First report of goniodomin A production by the dinoflagellate *Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax* developing in southern Mediterranean (Bizerte Lagoon, Tunisia)

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Abstract :

The dinoflagellate *Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax* is widely distributed around the world including the Mediterranean waters. The objectives of this study were to determine the morphology and phylogenic affiliation of *A. pseudogonyaulax* strain isolated from Bizerte Lagoon (Mediterranean waters, Tunisia) and investigate its toxicity. Molecular analyses confirmed the morphological identification of the isolated strain (APBZ12) as *A. pseudogonyaulax*. Moreover, it showed that it is 100% identical with strains of this species found in New Zealand, Japan, China and North Sea (Norway and Denmark) suggesting that this species is cosmopolitan. Until now, no toxin studies have been conducted on fully characterized (morphologically and molecularly) *A. pseudogonyaulax*. Cellular toxin production was determined using high pressure liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (HPLC/MS). Results showed for the first time that *A. pseudogonyaulax* contains goniodomin A (GDA), a highly toxic macrolide polyether previously shown to be produced by two other dinoflagellate species *Alexandrium monilatum* (Hsia et al., 2006) and *Alexandrium hiranoi* (erroneously identified as *A. pseudogonyaulax* in Murakami et al., 1988) in American and Japanese waters, respectively. This biologically active toxin has been associated over decades with fish mortality. Our study showed that the cell extracts of APBZ12 showed an important bioactivity using GH4C1 rat pituitary cytotoxicity bioassay.

Highlights

- 1 A. pseudogonyaulax cysts have different morphotypes
- 2 Phylogenetic tree showed that this species is cosmopolitan.
- 2 GDA was exracted from A. pseudogonyaulax vegetative cells for the first time
- 3 A. pseudogonyaulax cell extract showed an important cytotoxicity

Keywords : Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax, goniodomin A, Mediterranean sea, Morphology, Phylogeny

48 1. INTRODUCTION

49 Human health and the shellfish industries are increasingly and seriously threatened by toxins 50 produced by harmful algal bloom (HAB) species. Alexandrium (Dinophyceae) is one of the 51 major HAB genera considering its diversity, wide distribution and impact on the ecosystem 52 and aquaculture activity. It presents an important toxigenic diversity by producing three 53 different toxin families: Saxitoxins, Spirolides and Goniodomins (Anderson et al., 2012). 54 Goniodomin A (GDA) is a macrolide polyether, with important biological properties and is 55 responsible for human illness and death of aquatic fauna. It has been shown that this toxin 56 affects human cytoskeleton reorganization (Takeda et al., 2008), human brain cells, cardiac 57 functioning (Mizuno et al., 1998, Matsunaga et al., 1999) and it also inhibits regeneration of 58 blood vessels (angiogenesis) (Abe et al., 2002). Exposure to GDA resulted in paralysis and 59 death of fish and mollusks (Sievers, 1969, Harding et al., 2009) after 24-48 h of exposure and 60 was preceded by external signs of stress including reduced ventilation, inability to attach to 61 hard substrates, periodic pumping of the opercular plate, and increased mucus production. It 62 has been shown that the chain-forming dinoflagellate Alexandrium monilatum was probably 63 associated to widespread discolored water and increased fish mortality in the Mississippi 64 Sound and off the eastern and western coasts of Florida over 60–70 years (Howell, 1953). 65 Hsia et al. (2006) by utilizing combined NMR spectroscopy and mass spectrometry 66 structurally characterized GDA in A. monilatum cells. This toxin was shown to be released 67 when cells were stressed or ruptured in response to mechanical stimulation as fresh water 68 precipitation or a bloom termination (Connell and Cross 1950, Gates and Wilson 1960). 69 Sharma et al. (1968) reported the isolation of GDA, an antifungal compound, from the 70 dinoflagellate Goniodoma sp. which bloomed in a bay near la Paraguera, Puerto Rico. 71 Murakami et al. (1988) isolated, in 1986, the active substance GDA from a rock pool at 72 Jogashima (Japan) from a dinoflagellate identified by Kita et al. (1985) as Alexandrium

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pseudogonyaulax (syn. *Goniodoma pseudogonyaulax*). However, Kita and Fukuyo (1988)
considered that this GDA-producing dinoflagellate in Jogashim was misidentified as *Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax* and described it as *Alexandrium hiranoi* Kita and Fukuyo.

77 Alexandrium pseudongonyaulax is a brackish-neritic dinoflagellate that belongs to the 78 subgenus Gessnerium (Balech, 1995). This species was originally described as Goniodoma 79 pseudogonyaulax Biecheler from the Thau lagoon (Mediterranean, France) (Biecheler, 1952). 80 This dinoflagellate is distributed worldwide including the Mediterranean Sea, Japanese 81 coastal waters and the Gulf of Georgia in British Columbia (Biecheler, 1952, Montresor, 82 1995, Bravo et al., 2006, Daly Yahia-Kéfi et al., 2001, Turki, 2004, Klein et al., 2010) and has 83 also been reported as a bloom-forming in the Norwegian Sea (Throndsen et al., 2007) and in 84 Alfacs Bay (Bravo et al., 2006). Klein et al. (2010) mentioned that A. pseudogonyaulax could 85 be responsible of harmful effects to high marine trophic levels but the toxigenic potential of 86 this species remains unknown since no toxicological analyses nor toxin extraction and 87 identification have been performed on fully characterized A. pseudogonyaulax strains. To our 88 knowledge, no formal studies were undertaken on determination of A. pseudogonyaulax 89 toxicity showing the presence of GDA. Zmerli Triki et al. (2014) reported that the average A. 90 pseudogonyaulax resting cyst density across the whole Bizerte lagoon (Southern Mediterranean, Tunisia) was rather high, reaching 639 cysts g⁻¹ of dry sediment (DS) 91 92 suggesting that this species developed regularly in this lagoon. Cyst germination could initiate 93 important toxic blooms when environmental conditions become favorable which in turn could 94 affect marine ecosystem components and cultivated mollusks in this area. The present study 95 aimed to 1) fully characterize A. pseudogonyaulax originating from Bizerte lagoon using 96 morphological examination and ribotyping, 2) analyze the toxin content of this dinoflagellate 97 by HPLC/MS and 3) investigate the bioactivity of A. pseudogonyaulax cell extract.

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99 2. MATERIAL & METHODS

100 2.1. Sediment sampling and natural resting cyst extraction

101 Sediments were sampled by scuba divers using core samplers in July-August 2012 in Bizerte 102 lagoon (37° 8'- 37°14' N, 9°46'-9°56' E) North-East Tunisia (Fig. 1). The surface layer of 103 sediment cores (3 cm) was sliced and stored at 4 °C in the dark for several days before 104 processing. For cyst extraction, one gram of wet sediment was suspended in 50 mL of 105 Filtered Sea Water (FSW) and sonicated for 3 min. The mixture was sieved under 100 µm and 106 20 µm mesh because A. pseudogonyaulax cyst diameter was above 20 µm. The slurry 107 remaining on the 20 µm mesh was recovered with FSW, then centrifuged (MIKRO 22R HETTICH centrifuges) for 10 min at 4 °C and 3000 t.min⁻¹. Cysts were extracted from the 108 109 resulting pellet using density gradient method with Polytungstate Solution (PST) (Bolch, 1997). Cysts recovered in the supernatant phase after PST centrifugation were flushed several 110 111 times with FSW to remove PST then stored in dark at 4 °C.

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113 2.2. Morphological identification of A. pseudogonyaulax resting cysts

114 Resting cysts (RCs) identification was based on microscopic observation of the morphology 115 of the cysts and resulting vegetative cells obtained from excystment experiments. 116 Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax RCs were isolated into 96-culture plates (Nunc[™] Delta 117 surface) filled with 200 µl of Enriched Natural Sea Water (ENSW) culture medium (Harrison et al., 1980) and incubated at 20 °C, salinity of 34, 100 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ and 12 h: 12 h 118 119 light:dark ratio. When germination occurred, the morphology of the emerging vegetative cells 120 and empty cysts were examined using a light microscope and 100X magnification (Esselte 121 Leitz GmbH, Germany). Within the culture, the obtained gametes and the planozyogtes were

also photographed. Data on the life cycle of this dinoflagellate and detailed biometry ofdifferent stages was published in Zmerli Triki et al. (2015).

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125 2.3. Algal cultures

One monoclonal culture of *Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax* was obtained from the germination of a wild resting cyst (strain APBZ12) and used for molecular identification and toxin characterization, this culture provided relatively high cell densities required for the subsequent analyses. The stock culture was maintained in sterile flasks filled with 200 mL of ENSW medium at stable conditions of salinity 34, temperature 20 °C, irradiance of 100 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ using cool white fluorescent light on a 12:12 light:dark cycle.

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133 2.4. Molecular identification and phylogeny

134 2.4.1. DNA extraction and PCR

Total genomic DNA was extracted from the strain APBZ12 (centrifuged pellets of 100 ml 135 cultures: 60 cell.ml⁻¹) using the classical phenol-chloroform method (Sambrook et al., 1989). 136 137 Cellular material was released by enzymatic lysis using proteinase K digestion. The DNA was 138 separated from protein by phenol:chloroforme:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) extraction then 139 extracted using chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (24:1). The separation of the aqueous and organic 140 phases was performed by centrifugation. The aqueous phase contains the DNA which was 141 ultimately recovered in solid form as a result of precipitation in ethyl alcohol. DNA was then 142 resuspended on ultra pure water. For PCR, the oligonucletide primers and methods used were 143 those described in Nézan et al. (2014).

145 2.4.2. Phylogeny

146 For the phylogenetic analysis, the sequence of the Bizerte strain (APBZ12) was aligned 147 together with 41 LSU sequences of other Alexandrium species and one sequence of 148 Goniodoma polyedricum (as outgroup) retrieved from GenBank using the multiple sequence 149 alignment program MUSCLE version 3.7 (Edgar, 2004). The alignment was refined by eye. 150 The data matrix obtained (42 LSU rDNA sequences, 657 characters) was analyzed by two 151 methods of phylogenetic reconstruction: maximum likelihood (ML), using PhyML v.3.0 152 software (Guindon and Gascuel, 2003) and Bayesian inference (BI) using MrBayes v.3.1.2 153 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003). The software iModeltest v 0.1.1 (Posada, 2008) was first 154 used to select the most suitable model of substitutions. The General-Time Reversible model 155 (GTR + I + G) was chosen as indicated by the Hierarchical Likelihood Ratio Tests (hLRTs), 156 Akaike Information Criterion 1 (AIC1), Akaike Information Criterion 2 (AIC2) and Bayesian 157 Information Criterion (BIC) tests implemented in jModeltest. Bootstrap values (support for 158 branches) of trees were obtained after 1000 iterations in ML. For Bayesian inference, four Markov chains were run simultaneously for 2×10^6 generations with sampling every 100 159 generations. On the 2×10^4 trees obtained, the first 2000 were discarded (burn-in) and a 160 161 consensus tree was constructed from the remaining trees. The posterior probabilities 162 corresponding to the frequency with which a node is present in preserved trees, were calculated using a coupled Monte Carlo Metropolis approach - Markov Chain (MCMC). 163

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165 2.5. Goniodomin A extraction, bioactivity and identification

166 2.5.1. Extract preparation

167 *Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax* culture was harvested in the exponential phase of growth, 168 approximately 12 days after the start of batch culture. The cells were centrifuged (5000 g, 4 169 min) and the pellets frozen at -20 °C before shipping to the NOAA Hollings Marine

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Laboratory Emerging Toxins Program (Charleston, SC). For toxin extraction/identification and bioactivity testing, the pellets containing *A. pseudogonyaulax* cells were sharp frozen and lyophilized. The residual cell powder was extracted using an elutropic series of solvents of increasing polarity: 1) Acetone, 2) Methanol and 3) Water. All were taken to dryness prior to HPLC and or TLC purification/ analysis and then re-suspended in ethyl acetate (EtOAC) for loading on the TLC

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177 2.5.2. Preparative thin layer chromatography (TLC)

178 The crude concentrated ethyl acetate extract of A. pseudogonyaulax was loaded on Whatman 179 Silica Gel 60A preparative TLC glass-backed plate and then developed in a mixture of 7:3 180 ethyl acetate:benzene. All colored and non-colored bands were scraped from the plate, eluted 181 with ethyl acetate, concentrated and tested for cytotoxicity. These bioassays used methanol as 182 a carrier against the GH4C1 rat pituitary cells and an MTT dye as determining the endpoint 183 (Mosmann, 1983). This procedure both established the Rf value of the toxic compound and 184 effectively separated the toxin from contaminating pigments. A modified molybdic acid stain 185 (Stahl, 1965; H₂SO₄) was used in addition to cytotoxicity testing in order to associate activity 186 to colored and/or non-colored bands

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188 2.5.3. GH4C1 rat pituitary cytotoxicity bioassay

Bioactivity was determined only from the acetone extract using the GH4C1 bioassay (Mosmann 1983) described in Hsia et al. (2006). Determination of cytotoxicity was carried out following the procedure in Hsia et al. (2006) using rat pituitary cells GH4C1 (ATCC CCL-82.2) in a MTT colorimetric assay (Manger et al., 1993; Mosmann, 1983). GH4C1 rat pituitary cells were plated onto a 96- well plate and allowed to incubate for 18h to allow for adherence to the plate. Dried fractions to be tested were solubilized in 100 µL methanol and

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195 sonicated to ensure maximum solubility prior to carrying out the bioassay. The assay was 196 carried out by adding 4 μ L of the methanol-solubilized fractions to individual wells in the 96-197 well plate; 4 μ L or less of pure methanol has been previously tested to be safe to these cells 198 (i.e., a negative control). The plate was then allowed to incubate for a minimum of 18 h; 15 199 μ L of 3-(4,5-cimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) dye was added 200 after incubation and allowed to incubate for another 4 h before adding 100 μ L of SDS to each 201 well. The plate was allowed to stand for another 4 h prior to reading the assay.

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203 2.5.4. Goniodomin A identification

204 The bioactive fraction(s) were syringe filtered and then subjected to HPLC/MS purification 205 and analyses to separate, detect and identify toxic extracts from the natural pigmented extracts 206 produced from A. pseudogonyaulax. HPLC/MS purification and analysis was carried out 207 using a WATERS HPLC system (WATERS 2767 Sample Manager), 1525 Binary Pump, 510 208 pump, WATERS 2996 PDA and a WATERS ZQ Single Quadrapole Mass Detector outfitted 209 with an active flow splitter, switching valve and using MASS LYNX software (Waters 210 Corporation, Milford, MA). The HPLC chromatography was performed using a Luna C18 211 column (2.5 µ particle size, 2.0 x 100 mm) (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA) using a reverse-212 phase water/ACN gradient with 0.1% TFA in each solvent. The HPLC/MS data (retention 213 time and mass m/z (M+H: 769) was identical to that of goniodomin A as reported in Hsia et 214 al. (2006). Confirmation was carried out by treating the toxic extract with NaCl and re-215 assessing the MS data. As predicted the sodium salt adduct of GDA (M+NA) was generated 216 almost quantitatively. Accurate mass detection of the A. pseudogonyaulax toxic extract was 217 performed using direct infusion of the sample into a Waters Micromass Quadrupole Q-TOF 218 mass spectrometer operating with electrospray ionization in positive ion mode. KBr and NH4

were added in order to test for adduct formation. Chemical formulae were calculated utilizingthe elemental composition tools within the Waters Masslynx software.

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222 **3. RESULTS**

223 3.1. Morphology of Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax

224 Observed under the light microscope, the resting cysts (RCs) of A. pseudogonyaulax from 225 Bizerte lagoon sediment exhibit different sizes and wall thickness. This variability can result 226 in underestimation when quantifying these cysts. More than 200 RCs of A. pseudogonyaulax 227 with different morphologies were incubated to ensure the reliability of our determination of A. 228 pseudogonyaulax cysts (Fig. 2). RCs were slightly spherical with one flattened side (Fig. 2A, 229 B). Cyst content was mostly dark and vesicular (Fig. 2C). We also observed clear cysts with 230 brownish-yellow vesicular content (Fig. 2D) with the characteristic red body of Alexandrium 231 species. The cyst wall can be paratabulated or smooth, thin or large (Fig. 2E, F, G). Cysts may 232 produce a diploid planomeiocyst, or two or four haploid vegetative cells (Fig. 2H, I, J, K). 233 Cysts diameter ranged from 40 to 72.5 μ m (n = 200) with an average of 62.5 μ m (SE ± 3.65). 234 Laboratory produced cysts had vesicular dark content (Fig. 2P).

235 Excysted vegetative cells of A. pseudogonyaulax are thecate, medium to large in size, 236 irregularly pentagonal-shaped with moderate dorso-ventral flattening. Cells are wider than 237 long; the epitheca is slightly shorter than the hypotheca (Fig. 2M). Mean width ranged 238 between 40.9 µm and 46.9 µm (Zmerli Triki et al., 2014). In the culture, smaller cells were 239 identified as gametes while larger ones corresponded to planozygotes with two longitudinal 240 flagella (Fig. 2N, O). The examination of the plate formula of the strain APBZ12 attested of 241 A. pseudogonyaulax (Biecheler) Horiguchi ex Yuki et Fukuyo. The first apical plate (1') is 242 characteristically displaced with a large ventral pore on the anterior margin. Thecal plates are 243 smooth and thin with scattered minute pores, and their shape and pattern are designed in Fig.

3 and are in agreement with the description of *A. pseudogonyaulax* according to Balech(1995).

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247 3.2. Ribotyping and phylogeny

248 A sequence of 703 base pairs has been obtained from the APBZ12 strain, comprising the 249 partial LSU rDNA (D1-D2) and deposited in Genbank with the accession number 250 KT229568. This sequence was similar with a batch of sequences from New Zealand, Japan, 251 China, Norway and Denmark available in Genbank and all identified as A. pseudogonyaulax. 252 The phylogeny inferred from LSU rDNA showed that all these sequences clustered in a 253 highly supported clade which indicated that the LSU of the strain from Bizerte lagoon is 254 identical to the strains also found in New Zealand, Japan, China and in North Sea (Norway 255 and Denmark) (Fig. 4).

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257 **3.3.** Bioactivity and toxin identification

258 Purification using preparative thin layer chromatography separated the toxic component from 259 pigments also produced by A. pseudogonyaulax. Pigments such as peridinin and xanthophylls 260 are cytotoxic in high concentrations. This extract was tested positive against the GH4C1 rat 261 pituitary cell line cytotoxicity bioassay. The active compound(s) were eluted from the 262 preparative TLC plate and taken for further purification and characterization on MS and LC-263 MS. The molecular ion of GDA (m/z M+H 769) (Fig. 5A) is clearly demonstrated in the 264 active fraction. The HPLC retention time (not shown), and mass (m/z M+H 769) were 265 identical to that of GDA as reported in Hsia et al. (2006). Active fraction shown in Fig. 5B 266 was treated with excess NaCl generating the (m/z M+Na) sodium adduct of GDA 791.4 amu, 267 as predicted and reported in Hsia et al. (2006). All mass spectra were obtained in positive ion 268 mode. The chemical formula of GDA is shown in Fig. 6.

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270 **4. DISCUSSION**

271 Morphological and molecular analyses performed on APBZ12 strain confirmed the 272 identification of Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax. Moreover, it showed that this strain 273 originating from Bizerte (Mediterranean) is 100% identical with strains of this species 274 isolated from New Zealand, Japan, China and North Sea (Norway and Denmark). 275 Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax therefore occurs worldwide including a semi-enclosed South-276 Western Mediterranean lagoon (Bizerte). This wide distribution could be explained by natural 277 or human assisted dispersion throughout resting cysts transport by water ballast and/or 278 shellfish (Hallegraeff, 1993, Laabir et Gentien, 1999) or/and the large geographical 279 occurrence of an endogenous species. The life cycle of A. pseudogonyaulax showed a 280 succession of different stages with distinctive morphology, physiology and function. Asexual 281 reproduction was characterized by eleutheroschisis where a vegetative cell sheds its theca 282 when settling on surface sediment, thereafter the resulting temporary cyst divides. Two types 283 of conjugation of the gametes were observed in A. pseudogonyaulax including engulfment 284 and fusion either with anisogamy or isogamy leading to the planozygote (Zmerli Triki et al., 285 2015). The morphology of vegetative cells was consistent with the general features of the species and they are described with more details in Zmerli-Tiki et al. (2014). Resting cysts 286 287 (RCs) have different appearance, which can misleading in quantitative and qualitative studies. 288 Compared to A. pseudogonyaulax cysts (40 to 50 µm in diameter) described by Bravo et al. 289 (2006), mean cyst diameter of APBZ12 was 62.5 μ m (SD ± 3.65). Most of A. 290 pseudogonyaulax RCs encountered in this study were paratabulated, whereas others showed 291 no tabulation at all or very fine tabulation hardly distinguished under photonic microscope. 292 The misidentification of Alexandrium hiranoi blooming on Jogashima, Japan (Murakami

293 et al., 1988) as Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax (Kita et al., 1985) producing GDA caused a

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294 taxonomic confusion about A. pseudogonyaulax toxicity. Kita and Fukuyo (1988) renamed 295 formerly the dinoflagellate species producing GDA in Jogashima as A. hiranoi. However, 296 unfortunately the confusion remained in many works dealing with GDA toxin (Mizuno et al., 297 1998; Matsunaga et al., 1999; Abe et al., 2002; Takeda et al., 2008). 298 To our knowledge, no study was conducted on well characterized strains of A. 299 pseudogonyaulax to highlight any potential toxicity. The present work showed 300 unambiguously using HPLC-MS, that A. pseudogonyaulax (APBZ12) produces GDA, the 301 same toxin produced by A. monilatum from the Gulf Coast of the United States (Hsia et al., 302 2006) as well by A. hiranoi isolated from a Japanese rock pool (Murakami et al., 1988). 303 This toxin could be responsible of harmful effects on human health and aquatic fauna. Mizuno 304 et al. (1998) reported that GDA affects human cell brain functioning causing morphological 305 changes in astrocytomas cells by increasing the filamentous actin content. Also, GDA was reported to inhibit angiogenesis (regeneration of vessel) and that this was mediated at least in 306 307 part through the inhibition of actin reorganization (Abe et al., 2002). During A. monilatum 308 bloom in the lower York River, significant mortality of Veined rapa whelks (Rapana venosa, 309 gastropods) was observed and GDA concentration was around 0.77–8.77 mg toxin g^{-1} of 310 whelk tissue (Harding et al., 2009). Massive fish mortalities reported for over than 100 years 311 in the Offats Bayou near Galveston, Texas (USA) have been associated to the GDA producer 312 A. monilatum (Gates and Wilson, 1960, Hsia et al., 2006). This mortality was probably due to 313 haemolytic activity of the produced polyether macrolide (Clemons et al., 1980; Bass et al., 314 1983).

At our knowledge, no blooms nor fish or mollusk mortalities have been yet associated with *A*. *pseudogonyaulax* from Bizerte. Monitoring programs on shellfish mortality is not yet implemented and aquaculture farms in Bizerte are rather uncommon. However, in view of the development of aquaculture activities and in regards of the significant cyst densities (Zmerli

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Triki et al., 2014) in the sediment which are able to germinate and inoculate the water column, this lagoon is not immune to major development of this toxic dinoflagellate which could potentially cause the intoxication and the mortality of the wild fish and cultivated mollusks. Thus the existing monitoring program have to include *A. pseudogonyaulax* in HAB species list and GDA analyzes have to be performed when this dinoflagellate bloomed in the concerned marine ecosystem.

325

326 **5.** CONCLUSION

327 We have demonstrated that A. pseudogonyaulax produces the toxic compound goniodomin A. 328 This toxin is similar to that produced by A. monilatum and A. hiranoi developing in 329 contrasting marine systems. We also showed that the mass extract of APBZ12 was highly 330 bioactive which suggest a possible lethal effect on fishes *in situ* when algal cells are disrupted. 331 Further studies have to focus on the ecology and population dynamic of this species to better 332 understand the main environmental factors regulating its development in situ. 333 Ecophysiological studies have to investigate the modulation of the production of GDA by the 334 environmental factors such temperature, salinity and nutrients (organic and inorganic nitrogen 335 and phosphate). Because of the demonstrated bioactivity of GDA from APBZ12, it will be 336 interesting to investigate the effect of this toxin on the major component of eleutheroschisis 337 where a vegetative cell sheds its theca when settling on surface sediment, thereafter the 338 resulting temporary cyst divides the marine ecosystem as fishes, mollusks and zooplankton 339 and to highlight the transfer of this potent toxin to high trophic levels.

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494 FIGURE CAPTIONS

495

496 Fig. 1. Map of the Bizerte lagoon showing connections with Ichkeul lake and Mediterranean497 sea.

- 498
- 499 Fig. 2. Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax resting cysts (RCs) morphotypes isolated from recent
- sediments of Bizerte lagoon and life history stages: flattened side of A .pseudogonyaulax RCs
- 501 (A, D), paratabulated cyst (B-F); thin pellicule mucus in RC (narrow) (E), vesiculos content
- 502 of A. pseudogonyaulax RCs (F,G); granular content of A. pseudogonyaulax (H); RCs with two
- 503 (J, K) or four (I) daughter cells inside the cyst; paratabulated empty cyst (L); vegetative cell
- 504 (M); gamete (N); planozygote (O); laboratory produced resting cysts (P). Scale bar (10 μm).

505

506 Fig. 3. Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax APBZ12 designed thecal plates (1' to 4' and 1'' to 6")

507 of the epitheca, Vp means ventral pore.

508

509 Fig. 4. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of Alexandrium pseudogonyaulax inferred

510 from partial LSU rDNA (matrix of 42 taxa and 657 positions). The tree was routed with

511 Goniodoma polyedricum. Filled black circles indicate full statistical support of branches

512 (100/1.00). Values associated with branches correspond to bootstrap support and posterior
513 probabilities (ML/BI).

514

Fig. 5. (A) MALDI-TOF of toxic extract; 791.23 indicates mass of extract in positive ion
mode. (B) ESI-MS of toxic extract; 791.2 indicates mass of extract in positive ion mode

518 Fig. 6. Chemical structure of goniodomin A (reproduced from Hsia et al., 2006)

519 Fig. 1



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526 Fig. 2



Fig. 3



546 **Fig. 4**



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0.1

Fig. 5A



