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16S rDNA diversity of cultured and uncultured prokaryotes of a mat sample from Lake Fryxell, McMurdo Dry Valleys, Antarctica

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Abstract The prokaryotic diversity of aerobic and anaerobic bacterial isolates and of bacterial and archaeal 16S rDNA clones was determined for a microbial mat sample from the moated region of Lake Fryxell, McMurdo Dry Valleys, Antarctica. Among the anaerobic bacteria, members of Clostridium estertheticum and some other psychrotolerant strains dominated whereas methanogens and other Archaea were lacking. Isolates highly related to Flavobacterium hibernum, Janthinobacterium lividum, and Arthrobacter flavus were among the aerobic bacteria most frequently isolated. Assessment of more than 350 partial 16S rDNA clone sequences of libraries generated by Bacteria- and Archaea-specific PCR primers revealed a rich spectrum of bacterial diversity but only two different archaeal clone sequences. Among the Bacteria, representative sequences belonged to the class Proteobacteria, order Verrucomicrobiales, class Actinobacteria, Clostridium/Bacillus subphylum of Gram-positives, and the Cytophaga-Flavobacterium-Bacteroides phylum. The clones formed about 70 higher taxonomy groups (<98% sequence similarity) and 133 potential species, i.e., groups of clones sharing greater than 98% similarity. Only rarely were clone sequences found to be highly related to Lake Fryxell isolates and to strains of described species. Subsequent analysis of ten sequencing batches of 36 individual clones indicated that the diversity might be still higher than had been assessed.

Key words Biodiversity · Lake Fryxell mat · Antarctica · Psychrophiles

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Introduction

The search for novel and biotechnologically exploitable organisms (Ashbolt 1990) has motivated microbiologists to screen the largely unexplored Antarctic continent and surrounding marine sites. Although studies started some decades ago (Pfister 1965; Marshall 1966; Tsyganov 1970; Friedmann 1980), it was not until the early 1990s that more emphasis was placed on the description of new genera and species. The sites of these new taxa ranged from freshwater lakes (Franzmann et al. 1991, 1997; McCammon et al. 1998), saline and hypersaline lakes and ponds (Dobson et al. 1993; Bowman et al. 1997d; Mountfort et al. 1988; Labrenz et al. 1998), soil and sandstone (Bowman et al. 1996; Schumann et al. 1997; Suzuki et al. 1997; Hirsch et al. 1998), and sea ice (Bowman 1998; Bowman et al. 1997a, e; Junge et al. 1998) to the coastal region (Bozal et al. 1997) and the marine environment (Irgens et al. 1996; Gosink et al. 1998; Bowman et al. 1997c). In addition, selected Antarctic environmental sites were subjected to more general microbial ecological studies, focusing on the seasonal and spatial variability and distribution of prokaryotes in coastal waters and sea ice (Gosink and Staley 1995; Maugeri et al. 1996; Murray 1998; Bowman et al. 1997a, 1997b, 1997c), soil (Friedmann 1980), glaciers (Abyzov et al. 1998), and lakes (Kriss 1976; Osnitskaia 1978; Priscu 1998).

The introduction of culture-independent molecular screening techniques has allowed microbiologists to examine a facet of microbial diversity not necessarily reflected by the results of culturing studies. None of the approaches currently used to assess diversity can claim to be more efficient than another. Within a given time period and despite the known methodological bias involved in the generation of 16S rDNA clone libraries (von Wintzingerode et al. 1997), 16S rDNA sequences allow the assessment of a broader range of diversity than that obtained by cultivation studies. These sequences, on the other hand, despite the inability of ex situ cultivation to mirror in situ growth conditions, permit us at least to reflect somewhat on the physiological role of isolates in their environmental niche.

Certainly, the synergistic effect of both approaches applied in parallel to a natural sample cannot be overestimated in understanding the traits that have made clones/isolates successful.

In this article, we report on the molecular analysis of a sample from a microbial mat from Lake Fryxell, Antarctica, thus extending studies on lakes from other regions of the continent. Results of sequence analysis of 16S rDNA clone libraries for Archaea and Bacteria, which are compared to results of culture independent studies from other Antarctic lakes and to the diversity of strains obtained from cultivation studies of the same mat sample, point toward a rich diversity of prokaryotic taxa.

Materials and methods

Source of sample

A mat sample was retrieved from the shallow, moated area of Lake Fryxell, McMurdo Dry Valleys region, Antarctica, 77°36′ S, 162°6′ E, in February 1999. The sample was shipped at 5°C to the University of Nottingham; from there it was distributed frozen to the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen (DSMZ).

Media and cultivation

The cultivation of aerobes and anaerobes centered on the use of a range of different media and growth temperatures. Aerobic cultures were directly plated after homogenizing the mat sample and plating from a tenfold dilution series. Media were selected that were biased toward oligotrophs, actinobacteria, and planctomycetes. Incubation temperatures were 5°, 15°, and 25°C. In addition, enrichment methods were used as described for the selection of budding and appendaged bacteria. More than 900 isolates were obtained, of which a subset of 100 strains were the subject of a previous publication (Tindall et al. 2000). For the isolation of anaerobic strains, about 1 cm³ of the sample was suspended in anaerobic DSMZ medium 119 (DSMZ 1998) (H₂+CO₂ atmosphere) and distributed to the following growth media:

A: DSMZ medium 119 (H_2+CO_2 atmosphere) plus yeast extract (1 g l^{-1}) without (A-1) and with antibiotics (300 mg m l^{-1} penicillium G and 100 mg m l^{-1} cycloserine) (A-2), at 4°C and 20°C

B: DSMZ medium 119 (N_2 + CO_2 atmosphere) plus methanol (0.5% v/v) without and with antibiotics (300 mg ml⁻¹ penicillium G and 100 mg ml⁻¹ cycloserine), at 20°C

C: DSMZ medium 63 (N₂ atmosphere), at 10°C

D: Half-concentrated Wilkins-Chalgren broth (WIC) (1805-17; Difco, Detroit, MI, USA)

Following inoculation, half the tubes (D-1) were pasteurized at 10°C: the other half (D-2) were not

Growth was observed after 2 to 4 weeks in media A-1, C, and D, and the following media were inoculated:

From DSMZ medium 119, prepared without antibiotics (A-1)

DSMZ medium 63, incubated anaerobically (A-1/C-an)

DSMZ medium 63 modified, omitting FeSO₄, sodium thioglycolate, and ascorbic acid, but supplemented separately with 1 g l⁻¹ trypticase and 1 g l⁻¹ glucose after sterilization, incubated aerobically (A-1/C-aer)

From DSMZ medium 63 (C)

DSMZ medium 63, cultivated anaerobically (C/C-an) DSMZ medium 63 modified (see above), cultivated aerobically (C/C-aer)

From WIC, pasteurized (D-1)

WIC, cultivated anaerobically (D-1/D-an)

From WIC, nonpasteurized (D-2)

WIC, cultivated anaerobically (D-2/D-an)

Pure cultures were obtained after growth on respective agar media by picking colonies and restreaking.

Isolation of DNA

Four times, 1 g frozen mat material from adjacent locations was blended separately with each 9 ml phosphate buffer (0.1 M Na₂HPO₄, 0.1 M KH₂PO₄, pH 7.4) in a Stomacher Lab Blender (Seward Medical, London, UK) (Jay 1979; Cambell and Greaves 1990) for 60 s at 4°C. Released organisms were combined, the supernatant was prefiltered through a 5- μ m nitrocellulose filter (Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany), and microorganisms were collected by centrifugation in 1.5-ml portions at 16,000 g for 5 min. These pellets were individually suspended in 400 μ l saline EDTA (0.15 M NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) and used immediately for the extraction of DNA.

Isolation of DNA from pure cultures and organisms recovered from mat samples followed the method described by Rainey et al. (1996). Some minor modifications were introduced during DNA isolation from mat samples. In procedure 1, one-half of the cells were lysed with 20 μl lysozyme (5 mg lysozyme ml⁻¹) for 45 min at 37°C and incubated with proteinase K and sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS) for 60 min at 55°C. In procedure 2, the other half of the cells were lysed with 30 μl lysozyme and 10 μl proteinase K for 45 min at 37°C, followed by repeated freeze-and-thaw cycles (three times for 10 min at –70°C and three times at 55°C). The DNA was then purified by Prep-A-Gene treatment (BioRad, Munich, Germany). Samples of procedures 1 and 2 were combined for subsequent PCR amplification.

Amplification of 16S rRNA genes and cloning of PCR products

Amplification of the almost complete 16S rRNA genes was carried out from genomic DNA by PCR as described by Rainey et al. (1996). For the generation of a clone library of

members of the domain Bacteria, the forward primer GAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG corresponded to positions 10–30 of *Escherichia coli* 16S rDNA (Brosius et al. 1978), whereas the reverse primer AGAAAGGAGGTGATCCAGCC corresponded to the complement of positions 1523–1542. For the generation of a clone library of members of the domain Archaea, the forward primer ArcFTCCGGTTGATCCTGCC corresponded to positions 10–30 of *Escherichia coli* 16S rDNA, whereas the reverse primer GGGTCTCGCTCGTTACC corresponded to the complement of positions 1,084–1,100. Cloning of PCR products was done with the pGM-T Vector system II (Promega, Heidelberg, Germany) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Reamplification of the cloned 16S rDNA PCR products

Crude lysates of clones were generated by suspending individual colonies in 100 µl water followed by extraction of DNA as described by Sambrook et al. (1989). PCR fragments of clones were reamplified by PCR with M13 PCR primers (M13–20 forward GTAAAACGACGGCCAGT and M13 reverse GGAAACAGCTATGACCATG). PCR conditions followed described procedures. The length of amplified products was determined against marker Boehringer III (Boehringer, Mannheim, Germany). PCR products were purified by Quiagen DNA purification kit (Quiagen, Hilden, Germany).

Sequence analysis

Partial sequence analysis of 16S rDNA, using the reverse primer CTGCTGCCTCCCGTA and CCCCGTAGGG-CCT/CGG (positions 343–357) for members of the domains Bacteria and Archaea, respectively, followed the procedure described by Rainey et al. (1996).

Hybridization of cloned 16S rDNA fragments

The reamplified 16S rDNA clone fragments of the Archaea-specific clone library were hybridized with probes. Hybridization and detection followed published methods (Pukall et al. 1998).

Analysis of sequence data

The sequences were initially analyzed using the BLAST search facility (www.ncb.nlm.nih.gov/blast/blast.cgi) and the RDPII analysis software (www.cme.msu.edu/RDP/html/analyses.html). Some sequences were included in the ARB software (www.mikro.biologie.tu-muenchen.de) to search for the closest evolutionary relative. All sequences were then aligned manually against the DSMZ database of 16S rDNA sequences. Detailed analysis was performed with sequences related to *Clostridium estertheticum* apply-

ing the least squares distance method algorithm of DeSoete (1983), in which similarity values were transformed into phylogenetic distances values that compensate for multiple substitutions at any given site (Jukes and Cantor 1969). All analyses were done on a SUN SparcII workstation.

Results

Isolation and 16S rDNA sequence analysis of strains

Direct plating or enrichment methods were used in the isolation of anaerobes and aerobes. Slowly growing colonies, which emerged after enrichment under anaerobic conditions, were subcultivated under anaerobic and aerobic conditions. Medium 119, supplemented with antibiotics and methanol, did not support growth of any organisms, indicating the absence of methanol-utilizing cells. Microscopic examination of mat samples for the presence of cells showing the typical green fluorescence of methanogens indicated that these organisms were not present in large numbers. However, analysis of the archaeal 16S rDNA clone library (see following) showed that two different types of methanogens were actually found to be part of the community of prokaryotes. Because these organisms are extremely sensitive to oxygen, one must assume that a low redox potential was not maintained during transport of the mat sample from Lake Fryxell to the DSMZ via Nottingham, UK.

Anaerobic enrichment cultures were subcultured under anaerobic and aerobic conditions, resulting in the isolation of 17 strains from the domain Bacteria. These cultures were affiliated to described taxa by comparative 16S rDNA analyses (Table 1). For rapid taxonomic assessment, partial 16S rDNA sequences (350 nucleotides from the 5'-terminus) were determined and the almost complete sequence analyzed for those sequences that showed less than 99% similarity to the sequence of an organism deposited in public databases. The majority of strains belong to the *Clostridium/Bacillus* subphylum of gram-positive organisms (9 strains) whereas the others cluster with the *Actinobacteria* (4 strains), β - and γ -Proteobacteria (1 and 3 strains, respectively), and *Flavobacterium* (1 strain).

The more than 800 strains cultivated under the aerobic enrichment/isolation strategy were subjected to a sorting strategy by Fourier-transformed-infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. Some results, including about 100 strains, have been published (Tindall et al. 2000). Based upon FTIR heterogeneity of 20, these strains formed about 21 single-strain lineages and 9 multistrain clusters (Table 2). To determine the phylogenetic relatedness of strains forming either clusters or single-strain lineages, the isolates were subjected to partial 16S rDNA sequence analysis. The majority of strains belonged to Janthinobacterium lividum (8 strains), Flavobacterium hibernum (7 strains), and Arthrobacter flavus (6 strains), each of which shared intracluster similarities of 100%. The degree of relatedness between the isolates sequences to date and type strains of described species was

Table 1. Strains from a mat sample of Lake Fryxell, Antarctica, originating from anaerobic enrichment

Culture conditions/strain number	Isolation temperature (°C)	Nearest phylogenetic neighbor	16S rDNA similarity (%)	Phylum or subphylum
C/C-aer/c	8	Janthinobacterium lividum ^a	100	β-Proteobacteria
C/C-aer/a,	8	Pseudomonas veronii ^a	99.9	γ-Proteobacteria
D-2/D-an/IV	8			•
A1/C-aer/OII	8	Psychrobacter glacincola	98.2	γ-Proteobacteria
A-1/C-an/E	8	Frigoribacterium faeni	95.5	Actinobacteria
D-2/D-an/III	8	•		
A-1/C-an/z-K1	8 ^b			
C/C-aer/b	8	Exiguobacterium acetylicum	97.9	Clostridium-Bacillus
A1/C-aer/OI	8	Cryobacterium psychrophilum	96.5	Clostridium-Bacillus
D-1/D-an/II	8	Clostridium estertheticum	99.5	Clostridium-Bacillus
C/C-an/B1	8	Clostridium estertheticum	99.4	Clostridium-Bacillus
A-1/C-an/C1	8	Clostridium estertheticum	98.6	Clostridium-Bacillus
A-1/C-an/I	8	Clostridium estertheticum	97.5	Clostridium-Bacillus
A-1/C-an/z-K2	8 ^b	Carnobacterium alterfunditum	99.9	Clostridium-Bacillus
A1/C-aer/OIII	8 ^b	Carnobacterium alterfunditum	99.9	Clostridium-Bacillus
A-1/C-an/z-K3	8	Clostridium vincentii	99.4	Clostridium-Bacillus
AM119an/H ₂ +CO ₂	20	Acetobacterium bakii	98.5	Clostridium-Bacillus
A1/C-aer/OIV	8	"Flavobacterium xylanivorum"	98.0	Flavobacterium

^aIdentical sequence to those isolated under anaerobic conditions

Table 2. Strains from a mat sample of Lake Fryxell, Antarctica, originating from aerobic enrichment

Strains	Nearest phylogenetic neighbor	Similarity (%)	Phylum or subphylum
1.10	Bosea thiooxydans ("Afipia" group 9)	97.6	α-Proteobacteria
4.10	Pseudomonas sp. 51, unclassified bacterium T22	100	β-Proteobacteria
4.11, seven others	Janthinobacterium lividum ^a	100	, β-Proteobacteria
14.15	Duganella zoogloeoides	93.9	β-Proteobacteria
7.31, 11.19	Pseudomonas veronii ^a	99.9	γ-Proteobacteria
4.21	Psychrobacter glacincola	97.4	, γ-Proteobacteria
4.5, six others	Flavobacterium hibernum	97.3	Flavobacterium
4.31a	Micrococcus luteus HN2—11	100	Actinobacteria
5.39	Micrococcus luteus HN2—11	99.7	Actinobacteria
6.20, five others	Arthrobacter flavus	100	Actinobacteria
10.9	Isosphaera pallida Schlesner strain 657	82.7, 88.6	Planctomycetes

^aIdentical sequence to those isolated under aerobic conditions

mostly greater than 96%, except for a strain related to *Duganella zoogloeoides* (93.9%), a novel representative of the *Planctomycetales* sharing less than 90% similarity with a German planctomycete isolate (Griepenburg et al. 1996), and *Isosphera pallida*, a thermophilic planctomycete (82.7% similarity). The taxonomic evaluation of other aerobic isolates is presently under investigation (Tindall et al., unpublished).

Analysis of 16S rDNA clone libraries

Bacteria

About 378 clone inserts were partially sequenced, 325 of which were found to contain the amplified 16S rDNA frag-

ment (320 nucleotides from the 5'-terminus). This stretch contains variable regions (positions around 100 and 200), which not only discriminate well between closely related species but in most cases will also underestimate the degree of sequence similarity of almost complete sequences by 1%–12% for strains belonging to different phyla. At the intraphylum level, individual species show as much as 8% differences because in different taxa the variable regions are located at different regions of the 16S rDNA molecule (Stackebrandt and Rainey 1995). For some pairs of organisms belonging to different phyla, similarities based upon partial sequences are slightly higher than those based upon almost complete sequences (e.g., *E. coli* and *Cytophaga hutchensonii*). With a single exception, the similarity values determined for a small portion only of the molecule may

^bStrains were first enriched at 8°C but subsequently isolated at 15°C

differ significantly among taxa, so we have refrained from showing a phylogenetic tree of the clone sequences and the cultured organisms for which the highest matching similarity has been scored.

Table 3 (column 4) lists the percentage similarities between clones or representatives of clone groups and the sequence of a described species or, in some cases, deposited clone sequences generated in another molecular environmental study. Analysis using BLAST, RDP, ARB, and DSMZ databases of 16S rDNA sequences agree in those cases in which the different databases contain the same selection of reference sequences. Comparing clone sequences and the 16S rDNA of its closest currently cultured relative, the range is between 77.9% and 100%. A group of clone sequences that form an exclusive 16S rDNA sequence cluster with its nearest neighbor is termed a clone cluster (Table 3, column 3). The number of clones is shown in column 4, which also indicates, in parentheses, the number of individual potential species (see following), defined as clone sequences that share greater than 98% similarity (column 5). This method may well underestimate the actual number of species (Stackebrandt and Goebel 1994) but serves as a working hypothesis.

The range of similarity values of partially sequenced 16S rDNA of type strains belonging to different subclasses of Proteobacteria, Gram-positive bacteria, and the Cytophaga-Flavobacteria-Bacteroides (CBF) complex is generally less than 80%, whereas within these higher taxonomic clusters the values are generally greater than 80%. It is obvious from the data shown in Table 3 that most sequences fall into the radiation of the higher taxa of Proteobacteria, Gram-positive bacteria, CBF, and Verrucomicrobiales. Within each higher taxon, different sublines are represented, such as four of the five subclasses of the class Proteobacteria, low- and high G+C mol% Gram-positive bacteria (Clostridium/Bacillus and Actinobacteria, respectively), and each of the three main genera of the CBF complex. These clone clusters may contain subgroups of clones sharing greater than 98% similarity. The compilation in Table 3 indicates that many clone sequences are very similar to the sequence of species of described genera, although only the highest score is presented. Affiliations below 80% (Acidomicrobium ferrooxidans, Clavibacter michiganense, Stigmatella aurantiaca) are considered highly tentative and only given because different search methods agree, by and large, in their analysis.

Although not always deducible with a high degree of confidence, the affiliation of clone sequences to those of described taxa indicates the presence of anaerobic and aerobic species. The anaerobes are mainly affiliated to genera of the Clostridium/Bacillus subphylum (136 clones), e.g., Clostridium, Eubacterium, Sporomusa, Ruminococcus, Desulfosporosinus, Acidaminobacter, and Acetobacterium, as well as to the Bacteroides subphylum (59 clones). Others originate from the facultative anaerobes Rhodopseudomonas (α-Proteobacteria) as well from the obligate anaerobes Desulfomonile and Pelobacter (σ-Proteobacteria). Aerobic clones originate mainly from members of the taxa Proteobacteria, Cytophaga, Flavobacteria, and Verrucomi-

crobiales. In some cases the closest relatives of the Antarctic clone sequences are other clone sequences and uncultured bacteria, e.g., of the order *Verrucomicrobiales*. As observed among the cellular organisms, some of these relatives have been reported to originate from the Antarctic continent.

On the basis of complete 16S rDNA sequences, a binary similarity value of 97.5% indicates the presence of two distinct species (Stackebrandt and Goebel 1994). As differences in similarity values between partial and almost complete sequences are less significant for highly related sequences than for unrelated organisms, it is assumed here that the level of about 98% similarity to its nearest neighbor signals the presence of at least one potential new species thriving in the mat sample. In contrast to the situation found among cultured strains, in which about half the strains represent potentially new species, the vast majority of clone sequences appear to represent novel species. Exceptions are clones related to *Chelatobacter heintzii*, *Rhodoferax antarcticus*, *Aquaspirillum delicatum*, and *Clostridium estertheticum*.

The 325 sequences obtained belong to 133 potential species, the majority of which are represented only once (76 clones) or twice (32 clone pairs). Potential species containing a high number of clone sequences are much less frequent, such as those related to Bacteroides forsythus (48 sequences), Acetonema longum (25), Rhodoferax fermentans (22), and the uncultured bacterium CO19 (16). Figure 1 displays the diversity of 8 phylospecies and 4 isolates that are most closely related to C. estertheticum and other members of Clostridium group If (Stackebrandt and Hippe 2000). Analysis of ten sequencing gels, containing 36 clones each, allows an estimation of whether the sequences of 325 clones examined give an approximation of the phylogenetic diversity of the clone library. Figure 2 displays the increase in the diversity of clone clusters revealed by the analysis of each individual batch of 36 sequences as compared to the number of clone clusters of the previous batch. Although the first gel indicated the presence of 20 individual clone clusters, between 1 and 10 novel clone clusters were detected subsequently with each new batch. Thus, it can be assumed that the diversity is even higher than that determined by the exploration of 70 clone clusters (Table 3), and it is significantly higher when potential species are used as a measure of diversity.

Archaea

Analysis of 72 clones of a clone library generated with Archaea-specific primers revealed the presence of two different phylotaxa, the majority of clones being distantly related to *Methanoculleus palmolei* (89%–92%), whereas the others were related to the Antarctic clone sequence Ant 12 antarctic clone 371 (Table 3). A probe specific for *M. palmolei/M. olentangyi* was synthesized and hybridized against 319 clones of the library. More than 90% of the clones could be affiliated to this and possibly closely related taxa, indicating the restricted diversity of amplified archaeal rDNA sequences. The fact that the mat sample was filtered through a 5-μm filter suggests that methano-

Table 3. Phylogenetic affiliation of partial 16S rDNA clone sequences, the frequency of occurrence in the clone library, and range of intraclone cluster similarity

Representative clone of clone cluster and 16S rDNA accession numbers	Nearest phylogenetic neighbor	Range of similarity to nearest neighbor (%)	Number of clones per cluster (number of potential species)	Range of intraclone cluster similarity (%)
BACTERIA				
α-Proteobacteria				
161ev, AJ287618	Chelatobacter heintzii	99.3	1	
30ev, AJ287619	Paracoccus versutus	94.6	5 (1)	100
250ev, AJ287620	Rhodobacter capsulatus	96.6	1	
384ev, AJ287621, AJ287622	Holospora obtusa	83.3-86.4	2(2)	81.9
144ev, AJ287623	Sphingomonas natatoria	90.7–96.4	5 (3)	94.5–100
58ev, AJ287624	Sphingomonas suberifaciens	96.9	1	
417ev, AJ287625	Sphingomonas asaccharolytica	95.0	1	
407ev, AJ287626	Caulobacter vibrioides	85.7	1	
423ev, AJ287627	Rhodopseudomonas acidophila	86.9	1	
251ev, AJ287628	Hyphomonas oceanitis	88.7	1	
322ev, AJ287629	Pedomicrobium australicum	87.5	1	
β-Proteobacteria			//	
222ev, AJ287635	Rhodoferax fermentans	95.7–97.1	22 (1)	98.0–100
184ev, AJ287646	Rhodoferax antarcticus	98.7–100	6(1)	98.7–99.4
101ev, AJ287636	Propionvibrio dicarboxylicus	96.4	3(1)	100
183ev, AJ287637, AJ287638	Nitrosospira multiformis	86.5–88.4	2 (2)	91.2
255ev, AJ287639	Ideonella dechloratans	95.6	1	100
350ev, AJ287640	Polaromonas vacuolata	92.5	2(1)	100
394ev, AJ287641	Aquaspirillum delicatum	97.8	1	
γ-Proteobacteria	V d II'I'	00.5	1	
187ev, AJ287655	Xanthomonas albilineans	80.5 92.7–95.8	1	92.4
245ev, AJ287656	Legionella rubrilucens	92.7–93.8 86.5	2 (1) 1	92.4
328ev, AJ287658 σ-Proteobacteria	Methylocaldum szegediense	00.3	1	
305ev, AJ287630	Bdellovibrio bacteriovorus	86.8	1	
244ev, AJ287631	Pelobacter propionicus	95.8	2(1)	100
123ev, AJ287632	Stigmatella aurantiaca	79.9	2(1)	100
265ev, AJ287633	Myxococcus xanthus	86.8	1	100
86ev, AJ287634	Desulfomonile tiedjei	80.6	1	
Verrucomicrobiales	Description iterates	00.0	1	
47ev, AJ287649	Mc17	82.7-83.1	2(1)	99.0
90ev, AJ287647, AJ287648, AJ287650	Verrucomicrobium spinosum	80.9–82.7	3(2)	83.9–98.4
15ev, AJ287651, AJ287652	CO19, uncultured bacterium	85.0–91.0	17 (2)	88.4–100
200ev, AJ287653	LD19, unidentified bacterium	85.3	1	
49ev, AJ287654, AJ287659	LCK 04, uncultured freshwater	80.9-85.9	14(2)	94.8-100
,	bacterium		· /	
Cytophaga-Flavobacteria-Bacteroides				
122ev, AJ287664, AJ287665,	Bacteroides forsythus	83.9-86.6	58 (4)	92.6-100
AJ287676-AJ2878				
65ev, AJ287667	Bacteroides splanchnicus	81.6	1	
22ev, AJ287675	Cytophaga hutchinsonii	84.4-84.8	2(1)	98.5
429ev, AJ287662, AJ287663	Flavobacterium ferrugineum	87.5-87.8	2(2)	93.9
421ev, AJ287674	Flavobacterium hibernum	92.8	1	
240ev, AJ287673	Flavobacterium johnsoniae	93.8	1	
168ev, AJ287661	Flectobacillus major	87.5	1	
204ev, AJ287671, AJ287672	Flexibacter aurantiacus	91.5–94.2	2(2)	90.1
61ev, AJ287668, AJ287669	LCK 73, uncultured marine	88.2–96.0	10(2)	89.6–99.7
	bacterium			
87ev, AJ287670	Marinilabilia agarovorans	81.3	1	
Clostridium-Bacillus subline				
306ev, AJ287704, AJ287746, AJ287747	"Acetivibrio agarovorans"	84.5–88.6	3 (2)	81.6–82.6
303ev, AJ287708	Acetobacterium bakii	97.0–97.3	2(1)	99.7
414ev, AJ287709	Acetobacterium woodii	96.5	1	0.5 7 400
108ev, AJ287698-AJ287700	Acetonema longum	85.7–89.2	29 (4)	93.5–100
355ev, AJ287712-AJ287715	Acidaminobacter	82.4–88.0	7 (4)	86.3–98.8
	hydrogenoformans			

Table 3. (Continued)

Representative clone of clone cluster and 16S rDNA accession numbers	Nearest phylogenetic neighbor	Range of similarity to nearest neighbor (%)	Number of clones per cluster (number of potential species)	Range of intraclone cluster similarity (%)
248ev, AJ287703	Caloramator indicus	85.3	1	
146ev, AJ287687		89.7	1	
400ev, AJ287732-AJ287739	Clostridium estertheticum	93.8–97.5	14 (8)	93.2–100
105ev, AJ287723-AJ287729	Clostridium fallax	91.0-93.2	12 (5)	84.9–100
29ev, AJ287681	Clostridium lentocellum	86.9	2(1)	98.5
274ev, AJ287721	Clostridium limosum	92.0	1	
92ev, AJ287730, AJ287731	Clostridium subterminale	90.0-91.0	2(2)	95.0
98ev, AJ287707	Clostridium termitides	94.2	1	
10ev, AJ287706, AJ287748, AJ287749	Clostridium viride	83.1-85.5	5 (4)	82.5-99.1
82ev, AJ287692 AJ287701, AJ287744,	Dendrosporobacter	88.2-91.3	7 (4)	89.9–98.8
AJ287745	quericolum			
358ev, AJ287702	Desulfosporosinus orientis	93.3	1	
20ev, AJ287682-AJ287686	Eubacterium contortum	84.8-89.4	17 (6)	85.5-99.7
437ev, AJ287705	Eubacterium desmolans	82.4	2(1)	100
430ev, AJ287710	Eubacterium saburreum	81.9	2(1)	100
372ev, AJ287750	Eubacterium (unidentified)	_	1	
433ev, AJ287679, AJ287680	LB 313 uncultured Antarctic	82.1-82.8	3 (3)	86.9-95.7
	bacterium			
444ev, AJ287688	Ruminococcus hydrogenotrophicus	84.5	2 (1)	100
411ev, AJ287693, AJ287694	Sporomusa malonica	87.6-89.4	11 (4)	94.6-99.4
75ev, AJ287697, AJ287740	Sporomusa silvacetica	89.0-90.6	2(2)	92.7
102ev, AJ287689-AJ287691, AJ287741-AJ287743	Sporomusa sphaeroides	84.5–89.4	7 (4)	94.0–99.7
Actinobacteria				
8ev	Acidimicrobium ferrooxidans	77.9	1	
420ev	Clavibacter michiganense	79.5	1	
120ev, AJ287660	MC 87	86.1	1	
ARCHAEA				
a50ev	Ant12 Antarctic clone 371	97.9–98.6	6 (1)	99.3–100
a60ev	Methanoculleus palmolei	89.0-92.2	66 (2)	97.4–99.3
New group				
155ev	Unclassified clone	-	2(1)	100

Fig. 1. Comparative analysis of partial 16S rDNA sequences (350 nucleotides from the 5'-terminus) of Clostridium species of cluster If (Stackebrandt and Hippe 2000), as well as isolates and some 16S rDNA clone sequences from Lake Fryxell shown to be related to Clostridium estertheticum, with the distance matrix analysis using the neighbor-joining method (De Soete 1983) and Jukes and Cantor correction (1969) to compensate for different evolutionary rates. Bar indicates 2% nucleotide substitutions; sp, potential species (see Table 3; C. estertheticum)

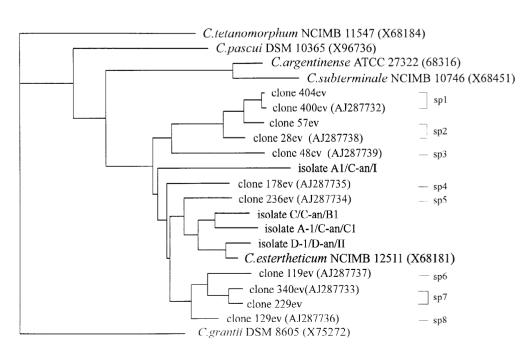
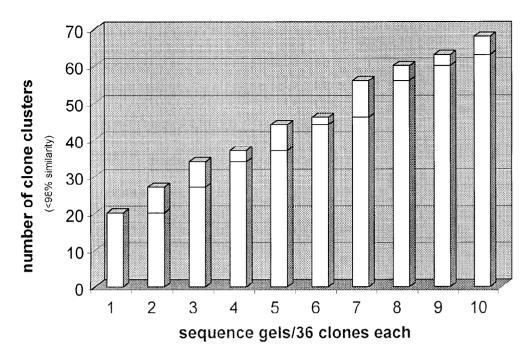


Fig. 2. Rarefaction curve showing the increase of higher taxonomic clusters in ten subsequently analyzed sequencing gels (36 sequences each). The *top part* of each column indicates the fraction of novel clusters as compared to the total number in the previously analyzed gel



gens are free-living and do not originate from a protozoa-intracellular methanogen association.

Discussion

The phylogenetic diversity of bacteria at both the species level and that of higher taxa may only be considered surprising if the Antarctic lakes are considered to be a virtually sterile environment. This assumption is certainly not true for moats that are formed in summer around the edges. Although Lake Fryxell itself is covered by perennial ice 3– 4.5 m thick, the moat sites allow material to be transported into the lake from glaciers and land by streams and for airborne organisms to be carried by strong katabatic winds from as far afield as the South American continent. Sediment deposited on the ice surface migrates downward during the Antarctic summer, providing a constant input of inorganic and organic material, including microorganisms. In contrast to other Antarctic lakes, Lake Fryxell is old (10,000±9,000 years; Lyons et al. 1998), although there is evidence that Lake Fryxell became dry about 1,000-3,000 years ago and that the lake has refilled since (Chinn 1993; McKnight et al. 1998). The sampling site is close to the inflow of Huey Creek and Canada Stream, which contribute as much as 6% and 20%, respectively, of the annual stream flow into the lake, although these values fluctuate significantly depending on the year in which data have been generated (Conovitz et al. 1998). These streams not only discharge inorganic (PO₄³⁻ and NO₃⁻) compounds but also a rich spectrum of organic material by the inflow of primary producers, such as algae and cyanobacteria (McKnight et al. 1998; Hawes and Howard-Williams 1998). On a volumetric basis, Fryxell is the most productive lake in the McMurdo Dry Valleys (James et al. 1998). The lake contains a complex protistan community (Laybourn-Parry et al. 1997), although no reports are available on prokaryotic diversity.

The large and diverse spectrum of microorganisms detected via 16S rDNA sequences and isolated cultures demonstrates the enormous complexity of the microbial community in the Antarctic lake mat. As already described for other studies comparing the 16S rDNA from prokaryotic cellular organisms and uncultured representatives, the match is low (Liesack and Stackebrandt 1992; Pukall et al. 1998; Rheims et al. 1998). A few taxa only were recovered by both strategies, here exemplified by the presence of sequences related to Flavobacterium hibernum and Clostridium estertheticum. The sequences of organisms that grow well under laboratory conditions, e.g., those related to Arthrobacter flavus, Flavobacterium hibernum, and Janthinobacterium lividum, are rarely, if at all, represented in clone libraries. If they are represented, their occurrence may be indicated by a single clone sequence only (i.e., F. hibernum).

It is interesting to note that some potential species belong to gliding bacteria (Stigmatella, Myxococcus, Cytophaga, Flavobacterium, Marinilabilia, and Flexibacter). Several psychrophilic and psychrotolerant cultured organisms that have been described recently from Antarctic environments, including sea ice, lake water and sediments, and soil and sandstone, are either members of the mat community or are at least represented by their 16S rDNA sequence. Examples are Flavobacterium hibernum, a gliding Gram-negative bacterium isolated from a freshwater

lake (McCammon et al. 1998); Cryobacterium psychrophilum, a soil actinobacterium (Suzuki et al. 1997); Psychrobacter glacincola (Bowman et al. 1997e), a halotolerant, lipolytic, and asaccharolytic bacterium from sea ice environments; Carnobacterium alterfunditum (Franzman et al. 1991), a saccharolytic, lactic acid-producing facultative anaerobe from anoxic waters in Ace Lake, Vestfold Hills; Clostridium estertheticum (Collins et al. 1992), a saccharolytic anaerobe originally isolated from vacuum-packed meat in the UK, but subsequently detected by sequence analysis of 16S rDNA clones in Lake Pendant; C. vincentii (Mountfort et al. 1998), a saccharolytic anaerobe from a low-salinity pond sediment of the McMurdo Ice Shelf; and Arthrobacter flavus (Reddy et al. 2000).

Although it is not possible to deduce the physiological properties of an organism from the phylogenetic position of its 16S rDNA when the similarities to its nearest cultured neighbor are distant, some general features of elements of the food web known to occur in mats can be observed. The sample appears to be rich in anaerobic fermenters, as exemplified by the presence of members of the *Clostridium* line of descent of Gram-positive organisms and members of Bacteroides. The community contains putative strains related to anaerobic saccharolytic organisms (e.g., C. estertheticum, C. fallax, C. lentocellum, Eubacterium contortum, and Eubacterium saburreum) forming CO₂, H₂, and C₁-C₄ acids and alcohols, which in turn are metabolized by other anaerobic members of the community (e.g., methanogens, acetogens [Sporomusa, Acetonema, Acetobacterium]), as well as by aerobes, facultative anaerobes, and phototrophic organisms. Polysaccharides may be derived from primary producers, described to be abundant in Lake Fryxell, and decomposers, e.g., C. lentocellum, C. vincentii, and C. termitidis-like clostridia. Other bacteria are proteolytic (C. limosum, C. subterminale) or specialists, thriving on a restricted number of compounds only (e.g., *Pelobacter* sp.) The finding of some sequences related to those of sulfur compound-metabolizing organisms (Desulfomonile sp., Desulfosporosinus, and the aerobic Bosea thiooxidans) may indicate the presence of a sulfur cycle. The occurrence of aerobic organisms may be explained not only by the sedimentation effect but also by the sampling site, which is located in the shallow part of a moated zone; in this case the aerobic organisms are part of the metabolically active community in a structured mat, serving as a sink for gases, carbon, and other compounds as well as a nutrient source. The presence of ammonium oxidizers, reported to be abundant in the adjacent Lake Bonney (Voytek et al. 1998), and of other bacteria involved in the nitrogen cycle was not obvious from the 16S rDNA sequence information.

Comparison of the phylogenetic diversity of uncultured organisms of the Lake Fryxell mat sample with that of different sediments of hypersaline and marine-type salinity meromictic Antarctic lakes of the Vestfold Hills system (Bowman et al. 2000) reveals almost no similarity. Members of *Proteobacteria*, low G+C gram-positive bacteria, *Cytophagales*, and a few *Actinobacteria* were also found in the hypersaline lakes, but the phylogenetic affiliation of clones was different. Depending on the lake, the sediments also

contained cyanobacteria/chloroplasts, including members of *Prochlorococcus*, σ-*Proteobacteria*, *Spirochaetales*, and *Chlamydiales*, as well as different euryarchaeal sequences. A large number of *Halobacteriales*-related clone sequences were present in Ekho Lakes. As discussed by Bowman (2000) for other Antarctic lakes, the presence of aerobic bacteria in anaerobic sediments, detected in the Lake Fryxell mat and in sediments of other Antarctic lakes, may be the result of their accumulation followed by slow decomposition of organic carbon. Comparison of the phylogenetic affiliation of the Lake Fryxell clone sequences to their nearest neighbors (Table 3 of this study) with those of clone sequences depicted in 16S rDNA dendrograms of Bowman et al. (2000) does not, except for two clones, indicate a close relationship.

A direct comparison of clone sequences generated in these studies is not possible because Bowman and coworkers based their analysis on a rDNA stretch ranging from position 522 to 1,500 whereas Lake Fryxell clones cover region positions 20 to 350. The only direct comparison can be made on the three C. estertheticum isolates, for which almost complete sequences have been generated, and clones PENDANT-1 (AF42915) and PENDANT-16 (AF14298). High similarity values, ranging from 98.6 to 99.3, indicate that strains related to the type strain of C. estertheticum thrive under different physiological conditions such as those found in Lake Pendant (2.3% salinity) and Lake Fryxell (freshwater). The diversity of clone sequences shown to be specifically related to C. estertheticum (Fig. 1) reveals a phenomenon that is commonly observed in 16S rDNA clone libraries of significantly different environmental samples (Pukall et al. 1998; Rheims and Stackebrandt 1998; Choi et al. 1994): a large number of clones are retrieved that possess only minor differences in their 16S rDNA. As demonstrated with Alteromonas macleodii clones (Pukall et al. 1998), some of the difference can be traced to operon microheterogeneity, but other differences might be interpreted as strain differences such as those also observed in the *C. estertheticum* isolates. This genomic diversity of phyloclusters may extend to other genes, which would allow a population of strains to react more flexibly to changes of physical and chemical conditions.

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