# lichens*, Cladonia pyxidata* and *Cladonia pocillum* (Cladoniaceae, Species concepts in the pixie cup Ascomycotina)

By

Rhonda Kotelko

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of

The University of Manitoba

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Botany

University of Manitoba

Winnipeg, MB

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## Species concepts in the pixie cup lichens, Cladonia pyxidata and Cladonia pocillum (Cladoniaceae, Ascomycotina)

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#### **Abstract**

Cladonia pyxidata and Cladonia pocillum are commonly referred to as "pixie cup" lichens. The species are mainly delimited by the morphology of the basal squamules, which are upright and separate or form a rosette-like pattern, respectively. *Cladonia* pyxidata is reported to prefer acidic soils, whereas C. pocillum grows exclusively on basic soils. By examining the morphological and genetic variation of  $C$ . pyxidata and  $C$ . pocillum, we assess their species status. We also examine whether the variation in morphology correlates with a change in soil pH. Samples from the Cladonia pyxidata group were collected from across Canada. Phylogenetic and population genetic analyses were conducted using 15 morphological characters (including soil pH and secondary metabolites identified by thin layer chromatography), two fungal datasets (nucleotide sequences of the fungal internal transcribed spacer (lTS) of nuclear ribosomal DNA (rDNA) and a polyketide synthase (PKS) gene), and one algal dataset (Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLPs) of the algal ITS rDNA). Three morphological species could be distinguished among the fungal partner. Soil pH values were significantly different for each species examined. Eight algal genotypes (A-H) were found to associate with three fungal species (Cladonia pyxidata  $1$ , C. pyxidata  $2$ , and C. pocillum). Members of the C. pyxidata group associate with multiple algae within the Asterochloris group. No geographical patterning was observed in either the fungal or algal symbionts.

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#### **Introduction**

Lichens exist in a wide array of marginal habitats, such as hot deserts, polar regions, and salty coasts. The symbiotic relationship between the mycobiont (fungus) and the photobiont (alga or cyanobacterium) is considered to be a highly specialized strategy that allows lichens to thrive in such habitats (Tehler 1982). The algae provide the heterotrophic fungal partner with a source of carbon and, in return, the algae are sheltered among the fungal hyphae from otherwise intolerable environments (Lewis 1973).

The dual nature of the lichen association makes it difficult to classify these organisms. One of the biggest problems is how to apply a species concept to a symbiotic relationship because the lichen may have a different morphology when the fungus associates with different algae. By convention, lichen classification is based on the fungal partner; however, the fungal partner does not always associate with only one algal partner. For example, in photosymbiodemes, the fungal partner takes up a new algal partner during its development (Armaleo & Clerc 1991, Yoshimura et al. 1993, Richardson 1999). Because of the inclusion of the new algal partner and the change in morphology of the lichen, both forms have been given names (Hawksworth 1976). Other common concerns related to lichen classification are the occurrence of species pairs and sibling species (Hawksworth 1976, Tehler 1982).

#### Lichen symbiosis

Although lichens had been recognized as organisms for quite some time, it wasn't until 1867, when Schwendener proposed hís dual hypothesis of lichens, that the true nature of the lichen association began to emerge (Honegger, 2000). Schwendener's hypothesis, which at the time lacked experimental evidence, arose from his extensive analysis of the anatomy and development in lichens, algae, and fungi using a light microscope. Many of the leading lichenologists at the time, such as Crombie and Nylander, rejected Schwendener's hypothesis because the common consensus was that all living organisms were autonomous (Honegger 2000). Other prominent biologists, such as de Bary, Frank, and Hellriegel, were not so quick to reject Schwendener's ideas and the concept soon spread into other areas of study, such as microbial, plant, animal and human pathogens (Honegger 2000). When the complex relationships between pathogenic micro-organisms and their hosts were finally identified, which refutes the idea of holistic organisms, Schwendener's hypothesis began to gain real popularity. Further experimental proof of the dual nature of lichens was obtained when Thomas published his results in 1939 on the first successful re-synthesis experiment (Honegger, 2000). Today it is well established that organisms can exist in close association with one another.

Most lichen symbioses are bipartite associations between a mycobiont and a photobiont (Smith 1973, Honegger 1998, Richardson 1999, DePriest 2004). Eighty-five percent of all lichen-forming fungi associate with eukaryotic algae (phycobiont) and another ten percent associate with prokaryotic cyanobacteria (cyanobiont). The

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remaining five percent contain both a phycobiont and a cyanobiont within the same lichen thallus thereby forming a tripartite lichen {Rikkinen 1995, DePriest 2004). ln these tripartite lichens, the cyanobiont is generally confined to specialized structures called cephalodia, where conditions favourable for nitrogen fixation are maintained (Ott 1988, Rikkinen L995, Büdel & Sdheidegger 1996, Richardson 1999).

Gargas et al. (1995) proposed that there were at least five independent origins of lichenization; three in the Basidiomycetes and at least two in the Ascomycetes. However, Lutzoni et al. (2000) indicate that lichenization probably evolved earlier and was followed by multiple independent losses. Some non-lichen-forming fungi may have secondarily lost the ability to form a lichen association. As a result, lichenization has been viewed as a highly successful nutritional strategy (Honegger 1998, Wedin et al. 2OA4l. Even Schwendener recognized that the nutritional status of the fungus improved after forming an association with algal cells (Honegger 2000).

Of the approximate 13,500 lichen-forming fungal species, most belong to the Acsomycetes (Kirk et al. 2001, DePriest 2004). However, a few members are also found within the Basidiomycetes ( $\approx$ 50 sp.) and Deuteromycetes ( $\approx$ 200 sp.). By convention, species names that are applied to the lichen association refer to the fungal partners. The photosynthetic partners are given their own separate names. Approximately 100 species of photosynthetic partners from 40 genera and five distinct classes (prokaryotic  $-$  Cyanophyceae; eukaryotic  $-$  Tribophyceae, Phaephyceae, Chlorophyceae, and Pleurastrophyceae) have been found to associate with the lichen-forming fungi {Friedl &

Büdel 1996). Trebouxia Puymaly is the most common of these algae (Ahmadjian L970, Honegger 1998), occurring in approximately 40% of all known lichen associations (Honegger 1991, Rikkinen 1995). Although not as common as Trebouxia, Nostoc Vaucher is the primary cyanobacterium found in lichen associations (Rikkinen 1995).

Like all fungi, the mycobionts in lichen associations are heterotrophic organisms that require an external supply of carbon (Lewis 1973, Rikkinen 1995, Honegger 1998). Whereas some fungi, such as mycorrhizae, saprobes and parasites (plant and animal), have exploited other sources of carbon, lichen-forming fungi exploit photosynthetic algae that are maintained within the thallus. Carbon, in the form of photosynthates, is transferred to the fungal partner. The type of photosynthate produced largely depends on the type of photobiont. Green algae (phycobionts) produce a number of sugar alcohols, or polyols, whereas cyanobacteria (cyanobionts) typically produce glucose (Smith L973, Honegger 1991, Fahselt L994, Rikkinen 1995, Richardson 1999). After the photosynthates are transferred to the fungal partner, they are rapidly converted to mannitol (Smith 1973). It has been hypothesized that the conversion of photosynthates to mannitol prevents most algae from using the stored photosynthates (Honegger 1991, Fahselt 1994).

The fungal partner in the lichen symbiosis is generally considered to be ecologically obligate (Honegger 1998). This means that although the algal and fungal partners may be cultured independently, both must be growing together to produce the distinct lichen morphology that is observed in nature (Honegger 1996). Establishment of

new lichen thalli is accomplished in at least one of two ways; germination of a lichenforming ascospore followed by association with a compatible algal partner, or regeneration from vegetative propagules such as isidia, soredia, or lichen fragments {Büdel & Scheidegger 1996), which contain both symbionts. The recognition of compatible algal cells by lichen-forming fungi is thought to be facilitated by the production of a lectin, a potential recognition molecule (Richardson L999). ln the presence of compatible algae, mucilage is produced by the fungus and surrounds the algal cells. This begins the development of a new lichen thallus, as polarity is established and tissues begin to stratify. ln some cases, specialized fungal hyphae, called haustoria, penetrate the algal cell walls but do not disrupt the plasma membrane (Smith 1973, Honegger 1991, Honegger 1998).

The lichen association is reported to have a number of effects on the photobiont. ln the lichenized state, algal morphology is commonly altered, vegetative reproduction becomes controlled by the mycobiont, and conditions favourable for photosynthesis, such as the amount of  $H_2O$ ,  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , and light, are maintained by the fungal partner (Ahmadjian L987, Rikkinen 1995, Richardson 1999). The fungal-derived mucilage layer encloses the photobiont and restricts access to water or nutrients. The hydrophobic medullary hyphae help to position the algal cells directly below the upper cortex for optimal light conditions and gas exchange (Honegger 1991, Honegger 1998). ln some cases the algal morphology is altered so dramatically that axenic culturing is the only means of accurate identification (Rikkinen 1995).

Three growth patterns have been observed in the lichen-forming fungi; apical or marginal growth, intercalary growth, and a combination of the two forms {Honegger 1991, 1996). In thalli showing the apical or marginal pattern, such as *Physia* (Schreber) Michaux, Cladonia P. Browne, and Parmelia Ach., growth of the lichen thallus occurs within the pseudomeristematic region located along the apices or margins (Honegger 1996). Cells in this region tend to be tiny and lack structure (Honegger 1991). However, as the thallus grows, the cells increase in size, the cortex begins to develop, and tissue stratification becomes apparent. ln thallí showing intercalary growth, such as Umbilicaria Hoffm., lobes develop throughout the lichen thallus. As a result, younger lobes are often seen overgrowing older, senescing lobes (Honegger 1996). These two growth patterns are not exclusive. Species, such as *Lobaria pulmonaria* (L.) Hoffm., have been seen to posess both apical/marginal and intercalary growth (Honegger 1996).

Growth patterns have resulted in the formation of lichen thalli exhibiting one of three growth forms; crustose, foliose, or fruticose (Smith 1973, Büdel & Scheidegger 1996). Crustose lichens are generally tightly adpressed to, if not slightly embedded within, their substratum. Foliose lichens form leaf-like structures that are loosely attached to the substratum by attachment appendages, such as a holdfast in the Umbilicaraceae or rhizines in the Peltigerales. Both crustose and foliose lichens show a range of tissue differentiation from non-stratified homiomerous thalli to highly structured heteromerous thalli (Büdel & Scheidegger 1996). The homiomerous thallus consists of evenly distributed fungal and algal partners whereas the heteromerous thallus consists of a highly conglutinated upper cortex, a loosely woven hydrophobic

medullary region that contains the photobiont, which is positioned directly below the cortical layer for optimal gas exchange and illumination, and in some instances <sup>a</sup> conglutinated lower cortex (Honegger 1991, Büdel & Scheidegger 1996, Honegger 1998, Gaßmann & Ott 2000).

Fruticose lichens are attached to the substratum at a single point and are present in two forms, erect or pendulous (Smith 1973, Büdel & Scheidegger 1996). Thalli of erect fruticose lichens generally possess an upright stalk, which provides the structural support that allows the lichen thallus to maintain the vertical habit (Hammer 1993). The pendulous forms of fruticose lichens do not have the same structural requirements. lnstead, they possess a variety of structural features ranging from <sup>a</sup> central elastic cord that allows the lichen thallus to stretch when disturbed to a loosely woven medulla providing less structural support (Büdel & Scheidegger 1996). The basic anatomy of fruticose lichens is otherwise the same as other lichen-forming fungi; however, because of the cylindrical nature of this growth form, an outer cortex is sometimes present and protects the photobiont in the medullary fayer. ln some cases, intermediates between crustose and fruticose lichens exist that possess both <sup>a</sup> horizontal (primary) and vertical (secondary) thallus. These lichens have been referred to as cladoniform lichens because the Cladoniaceae (including Stereocaulaceae at the time) exhibited this growth form (Ahti 1982). Although growth forms have been used to classify lichen-forming fungi in the past and present, recent molecular analyses indicate that these categories are not natural divisions (Stenroos & DePriest 1998, Wedin et al. 2ooo).

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#### Species concepts and lichens

'Species' are the fundamental units of biodiversity, however, the nature of species and species concepts is constantly being debated (Bock 2OO4, Holynski 2005, Rieseberg et al. 2006). Our need to describe and classify the natural world has led to many differing opinions as to 'what is a species?'. Some authors have considered species to be individuals (Hull 1976, Sober 1984, Mayden 1997, Coleman & Wiley 2001) whereas others define them as sets, groups, or natural kinds (Kitcher 1984, Reydon 2003). ln some cases, species and species concepts were even defined based on more operational approaches such as phenetics (Doyen & Slobodchikoff 197a). More recently, however, definitions of species and species concepts have expanded such that information into the evolutionary history of the species is also included in the definitions (Bock 2O04, de Queiroz 2005a).

Regardless of the motivation behind the various debates, definitions and concepts about species, there appears to be an overall desire to arrive at a definition that is universally applicable (Cracraft L997, de Queiroz 2005b). However, a single unified species concept is generally quite difficult to achieve due to the range of biodiversity that must be encompassed (Mayr t957, Kitcher 7984, Hull 1997, Mayden L9971. The inability to develop a species concept that encompasses all the known biodiversity has resulted in a proliferation of species concepts within the literature (Hull 1997, Mayden 1997). Some of these include; the Biological Species Concept (Mayr t9571, Ecological Species Concept (van Valen L976), Taxonomical or Morphological Species Concepts (Blackwelder L967), Phenetic Species Concept (Sneath L976),

Recognition Species Concept (Paterson 1993), Cohesion Species Concept (Templeton 1989), Flagship Species Concept (Caro et al. 2004), Evolutionary Species Concept (Simpson 1961, Wiley 7978, Wiley 1981, Holyñski 2005), Unified Species Concept (de Queiroz 2005a) and a number of others (Grube & Kroken 2000).

All of the species concepts proposed to date have attempted to classify organisms in such a way that information can be inferred by examining closely related species. Over the years the kind of information deemed important in the classification of organisms has changed (Culberson CF L986, Grube & Kroken 2000). However, three species concepts have been more commonly used than others; Morphological Species Concept, Biological Species Concept, and Evolutionary Species Concept. Historically, taxonomists classified species based on simple morphology (Morphological Species Concept). Over time, as the understanding of biological processes, such as reproductíve isolation mechanisms, increased, numerous other concepts were proposed in an attempt to better differentiate among some of the variation observed (e.g. Biological Species Concept). More recent species concepts, such as the Evolutionary or Phylogenetic Species Concept, indicate a growing trend towards the identification of possible ancestral lineages within the classification system (Simpson I96L, Wiley 1978, Holynski 2005).

The Morphological (or Taxonomical) Species Concept (MSC) is likely the oldest species concept and it is still in use today. Early taxonomists commonly relied solely on the morphological characters of an organism to delimit species (Mayden L997, Purvis t997). Therefore, organisms that looked the same were generally considered to be the same species. However, morphological characters are not always homologous, which has lead to the artificial classification of many organisms. The MSC is particularly hard to apply to lichen-forming fungi because of the occurrence of photosymbiodemes, species pairs and sibling species (see next section), which make morphofogy an unreliable character if species concepts in lichens is to reflect a natural classification (Nourish & Oliver t976, Park 1985, Ott 1988, Rogers 1989, Armaleo & Clerc 199I, Myllys et a/. 2001).

The development of the Biological Species Concept (BSC) is largely attributed to Ernst Mayr {1957) and is probably the most well known and highly referenced of all the species concepts. According to Mayr (1957), species are naturally occurring populations that have the ability to interbreed. ln order to implement the Biological Species Concept, however, an understanding of pre-zygotic (temporal or spatial) and postzygotic (genetic) reproductive isolation mechanisms is required. The BSC works well for some organisms, but the existence of hybrids and asexual organisms pose a sígnificant theoretical problem (Hull 1997). Hybrids are believed to represent a breakdown of isolation mechanisms, whereas asexual organisms, such as some commonly occurring lichen-forming fungi and many algae, do not have the ability to interbreed. ln such cases, it would be inappropriate to apply the Biological Species Concept.

The Evolutionary Species Concept (ESC), which is rooted in the idea that species share a common ancestor, was proposed a number of years ago by Simpson {1961).

However, a reliable means of applying the ESC was missing at that time (Wiley 1978, Wiley 1981). With the recent advancements in equipment and techniques that allow for the phylogenetic analysis of organisms at the molecular level, an increase in the popularity of the Evolutionary (or Phylogenetic) Species Concept has been observed (Grube & Kroken 2000, Mishler & Theriot 2000, Holynski 2005). For example, molecular markers, which include such regions as the nuclear small subunit (nrSSU) rDNA and  $\beta$ tubulin gene, have been found to contain enough genetic variation to examine evolutionary relationships among lichen-forming fungi at the species level (Stenroos & DePriest 1998, Grube & Kroken 2000, Lutzoni et al. 2001, Myllys et al. 2001, DePriest 2004, Molina et al. 2004, Thell et al. 2004).

#### Problems associated with species concepts in lichens

Photosymbiodemes, species pairs, and sibling species pose significant theoretical problems when attempting to identify lichen-forming fungal species (Tehler 1982, Purvis 1997). However, Grube and Kroken (2000) believe that phylogenetic analyses using nucleotide sequence data of the fungal partner will assist in understanding the evolutionary significance of these phenomena.

Photosymbiodemes are defined as lichen-forming fungi that may develop into a number of distínct morphologies depending on whether the photobionts associated with the fungi are green algae, cyanobacteria, or both (Purvis 1997). The morphotypes may be so distinct that they are each given species names and in some cases, placed in

completely different genera (Armaleo & Clerc L99I, Stenroos et al.2O03). However, this does not conform to the rules established by the lnternational Code of Botanical Nomenclature (ICBN), which states that only one scientífic name is to be applied to each organism recognized. Additionally, the placement of a single lichen-forming fungal species into two separate genera does not adequately represent the life history or evolutionary relationships that exist among the fungi of the photosymbiodemes {Armaleo & Clerc L99I, Roos 1995, Purvis L997').

Species pairs refer to two species of lichens with identical morphologies, which are thought to differ only in reproductive strategy (Poelt 1970). The primary species of the species pair reproduces sexually through the production of ascospores in the apothecia while the secondary species reproduces only by means of soredía or other vegetative propagules (Poelt 7970, Purvis 1997). Tehler (1982) debated the evolutionary significance of recognizing each member of the species pair as a distinct species and suggested that this division may obscure the relationship among species. Tehler (1982) also suggested that the soredia produced by secondary species allow the lichen to expand into wider geographical ranges. Because soredia, which contain both partners of the lichen symbiosis, are thought to be genetically identical to the parent population, they are already adapted to the environment of the parental population (Culberson WL 1986, Purvis 1997). However, the lack of genetic flexibility in these clonal propagules consequently limits the abilíty of the organism to adapt to changing environments (Tehler 1982, Purvis 1997). On the other hand, algal switching can provide a mechanism

for the fungi and algae of vegetative propagules to change partners, ultimately providing flexibility (Piercey-Normore & DePriest 2001).

Studies on species pairs were expanded by Myllys et al. {2OO1), who examined the genetic variation of  $\beta$ -tubulin, ITS rDNA, and group I introns in the sexually reproducing *Physcia aipola* (Ehrh. ex Humb.) Fürnr. (primary species) and the asexual Physcia cøesia (Hoffm.) Fürnr. (secondary species). Although the information obtained from the ITS and group I intron sequences was generally uninformative,  $\beta$ -tubulin sequences provided ample resolution by which to determine the relationship of P. aipola and P. caesia. The phylogeny produced from the combined dataset indicated that the two taxa were not monophyletic and suggested that  $P$ . caesia should be able to reproduce sexually. Based on these results, Myllys et al. (2001) concluded that P. aipola and P. caesia should not be recognized as separate species.

Sibling or 'cryptic' species were first recognized by amateur ornithologists in the 1700's who noticed that, although some species of birds appeared morphologically identical, they were unable to interbreed (Winker 2005). The subtle variations that were observed in behavioral characteristics, such as mating songs and nesting habits, were identified as reproductive barriers. Today, sibling species are recognized in a wide range of organisms, including lichen-forming fungi and mammals (Culberson WL 1986, Purvis 1997, Hawksworth 1976).

Two forms of sibling species are recognized among the lichen-forming fungi; ecotypes and chemotypes (Hawksworth 1976). Ecotype is the term applied to lichens that shift phenotypes depending on the environment in which they grow. For example, Acarospora smoragdula (Wahlenb.) A. Massal. may be recognized as three separate species with a gray thallus, a green thallus, and one with no lichen secondary compounds depending on the copper content of the rock substratum (Purvis et al- 1985, 1987).

Chemotypes or chemospecies are lichens that are morphologically identical but differ in the type of secondary compounds that are produced in the thallus. A number of methods, such as thin-layer chromatography (TLC) (Culberson CF 1972, 1986), mass spectrometry, and high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Nourish & Oliver 1976), have been used to characterize these secondary compounds and identify commonly occurring chemotypes (Ahti 1966, Spier & Aptroot 2007). Although Coassini-Lokar et al. (1986) recognized Cladonia chlorophaea (Flörke ex Sommerf.) Sprengel, C. grayi G. Merr. ex Sandst., C. cryptochlorophaea Asahina and C. merochlorophaea Asahina by chemistry alone, Rogers (1989) argued that taxa should not be given species status based on variation observed in a single product, or even within the same biosynthetic pathway, since these products are not always genetically linked and may be influenced by the environment (Park 1985). Ahti (2000) also argued that chemical characters should not be used to determine species status because they cannot be readily determined in the field.

#### Phen otypic plasiticity

Species problems in lichens reflect the use of different phenotypic characters and may be explained by phenotypic plasticíty. Phenotypic plasticity has been identified in a number of taxa from a wide range of phyla. The term has been used to identify genetically identical organisms with differing phenotypes depending on the nature of the environment in which the organism is growing (Behera 7997). Examples of phenotypic plasticity have been observed in a number of lichens; Cladonia pocillum (Ach.) Grognot (Gilbert 1977), Catillaria corymbosa (Hue) Lamb (Sojo et al. 1997), Pseudevernia furfuracea (L.) Zopf (Rikkinen 1997), and Ramalina capitata var. protecta (Magnusson) Nimis (Pintado et al. 1997). Wedin et al. (2004) expanded the concept to include the phenotypic plasticity observed in the Stictis-Conotrema complex, which consists of both lichenized and non-lichenized fungi. ln their study, phenotypic plasticity was identified as a nutritional strategy when growing in unpredictable environments. ln an attempt to determine the effect of phenotypic plasticity on the rate of evolution, Behera (1997) designed a model using genetic algorithms. In the model haploid population studied, phenotypic plasticity slowed down the rate of evolution but resulted in an organism that was subsequently better adapted to the environment.

Gilbert (1977) identified phenotypic plasticity within grassland populations of Cladonia pocillum (Ach.) Grognot. He observed that the basal squamules of thalli growing in grasslands, which were being grazed upon by sheep and rabbits, exhibited the typical rosette-like pattern. However, where grazing had been restricted due to fencing, vegetation was denser, and C. pocillum took on a slightly different morphology.

ln this situation, the basal squamules did not form a simple rosette pattern but were observed growing in a more upright and dispersed manner, similar to that of Cladonia pyxidata (L.) Hoffm. The difference between the two C. pocillum morphotypes was attributed to the pH of the soil substratum. ln grazed areas, the lichen thalli were attached directly to the substratum. However, in the ungrazed areas, lichen thalli grew among leaf litter that accumulates at the soil surface. This leaf litter lowered the pH of the substratum (<6.0), which was thought to alter the phenotypic expression of the basal squamules. As a result, Gilbert (1977) cautioned that the phenotypic plasticity observed in C. pocillum may result in the misidentification of morphotypes from grazed and ungrazed grasslands.

A more extensive study of phenotypic plasticity comparing morphology, anatomy, chlorophyll content, water relations and photosynthetic response, was conducted on Catillaria corymbosa (Hue) l. M. Lamb. from three different microhabitats near Risopatrôn base, Antarctica (Sojo et al. 1997). Typically, C. corymbosa is found growing on exposed rocks along the maritime coastline. However, it is sometimes found growing under shady overhangs or vertical fissures. The phenotypic plasticity, observed in C. corymbosø samples taken from the three microhabitats, was largely attributed to the environmental conditions to which the lichen was exposed at each of the three sites (Sojo et al. 1997). However, it is still unknown whether there is any genetic basis for the observed variation among the sites.

Sojo et al. (1997) determined that although there were no observable anatomical differences in Catillaria corymbosa between the exposed site and the protected site, morphological differences were common. Samples from exposed sites had whitish-gray, irregular thalli whereas thalli from protected sites were more compact, with shorter stalks and a much greener appearance; largely due to the occurrence of approximately three times the chlorophyll within the thallus. Thalli from protected sites also exhibited larger groups of soredia, lower water storage capacities, and larger water holding capacities than samples from the exposed sites. Sojo et al. (1997) proposed that the increased water holding capacity of C. corymbosa growing in the shady, protected sites was responsible for the higher values of photosynthesis observed when exposed to relatively high light levels. The increased water hofding capacity also allowed for longer periods of metabolic activity in samples of C. corymbosa that were growing in protected rather than exposed sites (Sojo *et al.* 1997).

Phenotypic plasticity was also studied for populations of Pseudevernia furfuracea {1.) Zopf growing in a kettle hole (depression caused by subsurface ice melt) in central Finland (Rikkinen 1997). Pseudevernia furfuracea is a foliose lichen with an ascending to subpendulous thallus. The thallus is attached to the substate at the basal regions and follows a dichotomous branching pattern. Typically, P. furfuracea is found growing on the trunks of Pinus sylvestris L.. However, in this study, a habitat shift to the lower branches of Picea abies (L.) Karsten was observed in low-lying areas of the kettle hole, and on north-facing slopes.

Rikkinen (1997) attributed the habitat shift of Pseudoevernia furfuracea to the availability of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at various locations within the kettle hole. The aspect and inclination of the kettle hole play an important role in the amount of light available at each site. Aspect (north-facing vs south-facing slopes) affects the amount of direct solar radiation received, whereas, inclination (angle of the slope) affects the amount of incidental radiation. Therefore it would follow that the upper south-facing slopes of the kettle hole are generally exposed to higher light levels since both direct and reflected radiation is prevalent. The lower north-facing slopes, which rely primarily on indirect radiation, are exposed to less light because of the overshading by dense canopy layers on the upper slopes. Shifting to the lower horizontal branches of Picea abies along the lower north-facing slopes provided Pseudoevernia furfuracea with a means to maintain appropriate light levels.

Morphological differences between populations of Pseudoevernia furfuracea growing along the upper south-facing slopes and lower north-facing slopes were also observed (Rikkinen L997). Generally, thalli from the upper slopes were darker coloured (ash gray), more robust and had thick lobes covered with isidia and small lobuli. Thalli from the lower north-facing slopes were lighter coloured (pale gray to white), much smaller and had fewer isidia present. The morphological shift observed represents not only an adaptation to differences in amount of available light but can be related to evaporative stress as well. As the temperature and amount of avaílable light decreases from the upper slopes towards the bottom of the kettle hole, the amount of available water increases, resulting in an excessively humid environment. The highly reduced

thalli with short, fine branches found growing on the lower slopes was therefore interpreted as a morphological shift, which promotes water loss and ensures adequate periods of dehydration (Rikkinen 1997).

Thalli of Pseudevernia furfuracea from the upper slopes are presented with a strikingly different problem. The direct radiation and high temperatures to which the lichen is exposed has a profound drying effect on the thalli. The robust thalli covered in dense isidia was seen by Rikkinen (1997) as a morphological adaptation that ensured metabolic activity for extended periods following precipitation events. lt was advantageous in these conditions due to the large water holding capacity of the thallus (i.e. thicker medullary tissues and more external capillary spaces) and its ability to conduct water externally by capillary action, by means of ventral grooves, capillary spaces between isidia and protruding tips of cortical hyphae.

The external conduction of water is largely due to hygroscopic movements caused by the difference between the rate of water uptake and the swelling capacity of the thallus. Following a precipitation event, water uptake causes swelling of the cortical tissues that results in the reflexed margins of the thalli curling inwards. The dimensions of the ventral groove are altered such that the water potential inside the ventral groove is increased. Water, therefore, flows into the ventral groove causing the entrance to the groove to narrow and capillary tension to increase, thereby forcing water to advance along the groove to regions of apical growth (Rikkinen 1997).

On a smaller scale, Pintado et al. (1997) compared morphology, anatomy, water relations, and chlorophyll content between two populations of Ramalina capitata var. protecta growing on an exposed rock surface in Spain; thalli from the north-facing side of the rock and thalli from the south-facing side. Since the study was conducted in the Northern Hemisphere, objects on south-facing aspects would receive higher levels of irradiation and therefore would experience longer periods of evaporative stress. Pintado et al. (1997) hypothesized that optimal light harvesting mechanisms in north-facing populations of R. capitata var. protectø would have an advantage over south-facing populations. However, the phenotypic plasticity observed between the two populations could not be directly related to light alone. Relative humidity and thallus temperature were also identified as contributing factors in conjunction with the amount of available light. North-facing surfaces were shadier with lower temperatures and higher relative humidity than south-facing surfaces. The thalli growing on the north-facing surfaces were commonly pendulous due to the lower levels of evaporative stress to whlch this population was exposed (Pintado et al. 1997). However, south-facing populations had thicker, dense, erect thalli with shorter, wider lacinia (narrow, linear lobes) and fewer psuedocyphellae (pores through the upper cortex, which expose loosely woven medullary hyphae), which were seen as a method to increase the water retentíon capabilities of the thallus into dry periods. An increase in the percentage of algal cells within the thallus and a general increase in chlorophyll content in south-facing populations also provide evidence that the larger south-facing populations of R. capitata

var. *protecta* are structurally better adapted for the maximum usage of optimal PAR during the short periods of favorable growth (Pintado et al. 1997).

These studies (Gilbert 1977, Pintado et al. 1997, Rikkinen 1997, Sojo et al. 1997) indicate that habitat may influence morphology. Therefore, subtle differences in phenotype in response to variations within microhabitats could potentially result in the naming of different species.

#### Phylogenetics and population structure

The innovation of Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) and molecular markers, such as allozymes, Randomly Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD), Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLPs), and DNA sequencing, have lead to new insights into the amount and pattern of variatíon that occurs in populations (Bridge & Hawksworth 1998). By assessing the degree and pattern of variation produced by molecular markers, information regarding evolutionary history, gene flow, and population genetics may be obtained. The symbiotic nature of the lichen thallus, in conjunction with the occurrence of sexual reproduction in some species, has lead to hypotheses regarding the amount and type of variation that occurs within and among lichen populations. Two types of variation are present among lichen populations; variation among symbionts (combinations of symbionts) and genetic variation within the genome of each of the symbionts. Dispersal of vegetative propagules, containing both symbionts, is believed to reduce levels of symbiont variation. However, dispersal of ascospores, which must reestablish lichenization with a compatible algal cell, increases the level of symbiont variation. It is assumed that higher symbiont diversity improves the fitness of the population, allowing the species to survive under a wider range of conditions (Piercey-Normore & DePriest ZOOL, DePriest 2004)

#### Genetic variation in lichens

Over the last 15 years, the use of molecular markers to study population genetics in lichens has been increasing steadily (DePriest 2OO4). Some studies concentrate on the presence or absence of introns in the nrSSU rDNA (DePriest 1993, Beard & DePriest 1996; Robertson & Piercey-Normore 2OO7) or genetic fingerprints generated from Simple Sequence Repeats (Walser et al. 2003; Zoller et al. 1999), RFLPs and RAPDs (Murtagh et al. !999; Dyer et al. 2OOI: Piercey-Normore 2OO6; Robertson & Piercey-Normore 2007). Studies have also examined genetic variation using DNA sequences (Printzen & Ekman 2003; Zoller & Lutzoni 2003, Thell et al. 2004). More recently, studies have focused on the ITS regions of both the fungal and algal partners and PKS genes (Bingle et al. 1999, Crespo et al. 1999, Helms et al. 2001, Miao et al. 2001, Molina et al. 2004, Cordeiro et al. L995, Ohmura et al. 2OO6, Opanowicz et al. 2006, Beiggi & Piercey-Normore 2007).

Beard and DePriest (1996) examined the nrSSU rDNA from five geographically distinct populations of *Cladonia subtenuis* (Abbayes) Mattick in the southeastern United States, to determine the amount of genetic variation within and among populations,

PCR amplification of the nrSSU rDNA revealed fragments that were 200, 400, and 600 nucleotides longer than anticipated. These fragments, which were found to contain different sizes, positions, and number of inserts, were recognized as three size classes; Class l, Class ll, and Class lll. Class I was the largest fragment and contained two inserts; 400bp at position 1624 and 200bp at position 1777 of the nrSSU rDNA coding region. Class II also contained two inserts, 200bp at position 1624 and 200bp at position 1777, however the insert at position 1624 was a different length. Class lll was the smallest of the three size classes and contained a single 200bp insertion at position 1777. These inserts were identified as putative group I introns (Beard & DePríest 1996, Piercey-Normore et al. 2004).

Variation in sequence length and consequently, intron presence or absence, was observed among the five geographic regions, as well as the five mats selected from one of these regions. However, no variation was observed within podetia from the same mat (Beard & DePriest 1996). These results indicate that although mats of C. subtenuis may consist of a single genetic entity, there are distinct populations in close proximíty to each other. Beard & DePriest (1996) therefore concluded that the ability to detect variation with the nrSSU rDNA, such as intron presence/absence, was a variable marker for examining population structure.

Robertson & Piercey-Normore (2007) also used the presence or absence of introns in the fungal nrSSU DNA to examine population structure among ten populations of Cladonia arbuscula (Wallr.) Flot within a 2 km range in northern Manitoba. By

comparing the genetic variation observed in the nrSSU of the fungal partner with the RFLP pattern obtained from the ITS rDNA of the algal partner, the primary dispersal method of C. arbuscula was inferred. If the genetic variation between the symbionts is correlated, it might indicate that the symbionts were dispersed together as vegetative propagules. Amplification of the fungal nrSSU revealed fragments that were 250, 500, and 750 base pairs longer than anticipated. From this data, eleven haploid genotypes were recognized; six of which were common and five were unique. Genotype A was the most common and contained all four introns. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) of the fungal symbionts indicated significant population subdivision among the ten populations of C. arbuscula (Robertson & Piercey-Normore 2007).

Amplification of the algal ITS produced a single fragment 560 bp long (Robertson & Piercey-Normore 2OO7l. Further analysis with RFLPs revealed two genotypes; Genotype I consisted of a single band at 200 bp and Genotype II consisted of two bands, one at 190 bp and the other at 200 bp. AMOVA of the algal symbionts from C. arbuscula showed no population subdivision, which suggests that gene flow was occurring among the algal populations. Since the fungal genotypes could not be correlated with the algal genotypes, it would suggest that the two symbionts were not dispersing together in the same propagule or the alga was not retained in the lichen after dispersal occurred (Robertson & Piercey-Normore 2007).

In an attempt to expand the number of markers that could be utilized in population studies, Murtagh et al. (1999) developed a protocol for using RAPDs to

genetically fingerprint the lichen-forming fungi. The benefits of the RAPD technique are that it is a quick, simple procedure that is more sensitive to variation than the commonly used rDNA sequencing analyses, and requires no *a priori* knowledge of the nucleotide sequence. A single arbitrary primer is used to amplify genomic DNA and produce fragments of varying lengths, which can be resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis.

ln the study by Murtagh et ø1. (1999), PCR products ranging from 250 to 4000 bp in length were obtained. ln total, six to nine reproducible RAPD bands were produced from the four random primers used. Although the protocol worked well for DNA extracted from axenic cultures of Graphis scripta (L.) Ach., Graphis elegans (Borrer ex 5m.) Ach. and Phaeographis dendritica (Ach.) Müll. Arg., which could be identified by their banding patterns, the DNA extracted from different parts of the whole thallus of 6. scripta produced slightly different fingerprints. Murtagh et al. (1999) therefore cautioned against making interpretations from whole thalli due to the potential for the inclusion of contaminating DNA (i.e. algal DNA) or more than one fungal genotype making up the thallus.

Zoller et al. (1999) sequenced regions of the fungal Histone 3, B-tubulin, nrSSU, nrLSU, mtLSU, and mtSSU looking for variation in six populations of Lobaria pulmonaria, an epiphytic, endangered lichen of the European lowlands (Switzerland). Of the gene regions sequenced for this study, only lTSl and nrLSU provided any variability. lTSl was 550 bp long and contained three polymorphic sites. The nrLSU, however, was 400 bp long and contained four variable nucleotides (2 indels) located in a small insertion that is 75-77 bp long. From the seven variable positions identified, a total of six genotypes were recognized. Two genotypes were the most common occurring genotypes and two others were only found in single populations.

Genetic variability within and among populations of L. pulmonaria was measured by Zoller et al. (1999) using the  $K_{ST}$  statistic (Hudson et al. 1992), which is a measure of genetic differentiation between geographical regions that is similar to  $y_{ST}$  (Nei 1982) and  $N_{ST}$  (Lynch & Crease 1990). Using the  $K_{ST}$  statistic, three of the six populations examined were reported to have high genetic diversity and the other three populations had low genetic diversity. No apothecia were observed in the populations with low genetic diversity; however, populations with high genetic diversity were seen to contain apothecia in 72% of the thalli examined. Of the six genotypes identified, only the rare AB genotype did not produce any apothecia at all. This study suggests that the sexually reproducing populations contain the most variability and therefore should exhibit improved fitness over populations that are not able to produce apothecia (Zoller et al. 1999).

#### The genus Cladonia

Cladonia is a genus of lichen-forming fungi withín the family Cladoniaceae of the order Lecanorales (Ahti 2000, Miadlikowska et al. 2006). According to Esslinger (2008), there are currently 168 species of Cladonia found within North America. Many of these

have either a bipolar or cosmopolitan distribution (Andreev et al. 1996, Goward & Ahti 1997, Ahti 2000, Osyczka 2006). Within Manitoba alone, Piercey-Normore (2003) reported the occurrence of 49 species and 59 chemotypes of *Cladonia.* Unlike other members of the Lecanorales, such as Parmeliaceae and Physciaceae, which are found to associate with Trebouxia s.s. (Dahlkild et al. 2001, Helms et al. 2001), members of the Cladoniaceae associate with the coccoid green alga, Asterochloris (Rambold et al. 1998, DePriest 2004, Cordeiro et al. 2005, Miadlikowska et al. 2006). Asterochloris is similar to Trebouxia but does not contain the centrally located pyrenoid that is characteristic of Trebouxía s.s. (Hildreth & Ahmadjian 1981, Friedl 1989, Friedl & Rokitta L997, Rambold et al. 1998). Asterochloris has an axial chloroplast that becomes parietal during certain stages of development (Friedl & Rokitta 1997).

Lichen thalli in the genus *Cladonia* have been referred to as cladoniform lichens and are generally considered to be a composite of the crustose and fruticose growth forms (Ahti 1982). The horizontal primary thallus, consisting of a crustose growth habit, produces a vertical secondary thallus, or podetium (Hammer t993, Hammer 1995, Jahn et al. 1995, Osyczka 2006). As defined by Ahti (1982), "a podetium is a lichenized, stemlike portion (stipe, or discopodium) bearing the hymenial discs and sometimes conidiomata in a fruticose apotheci[um]." Although similar structures have been seen in such families as the Baeomycetaceae, lcmadophilaceae, Stereocaulaceae, and Siphulaceae, morphological (Ahti 1982), ontogenetic (Hammer 1993, Jahns et al. 1995), and molecular analyses (Stenroos & DePriest 1998, Wedin et al. 2000) indicate that the
origin of these structures is not homologous and does not provide taxonomic or phylogenetic information.

Ahti (2000) recognized seven taxonomic sections within the genus Cladonia (Unciales, Cocciferae, Helopodium, Strepsiles, Perviae, Ascyphiferae, and Cladonia) and three sections in the genus *Cladina (Cladina, Impexae*, and *Tenues*) based on gross morphology and secondary chemistry (taxonomic nomenclature following Ahti 2000). Members of the section *Unciales* generally contain usnic acid, are highly branched, have open axils, primary squamules that are evanescent and no soredia or podetial squamules. Members of the section *Cocciferae* also contain usnic acid but have closed axils. Members of the section Helopodium have large persistent basal squamules, sparsely produced clavate (club-shaped) podetia, and no cups or soredia. Members of the section Strepsiles also have a large persistent primary thallus (basal squamules) and no cups or soredia but the podetia are subclavate. Members of the section Pervioe never contain atranorin and have branched podetia with perforated funnels, not cups. Members of the section Ascyphiferae have an evanescent primary thallus, branched subulate (tapering) podetia that are not perforated, and always contain fumarprotocetraric acid and atranorin. Members of the section Cladonia have a persistent primary thallus with unbranched to somewhat branched cup-formíng podetia and closed axils. The placement of *Cladina* outside the genus *Cladonia* has been widely debated (Ahti 1984, Stenroos et al. 1997, Ahti 2000) and Cladina has recently been subsumed into the genus Cladonia (Ahti and DePriest 2001).

Stenroos et al. (2002) confirmed the inclusion of Cladina within the genus Cladonia (Ahti & DePriest 2001), in a phylogenetic study using a combined molecular, morphological, and chemical dataset. The analysis, which included representatives from each section of *Cladonia* and *Cladina*, did not support the sectional arrangement established by Ahti (2000). Instead, Stenroos et al. (2002) proposed that the genus Cladonia be divided into three Subdivisions (I, II, and III) representing four Supergroups (Cladonia, Perviae, Cocciferae, and Crustaceae; taxonomic nomenclature following Stenroos et al. 2002). Supergroup Cladonia, as recognized by Stenroos et al. (2002). included polyphyletic members from sections Ascyphiferae, Helopodium, and Cladonia (sensu Ahti). Supergroups Perviae and Cocciferae, corresponded to sections Perviae and Cocciferae, respectively, and a new Supergroup, Supergroup Crustaceae, was established which contained members from the genus Cladina and section Unciales.

Section Cladonia (Ahti 2000) was scattered throughout Subdivision II (Stenroos et al. 2002) and species complexes that are currently recognized within section Cladonia, such as the C. verticillata, C. gracilis, and C. chlorophaeø species complexes, were reported to produce informal groupings. This raised a number of questions regarding the placement of certain taxa. For example, C. pyxidata, like many other cupforming species, were scattered randomly within Subdivision II; one representative was seen to group with Subgroup Graciles, whereas another grouped with C. furcata (Hudson) Schrader and allies. Stenroos *et al.* (2002), therefore proposed that C. pyxidata is likely not a single species and that the inclusion of the closely related species, C. pocillum, would only complicate matters.

Beiggi & Piercey-Normore (2007) attempted to further our understanding of the phylogenetic relationships among the species complexes contained within *Cladonia* section Cladonia (C. gracilis, C. chlorophaea, C. pyxidata, and C. verticillata complexes) by examining the evolutionary histories of both the fungal and algal partner. Only three species, Cladonia cervicornis ssp. verticillata (Hoffm.) Ahti, C. subulata (L.) F. H. Wigg., and C. merochlorophaea, and none of the recognized species complexes examined were monophyletic. Cladonia pyxidata was again scattered throughout the tree and the inclusion of C. pocillum, as suggested by Stenroos et al. (2OOZ), províded no resolution to the problem. lt has therefore been proposed that the polyphyly observed among the species complexes within the genus Cladonia may be the result of phenotypic plasticity associated not only with changes in the environment but also changes among the algal partner (Beiggi & Piercey-Normore 2OO7).

While examining herbaria specimens, Aptroot et al. (2001) recognized that the C. pyxidata complex was more convoluted then originally thought and proposed a new species within Europe, Cladonia monomorpha Aptroot, Sipman & van Herk. This new species was based on the morphology of the basal squamules, cup features, and length of marginal proliferations. Aptroot et al. (2001) also indicated that C. monomorpha may be present in North America but that it may simply have been overlooked.

## **Objectives**

The goal of this study was to examine the species designation between Cladonia pyxidata and Cladonia pocillum by examining the overall variation in association with environmental influences. The objectives of this study were;

- 1. To determine if Cladonia pyxidata and C. pocillum are separate phylogenetic species;
- 2. To test the correlation between fungal species and soil pH;
- 3. To examine the monophyly of the green algal partner, Trebouxia (Asterochloris) with respect to fungal species; and
- 4. To assess the algal population structure (i.e. gene flow) across Canada.

Based on current knowledge, the hypotheses for this study would be;

- L. C. pyxidata and C. pocillum are separate species and will therefore form separate monophyletic groups within the phylogenetic trees;
- 2. Soil pH will be lower in C. pyxidata than C. pocillum;
- 3. Genotypes of the green algal partner will not be monophyletic but will be shared between the fungal species; and
- 4. Algal genotypes will show dispersal across the geographic region studied.

## **Materials & Methods**

#### Study specimens and sampling location

Sample specimens consisting of Cladonia pyxidata, Cladonia pocillum and closely related pixie-cup species, such as Cladonia fimbriata (L.) Fr., Cladonia grayi G. Merr. ex Sandst., and Cladonia chlorophaea, were collected by myself and my advisor, Dr. Michele D. Piercey-Normore, from a number of locations across Canada during the summer of 2006 (Table 1). Lichen thalli, consisting of basal squamules and vertical podetia, were found growing on soil and humus along roadsides, at fire sites and in exposed areas of the boreal forest. A small sample of soil was collected with each specimen and soil pH was determined in the laboratory. A standardized water pH determination, as described in Jones (2001) was modified to obtain the pH value of the soil for each sample.

Morphological characters (Table 2) were examined for I4I samples using both compound and dissecting microscopes. Morphological characters selected were similar to those deemed important in Ahti (1966), Sipman (1973), Ahti (2000), Aptroot et al. (2001), Stenroos et al. (2002) and Osyczka (2006). A single podetium from each collection was selected, examined for discolouration, soil, or other contaminants, whích were removed, and then placed in a 1.5 mL Eppendorf® tube. A selected number of these samples were further subjected to chemical (Thin Layer Chromatography) and molecular manipulations (PCR amplification, RFLPs, and sequencing).

Table 1. Collection sites of Cladonia pyxidata 1 (pyx1), Cladonia pyxidata 2 (pyx2), Cladonia pocillum (poc) and closely related species (C. chlorophaea - cch, C. coccifera - coc, C. grayi - gry, C. pleurota cpl, and C. fimbriata - fim) from selected regions across Canada. Fungal ITS rDNA<sup>1</sup>, fungal PKS<sup>2</sup>, and/or algal ITS rDNA<sup>3</sup> sequence data was obtained from samples in **bold.** Collection numbers include collector's initials for reference (RK=Rhonda Kotelko; MPN=Michele Piercey-Normore).

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Table 1 (continued). Collection sites of Cladonia pyxidata 1 (pyx1), Cladonia pyxidata 2 (pyx2), Cladonia pocillum (poc) and closely related species (C. chlorophaea - cch, C. coccifera - coc, C. grayi - gry, C. pleurota - cpl, and C. fimbriata - fim) from selected regions across Canada. Fungal ITS rDNA<sup>1</sup>, fungal PKS<sup>2</sup>, and/or algal ITS rDNA<sup>3</sup> sequence data was obtained from samples in bold. Collection numbers include collector's initials for reference (RK=Rhonda Kotelko; MPN=Michele Piercey-Normore).

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Table 2. Morphological characters examined in samples Cladonia pyxidata 1, C. pyxidata 2, and C. pocillum.



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## Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC)

Secondary compounds were extracted from Cladonia pyxidata, C. pocillum and closely related species using a protocol modified from Culberson (1972). Secondary compounds were removed from each sample and transferred to a glass slide using two five minute acetone extractions, followed by a single 10 minute acetone extraction. The acetone was allowed to evaporate from the glass slide, leaving behind a concentrated film of secondary compounds on the glass microscope slide. Slides were stored in a slide box at room temperature until used.

Each extract was re-suspended in 3 or 4 drops of acetone and spotted onto two silica coated gel thin layer chromatography plates with fluorescent indicators (Fisher Scientific, Nepean, ON, Canada) using 25 µL glass capillary tubes. Secondary compounds from Cladonia magyarica (MS4553), known to contain atranorin and fumarprotocetraric acid was also spotted onto each plate and served as a reference control to indicate the  $Rf$  class of each of atranorin and fumarprotocetraric acid. One of the two plates was placed in a tank containing solvent system A (toluene-dioxane-acetic acid, 180:45:5) and the other was pre-treated with glacial acetic acid and then placed in a tank containing solvent system C (toluene-acetic acid, 200:30). The plates were removed from the tanks when the solvent front reached 1 cm from the top of the plate (approximately 10 min). Plates were then allowed to dry under a fume hood.

To determine the presence of secondary compounds within each sample, the plates were examined under both short {254 nm) and long-wave (365 nm) UV light.

Spots that were either fluorescent or were quenched by the UV light were marked and labelled accordingly (fl or q). The plates were then sprayed with 10% sulfuric acid and allowed to dry on a slide warmer. As the plates dried, the location of fatty acids appeared as opaque spots and were recorded. The plates were baked for 20 minutes at 80"C to complete the colour development of the samples. Any colour changes were subsequently reported. The  $Rf$  class of each substance was also determined by comparison with the reference control. Characteristics specific to known secondary compounds, such as colour, fluorescence, and  $Rf$  class, were used to identify the compounds present in each sample by comparíng the observed characteristics with <sup>a</sup> spreadsheet of known characteristics (C.F. Culberson, unpublished).

#### DNA extraction

Total cellular DNA was extracted on the same podetia used for TLC following procedures modified from Grube et al. (1995). The selected podetia were ground to a fine powder in 1.5 mL Eppendorf<sup>®</sup> tubes using blue pestles. When sufficiently crushed,  $500$   $\mu$ L of TES buffer [100mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0; 10mM EDTA {ethylenediaminetetraacetate); 2% SÐS (sodium dodecyl sulfate)l was added and the tubes were vortexed to homogenize the mixture. NaCl, to a final concentration of L.4M, and 0.1 volumes of 10% CTAB (cetyltrimethylammonium bromide) were then added. The tubes were vortexed briefly and placed in a 65"C water bath for one hour.

After this incubation period, the tubes were vortexed again and an equal volume of chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added. The tubes were mixed gently for 1 minute and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 5,000 rpm. The supernatant was collected and an equal volume of chloroform: isoamyl alcohol  $(24:1)$  was again added; the tubes were mixed gently and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 5,000 rpm. The supernatant was transferred to new Eppendorf® tubes and 0.2 volumes of 5M NaCl and 2.5 volume of 100% ethanol were added in order to precipitate the DNA. The tubes were mixed gently and left to stand at 4"C for 20 minutes, after which they were centrifuged for <sup>10</sup> minutes at 13,000 rpm. The supernatant was poured off and the DNA pellet was washed with 80% cold ethanol and left to air dry. Once the pellet was dry, the DNA was resuspended in 50 mL sterile distilled water ( $sdH<sub>2</sub>O$ ) and stored in the freezer (-20 $\degree$ C) until needed.

#### Electrophoresis and Quantification of DNA extractions and purified PCR product

DNA extractions and RFLPs were quantified using horizontal gel electrophoresis. The gels contained 1-1.5% agarose in 1X TBE (0.089M Tris, 0.089M boric acid, 2mM EDTA) buffer and were stained with ethidium bromide (0.5 mg/ml). Samples were placed in bromophenol blue (BPB) to facilitate loading and transferred to wells within the prepared gel. The gel was run at 120V until the BPB was 1cm from the bottom (approximately 30 min) and then examined under UV light with an Alphalnnotech 2200 Gel Document System (Fisher Scientific, Nepean, ON, Canada).

DNA was quantified by comparing the intensity of the bands within the samples to the intensity of the 1650 bp band in the 1 kb Plus DNA Ladder (lnvitrogen, Burlington, ON, Canada). The 1650 bp band contains 8% of total mass loaded. Therefore if 1  $\mu$ g of 1 kb DNA ladder is added, then 0.08 µg of DNA is within the 1650 bp band. Bands of similar intensity will contain the equivalent amount of DNA. The 1 kb Plus DNA ladder, which ranges from 100 bp to I2,OOO bp, was also used to determine the approximate length of the fragments generated by RFLPs.

### **DNA Amplification using Polymerase Chain Reaction**

Three gene regíons, two from the fungal partner and a third from the algal partner, were selected for amplification by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). ITS rDNA and the keto-synthase {KS) domain of a PKS gene complex of the fungal partner were amplified using the fungal specific primer, 1780f-5', and a universal primer, ITS4-3', for the ITS region and newly designed primers, PKSIF-S' and PKS2R-3', for the PKS gene region (Table 3). These newly designed primers were designed from conserved regions within sequences obtained from degenerate primers, LC1 and LC2c (Bingle *et al.* 1999). The ITS rDNA of the algal partner was amplified using an algal specific primer, Al1700f-5', and the same universal primer, lTS4-3'.

Table 3. Primers, primer sequence and source for the amplification of fungal ITS rDNA, PKS, and algal ITS rDNA.

Primer	Sequence	Reference	<b>Primer Function</b>
1780f-5'	CTG CGG AAG GAT CAT TAA TGA G	Piercey-Normore and DePriest 2001	forward primer for fungal ITS
Al1700f-5'	CCC ACC TAG AGG AAG GAG	Helms et al. 2001	forward primer for algal ITS
$ITS4-3'$	TCC TCC GCT TAT TGA TAT GC	White <i>et al</i> . 1990	reverse primer for algal and fungal ITS
PKS1F-5'	TAC GAA GCC CTA GAA ATG GC	this lab	forward primer for PKS
PKS2R-3'	ACG TTT GGC AGT TTC CTG TC	this lab	reverse primer for PKS
LC <sub>1</sub>	GAY CCLMGLTTY TTY AAY ATG	Bingle et al. 1999	forward primer for PKS (primer design)
LC <sub>2</sub> c	GTI CCI GTI CCR TGC ATY TC	Bingle et al. 1999	reverse primer for PKS (primer design)
$ITS2-5'$	GCT GCG TTC TTC ATC GAT GC	White et al. 1990	reverse internal primer for sequencing
$ITS3-3'$	GCA TCG ATG AAG AAC GCA GC	White et al. 1990	forward internal primer for sequencing

Amplification reactions followed that of Beiggi & Píercey-Normore (2007) and were prepared in 0.2 mL PCR tubes on ice. Preliminary screening of each sample and amplification of the algal ITS rDNA for RFLPs was conducted in 20  $\mu$ L reaction volumes and contained approximately 10-50 ng DNA/reaction. Amplification for sequencing was carried out in eight 50  $\mu$ L reaction volumes and contained approximately 25-100 ng DNA/reaction. A mastermix was prepared containing sterile distilled water (sdH<sub>2</sub>0) to final volume, 1X PCR buffer (500  $\mu$ M KCl, 100  $\mu$ M Tris-HCl pH 8.3), 0.2  $\mu$ M of each dNTP, 2.0 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.5  $\mu$ M of each primer (2 primers per reaction; Table 3) and 2 units of recombinant Pfu DNA polymerase per sample. Recombinant Pfu DNA polymerase was cloned and purified from E. coli in Dr. Loewen's laboratory (Department of Microbiology, University of Manitoba, MB, Canada). One drop of diluted DNA (containing 10-50 ng) was added to the bottom of each tube. The mastermix was briefly mixed and added to each tube.

PCR reactions were carried out in a Techne Genius thermal cycler (Fisher Scientific, Nepean, ON, Canada). Amplification conditions were optimized for each gene region amplified. Fungal ITS rDNA was amplified using touchdown PCR consisting of initial denaturation conditions of 94"C for 5 min, followed by two cycles of denaturation at 94"C for 1 min, annealing at 60"C for L mín, and extensíon at 72"C for 1.5 min. The annealing temperature was then decreased by two degrees after two cycles until reaching the final annealing temperature of 54"C. Once the final annealing temperature was reached, 30 more cycles of denaturation, annealing and extension were performed.

Fungal PKS and algal ITS rDNA were amplified by standard PCR. Amplification conditions for the PKS were initial denaturation at 94"C for 5 min, followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 58°C for 1 min and extension at 72°C for 1 min. Amplification conditions for the algal ITS rDNA were initial denaturation at 94"C for 5 min, followed by 33 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 54°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1.5 min. All samples were finally stored at 4"C.

Samples amplified for PCR and RFLPs were then quantified using 1 kb Plus DNA ladder and horizontal gel electrophoresis, as previously described (see Electrophoresis and Quantification of DNA extractions and purified PCR product). Amplification products to be used for sequencing were combined in a 1.5 mL Eppendorf<sup>®</sup> tube (400  $\mu$ L) and precipitated using 0.2 volumes 5M NaCl and 2.5 volumes lOO% ethanol (ethanol). Samples were mixed gently and incubated at 4°C for 20 min. They were then centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 min and the supernatant was discarded. The remaining pellet was washed with cold 80% ethanol and allowed to air dry. Samples were then re-suspended in 20  $\mu$ L sdH<sub>2</sub>O.

### Gel purification

PCR products were purified by horizontal gel electrophoresis in 1% agarose in lX TBE buffer, stained with ethidium bromide, as previously described. Bands were visualized with a light box under short wave (254 nm) UV light, excised from the agarose gel, and placed in 1.5 mL Eppendorf<sup>®</sup> tubes.

One of two methods was then used to complete the purification of PCR products from gel slices for cycle sequencing. The first method involved freezing the gel slice overnight. The frozen block was then crushed in a folded strip of paraffin film and the resulting liquid, containing PCR product, was pipetted back into the Eppendorf<sup>®</sup> tube. Samples were precipitated by adding 0.2 volumes 5M NaCl and 2.5 volumes LOO% ethanol, mixing gently, and incubating at 4"C for 20 min. Tubes were then centrifuged for 10 min at 13,000 rpm. The supernatant was poured off and the remaining pellet was washed with 200  $\mu$ L cold 80% ethanol. Tubes were inverted and allowed to air dry. When dry, pellets were re-suspended in 20  $\mu$ L sdH<sub>2</sub>O.

The other method followed a column purification protocol established for the Wizard SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up System (Promega Corporation, Madison, Wl, United States). Samples were re-suspended in either 25  $\mu$ L or 50  $\mu$ L sdH<sub>2</sub>O depending on the concentration of PCR product during the initial stages of gel purification. Once resuspended, PCR products, obtained from either method, were quantified for cycle sequencing using horizontal gel electrophoresis, as previously described.

## Cycle sequencing

Cycle sequencing reactions were set up in 0.2 mL PCR tubes on ice. Approximately 20-50 ng of PCR product,  $sdH<sub>2</sub>O$  to a total volume of 20  $\mu$ L, 3.2 pmol primer (one/reaction; Table 3), 0.5X sequencing buffer and BigDye Terminator  $v3.1^\circ$ 

(Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, United States), were contained in each 20 pL reaction volume.

Cycle sequencing reactions were conducted in a Techne Genius thermal cycler (Fisher Scientific, Nepean, ON, Canada). Amplification conditions were initial denaturation at 96"C for 2 min, followed by 25 cycles of denaturation at 96"C for L0 sec, annealing at 50°C for 5 sec, and extension at  $60^{\circ}$ C for 4 min (according to manufacturer's instructions; Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, United States). Samples were then stored at 4"C.

#### Post reaction clean-up and Sequencing

Following the cycle sequencing reactions, unincorporated fluorescent dyes were removed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, United States) by precipitating the DNA with 0.25 volumes 125 mM EDTA and 3 volumes 100% ethanol to each tube. Tubes were inverted four times to mix the samples, incubated at room temperature for 15 min, and then centrifuged at 4,000 rpm for 45 min. The supernatant was pipetted off and 8O% cold ethanol was added to rinse the pellet. Tubes were then centrifuged at 4,200 rpm for 15 min and the supernatant was pipetted off again. The samples were then place in the DNA120 SpeedVac (Thermo Savant, Holbrook, NY, USA) for 20 min to dry.

To denature the final product for sequencing, 20  $\mu$ L Hi-Di Formamide (Applied Bíosystems, Foster City, CA, United States) was added to each tube and incubated at 95"C for 5 min. Following this incubation, tubes were immediately placed on ice before being loaded into a Genetic Analyser 3L30 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, United States) for sequencing.

### Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLPs)

RFLPs were generated by digesting the algal ITS rDNA PCR product with the restriction enzymes, Msel ( $T^{\downarrow}TAA$ ) and Hhal (GCG $^{\downarrow}C$ ; Invitrogen, Burlington, ON, Canada). Approximately 100 ng of PCR product was digested in 20 µL reaction volumes containing sdH<sub>2</sub>O to volume, 1X each of the manufacturer's buffers, REACT 1 and REACT 2, and 2 units of each Msel and Hhal. To ensure the complete digestion of the PCR product, samples were left overnight at 37"C.

Banding patterns were visualized using horizontal gel electrophoresis, as previously described. Fragment lengths were estimated by comparison with the 1 kb Plus DNA ladder (lnvitrogen, Burlington, ON, Canada) and confirmed by sequencing representative samples of each different algal RFLP genotype.

## Data analysis

Morphological characters (areoles and basal squamules) were used to distinguish among the fungal species examined. Secondary compounds were used to confirm identifications. Soil pH values were compared between fungal species using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) in Microsoft Excel 2007.

Fungal ITS rDNA, fungal PKS, and algal ITS rDNA sequences were assembled and edited in Sequencher 4.6 (Gene Codes Corp., Ann Arbor, Ml, United States) and then aligned manually in Se-Al v2.0 (Rambaut 2001). Additional sequences, includíng outgroups (Cladonia cenotea - fungal ITS rDNA and PKS; Trebouxia erici - algal ITS rDNA), were retrieved from NCBI GenBank. Accession numbers are indicated in phylogenies (Figures 3, 4, 5, & 6).

Aligned fungal lTS, PKS, and algal ITS sequences were subjected to phylogenetic analyses using PAUP\* 4.0b10 (Swofford 2003). Analyses were conducted on four sets of data; the fungal ITS rDNA, the KS domain of a fungal PKS gene, a combined fungal ITS and PKS dataset, and the algal ITS rDNA. Maximum parsimony was performed using the options tree bisection and reconnection (TBR) branch swapping, collapse zero length branches, and acctran character-state optimization. Heuristic searches were conducted using 1000 random addition replicates with a limit of 1000 trees per search and bootstrap searches of 100 re-samplings (Felsenstein 1985). Phylogenetic trees were midpoint rooted except for the algal ITS data, which was presented as an unrooted cladogram.

lncongruence tests were performed for tree topologies obtained from the fungal ITS and PKS data. Tree topologies were compared using the Kishino-Hasagawa (K-H) test performed in PAUP (Kishino & Hasagawa 1989). The partition homogeneity test was also

implemented in PAUP and was used for the lncongruence Length Difference (lLD) test (Farris et al. 1994).

Distribution of algal genotypes among geographical regions and fungal species was examined by Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) using GenAIEx 6.0 (Peakall & Smouse 2005).  $\phi$ PT (Peakall & Smouse 2005) is a measure of population differentiation analogous to  $F_{ST}$  (Weir & Cockerham 1984) and is calculated as the proportion of variance among populations (V<sub>AP</sub>) relative to the total variance (V<sub>AP</sub>+V<sub>WP</sub>). Populations were defined based on geographical regions and fungal species.

# **Results**

### Morphological variation and secondary chemistry

Morphology was examined for all samples (n=141) and species were delimited on the basis of the presence or absence of aereoles, morphology of the basal squamules, and secondary chemistry (Table 2). Cladonia pyxidata and C. pocillum were distinguished from closely relates species, such as C. chlorophaea, by the presence of aereoles within the cups. The morphology of the basal squamules was used to further delimit C. pyxidata from C. pocillum. Cladonia pyxidata had separated upright basal squamules, whereas the basal squamules of C. pocillum formed a distinct rosette-like pattern, which was tightly appressed to the substratum. There also appeared to be <sup>a</sup> second morphotype of C. pyxidata. Therefore C. pyxidata was separated into two morphotypes; Cladonia pyxidata 1 and C. pyxidata 2. Cladonia pyxidata 1 had the typical upright basal squamules used to describe Cladonia pyxidata. Cladonia pyxidata 2 had the same upright basal squamules but they formed the rosette-like pattern characteristic of C. pocillum instead. A total of 63 samples of C. pocillum, 39 of C. pyxidata 1, 14 of C. pyxidata 2, 18 of C. chlorophaea, two each of C. grayi, C. pleurota, and C. coccifera, and a single sample of C. fimbriata were identified from 141 specimens collected across Canada.

TLC was used to identify secondary compounds in all samples (Figure 1). Fumarprotocetraric acid was detected in all but six samples; C. pleurota (MPN5889), C.



Figure 1. TLC plates showing presence of secondary compounds in solvent systems A and C for 22 samples (1-22) and three controls (C).

pleurota (RK1079), C. chlorophaea (MPN6129), C. coccifera (MPN6592), C. coccifera (RK1004), and C. grayi (MPN7209). Cladonia chlorophaea (MPN6129) was unique in being the only sample to contain no secondary compounds detectable by TLC. Atranorin was detected in a single sample, C. pocillum (RK885). Two samples of C. pleurota (MPN5889 and RK1079) contained the diagnostic compounds, usnic and barbatic acids, and two samples of C. coccifera (MPN6592 and RK1004) contained usnic acid and zeorin. The two samples of C. grayi (MPN6408 and MPN7209) also contained grayanic acid; however, C. grayi (MPN6408) contained fumarprotocetraric acid in addition to grayanic acid. Four other samples, C. chlorophaea (MPN6623), C. chlorophaea (RK912), C. pyxidata (RK879), and C. pyxidata (RK922), were found to contain quantities of either unknown, trace, or contaminating compounds. Two samples of Cladonia chlorophaea (MPN6623 and RK912) both contained an unknown trace compound (Solvent A – Rf class 4 and Solvent A - Rf class 2, respectively). Two unknown compounds (Solvent A -Rf classes 4 and 7) were also observed in C. pyxidata (RK879). The presence of thamnolic and baeomycesic acid in C. pyxidata (RK922) were thought to be the result of transfer from a sample of Thamnolia sp. in the same packet.

## Trends in soil pH

Soil pH was determíned for 46 samples corresponding to the samples selected for sequencing of the fungal ITS rDNA and PKS gene regions. Overall soil pH values ranged from 6.44 to 7.84 (Fígure 2). Soil pH values for samples of C. pocillum ranged from 6.90 to 7.84, C. pyxidata 1 ranged from 6.76 to 7.33, and C. pyxidata 2 ranged from 6.91 to 7.82. pH was significantly different among the three species (F(2, 38) = 5.85, p<0.01). Cladonia grayi was found on soil at significantly lower pH levels (6.44 and 6.53). In some cases, thalli of C. pocillum (MPN6949, MPN6118, MPN5541, MPN6112, MPN6081, MPN6085, MPN7104), C. pyxidata 1 (MPN6232), C. pyxidata 2 (MPN6086, MPN6115, MPN7214), and C. grøyi (MPN6408), were found growing on a layer of moss, which was used instead of soil to determine the pH of the substratum. Soil pH could not be obtained for C. fimbriata (MPN5600) because it was growing among leaf litter and pine needles from which the basal squamules could not be separated.



Figure 2. Soil pH values for samples of C. pyxidata, C. pocillum, and closely related species from across Canada. Two samples of Cladonia pyxidata 2 (MPN6115, MPN6086) were considered outliers and not included in statistical analyses. Cladonia chlorophaea is abbreviated as C. chloro in the graph.

### Evolution of the fungal partner

The fungal ITS rDNA was sequenced for 48 samples collected from across Canada and C. magyarica from Finland. Nine sequences were also included from GenBank (C. pyxidata, EU034665; C. pyxidata, DQ534463; C. pyxidata, DQ530199; C. pyxidata, AF455223; C. pocillum, DQ530205; C. pocillum, DQ530198; C. pocillum, DQ530209; and C. pocillum, DQ530204), includíng C. cenoteo, AF457900, which was selected as the outgroup. Raw sequences ranged from 512bp to 618bp in length, and the aligned dataset was 645bp long. One hundred and fifty-five of these characters were polymorphic but only 83 were parsimony-informative. One of 47 most parsimonious trees, with a length of 262 steps, was displayed (Figure 3).

All species were polyphyletic, however two poorly supported (<60%) clades, A and B, were observed {Fígure 3). Clade A contained representatives of C. pocillum, C.  $chlorophaea$ , C. fimbriata, and three samples of C. pyxidata 1 (MPN6824, MPN6576, and RK879) that were in a mixed sample with C. chlorophaea. Clade B contained C. pyxidata L, C. pyxidøto 2, C. grayi, and C. magyarico. GenBank samples were found scattered throughout the tree. No pattern was observed when soil pH or geographic regions were mapped onto the tree. Algal genotypes were also mapped onto the tree; algal genotype A was predominately present in Clade B, whereas algal genotypes A, B, C, D, E, G, and <sup>H</sup> were present in Clade A.

A portion of the KS region of a fungal PKS gene was sequenced for 16 samples collected from across Canada as well as C. monomorphø from The Netherlands and C.



Figure 3. One of 47 most parsimonious trees obtained from DNA sequence data of the fungal ITS rDNA. Soil pH, geographical region, and algal genotype are reported in parentheses following the sample number. Bootstrap values (>65%) are above branches. CI=0.721, RI=0.840, HI=0.279. Samples with asterisks indicate that the sample was in a mixture with *Cladonia chlorophaea*. Samples in **bold** are from GenBank and samples with collection numbers RK or MPN are from this study.

magyarica from Finland. Cladonia cenotea (EF363874) was obtained from GenBank as an outgroup. Aligned sequences were 421bp long and ranged from 419bp to 421bp in actual length. Seventy-three nucleotide sites were polymorphic but only 27 were parsimony-informative. MP analysis revealed six most parsimonious trees with a branch length of 93 steps (Figure 4).

Cladonia pyxidata 1, C. pyxidata 2, and C. pocillum were not monophyletic; however, the clade containing C. pocillum was nested within C. pyxidata 1 in the PKS tree. Cladonia magyarica and C. monomorpha grouped with samples of C. pyxidata 1 and C. pyxidatø 2 at low bootstrap support (63% and 65%, respectively), while C. fimbriata (MPN5600) and C. chlorophaea (RK1091 and MPN6623) formed a highly supported clade (99%) with C. pocillum.

Sequence data from the fungal ITS rDNA and PKS gene regions for 15 samples collected from across Canada and C. magyarica were combined and analyzed (Figure 5). Aligned sequences contained 1069 characters, of which 60 were parsimony-informative. Fifty-four MP trees were obtained with a branch length of 238 steps. Species were not monophyletic; however, C. pocillum, C. chlorophaea, and C. fimbriata formed a highly supported clade (92%). Cladonia magyarica grouped with C. pyxidata 2 (98%). Phylogenetic trees from each of the ITS and PKS genes were not congruent; p-values for Kishino-Hasegawa (K-H) and Incongruency Length Difference (ILD) tests were p=0.0004 and p=9.91, respectively.



Figure 4. One of six most parsimonious trees obtained from PKS sequence data. Bootstrap values (>60%) are above branches. Cl=0.882, Rl=0.892, Hl=0.118. Samples with asterisks are a mixture with Cladonia chlorophaea. Sample in bold is from GenBank.



Figure 5. One of 54 most parsimonious trees obtained from the combined fungal ITS rDNA and PKS dataset. Bootstrap values (>60%) are recorded above the branches. CI=0.824, RI=0.777, HI=0.176. Samples with asterisks are a mixture with Cladonia chlorophaea. Sample in bold is from GenBank.

### Evolution and dispersal in the algal partner

The algal ITS rDNA was sequenced from 12 samples collected from across Canada. Fourteen sequences were obtained from GenBank, eight samples of uncultured Trebouxia (Asterochloris) and six from cultured representatives of T. magna (AF345423), T. pyriformis (4F345407), T. glomerata (AF345404), T. írregularis (4F345411), 7 excentrica (AF345433), and the outgroup T. erici (AF345440). Trebouxia erici was selected as an outgroup based on the isolated position of  $T$ . erici in the 26S phylogeny produced by Friedl & Rokitta (1997). Aligned sequences contained 560 characters, 29 of which were parsimony-informative. Fifty-six most parsímonious trees were obtained with a branch length of 66 steps (Figure 6). The most commonly occurring algal genotype, Genotype A (see Algal RFLPs), which is found in most species examined, founded a highly supported clade (99%) wíth T. irregularís, T. pyriformis, and 7. glomerata. The algal ITS rDNA from C. magyarica, Genotype C, was more closely related to  $T.$  magna (79%).

Amplification of the algal ITS rDNA in C. chlorophaea (RK1064; Genotype F) produced two bands (670bp and 850bp), which were excised from an agarose gel and sequenced independently. A BLAST search in NCBI GenBank of the shorter fragment placed the sequence with Trebouxiø phycobiontíca (AM900491). A BLAST search of the longer fragment placed the sequence with T. usneae (AJ249573), T. corticola (AJ249566), and T. incrustata (AJ293795). The e-value for all three was  $3x10^{-71}$  and the maximum identities were 94%, 94%, and 92%, respectively.



Figure 6. One of 56 unrooted most parsimonious cladograms obtained from sequence data from the algal ITS rDNA. Samples containing the most common algal genotype, genotype A, are circled. Bootstrap values (>60%) are next to the branches. CI=0.803, Rl=0.884, Hl=0.197. Samples with accession numbers are from GenBank and samples with collection numbers are from this study. Sequences obtained from cultured material in bold.

Digestion of the algal ITS rDNA with restriction enzymes, Hhal and Msel, revealed eight different banding patterns (Figure 7), which were interpreted as genotypes A to <sup>H</sup> {Figure 8). All algal ITS rDNA PCR products were approximately 670bp long. Twelve samples could not be amplified for digestion or contained a second fragment, which was approximately 850bp in length. Genotype A, which was detected in 93 samples and contained two bands, one at 380bp and the other at 140bp (fragments <100bp were not recorded), was the most commonly occurring genotype (Table 4). Genotype B, which contained three bands (430bp, 380bp, and 140bp), was found in 19 samples. Genotype C also had three bands (380bp, I7Obp, and 100bp) and was detected in seven of the samples analyzed.

The remaining four genotypes were rare, occurring in only one to four of the samples collected. Two samples contained Genotype D, which had two bands, one at 380bp and the other at 280bp. Two samples were assigned Genotype E, which had four bands; 430bp, 380bp, 170bp, and 100bp. There was a single occurrence of Genotype F, which contained four bands; 380bp, 300bp, 170bp, and 140bp. Genotype G contained two bands (a30bp and 380bp) and was detected in only two samples. Genotype H, which was found in four samples, produced three bands at 670bp, 380bp, and 140bp.

Since the seguences were obtained for a representative of algal Genotypes A, C, D, E, and F, exact fragment lengths were determined to be 377bp, 140bp, and 136bp for Genotype A (MPN7072), 377bp, 170bp, and 107bp for Genotype C (RK1088), and 382bp and 276bp for Genotype D (MPN6232). Algal Genotype E (RK885) may be an incomplete



Figure 7. Agarose gels showing the eight algal genotypes (A-H) identified by RFLPs of PCR amplified algal ITS rDNA. Samples were digested with restriction enzymes, Hhal and Msel. A lkb Plus DNA ladder was used to estimate fragment lengths. Bands less than 100bp in length were not recorded.



Figure 8. Digest pattern and fragment lengths used to identify the eight algal genotypes (A-H) generated from RFLPs of the PCR amplified algal ITS rDNA.




digestion of Genotype C, since the exact fragment lengths were 377bp, 170bp, and 107bp. The observed digest pattern in Genotype F (RK1064) appears to be <sup>a</sup> combination of the two fragments amplified by PCR. Exact fragment lengths for the shorter fragment were 374bp, 142bp, and 140bp and 308bp, 166bp, 140bp, and 109bp for the longer fragment.

There was no significant population subdivision of algal genotypes across Canada (OPT=0.004, p=0.28). However, pairwise comparisons showed significant (p<0.05) population subdivision between Southern Yukon and Northern B.C. and between Manitoba and Northern B.C. (Table 5).

Table 5. Pairwise  $\phi$ PT values for algal genotypes across geographical regions. Site abbreviations correspond to those used in Tables 1&4. Significant  $\phi$ PT values (p<0.05) are reported in bold.

Regions	N-YT	S-YT	$N-BC$	AB/SK	<b>WNP</b>	MB	NW-ON	ON/QC
S-YT	0.007							
N-BC	0.000	0.128						
AB/SK	0.000	0.101	0.000					
<b>WNP</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000				
<b>MB</b>	0.029	0.000	0.180	0.191	0.008			
NW-ON	0.000	0.086	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.116		
ON/QC	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
<b>NL</b> <b><i><u>Exit formulas</u></i></b>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000 the control of the con-	0.000 the company of the company of the company of

#### Díversity among combinations of fungal and algal symbíonts

Combinatíons of fungal and algal symbionts in lichen thalli were determined by assigning numbers (1-10) to the fungal species and combining them with the algal genotype (A-H) determined by RFLPs {Figure 9). Algal genotype A was the most common and associated with all fungal species examined except C. pleurotø. Algal genotype <sup>B</sup> was the next most common and was not detected in association with samples of C. grayi, C. fimbriata, C. monomorpha, or C. magyaricø. The remaining algal genotypes were only detected wíthin a few fungal species and showed no pattern in their distribution. The combined fungal and algal genotypes also showed no pattern across geographical regions (Figure 10).



Figure 9. Histogram showing the occurrence of algal genotypes (A-H) associated with fungal species (1-10; 1=C. pocillum, 2=C. pyxidata 1, 3=C. pyxidata 2, 4=C. chlorophaea, 5=C. grayi, 6=C. pleurota, 7=C. fimbriata, 8=C. coccifera, 9=C. monomorpha, 10=C. magyarica).



Figure 10. Distribution of the combined fungal (1-8; 1=C. pocillum, 2=C. pyxidata 1, 3=C. pyxidata 2, 4=C. chlorophaea, 5=C. grayi, 6=C. pleurota, 7=C. fimbriata, 8=C. coccifera) and algal (A-H) genotypes for 129 samples collected from across Canada. N-YT = northern Yukon, S-YT = southern Yukon, N-BC = northern British Columbia, AB/SK = Alberta/Saskatchewan, MB = Manitoba, WNP = Wapusk National Park, NW-ON = northwestern Ontario, ON/QC = Ontario/Quebec, NL = Newfoundland.

### **Discussion**

#### There are three phylogenetic species in the Cladonia pyxidata group

Two taxa, Cladonia pyxidata and C. pocillum, are commonly recognized within the C. pyxidata species group (Ahti 2000). Morphological examination of herbaria specimens by Aptroot (2001) revealed the presence of a third species, C. monomorpha, among European collections. When the morphology of the basal squamules was mapped onto the phylogenetic tree obtained from fungal lTS rDNA sequence data in this study (Figure 3), a third phylogenetic species, referred to here as C. pyxidata 2, also became apparent. When morphology was re-examined, Cladonia pyxidata 2 had similar upright basal squamules as C. pyxidata 1 but instead of growing as separate squamules on the substratum, the squamules form a rosette-like pattern typical of C. pocillum. The rosette-like pattern of the basal squamules in combination with an upright habit leads to the recognition of C. pyxidata 2.

Cladonia pyxidata 2 is easily mistaken for C. pocillum if the rosette-like pattern is used as the key character in the delimitation of species. This intergrading character may explain the placement of GenBank sequences, C. pocillum (DQ530205 and DQ530198), with C. pyxidata 2 in the fungal ITS rDNA tree. All other samples of C. pyxidata 2 and C. pocillum formed separate clades (Figures 3). Cladonia pyxidata 2 may be synonymous with C. monomorpha, as suggested by the placement of C. monomorpha with C. pyxidata 2 (MPN7072) in the PKS tree (Figure 4). However, due to the poor quality of the basal squamules within the single sample of C. monomorpha examined, the low

resolution of the PKS tree, and absence of sequence data for the fungal ITS rDNA, further studies are required to determine if C. pyxidata 2 and C. monomorpha can be referred to as the same phylogenetic species.

Cladonia magyarica, which was once considered a chemical strain of C. pyxidata since they are morphologically indistinguishable (Ahti 1966), was also nested within C. pyxidata 2 with high (8a%l bootstrap support in the ITS tree {Figure 3) and low (63%) bootstrap support in the PKS tree (Figure 4). The presence of atranorin in addition to fumarprotocetraric acid is diagnostic of C. magyarica (Ahti 1966) but none of the samples of C. pyxidata 2 examined contained atranorin. Cladonia magyarica and C. pyxidata 2 would not be considered synonymous using a chemospecies concept. Further analyses with a larger number of samples of C. *magyarica* would help to understand the relationship between C. magyarica and C. pyxidata 2.

Cladonia pocillum may be interpreted to be a recent rapid radiation from C. pyxidata. The interpretation of a rapid radiation is supported by short branches and the recent timing of the radiation is supported by high bootstrap support for C. pocillum nested among members of C. pyxidata 1 and C. pyxidata 2 in both phylogenetic trees (Figures 3 & 4). Clodonia pocillum is recognized as a distinct species in many studies (Ahti 1966, Ahti 2000, Aptroot et al. 2001, Osyczka 2006). However, the C. pocillum clade (Clade A) of the fungal ITS rDNA tree also contained members of other species such as C. chlorophaea, C. fimbriata, and C. pyxidata (Figure 3). Analysis of a more variable DNA region may resolve these closely related species.

Members of the closely allied C. chlorophaea species complex were scattered throughout the phylogenetic trees produced in this study. Two members of Cladonio chlorophaea s.s. and one specimen of  $C$ . fimbriata were nested among members of  $C$ . pocillum in all trees, whereas C. grayi grouped with C. pyxidata 1 in the fungal ITS tree and took on a more basal position in both the PKS and combined trees (Figures 3, 4, & 5). The separation of C. chlorophaea s.s. from the morphologically identical C. grayi, was not entirely unexpected (DePriest 1994, Stenroos et al. 2002). A study by DePreist (1994) showed that the C. chlorophaea chemotype containing grayanic acid (C. grayi), was the only chemotype within the C. chlorophaea complex that could be distinguished by a unique rDNA restriction-fragment pattern, which suggests that C. grayi is a distinct species separate from C. chlorophaea s.s.

To determine if geographical distance had any influence on the lack of monophyly of C. pyxidata, geographical regions were mapped onto the fungal ITS rDNA tree (Figure 3). The clusters of C. pocillum, C. pyxidata 1, and C. pyxidata 2 were not consistent with geographical regions. Similarly, geographic regíon did not influence the monophyly of ten species of *Cladonia* examined by Beiggi & Piercey Normore (2007). Since no geographical pattern was observed, it is possible that these species may represent ecotypes based on microhabítats within the geographic regions examined as suggested by Gilbert (1977), Coassini-Lokar et al. (1986), and Beiggi & Piercey-Normore {2007). Environmental conditions have been shown to influence morphological features (Rikkinen 1997) and production of polyketides (Culberson & Armaleo 1992, Hawksworth 1976, Leuckert et al. 1990, Stocker-Wörgötter 2001, Oksanen 2006).

#### Environmental influences on the lichen association

Although there was an overlap in the range of pH values obtained from C. pocillum, C. pyxidata 1, and C. pyxidata 2 (Figure 2), the significantly different soil pH for each species suggests that the environment may have an effect on morphology. lt is well known that C. pocillum prefers basic soils, whereas C. pyxidata grows on more acidic soils (Sipman 1973, Gilbert 1977, Ahti 2000). Samples of C. pocillum that were collected from across Canada were found on soil or moss with a significantly higher pH than that of C. pyxidata 1. Cladonia pyxidata 2 was also found on soil with a slightly higher soil pH than that of C. pyxidata 1. The rosette-like pattern seen in the basal squamules of both C. pocillum and C. pyxidata 2 may therefore be a phenotypic response to changes in the soil pH. Gilbert (1977) came to a similar conclusion when examining the morphology of the basal squamules of C. pocillum growing in grazed and ungrazed grasslands. Samples growing in the ungrazed grasslands produced squamules similar to that of C. pyxidata 1. Gilbert (1977) attributed this shift in morphology to an accumulation of leaf litter, which caused a decrease in soil pH. Numerous studies have suggested that the morphological variation observed within some lichen-forming fungi may be a phenotypic response to a change in the environment (Gilbert 1977, Pintado et al. 1997, Rikkinen 1997, Sojo et al. L997, Beiggi & Piercey-Normore 2OO7). lt has been proposed that even subtle differences in habitats, such as soil pH or available algae, may also influence the lichen association (Hawksworth 1976). For example, Coassini-Lokar et al. (1986) suggest that C. pocillum is merely a morphotype of C. pyxidata that is being influenced by ecological factors.

Other chemospecies, C. polycarpia and C. polycarpoides, in the genus Cladonia have also been reported on specific soil types (Park 1985). Therefore, soil pH was determined for C. chlorophaea, C. grayi, C. fimbriata and C. coccifera in this study. However, due to the small sample size  $(n \leq 2)$  of each of these species examined, only general comments can be made relating to soil pH. The soil beneath the single sample of C. coccifera examined in this study produced a pH reading of 6.78, which is lower then most other samples analyzed. No results were obtained for C. *fimbriata* because the primary thallus was growing on pine needles and leaf litter, which did not allow for an accurate pH reading. Samples of C. chlorophaea, which were generally found on wood, had pH values similar to that of the C. pyxidata species complex (pH 6.76 to 7.84). Cladonia grayi, which is morphologically indistinguishable from C. chlorophaea s.s., was found on soils with significantly lower pH values (pH 6.44 to 6.53). The occurrence of C. grayi on acidic substrata ( $pH<6.0$ ) is well documented in the literature (Ahti 1966, Sipman 1973, Coassini-Lokar et al. 1986, Ahti 2000) suggesting that the production of grayanic acid in  $C$ . grayi may be related to the low soil pH on which  $C$ . grayi grows. If production of grayanic acid depends on pH, perhaps the production of other polyketides in the C. chlorophaea species complex also relies on  $pH$ . Further analysis is needed to confirm this hypothesis.

Studies have shown that lichen morphology can be influenced by association with different algal partners especially in the case of photosymbiodemes where the same fungus associates with cyanobacterium in one habitat and with primarily green algae in another habitat (Ott 1988, Armaleo and Clerc 1991, Yoshimura et al. 1993, Stenroos et al. 2OO3). However, the algal genotypes identified in this study were all within the genus Trebouxia, a green algal partner, and were randomly scattered throughout the fungal fTS rDNA tree (Figure 3). The random pattern may suggest that the changes in the algal environment in this study were too minor taxonomically to have any influence on the fungal morphology of C. pocillum, C. pyxidata 1, or C. pyxidata 2 or that the sample size was too small to detect a pattern.

## Multiple algal species associate with the Cladonia pyxidata group

Five species of algae can be inferred to associate with members of the *Cladonia* pyxidatø group. Algal genotype A, as defined by RFLP of the ITS rDNA, was the most common genotype associated with Cladonia pyxidata 1, C. pyxidata 2, C. pocillum, and C. monomorpha. The DNA sequence of genotype A was most similar to the species, Trebouxia pyriformis, T. glomerata, and T. irregularis. Samples of C. pyxidata and C. pocillum that associate with algal genotypes C, D, and E were poorly resolved in the algal ITS tree but may represent the species T. excentrica. A study by Piercey-Normore & DePriest (2001) suggested that C. pyxidata associates with T. excentrica using phylogenetic inference. Beiggi & Piercey-Normore (2007) also detected sequences significantly similar to that of  $T$ . excentrica in association with both  $C$ . pyxidata and  $C$ . pocillum. However, studies by Yahr et al. (2004) and Cordeiro et al. (2005) determined that the position of the alga that associated with C. pyxidata was largely unresolved.

Cladonia magyarica, which also contained algal genotype C but was not collected in North America, was the only sample that associated with T. magna.

The five species of Trebouxia that have been inferred to associate with members of the Cladonia pyxidata group are thought to make up the Asterochloris group within the genus Trebouxia (Rambold et al. 1998, Piercey-Normore and DePriest 2001, Yahr et al. 2004, Cordeiro et al. 2005, Yahr et al. 2006). Members of the Asterochloris group are morphologically similar to Trebouxia (Friedl 1989); however, the Asterochloris group has chloroplasts that exhibit a parietal position during certain stages of cell development (Friedl & Rokitta 1997), no distinct centrally located pyrenoid (Friedl 1989), and ITS rDNA sequences that cannot be aligned with sequences from Trebouxia s.s. (Piercey-Normore & DePriest 2001, Cordeiro et al. 2005). Studies have suggested that although members of the genus *Cladonia* are specific for algal species within the Asterochloris group (Ahmadjian 1970, Rambold et al. 1998, DePriest 2004), selectivity for a specific species or clade of algae can range from low, in which a single fungal species will associate with multiple algae, to high, in which the fungal species will select for a single species or genotype of Asterochloris (Piercey-Normore 2004, Yahr et al. 2004).

Results obtained from this study suggest that members of the Cladonia pyxidata species complex have low selectivity for algae within the Asterochloris group. Algal DNA sequences from samples of *Cladonia chlorophaea* were most similar to sequences from four algal species,  $T.$  phycobiontica,  $T.$  pyriformis,  $T.$  glomerata, and  $T.$  irregularis. Piercey-Normore & DePriest (2001) and Yahr et al. (2004) also placed the algal sequences from C. chlorophaea in a poorly resolved clade with T. excentrica. The four species of algae that are inferred to associate with  $C$ . *chlorophaea* would also suggest low selectivity of members of the Asterochloris group by C. chlorophaea.

Amplification of the algal ITS rDNA in C. chlorophaea (RK1064), produced two bands suggesting that both Asterochloris and Trebouxia s.s. were associating with the fungus (Robertson & Piercey-Normore 2OO7l. These fragments were sequenced separately and revealed two disparate groups of algae. The shorter fragment was most similar to T. phycobionticø {a member of Asterochloris) and a BLAST search in NCBI GenBank suggested the longer fragment represents T. usnea, T. corticola or T. incrustata, which belong to Trebouxia s.s. These species are previously unreported in not only C. chlorophaea but the entire genus Cladonia.

Twenty samples produced multiple bands when amplifying the algal ITS region of the Cladonia pyxidata group and may explain the RFLP patterns observed in algal genotypes B, F, G, and H. These genotypes may be combinations of more than one algal genotype; members of Asterochloris with shorter ITS rDNA regions and members of Trebouxia s.s. with longer ITS rDNA regions. Further studies are required to determine if these genotypes represent multiple algal genotypes occurring within the same fungal thallus or if they are generated by some other contaminating source.

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#### Geographic patterns within the lichen association

Results obtained in this study suggest that there is a wide availability of both the fungal and algal partners across Canada (Table 1 & 4; Figure 10). Cladonia pocillum and C. pyxidata, which are reported to have a circumpolar distribution (Goward & Ahti !997, Ahti 2000), were identified from most regions within Canada, albeit no representatives of C. pocillum were collected in NW-ON or ON/QC and C. pyxidata 1 was not collected from NL. Overall, a larger number of samples of C. pocillum than C. pyxidata were collected from western Canada, while a larger number of samples of C. pyxidata and C. chlorophaeø than C. pocillum were collected from eastern Canada. This ís likely the result of different sampling techniques between RK and MPN, since Hammer {1995) stated that C. pyxidata, which is generally considered common, was in fact rare in western United States. Cladonia pyxidata 2 was not found at all sites but was identified among samples collected from N-YT, S-YT, MB, and NL, which suggests that C. pyxidata 2 is not restricted in its geographical distribution. As previously discussed (see Discussion; There are three phylogenetic species in the Cladonia pyxidata group), further studies are required to determine if C. pyxidata 2 corresponds to the European species, C. monomorpha (Aptroot et al. 2001).

Algal genotypes identified within the samples examined did not correspond to specific fungal species (Figure 3 & 10). The low level of selectivity by the fungal species for a specific species of Asterochloris may reflect the finding that dispersal of the algal partners was occurring across the geographical range examined (Table 4). The most common algal genotypes, genotypes A and B, were detected within samples collected

from across Canada, whereas rare algal genotypes ( $n \leq 4$ ) occurred primarily in the west, except for genotype D, which was only detected in samples from WNP and NW-ON, Similarily, Romeike et al. (2002) reported a high level of diversity among the algal partners associated with four species of Umbilicaria collected in Antarctica. Three of the four species of Umbilicaria examined associated with more than one algal partner, which suggested that the selection of the algal partner, more closely reflects the availability of the photobiont and not the selectivity of the mycobiont. The low level of selectivity by the mycobiont was interpreted as an advantageous adaptation to the harsh environmental conditions. By being less selective of its algal partner, the mycobiont can potentially colonize otherwise unavailable habitats.

Yahr et al. (2004, 2006) examined the algal diversity that associated with species of Cladonia over both smalf and large geographical scales. Within the Florida shrub, six species of Cladonia, including C. subtenuis, were identified as "photobiont specialists" and two species were considered "photobiont generalists" (Yahr et al. 2004). Photobiont specialists were defined as "showing specificity for a single clade of algae" and photobiont generalists "associat[ed] with divergent clades of photobiont genotypes" (Yahr et al. 2004). However, when algal diversity was examined for C. subtenuis over a larger geographical range (eastern United States), the algal specificíty was reported to be significantly lower (Yahr et al. 2006). Contrary to the results obtained in this study ( $\phi$ PT=0.004, p=0.28), Yahr *et al.* 2006 reported that population structure was evident among the algal symbionts, with signifícant differences seen between samples collected inland and those from the southern coastal plain. Further

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analysis by Yahr et al. (2006) revealed that geographical position and habitat account for >40% of the genetic variation detected within the algal partner.

## **Conclusions**

Phylogenetic analyses suggest that the Cladonia pyxidata species group in Canada consists of, not two (C. pyxidata and C. pocillum), but three separate species (C. pyxidata 1, C. pyxidata 2, and C. pocillum), which show small variations in the morphology of their basal squamules. Cladonia pyxidata I has separate upright squamules; C. pyxidata 2 also has upright margins but forms a rosette-like pattern; and C. pocillum has appressed squamules that form a distinct rosette. As reported in the literature, C. pyxidata 1 was found on soils with significantly lower pH than C. pocillum. Cladonia pyxidata 2 was also found on soils with significantly lower pH than C. pocillum but not as low as that of C. pyxidata 1. Therefore the morphological variation observed in the basal squamules of C. pyxidata 1, C. pyxidata 2, and C. pocillum may reflect a phenotypic response to a change in the soil pH. However, further analysis is required since no pattern was observed when pH was mapped onto the phylogenetic tree and the range of actual pH values overlapped even though the mean soil pH values for each species were significantly different.

Morphological variation between C. pyxidata 1, C. pyxidata 2, and C. pocillum was not influenced by the algal partner. Algal genotypes identified by RFLPs were randomly dispersed throughout the phylogenetíc trees and did not correspond to fungal species. ITS rDNA sequence data from representatives of select algal genotypes suggests that members of the Cladonia pyxidata species group associate with multiple algal species (Trebouxia pyriformis, T. glomerata, T. irregularis, T. excentrica, and T. magnal within the Asterochloris group. The lack of population subdivision of algal genotypes

among geographical regions suggests that gene flow (i.e. dispersal) is occurring among the sites studied. The lack of geographic pattern among the combined fungal and algal genotypes suggests that members of the Cladonia pyxidota species group have low selectivity for their algal partners.

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# **Appendix I**

Seven sets of TLC plates showing characteristics of secondary compounds extracted from the 141 samples collected across Canada. Upper plates were run in Solvent A; lower plates were run in Solvent B.

TLC plates - RK1; Samples in order from left to right are - control (Cladonia perforata), MPN7268, MPN7104, MPN7190, MPN7107, MPN7214, MPN7209, MPN6598, MPN6623, MPN6776, MPN6786, MPN6824, control, MPN6949, MPN7026, MPN7072, MPN6195, MPN6232, MPN6243, MPN6358, MPN6576, MPN6577, MPN6578, MPN6592, control.



TLC plates - RK2; Samples in order from left to right are - control (Cladonia magyarica), MPN6232, MPN6786, MPN7214, MPN6129, MPN6131, MPN6143, MPN6147, MPN6171, MPN6186, MPN6395, MPN6106, control, MPN6107, MPN6108, MPN6112, MPN6113, MPN6115, MPN6117, MPN6408, MPN6118, MPN5964, MPN5638, MPN5750, control.



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TLC plates - RK3; Samples in order from left to right are - control (C. magyarica), MPN5867, MPN6101, MPN6102, MPN6103, MPN6104, MPN6090, MPN6092, MPN5889, MPN6081, MPN6083, MPN6084, control, MPN5866, MPN5929, RK1088, RK1091, RK1084, RK1080, RK1079, RK1078, RK1077, RK1074, RK1073, control.



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TLC plates - RK4; Samples in order from left to right are - control (C. magyarica), RK947, RK946, RK938, RK1064, RK1032, RK1033, RK1052, RK1055, RK1065, RK1070, RK971, control, RK972, RK1071, RK1072, RK945, RK961, RK934, RK931, RK930, RK926, RK1028, RK1027, control.


TLC plates - RK5; Samples in order from left to right are - control (C. magyarica), RK1004, RK999, RK976, RK974, MPN5553, MPN5556, MPN5707, MPN5541, MPN5546, MPN5550, MPN5618, control, MPN5600, MPN6095, MPN5624, MPN6096, MPN6085, MPN6086, MPN6089, MPN5538a, MPN5540, RK951, RK949, control.



TLC plates - RK6; Samples in order from left to right are - control (C. magyarica), RK950, RK948, RK937, RK916, RK888, RK912, RK964, RK963, RK962, RK957, RK955, control, RK954, RK953, RK952, RK879, RK871, RK870, RK869, RK862, RK968, RK966, RK965, control.



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TLC plates - RK7; Samples in order from left to right are - control (C. magyarica), RK925, RK924, RK922, RK917, RK910, RK909, RK905, RK885, RK970, RK969, RK935, control (C. magyarica), RK936, Aptroot 51297, nine additional samples not included in this study, control (C. perforata)



#### **Appendix II**

Character states of morphological characters examined in 141 samples collected from across Canada. Numbers correspond to characters listed in Table 2.





#### **Appendix III**

Overview of geographical region, species identifications, TLC, RFLP, pH, and sequence data. See Table 1 in Methods and Figures 8 and 9 in Results for abbreviations.





# **Appendix IV**

Aligned fungal ITS rDNA sequences from in this study. Dots indicate the occurrence of the same nucleotide as the reference sequence. Dashes represent gaps or missing data.







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### Appendix V

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Aligned fungal PKS sequences obtained in this study. Ambiguity codes used include R (A or G), M (A or C), and Y (C or T). Dots indicate the occurrence of the same nucleotide as the reference sequence. Dashes represent gaps or missing data.





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# Appendix VI

Aligned algal ITS rDNA sequences from this study. Dots indicate the occurrence of the

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