Synechococcus: 3 billion years of global dominance

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Abstract

Cyanobacteria are among the most important primary producers on the Earth. However, the evolutionary forces driving cyanobacterial species diversity remain largely enigmatic due to both their distinction from macro-organisms and an undersampling of sequenced genomes. Thus, we present a new genome of a *Synechococcus*-like cyanobacterium from a novel evolutionary lineage. Further, we analyse all existing 16S rRNA sequences and genomes of *Synechococcus*-like cyanobacteria. Chronograms showed extremely polyphyletic relationships in *Synechococcus*, which has not been observed in any other cyanobacteria. Moreover, most *Synechococcus* lineages bifurcated after the Great Oxidation Event, including the most abundant marine picoplankton lineage. Quantification of horizontal gene transfer among 70 cyanobacterial genomes revealed significant differences among studied genomes. Horizontal gene transfer levels were not correlated with ecology, genome size or phenotype, but were correlated with the age of divergence. All findings were synthetized into a novel model of cyanobacterial evolution, characterized by serial convergence of the features, that is multicellularity and ecology.

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Introduction

Synechococcus is widely considered one of the most abundant photo-oxygenic micro-organisms on Earth (Whitton & Potts 2000). Together with *Prochlorococcus*, it is responsible for ca. 25% of oceanic net primary production (Flombaum *et al.* 2013). *Synechococcus* is a cosmopolitan genus of cyanobacteria found in marine, freshwater, terrestrial and subaerial habitats. Further, its range extends from arctic to tropical waters, as an epiphyte, free living or in symbiotic relations with plants and animals (Honda *et al.* 1999; Robertson *et al.* 2001; Usher *et al.* 2004; Erwin & Thacker 2008; Dvořák *et al.* 2014). While ubiquitous in nearly all habitats, *Synechococcus* is most intensively studied as a common component of pelagic marine picoplankton (Haverkamp *et al.* 2009) and thermal habitats (Papke *et al.* 2003).

Synechococcus taxa are small (ca. 0.4-6 μm), bacilloid organisms, capable of forming pseudo-filaments, with

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little additional distinguishing morphology. It has long been considered as a coherent genus due to low morphological variability, which is also apparent in the ultrastructure of the cells (Komárek et al. 1999). This greatly complicates taxonomical differentiation, because early molecular techniques showed significant differences among Synechococcus strains, for example in G+C content (Waterbury & Rippka 1989), suggesting diverse evolutionary trajectories and thus separation to different genera. Some of these genera have already been described, for example Cyanobium and Cyanobacterium (Holt et al. 1994), but the evolutionary relationships within the Synechococcus group seem to be significantly more entangled. Recently, investigations employing genetic markers (e.g. the 16S rRNA and 16S-23S ITS gene regions) have noted at least five (Honda et al. 1999) and as many as seven (Robertson et al. 2001) clades, which do not seem to have a corresponding ecological or morphological signature. For example, hot spring taxa have been recovered in multiple lineages based on sequence data, and freshwater and marine taxa are likewise interspersed throughout the lineages.

Moreover, new Synechococcus-like evolutionary lineages are still being discovered, for example Neosynechococcus (Dvořák et al. 2014).

One of the principal difficulties in reconstructing prokaryotic phylogenetic lineages is elucidating the evolutionary pressures on lineage divergence. As cyanobacteria are asexual, many of the evolutionary models employed by other taxonomic groups are inappropriate. However, genetic exchange between cyanobacterial lineages is possible and may be quite common. For example, both horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (Zhaxybayeva et al. 2006; David & Alm 2010; Polz et al. 2013) and homologous recombination (HR, Fraser et al. 2007) have been postulated as significant evolutionary forces in cyanobacteria. While some have proposed that bacteria with significant HR (when the HR exceeds mutation rates) are in fact sexual (Fraser et al. 2007), numerous competing models have advocated otherwise (see Polz et al. 2013 for review).

Due to their ubiquity and ecological significance, the majority of research relating to Synechococcus has thus far been focused on marine habitats. Recent research has uncovered a bounty of cryptic diversity, with speciation being evidenced by differential photopigment production not necessarily reflected in 16S rRNA diversity (Rocap et al. 2002). The genus as a whole is increasingly being investigated on a genomic scale, with 26 of 43 currently completely sequenced cyanobacterial genomes being from Synechococcus (GOLD database, http://genomesonline.org/cgi-bin/GOLD/index.cgi). However, there exists a dearth of information correlating genomic data with ecology or evolutionary history within these lineages, and nearly none from nonmarine environments. The work presented herein contributes to this knowledge gap by providing: (i) a de novo assembly of the genome of a novel Synechococcus-like strain from a peat bog, (ii) an assessment of phylogenies of available Synechococcus 16S rRNA sequences comparing them to trees generated from current available Synechococcus genomes, (iii) an estimate of the timescale of Synechococcus-like cyanobacteria evolution using molecular clocks and (iv) an examination of the potential evolutionary forces shaping the speciation events (e.g. the role and tempo of HGT).

Methods

Draft genome sequencing

Strain description and culture conditions are available in Dvořák et al. (2014). The strain Neosynechococcus sphagnicola CAUP A 1101 has been isolated from a peatbog Klin (19°29'E, 49°25'N) in Protected Landscape Area Horná Orava, near Namestovo (Slovakia). It inhabits hyaline cells of Sphagnum sp., sheaths of cyanobacteria and other surfaces with biotic origin, and solitary in detritus. The strain was unialgal with bacterial contamination and maintained in Zehnder medium (Staub 1961) under the following conditions: temperature 22 ± 1 °C, illumination $20 \text{ mmol/m}^2/\text{s}$ and light regime: 12 h light/12 h dark. The culture was treated against fungal contamination by washing three times with 100 mg/L cycloheximide (Sigma-Aldrich, Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA). Although the strain has been validly described as a new genus (Dvořák et al. 2014), we will treat it throughout the text as one of the Synechococcus-like lineages.

DNA was extracted from 50 mg of wet biomass using UltraClean Microbial DNA Isolation Kit (MOBIO, Carlsbad, CA, USA). A quality and concentration of DNA was evaluated via NanoDrop 1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA) and separated on an ethidium bromide stained 1.5% agarose gel. The draft genome of strain N. sphagnicola CAUP A 1101 was obtained using pyrosequencing on a 454 GS Junior System (454 Life Sciences; a Roche company, Bradford, CT, USA). The shotgun sequencing library was prepared with following steps. Isolated DNA was nebulized in 30 psi for 1 min, and fragment ends were repaired using taq and T4 polymerase. Afterwards, the DNA was purified using Agencourt AMPure Beads XP system (Beckman Coulter, Beverly, MA, USA), RL adaptors were ligated, and small fragments were removed. Quality of the library was assessed on FlashGel system (Lonza, Basel, Switzerland). Gel was run for 6 min at 250 V. The library was quantified using TBS 380 Fluorometer (Topac, Cohasset, MA, USA) with PicoGreen dye (Topac). DNA fragments from the library were amplified on capture beads using emulsion PCR (polymerase chain reaction) using Live Amp Mix (454 Life Sciences, a Roche company). The sequencing run was performed for 200 cycles in the 454 GS Junior System platform.

A total of 331 932 reads in three runs with an average length of 361.1 bp were assembled de novo using the MIRA 4 assembler (Chevreux et al. 1999; parameters: job=denovo,genome,accurate,454, -highlyrepetitive, -AS: nop=10). Contaminant contigs were identified using BLASTN against complete bacterial genomes with default parameters. All the contigs showing a match to a sequenced bacterial genome rather than cyanobacteria with a percentage identity higher than 90% and coverage higher than 90% were considered as contaminants and discarded (741 contigs). The assembled genome resulted in 118 contigs (>500 bp) with an N₅₀ 81 579 bp, and a theoretical coverage of 22× based on the estimation of a length of 4.3 megabases calculated using MIRA assembler. Annotation was performed using The Rapid Annotation using Subsystems Technology (RAST) pipeline

(Aziz et al. 2008) with default options except enabled fix frameshift; tRNA was predicted using tRNAscan-SE 1.21 (Lowe & Eddy 1997; parameters: cove searching, covariance model—bacterial). Repeats were masked using REPEATMASKER 4.0.2 with default options (Smit et al. 2013). To compare repeats with other genomes, nine other cyanobacterial genomes (the closest neighbours in the RAST and in phylogenomic analysis) were selected and analysed with the same options. The genome has been deposited in GenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/).

16S rRNA phylogeny and molecular clocks

All available 16S rRNA sequences of cultured strains of Synechococcus (length > 900 bp) were downloaded from GenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) by following query: "Synechococcus" [Organism] OR Synechococcus [All Fields]) AND 16S[All Fields]) NOT uncultured[All Fields]'. Identical sequences were removed. One sequence of each Synechococcus clade was used for the most similar sequences identification using BLAST (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). Only nonidentical sequences with minimal similarity 90% to the query were chosen. The last step involved addition of sequences of reference genomes and reference genera from the families Chroococcales, Oscillatoriales and heterocyst-forming genera (Nostocales). Total number of sequence at the end was 203 (Table S1, Supporting information).

Multiple sequence alignment was performed in MUS-CLE 3.6 (Edgar 2004) with default options. All sequence positions within the alignment were analysed with Gloeobacter violaceus as the out-group. Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed using Bayesian maximum-likelihood inference implemented in MRBAYES 3.2.2 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003) via CIPRES science gateway (Miller et al. 2010). The most suitable substitution evolutionary model was identified using JMODELTEST 0.1.1 (Posada 2008) based on both Akaike and Bayesian criterion as GTR+G+I. Two parallel Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulations were simultaneously run for 30 540 000 generations, each one with one cold and three heated chains. MCMCs were sampled every 5000th generation. Stop early if the convergence diagnostics falls below 0.01 was set to yes. The first 25% of trees were discarded as burn-in. The final consensus tree was constructed from all compatible groups, which produced a strictly bifurcating tree necessary for subsequent dating analysis.

The molecular chronogram was constructed using penalized likelihood (Sanderson 2002), implemented in r8s 1.8 (Sanderson 2012). Data analysis was performed on the consensus Bayesian tree constructed in MRBAYES

(see detailed information above). The tree was calibrated with a combination of fossil and molecular calibrations previously published, mostly using calibrations by Shirrmeister et al. (2013). The root of the tree was calibrated using the fossil record. 3.8 BYA was used as an origin of existing life forms (Nisbet & Sleep 2001), and 2.7 BYA used as a date when oxygen-evolving cyanobacteria probably originated (Brocks et al. 1999). The origin of filamentous cyanobacteria was adopted from Shirrmeister et al. (2013); extreme values of their estimations were used (2.38–3.08 BYA). Third calibration point was the origin of akinetes, which was constrained with the fossil record (2.1 BYA; Amard & Bertrand-Sarfati 1997) and a molecular dating estimation (1.618 BYA; Falcon et al. 2010). Second analysis was performed in the same way, except minimum age for akinete node was set to 2.1 BYA (Amard & Bertrand-Sarfati 1997), which gives an interval of node ages. Rate variation was low in both analyses and did not affect branching order (for details see Table S2, Supporting information).

Phylogenomic analysis and molecular chronometer

Available and annotated genomes (both draft and complete) of *Synechococcus* were acquired from the ftp server of GENBANK (ftp://ftp.ncbi.nih.gov/genomes/Bacteria/), database version 13 July 2013. Other genomes of Cyanobacteria from GENBANK were added to cover the broad evolutionary array of this group with a total number of 70, and representing most major niches/habitats. Genomes of *Leptolyngbya boryana* PCC 6306, *Geitlerinema* sp. PCC 7105 and *Leptolygbya* sp. PCC 7376 were re-annotated using RAST due to lack of annotation in the GenBank database (Table S3, Supporting information).

The super alignment for a subsequent phylogenomic reconstruction of a cyanobacterial species tree was obtained using phylogenomic Perl pipeline Hal (Robbertse et al. 2011) in the following steps: (i) orthologues were identified using all-vs-all BLASTP, a cut-off e-value of 1e⁻¹, soft filtering of low-complexity regions was enabled, and segments of low complexity during the search phase were masked (Altschul et al. 1990). (ii) MCL clustering, cluster selection and filtering (van Dongen 2000). (iii) Multiple sequence alignment using MUSCLE 3.6 with default parameters, except an input order was set to stable (Edgar 2004). (iv) Alignment was edited using GBLOCKS (Castresana 2000) with halfliberal settings, and poorly aligned positions were discarded. (v) Concatenation of alignments of orthologous sequences into super alignment, see Robbertse et al. (2011) for details.

A resulting super alignment with a total of 46 978 amino acids was tested in PROTTEST 3.3 (Abascal et al.

2005) to find the most suitable substitution model based on both Akaike and Bayesian criterion (LG + G + I). The final phylogenetic tree was constructed in RAXML-HPC 8.0 (Stamatakis 2006) using the predicted model. Gloeobacter violaceus was used as an out-group. Tree topology was tested using rapid bootstrapping with 500 bootstrap replicates. This analysis was performed via CIPRES science gateway.

The final tree was also used for dating using molecular clocks. The same calibration points as in the 16S rRNA analysis were used. Rate variation was low in both analyses and did not affect branching order (for details see Table S2, Supplementary information).

Evolutionary events' analysis

Altogether, 192 orthologous genes' alignment was recovered from Hal. Divergent regions and poorly aligned positions were removed by GBLOCKS. An appropriate substitution model for each alignment was tested using PROTTEST based on both Akaike and Bayesian criterion. LG + I + G substitution model was the most suitable for 93.2% of alignments. Phylogenetic trees under maximum-likelihood criterion for each orthologue were estimated in PHYML 3.0 (Guindon & Gascuel 2003) using appropriate models. Reconciliation scenarios of HGT, gene loss, gene duplication and speciation were assessed and quantified using Python-based program ANGST (David & Alm 2010). Penalties were set as following: HGT (3.0), gene duplication (2.0), gene loss (1.0) and speciation (0.0). These penalty values seem to be the most suitable for prokaryotic organisms in general (David & Alm 2010). As a template, a species tree was constructed using maximum-likelihood RAXML based on super alignment (see estimation details above). The RAXML species tree was used as the reference tree for an ancestral state reconstruction of continuous data in MESQUITE 2.71 (Maddison & Maddison 2011), where the total number of HGT events were plotted over the species tree based on parsimony criterion.

Linear regression and correlation analyses were performed in PAST 3 (Hammer et al. 2001).

Results

Basic features of the new genome

The total length of the draft, near-complete genome was 4 331 368 bp with 50.14% G+C content. RAST genome annotation revealed a total of 4598 coding sequences (CDSs) and 48 RNAs. All common tRNAs were present as in other Synechococcus genomes. 53% of CDSs were annotated based on known proteins with biological function, and 47% were annotated as hypothetical proteins. The genome contained 182 simple repeats and 18 low-complexity repeats. All species contained mostly simple repeats and less low-complexity repeats (Fig. S1, Supporting information), except Nostoc sp. PCC 73102 which possessed one unclassified repeat according to Smit et al. (2013). More complex and larger genomes (heterocystous cyanobacteria) had more repeats in comparison with filamentous and unicellular.

Evolutionary history of Synechococcus

A 16S rRNA phylogeny based on all Synechococcus strains currently available in GENBANK (as of 19 September 2013) was constructed using Bayesian inference (Fig. 1). We noted at least 12 lineages, depending on the level of resolution corresponding to branch lengths, and Synechococcus sensu lato itself appears polyphyletic. Regardless of nodes recovered, lineages include a mixture of freshwater, marine, temperate and thermal isolates. While ecological specificity may be important for closely related taxa, it did not appear to be important in broad phylogenetic patterns for Synechococcus. Six lineages contained marine, five freshwater and three thermal isolates. Some lineages, such as clade 10 (Fig. 1), contained a mix of marine and freshwater picoplankton strains as well as some ecologically monophyletic clusters. Clade 12 is nested within the lineages that include the majority of other cyanobacterial lineages (Fig. 1, clade A). Several of the Synechococcus lineages were closely related or sister to other cyanobacteria, mostly Leptolyngbya with six clades, which were morphologically quite simple but were obligatorily filamentous. Neosynechococcus sphagnicola (its genome was sequenced in this work) was one of these 12 lineages; isolated from a peat bog (see Dvořák et al. 2014 for details), it clustered with the Antarctic strains of Leptolyngbya frigida. The other peat bog Synechococcus sp. PCC 7502 belonged to another clade 8 (Fig. 1).

A chronogram based on 16S rRNA sequence data revealed a great divergence of time between lineages (Fig. 1). The thermal strains appeared to be basal and radiated first to marine and then freshwater habitats, with subsequent reticulate ecological diversification (Fig. 1). Not all lineages were of equal evolutionary age; for example, clade 10, a mixture of freshwater and marine strains, appears to have evolved relatively recently compared to clade 1 (1.36-1.5 BYA). Only clades 1, 2 and 5 derived prior to the Great Oxidation Event (GOE, 2.32-2.45 BYA; Bekker et al. 2004). The most abundant Synechococcus marine picoplanktonic lineages (Fig 1, clade 10) have derived 1.81-2 BYA. This contrasted with trees constructed using whole genomes (Fig. 2), which provided an estimate of marine picoplanktonic Synechococcus of ca. 2.14-2.35 BYA. N. sphagnicola has derived 2.12-2.36 BYA.

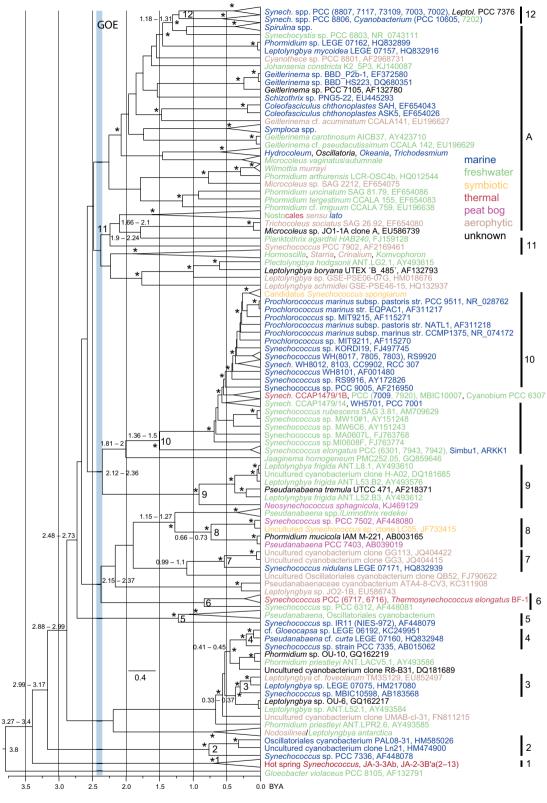


Fig. 1 A 16S rRNA chronogram of all *Synechococcus* lineages and other representative cyanobacteria based on Bayesian phylogeny. Both time estimates are combined in this figure. Asterisk represents posterior probabilities ≥0.9, and important ages are at the nodes with particular *Synechococcus* groups labelled. Habitats of strains are explained in the legend. Great Oxidation Event (GOE) is represented by the blue stripe. Isolation source of *Synechococcus*-like cyanobacteria is shown in the coloured legend.

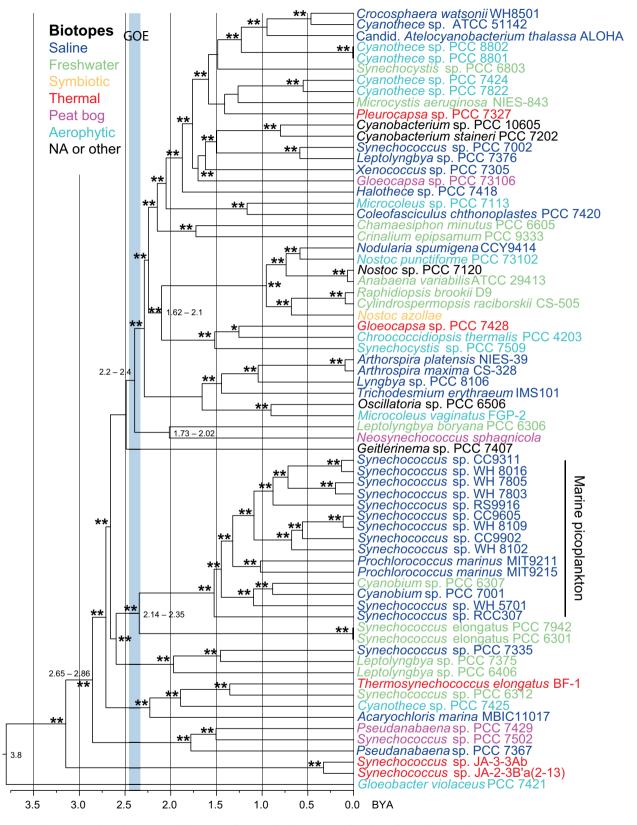


Fig. 2 A chronogram based on super alignment of 192 orthologous gene families of cyanobacterial genomes constructed using maximum-likelihood criterion. Both time estimates are combined in this figure. Bootstrap supports \geq 70 are represented by asterisk and \geq 90 by two asterisks together with the age at the nodes. Great Oxidation Event (GOE) is represented by the blue stripe.

However, trees constructed using either 16S rRNA or whole genomes recovered trees of very similar topology. For example, the thermal and marine picoplanktonic isolates and the derived clade 12 of the 16S rRNA tree are situated in the similar positions in genome phylogeny. There were six clades of *Synechococcus* recovered, because sequenced genomes offer only limited taxon sampling. Clades 3 and 4 (Fig. 1) were the putatively most recent radiations, having evolved ca. 0.48–0.5 BYA.

An analysis of HGT in Cyanobacteria

One hundred and ninety-two orthologous genes were analysed for HGT. Our analyses did not discern any patterns of HGT in relation to particular functional gene groups (see Table S4, Supporting information). For example, some ribosomal protein genes exhibited the lowest (17 events in 50S ribosomal protein L5) and at the same time highest (33 events in SSU ribosomal protein S17P) number of events.

Ancestral state reconstruction based on HGT events illustrates that the basal, thermophilic Synechococcus and Pseudanabaena lineages have the least number of HGT events (Fig. 3, clade 1, Table S5, Supporting information). Conversely, the most derived lineage has the greatest number of HGT events (Fig. 3, clade 2). This lineage contains taxa with no common morphological or ecological features, containing filamentous, unicellular, marine and freshwater strains. When a temporal scale was added (Fig. 3), it was apparent that the rate and tempo of HGT is highest at the onset of speciation among phylogenetically similar lineages, but tends to slow as diversification and evolutionary distance increases (Fig. 3). Estimated node ages and reconstructed number of HGT events on internal nodes were negatively correlated (P < 0.001, r = -0.40835). Speciation and HGT events of all investigated species were significantly correlated (P < 0.001, r = 0.95132). On the other hand, there was found no significant correlation between number of HGT events and genome size (P = 0.34057, r = -0.11561). Further, there appears to be no signal when morphological characters were mapped onto the tree (Fig. 3). Similar to the 16S rRNA tree, Synechococcus often fell out with Leptolyngbya and Pseudanabaena, all of which had roughly similar morphologies, differing mainly in filament formation. In total, Synechococcus lineages exhibited both the fewest and among the highest numbers of HGT, with individual lineages spanning the potential range of events. Our newly sequenced genome N. sphagnicola was sister to the genome of Leptolyngbya boryana PCC 6306 (clade 3), falling in the middle range of HGT compared to other Synechococcus lineages.

Discussion

Synechococcus belongs to one of the most important, yet enigmatic lineages of micro-organisms due to its world-wide distribution, primary productivity and ancient evolutionary origin (Honda et al. 1999; Robertson et al. 2001; Flombaum et al. 2013). We provide a first comprehensive study of all Synechococcus-like sequences using 16S rRNA phylogeny, phylogenomics and HGT analysis in all its lineages. Moreover, a new draft genome of Synechococcus-like cyanobacterium is presented, which helps to expand the evolutionary coverage of sequenced genomes and untangle evolutionary relationships within Synechococcus.

The draft genome of Neosynechococcus was undertaken as it possesses some unique life strategies, such as inhabiting hyaline cells of Sphagnum. This original isolate was very closely related to the filamentous cyanobacterium Leptolyngbya (see Dvořák et al. 2014 for details). Furthermore, based on morphology, ultrastructure, 16S rRNA, 16S-23S ITS and rbcL sequence, it has been recently described as a new, monospecific genus (Dvořák et al. 2014). Thus, it significantly expands knowledge of the enigmatic Synechococcus group on a genomic level. Moreover, this new isolate illustrates the urgent need to increase the evolutionary coverage within the cyanobacteria, because the majority of sequenced cyanobacteria are from culture collections, which represent only a small fraction of the biodiversity of cyanobacteria (Nabout et al. 2013).

The number of CDSs and genome size is positively correlated in bacteria, with ca. 1 coding sequence to 1 kb (Konstantinidis & Tiedje 2004; Lynch 2007). We note a similar relationship in *Neosynechococcus*. Similarly, tRNA transcripts were similar to other cyanobacterial genomes included in the genomic tRNA database (Chan & Lowe 2009). No elementary tRNAs were missing, and the composition and number of repeats was similar (Fig. S1, Supporting information). A genome annotation in bacteria based on homology reveals 30–70% of hypothetical proteins (Rost *et al.* 2003), which is also exhibited by the *Neosynechococcus* genome.

The 16S rRNA phylogeny is the most complete analysis of *Synechococcus* lineages to date. We show the polyphyletic nature of the marine lineages and recovered more lineages than previous authors (Honda *et al.* 1999; Robertson *et al.* 2001; see short overview in Table S6, Supplementary information). Moreover, we note repeated radiations from freshwater to marine and other habitats (e.g. the two peat-bog, thermal lineages). This is in contrast to other studies which noted more monophyletic lineages based on ecology, probably because the authors were working exclusively either with marine or freshwater strains (and the researchers

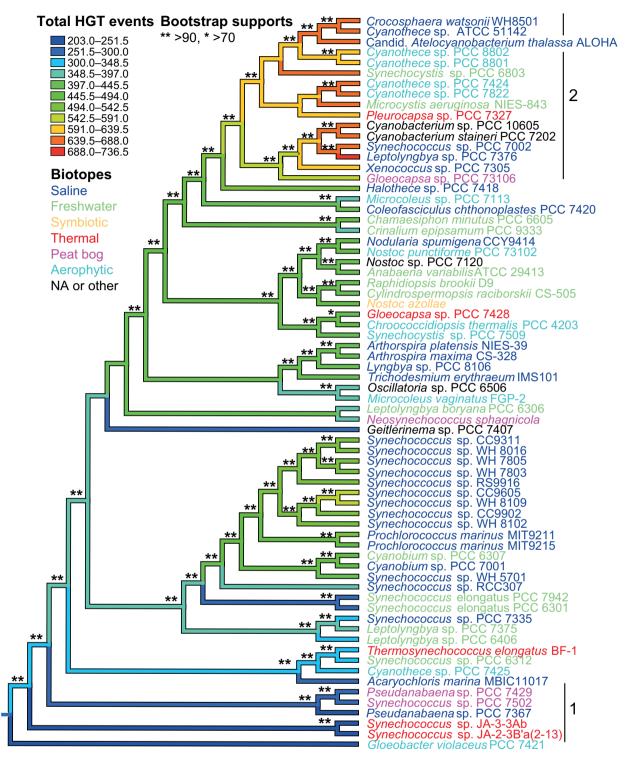


Fig. 3 The most parsimonious ancestral state reconstruction of a total number of HGT events for each taxon recovered from AnGST analysis. Bootstrap supports \geq 70 are represented by asterisk and \geq 90 by two asterisks. Habitat types and HGT levels are explained in the figure legend.

were often focusing on population diversity) or with limited taxon sampling (Rocap *et al.* 2002; Haverkamp *et al.* 2009; Callieri *et al.* 2013).

Based on our results, we do not consider *Synechococcus* as a monophyletic lineage. Further, there does not appear to be any morphological signal (in terms of cell

shape) in the lineages as evidenced by exemplars from each clade. We have confidence that the sequences from GenBank used in this study have been accurately described due to the simple morphology and relative ease of identification. Moreover, *Synechococcus*, *Pseudanabaena* and *Leptolyngbya*, although similar in 16S rRNA, exhibit very different ecology and morphology, and therefore, a classification based exclusively on 16S rRNA may lead to misidentification. This is particularly striking in the case of *Neosynechococcus sphagnicola*, where the closest sequence of filamentous Antarctic cyanobacterium *Leptolyngbya frigida* is 96.6% similar to *N. sphagnicola* 16S rRNA (Dvořák *et al.* 2014).

Cyanobacteria are a unique group among bacteria due to their high morphological diversity. However, there is actually a dearth of phylogenetically available morphological features to separate many cyanobacterial lineages, especially at the genus or species level (Dvořák et al. 2014). This lack of clear morphological signal presents problems when reconstructing ancestral states. For example, hypobradytely, the 'exceptionally low rate of evolutionary change exhibited by cyanobacterial taxa' (Schopf 1994), masks possible biochemical, ecological or genetic changes. The evolutionary history of cyanobacteria is a series of convergent evolutionary events leading to relatively sparse morphological features. Thus, the hypobradytely is only elusive, because fossil morphotypes are indistinguishable from recent morphotypes, but they have different evolutionary histories based on the phylogenomic and phylogenetic analysis.

Similar morphological and ecological (often indistinguishable) features have probably evolved multiple times on a great timescale. Synechococcus may be considered as an elementary state of the cyanobacterial morphological potential, where possibly every lineage may lead. However, there are significant differences in Synechococcus genomes (e.g. size, GC content, gene composition, see Table S3, Supporting information), which were sequenced quite recently (Dagan et al. 2012; Shih et al. 2013), indicating great changes in the genomes, but with similar resulting phenotype. Their complex evolutionary history is also showed by Neosynechococcus. Moreover, altogether, 12 lineages have derived in a polyphyletic manner and one lineage (Fig. 1, clade 12, Fig. 2) of Synechococcus has recently derived from the most complex lineages of filamentous cyanobacteria (Fig 1, clade A). Thus, we suggest that a possible splitting of the Synechococcus lineages into different genera is probable in the future.

Our analyses indicate that the main marine picoplanktonic lineages of *Synechococcus* evolved in the middle or after the GOE. This period of time was followed by the Paleoproterozoic 'Snowball Earth', a period of decreased temperature with subsequent increase to the recent values (Kopp et al. 2005). These conditions may have facilitated the rapid diversification of the marine lineages following possible mass extinctions which opened up new niche space. The marine Synechococcus (Fig. 1 clade 10, Fig. 2) has very long evolutionary history (up to 2.35 BYA) and, coupled with important roles in the global carbon cycle and oxygen production, ranks Synechococcus as among the most influential organisms in Earth's history. Flombaum et al. (2013) have posited that the importance of the marine Synechococcus will increase with global climate change, as increased temperatures will lead to a rise in abundance of marine picoplankton (Synechococcus and Prochlorococcus). It shows that temperature is an important factor shaping Synechococcus evolution on global scale; thus, it might have been one of the triggering factors for marine Synechococcus diversification.

However, the Snowball Earth environment was characterized by severe glaciation likely also in tropical oceans. Thus, where were *Synechococcus*-like cyanobacteria able to survive this period? It has been shown that thermal springs held microbial activity (Kirschvink *et al.* 2000). Thermal lineages of *Synechococcus* have diverged at least three times (Fig. 1), but their origin did not clearly coincide with the Snowball Earth events. During later Snowball Earth event in neo-Proterozoic, models suggest very thin ice shed or ice-free patches close to the equator, where cyanobacteria may have found refugia (Warren *et al.* 2002).

The majority of Synechococcus lineages (8 of the 12) diverged after the GOE, corresponding to a historic global temperature increase. It must be pointed out, however, that there exists a great degree of uncertainty in regard to the exact dating, mainly because cyanobacteria have a scant fossil record compared to plants and animals, but more than other prokaryotes (Schopf 2001). Moreover, the molecular dating of root has even higher degree of uncertainty (Sanderson 2012), but the earliest biomarker estimations place the origin of photosynthesis to 3.8 BYA (reviewed in Sleep 2010) while sulphur isotope analyses suggest a possible oxic atmosphere at 3.8 BYA (Ohmoto et al. 2006). Thus, it might be possible to place the origin of this clade to that time period, and Synechococcus before 3 BYA (Figs 1 and 2). Regardless, our analysis is largely in agreement with previously published estimations (Falcon et al. 2010; Shirrmeister et al. 2013). Thus, the radiation of a majority of cyanobacterial lineages diverged after the GOE. On the other hand, there are also later estimates of cyanobacterial origin (ca. 2.7 BYA) using more restricted roots when inferring molecular clocks (Hedges et al. 2001; Battistuzzi et al. 2004; Blank & Sanchez-Baracaldo 2010). For example, some authors suggest a freshwater origin

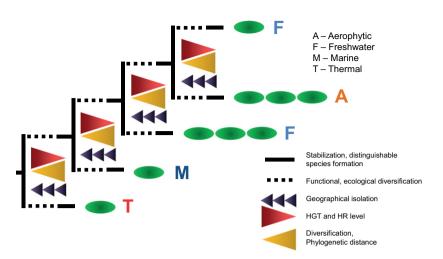


Fig. 4 A model of speciation in cyanobacteria constructed as an approximation of recent findings considering HGTs and HRs roles in speciation and data presented in this work. One green oval represents unicellular cyanobacterium and three ovals filamentous.

of cyanobacteria (Blank & Sanchez-Baracaldo 2010), which contradicts our 16S rRNA phylogeny (Fig. 1) and places the origin from thermal habitats with subsequent radiation to marine environments. However, Blank & Sanchez-Baracaldo (2010) only employed taxon with sequenced genomes and thus miss many potential taxa for their analyses. Moreover, they considered a basal Synechococcus isolate JA-3-3Ab and JA-2-3B'a(2-13) from the Octopus Spring in the Yellowstone Park, which has the same position in our phylogeny (Figs 1 and 2) as freshwater. It is questionable as to whether Octopus Spring can be considered as a freshwater ecosystem, because conductivity exceeds 3000 µS/cm (Havig 2009) and temperature 50 °C (Allewalt et al. 2006). Due to warmer climate of early Earth (reviewed in Kasting & Howard 2006), plausible origin of cyanobacteria can be placed in thermal habitats. Nevertheless, the most basal marine clade 2 in the 16S rRNA analysis (Fig. 1) does not have significant posterior probability at the node; thus, we cannot exclude any scenario at the moment.

Horizontal gene transfer (also LGT-lateral gene transfer) is considered one of the most important factors shaping prokaryotic species (Zhaxybayeva et al. 2006; Polz et al. 2013). Through HGT, novel genes might be acquired into the genome or homologous replacement might occur, which is revealed by analysis of reconciliation of gene trees compared to species trees (David & Alm 2010; Szollosi et al. 2012). HGT are present in both core genomes (genes dedicated primarily to basic metabolism and considered more stable; Shi & Falkowski 2008) and shell genomes (David & Alm 2010). The level of HGT significantly varies among cyanobacteria and among genes in the same genome (Fig. 3). Newly diverged lineages possess higher levels of HGT, while older lineages appear more stable. Of course, biases in taxon sampling might affect results due to oversampling of sequenced genomes in some environments (i.e. marine; Palenik et al. 2008). However, our analysis of HGT is the most exhaustive ever performed in cyano-bacteria, considering the number of taxa analysed. On the other hand, there is no trend among genes analysed for HGT (e.g. ribosomal proteins). Any gene family with particular gene function does not seem to be preferred. Thus, it is probably that there is no selective pressure for some particular gene family exhibited by raised level of HGT.

Bacterial species concepts are subject to much debate and speculation (Johansen & Casamatta 2005; Achtman & Wagner 2008; Polz et al. 2013). Some researchers contend that there are no species in bacteria because high rates of gene loss and gain, coupled with HGT, would not lead to a cohesive evolutionary lineage, thus rendering species unrecognizable (Hanage et al. 2005). However, recent studies have shown that HGT and HR decrease with genetic distance and may be habitat specific (Popa et al. 2011; Smillie et al. 2011; Shapiro et al. 2012), although some infrequent HGT events are observed in distantly related taxa (Popa et al. 2011). Some authors propose that speciation in bacteria may be similar to 'sexual' taxa where the number of HR events is higher than mutation (Fraser et al. 2007). Therefore, barriers to gene flow exist, and thus, cohesive evolutionary units originate similar to plants or animals, but with different timescales and tempo and without actual sexual reproduction which is substituted by HGT and HR. Geography might also play an important role and give rise to allopatric speciation, which is not necessarily continuous and is on a larger geographical scale than animals and plants (Bahl et al. 2011; Mazard et al. 2011; Dvořák et al. 2012). Another explanation was offered by Polz et al. (2013), who suggested there exist local bacterial gene pools with high innovative genetic capabilities which may foster speciation rather than genetic isolation.

Speciation models show diversification in short time frames, typically acting on the population level (Shapiro et al. 2012; Polz et al. 2013). We propose the model integrating speciation patterns already published (Shapiro et al. 2012; Polz et al. 2013) with the data in this study (Fig. 4); thus, we are able to present speciation events across long time periods and in many taxa, using easily traceable ecological and morphological phenotypic features. We used the genus Synechococcus because it is relatively simple to identify, although it is among the most polyphyletic lineages of cyanobacteria. Thus, it illustrates general trends in cyanobacterial (and possibly more broadly prokaryotic) evolution. For example, cyanobacteria seem to frequently switch between filamentous and unicellular forms, showing at least nine such switches in this study. Thus, they exhibit very frequent convergent evolutionary events. Moreover, clade 12 (Fig. 1) has derived from the most morphologically complex cyanobacteria. The majority of phenotypic traits recognized in cyanobacteria are not strictly shared or derived, but have been acquired (and lost) multiple independently (cell morphology, thylakoid arrangement, colony formation, etc.), except for the formation of specialized cells (e.g. heterocysts and akinetes). However, some studies show possible multiple origins of the heterocystous cyanobacteria (Shirrmeister et al. 2013). Therefore, it is possible that most of the phenotypic characters are convergent, as similarity of convergent phenotypes is very high. However, this might be caused by the lack of resolution of techniques which are currently available. It has been suggested that a formation of pseudofilaments might be caused by one inactivated gene in Synechococcus (Miyagishima et al. 2005). Thus, these convergent events might be relatively frequent. A similar pattern in lifestyle of intracellular bacterial parasites was observed (Merhej et al. 2009). However, it should be pointed out that the filaments of Leptolyngbya, for example, is more complex than the pseudofilaments of Synechococcus, and thus, longer speciation would be expected.

Thus, we propose the following model of cyanobacterial speciation characterized by serial convergence of observed phenotypic features. When a new lineage diverges, there is high level of HGT and HR, which decrease with time and phylogenetic distance, until the species is stable (Popa et al. 2011; Polz et al. 2013). There might also occur periodic geographical isolation events on larger geographical scales (i.e. continents, Dvořák et al. 2012). At the initial stage, species might be considered as 'fuzzy' as they may be laden with conflicting phylogenies among gene families (Hanage et al. 2005). This stage does not necessarily lead to more complex or unique phenotypes (e.g. filament morphology, colony construction); the actual evolutionary pressures at this stage probably involve ecological conditions (Shapiro et al. 2012). After a time period, rates of HGT and HR

decrease and the genome becomes more stable, resulting in less conflicting phylogenies (Polz et al. 2013). The species is then recognizable by molecular markers (Hanage et al. 2005). The resulting phenotype may be similar, more complex (e.g. filamentous) or less complex (e.g. unicellular). Then, the whole process may be repeated. Local bacterial gene pools sensu Polz et al. (2013) provide a support for our model, because they create pangenome of available genetic diversity, which is constantly changing through HGT, HR, selection and mutations, and it offers a place for acquisition of genes specific for a local environment. Considering high dispersal abilities of bacteria (Marshall & Chalmers 1997), all genes are probably transferred among distant location and they create the bacterial metapangenome. Local bacterial gene pools allow cyanobacteria with different evolutionary histories to have similar phenotypic features, because they evolved over a long duration with significant amounts of changes through local gene pools (Polz et al. 2013).

Synechococcus is clearly a successful lineage in terms of primary production, distribution and abundance. It has diverged 12 times over more than 3 billion years. We propose several factors that contribute to this global dominance. First, Synechococcus exhibits a rapid generation time (Moore et al. 1995). Second, the small size and shape of the cells allows Synechococcus to be competitive in terms of nutrient (Young 2007) and light acquisition (Morel et al. 1993). Third, the prevalence of HGT in Synechococcus lineages implies an excellent ability to receive and utilize exogenous DNA, putatively providing a selective advantage (this study and Palenik et al. 2008). In conclusion, Synechococcus is one of the most successful and influential organisms in Earth's history, with high impacts to the past, present and potentially future global environment.

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P.D., V.O. and R.S. designed experiments. P.D. and R.S. analysed data. P.D., D.A.C, A.P., P.H. and R.S. wrote the manuscript.

Data accessibility

The genome assembly is available in GenBank under Accession no. JJML00000000. Additional information regarding the metadata included in this study is available in Tables S1, S2, S3, S4, S5 and S6 (Supporting information). Multiple sequence alignments and phylogenetic trees are stored: doi:10.5061/dryad.977k6.

Supporting information

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Fig. S1 A comparison of repeats present in Neosynechococcus genome with other cyanobacteria.

Table S1 A list of cyanobacterial 16S rRNA sequences used for phylogenetic inference.

Table S2 A rate variation recovered from r8s analysis.

Table S3 A list of analyzed genomes with their basic features.

Table S4 A list of evolutionary events of 192 orthologous genes reconstructed with ANGST.

Table S5 HGT and speciation events recovered using ANGST of each genome analyzed.

Table S6 A short overview of *Synechococcus* clades identified until now.