Photosynthetic characteristics and diversity of freshwater Synechococcus at two depths during different mixing conditions in a deep oligotrophic lake

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ABSTRACT

We studied the photosynthetic characteristics and genetic diversity of Synechococcus assemblages at two different light and mixing conditions in a deep oligotrophic lake (Lake Maggiore, Northern Italy). Sampling was performed at the beginning of summer stratification, when the base of the photic zone was isolated by the presence of a shallower thermocline, and during late summer, when the mixing layer extended below the photic zone. Two depths were sampled (15 % and 1 % of surface PAR). To study the diversity of Synechococcus, we used a classical molecular fingerprinting technique (Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis, DGGE) with ambient samples and sequencing of the prominent bands. The ecotypes selected within the samples from different depths were different in photosynthetic characteristics and grew in a range of nutrient concentrations. The OTUs colonizing different niches in the water column did not show any significant clustering. However, the OTU richness was significantly different at the two depths in spring, reaching the highest values at 15 % of surface PAR. Cluster analysis of DGGE lanes provided evidence of different community compositions between spring and late summer. Sequencing of the most prominent bands showed one spring OTU affiliated to the Synechococcus subalpine cluster I, with 100% similarity to LM94, MW76B2 and MW15#2 (sensu Crosbie et al. 2003a), not present in late summer. Another OTU present both in spring and late summer showed 100% similarity to MH301, a strain near to subalpine cluster II. Our results support the coexistence of ecotypes in the vertical gradients, rapidly acclimating and performing differently in the microhabitats.

Key words: freshwater picocyanobacteria, Synechococcus spp., photosynthetic characteristics, genetic diversity, Lake Maggiore

1. INTRODUCTION

In freshwater ecosystems Synechococcus-like cyanobacteria dominate both the surface and deep layers (Stockner et al. 2000) and can be present as solitary single cells or in microcolonies (Passoni & Callieri 2001; Komárková 2002; Crosbie et al. 2003b), with more morphotypes than marine environments. Whether microenvironment peculiarities determine different genetic traits is in debate. From ecological studies, we know that Synechococcus, like many prokaryotes, is highly plastic and, in lakes, can acclimate to different environmental conditions and irradiance levels by adjusting their pigment composition (Haushild et al. 1991; Callieri 1996; Vörös et al. 1998). By phylogenetic study of the 16S rDNA, the genus Synechococcus is known to be polyphyletic (Robertson et al. 2001), but the identification of species inside this taxon is still unclear. The large number of isolated strains suggests that closely related taxa have undergone widespread dispersal (Crosbie et al. 2003a) and contradicts the evidence that strain clusters developed similar ecotypes during independent adaptive radiations (Ernst et al. 2003). These molecular genetic studies claim that there is an urgent need for more data acquisition and the development of different approaches. A general consensus on the importance of the parallel study of genetic and ecological characteristics of this taxon is necessary for a comprehensive evaluation of the different ecotypes.

To get insight into the freshwater Synechococcus ecotypes/genotypes in a deep oligotrophic subalpine lake we compared its photosynthetic characteristics and diversity (1) at two depths under different irradiances, and (2) at spring and late summer peaks of abundance during different mixing conditions.

To study the genetic diversity of Synechococcus we used an application of DGGE (Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis) (Muyzer et al. 1993), one of the classical molecular fingerprinting techniques. DGGE gives information on OTU diversity and richness and, through sequencing of the gel bands, we can compare the sample to sequences published in genomic databases in order to infer phylogenetic affiliation. In the marine environment, researchers have found compartmentalization of Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus clades in the horizontal and vertical “space” at contrasting environmental conditions (Fuller et al. 2006). However, in freshwater, as far as we know, no data exist on the depth-dependent genetic diversity of Synechococcus, or its possible correlation with physiological adaptations. Similarly, we set out to compare the diversity of Synechococcus to the photosynthetic performance of subpopulations (sensu Ernst et
al. 2000). We addressed the difficult question of whether, in lakes, the genus *Synechococcus* consists of multiple coexisting ecotypes that are genetically closely related but physiologically distinct. For bacteria it is known that competition and fluctuating environments increase phenotypic diversity (Corno & Jürgens 2006). However, in the specific case of *Synechococcus* it is still unknown, for example, if adaptation to low light (in order to survive at the limit of the photic zone) can be a force selecting an appropriate strain or if the adaptability of the genus itself is sufficient to let them survive in extreme conditions.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Study site and in situ measurements

Lake Maggiore is a large (212 km²), deep (372 m), subalpine lake, which has been the site of limnological studies since the first half of the past century (Baldi et al. 1953; de Bernardi et al. 1988; Bertoni & Callieri 1989; Callieri & Piscia 2002). The lake recovered from the eutrophic state reached in the late 1970s (maximum in-lake TP concentration at winter mixing 30 µg l⁻¹) and is now oligotrophic (TP around 10 µg l⁻¹) (Calderoni et al. 2006).

Sampling was performed at the station of the maximum depth, which has been chosen as the reference station for a long-term study on the lake (http://www.ise.cnr.it/lter). Discrete samples were taken with a 5 litre Van Dorn bottle. Profiles of temperature and Photosynthetic Active Radiation (PAR) were obtained using a multiparameter probe (IDRONAUT, mod. OS316).

2.2. Sampling

We took samples in two periods of the year corresponding to the spring and late summer picocyanobacteria peaks, typical of deep, temperate oligotrophic lakes (Callieri & Pinolini 1995; Padisák et al. 1997). In each period, sampling was performed once a week for three consecutive weeks (16-6, 22-6, 30-6 and 31-8, 8-9, 14-9) in order to follow the short-term evolution of picocyanobacteria assemblages. Two depths were chosen, namely 1 % (8-15 m) and 15 % of surface PAR (3 m).

2.3. Counting

Picocyanobacteria were immediately preserved in formalin (2 % final solution) cacodilate buffered, stored in darkness at 4°C and processed within two weeks. Counting was performed on polycarbonate filters (Nuclepore, 0.2 µm pore size) by autofluorescence of phycoerythrin (Zeiss Axiosplan microscope equipped with an HBO 100 W lamp, a Neofluar 100 x objective, 1.25 x additional magnification, and filter sets for blue and green light excitation, Zeiss filter set 09: BP450-490, FT510, LP520, Zeiss filter set 14: LP510-KP560, FT580, LP590). Cells were measured with an image analysis system (Image ProPlus software and CoolSNAP pro-cf videocamera; Media Cybernetics, Silver Spring, MD, USA). Cell volumes were transformed to carbon using a conversion factor of 200 fg C µm⁻³ (Weisse 1993).

2.4. Chemical analyses

Total Phosphorus (TP) and Total Nitrogen (TN) were determined according to A.P.H.A. (1985) after mineralization of the samples with persulfate-boric acid (Valderrama 1981). Soluble Reactive Phosphorus (SRP) was determined according to A.P.H.A. (1985) after samples filtration through GF/C (Whatman) filters.

The Total Inorganic Carbon (TIC) availability was determined from pH and alkalinity measurements. In order to determine the Chlorophyll a (Chl a) content of picophytoplankton, up to 250 ml of sampled water were filtered through a 2.0 µm pore size polycarbonate filter (Osmonics™) and the filtrate was subsequently filtered through a 0.2 µm pore size polycarbonate filter (Osmonics™). The Chlorophyll a concentration was determined fluorometrically by Perkin-Elmer LS-2 Filter Fluorometer (Stainton et al. 1974) after pigment extraction with methanol (Talling & Driver 1961; Holm-Hansen & Riemann 1978).

2.5. Primary production

For each date, primary production (PP) was measured using the ¹⁴C technique (Steeman-Nielsen 1951, 1952). Dark bottle measurements were substituted by the “time 0” organic ¹⁴C measurement by adding the isotope to the dark bottle and immediately filtering and analyzing (Fahnenstiel et al. 1994). Lake water was sampled before starting the incubations and 4 replicate vials (25 ml each) were immediately filled with lake water. We added 1.48 kBq NaH¹⁴CO₃ ml⁻¹ (Amersham) to each vial, and then incubated the samples in situ for 4 hours around noon. Incubations were carried out with the vials suspended at the two sampling depths in the euphotic zone. After incubation, 500 µl aliquots were taken to check total activity. In order to estimate size fractionated primary productivity (>2 µm and <2 µm) the samples were filtered using plastic disposable syringes and plastic 25 mm filter holders. Polycarbonate filters (Osmonics™) of 2 µm were used for the autotrophic fraction (>2 µm). The filtrate was concentrated on 0.22 µm nitrocellulose membranes (Millipore™). Filters were acidified with 200 µl 1N HCl for 60 minutes in 20 ml- scintillation vials. After adding 10 ml of scintillation liquid the vials were counted in a Beckman LS3801 scintillation Counter. Photosynthetic carbon assimilation was calculated based on the proportion between ¹⁴C uptake and TIC availability (Steeman-Nielsen 1951, 1952).
2.6. Nucleic acid extraction and PCR amplification

We concentrated about 300 ml of lake water from each environmental sample on 0.2 µm sterile hydrophilic polyethersulfone Supor® (Gelman Laboratory) and kept at -20°C in 2 ml of lysis buffer (50 mM Tris, 40 mM EDTA, 400 mM NaCl, 0.75 M Sucrose; Giovannoni et al. 1990) for no longer than 2 months.

DNA used for DGGE protocols was extracted from the filters using the UltraClean Soil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio) and cast through 1 % (w/v) agarose in TBE buffer for visual estimation under UV transillumination (Gel DOC XR System (Bio-Rad) with Quantity One® (Bio-Rad), after staining with ethidium bromide (EB). For amplification of the 16S rDNA, 20 nM of primers CYA359F and equimolar mix of CYA781R(a) and CYA781R (b) (Tab. 1) (Nübel et al. 1997) were included in the reaction with approximately 50 ng of DNA extracts and 25 µl Taq PCR Master Mix Kit (QIAGEN), for a volume of 50 µl of 0.2 µm sterile filtered water. The amplification profile consisted of an initial denaturation at 96°C for 5 min followed by 10 touchdown cycles of 94°C for 45s, 65°C (-1°C each cycle) for 45s and 72°C for 2 min, then 20 cycles of 94°C for 45s, 55°C for 45s and 72°C for 2 min (Don et al. 1991; Muyzer et al. 1993). A final elongation step of 72°C for 5 min was performed. PCR reactant concentrations were as follows: 20 nM each primer, 50 ng DNA template and 25 µl Taq PCR Master Mix Kit (QIAGEN), for a volume of 50 µl of 0.2 µm sterile filtered water.

2.7. DGGE analysis and sequencing

The PCR product was electrophoresed (for 16 h at 150V) through a polyacrylamide gel (1 mm) with 37 to 70 % denaturing gradient, in which 100 % is defined as 7 M urea and 40 % (vol/vol) formamide in a Bio-Rad D-Code. The gel was then incubated for 20 min in 4°C in SYBR® Green I Nucleic Acid Gel Stain (Cambrex) dissolved in MilliQ water. Denatured DNA bands were detected under UV illumination with Gel DOC XR System (Bio-Rad) and elaborated by Quantity One® (Analyse Software, Bio-Rad).

A density profile through each lane was assessed, the bands detected (regarded as operational taxonomic units, OTUs) and the relative contribution of each band to the total band signal was calculated in the lane after applying a rolling disk as background subtraction. Bands with a relative intensity of < 0.5% of the total intensity of the lane were disregarded. A distance matrix of the lanes was calculated using the Bray-Curtis Coefficient and a cluster (UPGMA, unweighted-pair-group mean average) was inferred using the program MEGA3 (Molecular Evolutionary Genetic Analysis).

In order to sequence the DGGE bands, we excised the most prominent bands of the 12 lanes of SYBR® Green-stained DGGE gel using a sterile scalpel and DNA eluted overnight at 4°C in 500 µl of TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, EDTA 1 mM) (Nübel et al. 1997). One microliter of each solution containing excised bands was re-amplified using the same primers and the same PCR conditions, as described above. Next, we sequenced the PCR products using the forward primer under the following conditions: 2.5 µl primer CYA359F (1 µM), 2 µl of BigDye® Terminator v1.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems), 4 µl Tris buffer (2.5x), 3 µl pre-amplified DNA, and 8.5 µl of MilliQ water to a final volume of 20 µl (termocycling conditions: 96°C for 1 min, 30 cycles at 96°C for 10s, 50°C for 5 s and 60°C for 4 min). The final PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR purification kit (QIAGEN). Sequencing was performed in a ABI PRISM 310 (Applied Biosystems) sequencer.

3. RESULTS

3.1. In situ measurements and ecological parameters

Temperature and light profiles (Fig. 1) at the six sampling dates indicate two distinct hydrologic situations: in spring, the thermocline depth was shallower than the depth of 1 % of surface PAR (limit of the photic zone), while in late summer the thermocline depth extended deeper than the photic zone. The exception was on September 8, when the euphotic zone extended to 18 m, much deeper than the thermocline depth. In general, during spring samplings the Synechococcus assemblages living at 1 % of surface PAR were confined to the bottom of the photic zone whereas in late summer the assemblages living in the photic zone stayed in the mixing layer, thus having the possibility to be transported into the near surface zone.
Tab. 2. Main chemical parameters measured in Lake Maggiore at 15 % (upper panel) and at 1 % of surface PAR (lower panel). TN = Total Nitrogen, SRP = Soluble Reactive Phosphorus, TP = Total Phosphorus, TIC = Total Inorganic Carbon, PAR = Photosynthetic Active Radiation.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Date</th>
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<th>s.d.</th>
<th>SRP (µg l⁻¹)</th>
<th>s.d.</th>
<th>TP (µg l⁻¹)</th>
<th>s.d.</th>
<th>TIC (mg l⁻¹)</th>
<th>PAR (µmol m⁻² s⁻¹)</th>
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<th>s.d.</th>
<th>TP (µg l⁻¹)</th>
<th>s.d.</th>
<th>TIC (mg l⁻¹)</th>
<th>PAR (µmol m⁻² s⁻¹)</th>
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<td>1.93</td>
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Fig. 1. Profiles of temperature (line) and percentage of surface PAR (triangles) in the two study periods, in Lake Maggiore 2004.
On two occasions, we found multiple thermoclines (on 29 June: 2, 9, 14 m; on 8 September: 9, 18 m), which is a condition often encountered in oligomictic Lake Maggiore (Barbanti & Ambrosetti 1989).

The chemical analyses performed in the two periods (Tab. 2) showed similar characteristics of lake water at the two depths and a more pronounced difference of the SRP between June and September. A well-defined period of P limitation was evident in September with SRP concentrations below detection limits. Nitrogen was never limiting, and ranged between 600-980 µg l\(^{-1}\). Inorganic carbon was around 9-10 mg l\(^{-1}\), indicating favourable conditions for primary production.

*Synechococcus* abundances (Fig. 2A) were not statistically different at the two depths (*t*-test for dependent variables, df 5, *P* = 0.44 and *P* = 0.30 respectively). The marked variability observed during the study periods indicates a weekly variation of cell number. The peak of cell number was reached in September at 3 m (160 x 10\(^3\) cell ml\(^{-1}\)). The mean cell volume was statistically different (*t*-

**Fig. 2.** Numbers of picocyanobacteria (10\(^3\) cells ml\(^{-1}\)) (A), cell volume (µm\(^3\) cell\(^{-1}\)) (B), Chlorophyll *a* concentrations (µg l\(^{-1}\)) (C), at the two depths during the two study periods, in Lake Maggiore 2004.
test for dependent variables, df 5, P = 0.02) at the two depths, with the larger cells at 1% PAR (0.70 and 0.95 µm² cell⁻¹ at 3 and 10 m respectively) (Fig. 2B).

Chl a concentration (Fig. 2C) results were highly variable with a generalized concentration increase at 1% of surface PAR. Nevertheless, the differences between the two depths were not significant (t-test for dependent variables, df 14, P = 0.158). The picocyanobacteria chlorophyll-specific production (Fig. 3, upper panel) showed a significant difference among depths (t-test, df 23, P = 0.0001). At 15% of surface PAR the values were always higher and ranged from 0.7 to 5.4 mg C (mg Chl)⁻¹ h⁻¹, as compared to a variation between 0.17 and 0.81 mg C (mg Chl)⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 1% of surface PAR. Picocyanobacteria efficiency, i.e. the production per unit Chl and unit mole of photons was significantly higher at 1% of PAR (mean: 13.4 mg C (mg Chl)⁻¹ mol⁻¹ m⁻³) than at 15% of PAR (mean: 6.5 mg C (mg Chl)⁻¹ mol⁻¹ m⁻³) (Fig. 3, lower panel). No significant difference was found between spring and late summer samples.

3.2. Genotypic classification

DGGE profiles showed a relatively low number of bands through both seasons, never exceeding 10 different OTUs in a single sample with an average value of OTU richness of 6.25 OTUs per lane. Communities at 1% PAR showed relatively constant richness levels, ranging between 5 and 8 OTUs, while communities at 15% PAR exhibited more unstable values, ranging from 3 to 10 OTUs per sample (Fig. 4). Some very clear and pronounced bands were common to all samples while others were only present in spring samples. We found a rather constant number of taxonomic units (DNA bands) in the 3 consecutive samples from each period, at the two depths, suggesting slight differences between depths in the same period.

From the density profile of the DGGE lanes, we used the relative contribution of each band to the total band signal to calculate the distance matrix and produce a cluster analysis (Fig. 4). The cluster displayed two groups at 0.21 distance. The sample from August 31 (3 m) was an outgroup, because its analysis was very poor due to problems with the PCR amplification of the extracted DNA. The two clusters demonstrated the difference between the spring and late summer fingerprinting image of the picocyanobacteria community in Lake Maggiore. On the other hand, in spring, the relative OTU richness (Fig. 4) was significantly higher (Paired t-test, P = 0.02) at the depth of 15% surface PAR as compared to the 1%. In autumn, the difference between the depths was not significant (Paired t-test, P = 0.07).

When excised and sequenced, the more pronounced spring bands showed 100% similarity to *Synechococcus* LM94, MW76B2 and MW15-2 which are phycoerythrin-rich strains of subalpine cluster I, Group B (Crosbie et al. 2003a). One band common both to late summer and spring was 100% similar to *Synechococcus* MH301, near subalpine cluster II.

4. DISCUSSION

Picocyanobacteria in Lake Maggiore have been studied since 1992 (Callieri & Pinolini 1995) and represent 85-90% of total picophytoplankton number (Callieri & Piscia 2002). They are *Synechococcus*-type single celled in spring and tend to form small microcolonies in late summer (Passoni & Callieri 2001). During this study picocyanobacteria cell volumes were different at the two depths examined, and the cells at 15% of surface PAR (3 m) were significantly smaller than those at 1% of surface PAR. This morphological difference along the photic zone could indicate either a different metabolic state of the cells in the vertical gradient (cells with low divi-
Photosynthetic characteristics and diversity of freshwater Synechococcus

Photosynthetic characteristics and diversity of freshwater Synechococcus cells were studied. Picocyanobacteria assemblages of the two depths in Lake Maggiore also showed differences in chlorophyll a concentrations, as well as in photosynthetic characteristics. The surface communities were more productive but less photosynthetically efficient. No difference was found in morphology and in photosynthetic characteristics of Synechococcus cells between the spring and late summer samplings. Therefore, working from the measures of functional activity of picocyanobacteria (Chl a content, cell volume, cell production and efficiency) we expected to find a pronounced difference in OTU's diversity at different niches along the water column, rather than between the two different seasons.

However, the genotypic analyses showed opposite signals. The DGGE fingerprints proved two different clusters that markedly differentiate the relative OTU diversity of the spring and late summer picocyanobacteria. The results of the sequenced bands yielded evidence of the presence of one OTU that was phylogenetically similar to group B of the subalpine cluster I, which was only present in spring (see Crosbie et al. 2003a). Another OTU sequenced was common to all the spring and late summer samples. In contrast, the OTUs colonizing different niches in the water column vertical profile did not show any significant clustering. In other words, different picocyanobacteria ecotypes (i.e. with distinct photosynthetic characteristics), met along the photic zone and did not form clustered groups. Instead, the OTU richness was significantly different at the two depths in spring, reaching the highest values (10) at 15 % of surface PAR. This result is partly explained by the hydrologic situation of the spring period, when the shallow thermocline created a density barrier between the two depths. Actually, in spring, notwithstanding the lower cell abundances in the shallower layer, the picocyanobacteria community was characterized by a higher richness and was composed of smaller, more photosynthetically active cells. The absence of a true mixing layer in spring actually influences the number of OTUs present at the shallower layer, enabling the increase of species coexistence. This situation was not observed in late summer when the mixing layer extended deeper than the photic zone and allowed cells to be transported and mixed through the entire photic zone. We know that temperature gradient and water column stability influence picocyanobacterial community dynamics in both

![Fig. 4. Cluster analysis of picocyanobacteria communities based upon significant (> 0.5 % of total lane brightness) DGGE bands. Similarities are expressed as the Bray-Curtis Coefficient, which compares the relative contribution of single OTUs to the total amplified DNA of each band, when making pairwise comparisons between samples. Clustering was performed with UPGMA. Richness in bands of each sample is reported by grouping 15 % PAR (3 m) samples and 1 % PAR (between 8 and 15 m depth).](image-url)
marine and freshwater environments (Camacho et al. 2003; Fuller et al. 2005).

In Lake Constance, seasonal dynamics of population and subpopulations of Synechococcus-type picocyanobacteria were demonstrated (Becker et al. 2002). In laboratory experiments using Synechococcus strains isolated from Lake Constance in spring and late summer (Postius et al. 1998) it has been found that changing the environmental conditions may cause dominance of the better adapted organisms. Nevertheless, to date, the partitioning of specific Synechococcus clades or ecotypes into specific niches in situ has not yet been demonstrated in freshwater.

Using dot blot hybridization technique, the predominance of genotypes from a single clade of Synechococcus population was demonstrated in the Red Sea (Fuller et al. 2003). The other cultures isolated, lacking PE, represented only a minor component in the natural environment. This community composition, which was rather homogeneous in vertical space, turned out to be composed of a few strains, dominant over the others, as a result of niche differentiation.

Recently was found that the Prochlorococcus HL (high light) ecotype (sensu Moore et al. 1998) was dominant over the season, while the LL (low light) ecotype was negligible and only appeared in late summer below 50 m (Fuller et al. 2005). This indicates that different ecotypes can coexist, but not necessarily dominate, at the same time at different depths; they appear to exploit a particular refuge niche in different seasonal periods. This hypothesis is also based on the evidence that picocyanobacteria are the winning competitors for phosphorus but at the cost of a selection towards the more adapted ecotypes.

Our data showed a difference in SRP concentrations in spring and late summer, with strong P-limitation conditions in September. In that month, total phytoplankton biomass was lower than in spring (Morabito et al. 2005) and picocyanobacteria represented more than 50 % of total autotrophic biomass (S. Galafassi, Thesis). The ecological conditions in late summer appeared distinct from those in spring and potentially able to select different genotypes, in accordance with our results of OTU’s diversity. Conversely, the photosynthetic characteristics and the physiological traits of spring and late summer picocyanobacteria assemblages were highly variable inside the two periods and showed no significant difference between seasons.

The initial hypothesis of a genetically distinct Synechococcus population located at different depths along the water column according to their most favourable temperature and light conditions appears improbable. Instead, it is likely that picocyanobacterial strains coexist in the vertical gradient, rapidly acclimate (without an actual genetic adaptation) in the mixing layer and perform differently in the microhabitats. In particular, the OTU richness of spring samples was higher in the upper layer, above the thermocline. This study also revealed the presence of a spring picocyanobacterial strain affiliated to the subalpine cluster I, which disappeared in late summer, as well as a ubiquitous strain affiliated to subalpine cluster II.

Our results should be confirmed by further studies performed over an entire year. The importance of long-term molecular studies has been recently emphasized (Fuller et al. 2005) as critical to the better interpretation of the succession of subpopulations of picocyanobacteria.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, our study on the photosynthetic and genetic characteristics of Synechococcus has shown that picocyanobacteria near the surface and at the deeper edge of the photic zone photosynthesize with different efficiency. Nevertheless, fingerprinting analyses of these samples did not reveal any relevant difference in OTU diversity. In spring, with a shallow thermocline, OTU richness was different at the two depths. In particular, richness was higher in the shallower layer, where the cells were more photosynthetically active and smaller, than in the deeper one.

The sequences obtained from DGGE excised bands revealed the presence of one spring OTU phylogenetically similar to the group B of the subalpine cluster I and of one OTU common to spring and late summer samples. This confirms that in Lake Maggiore, like in other subalpine lakes, different Synechococcus strains may occur in spring and in late summer.

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