

The simplest morphologically coccoid *Cyanobacteria* have often been overlooked and their genetic complexities underestimated. The traditional morphology-based taxonomic system limited the description of coccoid *Cyanobacteria* due to the low degree of morphological variation. Likewise, there was a prevailing notion that larger genomes are needed to support multicellular Cyanobacteria than are needed to support single-celled Cyanobacteria (Herdman et al., 1979). However, this notion has not always been found to be true, as several unicellular Cyanobacteria have a larger genome size than multicellular Cyanobacteria (Larsson et al., 2011; Shih et al., 2013). Multicellularity arises as a result of the incomplete separation of daughter cells after cell division, and the behaviour of cells within multicellular structures is coordinated by both shared and unique molecular mechanisms (Rossetti et al., 2010; Claessen et al., 2014). It has been shown that mutations of the cell wall amiC2 gene in the filamentous heterocytous strain Nostoc punctiforme ATCC 29133, encoding an amidase involved in septa formation, induced colonial unicellular morphology in this cyanobacterium, and prevented heterocyte differentiation (Lehner et al., 2011). However, in

Abbreviations: ITS, Internal transcribed spacer; NJ, Neighbour-joining; ML, Maximum-likelihood; BA, Bayesian.

The GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ accession numbers for the genome of *Aliterella atlantica* CENA595^T is JYON01000000 and for the 16S-23S rRNA gene sequence of *Aliterella antarctica* CENA408^T is KU291459.

Two supplementary figures are available with the online Supplementary Material.

the unicellular cyanobacterium, Synechococcus elongatus PCC 7942, filament formation was induced by overexpressing the cell division protein FtsZ (Mori & Johnson, 2001). These results indicate that the expression level of cell division proteins are correlated with filament formation, which may be confirmed in the future, as until now no candidate genes involved in cellular morphology have been found in cyanobacterial genomes (Dagan et al., 2013). Even unicellular Cyanobacteria frequently adopt transient multicellularity, spending at least part of their lives in temporarily adhered clusters of cells (colonies). Transient multicellularity may occur to promote benefits associated with increased size, to mitigate predation risks or nutrient stressors, and these are associated with distinct evolutionary costs and benefits (Bonner, 1998; Grosberg & Strathmann, 2007). True multicellularity in Cyanobacteria has been lost and regained several times during their life history, which has led to the current distribution of both unicellular and multicellular cyanobacterial forms (Tomitani et al., 2006; Schirrmeister et al., 2011, 2015). Therefore, the traditional cyanobacteria classification, based on the most obvious phenotypic features (i.e. cell morphology) does not reflect their evolution and the strength of relationships among taxa, which is the basis of modern systematics (Honda et al., 1999; Robertson et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2014; Komárek et al., 2014). Moreover, advancements in cyanobacterial genome sequencing have enabled large-scale multi-gene phylogenetic analyses that have provided a robust framework to solve deep-branching relationships and help to elucidate the evolutionary history of these phototrophic bacteria (Sánchez-Baracaldo et al., 2005; Blank & Sánchez-Baracaldo, 2010; Larsson et al., 2011; Shih et al., 2013; Bombar et al., 2014; Calteau et al., 2014; Chrismas et al., 2015; Schirrmeister et al., 2015). So far, there are approximately 300 cyanobacterial genomes available in public databases among complete, draft and incomplete genomes, which represent less than 1% of the total bacterial genomes sequenced (https://gold.jgi-psf.org/index, accessed on December 9, 2015). Even so, the phylogenomic approach has been used in a new proposal for cyanobacterial classification (Komárek et al., 2014). Improving cyanobacterial genome sequencing and taxon sampling will contribute to resolving their evolutionary relationships and classification. In this study, investigations were carried out on two underexplored environments, i.e. South Atlantic Ocean water and King George Island in the Antarctic Continent. Two cyanobacterial strains unaffiliated with any of the known genera were recovered. In order to classify these strains under the provisions of the International Code of Nomenclature for algae, fungi and plants, a polyphasic approach was applied, based on morphological and ultrastructural traits, the phylogeny of the 16S rRNA gene, internal transcribed spacer (ITS) secondary structures and phylogenomic analysis.

Strain CENA595^T was isolated from the water column, at the level coinciding with the deep chlorophyll maximum layer (ca. 107 m) in a fixed station over the continental shelf of south-eastern Brazil (25° 15.595' S 45° 07.67' W) during an

expedition of the R/V Alpha Crucis of the University of São Paulo, on November 03, 2012 (Rigonato et al., 2015). Strain CENA408^T was isolated from a sample of a green turf alga growing together with decomposed Deschampsia grass on a ornithogenic soil (Pygoscelis adeliae), collected close to the sea, on January 21, 2009, in Arctowski (62° 09.76' S 58° 27.76' W), Admiralty Bay, King George Island and South Shetlands Archipelago, Antarctica. Subsamples of the material collected were spread out onto agar solidified BG-11 medium (1.2%, w/v) (Allen, 1968) containing cycloheximide (70 mg l^{-1}) (Rippka, 1988). A monospecific culture was obtained by successive streaking onto fresh solid media, followed by optical microscope observations. In all of the isolation steps, the culture was grown with a 14:10 h light/dark cycle under white fluorescent irradiance (40 μ mol photons μ m⁻²s⁻¹) at 24 ± 1 °C. Morphological observations were conducted using a Zeiss Axioskop 40 optical light microscope equipped with an AxioVision LE 4.6 digital imaging system (Carl Zeiss). Aliquots of lineages CENA408^T and CENA595^T, fixed in 4 % (v/ v) formaldehylde, were deposited in Maria Eneyda P. Kauffaman Fidalgo Herbarium at the Institute of Botany (São Paulo, Brazil), under the identification numbers SP469035 and SP469036, respectively. In addition, cultures of the strains are maintained in the Center for Nuclear Energy in Agriculture Collection/University of São Paulo (CENA/USP), Brazil, in BG-11 medium (Allen, 1968) under white fluorescent light (40 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) with a 14:10 h light:dark (L:D) cycle at 25 °C±1 °C.

The morphology of the cells was investigated with a light microscope (Olympus; BX53 DIC) equipped with an Olympus DP71 imaging system and the mean cell size of 50 cells was measured for each strain. The morphological features observed were compared to taxa with validly published names in the literature (Komárek & Anagnostidis, 1998; Komárek *et al.*, 2014).

The procedure for ultrastructural examination was carried out by fixing the cells with Karnovsky's fixative solution (Karnovsky, 1965) for 64 h at 4°C. Subsequently, the cells were washed with 0.05 M sodium cacodylate buffer and postfixed with 1% osmium tetroxide 0.1% (w/v) sodium cacodylate for 1.5 h at room temperature. Afterwards the cells were washed with distilled water and pre-stained with 2.5 % uranyl acetate at 4 °C overnight, followed by sequential dehydrations with 30%, 50%, 70%, 90% and 100% (v/ v) acetone for 10 min each. Spurr's resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences) was used for the embedding of samples (Spurr, 1969) and polymerization occurred at 65 °C after 72 h. The resulting resin blocks were cut into 70 nm thin sections in a Leica Ultracut UCT ultramicrotome (Leica Microsystems), transferred to 200-mesh copper grids, and stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Visualization and photography were performed under a transmission electron microscope (Carl Zeiss; EM 900) at 50 kV.

Total genomic DNA of the strains was extracted using a PowerSoil DNA extraction kit (MoBio Laboratories). The 16S rRNA gene plus 16S-23S ITS region was obtained by PCR using the set primer 27F-23S30R (Taton et al., 2003). The PCR products were cloned, sequenced and the reads were assembled into contigs using the Phred/Phrap/Consed package (Ewing & Green, 1998; Ewing et al., 1998; Gordon et al., 1998). The sequences obtained were compared with sequences available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database using the BLAST tool (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST). Selected cyanobacterial sequences retrieved from the NCBI were used for phylogenetic inferences as additional sampling of taxa. The alignment was performed using the CLUSTAL W (Thompson et al., 1994) tool from MEGA 6 (Tamura et al., 2013). The best-fitting evolutionary model, GTR+G+I, was selected by ModelTest under Akaike information criterion (Posada & Crandall, 1998). The 16S rRNA gene sequence phylogenetic trees were inferred by neighbour-joining (NJ), maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian (BA) criteria. NJ and ML analyses were conducted using MEGA 6 with 1000 bootstraps. BA analysis was run in MrBayes 3 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003) in 5×10^6 generations. Chains were sampled every 100th cycle and 25 percent of the sampled trees were discarded as burn-in. Convergence of the MCMC algorithm was monitored by the average standard deviation of split frequencies (<0.003). A similarity matrix was built comparing the 16S rRNA sequences using MEGA 6. The secondary structure of the intergenic region, 16S-23S rRNA, was obtained using the Mfold webserver (Zuker, 2003), and the presence of tRNA in the intergenic spacer was verified by tRNAscan-SE 1.21 (Lowe & Eddy, 1997; Schattner et al., 2005).

The genome of strain CENA595^Thas been previously sequenced (Rigonato *et al.*, 2015). The phylogenomic tree was inferred based on concatenation of 21 protein sequences selected from bacterial markers (Wu & Eisen, 2008; Calteau *et al.*, 2014), aligned to 126 cyanobacterial genomes using Clustal Omega (Sievers *et al.*, 2011). The LG+I+G model of evolution was selected using ProtTest 2.4 (Abascal *et al.*, 2005), and the ML tree was inferred using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) with 1000 bootstraps.

Morphological analysis showed that both strains grown in cyanobacterial culture media presented with a unicellular thallus; cells were solitary or organized in irregularly formatted groups, were blue-green and had a rigid mucilage. The cell shape was spherical or irregular-round and the dimensions ranged from 3.0-4.8 µm long and 2.0-3.3 µm diameter for CENA595^T, and 3.4–5.8 µm long and 2.5–4.6 µm diameter for CENA408^T. Cell division was by binary fission in three or more planes (Figs 1 & S1, available in the online Supplementary Material). By light microscopy the periplasm and nucleoplasm of the cells were noticable, suggesting an accumulation of thylakoids in the peripheral regions (Fig. 1h arrows). However, the ultrastructure (TEM) showed that the thylakoids could be irregularly distributed in the cell cytoplasm (Fig. 2a, c and e) or parallel to the cell wall (Fig. 2b, f and g), and in this case were in agreement with the observations made by light microscopy. Interestingly, the presence of circular dense structures of Blast analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences of the two novel strains showed that similarities vary from 89.0 to 94.9 % with sequences of coccoid Cyanobacteria available in Gen-Bank. The highest 16S rRNA gene sequence similarities were found with sequences of uncultured bacteria isolated from diverse habitats, such as forest soil from China (KF037769), clean rooms where spacecrafts are assembled (DQ532167; Moissl et al., 2007) and skin microbiome of popliteal fossa of children (JF167907; Kong et al., 2012). Furthermore, phylogenetic analysis grouped the two novel strains with these uncultivated bacteria together with two sequences of uncultured Cyanobacteria [FN811217, obtained from a soil sample from Alexander Island in the Antarctic (Chong et al., 2012) and JX127185, recovered from biofilms on building stones in Germany (Hallmann et al., 2013)] with 100 % of bootstrap (Fig. 3). These results indicate that strains CENA595^T and CENA408^T are members of a novel cyanobacterial genus, possibly with a broad distribution. Based on the few sequences so far accessed most of the members of the novel genus occur in terrestrial (soil/mineral) habitats, although CENA595^T was isolated from oceanic waters. Therefore, the novel genus Aliterella gen. nov. is proposed under the provisions of the International Code of Nomenclature for algae, fungi and plants. Another point to be highlighted is that Blast analysis revealed low identities ($\leq 94\%$) of CENA595^T and CENA408^T 16S rRNA gene sequences with sequences from GenBank. The best hit (94 % identity, 100 % coverage) was observed with Gloeocapsa sp. PCC 7428 isolated from the water of a moderately hot spring in Sri Lanka, which was separated from the Aliterella group in the phylogenetic analysis. The Aliterella sister group encompassed two sequences in the phylogenetic analysis denominated as Chroococcus (FR798925; FR798931) and one as Chroococcidiopsis CC1 (DQ914863), sharing among 93-95% similarity with CENA595^T and CENA408^T, based on pairwise nucleotide similarity estimated according to Kimura's 2-parameter model (Kimura, 1980). However, these were probably misidentified, as they were placed far from the Chroococcus (Kováčik et al., 2011) and Chroococcidiopsis (Waterbury, 1989) type groups in trees. Despite the relationship with these few unicellular taxa with uncertain identification, Blast and phylogenetic analyses indicated that CENA595^T and CENA408^T 16S rRNA gene sequences are closely related to sequences of multicellular strains of nostocalean, especially of the genus Camptylonemopsis. An early phylogenetic study showed that strains assigned to the genus Chroococcidiopis were the closest coccoid relatives to members of the order Nostocales (Fewer et al., 2002). In this study, however, phylogenetic analysis based on 16S rRNA gene

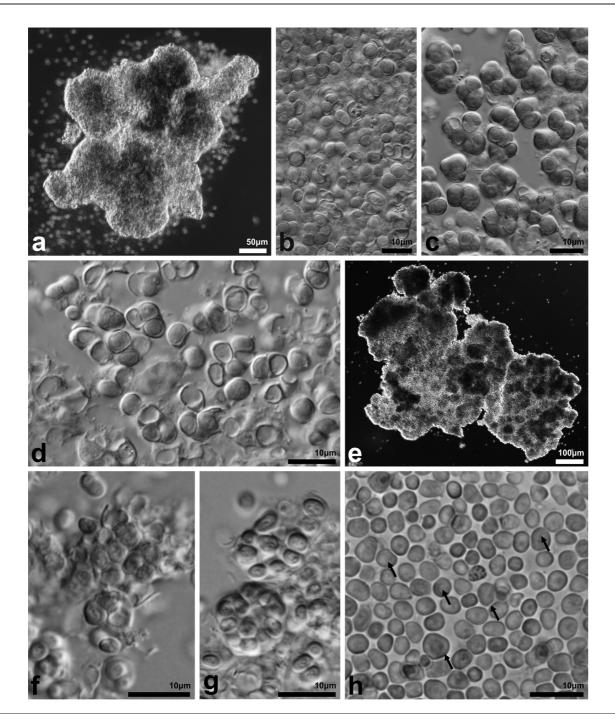


Fig. 1. Photomicrographs of species of *Aliterella*. a–d, *A. atlantica* CENA595^T gen. nov., sp. nov; e–h, *A. antarctica* CENA408^T sp. nov. A coloured version of this figure is available (Fig. S1).

sequences showed that coccoid strains of *Aliterella*, *Chroogloeocystis* (Brown *et al.*, 2005; Ramos *et al.*, 2010) and *Gloeocapsopsis* (Azua-Bustos *et al.*, 2014) were more closely related to members of the *Nostocales* than of the true *Chroococcidiopis* group (Fewer *et al.*, 2002).

Strains CENA595^T and CENA408^T shared 98.3 % similarity between their 16S rRNA gene sequences and each one is positioned in a different branch inside the clade in the

phylogenetic tree, which is evidence of two distinct species. Moreover, despite both strains having 16S-23S rRNA intergenic space sequences for alanine and isoleucine tRNA, configuration regions and nucleotides of 16S-23S rRNA D1-D1' and BoxB secondary structures (Fig. 4) also suggest that they are two different species. The basal and loop portions of the D1-D1' secondary structures were equal for both strains, while the central portion of the helix presented

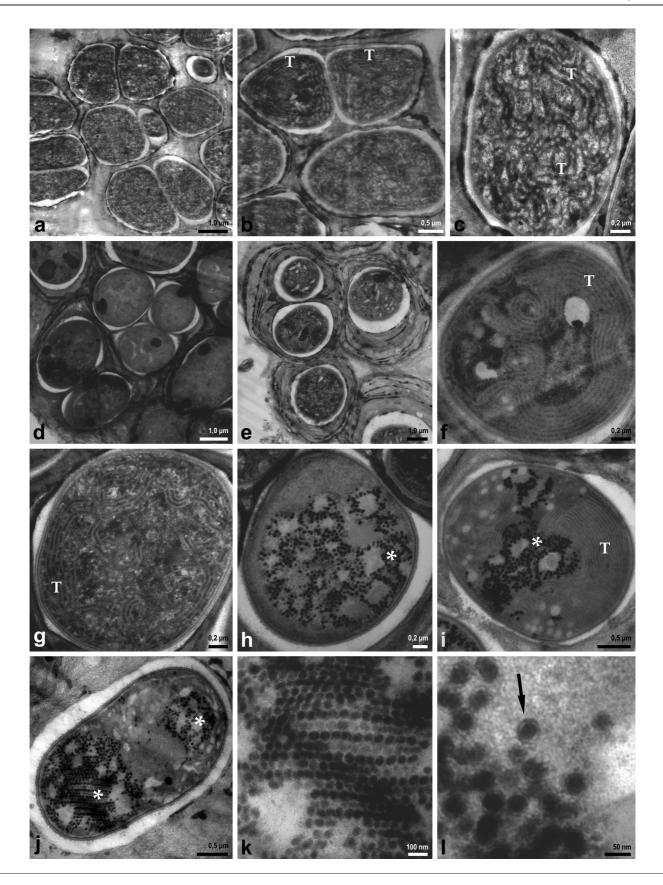


Fig. 2. Ultrastructure of cells of *A. antarctica* CENA408^T gen. nov., sp. nov. (a–c), and *A. atlantica* CENA595^Tsp. nov. (d–l). H–L highlight the dense structures within the cells that are proposed to be viruses.

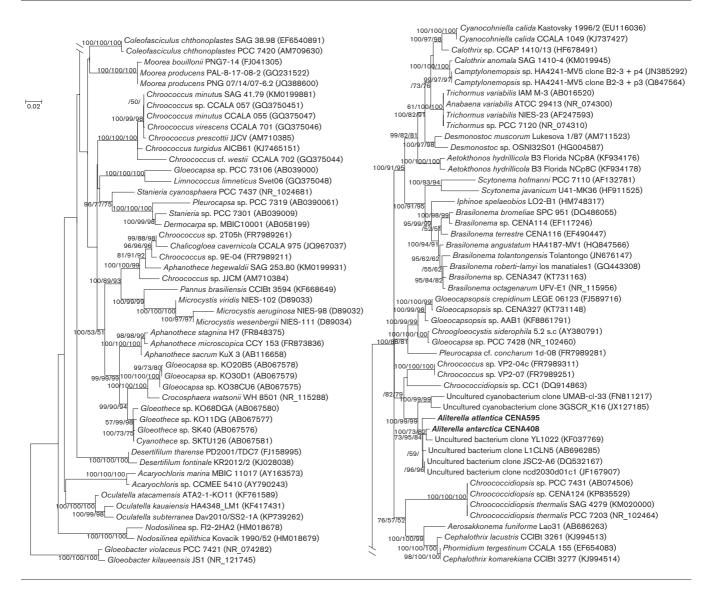


Fig. 3. 16S rRNA phylogenetic tree, inferred by the maximum likelihood method, GTR+I+G evolutive model. Numbers in nodes represent the NJ, ML bootstrap and BA posterior probability, respectively. Bar, 0.01 substitutions per nucleotide position.

two bubbles that differed in position and in nucleotide numbers (Fig 4a, b). With respect to BoxB, its basal portion in the CENA595^T helix is two nucleotide pairs longer than in CENA408^T, and at its central portion, an irregular bulge occurred in CENA595^T, but was not observed in CENA408^T (Fig. 4c, d). These differences in the 16S rRNA sequences and 16S-23S rRNA ITS, and also the distinct ecological origin of strains CENA595^T and CENA408^T, support the description of two novel species, *Aliterella atlantica* gen. nov., sp. nov. and *Aliterella antarctica* sp. nov.

Previous studies have reported a total genome size of 5.2 kb for *A. atlantica* CENA595^T (Rigonato *et al.*, 2015), which exceeds the genome sizes of some multicellular *Cyanobacteria* and indicates a higher degree of organizational

complexity than in other marine unicellular *Cyanobacteria*. The genome sequencing of *A. atlantica* CENA595^T sp. nov., enabled phylogenetic inference based on 21 protein sequences. Expanding the minimal data set of 16S ribosomal RNA sequences (around 1400 nucleotide sites) by using a large data set (3172 amino acid sites) helped to overcome the limitations of single-gene analyses, such as loss of phylogenetic information due to multiple substitutions at the same nucleotide site (saturation) and low statistical support across cyanobacterial phylogeny. However, the amount of data for the cyanobacterial genome currently available is much lower than the data for 16S rRNA gene sequences. However, as more cyanobacterial genomes are sequenced, a more phylogenomic approach has been used to study the deep branching relationships and the evolutionary history

of these organisms (Sánchez-Baracaldo et al., 2005; Blank & Sánchez-Baracaldo, 2010; Larsson et al., 2011; Shih et al., 2013; Bombar et al., 2014; Komárek et al., 2014; Calteau et al., 2014; Chrismas et al., 2015; Schirrmeister et al., 2015). Phylogenomic tree analysis (Fig. S2) fitted the A. atlantica CENA595^Tsp. nov., amino acid sequence within a clade containing sequences of Synechocystis sp. PCC7509, C. thermalis PCC7203 and Gloecocapsa sp. PCC7428. This cyanobacterial group, according to the more recently proposed cyanobacteria classification (Komárek et al., 2014), form the new order Chroococcidiopsidales, which encompasses one family (Chroococcidiopsidaceae) and one genus (Chroococcidiopsis), whose members mostly live in extreme habitats. Previously, strain CENA595^T was classified only at the order level (Chroococcales) based on morphological traits (Rigonato et al., 2015). The data generated in this study allowed a more robust taxonomic analysis of A. atlantica CENA595^T sp. nov. Therefore, this strain should be classified in the order Chroococcidiopsidales, but in a new monotypic family, Aliterellaceae fam. nov., due to its phylogenetic distinctiveness and low similarity with members of the genus Chroococcidiopsis (Fewer et al., 2002; Komárek et al., 2014).

The examples of the novel genus described here are able to grow in habitats with distinct conditions of salinity and naturally occupy different niches. The description of these species has also brought new insights into the identities of several uncultured bacteria and cyanobacterial sequences available in the GenBank database, which likely belong to the genus *Aliterella* gen. nov. Hence, *Aliterella* gen. nov., colonizes a variety of environments (associated with Antarctic green algae, the deep ocean, forest soil, human skin, Antarctic soil, building stone) suggesting a broad distribution and an important ecological role.

Description of Aliterella gen. nov.

(A.li.ter.el'la. L. adv. aliter otherwise, differently; N.L. fem. dim. n. *Aliterella* a cyanobacterium with variable cell shape).

In culture medium, cells are solitary or are grouped in microscopic or macroscopic irregular clusters, but form mucilaginous colonies; the mucilage is rigid. Spherical, oval, irregular or elongated, without aerotopes and blue-green. Divide by binary fission in multiple planes in successive generations. Thylakoids are organized randomly in the cytoplasm, with a higher concentration in the cell periphery, with a clear distinction of periplasmic and nucleoplasmic zones in light microscopy.

The type species is Aliterella atlantica sp. nov.

Description of *Aliterella atlantica* sp. nov.

(at.lan'ti.ca L. fem. adj. *atlantica* pertaining to the Atlantic ocean, the geographical origin of the type strain).

Thallus is extended, compact, irregular in shape, composed of numerous colonies or isolated ensheathed cells. Colonies are mostly irregular, sometimes rounded, variable in dimensions and in the number of cells (up to 32–64 cells or more). The mucilage is firm surrounding cells and colonies, colourless. With pressure cells are easily removed from colonies and the mucilaginous envelope remains and is the shape of the components. Cells are cylindrical with rounded ends, sometimes irregular, 3.0–4.8 μ m long (mean, 3.7 μ m), 2.0–3.3 μ m diameter (mean, 2.7 μ m), 1.1 to 2× longer than wide

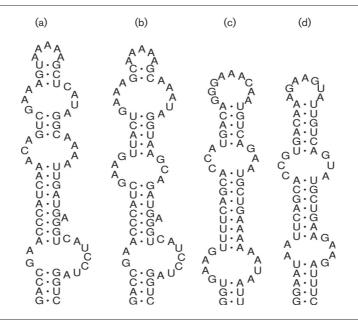


Fig. 4. Secondary structure for D1D1' and BoxB 16S-23S rRNA intergenic spacer. (a) D1D1' CENA595^{T;} (b) D1D1' CENA408^T; (c) BoxB CENA595^T; (d) BoxB CENA408^T.

(mean, $1.4\times$). The cell contents are granulated, sometimes homogeneous, with the chromatoplasm and centroplasm usually recognizable. Reproduction is by simple binary cell division in three or more planes. Baeocytes and nanocytes are not observed.

The type strain, CENA595^T, was isolated from waters of the South Atlantic Ocean continental shelf, Brazil.

Description of Aliterella antarctica sp. nov.

(ant.arc'ti.ca. L. fem. adj. *antarctica* southern, and by extension, pertaining to Antarctica, the geographical origin of the type strain).

Thallus is extended, compact, irregular in shape, composed of numerous colonies or isolated ensheathed cells. Colonies are mostly irregular, sometimes rounded, variable in dimensions and number of cells (up to 32-64 cells). Mucilage is apparently firm surrounding the cells and colonies, homogeneous or occasionally lamellate, colourless to brownish. With pressure cells are easily removed from the colonies and the mucilaginous envelope remains the shape of their components. Cells are cylindrical with rounded ends or, less frequently, near spherical or irregular, 3.4-5.8 µm long (mean, 4.5 µm), 2.5-4.6 µm in diameter (mean, 3.5 μ m), 1.0 to 1.7× longer than broad (mean $1.3\times$). Cell contents are granulated, sometimes homogeneous. The chromatoplasm and centroplasm are usually recognizable. Reproduction is by simple binary cell division in three or more planes. Baeocytes and nanocytes are not observed.

The type strain, CENA408^T, was isloated from green turf alga growing together with decomposed Deschampsia grass on a ornithogenic soil (Pygoscelis adeliae), collected close to the sea in Admiralty Bay, King George Island

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