



Axenic in vitro cultivation of 19 peat moss (Sphagnum L.) species as a resource for basic biology, biotechnology, and paludiculture

Melanie A. Heck¹ D, Volker M. Lüth¹ D, Nico van Gessel¹ D, Matthias Krebs^{2,3} D, Mira Kohl^{2,3} D, Anja Prager^{2,3} , Hans Joosten^{2,3} , Eva L. Decker¹ and Ralf Reski^{1,4,5}

¹Plant Biotechnology, Faculty of Biology, University of Freiburg, Freiburg 79104, Germany; ²Peatland Studies and Palaeoecology, Institute of Botany and Landscape Ecology, University of Greifswald, Greifswald 17487, Germany; 3Greifswald Mire Centre, Greifswald 17489, Germany; 4CIBSS – Centre for Integrative Biological Signalling Studies, University of Freiburg, Freiburg 79104, Germany; ⁵Cluster of Excellence livMatS @ FIT – Freiburg Center for Interactive Materials and Bioinspired Technologies, University of Freiburg, Freiburg 79110, Germany

Author for correspondence:

Ralf Reski

Email: ralf.reski@biologie.uni-freiburg.de

Received: 23 April 2020 Accepted: 27 August 2020

New Phytologist (2020) doi: 10.1111/nph.16922

Key words: cell cycle arrest, climate change, DNA barcoding, genome size, peat moss, peatland restoration, Sphagnum farming, Sphagnum magellanicum.

Summary

- Sphagnum farming can substitute peat with renewable biomass and thus help mitigate climate change. Large volumes of the required founder material can only be supplied sustainably by axenic cultivation in bioreactors.
- We established axenic in vitro cultures from sporophytes of 19 Sphagnum species collected in Austria, Germany, Latvia, the Netherlands, Russia, and Sweden: S. angustifolium, S. balticum, S. capillifolium, S. centrale, S. compactum, S. cuspidatum, S. fallax, S. fimbriatum, S. fuscum, S. lindbergii, S. medium/divinum, S. palustre, S. papillosum, S. rubellum, S. russowii, S. squarrosum, S. subnitens, S. subfulvum and S. warnstorfii. These species cover five of the six European Sphagnum subgenera; namely, Acutifolia, Cuspidata, Rigida, Sphagnum and Squarrosa.
- Their growth was measured in suspension cultures, whereas their ploidy was determined by flow cytometry and compared with the genome size of *Physcomitrella patens*. We identified haploid and diploid Sphagnum species, found that their cells are predominantly arrested in the G1 phase of the cell cycle, and did not find a correlation between plant productivity and ploidy. DNA barcoding was achieved by sequencing introns of the BRK1 genes.
- With this collection, high-quality founder material for diverse large-scale applications, but also for basic Sphagnum research, is available from the International Moss Stock Center.

Introduction

Peatlands cover $> 4 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$, comprising 3% of Earth's land and freshwater surface (Joosten & Clarke, 2002), and contain about 30% of the global soil carbon (C) (Gorham, 1991; Frolking & Roulet, 2007). Most peatlands in temperate and boreal zones were formed and are dominated by peat mosses; that is, mosses of the genus Sphagnum (Clymo & Hayward, 1982; Joosten et al., 2017). They accumulate dead organic matter ('peat') under wet, anoxic, acidic, and nutrient-poor conditions, consequently lowering microbial activity and reducing the decay of organic matter. As a result, pristine peatlands are C sinks; that is, they sequester more C than they emit and function as longterm C stores (Clymo & Hayward, 1982; Joosten et al., 2016). Climate-change scenarios assume that prolonged droughts, elevated temperatures, and increased nitrogen (N) deposition (Galloway et al., 2008) decrease the growth of Sphagnum mosses and increase decay, thus reducing the amount of sequestered C (Limpens et al., 2011; Norby et al., 2019). Moreover, changing microbial communities might enhance the functional shift from sink to source (Lew et al., 2019; Juan-Ovejero et al., 2020; Rewcastle et al., 2020). Together, the impact on global C cycling makes Sphagnum an important ecological model, attracting a growing number of scientists. Consequently, the first draft genome sequences became available recently (Sphagnum fallax v.1.1 and Sphagnum magellanicum v.1.1, http://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/; Weston et al., 2018). Although Sphagnum mosses are of growing economic importance for many applications, including wastewater treatment (Couillard, 1994), as sensors of air pollution (Capozzi et al., 2016, 2017; Di Palma et al., 2019; Aboal et al., 2020), and as raw material for growing media (Wichmann et al., 2020), they are not yet analysed in great detail.

The global area of peatlands has been reduced significantly (10–20%) since 1800, particularly by drainage for agriculture and forestry. Moreover, peat serves for energy generation and as a substrate for horticulture (Joosten & Clarke, 2002). Drainage leads to peat mineralization and subsequent emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs), such as CO2 and nitrous oxide (Van Den Pol-Van Dasselaar et al., 1999; Boon et al., 2014; Carlson et al., 2017). Whereas drained peatlands cover only 0.4% of the land surface, they are responsible for 32% of cropland and almost 5% of anthropogenic GHG emissions globally (Joosten et al., 2016;

©2020 The Authors

Carlson *et al.*, 2017). Leifeld *et al.* (2019) estimated that in 1960 the global peatland biome turned from a net sink to a net source of soil-derived GHGs. Further, these researchers predict a cumulative emission from drained peatlands of $249 \pm 38 \text{ Pg}$ of CO_2 equivalent by 2100 if the current trend continues.

Rewetting of drained peatlands decreases these emissions and may even restore the C sink function (Joosten *et al.*, 2016; Wichtmann *et al.*, 2016). Rewetting, however, makes conventional drainage-based land use impossible (Wichmann *et al.*, 2017). Paludiculture, wet agriculture and forestry on peatlands, allows land use to continue and to combine emission reduction with biomass production. It includes traditional peatland cultivation (reed mowing, litter usage) and new approaches for utilization (Abel *et al.*, 2013; Wichtmann *et al.*, 2016).

Sphagnum farming on rewetted bogs is a promising example of paludiculture as it produces *Sphagnum* biomass as a substitute for peat (Gaudig & Joosten, 2002; Gaudig *et al.*, 2014, 2018). It decreases GHG emissions substantially by rewetting drained peatlands, by avoiding the use and oxidation of fossil peat, and by preserving hitherto undrained peatlands as C stores and sinks (Wichtmann *et al.*, 2016; Günther *et al.*, 2017). Potential sites for Sphagnum farming are degraded bogs and acidic water bodies (Wichmann *et al.*, 2017).

Different environmental conditions (e.g. water level or nutrient supply) and different requirements of the produced biomass call for a variety of peat moss species and genotypes as founder material for Sphagnum farms (Gaudig et al., 2018). Lack of sufficient founder material is currently a major bottleneck for the large-scale implementation of Sphagnum farming. In the EU, Sphagnum species and their habitats are protected by the Council Directive 92/43/EEC, constraining the collection of founder material from natural habitats. Furthermore, commercial Sphagnum farming requires Sphagnum material without unwanted biological contaminations (Gaudig et al., 2018) and of a constitution that is fit for purpose. Moss clones established from a single spore or plant share the same genetic, physiological, and environmental background, allowing the multiplication of selected clones to achieve maximum yields. Sphagnum founder material of controlled quality can be produced under aseptic conditions with standard tissue culture methods (Caporn et al., 2017), but probably more rapidly by axenic cultivation in biore-

An important step towards the large-scale production of such founder material was the development of an axenic photobioreactor production process for *Sphagnum palustre*, using monoclonal material generated from a single spore (Beike *et al.*, 2015). Under standardized laboratory conditions, the multiplication rate of the material was up to 30-fold within 4 wk. Initial results with this clone indicated that it can grow in a natural habitat without an intermediate hardening step (Decker & Reski, 2020). Another improvement is the establishment of a protonema-proliferation protocol for *Sphagnum squarrosum* (Zhao *et al.*, 2019). Besides these two species, we found only one report of the establishment of *S. fallax* cultures in a bioreactor (Rudolph *et al.*, 1988). Hence, it remained unclear whether a broader species set can be established as axenic laboratory strains. Moreover, different *Sphagnum*

species were described as having haploid, diploid, or even triploid gametophytes, but the evolutionary advantage of polyploidization remains unclear. One testable hypothesis is that polyploid species grow faster, as has been reported for angiosperms (Van Drunen & Husband, 2018; Walden *et al.*, 2020).

Here, we report on the establishment of axenic *in vitro* cultures of 19 *Sphagnum* species from five peat moss subgenera and compare their growth behaviour, their genome size, and their cell cycle. With this collection, high-quality founder material for diverse large-scale applications, but also for basic *Sphagnum* research, is available.

Materials and Methods

Decontamination of sporophytes and spore germination

We collected sporophytes from 19 Sphagnum species in the field (Table 1) and stored them at 4°C. The taxonomic status of the Sphagnum medium/divinum clones needs clarification to accommodate for taxonomic insights (Hassel et al., 2018) after collection. Spore capsules were surface sterilized and opened with forceps in 1 ml of sodium hypochlorite (NaClO) solution. The solution was freshly prepared with autoclaved water with two drops of Tween 20 per 500 ml water and a final concentration of either 0.6, 1.2, or 2.4% NaClO. The incubation was stopped at different time points between 30 s and 7 min by transferring 100 µl of the suspension to 1 ml autoclaved water. From this dilution, 500 µl were transferred to a sterile Petri dish, which contained one of the following solid media: (1) Knop medium (1.84 mM potassium dihydrogen phosphate, 3.35 mM potassium chloride, 1.01 mM magnesium sulphate, 4.24 mM calcium nitrate, 45 µM iron(II) sulphate) according to Reski & Abel (1985) supplemented with microelements (ME; 50 µM boric acid, 50 µM manganese sulphate, 15 µM zinc sulphate, 2.5 µM potassium iodide, 500 nM sodium molybdate, 50 nM copper sulphate, 50 nM cobalt(II) nitrate) according to Schween et al. (2003a), or (2) Sphagnum medium (Knop medium with ME, 0.3% sucrose, and 1.25 mM ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃)) according to Beike et al. (2015). Petri dishes were sealed with Parafilm (Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) and cultivated under standard growth conditions: climate chamber, temperature of 22°C, photoperiod regime of 16 h: 8 h, light: dark, and light intensity of $70 \pm 5 \,\mu \text{mol m}^{-2} \,\text{s}^{-1}$ provided by fluorescent tubes. Light intensities were measured with a planar quantum sensor (Li-Cor 250; Li-Cor Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany).

After spore germination, single thalloid protonemata were separated and transferred to new Petri dishes containing either solid Knop ME or solid Sphagnum medium under sterile conditions using needles and a stereomicroscope (Stemi 2000-C; Zeiss, Jena, Germany). Plates contained one of the following media to serve as controls: (1) Knop ME supplemented with 1% glucose and 12 g l⁻¹ purified agar (Oxoid Ltd, Basingstoke, UK); (2) LB (10 g l⁻¹ Bacto Tryptone (Becton, Dickinson & Co., Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA), 10 g l⁻¹ sodium chloride (NaCl), 5 g l⁻¹ Bacto Yeast Extract (Becton, Dickinson & Co.) and 15 g l⁻¹ Bacto Agar (Becton, Dickinson & Co.)); or (3) tryptic soy agar with 1%

Table 1 Sphagnum spp. clones in axenic culture with corresponding International Moss Stock Center (IMSC) numbers, date, and location of spore capsule collection

			Origin of spore ca	apsule
Sphagnum sp.	IMSC no.	Six best clones	Date	Location
S. angustifolium	41114	2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 , 2.5, 7.1	2015–2007	Mālpils (LVA)
S. balticum	41118	1.1, 1.2 , 2.2, 3.3, 8.1, 9.5	2016-2008	Lapland (SWE)*
S. capillifolium	41126	1.2, 1.3, 1.5, 1.8 , 1.9, 1.49	2015-2007	Freiburg, Schauinsland (DEU)*
S. centrale	41129	1.2, 3.3, 6.4, 7.5	2016-2008	Siberia, Surgut Polesye (RUS)
	41134	9.6, 10.2	2016-2007	Mālpils (LVA)
S. compactum	41137	3.1, 4.6, 5.1 , 5.3, 6.1, 6.2	2018-2006	Bargerveen (NLD)
S. cuspidatum	41146	1.1, 1.4, 3.3, 3.4, 5.1, 5.2	2016-2007	Gründlenried - Rötseemoos (DEU)*
S. fallax	41151	2.1, 3.1, 4.1, 4.4, 4.5 , 4.6	2017–2006	Sphagnum farming pilot: Rastede (DEU) Origin: De Werribben (NLD)
S. fimbriatum	40069	1.1 , 2.1	2012-2006	Store Mosse (SWE)
	41154	6.1, 6.2, 6.4, 6.5	2015-2007	Mālpils (LVA)
S. fuscum	41158	1.1 , 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2	2016-2008	Lapland (SWE)*
S. lindbergii	41167	2.1, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2 , 3.3	2016-2007	Lapland (SWE)*
S. medium/divinum	40066	3.1	2012-2007	Store Mosse (SWE)
	41169	4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 5.1, 5.2	2016-2008	Siberia, Yugra (RUS)
S. palustre	40068	2a, 12a	2012-2008	Lychen-Bohmshof (DEU)
·	41175	4.2, 4.3, 5.1, 5.2	2017–2006	Sphagnum farming pilot: Rastede (DEU) Origin: De Werribben (NLD)
S. papillosum	41179	1.1, 2.2, 4.3	2016-2008	Siberia, Potanay Aapa mire (RUS)
	41183	5.2, 6.1 , 7.1	2017–2006	Sphagnum farming pilot: Rastede (DEU) Origin: Ramsloh (DEU)
S. rubellum	40067	1.1 , 2.1	2012-2006	Store Mosse (SWE)
S. russowii	41191	1.1, 1.2, 3.1, 3.4, 3.5, 4.2	2016-2008	Siberia, Chistoye Bog (RUS)
S. squarrosum	41193	2.1, 5.2 , 5.3, 6.1	2016-2007	Gründlenried-Rötseemoos (DEU)*
•	41196	7.1	2017-2005	Buddenhagener Moor (DEU)
	41197	8.3	2017-2009	Steiermark (AUT)
S. subfulvum	41201	4.2, 4.3, 7.2, 7.4 , 8.1, 8.5	2016-2008	Lapland (SWE)*
S. subnitens	40070	1.1	2012-2006	Store Mosse (SWE)
S. warnstorfii	41208	1.3, 1.4, 2.1, 3.3, 5.2 , 5.4	2016–2008	Siberia, Rangetur floating mire (RUS)

The six best-growing clones are listed by the number of spore capsules and of the individual clone. Bold numbers indicate the best-growing clones. The origin of the spore capsule is indicated by date and location of collection. Spore capsules marked with an asterisk were provided by Michael Lüth; all others were provided by the authors. AUT, Austria; DEU, Germany; LVA, Latvia; NLD, the Netherlands; RUS, Russian Federation; SWE, Sweden.

glucose $(15\,\mathrm{g\,l^{-1}}$ peptone from casein, $5\,\mathrm{g\,l^{-1}}$ soy peptone, $5\,\mathrm{g\,l^{-1}}$ NaCl) and $12\,\mathrm{g\,l^{-1}}$ purified agar (Oxoid Ltd). These plates were sealed with Parafilm and stored and inspected at room temperature. If no contamination occurred within 4 wk, we considered a culture as axenic. Thus, each line generated derives from a single spore. Clonal material from each line has been established by separating filaments.

In vitro cultivation

Gametophores were cultivated on solid media and in suspension. For cultivation on solid medium, gametophores were transferred to Knop ME or Sphagnum medium. The Petri dishes were sealed with Parafilm and cultivated under standard conditions.

For suspension cultures, gametophores were disrupted with forceps in laminar flow benches and transferred to 35 ml Sphagnum medium in 100 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. Flasks were closed with Silicosen[®] silicone sponge plugs (Hirschmann Laborgeräte, Eberstadt, Germany) and agitated on a rotary shaker at 120 rpm (B. Braun Biotech International, Melsungen, Germany) under

standard conditions. We did not observe gametangia in these cultures.

Light microscopy

Gametophores were analysed with a stereo microscope (SZX7; Olympus Corp., Tokyo, Japan) and a camera (AxioCam ICc 1; Zeiss). Photographs were scaled with AXIOVISION 4.8 (Zeiss). Stacks of images with different focal points were combined with COMBINEZ 5.3 (Alan Hadley, https://combinezp.software.inf ormer.com/).

Growth determination

Plant growth was determined on solid media as well as in suspension (Fig. 1). First, growth of up to 16 clones of each species was determined on agar plates with both Knop ME and Sphagnum medium. Clones were randomly selected from all available spore capsules. The uppermost 5 mm from the tip of each gametophore (the capitulum) was cut, transferred to solid media, and cultivated under standard conditions for 4 wk (Fig. 1). Growth was

documented photographically every week. The pictures were transferred into binary images and the area was assessed by counting the pixels (Fig. 1a) using IMAGEJ v.1.51f (Wayne Rasband, https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/). In addition to the area of growth, the height of the gametophore and the shape and colour were visually assessed to select the six largest clones of each species after 4 wk of growth. These were subsequently assessed for biomass increase in suspensions.

Three gametophores per clone were transferred to 50 ml Sphagnum medium in 100 ml Erlenmeyer flasks and cultivated under standard conditions for 6 wk. Subsequently, the total biomass was harvested by filtering with a Büchner funnel and a vacuum pump. The moss material was transferred to pre-dried (0.5 h at 105°C) aluminium weighing pans (Köhler Technische Produkte, Neulußheim, Germany) and dried for 2 h at 105°C. Subsequently, the DW was determined with an accuracy scale (CPA 3245; Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany) (Fig. 1b). The clone with the highest DW increase of each species was selected as the best-grown clone.

Flow cytometry

Ploidy levels of the six best-grown clones of each species were determined via flow cytometry (FCM). Gametophores were chopped with a razor blade in 0.5 ml 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindol (DAPI) solution (Carl Roth) containing 0.01 mg l⁻¹ DAPI,

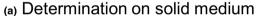
 $1.07~g~l^{-1}$ magnesium chloride hexahydrate, $5~g~l^{-1}$ NaCl, $21.11~g~l^{-1}$ Tris, and $1~ml~l^{-1}$ Triton X-100. Afterwards, 1.5~ml DAPI solution was added and the material then filtered through a $30~\mu m$ sieve and subsequently analysed with a Partec CyFlow Space flow cytometer (Sysmex Partec, Görlitz, Germany), equipped with a 365~nm UV-LED. *Physcomitrella patens* protonema served as internal standard (modified after Schween $\it et~al.$, 2003b).

Statistical analysis

To determine significance values between the growths of the clones, data were analysed by one-way ANOVA, followed by Fisher's protected least significant difference test, where ***, **, and * denote significance at the 0.1%, 1%, and 5% level, respectively. Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad PRISM®, and diagrams were created with EXCEL 2016.

DNA extraction

For genomic DNA extraction, gametophores from suspension cultures were vacuum filtrated for 1 min. Up to 100 mg of tissue was disrupted in a tissue lyser (MM 400; Retsch, Haan, Germany) followed by DNA extraction with the GeneJETTM Genomic DNA Purification Kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The



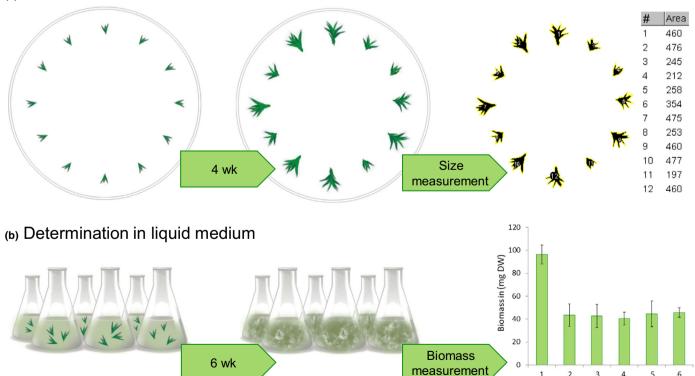


Fig. 1 Schematic representation of the growth determination of *Sphagnum* spp.: (a) on solid medium; (b) in suspension cultures. (a) Gametophores of the same size were transferred to a Petri dish and cultivated for 4 wk. The growth was documented photographically, and the size was analysed by image-processing-supported area measurement using IMAGEJ. (b) Gametophores were transferred to Erlenmeyer flasks and cultivated for 6 wk. Growth was determined by dry weight (DW) measurement of the biomass.

DNA was dissolved in 50 μ l elution buffer, and the concentration was measured using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (ND-1000; Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Amplification of SpBRK1 from genomic DNA

For amplification of a part of the nuclear gene *BRK1* (homologue of Pp1s35_157V6.1; Pp3c8_2740V3.1; Lang *et al.*, 2018), the following intron-flanking primers were used: SpBRK1_fwd, TCAATGTGCGCCGTCTCTTTG; and SpBRK1_rev, GTGC TGAATTGGGCTTCCAAG (modified after Beike *et al.*, 2014). The amplification was performed by Phusion DNA polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific) or Q5® DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA)-based PCR according to the manufacturer's protocol in 50 µl reaction volume containing 50–250 ng genomic DNA. Expected product lengths were around 530 bp and 1350 bp.

Cloning of PCR products, sequencing, and sequence analysis

After DNA isolation with the GeneJETTM Gel Extraction Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's protocol, PCR products were cloned into the vector pJET1.2/blunt using the CloneJET Molecular Cloning Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's protocol. After *Escherichia coli* transformation, DNA was extracted using the GeneJET Plasmid Miniprep-Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's protocol. Sanger sequencing was done by GATC Biotech (Eurofins Genomics, Konstanz, Germany) using primers pJET-FP and pJET-RP.

The sequence chromatograms were analysed with the CHROMASPRO v.2.1.9 (http://www.technelysium.com.au/ChromasPro. html). Multiple sequence alignments were generated using CLUSTAL OMEGA (Madeira *et al.*, 2019) and visualized with JALVIEW (Waterhouse *et al.*, 2009).

Results and Discussion

Induction of axenic in vitro cultures

Surface sterilization of spore capsules is an established method to start axenic *in vitro* cultivation (Beike *et al.*, 2015). *Sphagnum* spores are still viable after 13 yr when stored in the cold, and they can form persistent spore banks in nature (Sundberg & Rydin, 2000). We observed spore germination in *Sphagnum angustifolium* and *Sphagnum fimbriatum* after 3 yr storage at 4°C. However, we decontaminated most sporophytes within 2 months after collection. Detergent concentration and exposure time were adjusted individually for each sporophyte. We did not find a correlation between species or sporophyte maturation level and exposure time for successful decontamination and germination of spores. Sugar accelerated spore germination of all species except *Sphagnum compactum*, but all species except *Sphagnum warnstorfii* also germinated on Knop ME. Filaments developed from sterilized spores after 2–20 wk, with high variations within

every species. Single gametophores were separated and subsequently cultivated on solid medium as independent clones.

Beike et al. (2015) showed that in vitro cultivated S. palustre plants and plants taken from natural habitats have similar phenotypic characteristics. However, in that study, gametophores grown in vitro were smaller and the shoots had more lanceolate leaves than the cucullate, ovate leaves of the thicker and heavier field shoots. We observed such deviating morphological characteristics for all 19 Sphagnum species cultivated in vitro (Fig. 2). Differences in spore germination, plant development, and plant morphology between axenic moss cultures and field-grown mosses may be due, besides obvious abiotic factors and speed of growth, to effects of the microbiome present only in the latter. Cross-kingdom and cross-clade signalling via small molecules can influence morphology of Sphagnum similar to P. patens (Kostka et al., 2016; Decker et al., 2017; Vesty et al., 2020).

Selection of the best-growing clones

For subsequent analyses, we reduced the number of clones by preselection on solid medium. Cultivation on solid medium allows long-term storage, whereas suspension cultures yield higher amounts of biomass (Beike *et al.*, 2015).

We describe the selection of the best-growing clone here in detail for *Sphagnum fuscum*, whilst descriptions for the other species are in the supplement (Supporting Information Figs S1–S17). Capitula of eight *S. fuscum* clones were cultivated on solid Knop ME or on solid Sphagnum medium (Fig. 3). Two clones were selected from capsule 1, four clones from capsule 2, and two clones from capsule 3, all collected from the same location in Sweden.

Sphagnum medium comprises Knop ME, sucrose, and NH₄NO₃. Previous studies described growth enhancement of *Sphagnum* by sucrose or other saccharides (Simola, 1969; Graham *et al.*, 2010; Beike *et al.*, 2015), or an N source (Simola, 1975; Beike *et al.*, 2015). Fertilization, especially the addition of N and phosphorus, can affect the morphology of *Sphagnum* (Fritz *et al.*, 2012).

Gametophores on Sphagnum medium were more compact with a darker green colour than gametophores on Knop ME, as depicted for *S. fuscum* in Fig. 3(a II, b II). We found this effect for all *Sphagnum* species in our study.

The six clones covering the largest area were, in descending order, 2.2, 1.1, 3.2, 1.2, 2.3 and 3.1 on Knop ME (Fig. 3a IV) and 1.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.1, 3.2 and 2.5 on Sphagnum medium (Fig. 3b IV). Clones 1.1, 2.2, 2.3 and 3.2 were among the six best clones on both media, and clones 1.2, 2.1, 2.5 and 3.1 were among the six best clones on one of the plates. In the case of ambiguous results, care was taken that at least one clone of each geographical location remained among the six best clones to maintain the highest possible ecotype variation. In this way, clones 1.1, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1 and 3.2 were identified as the six best clones on solid media and subsequently analysed in suspension. Here, clone 1.1 yielded significantly more biomass than the other five clones (Fig. 4).

This high variation in biomass productivity may be due to the fact that *S. fuscum* clone 1.1 originates from another spore

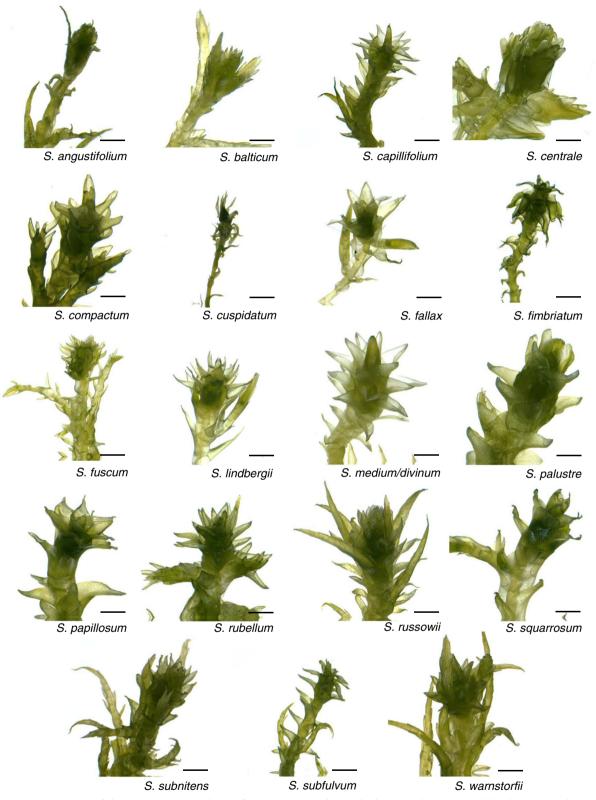


Fig. 2 Light microscopic images of characteristic gametophores of Sphagnum spp. after 4 wk of axenic cultivation on solid Sphagnum medium. Bars, 1 mm.

capsule than the other five clones, or because *S. fuscum* is dioecious (Cronberg, 1993). Another dioecious species, *S. angustifolium* (Cronberg, 1993), yielded a high variation in biomass from clones germinated out of one spore capsule, from

 34.4 ± 6 mg DW (clone 2.2) to 226.6 ± 7.3 mg DW (clone 2.4). The same was detected for the monoecious species *S. compactum* (Cronberg, 1993), where clone 5.1 yielded five times more biomass than clone 5.3. However, we found no

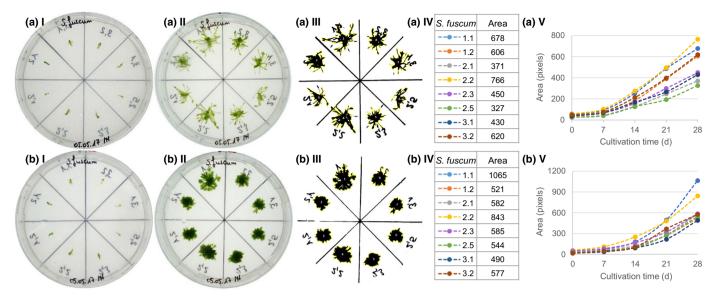


Fig. 3 Growth determination of *Sphagnum fuscum* on (a) solid Knop with microelements and (b) solid Sphagnum medium. (I) Capitula of eight independent clones were cut to 5 mm size and transferred to Petri dishes. (II) Gametophores after 4 wk of cultivation. (III) The size of the gametophores was measured by counting the pixels on binary pictures using IMAGEJ. (IV) The area (number of pixels) of each gametophore (V) is shown on the y-axis; the x-axis shows the cultivation time in days.

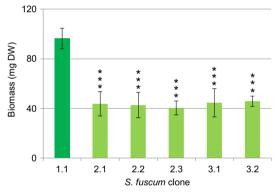


Fig. 4 Biomass (mg DW) of six *Sphagnum fuscum* clones. The growth of the clones was determined in suspension cultures by measuring the DW after cultivation of three capitula in flasks containing 50 ml Sphagnum medium for 6 wk. The *y*-axis shows the biomass in DW; the *x*-axis shows the clone. Data represent mean values with SDs of three biological replicates (ANOVA P < 0.0001). Clone 1.1 yielded significantly more biomass than the clones 2.1***, 2.2***, 2.3***, 3.1*** and 3.2***. Asterisks represent results of Student's *t*-test performed in comparison with clone 1.1 (***, P < 0.001).

correlation between the variation in productivity of the individual clones of one species and their reproductive morphology.

To capture genetic diversity, up to six best-growing clones per species from different sporophytes were deposited in the International Moss Stock Center (http://www.moss-stock-center.org). All clones deposited, their accession numbers, and the origin of the sporophyte (date of collection, location of collection) are listed in Table 1.

The taxonomic status of clones derived from sporophytes originally collected as *S. magellanicum* needs clarification in future because a new species concept of *S. magellanicum*, *S. medium* and *S. divinum* became available (Hassel *et al.*, 2018) during the

course of our study. We cannot group these clones into one of these species based on morphology because they differ slightly between in vitro and the field, as described before in the case of S. palustre (Beike et al., 2015). However, we can distinguish them by their collection site, as geographical distribution differs. Accordingly, our clones most probably are not S. magellanicum, because Hassel et al. (2018) suggest its occurrence in Argentina and Chile only. By contrast, we collected those sporophytes in Sweden and Russia. Therefore, our clones are most likely S. divinum or S. medium, because both are circumpolar in the Northern Hemisphere (Hassel et al., 2018). As both species occur in mixed stands (Hassel et al., 2018), we are currently not able to separate them by collection site either. Therefore, we list these clones here as S. medium/divinum. To resolve this uncertainty in future, a detailed analysis with different molecular markers (von Stackelberg et al., 2006; Di Palma et al., 2016; Hassel et al., 2018) is needed. However, we note that these clones are more heterogeneous regarding morphology, colour, and growth rate than clones from the other species in our study. This suggests the existence of two species in our S. medium/divinum collection. If this hypothesis is confirmed by molecular genetic analyses in future, our axenic Sphagnum collection comprises 20 species instead of 19.

Cell-cycle arrest, genome sizes, and ploidy

The DNA content of the nuclei (ploidy) can affect productivity, at least in animals and seed plants (Dhawan & Lavania, 1996; Paterson *et al.*, 2012; Chen, 2013). Usually, *Sphagnum* species have haploid gametophytes and n=19 chromosomes, but diploid forms with 38 chromosomes exist. Both chromosome numbers exist for populations of some species (Cronberg, 1993), and even triploid peat mosses have been described (Karlin & Smouse,

2019; Kyrkjeeide *et al.*, 2019). Besides chromosome counting, *Sphagnum* genome sizes were estimated by Feulgen absorbance microscopy (Temsch *et al.*, 1998). FCM was applied to determine DNA contents of mosses (Reski *et al.*, 1994), including *Sphagnum* (Melosik *et al.*, 2005). The major peak of the internal standard *P. patens* represents haploid nuclei in the G2-phase of the cell cycle (Schween *et al.*, 2003a). It was set at channel 200, whereas the peak at channel 100 represents nuclei in G1. A peak at 400 indicates diploid nuclei in G2 (Schween *et al.*, 2003a).

Our FCM analysis revealed only one peak for gametophytic cells of all 19 *Sphagnum* species, but at two different positions: either one peak occurred around 100, or a peak occurred near 200 (Fig. 5). As we analysed fast-growing tissue, one might expect that nuclei from one sample were in different phases of the cell cycle and thus would yield two different peaks (G1 and G2) plus intermediary signals for nuclei in the S-phase. Our current findings confirm similar findings of Melosik *et al.* (2005) and suggest that gametophytic cells of all 19 *Sphagnum* species are arrested predominantly either in G1 or G2. A similar cell-cycle arrest occurs in *P. patens* (Reski *et al.*, 1994; Schween *et al.*, 2003a).

In such a situation, FCM cannot clarify if a peak corresponds to G1 or to G2. Thus, a peak at 200 could result from either haploid nuclei in G2 or diploid nuclei in G1. Thus, we considered the published genome sizes that are based on sequencing: the basic nuclear DNA content of P. patens is 0.53 pg, with an estimated genome size of 518 Mbp (Schween et al., 2003a), whereas the latest P. patens genome assembly yielded 467.1 Mbp (Lang et al., 2018). Based on Feulgen absorbance photometry, haploid Sphagnum species have DNA contents between 0.392 pg and 0.506 pg, and diploid species have between 0.814 and 0.952 pg DNA (Temsch et al., 1998), with an average ratio of 1:1.92 between DNA content in haploids and diploids (Melosik et al., 2005). Currently, there are two Sphagnum genome sequences publicly available. According to this, the S. fallax genome comprises approximately 395 Mbp and the S. magellanicum genome approximately 439 Mbp (DOE-JGI, http://phytozome.jgi.d oe.gov/). Assuming that in our FCM analysis the peaks at 100 and at 200 represent cells in G1, the estimated genome sizes vary between 370 and 460 Mbp for the peak at 100 and between 840 and 890 Mbp for the peak at 200. Although these are only approximations because DAPI binds to AT-rich DNA sequences (Doležel et al., 1992), the values for those Sphagnum species characterized by a peak around 100 coincide well with the sizes of both available genome sequences. We therefore conclude that the gametophytic cells of these species are haploid and predominantly arrested in G1.

Although it is an obvious hypothesis that species with a peak around 200 are diploid and arrested in G1, and not haploid and arrested in G2, we tested this hypothesis by comparison with the literature about haploidy and diploidy in *Sphagnum* and compiled the data in Table 2. Our hypothesis is in accordance with data for the 13 haploid species *S. angustifolium, Sphagnum balticum, Sphagnum capillifolium, S. compactum, Sphagnum cuspidatum, S. fallax, S. fuscum, Sphagnum lindbergii, S. medium/divinum, Sphagnum rubellum, Sphagnum subnitens, Sphagnum*

subfulvum and S. warnstorfii, as well as the three diploid species Sphagnum centrale, S. palustre and S. russowii. Our S. fimbriatum clones, which derive from sporophytes collected in Sweden and Latvia, are haploid. Sphagnum fimbriatum was reported to be haploid in the USA (Bryan, 1955), Finland (Sorsa, 1955, 1956), Canada (Maass & Harvey, 1973), and Austria (Temsch et al., 1998), whereas diploid specimens were reported for the UK (Smith & Newton, 1968). Our Sphagnum papillosum clones established from sporophytes collected in Russia and Germany are diploid, which is in agreement with material from the UK (Smith & Newton, 1968) and Austria (Temsch et al., 1998), whereas haploid specimens were reported from Canada (Maass & Harvey, 1973). Our S. squarrosum clones from Germany and Austria are haploid, like material from Austria (Temsch et al., 1998) and Canada (Maass & Harvey, 1973), whereas diploid specimens were reported from Finland (Sorsa, 1955, 1956).

Taken together, we conclude that the gametophytic cells of 19 Sphagnum species are predominantly arrested in G1, at least under our conditions. This contrasts with the G2 arrest of *P. patens* protonemal cells. One prominent feature of P. patens is the very high efficiency of homologous recombination (HR) in these cells. This feature facilitates precise gene targeting (GT), and thus genome engineering with outstanding efficiency (Schaefer & Zryd, 1997; Strepp et al., 1998; Hohe et al., 2004). Although it is not yet fully resolved why P. patens has such an outstandingly high HR efficiency, two hypotheses were put forward early on: either haploidy or the G2 arrest is a prerequisite (Schaefer & Zryd, 1997; Reski, 1998). These hypotheses can be tested with the collection described here: if haploidy is sufficient, haploid but not diploid Sphagnum species should be amenable to efficient GT. If G2 arrest is a prerequisite, none of the species described here is amenable to GT. To our knowledge, no genetic transformation of any Sphagnum species has been reported hitherto. Because protoplasts derived from protonemal cells are the preferred target for genetic transformation in P. patens, the report about protonema-induction in S. squarrosum (Zhao et al., 2019) paves the way for such experiments in the future.

Growth in suspension

Productivity of *Sphagnum* in their natural habitats varies among species, with a biomass production of up to 1450 g m⁻² yr⁻¹, with an average of 260 g m⁻² yr⁻¹, depending on phylogeny and microhabitat preferences (Gunnarsson, 2005). To compare productivity without the influence of water level or nutrient supply, we tested cultivation in suspensions under standardized conditions to identify the best-growing clone of each of the 19 species (Fig. 6). To compare the growth behaviour of the species, the inocula have to be normalized. Owing to the variation of the capitula sizes of *Sphagnum* species (Fig. 2), the inoculation material had to be adjusted. *In vitro* cultures facilitate the reproduction due to vegetative growth, because peat mosses regenerate from several parts of the shoot, like capitula, fascicles, branches, and stems, but not from leaves (Poschlod & Pfadenhauer, 1989).

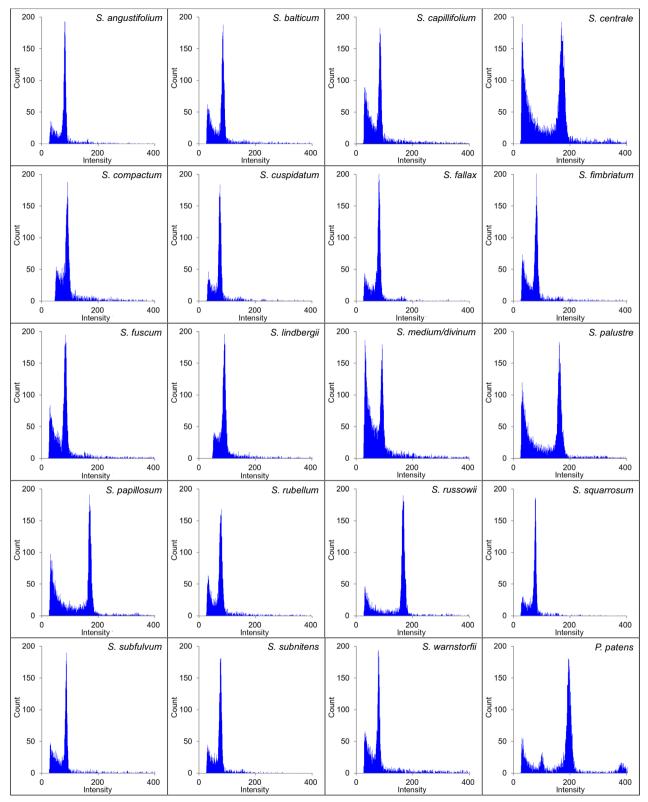


Fig. 5 Flow cytometry signals of 19 *Sphagnum* species and *Physcomitrella patens* after axenic cultivation on solid Sphagnum medium for 4 months. *Physcomitrella patens* was used as internal standard with the major peak set at channel 200. Channel numbers (x-axis) reflect the relative fluorescence intensity of the stained nuclei.

We disrupted gametophores with forceps and filled flasks with 50 mg FW (c. 3.6 mg DW; see Beike et al., 2015) and 35 ml Sphagnum medium. The nutrient composition was established

towards optimized biomass production of *S. palustre*, but it was not proven for the other established axenic *in vitro* cultures of *S. fimbriatum*, *S. magellanicum*, *S. rubellum* and *S. subnitens*

Table 2 The ploidy level of 19 Sphagnum species measured by flow cytometry (FCM) in comparison with the literature.

	Level of	ploidy					
Sphagnum sp.	This study FCM	Bryan (1955)	Sorsa (1955)	Sorsa (1956)	Smith & Newton (1968)	Maass & Harvey (1973)	Temsch <i>et al</i> . (1998)
S. angustifolium	n						n
S. balticum	n		n	n			
S. capillifolium	n						n
S. centrale	2 <i>n</i>					2 <i>n</i>	2 <i>n</i>
S. compactum	n	n	n	n			n
S. cuspidatum	n	n	n	n	n	n	n
S. fallax	n						n
S. fimbriatum	n	n	n	n	2n	n	n
S. fuscum	n		n	n		n	n
S. lindbergii	n			n		n	
S. magellanicum		n		2 <i>n</i>		n	n
S. medium/ divinum	n						
S. palustre	2 <i>n</i>	2 <i>n</i>			2n	2 <i>n</i>	2 <i>n</i>
S. papillosum	2 <i>n</i>				2 <i>n</i>	n	2 <i>n</i>
S. rubellum	n				n	n	n
S. russowii	2 <i>n</i>						2 <i>n</i>
S. squarrosum	n		2 <i>n</i>	2 <i>n</i>		n	n
S. subnitens	n		n		n		n
S. subfulvum	n					n	
S. warnstorfii	n		n	n			n

Literature data are based on chromosome numbers (Bryan, 1955; Sorsa, 1955, 1956; Smith & Newton, 1968; Maass & Harvey, 1973) or on genome size determination with Feulgen absorbance photometry and a scanning cytophotometer (Temsch *et al.*, 1998). *n*, haploid; 2*n*, diploid.

(Beike *et al.*, 2015). Under our conditions, biomass increase ranged from four-fold (*S. rubellum*) up to 80-fold (*S. cuspidatum*) in 6 wk (Fig. 6).

The Sphagnum medium was suitable for axenic in vitro cultivation of many Sphagnum species, including S. cuspidatum

(yielding the largest biomass gain), *S. fallax, S. papillosum* and *S. squarrosum* (Fig. 6). The medium seems suboptimal for, for example, *S. subnitens*, the species with the highest productivities out of 31 peat moss species from *Sphagnum*-dominated wetlands (Gunnarsson, 2005). However, in our study, *S. subnitens* had

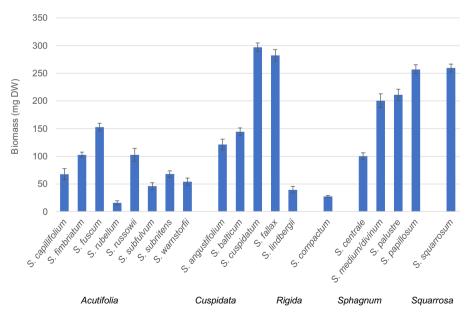


Fig. 6 Biomass increase of 19 Sphagnum species sorted by sections after cultivating 50 mg FW (c. 3.6 mg DW) of gametophores in flasks containing 35 ml Sphagnum medium for 6 wk. The y-axis shows the biomass (mg DW); the x-axis shows Sphagnum species. Data represent mean values with SDs of three biological replicates (n = 3).

only a weak performance. Gaudig et al. (2020) reported that S. papillosum, S. palustre, S. fimbriatum and S. fallax grow well under nutrient-rich conditions with optimal water supply in a glasshouse experiment. In this study, S. fallax had the highest productivity and S. papillosum the lowest productivity at high water level. The good productivity of S. fimbriatum in the glasshouse experiment contrasts with its comparably low productivity in suspension in our study. In the field, biomass increase is generally largest in pools, less on lawns, and least on hummocks (Clymo, 1970), with species growing in ombrotrophic carpets and lawns, like S. balticum, S. cuspidatum, S. magellanicum and S. rubellum, having higher productivities than hummock species, like S. fuscum (Gunnarsson, 2005). This corresponds with several studies, which have shown that the growth rate of most Sphagnum species is highest at water tables just below the capitula, independent of the species (e.g. Gaudig et al., 2020). Interestingly, we recorded higher growth rates for S. papillosum than for S. palustre, although the opposite is described for natural habitats (Gunnarsson, 2005; Krebs et al., 2016). Surprisingly, axenic in vitro cultivation enhances the productivity of S. fuscum but impairs the growth of *S. rubellum*.

We could not correlate productivity and taxonomical subgenus as the four most productive species in our study belong to three different subgenera (Cuspidata, Sphagnum, Squarrosa). Species from the subgenera Acutifolia and Rigida had a lower average productivity. In natural habitats, species of the subgenus Cuspidata are more productive than species of the subgenera Acutifolia and Sphagnum (Gunnarsson, 2005). To clarify the differences in productivity on a genetic level between the subgenera, a larger number of species from one subgenus should be examined in future. Our inability to detect a correlation between subgenus and biomass gain may reflect the situation in the field. Piatkowski & Shaw (2019) did not detect an influence of phylogeny on the majority of traits in their study on 15 Sphagnum species and suggested that the environmental context can obscure the phylogenetic signal. Our novel method creates an artificial but standardized environment for 19 Sphagnum species. It facilitates research to gain deeper insights into the ecology of peat mosses, as single parameters like nutrients and light conditions can be changed and tested. Recently, Küttim et al. (2020) reported on biomass increases of Sphagnum species during boreal winters. Consequently, future studies should also take climate gradients into account.

Another genetic property that influences productivity is ploidy (Otto & Whitton, 2000), as described for many agricultural crops (Henry & Nevo, 2014). In our current study, however, we could not detect a correlation between ploidy and productivity, because the diploid *S. palustre* and *S. papillosum* were among the six best-growing species, but the haploid *S. cuspidatum* and *S. fallax* were most productive. The other diploid species, *S. centrale* and *S. russowii*, yielded an average increase. Because the medium composition may have affected our results, future studies of haploid and diploid populations of the same species using individually optimized media may provide better insights into a correlation between ploidy and yield. Alternatively, polyploidization may have other benefits than pure biomass increase in *Sphagnum*, or even mosses in general.

DNA barcoding of the 19 best-growing clones

To reliably discriminate our Sphagnum species, we sequenced parts of the nuclear gene BRK1, which is an established marker for phylogenetic analyses and has been identified as a single copy orthologue in many land plants genomes. For example, BRK1 was used to resolve relationships within the moss family Funariaceae based on its high degree of conservation, including a single intron (Beike et al., 2014). By contrast, we noticed that the genome assemblies of S. fallax v.1.1 and S. magellanicum v.1.1 (DOE-JGI, http://phy tozome.igi.doe.gov/) each comprise two BRK1 homologues (Sphfalx09G049800.1 and Sphfalx18G024600.1; Sphmag18G0743 00.1 and Sphmag09G052500.1), indicating a gene duplication or a polyploidization in the evolutionary lineage leading to the Sphagnaceae. Though Sphfalx09G049800.1 and Sphmag18G074300.1 both harbour only a single intron within their coding sequences, Sphfalx18G024600.1 contains an additional intron in the 5' untranslated region, and the major transcript isoform Sphmag09G052500.1 exhibits an additional exon of coding sequence. However, the alternative transcript Sphmag09G052500.2, in turn, is annotated only with a single intron. Thus, we designed primers that bind within the conserved coding sequence flanking the introns of both BRK1 genes (Fig. S18).

We amplified genomic *BRK1* fragments for all the best-growing clones, which resulted in two products: a shorter sequence with individual lengths between 511 and 539 bp, and a longer sequence with individual lengths between 1317 and 1360 bp, as a consequence of different intron lengths of the two *BRK1* loci. For convenience, we named the former fragment '*BRK1* short' and the latter '*BRK1* long' (Table 3). *BRK1* short discriminates 15 of our 19 *Sphagnum* species, but the sequences were identical for *S. balticum* and *S. fuscum* as well as for *S. capillifolium* and *S. rubellum*. The diploid species *S. centrale* and *S. palustre* shared an identical *BRK1* short sequence with a length of 536 bp, yet they both yielded a second sequence of 537 bp, which we used to discriminate between them. The occurrence of two *BRK1* short sequences indicates a hybrid origin rather than a polyploidization of *S. centrale* and *S. palustre*.

The sequence lengths of *BRK1* long are the same for *S. balticum* and *S. fuscum*; however, we found discriminative polymorphisms in two positions. *Sphagnum capillifolium*, *S. compactum*, *S. rubellum*, *S. subnitens* and *S. warnstorfii*, all belonging to the subgenus *Acutifolia*, had a *BRK1* long fragment with 1351 bp, which, with the exception of *S. compactum*, were identical in sequence. Therefore, none of our *BRK1* sequences can discriminate between *S. capillifolium* and *S. rubellum*. However, as *S. capillifolium* is three times more productive than *S. rubellum* under standard conditions in suspension, it is possible to discriminate these two species based on phenotypical characteristics. All sequences were submitted to GenBank (Table 3). Sequence alignments are compiled in Dataset S1 for *BRK1* short and Dataset S2 for *BRK1* long.

Taken together, we established fast and precise DNA barcoding to reliably identify any of our *Sphagnum* cultivars at any stage of their life cycle, with only two exceptions, which currently require further support by phenotypical characteristics. Further, our *BRK1*

 Table 3
 Summary results of axenic cultivation of 19 Sphagnum species, including the subgenera, the breeding system based on Cronberg (1993), the ploidy level measured by flow cytometry (FCM),
 the clones analysed and the number of spore capsules, the identification of the best-growing clone compared with up to five other clones, with detailed information in the figures in Supporting Information, and the sequence lengths and GenBank IDs of BRK1 introns, where the asterisks mark identical sequences.

				Germina	Germination of spores	Best-growin	Best-growing clone out of six best-growing clones	owing clones	Sphagnum barcoding (fraglengths and GenBank IDs)	Sphagnum barcoding (fragment lengths and GenBank IDs)	
<i>Sphagnum</i> sp.	Subgenus	Breeding system (Cronberg, 1993)	Ploidy by FCM	No. clones	No. spore capsules	Best- growing clone	Significantly more productive than	Not significantly more productive than	BRK1 short	BRK1 long	Figure
S. angustifolium	Cuspidata	Dioecious	Haploid	9	2	2.4	2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.5, 7.1		537	1317	S1
)									MT900778	MT900755	
S. balticum	Cuspidata	Dioecious	Haploid	16	9	1.2	1.1, 2.2, 3.3, 8.1, 9.5		537*	1352	22
	:		:						W1900/19	M1900/56	
S. capillitolium	Acutifolia	Polyoecious/ dioecious	Haploid	-	-	. 8.	1.2, 1.3, 1.5, 1.9, 1.49		537* MT900780	1351* MT900757	S
S. centrale	Sphagnum	Dioecious	Diploid	14	7	10.2	1.2, 3.3, 6.4, 7.5, 9.6		536*/537	1349/1356	2
									MT900781/	MT900758/	
									MT900782	MT900759	
S. compactum	Rigida	Monoecious	Haploid	12	4	5.1	3.1, 5.3, 6.1, 6.2	4.6	534	1351	S5
400	404:		9	7	Ų	C	7	7	M1900/83	M1900/60	2
s. cuspidatum	Cuspinala	Dioecions	паріоіа	<u>0</u>	n	2.6	1.1, 5.3, 5.4, 5.1	4.	258 MT90078/	1558 MT900761	Š
C fallay	Cicpidata	والجانون	קיסומים	5	c	7	,	21 71 77 76	527	1217	0
S. Idilax	Cuspinala	Dioecious	napioid	2	n	 	7.7	5.1, 4.1, 4.4, 4.0	757 MT900785	1317 MT900762	'n
S. fimbriatum	Acutifolia	Monoecious	Haploid	9	3	1.1	2.1, 6.1, 6.4	6.2, 6.5	539	1321	88
									MT900786	MT900763	
S. fuscum	Acutifolia	Dioecious	Haploid	∞	3	1.1	2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 3.2		537*	1352	8
									MT900787	MT900764	
S. lindbergii	Cuspidata	Monoecious/	Haploid	2	2	2.1	2.3, 3.3	3.1, 3.2	536	1334	S10
		dioecions							MT900788	MT900765	
S. medium/	Sphagnum	Dioecions	Haploid	_∞	4	3.1	4.2, 4.3, 5.1, 5.2	4.1	536	1356	S11
divinum		(S. magellancium)							MT900789	MT900766	
S. palustre	Sphagnum	Dioecions	Diploid	0	ĸ	12a	2a	4.2, 4.3, 5.1, 5.2	536*/537	1352/1357	S12
									/06Z006LW	/Y900767/	
									MT900791	MT900768	
S. papillosum	Sphagnum	Sphagnum Dioecious	Diploid	12	9	6.1	2.2, 4.3, 5.2, 7.1	1.1	511/537	1354/1360	S13
									MT900792/	/692006TW	
:	:		:	((,			MT900793	MT900770	
s. rubellum	ACUTITOIIA	Dioecions	Haploid	7	7	=		7.7	53/* **TOOOTO	1351* ATOOCTAA	
S russowii	Acutifolia	Dioecious	Dinloid	12	~	4.2	11 17 31 34 35		536/536	1352/1355	214
				!)	!			MT900795/	MT900772/)
									MT900796	MT900773	
S. squarrosum	Squarrosa	Monoecious	Haploid	16	9	5.2	2.1, 5.3, 6.1, 8.3	7.1	537	1356	S15
									/4/00/EIW	M1900/74	

				Germin	Germination of pores	Best-growin	Best-growing clone out of six best-growing clones	growing clones	Sphagnum bar lengths and Go	Sphagnum barcoding (fragment lengths and GenBank IDs)	
Sphagnum sp.	Subgenus	Breeding system Subgenus (Cronberg, 1993)	Ploidy by FCM	No. clones	No. spore capsules	Best- growing clone	Significantly more productive than	Not significantly more productive than	BRK1 short	BRK1 long	Figure
S. subfulvum	Acutifolia	Acutifolia Monoecious	Haploid	16	9	7.4		4.2, 4.3, 7.2, 8.1, 8.5	535	1355 MT900775	S16
S. subnitens	Acutifolia	Polyoicous/	Haploid	~	←				537 537 747900799	1351* AAT900776	
S. warnstorfii	Acutifolia	Dioecious	Haploid	4	4	5.2	1.3, 2.1	1.4, 3.3, 5.4	537 MT900800	1351* MT900777	S17

data provide hints for a complex evolutionary history of the Sphagnaceae, including polyploidization and hybridization.

Summary results of axenic cultivation of 19 *Sphagnum* species

The results from the 19 *Sphagnum* species, including the subgenera and breeding systems, the ploidy level, the identification of the best-growing clone, the sequence lengths of *BRK1* introns, and their GenBank IDs, are compiled in Table 3.

Conclusion

Apart from P. patens as an established model organism, the development of other model mosses is inevitable for ecological and evolutionary genomics, as well as for clarifying open questions, such as the high HR efficiency of P. patens. Owing to the large number of peat moss species and their clear patterns of niche differentiation, Sphagnum provides an excellent complement (Shaw et al., 2016). Our peat moss collection creates a resource for the increasing interest in Sphagnum research to establish new plant model systems. Moreover, the large-scale implementation for diverse applications can rely on the axenic in vitro cultivation of Sphagnum as fast-growing, high-quality founder material. Scaling up this cultivation method will facilitate a low-cost production process. In particular, Sphagnum farming will benefit, as the lack of Sphagnum diaspores is one of the biggest problems and their purchase is the biggest cost factor for establishing Sphagnum farming sites (Wichmann et al., 2017, 2020).

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Federal Ministry of Food and Agriculture (BMEL) (MOOSzucht, no. 22007216). Additional support came from the German Research Foundation (DFG) under Germany's Excellence Strategy (CIBSS – EXC-2189 – Project ID 390939984; *liv*MatS – EXC-2193/1 – 390951807). We gratefully acknowledge Anja Kuberski and Richard Haas for expert technical assistance, Michael Lüth for providing sporophytes, Greta Gaudig for discussion, and Anne Katrin Prowse for proofreading of the manuscript. Open access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.

Author contributions

MAH, VML, ELD and RR planned and designed the research. MAH performed experiments and analysed data. NvG analysed sequence data. M. Krebs, M. Kohl and AP collected sporophytes. MAH, ELD and RR wrote the manuscript. HJ revised this paper. All authors discussed data and approved the final version of the manuscript.

ORCID

Eva L. Decker https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9151-1361 Melanie A. Heck https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0817-5679

Table 3 (Continued)

Hans Joosten https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8694-5811 Mira Kohl https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5381-1961 Matthias Krebs https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6336-327X Volker M. Lüth https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2923-4236 Anja Prager https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1750-0592 Ralf Reski https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5496-6711 Nico van Gessel https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0606-246X

References

- Abel S, Couwenberg J, Dahms T, Joosten H. 2013. The Database of Potential Paludiculture Plants (DPPP) and results for Western Pomerania. *Plant Diversity and Evolution* 130: 219–228.
- Aboal JR, Concha-Graña E, De Nicola F, Muniategui-Lorenzo S, López-Mahía P, Giordano S, Capozzi F, Di Palma A, Reski R, Zechmeister H et al. 2020. Testing a novel biotechnological passive sampler for monitoring atmospheric PAH pollution. Journal of Hazardous Materials 381: e120949.
- Beike AK, Spagnuolo V, Lüth V, Steinhart F, Ramos-Gómez J, Krebs M, Adamo P, Rey-Asensio AI, Fernández JA, Giordano S *et al.* 2015. Clonal *in vitro* propagation of peat mosses (*Sphagnum* L.) as novel green resources for basic and applied research. *Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture* 120: 1037–1049.
- Beike AK, von Stackelberg M, Schallenberg-Rüdinger M, Hanke ST, Follo M, Quandt D, McDaniel SF, Reski R, Tan BC, Rensing SA. 2014. Molecular evidence for convergent evolution and allopolyploid speciation within the *Physcomitrium–Physcomitrella* species complex. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 14: e158.
- Boon A, Robinson JS, Chadwick DR, Cardenas LM. 2014. Effect of cattle urine addition on the surface emissions and subsurface concentrations of greenhouse gases in a UK peat grassland. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment* 186: 23–32.
- Bryan VS. 1955. Chromosome studies in the genus *Sphagnum. Bryologist* 58: 16–39
- Caporn SJM, Rosenburgh AE, Keightley AT, Hinde SL, Riggs JL, Buckler M, Wright NA. 2017. Sphagnum restoration on degraded blanket and raised bogs in the UK using micropropagated source material: a review of progress. Mires and Peat 20: e09.
- Capozzi F, Adamo P, Di Palma A, Aboal JR, Bargagli R, Fernandez JA, Lopez Mahia P, Reski R, Tretiach M, Spagnuolo V et al. 2017. Sphagnum palustre clone vs native Pseudoscleropodium purum: a first trial in the field to validate the future of the moss bag technique. Environmental Pollution 225: 323–328.
- Capozzi F, Giordano S, Aboal JR, Adamo P, Bargagli R, Boquete T, Di Palma A, Real C, Reski R, Spagnuolo V et al. 2016. Best options for the exposure of traditional and innovative moss bags: a systematic evaluation in three European countries. Environmental Pollution 214: 362–373.
- Carlson KM, Gerber JS, Mueller ND, Herrero M, MacDonald GK, Brauman KA, Havlik P, O'Connell CS, Johnson JA, Saatchi S et al. 2017. Greenhouse gas emissions intensity of global croplands. Nature Climate Change 7: 63–68.
- Chen ZJ. 2013. Genomic and epigenetic insights into the molecular bases of heterosis. *Nature Reviews Genetics* 14: 471–482.
- Clymo RS. 1970. The growth of Sphagnum: methods of measurement. Journal of Ecology 58: 13–49.
- Clymo RS, Hayward PM. 1982. The ecology of Sphagnum. In: Smith AJE, ed. Bryophyte ecology. Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer, 229–289.
- Couillard D. 1994. The use of peat in wastewater treatment. Water Research 28: 1261–1274.
- Cronberg N. 1993. Reproductive biology of Sphagnum. Lindbergia 17: 69–82.
 Decker EL, Alder A, Hunn S, Ferguson J, Lehtonen MT, Scheler B, Kerres KL, Wiedemann G, Safavi-Rizi V, Nordzieke S et al. 2017. Strigolactone biosynthesis is evolutionarily conserved, regulated by phosphate starvation and contributes to resistance against phytopathogenic fungi in a moss, Physcomitrella patens. New Phytologist 216: 455–468.
- Decker EL, Reski R. 2020. Mosses in biotechnology. Current Opinion in Biotechnology 61: 21–27.

- Dhawan OP, Lavania UC. 1996. Enhancing the productivity of secondary metabolites via induced polyploidy: a review. *Euphytica* 87: 81–89.
- Di Palma A, Crespo Pardo D, Spagnuolo V, Adamo P, Bargagli R, Cafasso D, Capozzi F, Aboal JR, González AG, Pokrovsky O et al. 2016. Molecular and chemical characterization of a *Sphagnum palustre* clone: key steps towards a standardized and sustainable moss bag technique. *Ecological Indicators* 71: 388–397.
- Di Palma A, González AG, Adamo P, Giordano S, Reski R, Pokrovsky OS. 2019. Biosurface properties and lead adsorption in a clone of *Sphagnum palustre* (mosses): towards a unified protocol of biomonitoring of airborne heavy metal pollution. *Chemosphere* 236: e124375.
- Doležel J, Sgorbati S, Lucretti S. 1992. Comparison of three DNA fluorochromes for flow cytometric estimation of nuclear DNA content in plants. *Physiologia Plantarum* 85: 625–631.
- Fritz C, van Dijk G, Smolders AJP, Pancotto VA, Elzenga TJTM, Roelofs JGM, Grootjans AP. 2012. Nutrient additions in pristine Patagonian Sphagnum bog vegetation: can phosphorus addition alleviate (the effects of) increased nitrogen loads. Plant Biology 14: 491–499.
- Frolking S, Roulet NT. 2007. Holocene radiative forcing impact of northern peatland carbon accumulation and methane emissions. *Global Change Biology* 13: 1079–1088.
- Galloway JN, Townsend AR, Erisman JW, Bekunda M, Cai Z, Freney JR, Martinelli LA, Seitzinger SP, Sutton MA. 2008. Transformation of the nitrogen cycle: recent trends, questions, and potential solutions. *Science* 320: 889–892.
- Gaudig G, Fengler F, Krebs M, Prager A, Schulz J, Wichmann S, Joosten H. 2014. Sphagnum farming in Germany – a review of progress. *Mires and Peat* 13: e08.
- Gaudig G, Joosten H. 2002. Peat moss (*Sphagnum*) as a renewable resource an alternative to *Sphagnum* peat in horticulture. In: Schmilewski G, Rochefort L, eds. *Peat in horticulture. Quality and environmental challenges.* Jyväskylä, Finland: International Peat Society, 117–125.
- Gaudig G, Krebs M, Joosten H. 2020. Sphagnum growth under N-saturation: interactive effects of water level and P or K fertilisation. Plant Biology 22: 394–403.
- Gaudig G, Krebs M, Prager A, Wichmann S, Barney M, Caporn SJM, Emmel M, Fritz C, Graf M, Grobe A et al. 2018. Sphagnum farming from species selection to the production of growing media: a review. Mires and Peat 20: e13.
- Gorham E. 1991. Northern peatlands: role in the carbon cycle and probable responses to climatic warming. *Ecological Applications* 1: 182–195.
- Graham LE, Kim E, Arancibia-Avila P, Graham JM, Wilcox LW. 2010. Evolutionary and ecophysiological significance of sugar utilization by the peat moss *Sphagnum compactum* (Sphagnaceae) and the common charophycean associates *Cylindrocystis brebissonii* and *Mougeotia* sp. (Zygnemataceae). *American Journal of Botany* 97: 1485–1491.
- Gunnarsson U. 2005. Global patterns of Sphagnum productivity. Journal of Bryology 27: 269–279.
- Günther A, Jurasinski G, Albrecht K, Gaudig G, Krebs M, Glatzel S. 2017.

 Greenhouse gas balance of an establishing *Sphagnum* culture on a former bog grassland in Germany. *Mires and Peat* 20: e02.
- Hassel K, Kyrkjeeide MO, Yousefi N, Prestø T, Stenøien HK, Shaw JA, Flatberg KI. 2018. Sphagnum divinum (sp. nov.) and S. medium Limpr. and their relationship to S. magellanicum Brid. Journal of Bryology 40: 197–222
- Henry RJ, Nevo E. 2014. Exploring natural selection to guide breeding for agriculture. Plant Biotechnology Journal 12: 655–662.
- Hohe A, Egener T, Lucht JM, Holtorf H, Reinhard C, Schween G, Reski R. 2004. An improved and highly standardised transformation procedure allows efficient production of single and multiple targeted gene-knockouts in a moss, *Physcomitrella patens. Current Genetics* 44: 339–347.
- Joosten H, Clarke D. 2002. Wise use of mires and peatlands: background and principles including a framework for decision-making. Saarijärvi, Finland: International Mire Conservation Group and International Peat Society.
- Joosten H, Sirin A, Couwenberg J, Laine J, Smith P. 2016. The role of peatlands in climate regulation. In: Bonn A, Allott T, Evans M, Joosten H, Stoneman R, eds. *Peatland restoration and ecosystem services*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 63–76.

- Joosten H, Tanneberger F, Moen A, eds. 2017. Mires and peatlands of Europe: status, distribution and conservation. Stuttgart, Germany: Schweizerbart Science Publishers.
- Juan-Ovejero R, Briones MJI, Öpik M. 2020. Fungal diversity in peatlands and its contribution to carbon cycling. Applied Soil Ecology 146: e103393.
- Karlin EF, Smouse PE. 2019. Holantarctic diversity varies widely among genetic loci within the gametophytically allotriploid peat moss *Sphagnum* × falcatulum. American Journal of Botany 106: 137–144.
- Kostka JE, Weston DJ, Glass JB, Lilleskov EA, Shaw AJ, Turetsky MR. 2016. The Sphagnum microbiome: new insights from an ancient plant lineage. New Phytologist 211: 57–64.
- Krebs M, Gaudig G, Joosten H. 2016. Record growth of Sphagnum papillosum in Georgia (Transcaucasus): rain frequency, temperature and microhabitat as key drivers in natural bogs. Mires and Peat 18: e04.
- Küttim M, Küttim L, Ilomets M, Laine AM. 2020. Controls of Sphagnum growth and the role of winter. Ecological Research 35: 219–234.
- Kyrkjeeide MO, Hassel K, Aguero B, Temsch EM, Afonina OM, Shaw AJ, Stenøien HK, Flatberg KI. 2019. *Sphagnum* × *lydiae*, the first allotriploid peatmoss in the Northern Hemisphere. *Bryologist* 122: 38–61.
- Lang D, Ullrich KK, Murat F, Fuchs J, Jenkins J, Haas FB, Piednoel M, Gundlach H, Bel MV, Meyberg R et al. 2018. The Physcomitrella patens chromosome-scale assembly reveals moss genome structure and evolution. The Plant Journal 93: 515–533.
- Leifeld J, Wüst-Galley C, Page S. 2019. Intact and managed peatland soils as a source and sink of GHGs from 1850 to 2100. Nature Climate Change 9: 945– 947
- Lew S, Glińska-Lewczuk K, Lew M. 2019. The effects of environmental parameters on the microbial activity in peat-bog lakes. PLoS ONE 14: e0224441.
- Limpens J, Granath G, Gunnarsson U, Aerts R, Bayley S, Bragazza L, Bubier J, Buttler A, van den Berg LJL, Francez A-J et al. 2011. Climatic modifiers of the response to nitrogen deposition in peat-forming Sphagnum mosses: a metaanalysis. New Phytologist 191: 496–507.
- Maass W, Harvey M. 1973. Studies on the taxonomy and distribution of Sphagnum VII. Chromosome numbers in Sphagnum. Nowa Hedwigia 24: 193– 205.
- Madeira F, Park YM, Lee J, Buso N, Gur T, Madhusoodanan N, Basutkar P, Tivey ARN, Potter SC, Finn RD et al. 2019. The EMBLEBI search and sequence analysis tools APIs in 2019. Nucleic Acids Research 47: W636–W641.
- Melosik I, Odrzykoski II, Śliwińska E. 2005. Delimitation of taxa of Sphagnum subsecundum s.l. (Musci, Sphagnaceae) based on multienzyme phenotype and cytological characters. Nova Hedwigia 80: 397–412.
- Norby RJ, Childs J, Hanson PJ, Warren JM. 2019. Rapid loss of an ecosystem engineer: *Sphagnum* decline in an experimentally warmed bog. *Ecology and Evolution* 9: 12571–12585.
- Otto SP, Whitton J. 2000. Polyploid incidence and evolution. Annual Review of Genetics 34: 401–437.
- Paterson AH, Wendel JF, Gundlach H, Guo H, Jenkins J, Jin D, Llewellyn D, Showmaker KC, Shu S, Udall J et al. 2012. Repeated polyploidization of Gossypium genomes and the evolution of spinnable cotton fibres. Nature 492: 423–427.
- Piatkowski BT, Shaw AJ. 2019. Functional trait evolution in Sphagnum peat mosses and its relationship to niche construction. New Phytologist 223: 939– 949
- Poschlod P, Pfadenhauer J. 1989. Regeneration vegetativer Sprossteilchen von Torfmoosen. Eine vergleichende Studie an neun Sphagnum-Arten. Telma Berichte der Deutschen Gesellschaft fuer Moor und Torfkunde 19 77–88.
- Reski R. 1998. Physcomitrella and Arabidopsis: the David and Goliath of reverse genetics. Trends in Plant Science 3: 209–210.
- Reski R, Abel WO. 1985. Induction of budding on chloronemata and caulonemata of the moss, *Physcomitrella patens*, using isopentenyladenine. *Planta* 165: 354–358.
- Reski R, Faust M, Wang X-H, Wehe M, Abel WO. 1994. Genome analysis of the moss *Physcomitrella patens* (Hedw.) B.S.G. *Molecular and General Genetics* 244: 352–359.

- Rewcastle KE, Moore JAM, Henning JA, Mayes MA, Patterson CM, Wang G, Metcalfe DB, Classen AT. 2020. Investigating drivers of microbial activity and respiration in a forested bog. *Pedosphere* 30: 135–145.
- Rudolph H, Kirchhoff M, Gliesmann S. 1988. Sphagnum culture techniques. In: Glime JM, ed. Methods in bryology: proceedings of the bryological methods workshop, satellite conference of the 14th International Botanical Congress under the auspices of the International Association of Bryologists, 17–23 July 1987, Mainz. Nichinan, Japan: Hattori Botanical Laboratory, 25–34.
- Schaefer DG, Zryd JP. 1997. Efficient gene targeting in the moss *Physcomitrella patens*. The Plant Journal 11: 1195–1206.
- Schween G, Gorr G, Hohe A, Reski R. 2003a. Unique tissue-specific cell cycle in *Physcomitrella. Plant Biology* 5: 50–58.
- Schween G, Hohe A, Koprivova R, Reski R. 2003b. Effects of nutrients, cell density and culture techniques on protoplast regeneration and early protonema development in a moss, *Physcomitrella patens. Journal of Plant Physiology* 160: 209–212.
- Shaw AJ, Schmutz J, Devos N, Shu S, Carrell AA, Weston DJ. 2016. The *Sphagnum* Genome Project. *Advances in Botanical Research* 167–187.
- Simola LK. 1969. The effect of various mono and disaccharides on the growth of Sphagnum nemoreum thalli in sterile cultures. Physiologia Plantarum 22: 1079– 1084
- Simola LK. 1975. The effect of several protein amino acids and some inorganic nitrogen sources on the growth of *Sphagnum nemoreum*. *Physiologia Plantarum* 35: 194–199.
- Smith A, Newton M. 1968. Chromosome studies on some British and Irish mosses. III. Transactions of the British Bryological Society 5: 463–522.
- Sorsa V. 1955. Outlines of meiosis in the moss genus *Sphagnum. Hereditas* 41: 250–258.
- Sorsa V. 1956. The quadripolar spindle and the change of orientation of the chromosomes in meiosis of Sphagnum. Annales Academiae Scientarium Fennicae Series A IV 33: 1–63.
- Strepp R, Scholz S, Kruse S, Speth V, Reski R. 1998. Plant nuclear gene knockout reveals a role in plastid division for the homolog of the bacterial cell division protein FtsZ, an ancestral tubulin. *Proceedings of the National Academy* of Sciences, USA 95: 4368–4373.
- Sundberg S, Rydin H. 2000. Experimental evidence for a persistent spore bank in Sphagnum. New Phytologist 148: 105–116.
- Temsch EM, Greilhuber J, Krisai R. 1998. Genome size in *Sphagnum* (peat moss). *Botanica Acta* 111: 325–330.
- Van den Pol-van Dasselaar A, Van Beusichem ML, Oenema O. 1999. Methane emissions from wet grasslands on peat soil in a nature preserve. *Biogeochemistry* 44: 205–220.
- Van Drunen WE, Husband BC. 2018. Immediate vs. evolutionary consequences of polyploidy on clonal reproduction in an autopolyploid plant. *Annals of Botany* 122: 195–205.
- Vesty EF, Whitbread AL, Needs S, Tanko W, Jones K, Halliday N, Ghaderiardakani F, Liu X, Cámara M, Coates JC. 2020. Cross-kingdom signalling regulates spore germination in the moss *Physcomitrella patens*. Scientific Reports 10: e2614.
- von Stackelberg M, Rensing SA, Reski R. 2006. Identification of genic moss SSR markers and a comparative analysis of twenty-four algal and plant gene indices reveal species-specific rather than group-specific characteristics of microsatellites. BMC Plant Biology 6: e9.
- Walden N, German DA, Wolf EM, Kiefer M, Rigault P, Huang X-C, Kiefer C, Schmickl R, Franzke A, Neuffer B et al. 2020. Nested whole-genome duplications coincide with diversification and high morphological disparity in Brassicaceae. Nature Communications 11: e3795.
- Waterhouse AM, Procter JB, Martin DMA, Clamp M, Barton GJ. 2009.

 JALVIEW version 2 a multiple sequence alignment editor and analysis workbench. *Bioinformatics* 25: 1189–1191.
- Weston DJ, Turetsky MR, Johnson MG, Granath G, Lindo Z, Belyea LR, Rice SK, Hanson DT, Engelhardt KAM, Schmutz J et al. 2018. The Sphagnome Project: enabling ecological and evolutionary insights through a genus-level sequencing project. New Phytologist 217: 16–25.
- Wichmann S, Krebs M, Kumar S, Gaudig G. 2020. Paludiculture on former bog grassland: profitability of sphagnum farming in north west Germany. *Mires and Peat* 26: e08.

- Wichmann S, Prager A, Gaudig G. 2017. Establishing *Sphagnum* cultures on bog grassland, cut-over bogs, and floating mats: procedures, costs and area potential in Germany. *Mires and Peat* 20: e03.
- Wichtmann W, Schröder C, Joosten H, eds. 2016. Paludiculture, productive use of wet peatlands: climate protection, biodiversity, regional economic benefits. Stuttgart, Germany: Schweizerbart Science Publishers.
- Zhao W, Li Z, Hu Y, Wang M, Zheng S, Li Q, Wang Y, Xu L, Li X, Zhu R et al. 2019. Development of a method for protonema proliferation of peat moss (*Sphagnum squarrosum*) through regeneration analysis. *New Phytologist* 221: 1160–1171.

Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

- **Dataset S1** Multiple sequence alignment of *BRK1* short.
- Dataset S2 Multiple sequence alignment of BRK1 long.
- Fig. S1 Determination of the best-growing clone of S. angustifolium.
- **Fig. S2** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. balticum*.
- Fig. S3 Determination of the best-growing clone of S. capillifolium.
- Fig. S4 Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. centrale*.
- **Fig. S5** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. compactum*.
- **Fig. S6** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. cuspidatum*.
- **Fig. S7** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. fallax*.

- **Fig. S8** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. fimbriatum*.
- Fig. S9 Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. fuscum*.
- Fig. S10 Determination of the best-growing clone of S. lindbergii.
- **Fig. S11** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. medium/ divinum.*
- **Fig. S12** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. palustre*.
- Fig. S13 Determination of the best-growing clone of S. papillosum.
- Fig. S14 Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. russowii*.
- Fig. S15 Determination of the best-growing clone of S. squarrosum.
- **Fig. S16** Determination of the best-growing clone of *S. subfulvum*.
- Fig. S17 Determination of the best-growing clone of S. warnstorfii.
- **Fig. S18** Target genes for PCR screening as encoded by the *S. fallax* and *S. magellanicum* genomes.

Please note: Wiley-Blackwell are not responsible for the content or functionality of any supporting information supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material) should be directed to the *New Phytologist* Central Office.