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Structural and functional genes,
and highly repetitive sequences commonly used
in the phylogeny and species concept
of the phylum Cyanobacteria

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Structural and functional genes, and highly repetitive sequences commonly used in the phylogeny and species concept of the phylum Cyanobacteria

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ABSTRACT

Cyanobacteria are a lineage of Eubacteria that have long captured the attention of scientists. Approximately 5310 species of cyanobacteria have been hitherto described and new species are continually being found, named and described according to established rules. The correct determination of cyanobacteria strains concerns new biotechnological applications as well as ecological studies. There are many situations where it is crucial to recognise distinct algae species, however methods for doing so vary greatly. The aim of this review is to summarize the state of the art of the main and most recent molecular studies focusing on the phylum Cyanobacteria, with particular attention to the most frequently used gene markers. For a long time, the classification method used for cyanobacteria as well as traditionally described species was mainly based on morphology. Over time, integrative taxonomy, which involves the inclusion of many characters and comprehensive taxa sampling, has become the rule as it provides a better resolution of species relationships. For a better resolution of the phylogenies of the phylum Cyanobacteria, it is usually necessary to focus on different genetic markers: from the most common, like the 16S and 23S rRNA, ITS, *rbcLXS* and *rpoC* genes, to genes not so widely used, such as *hetR*, *psbA*, *tufA*, *gyp* and *cpcBA*. Also, the highly repetitive sequences often used for the symbiotic cyanobacteria represent an important factor in the inference of the phylogenetic relationships.

KEY WORDS

Cyanobacteria,
functional genes,
structural genes,
highly repetitive sequences,
phylogeny.

RÉSUMÉ

Gènes structurels, fonctionnels, et séquences hautement répétitives couramment utilisés pour la phylogénie et concept d'espèces dans le phylum des cyanobactéries.

Les cyanobactéries sont une lignée d'eubactéries qui attirent depuis longtemps l'attention des scientifiques. Environ 5 310 espèces de cyanobactéries ont été décrites jusqu'à présent et de nouvelles espèces sont continuellement découvertes, généralement nommées et décrites d'après des règles précises. La détermination correcte des souches de cyanobactéries a des répercussions sur de nouvelles applications biotechnologiques ainsi que sur des études écologiques. Dans de nombreuses situations, il est crucial de reconnaître des espèces d'algues distinctes, mais les méthodes pour y parvenir varient considérablement. L'objectif de cette revue est de faire le point sur les principales et les plus récentes études moléculaires portant sur le phylum des cyanobactéries, en accordant une attention particulière aux marqueurs génétiques les plus fréquemment utilisés. Pendant longtemps, la méthode de classification utilisée pour les cyanobactéries et les espèces traditionnellement décrites était principalement basée sur la morphologie. Au fil du temps, la taxonomie intégrative, qui implique l'inclusion de nombreux caractères et un échantillonnage complet des taxons, est devenue la règle car elle permet une meilleure résolution des relations entre espèces. Pour une meilleure résolution des phylogénies du phylum des cyanobactéries, il est généralement nécessaire de se concentrer sur différents marqueurs génétiques : des plus courants, comme les gènes ARNr 16S et 23S, ITS, *rbcLXS* et *rpoC*, aux gènes moins utilisés, comme *hetR*, *psbA*, *tufA*, *gyp* et *cpcBA*. De plus, les séquences hautement répétitives souvent utilisées pour les cyanobactéries symbiotiques représentent un facteur important dans la construction des relations phylogénétiques.

MOTS CLÉS
Cyanobacteria,
gènes fonctionnels,
gènes structurels,
séquences hautement
répétitives,
phylogénie.

INTRODUCTION

Cyanobacterial taxonomy has been significantly modified by data from ultrastructural studies, ecological analyses, and, in particular, molecular assisted taxonomy. Indeed, the modern combined approach allows broader recognition and more exact definition of the range of cyanobacterial diversity (Oren 2011). This has led to the concept of “polyphasic approach”, which is the most recognised method for the practical determination and description of cyanobacterial taxa (Casamatta *et al.* 2005; Siegesmund *et al.* 2008). The use of this approach has resulted in the creation and definition of many new genera. Their description was based exclusively on their isolated and separated positions in phylogenetic trees (Komárek 2020). Nowadays, the taxonomy of cyanobacteria, due to the rapid increase of these new genera, is unclear and confused. Hence, the constantly evolving cyanobacterial system needs to be clarified (Turner 1997; Komárek 2020). The most problematic issue in the current taxonomy of cyanobacteria might be the authors' different approaches in describing new species. Most characters used previously for species description were challenged by molecular phylogenies which revealed that they are rarely synapomorphic. Description of species based only on the topology of a phylogenetic tree of strains, without observation of morphological characters precludes comparison with species described on the basis of anatomical features for which molecular data are still lacking (Komárek 2020).

There are three alternative proposals to amend the Rules of the *International Code of Nomenclature of Prokaryotes* (ICNB) to resolve the status of the Cyanobacteria in the prokaryotic nomenclature. Two were earlier published (Oren & Garrity 2014; Pinevich 2015). The third proposal is based on the

International Code of Nomenclature for algae, fungi, and plants (ICN) (Oren 2020). A summary of the status of cyanobacteria taxonomy and the integration between the ICNB and ICN codes can be found in Wilmotte *et al.* 2017. According to Algae Base, till now we have recognized more than 5000 species belonging to the phylum Cyanobacteria, which are classified into more than 290 genera (Guiry & Guiry 2021). The present review focuses on the phylogenetic evolution of Cyanobacteria, their relationships inferred from molecular studies, as well as on the choice of molecular markers commonly used in the reconstruction of evolutionary relationships (Fig. 1).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

PHYLOGENY OF CYANOBACTERIA

Cyanobacteria are referred to as one of the earliest branching bacterial lineages (Pace 2009; Hug *et al.* 2016). A phylogenetic tree has been reconstructed from sequences that are derived from extant species (Valerio *et al.* 2009). For the discovery of phylogenetic relationships among the phylum Cyanobacteria, molecular markers and molecular phylogeny have become powerful tools. Recent research indicates that the phylum Cyanobacteria is related to the nonphotosynthetic groups Sericytochromatia (Soo *et al.* 2017) and Vampirovibrionia (Grettenberger *et al.* 2020), formally Melainobacteria (Di Rienzi *et al.* 2013), and that they share an ancestor. The Silva database, as well as NCBI, recognised the relationship between Melainobacteria and Cyanobacteria and separated them together into still non-defined phyla (Garcia-Pichel *et al.* 2019). Still, molecular phylogeny seems to be necessary for resolving deep-branching relationships within the Cyanobacteria. Cyanobac-

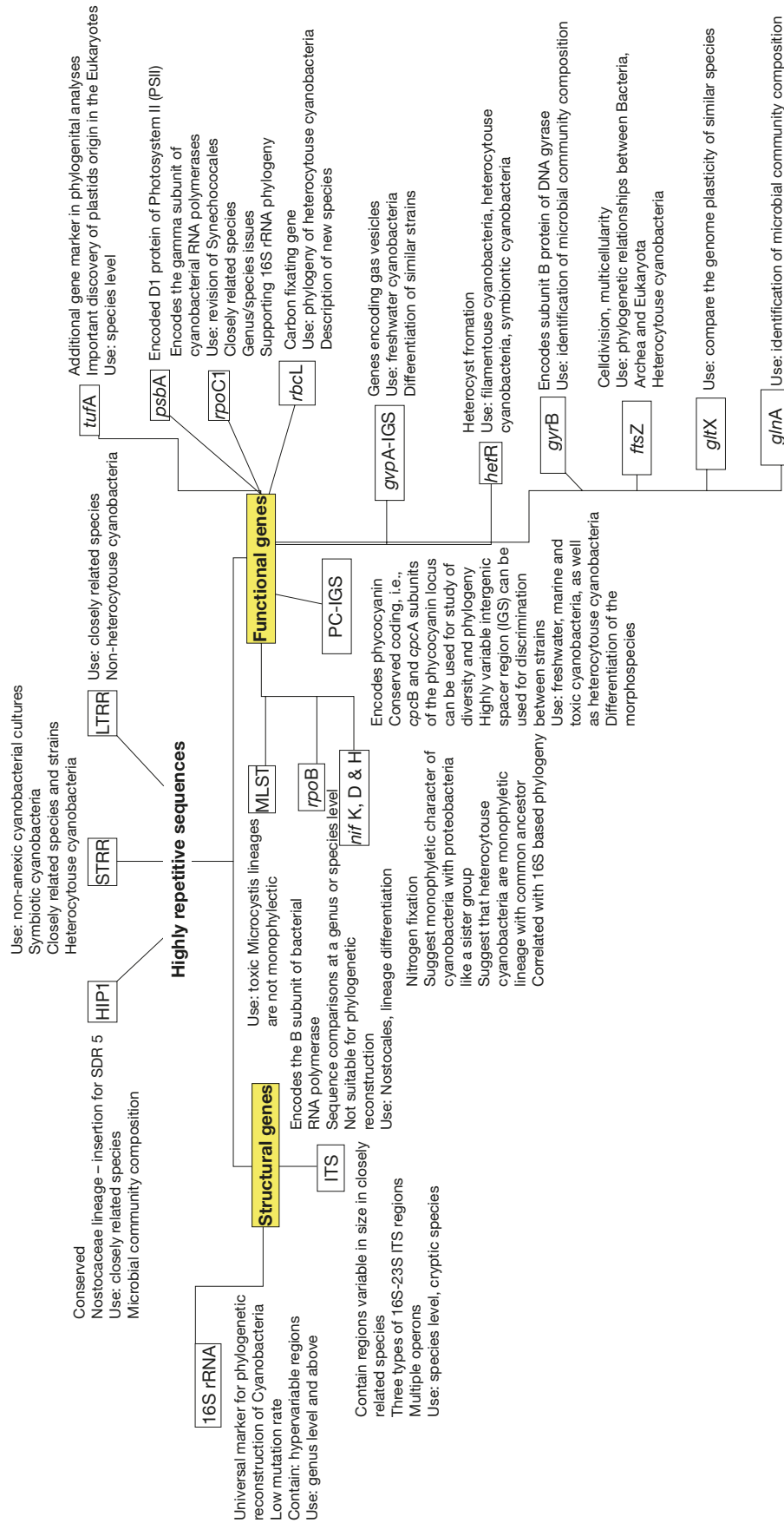


FIG. 1. — A summary of structural and functional genes, and highly repetitive sequences commonly used in the phylogeny of cyanobacteria.

teria as a phylum first evolved in freshwater and colonised benthic and terrestrial habitats during the Proterozoic. It also seems that cyanobacteria evolved from benthic marine environment and some diverged from freshwater ancestors during the Neoproterozoic (1000-542 Mya) (Sánchez-Baracaldo 2015). Within the Cyanobacteria, molecular clock analyses also infer that the marine planktonic cyanobacteria evolved sometime near the end of the Pre-Cambrian (Sánchez-Baracaldo *et al.* 2014). For heterocyte-forming cyanobacteria, these analyses suggested their appearance during the Proterozoic (*c.* 2211-2057 Mya) (Falcón *et al.* 2011).

One of the most widely used phylogenetic trees in the past was the Universal Tree of Life (Forterre 2015). In this tree the length of each branch corresponds quantitatively to the number of base sequence changes that have occurred in that lineage since its divergence from its nearest neighbour. The original definition of the Universal Tree of Life, proposes only vertical evolution through a branching lineage of ancestors and descendants (Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek pers. comm.). The best documented early branch of this tree is the cyanobacterial lineage (Schopf *et al.* 2006). The study based on 16S rRNA sequences also suggested that cyanobacterial species producing baecocytes, heterocytes and true branching filaments are each phylogenetically coherent (Tomitani *et al.* 2006). On the other hand, acquisition of suitable 16S rRNA cyanobacterial sequences is limited by the ability of cyanobacterial strains to grow in culture, which is a prerequisite allowing DNA isolation from unique cyanobacterial taxa. Nevertheless, scepticism over resolving the branching of large clusters by sequencing of 16S rRNA has arisen (Casamatta *et al.* 2005).

It was suggested that, on this basis, all branches diverged within a very short interval of evolutionary distance (Giovannoni *et al.* 1988). Later, authors hypothesised that this topology may reflect the evolutionary development of oxygenic photosynthesis, which allowed an explosive radiation of cyanobacteria in a short time span. No clearly resolved relationships among the clusters may be explained by this rapid radiation or by recombination within 16S rRNA (Yap *et al.* 1999; Boucher *et al.* 2004; Miller *et al.* 2005; Morandi *et al.* 2005).

Therefore, by this approach, reconstruction of the phylogeny of cyanobacteria using only 16S rRNA is very difficult. However, the relationships within the largest monophyletic groups (e.g. heterocyte-forming cyanobacteria) can be potentially misinterpreted by a lot of scattered sequences from databases. Their unstable place in the tree can be caused by their relatively large evolutionary distances from the other investigated cyanobacteria and their consecutive attraction to unrelated sequences (“long branches attraction”). This could be linked to the fact that these false similarities commonly arise between different groups without real phylogenetic affinities, by chance (Korelusová 2008; Baldev *et al.* 2015). In fact, despite three to four billion years of evolution, the phylogenetic information content of 16S rRNA is limited. Consequently, this marker allows only a spot check of the evolutionary history of microorganisms. This is often indicated by locally different

topologies of trees based on different markers, data sets, or the application of different phylogenetic approaches. Other issues, such as uneven G + C content distribution, differing transition-transversion ratios, correlated positions, and the chimera problem with environmental sequences, should be thoroughly investigated in the future.

The absence of organisms at intermediate levels of relatedness prevents researchers from inferring which identities are real and which have occurred accidentally. The unrelated sequences, casually grouped, cause the occurrence of distinctively lower bootstrap values all over the phylogenetic tree. Still, based on the 16S rRNA phylogenetic tree, it is possible to hypothesize that filamentous morphology has a polyphyletic origins within the cyanobacteria and the heterocyte and akinetes forming taxa have a monophyletic origin (Tomitani *et al.* 2006).

Phylogenetic reconstruction based on different molecular markers is also possible, but the number of these sequences is subsequently lower. In the Table 1, we present 16 molecular markers used for reconstruction of phylogenetic relationships within the Cyanobacteria, with the most common primers for them.

Based on multi-gene analyses of four different markers such as 16S rRNA, *hetR*, *nifH* and *rpoC1*, the monophyly of Synchococcales, Chroococcales, Oscillatoriales (excluding the *Phormidium*-like lineage) and the Nostocales (including the *Phormidium*-like lineage) were suggested (Thomazeau *et al.* 2010). For nitrogen fixing species of cyanobacteria, phylogenies reconstructed by using *nifH* and *nifD* genes show differently supported branches within the cyanobacterial phylogenetic tree. Contrary to *nifH* and *nifD* gene markers, heterocyte-forming genera form a monophyletic lineage (Henson *et al.* 2004).

The use of several genes with a presumed vertical evolution (Komárek *et al.* 2014) leads to a possible bias towards well established patterns, which could omit the large number of genes needed for evolutionary success. This selective approach could lead to misunderstanding of phylogenetic relationships, as well as a wrong interpretation of the evolutionary history of the phylum Cyanobacteria. The phylogenetic trees of cyanobacteria obtained from conservative core genes (e.g. *rpoC1*, *rbcL* and *tufA*) with relatively slow evolutionary rates (like the 16S rRNA), are typologically similar to trees based on 16S rRNA genes (Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek pers. comm.). When compared to multilocus analyses based on whole genomes of cyanobacteria, the use of 16S based trees is a better solution at the genera rank (Mareš 2018). Also, the first attempt to use a multilocus analysis for cyanobacterial taxonomy by Komárek *et al.* 2014 have shown that some cyanobacterial orders are polyphyletic and have led to the description of some new orders and families. In the multilocus based tree, the mixed group of filamentous and unicellular species is evident. This supports the hypothesis that multicellularity represents a trait which had multiple sequential origins or the trait was lost during the long evolution of the cyanobacteria (Schirmeister *et al.* 2013; Dvořák *et al.* 2014b). The analyses of these trees also showed us that both the botanical and bacterial codes used for cyanobacteria are not sufficient for their taxonomy and must be changed

TABLE 1. — Target genes and oligonucleotide primers used in phylogeny of cyanobacteria.

Target gene/ sequence	Type of gene	Sequence 5' 3'	Reference
<i>rpoB</i>	Functional: the <i>rpoB</i> gene encodes the β subunit of bacterial RNA polymerase	F GTAGTTGTARCCNTCCCA R RCMGCMGACGAAGAAGACG	Rajaniemi <i>et al.</i> 2005
16S rRNA	Structural: the 16S rRNA gene (small subunit of the ribosome) is the most conserved DNA in all cells. It has a universal distribution in prokaryotes	27F1 5'-AGAGTTTGTATCCTGGCTCAG (8-27) (30-52) 23S30Ra 5'-CTTCGCCTCTGTGTGCCTAGGT	Neilan <i>et al.</i> 1997 Lepère <i>et al.</i> 2000
<i>nifD</i>	Functional: nitrogenase is an $\alpha_2\beta_2$ tetramer encoded by <i>nifK</i> (β subunits) and <i>nifD</i> (α subunits), while the reductase is a α_2 dimer encoded by <i>nifH</i>	<i>nifD</i> 552-F (5'-TCCGKGGKGTDTCTCAGTC-3') <i>nifD</i> 861-R (5'-CGRCWGATRTAGTTCAT-3')	Roeselers <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>nifH</i>		2F (5'-CGTAGGTTGCGACCCCTAAGGCTGA-3') 2R (5'-GCATACATCGCCATCATTTCACC-3')	Gaby & Buckley 2012
<i>rpoC1</i>	Functional: encodes the gamma subunit of cyanobacterial RNA polymerases and is homologous to the chloroplast RNA polymerase C1 subunit	Rcf (5'-TGGGGHGAAGNACAYTNCCTAA-3') Rcr (5'-GCAAANCGTCCNCCATCYAAYTGBA-3')	Rantala <i>et al.</i> 2004
PC-IGS	Functional: the gene encoding of the major light-harvesting accessory pigment proteins, particularly the phycocyanin operon (<i>cpc</i>), including the intergenic spacer (IGS) between two phycobilisome (bilin) subunits <i>cpcB</i> and <i>cpcA</i> and the corresponding flanking regions (<i>cpcBA</i> -IGS), have also been targeted for phylogenetic studies of cyanobacteria	<i>cpcB</i> (5'-GGCTGCTTGTTTACGCGACA-3') <i>cpcA</i> (5'-CCAGTACCACCAGCAACTAA-3')	Neilan <i>et al.</i> 1995
16S-23S ITS	Structural: this region is another useful marker in the taxonomy of cyanobacteria. It is an internally transcribed spacer between genes for small (16S) and large (23S) ribosomal subunits	16SF (5'TGTACACACCGGCCCGTC3') 23SR (5'-CTCTGTGCCTAGGTATCC-3')	Iteman <i>et al.</i> 2000
<i>rbcl</i>	Functional: this gene is encoding large subunit D-ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase-oxygenase	F (5'-GACTTCACCAAAGAYGACGAAAACAT-3') R (5'-GAACTCGAACTTRATYCTTTCCA-3')	Fewer <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>tufA</i>	Functional: the <i>tufA</i> gene which encodes the elongation factor Tu has a central role in protein synthesis	F (5'-CACGTDGAYTYCCNGGNCACGCTG-3') R (5'-ATNCGRTCNCDDGGCATAACCATTTC-3')	Fewer <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>psbA</i>	Functional: the D1 protein of Photosystem II (PSII), encoded by the <i>psbA</i> genes, is an indispensable component of oxygenic photosynthesis	<i>psbA</i> 86F (5'-TTTATGTGGGTTGGTTCCG-3') <i>psbA</i> 980R4 (5'-TGAGCATTACGCTCGTGC-3')	Junier <i>et al.</i> 2007
ERIC1A	Highly repetitive genes: they are located in extragenic regions and can be transcribed and their distribution in eubacteria has revealed their application to fingerprinting of bacterial genomes	(5'-ATGTAAGCTCCTGGGGATTAC-3')	De Bruijn 1992
ERIC1B		(5'-AAGTAAGTGACTGGGGTGAGCG-3')	De Bruijn 1992
STRR1a	Highly repetitive genes: these sequences consist of three different simple tandem heptanucleotide sequence repeats	(5'-CCARTCCCCARTCCCC-3')	Rasmussen & Svenning 1998
HIP-TG	Highly repetitive genes: the palindrome that was being explored was an octameric (8-nucleotides long) palindrome known as a highly iterated palindrome 1 (HIP1) and have been considered as the most accepted tool for assessing microbial diversity	(5'-GCGATCGCTG-3')	Smith <i>et al.</i> 1998
HIP-GC		(5'-GCGATCGCGC-3')	Smith <i>et al.</i> 1998
HIP-CA		(5'-GCGATCGCCA-3')	Smith <i>et al.</i> 1998

(Mareš 2018). According to (Mareš 2018), the orders Gloeobacterales, Spirulinales, Chroococcidiopsidales, and Nostocales represent probably monophyletic lineages. Pleurocapsales and Chroococcales represent intermixed but relatively compact lineages, which need to be taxonomically solved in the future.

Synechococcales and Oscillatoriales seem to be exclusively polyphyletic and need to be revised. The main issue with this taxonomic approach is a lack of whole genomic data, and reference strains and sequences are required for future analyses (Mareš 2018).

Whole genome phylogeny of cyanobacteria

Until quite recently, the most available genome data from Cyanobacteria belonged to marine unicellular taxa (*Synechococcus* Nägeli and *Prochlorococcus* Chisholm *et al.*) (Sánchez-Baracaldo & Cardona 2020). The increase in sequencing of cyanobacterial genomes from different environments like soil (Churro *et al.* 2020), freshwater (Tanabe *et al.* 2018; Teikari *et al.* 2019; Boden *et al.* 2021) and different extreme environments (Stucken *et al.* 2013; Urrejola *et al.* 2019), help to resolve deep-branching relationships within the phylum Cyanobacteria (Schirrmeister *et al.* 2015). The size of the cyanobacterial genomes directly correlates with their habitat adaptation (Prabha *et al.* 2016). Recent studies show that the size of the genomes of terrestrial and freshwater strains is larger than marine ones (Chen *et al.* 2021). In fact, we can assume that species that colonise rapidly changing environments, often with harsh conditions and unstable environment, have larger genomes (Bentkowski *et al.* 2017; Chen *et al.* 2021).

The main problem with the analysis of whole genomes lies in the fact that the genome database is still considerably smaller in term of taxa sampling than the 16S rRNA database (Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek pers. comm.). While the phylogeny of Cyanobacteria based on 16S rRNA or core genes shows a similar topology based on their similar slow evolutionary rate (Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek pers. comm.), where the genus *Gloeobacter* Rippka, Waterbury & Cohen-Bazire and thermophilic *Synechococcus* species often represent the group as the most primitive cyanobacteria (Mareš *et al.* 2013). Another hypothesis presented phylogenomic tree based on the whole genome (at least 1000 genes), where the species from *Prochlorococcus*, marine *Synechococcus* and *Cyanobium* Rippka & Cohen-Bazire form a separate clade (Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek pers. comm.). Outgroups in the trees are related to other eubacteria, so it does not affect the clustering within Cyanobacteria (Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek pers. comm.; Strunecký *et al.* 2022).

Recently, Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek, proposed ten new orders and fifteen new families based on 120 concatenated genes. Moreover, they found that phylogenetic evidence supports merging several intermixed groups, such as the orders Chroococcales and Pleurocapsales, or several families of heterocytous cyanobacteria fused into Scytonemataceae, Hapalosiphonaceae, Tolypotrichaceae, and Aphanizomenonaceae. Moreover, besides Cyanophyceae, another class, Vampirotvibrionophyceae is proposed to belong to the Cyanophyta phylum.

As mentioned above, they introduced 10 orders: Aegeococcales with new family Aegeococcaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš; Acaryochloridales with families Acaryochloridaceae J.Komárek, J.Kaštovský, J.Mareš & J.R.Johansen and Thermosynechococaceae J.Strunecký & J.R.Johansen; Prochlorotrichales with family Prochlorotrichaceae Burger-Wiersma L.J.Stal & L.R.Mur; Nodosilineales with families Nodosilineaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš, Cymatolegaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš and Persinematataceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš; Oculatellales with family Oculatellaceae T.Mai & J.R.Johansen; Leptolyngbyales with families Leptolyngbyaceae J.Komárek, J.Kaštovský, J.Mareš &

J.R.Johansen, Trichocoleusaceae T.Mai & J.R.Johansen and Neosynechococaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš; Geitlerinematatales with family Geitlerinematataceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš; Desertifilales O.Strunecký & J.Mareš with family Desertifilaceae P.Hašler, D.Casamatta, P.Dvořák & A.Pouličková; Coleofasciculales O.Strunecký & J.Mareš with families Coleofasciculaceae J.Komárek, J.Kaštovský, J.Mareš & J.R.Johansen and Wilmottiaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš; and Gomontieliales O.Strunecký & J.Mareš with families Gomontieliaceae A.Aelenkin ex L.Geitler, Chamaesiphonaceae M.Borzi, Cyanothecaceae J.Komárek, J.Kaštovský, J.Mareš & J.R.Johansen and Konicacronemataceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš. In existing orders they described new families Anthocerotibacteraceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš in Gloeobacterales; Thalassoporaaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš in Pseudanabaenales; Aerosakkonematataceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš in Oscillatoriales; Lusitaniellaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš in Spirulinales; and Halothecaceae O.Strunecký & J.Mareš in Chroococcales.

Based on the study of the genomes, we could predict, that within the Oxyphotobacteria, the first diverse are the Gloeobacterales, closely followed by the early branching Synechococcales with Gloeomargaritales branching in a successive pattern (Chen *et al.* 2021). The PSC clade (marine species *Prochlorococcus* spp., marine *Synechococcus* species and species from the genus *Cyanobium*), which contained species from marine picocyanobacteria, formed a separate clade from other cyanobacterial lineages. Studies suggest that the phylogenetic position of the PSC clade is due to historical separation (Dvořák *et al.* 2014b). Species from these clades also contained noticeably smaller genomes compared to other cyanobacteria, caused by reduced rates of mutation and specialisation in genomes due to high selection pressure in the environment (Strunecký, Wachtlova and Koblizek pers. comm.). If focused on selected groups, such as *Leptolyngbya* Anagnostidis & Komárek, *Oscillatoria* Vaucher ex Gomont, *Synechococcus*, the phylogenetic trees constructed based on whole genome sequencing as well as multigene analyses suggested some changes in the position of traditionally described species (Walter *et al.* 2017).

The positions of major cyanobacterial taxonomical groups deduced from phylogenomic analyses correspond with their phylogenetic positions based on 16S rRNA, except for selected genera, which seem to be polyphyletic. Also, the use of multigene analyses seems to be insufficient for distinguishing very closely related species (Mareš 2018). The increase of metagenomic and whole genome sequencing of cyanobacteria brings new data, which can enlighten the cyanobacterial taxonomy in the future. Nevertheless, known genomes usually represent one of the 100 genera, with more represented taxa from *Nostoc* Vaucher ex Bornet & Flahault, *Leptolyngbya*, *Prochlorococcus*, *Synechococcus*, *Planktothrix* Anagnostidis & Komárek, *Microcystis* Lemmermann and *Calothrix* Bornet & Flahault (Dextro *et al.* 2021).

Horizontal gene transfer and its significance in molecular phylogeny

Horizontal gene transfer (HTG), potentially followed by recombination with or replacement of resident homologs,

represents an important factor in the phylogeny of prokaryotic organisms such as cyanobacteria and shapes their evolutionary history (Koonin *et al.* 2001). For example, studies of atypical nucleotides in individual cyanobacteria genomes indicate that cyanobacteria acquired between 9.5-16.6% of their genes through HGT (Nakamura *et al.* 2004) and *c.* 50% of extended gene families putatively have a history of HGT (Zhaxybayeva *et al.* 2006).

Primarily, HGT is accomplished with plasmid transposons, as well as other mobile elements and viruses (Avni & Snir 2020). For cyanobacteria, the main vectors in gene transfer are cyanophages (Sabeji *et al.* 2012; Shestakov & Karbysheva 2015; Nowruzi & Blanco 2019). They can move genes (for example, photosynthesis-related genes), which play an important role in cyanobacterial adaptation and survival (Kloub *et al.* 2021). Also, the integration of cyanobacterial genes in cyanophages suggests that the gene transfer occurred in both directions (Papini, Falsini and Karssa pers. comm.). According to a genomic study (Kang *et al.* 2014), the cyanobacterial genome can be divided into two sets of genes: 1) “stable core genes”, which have a common evolutionary history and are usually not transferred too much; and 2) “variable shell”, which contains genes that are not common for every strain of cyanobacteria, and are present in no or various numbers of copies in the genome. These are often targeted by horizontal gene transfer or homology recombination (Shi & Falkowski 2008). The genes suitable for transfer can be divided into four categories, as genes responsible for: 1) information, storage and processing; 2) cellular processes and signalling; 3) metabolism; and 4) poorly characterised genes (Zhaxybayeva *et al.* 2006). Horizontal transfer usually occurs between housekeeping genes such as 16S, *ftsZ*, *gltX* and *recA* (Thompson *et al.* 2009; Hoffmann *et al.* 2012; Meyer *et al.* 2017).

The transfer of core genes, which are involved in transcription, translation and related processes and are rarely horizontally transferred, has a greater impact on phylogenetic relationships (Woese 2004). Also, multigene transfer can occur among cyanobacteria and fungi (Szöllösi *et al.* 2015).

Nowadays, HGT seems to be a major factor in species delimitation in cyanobacteria (Papini, Falsini and Karssa pers. comm.) and plays a key role in the selection pressure leading to cyanobacterial diversification (Willis & Woodhouse 2020). Shestakov & Karbysheva 2015 discovered that coevolution of the cyanobacterial genome and cyanophages, as well as a strict cyanophage-host relationship, could have a significant impact on cyanobacterial species delimitation. This could be due to some cyanophages’ affinity for specific strains of cyanobacteria. In fact, HGT occurs in the same environment within the species with higher phylogenetic affinity (Dvořák *et al.* 2018). The species could then evolve in two ways. If the frequency of homologue recombination (HR) is higher than the mutation rate, this species will evolve in a similar mode to that due to sexual exchange of genetic material. If the frequency of HR is lower than the mutation rate, the population will remain clonal (Fraser *et al.* 2007). The evidence for the impact of HGT on prokaryotic evolution is significant. It was suggested that between Bacteria and

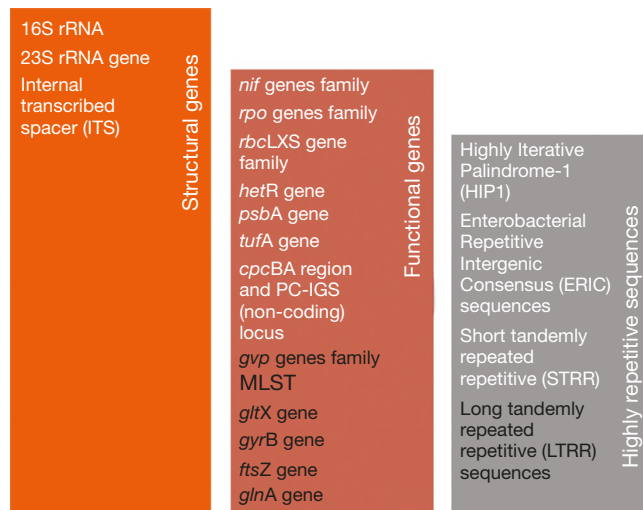


FIG. 2. — Phylogeny of common or less studied genetic markers. According to the literature review, less common studied genetic marker has been highlighted.

Archaea there exists the HGT barrier, which is responsible for the rare transfer of genes between these organisms (Avni & Snir 2020). On the other hand, it was also discovered, that HGT between two strains of bacteria is the most common type of gene transfer. With the discovery that 16S rRNA and other “housekeeping” core genes are also capable, though in limited ways, of being transferred by HGT, their use for proper phylogenetic reconstruction may be questioned.

STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL GENES

A structural gene codes for ribosomal or transfer RNA or for proteins (such as enzymes) other than a regulatory factors. Functional genes are involved in transcription, translation, regulation of gene expression, and protein-protein interactions, as opposed to the static aspects of genomic information, such as DNA sequences or structures. The best use of these genes in phylogenetics is shown in Table 2 and Figure 2.

16S rRNA and 23S rRNA gene

Phylogenetic analyses are used to estimate the evolutionary relationships among organisms, and the phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene has revealed close relationships among cyanobacteria, and it has a central role in inferring phylogenetic relationships and in the identification of bacteria (Edwards *et al.* 1989; Lepère *et al.* 2000; Vaz *et al.* 2015; Jahodářová *et al.* 2018). The 23S rRNA gene is longer than the 16S rRNA gene and, consequently, it contains more informative sites and leads to better resolution, but the sequence database of the 23S rRNA gene is smaller in comparison to the 16S rRNA gene (Turner 1997; Garrity *et al.* 2005). The 16S rRNA gene is the most used for cyanobacterial phylogeny. This marker is universal in prokaryotes and eukaryotes, is stable, contains nine informative variable regions, and the occurrence of these sequences in the databases is relatively large (Johansen *et al.* 2017a; Johnson *et al.* 2019).

The nature of this sequence, with a mosaic of highly conserved regions interspersed with variable and hypervariable

TABLE 2. — Application of structural and functional genes in taxonomy and molecular phylogeny.

Genes	Taxa	References
Structural genes		
16S rRNA	Confirmation monophyletic in the orders of Nostocales and Pleurocapsales and polyphyletic in the order of Chroococcales, Oscillatoriales, and Stigonematales <i>Calothrix</i> <i>Calothrix</i> , <i>Gloeotrichia</i> and <i>Tolypothrix</i> <i>Anabaena</i> , <i>Aphanizomenon</i> , <i>Oscillatoria</i> and picocyanobacterial genera such as <i>Synechococcus</i> and <i>Synechocystis</i> <i>Planktothrix agardhii</i> , <i>Nodularia</i> and <i>Microcystis</i> <i>Azolla</i> and <i>Anabaena</i> <i>Scytonema hyalinum</i> Strain <i>Anabaena</i> sp. PCC 7120 Discrimination of a variety of cyanobacteria by means of DGGE analysis <i>Leptolyngbya corticola</i> <i>Prochlorococcus</i> and <i>Synechococcus</i> <i>Roholtiella</i> <i>Microcoleus vaginatus</i> <i>Oxynema aestuarii</i> <i>Dapisostemon</i> and <i>Streptostemon</i> <i>Mojavia pulchra</i> and <i>Trichocoleus desertorum</i> <i>Ancylothrix</i> as a new genus of <i>Phormidiaceae</i> <i>Cephalothrix komarekiana</i> and <i>Cephalothrix lacustris</i> Pleurocapsales <i>Hyella patelloides</i> LEGE 07179 <i>Oculatella</i> Revise the genus <i>Geitlerinema</i> and a description of the genus <i>Anagnostidinema</i> (Oscillatoriothycidae, Cyanobacteria) <i>Nostoc commune</i> and <i>Nostoc punctiforme</i> <i>Pantalaninema</i> and <i>Alkalinema</i> <i>Mastigoteuthis psychrophila</i> <i>Phyllonema</i> (Rivulariaceae, Cyanobacteria) <i>Elainella</i> <i>Brasilonema geniculatum</i> and <i>Calothrix dumus</i> <i>Roholtiella fluviatilis</i> , <i>Roholtiella bashkiriorum</i> , <i>R. fluviatilis</i> and <i>R. bashkiriorum</i> <i>Kyrtuthrix</i> <i>Desmonostoc danxiaense</i> (Nostocales, Cyanobacteria) <i>Nunduva</i> <i>Rivularia halophila</i> (Nostocales, Cyanobacteria)	Wanigatunge <i>et al.</i> 2014 Sihvonen <i>et al.</i> 2007 Johansen <i>et al.</i> 2017b Lyra <i>et al.</i> 2001; Wilmotte & Herdman 2001; Gugger <i>et al.</i> 2002; Suda <i>et al.</i> 2002 Otsuka <i>et al.</i> 2000; Lyra <i>et al.</i> 2001; Humbert <i>et al.</i> 2013 Svenning <i>et al.</i> 2005 Johansen <i>et al.</i> 2017b Katoh <i>et al.</i> 2003 Janse <i>et al.</i> 2003 Johansen <i>et al.</i> 2011 Rocap <i>et al.</i> 2002 Bohunická <i>et al.</i> 2015 Boyer <i>et al.</i> 2002 Mahansaria <i>et al.</i> 2018 Hentschke <i>et al.</i> 2016 Řeháková <i>et al.</i> 2007; Muhlsteinova <i>et al.</i> 2014 Martins <i>et al.</i> 2016 León-Tejera <i>et al.</i> 2016 Brito <i>et al.</i> 2017 Osorio-Santos <i>et al.</i> 2014 Strunecký <i>et al.</i> 2016 Řeháková <i>et al.</i> 2007 Vaz <i>et al.</i> 2015 Berrendero Gómez <i>et al.</i> 2016 González-Resendiz <i>et al.</i> 2018 Jahodářová <i>et al.</i> 2018 Villanueva <i>et al.</i> 2019 Bohunická <i>et al.</i> 2015 León-Tejera <i>et al.</i> 2016 Cai <i>et al.</i> 2018 González-Resendiz <i>et al.</i> 2018 Shalygin <i>et al.</i> 2018
ITS		
Functional genes		
<i>nif</i> K, D and H	<i>Plectonema boryanum</i> and <i>Anabaena torulosa</i> <i>Anabaena</i> , <i>Aphanizomenon</i> and <i>Nostoc</i> <i>Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii</i> <i>Trichodesmium thiebautii</i> <i>Anabaena</i> , <i>Aphanizomenon</i> and <i>Nostoc</i> <i>Nostoc</i> and <i>Anabaena</i> <i>Gloeotheca</i> sp., <i>Calothrix</i> sp. and <i>Anabaena</i> sp. <i>Azolla</i> and <i>Anthoceros</i>	Apte & Thomas 1987 Gaby & Buckley 2012 Dyble <i>et al.</i> 2002 Zehr <i>et al.</i> 2008 Galhano <i>et al.</i> 2011 Henson <i>et al.</i> 2004 Kallas <i>et al.</i> 1983 Meeks <i>et al.</i> 1988
<i>hetR</i>	<i>Anabaena</i> , <i>Aphanizomenon</i> , and <i>Nostoc</i>	Galhano <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>tufA</i>	<i>Synechococcus</i>	Honda <i>et al.</i> 1999
PC-IGS region	<i>Nodularia spumigena</i> , <i>Anabaena circinalis</i> and <i>Microcystis aeruginosa</i> <i>Nodularia</i> <i>Arthrospira</i> <i>Geitlerinema</i> and <i>Microcystis</i> <i>Nodularia</i> <i>Synechococcus</i> <i>Arthrospira</i> Oscillatoriales <i>N. spumigena</i> <i>Nodularia</i> <i>Arthrospira</i>	Miller & McMahon 2011 Bolch <i>et al.</i> 1999 Lyra <i>et al.</i> 2001 Piccin-Santos <i>et al.</i> 2014 Barker <i>et al.</i> 2000 Robertson <i>et al.</i> 2001 Kumar <i>et al.</i> 2017 Premanandh <i>et al.</i> 2006 Barker <i>et al.</i> 1999 Barker <i>et al.</i> 2000 Miklaszewska <i>et al.</i> 2012
<i>gvpA</i> -IGS	<i>N. spumigena</i> <i>Nodularia</i> <i>Arthrospira</i>	Gugger <i>et al.</i> 2002 Rajaniemi <i>et al.</i> 2005 Katrianna <i>et al.</i> 2008
<i>rbcL</i>	<i>Aphanizomenon</i> <i>Anabaena</i> , <i>Aphanizomenon</i> , <i>Nostoc</i> and <i>Trichormus</i> <i>Anabaena</i>	

TABLE 2. — Continuation.

Genes	Taxa	References
<i>rpoC1</i>	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. PCC 7120 <i>Cylindrospermum raciborskii</i> <i>C. raciborskii</i>	Bergsland & Haselkorn 1991 Wilson <i>et al.</i> 2000 Morozova <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>rpoB</i>	<i>Anabaena/Aphanizomenon</i>	Rajaniemi <i>et al.</i> 2005
<i>psbA</i>	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. <i>Cylindrospermopsis</i> and <i>Raphidiopsis</i>	Garczarek <i>et al.</i> 2008 Wu <i>et al.</i> 2011
MLST	<i>M. aeruginosa</i>	Tanabe <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>gltX</i>	<i>Gloeobacter violaceus</i> GluRS <i>Microcystis</i> cf. <i>aeruginosa</i> CV01 <i>M. aeruginosa</i>	Luque <i>et al.</i> 2008 El Alaoui <i>et al.</i> 2003 Humbert <i>et al.</i> 2013
<i>gyrB</i>	<i>Phormidium</i>	Sciuto <i>et al.</i> 2012
<i>ftsZ</i>	Archaea, Bacteria and Eukaryota	Demchuk & Blum 2005
<i>glnA</i>	<i>Prochlorococcus</i> <i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i>	El Alaoui <i>et al.</i> 2003 Sanangelantoni <i>et al.</i> 1990
Highly repetitive genes		
HIP1	<i>Synechococcus</i> PCC 6301	Gupta <i>et al.</i> 1993
STRR	<i>Calothrix</i> and <i>Microcystis</i> <i>Azolla</i> <i>Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii</i> <i>Gunnera</i> and <i>Azolla</i> <i>Nostoc</i> and <i>Anabaena</i> <i>Westiellopsis</i> <i>C. raciborskii</i>	Mazel <i>et al.</i> 1990; Asayama <i>et al.</i> 1996 Zheng <i>et al.</i> 1999 Wilson <i>et al.</i> 2000 Bergman <i>et al.</i> 2008 Shukla <i>et al.</i> 2013 Selvakumar & Gopalaswamy 2008 Chonudomkul <i>et al.</i> 2004
LTRR	<i>Anabaena</i> strain PCC7120 <i>Anabaena</i> <i>Anabaena</i>	Masepohl <i>et al.</i> 1996 Prasanna <i>et al.</i> 2006 Ezhilarasi & Anand 2016

stretches, makes it extremely convenient for PCR primer design (García-Martínez *et al.* 1999). In addition, the vast database of sequences available for this gene makes it possible to search for cultivated close relatives.

However, the usage of 16S rRNA for the study of biodiversity can be tricky. One of the problems reflects the fact that the genes for 16S rRNA are extremely constant in size. The 16S rRNA gene sequence is about 1550 bp long and is composed of both variable and conserved regions (García-Martínez *et al.* 1999). The problem arises from the fact that 16S, 23S, and 5S with at least one tRNA and internal transcribed spaces are usually linked in one operon. In bacterial genomes, these operons can be found in multiple copies (between one and fifteen), and the 16S rRNA can differ between these operons. Although intragenomic divergence of the 16S rRNA genes can be as high as 11.6%, generally it seems to be lower than 1% (Case *et al.* 2007; Sun *et al.* 2013). This caused problems in the identification of closely related species (Acinas *et al.* 2004). Based on 16S rRNA, traditionally, the identity of sequences > 95% represents a new genus, whereas sequences with a similarity > 97% represent the same species (Schloss & Handelsman 2005; Johnson *et al.* 2019).

However, usage of this marker has some opponents, and doubts regarding its credibility were raised very early after the expansion of molecular methods in the taxonomy of bacteria. The similarity of some bacterial genomes based on DNA-DNA hybridisation to the similarity of 16S rRNA sequences from the same strains was compared (Fox *et al.* 1992). Results showed that the similarity between genomes does not always correlate with the similarity between 16S rRNA sequences. For example, when the 16S rRNA sequence similarity is smaller

than 97.5%, the similarity by DNA-DNA hybridization is smaller than 70% (Stackebrandt & Goebel 1994).

It is found that only trees based on three metabolic genes (Enolase, UppS, and HemB) were incongruent with the other gene trees, which is probably due to HGT, gene duplication, or long-branch attraction (Sanchez-Baracaldo *et al.* 2005). The main disadvantage of marker genes other than 16S rRNA genes is that their sequence databases are currently rather small (Ludwig *et al.* 2009). Still, the 16S rRNA represents the most common genetic marker for cyanobacterial taxonomy. The significance and expansion of 16S rRNA are shown in the statistics for the number of 16S rRNA sequences deposited in GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>), which list c. 306 875 sequences from cyanobacteria on 4 April 2022 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>).

The phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene has revealed close relationships among cyanobacteria, indicating that the diversification of cyanobacteria happened within a short period of time (Giovannoni *et al.* 1988; Wilmotte & Herdman 2001), probably between 2450 and 2100 Ma (Tomitani *et al.* 2006). Based on the phylogeny of the 16S rRNA genes, chlorophyll-a/b-containing Prochlorales (Prochlorophyta) were shown to be polyphyletic (Urbach *et al.* 1992) and to cluster with Cyanobacteria (Wilmotte 1994; Palenik & Swift 1996). This suggests that the Prochlorales and Cyanobacteria shared a common ancestor, and that the Prochlorales are not a valid phylogenetic group. The 16S rRNA sequence analysis data confirmed that the order Nostocales and the order Pleurocapsales are monophyletic, while the orders Chroococcales, Oscillatoriales, and Stigonematales are polyphyletic (Wanigatunge *et al.* 2014). The 16S rRNA genes from 42 cyanobacterial cultures and environmental samples belonging to the genus

Calothrix and the morphologically similar genera *Rivularia* C. Agardh ex Bornet et Flahault, *Gloeotrichia* J. Agardh ex Bornet & Flahault, and *Tolypothrix* Kützing ex Bornet & Flahault were sequenced. The results showed large sequence diversity among the same morphotype within the *Calothrix* strains. Moreover, it was discovered that the *Calothrix*, *Gloeotrichia*, and *Tolypothrix* lineages are not monophyletic; on the other hand, they contain a high level of genetic diversity (Sihvonen *et al.* 2007). However, the cyanobacterial orders/subsections have not been supported by the 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis (Giovannoni *et al.* 1988; Turner 1997; Gugger *et al.* 2002; Ishida *et al.* 2009). Only heterocytous cyanobacteria belonging to the two orders/subsections appear to be monophyletic in the 16S rRNA gene analysis (Wilmotte & Herdman 2001; Gugger *et al.* 2002).

At the species level, the usage of this marker is quite problematic. Also, the phylogenetic position of several cyanobacterial strains seems to be incongruent with their morphology and does not correspond to their current classification as species from the genera *Anabaena* Bory de Saint-Vincent, *Aphanizomenon* Morren ex Bornet & Flahault (Lyra *et al.* 2001; Gugger *et al.* 2002), *Oscillatoria* (Suda *et al.* 2002), and picocyanobacteria such as *Synechococcus* and *Synechocystis* Sauvageau (Wilmotte & Herdman 2001). In some cases, strains of a genus or species formed a monophyletic cluster in the 16S rRNA gene analysis, e.g. *Planktothrix agardhii* (Gomont) Anag. & Komar, *Nodularia* (Mertens in Jürgens) ex Bornet & Flahault (Lyra *et al.* 2001) and *Microcystis* (Otsuka *et al.* 2000; Lyra *et al.* 2001; Humbert *et al.* 2013; Nowruzi & Lorenzi 2021).

However, the morphologically distinguished *Microcystis* species were found to be genetically very closely related to each other (Otsuka *et al.* 2000). Unification of different *Microcystis* species into a single species has been proposed (Otsuka *et al.* 2000). The work focused on the phylogeny of symbiotic cyanobacteria within the genus *Nostoc* and, based on 16S rRNA sequence analyses, related the affiliation of the higher plant *Azolla* Lam. with the species from the genus *Anabaena*. This showed that the strains within this genus can form symbioses within the additional hosts (Svenning *et al.* 2005). These phenomena were described by the discovery of five operons containing 16S rRNA in the species *Scytonema hyalinum* N.L. Gardner, *Scytonema* sp. (NIES-4075) and *Scytonema* sp. (HK-05). Four of them were more similar than 99.5% and were able to be distinguished by the divergent 16S-23S ITS between each other. The other type of operon shows 96% sequence identity to 16S rRNA with *Scytonema sensu stricto* and 94-95% sequence similarity with sequences outside the Scytonemataceae. This seems to be caused by HGT, and it is proof of the ability of core genes to undergo HGT (Johansen *et al.* 2017a).

The sequence of the genomes of strains from culture collections around the world, built phylogenetic trees and compared them with trees built based on 16S rRNA, show that the taxonomic inconsistencies in cyanobacterial taxonomy are caused by the morphological plasticity of cyanobacteria to some extent. Also, results show an irregularity between different databases regarding cyanobacterial taxonomy. The

commonly used databases, CyanoDB and AlgaeBase, whose taxonomy is based on 16S rRNA data, have different phylogenetic positions for some strains at the family level than the Silva database, commonly used in genomic research (Hirose *et al.* 2021). An example could be the genus *Phormidesmis* Turicchia, Ventura, Komárková & Komárek, which is based on 16S taxonomically assigned to Leptolyngbyaceae (Raabova *et al.* 2019) in the CyanoDB as well as AlgaeBase (Guiry & Guiry 2021) and NCBI database (Schoch *et al.* 2020). In the Silva database, these strains belong to Phormidiaceae, which is not validated in any of the 16S-based databases (Hirose *et al.* 2021).

The 16S rRNA as a marker represents, in the near past, the best marker widely used for phylogenetics and for describing new species and genera within the phylum Cyanobacteria. Also, a cryptic species was discovered due to its use (Komárek *et al.* 2014). Nowadays, new genera are still described based on this marker, such as *Alborzia* Nowruzi & Soares (Nowruzi & Soares 2021), *Cryptochroococcus* Y. Wang, N. Jia & R. Li (Wang *et al.* 2021), *Waterburya* Bonthond & Shalygin (Bonthond *et al.* 2021), *Vermifilum* D.E. Berthold, Lefler & Laughinghouse (Berthold *et al.* 2021), *Microcoleusioopsis* R. Geng & G. Yu (Geng *et al.* 2021), *Pseudochroococcus* (Duval *et al.* 2022) and much more. Although this marker seems to be no longer exclusively sufficient for phylogenetic reconstruction, it remains an invaluable tool for basic classification of cyanobacterial strains at the genus level and is still widely used.

Internal transcribed spacer (ITS) between 16S and 23S rRNA

With a few exceptions, different subunits within the operon commonly follow the gene arrangement of order 16S-23S-5S. The typical number of copies of operons in cyanobacteria is one to five. This number depends on morphological complexity and usually increases with it (Iteaman *et al.* 2000; Schirmermeister *et al.* 2015). The small genome bacteria are associated with the most deviations in these types of structures. This suggests that intergenic spacer regions with variable length could be found between the 16S and 23S genes, as well as between the 23S and 5S. This concrete region shows extreme variability in size, even within the closely related taxa (García-Martínez *et al.* 1999). Size patterns can be used to characterise different communities of bacteria or archaea, and the widely divergent sequence allows the detection of species-like units very precisely by PCR, oligo-probe, or even long DNA probe (using the whole spacer region) hybridisation (Berrendero Gómez *et al.* 2016).

The internally transcribed spacer between genes for small (16S) and large (23S) ribosomal subunits represents a useful marker in cyanobacterial taxonomy. In the case of discrete species or OTU (operational taxonomic units) of closely related taxa, the spacer region seems to be highly conserved. While the ITS regions of cyanobacteria vary in length from 283 to 545 nucleotides and contain both tRNA-Ile and tRNA^{Ala} genes, or neither, there is no correlation between ITS size and tRNA^S coding capacity (Iteaman *et al.* 2000). However, occasionally longer ITS sequences, longer than

1000 bp, can be found (Rocap *et al.* 2002). The average length of ITS is between 442 and 694 nt for species that belong to the Cyanobacteria (Marquardt & Palinska 2007). In taxonomy and population genetics, the ITS region is worth applying at the species level in population genetics because it possesses sufficient variability. This has an advantage over 16S rRNA, which seems to have a more suitable resolution for genus level or above. The total generated amplicon then needs to be cloned (Nowruzi *et al.* 2016), and then the individual clones are sequenced separately (Boyer *et al.* 2001).

Sequences of the ITS region are used for reconstruction of phylogenetic trees or for comparison of RNA secondary structures among studied strains (Boyer *et al.* 2001, 2002; Siegesmund *et al.* 2008; Perkerson *et al.* 2011). Moreover, the ITS showed marked differences that are consistent between operons among numerous strains of *Scytonema hyalinum* (Johansen *et al.* 2017a). For different species that contain multiple operons, the spacer may considerably vary in size, even among the different operons in a single cell. The ITS sequence and secondary structures were used for recognition of intrageneric and intergeneric limits within the cyanobacterial taxa *Leptolyngbya corticola* Johansen & Kováčik. Results showed that the structure and sequence of these ITS regions were highly congruent with the phylogeny that was determined from 16S rRNA gene sequence data (Johansen *et al.* 2011). This consensus provides a quick and sufficient way to recognize intrageneric and possibly intergeneric taxonomic diversity. The usage of ITS in resolution of closely related taxa can be seen in work regarding *Nostoc* and *Scytonema* Agardh ex Bornet & Flahault (Boyer *et al.* 2001), *Phormidium* Kützing ex Gomont (Marquardt & Palinska 2007), *Synechocystis* (Kaneko *et al.* 1996), *Dulcicalothrix* Saraf *et al.* (Nowruzi & Shalygin 2021), *Reptodigitus* Casamatta *et al.* (Casamatta *et al.* 2020), *Myxacoryst* Pietrasiak & J.R.Johansen (Pietrasiak *et al.* 2019), *Roboltiella* Bohunická, Pietrasiak & J.R.Johansen (Bohunická *et al.* 2015), *Dapisostemon* Hentschke, Sant'Anna & J.R.Johansen, *Streptostemon* Sant'Anna, Azevedo, Kaštovský & Komárek (Hentschke *et al.* 2016), *Anagnostidinema* Strunecký *et al.* (Strunecký *et al.* 2016), *Oculatella* Zammit, Billi & Albertano (Osorio-Santos *et al.* 2014), *Elainella* Jahodářová, Dvorák & Hasler (Jahodářová *et al.* 2018), *Roboltiella* (Bohunická *et al.* 2015) and many more works. Moreover, on the basis of the 16S-23S ITS region, the *Rivularia halophila* Shalygin & Pietrasiak (Nostocales, Cyanobacteria) as an independent lineage in the evolutionary tree was described for the first time (Shalygin *et al.* 2018). However, because the species contains multiple and variable copies of ITS within the 16S rRNA, this marker is not able to distinguish closely related strains. These could be observed in the genera *Moorea* Engene *et al.* (Engene *et al.* 2012), *Leptolyngbya* (Marquardt & Palinska 2007) and *Nostoc* (Ite-man *et al.* 2000). The heterogeneity and variability of the ITS in some genera seems to discredit its usage as a suitable molecular marker for large-scale, closely related species, as well as large taxonomic studies.

nif genes family

The molybdenum dependent nitrogenase (*nif*) genes seem to have a single origin in cyanobacteria. They are responsible for nitrogen fixation and are highly conserved (Thiel 2019), and it is assumed, that they were inherited from a common cyanobacterial ancestor (Watanabe & Horiike 2021). Totally, 16 *nif* genes can be identified in cyanobacteria. They form a different operon (*nif*BSU, *nif*ENXW, *nif*HDK and *nif*VZT) (Esteves-Ferreira *et al.* 2017; Watanabe & Horiike 2021). Eight *nif* genes are regarded as core to the N₂ fixation pathway (Esteves-Ferreira *et al.* 2017). The *nif* operons are able to be duplicated or horizontally transferred and they could even be lost during the long evolutionary history in different lineages (Peters *et al.* 2013; Mus *et al.* 2019). Evolutionary, the *nif* gene cluster and N₂ fixation appeared around three billion years ago. It seems that N₂ fixation traits are not ancestral in cyanobacteria, but they were gained only once in evolutionary history. These occurred probably just after the split between *Gloeobacter violaceus* Rippka, Waterbury & Cohen-Bazire and the rest of the remaining cyanobacteria. These splits indeed slightly support the possibility that this trait was obtained by HGT (Latysheva *et al.* 2012). The HGT of *nif* operons, occurred from a common cyanobacterial ancestor of diazotrophic cyanobacteria and none of the *nif* genes comprising operons were obtained by HGT outside of this phylum (Watanabe & Horiike 2021). Also, the HGT of these operons is restricted, and independent gene loss may occur in each lineage of the non-diazotrophic cyanobacteria.

From a taxonomic point of view, these gene clusters are represented not only in cyanobacteria which form heterocyte and are able to fix nitrogen, but also in picocyanobacteria from freshwater lakes (Zani *et al.* 2000). From recent studies focused on cyanobacterial genomes, the operons *nif*BSW, *nif*HDK, *nif*ENXW and *nif*VZT are essentially conserved with minimum translocation and insertions (Watanabe & Horiike 2021). Some cyanobacteria, such as *Anabaena* sp. (YBS01), *Anabaena variabilis* Bory ex Bornet & Flahault (ATCC 29413) (Bolhuis *et al.* 2010), *Anabaena laxa* N.L.Gardner (NIES-50), *Calothrix brevissima* Bornet & Flahault ex Bomet & Flahault (NIES-22), *Calothrix* sp. (NIES-2098), *Calothrix* sp. (NIES-2100), *Tolypothrix tenuis* Kützing ex Bornet & Flahault (PCC 7101), *Tolypothrix variabilis* Kützing ex Bornet & Flahault (0441), *Nostoc carneum* C.Agardh ex Bornet & Flahault (NIES-2107) (Watanabe & Horiike 2021), and *Anabaena* sp. (PCC 7120) (Mulligan & Haselkorn 1989), contain two *nif* gene operons, which were probably obtained by HGT (Watanabe & Horiike 2021). Cyanobacteria phylogeny based on *nif* gene clusters corresponds to 16S rRNA phylogeny, but comparisons of *nif*H and 16s rRNA phylogenies have provided additional insight into cyanobacterial classification and nitrogenase evolution (Zehr *et al.* 1997). As a molecular marker, the *nif* gene operons, are useful for characterization of diazotrophic communities and characterisation of their properties. These operons were used in phylogenetic analyses of *Raphidiopsis raciborskii* (Woloszynska) Aguilera *et al.* (formerly known as *Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii* (Woloszynska) Seenayya & Subba Raju) (Dyble *et al.* 2002; Gaby & Buckley 2012),

Anabaena, *Aphanizomenon* and *Nostoc* (Apte & Prabhavathi 1994; Galhano *et al.* 2011), and *Trichodesmium* Ehrenberg ex Gomont (Ben-Porath & Zehr 1994). Based on analyses of the *nifH* sequences, the heterocyte forming cyanobacteria appear to be monophyletic (Zehr *et al.* 2001, 2008).

Inheritance of *nifD* appears to occur through vertical transfer for most cyanobacteria, except for a possible lateral transfer in *Anabaena variabilis*. The *nifD* also provides phylogenetic signal (Henson *et al.* 2004), and has been used to help elucidate evolutionary relationships among the heterocyte forming cyanobacteria (Roeselers *et al.* 2007). It also proved useful in discriminating between two genera of heterocyte-forming cyanobacteria *Nostoc* and *Anabaena* (Henson *et al.* 2004), where *nifH* failed (Tamas *et al.* 2000). In the comparison of phylogenetic trees based on *nifK* and *nifD* genes, it seems that heterocytous strains have a stable position, except for strains from the genus *Scytonema* and *Calothrix*. In phylogenetic tree based on the *nifK* gene, *Scytonema* has a stable position as sister to other Nostocales. However, in phylogenetic tree based on the *nifD* gene, strains from the genus *Scytonema* have an unresolved position near Stigonematales and near the strains from the genus *Fischerella* (Bornet & Flahault) Gomont (Hartmann & Barnum 2010). The main advantage of their usage in taxonomy is that they are not present in all cyanobacterial genera. For example, they are usually absent in strains from the order Pleurocapsales (Jung *et al.* 2021).

The *nif* gene operons seem to be ideal molecular markers for the study of diazotrophic communities, as well as strains in which some are able to fix nitrogen and some are not. In phylogeny, they show relatively good results in taxonomy on the genus level in heterocyte forming cyanobacteria. The results of different phylogenetic trees based on the *nif* gene operons and 16S rRNA gene indicate congruence between them.

Gene *hetR*

The *hetR* gene is highly conserved and can be found exclusively in Cyanobacteria (Kim *et al.* 2011). This gene encodes a serine-type protease with a regulatory role in the differentiation process and pattern formation of heterocyte (Thomazeau *et al.* 2010). Multiple copies of these genes in the cyanobacterial genome can cause an increase in the formation of heterocyte. If this gene is absent, the strains are unable to form heterocyte (Kumar *et al.* 2010). The function of these genes predicts the taxonomic usage of this marker mostly on heterocyte-forming cyanobacterial strains. But, this gene was also isolated from non-heterocyte strains able to fix nitrogen in the genus *Katagnymene* Lemmermann, *Trichodesmium* (Lundgren *et al.* 2005) and *Leptolyngbya* (Tomitani *et al.* 2006).

The unique distribution of the *hetR* gene among filamentous cyanobacteria and its relatively high sequence variation between closely related strains also makes it a powerful gene marker for discriminating filamentous cyanobacteria (Galhano *et al.* 2011).

These gene markers were used in strains that showed low genetic diversity and needed more variable genes for the differentiation and analysis of intergeneric phylogeny. These approaches were used in the genera *Trichodesmium* (Janson *et al.*

1999), *Katagnymene* (Lundgren *et al.* 2005), symbiotic *Nostoc* strains (Rasmussen & Svenning 1998), *Calothrix* (Foster & Zehr 2006), *Aphanizomenon*, *Nodularia* and *Anabaena* (Janson & Granéli 2002). Based on phylogenetic trees constructed from *hetR* gene sequences, the results support the theory of the monophyletic character of Stigonematales (Tomitani *et al.* 2006). The gene *hetR* is a significant molecular marker for heterocyte-forming species as well as those capable of nitrogen fixation in symbiotic cyanobacteria (Warshan *et al.* 2017).

rbcLXS gene family

This operon encoding the large and small Rubisco (D-ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase) subunits also includes two intergenic spacers and gene *rbcX* encoding a putative Rubisco chaperonin (Singh *et al.* 2015; Teneva *et al.* 2019). This operon, containing functional genes, is occasionally dispersed throughout the phylum Cyanobacteria in different taxa. This patchy distribution, where operons flow across different phylogenetical lineages, suggests a vertical inheritance of this cluster from a common cyanobacterial ancestor (Zhang & Yang 2019). Also, this operon is not expressed in the heterocyte (Elhai & Wolk 1990; Gugger *et al.* 2002; Rajaniemi *et al.* 2005). This region of the genome is also subjected to HGT and that makes it unable to be suitable for strain differentiation (Rudi *et al.* 1998). In taxonomy, genes from this operon are usually used in multi-locus analyses, which play an important role in understanding the evolution of cyanobacterial lineages. The *rbcL*, as well as other genes from this operon, are suitable for phylogenetical analyses due to less ambiguous conservative nature. Also, this gene is in the genome of cyanobacteria in a single copy and is free from length mutation except at the far end (Singh *et al.* 2015). For taxonomical evaluation of the order level, this marker did not work. In the study of the heterocytous Nostocales and Stigonematales (Singh *et al.* 2015), this marker did not distinguish these orders from each other. On the other hand, it provides evidence for Stigonematales polyphyletic origin. These gene regions were used for description of genera *Anabaena* (Gugger *et al.* 2002; Rajaniemi *et al.* 2005; Katrianna *et al.* 2008), *Aphanizomenon* (Gugger *et al.* 2002; Rajaniemi *et al.* 2005), *Nostoc* and *Trichormus* (Ralfs ex Bornet & Flahault) Komárek & Anagnostidis (Rajaniemi *et al.* 2005), *Phormidium* (Sciuto *et al.* 2012), *Aliinostoc* S.N. Bagchi, N. Dubey & P. Singh (Bagchi *et al.* 2017), *Neosynechococcus* Dvořák, Hindák, Hasler & Hindáková (Dvořák *et al.* 2014a), *Desikacharya* Saraf & Prashant Singh (Saraf *et al.* 2019), *Pycnacronema* M.D. Martins & Branco (Martins *et al.* 2019), *Leptothoe* D. Konstantinou & S. Gkelis (Konstantinou *et al.* 2019), *Altericista* Averina, E. Polyakova, Senetskaya & Pinevich (Averina *et al.* 2021), *Perforafilum* Zimba, Shalygin & I.-S. Huang (Zimba *et al.* 2021) and more.

The genes from operon *rbcLXS* are suitable for usage in multi-loci analyses, but as single markers, they are not suitable for evolutionary distant species or closely related strains. Also, the phylogenetic tree constructed based on them is not usually coherent with the phylogenetical tree based on 16S rRNA for strains within the clustered groups.

The rpo genes family

The most important genes from the *rpo* gene family for the taxonomy of cyanobacteria are the *rpoC1* and *rpoB* genes. In cyanobacteria, the *rpoC* and *rpoB* genes are transcribed separately from each other. Still, they represent important housekeeping genes and have significant importance in phylogenetic analyses.

The *rpoB* gene in cyanobacteria encodes the subunit of RNA polymerase. This gene is well conserved within the cyanobacteria and in the study of its evolution, the HGT was not observed (Gaget *et al.* 2011). However, in Nostocaceae, the insertion and deletion of this gene were observed (Rajaniemi *et al.* 2005). The lack of evidence for HGT indicates probable vertical inheritance (Gaget *et al.* 2011). This molecular marker is suitable for sublevel identification of strains (Gaget *et al.* 2011). This can be used in studies with large datasets of sequences from natural communities (Ogier *et al.* 2019), following the seasonal abundance of species in these communities over time (Gaget *et al.* 2011). In genus evaluation, it is usually used in the discrimination of potentially toxigenic cyanobacteria such as *Anabaena*, *Aphanizomenon*, *Nostoc* (Nowruzi *et al.* 2012), *Stigonema* C.Agardh ex Bornet & Flahault (Nowruzi *et al.* 2013), *Fischerella* (Nowruzi & Lorenzi 2021), *Trichormus* (Rajaniemi *et al.* 2005), marine filamentous genera *Arthrospira*, *Leptolyngbya*, *Oscillatoria*, *Phormidium* (Cheon *et al.* 2011), *Microcystis* (Lee *et al.* 2020) and *Nodularia* (Lyra *et al.* 2005). This gene is often used in microbial community analysis (Case *et al.* 2007; Ogier *et al.* 2019) and is suitable for estimation of microbial abundance. The use of this gene in larger phylogenetic analyses is not recommended, but it can be used as one of the genes in multi-loci analyses.

In cyanobacteria, the gene *rpoC1*, which encodes the unique subunit gamma of RNA polymerases, together with gene *rpoC2*, corresponds to the single *rpoC* gene in other bacteria (Xie *et al.* 1989). In the cyanobacterial genome, they are in a single copy (Bergsland & Haselkorn 1991). In Eubacteria, the RNA polymerase holoenzyme plays a central role in gene transcription. This subunit is a common and unique feature of the core RNA polymerase of cyanobacteria and plastids, hence the *rpoC1* gene coding for this subunit is a good molecular marker for the detection and identification of these microorganisms. The sequence of this gene could be easily and specifically PCR amplified. In phylogenetic studies, distantly related cyanobacterial groups can be evaluated. An important property in the analyses using the *rpoC1* gene is the presence or absence of the third codon position. Phylogenetic trees derived with *rpoC1* data match those derived with 16S rRNA data (Palenik & Swift 1996). When the third codon is included, the analyses show greater divergence between related strains (Toledo & Palenik 1997).

As a molecular marker, *rpoC1* is more discriminating for species differentiation than 16S rRNA (Wilson *et al.* 2000) and can better diverge closely related species, making it a more appropriate candidate for resolving questions at the genus/species-level issues (Valerio *et al.* 2009). The major taxonomic use of this marker was in the revision of Synechococcales (Mai *et al.* 2018). In this work, the Oculatellaceae and Trichocole-

usaceae (formerly known as Trichocoleaceae) were described, as well as Leptolyngbyaceae and Prochlorotrichaceae were studied. The analyses based on the *rpoC1* gene were in agreement with the 16S rRNA-based analyses. In the phylogenetic reassessment of the Synechococcales, the Oculatellaceae show the most divergent and cohesive group based on the *rpoC1* gene analyses, and appear to be the sister group of the Leptolyngbyaceae. This marker can be used for species identification of close related species like *Raphidiopsis* F.E.Fritsch & M.F.Rich (Wilson *et al.* 2000; Gugger *et al.* 2005), *Nostoc* (Xie *et al.* 1989), *Synechococcus*, *Prochlorococcus* (Toledo & Palenik 1997), *Anabaena* (Bergsland & Haselkorn 1991), *Planktothrix* (Lin *et al.* 2010), *Minunostoc* F.Cai & R.Li (Cai *et al.* 2019, 2020), *Pegethrix* Mai, J.R.Johansen & Bohunická, *Drouetiella* J.R.Johansen & Pietrasiak, *Timaviella* Sciuto & Moro, *Cartusia* Mai, J.R.Johansen & Pietrasiak, *Tildeniella* Mai, J.R.Johansen & Pietrasiak, *Komarkovaea* Mai, J.R.Johansen & Pietrasiak, *Kaiparowitsia* Mai, J.R.Johansen & Bohunická (Mai *et al.* 2018), *Calothrix*, *Tolypothrix*, *Scytonema* (Morales *et al.* 2017), thin species from thermal springs like *Leptolyngbya*, *Phormidium*, *Geitlerinema* (Anagnostidis & Komárek) Anagnostidis (Moro *et al.* 2010), *Chryso sporum* E.Zapomelová, O.Skaácelová, P.Pumann, R.Kopp & E.Janecek, *Cuspidothrix* Rajaniemi *et al.*, *Raphidiopsis*, *Sphaerospermopsis* Zapomelová *et al.* (Kim *et al.* 2020). *RpoC1* usually supports the phylogenetic position of strains based on 16S rRNA and ITS analyses. In closely related species, it shows higher diversification and may represent a suitable marker in multi-loci analyses.

The psbA gene family

The *psbA*, a significant functional gene, plays an important role in oxygenic photosynthesis in cyanobacteria (Mulo *et al.* 2009). It encodes the D1 protein of the Photosystem II (PSII) reaction centre (Junier *et al.* 2007). Multiple copies of this gene can be found in cyanobacteria, such as *Synechococcus* (Sullivan *et al.* 2006). Some cyanobacteria can have up to eight copies of this gene (Sheridan *et al.* 2020). The different *psbA* genes in cyanobacteria encode more than one type of D1 protein (Sicora *et al.* 2009). Also, several diazotrophic cyanobacteria, such as *Xenococcus* sp. (PCC 9228), *Pseudanabaena* sp. (PCC 6802), *Trichodesmium erythraeum* Ehrenberg ex Gomont, and *Lynghya* sp. (PCC 8106), lack this gene (Sheridan *et al.* 2020). The main problem in using this gene as a molecular marker is differences in primer specificity. Due to this, the results might not be comparable at all in community studies (Junier *et al.* 2007).

This gene was used to assess the community structure of marine picocyanobacteria (Zeidner *et al.* 2003) and the community structure of freshwater lakes dominated by the genera *Synechococcus*, *Prochlorococcus*, *Aphanizomenon*, *Chroococcus* N.L.Gardner, and *Schizothrix* Kützing ex Gomont (Junier *et al.* 2007). In *Raphidiopsis* (formally known as *Cylindrospermopsis* G.Seenayya & N.Subba Raju) (Wu *et al.* 2011) and *Synechococcus* (Singh & Bhadury 2019), this gene was used to distinguish closely related strains. The result of phylogenetic analyses based on *psbA* and the *nifD* gene are relatively similar (Singh *et al.* 2015). Also, the results of the analyses of

psbA compared with the 16S rRNA phylogenetic tree show the polymorphic character of Stigonematales.

For species with multiple copies (heterocyte-forming species) or no copies (some unicellular and filamentous species) in the cyanobacterial genome, as well as differences in length, this molecular marker is not suitable for use as a single marker for phylogenetic analyses. It is only suitable for studies of closely related species or community structure.

tufA genes

The *tufA* gene encodes the elongation factor Tu and plays a central role in protein synthesis in prokaryotic organisms (Delwiche *et al.* 1995). Usually, gram-negative bacteria have two *tuf* genes. Two copies of the *tufA* gene were observed in *Spirulina platensis* (Gomont) Geitler (Tiboni *et al.* 1984). The *tufA* gene represents a potentially good candidate for phylogenetic analyses because it is well conserved, and homologous genes are present in a wide range of organisms (Honda *et al.* 1999). However, in taxonomical research, this gene is not usually used. This gene was used for the study of evolutionary lineages in *Synechococcus* (Honda *et al.* 1999) *Leptolyngbya* group, *Synechococcus* and *Thermosynechococcus* H.Katoh, S.Itoh, J.-R.Shen & M.Ikeuchi (Sanchez-Baracaldo *et al.* 2005). Nowadays, the *tufA* gene is used as an additional molecular marker in describing new species such as *Neowestiellopsis persica* Kabirnataj, Nematzadeh, Talebi, Tabatabaei & P.Singh (Kabirnataj *et al.* 2018) or *Aliinostoc morphoplasticum* Bagchi, Dubey & P.Singh (Bagchi *et al.* 2017). This marker could be used as an additional gene for an analysis of the taxonomical position of distant species.

Phycocyanin coding cpcBA region and PC IGS (non coding) locus

This marker represents a phycocyanin intergenic spacer based on phycocyanin loci, including the noncoding intergenic spacer between *cpcB* and *cpcA* genes (Piccin-Santos *et al.* 2014), which encode phycocyanin b and phycocyanin a (Bolch *et al.* 1999). The phycocyanin operon is conserved (MacGregor *et al.* 2001), and contains five open reading frames (ORFs), separated by noncoding intergenic spacers (IGS), which are usually highly variable. In the Cyanobacteria, this spacer has a mosaic distribution. This suggests the possible HGT of this region (Cadel-Six *et al.* 2008), as well as the possible intra-genic recombination close to stop codon of the *cpcB* genes (Manen & Falquet 2002). The locus *cpcBA*-IGS displayed length heterogeneity from 629 to 910 bp (Shukla *et al.* 2021), but the length is highly conserved within the genus (Baker *et al.* 2001). This region was used to investigate the genetic diversity of cyanobacteria in four eutrophic lakes (Miller & McMahan 2011).

This marker was used in multi-loci studies in phylogenetic analyses. The marker topologies and similarities were studied in the genera *Arthrospira* Stizenberger ex Gomont and *Microcystis* (Manen & Falquet 2002; Dadheech *et al.* 2010; Choi *et al.* 2012; Kumar *et al.* 2017), *Geitlerinema* and *Microcystis* (Piccin-Santos *et al.* 2014), *Nostoc* (Hong *et al.* 2018), *Nodularia* (Laamanen *et al.* 2001), *Microcystis* (Schatz *et al.* 2005;

Tan *et al.* 2010; Otten & Paerl 2011), *Anabaenopsis* V.V.Miller (Ballot *et al.* 2008), *Raphidiopsis* (Dyble *et al.* 2002) and more.

Analyses based on this marker showed a clear separation of true branching strains from unbranched heterocyte forming cyanobacteria. Also, phylogeny based on this marker supported the polyphyletic origin of the order Nostocales. It can be used in the separation of freshwater planktic cyanobacteria species (Shukla *et al.* 2021).

The best possible way to use this marker seems to be in environmental studies, for the quick identification of species at genus level as well as in multi-loci analyses.

gvp genes family

The *gvp* is a conserved gene cluster of 8-14 genes, coding for proteins responsible for gas vesicle formation (Albouy *et al.* 2001). Gas vesicles are composed of proteins, mainly by *gvpA*, coded by the gene *gvpA*. This protein is highly conserved and hydrophobic, and it is responsible for the formation of conical and cylindrical parts of the gas vesicles (Powell *et al.* 1991). The durability and strength of vesicles under high pressure is caused by the protein *gvpC*, coded by the *gvpC* gene (Hayes *et al.* 1992). This structural gene cluster is highly conserved, but it could be present in more copies in the genome of cyanobacteria. They also display a variation in the length of the *gvpC* gene (Beard *et al.* 1999). The presence of this gene family in different strains is highly irregular. The number of copies usually depends on the ability to form gas vesicles as well as the size and position of vesicles in filaments. In the case of *Pseudanabaena* sp., this strain forms small gas vesicles only next to the cell septa. This is co-related with the presence of only one copy of the *gvpA* gene and the absence of the *gvpC* gene (Damerval *et al.* 1991). In *Calothrix* sp., the genes *gvpA1*, *gvpA2* and *gvpC* form an operon, where *gvpA1* and *gvpA2* are 99% identical. They also have two copies of this operon (Damerval *et al.* 1987). The two copies of operon *gvpAC* were also detected in *Planktothrix* sp., where the *gvpC* gene displays a variation in length (Beard *et al.* 1999). In *Microcystis aeruginosa* (Kützing) Kützing (Mlouka *et al.* 2004), three gene copies of *gvpA* were detected. From these analyses, there seems to be higher abundance and differentiation in gene *gvpA* than in *gvpC*, and the expression of this gene cluster is regulated at low light intensity or high growth temperature (Cai *et al.* 2020). At the taxonomic level, these genes were used as markers in multi-loci studies of *Nodularia* (Barker *et al.* 2000), *Nostoc spumigena* (Barker *et al.* 1999), *Arthrospira* Stizenberger ex Gomont (Miklaszewska *et al.* 2012; Misztak *et al.* 2021), *Synechococcus*, *Planktothrix*, *Pseudanabaena* Lauterborn, *Nodularia*, *Nostoc*, *Calothrix* (Miklaszewska *et al.* 2012), *Anabaena* (Buchholz *et al.* 1993), *Planktothrix* (Panrace *et al.* 2017), *Microcystis* (Min *et al.* 2007), *Dolichospermum* (Ralfs ex Bornet & Flahault) P.Wacklin, L.Hoffmann & J.Komárek, and *Aphanizomenon* (Driscoll *et al.* 2018). As a molecular marker for phylogenetic analyses, this gene cluster is not suitable based on the large variability of length (*gvpC* gene) and non-consistent number of copies (*gvpA* gene) in the genome, even in species from one genus.

HIGHLY REPETITIVE SEQUENCES

Highly Iterative Palindrome-1 (HIP1)

Highly Iterative Palindrome-1 (HIP1) represents the octameric palindrome (GCGATCGC). This concrete palindrome has not been observed in genomes outside of cyanobacteria, but within cyanobacteria, it appears quite frequently (Xu *et al.* 2018). In the context of genetics, palindromes are nucleotide sequences that are read with the same 5' (prime) to 3' on one strand or 5' to 3' on the complementary strand (Xu *et al.* 2018). They can play a role as restriction enzyme sites (Delaye & Moya 2011). These sequences were first identified in a cadmium-tolerant strain of *Synechococcus* (PCC 6301) (Gupta *et al.* 1993). Thus, repetitive sequences have been considered as the most accepted tool for assessing microbial diversity (Garcia-Pichel *et al.* 2001; Gugger *et al.* 2002; Roesslers *et al.* 2007; Valerio *et al.* 2009; Shokraeia *et al.* 2019). This sequence was unique since it was highly represented among many cyanobacteria genomes, meaning that it has a very high occurrence rate. Not surprisingly, HIP1 was the most abundant sequence with 7356 matches in the cyanobacterial genome (Vuong 2014). Every sequence afterwards, in terms was represented by HIP1 with one or two different nucleotides at the beginning or end of the sequence (Tompa 1999). For example, HIP1, the second most found octameric sequence, "GGCGATCG", was essentially without the cytosine at the end of the sequence and with a guanine added to the beginning of the sequence. This pattern occurred for multiple cyanobacteria, which suggests that HIP1 should have a significant impact and role in these organisms.

These sequences were used to study closely related strains of *Trichodesmium* (Orcutt *et al.* 2002), *Raphidiopsis raciborskii* (Neilan *et al.* 2003), *Nostoc linckia* Bornet ex Bornet & Flahault (Krugman *et al.* 2001), *Microcystis panniformis* Komárek, Komárková-Legnerová, Sant'Anna, M.T.P.Azevedo & P.A.C.Senna (Bittencourt-Oliveira *et al.* 2007), *Oscillatoria*, *Anabaenopsis*, *Symploca* Kützing ex Gomont (Smith *et al.* 1998), *Nostoc*, *Fischerella*, *Anabaena* (Smith *et al.* 1998; Comte *et al.* 2004), *Synechococcus*, *Pseudanabaena*, *Planktothrix*, *Microcystis* (Comte *et al.* 2004), and *Leptolyngbya* (Bruno *et al.* 2006). From a phylogenetic point of view, these sequences are not suitable for use in phylogenetic analyses due to the relatively low information content of the data (Smith *et al.* 1998), but are excellent for distinguishing closely related species isolated from environmental samples. This method is also usable on non-axenic strains with contamination by non-phototrophic bacteria (Comte *et al.* 2004).

Enterobacterial Repetitive Intergenic Consensus (ERIC) sequences

The Enterobacterial Repetitive Intergenic Consensus (ERIC) sequences are highly conserved at the nucleotide sequence level and are approximately 126 bp long. However, in different species, their chromosomal locations can be different. They seem to be located in non-coding transcribed regions of the chromosome, usually in the met E-metR region (Hulton *et al.* 1991), in either orientation with respect to transcription or including a conserved inverted repeat. Moreover, REP elements

and or ERIC sequences have been used for the identification of symbiotic and free-living cyanobacteria (Rasmussen & Svenning 1998; Lehtimäki *et al.* 2000).

In phylogenetic studies, these sequences were used in the determination of closely related species in the genus *Nostoc*, *Nodularia* (Rasmussen & Svenning 1998), *Anabaena*, *Aphanizomenon*, *Microcystis*, *Planktothrix* (Lyra *et al.* 2001), *Microcystis aeruginosa*, *Planktothrix agardhii*, *Oscillatoria neglecta* H.C.Wood, nom. inval., and genus *Aphanizomenon* (Valerio *et al.* 2005). These highly conserved sequences seem to be suitable for close-related species identification, as well as the rapid identification of species in samples from nature.

*Short tandemly repeated repetitive (STRR)**and long tandemly repeated repetitive (LTRR) sequences*

In the particular case of cyanobacteria, a distinct family of repetitive sequences has been described (Prabha & Singh 2019), and a PCR-based fingerprinting method was developed for cyanobacteria using short tandemly repeated repetitive (STRR) sequences as primers in *Calothrix* (Mazel *et al.* 1990) and *Microcystis* strains (Asayama *et al.* 1996). These sequences consist of three different simple tandem heptanucleotide sequence repeats that were initially described for *Calothrix* species, where the copy number was estimated at about 100 per genome (Valerio *et al.* 2009). The STRR sequences have been identified in several other cyanobacterial genera and species, to date mostly in heterocyte forming cyanobacteria but also in some non-heterocyte forming cyanobacteria (Liaimer *et al.* 2016). The specificity of these sequences has made the STRRs useful even for non-axenic cyanobacterial cultures (Anand *et al.* 2019). They are suitable for being used as an oligonucleotide probe or as primers in the generation of PCR-amplified DNA profiles (Wilson *et al.* 2000). In phylogenetic studies, these sequences were used in studies of symbiotic cyanobacteria from the genera *Anabaena* (Zheng *et al.* 1999), *Nostoc* (Zheng *et al.* 1999; Nilsson *et al.* 2002; Thajuddin *et al.* 2010), and *Calothrix* (Mazel *et al.* 1990, 1991; Thajuddin *et al.* 2010). For the identification of closely related species and strains, these markers were used in *Raphidiopsis raciborskii* (Wilson *et al.* 2000), *Anabaena*, *Hapalosiphon Nägeli* ex Bornet & Flahault, *Cylindrospermum* Kützing ex Bornet & Flahault (Shukla *et al.* 2013), *Westiellopsis* Janet (Selvakumar & Gopalswamy 2008; Shukla *et al.* 2013), *Synechococcus* (Rasmussen & Svenning 1998; Muralitharan & Thajuddin 2011), *Plectonema* Thuret ex Gomont, *Microcoleus* Desmazières ex Gomont, *Phormidium* (Rasmussen & Svenning 1998), *Plectonema*, *Microcystis* (Rouhiainen *et al.* 1995). Also, these markers were used for analyses of relationships between Stigonematales and Nostocales. They discovered a close association between these two orders (Shukla *et al.* 2013). The LTRR sequence has also been identified in some cyanobacterial species (Valerio *et al.* 2009), for the first time in *Anabaena* sp. (PCC 7120) (Masepohl *et al.* 1996). The size of this fragment is 37 bp and could be present in the genome in multiple copies (Rasmussen & Svenning 1998). In the phylogenetic studies, this marker was used in the identification of strains from the genera *Nostoc* (Rasmussen & Sven-

ning 1998; Guevara *et al.* 2002), *Anabaena* (Prasanna *et al.* 2006; Ezhilarasi & Anand 2009), and *Leptolyngbya* (Bruno *et al.* 2005). This marker is, however, usually used for quick identification of strains from environmental samples such as freshwater (Valerio *et al.* 2009), symbionts (Lyra *et al.* 2001; Nilsson *et al.* 2002). These highly conserved STRR and LTRR sequences appear to be suitable for identifying closely related species as well as identifying species in natural samples quickly. Also, they are necessary for the identification of symbiotic cyanobacteria from different hosts. They can be used to identify strains at the species and genus levels, as well as to solve phylogenetic relationships within problematic orders with a shared evolutionary history. However, the LTRR sequences seem to be suitable for identification of non-axenic cultures; this method sometimes identifies their contaminants but not the real cyanobacteria (Bruno *et al.* 2005). The last analyses based on these markers also show that the LTRR sequences are not suitable for distinct populations of cyanobacteria with similar morphology (Negi *et al.* 2019).

CONCLUSION

Until now, the 16S rRNA with ITS has been the most powerful tool for describing new species and phylogenetical analyses, together with the other structural and functional genes such as 23S rRNA, *nif* gene operon, *hetR*, *rpoC*, *rbcLX*, etc. These genes have a relatively low mutation rate, and they are usually suitable for the description of new taxa at genus level. If the new species needs to be described, the most useful seems to be the ITS region in combination with 16S rRNA analyses. Usage of ITS region can be controversial due to the multiple copies in the genomes and its high variability among some closely related species. Molecular markers like *rpoC1*, *psbA*, and short repetitive sequences like HIP1, ERIC, STRR, and LTRR appear to be useful for identifying closely related species. For the multi-locus analyses the genes *rbcLXS*, *rpoC1*, *rpoB*, *gyrB*, *tufA*, *cpcAB*, and *nifKDH* are the suitable candidates. These genes are also important in the study of community's structure and the identification of species in samples from nature. On the other hand, *psbA*, *tufA*, *gvp* genes and short repetitive sequences HIP1, seem to be potentially not suitable for phylogenetic analyses. For identification of new species within the nitrogen fixing species, or heterocyte forming species, the genes from the *nif* operon, *hetR* gene and HIP1, and STRR sequences are suitable. Concerning the obtained results from recent works, we propose to identify new species or toxin-producing strains by standardising folding procedures and structural data labelling used in the analysis for ITS comparisons as a complement to the functional and structural genes in the future. Moreover the use of environmental DNA (eDNA) in the ecology, mitigation, and prediction of freshwater harmful algae could be helpful. Objective results of the study require quantifying the relationship between ITS secondary structures and taxonomy. Further studies are needed to determine the importance and tuning of lateral gene transfer in the evolutionary history of new cyanobacteria strains.

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