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1	DNA barcod	ing the genus Chara: molecular evidence recovers fewer taxa than the					
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23	Abbreviation	18					
24	AFLP	Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism					
25	CCDB	Canadian Centre for DNA Barcoding					
26	ITS2	nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer region 2					
27	matK	plastid-encoded protein-coding gene					
28	<i>rbc</i> L	plastid-encoded gene coding for the large subunit of RUBISCO					
29							

#### 30 Abstract

- 31 Charophytes (Charales) are benthic algae with a complex morphology. They are vulnerable to
- 32 ecosystem changes, such as eutrophication, and are red-listed in many countries. Accurate
- 33 identification of *Chara* species is critical for understanding their diversity and for
- 34 documenting changes in species distribution. Species delineation is, however, complicated,
- 35 because of high phenotypic plasticity. We used barcodes of the ITS2, *matK* and *rbc*L regions
- to test if the distribution of barcode haplotypes among individuals is consistent with species
- boundaries as they are currently understood. The study included freshly collected and
- herbarium material of 91 specimens from 10 European countries, Canada and Argentina.
- 39 Results show that herbarium specimens also for aquatic plants like *Chara* are useful as a
- 40 source of material for genetic analyses. *rbcL* and *matK* had highest sequence recoverability,
- 41 but *rbcL* had a somewhat lower discriminatory power than ITS2 and *matK*. The tree resulting
- 42 from the concatenated data matrix grouped the samples that according to a traditional
- 43 morphological approach consisted of 12 different taxa, into six main groups. A large
- 44 unresolved group consisted of *C. intermedia*, *C. hispida*, *C. horrida*, *C. baltica*, *C.*
- 45 polyacantha, C. rudis, C. aculeolata, and C. corfuensis. A second unresolved group consisted
- 46 of *C. virgata* and *C. strigosa*. The taxa within each of the unresolved groups shared identical
- 47 barcode sequences on the 977 positions of the concatenated data matrix. The morphological
- 48 differences of taxa within both unresolved groups include the number and length of spine
- 49 cells, stipulodes, and bract cells. We suggest that these morphological traits have less
- 50 taxonomic relevance than hitherto assumed.
- 51

# 52 **1.** Introduction

53 Charophytes, extant and fossil members of the order Charales plus the members of the extinct orders Sycidiales and Moellerinales (Schneider et al., 2015a), are algae with a complex 54 morphology, which are closely related to modern land plants (Timme et al., 2012). It was long 55 believed that Charales were the closest living relatives to land plants, i.e. that the tremendous 56 diversity of land plants all descended from a single charophyte alga (Karol et al., 2001). For 57 this reason, charophytes received much attention in DNA studies. However, recent 58 phylogenetic analyses instead support the Zygnematales as the direct ancestors of land plants 59 (Wodniok et al., 2011; Timme et al., 2012). 60 Charophytes help maintain oligotrophic conditions in ecosystems by directing nutrients and 61 carbon from the water to the sediment beneath charophyte meadows (Kufel et al., 2013). On 62 the other hand, charophytes are also sensitive to environmental changes such as 63 eutrophication (Blindow, 1992). Consequently, many charophytes have become rare or even 64 endangered in recent decades (Baastrup-Spohr et al., 2013) and further changes are predicted 65 in a changing climate (Auderset and Rev-Boissezon, 2015). Accurate identification of 66 charophyte species is, however, critical for understanding their diversity and for documenting 67 68 changes in species distribution. *Chara* species are also used as bioindicators of eutrophication and in the determination of ecological status according to the Water Framework Directive, 69 70 both in streams (Schneider & Melzer, 2003) and lakes (Stelzer et al., 2005), such that accurate species identification is of high practical relevance for ecosystem assessment and 71 72 management. 73 Species delineation of charophytes is commonly based on morphological traits of the plant 74 thallus. This is, however, more complicated than it might seem, because 1) there is considerable overlap in morphological characteristics used to discriminate species (Boegle et 75 76 al., 2007), and 2) phenotypic plasticity in charophytes may be environmentally induced, e.g. by light, water temperature, nutrient concentrations and salinity (Wood and Imahori, 1965; 77 78 Schneider et al. 2015b). Such plasticity makes it difficult to know which morphotypes are environmentally induced and which ones are genetically controlled (Boegle et al., 2010a). For 79 80 example, Boegle et al. (2010b) showed that Chara baltica Bruzelius and C. horrida Wahlstedt 81 cannot be separated from each other with the genetic fingerprinting technique AFLP (Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism), in spite of pronounced differences in the 82 83 number and length of spine cells and stipulodes. The number and length of spine cells and

84 stipulodes are, however, two of the most important characters for traditional species

- delineation within the genus *Chara* (Wood and Imahori<del>,</del> 1965; Krause<del>,</del> 1997), such that
- results from morphological and genetic analyses conflict with each other.

87 DNA barcoding, i.e. the use of short regions of DNA to identify species by assigning

individuals to known taxa through comparison of their barcodes with a reference library, has

89 become a popular means to improve species identification (Saarela et al., 2013). The

90 Consortium for the Barcode of Life (CBOL) Plant Working Group (2009) recommended *rbc*L

91 + matK as the standard plant barcode, after a broad study of several candidate regions. The

*rbc*L gene is plastid-encoded, and its function is to code for the large subunit of ribulose 1, 5

93 bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RUBISCO). *MatK* is a plastid-encoded protein-coding

gene, that has been shown to reside within a group II intron of the plastid encoded tRNALys

95 (lysine tRNA). The maturase *matK* presumably helps in splicing of multiple introns (Vogel et

<sup>96</sup> al.<del>,</del> 1999). Although the nuclear encoded internal transcribed spacer regions (ITS) were

97 dismissed as standard barcodes due to complicating problems, the importance of ITS as a

supplemental marker to *rbcL* and *matK* was stressed by several working groups (China Plant

99 BOL Group, 2011; Kuzmina et al., 2012). We therefore additionally analysed ITS2 in an

100 attempt to achieve higher discriminatory power. ITS is a region of non-coding DNA situated

101 between structural ribosomal RNA genes.

Herbarium collections are potentially an excellent resource for providing material that can be 102 used for DNA studies. It can, however, be difficult to obtain DNA of good enough quality 103 from herbarium material that will result in the amplification of various genes/markers. For 104 105 land plants it has been shown that the drying method strongly affects PCR success (Sarkinen 106 et al., 2012). We included both fresh and herbarium material of different ages in this study 107 because we expected the drying of samples may be even more critical for hydrophytes, such as Chara, but on the other hand the use of Chara herbarium collections would greatly 108109 facilitate the analysis of a large number of samples.

110 The objectives of our study were to 1) design ITS2 and *matK* primers for the genus *Chara*, 2)

solve taxonomic problems, 3) test if herbarium samples are suitable as source of genetic

- 112 material for *Chara*, and if so, to also test for relationships between the age of herbarium
- samples and their sequence recovery for ITS2, matK and rbcL, 4) test if results obtained from
- 114 ITS2, matK and rbcL are consistent with each other, or if one marker discriminates better than

the others, and 5) test if the distribution of barcode haplotypes among individuals is consistent with species boundaries as they are currently understood.

117

# 118 2.- Material and Methods

## 119 Taxon sampling

120 The study included 91 samples from 10 European countries, Canada and Argentina (Table 1).

121 Eleven individuals were collected fresh, and dried in silica gel shortly after sampling; 29

122 individuals were collected from private herbaria that are stored at the Norwegian Institute for

123 Water Research (assembled by Michael Boegle and Susanne Schneider), and 51 individuals

124 were collected from the herbarium of the Natural History Museum, University of Oslo (Table

125 1). We only sampled herbarium material that was green, indicative of fast drying. Voucher

specimens exist for all samples. All data were managed in the Barcode of Life Systems

127 (BOLD) database in the project called "CHARA".

128

#### 129 *Taxonomy*

The samples were tentatively identified as representing 17 species of the genus *Chara* (Table 130 131 1). The number of individuals sampled per species ranged from 1 - 20 (Table 1). Wood and 132 Imahori (1965) subdivided the genus *Chara* into sections and subsections, and assumed a 133 close phylogenetic relationship among the members of each group. The material used in this 134 study contains specimen from the subsections Hartmania, Chara, and Grovesia. We focused 135 on taxa belonging to subsection Hartmania, because morphological traits used to delineate 136 these taxa have been reported to intergrade among individuals (i.e. intermediate forms are 137 observed; Boegle et al., 2007). Taxa within the subsection Hartmania are rather stout plants, with a generally diplostichous cortex, elongated stipulodes, and geminate or fasciculate spine-138 cells (see Fig. 1 for an explanation of typical morphological traits of a Chara); prominent taxa 139 of the subsection Hartmania include among others C. hispida, C. intermedia, and C. baltica 140 (Table 1). Other taxa from the subsection Chara (diplostichous cortex, solitary spines) and 141 Grovesia (triplostichous cortex) were included for comparison. 142

Many *Chara* taxa have been variously recognized as species, varieties, or forms, and there is
little consensus about appropriate rank among different flora treatments. The two most widely
applied taxonomic concepts are those of Wood and Imahori (1965) and Krause (1997). While

146 the former authors belong to the school of "lumpers" (lumping taxa into broad categories), the

- 147 latter is a so-called "splitter" (creating many narrowly defined categories). For example,
- 148 Wood and Imahori (1965) discriminate 19 species world-wide within the genus Chara,
- 149 whereas Krause (1997) recognizes 29 species in Europe alone.
- 150 In order to be consistent, and to provide barcode data that are taxonomically informative on
- 151 an as detailed level as possible, our species delineation generally followed that of Krause
- 152 (1997), with the following exceptions: i) C. aculeolata was differentiated by its longer spines
- and stouter appearance from C. intermedia, because it is an ongoing debate whether or not
- these two should be separated; Krause (1997) recognized this taxon as "form" within C.
- 155 intermedia; ii) C. corfuensis was determined after Wood and Imahori (1965) because this
- taxon is not listed in Krause (1997); Wood and Imahori (1965) recognize this taxon as C.
- 157 hispida var. hispida f. corfuensis; we gave this taxon species rank in order to be consistent
- 158 with Krause's (1997) taxonomic concept; iii) C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis was
- determined after Wood and Imahori (1965), because Krause (1997) does not list this taxon
- 160 (the taxon is described from South America, and the treatment put forth by Krause (1997)
- 161 only deals with European taxa).
- 162

## 163 Primer Design

- 164 *Chara* specific *matK* and ITS2 primers were designed based on sequences for *matK* and ITS2
- 165 that were obtained from GenBank (Table 2) and aligned in MEGA version 6 (Tamura et al.,
- 166 2013). Resulting primers were named *Chara\_*ITSF2, *Chara\_*ITSR2, *Chara\_*matKF2, and
- 167 Chara matKR2 (Table 3).
- 168

## 169 DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing

- 170 Total genomic DNA was extracted from *Chara* material following the standard protocols at
- 171 the Canadian Centre for DNA Barcoding (CCDB, Ivanova et al., 2008, Ivanova et al., 2011).
- 172 The amplification and sequencing of the three gene regions (ITS2, *matK*, and *rbc*L, using
- 173 primers found in Table 3) also followed the protocols of the CCDB, as detailed and described
- in Kuzmina et al. (2012). Sequence chromatograms were proofed, edited, and contigs
- assembled using the program CodonCode Aligner version 2.0.6 (CodonCode Co, USA).
- 176 Contigs were aligned using the MUSCLE multiple sequence alignment algorithm (Edgar,
- 177 2004) as implemented in CodonCode Aligner. These initial alignments were created in order
- to compare contigs generated from the various specimens and aided the identification and

179 correction of base calling errors following the examination of trace files. Specific for ITS2

- 180 amplicons, BLAST was utilized in order to determine whether any of the sequences produced
- 181 were of fungal contaminants.
- 182

#### 183 Phylogenetic analyses

184 Of the 91 specimens of *Chara* included in this study (Table 1), phylogenetic analyses were

conducted using the 73 samples for which we recovered sequences at each of the three

186 markers examined (*matK*, ITS2 and *rbc*L). We did so in order to consistently compare

187 discriminatory power among the three markers, and to ensure that our conclusions have

188 maximum credibility, i.e. are supported by three independent markers. For comparison,

189 phylogenetic trees produced from individual complete data sets are given in <u>a</u>Appendix (Fig.

190 <u>**S1**</u>.

Barcode data were quality-controlled iteratively throughout data collection to detect potential contamination, misidentification, and alignment error. We produced neighbor joining trees for each marker, and looked for individuals that were grossly misplaced. Voucher specimens of problematic samples were re-examined resulting in the correction of misidentified taxa, or the removal of the sequence from the BOLD database.

196 Sequences were aligned using Align (version 03/2007) MS Windows-based manual sequence

alignment editor (SequentiX - Digital DNA Processing, Klein Raden Germany) to obtain

198 DNA sequence alignments, which were then corrected manually. Segments with highly

199 variable and ambiguous regions and gaps making proper alignment impossible were excluded

from the analyses. A *mat*K set containing 292 positions, an ITS2 set containing 183, and a

201 *rbc*L set containing 502 positions was used. *Chara longifolia* (AY170444), *Chara foliolosa* 

202 (HQ380618) and *Chara foliolosa* (HQ380452) were employed as outgroup taxa in the *matK*,

203 ITS2 and *rbc*L tree, respectively. Data sets were analyzed using the maximum likelihood

204 (ML) algorithm in MEGA version 6 (Tamura et al., 2013). In the ML analyses, evolutionary

substitution models were evaluated in MEGA version 6. The method selected the same best-

fitting evolutionary model (T92) for the three markers (*matK*, ITS2 and *rbcL*). ML analyses

were performed with 1000 bootstrap replicates in MEGA version 6 (Tamura et al., 2013).

In the tree generated using the combined *matK*-ITS2-*rbc*L data set, no outgroup was used.

209 Phylogenetic inference was based on ML, and analyses were performed with Treefinder

 $(Jobb_7 2011)$  with three partitions. Models and parameters proposed by Treefinder under AICc

211 criteria were as follows: *matK* (292 bases; model HKY), *rbcL* (502 bases; model HKY), ITS2

- 212 (183 bases; model HKY). To provide support of relationships, bootstrap analyses were
- 213 calculated by ML (1000 replicates) criteria with Treefinder.
- 214

#### 215 Sequence recoverability

216 We calculated the number of *rbcL*, *matK* and ITS2 sequences in the entire dataset, obtained

217 from both herbarium specimens and from silica-gel dried samples. To determine if herbarium

218 specimen age and sequence recovery were correlated, we counted the number of sequences

219 recovered from specimens in each year. For correlation analysis, we only used those years

from which we had a minimum of three samples (i.e. the years 1969, 1995, 1998 and 2007

221 were omitted from the analysis). We then used Spearman rank correlation to test for a

relationship between year and sequence recovery, because we expected the relationship to be

223 monotonic, but not necessarily linear.

224

#### 225 **3.** Results

## 226 Sequence recoverability

227 Sequence recoverability was highest for *matK* and *rbc*L, and lowest for ITS2 (Table 4). Silica

228 gel dried samples were 100% recovered for all three loci, while recoverability for the

herbarium specimen ranged from 93% (*matK*) to 84% (ITS2). Age of herbarium specimens

and sequence recovery were not significantly correlated (Spearman rho 0.16, 0.15 and 0.57

231 for *matK*, ITS2 and *rbc*L, respectively, for the correlation between sampling year and

sequence recovery; all p > 0.05).

233

#### 234 Taxonomic uncertainties

235 We corrected one misidentification in our dataset, where a *C. contraria* with unusually long

spine cells had mistakenly been identified as C. polyacantha (field ID MB 70; Table 1). This

- 237 sample clearly clustered to other *C. contraria* individuals, and this result was consistent
- among all three analysed loci.
- 239 In addition, the three specimens of C. vulgaris from Argentina were found to cluster to two
- 240 different groups. While two accessions, determined by their elongated stipulodes as *C*.
- 241 vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis (field IDs 47 and 48) clustered within a large group

242	containing 9 different taxa (Figs. 2 and 3), the third sample (field ID 44) formed its own
243	branch (Figs. 2 and 3).

244

## 245 Consistency between barcode haplotypes and morphological species boundaries

Each of the three investigated loci separated the taxa into six main groups (Fig. 2), and the

same six clusters were recovered in the tree produced from the analysis of the concatenated

data matrix (plastid and nuclear sequences; Fig. 3). The first group is a large cluster

containing 55 individuals (labelled cluster I; Fig. 3) which have traditionally been assigned to

250 nine different taxa (C. intermedia, C. hispida, C. horrida, C. baltica, C. polyacantha, C. rudis,

251 C. aculeolata, C. corfuensis, C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis). ITS2 and matK

supported this cluster with bootstrap values of 93 and 97%, respectively, while the *rbcL* 

cluster was poorly supported (36%). The only locus that separated a subgroup containing two

254 individuals of C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis within this large cluster of nine

different taxa was *matK* (Fig. 2b). None of the loci discriminated between the other eight taxa

in this cluster. A second cluster (labelled cluster II; Fig. 2, 3) containing five individuals of *C*.

*contraria* was recovered with bootstrap support of  $\geq$  67%; ITS2 was the only locus that

separated a subgroup containing two samples from Austria and Germany (labelled C.

259 contraria group b; Fig. 2a and Fig. 3) from the other three individuals which are from Canada

and Norway (labelled *C. contraria* group a; Fig. 2a and Fig. 3). Clusters III and IV contain

261 one individual each of C. c.f. vulgaris and C. galioides, respectively. A fifth group (labelled

262 cluster V; Fig. 2, 3) contains three individuals of C. tomentosa with bootstrap support of  $\geq$ 

263 98%. Finally, cluster VI containing eight individuals, four of which belong to C. virgata and

four to C. strigosa, was supported by bootstrap values of 99% (Fig. 2, 3). None of the three

loci discriminated between C. virgata and C. strigosa (Fig. 2).

Tree topology for the three loci was similar, though not identical. In each of the trees, C.

267 contraria (in case of rbcL, together with C. c.f. vulgaris and C. galioides) was the group most

closely related to the large cluster I containing nine taxa, while C. strigosa/virgata (in case of

269 rbcL, together with C. tomentosa) was most distant (Fig. 2). In total, ITS2, rbcL and matK

270 were consistent in their fundamental results. ITS2 and *matK* each discriminated one subgroup

271 (Ib and IIb, respectively; Fig. 2) which the other loci did not recover. Apart from that,

272 discriminatory power of the three investigated loci did not differ. The concatenated tree

resulting from the analysis of the combined plastid and nuclear sequences resolved the same

274 six main groups as the individual analyses. Apart from the two groups consisting of one

individual each (*C*. c.f. *vulgaris*, *C. galioides*), the remaining four groups were each supported by bootstrap values of  $\geq$  93% (Fig. 3). Tree topology was consistent with the results from the separate analyses. The subgroup containing two individuals of *C. vulgaris* var. *vulgaris* f. *calveraensis* differentiated by *matK* (Fig. 2 b), and the subgroup containing two samples of *C. contraria* from Austria and Germany differentiated by ITS2 (Fig. 2a) were both represented in the concatenated tree (Fig. 3), such that overall resolution of the concatenated tree was slightly higher than the trees resulting from each individual analysis.

282

#### 283 4-Discussion

#### 284 Sequence recoverability

285 A multitude of factors influences recoverability of DNA barcodes, ranging from careless preparation of samples, sample contamination and age of samples to unsatisfactory primer 286 design or inadequate amplicon length. For our samples, sequence recoverability for the 287 freshly collected and silica gel dried samples was 100% for all three loci, while recoverability 288 289 for the herbarium specimen ranged from 93% (matK) to 84% (ITS2). These values are 290 considerably higher than in some other analyses for plants (de Vere et al., 2012) and algae 291 (Kucera and Saunders, 2012; Pérez et al., 2014), but correspond well with results on arctic vascular plants (Kuzmina et al., 2012). They may simply be explained by the younger age of 292 the herbarium specimens we used (our oldest sample was from 1969, while de Vere et al. 293 294 (2012) managed to barcode a sample from 1868). However, while matK performed considerably poorer than *rbcL* in de Vere et al. (2012) and 295 Kuzmina et al. (2012), the performance of these two plastid markers was approximately equal 296 for our data. The poor performance of *matK* in analyses of large datasets such as de Vere et al. 297 298 (2012) and Kuzmina et al. (2012) is mainly due to the fact that no universal primers exist for more distantly related taxa, unlike *rbc*L for which universal primers are much more accessible 299 (Hollingsworth et al., 2011; de Vere et al., 2012). The good performance of matK may 300 therefore be taken as a sign that the *Chara* specimens we analysed are very closely related, 301 resulting in the ease of developing primers specific to the genus that would amplify *matK* for 302 all Chara specimens used. A poorer recoverability of ITS compared to rbcL and matK has 303 been described before (Hollingsworth, 2011) and is commonly ascribed to the existence of 304 305 paralogous copies within individuals, which can prevent readable sequences from being

- $_{306}$  obtained (Hollingsworth et al., 2011). Our data are consistent with this finding (even with
- 307 developing ITS2 specific primers for the genus *Chara*). In summary, our results indicate that

for analyzing closely related species such as those in the genus *Chara, matK* and *rbcL* both
perform reasonably well in terms of sequence recoverability, while ITS2 shows a somewhat
lower recoverability.

In addition, a negative relationship between sequencing success and age of herbarium 311 specimens has in some instances been documented for plants (de Vere et al., 2012; Saarela et 312 al., 2013), while other studies showed no such association (Kuzmina et al., 2012). For our 313 data, the correlation was not significant. However, visual inspection of the data indicated that 314 sequence recoverability likely would have decreased with increasing age of herbarium 315 samples if our data series had been longer (i.e. older samples were included). Altogether, we 316 317 have shown that i) herbarium specimens are useful as a source of material for aquatic plants, 318 like *Chara*, in spite of the expected slower drying timeframe compared to the often less "watery" land plants, ii) material sampled from up to 12 years old herbarium specimens is 319 readily usable to obtain DNA and amplify barcode markers, in particular *rbc*L and *matK*, but 320 321 iii) recoverability of sequences may decrease for older specimens.

322

#### 323 Discriminatory power of ITS2, matK and rbcL

The choice of *rbcL+matK* as a core barcode for plants was based on the straightforward 324 recovery of the *rbcL* region, plus the high discriminatory power of the *matK* region (CBOL<sub>5</sub> 325 2009; Hollingsworth et al.; 2011). Nevertheless, a greater discriminatory power of the entire 326 327 nrITS compared to plastid regions has often been shown at low taxonomic levels (China Plant BOL Group, 2011; Hollingsworth, 2011). In our data, all three investigated regions 328 329 discriminated the same six main groups, but ITS2 and matK each discriminated one additional subgroup which the other regions did not recover. This is consistent with the well-established 330 331 fact that *rbcL* has lower discriminatory power (Hollingsworth et al. 2011), while *matK* is one of the most rapidly evolving coding sections of the plastid genome (Hilu and Liang, 1997). 332 333 and that the ITS region generally has great discriminatory power (China Plant BOL Group, 2011). The topological agreement that was found in this study between all three regions 334 335 (including plastid and nuclear derived markers) resulting in the recovery of six main groups is consistent with results of Sakayama et al. (2004a) on Nitella (which is, after Chara, the 336 337 second most species rich-genus of the Charales), who also found that the phylogeny derived from nuclear ribosomal DNA (including ITS2) was congruent with chloroplast gene 338 339 phylogeny (including *rbcL*). With respect to discriminatory power, our data confirm that ITS2 and *matK* may perform equally well, while *rbcL* has lower performance. At the same time, 340

ITS2 had lower sequence recoverability (see above). The choice of *rbcL+matK* as a core
barcode for plants seems therefore suitable also for *Chara*.

343

#### 344 Taxonomic uncertainties

DNA barcoding aims to facilitate species identification through substituting morphological 345 traits by standardized portions of the genome. In our dataset, one individual of C. contraria 346 had mistakenly been identified as C. polyacantha. Each of the three markers ITS2, rbcL and 347 *matK* clearly assigned this sample to *C. contraria*. Re-examination of the voucher specimen 348 349 revealed that this individual had unusually long spine cells. Thus, our results support the view of Krause (1997) that "spiny" individuals of C. contraria are to be regarded as infraspecific 350 morphotypes of C. contraria (C. contraria var. hispidula). Our results contradict the view of 351 Wood and Imahori (1965), who placed the "forma *hispidula*" and "forma *contraria*" on equal 352 ranks within C. vulgaris var. vulgaris. C. contraria var. hispidula can be differentiated from 353 354 C. polyacantha by having solitary spine cells (C. polyacantha: generally fasciculate), and by 355 its smaller internode diameter (C. contraria: less than 1 mm, C. polyacantha: more than 1 mm; Krause, 1997). 356 Based on ITS2 results, C. contraria was divided into two sub-groups: "group a" containing 357

three samples from Canada and Norway, and "group b" containing two samples from Austria

and Germany (Figs. 2a, 3). While one of the samples in group b (field ID MB 70, Table 1)

360 was morphologically different from the other four individuals by having elongated spine cells

361 (= *C. contraria* var. *hispidula*), the other individuals showed no obviously distinct

362 morphological characteristics. Consequently, the two subgroups apparently did not represent

different morphotypes, but may possibly be regarded as geographically separated groups

364 (Northern circumpolar (Canada and Norway) and Central-European (Austria and Germany)).

365 More data are necessary to test this hypothesis, however.

The taxonomic concept applied by Wood and Imahori (1965) is based on the assumption that

a close phylogenetic relationship exists among the members of each subsection. However,

368 members of the subsections Chara and Grovesia did not form monophyletic groups (Fig. 3),

thus contradicting Wood and Imahori's (1965) assumption. This notwithstanding, all samples

- belonging to the subsection Hartmania (Table 1) indeed clustered together (cluster I, Fig. 3),
- 371 which supports Wood and Imahori's assumption of a close phylogenetic relationship of the
- taxa in this group. However, both individuals of C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis (field

ID 47, 48; Table 1) also clustered to the Hartmania section (Fig. 3). This result was consistent 373 among all three analysed loci (Fig. 2). Wood and Imahori (1965) separate the subsection 374 Chara (into which they placed C, vulgaris var, vulgaris f, calveraensis) from the subsection 375 Hartmania by their spine cells: individuals of the subsection Chara have solitary or rarely 376 geminate spine cells, while individuals of the subsection Hartmania have predominantly 377 fasciculate spine cells. Since re-examination of the voucher specimens gave no indication of a 378 possible misidentification, we suggest that C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis belongs to 379 the subsection Hartmania instead of the subsection Chara. This further indicates that the 380 number of spine cells (solitary, geminate or fasciculate), i.e. the criterion which was used by 381 Wood and Imahori (1965) to separate the subsection Hartmania from the subsection Chara, 382 may not be useful for inferring phylogenetic relationships. 383 The third sample of C. c.f. vulgaris (field ID 44; Table 1) formed its own branch (Figs. 2, 3). 384 C. vulgaris is characterized by a diplostichous (twice as many cortex rows as the number of 385 386 branchlets per whorl) and aulacanthous cortex (the primary cortex cells supporting the spines are thinner than the secondary rows), but both these characteristics are also true for C. 387 vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis, which, as shown above, is genetically different from C. 388 vulgaris (Fig. 3). However, individuals of C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis are, in 389 accordance with all other taxa in the subsection Hartmania, rather stout and large plants 390 (Wood and Imahori (1965) describe the taxon as "moderately stout", axis diameter to 900 391 μm). In contrast, C. vulgaris is, in accordance with most other varieties of C. vulgaris sensu 392 Wood and Imahori (1965), generally quite slender and small (Wood and Imahori (1965) 393 describe the taxon as "moderately slender", axis diameter circa 500 µm). Clearly, more 394 395 molecular data are needed from C. vulgaris before answers can be given. Nevertheless, we 396 recommend that the internode diameter (corresponding to the often used description of a 397 *Chara* specimen as being "large and stout" as opposed to being "slender and quite small") 398 should be paid more attention. This is surprising because plant size may be expected to be influenced by the environment. Nevertheless, also the above mentioned misidentification of 399 C. contraria as C. polyacantha could have been avoided if internode diameter had been taken 400 into account. 401

402

#### 403 Consistency between barcode haplotypes and morphological species boundaries

404 Following a traditional morphological approach, the tree produced using the concatenated

405 data matrix (Fig. 3) consisted of individuals from 12 different taxa. In contrast, molecular data

revealed six main groups, in addition to the C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis subgroup 406 and a morphologically un-differentiated subgroup within C. contraria. Differences between 407 genomic and morphological species resolution are well-documented, and the existence of 408 cryptic species (i.e. species that are morphologically indistinguishable but show genetic 409 differences; e.g. Kucera and Saunders, 2012) as well as the opposite, i.e. the existence of 410 morphotypes that cannot be separated by barcoding (e.g. Seberg and Petersen, 2009; China 411 plant BOL group, 2011; Kuzmina et al., 2012) have often been shown. In our data, there 412 413 occurred two groups of genetically unresolved species. The first unresolved group (cluster Ia; 414 Fig. 3) consisted of C. intermedia, C. hispida, C. horrida, C. baltica, C. polyacantha, C. rudis, C. aculeolata, and C. corfuensis. These eight taxa shared identical barcode sequences 415 on the 977 positions of the concatenated sequence tree. This is remarkable, because other 416 algal groups show considerably higher intra-specific variation (e.g. the marine green 417 macroalgal genus Caulerpa J.V. Lamouroux shows intra-specific variation of the rbcL region; 418 419 Belton et al., 2014). In spite of identical barcode sequences on the 977 positions we analyzed, these taxa are morphologically discriminated from each other by spine cells (single versus 420 fasciculate), cortication (tylachanthous versus aulacanthous), stipulodes (two rows versus 421 multiple rows), bract cells (elongated versus not elongated) and habitat (fresh water versus 422 brackish water). Our results indicate that these morphological traits may not reflect major 423 differences in DNA sequences and consequently may be of low taxonomic value for species 424 discrimination in Chara. These results are consistent with earlier results obtained by AFLP 425 (Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism), a genetic fingerprinting technique that may 426 have higher species resolution than barcoding (Roy et al., 2010). Boegle et al. (2010a) 427 428 concluded, in an extension of results obtained by Mannschreck (2003) and Boegle et al. 429 (2007), that the species complex around C. intermedia and C. baltica formed a continuum. In addition, there occurred no differences in AFLP fingerprints between C. baltica and C. 430 horrida (Boegle et al., 2010b). Likewise, Urbaniak and Combik (2013) were unable to 431 consistently differentiate individuals of C. intermedia, C. baltica, C. polyacantha, C. rudis 432 and C. hispida by AFLP. Mannschreck (2003) and Boegle et al. (2007, 2010a, b) indeed were 433 able to differentiate C. hispida by AFLP. However, C. hispida clustered in all instances next 434 to C. intermedia, C. baltica and C. horrida, the difference between C. hispida and the other 435 taxa was small and they together formed a monophyletic group supported by high bootstrap 436 values. Our dataset on this species group was from a larger geographic area than the samples 437 used in the above mentioned AFLP studies, spanning seven countries in Europe, from Norway 438 in the North to Greece in the South, and from Poland in the East to Spain in the West. 439

Nevertheless, barcodes of all taxa in cluster Ia were identical on the 977 positions used for the 440 concatenated tree. A subgroup consisting of C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis from 441 Argentina (cluster Ib, Fig. 3) was separated. This taxon differed in 1 out of the 292 basepairs 442 within *matK*, while the 502 rbcL and 183 ITS2 sequence sites were identical to the taxa found 443 in cluster Ia. Such small differences are well within the accepted intra-specific variation of 444 other algal species (Belton et al., 2014; Leliaert et al., 2014). In summary, the differences in 445 barcode sequences of samples in cluster I were very small, even though samples were from 446 447 two different continents. They point towards a very close phylogenetic relationship among these taxa, and lend support to Wood and Imahori's (1965) view of lumping these taxa into 448 one species that has considerable morphological variation. 449 450 The second group of unresolved species was formed by C. virgata and C. strigosa (cluster VI, Fig. 3). Barcodes of these species were identical across the 977 positions of the concatenated 451 sequence matrix, in spite of conspicuous morphological differences that exist in spine cells 452 453 and stipulodes (C. virgata: only the upper row of stipulodes is well developed, spine cells are rudimentary; C. strigosa: two well-developed rows of stipulodes, spine cells are elongated 454 and fasciculate). These results are in accordance with earlier results obtained by AFLP 455 (Mannschreck<sub>2</sub> 2003), and indicate that the length and number of spine cells, as well as the 456 length of stipulodes may be of low taxonomic value in Chara. There is a general consensus 457 that algal species may be viewed as separately evolving metapopulation lines (Leliaert et al., 458 2014). Since C. virgata typically occurs in Calcium poor habitats, while C. strigosa typically 459 occurs in Calcium rich habitats (Rey-Boissezon and Auderset Joye, 2015), these taxa may 460 well "evolve separately" in spite of their genetic similarity. Clearly, more data are needed to 461 clarify the taxonomic status of these taxa. However, our results indicate a very close 462 463 phylogenetic relationship between C. virgata and C. strigosa. 464 In clades where speciation has been very recent, or where rates of mutation are slow, barcode 465 sequences may be shared among related taxa (Hollingsworth et al., 2011). In such cases, the

466 commonly used barcode markers may be too conservative, while loci that are associated with

traits that are under selection may be more informative (Leliaert et al.<del>,</del> 2014). Heritable

468 phenotypic modifications in the absence of differences in DNA barcodes can also be caused

469 by the environment via e.g. epigenetic variation, such as DNA methylation (Cubas et al.<del>,</del>

470 1999; Zhang et al.<del>,</del> 2013). Verhoeven et al. (2010) showed that stress, e.g. chemical induction

471 of herbivore and pathogen defenses, can trigger considerable variation in methylation of plant

472 DNA. Consequently, habitat salinity (*C. baltica* and *C. horrida* typically occur in brackish

water habitats, while the other taxa in cluster I typically occur in freshwater habitats) or Caconcentration (*C. virgata*: Calcium poor habitats, *C. strigosa*: Calcium rich habitats; ReyBoissezon and Auderset Joye, 2015) may also be related to epigenetic variation. A third
explanation for phenotypic modifications in the absence of differences in DNA barcodes may
be polyploidy (Schranz and Osborn, 2004). However, recent evidence suggests that epigenetic
rather than genetic factors may explain phenotypic divergence between plant populations of
different ploidy (Rois et al., 2013).

480

#### 481 **5.** Conclusions

The morphological characters that are traditionally used to differentiate between taxa found in 482 the two genetically unresolved clusters in this study (Fig. 3) are the number and length of 483 484 spine cells, stipulodes, and bract cells. We suggest that these morphological traits are of lower taxonomic relevance than hitherto assumed. This is supported by (1) the observation that the 485 "spiny" C. contraria var. hispidula was not differentiated from the "normal" C. contraria 486 either, (2) no differences were recovered in AFLP fingerprints among varieties of C. aspera 487 that morphologically differ with respect to number and length of spine cells (poorly 488 developed, single, fasciculate; Mannschreck, 2003; O'Reilly et al., 2007), and (3) the length 489 490 of stipulodes and bract cells did not coincide with genetic differences in C. braunii either (Kato et al., 2008). Similar observations exist for the genus Nitella (Charales), where the form 491 and cell number of dactyls (terminal cells in a branchlet ray), a morphological trait used for 492 species differentiation, were variable within the clades (Sakayama et al., 2004b). Our results 493 are also in accordance with results of Perez et al. (2014) on the genus *Tolypella*, the third most 494 495 common genus within the Characeae. Perez et al. (2014) found that some species shared identical sequences despite radically different growth forms, and indicated that some authors 496 tend to over-emphasize slight morphological differences to delineate species. 497 Morphological traits such as the length and number of spine cells or stipulodes are readily 498 499 visible in *Chara*, resulting in their prominent use for species discrimination in this genus. Also, one may sometimes easily be misled. For example, C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. 500 501 calveraensis was discriminated as a subgroup by matK, and this taxon indeed is 502 morphologically different from the other eight taxa in this group (cluster I, Fig. 3) by its 503 elongated and irregular stipulodes. However, the genetic difference may also be explained by geographic separation (C. vulgaris var. vulgaris f. calveraensis was from Argentina, while the 504 505 other eight taxa in this group were from Europe). Taken together, increasing evidence has

506	accumulated that Chara taxa which exclusively differ in the number and length of spine cells,
507	stipulodes, and bract cells are genetically closely related, and may be regarded as varieties
508	rather than species. In contrast, oospore traits were shown to be useful for species
509	differentiation in Nitella (Sakayama et al., 2004b), and this may well work also for Chara.
510	Indeed, taxa included in cluster I cannot be differentiated by oospore traits (Blume et al.,
511	2009), while other species are different (Holzhausen et al. <del>,</del> 2015), thus supporting the results
512	summarized in Fig. 3.
513	The unresolved cluster Ia contains eight Chara taxa from Europe which share identical
514	barcode sequences. Many, but not all of these taxa are assigned to various IUCN Red List
515	categories (e.g. Sjøtun et al. <del>,</del> 2010; Auderset Joye and Schwarzer <del>,</del> 2012). The same is true for
516	cluster VI, which consists of C. virgata and C. strigosa. While the former often is regarded as
517	quite common, C. strigosa is often red listed (e.g. Sjøtun et al. <del>,</del> 2010; Auderset Joye and
518	Schwarzer, 2012). While the IUCN criteria for Red Lists are open for inclusion of subspecies
519	and varieties, provided an assessment of the full species is also given (IUCN, 2014), the
520	conservation status of Chara species clearly requires renewed attention.
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# 680 Figure captions

682	Fig. 1. Schematic drawing of the uppermost part of a <i>Chara</i> specimen; the cortex can be i)
683	haplostichous (number of cortex cell rows corresponds to the number of branchlets),
684	diplostichous (twice as many cortex cell rows as the number of branchlets), or triplostichous
685	(three times as many cortex cell rows as the number of branchlets), and ii) aulacanthous
686	(secondary cortex cell rows more prominent, spines on thinner cortex cells), tylacanthous
687	(primary cortex cell rows more prominent, spines on thicker cortex cells), or isostichous
688	(primary and secondary cortex cells equally prominent). Fig 1a shows an example of a
689	diplostichous aulacanthous cortex with fasciculate spines (e.g. C. hispida), Fig. 1b illustrates
690	an example of a diplostichous tylacanthous cortex with single spines (e.g. C. baltica).
691	
692	
693	Fig. 2. Bootstrapped condensed ML (maximum likelihood) tree of a) ITS2, b) matK and c)
694	rbcL sequences of 73 Chara samples from which all three loci were successfully recovered;
695	bootstrap values above 50 % are shown in the tree. The clusters belong to the following
696	subsections according to Wood and Imahori (1965): I = Hartmania, II = Chara, III = Chara,
697	IV = Grovesia, V = Chara, VI = Grovesia. To improve readability, outgroups are not shown.
698	
699	
700	Fig. 3. Concatenated ML (maximum likelihood) tree of ITS2, <i>matK</i> and <i>rbc</i> L sequences of 73
701	Chara samples. Bootstrap values above 50 % are shown in the tree. The bar indicates 1%
702	sequence divergence. *= for sample ID see Table 1. The clusters belong to the following
703	subsections according to Wood and Imahori (1965): I = Hartmania, II = Chara, III = Chara,
704	IV = Grovesia, V = Chara, VI = Grovesia.

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- Table 1. List of 91 *Chara* individuals used in the present study. All samples were taken from
- <sup>708</sup> herbarium collections, except those marked as "silica gel". NHM = Natural History Museum,
- 709 University of Oslo; NIVA = Norwegian Institute for Water Research
- 710

		subsection sensu Wood and Imahori			Field	coll.		silica gel	matK re	e- ITS2 r d cover	re- rbcL red cover	re- red	voucher
Identification	author	(1965)	comment	BOLD Sample ID	ID T20	year	country	(1=yes)	(1=yes)	(1=ye:	s) (1=ye	s)	specimen
Chara aculeolata Chara aculeolata	Kulz. III Kulib. 1652	Harumania		CHARA_A_000038	T30	2007	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara aculeolata				CHARA_A_00037	T37	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara aculeolata	WEE 4000	Carrieria		CHARA_A_00039	T39	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara aspera Chara aspera	willu. 1609	Giovesia		CHARA_A_00049 CHARA_A_00074	MB10	2000	Germany		1		)	1	NIVA
Chara aspera				CHARA_A_00075	MB13	2000	Germany		1	c	)	0	NIVA
Chara aspera				CHARA_A_00077	MB23	2005	Sweden		1	(	)	1	NIVA
Chara aspera Chara baltica	Bruzelius 1824	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00082	MB 07 MB39	2005	Greece		0	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00078	MB34	2004	France		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00035	T35	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara baltica Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00036 CHARA_A_00084	136 MR47	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00083	MB43	2002	Sweden		o	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00081	MB37	2005	Germany		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara baueri Chara contraria	A. Br. 1847	Braunia		CHARA_A_00052	S29	2011	Germany		1		)	1	NIVA
Chara contraria	A. DI. 6X NULZ. 1040 8. 80.	Chala		CHARA A 00050	T50	2000	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara contraria				CHARA_A_00054	S54	2006	Canada		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara contraria			var. hispidula	CHARA_A_00087	MB 70	2001	Austria		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara contraria Chara corfuensis	(I. Gr. Ex El.) R.D.W. 1965	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00055	S55	2009	Greece		1	-	1	1	NIVA
Chara fibrosa	Ag. ex Bruz. 1824	Agardhia		CHARA_A_00053	S51	2006	Canada		1	(	)	1	NIVA
Chara galioides	De Candolle 1813	Grovesia		CHARA_A_00091	MB 81	2001	France		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara galioides	(L) Hartm 1820	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00090	MB 80 T1	2001	France		1		)	0	NIVA
Chara hispida	(2.) Haran. 1020	ridi di di di di		CHARA_A_00002	T2	2003	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00005	T5	2012	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00006	T6 To	2012	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00009 CHARA_A_00010	T10	2012	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00011	T11	2002	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00012	T12	1998	Norway		0	1	1	0	NHM
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00013	T13	2011	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00014 CHARA A 00015	T15	1995	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00016	T16	2003	Norway		1	1	1	0	NHM
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00017	T17	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00018 CHARA_A_00019	T18 T19	2009	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00020	T20	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00021	T21	2002	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00070	49 MD 69	2012	Germany	1	1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA A 00095	MB 87	2003	Germany		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara horrida	Wahlst. 1862	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00079	MB35	2005	Sweden		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara intermedia Chara intermedia	A. Br. in Br., Rab. and Stiz. 1859	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00094	MB 86 MB 2	2001	Germany		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara intermedia				CHARA A 00093	MB 85	2004	Sweden		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara intermedia				CHARA_A_00063	35	2012	Poland	1	1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara polyacantha	A. Br. in Br., Rab. and Stiz. 1859	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00073	MB3	2004	Germany		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara polyacantha Chara polyacantha				CHARA A 00022	5 T22	2008	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara polyacantha				CHARA_A_00023	T23	2009	Norway		0	0	)	0	NHM
Chara polyacantha				CHARA_A_00064	37	2012	Poland	1	1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara polyacantha Chara polyacantha				CHARA_A_00065 CHARA_A_00080	38 MB36	2012 2005	Poland Sweden	1	1	1	1	1 1	NIVA
Chara rudis	A. Br. in Leonhardi 1882	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00004	T4	2012	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00028	T28	2008	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00061	28 T24	2010	Norway	1	1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00007	T7	2012	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00027	T27	2009	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00029	T29	2008	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00025 CHARA_A_00034	T34	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00033	T33	2011	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00032	T32	2011	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00031 CHARA_A_00026	131 T26	2011 2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00030	T30	2008	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00008	T8	2012	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara strigosa	A. Braun 1847	Grovesia		CHARA_A_00089	MB 72	2003	Germany		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara strigosa Chara strigosa				CHARA_A_00047	T48	2010	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara strigosa				CHARA_A_00088	MB 71	2002	Germany		Ó	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara strigosa	1 4750	0		CHARA_A_00046	T46	2011	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
unara tomentosa Chara tomentosa	L. 1753	unara		CHARA_A_00041	141 T40	2011	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara tomentosa				CHARA_A_00040 CHARA_A_00042	T40	1969	Norway		0	1	)	0	NHM
Chara tomentosa				CHARA_A_00076	MB18	2005	Sweden		1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara virgata	Kütz. 1834	Grovesia		CHARA_A_00071	50	2012	Germany	1	1	1	1	1	NIVA
unara virgata Chara virgata				CHARA_A_00066 CHARA_A_00056	39 S57	2012	r Inland Norway	1	1	1	1	י 1	NIVA
Chara virgata				CHARA_A_00044	T44	2010	Norway		1	Ċ	)	1	NHM
Chara virgata				CHARA_A_00045	T45	2008	Norway		1	1	1	1	NHM
Chara virgata Chara vulgaris	P.D.W. 1965	Chara	vor vulgaria f. calveranzia	CHARA_A_00043	F43	2011	Norway	1	1		1	1	NHM
Chara vulgaris	R.D.W. 1965		var. vulgaris f. calveraensis	CHARA_A_00069	48	2012	Argentina	1	1	1	1	1	NIVA
Chara vulgarin	1 1762			CHARA & 00067	44	2012	Argonting	4	1		1		NID /A

**Table 2.** *Chara* sequences used to design *Chara*-specific *matK* and ITS2 primers

Marker	Species	GenBank Accession
ITS2	C. foliolosa	HQ380620
	C. hydropitys	HQ380626
	C. haitensis	HQ380624
	C. rusbyana	HQ380627
	C. zeylanica	HQ380634
matK	C. connivens	AY170442
	C. globularis	AY170443
	C. longifolia	AY170444
	C. polycantha	AY170445
	C. vulgaris	108773196

# **Table 3.** Primers used in this study

Primer	Sequences	Reference
Chara_ITSF2	CCCCCTTCGATTTTGAAGTT	This study
Chara_ITSR2	ACATCCCCGATTGCCAAC	This study
Chara_matKF2	GAACGAATCCGTGATAAAAGC	This study
Chara_matKR2	CTTCGGCCTTTCAAAAAGAA	This study
rbcLa-F	ATGTCACCACAAACAGAGACTAAAGC	Levin et al. <del>,</del> 2003
rbcLa-R	GTAAAATCAAGTCCACCRCG	Kress and Erickson <del>,</del> 2007

**Table 4.** Number of recovered *matK*, ITS2 and *rbc*L sequences for 91 *Chara* individuals

	matK	ITS2	rbcL
total			
number of samples	91	91	91
number of recovered sequences	85	78	84
sequence recovery (%)	93	86	92
silica gel			
number of samples	11	11	11
number of recovered sequences	11	11	11
sequence recovery (%)	100	100	100
herbarium			
number of samples	80	80	80
number of recovered sequences	74	67	73
sequence recovery (%)	93	84	91

### 726 Appendix A1

- 727 Supplementary information
- 728

# 729 Legend to Figure S1

# 730 Bootstrapped condensed ML (maximum likelihood) trees of a) ITS2 (78 Chara samples, 261

- positions), b) matK (85 Chara samples, 565 positions) and c) rbcL (84 Chara samples, 552
- 732 positions). In the ML analyses, evolutionary substitution models were evaluated in MEGA
- 733 version 6 (Tamura et al., 2013). The method selected T92 +G as the best-fitting evolutionary
- model for *matK*, and T92 for ITS2 and *rbc*L, respectively. Phylogenetic trees were
- rate constructed separately for each marker using the ML algorithm in MEGA version 6.
- 736 Bootstrap analyses were calculated by ML (1000 replicates) and values above 50 % are
- r37 shown in the trees. Scale bars indicate 1% (ITS2 and *matK*) and 0.2% (*rbcL*) sequence
- 738 divergence, respectively.



254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Bootstrapped condensed ML (maximum likelihood) tree of a) ITS2, b) matK and c) rbcL sequences of 73 Chara samples from which all three loci were successfully recovered; bootstrap values above 50 % are shown in the tree. The clusters belong to the following subsections according to Wood and Imahori (1965): I = Hartmania, II = Chara, III = Chara, IV = Grovesia, V = Chara, VI = Grovesia. To improve readability, outgroups are not shown.



0.01

Concatenated ML (maximum likelihood) tree of ITS2, matK and rbcL sequences of 73 Chara samples. Bootstrap values above 50 % are shown in the tree. The bar indicates 1% sequence divergence. \*= for sample ID see Table 1. The clusters belong to the following subsections according to Wood and Imahori (1965): I = Hartmania, II = Chara, III = Chara, IV = Grovesia, V = Chara, VI = Grovesia. **Table 1.** List of 91 *Chara* individuals used in the present study. All samples were taken from herbarium collections, except those marked as "silica gel". NHM = Natural History Museum, University of Oslo; NIVA = Norwegian Institute for Water Research

		subsection											
		sensu Wood							matK re	- ITS2 re	- rbcL re	<b>-</b>	
Identification	author	and Imahori (1965)	comment	BOI D Sample ID	Field	coll.	country	silica gel	covered	covere	d covere	d voucher	
Chara aculeolata	Kütz. in Rchb. 1832	Hartmania	comment	CHARA A 00038	T38	2007	Norway	(I-yes)	(1-yes) 1	(1-yes) 1	/ (1-yes 1	NHM	
Chara aculeolata				CHARA_A_00003	Т3	2012	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara aculeolata Chara aculeolata				CHARA_A_00037	T37 T39	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara aspera	Willd. 1809	Grovesia		CHARA_A_00049	T49	2011	Norway		1	0	1	NHM	
Chara aspera				CHARA_A_00074	MB10	2000	Germany		1	0	1	NIVA	
Chara aspera Chara aspera				CHARA_A_00075 CHARA_A_00077	MB13 MB23	2000	Germany Sweden		1	0	1	NIVA	
Chara aspera				CHARA_A_00085	MB 67	2005	UK		1	0	1	NIVA	
Chara baltica	Bruzelius 1824	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00082	MB39	2004	Greece		0	1	1	NIVA	
Chara baltica Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00078 CHARA_A_00035	T35	2004	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00036	T36	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00084	MB47	2004	Sweden		1	0	0	NIVA	
Chara baltica				CHARA_A_00081	MB37	2002	Germany		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara baueri	A. Br. 1847	Braunia		CHARA_A_00052	S29	2011	Germany		1	0	1	NIVA	_
Chara contraria	A. Br. ex Kütz. 1845 s. str.	Chara		CHARA_A_00092	MB 83	2000	Germany		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara contraria				CHARA_A_00054	S54	2006	Canada		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara contraria			var. hispidula	CHARA_A_00087	MB 70	2001	Austria		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara contraria Chara corfuensis	(L Gr Ex Fil) R D W 1965	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00051	T51 S55	2009	Greece		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara fibrosa	Ag. ex Bruz. 1824	Agardhia		CHARA_A_00053	S51	2006	Canada		1	0	1	NIVA	_
Chara galioides	De Candolle 1813	Grovesia		CHARA_A_00091	MB 81	2001	France		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara galioides Chara hispida	(L) Hartm 1820	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00090 CHARA_A_00001	MB 80 T1	2001	France		1	0	0	NIVA	
Chara hispida	(2.) Haran. 1020	- Idi di Idi Idi		CHARA_A_00002	T2	2003	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00005	T5	2012	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00006 CHARA_A_00009	16 T9	2012	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00010	T10	2012	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00011	T11	2002	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00012 CHARA_A_00013	T12 T13	2011	Norway		0	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00014	T14	2011	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00015	T15	1995	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00016 CHARA_A_00017	T17	2003	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00018	T18	2009	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00019	T19	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00020 CHARA_A_00021	T20 T21	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00070	49	2012	Germany	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara hispida				CHARA_A_00086	MB 68 MB 87	2005	Germany		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara horrida	Wahlst. 1862	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00095	MB35	2001	Sweden		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara intermedia	A. Br. in Br., Rab. and Stiz. 1859	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00094	MB 86	2001	Germany		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara intermedia Chara intermedia				CHARA_A_00072 CHARA_A_00093	MB2 MB 85	2004	Germany Sweden		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara intermedia				CHARA_A_00063	35	2012	Poland	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara polyacantha	A. Br. in Br., Rab. and Stiz. 1859	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00073	MB3	2004	Germany		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara polyacantha Chara polyacantha				CHARA_A_00057 CHARA_A_00022	5 T22	2008	Norway	1	1	1	1	NHM	
Chara polyacantha				CHARA_A_00023	T23	2009	Norway		0	0	0	NHM	
Chara polyacantha				CHARA_A_00064	37	2012	Poland	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara polyacantha				CHARA_A_00065 CHARA_A_00080	36 MB36	2012	Sweden	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara rudis	A. Br. in Leonhardi 1882	Hartmania		CHARA_A_00004	T4	2012	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00028	T28	2008	Norway	1	1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00024	T24	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00007	T7	2012	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00027	T27 T29	2009	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00025	T25	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00034	T34	2011	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00033 CHARA_A_00032	T33 T32	2011 2011	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00031	T31	2011	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00026	T26	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara rudis Chara rudis				CHARA_A_00030 CHARA_A_00008	T30 T8	2008	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara strigosa	A. Braun 1847	Grovesia		CHARA_A_00089	MB 72	2003	Germany		1	1	1	NIVA	-
Chara strigosa				CHARA_A_00047	T47	2010	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara strigosa Chara strigosa				CHARA_A_00048 CHARA_A_00088	148 MB 71	2010	Norway Germany		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara strigosa				CHARA_A_00046	T46	2011	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara tomentosa	L. 1753	Chara		CHARA_A_00041	T41	2011	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara tomentosa Chara tomentosa				CHARA A 00042	140 T42	2010 1969	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara tomentosa				CHARA_A_00076	MB18	2005	Sweden		1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara virgata	Kütz. 1834	Grovesia		CHARA_A_00071	50	2012	Germany	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara virgata Chara virgata				CHARA A 00056	39 S57	2012	Norwav	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara virgata				CHARA_A_00044	T44	2010	Norway		1	0	1	NHM	
Chara virgata				CHARA_A_00045	T45	2008	Norway		1	1	1	NHM	
Chara vugata Chara vulgaris	R.D.W. 1965	Chara	var. vulgaris f. calveraensis	CHARA_A_00043	47	2011	Argentina	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
Chara vulgaris	R.D.W. 1965		var. vulgaris f. calveraensis	CHARA_A_00069	48	2012	Argentina	1	1	1	1	NIVA	
unara vuigaris	L. 1753		cf	GHARA A 00067	44	2012	Argentina	1	1	1	1	NIVA	

Marker	Species	GenBank Accession
ITS2	C. foliolosa	HQ380620
	C. hydropitys	HQ380626
	C. haitensis	HQ380624
	C. rusbyana	HQ380627
	C. zeylanica	HQ380634
matK	C. connivens	AY170442
	C. globularis	AY170443
	C. longifolia	AY170444
	C. polycantha	AY170445
	C. vulgaris	108773196

**Table 2.** Chara sequences used to design Chara-specific matK and ITS2 primers

**Table 3.** Primers used in this study

Primer	Sequences	Reference
Chara_ITSF2	CCCCCTTCGATTTTGAAGTT	This study
Chara_ITSR2	ACATCCCCGATTGCCAAC	This study
Chara_matKF2	GAACGAATCCGTGATAAAAGC	This study
Chara_matKR2	CTTCGGCCTTTCAAAAAGAA	This study
rbcLa-F	ATGTCACCACAAACAGAGACTAAAGC	Levin et al., 2003
rbcLa-R	GTAAAATCAAGTCCACCRCG	Kress and Erickson, 2007

	matK	ITS2	rbcL
total			
number of samples	91	91	91
number of recovered sequences	85	78	84
sequence recovery (%)	93	86	92
silica gel			
number of samples	11	11	11
number of recovered sequences	11	11	11
sequence recovery (%)	100	100	100
herbarium			
number of samples	80	80	80
number of recovered sequences	74	67	73
sequence recovery (%)	93	84	91

**Table 4.** Number of recovered matK, ITS2 and rbcL sequences for 91 Chara individuals