

Is the 16S–23S rRNA Internal Transcribed Spacer Region a Good Tool for Use in Molecular Systematics and Population Genetics? A Case Study in Cyanobacteria

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We amplified, TA-cloned, and sequenced the 16S–23S internal transcribed spacer (ITS) regions from single isolates of several cyanobacterial species, *Calothrix parietina*, *Scytonema hyalinum*, *Coelodesmium wrangelii*, *Tolypothrix distorta*, and a putative new genus (isolates SRS6 and SRS70), to investigate the potential of this DNA sequence for phylogenetic and population genetic studies. All isolates carried ITS regions containing the sequences coding for two tRNA molecules (tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}). We retrieved additional sequences without tRNA features from both *C. parietina* and *S. hyalinum*. Furthermore, in *S. hyalinum*, we found two of these non-tRNA-encoding regions to be identical in length but different in sequence. This is the first report of ITS regions from a single cyanobacterial isolate not only different in configuration, but also, within one configuration, different in sequence. The potential of the ITS region as a tool for studying molecular systematics and population genetics is significant, but the presence of multiple nonidentical rRNA operons poses problems. Multiple nonidentical rRNA operons may impact both studies that depend on comparisons of phylogenetically homologous sequences and those that employ restriction enzyme digests of PCR products. We review current knowledge of the numbers and kinds of 16S–23S ITS regions present across bacterial groups and plastids, and we discuss broad patterns congruent with higher-level systematics of prokaryotes.

Introduction

During the last decade, biologists have employed a variety of molecular techniques to address questions about phylogeny, evolution, and population diversity. Analysis of 16S (small subunit) rRNA and, more recently, the 16S–23S internal transcribed spacer (ITS) has figured heavily in these studies, particularly those involving prokaryotic and eukaryotic microorganisms.

Several phycologists have used the 16S rRNA gene to provide insight into the phylogenetic relationships of cyanobacterial genera within the orders proposed by Komárek and Anagnostidis (1986, 1989) (e.g., Giovannoni et al. 1988; Wilmotte and Golubic 1991; Wilmotte et al. 1992; Wilmotte, Neefs, and De Wachter 1994; Nelissen et al. 1996; Nübel et al. 1996; Turner 1997). However, Fox, Wisotzkey, and Jurtshuk (1992) concluded that identity in 16S rRNA sequence data was not sufficient grounds for establishing species identity and thus not appropriate for studies at the subgeneric level. As a result, researchers have increasingly turned to the more variable 16S–23S ITS.

Restriction enzyme digestion of the 16S–23S ITS region has been used for phylogenetic analyses of strains of nonphotosynthetic eubacterial genera (Navarro et al. 1992; Vinuesa et al. 1998). Restriction digests of this region have also been used to examine variability and phylogenetic relationships within orders of cyanobacteria (Lu et al. 1997), among genera of heterocystous cyanobacteria (West and Adams 1997), and among strains in a single filamentous genus (Scheldeman et al. 1999).

Key words: Internal transcribed spacer, cyanobacteria, intergenic spacer region, rRNA, phylogenetics, population genetics.

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Otsuka et al. (1999) were the first and are currently the only research group to use direct sequencing of the ITS to study subgeneric phylogenetic relationships in a cyanobacterial genus, *Microcystis*. They found that the phylogeny based on the ITS data did not correlate perfectly with established *Microcystis* morphospecies or phycoerythrin production, although concordance with microcystin production was evident.

Operons containing the genes coding for the three rRNAs (16S, 23S, 5S) and their associated ITS regions are normally present in multiple copies in the bacterial genome (7 in *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella*, 10 in *Bacillus subtilis*). In *E. coli*, these copies are named *rrnA*–*rrnE*, *rrnH*, and *rrnG*. Antón, Martínez-Murcia, and Rodríguez-Valera (1998) have demonstrated that there are major heterogeneities among operons in terms of the type and number of tRNA genes present. In *E. coli* K12, within the 16S–23S ITS, operons *rrnB*, *rrnC*, *rrnE*, and *rrnG* contain a gene coding for tRNA^{Glu-2}, whereas operons *rrnA*, *rrnD*, and *rrnH* have genes for tRNA^{Ile-1} and tRNA^{Ala-1B}. There are other major heterogeneities in various regions of the ITS within each of these two general “types” of ITS region. It has been suggested that the spacer sequence could reflect intra-species phylogeny (García-Martínez et al. 1996), but that to target the same operon (*rrnA*, *rrnB*, *rrnC*, *rrnD*, *rrnE*, *rrnH*, or *rrnG*) in multiple strains, operon-specific primers must be used in PCR (Antón, Martínez-Murcia, and Rodríguez-Valera 1998).

In this study, we examined variability in the ITS among multiple rRNA operons in five species: *Scytonema hyalinum*, *Tolypothrix distorta*, *Calothrix parietina*, *Coelodesmium wrangelii*, and a putative new genus (isolates SRS6 and SRS70). These species represent three of the four families currently recognized in the order Nostocales. Most of the 16S rRNA data available for members of this order come from representatives of the fourth family (Nostocaceae), including sequences

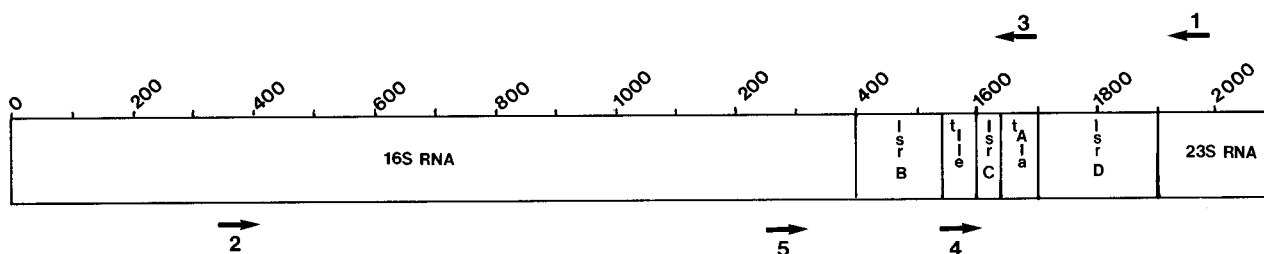


FIG. 1.—Map of primer sites in the 16S–23S rRNA operon that were used in this study. Primers 1 and 2 were used in the first PCR reaction, and that product was reamplified using primers 1 and 5 to obtain the “short” PCR product used in cloning. Primers 3 and 4 were used when it was not possible to obtain an ITS region containing both tRNA genes with primers 1 and 5. ISR-B, ISR-C, and ISR-D are noncoding intergenic spacer regions which surround the tRNA genes for isoleucine (t^{lle}) and alanine (t^{Ala}).

from *Nostoc* and *Anabaena*. ITS sequences have also recently been reported for several species of *Nostoc* (Lu 1999; Iteman et al. 2000; Li 2000). Very little data exist from the three families that we examined: partial 16S rRNA sequences are available in GenBank from three isolates of *Scytonema* (in the family *Scytonemataceae*), but no sequence data exist for members of the families *Microchaetaceae* (represented in this study by *T. distorta* and *C. wrangelii*) or *Rivulariaceae* (represented by *C. parietina*). Therefore, the data presented here are of value to anyone interested in understanding relationships within the order *Nostocales*. In addition, our study is the first comparison of ITS sequence similarities among multiple members of a cyanobacterial order. We review the current knowledge of the numbers and kinds of ITS regions present across bacteria and plastids and discuss the potential utility of the ITS region as a tool for both broad- and fine-scale phylogeny reconstruction.

Materials and Methods

Collection and Isolation of Cyanobacterial Strains

Cyanobacterial isolates used in this study were all collected, isolated, and identified by V.R.F. and J.R.J. For those cyanobacteria isolated from soils, dry soil samples were crushed, subsampled, and dilution plated as described in Flechtner (1999). Cyanobacteria were isolated into unialgal culture from the plates and kept on agar slants of Z-8 medium (Carmichael 1986). *Coeleodesmium wrangelii* was isolated directly from a stream sample onto agar slants of Z-8 medium. All isolates were examined on Olympus photomicroscopes with Nomarski DIC optics. Strains were kept in dim light ($<50 \mu\text{E}/\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ illuminance) at 7°C on a 12:12 h light:dark cycle.

DNA Extraction

DNA was extracted from 20 mg of fresh unialgal tissue using the Cullings (1992) modification of the Doyle and Doyle (1987) technique. The resultant DNA was suspended in 50 μl TE and stored at -20°C .

Polymerase Chain Reaction

Primers were designed after Wilmotte, Van der Auwera, and De Wachter (1993), Wilmotte (1994), and Nübel, Garcia-Pichel, and Muyzer (1997). They were designated primer 1 (5'-CTC TGT GTG CCT AGG TAT

CC-3'; after Wilmotte, Van der Auwera, and De Wachter 1993), primer 2 (5'-GGG GGA TTT TCC GCA ATG GG-3'; after Nübel, Garcia-Pichel, and Muyzer 1997), primer 3 (5'-CGC TCT ACC AAC TGA GCT A-3'; after Wilmotte 1994), primer 4 (5'-ATT AGC TCA GGT GGT TAG-3' after Wilmotte, Van der Auwera, and De Wachter 1993), and primer 5 (5'-TGT ACA CAC CGG CCC GTC-3'; after Wilmotte, Van der Auwera, and De Wachter 1993).

The positions of these primers with regard to the 16S RNA gene, the 23S RNA gene, and the transfer RNA genes that had previously been found between them are shown in figure 1. Primers (Midland Certified Reagent Company) were made up in 100 μM stock solutions. For use in PCR, a mix of 1.2 μl each of two primers and 7.6 μl sterile water was made.

Initially, each DNA sample was amplified using primers 1 and 2. This resulted in a product approximately 1,600 bp long (“long PCR”), which was then used as a template for a reamplification using primers 1 and 5, resulting in a product approximately 600 bp long (“short PCR”). Each 100- μl reaction contained 86 μl sterile water, 10 μl $10 \times$ buffer (Promega), 0.5 μl of each dNTP (G, A, T, C) at 10 mM, 0.5 μl of the primer mixture described above, 0.5 μl *Taq* polymerase (Promega), and, typically, 1.0 μl template DNA (5–10 ng).

PCR was optimized for each species, with the template DNA amount varying from 0.5 to 2.0 μl and the annealing temperatures varying from 55°C to 57°C . The most commonly used profile for the long-PCR reaction using primers 1 and 2 was 94°C for 1 min, 57°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 4 min (35 cycles), followed by a 10-min extension at 72°C . For the short-PCR reamplifications, the most commonly used profile was 94°C for 1 min, 56°C for 45 s, and 72°C for 2 min (20 cycles). Reactions were carried out using Thermolyne's Ampli-tron and Temptronic thermocyclers. Results were checked using a 1% agarose gel.

Sequencing

Short PCR product was cloned into plasmids containing the sites for the universal primers M13 forward and reverse on either side of the cloning site using Invitrogen's TOPO TA Cloning Kit for Sequencing, version A. Plasmid DNA was generally obtained from three of the resultant clones using Qiagen's QiaPrep Spin Kit.

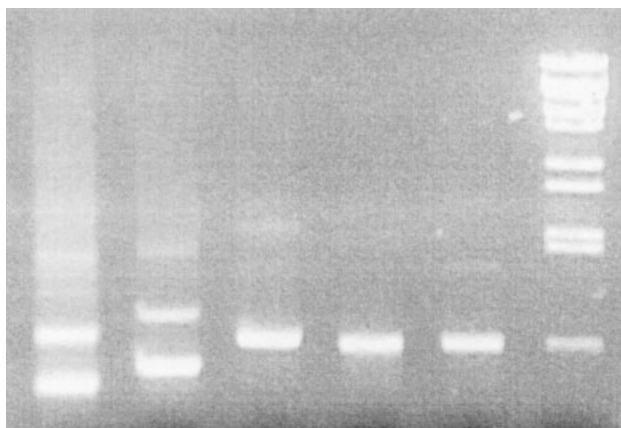


FIG. 2.—Digital photograph of an agarose gel with internal transcribed spacer (ITS) (short) PCR products from the following taxa (left to right): *Calothrix parietina*, *Syctonema hyalinum*, *Coelodesmium wrangelii*, putative new genus (isolate SRS70), and *Tolypothrix distorta*. To the right is λ BstEII digest. Note that *S. hyalinum* and *C. parietina*, both of whose short-PCR products show two distinct bands, are the taxa from which we retrieved multiple ITS sequences of different lengths.

Automated sequencing was performed by Cleveland Genomics with the universal primers M13 forward and reverse.

Data Analysis

Forward and reverse primer sequences were checked against each other by generating the reverse complement of the “reverse” sequence using Oxford Molecular Group’s Omega and aligning it with the “forward” sequence using the CLUSTAL W Multiple Sequence Alignment Program, version 1.7 (Thompson, Higgins, and Gibson 1994) via the Baylor College of Medicine’s Search Launcher (Smith et al. 1996) at <http://dot.imgen.bcm.tmc.edu:9331/>. This resulted in the longest possible read of the sequence, in addition to acting as a check on the sequencing. Sequences were aligned using CLUSTAL W. These alignments were checked by eye.

GenBank Numbers

ITS sequence data for species examined in this study were deposited with GenBank. Accession numbers are as follows: *C. parietina*, AF236642 (two tRNAs) and AF236643 (no tRNAs); *C. wrangelii*, AF236652; *S. hyalinum*, AF236650 (no tRNAs), AF236651 (two tRNAs), AY007688 (no tRNAs); *T. distorta*, AY007689; *Tolypothrix* field sample, AF236644–AF236649 (six sequences); putative new genus, AF2326659.

Results

Agarose Gel Electrophoretic Analysis of PCR Products

Agarose gel electrophoresis of ITS PCR products (short PCR) from five cyanobacterial genera (fig. 2) revealed obvious differences among the genera. We consistently obtained a single band from both isolates of the

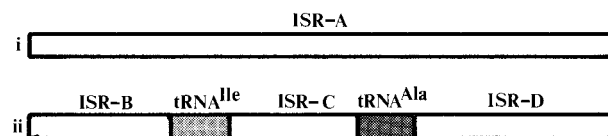


FIG. 3.—Stylized map showing two patterns observed in the 16S–23S rRNA ITS region within the cyanobacterial isolates examined in this study. The four intergenic spacer regions (ISRs) are labeled based on their relationship to the tRNA genes present.

putative new genus (SRS6 and SRS70), *C. wrangelii*, and *T. distorta* and two or more bands from *S. hyalinum* and *C. parietina*. The presence of multiple bands in PCR reactions suggested that at least some of our isolates possessed multiple rRNA operons.

Sequence Data from the 16S–23S ITS Region

To investigate the possibility that multiple rRNA operons existed in the genomes of at least some of our cyanobacterial species, we cloned our short PCR products into competent *E. coli* cells. At least three individual clones per isolate were selected for automated sequencing.

We sequenced the ITS regions from two isolates of the putative new genus (SRS6 and SRS70) and one isolate each for *C. wrangelii*, *T. distorta*, *S. hyalinum*, and *C. parietina*. The sizes of the 16S–23S ITS regions in these genera ranged from 347 in *C. parietina* to 648 bp in one sequence from *S. hyalinum*. Two sequence organization patterns were evident: some 16S–23S ITS sequences contained no tRNA molecule sequences (fig. 3, i) and some contained both tRNA^{Ala} and tRNA^{Ile} (fig. 3, ii). We have denoted the intergenic spacer regions (ISRs) located within the ITS and between the various coding sequences using the following designations: ISR-A (16S–23S, without interruption from tRNAs) (fig. 3, i), ISR-B (16S–tRNA^{Ile}), ISR-C (tRNA^{Ile}–tRNA^{Ala}), and ISR-D (tRNA^{Ala}–23S) (fig. 3, ii).

Variability in ITS and ISR Size and Sequence Among Species and Within Isolates

We found striking variability in the size of the ITS region among the various species examined (fig. 4). Even when sequences from multiple taxa showed the same overall pattern of configuration, the sizes of the individual 16S–23S ITS regions often differed tremendously. For example, while all species carry at least one copy of the 16S–23S ITS region containing both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}, the size of the entire 16S–23S ITS region for this operon is 491 bp in *C. wrangelii* and 648 bp in *S. hyalinum* (fig. 4). The size difference is particularly noticeable in ISR-C, which contains 83 bp in *S. hyalinum* but a mere 9 bp in *C. parietina*.

We found evidence for multiple nonidentical rRNA operons in *S. hyalinum* and *C. parietina*. *Calothrix parietina* carries at least one two-tRNA-containing and at least one tRNA-lacking operon. *Scytonema hyalinum* carries at least one two-tRNA-containing and at least two tRNA-lacking operons. The two tRNA-lacking ITS regions of *S. hyalinum* are both 400 bp long but non-

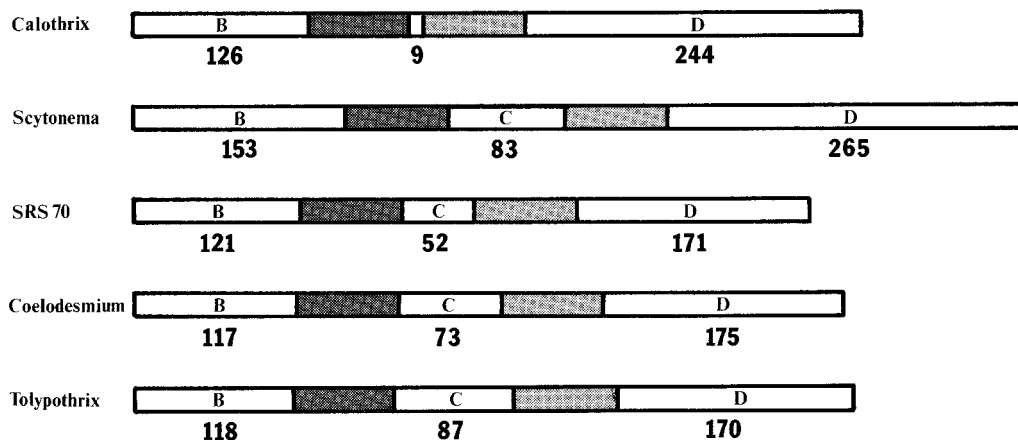


FIG. 4.—Map of 16S rRNA internal transcribed spacer regions containing both tRNA genes in five isolates of heterocystous cyanobacteria from soils. Letters in the sequence refer to intergenic spacer region (ISR) designation (B = ISR-B, etc.). Sequence length (in bp) is given below each ISR.

identical in sequence (fig. 5). We noted the presence of all structural features of the ITS identified by Iteman et al. (2000) in each of these three *S. hyalinum* sequences (fig. 5).

Discussion

During the last 15 years, our understanding of evolutionary relationships among microorganisms has expanded dramatically, due in large part to the use of 16S (small ribosomal subunit [SSU]) sequence data. This approach, pioneered by Carl Woese (Woese, Kandler, and Wheelis 1990), has become so widely used that 16S sequence data will be the basis for defining taxonomic groups in the second edition of *Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology*. However, some investigators (e.g., Fox, Wisotzkey, and Jurtshuk 1992) have questioned whether sufficient variability exists in 16S RNA to allow discrimination among species of a genus or strains of a species. It has been suggested that the ITS region separating 16S and 23S sequences in the rRNA operon might be useful for these fine levels of discrimination. In the discussion that follows, we review current knowledge of the number of rRNA operons and patterns of 16S–23S ITS configurations therein in bacteria and plastids, with special focus on cyanobacteria. We finish by discussing the usefulness of ITS data for phylogenetic studies.

ITS Patterns of Configuration Reflect Higher-Level Phylogenetic Groupings

Gürtler and Stanisich (1996) compared the sizes and makeups of the 16S–23S ITS regions of 44 species in 27 genera of bacteria. During the last four years, many new sequences have been added to the database; all are presented in table 1. Collectively, the data show three general patterns of sequence composition in 16S–23S ITS regions. The two most common patterns are the absence of tRNA sequences (as in fig. 3, i) or the presence of two tRNA sequences (tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}, as in fig. 3, ii). In the two tRNA-containing ITS regions,

in all but one taxon the tRNA^{Ile} is just downstream of the 16S rRNA and the tRNA^{Ala} is just upstream of the 23S rRNA; the order is reversed only in the recently sequenced plant pathogen *Xylella fastidiosa* (Simpson et al. 2000). A third pattern noted is the presence of a lone tRNA which may be tRNA^{Ala}, tRNA^{Glu}, or tRNA^{Ile}.

If one considers the 16S–23S ITS sequence data currently available across phylogenetic groups, certain patterns begin to emerge. In the Archaea, members of the kingdom Crenarchaeota have ITS regions lacking tRNA genes, while members of the Euryarchaeota carry tRNA^{Ala} (table 1). Among the Eubacteria, members of the primitive Aquificales and Thermotoga carry both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}. Proteobacteria display all varieties of ITS configuration, including tRNA^{Glu} only, which has thus far been found exclusively in the γ -division of this group. Among the gram-positive bacteria (Firmicutes), there is a difference in ITS types observed between organisms of low G-C content and organisms of high G-C content. Those of low G-C content (the Bacillus/Clostridium group) display a variety of ITS configurations. Most taxa in this group lack tRNA sequences, and of those that carry tRNA sequences, two tRNAs are present in five species, tRNA^{Ala} alone is present in three species, and tRNA^{Ile} alone is present in a single species (*Staphylococcus aureus*) (table 1). In contrast, all of the gram-positive bacteria of high G-C content (Actinobacteria) have ITS regions lacking tRNA sequences. Among the cyanobacteria, by far the most common pattern of configuration is the presence of both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}; ITS regions in this group may also lack tRNA sequences or carry tRNA^{Ile} alone (table 1). In plastids, all ITSs contain both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}, except in *Toxoplasma gondii*, which has a split rRNA operon with no ITS (Kohler et al. 1997), and in the plastids of the parasitic plants *Conopholis americana* (Wimpee, Morgan, and Wrobel 1992) and *Epifagus virginiana* (Wolfe et al. 1992), which have both undergone a deletion event eliminating most or all of the tRNA from the ITS region. It therefore appears, on the basis of the limited amount of data available, that 16S–23S ITS composition mirrors

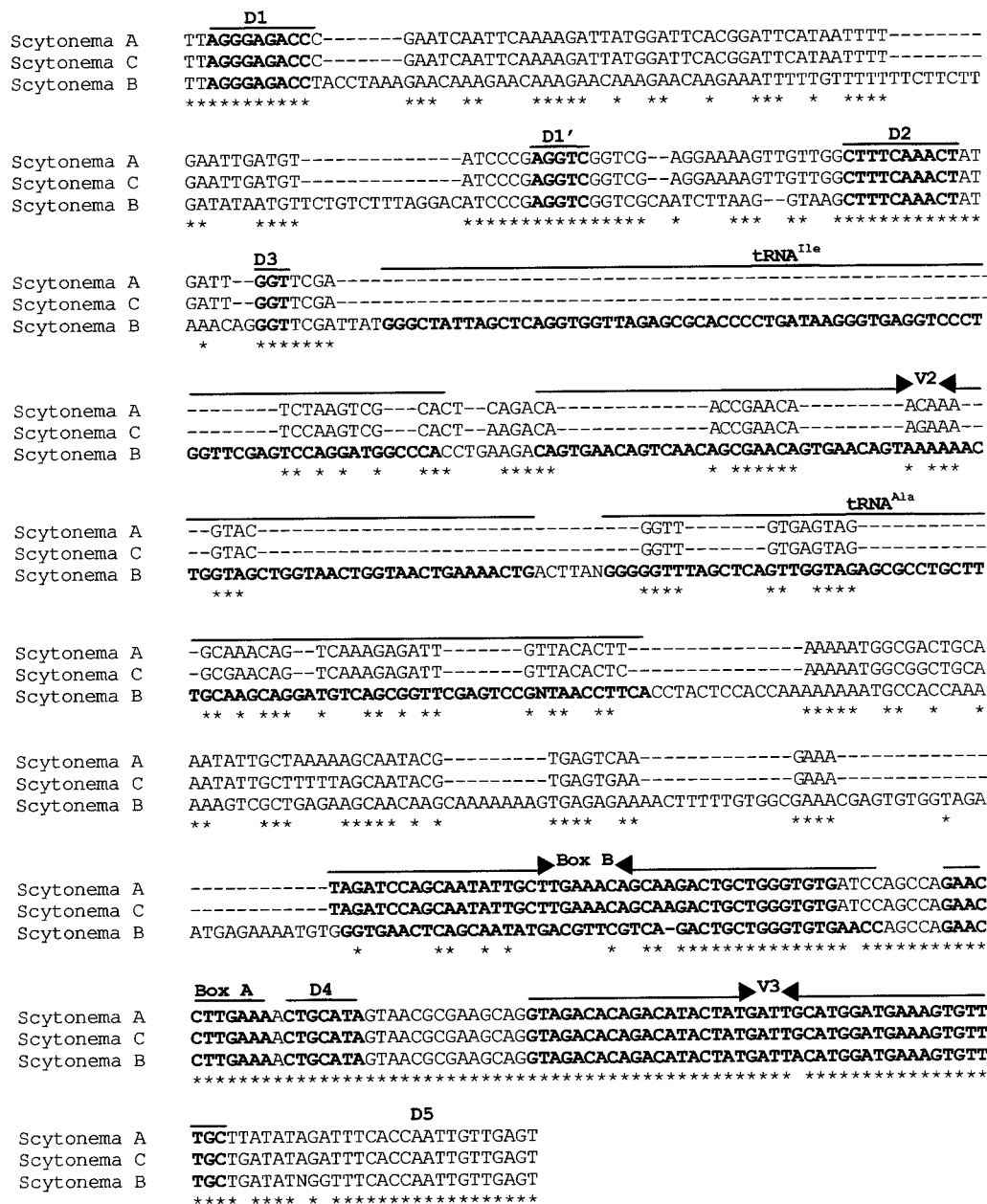


FIG. 5.—Alignment of the 16S–23S rRNA internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region from a single isolate of *Scytonema hyalinum*. One sequence (clone B) contains both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}; the other two (clones A and C) contain neither tRNA and are identical in length but nonidentical in sequence. Note that all three sequences contain all important structural elements of the ITS, as described by Itean et al. (2000). Tips of stem structures are indicated between arrowheads. Region D5 lies between V3 and 23S but cannot be specifically identified in the absence of sequence data from the 23S–5S ITS.

higher phylogenetic groupings. It will be interesting to see if these patterns hold up as additional ITS regions are sequenced, and it is possible that the configuration of the ITS region could be a character useful for higher-level phylogeny reconstruction.

ITS Configurations in Cyanobacteria and Plastids

As a group, cyanobacteria show three types of 16S–23S ITS region sequence composition. ITS regions containing both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala} are most common and have been previously reported in members of the

genera *Anabaena* (Lu 1999), *Arthrospira* (Nelissen et al. 1994), *Nostoc* (Lu 1999; Itean et al. 2000), *Synechococcus* (“*Anacystis*”) (Tomioka and Sugiura 1984), and *Trichodesmium* (Willemotte, Neefs, and De Wachter 1994). Our study adds the genera *Calothrix*, *Coelodesmium*, *Scytonema*, *Tolypothrix*, and a putative new genus (isolates SRS6 and SRS70) to this group (table 1). ITS regions with tRNA^{Ile} only have been reported in the genera *Microcystis* (Otsuka et al. 1999), *Spirulina* (Nelissen et al. 1994), and *Synechocystis* (Kaneko et al. 1996). It appears that this latter configuration is more frequently seen in the cyanobacteria than in other groups

Table 1
16S–23S rRNA ITS Data Currently Available from Archaea, Eubacteria, and Plastids

| Organism | Operon No. | tRNA Type | Size (bp) | Reference |
|--|------------|-----------|-----------|---|
| Archaea | | | | |
| Crenarchaeota | | | | |
| <i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i> | 1 | N | 237 | Olsen et al. (1985) |
| <i>Thermoproteus tenax</i> | 1 | N | 60 | Kjems et al. (1987) |
| Euryarchaeota | | | | |
| <i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> | 1 | A | 236 | Klenk et al. (1997) |
| <i>Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum</i> delta H | 2 | A | 328 | Smith, et al. (1997) |
| <i>Methanococcus jannaschii</i> | 2 | A | 337–346 | Bult et al. (1996) |
| <i>Pyrococcus horikoshii</i> OT3 | 1 | A | 288 | Kawarabayasi et al. (1998) |
| Eubacteria | | | | |
| Aquificales | | | | |
| <i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> | 2 | IA | 315 | Deckert et al. (1998) |
| Thermotoga | | | | |
| <i>Thermotoga maritima</i> | 1 | IA | 240 | Nelson et al. (1999) |
| Thermus/Deinococcus group | | | | |
| <i>Deinococcus radiodurans</i> | ? | S | | White et al. (1999) |
| Proteobacteria | | | | |
| α division | | | | |
| <i>Bartonella</i> (five species) | ? | IA | 906–1028 | Minnick, Strange, and Williams (1994); Roux and Raoult (1995) |
| <i>Caulobacter crescentus</i> | ? | IA | 653 | Feingold et al. (1995); Anderson et al. (1998) |
| <i>Rickettsia prowazekii</i> Madrid E | 1 | S | | |
| β division | | | | |
| <i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> | ? | IA | 530–580 | # |
| | | N | 394 | |
| <i>Thiobacillus ferrooxidans</i> | 2 | IA | 440 | Sagredo, Jedlicki, and Orellana (1992) |
| <i>Neisseria meningitidis</i> | 4 | IA | 664 | Tettelin et al. (2000) |
| | | N | 664 | |
| γ division | | | | |
| <i>Aeromonas hydrophila</i> | ? | G | 511 | East and Collins (1993) |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | 7 | G | 355–437 | Harvey et al. (1988) |
| | | IA | 441 | Young, Macklis, and Steitz (1979) |
| <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> | 6 | G | 478 | Fleischmann et al. (1995) |
| | | IA | 723 | |
| <i>Plesiomonas shigelloides</i> | ? | G | 264 | East, Allaway, and Collins (1992) |
| <i>Pseudomonas</i> (five species) | ? | IA | 542–642 | Gill et al. (1994) |
| <i>Rhodobacter sphaeroides</i> | 3 | IA | 667 | Dryden and Kaplan (1990) |
| <i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> | 7 | G | ~400 | Lehner, Harvey, and Hill (1984) |
| <i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> | 2 | AI | 466 | Simpson et al. (2000) |
| ε division | | | | |
| <i>Helicobacter pylori</i> 26695 | 2 | S | | Tomb et al. (1997) |
| Firmicutes (gram-positive) | | | | |
| Low G-C content (Bacillus/Clostridium group) | | | | |
| <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> | 10 | IA | 344 | Loughney, Lund, and Dahlberg (1982); |
| | | N | 164 | Green et al. (1985) |
| <i>Clavibacter michiganensis</i> subsp. <i>michiganensis</i> | ? | N | 485 | # |
| <i>Clostridium botulinum</i> | ? | N | 365–437 | Campbell et al. (1993) |
| <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> | ? | A | 327 | Hall (1994) |
| | | N | 225 | |
| <i>Enterococcus hirae</i> | 6 | A | 318 | Sechi and Daneo-Moore (1993) |
| | | N | 138 | |
| <i>Lactobacillus</i> (four species) | ? | N | 205–219 | Nakagawa et al. (1994) |
| <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> | ? | N | 243 | Emond, Fliss, and Pandian (1993) |
| <i>Mycoplasma pneumoniae</i> | 1 | N | 253 | Harasawa et al. (1993) |
| <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> | 9 | IA | 303–551 | Gürtler and Barrie (1995) |
| | | I | 335–460 | |
| | | N | 330–469 | |
| <i>Streptococcus</i> (three species) | ? | IA | 270–391 | Whiley et al. (1995) |
| <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> | 6 | A | 294 | Bacot & Reeves (1991) |
| <i>Urealpasma urealyticum</i> | 2 | N | 348 | # |
| High G-C content (Actinobacteria) | | | | |
| <i>Acholeplasma laidlawii</i> | 2 | N | 167 | Nakagawa et al. (1992) |
| <i>Frankia</i> strain ORS020606 | 2 | N | 411 | Normand et al. (1992) |

Table 1
Continued

| Organism | Operon No. | tRNA Type | Size (bp) | Reference |
|---|------------|--------------------|------------|---|
| <i>Mycobacterium phlei</i> | 1 | N | 363 | Van Der Giessen et al. (1994) |
| <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i> | 1 | N | 276 | Van Der Giessen et al. (1994) |
| <i>Streptomyces ambofaciens</i> | 4 | N | 303 | Pernodet et al. (1989) |
| <i>Streptomyces griseus</i> subsp. <i>griseus</i> | 6 | N | 278–303 | Kim et al. (1993) |
| <i>Streptomyces lividans</i> TK21 | 6 | N | 278 | Suzuki et al. (1988) |
| Spirochaetales | | | | |
| <i>Treponema pallidum</i> | 2 | I A | 294 294 | Fraser et al. (1998) |
| Borrelia (three species) | 1 | S | | Ojaimi et al. (1994) |
| Cyanobacteria | | | | |
| Anabaena (four species) | ? | IA | ? | Lu (1999) |
| Arthrospira PCC 7345 | ? | IA | ? | Nelissen et al. (1994) |
| <i>Calothrix parietina</i> | ? | IA | 529 | |
| | | N | 329 | |
| <i>Coelodesmium wrangelii</i> | ? | IA | 515 | |
| Microcystis (47 strains) | ? | I | ~360 | Otsuka et al. (1999) |
| Nodularia BCNOD 9427 | ? | N | 354 | Hayes and Barker (1997) |
| Nostoc PCC 7120 | 4(?) | IA | 512 | Iteman et al. (2000) |
| | | N | 283 | |
| Nostoc (three species) | ? | IA | ? | Lu (1999) |
| <i>Scytonema hyalinum</i> | ? | IA | 651 | |
| | | N | 400 | |
| Spirulina PCC 6313 | ? | I | ? | Nelissen et al. (1994) |
| Synechococcus PCC 6301 | 2 | IA | 545 | Tomioka and Sugiura (1984), Williamson and Doolittle (1983) |
| (“ <i>Anacystis nidulans</i> ”) | | IP ^{ps} ? | | |
| Synechococcus PCC 7002 | 2 | ? | ? | Chen and Widger (1993) |
| Synechocystis PCC 6803 | 2 | I | ? | Kaneko et al. (1996) |
| <i>Tolypothrix distorta</i> | ? | IA | 525 | |
| Trichodesmium NIBB1067 | ? | IA | 547 | Wilmotte, Neefs and De Wachter (1994) |
| Isolates SRS6, SRS70 | ? | IA | 494 | |
| Eucaryotic plastids | | | | |
| Euglenozoa | | | | |
| <i>Euglena gracilis</i> | 3 | IA | 267 | Hallick et al. (1993) |
| Alveolata | | | | |
| <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> | ? | S | | Kohler et al. (1997) |
| Cryptophyta | | | | |
| <i>Gullardia theta</i> | 2 | IA | 276 | Douglas and Penny (1999) |
| Glaucocystophyceae | | | | |
| <i>Cyanophora paradoxa</i> | 2 | IA | 288 | Helmchen, Bhattacharya, and Melkonian (1995) |
| Rhodophyta (red algae) | | | | |
| <i>Chondrus crispus</i> | ? | IA | 277 | Leblanc, Boyen, and Louiseaux-de Goer (1995) |
| <i>Cyanidium caldarium</i> | 1 | IA | 278 | # |
| Bacillariophyta (diatoms) | | | | |
| <i>Odontella sinensis</i> | 2 | IA | 282 | Kowallik et al. (1995) |
| Chlorophyta (green algae) | | | | |
| <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> | 1 | IA | 1,006 | Wakasugi et al. (1997) |
| <i>Mesostigma viride</i> | 2 | IA | 337 | Lemieux, Otis, and Turmel (2000) |
| <i>Nephroselmis olivacea</i> | 2 | IA | 182 | Turmel, Otis, and Lemieux (1999) |
| Charophyta | | | | |
| <i>Coleochaete orbicularis</i> | 1 | IA | 1,585 | Manhart and Palmer (1990) |
| Embryophyta | | | | |
| Hepatophyta (liverwort) | | | | |
| <i>Marchantia polymorpha</i> | 2 | IA | 2,308 | Kochi et al. (1988) |
| Spermatophyta (seed plants) | | | | |
| <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> | 2 | IA | 2,189 | Sato et al. (1999) |
| <i>Conopholis americana</i> | ? | N | 398 | Wimpee, Morgan, and Wrobel (1992) |
| <i>Epifagus virginiana</i> | ? | IA ^{ps} | 2,010 | Wolfe et al. (1992) |
| <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i> | 2 | IA | 2,079 | Shinozaki et al. (1986) |
| <i>Oryza sativa</i> | 2 | IA | 2,424 | Shimada and Sugiura (1991) |
| <i>Pinus thunbergii</i> | 1 | IA | 2,519 | Tsudzuki et al. (1992) |
| <i>Spinacea oleracea</i> | 2 | IA | 2,218 | # |
| <i>Zea mays</i> | 2 | IA | 2,411 | Maier et al. (1995) |

NOTES.—A = tRNA^{Ala}, G = tRNA^{Glu}; I = tRNA^{Ile}; IA = tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}; AI = tRNA^{Ala} and tRNA^{Ile}; IP^{ps} = a partial sequence of tRNA^{Ile}; IA^{ps} = a partial sequence of tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala}; N = no tRNA present in the ITS; S = split operon; ? = unknown; # = sequences reported only in GenBank.

of eubacteria (table 1). Spacer regions lacking tRNA sequences altogether had been previously reported in *Nostoc* (Iteman et al. 2000) and *Nodularia* (Hayes and Barker 1997); we found similar regions in *Calothrix* and *Scytonema*.

Sequence data from rRNA-encoding genes (Giovannoni et al. 1988) provided early support for the theory that all plastids arose in an endosymbiotic event from a common cyanobacterial ancestor. All plastids except for those found in two parasitic plants have 16S–23S ITS regions containing both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala} (table 1). There are two rRNA operons in most cases; four taxa have one operon, and *Euglena gracilis* has three operons (table 1). In many algae and the plastids of the liverwort *Marchantia polymorpha* and nonparasitic angiosperms, the operons appear as inverted repeats. In all land plants, the operon has two unique features: an additional 4.5S rRNA molecule and large (650–1,050-bp) inserts in each of the two tRNA sequences in the 16S–23S ITS. The identification of similar inserts in the tRNA sequences of plastids from the charophycean alga *Coleochaete* led Manhart and Palmer (1990) to propose this alga to be the sister group of land plants.

What kind of 16S–23S ITS region might have existed in the rRNA operon of the cyanobacterial ancestor of chloroplasts? It seems likely that the order of the components of the rRNA operon(s) of the ancestor was 16S-tRNA^{Ile}-tRNA^{Ala}-23S-5S, with the two tRNA sequences separated by an ISR of only a few (<10) nucleotides. Evidence supporting this supposition is that this arrangement exists (1) in *Aquifex aeolicus* and *Thermotoga maritima*, the two oldest extant bacteria; (2) in most of the extant cyanobacteria for which we currently have data; (3) in the cyanelle of *Cyanophora paradoxa*; (4) in the chloroplasts of all algae in the Charophyta, Chlorophyta, Rhodophyta, and Bacillariophyta; and (5) in the chloroplast of *E. gracilis* (table 1). The oldest extant cyanobacteria are thought to be members of the genera *Gloeobacter* and *Pseudanabaena* (Turner 1997). No information is currently available on the number or configuration of rRNA operons of these organisms; such information could prove valuable in reconstructing the phylogeny of cyanobacteria and plastids.

Split rRNA Operons

The presence of split rRNA operons has been detected primarily when an entire genome has been sequenced. In most of the mitochondrial genomes for which sequences are available in GenBank, 16S- and 23S-encoding genes exist as separate, intact single copies. Boer and Gray (1988) reported a bizarre organization of rRNA genes in the mitochondrial DNA of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* where each gene is discontinuous and dispersed throughout the genome. More recently, split rRNA operons have also been identified in Eubacteria and Archaea (table 1). In the most common pattern, the 23S and 5S genes form an operon, and the 16S rRNA gene is separate; there may be one or more than one copy of each of the genes. In two Archaea (*Archaeoglobus fulgidus* and *Pyrococcus horikoshii*

OT3), the 16S and 23S genes are linked and the 5S gene is separate. In the Eubacteria, *Helicobacter pylori* 26695 carries two 23S–5S operons, two single 16S genes, and one separate 5S gene. *Rickettsia prowazekii* Madrid E and *Wolbachia pipientis*, three species of *Borrelia*, and *Deinococcus radiadurans* carry one or more 5S–23S operons and one or more single 16S genes (table 1). Split rRNA operons are also present in the chloroplast of *T. gondii*, which carries single, unlinked 16S and 23S genes and no 5S gene. To date, the complete genome of only one cyanobacterium, *Synechocystis* PCC6803, has been determined (Kaneko et al. 1996); no split operons exist in this taxon. Perhaps as more complete genome sequences from this group of eubacteria are determined, more split operons will be identified.

Multiple Nonidentical rRNA Operons in Cyanobacteria

The number of rRNA operons present is known for relatively few bacterial species and ranges from 1 or 2 operons in the members of Archaea and several non-oxygenic eubacterial genera (*Mycobacteria*, *Mycoplasma*, *Rhodothermus*, and *Thiobacillus*) to 6–10 in some members of the proteobacteria and gram-positive eubacteria (table 1). Until recently, the presence of multiple rRNA operons in cyanobacteria has received little attention, so data relating to the number and sequence diversity of rRNA operons in cyanobacterial species are sparse.

The existence of multiple rRNA operons in cyanobacteria was first reported by Nichols et al. (1982), who used Southern hybridization to detect rRNA genes in three species of *Anabaena* and one species of *Nostoc*. Chen and Widger (1993) identified two operons on the physical map of *Synechococcus* strain PCC 7002. Two groups reported that *Synechococcus* PCC6301 (“*Anacystis nidulans*”) carries two rRNA operons, one of whose ITS regions contain both tRNA^{Ile} and tRNA^{Ala} (Tomioka, Shinozaki, and Sugiura 1981; Williamson and Doolittle 1983), and one of which contains a tRNA^{Ile} pseudogene but has not been completely sequenced (Williamson and Doolittle 1983). Genome sequencing of *Synechocystis* (Kaneko et al. 1996) has shown two rRNA operons, both containing tRNA^{Ile} only, present in inverted repeats. In this taxon, sequence data for the ISR regions flanking the tRNA are not available, so information about the sequence identity of the operons is unavailable at this time. In a brief note, Ligon et al. (1991) reported they had identified four rRNA operons in *Nostoc* (*Anabaena*) strain PCC 7120 but provided no methods or results to support their statement.

The presence of single rRNA operons or multiple identical operons in some cyanobacterial taxa was suggested by Scheldeman et al. (1999), who reported finding only one band of a consistent length when they amplified the 16S plus ITS region of multiple isolates of *Arthrospira*. Otsuka et al. (1999) recovered unambiguous ITS sequences from each of 47 clonal isolates of *Microcystis* without using a cloning step. Similarly, we sequenced the ITS regions from nine separate clones of the PCR product from two different isolates (SRS 6 and

SRS 70) of the putative new genus and always obtained sequences identical in structure (containing both tRNA^{Leu} and tRNA^{Ala}, fig. 3, ii), length, and nucleotide sequence.

Evidence for multiple nonidentical rRNA operons has been presented by Wilmotte, Neefs, and De Wachter (1994), who described problems in obtaining unambiguous rDNA sequences using direct sequencing of ITS PCR products in *Trichodesmium* NIBB 1067. After cloning these PCR products, they discovered differences in ITS sequences (but not configurations) among clones. More recently, Iteman et al. (2000) found two ITS sequences with completely different configurations in *Nostoc* PCC 7120.

We identified, based on sequence analysis of individual clones of PCR-amplified ITS regions, two types of ITS regions in a unialgal isolate of *C. parietina* and three different types of ITS regions from a unialgal isolate of *S. hyalinum*. This means that *C. parietina* carries at least two rRNA operons and that *S. hyalinum* carries at least three different rRNA operons, two of which are identical in size (400 bp) but nonidentical in sequence (fig. 4). One significant difference between our results and the findings of Iteman et al. (2000) concerns the number and/or identity of the operons lacking tRNA. While the former investigators found sequence identity between the tRNA-lacking regions of all operons in a single species, we identified sequence differences between two 400-bp tRNA-lacking operons in *S. hyalinum*. We also identified rRNA operons of similar configurations but different sequence compositions in individual clones of *Microcoleus* and *Nostoc* (unpublished data).

Iteman et al. (2000) determined that both the tRNA-lacking and the tRNA-containing 16S–23S ITS regions of *Nostoc* PCC 7120 contain the sequences necessary for proper folding and processing of this region to release functional rRNA and tRNA. These regions included the D1, D1', D2, and D3 short consensus sequences and the antiterminator box A. A box-B loop-and-stem structure just upstream of box A and a V3 stem-loop structure have variable primary structures but consistent secondary structures. We identified these same regions in the five species examined in this study (e.g., in *Scytonema*; fig. 4). Their presence suggests that all of the ITS regions we sequenced are involved in the folding and processing of rRNA.

The Use of 16S–23S ITS Sequence Data in Fine-Scale Phylogenetic Studies

The use of the 16S–23S ITS region in studies of phylogeny (reviewed Gürtler and Stanisich 1996; Lu 1999; Li 2000), molecular evolution (Antón, Martínez-Murcia, and Rodríguez-Valera 1998), or population genetics (Navarro et al. 1992; Otsuka et al. 1999; Scheldeman et al. 1999) is a potentially powerful tool. However, investigators need to be aware of potential problems imposed by the possibility of multiple nonidentical rRNA operons. Any study that depends on PCR amplification of the ITS region may run into the problem of preferential amplification of some operons. Amplifica-

tion of cyanobacterial 16S–23S ITS regions depends on cyanobacterial-specific primers developed by Wilmotte, Van der Auwera, and De Wachter (1993), Nelissen et al. (1994), Wilmotte (1994), and Nübel, Garcia-Pichel, and Muyzer (1997). One of these primers sits at the 5' end of the 23S rRNA molecule. Gürtler and Barrie (1995) found significant variation in this region of the 23S rRNA gene of the gram-positive bacterium *S. aureus* and cautioned that this primer site variability might mean that some rRNA operons might go unamplified or be underamplified in this species. In cyanobacteria, the existing data on 23S sequence composition are insufficient to ascertain whether a similar situation exists. Still, our experience with one field isolate of *Tolypothrix* suggests that such heterogeneity may be present. Attempts to amplify the ITS region of this organism with primers 1 and 5, which lie in the flanking 16S and 23S sequences (fig. 1), consistently produced one very bright band and one or two faint bands. When we sequenced three different clones of that PCR product, we observed only one sequence, which consistently contained no tRNA sequence (fig. 3, i). However, when we amplified the region with primers 1 and 4 or primers 3 and 5, primer sets that target tRNA^{Leu} and tRNA^{Ala} sequences (fig. 1), we obtained multiple nonidentical sequences containing both tRNA sequences. We interpret these results to indicate that the organism contains both tRNA-containing and tRNA-lacking rRNA operons and that the operon without tRNAs was preferentially amplified during PCR reactions using primers 1 and 5. This phenomenon may impact analyses employing restriction enzyme digests of ITS PCR products (e.g., Navarro et al. 1992; Lu et al. 1997; West and Adams 1997; Vinuesa et al. 1998; Scheldeman et al. 1999). That is, if the ITS from one operon is amplified preferentially in one isolate, while the ITS from a different operon is preferentially amplified in another isolate, comparisons of digests of PCR product from those two isolates may be flawed. Experimental designs should therefore contain safeguards against complications imposed by the presence of multiple nonidentical rRNA operons.

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