

Current Biology

Reacquisition of light-harvesting genes in a marine cyanobacterium confers a broader solar niche

Highlights

- Production of light-harvesting phycocyanin was lost in the *Acaryochloris* ancestor
- This trait was recently regained by an *Acaryochloris* strain and is highly plastic
- This confers a broader niche than that of relatives with the ancestral phenotype
- Bacteria can reacquire ancient lost traits by horizontal gene transfer

Authors

Nikea J. Ulrich, Hiroko Uchida,
Yu Kanesaki, Euichi Hirose,
Akio Murakami, Scott R. Miller

Correspondence

scott.miller@umontana.edu

In Brief

Most cyanobacteria primarily harvest light with phycobiliprotein complexes. Ulrich et al. show that the ability to produce these proteins was lost in the ancestor of *Acaryochloris* but has been recently regained by a member of this group via horizontal transfer. The loss of this complex trait was therefore reversible, even after millions of years.

Report

Reacquisition of light-harvesting genes in a marine cyanobacterium confers a broader solar niche

Nikea J. Ulrich,¹ Hiroko Uchida,² Yu Kanesaki,³ Euichi Hirose,⁴ Akio Murakami,² and Scott R. Miller^{1,5,*}

¹Division of Biological Sciences, University of Montana, Missoula, MT, 59812, USA

²Kobe University Research Center for Inland Seas, Awaji, Hyogo, 656-2401, Japan

³Research Institute of Green Science and Technology, Shizuoka University, Shizuoka, 422-8529, Japan

⁴Department of Chemistry, Biology & Marine Science, Faculty of Science, University of the Ryukyus, Nishihara, Okinawa, 903-0213, Japan

⁵Lead contact

*Correspondence: scott.miller@umontana.edu

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2021.01.047>

SUMMARY

The evolution of phenotypic plasticity, i.e., the environmental induction of alternative phenotypes by the same genotype, can be an important mechanism of biological diversification.^{1,2} For example, an evolved increase in plasticity may promote ecological niche expansion as well as the innovation of novel traits;³ however, both the role of phenotypic plasticity in adaptive evolution and its underlying mechanisms are still poorly understood.^{4,5} Here, we report that the Chlorophyll *d*-producing marine cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris marina* strain MBIC11017 has evolved greater photosynthetic plasticity by reacquiring light-harvesting genes via horizontal gene transfer. The genes, which had been lost by the *A. marina* ancestor, are involved in the production and degradation of the light-harvesting phycobiliprotein phycocyanin. *A. marina* MBIC11017 exhibits a high degree of wavelength-dependence in phycocyanin production, and this ability enables it to grow with yellow and green light wavelengths that are inaccessible to other *A. marina*. Consequently, this strain has a broader solar niche than its close relatives. We discuss the role of horizontal gene transfer for regaining a lost phenotype in light of Dollo's Law⁶ that the loss of a complex trait is irreversible.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. marina MBIC11017 has re-acquired light-harvesting phycocyanin genes

The ability of organisms to respond to environmental change is integral to survival. The expression of alternative environmentally induced phenotypes from a single genotype, or phenotypic plasticity, can enhance fitness across a broader range of conditions than is possible for a single phenotype, both within an individual's lifetime and between generations.^{2,7} However, the role of plasticity for adaptation has long been debated^{5,8,9} and remains poorly understood for most organisms.^{4,5} For instance, phenotypic plasticity itself might evolve, a process known as genetic accommodation, to obtain a better phenotype-environment match.^{10,11} This could happen when a trait either loses (genetic assimilation) or gains environmental sensitivity.^{1,2,12,13} On the other hand, it has also been argued that plasticity plays only a limited role in adaptation, for example, by acting as a buffer to environmental variation^{1,5,14,15} or due to a lack of heritable variation for plasticity within populations.^{9,16}

Addressing the role of phenotypic plasticity for adaptation therefore has implications for our understanding of the evolution of novel traits, the breadth of the ecological niche and the distribution of biological diversity.^{17,18} In particular, the evolution of

increased plasticity can promote diversification in spatially or temporally variable environments by facilitating the colonization of novel habitats or extending an organism's ecological range.^{19–24} While a broader ecological niche tends to evolve in fluctuating environments,^{25,26} it is still unclear how the mechanisms regulating plasticity and life history trade-offs interact to affect the evolutionary dynamics of populations.⁵ A better understanding of the role of phenotypic plasticity for the evolution of ecological generalists and specialists is therefore required.

Here, we report that the evolution of increased plasticity by the reacquisition of lost genes has been central to niche expansion in the marine cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris marina*. This bacterium uniquely uses the far-red light absorbing Chlorophyll (Chl) *d* as its major photosynthetic pigment (²⁷; >90% of chlorophyll content, compared with 1%–2% observed in some Chl *f*-producing bacteria). Like most cyanobacteria, the type strain *A. marina* MBIC11017²⁸ also produces bilin-containing phycobiliproteins (PBPs) to harvest light wavelengths that are not absorbed by chlorophyll pigments. Typically, cyanobacterial PBPs are organized in complexes called phycobilisomes (PBS), which are composed of a thylakoid membrane-associated core to which peripheral rods are attached.^{29,30} PBPs absorb different wavelengths based on the structural variation of their attached bilin chromophores³¹ and are arranged

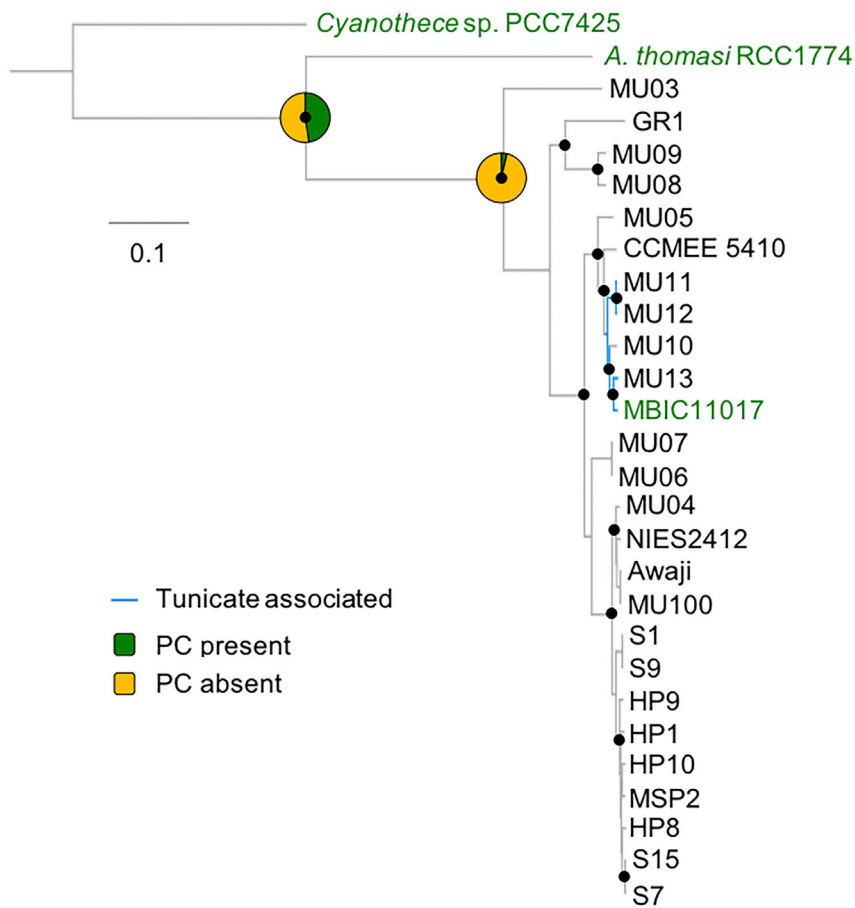


Figure 1. Reacquisition of phycocyanin production by *A. marina* MBIC11017

A maximum likelihood phylogeny of *Acaryochloris* strains was reconstructed from a genome-wide concatenation of protein sequences from single-copy orthologous genes ($n = 1468$). Branch lengths are in units of the expected number of amino acid substitutions per site. The tree was outgroup-rooted with *Cyanothece* sp. PCC7425, which harbors canonical PBS complexes and has been shown in previous phylogenies to be a member of the sister group to *Acaryochloris*.^{40,41} Bootstrap support was >95% for each node. Internode certainty (IC) values (see STAR Methods) >0.2 are represented by closed circles. Bootstrap support for the split between *Acaryochloris* and RCC1774 was 100% with an IC value of 0.833. RCC1774 is also placed outside of the *A. marina* clade in a 16S rRNA gene phylogeny (Figure S2). Within the *Acaryochloris* clade, there is a general trend of increasing genome size from basal to more derived taxa (Table S2). Strains with phycocyanin are labeled in green. Pie charts display the marginal posterior probabilities of the presence or absence of phycocyanin in the common ancestors of *A. marina* and *A. marina/A. thomasi* RCC1774, respectively. The likelihood that the *A. marina* and RCC1774 common ancestor possessed PC was unresolved (52.8%), whereas the likelihood that the *A. marina* ancestor lacked PC was 96.3%. See also Figure S1, Figure S2, and Tables S1 and S2.

hierarchically within the PBS to promote the efficient transfer of excitation energy to the photosystem reaction centers.³⁰ However, *A. marina* MBIC11017 differs from other cyanobacteria in that its light-harvesting apparatus lacks an allophycocyanin (APC)-containing core and instead consists only of rods of the PBP C-phycocyanin (PC).^{32–34} These rods are composed of heteromeric discs of α and β PC subunits as well as linker proteins that likely anchor PC to the thylakoid membrane and modulate the excitation energy transfer process.³⁵ Rods are arranged as stacks associated with the thylakoid membrane^{34,36} and absorb primarily in the yellow-orange spectral range, with a peak at ~ 620 nm.

The origin of MBIC11017's novel PC light harvesting apparatus remains a puzzle. Since its isolation, a few other *A. marina* strains have been described,^{27,37} all of which lack PC. By contrast, the recently described Chl b-producing (and Chl *d*-lacking) *Acaryochloris thomasi* RCC1774, which has been proposed to be a member of the genus based on a 16S rRNA gene phylogeny, also possesses PC aggregates rather than a conventional PBS.³⁸ This strain was also reported to produce small amounts of APC;³⁸ this seems unlikely, however, because, like MBIC11017, the RCC1774 genome does not contain *bona fide* *apc* genes but, rather, distant *apc* homologs (Figure S1).

To address the evolution, distribution and ecological consequences of this light-harvesting apparatus, we first sought to better resolve the *Acaryochloris* phylogeny with improved taxon

sampling. We established a diverse collection of *Acaryochloris* strains isolated from various locations, including the west coast of the United States, the coast around Japan,³⁹ the Caribbean, and the Arabian Sea (Table S1). Using this collection, we next acquired Illumina sequence data and assembled draft genomes for 24 new strains (Table S2) for phylogenomic analysis.

We inferred a genome-wide amino acid phylogeny using a concatenation of protein sequences from single-copy orthologous genes (Figure 1). The tree was outgroup-rooted with *Cyanothece* sp. PCC7425, which has been shown to be a member of the sister group to *Acaryochloris*.^{40,41} and harbors canonical PBS complexes typical of most cyanobacteria. The phylogeny shows that MBIC11017 belongs to a recently derived clade of tunicate-associated *Acaryochloris* (Figure 1); specifically, both MBIC11017 and its closest relative, *A. marina* strain MU13 (which is identical to MBIC11017 in 16S rRNA gene sequence and differs genome-wide from MBIC11017 at only 1.7% of orthologous nucleotide positions), were isolated from species of the didemnid ascidian *Lissoclinum* (Table S1).

In contrast to Partensky et al.,³⁸ our phylogeny placed *A. thomasi* RCC1774 outside of the Chl *d*-producing *A. marina* clade with 100% bootstrap support (Figure 1). This result was also supported by trees reconstructed for individual protein-coding genes. The trees of individual genes used in a concatenated phylogeny can disagree with the concatenated tree and with each other for both technical reasons (e.g., insufficient data to

resolve the relationships among taxa) and biological ones (e.g., incomplete lineage sorting, horizontal gene transfer). We used internode certainty (IC) values⁴² to evaluate the agreement between individual gene trees with the topology of the concatenated phylogeny. The IC value is an entropy measure of the degree of conflict for an internal branch in a phylogeny due to discordance among trees in the concatenated alignment; a value of 1 indicates that all of the individual gene trees support the concatenated topology, whereas a value of 0 indicates equal support for a bipartition that conflicts with the concatenated tree. The IC value of 0.833 for the split between RCC1774 and the *A. marina* ancestor (Figure 1) indicates that nearly all of the individual trees (> 95%) support the topology of the concatenated phylogeny. Finally, a 16S rRNA gene phylogeny reconstructed by maximum likelihood also placed RCC1774 outside of the *A. marina* clade (Figure S2). The difference in topologies between our 16S rRNA gene tree and that of Partensky et al.³⁸ may be due to the improved sampling of *A. marina* diversity in our analysis.

Our expanded *A. marina* phylogeny enabled us to take an ancestral state reconstruction (ASR) approach to test whether the novel PC light harvesting apparatus of MBIC11017 was either (1) present in and vertically inherited from the *A. marina* ancestor or, alternatively, (2) absent in the *A. marina* ancestor and consequently more recently reacquired by HGT. Remarkably, MBIC11017 is the only strain within the clade of Chl *d*-producing *Acaryochloris* that possesses genes for and produces PC, and ASR strongly supports the hypothesis that the *A. marina* ancestor lacked PC (Figure 1; the marginal posterior probability that the ancestor lacked PC was 96.3%). We conclude that *A. marina* acquired PC genes by HGT.

In MBIC11017, all genes involved in PC synthesis and degradation are found on plasmid pREB3.⁴³ This includes second, divergent copies of the phycocyanobilin synthesis genes *hemO*, *hemH*, and *pycA*. Like other *Acaryochloris*, MBIC11017 has retained ancestral chromosomal copies of these genes (phycocyanobilin is also used as a chromophore in phytochrome proteins;⁴⁴). By contrast, its sister taxon *A. marina* strain MU13 possesses about half of the pREB3 genes but lacks all genes required for the synthesis and degradation of the phycocyanin apoprotein as well as additional copies of phycocyanobilin synthesis genes (Figure 2). This indicates that PC-related genes on pREB3 were recently acquired via horizontal gene transfer (HGT) by an ancestor of MBIC11017 following the split with MU13. In addition, several of the *cpc* and *hem* genes have subsequently been duplicated since their acquisition (Figure 2).

HGT is well-documented in many cyanobacteria.^{45–47} Genes involved in PBS formation, in particular, have a history of HGT, gene duplication and/or gene loss.^{48–50} We used neighbor net analysis to attempt to identify the nature of the donor(s) of PBP genes to MBIC11017. Networks of individual phycocyanin genes were characterized by extensive loops (Figure 3, Figure S3), which corroborates that HGT of *cpc* genes has been pervasive. For many of these gene networks, MBIC11017 is not sister to either *Cyanosphaera* or RCC1774; rather, it often clusters among heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria (Figure 3). Although the specific identity of the donor(s) is not clear, these results suggest that it may have been a member of the distantly related clade of heterocystous cyanobacteria. The novel PBP organization in MBIC11017 is therefore a product of its complex evolutionary history. Whether the

common ancestor of *A. thomasi* RCC1774 and *A. marina* possessed PBPs is unresolved by ASR (Figure 1). However, the absence of both a conventional PBS and *apc* genes in RCC1774 (Figure S1) suggests that RCC1774 also regained PC by HGT. Given the topology of the networks, this likely involved a different donor(s) than in the case of MBIC11017 (Figure 3, Figure S3).

PBP gene acquisition leads to increased plasticity and a generalist phenotype in *A. marina* MBIC11017

Next, we investigated the consequences of PC reacquisition for physiology and fitness in different light environments. Many cyanobacteria are capable of chromatic acclimation, i.e., plasticity in the composition of light-harvesting pigments to tailor the photosynthetic apparatus to light quality.⁵¹ MBIC11017 can alter the amount of PC relative to Chl *d* in response to changes in light quality^{52–54} (Figure S4A) as a consequence of the differential expression of PC-related genes.^{53,55} We predicted that MBIC11017 can chromatically acclimate to prevailing light availability better than other closely related *A. marina* strains and that this is beneficial in environments enriched with PC-absorbing light. The degree of plasticity in pigment composition was particularly strong at amber (600 nm peak), yellow (590 nm peak) and green (525 nm peak) wavelengths compared with the other light treatments (Figure 4A; Figure S4C). This resulted in strong PC-driven photosynthesis by MBIC11017 cells grown in these environments, as indicated by fluorescence excitation spectra, (i.e., action spectra for photosynthesis; Figure 4B). In contrast, we observed that *A. marina* strains MU13 and MU10 exhibited no plasticity in either pigmentation or light-harvesting ability in the different light environments (Figure 4B; Figure S4B).

To address the implications of PC production for the *A. marina* solar niche, we next assayed growth of MBIC11017 and MU13 in broad spectrum white light as well as far-red, amber, yellow and green light environments. Although both strains grew in white and far-red light environments, only MBIC11017 could grow in all of the environments tested (Figure 4C), including green wavelengths that are at the limits of PC absorption (Figure 4B). MU13, by contrast, could only grow in amber light (Figure 4C); growth in this environment appears to be supported by excitation of the Q_x absorption band of Chl *d* (Figure 4B; peak at 610 nm). Strikingly, a mere 10 nm shift to yellow light completely inhibited MU13 growth (Figure 4C). We conclude that MBIC11017 has a wider niche breadth than its close relative with a more specialized ancestral phenotype.

In most cases, horizontally acquired and duplicated genes are quickly purged from *Acaryochloris* genomes in the absence of selection to maintain them.⁵⁶ The retention of reacquired PC genes in the MBIC11017 genome therefore suggests that they have been selectively favored in the natural environment. MBIC11017 was isolated from the transparent ascidian *Lissoclinum patella*, which harbors the symbiotic cyanobacterium *Prochloron*.²⁸ Because *Prochloron* also lacks phycobiliproteins, PC-absorbing wavelengths remain available at low levels in this environment.⁵⁷ This differs from the filtered FR-enriched light of intertidal algae^{57,58} and may have presented an ecological opportunity,^{28,59} whereby a chance acquisition of additional light-harvesting proteins to utilize more varied light wavelengths might have been favored and retained. In addition, growth of MBIC11017 in white light has been previously linked to a suite

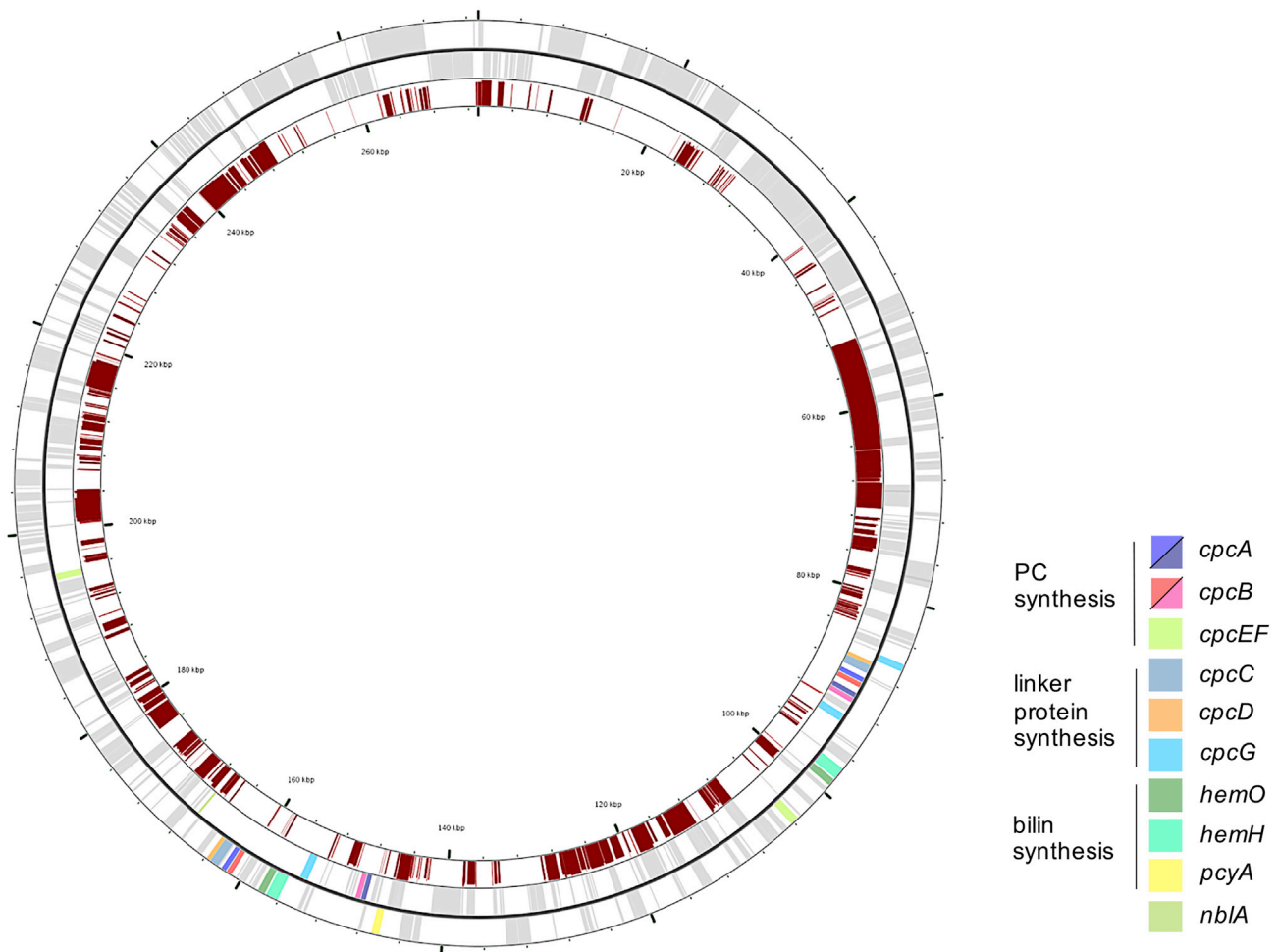


Figure 2. Distribution of phycocyanin-related genes on *A. marina* MBIC11017 plasmid pREB3

The different rings represent (from outer to inner): strand information for PBP-associated genes (rings 1 and 2, color-coded in key at right); and BLAST hits of the strain MU13 genome to pREB3 (ring 3, maroon). PC consists of a heterodimer of α and β peptide chains (encoded by *cpcAB*) that aggregate to form hexamers consisting of a trimer of dimers. Linker proteins encoded by *cpcCD* and *cpcG* anchor PC to the thylakoid membrane and modulate energy transfer to the photosystems.^{29,35} Phycocyanobilin, the chromophore of PC, is an open chain tetrapyrrole synthesized from heme (produced by *hemH*) in a two-step process catalyzed by heme oxygenase (*hemO*) and phycocyanobilin:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (*pcyA*). Phycocyanobilin is attached to PC cysteine residues via thioether linkages by phycocyanobilin α and β lyases (*cpcEF*), while *nbIA* encodes the protein responsible for phycobiliprotein degradation.²⁹

of traits associated with a planktonic lifestyle, including a reduction in biofilm formation.⁵³ We speculate that increased PC production could potentially enhance photosynthesis and fitness during planktonic dispersal, particularly at depths where far-red wavelengths cannot penetrate.

Our study also bears on the long-standing question in evolutionary biology of whether the loss of a complex trait (i.e., a trait composed of integrated parts, like a PC rod) is irreversible, as proposed in the modern formulation of Dollo's Law.⁶ The law evokes well-known examples of apparently unidirectional evolution during biological diversification, such as the loss of teeth in birds. At the molecular and developmental levels, irreversibility is expected to arise as unused genes or regulatory networks accumulate inactivating mutations over time that make the reacquisition of a lost trait increasingly unlikely.⁶⁰ Proposed violations of the law remain rare and sometimes controversial, and the underlying molecular mechanisms responsible for the reacquisition of a trait are

often poorly understood.⁶⁰ However, the latter is typically envisioned to involve the reactivation of genes that have been functionally retained in the genome due to their pleiotropic effects on other traits that have continued to be expressed. Though HGT is widely appreciated as a source of new traits, such as antibiotic resistance, we have shown that HGT also represents an alternative mechanism for bacteria to regain a trait via the acquisition of homologous genes, even after the ancestral copies have been lost. Our study is a striking example of how this was possible even following millions of years of *Acaryochloris* diversification.³⁷ Whether the reacquisition of ancient traits by HGT is common during bacterial diversification is unknown. We may expect this process to become more improbable with the increasing complexity of a trait's genetic architecture (e.g., the greater number of genes involved). On the other hand, the capacity for bacteria to organize functionally related genes as operons may facilitate HGT's role in re-evolving lost traits. Future comparisons of gene expression and

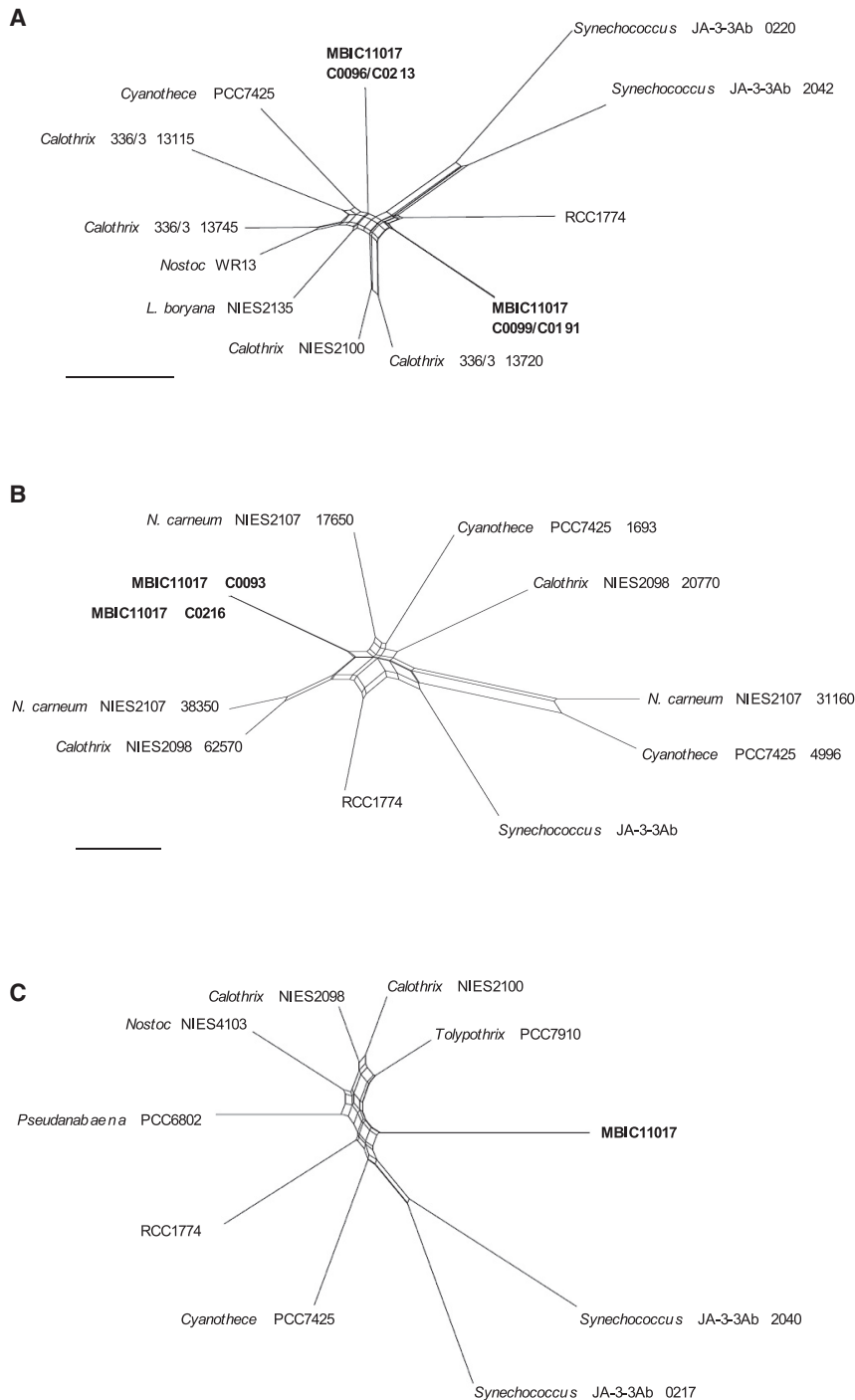


Figure 3. Neighbor net analyses of genes involved in phycocyanin synthesis

Networks are shown for (A) *cpcA*, (B) *cpcD*, and (C) *cpcE*. Taxa include those that have *cpc* genes most similar to *A. marina* MBIC11017 by NCBI BLAST as well as the outgroup *Synechococcus* JA-3-3Ab, which has been proposed to be a basal lineage in the cyanobacterial phylogeny.³⁷ Gene IDs are indicated for duplicated genes. The scale bars represent 0.1 nucleotide substitutions per site. See also Figure S3.

transcriptional regulation between MBIC11017 and MU13 will seek to reveal how these acquired genes were reintegrated into an existing transcriptional regulatory network that has evolved in their absence.

STAR★METHODS

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

- [KEY RESOURCES TABLE](#)
- [RESOURCE AVAILABILITY](#)
 - Lead Contact
 - Materials Availability
 - Data and Code Availability
- [EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS](#)
 - Acaryochloris isolation and culture maintenance
- [METHOD DETAILS](#)
 - Genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation

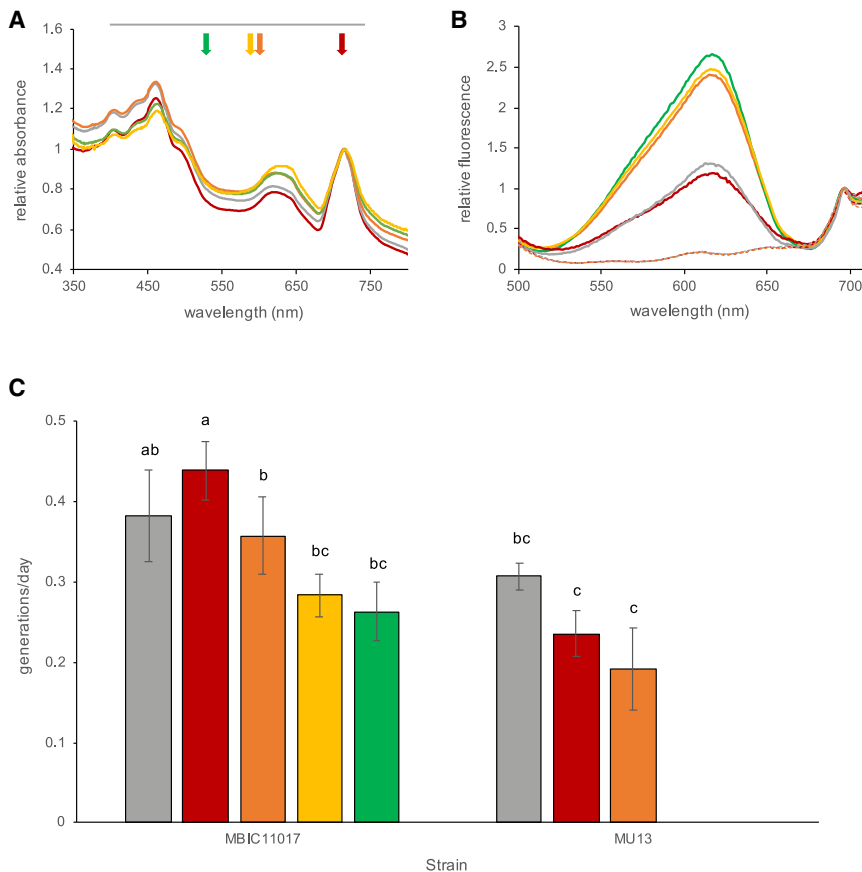


Figure 4. MBIC11017 and MU13 pigmentation, fluorescence and growth in different light environments

Data are color-coded by light environment in all panels.

(A) Absorption spectra for MBIC11017 normalized by the Chl *d* peak (696 nm). Colored arrows indicate the peak emission of the LED light environments: green (525 nm), yellow (590 nm), amber (600 nm), and far-red (710 nm); cool white fluorescent light emission is represented by the gray bar.

(B) Excitation spectra displaying relative fluorescence of MBIC11017 (solid lines) and MU13 (dotted lines) measured at an emission wavelength of 730 nm.

(C) Growth experiments of MBIC11017 and MU13 in far-red, cool white, amber, yellow, and green light. Different letters indicate a significant difference by a Tukey HSD post hoc test at the $p < 0.05$ level. Error bars are standard deviations for triplicate cultures. See also [Figure S4](#).

- Phylogenetic analysis
- Growth experiments
- Chlorophyll *d* extraction and spectroscopy
- QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Received: September 9, 2020

Revised: December 18, 2020

Accepted: January 13, 2021

Published: February 10, 2021

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2021.01.047>.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank three anonymous reviewers for their comments and Heidi Abresch and Andy Oman for their help maintaining *Acaryochloris* cultures. This work was supported by award NNA15BB04A from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration to S.R.M. and JSPS KAKENHI award 23370013 to A.M.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, N.J.U. and S.R.M.; Methodology, N.J.U. and S.R.M.; Investigation, N.J.U. and S.R.M.; Writing – Original Draft, N.J.U.; Writing – Review & Editing, S.R.M., N.J.U., H.U., Y.K., E.H., and A.M.; Funding Acquisition, S.R.M. and A.M.; Resources, S.R.M., H.U., Y.K., E.H., A.M.; Supervision, S.R.M.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

REFERENCES

- Ehrenreich, I.M., and Pfennig, D.W. (2016). Genetic assimilation: a review of its potential proximate causes and evolutionary consequences. *Ann. Bot.* *117*, 769–779.
- West-Eberhard, M.J. (2003). *Developmental plasticity and evolution* (Oxford University Press).
- Draghi, J. (2020). Developmental noise and ecological opportunity across space can release constraints on the evolution of plasticity. *Evol. Dev.* *22*, 35–46.
- Levis, N.A., and Pfennig, D.W. (2019). Phenotypic plasticity, canalization, and the origins of novelty: Evidence and mechanisms from amphibians. *Semin. Cell Dev. Biol.* *88*, 80–90.
- Fox, R.J., Donelson, J.M., Schunter, C., Ravasi, T., and Gaitán-Espitia, J.D. (2019). Beyond buying time: the role of plasticity in phenotypic adaptation to rapid environmental change. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B Biol. Sci.* *374*, 20180174.
- Simpson, G. (1953). *The major features of evolution* (Columbia University Press).
- Via, S., Gomulkiewicz, R., De Jong, G., Scheiner, S.M., Schlichting, C.D., and Van Tienderen, P.H. (1995). Adaptive phenotypic plasticity: consensus and controversy. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* *10*, 212–217.

8. Ghalambor, C.K., McKay, J.K., Carroll, S.P., and Reznick, D.N. (2007). Adaptive versus non-adaptive phenotypic plasticity and the potential for contemporary adaptation in new environments. *Funct. Ecol.* **21**, 394–407.
9. Oostra, V., Saastamoinen, M., Zwaan, B.J., and Wheat, C.W. (2018). Strong phenotypic plasticity limits potential for evolutionary responses to climate change. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 1005.
10. DeWitt, T.J. (1998). Costs and limits of phenotypic plasticity: tests with predator-induced morphology and life history in a freshwater snail. *J. Evol. Biol.* **11**, 465–480.
11. Ho, W.C., and Zhang, J. (2018). Evolutionary adaptations to new environments generally reverse plastic phenotypic changes. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 350.
12. Scheiner, S.M. (1993). Genetics and evolution of phenotypic plasticity. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* **24**, 35–68.
13. Pigliucci, M. (2005). Evolution of phenotypic plasticity: where are we going now? *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **20**, 481–486.
14. Moran, N.A. (1992). The evolutionary maintenance of alternative phenotypes. *Am. Nat.* **139**, 971–989.
15. Murren, C.J., Auld, J.R., Callahan, H., Ghalambor, C.K., Handelsman, C.A., Heskell, M.A., Kingsolver, J.G., Maclean, H.J., Masel, J., Maughan, H., et al. (2015). Constraints on the evolution of phenotypic plasticity: limits and costs of phenotype and plasticity. *Heredity* **115**, 293–301.
16. Levin, D.A. (1988). Local differentiation and the breeding structure of plant populations. In *Plant Evolutionary Biology*, L.D. Gottlieb, and S.K. Jain, eds. (Chapman & Hall), pp. 305–329.
17. van Tienderen, P.H. (1997). Generalists, specialists, and the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in sympatric populations of distinct species. *Evolution* **51**, 1372–1380.
18. Vamosi, J.C., Armbruster, W.S., and Renner, S.S. (2014). Evolutionary ecology of specialization: insights from phylogenetic analysis. *Proc. Biol. Sci.* **281**, 20142004.
19. Suzuki, Y., and Nijhout, H.F. (2006). Evolution of a polyphenism by genetic accommodation. *Science* **311**, 650–652.
20. Scoville, A.G., and Pfrender, M.E. (2010). Phenotypic plasticity facilitates recurrent rapid adaptation to introduced predators. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **107**, 4260–4263.
21. Thibert-Plante, X., and Hendry, A.P. (2011). The consequences of phenotypic plasticity for ecological speciation. *J. Evol. Biol.* **24**, 326–342.
22. Abelson, A., Halpern, B.S., Reed, D.C., Orth, R.J., Kendrick, G.A., Beck, M.W., Belmaker, J., Krause, G., Edgar, G.J., Airolidi, L., et al. (2016). Upgrading marine ecosystem restoration using ecological-social concepts. *Bioscience* **66**, 156–163.
23. Colautti, R.I., Alexander, J.M., Dlugosch, K.M., Keller, S.R., and Sultan, S.E. (2017). Invasions and extinctions through the looking glass of evolutionary ecology. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B Biol. Sci.* **372**, 20160031.
24. Bock, D.G., Kantar, M.B., Caseys, C., Matthey-Doret, R., and Rieseberg, L.H. (2018). Evolution of invasiveness by genetic accommodation. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **2**, 991–999.
25. Schaum, E., Rost, B., Millar, A.J., and Collins, S. (2013). Variation in plastic responses of a globally distributed picoplankton species to ocean acidification. *Nat. Clim. Chang.* **3**, 298–302.
26. Baythavong, B.S. (2011). Linking the spatial scale of environmental variation and the evolution of phenotypic plasticity: selection favors adaptive plasticity in fine-grained environments. *Am. Nat.* **178**, 75–87.
27. Mohr, R., Voss, B., Schliep, M., Kurz, T., Maldener, I., Adams, D.G., Larkum, A.D.W., Chen, M., and Hess, W.R. (2010). A new chlorophyll *d*-containing cyanobacterium: evidence for niche adaptation in the genus *Acaryochloris*. *ISME J.* **4**, 1456–1469.
28. Miyashita, H., Ikemoto, H., Kurano, N., Adachi, K., Chihara, M., and Miyachi, S. (1996). Chlorophyll *d* as a major pigment. *Nature* **383**, 402.
29. MacColl, R. (1998). Cyanobacterial phycobilisomes. *J. Struct. Biol.* **124**, 311–334.
30. Chang, L., Liu, X., Li, Y., Liu, C.C., Yang, F., Zhao, J., and Sui, S.F. (2015). Structural organization of an intact phycobilisome and its association with photosystem II. *Cell Res.* **25**, 726–737.
31. Frank, H.A., and Cogdell, R.J. (2012). Light capture in photosynthesis. In *Comprehensive Biophysics*, E.H.B.T.-C.B. Egelman, ed. (Elsevier), pp. 94–114.
32. Marquardt, J., Mörschel, E., Rhiel, E., and Westermann, M. (2000). Ultrastructure of *Acaryochloris marina*, an oxypotobacterium containing mainly chlorophyll *d*. *Arch. Microbiol.* **174**, 181–188.
33. Hu, Q., Marquardt, J., Iwasaki, I., Miyashita, H., Kurano, N., Mörschel, E., and Miyachi, S. (1999). Molecular structure, localization and function of biliproteins in the chlorophyll *a/d* containing oxygenic photosynthetic prokaryote *Acaryochloris marina*. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Bioenerg.* **1412**, 250–261.
34. Golub, M., Combet, S., Wieland, D.C.F., Soloviov, D., Kuklin, A., Lokstein, H., Schmitt, F.J., Olliges, R., Hecht, M., Eckert, H.J., et al. (2017). Solution structure and excitation energy transfer in phycobiliproteins of *Acaryochloris marina* investigated by small angle scattering. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Bioenerg.* **1858**, 318–324.
35. Bar-Zvi, S., Lahav, A., Harris, D., Niedzwiedzki, D.M., Blankenship, R.E., and Adir, N. (2018). Structural heterogeneity leads to functional homogeneity in *A. marina* phycocyanin. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Bioenerg.* **1859**, 544–553.
36. Chen, M., Floetenmeyer, M., and Bibby, T.S. (2009). Supramolecular organization of phycobiliproteins in the chlorophyll *d*-containing cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris marina*. *FEBS Lett.* **583**, 2535–2539.
37. Miller, S.R., Augustine, S., Olson, T.L., Blankenship, R.E., Selker, J., and Wood, A.M. (2005). Discovery of a free-living chlorophyll *d*-producing cyanobacterium with a hybrid proteobacterial/cyanobacterial small-subunit rRNA gene. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **102**, 850–855.
38. Partensky, F., Six, C., Ratin, M., Garczarek, L., Vaultot, D., Probert, I., Calteau, A., Gourvil, P., Marie, D., Grébert, T., et al. (2018). A novel species of the marine cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris* with a unique pigment content and lifestyle. *Sci. Rep.* **8**, 9142.
39. Murakami, A., Miyashita, H., Iseki, M., Adachi, K., and Mimuro, M. (2004). Chlorophyll *d* in an epiphytic cyanobacterium of red algae. *Science* **303**, 1633.
40. Uyeda, J.C., Harmon, L.J., and Blank, C.E. (2016). A comprehensive study of cyanobacterial morphological and ecological evolutionary dynamics through deep geologic time. *PLoS ONE* **11**, e0162539.
41. Moore, K.R., Magnabosco, C., Momper, L., Gold, D.A., Bosak, T., and Fournier, G.P. (2019). An expanded ribosomal phylogeny of cyanobacteria supports a deep placement of plastids. *Front. Microbiol.* **10**, 1612.
42. Salichos, L., Stamatakis, A., and Rokas, A. (2014). Novel information theory-based measures for quantifying incongruence among phylogenetic trees. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **31**, 1261–1271.
43. Swingle, W.D., Chen, M., Cheung, P.C., Conrad, A.L., Dejesa, L.C., Hao, J., Honchak, B.M., Karbach, L.E., Kurdoglu, A., Lahiri, S., et al. (2008). Niche adaptation and genome expansion in the chlorophyll *d*-producing cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris marina*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **105**, 2005–2010.
44. Hughes, J., Lamparter, T., Mittmann, F., Hartmann, E., Gärtner, W., Wilde, A., and Börner, T. (1997). A prokaryotic phytochrome. *Nature* **386**, 663.
45. Nakamura, Y., Itoh, T., Matsuda, H., and Gojobori, T. (2004). Biased biological functions of horizontally transferred genes in prokaryotic genomes. *Nat. Genet.* **36**, 760–766.
46. Zhaxybayeva, O., Gogarten, J.P., Charlebois, R.L., Doolittle, W.F., and Papke, R.T. (2006). Phylogenetic analyses of cyanobacterial genomes: quantification of horizontal gene transfer events. *Genome Res.* **16**, 1099–1108.
47. Godde, J.S., Baichoo, S., Mungloo-Dilmohamud, Z., and Jaufeerally-Fakim, Y. (2018). Comparison of genomic islands in cyanobacteria: Evidence of bacteriophage-mediated horizontal gene transfer from eukaryotes. *Microbiol. Res.* **211**, 31–46.

48. Six, C., Finkel, Z.V., Irwin, A.J., and Campbell, D.A. (2007). Light variability illuminates niche-partitioning among marine Picocyanobacteria. *PLoS ONE* 2, e1341.
49. Haverkamp, T., Acinas, S.G., Doelman, M., Stomp, M., Huisman, J., and Stal, L.J. (2008). Diversity and phylogeny of Baltic Sea picocyanobacteria inferred from their ITS and phycobiliprotein operons. *Environ. Microbiol.* 10, 174–188.
50. Tooming-Klunderud, A., Sogge, H., Rounge, T.B., Nederbragt, A.J., Lagesen, K., Glöckner, G., Hayes, P.K., Rohrlack, T., and Jakobsen, K.S. (2013). From green to red: horizontal gene transfer of the phycoerythrin gene cluster between *Planktothrix* strains. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 79, 6803–6812.
51. Sanfilippo, J.E., Garczarek, L., Partensky, F., and Kehoe, D.M. (2019). Chromatic acclimation in cyanobacteria: a diverse and widespread process for optimizing photosynthesis. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* 73, 407–433.
52. Gloag, R.S., Ritchie, R.J., Chen, M., Larkum, A.W.D., and Quinell, R.G. (2007). Chromatic photoacclimation, photosynthetic electron transport and oxygen evolution in the chlorophyll *d*-containing oxyphotobacterium *Acaryochloris marina*. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Bioenerg.* 1767, 127–135.
53. Hernández-Prieto, M.A., Li, Y., Postier, B.L., Blankenship, R.E., and Chen, M. (2018). Far-red light promotes biofilm formation in the cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris marina*. *Environ. Microbiol.* 20, 535–545.
54. Duxbury, Z., Schliep, M., Ritchie, R.J., Larkum, A.W.D., and Chen, M. (2009). Chromatic photoacclimation extends utilisable photosynthetically active radiation in the chlorophyll *d*-containing cyanobacterium, *Acaryochloris marina*. *Photosynth. Res.* 101, 69–75.
55. Kashimoto, T., Miyake, K., Sato, M., Maeda, K., Matsumoto, C., Ikeuchi, M., Toyooka, K., Watanabe, S., Kanesaki, Y., and Narikawa, R. (2020). Acclimation process of the chlorophyll *d*-bearing cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris marina* to an orange light environment revealed by transcriptomic analysis and electron microscopic observation. *J. Gen. Appl. Microbiol.* 66, 106–115.
56. Miller, S.R., Wood, A.M., Blankenship, R.E., Kim, M., and Ferreira, S. (2011). Dynamics of gene duplication in the genomes of chlorophyll *d*-producing cyanobacteria: implications for the ecological niche. *Genome Biol. Evol.* 3, 601–613.
57. Larkum, A.W.D., and Kühl, M. (2005). Chlorophyll *d*: the puzzle resolved. *Trends Plant Sci.* 10, 355–357.
58. Gan, F., and Bryant, D.A. (2015). Adaptive and acclimative responses of cyanobacteria to far-red light. *Environ. Microbiol.* 17, 3450–3465.
59. Kühl, M., Behrendt, L., Trampe, E., Qvortrup, K., Schreiber, U., Borisov, S.M., Klimant, I., and Larkum, A.W.D. (2012). Microenvironmental ecology of the chlorophyll *b*-containing symbiotic cyanobacterium *Prochloron* in the didemnid ascidian *Lissoclinum patella*. *Front. Microbiol.* 3, 402.
60. Collin, R., and Miglietta, M.P. (2008). Reversing opinions on Dollo's Law. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 23, 602–609.
61. Bolger, A.M., Lohse, M., and Usadel, B. (2014). Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data. *Bioinformatics* 30, 2114–2120.
62. Bankevich, A., Nurk, S., Antipov, D., Gurevich, A.A., Dvorkin, M., Kulikov, A.S., Lesin, V.M., Nikolenko, S.I., Pham, S., Prjibelski, A.D., et al. (2012). SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. *J. Comput. Biol.* 19, 455–477.
63. Gurevich, A., Saveliev, V., Vyahhi, N., and Tesler, G. (2013). QUAST: quality assessment tool for genome assemblies. *Bioinformatics* 29, 1072–1075.
64. Wick, R.R., Schultz, M.B., Zobel, J., and Holt, K.E. (2015). Bandage: interactive visualization of *de novo* genome assemblies. *Bioinformatics* 31, 3350–3352.
65. Parks, D.H., Imelfort, M., Skennerton, C.T., Hugenholtz, P., and Tyson, G.W. (2015). CheckM: assessing the quality of microbial genomes recovered from isolates, single cells, and metagenomes. *Genome Res.* 25, 1043–1055.
66. Simão, F.A., Waterhouse, R.M., Ioannidis, P., Kriventseva, E.V., and Zdobnov, E.M. (2015). BUSCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs. *Bioinformatics* 31, 3210–3212.
67. Brettin, T., Davis, J.J., Disz, T., Edwards, R.A., Gerdes, S., Olsen, G.J., Olson, R., Overbeek, R., Parrello, B., Pusch, G.D., et al. (2015). RASTtk: a modular and extensible implementation of the RAST algorithm for building custom annotation pipelines and annotating batches of genomes. *Sci. Rep.* 5, 8365.
68. Emms, D.M., and Kelly, S. (2015). OrthoFinder: solving fundamental biases in whole genome comparisons dramatically improves orthogroup inference accuracy. *Genome Biol.* 16, 157.
69. Nguyen, L.T., Schmidt, H.A., von Haeseler, A., and Minh, B.Q. (2015). IQ-TREE: a fast and effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 32, 268–274.
70. Stamatakis, A. (2014). RAXML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large phylogenies. *Bioinformatics* 30, 1312–1313.
71. Ishikawa, S.A., Zhukova, A., Iwasaki, W., Gascuel, O., and Pupko, T. (2019). A fast likelihood method to reconstruct and visualize ancestral scenarios. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 36, 2069–2085.
72. Grant, J.R., and Stothard, P. (2008). The CGView Server: a comparative genomics tool for circular genomes. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 36, W181–4.
73. Rippka, R., Deruelles, J., and Waterbury, J.B. (1979). Generic assignments, strain histories and properties of pure cultures of cyanobacteria. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* 111, 1–61.
74. Hoang, D.T., Chernomor, O., von Haeseler, A., Minh, B.Q., and Vinh, L.S. (2018). UFBoot2: improving the ultrafast bootstrap approximation. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 35, 518–522.
75. Kalyaanamoorthy, S., Minh, B.Q., Wong, T.K.F., von Haeseler, A., and Jermini, L.S. (2017). ModelFinder: fast model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. *Nat. Methods* 14, 587–589.
76. Felsenstein, J. (1981). Evolutionary trees from DNA sequences: a maximum likelihood approach. *J. Mol. Evol.* 17, 368–376.
77. Schliep, M., Crossett, B., Willows, R.D., and Chen, M. (2010). 18O labeling of chlorophyll *d* in *Acaryochloris marina* reveals that chlorophyll *a* and molecular oxygen are precursors. *J. Biol. Chem.* 285, 28450–28456.
78. Li, Y., Scales, N., Blankenship, R.E., Willows, R.D., and Chen, M. (2012). Extinction coefficient for red-shifted chlorophylls: chlorophyll *d* and chlorophyll *f*. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Bioenerg.* 1817, 1292–1298.

STAR★METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Bacterial and Virus Strains		
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> S1	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> S7	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> S9	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> S15	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> HP1	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> HP8	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> HP9	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> HP10	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MSP2	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> GR1	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> Awaji	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU100	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU03	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU04	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU05	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU06	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU07	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU08	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU09	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU10	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU11	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU12	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MU13	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> NIES2412	this paper	N/A
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> MBIC11017	43	GCA_000018105.1
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i> CCME5410	NCBI	GCA_000238775.2
<i>Acaryochloris thomasi</i> RCC1774	38	NZ_PQWO00000000
<i>Cyanothece</i> sp. PCC7425	NCBI	NCBI:txid395961; GCA_000022045.1
<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. JA-3-3Ab	NCBI	NCBI:txid321327; GCA_000013205.1
<i>Calothrix</i> sp. 336/3	NCBI	NCBI:txid1337936; GCA_000734895.2
<i>Calothrix</i> sp. NIES-2100	NCBI	NCBI:txid1954172; GCA_002368195.1
<i>Leptolyngbya boryana</i> NIES-2135	NCBI	NCBI:txid1973484; GCA_002368255.1
<i>Nostoc</i> sp. WR13	NCBI	NCBI:txid2283151; MH918001

(Continued on next page)

Continued

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
<i>Nostoc carneum</i> NIES-2107	NCBI	NCBI:txid1973483; GCA_002368155.1
<i>Calothrix</i> sp. NIES-2098	NCBI	NCBI:txid1954171; GCA_002368175.1
<i>Tolypothrix</i> sp. PCC7910	NCBI	NCBI:txid2099387; GCA_011769525.1
<i>Pseudanabaena</i> sp. PCC6802	NCBI	NCBI:txid118173; GCA_000332175.1
<i>Nostoc</i> sp. NIES-4103	NCBI	NCBI:txid2005458; GCA_002368335.1
<i>Aulosira laxa</i> NIES-50	NCBI	NCBI:txid1541988; GCA_002368055.1
<i>Nostoc</i> sp. CENA543	NCBI	NCBI:txid1869241; GCA_002896875.1
<i>Tolypothrix tenuis</i> PCC7101	NCBI	NCBI:txid231146; GCA_002368295.1
<i>Nostoc</i> sp. ATCC53789	NCBI	NCBI:txid76335; GCA_009873495.1
<i>Trichodesmium erythraeum</i> IMS101	NCBI	NCBI:txid203124; GCA_000014265.1
<i>Calothrix brevissima</i> NIES-22	NCBI	NCBI:txid1973478; GCA_002367995.1
<i>Calothrix</i> sp. NIES-3974	NCBI	NCBI:txid2005462; GCA_002368395.1
<i>Mastigocoleus testarum</i> BC008	NCBI	NCBI:txid371196; GCA_000472885.1

Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins

Methanol	Roth	HN41.2; CAS: 67-56-1
Water	VWR Chemicals	23595.328; CAS: 7732-18-5
DNeasy PowerBiofilm DNA Extraction Kit	QIAGEN	CAS: 24000-50

Deposited Data

<i>Acaryochloris</i> genome sequence data	This study	NCBI : PRJNA649288
--	------------	--------------------

Software and Algorithms

Trimmomatic	61	V0.36
SPAdes	62	V3.12.0
QUAST	63	V4.5
Bandage	64	V0.8.1
CheckM	65	V1.0.18
BUSCO	66	V4.1.2
Rapid Annotation using Subsystem Technology (RAST)	67	V2.0
OrthoFinder	68	V2.2.7
IQ-TREE	69	V2.0
RAxML	70	V8.2.10
PastML	71	V1.9.29.9
SplitsTree	www.splitstree.org	V4.14.4
CGView	72	V1.0

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead Contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Scott Miller (scott.miller@umontana.edu).

Materials Availability

This study did not generate any new unique reagents.

Data and Code Availability

The accession number for the genome sequence data reported in this paper is NCBI: PRJNA649288.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Acaryochloris isolation and culture maintenance

Acaryochloris strains were isolated by incubating in far-red (FR) light (710 nm) in IO BG-11 medium, which consists of the following dissolved in 1 L of distilled water: 25 g Instant Ocean; 1.5 g NaNO₃; 0.0036 g CaCl₂·H₂O; 0.012 g FeNH₄Citrate; 0.001 g Na₂EDTA; 0.04 g K₂HPO₄; 0.075 g MgSO₄ × 7H₂O; 0.02 g Na₂CO₃; and 1 mL of micronutrient solution (2.86 g H₃BO₃, 1.81 g MnCl₂ × 4H₂O, 0.222 ZnSO₄ × 7H₂O, 0.391 g Na₂Mo₄ × 2H₂O, 0.079 g CuSO₄ × 5H₂O, and 0.0494 g Co(NO₃)₂ × 6H₂O dissolved in 1 L distilled H₂O). IO BG-11 media was buffered with 10 mM HEPES (final) at pH 8.0.³⁷ Some strains were isolated in a modified saltwater medium (ASN-III) consisting of: 25 g NaCl; 3.5 g MgSO₄ × 7H₂O; 2.0 g MgCl₂ × 6H₂O; 0.75 g NaNO₃; 0.75 g K₂HPO₄ × 3H₂O; 0.5 g CaCl₂ × 2H₂O; 0.5 g KCl; 0.02 g NaCO₃; 3 mg citric acid; 3 mg ferric ammonium citrate; 0.5 mg EDTA; and 1 mL micronutrient solution (as above) dissolved in 1 L and adjusted to pH 7.4.⁷³ Batch cultures containing 75 mL of media were maintained in 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks at 20°C or 30°C under 12 h cycles of 20–25 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ of cool white fluorescent light. All strains have been deposited in the University of Montana Culture Collection for Cyanobacteria and are available upon request.

METHOD DETAILS

Genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation

Genomic DNA was extracted from *A. marina* strains using the DNeasy PowerBiofilm DNA extraction kit (QIAGEN) following the manufacturer's recommended protocol. Samples were sent to the University of Pittsburgh Microbial Genome Sequencing Center for library preparation and 150-bp paired-end sequencing on an Illumina NextSeq 550 platform. Sequence reads were trimmed of trailing low-quality bases and filtered based on read length and sequence quality with Trimmomatic version 0.36.⁶¹ Draft genome assemblies for each strain were obtained with SPAdes version 3.12.0⁶² using manually optimized parameter settings to maximize the N50. Assemblies were assessed with QUAST version 4.5,⁶³ and contaminant-derived contigs were removed by filtering by coverage with Bandage version 0.8.1.⁶⁴ Genome completeness was evaluated using CheckM version 1.0.18⁶⁵ and BUSCO version 4.1.2.⁶⁶ Assembled scaffolds for each strain were annotated using Rapid Annotation using Subsystem Technology (RAST).⁶⁷ Sequence data for all new strains can be found at NCBI BioProject PRJNA649288.

Phylogenetic analysis

Assembled genomes of 28 strains, including 24 obtained as part of this study and publicly available assemblies for *Acaryochloris marina* MBIC11017 (NCBI accession GCA_000018105.1) and *Acaryochloris* sp. RCC1774 (NCBI accession NZ_PQWO00000000), were included in genome-wide phylogenetic reconstructions. We also used an improved assembly for *A. marina* strain CCMEE 5410 combining PacBio and Illumina data (NCBI BioProject ID PRJNA16707; 23 contigs, N50 = 4,516,345). These strains represent the known diversity of *Acaryochloris* and the outgroup *Cyanothece* sp. PCC7425 (NCBI accession GCA_000022045.1). A total of 1468 single copy groups of orthologous protein-coding genes were identified using OrthoFinder v2.2.7⁶⁸ to create a concatenated alignment of protein sequences. We constructed a maximum likelihood tree with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap replicates⁷⁴ using IQ-TREE version 2.0⁶⁹ according to the JTT+R+F5 model of sequence evolution selected by the Akaike information criterion (AIC) in ModelFinder⁷⁵. The Shimodaira-Hasegawa-like aLRT (SH-aLRT) was performed in parallel with bootstrap replicates to maximize load balance. Support for bipartitions in the concatenated tree was additionally provided by calculating internode certainty values.⁴² To do so, individual maximum likelihood gene trees were inferred using IQ-TREE version 2.0 with 1,000 ultra-fast bootstrap replicates according to the model of sequence evolution selected with ModelFinder. Consensus trees for each individual protein-coding gene and the species tree were input to RAXML version 8.2.10⁷⁰ to calculate internode certainty and tree certainty values. In addition, a 16S rRNA gene phylogeny was constructed from nucleotide alignments using the above method according to the TIM3+F+R2 model of sequence evolution. Ancestral state reconstruction was performed with PastML⁷¹ using the marginal posterior probabilities approximation (MPPA) maximum likelihood model and F81 model for character evolution.⁷⁶

The genealogical relationships of individual *cpc* genes were inferred by neighbor net analysis from nucleotide alignments. Neighbor net analyses were implemented in SplitsTree version 4.14.4 (www.splitstree.org) for each PBP gene. Taxa with *cpc* genes with the

highest E values by NCBI BLAST to *A. marina* MBIC11017 were included. *Synechococcus* JA-3-3Ab was used as an outgroup because it is a basal lineage in the cyanobacterial phylogeny.⁴¹ Accessions for additional sequence data used are as follows: GCA_000013205.1, GCA_000734895.2, GCA_002368195.1, GCA_002368255.1, MH918001, GCA_002368155.1, GCA_002368175.1, GCA_011769525.1, GCA_000332175.1, GCA_002368335.1, GCA_002368055.1, GCA_002896875.1, GCA_002368295.1, GCA_009873495.1, GCA_000014265.1, GCA_002367995.1, GCA_002368395.1, GCA_000472885.1. The circular genome map for *A. marina* MBIC11017 plasmid pREB3 was created by using the program CGView.⁷²

Growth experiments

Growth was measured as the increase in culture optical density at 750 nm (OD_{750}) with a Beckman Coulter DU 530 spectrophotometer (Indianapolis, IN). For each strain, triplicate independent cultures derived from the same inoculum were grown in each light environment. LED boxes with peak emissions at 525 nm, 590 nm, and 600 nm, and 710 nm, respectively, were placed in 30°C incubators under continuous illumination. The LED lights varied marginally in light intensity: amber (4.0–4.96 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), yellow (3.4–4.0 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), green (5.5–6.04 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), white (7.5–8.1 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and far-red (1.25–1.35 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). Growth was measured every 48 h by taking OD_{750} readings of a 2 mL subsample, after which cultures were randomly moved to different positions within each respective light environment to mitigate any differences in light exposure. Generation times were estimated from the exponential growth phase of each culture.

Chlorophyll d extraction and spectroscopy

Chl *d* concentration for each replicate was monitored by harvesting 2 mL of culture by centrifugation 14,000 X *g* for 5 min. Supernatant was discarded and cell pellets were resuspended in 2 mL ice cold 100% methanol by vortexing.⁷⁷ Samples were stored on ice in the dark for ~30 min to extract pigments, after which they were centrifuged at 14,000 X *g* to pellet cell debris. An absorbance scan (300–800 nm) was performed and Chl *d* peak was measured at 697 nm on a Beckman Coulter DU 530 spectrophotometer. The concentration of Chl *d* in $\mu\text{g/mL}$ was determined using the published mass extinction coefficient of Chl *d* ($63.68 \times 10^3 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$).⁷⁸ Aliquots of each culture were normalized by Chl *d* concentration before measuring excitation spectra (730 nm emission, 350–715 nm scan) with a Photon Technology International model QM-7/2005 spectrofluorometer (Ontario, Canada). Spectra were further normalized by peak wavelength.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Differences in growth rates of *Acaryochloris* strains MBIC11017 and MU13 in all light environments were assessed by Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Tukey HSD tests at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ (Figure 4). Details of other quantification analyses can be found in the Results and Discussion text.

Current Biology, Volume 31

Supplemental Information

**Reacquisition of light-harvesting genes
in a marine cyanobacterium
confers a broader solar niche**

Nikea J. Ulrich, Hiroko Uchida, Yu Kanesaki, Euichi Hirose, Akio Murakami, and Scott R. Miller

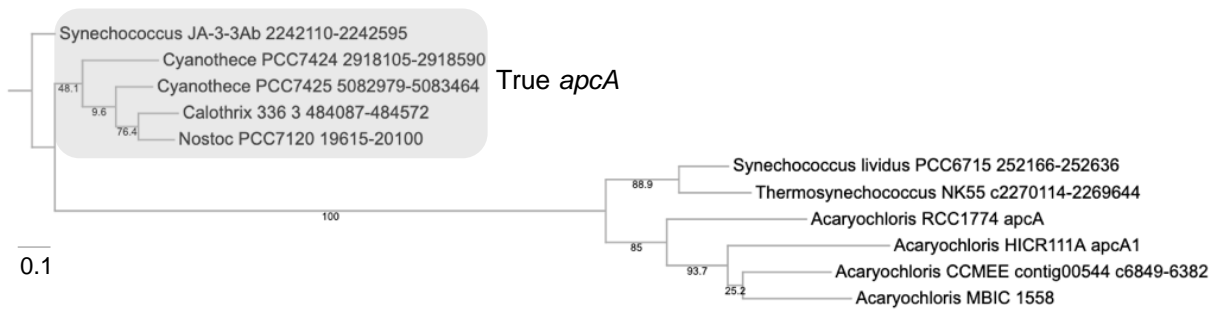


Figure S1. Maximum likelihood gene tree of *apcA* and *apcA*-like homologs. Related to Figure 1. The tree was reconstructed using the TIM3e+G4 model of sequence evolution. Bootstrap (n=1000) support is shown for each node. Taxa included are those that have genes most similar by BLAST to *A. marina* MBIC11017 as well as true *apcA* genes (shaded in gray). The scale bar is in units of expected number of nucleotide substitutions per nucleotide site.

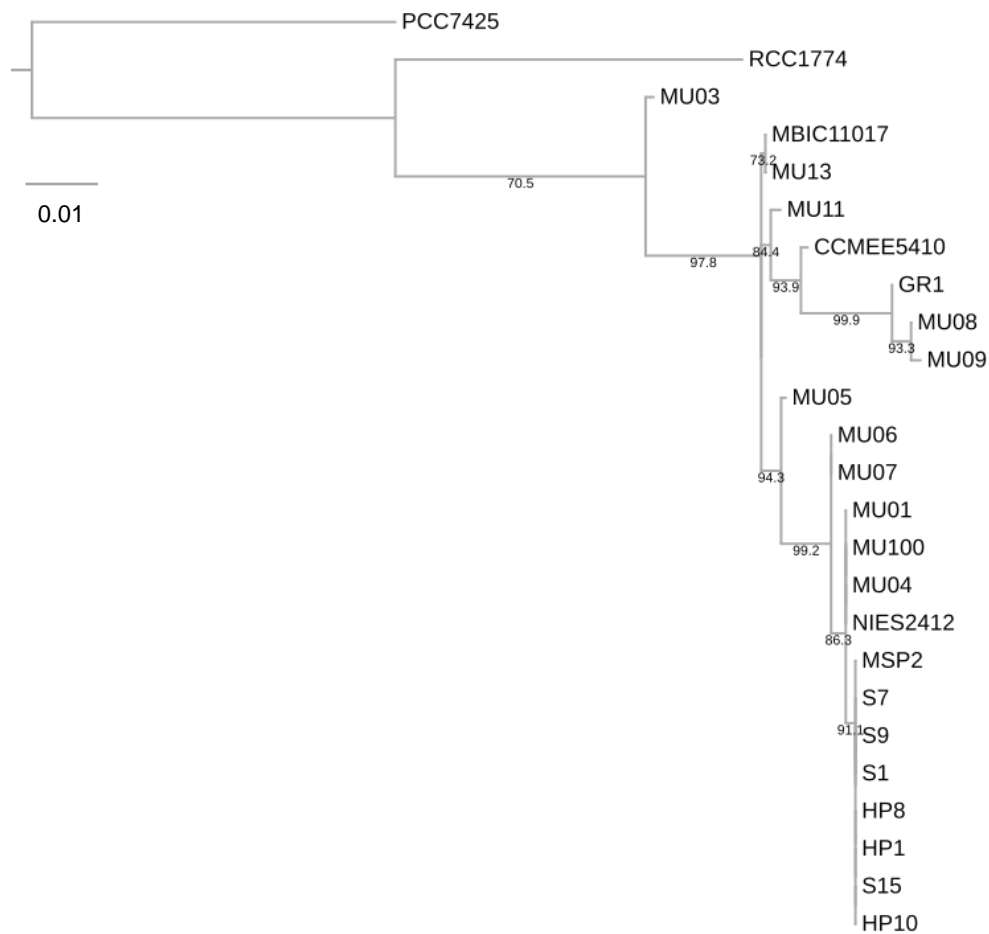


Figure S2. 16S rRNA gene phylogeny of *Acaryochloris* strains outgroup-rooted with *Cyanothece* sp. PCC7425. Related to Figure 1. The tree was reconstructed by maximum likelihood according to a TIM3+F+R2 model of sequence evolution. Bootstrap (n=1000) support is shown for each node. The scale bar is in units of expected number of nucleotide substitutions per nucleotide site.

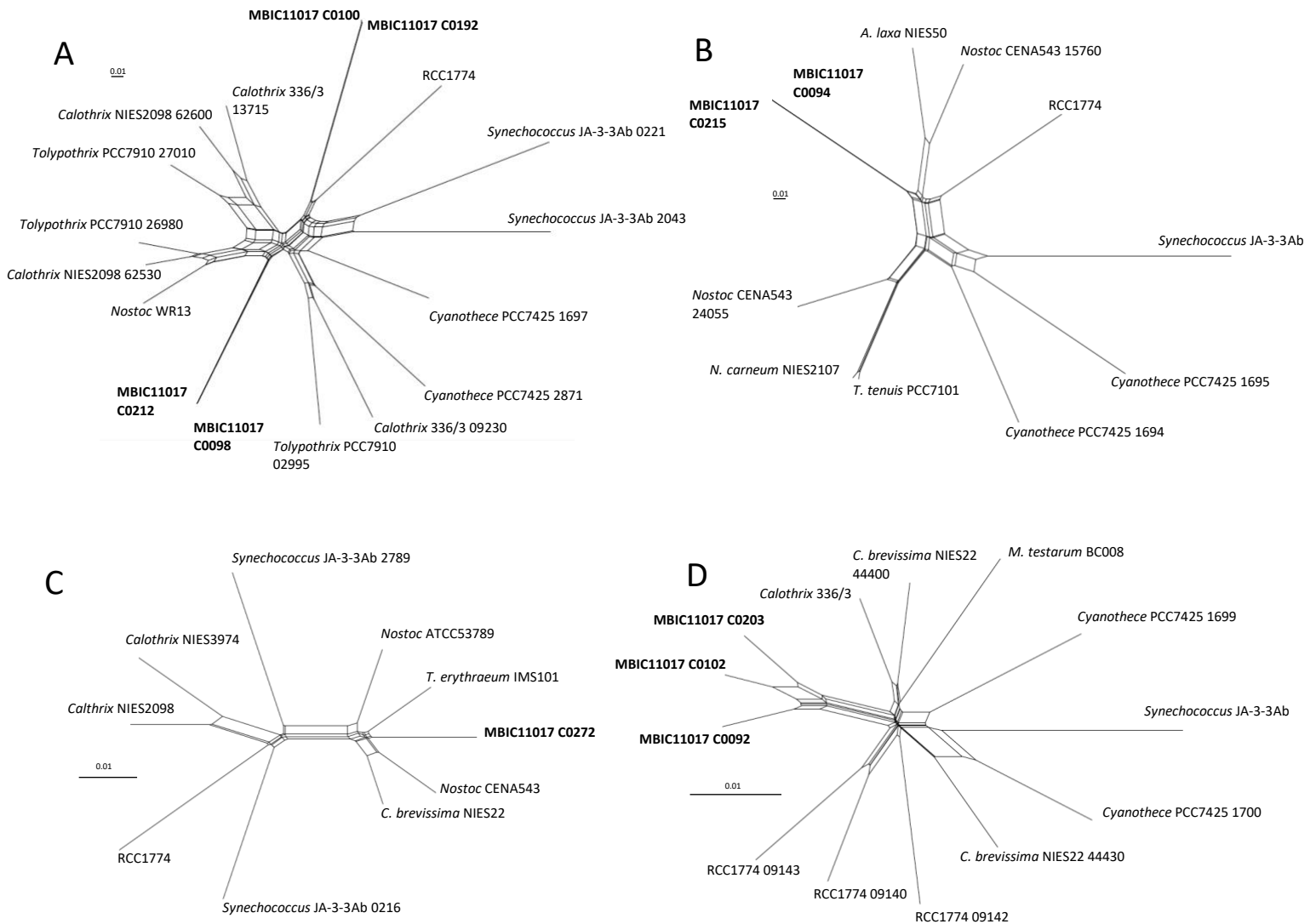


Figure S3. Neighbor net analysis (NNA) of the relationships among cyanobacterial strains for additional PC-associated genes. Related to Figure 3. Genes include *cpcB* (A), *cpcC* (B), *cpcF* (C), *cpcG* (D). Taxa included are those that have *cpc* genes most similar by BLAST to *A. marina* MBIC11017, as well as the outgroup strain *Synechococcus* JA-3-3Ab, which is a basal lineage in the cyanobacterial phylogeny [S1]. In the case of duplicates, gene ID is included in the taxon label. The scale bars are in units of substitutions per site.

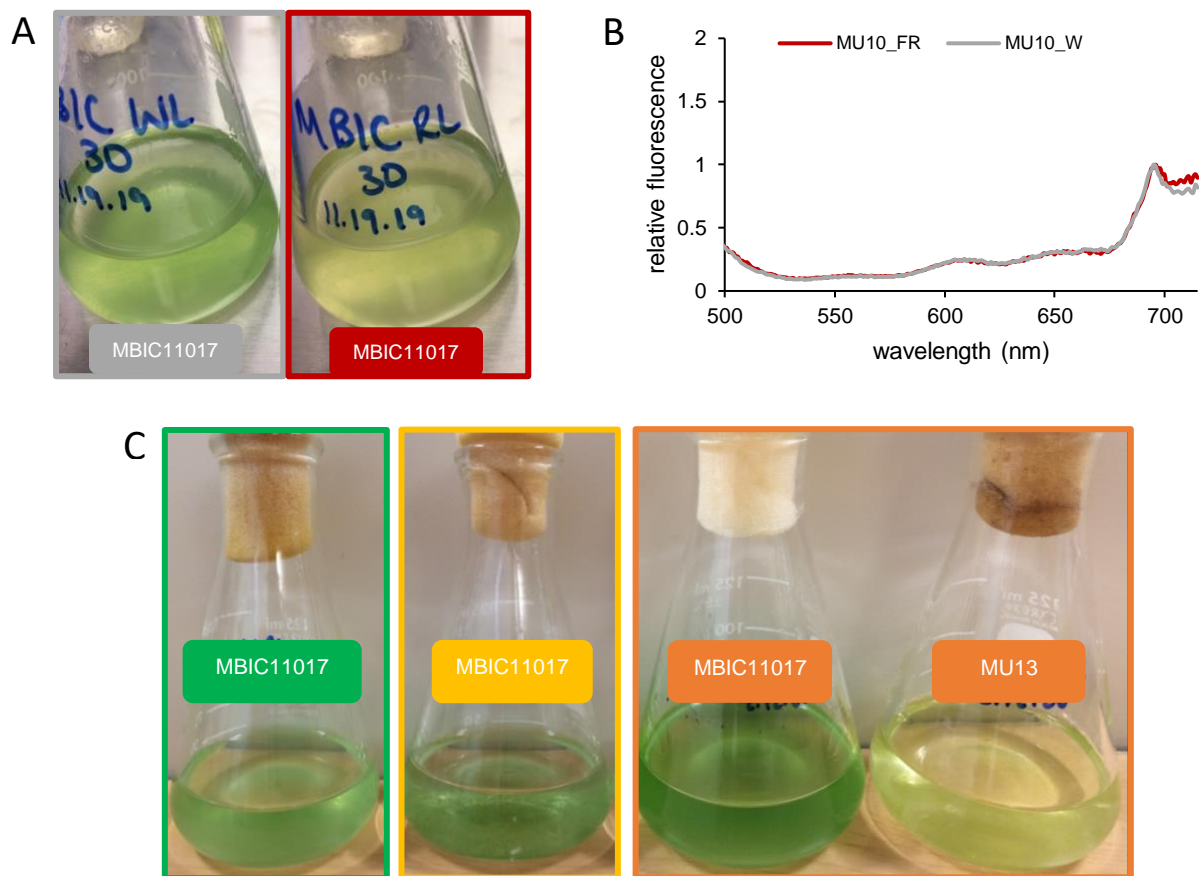


Figure S4. Pigmentation of *A. marina* MBIC11017 and closely related strains in different light environments. Related to Figure 4. MBIC11017 cells grown in white light (left) and far-red light (right) **(A)**. Excitation spectra displaying relative fluorescence of MU10 in far-red and white light **(B)**. Pigmentation of MBIC11017 and MU13 in different light environments **(C)**. From left: MBIC11017 in green (525 nm) light, MBIC11017 in yellow (590 nm) light, MBIC11017 in amber (600 nm) light, and MU13 in amber light.

Strain	Location	Sampling info	Collection Date
S1	Shelter Cove, CA	Upper intertidal pool, from surface of red algae (<i>Mastocarpus</i> sp.)	7/20/16
S7	Shelter Cove, CA	Surface of <i>Corallina</i> sp.	7/20/16
S9	Shelter Cove, CA	Surface of <i>Schizymenia pacifica</i>	7/20/16
S15	Shelter Cove, CA	Surface of <i>Pikea pinnata</i>	7/20/16
HP1	Hug Point State Park, OR	Algae on rocks at low tide	6/28/17
HP8	Hug Point State Park, OR	Algae on rocks at low tide	6/28/17
HP9	Hug Point State Park, OR	Algae on rocks at low tide	6/28/17
HP10	Hug Point State Park, OR	Algae on rocks at low tide	6/28/17
MSP2	MacKerricher State Park, CA	Algae on rocks or loose sand at low tide	5/28/18
GR1	Glover's Reef, Belize	Red algae from floating lagoon mat	1/16/18
Awaji (MU01)	Esaki, Awajishima, Hyogo, Japan	Epiphyte of red alga, <i>Ahnfeltiopsis flabelliformis</i>	2001
MU100	(derived from MU01)	Isolate as sterilized strain	3/27/15
MU03	Muroran, Hokkaido, Japan	Epiphyte of red alga, <i>Ahnfeltiopsis flabelliformis</i>	3/7/06
MU04	Muroran, Hokkaido, Japan	Endophyte of red alga, <i>Ahnfeltiopsis flabelliformis</i>	3/7/06
MU05	Arabian Sea	Epiphyte of red alga, <i>Gelidium</i> sp.	5/3/06
MU06	Tanoshiro, Awajishima, Hyogo, Japan	Epiphyte of red alga, <i>Callophyllis japonica</i>	6/9/06
MU07	Yura, Awajishima, Hyogo, Japan	Epiphyte of red alga, <i>Callophyllis japonica</i>	8/10/06
MU08	South China Sea	Epiphyte of red alga (unidentified)	1/8/07
MU09	Enoshima, Kanagawa, Japan	Epiphyte of red alga, <i>Ahnfeltiopsis flabelliformis</i>	2/3/07
MU10	Gushikami, Okinawa, Japan	Epiphyte of red alga (unidentified)	2/7/07
MU11	Bise, Okinawa, Japan	Isolate from tunicate, <i>Diplosoma virens</i>	4/3/07
MU12	Bise, Okinawa, Japan	Isolate from tunicate, <i>Trididemnum clinides</i>	4/3/07
MU13	Kurimajima, Okinawa, Japan	Isolate from tunicate, <i>Lissoclinum punctatum</i>	12/10/08
NIES2412	Muroran, Hokkaido, Japan	Seaweed (unidentified)	6/20/04

Table S1. New *Acaryochloris* strains included in this study. Related to Figure 1.

Strain ^a	N50	# contigs	Estimated genome size	Completeness (%) ^b	BUSCO (%)
S1	61925	398	7345427	99.29	98.9
S7	54529	446	7118253	99.53	99
S9	58396	410	7273775	99.29	98.9
S15	5881945	7	7112772	99.53	99
HP1	36836	890	7392918	99.29	98.9
HP8	39624	1098	7987243	99.29	99
HP9	36507	820	7003118	99.53	98.8
HP10	37829	1214	7998694	99.29	99
MSP2	48560	761	7090956	99.29	98.9
GR1	41795	470	6175695	99.53	97.8
Awaji (MU01)	17134	1153	7923976	98.47	95.2
MU100	48724	758	7664765	99.29	98.7
MU03	72346	458	6106866	99.53	98.8
MU04	43413	616	6967674	99.53	98.9
MU05	102057	138	5973023	96.7	96.5
MU06	27254	1219	8857603	99.76	98.7
MU07	32970	1060	8711329	99.76	99
MU08	35868	443	6609766	98.82	98.5
MU09	52586	337	6056097	98.58	98.3
MU10	64774	293	6553268	99.53	98.7
MU11	42252	406	7305935	99.53	98
MU12	16188	795	7405669	98.82	93.9
MU13	45821	486	7134557	99.53	98.6
NIES2412	41849	895	7860937	99.29	98.7
CCMEE5410	4516345	23	8072368	99.53	98.5
MBIC11017	6503724	10	8361599	99.53	98.9

Table S2. Genome assembly statistics. Related to Figure 1.

^a MBIC11017 assembly is from Swingley et al. [S2]; all other assemblies are from this study

^b Genome completeness was assessed using CheckM v1.0.18

Supplemental References

S1. Uyeda, J.C., Harmon, L.J., and Blank, C.E. (2016). A comprehensive study of cyanobacterial morphological and ecological evolutionary dynamics through deep geologic time. *PLoS One* *11*, e0162539.

S2. Swingley, W.D., Chen, M., Cheung, P.C., Conrad, A.L., Dejesa, L.C., Hao, J., Honchak, B.M., Karbach, L.E., Kurdoglu, A., Lahiri, S., *et al.* (2008). Niche adaptation and genome expansion in the chlorophyll *d*-producing cyanobacterium *Acaryochloris marina*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* *105*, 2008.