

A molecular approach to cyanobacterial diversity in a rock-pool community involving gelatinous lichens and free-living *Nostoc* colonies

Ilona Oksanen^{1,2}, Katileena Lohtander^{1,3}, Per Paulsrud⁴
& Jouko Rikkinen^{1,3}

¹) Department of Ecology and Systematics, Division of Systematics, P.O. Box 65, FIN-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

²) Department of Applied Chemistry and Microbiology, Division of Microbiology, P.O. Box 56, FIN-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

³) Department of Applied Biology, P.O. Box 27, FIN-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

⁴) Department of Physiological Botany, EBC, Uppsala University, Villavägen 6, SE-752 36 Uppsala, Sweden

Received 8 November 2001, accepted 15 February 2002

Oksanen, I., Lohtander, K., Paulsrud, P. & Rikkinen, J. 2002: A molecular approach to cyanobacterial diversity in a rock-pool community involving gelatinous lichens and free-living *Nostoc* colonies. — *Ann. Bot. Fennici* 38: 93–99.

The cyanobacterial symbionts of *Collema multipartitum* and free-living *Nostoc* strains were studied by using the nucleotide sequence of the cyanobacterial tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron as a genetic marker. Biological specimens were collected from a series of interconnected depressions on a limestone pavement in western Ireland. In this material, free-living and lichenised *Nostoc* strains could be distinguished on the basis of the first variable region of the tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron. All the variable stem-loops had a similar heptanucleotide repeat motif, but lichenised and free-living strains differed in the number of repeats and in the presence/absence of additional sequences interrupting a single repeat. The results indicate that some filamentous cyanobacteria in rock-pool communities can be rapidly identified by using this molecular marker. The method could prove useful in ecological and environmental studies.

Keywords: *Collema*, cyanobacteria, lichen, *Nostoc*, symbiosis, tRNA^{Leu} intron

Introduction

Small, temporarily water-filled rock-pools are found wherever bare rock is exposed. Such depressions are subjected to drastic environmental changes, involving rapid changes in the extremes of irradiation, temperature, moisture, and nutrient availability. Accordingly, they have received considerable interest from ecologists and other biologists. For example, several studies have shown strong correlations between the distribution of saxicolous lichens and the duration of flooding events within limestone depressions (Wessels & Büdel 1989, Ott *et al.* 1996, 1997a, 1997b). Gelatinous lichens and large, gelatinous colonies of free-living *Nostoc* are frequently encountered in rock-pool communities in Karst regions (Degelius 1954, Potts 2000). Both are known for their ability to absorb large quantities of water. However, even in deep limestone hollows gelatinous lichens and *Nostoc* colonies are likely to experience repeated cycles of wetting and drying interspersed with variable periods of complete desiccation.

In this study we examine possibilities of using the tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron as a genetic marker for identifying lichenised and free-living *Nostoc* strains in rock-pool environments. Our main goal is to determine whether or not the cyanobacterial photobionts of the gelatinous lichen *Collema multipartitum* (Lecanorales, Ascomycota) and neighbouring *Nostoc* colonies belong to the same strain. In previous studies, we have studied genetic diversity of cyanobacteria, particularly *Nostoc*, in different lichens (Paulsrud & Lindblad 1998, Paulsrud *et al.* 1998, 2000, 2001). Using nested PCR, we have specifically amplified, cloned and sequenced cyanobacterial introns from field specimens containing *Nostoc* strains, but also fungal tissue, green algae and contaminating bacteria. We have found that individual thalli of most cyanolichens house only one *Nostoc* strain, this being in contrast with higher levels of cyanobiont diversity in most other *Nostoc* symbioses (West & Adams 1997, Costa *et al.* 2000, 2001). One notable exception is *Peltigera venosa*, in which different *Nostoc* colonies from single thalli were commonly found to contain different intron sequences. This may have reflected an ability to

exhibit different degrees of lichenisation with different *Nostoc* strains, ranging from loosely associated colonies to well corticated cephalodia (Paulsrud *et al.* 2000).

Little is still known about cyanobacterial diversity in *Collema* and other gelatinous lichens. The cyanobionts of *Collema* clearly belong to the *Nostoc* type, i.e., they are filamentous, heterocystous and produce isopolar trichomes with more or less spherical cells and exhibit no evidence of branching (Geitler 1932, Rippka *et al.* 1979, Mollenhauer 1988, Komárek & Anagnostidis 1989, Castenholz 2001, Wright *et al.* 2001). Also the typical life-cycle of *Nostoc*, with motile hormogonia and with vegetative filaments exhibiting different degrees of coiling is expressed by most cyanobacteria isolated from gelatinous macrolichens (Degelius 1954). The phenotypic characteristics of lichen-forming *Nostoc* strains vary and several names have been used for morphologically different *Collema* cyanobionts. At least *Nostoc commune*, *N. microscopicum*, *N. muscorum*, *N. punctiforme*, and *N. sphaericum* have been mentioned as possible cyanobionts of different *Collema* species (Degelius 1954).

Material and methods

Thalli of *Collema multipartitum* and large free-living colonies of *Nostoc* were collected from the Burren region of County Clare, western Ireland in September 2000. All specimens were taken from a series of interconnected depressions on a flat limestone pavement (Fig. 1). Two types of depressions were sampled: shallow concavities with well developed *Collema* thalli (A1–A4) and deeper depressions with large *Nostoc* colonies (B1–B4). The depressions were prone to flooding during rain and routes for the flow of surface water are shown by arrows in Fig. 1. Generally, the shallow depressions with *Collema* were likely to dry out quickly, while the deeper concavities with *Nostoc* were likely to stay flooded for extended periods.

In the laboratory the field specimens were hydrated and washed with sterile ultra-pure water (MQ, Millipore). After a couple of hours nostocalean cyanobacteria were isolated under

the microscope. Samples were taken for direct amplification and amplification of extracted DNA. Many fragments of lichen thalli and cyanobacterial colonies were also grown in sterile MQ-water and/or on Z8-agarose medium without nitrogen (Kotai 1972) at room temperature. Growing cyanobacterial filaments were harvested after several weeks.

The total DNA from specimens was extracted using the Dneasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions with slight modifications described in Lohtander *et al.* (2000). The presence of fungal DNA in the field samples was determined by using fungal specific primers for a region consisting of the internal transcribed spacers ITS1 and ITS2, and the 5.8S rDNA. PCR-reactions were performed using PHARMACIA Biotech Inc. Ready To Go PCR beads following the procedure described in Lohtander *et al.* (2000). The primers used in PCR were ITS1-F (Gardes & Bruns 1993) and ITS4 (White *et al.* 1990), in a 30-cycle reaction with a PCR profile of 60 sec at 95 °C (denaturation), 60 sec at 60 °C (annealing), and 60 sec at 72 °C (extension). The amplified DNA fragments were separated by loading 4 µl of each product on a 2% agarose gel containing ethidium bromide. Pharmacia Biotech Inc.'s 100 Bp ladder was used as a DNA molecular weight standard. The presence or absence of DNA bands in the agarose gel was observed on a UV-transilluminator. If a visible DNA band was present in the gel after electrophoresis, there was fungal DNA present in the specimen. The fungal origin of the

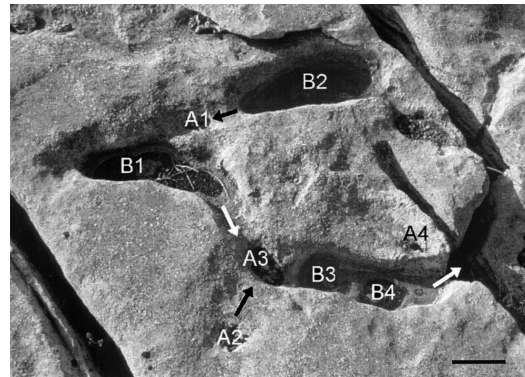


Fig. 1. Rock-pool morphology and position of sampling points. Small depressions in the rock housed well developed *Collema* thalli (A1–A4). Deeper concavities had macroscopic colonies of free-living cyanobacteria, growing on shallow deposits of detritus and fine grit (B1–B4). All depressions were prone to flooding during rain. Obvious routes for the flow of surface water are shown by arrows. Scale bar 20 cm.

DNA was confirmed by sequencing.

Nested PCR was used to amplify the cyanobacterial tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron directly from field specimens, cultured cyanobacteria, or from extracted DNA (dilution 1:10 vol.). Most intron sequences were obtained from crushed field specimens or from cultured cyanobacteria; only in two cases total DNA was first extracted using the Dneasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen) as mentioned above (Table 1). The tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron was amplified with two sets of primers, i.e., the cyanobacterial specific primers A & C (Paulsrud & Lindblad

Table 1. Abbreviations of obtained tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron sequences and corresponding GenBank accession numbers. The presence/absence of fungal DNA is also shown. The abbreviations of the intron sequences refer to the sampling points in Fig. 1.

Abbreviation	Origin of tRNA ^{Leu} (UAA) intron sequence	GenBank accession number	Fungal DNA
A1	<i>Collema</i> (DNA extracted from field specimen)	AF491912	+
A2	<i>Collema</i> (field specimen)	AF491913	+
A3a	<i>Collema</i> (field specimen)	AF491914	+
A3b	<i>Collema</i> (culture)	AF491915	+
A4	<i>Collema</i> (DNA extracted from field specimen)	AF491916	+
B1a	<i>Nostoc</i> colony (culture)	AF491917	–
B1b	<i>Nostoc</i> colony (culture)	AF491918	–
B2a	<i>Nostoc</i> colony (field specimen)	AF492487	–
B2b	<i>Nostoc</i> colony (culture)	AF491919	–
B4	<i>Nostoc</i> colony (culture)	AF491920	–

1998), and TL25 & TL23 (Biniszkiwicz *et al.* 1994) under conditions described in Paulsrud and Lindblad (1998). PCR products were purified with the PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen). 100–200 ng of the double-stranded, amplified DNA was directly sequenced with the primers TL25 and TL23 using the ABI Prism Dye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Ready Reaction Kit (Perkin-Elmer). Sequence reactions were analysed on an ABI Prism 377 automated sequencer or on an ABI Prism 310 genetic analyzer (PE Biosystems). The sequences are deposited in GenBank (accession numbers in Table 1).

Results

Eight different cyanobacterial tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron sequences were amplified from the biological material. Three different intron sequences were obtained from samples of *Collema multipartitum* (Table 1). One intron type was amplified three times: once from extracted DNA (A1), and twice directly from thallus fragments (A2 and A3a). A cultured *Nostoc* strain from one of the above thallus fragments produced a second, slightly different intron sequence. A third, unique intron sequence was obtained from DNA extracted from an additional *Collema* specimen (A4). Fungal DNA of approximately 600 bp was obtained from specimens A1–A4, confirming that these specimens were indeed lichenised (Table 1).

Five different intron sequences were obtained from free-living *Nostoc* colonies (Table 1). No fungal PCR product was obtained from any of these specimens. Only one intron sequence was obtained by direct amplification from a field specimen of *Nostoc* (B2a). The other sequences were amplified from cultures, and in two cases different sequences were obtained from two cultures originating from a single field specimen (Table 1). Most samples from extremely mucilaginous free-living *Nostoc* colonies failed in PCR despite attempts to remove polysaccharides from the template using the CTAB-based method for cyanobacterial cells (Wilson 1994) and extra cleaning of the extracted DNA using Prep-A-Gene DNA Purification Systems (Bio-Rad) combined with dilution se-

ries. Thus, we were unable to amplify any intron sequences from field specimen B3, even though nostocalean cyanobacteria were clearly present.

All the tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron sequences obtained in this study had a Class 1 heptanucleotide repeat motif (Costa *et al.* 2001) in the first variable stem-loop (Fig. 2). There were consistent size differences in the variable stem-loops, with all free-living *Nostocs* having fewer copies of heptanucleotide repeats than the lichenised strains. Furthermore, all lichenised *Nostoc* strains had an additional sequence interrupting one copy of the heptanucleotide repeat (Fig. 2). These sequences did not confirm to the heptanucleotide repeat motif, but corresponded both in size and nucleotide sequence with sequences that have previously been found interrupting the variable stem-loops of some other symbiotic *Nostoc* strains (Paulsrud *et al.* 1998, 2000, Costa *et al.* 2001)

Discussion

The tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron is found in several cyanobacterial lineages and in the plastids of many eukaryotic algae and all green plants (Paquin *et al.* 1997, Besendahl 2000). The distribution and characteristics of this group 1 intron are consistent with an ancient origin and vertical transmission, supporting the view that it was obtained by eukaryotic organisms in the primary plastid endosymbiosis (Schopf 1993, Paquin *et al.* 1997, Palmer & Delwiche 1998, Brocks *et al.* 1999, Summons *et al.* 1999, Besendahl 2000, Costa *et al.* 2001). The intron has subsequently been lost at a number of occasions, resulting in its present distribution among cyanobacteria and plastids. Some authors (Rudi & Jacobsen 1997, 1999) have suggested a more recent origin for the intron, but this interpretation is problematic (Costa *et al.* 2001). In recent phylogenetic reconstructions based on tRNA^{Leu} intron sequences cyanobacteria have fallen outside the monophyletic group to eukaryotic algae and green plants, and among cyanobacteria the genus *Nostoc* has formed a moderately supported monophyletic group (Besendahl 2000).

We have previously used the tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron as a genetic marker for studying the

A. First variable region

Lichenised <i>Nostoc</i> strains		Central loop	
Ax	CGGAAATT TTAGATT TGCGATT TTAGATT TAGGATT	AGTCTTA	AATCGAA AATCCAA AATC ⁴⁵ TAA AATCCAA AATTGAG
A3b	CGGAAATT TTAGATT TGCGATT TTAGATT TAGGATT	AGTCTTA	AATCGAA AATCCAA AATC ⁴⁵ TAA AATCCAA AATTGAG
A4	CAGAAATT TTAGATT TGCGATT TTAGATT TAGGATT	AGTCTTC	AATCTGA AATCCAA AATC ⁴⁸ TAA AATCCAA AATTGAG
Free-living <i>Nostoc</i> strains			
B1a	CAAAAATT TTAGATT TGCGATT	AGTCTTA	AATCTAA AATCCAA AATTGCG
B1b	CAAAAATT TTAGATT TGCGATT TTAGATT TACCATT	AGTCTTC	AATCCAA AATCCAA AATTGAG
B2	CAAAAATT TTAGATT TGCGATT TTAGATT TACCATT	AGTCTTC	AATCCAA AATCCAA AATTGAG
B4	CAAAAATT TTAGATT TGCGATT TTAGATT TGCCATT	AGTCNTC	AATCCAA AATCCAA AATTGAG

B. Sequences not confirming to the heptanucleotide repeat motif (black boxes in A)

Lichenised <i>Nostoc</i> strains	
Ax	GTTTGACTGAGC GTTTCGCGCAGCGTCTCGTAGA GAAGCCGAAGTC
A3b	GTTTCGACTGAGC GTTTCGCGGAGCGTCTCGTAGA GAAGCCGAAGTC
A4	GTTTCGACTGAGC GACTTGCCCTGAGAGCAGTCGAAG GGAGCCGAAGTC

Fig. 2. Alignment of the first variable region of the tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron from the *Nostoc* strains. Ax refers to three identical intron sequences amplified from lichen specimens A1, A2 and A3a. The first variable region of the intron is built of degenerate heptanucleotide repeats (grey blocks in A). Sequences that do not follow the heptanucleotide repeat motif are shown as black boxes, with their sizes indicated. The alignment of these deviating sequences is shown in B.

diversity and specificity of *Nostocs* symbiotically associated with lichen-forming fungi and bryophytes (Paulsruud & Lindblad 1998, Paulsruud *et al.* 1998, 2000, 2001, Costa *et al.* 2001). Conserved elements in the tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron are helpful for the identification of *Nostocs* at the genus level and more variable regions can be used for the identification of different *Nostoc* strains. Conserved elements in the intron have grouped symbiotic *Nostoc* strains consistent with the corresponding 16S rDNA analyses (Paulsruud 2001; I. Oksanen *et al.* unpubl. data). As shown by Costa *et al.* (2001) sequence variations between different tRNA^{Leu} introns are mainly caused by processes other than random mutations. Single nucleotide differences are strongly restricted by the secondary and tertiary structure of the intron. Thus, all *Nostoc* sequences tend to be quite similar, except in one stem-loop where both sequence and size variation is considerable (Paulsruud & Lindblad 1998, Paulsruud *et al.* 1998, 2000, Costa *et al.* 2001). This variable stem-loop (first variable region, P6b) is built from degenerate heptanucleotide repeats, which fold into a hairpin structure allowing the repeats

to base pair. Size differences between variable stem-loops are caused primarily by different numbers of copies of repeats and, in some cases, by insertion of additional sequences not following the heptanucleotide repeat motif. Based on their consensus sequences the variable stem-loops in *Nostoc* can be grouped into two classes. Thus, Class 1 variable regions exhibit the consensus heptanucleotide repeat sequence TDN-GATT and its base pairing consensus sequence, while Class 2 variable regions have the consensus heptanucleotide repeat sequence NNTGAGT and its base pairing consensus sequence (Costa *et al.* 2001).

All the tRNA^{Leu} intron sequences found in this study had a Class 1 heptanucleotide repeat motif in the first variable stem-loop (Fig. 2). There was a consistent size difference between the introns from *Collema thalli* and free-living *Nostoc* colonies, respectively, with the variable stem-loops of free-living *Nostocs* having fewer copies of heptanucleotide repeats than those of lichenised strains (Fig. 2A). Furthermore, the variable regions of all lichenised *Nostoc* strains had additional sequences interrupting one copy

of the heptanucleotide repeat (Fig. 2B). The inserted sequences did not confirm to the repeat motif, but corresponded with similar interrupting sequences previously found from the variable stem-loops of other symbiotic *Nostoc* strains. Homologous recombination between different loci in the *Nostoc* genome containing the same, or similar, heptanucleotide repeat motifs may have given rise to these interrupting sequences (Costa *et al.* 2001).

Our results clearly demonstrate that several *Nostoc* strains were associated with *Collema* thalli at one field site. Furthermore, consistent differences between tRNA^{Leu} introns amplified from *Collema* thalli and free-living colonies, respectively, indicate that different groups of closely related *Nostocs* were involved in the two biological systems. Thus, in the restricted rock-pool environment one could distinguish between lichenised and free-living *Nostoc* strains on the basis of the first variable stem-loop of the tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron. The large *Nostoc* colonies in deep depressions appeared to be genuinely free-living, as no fungal DNA was detected in any of these samples. This is not to say, however, that these *Nostocs* could not have belonged to potentially lichen-forming strains. This is emphasised by the fact that one intron sequence from a free-living colony (B1a) was identical to a sequence previously obtained from the thallus of *Peltigera neopolydactyla* from Oregon, USA (Paulsrud *et al.* 2000). The fact that several different *Nostoc* strains were often identified from cultures taken from single field specimens emphasises the danger of drawing conclusions from single cyanobacterial isolates from lichens, unless the identity of the *in situ* cyanobiont has first been confirmed.

The contrasting microhabitat preferences of gelatinous lichens and free-living cyanobacteria most probably corresponded to differences in moisture regimes. Shallow limestone depressions provided an ideal habitat for *Collema*. The lichens seemed to avoid convex limestone surfaces, which dry very quickly after rain, but also deep rock pools, which tend to experience prolonged periods of flooding. The high moisture compensation point of gelatinous cyanolichens excludes the use of high atmospheric humidity for reactivation of net photosynthesis and carbon

gain. While the lichens thus require hydration with liquid water, due to their high water holding capacity, they can extend their metabolic activities during the desiccation process. However, under prolonged hydration even gelatinous lichens can suffer from suprasaturation depression of net photosynthesis, this leading to substantial reductions in carbon gain (Lange & Kilian 1985, Lange *et al.* 1986, 1988, 1989, Lange 2000).

Acknowledgments

This research was funded by the Academy of Finland. The laboratory work was carried out in the laboratory of Prof. Kaarina Sivonen and the "Cyanogroup" at the Department of Applied Chemistry and Microbiology, University of Helsinki. Dr. Bruce Osborne, Botany Department, University College Dublin, is warmly thanked for organising the Burren excursion.

References

- Besendahl, A., Qiu, Y.-L., Lee, J., Palmer, J. D. & Bhattacharya, D. 2000: The cyanobacterial origin and vertical transmission of the plastid tRNA^{Leu} group-I intron. — *Current Gen.* 37: 12–23.
- Biniszkiewicz, D., Cesnaviciene, E. & Shub, D. A. 1994: Self-splicing group I intron in cyanobacterial initiator methionine tRNA: evidence for lateral transfer of introns in bacteria. — *EMBO J.* 13: 4629–4635.
- Brocks, J. J., Logan, G. A., Buick, R. & Summons, R. E. 1999: Archean molecular fossils and the early rise of eukaryotes. — *Science* 285: 1033–1036.
- Castenholz, R. W. 2001: Phylum BX. Cyanobacteria. — In: Garrity, G. M. (ed.), *Bergey's manual of systematic bacteriology* I: 473–599. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.
- Costa, J.-L., Paulsrud, P. & Lindblad, P. 1999: Cyanobiont diversity of within coralloid roots of selected cycad species. — *FEMS Microbial Ecol.* 28: 85–91.
- Costa, J.-L., Paulsrud, P. & Lindblad, P. 2001: The cyanobacterial tRNA^{Leu}(UAA) intron: evolutionary patterns in a genetic marker. — In: Paulsrud, P., *The Nostoc-symbiont of lichens. Diversity, specificity and cellular modifications*. Ph.D. thesis, Uppsala Univ., Uppsala. 55 pp.
- Costa, J.-L., Paulsrud, P., Rikkinen, J. & Lindblad, P. 2001: Genetic diversity of *Nostoc* endophytically associated with two bryophyte species. — *Appl. Env. Microbiol.* 67: 4393–4396.
- Degelius, G. 1954: The lichen genus *Collema* in Europe. — *Symbolae Botanicae Upsalienses* 13: 1–499.
- Gardes, M. & Bruns, T. D. 1993: ITS primers with enhanced specificity for basidiomycetes — application to the identification of mycorrhizae and rusts. —

- Molec. Ecol.* 2: 113–118.
- Geitler, L. 1932: Cyanophyceae. — In: Kolkwitz, R. (ed.), *Kryptogamenflora von Deutschland, Österreich und der Schweiz*, Vol. 14: 1–1196. Akad. Verlagsgesells., Leipzig.
- Komárek, J. & Anagnostidis, K. 1989: Modern approach to the classification system of cyanophytes. 4. Nostocales. — *Archiv Hydrobiol. Suppl.* 82: 247–345.
- Kotai, J. 1972: *Instructions for preparation of modified nutrient solution Z8 for algae*. — Publication B-11/69: 1–5. Norwegian Inst. Water Res., Oslo.
- Lange, O. L. & Kilian, E. 1985: Reaktivierung der Photosynthese trockener Flechten durch Wasserdampfaufnahme aus dem Luftraum: Artsspezifisch unterschiedliches Verhalten. — *Flora* 176: 7–23.
- Lange, O. L. 2000: Photosynthetic performance of a gelatinous lichen under temperate habitat conditions: long-term monitoring of CO₂ exchange of *Collema cristatum*. — *Biblioth. Lichenol.* 75: 307–332.
- Lange, O. L., Bilger, W. & Schreiber, U. 1989: Chlorophyll fluorescence of lichens containing green and blue-green algae during hydration by water vapour uptake and by addition of liquid water. — *Botanica Acta* 102: 306–313.
- Lange, O. L., Green, T. G. A. & Ziegler, H. 1988: Water status related photosynthesis and carbon isotope discrimination in species of the lichen genus *Pseudocyphellaria* with green or blue-green photobionts and in photosymbiodemes. — *Oecologia* 75: 494–501.
- Lange, O. L., Kilian, E. & Ziegler, H. 1986: Water vapor uptake and photosynthesis in lichens: performance differences in species with green and blue-green algae as phycobionts. — *Oecologia* 71: 104–110.
- Lohtander, K., Källersjö, M., Moberg, R. & Tehler, A. 2000: The family Physciaceae in Fennoscandia: phylogeny inferred from ITS sequences. — *Mycologia* 92: 728–735.
- Mollenhauer, D. 1988: *Nostoc* species in the field. — *Archiv Hydrobiol.* (Algol. Stud.) 80: 315–326.
- Ott, S., Elders, U. & Jahns, H. M. 1996: Vegetation of the rock-alvar of Gotland I. Microhabitats and succession. — *Nova Hedwigia* 63: 433–470.
- Ott, S., Elders, U. & Jahns, H. M. 1997: Vegetation of the rock-alvar of Gotland II. Microclimate of lichen-rich habitats. — *Nova Hedwigia* 64: 87–101.
- Ott, S., Osenberg, E. & Jahns, H. M. 1997: Vegetation of the rock-alvar of Gotland III. Interaction of lichens in a rock habitat. — *Symbolae Botanicae Upsaliensis* 32: 209–221.
- Palmer, J. D. & Delwiche, C. F. 1998: The origin and evolution of plastids and their genomes. — In: Soltis, D. E., Soltis, P. S. & Doyle, J. J. (eds.), *Molecular systematics of plants. II. DNA sequencing*: 375–409. Kluwer, Norwell, Massachusetts.
- Paquin, B., Kathe, S. D., Nierzwicki-Bauer, S. A. & Shub, D. A. 1997: Origin and evolution of group-I introns in cyanobacterial tRNA genes. — *J. Bacteriol.* 179: 6798–6806.
- Paulsrud, P. & Lindblad, P. 1998: Sequence variation of the tRNA^{Leu} intron as a marker for genetic diversity and specificity of symbiotic cyanobacteria in some lichens. — *Appl. Env. Microbiol.* 64: 310–315.
- Paulsrud, P., Rikkinen, J. & Lindblad, P. 1998: Cyanobiont specificity in some *Nostoc*-containing lichens and a *Peltigera aphthosa* photosymbiodeme. — *New Phytol.* 139: 517–524.
- Paulsrud, P., Rikkinen, J. & Lindblad, P. 2000: Spatial patterns of photobiont diversity in some *Nostoc*-containing lichens. — *New Phytol.* 146: 291–299.
- Paulsrud, P., Rikkinen, J. & Lindblad, P. 2001: Field investigation on cyanobacterial specificity in *Peltigera aphthosa*. — *New Phytol.* 152: 117–123.
- Potts, M. 1999: Mechanisms of desiccation tolerance in cyanobacteria. — *Eur. J. Phycol.* 34: 319–328.
- Potts, M. 2000: *Nostoc*. — In: Whitton, B. A. & Potts, M. (eds.), *The ecology of cyanobacteria*: 465–504. Kluwer Acad. Publ., Dordrecht.
- Rippka, R., Deruelles, J., Waterbury, J. B., Herdman, M. & Stanier, R. Y. 1979: Generic assignments, strain histories and properties of pure cultures of cyanobacteria. — *J. General Microbiol.* 111: 1–61.
- Rudi, K. & Jacobsen, K. S. 1997: Cyanobacterial tRNA^{Leu} (UAA) group-I introns have a polyphyletic origin. — *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 156: 293–298.
- Rudi, K. & Jacobsen, K. S. 1999: Complex evolutionary patterns of tRNA^{Leu} (UAA) group-I introns in cyanobacterial radiation. — *J. Bacteriol.* 181: 3445–3451.
- Schopf, J. W. 1993: Microfossils of the early Archaean apex chert: new evidence of the antiquity of life. — *Science* 260: 640–646.
- Summons, R. E., Jahnke, L. L., Hope, J. M. & Logan, G. A. 1999: 2-Methylhopanoids as biomarkers for cyanobacterial oxygenic photosynthesis. — *Nature* 400: 554–557.
- Wessels, D. C. J. & Büdel, B. 1989: A rock pool lichen community in northern Transvaal, South Africa: composition and distribution patterns. — *Lichenologist* 21: 259–277.
- West, N. J. & Adams, D. G. 1997: Phenotypic and genotypic comparison of symbiotic and free-living cyanobacteria from a single field site. — *Appl. Env. Microbiol.* 63: 4479–4484.
- White, T. J., Bruns, T. D., Lee, S. & Taylor, J. W. 1990: Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal genes for phylogenetics. — In: Innis, M. A., Gelfand, D. H., Sninsky, J. J. & White, T. J. (eds.), *PCR Protocols*: 315–322. Acad. Press, San Diego.
- Wilson, K. 1994: Preparation of genomic DNA from bacteria. — In: Ausubel, F. M., Brent, R., Kingston, R. E., Moore, D. D., Seidman, J. G., Smith, J. A. and Struhl, K. (eds.), *Current protocols in molecular biology* Vol. 1, Unit 2.4. 1–2.4.2 Suppl. 40. John Wiley & Sons, USA.
- Wright, D., Prickett, T., Helm, R. F. & Potts, M. 2001: Form species *Nostoc commune* (Cyanobacteria). — *Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol.* 51: 1839–1852.