

# Distribution and conservation of known secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters in the genomes of geographically diverse *Microcystis aeruginosa* strains

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**Abstract.** The cyanobacterium *Microcystis aeruginosa* has been linked to toxic blooms worldwide. In addition to producing hepatotoxic microcystins, many strains are capable of synthesising a variety of biologically active compounds, including protease and phosphatase inhibitors, which may affect aquatic ecosystems and pose a risk to their use. This study explored the distribution, composition and conservation of known secondary metabolite (SM) biosynthesis gene clusters in the genomes of 27 *M. aeruginosa* strains isolated from six different Köppen–Geiger climates. Our analysis identified gene clusters with significant homology to nine SM biosynthesis gene clusters spanning four different compound classes: non-ribosomal peptides, hybrid polyketide–non-ribosomal peptides, cyanobactins and microviridins. The aeruginosin, microviridin, cyanopeptolin and microcystin biosynthesis gene clusters were the most frequently observed, but hybrid polyketide–non-ribosomal peptide biosynthesis clusters were the most common class overall. Although some biogeographic relationships were observed, taxonomic markers and geography were not reliable indicators of SM biosynthesis cluster distribution, possibly due to previous genetic deletions or horizontal gene transfer events. The only cyanotoxin biosynthesis gene cluster identified in our screening study was the microcystin synthetase (*mcy*) gene cluster, suggesting that the production of non-microcystin cyanotoxins by this taxon, such as anatoxin-a or paralytic shellfish poison analogues, is either absent or rare.

**Additional keywords:** biogeography, cyanobacteria, cyanobactin, cyanotoxins, microviridin, non-ribosomal peptide, phylogeny, polyketide.

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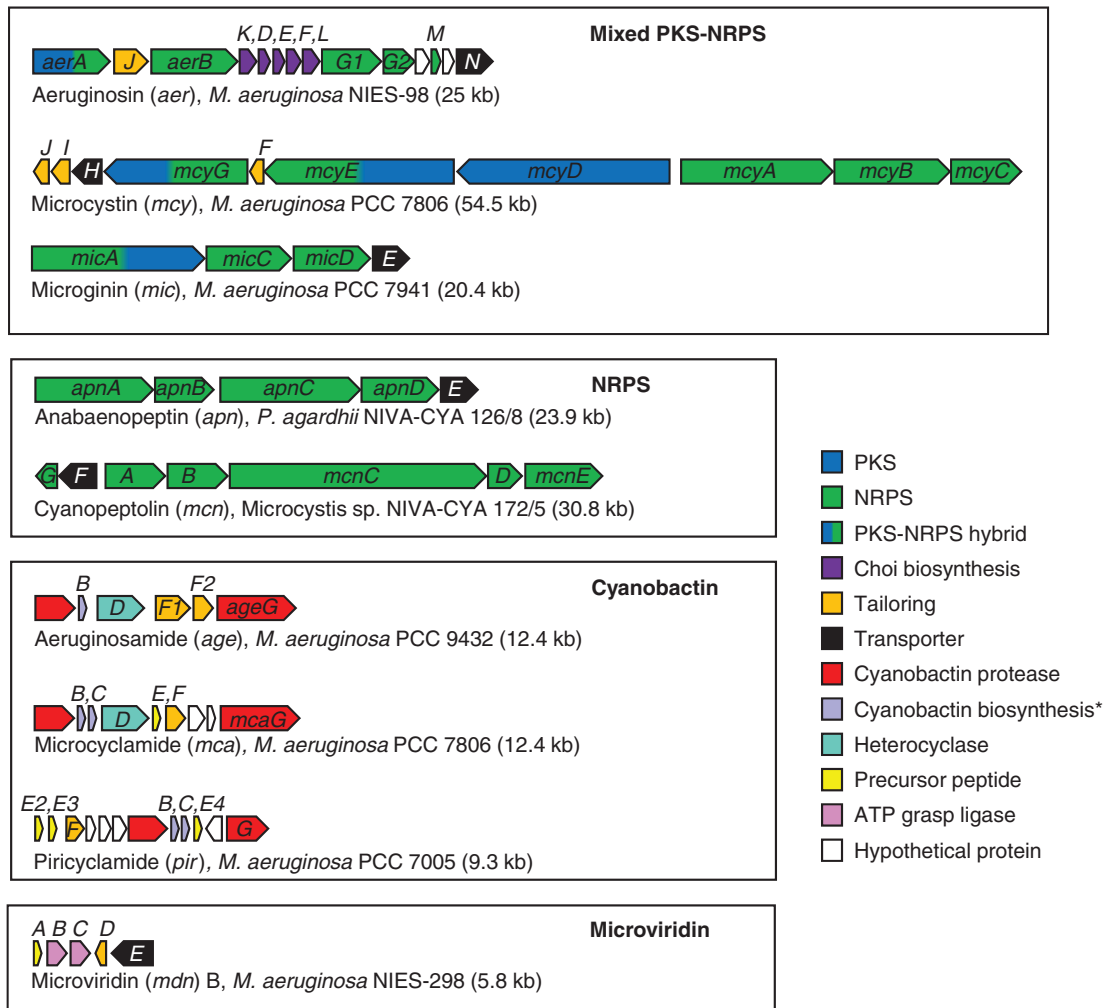
## Introduction

*Microcystis aeruginosa* is a cosmopolitan bloom-forming species of cyanobacteria notorious for its production of hepatotoxic microcystins. These small cyclic peptides are toxic in very low doses and pose a threat to human health, agriculture and freshwater ecosystems worldwide. Although microcystin is the most toxic metabolite produced by *M. aeruginosa*, recent genome sequencing efforts have revealed that a variety of other secondary metabolite (SM) pathways are also encoded within the *M. aeruginosa* pan-genome (Humbert *et al.* 2013; Fig. 1). Whether the corresponding biologically active compounds pose a threat to water quality is uncertain. However, solely focusing on microcystin when assessing water quality could prove to be an oversight.

Interestingly, the ability to produce microcystins appears to be sporadically distributed across the species (Tillett *et al.* 2001), with toxic and non-toxic *M. aeruginosa* strains coexisting in many ecosystems. The apparent lack of phylogenetic linkage between microcystin production and traditional taxonomic markers (*16S* rDNA, phycocyanin, etc.; Tillett *et al.* 2001)

initially hampered molecular differentiation of toxic and non-toxic *M. aeruginosa* strains. However, the discovery of the microcystin synthetase (*mcy*) gene cluster in PCC 7806 (Dittmann *et al.* 1997; Tillett *et al.* 2000) enabled the development of highly specific and sensitive polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based methods for assessing the toxigenicity of bloom samples (e.g. Jungblut and Neilan 2006; Al-Tebrineh *et al.* 2010, 2011; Baker *et al.* 2013). These methods are now widely used by scientists and water quality authorities around the world.

Although it has long been recognised that *M. aeruginosa* is capable of producing a wide range of other SMs, including non-ribosomal peptides, hybrid polyketide–non-ribosomal peptides (PK-NRPs), cyanobactins and microviridins (Fig. 2), these compounds have received much less attention than the microcystins in terms of their effects on water quality (Janssen 2019). However, many have demonstrable effects on growth and viability in laboratory test organisms, such as mice and zebrafish, as well as in cell cultures, highlighting their potential to disrupt aquatic ecosystems. Furthermore, the biogeography of



**Fig. 1.** Schematic of known secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters present in *Microcystis aeruginosa* and other cyanobacteria. The above clusters (sourced from the Minimum Information about a Biosynthetic Gene cluster (MIBiG) repository) were used as reference clusters in the present study. The asterisk (\*) indicates *patBC* genes (named after their association with the patellamide biosynthesis gene cluster) that are commonly associated with cyanobactin gene clusters but are not essential for cyanobactin biosynthesis (Sivonen *et al.* 2010). Diagram not to scale. Choi, L-2-carboxy-6-hydroxyoctahydroindole; NRPS, non-ribosomal peptide synthetase; PKS, polyketide synthase.

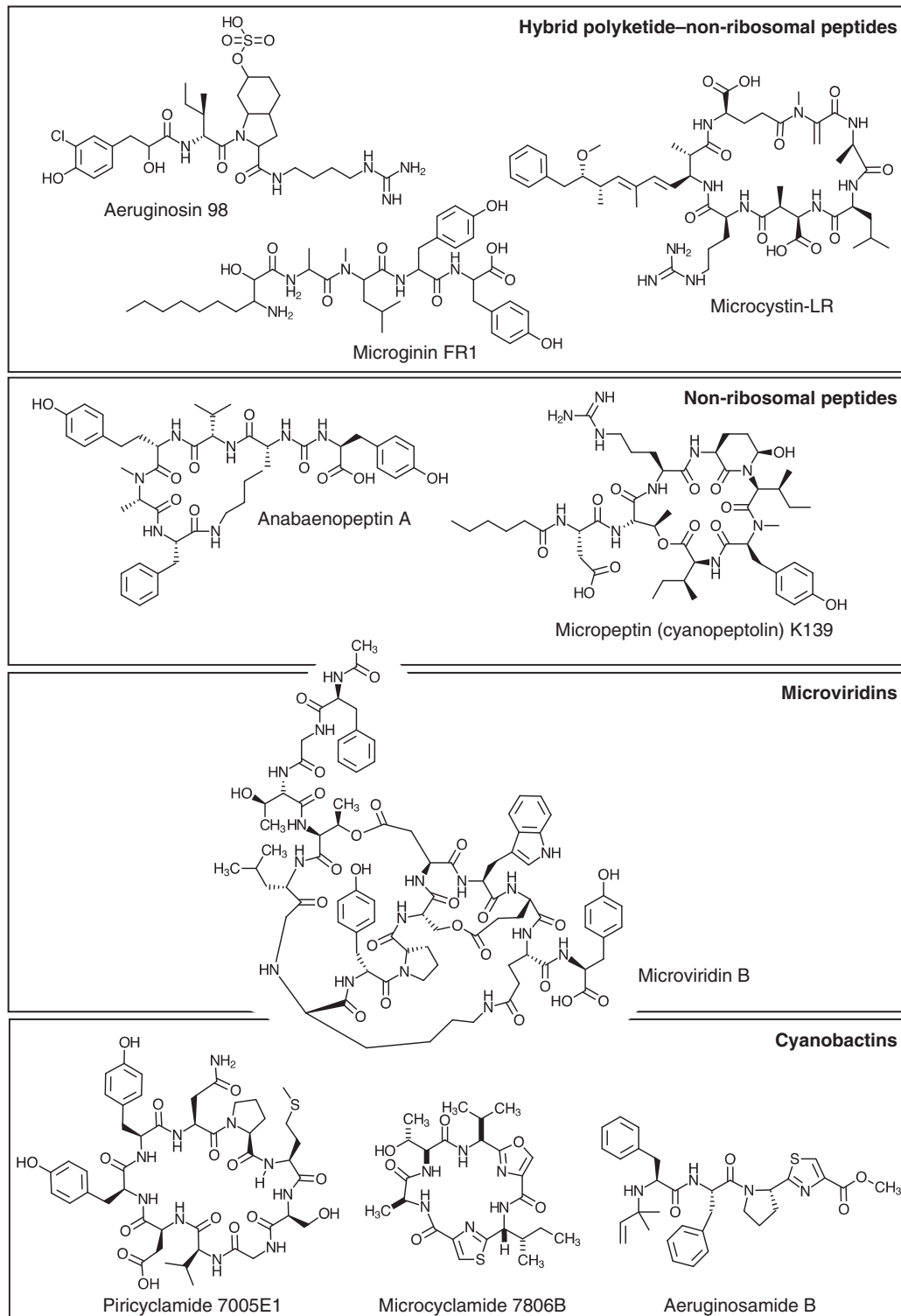
SM biosynthesis pathways in *M. aeruginosa* has not been investigated in detail, and it is unclear whether their distribution is scattered, as for microcystin, or segregated according to the geoclimatic origin of isolates. Characterisation of the distribution, composition and conservation of the various SM biosynthesis gene clusters in *M. aeruginosa* strains will provide insight into their potential SM profiles and is an important first step towards holistic molecular monitoring of freshwater blooms.

#### Known SMs produced by *M. aeruginosa*

##### Hybrid PK-NRPs

Hybrid PK-NRPs produced by *M. aeruginosa* include the microcystins, aeruginosins and microginins. The microcystins are a structurally diverse family of non-ribosomal heptapeptides sharing a common monocyclic structure and a unique  $\beta$ -amino acid (Adda) side-chain (Botes *et al.* 1985). Microcystins inhibit

eukaryotic serine/threonine protein phosphatases 1 and 2A (MacKintosh *et al.* 1990) and are toxic to a variety of animals and plants. Bioaccumulation of the toxin may also occur in resistant organisms (Ferrão-Filho and Kozłowski-Suzuki 2011). In mammals, the primary target of microcystin is the liver, where disruption of the cytoskeleton causes hepatic haemorrhage and organ failure (Dawson 1998). Chronic sub-acute exposure to the toxin may additionally initiate and promote tumour development (Fujiki and Suganuma 2011). The gene cluster responsible for microcystin biosynthesis in *M. aeruginosa* PCC 7806 spans 55 kb and encodes 10 genes (*mcyA-J*), including three non-ribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPSs), one polyketide synthase (PKS), two hybrid NRPS-PKSs, three auxiliary enzymes and an ABC transporter (Tillett *et al.* 2000; Fig. 1). The *mcy* gene cluster has since been identified in several other cyanobacterial genera (Christiansen *et al.* 2003; Rouhiainen *et al.* 2004) and is highly conserved in



**Fig. 2.** Examples of known secondary metabolites produced by *Microcystis aeruginosa*. Select examples of secondary metabolites previously isolated from *M. aeruginosa*. Aeruginosin 98, microcystin-LR, microginin FR1, anabaenopeptin A and microviridin B structures were appropriated from [Huang and Zimba \(2019\)](#). Micropeptin K139, aeruginosamide B, microcyclamide 7806B, piricyclamide 7005E1 structures were appropriated from [Nishizawa et al. \(2011\)](#); [Leikoski et al. \(2013\)](#); [Portmann et al. \(2008\)](#) and [Leikoski et al. \(2012\)](#) respectively. For an overview of the different structural variants of these compounds, see [Huang and Zimba \(2019\)](#).

terms of composition and sequence identity compared with other SM biosynthesis clusters.

Aeruginosins are linear non-ribosomal tetrapeptides characterised by a central L-2-carboxy-6-hydroxyoctahydroindole (L-Choi) moiety, a C-terminal arginine derivative (e.g. argininal, argininal, agmatine, 1-amidino-2-ethoxy-3-aminopiperidine) and an N-terminal hydroxyphenyl lactic acid or phenyl lactic acid group (Ersmark *et al.* 2008; Scherer *et al.* 2016). Most aeruginosins are potent inhibitors of serine proteases, including the human blood coagulation cascade enzyme thrombin and the digestive enzyme trypsin (Ersmark *et al.* 2008). Certain variants may also be highly toxic to invertebrates, including crustaceans (Scherer *et al.* 2016). The gene cluster responsible for aeruginosin biosynthesis in *M. aeruginosa* PCC 7806 spans 25 kb and encodes 14 genes (*aerA–N*), including three NRPSs, one hybrid NRPS-PKS, six putative Choi biosynthesis genes, a halogenase, an ABC transporter, an oxidoreductase (OxRed) and several cryptic genes (Ishida *et al.* 2009; Fig. 1).

The microginins are a family of linear non-ribosomal lipopeptides that contain four to six amino acids, including one or more tyrosines at the C-terminus and the characteristic N-terminal side chain 3-amino-2-hydroxy decanoic acid (Ahda; Strangman and Wright 2016). Microginins inhibit angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE; Okino *et al.* 1993), a central component of the renin–angiotensin system that controls blood pressure. The gene cluster responsible for microginin biosynthesis in *Planktothrix* NIVA-CYA98 spans 21 kb and encodes four genes (*micA–E*), including a PKS-NRPS, two NRPSs and an ABC transporter (Rouge *et al.* 2009; Fig. 1).

### Non-ribosomal peptides

Non-ribosomal peptides produced by *M. aeruginosa* include the cyanopeptolins and anabaenopeptins. Cyanopeptolins are a family of cyclic depsipeptides characterised by the presence of 3-amino-6-hydroxy-2-piperidone (Ahp; Martin *et al.* 1993). Members of the cyanopeptolin family have been shown to inhibit several serine proteases. The gene cluster responsible for cyanopeptolin biosynthesis in *Microcystis* NIVA-CYA172/5 spans 31 kb and encodes seven genes (*mcnA–G*), including four NRPSs, a halogenase and an ABC transporter (Tooming-Klunderud *et al.* 2007). The micropeptin cluster in *M. aeruginosa* K-139 and PCC 7806 is highly similar in structure and composition to the cyanopeptolin cluster, although it lacks the halogenase (*mcnD*) and the cryptic enzyme (*mcnG*; Nishizawa *et al.* 2011; Fig. 1).

Anabaenopeptins are a family of diverse cyclic hexapeptides characterised by several conserved motifs, including a ureido bond, *N*-methylation in Position 5, and D-Lys in Position 2 (Christiansen *et al.* 2011). Anabaenopeptins are potent inhibitors of carboxypeptidase-A (CPA) and thrombin-activatable fibrinolysis inhibitor (TAFIa), enzymes involved in blood coagulation (Schreuder *et al.* 2016). The anabaenopeptin (*apnA–E*) gene cluster in *Planktothrix agardhii* CYA126/8 spans 24 kb and encodes four NRPSs and an ABC transporter (Christiansen *et al.* 2011; Fig. 1). In some cyanobacterial genomes, the *apn* gene cluster is collocated with the *hph* gene cluster, which is believed to provide additional substrates (e.g. L-homotyrosine and L-homophenylalanine) for the biosynthesis of anabaenopeptins (Lima *et al.* 2017).

### Cyanobactins

*M. aeruginosa* produces a variety of modified ribosomal peptides known as cyanobactins, which are synthesised by the proteolytic cleavage and cyclisation of precursor peptides. Structural diversity within this family of compounds is achieved by heterocyclisation and oxidation of amino acids, or their post-translational prenylation (Sivonen *et al.* 2010). Cyanobactins exhibit a diverse range of bioactivities, including cytotoxic, antimalarial and allelopathic activities. Although quite diverse in their size (6–20 kb), composition and arrangement, cyanobactin biosynthesis gene clusters always encode two proteases (homologues of patellamide biosynthesis genes, PatA and PatG) that cleave and cyclise the precursor peptide as well as proteins participating in post-translational modifications (Sivonen *et al.* 2010). Some cyanobactin biosynthesis clusters (e.g. microcyclamide, *mcaA–G*; and aeruginosamide, *ageA–G*) also contain heterocyclase enzymes, whereas others (e.g. pircyclamides, *pirA–G*) do not (Leikoski *et al.* 2013).

### Microviridins

Another class of post-translationally modified peptides produced by *M. aeruginosa* are the microviridins, which are tricyclic depsipeptides with an unusual cage-like architecture composed of two lactone rings and one lactam ring (Ishitsuka *et al.* 1990). Microviridins are potent inhibitors of serine proteases, including elastase, chymotrypsin and trypsin (Murakami *et al.* 1997). A particular variant, microviridin J, has been shown to be toxic to zooplankton (Rohrlack *et al.* 2004). The gene cluster responsible for microviridin B biosynthesis in *M. aeruginosa* NIES-843 contains five genes (*mdnA–E*), encoding the leader peptide (MdnA), two dedicated ATP-grasp ligases (MdnB and MdnC) a Gcn5-related *N*-acetyltransferase (GNAT)-type acetyltransferase (MdnD) and an ABC transporter (MdnE; Ziemert *et al.* 2008a; Philmus *et al.* 2008; Weiz *et al.* 2011; Fig. 1). MdnA may be distally encoded in other strains (Gatte-Picchi *et al.* 2014).

Although the aforementioned compounds have been isolated from several *M. aeruginosa* cultures and bloom samples, the corresponding biochemical pathways and biosynthesis gene clusters have only been examined in a few cyanobacterial strains, in some cases from distantly related genera. In order to better understand the corresponding genetic diversity and evolutionary history of these pathways in *M. aeruginosa*, we examined the distribution, composition and conservation of known SM biosynthesis gene clusters in 27 *M. aeruginosa* strains isolated from different geoclimatic regions. A comprehensive multilocus phylogenetic analysis was also undertaken to understand the biogeography of SM production in this taxon. The results are discussed with regard to predicting SM profiles in this species and designing future molecular diagnostic tests for potentially harmful strains.

## Materials and methods

### Climate zone allocation

Climate zones were allocated to *M. aeruginosa* strains based on an updated version of the Köppen–Geiger climate classification system (Kottek *et al.* 2006) accessed through the *kgc* package (C. Bryant, N. R. Wheeler, F. Rubel, and R. H. French, see

<https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=kgc>, accessed September 2018), which classifies regions of the Earth by their relative heat and humidity through the year. Climate zones are divided into five main groups: A (tropical), B (dry), C (temperate), D (continental) and E (polar). The groups are then subdivided based on seasonal precipitation and temperature. Geographical coordinates used to determine Köppen–Geiger climate zones were based on reports in the literature for each isolate.

### Genome assemblies

*M. aeruginosa* genome assemblies with RefSeq (Haft *et al.* 2018) membership ( $n = 27$ ) were downloaded from RefSeq and GenBank (Benson *et al.* 2018) between 2 February 2017 and 23 June 2018 in *fna* (used in average nucleotide identity, ANI, and phylogenetic analyses) and *gbff* (used in the prediction of secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters) format respectively. General genome features were also obtained from GenBank. Of the two available NIES-298 whole-genome sequences, the assembly with the higher genome size and gene count (BEYQ01) was used.

### Average nucleotide identity

ANI values were calculated according to the orthologous average nucleotide identity (OrthoANI) algorithm (Lee *et al.* 2016) implemented with USEARCH (OrthoANLu; Yoon *et al.* 2017).

### Identification and analysis of SM biosynthesis gene clusters

Putative SM biosynthesis gene clusters encoded within the 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes were identified and analysed using Antibiotics and Secondary Metabolite Analysis Shell (antiSMASH, ver. 4.10, see <https://antismash.secondary-metabolites.org>, accessed Sept 2018; Blin *et al.* 2017), with ClusterFinder enabled (minimum cluster size 4; minimum probability 60%). Results were verified by comparing the inferred peptide sequence identity (ID; minimum 50%), coverage (minimum 50%) and organisation of genes within putative clusters to 1481 previously characterised SM biosynthesis clusters in the Minimum Information about a Biosynthetic Gene cluster (MIBiG) dataset (Medema *et al.* 2015; Fig. 1), GenBank (by BLASTP and TBLASTN; Altschul *et al.* 1990) and the literature.

### Phylogenetic analysis of the bacterial core-gene set

Phylogenetic analysis of the bacterial core-gene set was undertaken using the up-to-date bacterial core gene (UBCG) set and pipeline for phylogenomic tree reconstruction programme, UBCG (ver. 3.0, see <https://www.ezbiocloud.net/tools/ubcg>, accessed September 2018; Na *et al.* 2018), configured with default settings (Jones, Taylor and Thornton model; Jones *et al.* 1992): where varying rates of evolution across sites were modelled using the ‘fixed number of rate categories’ (‘CAT’) model (Stamatakis 2006); codon-based alignment (i.e. where the output is nucleotide sequences, but the alignment is carried out using amino acid sequences); removal of alignment positions composed of more than 50% gap characters; 1000 resamples during tree construction phase. The UBCG pipeline was run with Prodigal for gene finding (ver. 2.6.3, see <https://github.com/hyattprodigal/releases/>, accessed

September 2018; Hyatt *et al.* 2010), hmmsearch for identification of UBCGs using HMMER (ver. 3.1b2, see <http://eddylab.org/software/hmmer/hmmer-3.1b2.tar.gz>, accessed September 2018; Eddy 2011), Multiple Alignment using Fast Fourier Transform (MAFFT) for alignments (ver. 7.402, see <https://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/software/linux.html>, accessed September 2018; Katoh and Standley 2013) and FastTree 2 (ver. 2.1.10, Double precision, number SSE3, see <http://www.microbesonline.org/fasttree/>, accessed September 2018; Price *et al.* 2010) to construct single gene trees and an unrooted maximum-likelihood (ML) tree from the concatenated alignment of the nucleotide sequences of 91 genes representing the bacterial core-gene set (length = 84 294 nucleotide positions; see Fig. S1, available as Supplementary material to this paper). The ML tree was subsequently rooted by applying the Minimum Ancestor Deviation function (ver. 1.1, <https://www.mikrobio.uni-kiel.de/de/ag-dagan/ressourcen>, accessed September 2018; Tria *et al.* 2017) with default settings, then visualised with the APE package (ver. 5.0, <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/ape/>, accessed September 2018; Paradis *et al.* 2004).

### Phylogenetic distribution of SM biosynthesis gene clusters

To characterise the phylogenetic distribution of SM gene clusters, Phylo.D (caper ver. 1.0.1, D. Orme, R. Freckleton, G. Thomas, T. Petzoldt, S. Fritz, N. Isaac, and W. Pearse, see <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=caper>, accessed September 2018) was used to estimate the extent of phylogenetic clumping. Phylo.D (run with 10 000 permutations per trait model) calculates the *D* value (Fritz and Purvis 2010), a measure of phylogenetic signal in a binary trait, and tests the estimated *D* value for significant departure from both random association and the clumping expected under a Brownian evolution threshold model.

### Genomic island search

Putative genomic islands within the 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes were identified using AlienHunter (ver. 1.7, see <https://www.sanger.ac.uk/science/tools/alien-hunter>, accessed September 2018) with default settings, which predicts putative horizontal gene transfer (HGT) events with the implementation of interpolated variable order motifs (IVOMs; Vernikos and Parkhill 2006). The IVOM approach exploits compositional biases at various levels (e.g. codon, dinucleotide and amino acid bias, structural constraints) and more reliably captures the local composition of a sequence than fixed-order methods. The relative position of SM biosynthesis clusters compared to IVOMs within the four closed *M. aeruginosa* genomes (NIES-2481, NIES-2549, NIES-843 and PCC 7806SL) was also examined.

## Results

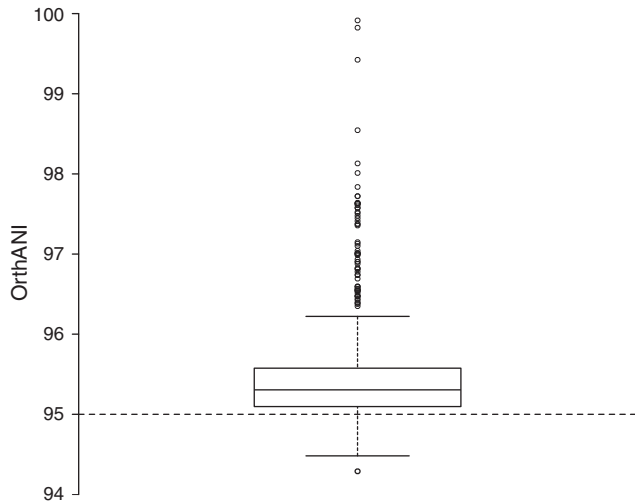
### General genome features

The genomes ranged in size from 4.3 to 5.9 Mb (mean = ~5 Mb) with GC contents ranging from 42.1 to 43.2% (mean = ~43%). They were assembled across 1 to 1363 scaffolds (mean = ~235) and contained 3839–5190 protein-coding regions (mean = ~4417; Table 1). In pairwise genome comparisons (Fig. S1), 85.2% of ANI values (which ranged from 94.3 to 99.9%; median 95.3%) were above the nominal prokaryote species threshold of 95% (Goris *et al.* 2007; Fig. 3).

Table 1. *Microcystis aeruginosa* strains used in this study and their corresponding genome features

Aw, tropical wet; Cfa, humid subtropical; Cfb, temperate oceanic; Cwa, monsoon-influenced humid subtropical; Cwb, subtropical highland; Dfb, warm-summer humid continental; GC%, guanine-cytosine content; INSDC, International Nucleotide Sequence Database Collaboration accession number; IVOM, interpolated variable order motif; Level, genome completion level; K-G classification, Köppen-Geiger climate zone; Location, isolation site

Strain information		Genome features				Reference					
Name	Location	K-G classification	INSDC	Size (Mb)	GC%	Scaffolds	Genes	Proteins	IVOM (n)	Level	Reference
CHAOHU 1326	Chaohu Lake, Anhui Province, China	Cfa	MOLZ00000000.1	5.3	42.5	607	5278	4563	204	Scaffold	
DIANCHI1905	Lake Dianchi, China	Cwb	AOC100000000.1	4.9	42.5	335	4874	4303	177	Contig	Yang et al. (2015)
KW	Wangsong Reservoir, Korea	Cwa	MVGR000000000.1	5.9	42.8	6	5757	4962	223	Contig	Jeong et al. (2018)
NaRes975	Nanwan Reservoir, Henan Province, China	Cfa	MOLN000000000.1	5.1	42.4	413	5202	4633	236	Contig	
NIES-1211	Lake Tofutsu, Japan	Dfb	BEIV000000000.1	4.7	42.8	264	4840	4209	193	Scaffold	
NIES-2481	Lake Kasumigaura, Japan	Cfa	CP012375	4.4	42.9	2	4385	3966	149	Complete	Yamaguchi et al. (2018)
NIES-2549	Lake Kasumigaura, Japan	Cfa	CP011304	4.3	42.9	2	4219	3843	128	Complete	Yamaguchi et al. (2015)
NIES-298	Lake Kasumigaura, Japan	Cfa	BEYQ000000000.1	5.0	42.5	88	4810	4355	207	Scaffold	Rhee et al. (2012); Yamaguchi et al. (2018)
NIES-44	Lake Kasumigaura, Japan	Cfa	BBPA000000000.1	4.6	43.2	79	4480	4053	135	Contig	Okano et al. (2015)
NIES-843	Lake Kasumigaura, Japan	Cfa	AP009552.1	5.8	42.3	1	5867	5190	246	Complete	Kaneko et al. (2007)
NIES-87	Lake Kasumigaura, Japan	Cfa	BFAC000000000.1	4.9	42.9	206	4802	4222	140	Scaffold	Yamaguchi et al. (2018)
NIES-88	Lake Kawaguchi, Japan	Dfb	JYXX000000000.1	5.3	43.0	29	5307	4620	186	Scaffold	Parajuli et al. (2016)
NIES-98	Lake Kasumigaura, Japan	Cfa	MDZH000000000.1	5.0	42.4	497	4886	4422	195	Scaffold	Yamaguchi et al. (2015)
PCC 7005	Lake Mendota, Madison, WI, USA	Dfb	AQPY000000000.1	4.9	42.5	1363	4824	4365	209	Contig	Sandrimi et al. (2014)
PCC 7806SL	Braakman Reservoir, Netherlands	Cfb	CP020771.1	5.1	42.1	1	5158	4497	226	Complete	Frangoul et al. (2008)
PCC 7941	Little Rideau Lake, ON, Canada	Dfb	CAIK000000000.1	4.8	42.6	77	4755	4337	169	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9432	Little Rideau Lake, ON, Canada	Dfb	CAIH000000000.1	5.0	42.5	132	5023	4543	190	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9443	Fish pond, Landjia, Central African Republic	Aw	CAIJ000000000.1	5.2	42.7	221	5150	4545	160	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9701	Guerlesquin Dam, Finistère, France	Cfb	CAIQ000000000.1	4.8	42.7	323	4715	4312	155	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9717	Rochereau Dam, La Vendée, France	Cfb	CAII000000000.1	5.3	42.7	264	5267	4609	127	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9806	Oshkosh, WI, USA	Dfb	CAIL000000000.1	4.3	43.1	93	4258	3839	174	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9807	Hartbeespoort Dam, Pretoria, South Africa	Cwa	CAIM000000000.1	5.2	42.6	267	5152	4588	173	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9808	Malpas Reservoir, Armidale, NSW, Australia	Cfb	CAIN000000000.1	5.1	42.4	141	5090	4556	183	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
PCC 9809	Green Bay, Lake Michigan, MI, USA	Dfb	CAIO000000000.1	5.0	42.8	303	5023	4497	153	Scaffold	Humbert et al. (2013)
Sj	Lake Shinji, Japan	Cfa	BDSG000000000.1	4.6	42.8	341	4522	3956	179	Scaffold	
SPC777	Billings Reservoir, São Bernardo do Campo, Brazil	Cfa	ASZQ000000000.1	5.5	42.6	278	5537	4935	212	Contig	Fiore et al. (2013)
TAIHU98	Lake Taihu, China	Cfa	ANKQ000000000.1	4.8	42.5	4	4802	4340	201	Contig	Yang et al. (2013)



**Fig. 3.** Orthologous average nucleotide identity (OrthoANI) boxplot. The dashed horizontal line marks the nominal prokaryote species threshold of 95% (Goris *et al.* 2007). The box shows the interquartile range, with the median value indicated by the horizontal line; whiskers show the range. Individual symbols are outliers.

### SM cluster prediction

Homologues of nine known SM biosynthesis gene clusters were distributed among the 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes, including three PK-NRP biosynthesis clusters (aeruginosin, *aer*; microcystin, *mcy*; and microginin, *mic*), two NRP biosynthesis clusters (anabaenopeptin, *apn*; and micropeptin, *mcn*), three cyanobactin biosynthesis clusters (aeruginosamide, *age*; microcyclamide, *mca*; and piricyclamide, *pir*) and a microviridin (*mdn*) biosynthesis cluster. The individual *M. aeruginosa* strains encoded 0–7 known SM biosynthesis clusters (mean = 4), which occupied ~0–3% of their total genomes (mean  $\geq 2\%$ ). PCC 9432 encoded the greatest number of known clusters, whereas NIES-44 encoded none, although fragments of the *pir* cluster were found in the NIES-44 genome. The most commonly identified SM biosynthesis clusters were the *aer* and *mdn* clusters, which were identified in 21 different strains. In contrast, the *age* cluster was only found in a single strain (PCC 9432). The most common class of SM biosynthesis cluster identified among the 27 strains was the mixed PK-NRP class, which was identified at approximately twice the frequency of the NRP, cyanobactin and microviridin classes (Tables 2, S1).

**Table 2.** Distribution of known secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters in 27 *Microcystis aeruginosa* strains

+, gene cluster identified with high homology (>80% ID) to Minimum Information about a Biosynthetic Gene cluster (MIBiG) reference gene clusters: *aer*, aeruginosin; *mcy*, microcystin; *mic*, microginin; *apn*, anabaenopeptin; *mcn*, micropeptin or cyanopeptolin; *age*, aeruginosamide; *mca*, microcyclamide; *pir*, piricyclamide; and *mdn*, microviridin B. P, partial microcystin cluster (*mcyA–C*); NRPS, non-ribosomal peptide synthetase; PKS, polyketide synthase

Strain	PKS-NRPS			NRPS		Cyanobactins			Microviridins	Total number of clusters identified
	<i>aer</i>	<i>mcy</i>	<i>mic</i>	<i>apn</i>	<i>mcn</i>	<i>age</i>	<i>mca</i>	<i>pir</i>	<i>mdn</i>	
CHAOHU1326	+	+			+			+	+	5
DIANCHI905	+	+			+		+			4
KW	+	+			+				+	4
NaRes975	+	+			+			+	+	5
NIES-1211								+	+	2
NIES-2481	+				+				+	3
NIES-2549	+				+				+	3
NIES-298	+	+			+		+		+	5
NIES-44										0
NIES-843	+	+			+			+	+	5
NIES-87			+						+	2
NIES-88	+	+			+					3
NIES-98	+		+				+		+	4
PCC 7005	+		+	+	+			+		5
PCC 7806SL	+	+			+		+		+	5
PCC 7941	+	+	+		+				+	5
PCC 9432	+		+	+	+	+		+	+	7
PCC 9443	+	+			+			+	+	5
PCC 9701			+	+	+			+	+	5
PCC 9717	+	P			+			+	+	4
PCC 9806							+			1
PCC 9807	+	+			+			+	+	5
PCC 9808	+	+			+			+	+	5
PCC 9809	+	+			+		+	+	+	6
Sj		+	+						+	3
SPC777	+	+					+		+	4
TAIHU98	+		+				+			3
Total number	21	15	8	3	19	1	8	12	21	108

### Hybrid PK-NRP biosynthesis clusters

The complete microcystin (*mcyA–J*) biosynthesis gene cluster was identified in 15 *M. aeruginosa* strains, including the reference strain PCC 7806SL (MIBiG accession BGC000107). A partial microcystin synthetase cluster (*mcyA–C*) was identified in PCC 9717. Genes within the *mcy* cluster were highly conserved with inferred peptide sequence IDs  $\geq 91\%$  (mean =  $\sim 98\%$ ) compared with their homologous counterparts in strain PCC 7806SL.

The aeruginosin (*aer*) biosynthesis gene cluster was identified in 21 strains, including the reference strain NIES-98 (MIBiG accession BGC0000298). The consensus cluster within this group comprised *aerA*, *aerB*, *aerD*, *aerE*, *aerF*, *aerG1*, *aerK*, *aerL*, *aerN* and OxRed genes. A putative transposase gene was also identified just upstream of *aerA*. The full complement of *aer* genes (*aerA*, *aerB*, *aerD*, *aerE*, *aerF*, *aerG1*, *aerG2*, *aerK*, *aerL*, *aerM*, *aerN*) was only detected in three strains (NIES-98, PCC 7005 and TAIHU98). An additional open reading frame (ORF), namely *aerJ*, putatively encoding a halogenase, was detected in seven strains. The inferred peptide sequences of *aer* genes were mostly well conserved (mean =  $\sim 93\%$  ID) compared with the NIES-98 sequences. However, the sequences of *aerB* and *aerL* were poorly conserved in some strains ( $\geq 58\%$ ; mean =  $\sim 76\%$  ID).

The closest match to the microginin (*mic*) gene cluster in the MIBiG repository was the puwainaphycin cluster from *Cylindrospermum alatosporum* CICALA 988 (accession BGC0001125). Therefore, 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes were screened for the *mic* cluster by BLASTP (Altschul *et al.* 1990) analysis with MicA, MicC, MicD and MicE from PCC 7941 used as query sequences (GenBank accession CCI09456–9). Homologues of all *mic* genes were identified in seven additional strains with an average inferred peptide sequence identity of  $\sim 90\%$  compared with the reference sequences. Among these sequences, the PKS-NRPS *micA* and ABC transporter *micE* were the most conserved ( $\geq 90\%$ ; mean =  $\sim 95\%$  ID), whereas the NRPSs *micC* and *micD* were less conserved ( $\geq 64\%$ ; mean =  $\sim 84\%$  ID).

### NRP biosynthesis clusters

The anabaenopeptin (*apn*) biosynthesis gene cluster was identified in three strains (PCC 7005, PCC 9432 and PCC 9701). All identified clusters encoded the full complement of *apn* genes (*apnA*, *apnB*, *apnC*, *apnD*, *apnE*). Sequence conservation was generally high compared with the *Planktothrix agardhii* NIVA-CYA 126/8 reference sequences (MIBiG accession BGC0000301; mean =  $\sim 88\%$  ID). The NRPS genes *apnA* and *apnB* and the ABC-transporter gene *apnE* were particularly well conserved in terms of inferred peptide sequence ( $\geq 92\%$ ; mean =  $\sim 93\%$  ID), whereas the NRPS genes *apnC* and *apnD* were less conserved ( $\geq 76\%$ ; mean =  $\sim 80\%$  ID). As seen in *P. agardhii*, but in contrast with *Anabaena* sp. 90 (Rouhiainen *et al.* 2010), the *M. aeruginosa* *apn* gene clusters only had one copy of *apnA*.

The cyanopeptolin (*mcn*) biosynthesis gene cluster was identified in 19 strains. Only three of these clusters (NaRes975, PCC 7941 and PCC 9808) encoded the full complement of *mcn* genes (*mcnA–G*). However, most of the *mcn* clusters identified (17/19) encoded homologues of *mcnB*, *mcnC*,

*mcnE*, *mcnF* and *mcnG*. Approximately half the *mcn* clusters identified (10/19) encoded the NRPS *mcnA*, whereas only four clusters encoded the halogenase *mcnD*. Interestingly, four of the strains that lacked *mcnA* (CHAOHU 1326, NIES-2481, NIES-2549 and NIES-298) had elongated ( $\sim 2\times$  compared with the reference) *mcnB* genes encoding an additional peptidyl carrier protein domain and an unusual FkbH domain. The inferred peptide sequences of these elongated *mcnB* homologues were poorly conserved (mean =  $\sim 65\%$  ID) compared with the *Microcystis* sp. NIVA-CYA 172/5 reference sequence (MIBiG accession BGC0000332), but highly similar to each other. Sequence conservation among the remaining *mcn* genes was generally high (mean =  $\sim 92\%$  ID).

### Cyanobactin biosynthesis clusters

The microcyclamide (*mca*) biosynthesis gene cluster was identified in eight strains, including the reference strain PCC 7806SL (MIBiG accession BGC0000474). All clusters encoded the full complement of *mca* genes (*mcaA–G*), except TAIHU98, which lacked the subtilisin-like protein *mcaA*. Overall inferred peptide sequence conservation was high compared with the reference cluster (mean =  $\sim 95\%$  ID). However, the sequence of the microcyclamide precursor gene *mcaE* was only moderately conserved (mean =  $\sim 82\%$  ID).

An aeruginosamide (*ageA*, *ageB*, *ageD*, *ageF1*, *ageF2*, *ageG*) biosynthesis gene cluster was identified in only one strain, the reference strain PCC 9432 (MIBiG accession BGC0000483). The *aer* cluster has similar organisation and identity to the microcyclamide (*mca*) cluster, except it also encodes a methyltransferase gene *ageF1*.

Piricyclamide-like biosynthesis gene clusters were identified in 12 strains, including the reference strain PCC 7005 (MIBiG accession BGC0001167). Only one other strain (PCC 9807) encoded the full complement of *pir* genes (*pirA*, *pirB*, *pirC*, *pirE2*, *pirE3*, *pirE4*, *pirF*, *pirG*). All piricyclamide-like biosynthesis clusters contained homologues of the N- and C-terminal cyanobactin protease genes *pirA* and *pirG* and the hypothetical protein *pirB*. Most contained the hypothetical protein *pirC*, the prenyl transferase gene *pirF* and at least one cyanobactin precursor (*pirE2*, *pirE3*, *pirE4*). Overall inferred peptide sequence identity averaged  $\sim 86\%$  compared with the reference cluster from PCC 7005. Sequence conservation was high among *pirA*, *pirB*, *pirG* and *pirE4* genes (mean =  $\sim 94\%$  ID), but lower among *pirC*, *pirF*, *pirE2* and *pirE3* genes (mean =  $\sim 75\%$  ID).

### Microviridin biosynthesis gene clusters

The microviridin (*mdn*) biosynthesis gene cluster was identified in 21 strains, including the reference strain NIES-298 (MIBiG accession BGC0000592). All strains encoded *mdnB*, *mdnC*, *mdnD* and *mdnE*, except PCC 7806SL, which lacked the acetyltransferase gene *mdnD*. Seven strains encoded the microviridin precursor gene *mdnA*. The remaining 14 strains encoded a gene with low inferred peptide sequence homology (mean =  $\sim 51\%$ ) to *mdnA*. This gene was located outside the *mdn* cluster in nine strains. The sequences of *mdnB–E* genes were highly conserved in all clusters (mean =  $\sim 97\%$  ID). Fragments of the *mdn* cluster were also identified in PCC 9806 and TAIHU98.



### Phylogenetic distribution of SM biosynthesis gene clusters

Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic analysis of the concatenated alignment of 91 bacterial core genes grouped the 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes into 25 clades exhibiting a branching pattern broadly concordant with that found in the phylogenetic analysis of 10 strains by (Humbert *et al.* 2013), with generally high local support values (Fig. 4). The number of single gene trees supporting a given branch in the UBCG tree (designated the gene support index, GSI) ranged from 11 to 91, with lower GSI values observed in early branch splits. The 16S rRNA locus was also examined as a candidate single-locus phylogenetic marker, but because there was only a 0.5% sequence variation across aligned positions, this locus was not able to resolve closely related *M. aeruginosa* strains (data not shown).

Representative biosynthesis gene clusters from the four SM classes were detected in each of the major phylogenetic subclades (SC1–4). However, the distribution of individual SM biosynthesis clusters varied across the subclades. For example, all strains from SC1 lacked *mcy*, *age* and *mca* clusters; all strains from SC2 possessed the *aer*, *mcy* and *mcn* clusters, but lacked the *mic*, *apn* and *age* clusters; all strains from SC3 possessed *mcy* and *mdn* clusters, but lacked *apn*, *age* and *mca* clusters; and all strains from SC4 possessed the *aer* cluster (Fig. 4; Table 2).

Phylo.D analysis revealed that the phylogenetic distribution of all PK-NRP biosynthesis clusters, particularly *mcy*, was clumped, the distribution of the *apn* cluster was random and the distribution of the *age* cluster ( $n = 1$ ) was overdispersed. The phylogenetic patterning of the other gene clusters was less marked (Tables 3, 4).

### Geoclimatic distribution of SM biosynthesis gene clusters

The 27 *M. aeruginosa* strains, from six different continents, were allocated to six different Köppen–Geiger climates: 12 to Cfa (humid subtropical), 7 to Dfb (warm-summer humid continental), 4 to Cfb (temperate oceanic), 2 to Cwa (monsoon-influenced humid subtropical), 1 to Aw (tropical wet) and 1 to Cwb (subtropical highland).

Representative gene clusters from the four SM classes were detected in each of the six continental groups, except the South American group ( $n = 1$ ), which lacked the NRP class. However, the distribution of individual SM biosynthesis clusters varied across the geographical groups. For example, the African strains ( $n = 2$ ) both possessed *aer*, *mcy*, *mcn*, *pir* and *mdn* gene clusters, but lacked *mic*, *apn*, *age* and *mca* clusters. The Asian strains ( $n = 15$ ) all lacked *apn* and *age* clusters. The Australian strain ( $n = 1$ ) possessed *aer*, *mcy*, *mcn*, *pir* and *mdn* gene clusters, but lacked *mic*, *apn* and *age* clusters. The European strains ( $n = 3$ ) all possessed *mcn* and *mdn* clusters, but lacked the *age* cluster. When Köppen–Geiger climate zones (with  $n \geq 2$ ) were considered, all strains within the Cfa group ( $n = 12$ ) lacked *apn* and *age* clusters; all strains within the Cfb group ( $n = 5$ ) lacked the *age* cluster, but possessed the *mcn* and *mdn* clusters; and all strains within the Cwa group ( $n = 2$ ) possessed the *aer*, *mcy*, *mcn* and *mdn* clusters, but lacked the *mic*, *apn*, *age* and *mca* clusters (Fig. 4; Table 2).

### Genomic islands

The number of IVOMs (Vernikos and Parkhill 2006) in the 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes ranged from 127 to 246 (mean = 190;

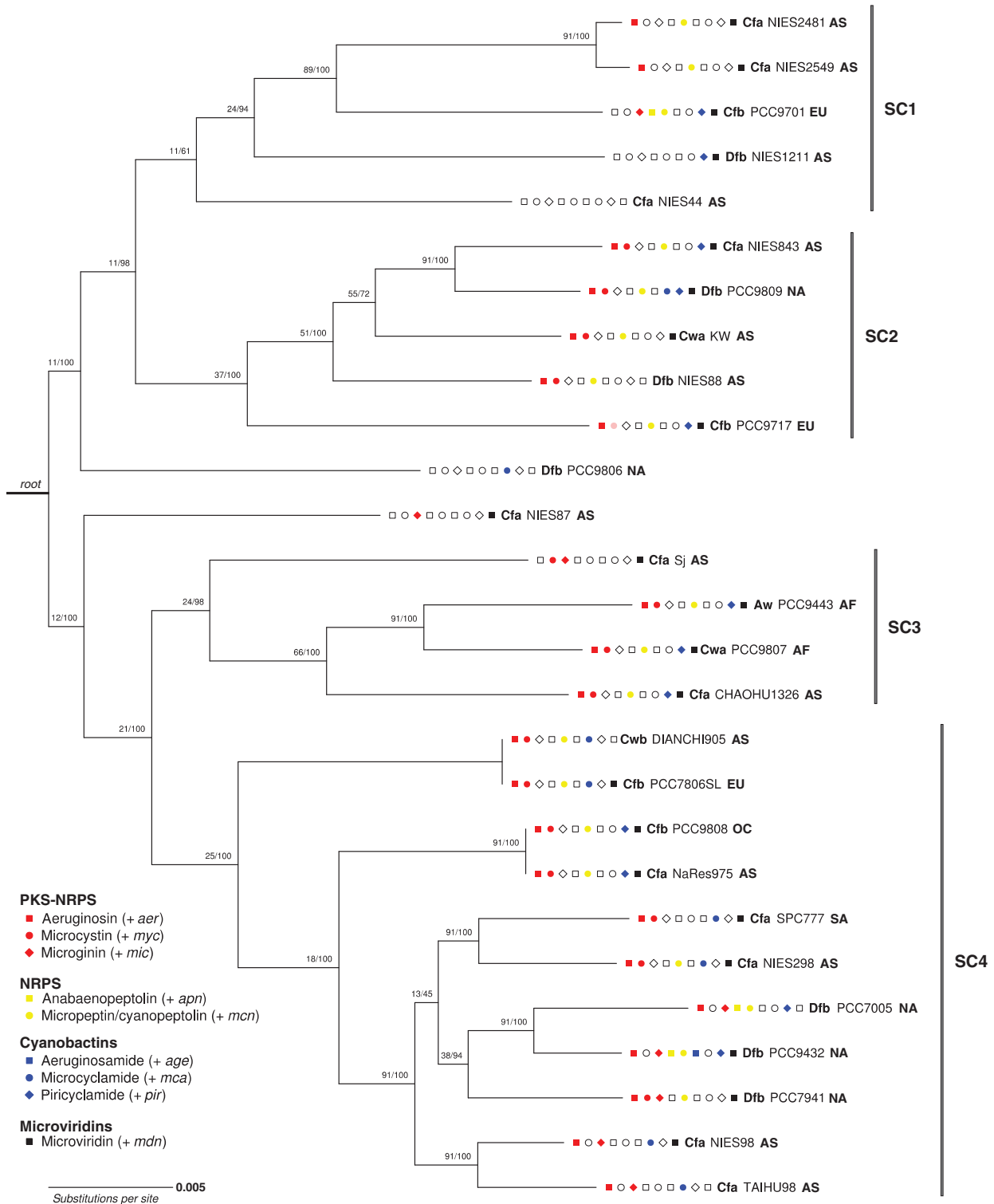
Table 1). A positive correlation between the number of IVOMs and genome size was observed (Fig. 5), but there was no correlation between the number of IVOMs and the number of SM biosynthesis clusters identified (data not shown). Examination of the relative position of SM biosynthesis gene clusters in the four closed *M. aeruginosa* genomes (NIES-2481, NIES-2549, NIES-843 and PCC 7806SL) revealed that the *mcy*, *aer*, *mcn*, *mca* and *pir* gene clusters completely or partially overlap with IVOMs (37–100%; mean = 84.2%). In contrast, the *mdn* cluster did not overlap with IVOMs (Table 5).

### Discussion

Automated genome mining pipelines are powerful tools for identifying SM pathways in microorganisms, particularly when biochemical and genetic data are available for similar pathways in related organisms (Blin *et al.* 2017). In the present study, antiSMASH and BLAST analyses were used to screen 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes for 1481 known SM pathways. Nine known SM biosynthesis gene clusters from four different metabolite classes were identified. However, the only cyanotoxin gene cluster identified within the 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes was the *mcy* cluster, suggesting that the production of non-microcystin cyanotoxins by this taxon is absent or rare. This finding is in contrast with previous reports that the *M. aeruginosa* is also capable of producing anatoxin-a (strains TAC80, TAC87, TAC117 and TAC121; Park *et al.* 1993) and paralytic shellfish poison analogues (Sant’Anna *et al.* 2011).

Although the number of known SM pathways detected in each genome varied, the fact that SM biosynthesis gene clusters comprised on average 2% of the total genome size suggests that the corresponding compounds play an important ecological role in *M. aeruginosa*. The high frequency of aeruginosin, microviridin, cyanopeptolin and microcystin biosynthesis gene clusters further suggests that these compounds are particularly significant to the success of the species. However, the lack or complete absence of SM biosynthesis clusters in some strains (e.g. NIES-44) seems to contradict this. It is likely that the different SM cluster profiles observed in this study correspond to different *M. aeruginosa* ecotypes that have evolved to suit specific niche environments. Previous growth competition studies on toxic *v.* non-toxic *M. aeruginosa* strains support this theory, demonstrating that microcystin production, although not essential for survival, may be advantageous under certain growth conditions, such as nutrient limitation or high light (Kaebemick *et al.* 2000; Kardinaal *et al.* 2007; Zilliges *et al.* 2011).

Although gene sequence identity was generally high between homologous counterparts in each SM gene cluster, the composition of genes in each cluster sometimes varied. Gene identity and composition were particularly well conserved among microcystin, microginin, anabaenopeptin and microcyclamide pathways, suggesting that all *mcy*, *mic*, *apn* and *mca* genes play key roles in the biosynthesis or activity of their corresponding compounds, and major mutations are not tolerated. Previous studies have shown this to be the case. For example, *mcyB*- and *mcyH*-knockout mutants were unable to produce microcystin (Dittmann *et al.* 1997; Pearson *et al.* 2004), whereas *mcyJ*-knockout mutants produced toxin lacking the *O*-methylation on the C<sub>9</sub> hydroxyl unit and had reduced inhibitory activity against



**Fig. 4.** Rooted maximum likelihood up-to-date bacterial core gene (UBCG) tree inferred using the concatenated alignment of 91 bacterial core genes. A total of 84 294 nucleotide positions was used. The number of single gene trees supporting a branch was calculated and designated the gene support index (GSI; *Na et al. 2018*). GSI and percentage local support values are given at branching points as GSI/percentage local support value. Köppen–Geiger climate zones and continents of origin are given in bold: Cfa, humid subtropical; Dfb, warm-summer humid continental; Cfb, temperate oceanic; Cwa, monsoon-influenced humid subtropical; Aw, tropical wet; Cwb, subtropical highland. AS, Asia; EU, Europe; NA, North America; SA, South and Central America; AF, Africa; OC, Oceania. SC1–SC4, marked with vertical bars, delineate the major phylogenetic subclades.

**Table 3. Phylogenetic distribution of secondary metabolite (SM) biosynthesis gene clusters in *Microcystis aeruginosa* strains (with DIANCHI905 excluded)**

Data show *D* values (ordered from lowest to highest) and associated probabilities for random and Brownian phylogenetic patterns (Fritz and Purvis 2010), constrained to avoid tips with zero branch lengths by excluding DIANCHI905 from the analysis. The dummy variables ‘clumped’ and ‘dispersed’ were added to the trait matrix as interpretative aids and 10 000 permutations were run per trait model. *aer*, aeruginosin; *age*, aeruginosamide; *apn*, anabaenopeptin; *mca*, microcyclamide; *mcn*, micropeptin or cyanopeptolin; *mcy*, microcystin; *mdn*, microviridin B; *mic*, microginin; NA, not applicable; NRPS, non-ribosomal peptide synthetase; *pir*, piriyclamide; PKS, polyketide synthase

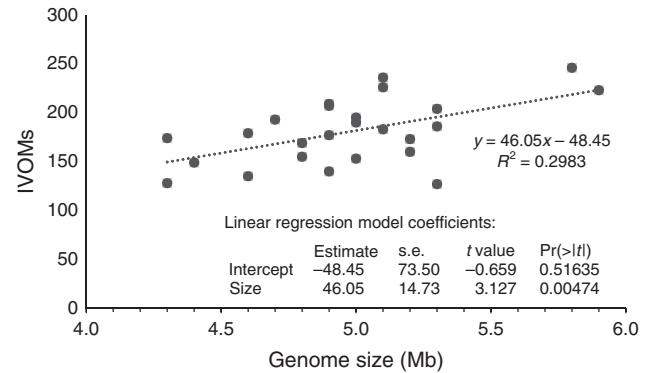
Trait	<i>D</i>	Probability		SM class
		Random	Brownian	
‘Clumped’	−2.78	0	0.997	NA
<i>mcy</i>	−0.89	0.001	0.876	PKS-NRPS
<i>aer</i>	−0.72	0.006	0.8	PKS-NRPS
<i>mic</i>	−0.32	0.013	0.678	PKS-NRPS
<i>mca</i>	−0.11	0.033	0.591	Cyanobactins
<i>mcn</i>	0.04	0.044	0.517	NRPS
<i>mdn</i>	0.43	0.214	0.34	Microviridins
<i>pir</i>	0.61	0.183	0.221	Cyanobactins
<i>apn</i>	1.57	0.679	0.118	NRPS
‘Dispersed’	1.92	0.995	0	NA
<i>age</i>	28.91	0.959	0.026	Cyanobactins

**Table 4. Phylogenetic distribution of secondary metabolite (SM) biosynthesis gene clusters in *Microcystis aeruginosa* strains (with PCC 7806SL excluded)**

Data show *D* values (ordered from lowest to highest) and associated probabilities for random and Brownian phylogenetic patterns (Fritz and Purvis 2010), constrained to avoid tips with zero branch lengths by excluding PCC 7806SL from the analysis. The dummy variables ‘clumped’ and ‘dispersed’ were added to the trait matrix as interpretative aids and 10 000 permutations were run per trait model. *aer*, aeruginosin; *age*, aeruginosamide; *apn*, anabaenopeptin; *mca*, microcyclamide; *mcn*, micropeptin or cyanopeptolin; *mcy*, microcystin; *mdn*, microviridin B; *mic*, microginin; NA, not applicable; NRPS, non-ribosomal peptide synthetase; *pir*, piriyclamide; PKS, polyketide synthase

Trait	<i>D</i>	Probability		SM class
		Random	Brownian	
‘Clumped’	−2.74	0	0.998	NA
<i>mcy</i>	−0.88	0.001	0.87	PKS-NRPS
<i>aer</i>	−0.72	0.006	0.801	PKS-NRPS
<i>mic</i>	−0.34	0.013	0.686	PKS-NRPS
<i>mca</i>	−0.09	0.034	0.58	Cyanobactins
<i>mcn</i>	0.05	0.041	0.508	NRPS
<i>mdn</i>	0.54	0.22	0.277	Microviridins
<i>pir</i>	0.61	0.184	0.228	Cyanobactins
<i>apn</i>	1.59	0.678	0.122	NRPS
‘Dispersed’	1.9	0.997	0	NA
<i>age</i>	42.49	0.959	0.028	Cyanobactins

protein phosphatases (Christiansen *et al.* 2003). Based on these examples, it is anticipated that strain PCC 9717, lacking *mcyD–H*, is unable to synthesise microcystin.

**Fig. 5.** Correlation between interpolated variable order motifs and genome size. IVOM, interpolated variable order motif; Pr(>|t|), *P*-value for the *t*-test.

Interestingly, although microviridin biosynthesis genes were well conserved, homologues of the precursor peptide gene *mdnA* were poorly conserved in terms of sequence conservation and located outside the *mdn* gene cluster in some strains. The distal location of *mdnA*, although recognised previously (Ziemert *et al.* 2010; Humbert *et al.* 2013), is unusual given that most of SM biosynthesis genes are arranged in operons. Sequence variations in *mdnA* have recently been shown to underpin chemical diversity in the microviridin family (Gatte-Picchi *et al.* 2014). Furthermore, the two grasp ligases encoded by *mdnB* and *mdnC* could potentially modify a variety of other leader peptides scattered throughout the genome, as has been observed for the prochlorosin synthetase of *Prochlorococcus* MIT9313, which processes up to 29 different precursor peptides (Zhang *et al.* 2014). The absence of the acetyltransferase gene *mdnD* in PCC 7806SL suggests that novel microviridin variants lacking the *N*-acetylation could also be produced by this strain. Together, these results suggest that several different microviridins are produced by the *M. aeruginosa* group analysed in this study.

The identity and composition of core biosynthesis genes in the aeruginosin biosynthesis cluster was well conserved, but many strains lacked the halogenase gene *aerJ* and the NRPS genes *aerG2* and *aerM*. The loss of *aerJ* suggests that these strains may produce non-chlorinated variants of aeruginosin. A previous study by Cadet-Six *et al.* (2008) has shown this to be the case for numerous *M. aeruginosa* strains, including several analysed in this study. The absence of the additional NRPS genes further suggests that some strains may produce aeruginosin variants with different amino acid backbones.

The composition of genes in the cyanopeptolin and piriyclamide biosynthesis clusters was highly variable, and no consensus gene sets could be established for these pathways. The loss of different genes in different strains suggests that a wide variety of cyanopeptolin- and piriyclamide-like compounds could be produced by *M. aeruginosa*. For example, strains lacking *mcnD* are likely to produce non-chlorinated cyanopeptolins, whereas strains lacking *mcnD* and *mcnG* are likely to produce micropeptins. The fusion of an FkbH domain to *mcnB* was observed in several cyanopeptolin biosynthesis gene clusters. This is interesting because most of the reported FkbH-like proteins are involved in polyketide biosynthesis, with

**Table 5. Relative position of secondary metabolite (SM) biosynthesis gene clusters and interpolated variable order motifs (IVOMs) in closed *Microcystis aeruginosa* genomes**

Coordinates for SM cluster and IVOM start and stop positions are given. Overlap, percentage of cluster that overlaps with IVOM; *aer*, aeruginosin; *mca*, microcyclamide; *mcn*, micropeptin or cyanopeptolin; *mcy*, microcystin; *mdn*, microviridin B; *pir*, piricyclamide

Strain	Name	SM cluster			IVOM		Overlap (%)
		Start	Stop	Size (bp)	Start	Stop	
NIES-2481	<i>aer</i>	1247918	1275060	27 142	1247500	1282500	100
	<i>mcn</i>	2960129	2993016	32 887	2962500	2982500	85
					2985000	2997500	
NIES-2549	<i>mdn</i>	3173815	3179191	5376	–	–	–
	<i>aer</i>	1249049	1276191	27 142	1250000	1282500	96
	<i>mcn</i>	2961825	2994711	32 886	2962500	2977500	76
NIES-843					2980000	2985000	
					2987500	2992500	
	<i>mdn</i>	3170872	3176247	5375	–	–	–
	<i>pir</i>	33841	50072	16 231	27500	40000	85
					42500	52500	
	<i>mdn</i>	2173290	2178736	5446	–	–	–
	<i>mcy</i>	3486435	3541027	54 592	3487500	3500000	78
					3507500	3522500	
					3525000	3540000	
	<i>aer</i>	5194434	5219718	25 284	5195000	5210000	78
					5215000	5227500	
	<i>mcn</i>	5523820	5557378	33 558	5537500	5542500	37
					5547500	5555000	
PCC 7806SL	<i>mdn</i>	791752	796097	4345	–	–	–
	<i>aer</i>	1491657	1518440	26 783	1490000	1507500	91
					1510000	1527500	
	<i>mca</i>	2592117	2604552	12 435	2577500	2617500	100
	<i>mcy</i>	3025167	3079624	54 457	3025000	3080000	100
	<i>mcn</i>	4369561	4402359	32 798	4370000	4377500	84
					4380000	4400000	

cyanopeptolin-1138 biosynthetic machinery as the only example of an FkbH-like protein found in a pure NRPS setting (Auerbach *et al.* 2018). The mosaic structure of these *mcnB* genes suggests that they may be products of horizontal gene transfer (HGT; Rounge *et al.* 2007).

Compositional and sequence diversity among the piricyclamide biosynthesis clusters was not surprising considering the size and complex evolutionary history of the cyanobactin family (Leikoski *et al.* 2013). However, the loss of multiple *pir* genes in some *M. aeruginosa* strains could be a sign of inactive pathways. For example, the absence of all but two piricyclamide genes, namely *pirE3* and *pirG*, in the NIES-44 genome suggests that this strain is unable to produce cyanobactins.

Highly conserved genes within compositionally conserved SM biosynthesis clusters are good candidate targets for molecular diagnostic tests. PCR-based tests targeting core genes within the microcystin, nodularin, cylindrospermopsin and saxitoxin pathways have already proven to be reliable methods for detecting toxic cyanobacteria (Al-Tebrineh *et al.* 2010, 2011; Baker *et al.* 2013). Although mass spectrometry methods are still considered the ‘gold standard’ for detecting cyanotoxins, molecular methods are becoming more widely accepted and are often preferred by water quality managers and researchers because they are quicker, more economical and user friendly and provide evidence for toxicogenic potential. Similar tests could

be designed for the diagnosis of the other potentially harmful SM biosynthesis gene clusters identified in this study, but the choice of target genes may be limited in the case of the less conserved clusters, such as *mcn* and *pir*.

In addition to investigating the composition and conservation of SM biosynthesis gene clusters in *M. aeruginosa*, this study sought to determine whether phylogeny and geography or climate zone were good indicators of SM profiles. Although phylogeny appeared to be correlated with the distribution of certain SM biosynthesis clusters within certain subclades (particularly PK-NRP biosynthesis clusters), these relationships are not strong enough to allow reliable prediction of SM profiles based on phylogenetic markers alone. Similarly, although geo-climatic forces seem to affect SM gene cluster profiles in this group, further studies with larger sample sizes are required to establish the significance of these results.

The complex distribution of SM biosynthesis clusters in cyanobacteria has been mostly attributed to gene loss events, rather than HGT. For example, phylogenetic studies on *mcy*, *aer* and *mcn* gene clusters suggest that these pathways existed in an ancient common ancestor and were lost in subsequent lineages (Rantala *et al.* 2004; Rounge *et al.* 2007). Although the lateral transfer of whole clusters seems unlikely, HGT could explain some of the sequence variations observed in earlier studies and herein.

The 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes analysed in this study contained a large number of IVOMs, suggesting that frequent HGT events occur within this species. Examination of the relative position of SM biosynthesis clusters in the four closed genomes revealed that the *aer*, *mcy*, *mcn*, *mca* and *pir* clusters overlap partially or completely with IVOMs. This suggests that HGT events may have led to the acquisition or recombination of genes within these clusters. These results are in agreement with previous phylogenetic studies that suggest HGT events led to DNA polymorphisms in the *mcy* and *aer* and cyanobactin biosynthesis clusters (Mikalsen *et al.* 2003; Tanabe *et al.* 2004; Ishida *et al.* 2009; Leikoski *et al.* 2009). The occurrence of transposase genes within, and proximal to, SM biosynthesis clusters, including *aer* (present study), *mcy* (Tillett *et al.* 2000), *mcn* (Nishizawa *et al.* 2011), *mca* (Ziemert *et al.* 2008b) and *pir* (Leikoski *et al.* 2013), lends further support to this theory.

Recombination events in cyanobacterial genomes can give rise to diverse SM variants. Knowing which variants are produced by a given strain can be important for both drug discovery and water management purposes because different variants often have different activities and toxicities. For example, non-sulfated variants of saxitoxin are ~10-fold more toxic than disulfated variants (Wiese *et al.* 2010). Similarly, the toxicity of microcystin-RR is approximately 10-fold higher than that of microcystin-LR (Sivonen and Jones 1999). Whole-genome approaches, capable of predicting SM profiles by the analysis of conserved domains within biosynthesis and tailoring enzymes, could foreseeably become routine features of water quality monitoring as rapid sequencing technologies become more accessible.

## Conclusions

Cyanobacterial SMs exhibit a wide range of bioactivities, including the inhibition of eukaryotic protein phosphatases. These activities have the potential to disrupt aquatic ecosystems and affect water quality. This study has revealed the distribution, composition and conservation of 9 different SM biosynthesis gene clusters in 27 *M. aeruginosa* genomes, highlighting the potential chemical diversity inherent within this species. Furthermore, the combined results suggest that multiple factors, including geography and climate, gene loss and HGT, have played a role in shaping the evolution of these pathways. This research has also laid the foundations for future molecular screening tests for predicting SM profiles in uncharacterised, but potentially harmful, *Microcystis* cultures and bloom samples.

## Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

## Declaration of funding

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