to July followed by ID 103. A similar pattern could be observed with reads closely related to Apoika sp. Seq. ID 29 had a total abundance above 1000 reads and occurred more or less stable from April to September. On top of that, the Seq. ID 6 and ID 106 alternated in so far, that ID 6 was found with high abundance from March to early May, replaced by high read counts of ID 106 from end of May to August (while ID 6 was absent) until it occurred again from September to October, where ID 106 was absent. A similar pattern was observed for the Synurales (IDs 107 and 28) and Chromulinales (IDs 51, 65). The sequence with the highest amount of reads was ID 1, clustering within the Ochromonadales, specifically within Dinobryon divergens/bavaricum lineage. It showed a seasonal pattern with high abundance in the first third of the year, decreasing during the summer time and high amount of reads at the end of the vegetation period. This applies on a smaller scale to the ID 58 within the *D. sociale* lineage.

Morphological observations of single cells of *Dinobryon* species

The isolated cells showed typical characters for members of the genus *Dinobryon*: Cells with two heterokont flagella, surrounded by a flasked–shaped lorica. They occurred in free living solitary or branched colonies. The following species were morphological determined:

Dinobryon bavaricum: Colonies narrow and long. The lorica is divided into two parts, one upper cylindrical part and a long lower, narrow pointed part. Lorica 40–71μm long in total. Lengths of the upper nearly cylindrical part 19–31μm. The opening at the cylindrical part is 6.3–8.5 μm wide, the lower end of the cylindrical part 6.1–8.5μm wide. The cells vary from 10.5–20×4.8–7.3 μm.

Dinobryon divergens: Lorica curved, 37–50μm long. The lorica is divided into two parts: one upper

cylindrical part and a short lower, pointed part. Lower part sometimes oblique pointed. Cylindrical part 15–33.5 μ m long, opening at the upper end 6.5–10 μ m wide, at the lower end 6.5–10.05 μ m. The cells range from 8.1–15.3×4.2–7.1 μ m.

Dinobryon sociale: Lorica conical, 28–45.8 μm long. Lorica from the upper end gradually becoming narrow. Opening 7.1–9.2 μm wide. The cells range from 6.7– 14×4.5 –6.2 μm.

Dinobryon pediforme: Similar to *D. divergens*. Lorica cylindrical with a oblique pointed tip. Lorica 17–21 μm long, Opening 4.7–6.9 μm wide, lower part 4.9–6.1 μm wide. Cells $6.1–12.3\times3.9–5.4$ μm.

Phylogenetic analyses on single cells

The general order of the SSU phylogeny (Fig. S4) was congruent with previous publications (Jost et al. 2010; Klaveness et al. 2011). Dinobryon sequences formed a clade within the Ochromonadales. The Dinobryon-clade was subdivided into 4 different main lineages with different statistical support. The two SSU sequences of D. pediforme (strain LO226KS, cell LO236 1) formed a lineage next to previously published sequences of D. sertularia, D. cylindricum, D. sociale var. americana and D. cf. sociale (1.0 BPP and 100 bootstrap support for ML, MP, NJ). Another lineage consisted of newly sequenced D. sociale sequences. The last lineage comprised morphospecies of D. divergens and D. bavaricum. The lineage can be subdivided into two clusters of D. divergens (cluster 1 and cluster 2), one sequence of D. divergens with no affiliation and one cluster of D. bavaricum. The separation into these clusters, however, was statistically not or only slightly significant. The analyses of the concatenated set of SSU and ITS (including 5.8S) sequences (Fig. 2) showed the same pattern for the *D. sociale* and *D. pediforme* lineages as the SSU phylogeny, but a higher phylogenetic diversity for the D. bavaricum/D. divergens lineage. This lineage contained the statistically highly supported D. divergens cluster 1 (1.0 BPP and 100 bootstrap support for ML, MP, NJ) which comprises single cell sequences from different sampled lakes. Next to it a D. bavaricum lineage clustered with high statistical support (1.0 BPP and 100 bootstrap support for ML, MP, NJ). Together they formed a clade with high statistical support for ML, but medium support for all other analyses (0.95 BPP, bootstrap support of 100 for ML, 74 for MP and 88 for NJ). At the top the D. divergens cluster 2 could be divided into two lineages: one comprising 4 sequences originating from cells of the lake Grafenbergsee (GF39 1 – GF39 4) (1.0 BPP, 100 bootstrap support for ML, MP, NJ), and a second lineage with cell from different origins (1.0 BPP, 100 bootstrap support for ML, MP, NJ). By comparing the morphological observations of the investigated D. divergens cells with the phylogenies, no separation characters for phylogenetic lineages could be observed.

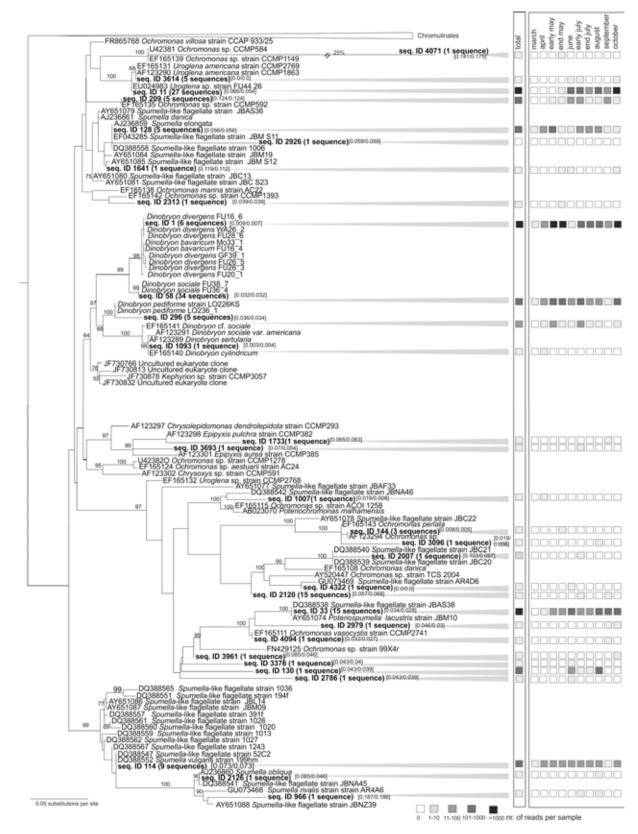
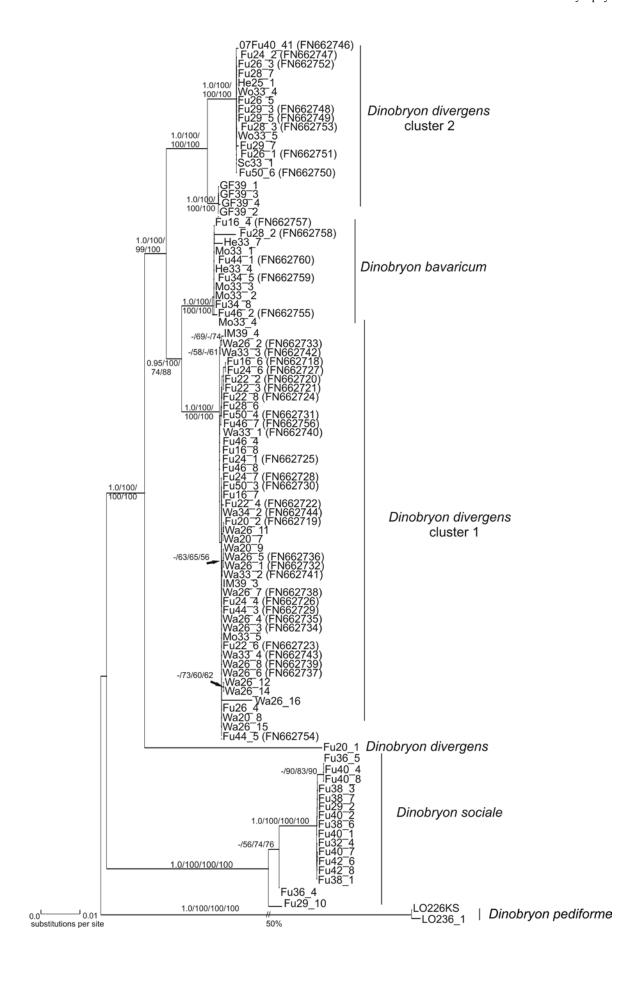


Fig. 1. Phylogenetic placement of 454 reads showing the Ochromonadales as part of a maximum likelihood reference phylogeny of the Chrysophyceae. For the whole phylogeny (see Figs S2 & S3), 160 SSU rRNA gene sequences with 1218 bases were used as references and the phylogeny calculated with RAxML 7.2.7 with the GTR model of nucleotide substitution (Stamatakis et al. 2005). Query sequences were placed on the phylogeny by using *pplacer v1.1* (Matsen et al. 2010). The clade of the Ochromonadales was excluded manually. Values in square brackets after the 454 IDs represent the EDPL uncertainty values (first value is based on based on ML and second value based on Bayesian analyses). Lineages containing solely 454 reads were collapsed on a 99% pair wise distance threshold and the abundance data was summarized. To the right of the tree, the abundance data is summarized into columns of each sample date. The left—most column, "total", contains the sum of all standardized reads, followed by sequence counts for the different sampling dates. The zero abundance of some sequences is a result of the standardization of reads where some rare sequences where not chosen during the process of standardization.



The investigated cells of the *D. divergens* cluster 1 and 2 show a both cases a broad range in terms of cell size and lorica size.

SSU/ITS and COI phylogeny (Figs 2, 3) were congruent for most of the investigated cells, i.e. sequences fell in the respective clusters. One exception occurred in the Dinobryon divergens cluster 2. The lineage containing GF39 1-GF39 4 formed according to their COI phylogeny a separate lineage outside the main D. divergens cluster 2. Similar exceptions were noticeable for the cells Wa26 2 and Wa33 3. They belonged to the D. divergens cluster 1 according to 18S/ITS information, but formed a separate lineage according to COI information. Divergent phylogenies were observed for Fu34_8 (D. bavaricum morphotype, Fig. 4) and Fu29_2 (D. sociale, Fig. 5). Fu34_8 clustered according to the 18S-ITS phylogeny (Fig. 2) within the *Dinobryon bavaricum* lineage, which was congruent with the morphology. According to the COI information, this cell clusters within the D. divergens cluster 2 (Fig. 3). Similarly, D. sociale Fu29 2 clustered in the D. sociale lineage according to the 18S-ITS phylogeny but in the D. divergens cluster 2 according to COI information. Huge discrepancies were also observed for the analyzed D. pediforme single cells (LO236 2, LO236 3) and one D. pediforme culture from the culture collection (strain LO226KS of the Laboratory Jens Boenigk, University Essen), all isolated from the lake Loibersbacher Teiche, Austria. According to 18S and ITS analyses they belong to the Chrysophyceae. In contrast, no unambiguous position could be determined based on their COI phylogeny. A clear phylogenetic placement was not possible, due to lacking close relatives. However, all three sequences clustered together within the Phaeophyceae, near members of the Ralfsiales according to their COI gene phylogeny (Fig. 3). To confirm this phylogeny, we conducted a ML phylogeny based on their amino acid sequences and found similar results (for details about methods and results see Fig. S5 and corresponding legend).

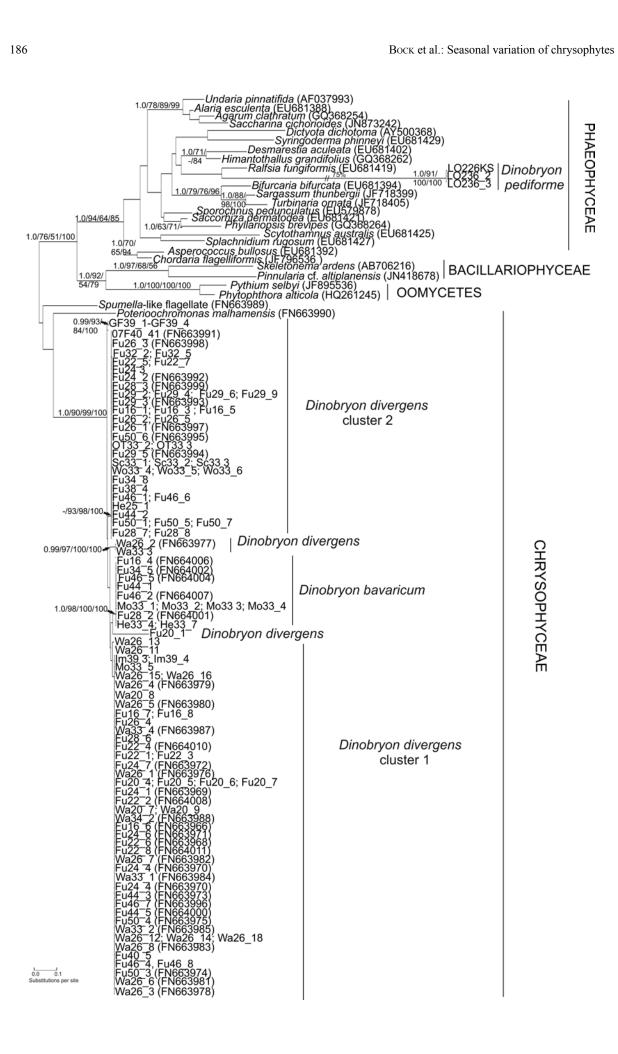
DISCUSSION

Seasonal shifts in plankton communities are widely documented in previous studies (Beaver & Chrisman 1989; Padisák et al. 1998; Gaedke & Wickham 2004). However, until now, many approaches consisted only of morphological surveys and neglected differences

between phylogenetic lineages. Recent morphological work shows that many species, defined by morphology, are in fact polyphyletic, belonging to different phylogenetic lineages and cannot be separated by their morphology (Krienitz et al. 2010; Findenig et al. 2010; Bock et al. 2011a,b). As a consequence, morphological determination might not be sufficient for assessing diversity and seasonal shifts of aquatic systems. By using Lake Fuschlsee as an example for seasonal changes in plankton communities, our study, like two previous studies, focused on genetic differences within a plankton community during one year (Medinger et al. 2010; Nolte et al. 2010). Nolte et al. (2010) focused on the unpigmented flagellates affiliated with the Spumella morphotype. Several previous studies showed that Spumella-like strains cluster in several phylogenetic lineages and are most probably polyphyletic and cannot be separated by light microscopical characters (Boenigk et al. 2005; Findening et al. 2010). The molecular approach of Nolte et al. (2010) revealed that Spumella-like organisms have seasonal abundance patterns that are consistent with the temperature preference of the reference strains (originating from different environments). The 454 reads associated with Spumella-like isolates from cold environments were more abundant in the first third of the year, while sequences associated with isolates from warmer environments were more frequent during the summer (for details see Nolte et al. 2010). This example shows the advantage of molecular tools like 454 sequencing in addressing ecological/diversity questions. In a morphological survey, Spumella-like flagellates would have probably been identified as a single species, and these interesting and ecological important shifts in the Spumella community might have been missed.

Our analyses of the 454 reads revealed that the D. divergens/D. bavaricum lineage showed the highest overall read number from all Chrysophyceae/ Synurophyceae but also strong seasonal variations. Several previous studies have shown that *Dinobryon* gains advantages due to its mixotrophic lifestyle when nutrients are limited (Pugnetti & Bettinetti 1999; Tas et al. 2010). Although Dinobryon has a prominent chloroplast and is able to photosynthesize, the species also feeds on bacteria and plays a significant role in the aquatic food web due to their predation on bacteria (BIRD & KALFF 1986; VEEN 1991). With a phosphor concentration of 5 mg.m⁻³, Lake Fuschlsee is a relatively phosphorous-poor inland water body (Galler 2006). Similarly, *Dinobryon* in Lake Constance was shown exemplarily to gain competition advantages during the

Fig. 2. Maximum likelihood phylogeny based on a concatenated set of 18S–ITS rRNA (including 18S, ITS1, 5.8S and partial ITS2) gene sequences. The phylogeny was inferred from a partitioned dataset of 96 *Dinobryon*— sequences with 2012 bases of different *Dinobryon* single cells using Treefinder (Jobb et al. 2004) with the models SSU: TN, ITS1: HKY, 5.8S: HKY, ITS2: J2. Values at the nodes indicate statistical support estimated by four methods — Bayesian support (BPP), maximum likelihood (ML), maximum parsimony (MP) and neighbor joining (NJ). Hyphens indicate support below 50% for ML, MP, NJ and below 0.95 for BPP.



early stages of the year in oligotrophic, phosphorous—poor waters, due to its ability to obtain organic phosphorus from its bacterial prey (Kamjunke et al. 2007). This might be an explanation of the seasonal peaks of *Dinobryon* in our study as well.

The reliability of 454 pyrosequencing results depend on several factors: e.g. the taxonomic coverage of the DNA reference library used or the suitability of the chosen markers to distinguish between closely related species. To evaluate the resolution of the V4 region, we combined the information of the 454 phylogenetic placement with the Dinobryon singlecell analyses on different genes. No clear separation between D. divergens and D. bavaricum cells could be accomplished based on the SSU rDNA sequences, which is reflected in phylogenetic placement of the Seq. ID 6 within the cluster *D. divergens /D. bavaricum* (Fig. 1). Our results confirm the previous findings of JOST et al. (2010) that D. divergens contains a high genetic diversity based on ITS and COI data (Figs 2, 3). Both phylogenies resolve several clusters of D. divergens, intermixed with a D. bavaricum cluster, demonstrating, that the *Dinobryon* morphotype, especially D. divergens, is genetically more diverse than expected from its morphology. By comparing the molecular results with the morphological data on lorica and cell size and range, no clear pattern could be identified. The variation in size and shape was huge for all phylogenetic lineages, and no trend or separation characters could be identified. To make matters even more unclear, isolated strains of Dinobryon species change their lorica shape (especially the size) under

culture conditions (personal observation) making the lorica a not reliable character to distinguish species. Whether we have polyphyletic cryptic species complexes or morphological variants of a much broader 'biological' species is open for discussion.

We also encountered divergent phylogenies within D. pediforme, D. sociale and D. bavaricum lineages. According to COI information, D. pediforme clustered within the Phaeophyceae and some D. sociale and D. bavaricum cells clustered within the D. divergens lineage respectively (controversy to their position based on 18S-ITS sequence data). This deviation of the COI phylogeny from the ITS phylogeny and the morphology is difficult to explain. As the results are not solely based on environmental samples but on one culture as well, we can, with near certainty, exclude factors like sequencing artifacts. Inconsistencies arising from a comparison of phylogenies based on different genes for the same taxa are known from several protist groups (Shalchian-Tabrizi et al. 2006; Stoeck et al. 2008). Nevertheless, a proven explanation for such inconsistencies is still missing. Possible explanations include differential evolutionary rates of genes in different organisms (Philippe et al. 2000), hybridization beyond species borders or lateral/ horizontal gene transfer. Lateral gene transfer, in particular, has been accepted for prokaryotic organisms for some time, but only recently have studies focused on the same phenomenon in eukaryotes (ANDERSSON et al. 2003; Andersson 2005 and citations within). It is assumed that gene transfer occurs in protists with phagotrophic lifestyles in the same frequency as in

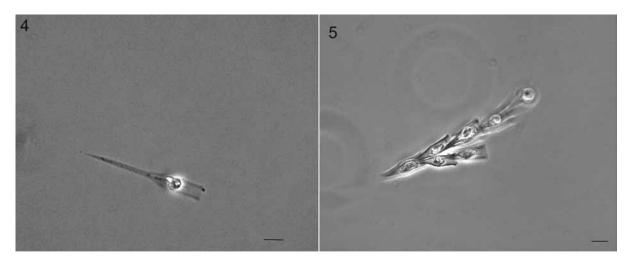


Fig. 4. Microphotograph of *Dinobryon bavaricum* Fu 34_8 . Scale bar $10\mu m$. Fig. 5. Microphotograph of *Dinobryon sociale* Fu 29_2 . Scale bar $10\mu m$.

Fig. 3. Maximum likelihood phylogeny of the nucleotide COI gene data of representatives of the Straminopiles based on 141 genomic sequences with 567 characters. Maximum likelihood was calculated using Treefinder (Jobb et al. 2004) with the HKY model. Values at the nodes indicate statistical support estimated by four methods – Bayesian posterior probability (BPP), maximum likelihood (ML), maximum parsimony (MP) and neighbor joining (NJ). Hyphens indicate support below 50% for ML, MP, NJ and below 0.95 for BPP. Single cells originating from the same lake (and isolation date) which have the same sequence were summarized on one line to reduce the size of the figure.

prokaryotic groups. Chrysophytes and specifically *Dinobryon* spp. are certainly mixotrophic and sexually reproducing. Thus, gene exchange by hybridization, as well as lateral gene transfer from ingested food items, may possibly play a role. Further, lateral gene transfer by viral vectors may also occur. Nevertheless, the COI placement of D. pediforme within the Phaeophyceae remains speculative as these organisms live in different habitats. Nevertheless, as this result was obtained independently not only from several single cells but also from mono-algal cultures, we can exclude contaminations with certainty. In concert with other deviating phylogenies within the chrysophytes, e.g. for colourless strains (Stoeck et al. 2008) and other Dinobryon strains (this study), these results indicate that further broad-scale analyses of potential horizontal gene transfers in protists are needed. This and the cited studies suggest that chrysophytes might be a particularly well-suited target group for such work.

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Supplementary material

the following supplementary material is available for this article:

- Table S1. Newly obtained accession numbers for the analyzed regions.
- Fig. S1. Maximum likelihood phylogeny based on SSU rRNA of the chryosphytes used as a reference tree for the phylogenetic placement of the 454 reads.
- Fig. S2. Phylogenetic placement of 454 reads (293 different sequences, each reads contained approx. 180bp) on a maximum likelihood reference tree of the Chrysophyceae.
- Fig. S3. The figure shows the Ochromonadales as part of the phylogenetic placement of the 454 reads within the Chrysophyceae (see Fig. S2).
- Fig.S4. Maximum likelihood phylogeny based on 18S rRNA gene data of Chrysophyceae, including single cell sequences of different *Dinobryon* cells.
- Fig. S5. Maximum likelihood phylogeny based on COI amino acids information. Alignment consisted of 141 taxa with 189 characters.

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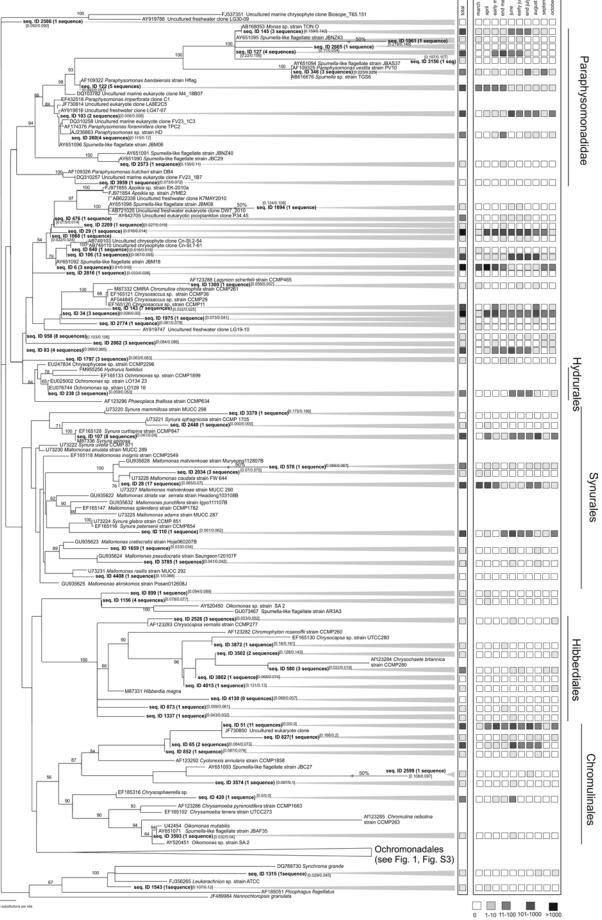
Table S1. Newly obtained accession numbers for the analyzed regions.

	Morphological designation	NCBI Acc.nr SSU, ITS1,5.8S,ITS2	NCBI Acc.nr COI
Fu34_8	Dinobryon bavaricum	KJ579311	KJ579375
Fu44_1	Dinobryon bavaricum		KJ579422
HE33_4	Dinobryon bavaricum	KJ579312	KJ579387
HE33_7	Dinobryon bavaricum	KJ579313	KJ579388
Mo33_1	Dinobryon bavaricum	KJ579314	KJ579399
Mo33_2	Dinobryon bavaricum	KJ579315	KJ579400
Mo33_3	Dinobryon bavaricum	KJ579316	KJ579401
Mo33_4	Dinobryon bavaricum	KJ579317	KJ579402
Fu16_3	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579349
Fu16_1	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579348
Fu16_5	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579350
Fu16_7	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579318	KJ579351
Fu16_8	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579319	KJ579352
Fu20_1	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579320	KJ579353
Fu20_4	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579354
Fu20_5	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579355
Fu20_6	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579356
Fu20_7	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579357
Fu22_3	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579359
Fu22_1	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579358
Fu22_5	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579360
Fu22_7	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579361
Fu24_3	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579362
Fu26_2	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579363
Fu26_4	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579321	KJ579364
Fu26_5	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579322	KJ579365
Fu28_6	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579323	KJ579366
Fu28_7	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579324	KJ579367
Fu28_8	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579368
Fu29_4	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579370
Fu29_6	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579371
Fu29_7	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579325	
Fu29_9	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579372
Fu32_2	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579373
Fu32_5	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579374
Fu38_4	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579376
Fu40_5	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579377

Fu44_2	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579378
Fu46_1	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579379
Fu46_4	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579326	KJ579380
Fu46_6	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579381
Fu46_8	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579327	KJ579382
Fu50_1	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579383
Fu50_5	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579384
Fu50_7	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579385
GF39_1	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579328	KJ579393
GF39_2	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579329	KJ579394
GF39_3	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579330	KJ579395
GF39_4	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579331	KJ579396
HE25_1	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579332	KJ579386
IM39_3	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579333	KJ579397
IM39_4	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579334	KJ579398
MO33_5	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579335	KJ579403
OT33_3	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579416
OT33_2	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579414
Sc33_3	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579418
Sc33_1	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579336	KJ579404
Sc33_2	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579415
Wa20_7	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579337	KJ579390
Wa20_8	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579338	KJ579389
Wa20_9	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579339	KJ579391
Wa26_18	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579411
Wa26_11	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579340	KJ579405
Wa26_12	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579341	KJ579406
Wa26_13	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579407
Wa26_14	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579342	KJ579408
Wa26_15	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579343	KJ579409
Wa26_16	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579344	KJ579410
Wa26_6	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579392
Wo33_4	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579346	KJ579412
Wo33_5	Dinobryon divergens	KJ579345	KJ579413
Wo33_6	Dinobryon divergens		KJ579417
LO226KS	Dinobryon pediforme	KJ913667	KJ579421
LO236_1	Dinobryon pediforme	KJ579347	
LO236_2	Dinobryon pediforme		KJ579419

LO236_3	Dinobryon pediforme		KJ579420
Fu29_10	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579296	
Fu29_2	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579295	KJ579369
Fu32_4	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579297	
Fu36_4	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579298	
Fu36_5	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579299	
Fu38_1	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579300	
Fu38_3	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579301	
Fu38_6	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579302	
Fu38_7	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579303	
Fu40_1	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579304	
Fu40_2	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579305	
Fu40_4	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579306	
Fu40_7	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579307	
Fu40_8	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579308	
Fu42_6	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579309	
Fu42_8	Dinobryon sociale	KJ579310	





nr. of reads per sample

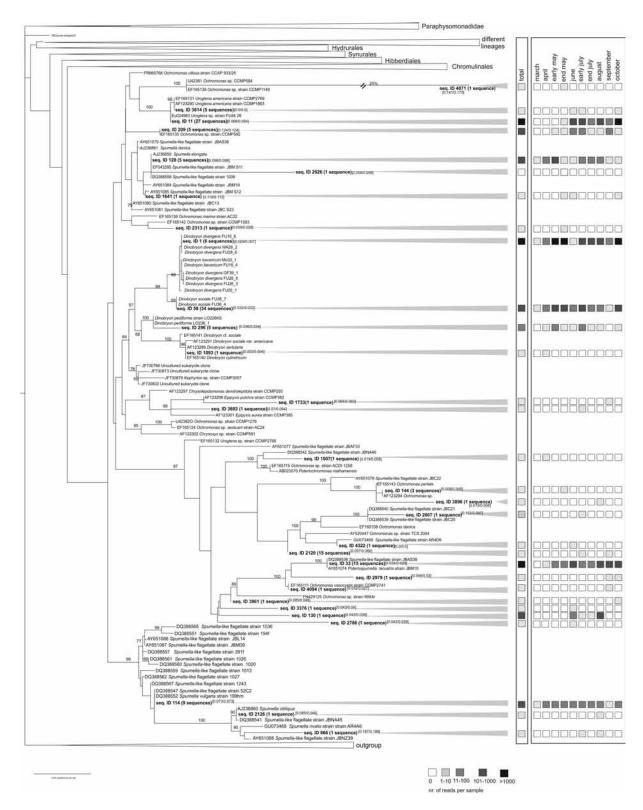
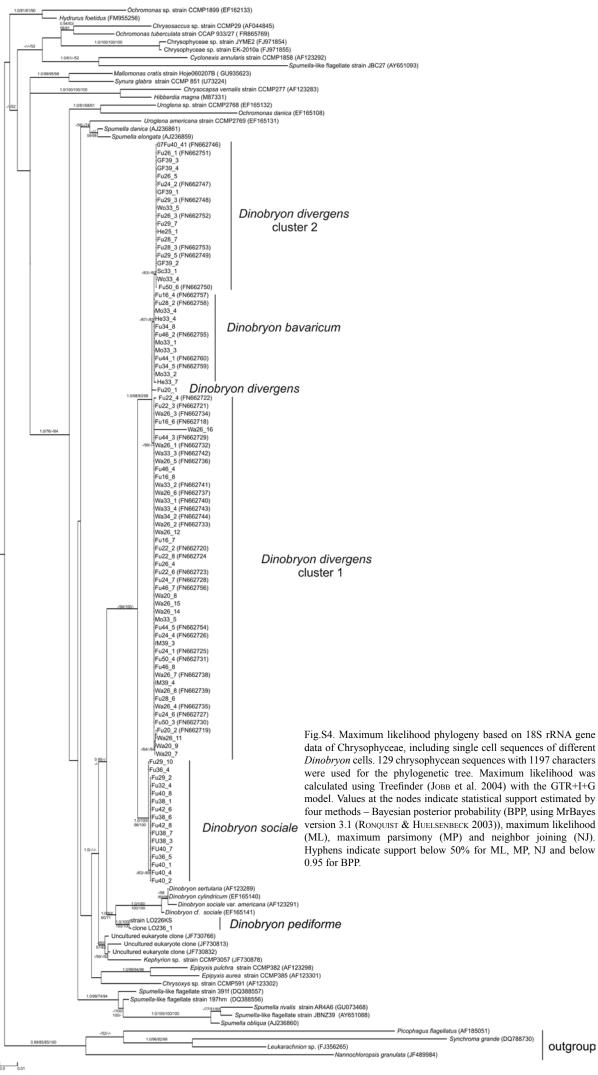
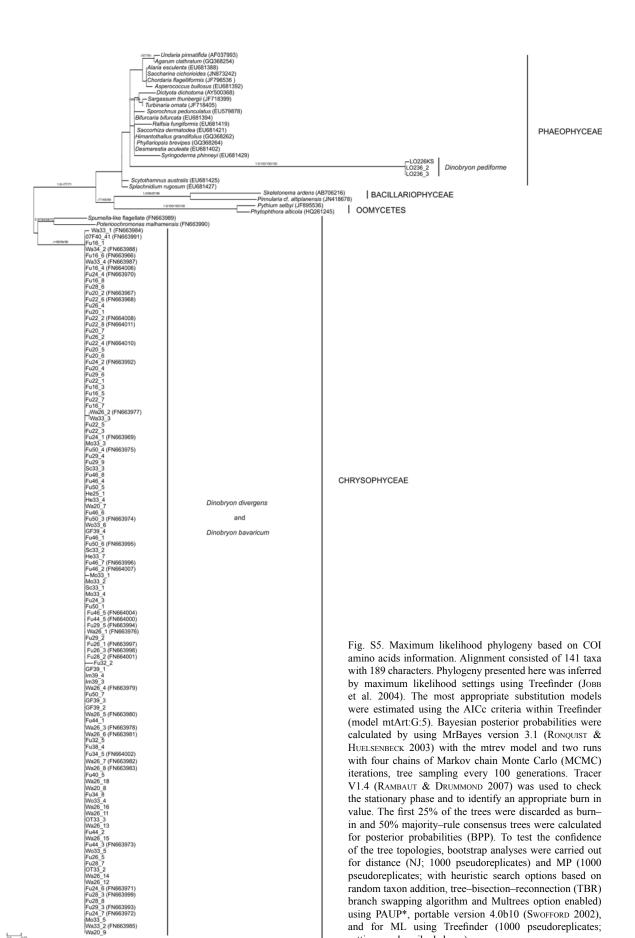


Fig. S3. The figure shows the Ochromonadales as part of the phylogenetic placement of the 454 reads within the Chrysophyceae (see Fig. S2). The phylogenetic lineages of the remaining clades of the Chrysophyceae are collapsed and shown as triangular boxes.

Fig. S2. Phylogenetic placement of 454 reads (293 different sequences, each reads contained approx. 180bp) on a maximum likelihood reference tree of the Chrysophyceae. 160 SSU rRNA gene sequences with 1218 bases were used as references and the phylogeny calculated with RAXML 7.2.7 with the GTR model of nucleotide substitution (Stamatakis et al. 2005). Query sequences were placed on the phylogeny by using *pplacer v1.1* (Matsen et al. 2010). Values in square brackets after the 454 IDs represent the EDPL uncertainty values (first value is based on ML and second value based on Bayesian analyses). Lineages containing solely 454 reads were collapsed on a 99% pair wise distance threshold. To the right of the tree, the abundance data is summarized into columns of each sample date. The left—most column, "total" contains the sum of all standardized reads, followed by sequence counts for the different sampling dates. The zero abundance of some sequences is a result of the standardization of reads where some rare sequences where not chosen during the process of standardization. The clade of the Ochromonadales was excluded manually due to limited space and is shown in Figure 1 and Fig. S3.



substitutions per site



and for ML using Treefinder (1000 pseudoreplicates;

settings as described above).