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1 **Characterization of toxin-producing strains of**
2 ***Dinophysis* spp. (Dinophyceae) isolated from**
3 **French coastal waters, with a particular focus on**
4 **the *D. acuminata*-complex.**

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17 **Abstract**

18 Dinoflagellates of the genus *Dinophysis* are the most prominent
19 producers of Diarrhetic Shellfish Poisoning (DSP) toxins which
20 have an impact on public health and on marine aquaculture
21 worldwide. In particular, *Dinophysis acuminata* has been
22 reported as the major DSP agent in Western Europe. Still, its
23 contribution to DSP events in the regions of the English

24 Channel and the Atlantic coast of France, and the role of the
25 others species of the *Dinophysis* community in these areas are
26 not as clear. In addition, species identification within the *D.*
27 *acuminata* complex has proven difficult due to their highly
28 similar morphological features. In the present study, 30 clonal
29 strains of the dominant *Dinophysis* species have been isolated
30 from French coasts including the English Channel (3 sites), the
31 Atlantic Ocean (11 sites) and the Mediterranean Sea (6 sites).
32 Morphologically, strains were identified as three species:
33 *D. acuta*, *D. caudata*, *D. tripos*, as well as the *D. acuminata*-
34 complex. Sequences of the ITS and LSU rDNA regions
35 confirmed these identifications and revealed no genetic
36 difference within the *D. acuminata*-complex. Using the
37 mitochondrial gene *cox1*, two groups of strains differing by
38 only one substitution were found in the *D. acuminata*-complex,
39 but SEM analysis of various strains showed a large range of
40 morphological variations. Based on geographical origin and
41 morphology, strains of the subclade A were ascribed to
42 '*D. acuminata*' while those of the subclade B were ascribed to
43 '*D. sacculus*'. Nevertheless, the distinction into two separate
44 species remains questionable and was not supported by our
45 genetic data. The considerable variations observed in cultured
46 strains suggest that physiological factors might influence cell
47 contour and bias identification. Analyses of *Dinophysis* cultures
48 from French coastal waters using liquid chromatography

49 coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) revealed
50 species-conserved toxin profiles for *D. acuta* (dinophysistoxin
51 2 (DTX2), okadaic acid (OA), pectenotoxin 2 (PTX2)),
52 *D. caudata* (PTX2) and *D. tripos* (PTX2), irrespective of
53 geographical origin (Atlantic Ocean or Mediterranean Sea).
54 Within the *D. acuminata*-complex, two different toxin profiles
55 were observed: the strains of '*D. acuminata*' (subclade A) from
56 the English Channel and the Atlantic Ocean contained only OA
57 while strains of *D. sacculus* (subclade B) from Mediterranean
58 Sea/Atlantic Ocean contained PTX2 as the dominant toxin,
59 with OA and C9-esters also being present, albeit in lower
60 proportions. The same difference in toxin profiles between
61 '*D. sacculus*' and '*D. acuminata*' was reported in several
62 studies from Galicia (NW- Spain). This difference in toxin
63 profiles has consequences in terms of public health, and
64 consequently for monitoring programs. While toxin profile
65 could appear as a reliable feature separating '*D. acuminata*'
66 from '*D. sacculus*' on both French and Spanish coasts, this
67 does not seem consistent with observations on a broader
68 geographical scale for the *D. acuminata* complex, possibly due
69 to the frequent lack of genetic characterization.

70

71

72

73 **Highlights**

- 74 ► *Dinophysis* sp. has been investigated from French coastal
75 waters using 30 monoclonal strains.
76 ► Morphology and ITS–LSU sequences identify *D. acuta*,
77 *D. caudata*, *D. tripos*, and *D. acuminata*-complex
78 ► *cox1* gene reveals two subclades diverging by 1 substitution
79 within *D. acuminata* complex
80 ► Conserved toxin profiles in *D. acuta*, *D. caudata* and
81 *D. tripos*, irrespective of their geographical origin.
82 ► Two distinct toxin profiles within the *D. acuminata*-
83 complex.

84

85 **Keywords:** *Dinophysis* sp., phylogeny, taxonomy, toxin

86 profiles.

87

88

89 **1. Introduction**

90 Diarrhetic shellfish poisoning (DSP) events have been
91 reported worldwide since the first documented occurrence in 1976
92 and 1977 along the coast of the Tohoku district in Japan which led
93 to the identification of the dinoflagellate *Dinophysis fortii* as the
94 toxin producer (Yasumoto et al., 1980). *Dinophysis* is one of the
95 largest genera of dinoflagellates, with more than 200 species
96 ascribed (Hallegraeff and Lucas, 1988), of which 133 are accepted
97 taxonomically (Guiry, 2020). Only ten of these, as well as two
98 species of the closely related genus *Phalacroma*, have been
99 unambiguously reported to contain DSP toxins (MacKenzie et al.,
100 2005; Reguera et al., 2012; Zingone and Larsen, 2020). A few
101 hundred cells of toxic *Dinophysis* sp. per liter may suffice to
102 generate diarrhetic intoxications in humans by consuming
103 contaminated shellfish (Yasumoto et al., 1985). *Dinophysis* species
104 are known to produce two groups of bioactive lipophilic
105 compounds: okadaic acid (OA) and its derivatives the
106 dinophysistoxins (DTXs) that inhibit phosphoprotein phosphatases,
107 are polyethers containing a carboxylic acid functionality and cause
108 diarrhetic effects, while pectenotoxins (PTXs) are a family of
109 polyether-lactones that are much less toxic via the oral route and
110 do not induce diarrhea (Miles et al., 2004a).

111 During June–July 1983, at least 3300 people suffered
112 symptoms of diarrhetic shellfish poisoning (DSP) after eating
113 contaminated mussels (*Mytilus edulis*) from Southern Brittany
114 (France) before a sanitary ban was enforced (Alzieu et al., 1983).
115 This outbreak was associated with *Dinophysis acuminata* (Lassus
116 et al., 1985). Following this toxic episode the National
117 Phytoplankton and Phycotoxins Monitoring network (REPHY)
118 was set up in 1984 (Belin et al., 2020). Okadaic acid was detected
119 in contaminated mussels collected at le Havre (English Channel)
120 during a bloom of *D. acuminata* in 1984, whereas DTXs or PTXs
121 were under the limit of detection (Kumagai et al., 1986). The
122 presence of OA in bivalve molluscs collected on the English
123 channel and Atlantic coasts of France was confirmed over the
124 following years but it was noted that shellfish toxicity was not
125 always well correlated to planktonic cell concentrations
126 (Marcaillou-Le Baut and Masselin, 1989). Until the end of the
127 1990s, little attention was paid to PTXs, considered then to be a
128 toxin restricted to *D. fortii* proliferations in Japan (Reguera et al.,
129 2014). In France, the presence of PTX2 and its derivatives was
130 identified in shellfish by liquid chromatography (LC) coupled with
131 mass spectrometry (MS) analysis for the first time in 2004 in the
132 Thau lagoon on the Mediterranean coast, and in 2005 in the

133 Arcachon Basin on the Atlantic coast (Amzil et al., 2007). Since
134 then, high amounts of PTX2-seco-acid have been regularly
135 reported in the Mediterranean lagoons at sites of shellfish
136 aquaculture (Belin and Soudant, 2018).

137 On the French coastline, *Dinophysis* has the particularity of
138 rarely proliferating at high concentrations but it can be observed on
139 all three major coastlines, i.e. the English Channel, the Atlantic and
140 Mediterranean coasts. Maximum annual concentrations are
141 generally below 10,000 cells·L⁻¹, however, higher *Dinophysis*
142 concentrations have been recorded on the Normandy coast in
143 August 2016, i.e. a maximum of 803,000 cells·L⁻¹, which is the
144 highest value ever reached for this taxon during 30 years of the
145 REPHY monitoring program (Belin and Soudant, 2018). In the
146 frame of this national monitoring program, *D. acuminata* and
147 *D. sacculus* have been identified as the dominant species at the
148 origin of toxic episodes in the Atlantic/English Channel regions
149 and the Mediterranean Sea, respectively, with also the more
150 episodic or localized presence of *D. acuta*, *D. caudata*, *D. fortii*
151 and *D. tripos* (Belin and Soudant, 2018). Highest concentrations of
152 *Dinophysis acuminata* usually appear in early spring in the bay of
153 Arcachon, subsequently (late spring - early summer) in southern
154 Brittany, and finally in August in Normandy (English Channel)

155 where it can form blooms. *D. sacculus* is widely recorded in cold
156 and temperate waters (Zingone et al., 1998), but concentrations
157 over 1×10^3 cells·L⁻¹ of this species have been only reported in
158 warm-temperate semi-enclosed coastal areas with freshwater
159 inputs in southwestern Europe and the Mediterranean Sea (Reguera
160 et al., 2014). It is the dominant species in French Mediterranean
161 lagoons but it is also observed in important aquaculture sites in
162 western France (Belin and Soudant, 2018). Nevertheless,
163 morphological variability due to biogeographical intra-specific
164 differences (Zingone et al., 1998) and life cycle polymorphism
165 (Berland et al., 1995; Nézan, 2000) resulted in uncertainty in the
166 morphological identification and quantification of *Dinophysis* spp.
167 natural samples. Since the often co-occurring species
168 *D. acuminata*, *D. sacculus*, *D. ovum* and *D. pavillardii* are difficult
169 to discriminate by morphology, the term “*D. acuminata* complex”
170 has been introduced (Bravo et al., 1995; Lassus and Bardouil,
171 1991). The investigation into the morphological variability of
172 *D. sacculus* and *D. acuminata* conducted by Zingone et al. (1998)
173 concluded that despite the morphological variation observed in
174 *D. sacculus* in the Mediterranean sea and along the European
175 Atlantic coast, it could be distinguished from Atlantic populations
176 of *D. acuminata* by small details. For instance, the shape of

177 hypothecal plates and curvature of the dorsal edge have been
178 proposed to distinguish the more elongated and rectangular *D.*
179 *sacculus* from the shorter and more convex *D. acuminata*.
180 Moreover, in that study, the authors pointed out that toxic events in
181 western France associated with *D. sacculus* need a further
182 confirmation about the responsible species (Zingone et al., 1998).

183 Molecular methods have been successfully applied to
184 identify many dinoflagellate species and clades (Penna and
185 Magnani, 1999; Scholin and Anderson, 1996), but the genetic
186 delineation of species within the *D. acuminata*-complex is unclear,
187 making either ribosomal genes (SSU and LSU rDNA) or ITS
188 regions (Edvardsen et al., 2003; Marin et al., 2001; Raho et al.,
189 2008) almost uninformative (Wolny et al., 2020). To overcome this
190 issue Raho et al. (2008, 2013) suggested that the mitochondrial
191 gene of the cytochrome *c* oxidase I (*cox1*) may be more
192 appropriate in distinguishing *D. acuminata* from *D. ovum* and
193 *D. sacculus*.

194 Numerous field studies (Batifoulier et al., 2013; Berland et
195 al., 1995; Delmas et al., 1993; Gentien et al., 1995; Lassus et al.,
196 1988; Maestrini, 1998) and observations as part of the REPHY
197 monitoring program have led to a better understanding of the
198 biology, toxin-production and ecology of *Dinophysis* spp. on

199 French coasts. Nonetheless, attempts to culture *Dinophysis* on
200 autotrophic or mixotrophic modes (Maestrini et al., 1995) have
201 failed until elucidation of the three-link food chain (cryptophyte-
202 ciliate-dinoflagellate) and successful establishment of *Dinophysis*
203 *acuminata* cultures (Park et al., 2006). Following this breakthrough
204 discovery, several *Dinophysis* spp. have been maintained in
205 culture, allowing combined studies of the morphology, genetics,
206 ecophysiology and toxin profiles on the same strains.

207 The aim of this work was to characterize the genetic and
208 morphological variability as well as the toxin profiles of the
209 dominant species of *Dinophysis* isolated from French coastal
210 waters, including the English Channel, the Bay of Biscay (Atlantic
211 Ocean) and the Mediterranean Sea. A set of 30 monoclonal
212 cultures including strains of the *D. acuminata*-complex (putatively
213 *D. acuminata* and *D. sacculus*), *D. acuta*, *D. caudata* and *D. tripos*
214 have been isolated from different locations between 2015 and
215 2019.

216

217 **2. Material and methods**

218 ***2.1 Sampling***

219 Plankton net-haul (10 μm mesh) and Niskin bottle samples
220 were collected at twenty different sites in the English Channel,
221 Atlantic and Mediterranean coastal waters and over several seasons
222 from May 2015 to August 2019 (Fig.1, Table 1). *Dinophysis* cells
223 were isolated using a drawn glass micropipette under an inverted
224 IM35 microscope (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany), washed
225 three times and transferred to a 4-well cell culture plate (Thermo
226 Scientific $\text{\textcircled{R}}$, Waltham, United States).

227 ***2.2 In vitro culturing of Dinophysis spp.***

228 Thirty monoclonal strains of *Dinophysis* (table 1) were
229 grown in diluted K/2(-Si)/ L1/20 (-Si) culture media (Guillard and
230 Hargraves, 1993) prepared with filtered seawater (0.2 μm Steritop
231 Corning $\text{\textcircled{R}}$, Corning, United States) at pH 8.2 and a salinity of 35.
232 They were maintained in a thermo-regulated room at 17°C and
233 provided $\sim 90 \mu\text{mol m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ PAR (photosynthetically active
234 radiation) on a 12h light: 12h dark cycle in 250 mL Erlenmeyer
235 flasks. Irradiance was delivered by Osram Fluora 36W (Munich,
236 Germany) and Philips Daylight 36W (Amsterdam, The
237 Netherlands). They were periodically fed on a basis of a 1:1 ratio
238 (predator: prey) with the marine ciliate *Mesodinium rubrum*
239 (MrDK-2009) isolated from Helsingør harbor (Denmark) in 2009.
240 The cryptophyte *Teleaulax amphioxeia* (AND-0710) isolated in

241 2007 from Huelva (Southwest Spain) was added as prey to the
242 ciliate twice a week. The cryptophyte and the ciliate were grown in
243 L1 -Si medium. All cultures were non- axenic.

244 **2.3 Determination of growth rate**

245 Cell densities were determined on five culture triplicates of
246 *D. acuta*, *D. caudata* and *D. tripos* and two subclades of *D.*
247 *acuminata*-complex, the cells were counted in 10 mL
248 sedimentation chambers under a Zeiss Invertoskop D microscope
249 (Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Germany), after fixation with acidic
250 Lugol's solution.

251 The average growth rates (μ , day⁻¹) of *Dinophysis* species were
252 calculated over exponential growth as $\mu = \ln(C_2/C_1) / t_2 - t_1$
253 where C2 and C1 are the concentrations of the cells (cell·mL⁻¹) at
254 experimental time 2 and time 1 (day) and μ (day⁻¹) is the growth
255 rate (Guillard, 1973).

256 **2.4 Microscopy observations**

257 Living cells of the strains studied were observed and
258 measured using a Zeiss Axio Observer D microscope (Carl Zeiss
259 Microscopy, Jena, Germany) equipped with an AxioCam MrC
260 camera. Measurements were taken as the largest dimensions of cell

261 body (i.e. length and depth in lateral views), excluding cingular
262 and sulcal lists.

263 For scanning electron microscopy, cells from the cultures
264 were fixed with 2% formaldehyde and then washed several times
265 in deionized water purified at $18 \text{ M}\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$ through a Milli-Q
266 integral 3 system (Merck Millipore, Meyzieu, France). Then, they
267 were filtered on membranes (1.2 μm pores, 19 mm diameter,
268 Merck Millipore, Meyzieu, France), and subsequently processed as
269 described in Chomérat et al. (2019).

270 ***2.5 Amplification and sequencing***

271 DNA amplification and sequencing was performed on 24
272 strains maintained in culture (Table 1). Due to the mixotrophic
273 nature of *Dinophysis* spp. and in order to avoid any contaminations
274 by preys, individual cells were isolated from live cultures by
275 pipetting under an inverted microscope IX51 (Olympus, Tokyo,
276 Japan). Then, they were rinsed in several drops of nuclease-free
277 distilled water, and transferred into a 0.2 mL PCR tube. Nuclear
278 ribosomal genes (ITS–5.8S region and LSU D1–D2) and
279 mitochondrial (mtDNA) cytochrome *c* oxidase I gene (*coxI*) were
280 amplified to allow the characterization from both markers. To
281 increase the number of amplicons, semi-nested-PCR reactions
282 were performed. After the first amplification step, a second

283 amplification was carried out using 1 μ L of the PCR product of the
284 first reaction as template, and primers that bind to the target
285 located within the sequence amplified at the first PCR step.

286 The PCR reaction mixtures (25 μ L) contained 1 cell of
287 *Dinophysis*, 12.5 μ L of PCR Master Mix (Promega, Foster City,
288 CA, USA), 6.5 μ L of DNA free water and 2.5 μ L of forward and
289 reverse (10 nM). For the second round of PCR, 1 μ L of the
290 amplicon produced in the first step was used as template. Primers
291 used for both rounds of PCR amplifications are given in Table 2.
292 Amplifications were carried out in a thermocycler Tprofessional
293 (Biometra, Göttingen, Germany) with an initial denaturation at
294 95°C for 10 min, 35 cycles at 95°C for 1 min, 62°C for 1 min and
295 72°C for 3 min, followed by a 10 min extension step at 72°C.

296 PCR-amplified products were visualized on an agarose gel
297 after electrophoresis and the positive samples were purified using
298 the ExoSAP-IT PCR Product Cleanup reagent (Affymetrix,
299 Cleveland, OH, USA). The Big Dye Terminator v3.1 Cycle
300 Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Tokyo, Japan) was used for
301 sequencing the amplicon generated at the second round of PCR.
302 Primers and excess dye-labelled nucleotides were first removed
303 using the Big Dye X-terminator purification kit (Applied

304 Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Sequencing products were run
305 on an ABI PRISM 3130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems).

306 ***2.6 Alignment and phylogenetic analyses***

307 Sequences obtained for the 24 strains studied have been
308 used in two distinct datasets (ITS–5.8S region and LSU rDNA, and
309 *cox1*) for phylogenetic reconstructions, i.e. all *D. acuminata* and *D.*
310 *sacculus* strains and at least one strain each of the three
311 morphologically easily identifiable species (*D. acuta*, *D. caudata*
312 and *D. tripos*). For the ITS–5.8S region and LSU rDNA, sequences
313 of the 24 strains were aligned with 52 sequences of *Dinophysis*
314 spp. retrieved in GenBank and *Phalacroma rapa* as external group,
315 using MUSCLE algorithm in the MEGA X software version 10.1.7
316 (Kumar et al., 2018). This step was followed by refinement by eye.
317 The resulting matrix included 77 sequences and 1633 aligned
318 positions (including gaps). For the *cox1* dataset, a matrix of 52
319 sequences and 718 characters was obtained by alignment with
320 Clustal W using the MEGA software.

321 For each data set, evolutionary models were examined
322 using maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian Inference analysis
323 (BI). The evolutionary model was selected using jModelTest
324 version 2.1.10 (Darriba et al., 2012). According to Akaike
325 information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion

326 (BIC), a general time reversible (GTR) model with a gamma
327 correction (G) for among-site rate variation and no invariant sites
328 was chosen for the ITS–LSU dataset while a Tamura-Nei model
329 (TN93) with no invariant sites was chosen for the *cox1* dataset.

330 Maximum likelihood analyses were performed using
331 PhyML version 3.0 (Guindon et al., 2010), and Bayesian analyses
332 were run using Mr Bayes version 3.1.2 (Ronquist and
333 Huelsenbeck, 2003). Parameters used in each analysis are given in
334 supplementary table S1. Bootstrap analysis (1000
335 pseudoreplicates) was used to assess the relative robustness of
336 branches of the ML tree. Initial Bayesian analyses were run with a
337 GTR model (nst=6) with rates set to gamma for both datasets.
338 Each analysis was performed using four Markov chains (MCMC),
339 with four millions cycles for each chain. Trees were saved every
340 100 cycles and the first 4000 trees were discarded. Therefore, a
341 majority-rule consensus tree was created from the remaining
342 36,001 trees in order to examine the posterior probabilities of each
343 clade. Bootstraps values below 65 and posterior probabilities
344 below 0.70 representing absence of support were not shown but
345 indicated as ‘-’.

346 The consensus trees were edited using Seaview. The best ML
347 phylograms are shown with robustness values for each node
348 (ML/BI).

349 ***2.7 Toxin analysis***

350 ***2.7.1 Reagent and chemicals***

351 Formic acid (FA, 98%) and ammonium formate (10M in
352 solution) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Darmstadt,
353 Germany), Acetonitrile (ACN) and methanol (MeOH) was
354 purchased from Honeywell (Seelze, Germany). Water was
355 deionized and purified at $18 \text{ M}\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$ through a Milli-Q integral
356 3 system (Merck Millipore, Meyzieu, France). Certified
357 reference materials (OA, DTX1, DTX2, and PTX2) were
358 purchased from the National Research Council Canada (NRC-
359 CNRC, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada) and the non-certified C8-
360 diol ester of OA were purchased from Cifga (via Novakits,
361 Nantes, France).

362 ***2.7.2 Extraction procedures***

363 Samples (10 mL) of *Dinophysis* culture were collected at
364 the end of the exponential growth phase and centrifuged at 3500 g,
365 4°C for 15 min. The supernatant was removed and cell pellets were
366 extracted twice with 0.5 mL MeOH using an ultrasonic bath (Elma,

367 Singen, Germany) at 25 KHz during 15 min in sweep mode. Once
368 cells were disrupted, the supernatants were collected and combined
369 after centrifugation (at 3500 g, 4°C, 15 min). The final extracts
370 (0.5 mL) were filtered through a Nanosep MF 0.2 µm filter (Pall,
371 Northborough, MA, USA), and stored at -20°C until LC-MS/MS
372 analysis.

373 *2.7.3 Liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass* 374 *spectrometry*

375 LC-MS/MS analysis were performed using a HPLC system
376 (UFLC XR Nexera, Shimadzu, Japan) coupled to a hybrid triple
377 quadrupole/ion-trap mass spectrometer API 4000 QTrap (SCIEX,
378 Redwood City, CA, USA) equipped with a turboV[®] ESI source.

379 Chromatographic separation was carried out on a reversed-
380 phase C18 Kinetex column (100 Å, 2.6 µm, 50 × 2.1 mm,
381 Phenomenex, LePecq, France) at 40 °C using a mobile phase
382 composed of water (A) and 95% acetonitrile/water (B) both
383 containing 5 mM ammonium formate and 50 mM formic acid. The
384 flow rate was set to 0.4 mL·min⁻¹ and the injection volume was
385 5 µL. Mass spectrometric detection was performed in either
386 negative or positive ionization mode using Multiple Reaction
387 Monitoring (MRM) scanning. To achieve a better separation and
388 sensitivity for each toxin group, three LC-MS/MS methods were

389 created (for ESI parameters and the m/z transitions see Table 3).

390 The gradients were described as follows:

391 (i) For OA and DTX analogs, mobile phase was raised from
392 10% to 50% B in 2 min, to 90% B over the next
393 4.5 min, then held for 1 min before return to the initial
394 condition (10% B) followed by a re-equilibration period
395 of 3.5 min.

396 (ii) For PTXs, mobile phase was held for 1 min at 10% B, then
397 raised from 10% to 60% B in 2 min, and to 90% B over
398 the next 4 min, held for 2 min before return to the initial
399 condition (10% B) followed by a re-equilibration period
400 (10% B) of 3.0 min.

401 (iii) For OA diol esters, separation was achieved using a mobile
402 phase gradient from 10% to 50% B in 2 min, to 95% B
403 over the next 4.5 min, held for 3.5 min before return to
404 the initial condition (10% B) in 1 min and a re-
405 equilibration period (10% B) of 5 min.

406 The instrument control, data processing and analysis were
407 conducted using Analyst software 1.6.3 (Sciex, Redwood City,
408 CA, USA). Due to the lack of standards, quantification was
409 performed using linear calibration curves generated from reference
410 standards of OA, DTX2, DTX1, PTX2 and C8-diol ester of OA.

411 The limits of detection (LODs) and quantification (LOQs) for
412 available standards were determined with the ordinary least-
413 squares regression method (Sanagi et al., 2009; Vial and Jardy,
414 1999)(Table 3), and also recorded on a cellular basis [$\text{pg} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1}$]
415 (Table S2).

416

417 **3. Results**

418 ***3.1 Taxonomic identification of French strains of Dinophysis*** 419 ***spp.***

420 ***3.1.1 Molecular phylogenetic data***

421 The phylogenetic analysis inferred from the LSU rDNA
422 nuclear gene revealed that the sequences obtained for 24 French
423 strains clustered in four different clades. Nineteen sequences
424 clustered into a group of sequences identified as *D. acuminata*-
425 complex, three sequences within *D. acuta*, one sequence within
426 *D. caudata* and one within *D. tripos* (Fig. 2). Interestingly, all 19
427 sequences of the *D. acuminata*-complex were identical, and no
428 difference was found with respect to their geographical origin (Fig.
429 2). Additionally, several sequences of this clade retrieved in
430 GenBank have been ascribed to different names such as
431 '*D. acuminata*', '*D. ovum*' (e.g. MN565962) and '*D. sacculus*'

432 (e.g. AY040583), but from a molecular point of view, they all
433 appeared almost similar and impossible to distinguish based on
434 sequence data.

435 The phylogenetic ML and BI trees inferred from *coxI* gene
436 were congruent and the 24 sequences of French strains clustered
437 into four clades (Fig. 3). The sequences of strains IFR-DTR-01Ar
438 and IFR-DCA-04Tr identified as *D. tripos* and *D. caudata*,
439 respectively, were identical and clustered together into a clade
440 comprising *D. miles*, *D. tripos* and *D. caudata*, almost unsupported
441 by the bootstrap values. Sequences of the three strains identified as
442 *D. acuta*, namely IFR-DAC-03Ke, IFR-DAC-02Lc and IFR-DAC-
443 01Ar, grouped together with the sequence HQ681272 identified as
444 *D. acuta*, with a moderate bootstrap support.

445 The remaining 19 sequences clustered in the *D. acuminata*-
446 complex (Fig. 3). Within this clade, two subgroups of sequences
447 were found: the subclade A included 8 strains from France (3 from
448 English Channel and 5 from Atlantic Ocean), and 14 sequences
449 from various origins (Korea, Greece, USA and Spain) identified as
450 '*D. acuminata*'. The subclade B comprised 11 sequences from
451 French strains (4 from Atlantic Ocean and 7 from Mediterranean
452 Sea) and two sequences from Spain (KC576782 and KY849911)
453 identified as '*D. sacculus*'. However, within the *D. acuminata*-

454 complex, the sequences of these two subclades differed by only
455 one nucleotide (at position 136), with a 'G' in all sequences of
456 subclade A replaced by an 'A' in all sequences of subclade B
457 (Fig. 4). This unique difference resulted in a poor resolution in the
458 phylogenetic analysis and thereby a low bootstrap support of the
459 branch (Fig. 3). Although they have a 'G' at position 136, as for all
460 other sequences of subclade A, two Galician sequences were well
461 divergent from all others of this subclade with 11 and 2 differences
462 for sequences AM931582 and HQ681583, respectively.

463 ***3.1.2 Morphological features and growth of D. acuta, D. caudata***
464 ***and D. tripos strains***

465 Cells of *D. acuta* strains had a typical outline with a wider
466 depth ('width') under the median part, and a triangular shape at
467 their posterior end (Fig. 5A). Cells of the strain IFR-DAC-01Ar
468 were $67.1 \pm 2.0 \mu\text{m}$ long and 46.4 ± 2.7 deep, with a L/D ratio
469 varying from 1.33 to 1.63 (Table 4).

470 Cells of *D. caudata* were easily recognized with their
471 unique and prominent ventral projection of the hypotheca (Fig.
472 5B). Cells from strain IFR-DCA-04Tr were $81.8 \pm 2.4 \mu\text{m}$ long
473 and $43.3 \pm 1.9 \mu\text{m}$ deep, with an L/D ratio varying from 1.75 to
474 2.03 (Table 4).

475 Cells of *D. tripos* were characterized by their large size and
476 the presence of two antapical projections. The dorsal projection
477 ('horn') was shorter than the ventral one which was more
478 prominent (Fig. 5C). Cells of the strain IFR-DTR-01Ar were 97.6
479 ± 3.0 μm long and 48.7 ± 3.3 μm deep, with a L/D ratio varying
480 from 1.78 to 2.37 (Table 4).

481 During the exponential growth phase, the average growth
482 rates (μ) of the strains belonging to these three species ranged from
483 0.20 ± 0.01 day^{-1} for *D. caudata* to 0.22 ± 0.02 day^{-1} and $0.23 \pm$
484 0.03 day^{-1} for *D. tripos* and *D. acuta*, respectively.

485 ***3.1.3 Morphological features, variations and growth of strains of*** 486 ***the D. acuminata-complex***

487 Cells that belong to strains of the *D. acuminata*-complex
488 were more or less oval, with a variable shape of the dorsal margin
489 from convex to straight (Figs 6 A-H). Among five strains studied
490 for morphometry, average length ranged from 45.4 to 49.9 μm
491 while average depth ranged from 28.7 to 33.6 μm (Table 4) and
492 size did not appear significantly different among these strains
493 (Mann-Whitney tests, not shown). In addition, the average growth
494 rates of the two strains of the *D. acuminata* complex ranged from
495 0.41 ± 0.02 day^{-1} for the strain IFR-DAU-0.2Ar, clustering in
496 subclade A putatively ascribed to '*D. acuminata*' to 0.43 ± 0.01

497 day⁻¹ for the strain IFR-DSA-0.1 Lt clustering in subclade B
498 (*D. sacculus*). Growth rates for these *D. acuminata* strains were
499 thus twice as high as those of the aforementioned strains of
500 *D. caudata*, *D. tripos* and *D. acuta*.

501 In order to further investigate morphological variations of
502 strains within the *D. acuminata*-complex in relation with molecular
503 data, the morphology of strains clustering in subclade A putatively
504 ascribed to '*D. acuminata*' (IFR-DAU-03An, IFR-DAU-01Es,
505 IFR-DAU-01Ca, IFR-DAU-01Ke and IFR-DAU-02Ar) and
506 subclade B putatively ascribed to '*D. sacculus*' (IFR-DSA-01Lt,
507 IFR-DSA-02Th) in the phylogeny inferred from *cox1* have been
508 studied by SEM. In strains of subclade A, cells with an oval shape
509 and a typical convex dorsal margin were observed in the strains
510 from the English Channel (IFR-DAU-03An, IFR-DAU-01Es, IFR-
511 DAU-01Ca) (Fig. 6A–C). In strains from the Atlantic Ocean, the
512 shape was more variable and some cells were more rectangular
513 with a straight dorsal margin (Fig. 6D). Within strain IFR-DAU-
514 02Ar (Fig. 6E–H), some specimens with a dorsal margin varying
515 from convex on the posterior side (Fig. 6E–F) to straight (Fig. 6G–
516 H) were observed. Depending on the age of the specimens, the
517 ornamentation was found to be variable, from smooth (Fig. 6H) to
518 conspicuously foveate (Fig. 6G). In the two strains of subclade B

519 analyzed, morphology was very variable among cells. In both
520 strains IFR-DSA-01Lt from Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 7A–D) and IFR-
521 DSA-02Th from the Mediterranean area (Fig 7E–H), a continuum
522 of shapes was observed, including cells with a concave dorsal
523 margin and a reniform shape (Fig. 7A, B, E), cells with a straight
524 dorsal margin and almost rectangular (Fig. 7C, F) and cells with a
525 convex dorsal margin (Fig. 7D, G–H). Hence, within-strain
526 morphological variability was high in these strains.

527 ***3.2 Toxin profiles***

528 In this study, LC-MS/MS analyses of toxin contents and
529 profiles were carried out on all 30 *Dinophysis* strains isolated from
530 different locations of the French coastal waters (English Channel,
531 Atlantic Ocean, and Mediterranean Sea). Toxin profiles appeared
532 remarkably conserved for each morphospecies, irrespective of their
533 geographical origin, and five profiles could be identified (Figs 3,
534 S1). Overall, the most abundant toxin was PTX2, being the major
535 compound in *D. tripos*, *D. caudata* and *D. acuta*. Higher PTX2
536 contents per cell were found in *D. tripos* (176 pg·cell⁻¹) and
537 *D. caudata* (39–200 pg·cell⁻¹) and no OA or DTXs were detected
538 (Table S2). The toxin profile of *D. acuta* was characterized by the
539 presence of DTX2 in all strains (Figs 3, S1), again with PTX2 as
540 the major toxin (>50%) and OA present in moderate to high

541 amounts (10 - 38 pg·cell⁻¹). The Mediterranean strain, IFR-DAC-
542 01Po, showed a low total toxin content (24 pg·cell⁻¹) by
543 comparison with the other strains (59 - 149 pg·cell⁻¹) from the
544 Atlantic Ocean (Table S2, Fig. S1).

545 Interestingly, within the *D. acuminata*-complex, two very
546 different toxin profiles were observed (Fig. 3). The eight strains
547 clustering within subclade A in *cox1* phylogeny (i.e.
548 '*D. acuminata*', Fig. 3) contained only OA, with all other
549 compounds below LOD (Table S2). The amount of OA varied
550 greatly among the 8 strains analyzed, and, except for one strain, all
551 others contained 32 to 96 pg·cell⁻¹ (Table S2). In contrast, the 11
552 strains clustering into subclade B ('*D. sacculus*') showed a more
553 complex profile with PTX2 as the major compound (> 60%) and
554 low proportions of OA (Fig. 3). Additionally, C9-diol ester of OA
555 was detected in seven of the eleven strains analyzed. Except in two
556 strains from the Atlantic Ocean IFR-DSA-01Lo and IFR-DSA-
557 01Me, in which it accounted for about 30% of the toxin content
558 (Figs 3, S1), this compound was present as a minor toxin (<9 %) in
559 the other five strains (Table S2).

560

561 **4. Discussion**

562 **4.1 Molecular identification of strains**

563 Phylogenetic analyses indicated that molecular data are
564 congruent with morphological features to identify unambiguously
565 four species, i.e. *D. acuta*, *D. caudata*, *D. tripos* and *D. acuminata*-
566 complex. Molecular analyses performed on two genetic markers,
567 ITS–LSU rDNA region and mitochondrial *cox1*, produced a rather
568 similar overall topology, but some clades were differently resolved
569 depending on the region analyzed. The present data suggest that
570 *cox1* fails to discriminate species although morphologically easily
571 recognizable, such as *D. caudata* and *D. tripos*, and which are
572 consistently separated by ITS–5.8S region and LSU rDNA
573 sequences. For this reason, ITS and LSU rDNA regions appear
574 generally as better taxonomic markers than *cox1*, which has
575 already been shown to be poorly informative for the taxonomy of
576 certain dinoflagellates (e.g. Penna et al. 2014).

577 **Case of the *D. acuminata*-complex**

578 In the present study, sequences of 19 strains from various
579 geographical origins were acquired and the absence of any
580 divergence within ITS and LSU rRNA regions suggests that they
581 likely belong to the same taxon. This finding is congruent with
582 previous studies showing that LSU rDNA nuclear gene and ITS
583 region did not separate sequences from the *D. acuminata*-complex,

584 whereas other species are resolved (Guillou et al., 2002; Stern et
585 al., 2014; Wolny et al., 2020, Zhang et al., 2008,). Nevertheless, a
586 divergence was found among strains, with a consistent one-base
587 mismatch in *cox1* sequence of the two subclades A and B. The use
588 of the mitochondrial gene *cox1* has been proposed by Raho et al.
589 (2013) who successfully discriminated species of the complex
590 (*D. acuminata*, *D. ovum*, *D. sacculus*) but they based their
591 interpretation on a large divergence of sequence AM931582
592 (ascribed to *D. acuminata*) differing by 17 and 15 mismatches with
593 the Galician sequences AM931583 (*D. ovum*) and KC576782
594 (*D. sacculus*), respectively. However, similar to the study by Park
595 et al. (2019), our data confirm that all *cox1* sequences of
596 *D. acuminata*-complex from various locations worldwide are
597 remarkably similar, while none was closely related to the Galician
598 sequence AM931582, suggesting the possibility of sequencing
599 errors in this sequence. Hence, this sequence should not be
600 considered as a reference for *D. acuminata*, and excluding it, the
601 two subclades identified in our phylogenetic analysis inferred from
602 *cox1* gene diverge by 1 base pair only, which is a small divergence
603 to support a distinction at species level. Since this difference was
604 found in a median part of the sequence, it is likely not artefactual
605 nor influenced by the primers. From a functional point of view,

606 this mutation alters the first position of a codon of the subunit of
607 the cytochrome *c* oxydase I and the 'GTA' found in subclade A is
608 replaced by 'ATA' in the subclade B. This alteration induces a
609 conservative replacement of an amino acid, since valine (subclade
610 A) and isoleucine (subclade B) have similar biochemical properties
611 which does generally not affect the function of proteins.

612 Interestingly, the two groups of strains (subclades A and B)
613 present a clear regional pattern, and subclade A was the unique
614 genotype present in the English Channel, both subclades were
615 present in the Atlantic Ocean, while in the Mediterranean area,
616 only strains of subclade B were found. This situation coincides
617 exactly with previous reports showing that natural samples from
618 the English Channel contained only '*Dinophysis acuminata*', those
619 of the Atlantic Ocean a mix of '*D. acuminata*' and '*D. sacculus*',
620 or intermediate forms difficult to identify, while no typical
621 '*D. acuminata*' has been found from Mediterranean area (Lassus
622 and Bardouil, 1991; Zingone et al., 1998). Hence, based on these
623 data, strains of subclade A can putatively be interpreted as
624 '*D. acuminata*' while those of subclade B might correspond with
625 '*D. sacculus*' although the distinction at species-level is highly
626 questionable.

627 ***The D. acuminata / D. sacculus taxonomic issue***

628 The difficult interpretation of *D. sacculus* and its complex
629 taxonomy have already been well summarized and discussed by
630 Zingone et al. (1998). They emphasized that the morphological
631 distinction of *D. acuminata* and *D. sacculus* has been problematic
632 not only in early studies (e.g., Pavillard 1905) but also more
633 recently for specimens from the Spanish and French Atlantic coast
634 (Bravo et al., 1995; Lassus and Bardouil, 1991) where both species
635 are present (Zingone et al., 1998). Species identification in the
636 *D. acuminata*-complex has been traditionally based on the outline
637 of cells as a major character, but several authors illustrated the
638 morphological variability of *D. acuminata* in natural populations
639 (Bravo et al., 1995; Lassus and Bardouil, 1991; Zingone et al.,
640 1998). Recently, Park et al. (2019) summarized these variations
641 reported from numerous studies worldwide and established a
642 typology of 4 different forms, ranging from oval to elongate oval
643 and with a more or less symmetric shape, and noticed that
644 depending on the populations, the antapex varied from rounded to
645 tapered. According to Park et al. (2019), cells of type A and B have
646 a rounded antapical end, with cells of type B being longer and
647 more elongated than those of type A. By contrast, cells of type C
648 and D have a more tapered antapical end, with cells of type C
649 being more oval-shaped than those of type D. In that study, the

650 authors concluded that the problematic *D. ovum*, formerly
651 considered as a separate species from *D. acuminata* might be
652 conspecific and corresponds to a particular morphology (type A,
653 Park et al., 2019). Following this typology, natural samples from
654 French coasts (Berland et al., 1995; Lassus and Bardouil, 1991;
655 Nézan, 2000; Truquet et al., 1996; Zingone et al., 1998) belong to
656 three types, namely type B, which is elongated oval with convex
657 sides and a rounded antapex, type C, which is oval with a convex
658 dorsal margin and more or less straight posterior ventral side, and
659 type D, which is elongated oval with a dorsal posterior side
660 inclined and a ventral posterior side straight, resulting in a tapered
661 antapex (Park et al., 2019). Although Zingone et al. (1998) also
662 emphasized the wide range of variations in natural samples,
663 according to these authors, *D. sacculus* may be distinguishable
664 from *D. acuminata* on the basis of the shape of the hypothecal
665 plates which in *D. sacculus* are generally elongated, almost
666 rectangular or sac-like, whereas in *D. acuminata* they are shorter,
667 more convex dorsally and often more slender towards the antapex
668 (Zingone et al., 1998). Following this interpretation, cells of the
669 type B by Park et al. (2019) may correspond well to *D. sacculus*
670 while types C and D better fit with *D. acuminata*. Interestingly,
671 (Nézan, 2000) performed a detailed study of natural populations of

672 *Dinophysis* spp. from French coasts of Brittany (Atlantic Ocean),
673 and she reported the shape of *D. acuminata* to be variable
674 throughout the year, with stocky cells (types C, D) observed at the
675 beginning of spring outbreak, whereas cells then became more
676 elongated (type B) in summer and fall. In contrast with Lassus and
677 Bardouil (1991) who considered the more elongated cells as
678 possible morphotypes of *D. sacculus*, she argued that the slight
679 displacement of the antapex towards the ventral side, giving a
680 slightly oblique apical axis, was a characteristic trait of
681 *D. acuminata*, as suggested by Zingone et al. (1998), and she
682 considered them as summer forms of *D. acuminata* (Nézan, 2000).
683 However, these interpretations of either *D. acuminata* or
684 *D. sacculus* based on wild specimens were impossible to verify in
685 absence of cultured reference material and a
686 molecular/biochemical characterization.

687 The present study represents a new step in the interpretation
688 of '*D. acuminata*' and '*D. sacculus*' by bringing important data
689 from cultured monoclonal strains genetically characterized. In
690 strains of *D. acuminata*-complex clustering in subclade A in *cox1*
691 phylogeny (i.e. '*D. acuminata*'), some specimens were found to
692 have the typical stocky shape illustrated by Nézan (2000), such as
693 in IFR-DAU-03An, IFR-DAU-01Es or IFR-DAU-01Ca isolated

694 from English Channel and they correspond well with the
695 morphology of *D. acuminata*. However, this was not always clear,
696 and cells from strains IFR-DAU-01Ke and IFR-DAU-02Ar,
697 genetically identical, were more elongated, and the slight
698 displacement of the antapex towards the ventral side was
699 sometimes completely absent or rarely observed in some
700 specimens within a given strain. Hence, in the subclade A,
701 considerable morphological variations were found to occur in
702 cultures and following the typology by Park et al. (2019), types A,
703 B and C could be found within a single strain. In the subclade B
704 (ascribed as '*D. sacculus*'), some morphologies were in perfect
705 agreement with the redefinition of *D. sacculus* encompassing *D.*
706 *pavillardii* (as synonym) by Zingone et al. (1998), but large
707 variations also occurred, and within a given strain, it was possible
708 to observe some specimens with a typical concave dorsal margin
709 co-occurring with cells with a straight or convex margin, with a
710 continuum of shapes and which could be attributed to types A and
711 B from Park et al. (2019). According to the traditional
712 interpretation of morpho-species these specimens could be either
713 interpreted as *D. sacculus* f. *reniformis*, *D. sacculus* f. *sacculus* or
714 even *D. acuminata* following the proposal by Zingone et al.
715 (1998). Hence, from the present study, it appears that

716 morphological variations are important within all strains of the
717 *D. acuminata*-complex, and the shape of the dorsal margin should
718 be used cautiously for taxonomic purposes especially to
719 discriminate the problematic species '*D. acuminata*' and
720 '*D. sacculus*'. Large morphological variations observed in the
721 cultures suggest that the cell shape might change depending on the
722 physiological and nutritional state of cultured cells. It can be
723 hypothesized that the mixotrophic behaviour and kleptoplastidy
724 could modify the overall morphology of cells. Further
725 investigations of morphometric features of different strains at
726 various stages of the feeding process are necessary to confirm this
727 hypothesis in the future. Resolving this issue has important
728 ecological and public health implications and could help to better
729 understand the apparent segregation in space or time of
730 '*D. acuminata*' and '*D. sacculus*', as mentioned by Zingone et al.
731 (1998), or interpret seasonal variations in the morphology of
732 natural populations (Nézan, 2000). Grown under the same
733 experimental conditions the strains of '*D. acuminata*' and
734 '*D. sacculus*' isolated from the same geographical area showed
735 very similar growth rate but different to those of the other three
736 species studied, and they were in the range reported in the
737 literature for a Spanish strain of '*D. acuminata*' (García-Portela et

738 al., 2018). However, this result needs to be confirmed on a set of
739 strains which have different geographical origins, and under
740 different environmental conditions of salinity and temperature
741 since *D. sacculus* seems to have a higher affinity for semi-enclosed
742 basins and lagoons in contrast to *D. acuminata* (Zingone et al.,
743 1998).

744 **4.2 Toxin profiles**

745 *Dinophysis* cultures from French coastal waters showed
746 different and species-conserved toxin profiles for each of the three
747 species *D. acuta*, *D. caudata*, *D. tripos*. However, two different
748 profiles were observed for strains of the *D. acuminata*-complex.
749 Geographical origin of the strains did not seem to have any
750 influence on toxin composition, and for a given genotype (i.e.
751 within each of '*D. acuminata*' and '*D. sacculus*'), the profiles were
752 conserved for strains of various origins. For instance, this is the
753 case for *D. acuta* which is the only species producing DTX2. This
754 finding is consistent with the original identification of DTX2 in
755 shellfish from Ireland in 1992 (Hu et al., 1992a; Pleasance et al.,
756 1990) where *D. acuta* is frequently found (Fux et al., 2009;
757 McMahon et al., 1999). It should be noted that various studies
758 from around Spain, Portugal and Scotland associated the presence
759 of *D. acuta* with DTX2 in both field-sampled cells and cultures of

760 *D. acuta* (Fernández et al., 2006; García-Portela et al., 2018; Swan
761 et al., 2018; Vale and Sampayo, 2000), while DTX2 was not
762 detected in *D. acuta* from New Zealand (MacKenzie et al., 2005).

763 The two species *D. caudata* and *D. tripos* differed from
764 other *Dinophysis* species by exhibiting a profile with PTX2 as the
765 sole toxin detected above LOD. The high amounts of PTX2 found
766 in the present study are in accordance with those reported in
767 cultured strains from Spain and Japan (Basti et al., 2015;
768 Rodríguez et al., 2012). Nevertheless, besides an extraordinary
769 high cellular PTX2 content, a trace amount of DTX1 in *D. tripos*
770 was also observed in a clonal culture from Inokushi Bay (Nagai et
771 al., 2013).

772 The investigation of 19 strains of the *D. acuminata*-
773 complex allowed us to compare the toxin profiles of the two
774 subclades '*D. acuminata*' and '*D. sacculus*' grown under the same
775 experimental conditions. The cultures of '*D. acuminata*', from
776 either English Channel or Atlantic Ocean always presented a
777 simple toxin profile with only OA detected. While the cultures of
778 '*D. sacculus*' from Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean Sea showed
779 a more complex profile comprising PTX2 as the major compound
780 and also containing OA and C9-diol OA. Interestingly, the toxin
781 profiles, in terms of type of compounds, of the '*D. sacculus*'

782 strains isolated from the Atlantic Ocean did not differ from those
783 from the Mediterranean lagoons. Although variations in the
784 relative proportion of compounds among the strains of
785 '*D. sacculus*' were detected, the toxin profile always included
786 PTX2 as the major toxin and other components, in contrast to the
787 simple profile observed in '*D. acuminata*' in this study.

788 In addition, several studies conducted in Galicia
789 (northwestern Spain) have shown the same difference in the toxin
790 profile between '*D. sacculus*' and '*D. acuminata*'. The strains of
791 '*D. acuminata*' contained only AO (García-Portela et al., 2018;
792 Hernandez-Urcera et al., 2018), while those of '*D. sacculus*'
793 showed a toxic profile dominated by PTX2 with moderate amounts
794 of AO and traces of DTX1 (Riobó et al., 2013).

795 While toxin composition could appear as a reliable feature
796 separating '*D. acuminata*' from '*D. sacculus*' at least in French
797 and Spanish coastal waters, this specificity of toxin profiles
798 observed within the *D. acuminata*-complex does not seem to be
799 consistent with observations at a broader geographical scale. For
800 instance, strains of '*Dinophysis acuminata*', DAEP01, DABOF02
801 and DAMV01, isolated from three sites within the northeastern
802 US/Canada coastal region in the Atlantic Ocean are genetically
803 identical with the French strains of '*D. acuminata*' (subclade A,

804 Fig. 4) but they produced PTX2 as the major compound and only
805 low amounts of OA and/or DTX1 (Table 4, Raho et al., 2013;
806 Riobó et al., 2013; Tong et al., 2015), which corresponds to the
807 profile observed in '*D. sacculus*' (subclade B) in the present study.
808 Moreover, PTX2 was reported to be the sole toxin detected in
809 seven cultivated strains of *D. acuminata* from Denmark (Nielsen et
810 al., 2012), but unfortunately no molecular data are available for
811 more comparisons. Furthermore, numerous studies have reported a
812 toxin profile dominated by PTX2 in *D. acuminata* from Norway,
813 which is the type locality of this species, while in New Zealand,
814 Japan, China, Chile, Argentina and North America *D. acuminata*
815 also contained smaller amounts of OA and/or DTX1 (Basti et al.,
816 2018; Fabro et al., 2016; Fux et al., 2011; Gao et al., 2019; Hackett
817 et al., 2009; Hattenrath-Lehmann et al., 2015; Kamiyama and
818 Suzuki, 2009; MacKenzie et al., 2005; Miles et al., 2004b; Suzuki
819 et al., 2009; Tong et al., 2015; Uchida et al., 2018). Similarly, LC-
820 MS analysis of picked cells of *D. acuminata* from northern Chile,
821 solely showed high levels of PTX2 (Blanco et al., 2007). Hence,
822 these data appear conflicting and it is not yet clear whether the
823 toxin profile can potentially be used as a chemotaxonomic
824 indicator related with genetics to separate species/ecotypes or not.

825 The production of C9-diol esters of OA was solely detected
826 in *D. sacculus* in the present study, while *D. acuta* did not produce
827 any such diol-esters above LOD. This finding is in contrast to
828 previous study in our laboratory where a Spanish strain of *D. acuta*
829 produced also a C9-diol ester (Sibat et al., 2018). Diol-esters of
830 OA and DTX1 had originally been identified in cultures of
831 *Prorocentrum lima* (Hu et al., 1992b). It is still a matter of debate
832 whether dinoflagellates produce OA and its analogues DTX1 and -
833 2 *de novo* and store these metabolites as such in the cell or whether
834 more complex derivatives such as diol esters or sulfated diol-esters
835 of OA and its analogues are initially biosynthesized and
836 subsequently transformed during transport inside the cell and
837 during excretion. Thus, further investigations of the toxin
838 production of genetically well-characterized clonal strains from
839 various origins are necessary to clarify that the toxin profile does
840 not change throughout the life-cycle and is not influenced by
841 physiology, growth stage or external factors.

842 The toxin profiles produced by the species or ecotypes also
843 have direct relevance to public health. Various risk assessments of
844 algal metabolites accumulating in shellfish, including latest
845 evidence examined from the New Zealand experience (Boundy et
846 al., 2020), suggest that PTXs pose little or no risk to consumer

847 safety (Lawrence et al., 2011). Nevertheless, *D. sacculus*, even
848 though the main toxin produced is PTX2, also produces OA and
849 esters of OA and must therefore still be considered important in
850 public health-orientated monitoring programs. Furthermore, recent
851 evidence suggests that PTXs may have an impact on oyster
852 recruitment (Gaillard et al., 2020), and therefore all *Dinophysis*
853 species should be re-examined for their production of PTXs and
854 their potential implication in shellfish mortalities.

855

856 **5. Conclusion**

857 Despite a regular monitoring of *Dinophysis* species in
858 French coastal waters and presence of DSTs in shellfish, it is still
859 difficult to ascertain the contribution of each species to shellfish
860 contamination because of morphological variability and difficult
861 taxonomic identification (Reguera et al. 2012). For the first time in
862 France, the present study based on the analysis of 30 clonal strains
863 from various sites from English Channel, Atlantic Ocean and the
864 Mediterranean area revealed four species identified unambiguously
865 by morphology, molecular data and their toxin content. Although
866 some recurrent species have not yet been successfully isolated such

867 as *D. fortii*, this constitutes the major part of toxic *Dinophysis* spp.
868 found in French coastal waters.

869 For a long time, the identification of the most common and
870 closely related species *D. acuminata* and *D. sacculus* has been
871 highly problematic in natural samples, which has led several
872 authors to consider them as *D. acuminata*-complex (Bravo et al.,
873 1995; Lassus and Bardouil, 1991). Data acquired from 19 strains in
874 the present study fail to clearly separate them as two distinct
875 species, but one base-difference in the *cox1* gene was consistent to
876 separate '*D. acuminata*' and '*D. sacculus*', and the toxin content
877 associated was shown to differ among them. Whether they actually
878 represent two separate species or ecotypes (varieties) of a same
879 species cannot be resolved from our data. Molecular data do not
880 support a separation at the species-level, considering that ITS-5.8S
881 and LSU rDNA are generally good taxonomic markers for
882 dinoflagellates. Furthermore, the considerable morphological
883 variability observed in cultured strains seem to indicate that cell
884 morphology shows high plasticity and may change in natural
885 populations due to the environmental conditions, which confirms
886 the observations of variable morphologies in natural samples by
887 Lassus and Bardouil (1991). The existence of two distinct toxin
888 profiles in the strains studied could appear as a reliable feature to

889 separate strains, but conflicting data from the literature and lack of
890 information for well characterized strains prevent the use of this
891 character for taxonomic purpose.

892 The molecular data presented here agree with the previous
893 study by Park et al. (2019) in that *D. sacculus* may be considered
894 to be similar to *D. ovum* and they could represent particular
895 morphotypes of *D. acuminata*. On the other hand, our data from
896 *cox1* gene and toxin profiles suggest a slight divergence of these
897 organisms which is relevant from an ecological point of view:
898 *D. sacculus* has a higher affinity for semi-enclosed basins and
899 lagoons than *D. acuminata* (Zingone et al., 1998). It can be
900 hypothesized that they are not yet genetically divergent enough to
901 be considered as separate species, and they may be ecotypes in an
902 early stage of speciation process (Le Gac et al., 2016). Resolving
903 this species concept issue will not be an easy task, but clonal
904 strains will allow further studies including cross-mating
905 experiments, genetic analyses based on multigene, transcriptomic
906 or even genomic approaches and in-depth analyses of toxin
907 production which will indisputably help to better understand the
908 level of genetic divergence in '*D. acuminata*' and '*D. sacculus*'.

909 Independent of the taxonomic issue, the toxin profiles of
910 the two ecotypes are significantly different in terms of public

911 health impact since PTXs, the major toxins produced by the
912 ecotype '*D. sacculus*', are considered of much lower risk to public
913 health due to their rapid biotransformation in mussels and
914 instability in conditions of the human digestive system.
915 Additionally, the difference in toxin profiles within the
916 "*D. acuminata*" complex but also for other species should prompt
917 us to explore their respective environmental impact and in
918 particular their effect on the recruitment of bivalve molluscs and
919 other marine organisms.

920 **Conflict of interest**

921 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

922

923 **Authors contributions:**

924 VS and NC designed and supervised the study, drafted the paper
925 and coordinated its revisions. Moreover, VS also coordinated and
926 contributed to establishing and maintaining *Dinophysis* clonal
927 cultures, while NC also performed the microscopic observation
928 and phylogenetic analyses. GB conducted the molecular analysis
929 and sequencing and contributed to drafting and editing the paper.
930 MS and GAR conducted the LC-MS analysis and contributed to
931 drafting and editing the paper. LC performed cells measurements,
932 contributed to establishing and maintaining *Dinophysis* clonal
933 cultures, and to drafting and editing the paper. MPR contributed to
934 the field sampling and editing the paper. VR and FM contributed to
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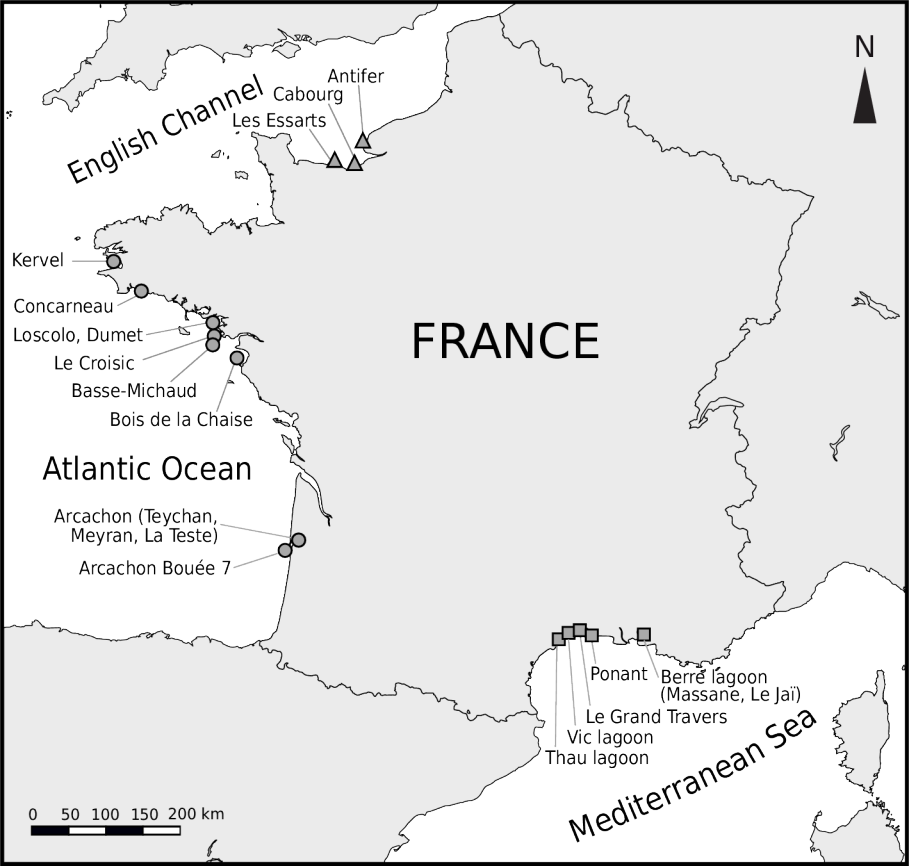
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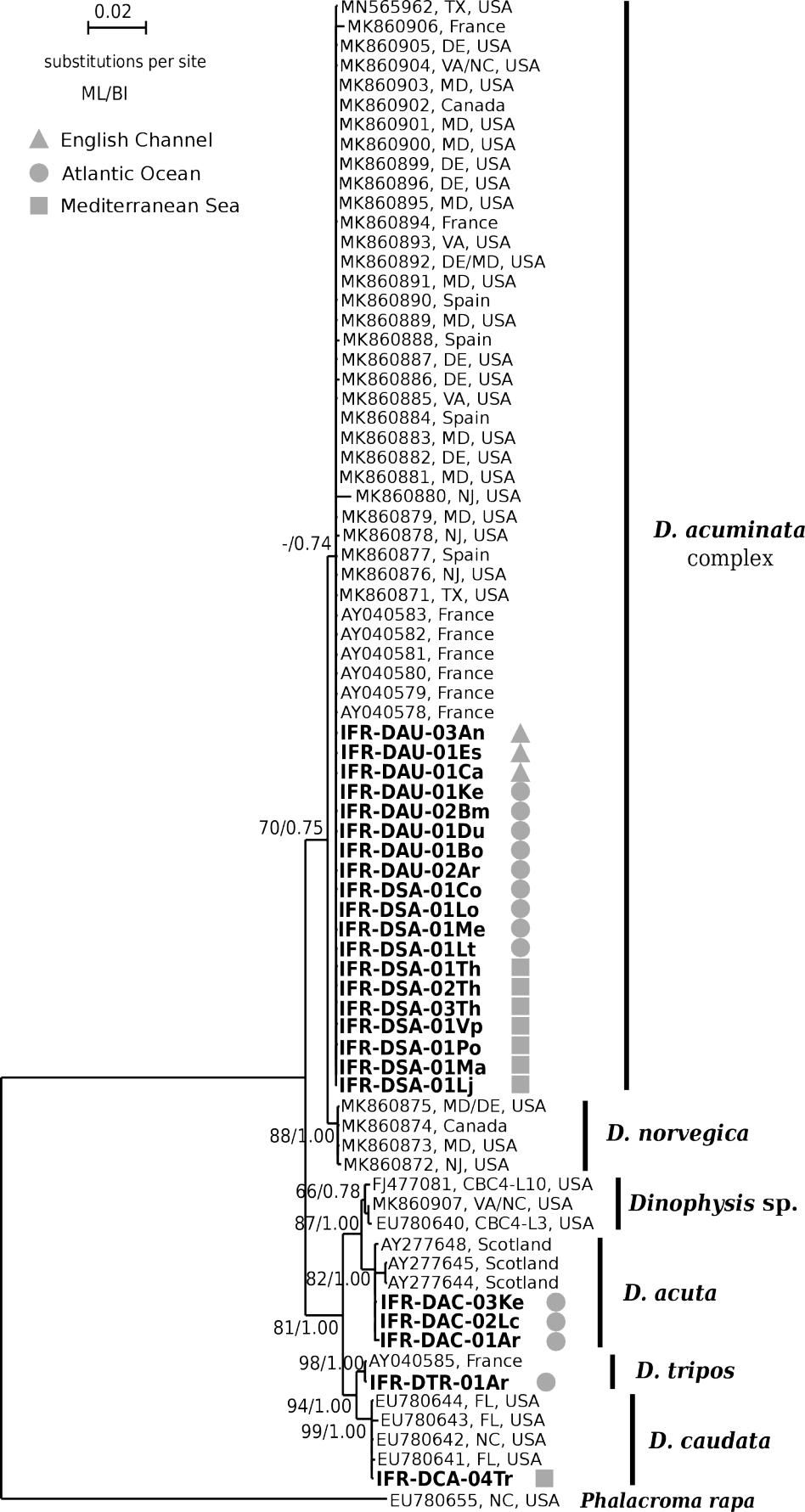
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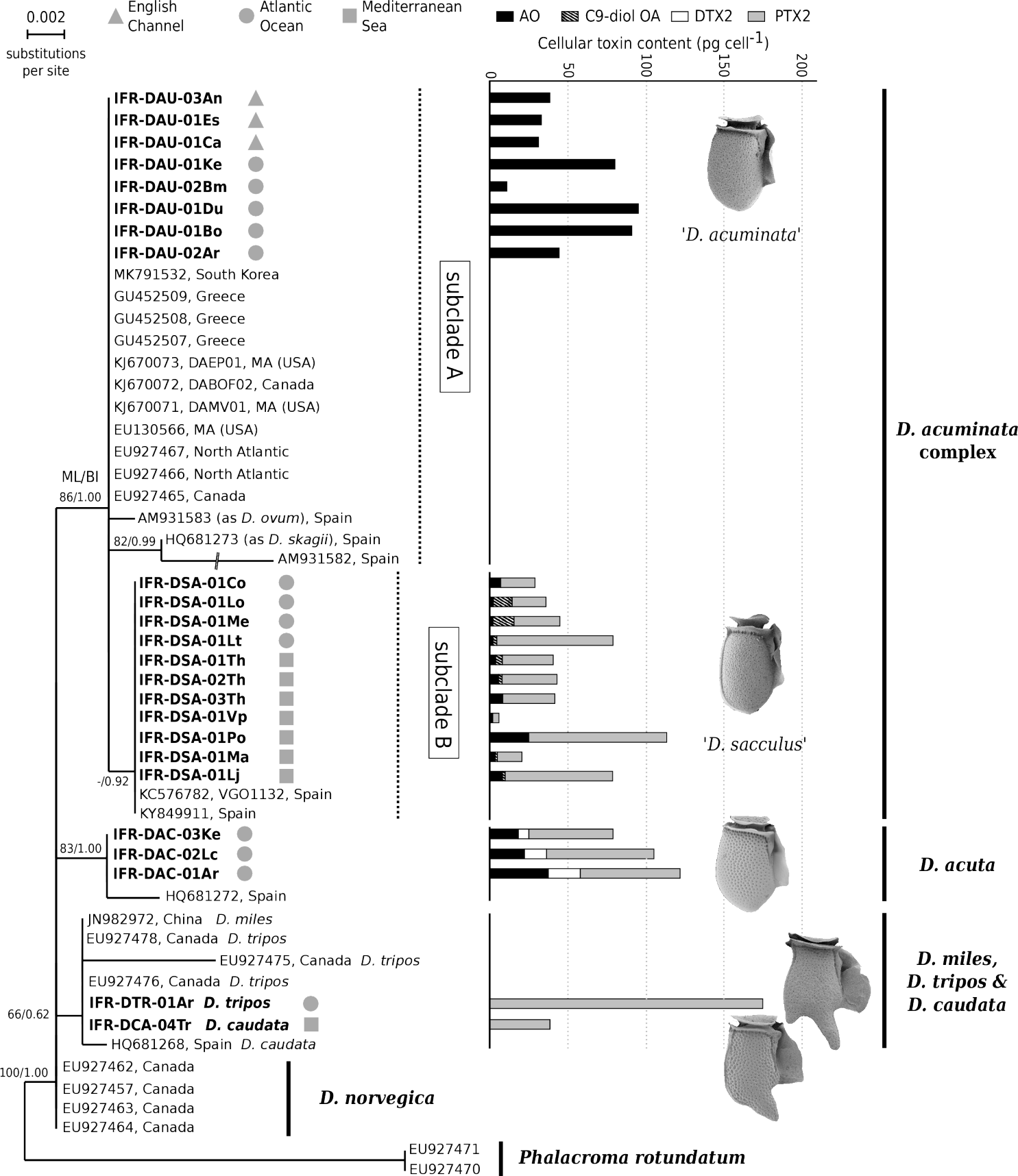


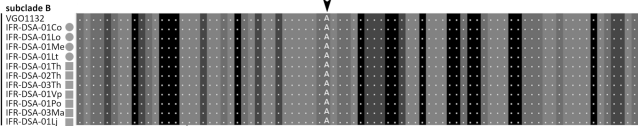
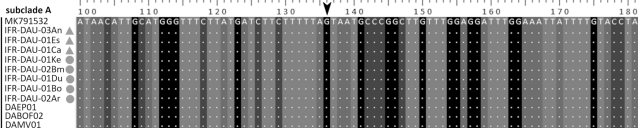
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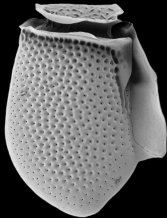
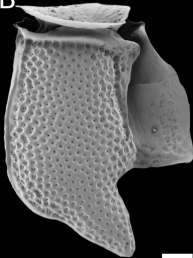
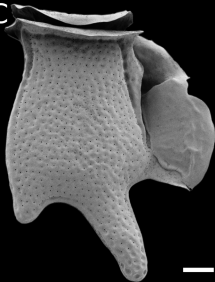
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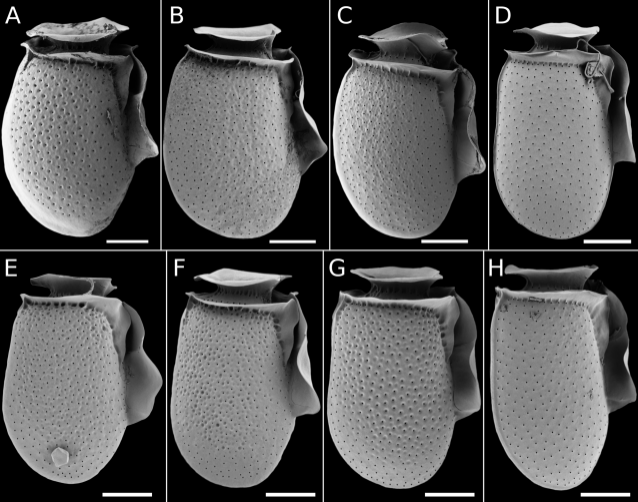
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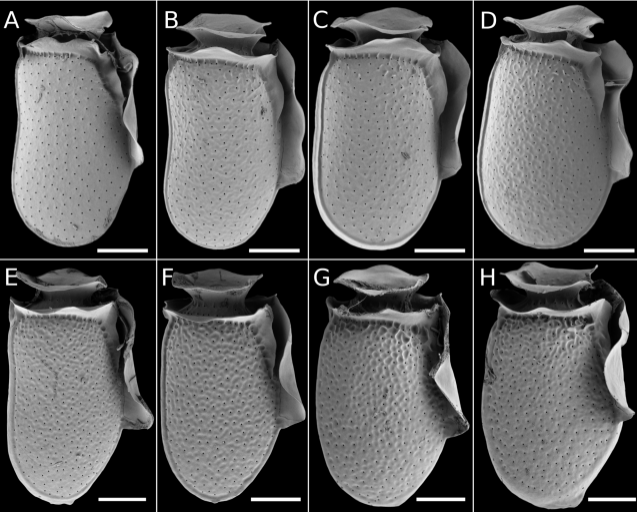


Table 1. List of the thirty strains of *Dinophysis* sp isolated from French coast during this study

Strain	Species	Collection date	Origin	Coordinates	GenBank accession #			Toxin present		
					LSU	<i>cox1</i>	AO	C9-diol OA	DTX2	PTX2
IFR-DAU-03An	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Aug-19	Antifer	49.66575N 0.131659E	MT365093	MT371856	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DAU-01Es	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Aug-19	Saint Aubin - les Essarts	49.36424N 0.38901W	MT365094	MT371857	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DAU-01Ca	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Aug-19	Cabourg	49.29840N 0.11700W	MT365095	MT371858	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DAU-01Ke	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	May-18	Kervel	48.11279N 4.29085W	MT365096	MT371859	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DAU-01Du	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Oct-17	Dumet	47.42272N 2.59545W	MT365097	MT371860	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DAU-02Bm	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Apr-19	Le Croisic	47.22916N 2.58333W	MT365098	MT371861	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DAU-01Bo	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Apr-19	Noirmoutier	47.01908N 2.199944W	MT365099	MT371862	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DAU-02Ar	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	May-18	Arcachon	44.54228N 1.26374W	MT365100	MT371863	+	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD
IFR-DSA-01Co	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Jul-19	Concarneau	47.83341N 3.94992W	MT365101	MT371864	+	<LOD	<LOD	+
IFR-DSA-01Lo	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	May-16	Loscolo	47.40275N 2.73007W	MT365102	MT371865	+	+	<LOD	+
IFR-DSA-01Me	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	May-15	Arcachon	44.64769N 1.10039W	MT365103	MT371866	+	+	<LOD	+
IFR-DSA-01Lt	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	May-15	La Teste de Buch	44.64589N 1.14531W	MT365104	MT371867	+	+	<LOD	+
IFR-DSA-01Th	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Dec-15	Thau Lagoon	43.44731N 3.67054E	MT365105	MT371868	+	+	<LOD	+
IFR-DSA-02Th	<i>D. acuminata</i> complex	Oct-17	Thau Lagoon	43.44731N 3.67054E	MT365106	MT371869	+	+	<LOD	+
IFR-DSA-03Th	<i>D. acuminata</i>	Mar-18	Thau Lagoon	43.44731N	MT365107	MT371870	+	<LOD	<LOD	+

	complex			3.67054E							
	<i>D. acuminata</i>			43.49147N							
IFR-DSA-01Vp	complex	Mar-18	Vic Lagoon	3.82587E	MT365108	MT371871	+	<LOD	<LOD	+	
	<i>D. acuminata</i>			43.55907N							
IFR-DSA-01Po	complex	Mar-18	Ponant Lagoon	4.10167E	MT365109	MT371872	+	<LOD	<LOD	+	
	<i>D. acuminata</i>			43.46871N							
IFR-DSA-01Ma	complex	Mar-18	Berre Lagoon	5.02094E	MT365110	MT371873	+	+	<LOD	+	
	<i>D. acuminata</i>			43.40813N							
IFR-DSA-01Lj	complex	Mar-18	Berre Lagoon	5.15436E	MT365111	MT371874	+	+	<LOD	+	
				44.54228N							
IFR-DTR-01Ar	<i>D. tripos</i>	Apr-19	Arcachon	1.26374W	MT365115	MT371875	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD	+	
				48.11279N							
IFR-DCA-01Ke	<i>D. caudata</i>	Oct-17	Kervel	4.29085W	-	-	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD	+	
				48.11279N							
IFR-DCA-03Ke	<i>D. caudata</i>	Oct-17	Kervel	4.29085W	-	-	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD	+	
				47.40275N							
IFR-DCA-02Lo	<i>D. caudata</i>	Oct-17	Loscolo	2.73007W	-	-	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD	+	
			Grand Travers								
			beach (La	43.55631N							
IFR-DCA-04Tr	<i>D. caudata</i>	Aug-19	Grande Motte)	4.03588E	MT365116	MT371876	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD	+	
				48.11279N							
IFR-DAC-03Ke	<i>D. acuta</i>	Nov-17	Kervel	4.29085W	MT365112	MT371877	+	<LOD	+	+	
				47.30343N							
IFR-DAC-02Lc	<i>D. acuta</i>	Aug-17	Le Croisic	2.53849W	MT365113	MT371878	+	<LOD	+	+	
				47.30343N							
IFR-DAC-03Lc	<i>D. acuta</i>	Aug-17	Le Croisic	2.53849W	-	-	+	<LOD	+	+	
				47.30343N							
IFR-DAC-04Lc	<i>D. acuta</i>	Oct-17	Le Croisic	2.53849W	-	-	+	<LOD	+	+	
				44.54228N							
IFR-DAC-01Ar	<i>D. acuta</i>	Aug-17	Arcachon	1.26374W	MT365114	MT371879	+	<LOD	+	+	
				43.55907N							
IFR-DAC-01Po	<i>D. acuta</i>	Jul-18	Ponant Lagoon	4.10167E	-	-	+	<LOD	+	+	

Table 2. Primers used for DNA amplification in the two rounds of the semi-nested/nested PCR

Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	PCR rounds	Reference
ITSFW	GTA GGT GAA CCT GCG GAA GG	1, 2	Adam et al., 2000
D3B	TCG GAG GGA ACC AGC TAC TA	1	Nunn et al., 1996
D2C	CCT TGG TCC GTG TTT CAA GA	2	Scholin et al., 1994
Dinocox1F	AAA AAT TGT AAT CAT AAA CGC TTA GG	1, 2	Lin et al., 2002
Dinocox1R	TGT TGA GCC ACC TAT AGT AAA CAT TA	1	Lin et al., 2002
Cox777R	CAT TGA TTG GTT CSC AAA GA	2	This study

Table 3. Settings of mass spectrometric parameters (collision energy (CE); exit potential (CXP)), MRM transitions monitored in API 4000QTrap instrument (SCIEX, CA, USA) and the limits of detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ) for the standards available.

Group	Source settings	Toxin	MRM transitions (m/z)	CE (eV)	CXP (eV)	LOD (ng mL ⁻¹)	LOQ (ng mL ⁻¹)
OA diol ester	Mode ESI ⁺ CUR (psi) 30	C9-diol OA	965.4/827.4*	50	11		
			965.4/723.4	62	16		
	TEMP (°C) 500	C9-triol OA	981.4/827.4*	50	11		
			981.4/723.4	62	16		
	GS1 (psi) 50	C8-diol OA	946.6/805.6*	17	22	1.5	4
			946.6/751.6	35	20		
	GS2 (psi) 50	C7-diol OA	937.4/827.4*	50	11		
			937.4/723.4	62	16		
	IS (V) 5500	C6-diol OA	923.4/827.4*	50	11		
			923.4/723.4	62	16		
DP (V) 66	C4-diol OA	897.4/827.4*	50	11			
		897.4/723.4	62	16			
OA and DTXs	Mode ESI ⁺ CUR (psi) 25 TEMP (°C) 600 GS1 (psi) 40	AO, DTX2	803.4/255.1*	-62	-16	1	3
			803.4/113.1	-92	-9		
	GS2 (psi) 60 IS (V) -4500 DP (V) -170	DTX1	817.3/255.4*	-64	-9	1	3
			817.3/113.2	-92	-10		
PTXs	Mode ESI ⁺ CUR (psi) 30	PTX2	876.6/823.5*	31	12	0.2	0.6
			876.6/805.6	37	12		
			876.6/213.6	55	12		
	TEMP (°C) 450	PTX2sa 7- <i>epi</i> - PTX2sa	894.6/823.5*	31	12		
			894.5/805.5	37	12		
	GS1 (psi) 50	PTX1 PTX4	892.6/821.4	37	12		
			892.6/839.5*	31	12		
			892.6/213.6	55	12		
	GS2 (psi) 50	PTX11 PTX13	892.6/213.6	55	12		
	IS (V) 5500	PTX6 PTX7	906.6/871.6*	31	12		
			906.6/853.6	37	12		
	DP (V) 91	PTX12 PTX14	874.5/839.6*	31	12		
			874.6/213.6	55	12		

*MRM transition used for quantification in each method

Table 4. Morphometric data and growth rates of 8 strains of the different species

Strain	Species	Length (mean \pm s.d.) μm	Depth (mean \pm s.d.) μm	L/D	<i>n</i>	μ (mean, range) Day ⁻¹
IFR-DAU-03An	<i>D. acuminata</i> - complex	45.6 \pm 2.3	31.3 \pm 1.9	1.35–1.67	25	ND
IFR-DAU-01Ke	<i>D. acuminata</i> - complex	49.9 \pm 3.6	33.6 \pm 2.6	1.30–1.71	24	ND
IFR-DAU-02Ar	<i>D. acuminata</i> - complex	45.5 \pm 5.3	29.6 \pm 4.1	1.23–1.79	21	0.41, 0.40- 0.42
IFR-DSA-01Lt	<i>D. acuminata</i> - complex	45.4 \pm 2.5	28.7 \pm 2.7	1.38–1.86	25	0.43, 0.42- 0.44
IFR-DSA-02Th	<i>D. acuminata</i> - complex	46.5 \pm 3.1	30.4 \pm 1.8	1.36–1.66	25	ND
IFR-DAC-01Ar	<i>D. acuta</i>	67.1 \pm 2.0	46.4 \pm 2.7	1.33–1.63	25	0.23, 0.21- 0.26
IFR-DCA-04Tr	<i>D. caudata</i>	81.8 \pm 2.4	43.3 \pm 1.9	1.75–2.03	26	0.20, 0.19- 0.21
IFR-DTR-01Ar	<i>D. tripos</i>	97.6 \pm 3.0	48.7 \pm 3.3	1.78–2.37	25	0.22, 0.21- 0.24

Table 5. Summary of the toxin profiles of *D. acuminata*-complex (mitochondrial gene *cox1* identified) from this study and literature

Strain	Origin	Subclade	OA	DTX1	PTX2	Reference
IFR-DAU-03An	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
IFR-DAU-01Es	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
IFR-DAU-01Ca	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
IFR-DAU-01Ke	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
IFR-DAU-02Bm	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
IFR-DAU-01Du	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
IFR-DAU-01Bo	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
IFR-DAU-02Ar	France	A	+	<LOD	<LOD	Present study
DAEP01	USA	A	+	+	+	Tong et al. 2015
DABOF02	Canada	A	<LOD	<LOQ	+	Tong et al. 2015
DAMV01	USA	A	+	+	+	Tong et al. 2015
						Riobò et al. 2013
VGO1132	Spain	B	+	+	+	Raho et al. 2013
IFR-DSA-01Co	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Lo	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Me	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Lt	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Th	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-02Th	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-03Th	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Vp	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Po	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Ma	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study
IFR-DSA-01Lj	France	B	+	<LOD	+	Present study