

IDENTIFICATION OF GROUP- AND STRAIN-SPECIFIC GENETIC MARKERS FOR GLOBALLY DISTRIBUTED *ALEXANDRIUM* (DINOPHYCEAE).

I. RFLP ANALYSIS OF SSU rRNA GENES¹

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ABSTRACT

Two distinct small-subunit ribosomal RNA genes (SSU rDNAs), termed the "A gene" and "B gene," were recently found in the toxic dinoflagellate *Alexandrium fundyense* Balech. A restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) assay was developed to rapidly detect the A and B genetic markers. SSU rDNA from 58 cultures with species designations of *A. tamarense* (Lebour) Balech, *A. catenella* (Whedon et Kofoid) Balech, *A. fundyense*, *A. affine* (Fukuyo et Inoue) Balech, *A. minutum* Halim, *A. lusitanicum* Balech, and *A. andersoni* Balech were screened. These cultures represent toxic and non-toxic isolates from North America, western Europe, Thailand, Japan, Australia, and the ballast water of several cargo ships. The RFLP assay revealed five distinct groups. Three subdivided the *A. tamarense*/catenella/fundyense "species complex" into clusters defined by geographic origin, not by morphospecies designations. The fourth group consisted of *A. affine*, whereas the fifth group was represented by *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni*.

The B gene was only found in *A. tamarense*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense*, but not in all isolates. However, all North American isolates of this closely related group harbored this gene, and it also was found in some *A. tamarense* from scattered locations in Japan and in the ballast water of one ship that operated exclusively between Japan and Australia. Isolates without the B gene appeared to have only a single class of SSU rDNA. The B sequence was not essential for toxin production, but thus far those organisms harboring it were toxic. The *A. tamarense*/catenella/fundyense complex is composed of

genetically distinct populations, within which may exist two or all three of the morphotypically defined species. The B gene is a promising taxonomic and biogeographic marker and may be useful for tracking the regional and/or global dispersal of particular populations.

Key index words: *Alexandrium*; biogeography; PCR; pseudogene; Pyrrophyta; red tide; RFLP; small-subunit rRNA

Marine dinoflagellates within the genus *Alexandrium* (= *Protogonyaulax* Taylor; Steidinger and Moestrup 1990) include a number of species capable of producing potent neurotoxins. These toxins, referred to as paralytic shellfish poisons, can accumulate in filter-feeding shellfish and thereby pose a serious health threat if consumed by humans (Prakash et al. 1971). Toxic *Alexandrium* are found in many regions of the world (Taylor 1984). Compelling evidence from a number of investigators suggests that these organisms have expanded their geographic range by both natural and human-assisted means (Anderson 1989, Hayhome et al. 1989, Hallegraeff et al. 1991, Hallegraeff and Bolch 1991, 1992). Because of this dispersal and the well-known hazards of paralytic shellfish poisons, *Alexandrium* species are receiving increased international attention. Rapid and unequivocal identification of these organisms has become one focal point of toxic dinoflagellate research. Here we report on the application of molecular biological methods for identifying strain-specific genetic markers in toxic and non-toxic *Alexandrium* species and the use of these markers for classifying globally distributed populations.

At present, morphological characters are the primary means of describing *Alexandrium* species (Balech 1985, Steidinger 1990), although their validity

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with respect to species- and strain-level classifications continues to be a subject of debate (Taylor 1985, 1990). An example is the toxigenic *A. tamarensis*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense* species complex (or "tamarensis complex"), which are morphotypically similar organisms differentiated by detailed cellular characteristics such as presence or absence of a ventral pore on the first apical plate, the position of the posterior attachment pore, chain formation, and overall cell shape (Balech 1985, Fukuyo 1985, Taylor 1985). Some consider members of the tamarensis complex distinct species (e.g. Balech 1985, Balech and Tangen 1985), whereas others view them as varieties or strains of a single species (e.g. Taylor 1985, Cembella et al. 1988). Biochemical characters such as isozyme electrophoretic patterns (Cembella and Taylor 1986, Cembella et al. 1988, Hayhome et al. 1989, Sako et al. 1990), toxin composition profiles (Cembella et al. 1987), and cell surface antigens (Sako et al. 1993) have been used to discriminate isolates and to clarify the relationship between morphotype and species-level divisions. In some cases, biochemical markers corroborate morphotaxonomic classifications (Sako et al. 1990, 1993), but in others they do not (Cembella and Taylor 1986, Cembella et al. 1987, 1988, Hayhome et al. 1989). As a consequence, the relationship between fine-scale morphology and biochemical or genetic characters, including toxicity, remains obscure. In turn, the debate over whether tamarensoid, catenelloid, and fundyensis morphotypes represent species or strains of one species also continues. Complicating matters further is the fact that taxonomic and biogeographic case studies to date have focused primarily on regional rather than globally distributed populations. It thus seems possible that some confusion has arisen because different populations of the same morphospecies are genetically divergent.

Sequence analysis of genomic small-subunit (SSU) and large-subunit (LSU) ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes (rDNA) is one method that can be used to classify populations of *Alexandrium* (Destombe et al. 1992, Scholin and Anderson 1993, Scholin et al. 1993). Sequences of rRNA and rDNA have been used extensively to evaluate the evolutionary histories of many organisms (Olsen et al. 1986, Sogin et al. 1986, Field et al. 1988, Lenaers et al. 1991) and have gained recognition as species- and strain-specific genetic markers (Gobel et al. 1987, McCutchan et al. 1988, Stahl et al. 1988, Amann et al. 1990, Distel et al. 1991, Schlegel et al. 1991). We reasoned that this well-established method might be useful in settling the dispute over fine-scale *Alexandrium* taxonomic criteria and could help elucidate this group's global population structure. A unified systematic scheme and resolution of intraspecific genetic variation are also necessary references for testing dispersal hypotheses.

A prerequisite for all of these applications is acquiring, compiling, and analyzing sequences from

representative *Alexandrium* species collected from many locations throughout the world. As a first step in creating such a data base, we sequenced SSU rDNA from a clonal, toxic *A. fundyense* isolated from eastern North America. This analysis surprisingly revealed the existence of two distinct classes of genes, which we termed the "A gene" and the "B gene." Closer examination of these molecules revealed the B sequence to be a pseudogene (i.e. a non-functional sequence; Scholin et al. 1993).

Because the A and B gene sequences vary little (40 positions out of 1802), it is possible that their divergence records a recent event in the evolutionary history of *A. fundyense*. If so, then the B gene should be a useful taxonomic marker and may also be applicable to questions concerning the organism's biogeography and dispersal. However, the labor involved in identifying and documenting the A and B genes using cloning and sequencing protocols made the prospects of examining a large number of cultures for these markers difficult to justify. A restriction fragment length of polymorphism (RFLP) assay, termed the "A/B restriction test," was therefore developed to facilitate a rapid and cost-effective screening procedure.

The power and simplicity of RFLP assays stem from the recognition and cleavage of specific DNA sequences by restriction enzymes. Sequence heterogeneity among defined DNA molecules can thus be elucidated with relative ease. This method is widely used in diverse areas of research, including taxonomy, ecology, biomedicine, and forensic science (e.g. Curran et al. 1985, Wetton et al. 1987, Goff and Coleman 1988, Moody 1989, Levy et al. 1991, Maeda et al. 1991, Rowan and Powers 1991, Schlegel et al. 1991, De Buyser et al. 1992). Here, the RFLP concept is applied in a search for the A and B genetic markers using endonucleases that discriminate nucleotide differences between the two sequences. We describe the development of this assay, its application to a variety of *Alexandrium* species collected from diverse regions of the world, and results of the tests as they relate to the taxonomy and biogeography of these organisms.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cultures used in this study are listed in Table 1; strain and species designations, isolation locale, and available toxicity information are also presented. All were maintained in f/2 medium as modified and described by Anderson et al. (1984). Cultures that were obtained from sources other than Anderson laboratory are as follows: PW05, PW06, PI32, IP02, ACQH01, and ACQH02 (S. Hall); Gony.#7 (A. White); Gt 429 (Provasoli-Guillard Culture Collection); Pgt 183 (North East Pacific Coast Culture collection [NEPCC 183]); PE1V, PE2V, PA5V, and AL2V (I. Bravo); Gt Port (L. Provasoli); AM2 and AM3 (E. Erard-Le Denn); N 239 and N 520 (National Institute for Environmental Studies [NIES Collection, Japan]); ND-1, OK875-1, OF875-8, OF84423D3, WKS-1, WKS-3, WKS-8, CU-1, and CU-13 (M. Kodama); OF041, OF051, OF101, and TN9 (Y. Sako); and ATJP01, ACPP01, ACPP02, ACPP03, ACPP09, AMAD01, AMAD06, ATBBO1, AABB01/2, I72/21#2, I72/22#2, I72/21#4, ACJP03, G. Crux,

G. Hope 1, and G. Hope 2 (G. Hallegraef). All strains listed in Table 1 are currently maintained at the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution.

Nucleic acid extraction. Approximately 10–15 mL of a mid-log culture was harvested by gentle centrifugation, and the cell pellet was resuspended in approximately 200 μ L of autoclaved Milli-Q water (Millipore Corp.) at room temperature. The cell slurry was transferred to a 1.5-mL sterile microfuge tube and adjusted to contain 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 10 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetate (EDTA; pH 8.0), 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), and 10 mM NaCl in a final volume of 250 μ L. Nucleic acids in this solution were purified by extracting once with Tris-buffered phenol, 2–3 times with phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (PCI; 24:24:1) and once with chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (CI; 24:1; Ausubel et al. 1987). Total nucleic acids were ethanol (EtOH)-precipitated (Ausubel et al. 1987), rinsed with 80% EtOH, and then resuspended in 10–50 μ L of TE (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0). An aliquot of this material was diluted, and the concentration of DNA was determined by reading its absorbance at 260 nm (Ausubel et al. 1987). DNA samples were stored at -20° C.

Polymerase chain reaction amplification of SSU rDNA. Complete SSU rDNAs were amplified using the polymerase chain reaction (PCR; Saiki et al. 1988) with universal eukaryotic primers (Sogin 1990) using a Perkin Elmer Cetus DNA Thermal Cycler and Perkin Elmer GeneAmp PCR Core Reagents as recommended by the manufacturers. Amplifications were typically carried out as follows: denaturing at 92° C, 1.5 min; cooling to 45° – 55° C, 30 s; annealing at 45° – 55° C, 1.5 min; warming to 72° C, 1.5 min; and extension at 72° C, 2.0 min. This cycle was repeated 30 times with an autoextension of the polymerization cycle (5 s per cycle). Primers were used at a final concentration of 0.01–0.05 μ M, with 3 mM $MgCl_2$ and 1 ng of total DNA. Amplification reactions for a given DNA preparation were done in duplicate or triplicate, pooled, and then purified by extracting once with PCI and once with CI. Products were EtOH-precipitated and resuspended in 10–50 μ L of TE (pH 7.5); 1 μ L of this was run on an agarose gel in order to gauge the success of the reaction and approximate concentration of the products. Amplified SSU rDNAs were stored at -20° C.

A/B gene restriction test. Theoretical restriction maps of the A and B sequences (Scholin et al. 1993) were generated using MacDNASIS Pro (v. 1.0; Hitachi) DNA analysis software. The resultant cleavage sites of each enzyme that recognized one or both of the genes were then compared to determine which enzymes would discriminate the two genes; *Bsa*AI, *Bsr*I, *Hae*III, and *Xba*I (New England Biolabs) were chosen for further analysis. Approximately 50–100 ng of PCR product were digested with each of the enzymes in 10–25- μ L reactions for 1–3 h as directed by the manufacturer. Products of the digestions were resolved on 1.0–1.5% agarose gels using $1 \times$ TBE buffer (Ausubel et al. 1987). Digesting the SSU rDNA of a particular isolate with each of the four enzymes, separating the products on an agarose gel, and scoring the resultant pattern constitute the “A/B gene restriction test.”

RESULTS

Computer-assisted restriction site analysis of the A and B sequences resulted in the identification of over 100 enzymes that would theoretically cleave at one or more locations in one or both of the genes (data not shown). After initial comparisons, 18 candidate enzymes were identified that should differentially recognize the two sequences, along with two enzymes that were expected to cleave the genes at identical locations (Scholin 1993). From this list, *Bsa*AI and *Bsr*I were chosen to discriminate between

the A and B genes, while both *Hae*III and *Xba*I should give identical patterns (Fig. 1a). This suite of enzymes was tested on PCR-amplified SSU rDNA from 58 *Alexandrium* cultures with species designations of *A. tamarense*, *A. catenella*, *A. fundyense*, *A. affine*, *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni*. These cultures included both toxic and non-toxic isolates from North America, western Europe, Thailand, Japan, Australia, and the ballast water of several cargo ships (Table 1). The A/B gene restriction test revealed five distinct groups among these cultures (Fig. 1b–f, Table 2).

Three of the RFLP groups subdivided the *tamarense* species complex (Groups I–III), an assemblage that included toxic *A. tamarense/catenella/fundyense* as well as non-toxic *A. tamarense* (Table 1). All shared the predicted A gene restriction pattern for each enzyme. The distinguishing characteristics of the groups were based on whether or not their PCR-amplified SSU rDNA included the B gene as well as a class of molecules ~ 300 bp greater than the expected PCR product of ~ 1800 bp (Fig. 1a–f, lanes I–III; Table 2). Group I was typified by isolates that harbored both the A and B genes and gave rise to the larger amplification products (Fig. 1b–f, lane I). This included all eastern North American *A. tamarense* and *A. fundyense*, Japanese *A. tamarense* isolated from Okkirai and Noda bays, and *A. tamarense* from the ballast water of one cargo vessel. Group II isolates also harbored the A and B genes but did not display the larger PCR products (Fig. 1b–f, lane II). Group II included all *A. tamarense*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense* from western North America and several *A. tamarense* from Ofunato Bay, Japan. Both Groups I and II displayed minor *Bsa*AI digestion products not predicted by the computer-generated restriction maps (Fig. 1a, c, lanes I–II). Group III exhibited a restriction pattern for the A gene alone, having neither the B gene patterns, the larger amplification products, nor any unpredicted patterns (Fig. 1b–f, lane III). Group III encompassed *A. tamarense* and *A. catenella* isolated from western Europe, Japan, Australia, and the ballast water of three cargo vessels (Table 2).

A fourth group identified using the RFLP assay consisted of non-toxic *A. affine* from Spain, Tasmania, and Thailand (Group IV). PCR products from these isolates did not cut with *Hae*III, as would be predicted from the known A and B sequences (Fig. 1a, e, lane IV). This restriction pattern was designated “Hae(1)” (Table 2).

The fifth and final group consisted of toxic *A. minutum* and *A. lusitanicum* and non-toxic *A. andersoni* (Group V). Each of these isolates shared sites for *Bsa*AI and *Hae*III that varied from those predicted from the known A and B gene sequences (Fig. 1a, c, e, lane V; Table 2). These restriction patterns were designated “Bsa(1)” and “Hae(2),” respectively.

The B gene was not essential for toxin production.

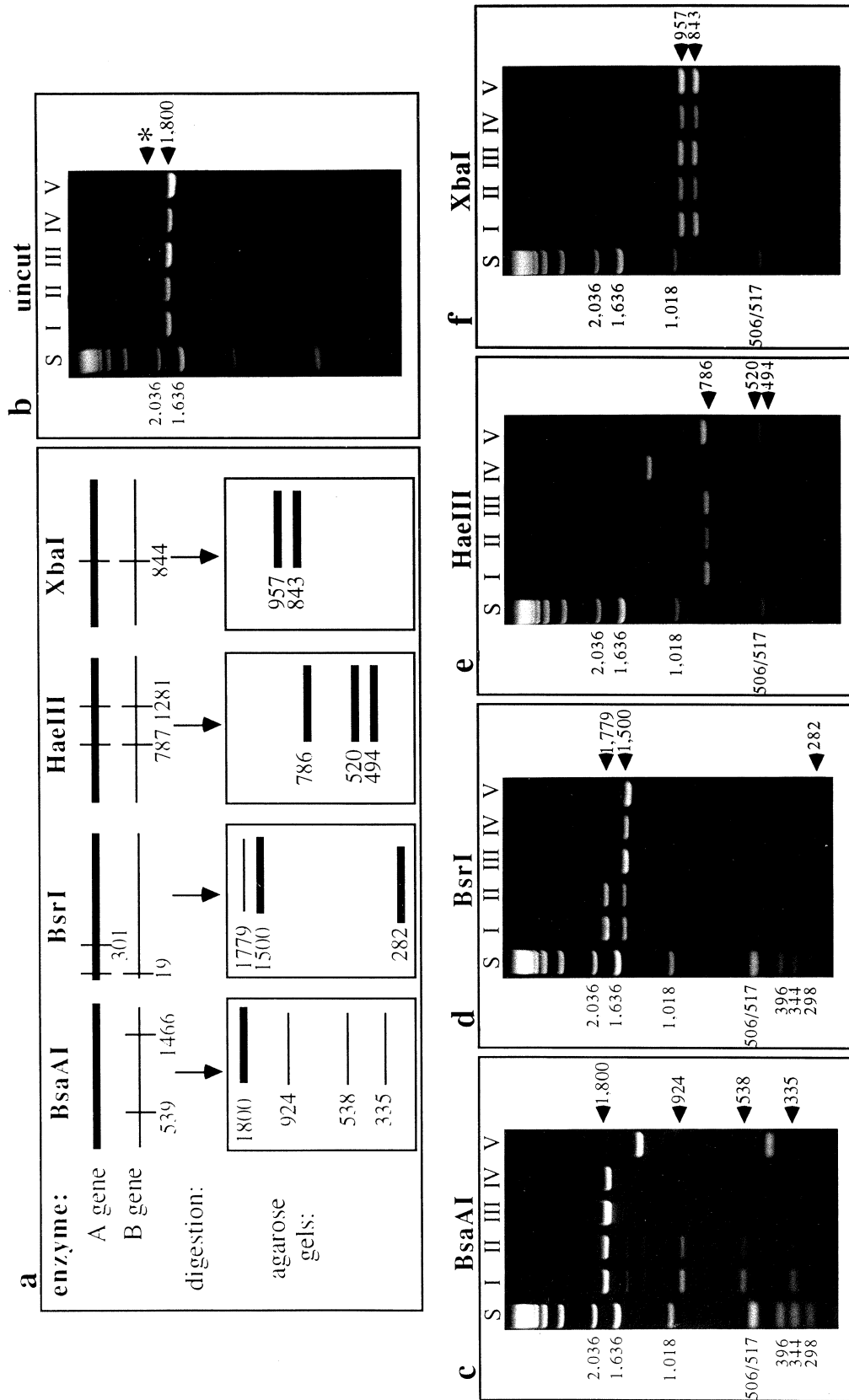


FIG. 1. SSU rDNA A/B gene restriction test. a) Schematic of the assay. Restriction maps of the A and B genes for BsaAI (B cutter), BsrI (A cutter), and HaeIII and XbaI (A and B cutters) are shown on top; numbers refer to the nucleotide distal to the cleavage and are relative to the position in the A gene (Scholin et al. 1993). Schematized agarose gels of predicted digestion products are shown below the restriction maps; numbers refer to length of the digestion products in base pairs. b-f) Ethidium bromide-stained agarose gels showing representative PCR amplification (b) and restriction patterns (c-f) of identified *Alexandrium* SSU rDNA RFLP groups. Lane designations are as follows: S = size standards (length in base pairs is indicated on the left); I = Group I *A. fundyense* (strain Pt189); II = Group II *A. fundyense* (strain Pt189); III = Group III *A. tamarense* (strain Pgt.189); IV = Group IV *A. affine* (strain PA5V); V = Group V *A. minutum* (strain AMAD06). Arrowheads point to b) SSU rDNA PCR products (~1800 base pairs) and larger products (*) found in Group I and c-f) A/B gene digestion fragments (in base pairs) predicted for each enzyme. Observed digestion fragments are congruent with those predicted for Groups I and II. Exceptions to the predictions are as follows: minor BsaAI products (c, lanes I and II), and the "Hae (1)" (e, lane IV), "Bsa (1)" and "Hae (2)" (c and e, lane V) RFLPs (see Table 2). Restriction patterns of Groups III-V do not indicate presence of the B gene, nor SSU rDNAs analogous to the B gene. There was some variation in the total amount of DNA loaded into each lane; this is especially noticeable in (c), lanes I and II.

TABLE 1. Continued.

Geographic block	Strain ^a	Species designation ^b	Isolation locale	Clonal culture?	Toxic? ^c	Larger SSU PCR products ^d	SSU rDNA restriction sites ^e			
							"A"	"B"	Bsa(1)	Hae(1)
South	TN-9	<i>A. catenella</i> (YF)	Tanabe Bay	Yes	Yes		+			
	WKS-1	<i>A. tamarense</i> (YF)	Tanabe Bay	Yes	No		+			
	WKS-3	<i>A. catenella</i> (YF)	Tanabe Bay	Yes	Yes		+			
	WKS-8	<i>A. catenella</i> (YF)	Tanabe Bay	Yes	Yes		+			
	N239	<i>A. tamarense</i> (YF)	Harima Nada	Yes	Yes		+			
	CU-1	<i>A. affine</i> (YF)	Gulf of Thailand	Yes	No					+
Thailand	CU-13	<i>A. tamarense</i> (YF)	Gulf of Thailand	Yes	Yes		+			
Australia										
Mainland	ACPP01	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Port Phillip Bay, Vic.	Yes	Yes		+			
	ACPP02	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Port Phillip Bay, Vic.	Yes	Yes		+			
	ACPP03	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Port Phillip Bay, Vic.	Yes	Yes		+			
	ACPP09	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Port Phillip Bay, Vic.	Yes	Yes		+			
	AMAD01	<i>A. minutum</i> (GH)	Port River, S.A.	Yes	Yes				+	+
	AMAD06	<i>A. minutum</i> (GH)	Port River, S.A.	Yes	Yes				+	+
Tasmania	ATBB01	<i>A. tamarense</i> (GH)	Bell Bay	Yes	No*		+			
	AABB01/2	<i>A. affine</i> (GH)	Bell Bay	Yes	No					+
Ballast water	I72/21#2	<i>A. tamarense</i> (GH)	Muroran, Japan ^g	Yes	Yes	+	+			
	I72/22#2	<i>A. tamarense</i> (GH)	Muroran, Japan ^g	Yes	Yes	+	+			
	I72/24#1	<i>A. tamarense</i> (GH)	Muroran, Japan ^g	Yes	Yes	+	+			
	ACJP03	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Kashima, Japan ^g	Yes	Yes		+			
	G. Crux	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Singapore ^h	No	Yes		+			
	G. Hope 1	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Samchonpo, South Korea ^g	No	Yes		+			
	G. Hope 2	<i>A. catenella</i> (GH)	Samchonpo, South Korea ^g	No	Yes		+			

^a Strain listings currently in use in the D. M. Anderson culture collection.

^b As determined by (or using the criteria of) E. Balech (EB), F. J. R. Taylor (MT), I. Bravo (IB), E. Erard-Le Denn (ED), Y. Fukuyo (YF), and G. Hallegraeff (GH).

^c Determined by mouse bioassay and/or HPLC analysis; nd, not determined; *, may contain trace amounts of toxin (D. Kulin, pers. commun.).

^d Indicates presence of PCR products larger than expected (see Fig. 1b).

^e Presence of restriction sites characteristic of the A gene (*Bsr*I digestion; "A"), the B gene (*Bsa*I digestion; "B"), and both genes (*Hae*III and *Xba*I digestion; Fig. 1a).

^f Deviations from predicted restriction patterns based on the sequences of the A and B genes; Bsa(1), anomalous *Bsa*I restriction pattern; Hae(1) and Hae(2), anomalous *Hae*III restriction patterns (see Fig. 1a, c, e).

^g Origin of ballast water (Hallegraeff and Bolch 1992).

^h Hailing port of vessel; origin of ballast water uncertain (Hallegraeff and Bolch 1992).

TABLE 2. Summary of SSU rDNA RFLP group characteristics, representative species, known toxicity, and isolation locales of *Alexandrium* cultures screened using the A/B gene restriction test.

SSU rDNA RFLP group	A/B restriction test characteristics ^a	Representative <i>Alexandrium</i> species	Toxicity ^b	Representative isolation locales ^c
I	A&B genes + large amplification products	<i>tamarense/catenella/fundyense</i>	Yes	Eastern North America
		<i>tamarense</i>	Yes	Japan
		<i>tamarense</i>	Yes	Ballast water (Japan)
II	A&B genes	<i>tamarense/catenella/fundyense</i>	Yes	Western North America
		<i>tamarense</i>	Yes	Japan
III	A gene only	<i>tamarense</i>	No	Western Europe
		<i>tamarense</i>	Wk	Thailand
		<i>tamarense</i>	No	Australia (Tasmania)
		<i>catenella</i>	Yes	Australia (mainland)
		<i>tamarense/catenella</i>	Yes	Japan
		<i>tamarense/catenella</i>	Yes	Ballast water (Japan, South Korea, and ?)
IV	<i>Hae</i> III RFLP [Hae(1)]	<i>affine</i>	No	Spain, Australia (Tasmania), and Thailand
V	<i>Bsa</i> AI & <i>Hae</i> III RFLPs [Bsa(1) & Hae(2)]	<i>minutum</i>	Yes	Australia (Tasmania) and France
		<i>lusitanicum</i>	Yes	Spain and Portugal
		<i>andersoni</i>	No	Eastern North America

^a See Figure 1.

^b Toxicity data for one Group II culture is lacking; Wk, weakly toxic (D. Kulis, pers. commun.)

^c Some geographic regions are represented by only one or several isolates; the origin of one ballast water culture (?) is not known (see Table 1).

This holds true within both the closely related *A. tamarense/catenella/fundyense* group and the more distantly related *A. affine*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. minutum*. However, to date, all organisms found to harbor the B sequence were toxic (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Sequencing of the A and B genes is labor-intensive and expensive because it requires analysis of multiple SSU rDNA clones to document both molecules and their respective nucleotide differences (Scholin et al. 1993). The prospects of screening a large number of isolates for these genetic markers using conventional sequencing techniques is therefore daunting, yet the A and B sequences clearly have the potential to be useful taxonomic and biogeographic markers. A compromise approach was to create theoretical restriction maps of the known A and B sequences and identify enzymes that could distinguish the genes, thereby providing a basis for their rapid detection. When both genes are present, enzymes that discriminate the two sequences should give rise to restriction fragments whose sum is approximately twice (or at least greater than) the size of the PCR-amplified SSU rDNA. In contrast, an enzyme that cleaves both genes in identical locations will produce restriction fragments whose sum is equal to that of the PCR product (Fig. 1a). The latter result is also expected when only a single class of gene is present.

Results of our study demonstrate that the A/B restriction test is a rapid and effective means of determining sequence heterogeneity among PCR-amplified SSU rDNAs from a variety of *Alexandrium* species. The RFLP patterns indicate that the *A. tamarense/catenella/fundyense* complex exists as a se-

ries of genetically distinct strains that do not strictly correspond to the three morphologically defined species. Instead, the strains appear indicative of divergent populations, each of which may harbor at least two or all three morphotypes. The RFLP analyses also indicate that this large species complex is distinct from *A. affine*, *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni*, regardless of geographic origin. The A/B restriction test further subdivides the latter group of species, with *A. affine* being distinguishable from the *A. minutum/lusitanicum/andersoni* cluster. As currently defined, the RFLP screening procedure thus resolves relationships among *Alexandrium* species and strains (or populations). As additional enzymes are incorporated in the screening procedure, resolution of the assay should improve.

Specifically, three distinct groups within the *Alexandrium tamarense* complex can now be recognized on the basis of their SSU rDNA characteristics (Groups I–III; Fig. 1a–f, lanes I–III; Table 2). All *A. tamarense*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense* examined share the predicted A gene restriction pattern. The primary subdivision among this large group stems from those isolates that carry the B gene (Groups I and II) and those that do not (Group III). Cultures harboring the B gene are further distinguishable on the basis of whether their SSU rDNA PCR products include molecules larger than those expected (Group I) and those whose PCR products appear homogeneous and of the predicted size (Group II; Table 2). Presence or absence of the larger products was initially considered to be an artifact of the PCR process. Repeated attempts to optimize the amplification reactions failed to eliminate the apparently spurious molecules but, otherwise, resulted in highly specific

amplifications (Fig. 1b). Preliminary analysis of the larger products indicates they are a class of *Alexandrium* SSU rDNA that contains a direct repeat of a portion of the sequence in the 3' half of the molecule (Scholin 1993). The distinction between Group I and II isolates is further supported by sequence analysis of their LSU rDNA (Scholin 1993).

A peculiar characteristic of both Groups I and II is that the B gene appears to comprise approximately half of the PCR-amplified SSU rDNA product. There is little to no variation in these proportions among all Group I and II isolates. If the ratio of the PCR products reflects the relative abundances of the genes in the extracted DNAs, then it is possible that half of the ribosomal transcription units in these organisms contain a B sequence. The mechanism responsible for maintaining such a high copy number of an apparent pseudogene remains a mystery.

Another consistent characteristic of PCR-amplified B genes is the unpredicted (but minor) *Bsa*AI digestion products. The minor bands appear to originate from molecules that contain only one of the two predicted B sequence *Bsa*AI sites. Partial digestion of the B gene is one explanation for the appearance of these minor products, but increasing enzyme concentration and time of digestion does not eliminate them (data not shown). Consequently, the minor bands likely originate from chimeric molecules; SSU rDNA, which includes a 5' portion of the A gene and 3' portion of the B gene, or 5' portion of the B gene and 3' portion of the A gene. It is possible these chimeras are generated during PCR by template strand switching (Erlich et al. 1991) or represent yet another, minor class of SSU rDNA that exists *in vivo*.

Within the tamarensis species complex, there is no strict correlation between morphospecies designations and SSU rDNA RFLP group (Table 2). For example, isolates from western North America include *A. tamarensis*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense*; nonetheless, all share Group II characteristics. Likewise, isolates from eastern North America include *A. tamarensis* and *A. fundyense*, but all belong to Group I. Thus, morphospecies designations may or may not agree with groupings based on the RFLP assay. The same is true for Japanese isolates. For example, OF041 (*A. tamarensis*) and OF101 (*A. catenella*) are members of Groups II and III, respectively, but WKS-1 (*A. tamarensis*) and TN9 (*A. catenella*) are both members of Group III. A similar pattern is observed among ballast water isolates. I1724#1 (*A. tamarensis*, Japan) and ACJP03 (*A. catenella*, Japan) belong to Groups I and III, respectively, but the former isolate and G. Hope 1 (*A. tamarensis*, Korea) are also members of Groups I and III, respectively. Many other examples of this kind of inconsistency are evident in Tables 1 and 2.

A possible explanation for the disparity between RFLP patterns and morphospecies designations

could be the fact that different taxonomists classified our cultures and, thus, that species designations were not consistent. This is unlikely because examples of positive and negative correlations between morphology and RFLP patterns can be found within groups of cultures examined by the same taxonomist. In the examples cited earlier, the western and eastern North American isolates were classified by Balech, the Japanese isolates by Fukuyo, and the ballast water isolates by Hallegraeff (Table 1). Therefore, agreements or disagreements between morphology and SSU rDNA RFLP group are not a function of the taxonomist. Rather, it appears that observed relationships reflect the geographic origin of the cultures as well as the particular strains chosen for analysis. This conclusion agrees with the collective observations of Cembella and Taylor (1986), Cembella et al. (1987, 1988), Hayhome et al. (1989), and Sako et al. (1990, 1993): *A. tamarensis*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense* show no consistent correlation between morphological and biochemical characteristics.

The fact that the B gene exists in *A. tamarensis*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense*, but not in all representatives of their globally distributed populations, supports the notion that morphological features used to define the three species reflect strain-specific characters, not clearly defined species boundaries. Furthermore, different regional populations of the same morphospecies can be genetically distinct (e.g. North American and western European *A. tamarensis*). Taken together, these results and those of the investigators already noted lead us to the conclusion that the *Alexandrium* tamarensis complex is composed of genetically distinct populations, within which can be at least two or all three of the morphotypically defined species. An evolutionary model accounting for this scenario will be presented elsewhere.

The known biogeography of Groups I–III is noteworthy: eastern North American isolates belong to Group I, western North American isolates belong to Group II, and Australian, western European, and the weakly toxic isolate from Thailand are within Group III. In contrast, isolates from Japan were found among all three groups. Presently, we are exploring the possibilities that Group I and II characteristics reflect genetic markers indicative of eastern and western North American regional populations, respectively, and that the genetic diversity of Japanese *A. tamarensis* and *A. catenella* stems from multiple introductions from genetically distinct source populations (including those in North America). In this context, it is of note that paralytic shellfish poisons first became a problem in Japan in the late 1940s (Anraku 1984). The potential dispersal of North American *A. tamarensis* and *A. catenella* to Japan will be addressed in greater detail at a later time.

RFLP patterns of ballast water isolates provide evidence that resting cysts of *A. tamarensis* and *A.*

catenella from documented blooms in Japan and Korea have not only been transported to specific Australian ports (Hallegraeff and Bolch 1991, 1992) but have also originated from genetically distinct populations. One ship ballasted in Muroran, Japan, contained Group I *A. tamarensis*; a second ballasted in Kashima, Japan, carried a Group III *A. catenella*; and a third ballasted in Shamchonpo, South Korea, contained Group III *A. tamarensis*. The potential "seeding" of Australian waters with genetically diverse representatives of the *tamarensis* group provides a striking example of what may have occurred in Japan sometime in the recent past. In addition, this demonstrates that SSU rDNA RFLP patterns are potentially useful tools for tracing movements of particular strains throughout the globe.

Isolates of *A. affine*, *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni* were included in the A/B restriction tests because they are considered to be taxonomically distinct from the *A. tamarensis/catenella/fundyense* group. Given the significant morphological differences between these groups (Balech 1985, Balech and Tangen 1985), it is not surprising that their SSU rDNA sequences differ as well. The unique *Hae*III and *Bsa*AI restriction patterns identified are a reflection of this divergence and fortuitously made it possible to subdivide *A. affine*, *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni* into two distinct clusters (Groups IV and V), with *A. affine* being separate from the other species (Fig. 1, Table 2). To date, no evidence indicates multiple classes of SSU rDNA within *A. affine*, *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni* since the sum of the restriction products for each individual digest roughly equals that of the PCR products.

SSU rDNA from *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni* all showed the *Hae*(2) and *Bsa*(1) RFLP patterns that constitute the Group V designation. These species have previously been separated on the basis of fine-scale morphological variations (Balech 1985), but Hallegraeff (pers. commun.) suggested that these may be variants of the "same" species. The restriction enzymes employed in the A/B restriction tests support Hallegraeff's contention: *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni* share common restriction patterns and thus are more closely related to each other than to *A. affine* or members of the *tamarensis* complex. Further analysis using sequences of LSU rDNA has resolved linkages within the *A. minutum/lusitanicum/andersoni* cluster and indicates that *A. andersoni* is distinct from *A. minutum/lusitanicum* (Scholin 1993).

The differentiation of those organisms in Groups I–III from those in Groups IV and V is consistent with current taxonomic designations. That is, results of the RFLP assay agree that the *A. tamarensis/catenella/fundyense* group as a whole is distinct from *A. affine*, *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni*. The further delineation between *A. affine* (Group

IV) and *A. minutum*, *A. lusitanicum*, and *A. andersoni* (Group V) also agrees with current morphotaxonomic designations.

CONCLUSIONS

This study clearly demonstrates that SSU rDNAs are sufficiently variable to separate closely related *Alexandrium* species or populations and that the A/B gene restriction test is a technically simple way to reveal these genetic differences. It should be possible to move beyond the work presented here to devise highly specific tests for defined groups of *Alexandrium* species and strains of single species by increasing the number of enzymes or by obtaining complete SSU rDNA sequences. The growing RFLP pattern and sequence data bases could thus provide genetic criteria for characterizing isolates and predicting their potential toxicity or geographic origins. In addition, the identification of genetically distinct populations of *A. tamarensis*, *A. catenella*, and *A. fundyense* begins to shed light on the long-standing controversy concerning correlations (or the lack thereof) between morphological and biochemical characteristics.

A limitation of A/B gene restriction test as currently defined is that it samples only 3 of the 40 known nucleotide differences between the two sequences. If the B gene is no longer under selective pressure, it may be undergoing rapid evolution; consequently, further resolution of sexually isolated populations that carry this sequence ("B gene subgroups") is possible. It is also possible that isolates within Groups III–V carry "B-like genes" (i.e. other SSU rRNA pseudogenes) that were not detected by the RFLP assay. Establishing the existence of "B gene subgroups" and "B-like sequences" are important areas of future research that must be pursued prior to making rigorous conclusions based on the "uniqueness" of the B gene.

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