

# Social Amoebae: Environmental Factors Influencing Their Distribution and Diversity Across South-Western Europe

Maria Romeralo · Jordi Moya-Laraño · Carlos Lado

Received: 3 May 2010 / Accepted: 18 June 2010  
© Springer Science+Business Media, LLC 2010

**Abstract** The social amoebae (dictyostelids) are the only truly multicellular lineage within the superkingdom Amoebozoa, the sister group to Ophisthokonta (Metazoa + Fungi). Despite the exceptional phylogenetic and evolutionary value of this taxon, the environmental factors that determine their distribution and diversity are largely unknown. We have applied statistical modeling to a set of data obtained from an extensive and detailed survey in the south-western of Europe (The Iberian Peninsula including Spain and Portugal) in order to estimate some of the main environmental factors influencing the distribution and diversity of dictyostelid in temperate climates. It is the first time that this methodology is applied to the study of this unique group of soil microorganisms. Our

results show that a combination of climatic (temperature, water availability), physical (pH) and vegetation (species richness) factors favor dictyostelid species richness. In the Iberian Peninsula, dictyostelid diversity is highest in colder and wet environments, indicating that this group has likely diversified in relatively cold places with high levels of water availability.

## Introduction

Dictyostelids, also called cellular slime molds or social amoebae, are a major group of soil microorganisms that hover at the borderline of true multicellularity. While they spend most of their life cycle as solitary amoebae, upon starvation they can aggregate in hundreds of thousands to form differentiated sporophores. Molecular studies in recent years have now firmly established Dictyostelia as a member of the eukaryotic superkingdom Amoebozoa, which is mainly comprised of solitary naked amoebae [1, 2, 15, 20]. Amoebozoa is the sister group to the Opisthokonta, the eukaryotic supergroup including Metazoa and Fungi [2, 3, 46]. Therefore, understanding the ecological factors that affect the distribution and diversity of this group may throw additional and independent light onto the understanding of distribution patterns of biodiversity on Earth. Understanding the factors that explain the diversity and distribution of species is one of the fundamental goals in ecological studies [17, 29, 37, 42, 50]. Microorganisms are influenced by a variety of environmental factors such as the habitat and its resources. However, the relative contribution of these factors is still poorly understood [52].

The dictyostelids are a common component of the soil microflora [9, 23], their fruiting bodies are microscopic (in length), so rarely seen except in laboratory cultures. Dictyostelid amoebas, as bacterial predators, could poten-

---

M. Romeralo  
Department of Systematic Biology, EBC, University of Uppsala,  
Norbyvagen 18D,  
SE-75420 Uppsala, Sweden

J. Moya-Laraño  
Cantabrian Institute of Biodiversity (ICAB),  
Biología de Organismos y Sistemas,  
Universidad de Oviedo-Principado de Asturias,  
Catedrático Rodrigo Uría, s/n,  
33006 Oviedo, Asturias, Spain  
e-mail: jordi@eeza.csic.es

C. Lado  
Real Jardín Botánico, CSIC,  
Plaza de Murillo, 2,  
28014 Madrid, Spain  
e-mail: lado@rjb.csic.es

M. Romeralo (✉)  
Department of Systematic Biology,  
Evolutionary Biology Centre, Uppsala University,  
Norbyvägen 18D,  
SE-752 36 Uppsala, Sweden  
e-mail: maria.romeralo@gmail.com

tially play important roles in the ecology and health of soils by performing top-down control on the ecosystem processes in which bacterial populations are involved (e.g., decomposition). Their primary habitat is forest soils [9, 16, 35], as they seem to need wet places with organic material. More than 100 species of dictyostelids have been described so far [4, 22]. Some species are known to have a global distribution while others are much more restricted in their range [47]. In the Iberian Peninsula (Spain and Portugal), 19 species have been recorded so far (5, 38, 39, 41, 47, Hagiwara pers. comm.), comprising about 20% of the global dictyostelid diversity.

There are some accounts of dictyostelid ecology from the 70s and 80s. However, these papers were purely descriptive, and our current knowledge of the ecology of this extremely unique group is still very poor. Furthermore, almost no formal statistical analysis has been applied to relate ecological factors to the distribution of the diversity of this group. Some descriptive ecological information is available from North and Central America and East Africa [6, 7, 23]. However, very little is known about the ecology of dictyostelids from the European continent [5], with only some information available from Switzerland [48, 49] and Germany [12].

In this study, we apply statistical modeling to reveal the ecological factors (both biotic and abiotic) that may be responsible for the distribution and diversity of dictyostelid in temperate climates. We collected 300 samples from 90 localities across the Iberian Peninsula and compiled them along with a set of environmental data. Species descriptions from this dataset were previously published in both morphological and molecular terms [38, 40, 41], but the ecological factors affecting their distribution are analyzed for the first time in this study.

To date, this may be the most comprehensive study on the ecological factors that affect the presence of dictyostelids and their distribution, and as such it provides useful information (a) for where and when to find dictyostelids and the highest diversity of them, and (b) to contribute to revealing the ecological role that this group plays in natural ecosystems.

## Methods

### Study Area

The study area extends across two countries (Spain and Portugal) in the Iberian Peninsula (south of Europe), located between 36°–44°N latitude and 4°E and 10°W longitude. The Iberian Peninsula has two main vegetation regions, the Mediterranean region in the central and south, and the boreal or Eurosiberian region in the north. The Mediterranean region, in which the majority of representa-

tive tree and shrub species belong to the genera *Arbutus*, *Ceratonia*, *Cistus*, *Olea*, *Prunus*, *Pistacea*, or *Quercus*; and the Boreal region, where species within the genera *Abies*, *Acer*, *Alnus*, *Betula*, *Castanea*, *Fagus*, *Fraxinus*, or *Tilia* are well represented. Both regions were sampled. The samples were taken in a 0–2,000-m elevation range; i.e., from sea level to the timberline. A total of 90 localities (Appendix 1. Table 1.) were sampled, 300 soil samples were collected and 937 clones of dictyostelids were recovered.

### Sampling and Species Identifications

For this study we used material collected in several seasons during 2003–2005.

Soil samples of 20 g were collected in Whirl Pak® plastic bags. Samples were processed as soon as possible after collection. Procedures described by Cavender and Raper [9] were followed. A final soil dilution of 1/50 in distilled water was used for all samples. Soil pH was measured in the laboratory before the dilution. Culture plates were incubated under diffuse light at 20–25°C. Each plate was carefully examined at least once a day for 1 week after the appearance of initial aggregations and the location of each aggregate clone marked. Cellular slime mold isolates were sub-cultured to facilitate identification. For this, we prepared two-member cultures with the bacterium *Escherichia coli* or *Klebsiella aerogenes*. Isolates of each species were cultivated on nonnutrient agar (2%) and preserved by freezing with glycerol (20%). Taxonomic treatment used herein follows that of Raper [35].

For DNA extraction, colonies were grown on SM plates (standard medium: 20-g/L peptone, 2-g/L yeast extract, 20-g/L glucose, 2-g/L MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 3.8-g/L KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 1.2-g/L K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, and 2% agar). Cells from the edge of plaques growing on these plates were collected with a sterile tip, mixed with DNA extraction solution from Epicentre and heated 30 min at 60°C followed by 8 min at 98°C. Cell lysates were used directly for PCR amplification.

For more detail about sampling and species identification, see Romeralo and Lado [38, 39] as well as Romeralo et al. [40].

### Species Accumulation Curve

To estimate the actual number of species and the extent to which the survey was exhaustive, we built a species accumulation curve [44, 45]. The sequence of samples was randomly permuted 100 times, and the means of the accumulated number of species were calculated using the program EstimateS. The plot of the mean accumulated number of species was regressed against the number of samples using the package Curve Expert 1.3, and taking as the formula for saturation the Michaelis–Menten equation:

**Table 1** List of localities sampled

Locality	Coordinates	Elevation (m)	Substrate (under)
Spain			
Almería: Benizalón, road to Benizalón from Benitagla	37°14'12"N 2°15'05"W	1,032	<i>Quercus ilex</i>
Almería: Mojácar, road to Turre	37°08'34"N 1°55'59"W	90	<i>Chamaerops humilis</i> <i>Stipa tenacissima</i>
Almería: Níjar, Rodalquilar, Cala del Toro, road to Rodalquilar	36°49'20"N 2°02'36"W	9	<i>Chamaerops humilis</i> <i>Cistus salviifolius</i> <i>Pinus halepensis</i> <i>Stipa tenacissima</i>
Almería: Níjar, San Jose, Monsul beach	36°43'57"N 2°08'37"W	12	<i>Agave americana</i> <i>Chamaerops humilis</i>
Almería: Tabernas, road N-340, Sierra Alhamilla	37°02'35"N 2°25'03"W	347	<i>Tamarix africana</i>
Almería: Tahal, road A-349 to Tahal, Sierra de los Filabres	37°12'58"N 2°17'51"W	1,151	<i>Pinus halepensis</i>
Asturias: Llanés, Purón river	43°24'13"N 4°42'07"W	10	<i>Alnus glutinosa</i> <i>Corylus avellana</i>
Asturias: Pola de Somiedo, road to Pineda	43°08'15"N 6°15'43"W	600	<i>Acer pseudoplatanus</i> <i>Castanea sativa</i> <i>Tilia platyphyllos</i>
Asturias: Saliencia, Alto de la Farrapona	43°03'38"N 6°06'00"W	1,523	<i>Sorbus aucuparia</i>
Asturias: Pola de Somiedo, Endriga	43°05'26"N 6°09'17"W	1,148	<i>Corylus avellana</i> <i>Fagus sylvatica</i>
Asturias: Pola de Somiedo, central eléctrica de La Malva	43°07'06"N 6°15'42"W	737	<i>Prunus laurocerasus</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i> <i>Sorbus aria</i>
Asturias: Somiedo, La Rebolleda	43°08'49"N 6°19'56"W	547	<i>Acer pseudoplatanus</i> <i>Alnus glutinosa</i> <i>Castanea sativa</i> <i>Corylus avellana</i> <i>Fraxinus angustifolia</i> <i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> <i>Quercus petraea</i>
Asturias: Teverga, San Lorenzo pass	43°08'26"N 6°11'36"W	1,310	<i>Crataegus monogyna</i> <i>Ilex aquifolium</i>
Asturias: Pola de Somiedo, Somiedo pass	43°00'59"N 6°13'39"W	1,437	<i>Salix</i> sp.
Asturias: Pola de Somiedo, Saliencia	43°04'43"N 6°07'50"W	1,205	<i>Sorbus aria</i> <i>Sorbus aucuparia</i>
Asturias: Teverga, Vigidel	43°08'49"N 6°08'28"W	630	<i>Castanea sativa</i> <i>Ilex aquifolium</i>
Badajoz: Arroyo del Campo	38°50'55"N 5°28'47"W	392	grasses
Badajoz: Calera de León, road N-630, km 716	38°07'49"N 6°17'18"W	670	<i>Quercus ilex</i>
Burgos: Cilleruelo de Bezana, road N-623, km 80–85	42°59'08"N 3°51'17"W	865	<i>Quercus petraea</i> <i>Fagus sylvatica</i>
Burgos: Riocavado de la Sierra, road BU 820, km 13, Sierra de la Demanda	42°09'37"N 3°12'35"W	1,220	<i>Quercus pyrenaica</i> <i>Fagus sylvatica</i>
Burgos: Santo Domingo de Silos	41°54'31"N 3°28'00"W	1,120	<i>Juniperus communis</i> <i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i> <i>Juniperus sabina</i> <i>Salvia officinalis</i>

**Table 1** (continued)

Locality	Coordinates	Elevation (m)	Substrate (under)
Cádiz: Grazalema, Llano del Laurel, road A-372, km 38, from Grazalema to El Bosque	36°44'56"N 5°27'01"W	705	<i>Ceratonia siliqua</i>
Cádiz: La Espera, lagunas Zorrilla	36°52'N 5°52'W	100	<i>Chamaerops humilis</i> <i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> <i>Quercus coccifera</i>
Cádiz: La Saucedá, Puerto de Galiz	36°33'28"N 5°35'32"W	450	<i>Quercus faginea</i> <i>Quercus suber</i>
Cádiz: Ubrique, road to Ubrique	36°34'06"N 5°32'33"W	585	<i>Arbutus unedo</i> <i>Cistus</i> sp. <i>Olea europaea</i>
Cantabria: Fontibre	43°00'56"N 4°11'29"W	915	<i>Acer</i> sp. <i>Fraxinus</i> sp. <i>Ilex aquifolium</i>
Cantabria: Reinosá, road to Alto Campoó	43°00'17"N 4°17'27"W	1,150	<i>Quercus pyrenaica</i>
Cantabria: Pechón, Tina Menor	43°24'31"N 4°28'27"W	50	<i>Arbutus unedo</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i>
Ciudad Real: Las Ventas con Peña Aguilera, road C-403 to El Molinillo	39°33'13"N 4°14'27"W	900	<i>Cistus ladanifer</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i>
Ciudad Real: Pueblo Nuevo del Bullaque, road to Cabañeros	39°18'45"N 4°16'28"W	655	<i>Cistus</i> sp. <i>Crataegus</i> sp. <i>Olea europaea</i> <i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> <i>Quercus faginea</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i> <i>Ruscus aculeatus</i>
Ciudad Real: Retuerta del Bullaque, embalse Torre Abraham, road C-403, km 43	39°22'56"N 4°13'44"W	715	<i>Cistus</i> sp. <i>Crataegus</i> sp. <i>Olea europaea</i> <i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> <i>Quercus faginea</i> <i>Quercus pyrenaica</i> <i>Ruscus aculeatus</i>
Ciudad Real: Riofrío del Llano	39°05'02"N 4°30'16"W	640	<i>Betula pendula</i>
Huelva: Alajar, Alajar pass	37°53'10"N 6°39'42"W	845	<i>Olea europaea</i>
Huelva: Almonte, Matalascañas, Doñana,	36°59'25"N 6°31'23"W	20	<i>Juniperus</i> sp. <i>Pinus pinea</i> <i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> <i>Cistus</i> sp.
Huelva: Aracena, road from Aracena to Carboneras	37°55'13"N 6°33'37"W	638	<i>Arbutus unedo</i>
Huelva: Castaño del Robledo, sendero la Urralera	37°53'32"N 6°42'59"W	710	<i>Quercus suber</i>
Huelva: El Talenque	37°55'47"N 6°40'39"W	663	<i>Quercus pyrenaica</i>
Huelva: Jabugo, road N-35 to Huelva	37°54'39"N 6°43'39"W	690	<i>Castanea sativa</i>
Huelva: La Nava, Múrtiga river	37°58'20"N 6°45'04"W	370	<i>Alnus glutinosa</i> <i>Cistus ladanifer</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i>
Huelva: Río Tinto, Minas de Río Tinto	37°42'N 6°36' W	400	<i>Pinus pinea</i>
Huelva: Santa Ana la Real, Parque Natural Sierra de Aracena	37°52'02"N 6°42'40"W	620	<i>Quercus suber</i> <i>Quercus</i> sp.
Huesca: Ansó, camino viejo Ansó-Zuriza	42°49'04"N 0°49'40"W	985	<i>Abies alba</i>

**Table 1** (continued)

Locality	Coordinates	Elevation (m)	Substrate (under)
			<i>Acer campestre</i>
			<i>Castanea sativa</i>
			<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>
			<i>Salix eleagnus</i>
Huesca: Ansó, road Ansó-Zuriza	42°50'36"N 0°49'28"W	800	<i>Abies alba</i>
			<i>Tilia platyphyllos</i>
Huesca: Biescas, road N-260 from Escuer to Arguisal	42°35'14"N 0°19'31"W	820	<i>Fraxinus sp.</i>
			<i>Populus nigra</i>
			<i>Salix eleagnus</i>
Huesca: Biescas, road N-260, km 497, from Gavín to Yesero	42°37'22"N 0°16'22"W	924	<i>Corylus avellana</i>
			<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>
Huesca: Panticosa, Balneario de Panticosa	42°45'27"N 0°14'51"W	1,658	<i>Acer pseudoplatanus</i>
			<i>Fraxinus sp.</i>
			<i>Pinus nigra</i>
			<i>Populus tremula</i>
Huesca: Panticosa, Balneario de Panticosa	42°45'39"N 0°14'17"W	1,658	<i>Fraxinus excelsior</i>
			<i>Populus tremula</i>
Huesca: Panticosa, road A-2606, km 9–10 to Baños de Panticosa	42°45'09"N 0°14'33"W	1,200	<i>Acer pseudoplatanus</i>
			<i>Salix atrocinerea</i>
Huesca: Santa Cruz de la Serós, road to monasterio de San Juan de la Peña	42°31'08"N 0°41'18"W	986	<i>Quercus ilex</i>
Huesca: Sariñena, Los Monegros, road CHE 1410 from Sariñena to Cartuja de Monegros	41°46'47"N 0°14'58"W	309	<i>Pinus halepensis</i>
			<i>Tamarix africana</i>
Huesca: Sos del Rey Católico, road A-1602, km 15	42°40'36"N 0°47'00"W	800	<i>Quercus faginea</i>
León: Oseja de Sajambre	43°07'15"N 5°01'06"W	960	<i>Corylus avellana</i>
			<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>
			<i>Quercus sp.</i>
Madrid: Canencia, road from Canencia pass to Lozoya	40°52'32"N 3°46'35"W	1,390	<i>Betula pendula</i>
Madrid: Hoyo de Manzanares, road M-618, km 20	40°36'09"N 3°54'55"W	943	<i>Castanea sativa</i>
			<i>Cistus ladanifer</i>
			<i>Juniperus communis</i>
			<i>Quercus ilex</i>
Madrid: Miraflores de la Sierra, road M-629, km 5, from Miraflores to Canencia pass	40°50'56"N 3°45'57"W	1,280	<i>Castanea sativa</i>
			<i>Cistus sp.</i>
			<i>Quercus pyrenaica</i>
Madrid: Miraflores de la Sierra, road N- 611, km 10	40°49'26"N 3°47'37"W	1,352	<i>Quercus pyrenaica</i>
Madrid: Rascafría, road M-604, from Lozoya to Rascafría	40°55'53"N 3°49'55"W	1,140	<i>Fraxinus sp.</i>
			<i>Quercus faginea</i>
Madrid: Rascafría, road N-604, km 13	40°56'53"N 3°45'47"W	1,108	<i>Castanea sativa</i>
			<i>Juniperus communis</i>
Madrid: Soto del Real, road M-611, km 4, to Miraflores de la Sierra	40°47'24"N 3°46'22"W	1,037	<i>Quercus pyrenaica</i>
Murcia: Águilas, Cabo Cope	37°27'06"N 1°28'57"W	13	<i>Aulaga sp.</i>
			<i>Stipa tenacissima</i>
			<i>Tamarix africana</i>
Murcia: Alhama de Murcia, Sierra Espuña		437	<i>Pinus halepensis</i>
Murcia: Blanca, Sierra de la Muela	38°11'07"N 1°20'37"W	220	<i>Pinus halepensis</i>
Murcia: Cieza, road to Jumilla	38°28'03"N 1°34'20"W	515	<i>Pinus halepensis</i>
Murcia: Mazarrón, road N-332 to Ramonete	37°31'07"N 1°28'00"W	297	<i>Olea europaea</i>

**Table 1** (continued)

Locality	Coordinates	Elevation (m)	Substrate (under)
Navarra: Amescoba Baja, road NA-718, km 12	42°45'35"N 2°06'32"W	510	<i>Thymus</i> sp. <i>Quercus faginea</i> <i>Buxus sempervirens</i>
Navarra: Amescoba Baja, road NA-718, km 16–17, from Alto de Urbasa to Zudaire	42°46'24"N 2°08'32"W	709	<i>Quercus faginea</i>
Navarra: Ochagavía, road from Ochagavía to Iratí and Muskilda	42°58'52"N 1°06'33"W	1,008	<i>Abies alba</i> <i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> <i>Pinus nigra</i> <i>Quercus petraea</i>
Navarra: Roncesvalles, road N-135, km 24, to Erro pass	42°56'56"N 1°28'58"W	700	<i>Buxus sempervirens</i> <i>Castanea sativa</i> <i>Ilex aquifolium</i> <i>Pinus sylvestris</i> <i>Quercus</i> sp.
Navarra: Yerri, Venta de Urbasa, road NA-718, km 22	42°48'05"N 2°08'44"W	923	<i>Crataegus monogyna</i>
Navarra: Yerri, Venta de Urbasa, road NA-718, km 28	42°50'16"N 2°10'47"W	920	<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>
Navarra: Yesa, road NA- 2201, km 1–2	42°40'48"N 1°09'09"W	870	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i> <i>Quercus petraea</i>
Navarra: Yesa, Monasterio de Leire, trail to La Fuente	42°38'17"N 1°10'22"W	824	<i>Acer campestre</i> <i>Arbutus unedo</i> <i>Corylus avellana</i> <i>Quercus faginea</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i>
Segovia: Moral de Hornuez	41°29'04"N 3°38'18"W	1,160	<i>Cistus ladanifer</i> <i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i> <i>Juniperus sabina</i> <i>P. pinaster</i> <i>Quercus faginea</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i>
Sevilla: Cazalla	37°58'00"N 5°52'07"W	430	<i>Quercus coccifera</i>
Sevilla: El Pedroso	37°54'44"N 5°48'09"W	512	<i>Quercus ilex</i> <i>Quercus suber</i>
Soria: Calatañazor, road SO-P-5026, km 3–4, to Muriel de la Fuente	41°42'39"N 2°50'35"W	1,040	<i>Juniperus thurifera</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i>
Soria: Montenegro de Cameros, road SO-831, km 23–24, Santa Inés pass	42°04'05"N 2°46'44"W	1,500	<i>Ilex aquifolium</i> <i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i>
Soria: Vinuesa, road SO-830, km 13	42°00'33"N 2°47'18"W	1,447	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>
Soria: Vinuesa, road SO-840, km 6	41°50'07"N 2°47'11"W	1,078	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>
Portugal			
Algarve: Aljezur, Bordeira, Francelhe	37°12'N 8°53'W	30	<i>Salix salvifolia</i>
Algarve: Aljezur, Bordeira, Francelhe	37°18'N 8°48' W	30	<i>Juniperus phoenicea</i> <i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> <i>Salix salvifolia</i> <i>Cistus ladanifer</i> <i>Pinus pinea</i>
Loulé, Querença, road EN-396	37°10'N 8°0'W	160	<i>Chamaerops humilis</i> <i>Myrtus communis</i> <i>Quercus suber</i>

**Table 1** (continued)

Locality	Coordinates	Elevation (m)	Substrate (under)
Loulé, Querença, road EN-396	37°11' N 8°10'W	238	<i>Olea europaea</i> <i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> <i>Arbutus unedo</i>
Loulé, Salir, road EN-503, Brasieira de Baixo	37°08'N 8°20'W	254	<i>Erica arborea</i> <i>Quercus suber</i>
Monchique, Alferce, road EN-267, km 32	37°20'N 8°28' W	441	<i>Castanea sativa</i> <i>Quercus canariensis</i>
Monchique, Cortes, road EN-266	37°17'N 8°33' W	300	<i>P. pinaster</i>
Monchique, Ginjeira	37°20'N 8°28'W	580	<i>Castanea sativa</i>
Monchique, Marmelete, road EN-267, Casais	37°19'N 8°38'W	450	<i>Myrtus communis</i> <i>Quercus suber</i>
Santa Barbara de Nexe, Goldra de Baixo	29SNB 9008	280	<i>Arbutus unedo</i> <i>Ceratonia siliqua</i>

$y = Ax/(B+x)$ , where  $x$  is the number of samples,  $y$  is the number of species recorded,  $A$  is the maximum expected number of species, and  $B$  the number of samples needed to reach half the value of  $A$ .

#### Climate Variables

For each sampling locality, we obtained the following potentially relevant climatic data from the “Atlas Climático Digital de la Península Ibérica” [33]: Mean Annual Rainfall in millimeter (RAIN), Minimum Annual Temperature in degree Celsius (MINT), Maximum Annual Temperature in degree Celsius (MAXT), Average Annual Temperature in degree Celsius (AVGT), Potential Annual Solar Radiation in  $10 \text{ kJ/m}^2 \times \text{day} \times \mu\text{m}$  (RADI), Elevation in meter (ELEV), Light in  $100 + 100 \times \cos(\text{angle of incidence})$  (LIGH) and shade in degrees (SHAD). We also constructed a new variable, Thermal Amplitude (TAMP) by taking the difference MAXT–MINT.

#### Statistical Analysis

As the factors determining the diversity and the presence or absence of social amoebae are largely unknown, we did not have a good a priori predictive statistical model. Thus, we exploratorily searched for the best subset of explanatory variables predicting dictyostelid species richness across the studied area. Each sampling locality was considered as an independent data point in the analysis. To search for the best subset of explanatory variables, we used generalized linear models (GLMs) on dictyostelid species richness with the following potential explanatory variables: Month and Year of collection (which were entered as continuous variables with their quadratic terms), RAIN, MINT, MAXT,

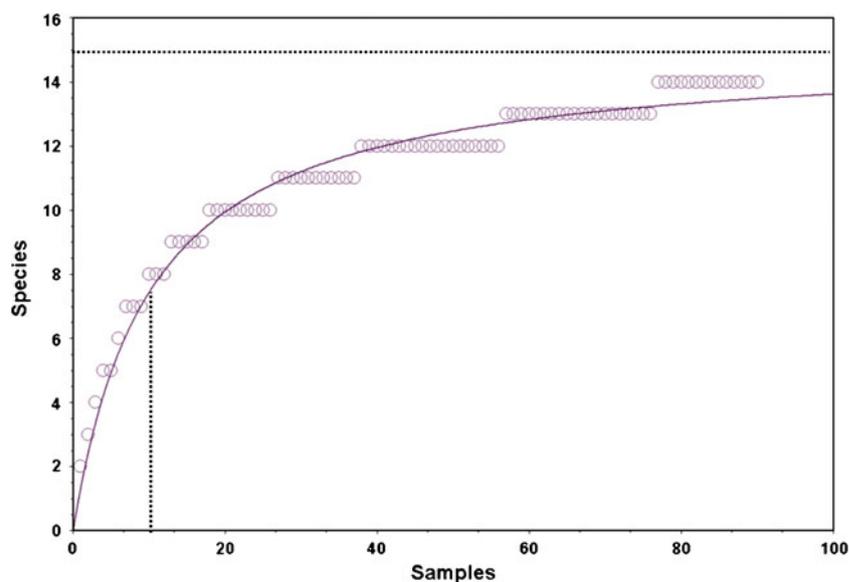
AVGT, RADI, ELEV, LIGH, SHAD, TAMP, plant species richness (PLANT\_R), the number of samples taken in each location ( $n$ ), which varied between 2 and 6, and pH, along with its quadratic term ( $\text{pH}^2$ ), as a hypothesis suggests top dictyostelid diversity at intermediate pH (26, Cavender pers. com.). In order to have control for spatial autocorrelation and to test whether there were potentially unmeasured environmental variables (i.e. Trend Surface Analysis, 25), we also allowed in the model the spatial coordinates (Longitude- $x$ , Latitude- $y$  in UTM) and a complex combination of them ( $x^2$ ,  $y^2$  and the interaction term  $x \times y$ ). We used the package R for statistical analysis [36] and as recommended by Moya-Laraño and Wise [32] we used the Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC) “step” algorithm within that package in order to select the model with the best subset of explanatory variables. Since this is largely an exploratory analysis to search for ecological predictors of the presence and diversity of amoebae, we did not include corrections for multiple tests, as this is advisable only for analyzing experimental responses [32].

We searched for the best-subset model explaining dictyostelid diversity, using a negative binomial distribution (with log-link function) in the GLM and then tested for significance of variables within the final model (within the MASS R package). The negative binomial accounts for dispersion (mean different than variance), and thus from departure from a Poisson distribution, by estimating an additional parameter. Also following recommendations by Moya-Laraño and Wise [32], we tested for the significance of each parameter estimate in the model using a type III hypothesis, which is more powerful than the conventional  $t$  tests. To implement this test in R (function `glm.nb` in MASS), one has to take twice the difference between the log-likelihoods, one for the full model and another for the

model without the variable of interest (a log-likelihood ratio test). For continuous variables the value is compared to the chi-square distribution with one degree of freedom. Since the final model did not converge and could not end parameter estimation, overestimating the YEAR effect by several orders of magnitude, we first centered YEAR by subtracting the mean prior to model estimation.

We also evaluated the ecological predictors for the presence/absence of social amoebae in the different locations using a GLM with binomial error and a logical link function. To implement this test in R, one has to take the difference between Residual Deviances—one for the full model and another for the model without the variable of interest. For continuous variables, the value is compared to the chi-square distribution with one degree of freedom. Depicting curvilinear patterns in multiple regression models can be achieved using partial residual plots [31]. However, in order to visualize if there was an optimal peak of dictyostelid diversity around neutral pH, we used a Combining Conditional Expectations and Residuals (CERES) plot [13] because it is an improved way to graphically depict (and even detect) curvilinear relationships by using LOWESS smoothing. A CERES plot on a binomial GLM shows an estimate of the partial (i.e., holding all other variables constant) of the probability of one or another event to occur (thus the binomial distribution) depending on the value of a target independent variable in the model. In our case, the dependent variable is the presence or absence of dictyostelids, and the independent variable is pH. Since the values on the y-axis are estimates based on residuals and serve to remove the effect of all the other independent variables in the model, the magnitude of the curvature of the line, and not the units, is of interest. To build the CERES plot, we used the package “art” in R.

**Figure 1** Species accumulation curve (BS analysis) of the randomly permuted sequence of all samples studied fitted to the accumulated number of species (*open circles*). These values are the means of 100 runs. The *solid line* shows the non-linear regression fit using the saturation function  $y = Ax/(B+x)$ , where  $A$  is the expected maximum number of species (*horizontal dotted line*) and  $B$  is the number of samples needed to reach half of  $A$  (*vertical dotted line*)



## Results

A total of 300 soil samples from 44 different substrates were analyzed. From these samples, we isolated 15 different species of dictyostelids that together with the other four species previously reported described for the area (5, 47, Hagiwara pers. comm.) make a total of 19 species for the Iberian Peninsula. These species are distributed among the four different groups recognized by the first molecular phylogeny [43].

### Species Accumulation Curve

The sampling effort is shown in Fig. 1. We found that the maximum expected number of species ( $A$ ) was 15.0 and that the number of samples necessary to reach half the value of  $A$  (i.e.,  $B$ ) was 10.2. As the number of species obtained in this study was 15, our sampling effort seems to be appropriate to include the entire diversity of dictyostelids present in the Iberian Peninsula.

### Statistical Analysis

Table 2 shows the results of the statistical analysis and the final models according to the AIC algorithm for best subsets in R. Both the final statistical models for species richness and that for presence/absence were highly significant ( $\chi^2=43.3$ , d.f.=14,  $P<0.0001$ , generalized- $R^2=0.390$ ;  $\chi^2=45.3$ , d.f.=12,  $P<0.0001$ , generalized- $R^2=0.399$ ). A significant outlier with strong leverage and long Cook distances was removed from the model of species richness. There were significant differences among collecting months on dictyostelid species richness (Table 2a), and a close inspection of the data (not shown) showed that in autumn (October–November) the

**Table 2** GLMs predicting dictyostelid species richness and presence/absence across the Iberian Peninsula

	Estimate	SE	Chi-square	d.f.	<i>P</i> value
Species richness (negative binomial)					
<b>Month</b>	<b>-1.5E-01</b>	<b>6.9E-02</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.028</b>
<b>Year</b>	<b>1.3E+00</b>	<b>4.6E-01</b>	<b>10.6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.001</b>
Year <sup>2</sup>	5.4E-01	3.6E-01	2.4	1	0.123
<b>Longitude-x</b>	<b>-9.2E-05</b>	<b>4.4E-05</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.026</b>
<b>Latitude-y</b>	<b>8.3E-05</b>	<b>3.7E-05</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.018</b>
<b>Longitude-x<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>-1.3E-11</b>	<b>7.1E-12</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.053</b>
<b>Latitude-y<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>-1.1E-11</b>	<b>4.5E-12</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.012</b>
<b>MINT</b>	<b>-3.8E-01</b>	<b>1.6E-01</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.013</b>
<b>ELEV</b>	<b>-2.0E-03</b>	<b>8.8E-04</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.024</b>
<b>SHAD</b>	<b>3.5E-02</b>	<b>1.3E-02</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.012</b>
Plant richness	5.8E-01	3.7E-01	2.4	1	0.118
<b>pH</b>	<b>3.8E+00</b>	<b>1.7E+00</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.014</b>
<b>pH<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>-2.9E-01</b>	<b>1.3E-01</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.018</b>
<b>x×y</b>	<b>2.3E-11</b>	<b>1.1E-11</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.029</b>
Presence/absence (binomial)					
<b>Year</b>	<b>2.9E+00</b>	<b>1.0E+00</b>	<b>10.6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.001</b>
<b>Longitude-x</b>	<b>-1.6E-04</b>	<b>6.0E-05</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.003</b>
<b>Latitude-y</b>	<b>2.8E-04</b>	<b>1.5E-04</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.049</b>
<b>Longitude-x<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>-4.0E-11</b>	<b>1.8E-11</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.015</b>
<b>Latitude-y<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>-3.6E-11</b>	<b>1.7E-11</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.027</b>
<b>MINT</b>	<b>-1.8E+00</b>	<b>7.0E-01</b>	<b>8.3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.004</b>
MAXT	-1.3E+00	9.7E-01	2.0	1	0.157
<b>ELEV</b>	<b>-1.6E-02</b>	<b>6.6E-03</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.004</b>
<b>SHAD</b>	<b>1.3E-01</b>	<b>6.8E-02</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.015</b>
<b>pH</b>	<b>1.7E+01</b>	<b>5.3E+00</b>	<b>12.4</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.000</b>
<b>pH<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>-1.3E+00</b>	<b>4.1E-01</b>	<b>12.9</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.000</b>
<b>x×y</b>	<b>4.4E-11</b>	<b>1.6E-11</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.003</b>

Significant predictors are in bold

species richness was lower than in the summer (June–July). Year was also positive and significant, indicating that a higher diversity of dictyostelids was detected as the years passed. Longitude and its quadratic term were marginally significant and both negatively associated to dictyostelid diversity, indicating that the farther the distance from the Mediterranean Sea, the higher the diversity of dictyostelids. There was also a significant and positive correlation with latitude and a negative effect of the quadratic term, indicating that, once controlled for all other factors in the model, diversity is highest at intermediate latitudes. MINT showed a significant negative relationship with dictyostelid species richness, indicating that localities with severe winters tended to have higher dictyostelid diversity. ELEV was significant and negative, indicating that dictyostelid diversity decreases with altitude. SHAD had a positive effect on species diversity, likely indicating that a shady meso-climate with relatively high moisture enhances dictyostelid diversity. Relative plant richness in the sample entered the model positively but not reaching significance, suggesting just slightly that higher plant diversity may be linked to a higher

diversity of social amoebas. Interestingly, dictyostelid richness was highest as intermediate values of pH, as the linear term was significant and positive and the quadratic term was significant and negative. Finally, the product longitude×latitude was significant, indicating that some source of unmeasured environmental variation that covariates with space can potentially affect dictyostelid species richness.

When analyzing the predictors for the presence/absence of dictyostelids (Table 2b), the pattern was very similar to that of diversity. We found a positive effect of year, indicating a trend towards increasing the probability of detecting dictyostelids as the years passed. As with species richness, the higher the distance from the Mediterranean, the higher is the probability of dictyostelid presence. Also, presence was highest at intermediate latitudes. MINT showed a significant negative relationship with dictyostelid presence, indicating that localities with severe winters tended to have a higher probability of finding social amoebas. Higher elevations, independently of winter severity, had a lower chance to hold dictyostelid populations. The amount of shade (and thus water availability) was positively related to the presence of

dictyostelids. Also, the probability of detecting dictyostelids was highest at intermediate, close to neutral pH (Fig. 2). Again, the significant interaction “longitude×latitude” indicates covariance between important unmeasured predictors and spatial heterogeneity.

## Discussion

In south-west Europe (Iberian Peninsula), dictyostelid diversity and presence seem to be affected by a complex set of environmental variables. First, there seems to be temporal and spatial effects. Second, once controlled for the above effects, abiotic factors such as shade (local water availability), temperature, and pH seem important.

Our results suggest that the collecting season is important in the study of social amoebae (diversity being higher in summer as compare to autumn). These microorganisms have two cycles, the asexual which is the most studied and most common in laboratory cultures and which ends with the erection of a fruiting body, and the sexual, which is mostly unknown and which ends with the production of macrocysts. Dictyostelids can build two types of structures when entering diapause, macro- and microcysts, which they produce when environmental conditions are adverse [21]. These two forms of resistance are much more difficult to germinate in laboratory cultures than spores, and thus samples collected from places in which conditions are relatively harsh to dictyostelids will end up with a lower germination success when reared in the laboratory, therefore leading to an underestimation of dictyostelid diversity. As our results show, collecting only in a single year or in a single season would bias the

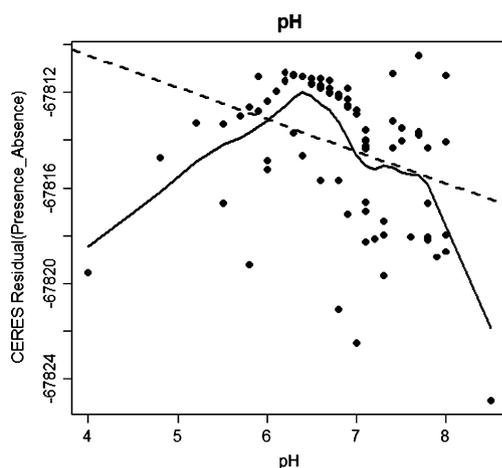
estimates of diversity coming from growing spores in the laboratory.

One possible explanation for the higher dictyostelid diversity and presence, related to the distance from the Mediterranean Sea could be the beneficial effect of humidity (in the form of mists and fogs) coming from the influence of the Atlantic Ocean. However, other effects may be important, as presence (and partially diversity) is highest at intermediate latitudes. Nevertheless, the amount of shade (which is directly related to ambient relative humidity) also positively explains dictyostelid diversity. Thus, it seems that this group of multicellular organisms was able to colonize the wettest terrestrial ecosystems, and as a consequence, they have proliferated in environments that are considerably humid.

Extremely low temperatures also seem to enhance diversity and presence of dictyostelids, suggesting that severe winters also allow for a higher diversity of coexisting dictyostelid species. Thus, other factors being equal (e.g., shade, latitude, and longitude), differences in minimum temperature are important in determining dictyostelid diversity.

Although the diversity of plants did not reach significance, it also seems plausible that this variable could expand the niche space for dictyostelids. The association between dictyostelid species and vegetation was first suggested by Cavender and Raper [10, 11] and Cavender and Kawabe [8]. Different plant species have different ecological requirements (such as pH values), and dictyostelid species seem to have adapted to and/or specialized in this relatively wide niche space facilitated by a higher diversity of plant species. Furthermore, some dictyostelids seem to be present only under certain plants and other species seem to be generalists, appearing in association with many different plants. Plants, on the other hand, may host several species of dictyostelids (e.g., *Dictyostelium implicatum* and *Dictyostelium leptosomum* were collected under 25 different plant species, *Dictyostelium mucoroides* under 19 species and *Dictyostelium giganteum* under 16 species) or just very few of them (e.g., *Pinus pinaster* with only one species) (data not shown).

However, both water availability and plant species richness could facilitate dictyostelid diversity indirectly, via their prey—bacteria. Different plant species have a different microflora of bacteria associated with them (e.g., [19], [27], [51]). Furthermore, the diversity of some soil bacteria has been found to be higher in relatively wet places (e.g. [24]), and in terrestrial ecosystems, diversity should be related to moisture, not only to temperature [30]. Thus, perhaps dictyostelids are merely responding directly to the higher diversity of bacteria (i.e., in a bottom-up control of diversity, see [18]). Surveys including bacteria, dictyostelids, and the factors discussed here could help disentangling whether the environmental effects that we found are direct or indirect, or if both, which are more important.



**Figure 2** CERES plot showing a peak of presence for social amoebae near-neutral pH. The units on the y-axis are CERES residuals and are not of interest. The dashed line shows the linear least squares fit for the residuals. The solid line shows the LOWESS smoothing fit

In other microbiological studies [14, 28], an abiotic soil factor such as pH was reported as one of the most important in determining community composition. Also in a recent paper [24], the authors looked at several soil characteristics (mean annual temperature, soil moisture deficit, soil texture, pH, etc.) and concluded that pH was the most important factor in determining bacterial community structure and diversity. Diversity was highest in soils with near-neutral pHs. However, although soil pH was the best predictor, a large amount of the variability in bacterial community structure remained unexplained. As they said, there are a number of soil characteristics that are directly or indirectly related to soil pH so the influence of other factors needs to be understood. Unfortunately, these authors did not apply a multivariate analysis to their data such as the one we have performed here, which would have allowed disentangling partial from total effects. In other words, the partial effect of a given factor (e.g., temperature) cannot be revealed if this factor is highly correlated with another (e.g., pH) and most of the explanatory power in the model can be assigned to the second (see Moya-Laraño and Wise [32] for further details). In our case, we found a complex pattern in the case of the social amoebae, and importantly, as the above authors found for bacteria, we found maximum diversity and presence of dictyostelids near-neutral pHs, strongly suggesting that the diversity and presence of dictyostelids follow that of their prey, bacteria.

Leitner [26] suggested that there is a relationship between soil pH and the diversity of dictyostelids. Indeed, it has been suggested that the general trend in dictyostelid species is that they prefer soils with pH values close to neutrality and that it is in these soils that one can find the highest diversity of species (Cavender pers. comm.). We did find evidence for such a trend. However, it is true that the pH range in which dictyostelids live is highly variable among species (4–8.5). Thus, perhaps dictyostelids are merely responding directly to the higher diversity of bacteria, which we did not measure here.

Our analysis was intended to be an exploratory one, determining for the first time which complex set of environmental variables determine the diversity and the presence and absence of dictyostelids. A potential drawback of our study is that it has not been validated with an independent sample. However, this sort of validation using GLMs has been rarely proven to be efficient [34]. In our case, the relatively low explanatory power of our models (both generalized- $R^2$  values < 0.4) would hardly grant validation power. However, additional samples and further statistical modeling expanding the number of explanatory variables could help to understand the generality of our findings. For instance, we know that we did not include in our analysis some of the environmental determinants of dictyostelid diversity and dictyostelid presence or absence

(e.g., diversity of bacteria), as suggested by the inclusion in the model of the significant product “longitude×latitude”, which points to unmeasured environmental heterogeneity [25]. Nevertheless, as a first approach, our findings do substantially contribute to achieving a global understanding of the ecological requirements of this group.

## Conclusions

Our results show, with statistical support for the first time, relevant information on the environmental factors that may contribute to social amoebae (dictyostelids) distribution and diversity. A combination of climatic (temperature, water availability), physical (pH), and vegetation (diversity) factors seems to favor species richness in the southwestern of Europe (Iberian Peninsula). This diversity is substantially high, especially when we compare it with the diversity present in other central European countries such as Germany and Switzerland [12, 48, 49]. The high number of dictyostelid species present in the Iberian Peninsula could be explained by the presence of the two vegetation regions (Mediterranean and Eurosiberian), which are not found in the other countries studied and which may include a higher diversity of habitats and therefore more ecological conditions for different species to live in.

**Acknowledgements** We want to thank María Aguilar (Royal Botanical Garden, Madrid) for the help with the species accumulation curve and Allison Perrigo (EBC, Uppsala University, Sweden) for the linguistic assistance. This research was supported by a postdoctoral fellowship from the Ministry of Science and Innovation of Spain (0027-2007) to M. Romeralo, with funding also coming from the project CGL2005-00320/BOS and CGL2008-0720/BOS of this Ministry.

## References

- Baldauf SL, Doolittle WF (1997) Origin and evolution of the slime molds (Mycetozoa). *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 94:12007–12012
- Baldauf SL, Roger AJ, Wenk-Siefert I, Doolittle WF (2000) A kingdom-level phylogeny of eukariotes based on combined protein data. *Science* 290:972–977
- Bapteste E, Brinkmann H, Lee JA, Moore DV, Sensen CW, Gordon P et al (2002) The analysis of 100 genes supports the grouping of three highly divergent amoebae: Dictyostelium, Entamoeba, and Mastigamoeba. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 99:1414–1419
- Bonner JT (2009) *The Social Amoebae: The Biology of Cellular Slime Molds*. Princeton Univ. Press, Princeton, N.J., p 156
- Cavender JC (1969) The occurrence and distribution of Acrasieae in forest soils I. Europe. *Am J Bot* 56:989–992
- Cavender JC (1969) The occurrence and distribution of Acrasieae in forest soils. II. East Africa. *Am J Bot* 56:993–998
- Cavender JC (1972) Cellular slime molds in forest soils of eastern Canada. *Can J Bot* 50:1499–1501

8. Cavender JC, Kawabe K (1989) Cellular slime molds of Japan. I. Distribution and biogeographical considerations. *Mycologia* 81:683–691
9. Cavender JC, Raper KB (1965) The Acrasieae in nature. II. Forest soil as a primary habitat. *Am J Bot* 52:297–302
10. Cavender JC, Raper KB (1965) The Acrasieae in nature. III. Occurrence and distribution in forest of Eastern North America. *Am J Bot* 52:302–308
11. Cavender JC, Raper KB (1968) The occurrence and distribution of Acrasieae in forests of subtropical and tropical America. *Am J Bot* 55:504–513
12. Cavender JC, Cavender-Bares J, Hohl HR (1995) Ecological distribution of slime molds in forest soils of Germany. *Bot Helv* 105:199–219
13. Cook RD, Croos-Dabrera R (1998) Partial residual plots in generalized linear models. *J Am Stat Assoc* 93:730–739
14. Fierer N, Jackson RB (2006) The diversity and biogeography of soil bacterial communities. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:626–631
15. Fiore-Donno AM, Nikolaev SI, Nelson M, Pawlowski J, Cavalier-Smith T, Baldauf SL (2010) Deep Phylogeny and evolution of slime moulds (Mycetozoa). *Protist* 161:55–70
16. Hagiwara H (1989) The taxonomic study of Japanese dictyostelid cellular slime molds. National Science Museum, Tokyo
17. Hillebrand H (2004) On the generality of the latitudinal diversity gradient. *Am Nat* 163:192–211
18. Hunter MD, Price PW (1992) Playing chutes and ladders: heterogeneity and the relative roles of bottom-up and top-down forces in natural communities. *Ecology* 73:724–732
19. Ionescu M, Beranova K, Dudkova V, Kochankova L, Demnerova K, Macek T, Mackova M (2009) Isolation and characterization of different plant associated bacteria and their potential. *Int Biodeterior Biodegradation* 63:667–672
20. Keeling PJ, Doolittle WF (1996) Alpha-tubulin from early-diverging eukaryotic lineages and the evolution of the tubulin family. *Mol Biol Evol* 13:1297–1305
21. Kessin RH (2001) Dictyostelium: evolution, cell biology, and the development of multicellularity. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
22. Lado C (2008) Eumycetozoa.com: nomenclatural database of Eumycetozoa (Myxomycota) (Oct 2007 version). In Bisby FA, Roskov YR, Orrell TM, Nicolson D, Paglinawan LE, Bailly N, Kirk, PM, Bourgoin T, van Hertum J (eds) Species 2000 and ITIS Catalogue of Life: 2008 Annual Checklist CD-ROM. Reading, UK
23. Landolt JC, Stephenson SL, Slay ME (2006) Dictyostelid cellular slime molds from caves. *J Caves Karst Stud* 68:22–26
24. Lauber CL, Hamady M, Knight R, Fierer N (2009) Pyrosequencing-based assessment of soil pH as a predictor of soil bacterial community structure at the continental scale. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 75:5111–5120
25. Legendre P (1993) Spatial autocorrelation: trouble or a new paradigm? *Ecology* 74:1659–1673
26. Leitner A: Acrasiales in Geschadigtn Waldern. Thesis, Universitat Konstanz, Switzerland (1987)
27. Lindow SE, Brandl MT (2003) Microbiology of the phyllosphere. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 69:1875–1883
28. Lozupone CA, Knight R (2007) Global patterns in bacterial diversity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 104:11436–11440
29. Mittelbach GG, Schemske DW, Cornell HV, Allen AP, Brown JM, Bush MB et al (2007) Evolution and the latitudinal diversity gradient: speciation, extinction and biogeography. *Ecol Lett* 10:315–331
30. Moya-Laraño J (2010) Can temperature and water availability contribute to the maintenance of latitudinal diversity by increasing the rate of biotic interactions? *The Open Ecology Journal* 3:1–13
31. Moya-Laraño J, Corcobado G (2008) Plotting partial correlation and regression in ecological studies. *Web Ecology* 8:35–46
32. Moya-Laraño J, Wise DH (2007) Two simple strategies of analysis to increase the power of experiments with multiple response variables. *Basic Appl Ecol* 8:398–410
33. Ninyerola M, Pons X, Roure JM (2005) Atlas Climático Digital de la Península Ibérica. Metodología y aplicaciones en bioclimatología y geobotánica. Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona, Bellaterra. ISBN 932860-8-7
34. Pearce J, Ferrier S (2001) The practical value of modelling relative abundance of species for regional conservation planning: a case study. *Biol Conserv* 98:33–43
35. Raper KB (1984) The Dictyostelids. Princeton University Press, Princeton
36. R Development Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. <http://www.R-project.org> (2009). Vienna, Austria, Accessed April 2010
37. Ricklefs RE, Schluter D (1993) Species diversity: regional and historical influences. In: Ricklefs RE, Schluter D (eds) *Species diversity in ecological communities*. Univ. of Chicago Press, Chicago, pp 350–363
38. Romeralo M, Lado C (2006) Dictyostelids from Mediterranean forests of the hunter of Europe. *Mycol Prog* 5:231–241
39. Romeralo M, Lado C (2008) The biodiversity of Dictyostelids in a Spanish Biosphere Reserve. *Nova Hedwig* 87:247–259
40. Romeralo M, Escalante R, Sastre L, Lado C (2007) Molecular systematics of dictyostelids: 5.8S ribosomal DNA and internal transcribed spacer region analyses. *Eukaryot Cell* 6:110–116
41. Romeralo M, Cavender JC, Baldauf S (2009) A new species of cellular slime molds from southern Portugal based on morphology ITS and SSU sequences. *Mycologia* 101:269–274
42. Rosenzweig ML (1995) Species diversity in space and time. Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge
43. Schaap P, Winckler T, Nelson M, Álvarez-Curto E, Elgie B, Hagiwara H et al (2006) Molecular phylogeny and evolution of morphology in the social amoebas. *Science* 314:661–663
44. Schnittler M (2001) Ecology of myxomycetes of a winter-cold desert in western Kazakhstan. *Mycologia* 93:653–669
45. Schnittler M, Stephenson SL (2000) Myxomycete biodiversity in four different forest types in Costa Rica. *Mycologia* 92:626–637
46. Stechmann A, Cavalier-Smith TC (2003) The root of the eukaryote tree pinpointed. *Curr Biol* 13:R665–R666
47. Swanson AR, Vadell EM, Cavender JC (1999) Global distribution of forest soil dictyostelids. *J Biogeogr* 26:133–148
48. Traub HP, Hohl HR, Cavender JC (1981) Cellular slime molds of Switzerland. I. Description of new species. *Am J Bot* 68:162–171
49. Traub HP, Hohl HR, Cavender JC (1981) Cellular slime molds of Switzerland. II. Distribution in forest soils. *Am J Bot* 68:172–182
50. Willig MR, Kaufman DM, Stevens RD (2003) Latitudinal gradients of biodiversity: pattern, process, scale, and synthesis. *Ann Rev Ecol Evol Systemat* 34:273–309
51. Yang CH, Crowley DE, Borneman J, Keen NT (2001) Microbial phyllosphere populations are more complex than previously realized. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 98:3889–3894
52. Yergeau E, Bezemer TM, Hedlund K, Mortimer SR, Kowalchuk GA, van der Putten WH (Published online: Sept. 16, 2009) Influences of space, soil nematodes and plants on microbial community composition of chalk grassland soils. *Environ Microbiol* (in press)