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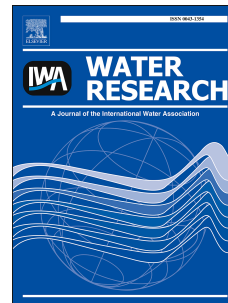
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Elvina Lee, Una M. Ryan, Paul Monis, Glenn B. McGregor, Andrew Bath, Cameron Gordon, Andrea Papparini



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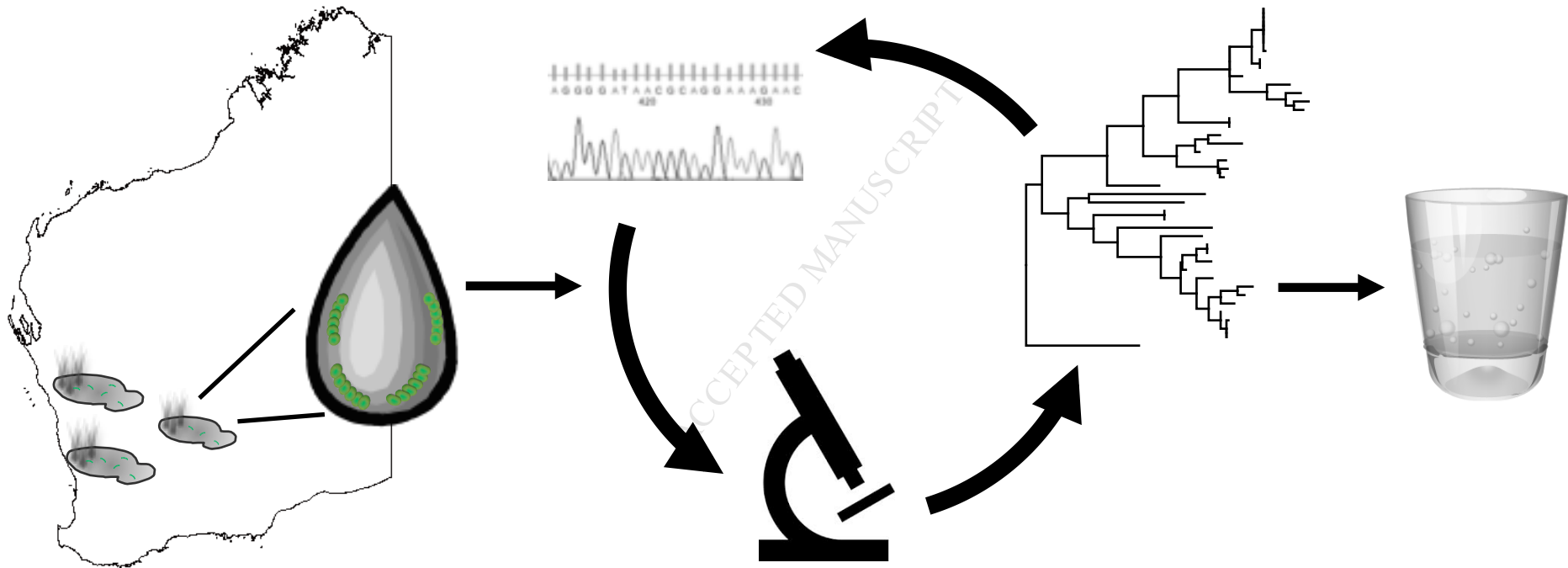
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1 **Polyphasic identification of cyanobacterial isolates from**

2 **Australia**

3

4 Elvina Lee^a, Una M Ryan^a, Paul Monis^b, Glenn B McGregor^c,

5 Andrew Bath^d, Cameron Gordon^d, Andrea Papparini^{a,*}

6

7 ^a School of Veterinary and Life Sciences, , Murdoch

8 University, Murdoch, Western Australia, 6150

9 ^b Australian Water Quality Centre, South Australian Water

10 Corporation, 250 Victoria Square, Adelaide, 5000

11 ^c Department of Science, Information Technology, Innovation

12 and the Arts, GPO Box 5078, Brisbane Queensland 4001

13 ^d Drinking Water Quality Branch, Water Corporation, 629

14 Newcastle Street, Leederville, Western Australia 6007

15 Corresponding author. Mailing address: School of Veterinary

16 and Life Sciences, Murdoch University, 90 South Street,

17 Murdoch, Western Australia 6150, Australia. Tel.: +61 89360

18 6650; Fax: +61 89360 6628. E-mail address:

19 a.paparini@murdoch.edu.au

20

21 **Abstract**

22
23 Reliable identification of cyanobacterial isolates has significant
24 socio-economic implications as many bloom-forming species
25 affect the aesthetics and safety of drinking water, through the
26 production of taste and odour compounds or toxic metabolites.
27 The limitations of morphological identification have promoted
28 the application of molecular tools, and encouraged the adoption
29 of combined (polyphasic) approaches that include both
30 microscopy– and DNA–based analyses. In this context, the
31 rapid expansion of available sequence data is expected to allow
32 increasingly reliable identification of cyanobacteria, and
33 ultimately resolve current discrepancies between the two
34 approaches.

35 In the present study morphological and molecular
36 characterisations of cyanobacterial isolates (n=39), collected
37 from various freshwater sites in Australia, were compared.
38 Sequences were obtained for the small ribosomal subunit RNA
39 gene (16S rDNA) (n=36), the DNA-dependent RNA
40 polymerase gene (*rpoC1*) (n=22), and the phycocyanin operon,
41 with its intergenic spacer region (*cpcBA-IGS*) (n= 19).
42 Phylogenetic analyses identified three cyanobacterial orders:
43 the Chroococcales (n=8), Oscillatoriales (n=6), and Nostocales
44 (n=25). Interestingly, multiple novel genotypes were identified,
45 with 22% of the strains (17/77) having <95% similarity to
46 available sequences in GenBank.

47 Morphological and molecular data were in agreement at the
48 species level for only 26% of the isolates obtained (10/39),
49 while agreement at the genus level was obtained for 31%
50 (12/39). Confident identification of the remaining 44% of the
51 strains (17/39) beyond the order level was not possible. The
52 present study demonstrates that, despite the taxonomic
53 revisions, and advances in molecular-, and bioinformatics-
54 tools, the lack of reliable morphological features, culture-
55 induced pleomorphism, and proportion of misidentified or
56 poorly described sequences in GenBank, still represent
57 significant factors, impeding the confident identification of
58 cyanobacteria species.

59

60 **Keywords**

61 Cyanobacteria, morphology, molecular phylogeny,
62 identification, 16S rDNA, *rpoC1*, phycocyanin operon

63 1. Introduction

64
65 Cyanobacteria are a group of ubiquitous photosynthetic
66 prokaryotes, found in all types of aquatic environments
67 (Whitton and Potts, 2000). Interest in this phylum has increased
68 due to (i) their ancient evolutionary origins (Tomitani et al.,
69 2006), (ii) their ecological role as oxygen producers, and
70 atmospheric nitrogen- and carbon-fixers (Reynolds, 2006),
71 (iii) the socio-economic impact on various industries (e.g.
72 water, tourism and food) of bloom-forming producers of toxins
73 and/or odorous metabolites (Granéli and Turner, 2006), and
74 (iv) their application as a source of biofuels and
75 pharmaceuticals (Borowitzka, 1995; Li et al., 2008).

76 Cyanobacteria identification, enumeration and classification
77 have traditionally been based on light-microscopy observations,
78 using morphological characteristics such as cell size, cell
79 fission type, trichome width, shape of the terminal cells, shape,
80 size and position of specialised cells such as akinetes and
81 heterocytes, presence of aerotopes etc. (Castenholz, 2001).

82 However, this approach requires considerable operator skill and
83 time; with distinctive phenotypic characteristics varying
84 significantly within species, or even being lost, due to
85 environmental or culture conditions, growth phase, use of
86 fixatives etc. (Lyra et al., 2001; Whitton and Potts, 2000).

87 Furthermore, manifestation of ecotypes, or microbial
88 pleomorphism during long-term cultivation, has resulted in a

89 large number of strains being misidentified, with disagreeing
90 nomenclature and morphological descriptions (Komárek, 2006;
91 Komárek, 2010).

92 The well-known limitations to morphology-based identification
93 promoted the development of DNA-based approaches, as a
94 means of reliably identifying cyanobacterial isolates (Valério et
95 al., 2009; Willame et al., 2006). The small ribosomal subunit
96 RNA gene (16S rDNA), together with its internal transcribed
97 spacer (ITS) region, have been widely used for taxonomic
98 purposes, to profile complex prokaryotic communities, and
99 infer phylogenetic relationships (Castenholz, 2001; Coenye and
100 Vandamme, 2003; Komárek, 2006). Other commonly used loci
101 include the more discriminatory protein-coding gamma subunit
102 of the DNA-dependent RNA polymerase (*rpoC1*) (Fergusson
103 and Saint, 2000), and the phycocyanin operon, consisting of the
104 two *cpcB-cpcA* genes with their variable intergenic region (PC-
105 IGS) (Neilan et al., 1995).

106 Previous studies have shown that identification of unknown
107 isolates can be hampered by incomplete (or unreliable)
108 morphological descriptions being provided for the sequenced
109 strains, incorrect identification of strains in culture collections,
110 and/or simply, by the lack of proper reference strains *tout court*
111 (Komárek, 2006; Komárek, 2010; Rajaniemi et al., 2005).

112 Much has been done to overcome these problems, such as the
113 proposal of the International Code of Nomenclature for algae,

114 fungi, and plants (Castenholz and Norris, 2005; McNeill et al.,
115 2012; Oren, 2004; 2011; Oren and Tindall, 2005), and the
116 International Code of Nomenclature of Bacteria which groups
117 cyanobacteria into subsections (Castenholz, 2001), and the
118 resulting revisions to cyanobacteria nomenclature and
119 classification (Anagnostidis, 2001; Otsuka et al., 2001;
120 Rajaniemi et al., 2005; Suda et al., 2002). However, this has
121 also resulted in new taxa being described using a combination
122 of both codes, causing further confusion (Komárek, 2010).
123 With time, the rapid expansion of available sequence data (Fig.
124 1) is expected to allow increasingly accurate molecular
125 identification of cyanobacteria, and help in resolving the
126 discrepancies between the microscopy and molecular
127 approaches. In light of the current maturity of sequence
128 databases, taxonomy and molecular tools (Komárek et al.,
129 2011; Siegesmund et al., 2008; Strunecky et al., 2011; Wacklin
130 et al., 2009), the aim of this study was to determine how well
131 morphological and molecular tools for the identification of
132 cyanobacteria isolates corroborate. To this end, cyanobacteria
133 were isolated from randomly selected locations in Western
134 Australia, from which there have been few cyanobacteria
135 studies, for use in this study.

136 **2. Materials and Methods**

137 **2.1 Isolation and cultivation of cyanobacterial strains**

138 Freshwater samples (n=50; 1 L each) were collected between
139 November 2010 and June 2011, from various randomly
140 selected locations in Western Australia, including: (i) protected
141 freshwater reservoirs in the Great Southern region, with
142 restricted access and excellent water quality (GS samples;
143 n=6); (ii) urban lentic systems, in the Perth metropolitan area,
144 with free public access (n=3); (iii) shallow, rural, lotic systems,
145 which included a drain and a river (n=2) (Table 1). For sample
146 enrichment, water was pre-filtered through qualitative filter
147 paper Number 1 (Advantec, Japan), and sterile 0.2 μm and 0.45
148 μm mixed cellulose ester (MCE) filter membranes (Advantec,
149 Japan). Each filter was divided into thirds and placed into
150 ASM-1 medium (Gorham et al., 1964) (pH adjusted to 7.6), or
151 modified ASM-1 medium (with no, or 200 μM sodium nitrate),
152 and were allowed to grow for a fortnight. Strains were isolated
153 using traditional *ad hoc* methods such as: i) serial dilution to
154 extinction, ii) micromanipulation (Narishige, Japan), iii)
155 sequential centrifugation, iv) differential filtration, and v) agar
156 plate streaking. After repeated passages, isolates were finally
157 transferred into 75 cm^3 culture flasks (Greiner Bio-One,
158 Germany) for long-term cultivation, when a single morphotype
159 was stably observed.

160 In addition to the Western Australian isolates, strains from the
161 culture collection at the Australian Water Quality Centre
162 (AWQC), which were mostly collected in the early-mid 1990s
163 during surveys of Australian freshwater sources, were also
164 included in the study. The surveys included: protected and open
165 freshwater reservoirs from New South Wales, Victoria and
166 South Australia (n=6), open rural lentic systems from New
167 South Wales (n=2), and open rural lotic systems from New
168 South Wales and Victoria (n=2) (Table 1). AWQC isolates
169 were grown in 50 cm³ tissue culture flasks with vented lids
170 (Greiner Bio-one, Germany), containing 20–30 mL of ASM-1
171 medium (pH adjusted to 7.6). Cultures were incubated at 20°C
172 under a photon irradiance of 20 $\mu\text{Mm}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ provided by cool
173 white light (16 h/8 h light/dark cycle).

174 **2.2 Microscopic identification and molecular analyses**

175 After obtaining a stable homogenous phenotype and steady
176 growth, each isolate was subcultured into 50 cm³ tissue culture
177 flasks, containing, approximately, the same number of
178 cells/filaments, and the same medium. Microscopic
179 identification of these sister cultures was performed, by two
180 independent laboratories. Observations were performed by light
181 microscopy at various magnifications on a large number of live
182 cells (i.e., unfixed), either directly in the culture flask, or by
183 making multiple fresh mounts of the cultures.

184 For molecular analyses, aliquots of cyanobacterial biomass (25
185 mL of cell suspension, or ~5 g of microbial mats) were
186 transferred into sterile 50 mL polypropylene tubes (Greiner
187 Bio-One, Germany). The tubes were centrifuged at maximum
188 speed (4,050 rcf, 30 *min*) using an Allegra X-15R (Beckman
189 Coulter, USA), and DNA was extracted from the pellet, using
190 commercially available DNA extraction kits (Promega, USA or
191 Qiagen, USA) according to the manufacturers' protocols,
192 except that the pellet was digested with proteinase-K overnight.
193 All PCR reactions were run on a G-Storm GS1 standard block
194 thermal cycler (Kapa Biosystems, USA). A partial fragment
195 (313 bp) of the 16S rDNA hypervariable region was amplified
196 using the cyanobacterial-specific PCR protocol previously
197 described (McGregor and Rasmussen, 2008), except that the
198 reverse primers 781R(a) and 781(b) (Nübel et al., 1997) were
199 used instead. Amplification of *rpoC1* (409bp) was performed
200 using cyanobacteria-specific primers *rpoC1-1* and *rpoC1-T*
201 (Palenik and Haselkorn, 1992). A partial fragment (423bp) of
202 the phycocyanin intergenic spacer region (*cpcBA-IGS*) and
203 corresponding flanking regions *cpcB* and *cpcA* was amplified
204 using the primers *cpcBF* (UPF) and *cpcAR* (URP) as described
205 by Robertson et al. (2001). Amplicons were visualised by 1%
206 agarose gel electrophoresis containing SYBR Safe Gel Stain
207 (Invitrogen, USA) in a dark reader trans-illuminator (Clare
208 Chemical Research, USA). Band products corresponding to the

209 expected length were excised from the gel, using a new scalpel
210 blade for each sample. These products were then purified using
211 a MO BIO UltraClean DNA purification kit (MOBIO
212 Laboratories, USA), and sequenced, bi-directionally, using an
213 ABI Prism Terminator Cycle Sequencing kit (Applied
214 Biosystems, USA), on an Applied Biosystem 3730 DNA
215 Analyzer. Sequencing chromatograms were then analysed by
216 FinchTV 1.4
217 (<http://www.geospiza.com/Products/finchtv.shtml>), and
218 imported into Bioedit Sequence Alignment Editor (Hall, 1999)
219 to generate one consensus sequence (per locus) for each isolate.

220

221 **2.3 Phylogenetic analysis**

222 Phylogenetic analyses were conducted on the sequences
223 obtained during the present study (GenBank accession numbers
224 JQ811771 to JQ811820) and retrieved from GenBank, using
225 the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST). MEGA 5
226 (Tamura et al., 2011) was used for sequence manipulations,
227 alignments by CLUSTAL W (Larkin et al., 2007) and the *p*-
228 distance model (Kimura, 1980) was used for the calculation of
229 the pair-wise evolutionary distances. Phylogenetic analyses of
230 aligned sequences were conducted using distance (Neighbour-
231 Joining), maximum parsimony (MP) and maximum likelihood
232 (ML) methods, in MEGA 5 (Kimura, 1980); tree reliability was
233 evaluated with bootstrap analysis of 500 replicates. For the

234 purpose of molecular identification, a percentage molecular
235 similarity cutoff of 98% and 95% for species and genus
236 identification respectively was used for the 16S rDNA
237 (Stackebrandt and Goebel, 1994). As a result of the much
238 smaller number of sequences available (Fig. 1), 95% and 90%
239 similarity values respectively were used for species and genus
240 identification for the *rpoC1* and *cpcBA*-IGS loci. These values
241 were chosen based on the genetic distance for species and
242 genus measured from the dataset used to generate the trees
243 (Fig. 4 and 5).

244 **3. Results**

245 From the 11 Western Australia sampling sites, 29 isolates were
246 obtained; of these, 12 were obtained from the protected
247 reservoirs, five from urban lentic systems, and 12 from rural
248 lotic waters. The Western Australian isolates were studied
249 together with the 10 cyanobacteria isolates from the AWQC
250 (Table 1).

251

252 **3.1 Comparison of morphological data**

253 All 39 isolates were examined and identified morphologically:
254 17 isolates were analysed by two independent taxonomists
255 (replicate identifications), while 22 isolates were analysed by
256 either one of the two taxonomists (unique identifications) (Fig
257 2, Table 2).

258 Overall, only 46% of the isolates (18/39) were morphologically
259 identified to species level by at least one taxonomist; the
260 remaining isolates (54%; 21/39) were identified only to the
261 genus level (Table 2). For the 17 isolates that were analysed by
262 both taxonomists, morphological identifications were in
263 complete agreement for three isolates (18%, 3/17): Buayanup
264 drain type 2 (*Anabaena torulosa*), Hyde Park type 1
265 (*Anabaenopsis elenkini*), and Vasse River type 6
266 (*Sphaerospermopsis aphanizomenoides*) (Fig. 2, Table 2).
267 Baldwin Park type 3 was also identified to the species level by
268 both taxonomists, but as different species (*Anabaena*
269 *oscillaroides* vs. *Sp. aphanizomenoides*). For six further
270 isolates (35%, 6/17), morphological identifications were in
271 agreement at the genus level, while, with the exception of
272 Baldwin Park type 3, the lack of identifying features allowed
273 identification of the remaining seven isolates (41%), only at
274 either family, or order– level (Fig. 2, Table 2).

275

276 **3.2 Comparison of molecular identification and**

277 **phylogenetic analysis at different loci.**

278 Partial sequences were successfully obtained for the 16S rDNA
279 (n=36), *rpoC1* (n=22) and PC-IGS (n=19) loci. Amplification
280 at all three loci was successful for 23% (9/39) of the isolates
281 (Table 2). Of the remaining isolates, 33% (10/30) amplified
282 successfully at both the 16S rDNA and *cpcBA*-IGS loci, 33%

283 (10/30) were successful at the 16S rDNA and *rpoC1* loci, while
284 the remaining 33% (10/30) successfully amplified at only one
285 locus (Table 2). Tree topologies for all three loci were
286 relatively similar (Fig. 3, 4 and 5), with the isolates included in
287 distinct clusters according to their orders (Table 2, Fig. 3, 4 and
288 5).

289 Based on the percentage similarity threshold set (in the
290 Materials and Methods), when all three loci were successfully
291 sequenced from any given isolate and compared, molecular
292 identifications agreed at the species level for only one isolate
293 (Vasse River type 6), and at the genus level for one other
294 isolate (Vasse River type 13). Where successful amplification
295 was obtained for only two loci, agreement at the species level
296 for 25% (5/20) of the isolates was obtained. A further 50%
297 (10/20) of the isolates agreed at the genus level, while the
298 remaining 25% either agreed at the order level, or had no
299 agreement at the loci amplified (Table 2, Fig. 6).

300 Analysis of the 16S rDNA data (313 characters; 110 parsimony
301 informative sites) showed the existence of six major clusters,
302 within the three major cyanobacterial orders: the Chroococcales
303 (subsection I; n=8), Oscillatoriales (subsection III; n=6) and
304 Nostocales (subsection IV; n=22) (Fig. 3) (Castenholz, 2001).

305 The Chroococcales included sequences from planktic,
306 unicellular coccoids, isolated mainly from the Vasse River, and
307 from two isolates (GS3-1 and MIC058-B), which were multi-

308 cellular planktic colonies. The Oscillatoriales included benthic,
309 non-heterocystous, filamentous (non-branching) strains, from a
310 variety of locations. All other 16S rDNA sequences were
311 obtained from cultures of filamentous (non-branching) strains
312 clustering within the Nostocales, of which several genera were
313 paraphyletic (Fig. 3).

314 At the *rpoC1* locus (409 characters; 335 parsimony informative
315 sites), the genotypes identified belonged to the Nostocales
316 (n=17), Oscillatoriales (n=1), and Chroococcales (n=4) (Fig. 4).
317 Interestingly, GS2-1 grouped distinctly with *Pseudanabaena*
318 sp. (Oscillatoriales) (bootstrap value > 50%), while Baldwin
319 Park type 2, although on an isolated branch, was found well
320 within the Nostocales. This is in contrast to the 16S locus,
321 where GS2-1 and Baldwin Park type 2, respectively grouped
322 with *Nostoc commune* (bootstrap > 70%; well within the
323 Nostocales), or formed a clearly distinct branch, basal to the
324 order (Fig. 3). As with the 16S tree (Fig. 3), multiple clusters of
325 the Chroococcales were also evident from the *rpoC1* tree (Fig.
326 4), with four sequences grouped within this order: MIC058-B,
327 Vasse River types 9, and 13 and GS6-1. Apart from GS2-1, the
328 remaining 17 sequences clustered within the Nostocales, which
329 was characterized by the distinct positions of Vasse River type
330 2, Buayanup drain type 2 and GS5-2.

331 Analysis of the *cpcBA*-IGS locus (423 characters; 396
332 parsimony informative sites) showed that, apart from GS2-1,

333 which grouped strongly (bootstrap value >80%) with
334 *Pseudanabaena* sp. (Oscillatoriales) on an isolated branch, the
335 overall topology was similar to that obtained for the 16S rDNA
336 (Fig. 5). As with the 16S and *rpoC1* loci, the Nostocales (10
337 sequences) and the Chroococcales (2 sequences) formed
338 monophyletic groups, while the Oscillatoriales (7 sequences)
339 were paraphyletic (Fig. 5).

340 As the majority of *cpcBA*-IGS sequences available from
341 GenBank to date mainly belong to relatively few genera (e.g.,
342 *Arthrospira*, *Synechococcus*, *Phormidium* etc.), large distance
343 values and the presence of isolated branches were observed for
344 the tree based on this locus (Fig. 5). Baldwin Park type 2 could
345 not be successfully amplified at this locus, and only GS4-1,
346 GS4-2, Baldwin Park type 1 and Vasse River type 3 exhibited
347 almost complete ($\geq 99\%$) homology with available sequences
348 (Fig. 5, Table 2).

349

350 **3.3 Comparison between morphological and molecular**

351 **identifications**

352 Discrepancies between morphological and molecular
353 identifications were observed for several isolates (Table 2). For
354 example, Hyde Park type 1 was identified, at the *cpcBA*-IGS
355 locus and morphologically, as *An. elenkinii*. However, at the
356 16S rDNA it was closest to *An. circularis*. Further molecular
357 identification of Hyde Park type 1 was hampered by the paucity

358 of *An. circularis* and *An. elenkinii* sequences at both the *rpoC1*
359 and *cpcBA*-IGS loci which prevented confident identification
360 at these loci.

361 The isolate Buayanup drain type 2, which was identified
362 morphologically as *A. torulosa* was most similar to *A.*
363 *oscillaroides* at the 16S rDNA locus, and to *A. spherica* at the
364 *cpcBA*-IGS locus (no *A. oscillaroides* sequences were available
365 at this locus). Isolates GS6-1 and Vasse River types 9, 12 and
366 13 were identified as *Aphanothece* sp. based on morphology.
367 However, using molecular methods, they were phylogenetically
368 more similar to *Synechococcus* sp. (HE975005) than
369 *Aphanothece minutissima* (FM177488) (Fig. 3).

370 Morphologically, ANA196-A was identified as
371 *Dolichospermum circinale*, but was phylogenetically placed
372 with *Aphanizomenon gracile*, using the 16S rDNA and *rpoC1*
373 sequence data (Table 2). This was also observed for GS4-2,
374 which was identified morphologically as a *Nostoc* sp. or *Sp.*
375 *aphanizomenoides*, but was found to be most closely related to
376 *An. bergii* (100% similarity) at both the 16S rDNA and *cpcBA*-
377 IGS loci. Similarly, although Baldwin Park type 1 and GS4-1
378 were identified morphologically as *Planktolyngbya* and
379 *Oscillatoriales/Geitlerinema* sp., they showed 100% similarity
380 to various *Limnothrix* spp. and *Planktothrix* spp., at the 16S
381 rDNA locus, and to *Geitlerinema amphibium* (FJ545644), at
382 the *cpcBA*-IGS locus.

383 Overall, for the nine isolates that amplified at all loci studied,
384 microscopic and molecular data from at least one locus, were in
385 agreement at genus level for all isolates, except Vasse River
386 type 13 (Table 2). However, agreement between morphological
387 and molecular identifications, from all three loci, was obtained
388 for only one isolate (Vasse River type 6) (Table 2). When
389 morphology was compared with two loci for all isolates (16S
390 rDNA plus, either *rpoC1*, or *cpcBA-IGS*), species identities for
391 ANA150-A (*D. circinale*) and AWQC318 (*D. circinale*) were
392 in agreement. When morphological data was combined with
393 molecular identification from any one locus, a further seven
394 isolates could be identified to the species level. These included
395 ANA118-AR, ANA131-CR, ANA148-CR, ANA335-C (*D.*
396 *circinale*), Hyde Park type 1 (*An. elenkinii*), MIC-058-B
397 (*Microcystis flos-aquae*), and Vasse River type 1 (*D. flos-*
398 *aquae*). Of the remaining isolates, 31% (12/39) were in
399 agreement at the genus level, 28% (11/39) to the order level,
400 while no agreement was obtained for the remaining 15% (6/39)
401 (Table 2).

402

403 **3.4 Identification of novel isolates**

404 Based on their unique/variable phylogenetic positions and large
405 genetic distances from available sequences, two potentially
406 new members of the Nostocales (Baldwin Park type 2 –
407 morphologically *Anabaena* sp. 1, and GS2-1 – morphologically

408 *Nostoc* sp.) were identified. These new strains had no
409 particularly atypical morphology, and could only be
410 morphologically identified to genus level (*Anabaena* sp. 1, and
411 *Nostoc* sp., respectively). Noteworthy, 17 novel sequences with
412 <95% similarity to previously published sequences were
413 obtained during this study, with the majority of the novel
414 sequences being observed at the *rpoC1* locus.

415

416 **4. Discussion**

417 This study has shown that even with the changes to
418 cyanobacteria taxonomy and the vast increase in sequences
419 available, identifying cyanobacteria isolates using a
420 combination of molecular and/or morphological methods still
421 remains problematic. This becomes even more evident when,
422 as done in this study, multiple loci and morphological
423 identifications of a single isolate are compared.
424 Despite major revisions to the taxonomy and systematics of
425 cyanobacteria, of the 17 isolates microscopically examined in
426 duplicate, agreement at species level was obtained for three
427 isolates, with another seven isolates agreeing to the genus level.
428 This clearly highlights the current difficulties in morphological
429 identification of cyanobacteria from environmental samples. As
430 such, when monitoring water bodies, it may be beneficial to
431 have more than one taxonomist. Furthermore, to maintain
432 consistency and integrity of the morphological identifications,

433 having morphological identifications done by the same
434 taxonomist for the duration of the study is also of importance.
435 Overall, tree topologies for the 16S rDNA and *rpoC1* were
436 similar to previous publications (Fergusson and Saint, 2000;
437 Litvaitis, 2002; Lyra et al., 2001; Tomitani et al., 2006; Valério
438 et al., 2009). Although the 16S rDNA alignment was relatively
439 short (313 characters), using full-length reference sequences
440 from GenBank did not alter the clustering patterns and tree
441 topology (data not shown). Moreover, an *rpoC1* amino acid
442 alignment produced a similar tree to that obtained in Fig. 5
443 (data not shown).

444 The strictly qualitative nature of this study discourages the
445 application of a statistically meaningful analysis or inference of
446 ecological and water quality parameters of the sampled sites. In
447 particular, the isolation methods implemented may have
448 favoured isolation of particular species, and cannot therefore be
449 used to comprehensively survey the original cyanobacteria
450 communities. Even so, 22% of the total number of sequences
451 obtained had less than 95% similarity to previously published
452 sequences (at any of the three loci studied), confirming the
453 presence of unexplored molecular varieties of freshwater
454 cyanobacteria in Western Australia.

455 Although there have been investigations on cyanobacterial
456 diversity in Australia (Fergusson and Saint, 2000; McGregor
457 and Rasmussen, 2008; Papineau et al., 2005; Saker et al.,

458 2009), this is the first study to compare morphological and
459 molecular identification of freshwater cyanobacteria from
460 Western Australia. In contrast to previous studies done in this
461 region, where Oscillatoriales and/or Chroococcales were found
462 to predominate (Garby et al., 2013; Gordon et al., 1981; Kemp
463 and John, 2006; Lund and Davis, 2000), majority of the isolates
464 obtained in this study belonged to the Nostocales.

465 The present study identified two potentially new strains of
466 cyanobacteria; of these, GS2-1 was the most interesting,
467 grouping with either the Nostocales or Oscillatoriales,
468 depending on the locus considered. Generally speaking, these
469 observed differences can be due to: (i) the lack of sequences
470 available in GenBank for the *rpoC1* and *cpcBA-IGS* loci; (ii)
471 preferential amplification of contaminating strains; (iii)
472 horizontal gene transfer, or (iv) presence of habitat specific
473 gene pools (Komárek, 2010). Baldwin Park type 2 was also of
474 interest, as it was basal to the Nostocales at the well-studied
475 16S rDNA locus, but fell on an isolated branch on the *rpoC1*
476 tree. Minimum genetic distances for this isolate at either locus
477 were also considerable (6% and 14%, for the 16S rDNA and
478 *rpoC1* locus respectively, from *A. oscillaroides* and *Anabaena*
479 sp. respectively), indicating a potentially previously
480 uncharacterized *Anabaena* species.

481 Despite its wide usage, the 16S rDNA has been found to be too
482 conserved to reliably differentiate closely related bacterial

483 species (Coenye and Vandamme, 2003; Lyra et al., 2001), and
484 to have an evolutionary pattern that is not reflective of the
485 entire genome (Seo and Yokota, 2003). Consequently,
486 alternative loci such as the protein coding *rpoC1*, the *cpcBA*-
487 IGS, the nitrogenase genes (Kumari et al., 2009) and the 16-
488 23S ITS region (and its structure) have also been used for
489 phylogenetic reconstructions, identification and discrimination
490 of species (Johansen et al., 2011; Palenik and Haselkorn, 1992).
491 Although polyphasic approaches, combining morphological
492 and molecular identifications, have been proposed (Komárek,
493 2006; Litvaitis, 2002; Robertson et al., 2001; Seo and Yokota,
494 2003), a number of authors have demonstrated inconsistent
495 phylogenetic and morphological classifications (Litvaitis, 2002;
496 Robertson et al., 2001; Seo and Yokota, 2003). Thus,
497 incorporating data from multiple sources (e.g. morphology,
498 nucleotide sequences from multiple loci, biochemical
499 composition) for the identification of unknown environmental
500 genotypes has been recommended as a standard taxonomic
501 practice (Komárek, 2006). Furthermore, apart from the 97% –
502 98% sequence similarity for the 16S rDNA (Stackebrandt and
503 Goebel, 1994), there is no consensus percentage sequence
504 similarity for species delimitation using other loci. Hence, as a
505 reflection of the *rpoC1* and *cpcBA*-IGS sequence numbers
506 available (Fig. 1), a less stringent criterion was used for the
507 determination of species and genus for these loci. Despite this,

508 molecular agreement between three loci was still lower than
509 between two loci. The combination of *cpcBA*-IGS and *rpoC1*,
510 however, showed no agreement among all pairs; conformity
511 was found only when a third locus (i.e. 16S rDNA) was
512 included (Fig. 6). These trends can be explained by the effects
513 of two intertwined factors (which are ultimately responsible for
514 the successful molecular identification of a given isolate): the
515 total number of sequences available at a specific locus, and the
516 number of species represented at that same locus.
517 Amplification efficiency of certain primer sets can potentially
518 be affected by large genetic variations, possibly explaining why
519 none of the isolates belonging to the Oscillatoriales
520 successfully amplified at the *rpoC1* locus. Furthermore,
521 alignment length and gap treatment options adopted are known
522 to affect phylogenetic reconstructions including the resolution
523 of some areas of the tree (Lindgren and Daly, 2007). Where
524 alignments of protein-coding genes should present fewer gaps,
525 regions which are subject to less stringent genetic constraints
526 (e.g., 16S hyper-variable regions and intergenic spacers) may
527 produce numerous positions with gaps, requiring *ad hoc*
528 strategies different from protein-coding data sets (Talavera and
529 Castresana, 2007). This, potentially, accounts for some of the
530 topological differences observed in the trees produced. To
531 overcome such limitations stemming from sequence variability,
532 the use of cyanobacterial 16S-23S ITS secondary structure may

533 provide an alternative method to identifying intergenic, and
534 possibly intragenic, diversity which is congruent with that of
535 the 16S rDNA as demonstrated by Johansen et al. (2011).
536 Similarly, the choice of algorithms for generating trees and
537 alignments, as well as the nucleotide substitution models used,
538 can potentially affect the successful identification of isolates
539 (Eddy and Durbin, 1994; Lindgren and Daly, 2007). This could
540 explain, for instance, the high similarity of MIC058-B-derived
541 16S and *rpoC1* sequences with *M. aeruginosa* and *M. flos-*
542 *aquae* reference sequences, despite the morphological
543 identification as *M. flos-aquae* (Fig 3 and 4). On the other
544 hand, however, this observation is in agreement with the
545 recommendation by Otsuka et al. (2001) that *M. flos-aquae* be
546 regarded as a morphological variant of *M. aeruginosa*.
547 In addition, it is well known that cyanobacteria frequently
548 undergo morphological changes during cultivation (Gugger et
549 al., 2002; Komárek and Anagnostidis, 1989; Lyra et al., 2001),
550 resulting in potential loss of taxon-defining features (Gugger et
551 al., 2002). Not only have the discrepancies between molecular
552 and microscopic characterizations been well documented
553 (Komárek, 2010; Willame et al., 2006), but it has also been
554 shown that incorrectly identified species exist in GenBank
555 (Komárek, 2010) (e.g. *A. variabilis* EF488831). Strains within
556 culture collections have also been incorrectly named and are
557 present in both GenBank and various culture collections under

558 different designations (e.g. *A. variabilis* ATCC29413 which
559 also appears as *Nostoc* sp. PCC7937, *A. variabilis* UTCC 105,
560 *Anabaena* PCC 7937, *A. flos-aquae* UTEX144 etc.).
561 Furthermore, with the many revisions to cyanobacteria
562 taxonomy and nomenclature (Fig. 1), there is no method for
563 these corrections to be easily incorporated into databases
564 (Komárek, 2006), causing further confusion when attempting to
565 identify environmental cyanobacteria isolates.
566 Finally, as pointed out by Castenholz and Norris (2005),
567 species identification is still blurred, this, together with the
568 difficulties discussed when identifying cyanobacteria, questions
569 the need for cyanobacteria identification to the species level.
570 This is especially true in water monitoring situations where
571 identifications to the genus level would usually be sufficient for
572 initiation of remediation strategies.
573 In recent years, the use of mass spectrometry – namely matrix
574 assisted laser desorption/ionisation- time of flight (MALDI-
575 TOF) has seen increasing use in various fields. Its applicability
576 to detecting cyanotoxins (Welker et al., 2002), chemotypes
577 (Welker and Erhard, 2007) and determining cyanobacteria
578 spatial distribution has also been shown, allowing for the
579 possible future use of this technology for cyanobacteria
580 identification, with the development of a standardised and
581 regularly updated database.
582

583 **5. Conclusion**

584 As highlighted by various authors (Castenholz and Norris,
585 2005; Komárek, 2006; Oren, 2011), a polyphasic approach is
586 still currently the most reliable option for identifying
587 cyanobacteria. The present study however has highlighted that
588 despite the application of molecular techniques and the
589 subsequent increase in publicly available sequences, the ability
590 to accurately and definitively identify environmental
591 cyanobacteria isolates is still challenging. It is expected that
592 whole genome sequencing data from an ever increasing number
593 of species, should make misidentified sequences in GenBank
594 increasingly recognisable, allowing for a prompter exclusion or
595 revision. This combination of whole genome sequences,
596 together with alternative methods of cyanobacteria
597 identification (e.g. mass spectrometry) will facilitate the
598 process of cyanobacteria identification. However, until then,
599 accurate identification of these organisms will remain
600 problematic.

601

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613

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848

Table 1 – Collection sites and identities of the 39 cyanobacterial isolates used in this study

Type	Sampling site	Isolates obtained	Isolate identities
Protected <i>freshwater reservoirs</i> (WA) (n=6)	Great Southern Region 1	2	GS1-1, GS1-2
	Great Southern Region 2	1	GS2-1
	Great Southern Region 3	2	GS3-1, GS3-2,
	Great Southern Region 4	2	GS4-1, GS4-2
	Great Southern Region 5	3	GS5-1, GS5-2, GS5-3
	Great Southern Region 6	2	GS6-1, GS6-2
Protected <i>freshwater reservoirs</i> (NSW) (n=4)	Chaffey Dam	1	ANA019-BR
	Burrinjuck Reservoir	1	ANA150-A
	Copeton Dam	1	ANA278-FR
	Pejar Dam	1	AWQC318
Protected <i>freshwater reservoir</i> (VIC) (n=1)	Fish Creek Farm Dam	1	ANA148-CR
Open <i>freshwater reservoir</i> (SA) (n=1)	Millbrook Reservoir	1	MIC058-B
Open urban <i>lentic</i> systems (WA) (n=3)	Chelodina Wetland Reserve	1	Chelodina wetland type 1
	Frederick Baldwin Park	3	Baldwin park types 1, 2, 3
	Hyde Park	1	Hyde Park type 1
Open rural <i>lentic</i> systems (NSW) (n=2)	Lachlan River, Booligal	1	ANA118-AR
	Willandra Creek	1	ANA196-A
Open rural <i>lotic</i> systems (WA) (n=2)	Buayanup Drain	2	Buayanup drain types 2, 4
	Vasse River	10	Vasse River types 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15
Open rural <i>lotic</i> systems (NSW) (n=1)	Lake Cargelligo	1	ANA131-CR
Open rural <i>lotic</i> systems (VIC) (n=1)	Murrumbidgee River, Swan Hill	1	ANA335-C
Grand-total			39

Table 2: Cyanobacteria identification based on 16S, *rpoC1*, Phycocyanin (Cpc) DNA sequences and isolate morphology. Percentage similarity at each locus was calculated in MEGA 5 (Tamura et al., 2011), as the pairwise evolutionary divergence, with a p-distance model (Kimura, 1980).

Sub-group	Isolate	Molecular Identification			Morphological identification	
		Related sequence (percentage similarity)			Taxonomist 1	Taxonomist 2
		16S rDNA (n=36)	<i>rpoC1</i> (n=22)	<i>CpcBA</i> -IGS (n=19)		
Nostocales (n=25)	ANA019-BR	<i>D. affine</i> FN691906 (100%)	–	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	ANA118-AR	–	<i>D. circinale</i> AF199423 (100%)	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	ANA131-CR	–	<i>D. circinale</i> AF199423 (100%)	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	ANA148-CR	–	<i>D. circinale</i> AF199423 (100%)	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	ANA150-A*	(<i>D. circinale</i> AWQC150-A AF247573)	<i>D. circinale</i> AF199423 (100%)	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	ANA196-A	<i>Ap. gracile</i> HQ157688 (100%)	<i>Ap. gracile</i> EU078450 (97%)	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	ANA278-FR	<i>D. flos-aquae</i> AB551438 (100%)	–	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	ANA335-C	<i>D. circinale</i> AF247588 (100%)	–	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	AWQC318	<i>D. circinale</i> AF247581(100%)	<i>D. circinale</i> AF199425 (100%)	–	<i>D. circinale</i>	N.A.
	Baldwin Park type 2	<i>A. oscillaroides</i> AJ630428 (94%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. AF199432 (86%) <i>Anabaena</i> sp. AF199433 (86%)	–	N.A.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. 1
	Baldwin Park type 3	<i>Nostoc</i> sp. PCC8976 AM711525 (100%) <i>Nostoc</i> sp. AB087403 (100%)	<i>Nostoc</i> sp. AY242997 (88%)	–	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i>	<i>A. oscillaroides</i>
	Buayanup drain type 2	<i>A. oscillaroides</i> AJ630428 (99%)	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i> FJ234841 (86%)	<i>A. sphaerica</i> DQ439645 (92%)	<i>A. torulosa</i>	<i>A. torulosa</i>

		<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i> FJ234848 (86%)			
Chelodina wetlands type 1	<i>Ap. gracile</i> EU078532 (99%)	–	<i>Ap. gracile</i> FN552318 (97%) <i>D. compacta</i> AY702239 (97%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.
GS1-2	<i>N. punctiforme</i> GQ287652 (97%)	<i>A. variabilis</i> CP000117 (89%)	–	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.
GS2-1	<i>N. commune</i> DQ185223 (99%) <i>N. commune</i> AB251863 (99%)	<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp. PCC7367 CP003592 (76%)	<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp. EF680776 (80%)	<i>Nostocales</i>	<i>Nostoc</i> sp.
GS4-2	<i>A. bergii</i> FR822617 (100%)	–	<i>A. bergii</i> FJ234863 (100%)	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i>	<i>Nostoc</i> sp.
GS5-1	Nostocaceae cyanobacterium GQ389643 (100%)	<i>C. stagnale</i> PCC7417 CP003642 (87%)	–	<i>Cylindrospermum</i> sp.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.
GS5-2	<i>T. variabilis</i> AJ630456 (100%) <i>T. variabilis</i> JQ390607 (100%)	<i>A. cylindrica</i> PCC7144 CP003659 (84%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. GU935369 (97%)	N.A.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.
GS5-3	<i>Nostoc</i> sp. FJ948088 (99%)	–	<i>Nostoc</i> sp. PCC6720 JF740673 (94%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.
Hyde Park type 1	<i>An. circularis</i> GQ859629 (100%)	<i>An. circularis</i> EU078479 (89%)	<i>An. elenkinii</i> FN552383 (96%)	<i>An. elenkinii</i>	<i>An. elenkinii</i>
Vasse River type 1	<i>D. flos-aquae</i> AY701573 (100%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. AF199432 (98%)	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i> GU197719 (99%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.	<i>D. flos-aquae</i>
Vasse River type 2	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. PCC9109 AY768408 (99%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. EU078475 (87%)	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. PCC 9109 AY768473 (96%)	N.A.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.
Vasse River type 3	<i>A. sphaerica</i> GQ466513 (100%)	<i>A. variabilis</i> AB074795 (100%)	<i>N. linckia</i> AY466120 (99%)	N.A.	<i>Anabaena</i> sp.

	Vasse River type 6	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i> FM177473 (100%)	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i> FJ830555 (96%)	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i> GU197719 (97%)	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i>	<i>Sp. aphanizomenoides</i>
	Vasse River type 8	<i>Calothrix</i> sp. GQ859627 (98%)	–	–	<i>Gloeotrichia</i> sp.	<i>Rivularia</i> sp.
Oscillatoriales (n=6)	Baldwin Park type 1	<i>Planktothrix</i> sp. AF212922 (100%) <i>L. redekei</i> EU078512 (100%) <i>Limnothrix</i> sp. EF088338 (100%)	–	<i>G. amphibium</i> FJ545644 (100%)	<i>Oscillatoriales</i>	<i>Planktolyngbya</i> sp. 1
	Buayanup drain type 4	<i>Leptolyngbya</i> sp. EU729062 (98%)	–	Cyanobacterium txid129981 AJ401183 (75%)	N.A.	<i>Trichocoleus</i> sp
	GS1-1	<i>Leptolyngbya</i> sp. HM217044 (100%)	–	<i>Spirulina laxissima</i> DQ393286 (84%)	N.A.	<i>Planktolyngbya</i> sp.
	GS3-2	<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp. GU935355 (100%)	–	<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp. PCC 7409 M99426 (82%)	<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp.	<i>Ps. galeata</i>
	GS4-1	<i>Planktothrix</i> sp. AF212922 (100%) <i>L. redekei</i> EU078512 (100%) <i>Limnothrix</i> sp. EF088338 (100%)	–	<i>G. amphibium</i> FJ545644 (100%)	<i>Geitlerinema</i> sp.	<i>Planktolyngbya</i> sp. 1
	GS6-2	<i>Ps. mucicola</i> GQ859642 (99%)	–	<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp. PCC7409 M99426 (83%)	<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp.	<i>Ps. galeata</i>
	Chroococcales (n=8)	GS3-1	<i>M. flos-aquae</i> AF139328 (98%)	–	–	N.A.
MIC058-B		<i>M. flos-aquae</i> AF139328 (100%)	<i>M. aeruginosa</i> AP009552 (98%)	–	<i>M. flos-aquae</i>	N.A.
GS6-1		<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. HE975005 (100%)	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. PCC7920 AF245158 (96%)	–	N.A.	<i>Aphanothece</i> sp.

Vasse River type 9	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. HE975005 (100%)	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. PCC7920 AF245158 (96%)	–	<i>Aphanothece</i> sp.	<i>Aphanothece</i> sp.
Vasse River type 12	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. HE975005 (100%)	–	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. PCC7918 AF223462 (97%)	N.A.	<i>Aphanothece</i> sp. 1
Vasse River type 13	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. HE975005 (100%)	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. PCC7920 AF245158 (96%)	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. PCC7918 AF223462 (96%)	N.A.	<i>Aphanothece</i> sp. 1
Vasse River type 14	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. HE975005 (100%)	–	–	N.A.	<i>Aphanothece</i> sp.
Vasse River type 15	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. HE975005 (100%)	–	–	N.A.	<i>Aphanothece</i> sp. 1

*16S rDNA sequence previously available (GenBank Acc. No AF247573); – = No sequence data obtained; N.A.= Not examined; A. = *Anabaena*; An. = *Anabaenopsis*; Ap. = *Aphanizomenon*; C. = *Cylindrospermum*; D. = *Dolichospermum*; G. = *Geitlerinema*; L. = *Limnothrix*; M. = *Microcystis*; N. = *Nostoc*; O. = *Oscillatoria*; P. = *Planktothrix*; Ps. = *Pseudanabaena*; Sp. = *Sphaerospermopsis*; T. = *Trichormus*. Sequences with percentage molecular similarity above the threshold used for identification are in bold. For species identification, the threshold was 98% for the 16S rDNA, and 95% for the *rpoC1* and *cpcBA*-IGS loci. For genus, the threshold was 95% for the 16S rDNA, and 90% for *rpoC1* and *cpcBA*-IGS.

Sequences in Genbank

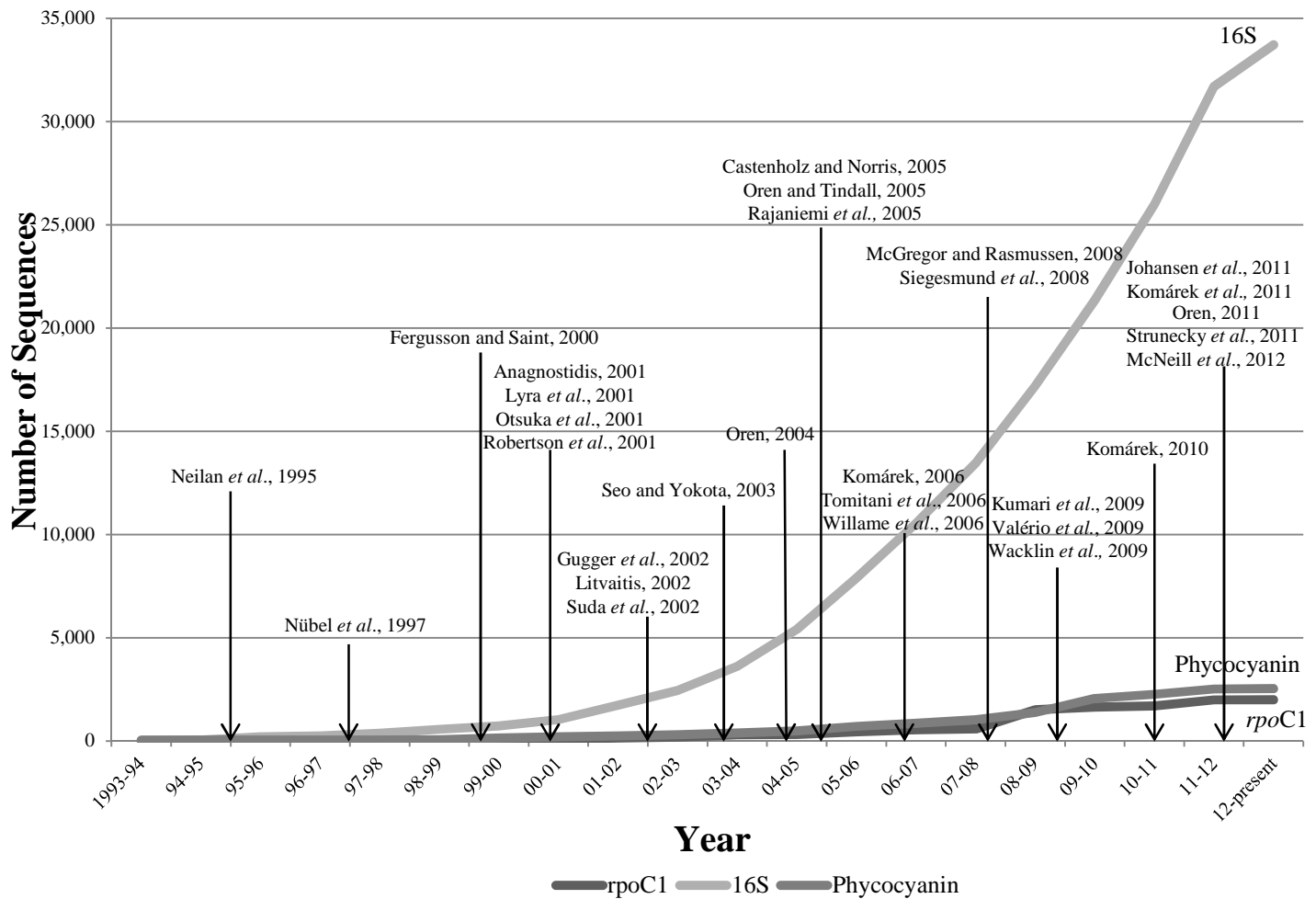


Fig. 1 – Number of sequences within GenBank for the 16S, *rpoC1* and phycocyanin loci over time. Data obtained from NCBI Nucleotide Database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nucleotide>). References indicate papers characterising or reporting changes to cyanobacteria taxonomy and nomenclature.

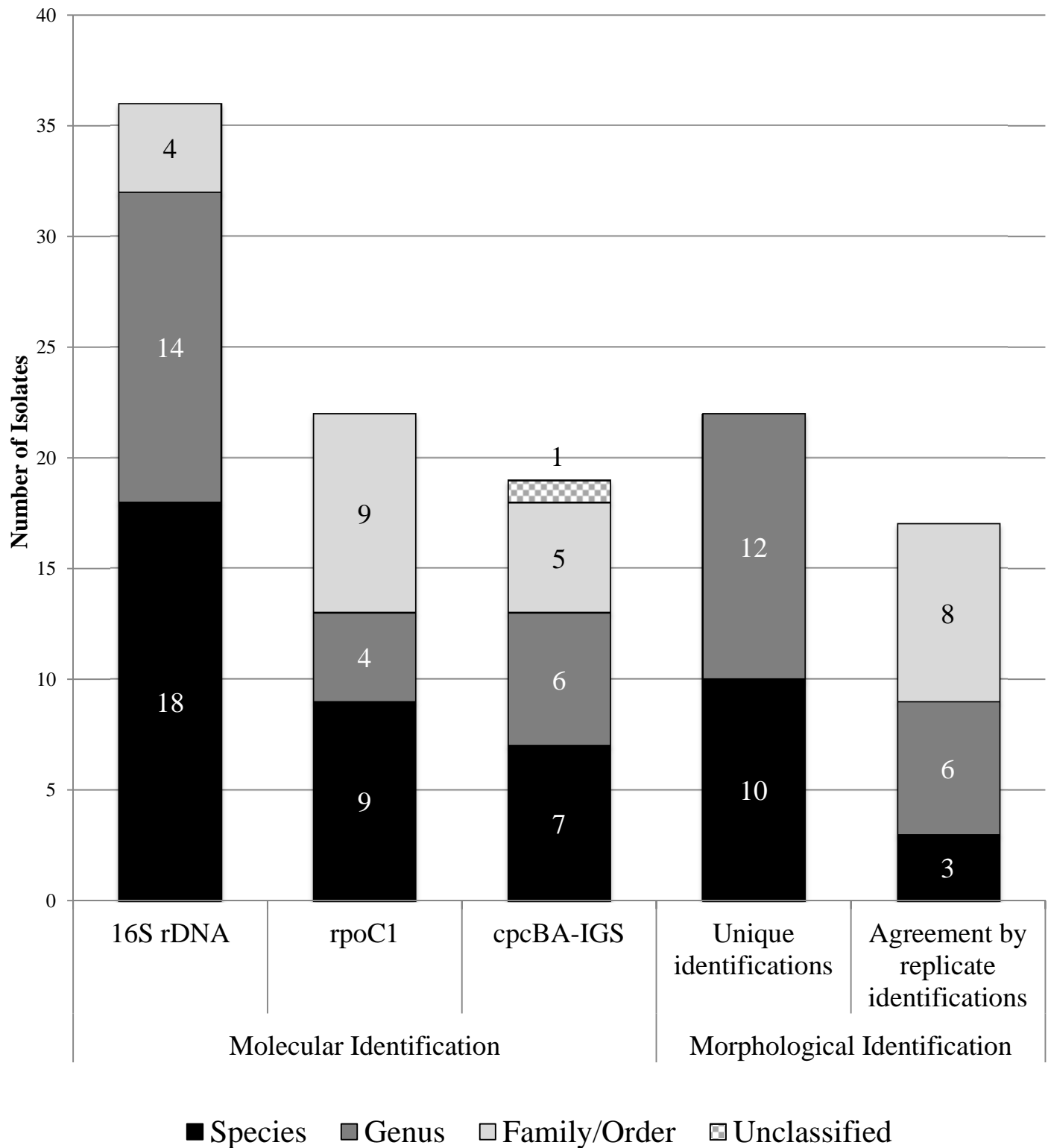


Fig. 2 – Number of cyanobacterial isolates identified at order, genus or species-level, using molecular and morphological methods. Depending on the isolate, morphological identifications were carried out by either one (unique identifications), or two independent taxonomists (replicate identifications). Where isolates were examined in duplicate, the number of isolates providing agreement between the replicate identifications is shown.

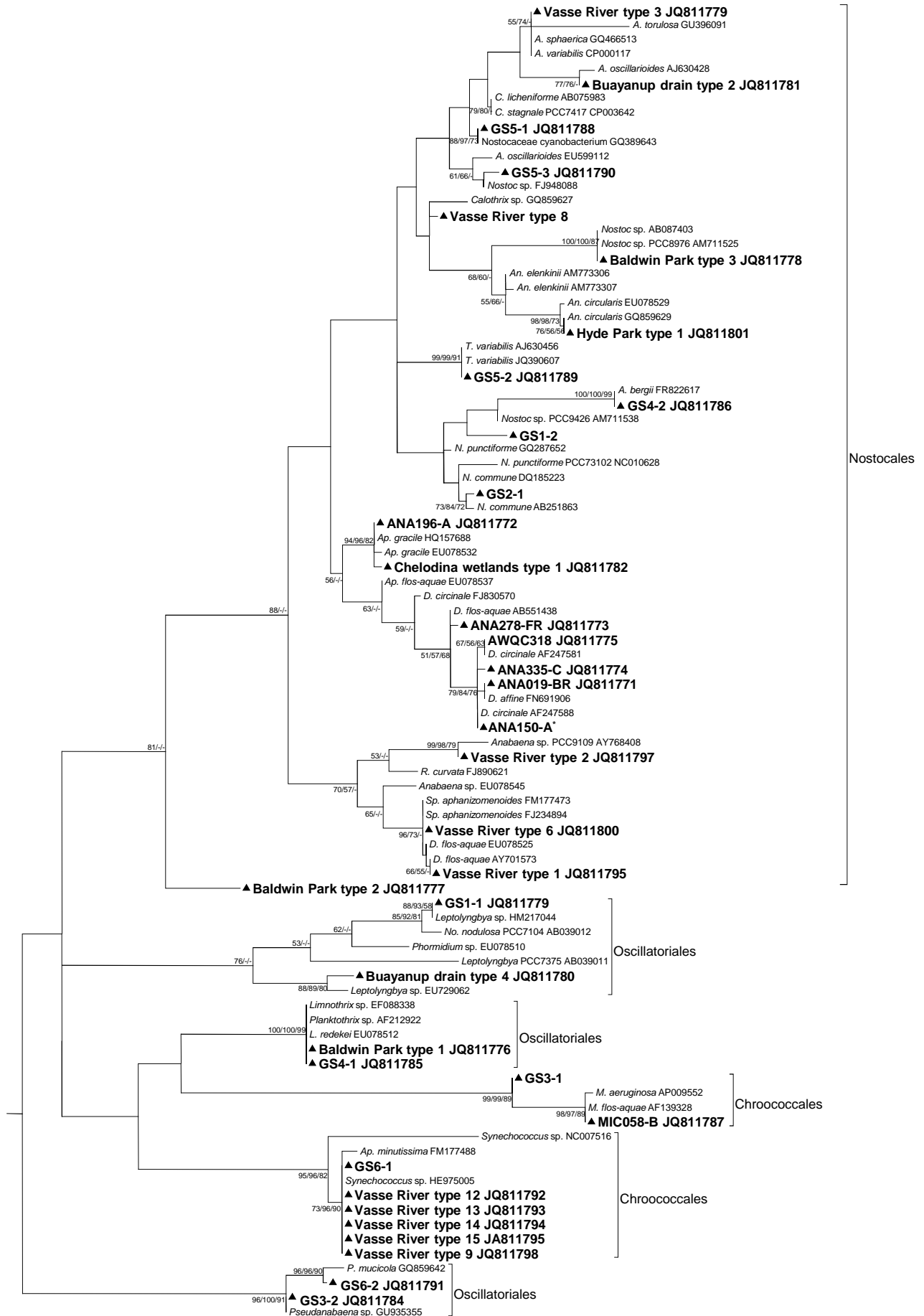


Fig. 3 – Maximum Likelihood tree based on the 16S rDNA sequences (313 bp) showing the clustering of isolates obtained. Branch support values greater than 50% for Maximum Likelihood, Maximum Parsimony, and Distance analyses respectively are indicated left of the nodes. Bar, 0.05 substitutions per site. The outgroup was removed to facilitate the visualisation of the isolates. Sequence previously submitted to GenBank with accession number AF247573

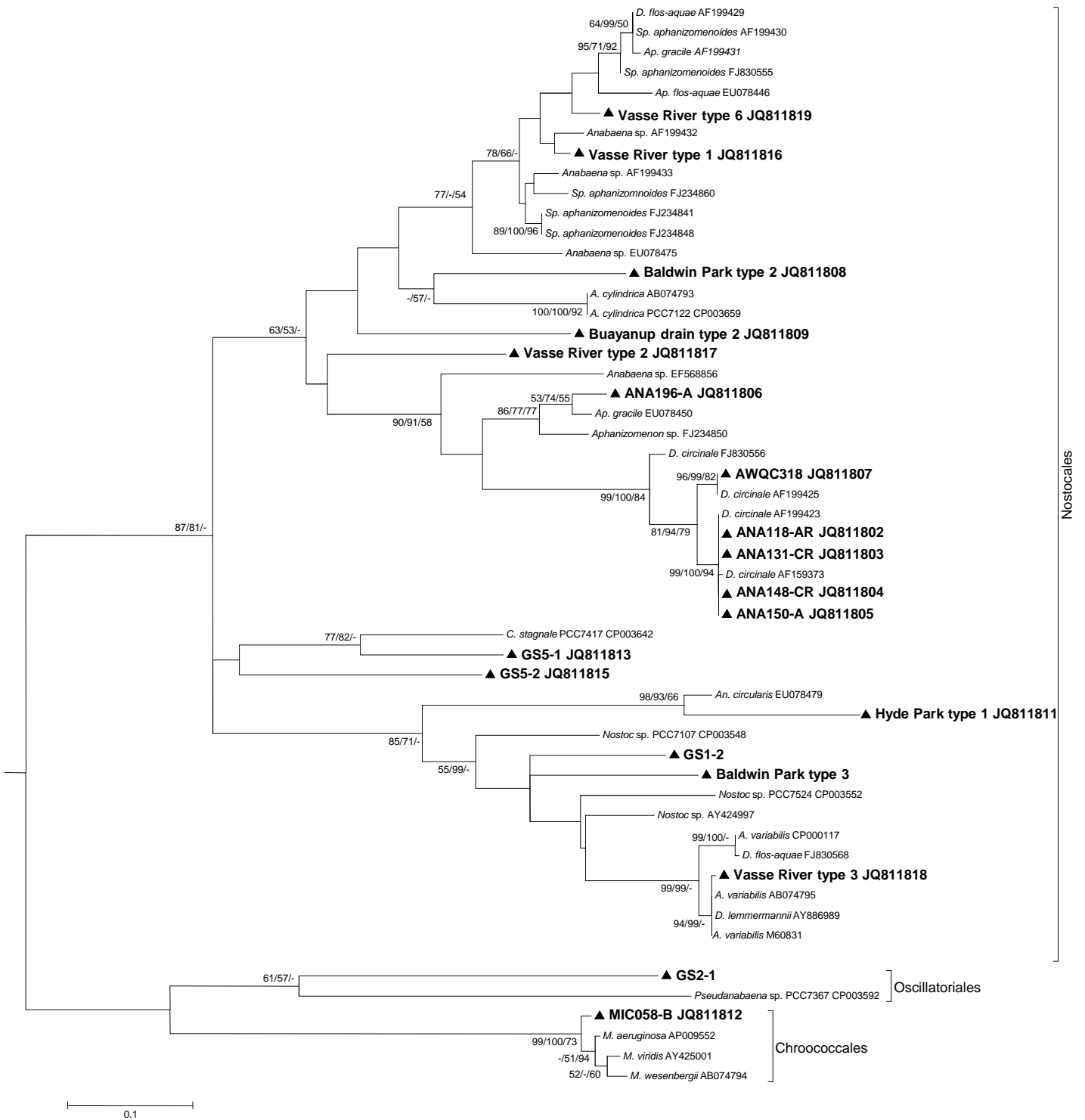


Fig. 4 – Maximum Likelihood tree based on the *rpoC1* sequences (409 bp) showing the clustering of isolates obtained. Branch support values greater than 50% for Maximum Likelihood, Maximum Parsimony, and Distance analyses respectively are indicated left of the nodes. Bar, 0.1 substitutions per site. The *Synechococcus* cluster containing GS6-1, Vasse River types 9 and 13 were removed to facilitate visualisation of the other isolates



Fig. 5 – Maximum Likelihood tree based on the *cpcBA*-IGS sequences (423 bp) showing the clustering of isolates obtained. Branch support values greater than 50% for Maximum Likelihood, Maximum Parsimony, and Distance analyses respectively are indicated left of the nodes. Bar, 0.2 substitutions per site.

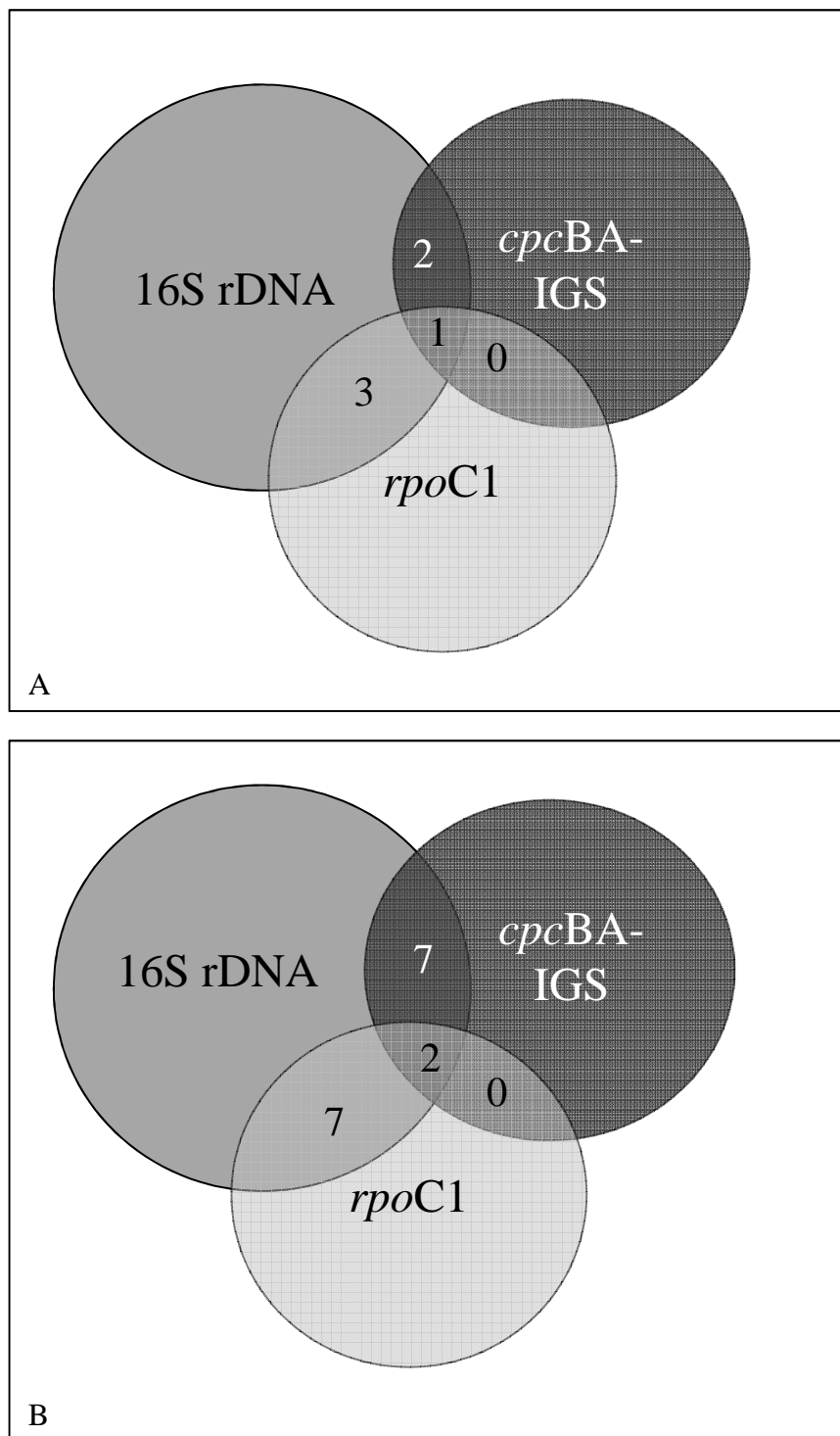


Fig. 6 – Extent of agreement between the molecular identifications, of various cyanobacterial isolates, obtained by the analysis of three loci: 16S rDNA, *rpoC1*, and *cpcBA-IGS*. The numbers indicate the isolates for which agreement between the loci was found at species level (panel A), or at least genus level (i.e. agreement at either species or genus level) (panel B).

- Molecular and morphological agreement was obtained for only 26% of isolates
- Molecular agreement at multiple loci does not necessarily occur
- Polyphasic characterization does not necessarily lead to conclusive identification
- Despite recent advances, cyanobacteria identification remains problematic
- Two potentially new species of *Nostocales* from Western Australia identified