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## Bivalve genomics

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**Abstract:** Interest in bivalve genomics has emerged during the last decade, owing to the importance of these organisms in aquaculture and fisheries and to their role in marine environmental science. Knowledge of bivalve genome structure, function and evolution resulting from 20th century "single gene" approaches is limited, but genomic technologies are called to dramatically increase it. Research based on linkage maps, transcriptomics and proteomics is being carried out to study the genetic and molecular bases of traits of interest in bivalve farming industry, mainly disease susceptibility, tolerance to environmental stress, and growth. The Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*) is now the focus of an international genome-sequencing consortium. The use of bivalves in pollution monitoring has prompted the genomic study of the cell and organism responses to xenobiotics, which should expand into the field of phytoplankton toxins. Future work should also pay more attention to the larval stages, and to basic processes such as growth, sex-determination, and gonad development.

**Keywords:** Bivalves; Genomics; Proteomics; Stress; Feeding; Shellfish toxins

## 1. Introduction

Bivalves constitute a source of food all over the world, with a production of over 13 million Tm in year 2002 (FAOSTAT data, last updated February 2004; <http://apps.fao.org/default.jsp>). Scientific bivalve aquaculture is now more than 50 years old (Loosanoff and Davis, 1963; Walne, 1974; Korringa, 1976, 1979), and has achieved a degree of technological development that includes regular production of polyploids (Nell, 2002) and ongoing selection and breeding programs (Sheridan, 1997; Nell et al., 1999; Calvo et al., 2003; Evans et al., 2003; Langdon et al., 2003; Nell and Hand, 2003; Zheng et al., 2004). Oysters, clams and scallops are among the 12 most important species in global aquaculture (Fig. 1). Bivalves also have an important role in the functioning of the ecosystems that they inhabit (Gosling, 2003), for example as a scaffold for rocky shore intertidal communities (mussels) or as extensive contributors to the transfer of mineral (e.g.: calcium) and organic matter in benthic habitats (oysters, scallops). Besides marine coastal habitats, bivalves are adapted to a variety of other environments, including freshwater, low-light deep sea, and turbid and oxygen-poor brackish waters, although the physiological and molecular bases of these adaptations are still poorly known. Due to filter feeding, bivalves can accumulate xenobiotic compounds, and, therefore, are organisms of choice for environmental monitoring, but also constitute potential risks for human health when they are eaten.

In response to the importance of bivalves in marine ecosystems and aquaculture, the study of bivalve genomics is beginning. Obviously, a genome sequence permits detailed knowledge of an organism's biology and is one of the most powerful tools in the hands of biologists today.. A proposal to sequence the genome of the Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*), has been put forward by the Oyster Genome Consortium (OGC), which is comprised of 70 individuals from 11 countries (Hedgecock et al., 2005). However, genomics is more than obtaining a complete genome sequence and has many other tools and aims, which share a focus on the simultaneous study of the whole genome, as opposed to single-gene or multigene approaches typical of 20<sup>th</sup> century molecular biology. This focus has been made possible by the development of highly sophisticated analytical tools (Gibson and Muse, 2005).

Here we review present knowledge of bivalve genomics, which has resulted primarily from classical single-gene studies, introduce the main areas of ongoing research with new genomic approaches, and describe the tools developed so far in these areas. We also identify specific topics of bivalve biology and aquaculture in which genomics has not been applied yet but could be particularly useful.

## 2. The genome of bivalves

The DNA content of the haploid bivalve genome ranges from 0.65 pg to 5.4 pg (Gregory, 2005). These values are in the middle of the range for the metazoans as a whole (Gregory, 2004). As can be seen in Fig. 2, bivalve genome sizes are comparable to those of model organisms whose genome has been already sequenced, or of other important cultured marine species. Haploid chromosome numbers for bivalves range from 10 to 23, and chromosomes tend to be very homogeneous in size (Thiriot-Quièvreux, 1994). This poses problems for identification under the microscope. Classical C- and G-banding provide no means to differentiate the chromosomes, but fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) with

P1 clones have rendered good results in the American oyster *Crassostrea virginica* (Wang et al., 2005)

Our knowledge of the structure and gene content of bivalve genomes is less extensive than that for other major invertebrate groups and clearly less than that for vertebrates. We will summarize, first, the knowledge relative to the organization of the non-coding fraction. Repetitive DNA, either satellite or interspersed, is common in bivalves. Some satellite DNA families have been characterized in the clam *Donax trunculus* (Plohl and Cornudella, 1996; Petrovic and Plohl, 2005), mussels (Martínez Lage et al., 2002, 2005), oysters (Clabby et al., 1996; López-Flores et al., 2004) and the Antarctic scallop *Adamusium colbeckii* (Canapa et al., 2000). One single satellite DNA has been estimated to comprise 0.63% of the genome of the blue mussel *Mytilus edulis*, and another accounts for 1-4% of the Pacific oyster genome, suggesting that the repetitive DNA fractions of bivalve genomes are quite large, in agreement with early studies based on reassociation kinetics (Clabby et al., 1996; Goldberg et al., 1975; Ruiz-Lara et al., 1999). Martínez-Lage et al. (2005) studied three satellite DNAs in four *Mytilus* species and 10 additional bivalves. They found that abundant satellite motifs in one species can be present in lower copy-number in even closely related species, and suggested that these differences across species support the “library hypothesis” of Nijman and Lenstra (2001). This hypothesis proposes that there is a set of conserved satellite DNA sequences in a group of organisms, and different sequences spread randomly in the genome of different species. The location of the some satellite DNAs (centromeric, telomeric, interspersed) has been studied by Southern blotting or FISH (Martínez-Lage et al., 2002; Plohl and Cornudella, 1997; Plohl et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2001). FISH mapping has revealed that bivalves are the only invertebrates that carry the vertebrate telomeric sequence (Guo and Allen, 1997; González-Tizón et al., 1998; Wang and Guo, 2001). Transposable elements have been found in bivalves (Arkhipova and Meselson, 2000), and some repetitive DNAs seem to be related to transposons (Gaffney et al., 2003; López-Flores et al., 2004).

#### *Our present knowledge of nuclear genes in bivalves*

A search of the GenBank database for the keywords “Mollusca” + “Bivalvia” returned over 32000 entries, which is not much when compared to other completely aquatic zoological groups such as fishes (more than 2 million entries), or annelid worms (~19000 entries). Bivalve mitochondrial sequences are exceedingly abundant in databases, if we consider that they represent only a very small fraction of the total DNA and gene content (Fig. 3a). This is attributable to their special intrinsic interest (see below) and the use of mtDNA as a tool of choice in population genetics and phylogenetics.

By species, DNA databases are dominated by oysters (*Crassostrea* sp), bay scallops (*Argopecten irradians*) and mussels (*Mytilus* sp), with *Pecten* scallops following far away (Fig. 3b). It is remarkable that of the three bivalve species that appear among the “top 12” aquacultured organisms at a global scale (Fig. 1), two of them, the Japanese or Yesso scallop (*Patinopecten yessoensis*) and the Manila clam (*Ruditapes philippinarum*), are minimally represented in GenBank (less than 1% each) (Fig. 3b).

A large fraction of the nuclear sequences in GenBank is the result of 20th century “single-gene” research (as opposed to 21<sup>st</sup> century whole-genome approaches). The nature of these sequences reflects the interests of the scientific community as well as several characteristics of the bivalves themselves, and can be classified in the following categories:

- Exclusive characteristics of bivalves have been studied from a genetic perspective. The genes coding for proteins of the byssus, a bunch of threads by which some bivalves attach to the substrate during part or the whole adult life, have been cloned and studied (Inoue et al., 1996; Coyne et al., 1997; Anderson and Waite, 1998; Waite and Quin, 2001). Genes involved in the formation of the shell have also been reported (Sarashina and Endo, 2001; Zhang et al., 2003; Li et al., 2004). In both cases, a stimulus for research has been its potential industrial utility in the field of natural cements (byssus proteins) and the pearl industry (shell formation).
- Some information has been collected on genes related to immunity and disease resistance, especially in mussels and oysters, which includes sequences of genes coding for several anti-microbial peptides and pathogen defense-related proteins (Mitta et al., 2000; Nilsen and Myrnes, 2001; Montagnani et al., 2001). This information is of obvious applied interest in aquaculture.
- Bivalves, especially mussels, have been extensively used for monitoring environmental changes and the effect of these changes on the performance of marine organisms. Several laboratories have cloned genes related to pollution and stress response in bivalves (Barsyte et al., 1999; Butler et al., 2001; Tanguy et al., 2003; Jenny et al., 2004; Tagaki et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2004; Boutet et al., 2004, 2005).
- Basic metabolic processes, such as respiration (Piro et al., 1998; Jia et al., 1999; Kimura et al., 2005), energy storage (Suzuki and Yamamoto, 2000; Suzuki et al., 2002; Takeuchi et al., 2004), calcium metabolism (Dubos et al., 2003), digestion (Xu et al., 2001, 2002; Sellos et al., 2003; Kothemyako et al., 2004), development (Barucca et al., 2003; Canapa et al., 2005; Pérez-Parallé et al., 2005), muscle contraction (Iwasaki et al., 1997; Yamada et al., 1999; Watabe et al., 2000; Funabara et al., 2001a, b), protein turnover (Donald et al., 2001), neuronal activity (Cadet and Stefano, 1999) or reproduction (Matsumoto et al., 2003) have been studied in bivalves from a molecular biology perspective, which resulted in cloning genes coding for several proteins involved in those processes. Genes coding for some proteins of structural function have also been cloned (Carlos et al., 1993; Ruiz-Lara et al., 1993).
- Finally, many database entries refer to ribosomal genes and spacers, which have been used mainly in phylogenetics and population genetics research. Still, our present knowledge of the systematics and phylogeny of bivalves is poor and malacologists have not agreed on the relationships of many of the basal categories within the class (Steiner and Müller, 1996; Giribet and Carranza, 1999; Giribet and Wheeler, 2002).

In summary, research on several processes of general biological interest (evolution, development), as well as of applied interest in biotechnology and aquaculture (digestion, immunity, stress resistance, byssus and shell formation), have been attacked from a classical molecular biology perspective in the last two decades. They have produced only a small collection of information pieces about the bivalve genome and its functional role. At present, the knowledge of the molecular and cellular mechanisms involved in the main physiological processes of interest in aquaculture (growth, reproduction, immunity) is very small. Genomic approaches are needed to increase dramatically our knowledge of those processes.

### *Mitochondrial genomes*

The mitochondrial component of the genome is especially interesting in bivalves because some species show a particular type of inheritance called “doubly uniparental” (DUI) (reviewed in Zouros, 2001). Species with DUI have two types of mitochondrial genomes, called F and M, which are transmitted through females and males, respectively, with males being heteroplasmic and females homoplasmic for F (Skibinski et al., 1994; Zouros et al., 1994). Complete or nearly complete sequences of mitochondrial genomes are already available for 6 species in public databases, including the F and M genomes of the Mediterranean mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, the Manila clam *Ruditapes philippinarum* and the freshwater mussel *Inversidens japonensis*, and the F genomes of the blue mussel *M. edulis*, the freshwater mussel *Lampsilis ornata*, and the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas*, in which DUI has not been reported (Mizi et al., 2005, and references therein). It has been shown that F and M genomes can recombine in species with DUI (Ladoukakis and Zouros, 2001; Rokas et al., 2003). Also, DUI has been related to extreme biases in family sex ratio, which have a nuclear genetic basis (Zouros et al., 1994; Saavedra et al., 1997; Kenchington et al., 2003). Functional differences between F and M genomes are now beginning to be studied (Dalziel and Stewart, 2002). Mapping approaches to identify the genomic locations of the genes responsible for sex-determination, sex-ratio bias and alternative patterns of M genome transmission could shed light on the mechanistic basis of these phenomena, while functional genomics offers powerful tools to understand their molecular bases.

### 3. Genomic tools in bivalves

#### *Genomic libraries*

Many types of libraries have been developed to facilitate the handling and storage of the large amounts of DNA contained in cells. The use of expression libraries packaged in viral or plasmid vectors is commonplace in modern laboratories. However, the more recent development of vectors for constructing libraries of large pieces of DNA (in the order of millions of base pairs) has facilitated genomic analysis. These vectors include fosmid, bacterial artificial chromosomes (BAC) and P1-derived artificial chromosomes (PAC) (Kimet al., 1992; Shizuya et al., 1992; Ioannou et al., 1994). BAC libraries have become one of the favorite tools for collection and archival of genomic material, also in non-model organisms (e.g.: Thorsen et al., 2005). They are often the first step towards the sequencing of an organism’s genome (Gibson and Muse, 2002). They are also used for the construction of physical maps (e.g.: Ng et al., 2005). Among bivalves, only the commercial oysters have been the subjects of BAC library construction (see details in Hedgecock et al., 2005). Since BAC libraries facilitate enormously the handling of long genomic fragments, its use should rapidly expand to other intensively exploited commercial bivalves.

#### *EST collections*

Expressed sequence tags (EST) are sequences of genome fragments obtained from a library of cDNAs by sequencing the ends of the inserts. The generation of EST collections has been a popular tool for initiating genomic research in model (e.g.: sea urchin; Poustka et al., 2003) and non-model organisms (e.g.: salmon; Rise et al., 2004), because it produces information on the part of the genome that is actually expressed, and can be used afterwards in various ways (e.g.: gene fishing, microarrays). Several EST collections have already

been reported in commercial bivalves, and they account for the large numbers of sequences available in public databases for oysters, mussels, and scallops as compared to other bivalve species (Fig. 3b). Until March 2005, 14 EST collections from bivalves had been published or made available in public databases (Table 1). With only one exception (the invasive zebra mussel *Dreissena polymorpha*), all were focused on farmed species. These collections have provided a substantial number of sequences that are similar to genes already isolated in other organisms, but they are characterized by a large proportion (~50%) of no hit sequences, which show no similarity to known genes after BLAST search against databases (Fig. 4). A high potential for the discovery of new genes and, perhaps, new metabolic routes and gene networks is suggested by these data. Consortia of several laboratories have emerged in order to produce and manage these kinds of data, such as the Marine Genomics project in America ([www.marinegenomics.org](http://www.marinegenomics.org)) (McKillen et al., 2005), or the Marine Genomics Europe Network of Excellence (MGE) ([www.marine-genomics-europe.org](http://www.marine-genomics-europe.org)). One of the main objectives of these initiatives is the production, in the next few years, of large amounts of ESTs from many marine species, including cultivated bivalves such as the bay scallop, the Pacific and American oysters, blue mussels (*Mytilus* sp.), and clams (*Ruditapes* sp.).

### *Microarrays*

Much of the current cDNA sequencing effort is directed towards the construction of microarrays (Schena et al., 1995), which are extremely useful tools to study different physiological functions (Stoughton, 2005; von Schalburg et al., 2005). An international collaboration has been initiated among laboratories in North America and France to produce a multi-species microarray containing over 6,000 cDNAs from *C. virginica*, *C. gigas* and the oyster pathogen *Perkinsus marinus* (see Hedgecock et al., 2005). Within the framework of the MGE Network, a specific *C. gigas* microarray will be constructed using representative ESTs of different tissues (hemocytes, gills, gonads, mantle and digestive gland). The MGE Network will also produce microarrays containing mussel (*Mytilus*) and clam (*Ruditapes*) genes. .

### *DNA polymorphisms*

An important fraction of the nuclear genome entries in GenBank comprises microsatellite-containing genome fragments (Fig. 3a). Microsatellites are the most popular molecular markers in quantitative genomics (Goldstein and Schlötterer, 1999). Most bivalve microsatellite sequences deposited in databases come from the Pacific oyster *C. gigas*, which is the subject of ongoing breeding programs. Abundance of microsatellites seem to vary widely even among closely related species of bivalves, and dinucleotide microsatellites are far more abundant than any other type of microsatellites, as has been observed in most other metazoans (Cruz et al., 2005).

Screenings of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) in bivalves are beginning and first results indicate a high frequency of single nucleotide polymorphisms (1 per 40 bp) and insertion/deletion (1 per 33 bp) polymorphisms in oyster ESTs (Curole and Hedgecock 2005). Low throughput technologies, such as single strand conformation polymorphisms (SSCP) (Orita et al., 1989) or denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) (Miller et al., 1999), allow scoring for multiple single-base polymorphisms at ESTs or other genome

fragments (Ortí et al., 1997). These technologies will tend to be substituted by high throughput technologies already available for nucleotide genotyping (Kwok 2001). Pyrosequencing (Milbury et al., 2004), quantitative PCR-based 5'-nuclease and allele-specific PCR (Elfstrom et al., 2005), and mass spectrometry (D. Jolivet, Station Biologique de Roscoff, pers. comm.) have been used thus far. In the near future, these and other methodologies will allow full automation of the genotyping process in natural populations and pedigreed farmed stocks of bivalves.

#### **4. Linkage maps and quantitative genomics**

A linkage map of the Pacific oyster's genome, based on more than 100 microsatellites, has been published recently (Hubert and Hedgecock, 2004), and AFLP-based maps of the American and Pacific oysters, and Zhikong scallops, have also been produced (Li and Guo, 2004; Yu and Guo, 2003; Wang et al., 2005). These studies have shown that recombination rates are very different between sexes in oysters (as they are in other organisms). Hubert & Hedgecock (2004) also found inter-individual variation in recombination rates and gene order, possibly indicative of polymorphisms for chromosomal rearrangements. Mapping efforts have been initiated in other species such as the blue mussel (P. Boudry, IFREMER- La Tremblade, pers. comm.; P. Presa, University of Vigo, pers. comm.) and the Manila clam (C. Saavedra, unpublished results).

Linkage maps are usually carried out in the framework of quantitative genomics programs, i.e., mid to long term studies directed to locate genomic regions underlying phenotypic variation for a given trait, usually of economic importance (Liu, 1997). The interdisciplinary team nucleated by IFREMER (the French Institute for Research and Exploitation of the Sea) is producing large amounts of markers as well as experimental populations for carrying out quantitative trait loci (QTL) studies in the Pacific oyster. In particular, facing the phenomenon of summer mortalities occurring regularly in French oyster culture beds, a program has been launched to select families for low and high survival rates. At present, a second generation, multifamily pedigree is available for QTL mapping (MOREST program: <http://www.ifremer.fr/morest>). Oyster QTL mapping efforts are also taking place in Australia (McGoldrick et al., 2002) and the United States (Hedgecock et al. 2004).

One of the problems faced by linkage mapping and QTL studies in bivalves is that genotype proportions in the offspring of crosses deviate moderately to largely from those expected under Mendelian segregation, on which the performance of mapping algorithms is based (McGoldrick and Hedgecock, 1997; Bierne et al., 1998; Launey and Hedgecock 2001). Hubert and Hedgecock (2004) overcame this difficulty by using larvae for genotyping the mapping population, because previous studies had shown that deviations from Mendelian ratios appeared at the end of the larval period or later. Yet, traits of interest for QTL mapping are usually expressed in adult animals. On the other hand, maps have been successfully constructed in species exhibiting moderate amounts of segregation distortion (Schwartz-Sommeer et al., 2003). Clearly, more theoretical work is needed to clarify the effects of transmission distortion on linkage and QTL detection, and to develop new algorithms that take into account this potential cause of bias.

#### **5. Functional genomics of traits of interest in bivalve aquaculture**

*Transcriptomic approaches to stress tolerance, pathogen resistance and hybrid vigor*

The genomic analysis of traits that are of special importance from the viewpoint of bivalve farming has begun in recent years, mainly through the study of gene transcription patterns. cDNA libraries, EST collections and the subsequent printing of microarrays are being used as a general approach to identify genes with putative functions in the cellular and biochemical processes underlying these traits. So far, these studies have been limited to the Pacific oyster, and have been reviewed recently (Hedgecock et al., 2005). Here we will provide only a succinct account to illustrate the use of tools described in the previous section. Immunity and pathogen resistance are the traits that have received special attention. The expression of resistance or sensitivity to diseases is often linked to environmental stress, which can be produced by changes in temperature and salinity, or anoxia (Burreson and Calvo 1996). Jenny et al. (2002) produced two EST collections from embryos and hemocytes of the American oyster *C. virginica* to identify genes potentially related to stress response. They identified 29 transcripts, which could be potential biomarkers, including recognition proteins, proteins of the acute-phase response, proteinases, proteinase inhibitors, other potential immune effectors, and other related biomarkers. Gueguen et al. (2003,) produced a cDNA library from hemocytes of bacteria-challenged Pacific oysters. Putative functions were assigned to 54% of 1142 sequenced cDNAs and all EST information is available through search profiles on a public database (<http://www.ifremer.fr/GigasBase/>).

More specific studies have been carried out by means of libraries produced by suppression subtractive hybridization (SSH) (Diatchenko et al., 1999). EST sequences were obtained from a SSH between mantle and gonad RNAs from Pacific oyster progenies selected for resistance and sensitivity to summer mortality phenomenon (Huvet et al., 2004). Some genes were identified as candidates for further investigation. Tanguy et al. (2004) employed this approach to find genes related to the differential response of American and Pacific oysters to the parasite *Perkinsus marinus*. The two oyster species show very different degrees of sensitivity. When they compared infected and control strains in both species, they found 107 genes which were differentially expressed in *C. virginica*, and 69 in *C. gigas*. The study uncovered differences in gene expression between the two oyster species, which provided candidate genes for further study. Stress tolerance and pathogen resistance in oysters are now being approached through microarrays, through an international collaboration among several North American and French laboratories (Hedgecock et al., 2005).

Hybrid vigor or heterosis, the phenomenon by which hybrid strains grow faster or survive better than parental strains, is a common observation in farmed animals and the basis of many commercial strains of animals and plants. Heterosis at the molecular level in bivalves was discovered 25 years ago as a relationship of growth and survival with protein heterozygosity as scored by gel electrophoresis. Since then, it has been one of the major topics of genetic research in bivalves (Pogson and Zouros, 1994; Hedgecock et al., 1996; Bierne et al., 1998; Launey and Hedgecock, 2001). The extremely powerful technique of massively parallel signature sequencing has been used by D. Hedgecock's team (University of Southern California, USA), in collaboration with a private biotechnology company to study the molecular basis of heterosis in the Pacific oyster by screening the whole transcriptome (Hedgecock et al., 2005, and references therein).



### *Proteomic approaches to stress tolerance*

Proteomics has been applied to the study of stress factors on the quality of commercial blue mussels (*Mytilus* sp). López et al. (2001, 2002b) performed two-dimensional electrophoresis on 16 individuals of *Mytilus galloprovincialis* and *M. edulis* and distinguished 1278 spots per gel, of which 420 were subjected to further analysis. Significant differences in expression between the two species, as indicated by differences in staining intensity, were observed at 37 proteins. By using Matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization/time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF) and nanoelectrospray ion trap (NESI-ITB), 15 peptides could be identified, including seven which exhibited some of the highest expression differences between species. Interestingly, higher expression levels were found at two stress-related proteins (HSP-70 and calreticulin) in animals coming from an intertidal population, which experienced a highly variable environment, than in animals from a cultivated population, with a more stable environment. Subsequent study of mussel crosses showed that hybrid mussels had altered expression patterns for several polypeptides, including underexpression of HSP-70 and calreticulin, as compared to homospecific crosses of *M. galloprovincialis* (Fuentes et al., 2002). In a further comparison of the two cited species with *M. trossulus* from the Baltic Sea of much lower salinity, it was found that one polypeptide out of 6 showed one amino acid difference in *M. trossulus* after MALDI-TOF peptide mapping (López et al., 2002 a). The protein showing the difference was identified as tropomyosin.

These studies show the utility of proteomic approaches for the genetic characterization of species such as bivalves, which have not been well characterized previously at the genomic or proteomic level, and to advance in the knowledge of diverse aspects of their biology.

## **6. Environmental genomics**

### *Pollution and shellfish toxins*

Biotoxins and pollutants are environmental factors of special concern in bivalve aquaculture, because they can induce stress and reduce production yield and quality, provoke mortalities, and affect human health. Bivalves are organisms of choice to study the effect of marine pollution on physiology. Several genomic approaches, such as the production of cDNA libraries, microarrays and proteomics are being used to study the effect of pollutants on key bivalve species (e.g.: Knigge et al., 2004; Rodríguez-Ortega et al., 2003; Tanguy et al., 2005; Venier et al., 2003). Of more immediate importance is the widespread phenomenon of accumulation of phytoplankton toxins in bivalves (Bricelj and Shumway, 1998; Burgess and Shaw, 2001). Some toxins affect the animals, while others do not affect the animals, but affect humans who eat them (Brett, 2003), which can result in important economical losses for shellfish farmers and fishermen due to bans on shellfish extraction. While some bivalve species readily detoxify, it takes up to several weeks for other species (e.g., scallops) to eliminate the toxins (Shumway and Cembella, 1993). The network of molecular processes involved in detoxification and cell responses to toxins is far from being well understood (Bricelj and Shumway, 1998; Burgess and Shaw, 2001). A recent study showed a molecular basis for differences in sensitivity to paralytic shellfish

toxin (PST) in the clam *Mya arenaria* (Bricelj et al., 2005). Populations with a different history of exposure to toxic algae blooms showed adaptation to PST due to a single nucleotide mutation, which caused an amino acid replacement in the Na<sup>+</sup> channel outer pore, the binding site for PST. This mutation increased clam survival after exposure to the toxic microalgae responsible for PST production. While this work shows the molecular basis of clam resistance to toxins, the basis for differences in depuration rate among bivalve species remains unknown. Due to its expected complexity, study of detoxification in bivalves will clearly benefit from genomic and transcriptomic approaches (Rossini, 2005).

### *Feeding and nutrition*

Several aspects of the feeding and nutrition physiology have been studied in bivalves, especially ingestion and clearance rates, and enzymatic activities and their variation across tissues or ecological conditions (e.g.: Reid, 1968; Bayne et al., 1987; Ibarrola et al., 1996; Labarta et al., 2002). However, detailed molecular characterization of these processes is lacking, although some genes coding for digestive enzymes have been cloned and described (Xu et al., 2001, 2002; Sellos et al., 2003; Kothemyako et al., 2004). Genomic technologies provide extremely powerful tools to deal with these issues. cDNA libraries from different parts of the digestive tract and subsequent microarray and quantitative PCR studies can reveal patterns of expression of the set of genes involved in digestion and absorption, and their response to environmental parameters.

A fundamental aspect of bivalve culture is the design of diets of quality that guarantee optimal larval survival, spat growth or sexual maturation (Walne, 1974; Knauer and Southgate, 1999). One of the handicaps of diet design is the poor knowledge of diet composition of cultivated species in their natural environment. A promising approach to this issue will be the use of “environmental genomics” (Venter et al., 2004) in the context of gut content analysis. This methodology, which has been very successful in the area of microbial marine biodiversity, consists in the isolation of microorganisms by filtering, subsequent extraction of bulk DNA from the sample, and PCR amplification of one or more target genes with universal primers that work in a wide array of taxa. After cloning and sequencing a large amount of target fragments, the identification of the species that are present in the sample can be carried out by comparing the sequences with those available in databases (e.g.: Moon van der Staay et al., 2001). This methodology has allowed Duplessis et al. (2004) and Blakenship and Yayanos (2005) to characterize the gut contents in the bivalve *Lucinoma aequizonata* and other marine invertebrates. In a further step, the use of arrays containing a large number of sequences from microorganisms potentially constituting part of bivalve food could be used to study the composition of diets of animals growing in different localities, and help localize the best places for farming. Ecological genomic approaches to bivalve feeding will also enhance the understanding of food webs in marine ecosystems.

## **7. Larval genomics**

An important aspect of the research summarized to this point is that it has been focused on adult animals. However, bivalves display at least three well-recognized larval stages (trochophore, veliger and paediveliger)(Gosling, 2003), and the knowledge of the molecular and cell biology of these stages is almost inexistent. An immediate question is

whether different blocks of genes are expressed at these different stages and in adults, and for what physiological functions. Larvae suffer pollution and stress at least as much as adults, and larval mortality is a source of concern in farms. Basic molecular techniques are applicable to bivalve larvae (Steele et al., 1999; Bierne et al, 1999), and a collection of ESTs from scallop larvae has already been deposited in public databases (Table 1). Proteomic methods have been applied also to the study of bivalve larvae (López et al., 2005). Future genomic studies should pay more attention to this important stage of the bivalve life cycle.

## **8. Concluding remarks**

Genomics and proteomics offer powerful tools for attacking complex problems of fundamental importance for progress in bivalve aquaculture industry. However, these tools need accompanying progress in other aspects. First, the development of populations designed specifically to address particular topics is necessary: selected strains, well-characterized local races, and mutant phenotypes. Some are already available in the Pacific oyster (reviewed in Hedgecock et al., 2005). On the other hand, cell biology tools, such as cell lines, are not yet available in bivalves. This goal will surely benefit from genomic and proteomic tools (Rinkevich, 2005). Finally, our knowledge of the very basic physiological processes, such as the regulation of growth or sexual maturation, is extremely poor at the molecular level in bivalves. Genomics offers extremely powerful tools to increase this knowledge, which would certainly increase the chances of improving bivalve aquaculture.

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Table 1. EST collections from bivalves that have been submitted to public databases. DP, *Dreissena polymorpha*. Other species abbreviations as in Fig. 2.

| <b>Species</b> | <b>Author (lab)</b>                                 | <b>Tissue</b>                         | <b>No. of ESTs</b> |
|----------------|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| Oyster         | J.M. Escoubas, E. Bacherre (CRS-IFREMER, France)    | Hemocytes                             | 1142               |
| CG             | X. Guo (Haskin Shellfish Research Laboratory, USA)  | Hemocytes, gill                       | 70                 |
|                | A. Huvet (IFREMER, France)                          | Mantle / gonad<br>substracted library | 137                |
|                | A.H. Kausland (SARS Centre, Norway)                 | Mantle                                | 409                |
|                | D. Moraga (Université Bretagne Occidentale, France) | Gonad, digestive gland                | 377                |
|                | G.P. Rafferty (National University of Ireland)      | Gill                                  | 106                |

Table 1 (continued)

| <b>Species</b> | <b>Author (lab)</b>                                    | <b>Tissue</b>                                | <b>No. of ESTs</b> |
|----------------|--|--|--------------------|
| Oyster<br>CV   | P.S. Gross (Medical University of South Carolina, USA) | Hepatopancreas, hemocytes                    | 4145               |
|                | M.J. Jenny (Medical University of South Carolina, USA) | Veliger larvae                               | 418                |
|                | Z.J. Liu (Auburn University, USA)                      | Gill, Gonad                                  | 4348               |
|                | X. Guo (Haskin Shellfish Research Laboratory, USA)     | Substracted library form hemocytes, and gill | 177                |
| Mussel<br>MG   | P. Venier (University of Padova, Italy)                | Whole body                                   | 3986               |
| Scallop<br>AI  | S. B. Roberts (Woods Hole MBL, USA)                    | Spat, gonad, adductor muscle, larvae         | 2089               |
|                | L. Wu (Chinese Academy of Sciences)                    | Whole body                                   | 4968               |

Table 1 (continued)

| Species              | Author (lab)                                  | Tissue          | No. of ESTs |
|----------------------|---|-----------------|-------------|
| Scallop PM           | I. A. Johnston (Gatty marine Laboratory, UK)  | Adductor muscle | 1129        |
| Freshwater mussel DP | J. M. Danger (University of Le Havre, France) | -               | 241         |



Fig. 1. "Top 12" species in global aquaculture. Data from FAO (<http://apps.fao.org/default.jsp>) for year 2002. Hatched bars highlight the 3 bivalves included.

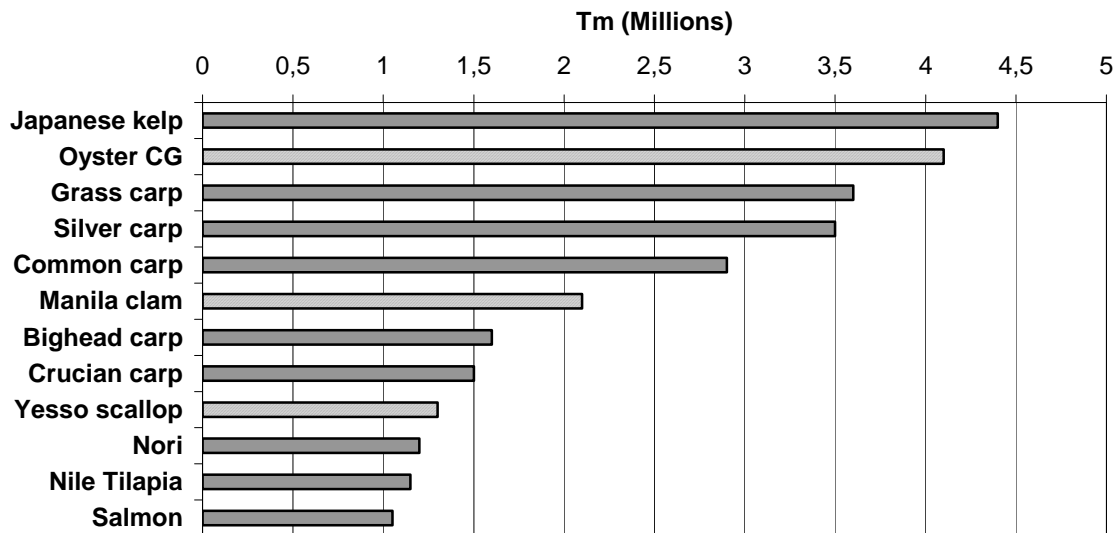


Fig. 2. Genome size of selected aquacultured bivalves (black) as compared to other marine organisms (hatched) and sequenced genomes (white). Data on non-sequenced organisms were obtained from the genome size database ([www.genomebase.org](http://www.genomebase.org)). Abbreviations: AI, *Argopecten irradians*; CG, *Crassostrea gigas*; CV, *C. virginica*; ME, *Mytilus edulis*; MG, *M. galloprovincialis*; PM, *Pecten maximus*; TP, *Ruditapes philippinarum*

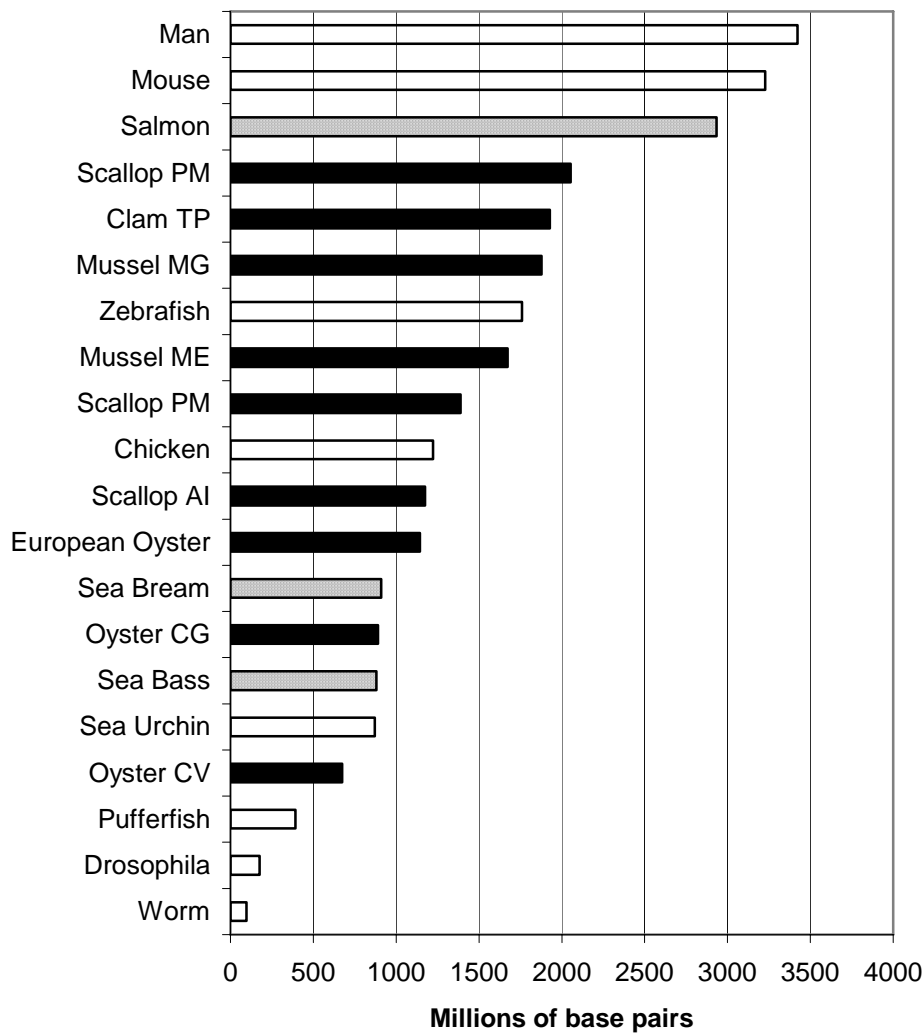


Fig. 3. Bivalves in public databases. A: Abundance of different types of bivalve DNA sequences in GenBank. B: Distribution of bivalve nuclear DNA sequences (excluding microsatellites) in GenBank by species or genera. Percents are indicated when they are above 1%.

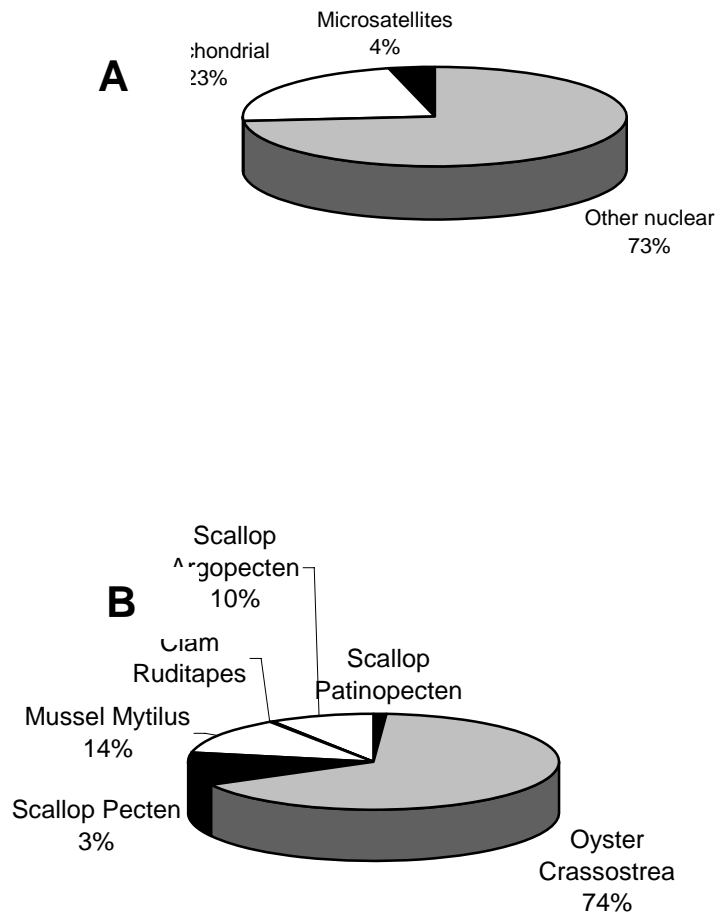


Fig. 4. Total number of ESTs obtained (bars) and relative frequency of sequences which could not be assigned to groups of known proteins (dots and line) in 4 cDNA libraries of bivalves which have been described in detail in the literature (Miyamoto et al., 2002; Jenny et al., 2002; Venier et al., 2003). Species abbreviations as in Fig. 2.

