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Validation of the detection of Alexandrium spp using specific RNA probes tested in a microarray format: Calibration of signal using variability of RNA content with environmental conditions Taylor, J., Kegel, J.U., Lewis, J. and Medlin, L.K.

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1	Validation of the detection of Alexandrium spp using specific RNA probes tested in a
2	microarray format: Calibration of signal using variability of RNA content with
3	environmental conditions.
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32 Abstract

33 The dinoflagellate genus Alexandrium contains several toxin producing species and 34 strains, which can cause major economic losses to the shell fish industry. It is therefore 35 important to be able to detect these toxin producers and also distinguish toxic strains from 36 some of the morphologically identical non-toxic strains. To facilitate this DNA probes to 37 be used in a microarray format were designed in silico or developed from existing 38 published probes. These probes targeted either the 18S or 28S ribosomal ribonucleic acid 39 (rRNA) gene in Alexandrium tamarense Group I, Group III and Group IV, A. ostenfeldii and A. minutum. Three strains of A.tamarense Group I (UoW 717, UoW 718, UoW 719), 40 41 A.tamarense Group III (UoW 700, UoW 702, VGO927), A.minutum (AMAD06, AL3T, 42 AMIA5) and two strains of A.ostenfeldii (AONOR4, NCH85) were grown at optimal 43 conditions and transferred into new environmental conditions changing either the light 44 intensity, salinity, temperature or nutrient concentrations, to check if any of these environmental conditions induced changes in the cellular ribonucleic acid (RNA) 45 46 concentration or growth rate. The aim of this experiment was the calibration of several 47 species-specific probes for the quantification of the toxic Alexandrium strains. Growth 48 rates were highly variable but only elevated or lowered salinity significantly lowered 49 growth rate for A.tamarense Group I and Group III, differences in RNA content were 50 not significant (p < 0.05) for the majority of the treatments. Only light intensity seemed to 51 significantly affect the RNA content in A.tamarense Group I and Group III, but this was still within the same range as for the other treatments meaning that a back calibration 52 53 from RNA to cell numbers is possible. The designed probes allow the production of 54 quantitative information for Alexandrium species for the microarray chip.

55	Keywords:
56	Microarray; Phylochip; rRNA probes; Toxic algae; Alexandrium; MIDTAL; RNA
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78	Abbreviations
79	BSA= Bovine serum albumen
80	FISH =Fluorescence in-situ hybridisation
81	DNA =Deoxyribonucleic acid
82	MIDTAL= Microarrays for the detection of toxic algae
83	RNA =Ribonucleic acid
84	rRNA =Ribosomal ribonucleic acid
85	STT =Sodium chloride-Tris-Triton
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101 1. Introduction

102 Harmful algal blooms and coastal eutrophication are subjects of growing interest 103 worldwide due to the pressure of increased exploitation of coastal resources (Van Dolah 104 2000, Ribero et al., 2012, Karydis & Kitsiou 2012). Such blooms can affect fisheries and 105 aquaculture as well as having an impact on the tourism potential of an area (e.g. Hoagland et al., 2002, Smaal 2002). There are a wide range of microalgal species 106 107 involved in such events. Amongst the most notorious are species of the genus 108 Alexandrium, some of which produce potent neurotoxins from the saxitoxin family, the 109 causative agents of paralytic shellfish poisoning (Clark et al., 1999, Anderson et al., 110 2012). Recent research has shown that *Alexandrium* species are directly responsible for 111 saxitoxin production as several of members of the genus contain the gene specific for 112 saxitoxin production (Murray et al., 2011; Stüken et al., 2011). Hence the monitoring of 113 coastal waters for these species is an important element of health protection programmes 114 as well as being vital for aquaculture (particularly shellfish) producers to manage their 115 enterprises. Such monitoring is typically carried out by light microscopy (Humbert et al., 116 2010).

The genus *Alexandrium* contains more than 25 species (Balech, 1995, Anderson et al 2012), which are largely separated by morphological variations in the cellulosic plates of the motile stage. To discriminate species requires the determination of the shape and conformation of the first apical plate (including presence/absence of a pore), shape and conformation of the apical pore complex, distribution and shape of precingular plates and the plate structure of the sulcal region (Steidinger, 2010). Full characterization an take a great deal of time and skill by light microscopy. Furthermore molecular studies have 124 revealed a number of species 'complexes' whose strains can be distinguished by genetic 125 identification but not by light microscopy. One of these complexes is Alexandrium 126 tamarense, which includes five groups, of which three (I, IV V) are currently thought to 127 contain toxic strains (Lilly et al., 2007; Murray et al. 2012) with some proposing that 128 these groups should become separate species (Wang et al. 2014). Similarly A. ostenfeldii 129 and A.minutum have both toxic and non-toxic strains although data on distribution of 130 toxic and non-toxic strains is much more limited than for the A.tamarense (Cembella and 131 Krock 2007; Touzet et al 2008). Certain strains of A.ostenfeldii also produce spirolides 132 which are fast acting potent neuro toxins (Cembella et al 2001). Therefore there is a clear 133 to need to be able to distinguish A.ostenfeldii from the both A.tamarense complex and 134 A.minutum. Additionally it has been shown that both toxic and non-toxic groups of 135 A.tamarense can co-occur (Higman et al., 2001, John et al., 2003, Touzet et al., 2010) and 136 so to avoid false positives or negatives in monitoring, faster and more efficient counting 137 methodologies are sought.

138 Previous studies have used a variety of molecular techniques, which can distinguish 139 between toxic species and strains, to detect harmful algae such as quantitative PCR (e.g., 140 Galluzzi et al. 2004, Handy et al. 2006), iso-thermal amplification (Fengying et al. 2012) fluorescent in situ hybridizations (FISH, Scholin et al. 1997 Not et al. 2002, Groben and 141 142 Medlin 2005), sandwich hybridizations (e.g., Scholin and Anderson, 1998 Diercks et al. 143 2008), , microarrays (Metfies and Medlin 2005, Gescher et al. 2008, Wollschläger et al 144 2014) and recently next generation sequencing (Egge et al 2013). The majority of these 145 methods rely on species or strain specific RNA or DNA sequences with the most of these 146 targeting ribosomal RNA genes which have highly conserved regions and also highly 147 variable regions which vary between strain or species of microalga. Probes may target 148 ribosomal RNA (rRNA) directly, rRNA-derived cDNA, or the gene in the DNA coding 149 for rRNA (rDNA). The use of RNA or cDNA has several advantages compared to DNA. 150 Within cells RNA is much less stable and is rapidly degraded compared with DNA, 151 therefore this approach means detection of only active cells. Total RNA is constituted 152 mainly of rRNA resulting in a high ratio of target to non- target sequences where as 153 genomic DNA is made up of large majority of non-target sequences. It can therefore be used directly in microarray assays without prior amplification of the target region which 154 155 can lead to PCR bias for certain sequences (Peplies et al. 2006 and can also be calibrated 156 for (Ayers et al., 2005). Microarrays are one molecular technique that has the potential to 157 be quantitative and previous studies have shown that rRNA content and cell numbers 158 correlate well in some algal species under laboratory conditions (Ayers et al. 2005; 159 Galuzzi et al. 2008) However, very little information is available about how 160 environmental conditions and growth rate affect rRNA content in eukaryotes. It has been 161 shown that for some microalgae the pool of RNA within a cell can vary (Dortch et al., 162 1984, Berdelet et al., 1994) and that rRNA content may vary with growth phase (Galuzzi 163 et al. 2008). Similarly in bacteria, the per-cell rRNA content has been shown to depend 164 strongly on growth rate and nutrient availability, varying over 10-fold between starved 165 cells in stationary phase and nutrient-replete cells in logarithmic growth phase (Fegatella 166 et al. 1998). As Alexandrium spp have a wide geographical distribution (Gribble et al 2005, Lilly et al 2005, Lilly et al., 2007; Anderson et al 2012) and as primarily coastal 167 168 species can be subjected to a variety of varying environmental conditions such as light, 169 temperature, salinity and nutrients which may cause variations in RNA content.

Previous culture based studies have shown that *Alexandrium spp* tolerate a wide range of
environmental conditions and in some cases growth rate may be affected by changes in
light, temperature (Hwang & Lu 2000; Grzebyk et al 2003, Jensen & Moestrup 1997;
Hansen et al. 2004) and salinity (Lim & Ogata 2005). Although no previous studies have
looked at RNA content under varying environmental conditions.

175 The MIDTAL (MIcroarrays for the Detection of Toxic ALgae) project has developed 176 a microarray using rRNA based detection based on 136 probes at various taxonomic 177 hierarchies to determine all major species of harmful algae from north western Europe. 178 This technology can be used in monitoring harmful algae and unlike many previous 179 molecular techniques would be used to quantify the numbers of cells present not just 180 detect their presence/absence. Thus, for quantification, it is necessary to understand the 181 variability of the rRNA pool within cells. The aim of this study was to investigate the 182 variation of RNA yield per cell within *Alexandrium* species and strain in response to 183 environmentally relevant conditions to allow calibration of the microarray chip to cell 184 counts. In order to address this we assessed the relationship between RNA and cell 185 numbers for each between species or strain. Signal intensity of species specific probes 186 against amount of RNA hybridized to the chip the probes on the microarray was then 187 investigated. This was done to investigate the efficiency of back calibration from signal 188 on the microarray to cell number of a particular Alexandrium species or strain and that 189 there were no cross relativity between the probes for each species. Based on previous 190 complementary studies using the MIDTAL chip Dittami & Edvardsen (2012a) for 191 Pseudochatonella and Blanco et al. (2013) for Heterosigma akashiwo Prynensium, 192 Karlodinium veneficum and cf. Chatonella sp. (McCoy et al. 2014a) and unpublished work for four species of *Pseudo-nitzschia* (Medlin et al.) we hypothesised there would bea positive linear relationship between target RNA amount and target specific probe signal

195 on the chip and a positive correlation between cell numbers and total RNA.

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197 2. Material and methods

198 2.1. Algal strains

199 Three strains of each Alexandrium species (or Group) were used in these experiments 200 (Table 1s, with the exception of Alexandrium ostenfeldii where only two cultures were 201 available and the Alexandrium clade of where only one strain was available. We selected 202 strains from varied locations, where available, to maximize the genetic difference. In 203 each species, the strains are referred as strain 1, strain 2, and strain 3, respectively (Table 204 1). Before experimental testing, all strains were grown in f/2 (Guillard & Ryther 1962) 205 media in seawater salinity 30-34 and at 15°C, 100 µE for A. minutum and A. ostenfieldii and at 16°C, 160 µE for A. tamarense Group I and Group III and A. tamarense Group IV 206 207 (catenella morphotype).

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209 2.2 Experimental design

A stock culture of each strain was grown under the control conditions above, with fresh media added regularly to maintain exponential growth. Experiments were done in triplicate. Four different treatments (salinity, light intensity, temperature, and nutrient depletion) were tested in parallel, changing one parameter per set of cultures (Table 1) as described by Dittami & Edvardsen (2012a). Briefly, the three strains of each species were inoculated separately in 200 mL tissue culture flasks with vented caps or 250-500 mL bottles. Initial volume in each flask was between 150 and 300 mL, with 20 mL or onethird of initial strain 1, 2, 3 cultures, respectively, and f/2 modified according to the conditions applied making up the rest of the volume.

219 This stock culture was then split into 3 replicates of 40 mL for each individual 220 treatment. For salinity stress, the strains were inoculated in flasks containing f/2 at lower 221 and higher salinity than the control conditions without accommodation in order to test 222 immediate stress response, and this varied with each species (Table 1). Low light 223 intensity was 15-25 µE and high light intensity varied with each species (Table 1). 224 Temperatures were set at 10-15°C for low temperature and the higher one also varied 225 with each species (Table 1). Higher temperatures and light intensities were selected based 226 on both equipment available to carry out the experiments but also aimed use levels at the 227 maximum tolerance ranges of each of the Alexandrium species. Nutrient depletion was 228 carried out by using modified f/2 medium without either phosphate or nitrate. It should be 229 noted that the nutrient depleted treatments did contain some N or P at the beginning of 230 each experiment because a 10% to one-third (by volume) of culture with f/2 medium was 231 used for inoculation.

All sets of conditions were run at the same time so as to use inocula from the same

starting cultures. The day of cell inoculation was considered as time zero (T0).

234 Subsamples (13 mL) of the cultures for cell counts, and RNA extraction at each different

condition were taken at the same time daily after 24 hours of inoculation, after 48 hours,

and after 72 hours with 10 mL being used for RNA extraction and 3 mL for cell counts.

For A. minutum 10 mL was taken from each flask and mixed in sets of three, to have 3

replicates of a 30 mL mix of the three strains (Figure 1). For A. ostenfeldii 45 (strain

239 NCH85) or 90 mL (strain AONOR4, a slow growing strain) of culture was filtered onto 3

240 µm nitrocellulose or polycarbonate filters (Whatman, U.K), transferred into cryogenic

vials containing acid washed glass beads (213-300 µm), shock-frozen in liquid nitrogen,

and stored at -80°C until further processing.

243 2.3 Cell counts

Cells for counts (3 mL) for both *A. tamarense* Group I and Group III were preserved in Lugol's iodine (0.1%) and cell counts were carried out in duplicate using a Sedgewick rafter counting chamber under light microscopy. Counts for *A. minutum* were carried out

with a Coulter Counter (Beckman Coulter). Subsamples for cell counts of A. ostenfeldii

248 were kept at 4°C after adding 20 μ L of 25 % glutaraldehyde to 500 μ L of the culture mix,

and were counted with a flow cytometer (accuri C6 Flow Cytometer or Becton Dickinson

250 FACSCalibur, BD)

251 Growth rate was defined as divisions per day according to:

252 K' = Ln (N2 / N1) / (t2 - t1)

Where N1 and N2 = biomass at time1 (t1) and time2 (t2), respectively (Levasseur et al., 1993).

255 2.4 RNA extraction

256 RNA extraction was carried out as previously described by Kegel et al. (2013). This 257 protocol was developed, optimised and standardised during the MIDTAL project (Lewis 258 et al 2013) to extract total RNA from multi-species environmental samples. Briefly, 259 RNA was extracted by using a TRI Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich) approach. To remove any 260 remaining TRI Reagent residuals, samples were precipitated with 0.5 volume of 7.5 M 261 NH₄Ac and 2 volumes of ice-cold ethanol (absolute, stored at -20°C). Because of low amounts of RNA, triplicates of each time point of *A. ostenfeldii* were mixed before
NH₄Ac precipitation. The RNA was re-suspended in 20 or 50 μL nuclease-free water and
its concentration and integrity was measured by NanoVue spectrophotometer (GE
Healthcare) or Nanodrop (Thermo-scientific, U.K) and Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100
(Agilent Biotechnologies). Samples were shock-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at 80°C until further use.

268 2.57 Microarray calibration

269 Sequences of Alexandrium spp were analysed in silico using ARB (Wolfgang et al., 270 2004) to design specific probes in those instances where published FISH probes were not 271 available. Probes originally designed for FISH format for species and or for higher 272 taxonomic levels (Table 2) and for the microarray designed by Gescher et al. (2008) were 273 lengthened to 25 nts in length and for MIDTAL array generation 3 (Kegel et al., 2013), a 274 15 dT- tail was added according to Metfies et al. (2007). The probe sequence for all 275 probes designed or modified from FISH probes for the entire project for the MIDTAL 276 microarray are patent pending as a universal microarray for the detection of toxic algae. 277 and the entire hybridisation kit including the array and all necessary reagents are now 278 commercially available from Kreatech (UK). Prior to labelling, the different strains of 279 each species were mixed in equal amounts. In the case of A. ostenfeldii, RNA of strain 280 AOF0940 was added in an equal amount to the other two strains. RNA was labelled using 281 the PlatinumBright Infrared Labelling Kit from KREATECH and purified with KREApure columns according to the manufacturer's instructions. Concentration and 282 283 incorporation of the dye was measured by a NanoVue (GE Healthcare) or Nanodrop (Thermo Scientific, UK). The degree of labelling (DoL) was calculated and rangedbetween 1.5-2.8.

286 The MIDTAL microarray slides generation 2 (SCHOTT Nexterion or Genetix) 287 containing the specific probes were run with 4 different amounts of CY5-labelled 288 (cyanine-5) Alexandrium spp RNA (1 ng, 5 ng, 25 ng and 100 ng). A. ostenfeldii and A. 289 *minutum* were hybridised to generation 3. Another calibration curve using generation 3 290 with 25 and 100 ng culture RNA was done with the addition of 10 ng Dunalliella tertiolecta RNA before labelling. The calibration curves completed with four different 291 292 RNA amounts showed a linear response. The calibration curves using Dunaliella for 293 normalisation were performed only with two data points because of a limited amount of 294 RNA and number of chips. The resulting slopes of the calibration data were implemented 295 in the GPR-Analyzer (Dittami & Edvardsen 2012b) to infer cell numbers per liter.

296 RNA fragmentation and hybridisation was carried out for A. minutum and A. 297 ostenfeldii according to Kegel et al. (2013), and a detailed protocol for all steps in the 298 hybridization and analysis can be found in Lewis et al. (2012). Hybridisation for A. 299 tamarense was carried out with some modifications, which included a pre-hybridisation 300 at 65°C in pre-hybridization buffer (Final conc., 1 x STT-Buffer, 1mg/mL BSA), hybridisation was run for 10 minutes at 94°C and continued for 60 minutes at 65°C. After 301 302 three washing steps with increasing stringency, slides were scanned (GenePix 4000B, 303 Molecular Devices), and total signals were calculated as the average of the feature-304 background ratio of all 8 spots for each probe. Further analysis was carried out with the 305 GPR-Analyzer ver. 1.24 (Dittami and Edvardsen, 2012b) Signals were normalized to one 306 of the positive controls (Positive 25 dT = TATA-box probe or DunGS02 25 dT =

307 specific for *Dunaliella tertiolecta*) also spotted on the slides, to allow comparison of
 308 signal strength between slides.

309 2.6 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was carried out in XLSTAT (Addinsoft SARL, France). For the RNA stress experiments a two-way ANOVA was used followed by Tukey's B post-hoc analysis to look at differences between each treatment at each time point. For the analysis of linear relationships between the amount of RNA and cell number and also amount of RNA against the microarray signal, a regression analysis as well as a Pearson's correlation test.

316

317 3.Results

318 *3.1 Effects of environmental stress on growth rate of Alexandrium spp.*

319 There was high variability in growth rates between all species and treatments. 320 However, for A. tamarense Group I (Fig. 1a) and Group III (Fig. 1b) only the effect of 321 salinity significantly changed the growth rate (Tukey, $p \le 0.05$) with lower growth rates at 322 elevated and lower salinities than the ambient. No experimental treatment had a 323 significant effect on the growth of A. ostenfeldii (Fig.1c) Growth rates of A.minutum 324 showed more of a response to the differing treatments (Fig. 1d) and both high and low 325 light conditions lowered the growth rate significantly when compared to the ambient light 326 conditions (Tukey, $p \le 0.001$). Also higher and lower temperatures significantly lowered the growth rate when compared to the control (Tukey, $p \le 0.05$). Average growth rates 327 328 were similar for most species and strains to published data (Table 3.) No significant 329 correlation was found between growth rate and RNA content in any of the species tested.

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332 *3.2 Total RNA against Cell numbers*

333 Calibrations of RNA content against cell numbers for raw data (Supplementary figure 1) showed positive linear correlations for all species (A. tamarense Group I, r²=0.39, r=0.51 334 Group III $r^2=0.47, r=0.68 p<0.05$, A. ostenfeldii $r^2=0.47 r=0.71, p<0.05$), 335 p < 0.05) A.minutum 0.16 $r^2 = 0.41$). Despite a weak correlations for A.minutum data for 336 337 individual strains showed stronger calibration curves AL3T which is a slow growing 338 strain showed only a weak positive correlation between RNA and cell numbers (r=0.33, p<0.05) AMAD06 (r=0.50 p<0.05) however strain AMA5I showed a strong positive 339 340 correlation (r=0.61, p<0.05). For calculations of cell number to RNA the data was 341 averaged between strains and values for each day of sampling. For A.tamarense group I an average of the strains and days showed a stronger positive calibration (Figure 3a. r^2 342 =0.44 r=0.72 p<0.001) as was the case for A.tamarense Group III (Figure 3b, r^2 =0.63, 343 r=0.88, p<0.001), A.ostenfeldii (Figure 3c, r²=0.56, r=0.77, p<0.001) and A.minutum 344 (Figure 3d, $r^2=0.30$, r=0.60 p<0.01). 345

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347 3.2 Effects of environmental stress on RNA content of cells of Alexandrium spp.

For *A. tamarense* Group I and *A. tamarense* NA Group III, there were no significant effects on RNA content per cell either in the nutrient experiments or in changing temperatures either between treatments or over time. However, for the light conditions there were significant changes in RNA content per cell for *A. tamarense* Group I in both time for elevated light and lowered light and also between the treatments and the 353 controls. (Treatment F= 8.14, $p \le 0.01$, Time F=24.467, p < 0.0001, Treatment*Time 354 F=7.23, p < 0.0001) and A. *tamarense* Group III (Time F=7.830, $p \le 0.0001$ and 355 Treatment*Time F=5.822 $p \le 0.0001$).

In *A. tamarense* Group I cultures, after 24 h, RNA content per cell was significantly higher (Tukey, $p \le 0.01$) in the low light (26 µE) treatment than both the controls (160 µE) and the high light treatment (430 µE). However, this higher RNA content in the low light treatments had significantly decreased by 72 h (Tukey, $p \le 0.01$) and at 72h the high light treatment was significantly higher than the low light treatment (Tukey, $p \le 0.01$). The RNA content in the controls stayed constant throughout the experiment.

In *A. tamarense* Group III cultures RNA content per cell in the low light treatment was significantly lower after 24 h than the high light treatment (Tukey, $p \le 0.0001$) with no significant difference between the low light treatment and the controls. There was no difference between treatments after 48 h but at 72 h cells in the low treatment had significantly higher RNA content (Tukey, $p \le 0.05$) than the low light treatment and the controls.

368 *A. ostenfeldii* showed no significant change in RNA content cell⁻¹ under any of the 369 experimental conditions tested (Figure 2). Overall its RNA content was 42.68 ± 3.07 pg 370 cell⁻¹ (*n*=72).

A. *minutum* showed significant changes in RNA content per cell both over time and between treatments in all of the experimental conditions run. There was no significant difference in RNA content in the light experiment over time in the controls (100 μ E), but both the low light (15 μ E), and the high light (200 μ E) treatment did show a significant change (Tukey, *p*≤0.01) with an increase from 24 h to 48 h in the low light and a decrease from 48 to 96 to the high light. After 48 h, the high light treatment was significant higher than both the control and low light; however at 96 hours the low light was now significantly higher (Tukey, $p \le 0.01$).

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380 3.4 Microarray calibration

381 Results from Taylor et al 2013 for calibration curves of signal strength against RNA 382 amsount for generation 2 (Figure 4) and 3.1 (Figure 5) showed probes for Alexandrium 383 tamarense Group I (ATNA D01 25, ATNA D02 25), which have a different sequence 384 and target different regions of the Group I rRNA genes, showed positive linear relationships ($R^2=0.9785$, p<0.05) for signal against the amount of RNA hybridised to the 385 386 chip. In both versions the probe ATNA D02 25 dT was the stronger of the two strain 387 specific probes with the highest signal of all the probes. For Alexandrium tamarense 388 Group I showed a strong signal. Alexandrium genus level genus probe (AlexG D01 25) 389 with the former showing a greatly reduced signal (greater than 0.2 but less than 1) when 390 compared to the latter.

391 As Alexandrium tamarense Group III does not have specific probes on the chip, its 392 calibration was based on the single A. tamarense complex probe. Both these curves were linear $R^2 = 0.97$ (Fig 4, Taylor et al. 2013). Importantly A. tamarense Group III RNA did 393 394 not cross-react with any of the Group I A. tamarense specific probes. The probes with 395 the highest signal for Group III A. tamarense were the Alexandrium tamarense complex 396 probe (AtamaS01 25 dT) and Alexandrium genus probe (AlexGD01 25 dT). RNA 397 equivalent to 35 cells of this group did produce a very weak signal (Fig 5b) for the Group 398 I A. tamarense strain but it was deemed not to be positive <0.2 signal. RNA equivalent 399 to 240 cells was deemed give a positive signal. Calibrations performed with the 400 generation 3.1 chip showed similar results (Figure 5). However, after normalization to the 401 *Dunaliella* probe, the signal values were higher by a factor of ~ 10 . The probe signals for 402 the Group I A. tamarense specific probe (ATNA D02 25) were comparable between all 403 generations of the chip for probes normalized to POSITIVE 25, which was the internal 404 control with TATA box specific groups and showed similar signals ~ 5 for 100 ng RNA. 405 Overall for the generation 3.1 chip, the Group I specific probes showed a higher affinity 406 for the target RNA, whereas the genus and the species complex probes showed lower 407 affinity for the target RNA.

Two species-specific probes were designed for *A. ostenfeldii*, one from the 18S region and one from the 28S region (Table 2). For *A. minutum*, only one probe from the 18S was designed. Signals with a signal to noise ratio above two were regarded as a positive signal and were normalized with one of the positive controls (Positive_25_dT = TATA-box probe; DunGS02_25_dT = specific for *Dunaliella tertiolecta*). Each normalised probe correlated in relation to the RNA concentration hybridised and showed an exponential increase of signal to RNA concentration (Figure 6).

The probe AostS02_25_dT (*A. ostenfeldii*) gave a signal (signal to noise ratio above 2) with only 1 ng RNA (corresponding to ~31 cells), whereas the second species level probe AostD01_25_dT (also *A.ostenfeldii*) gave a signal with 5 ng RNA (corresponding to ~154 cells). The species level probe AminuS01_25_dT (*A. minutum*) had a good signal with only 1 ng RNA (corresponding to 270 cells). The regression analysis of probe signal vs. cell numbers showed a positive linear relationship ($r^2=0.98$) for the four-point calibration curves normalized against Positive 25 dT. The two-point calibration curve with *Dunaliella tertiolecta* in the sample and normalised against DunGS02_25_dT showed a positive linear relationship ($R^2 = 0.87$) for 28S probe of the *A. ostenfeldii* and the *A. minutum* probe. In the case of the 18S *A. ostenfeldii* probe a negative r² (Figures 4 & 5) was calculated.

426 One final ribotype, the temperate Asian or Group IV, (Figure 8) was hybridised with 427 three amounts of RNA to provide a calibration curve for these strains and showed a linear 428 relationship ($R^2=0.93$) with RNA for the probe signal for Group IV specific probe 429 (ATTA D01 25 Dt)

430

431 4. Discussion

432 There is a need for molecular techniques to quantitatively monitor harmful algae 433 (Kudela et al 2010, Bourlat et al. 2013, Medlin 2013), microarrays are one way in which 434 this can be done, several other studies have calibrated probes for other species on the 435 MIDTAL microarray (Dittami, & Edvardsen 2012a, Perez Blanco et al 2013, McCoy et 436 al 2014). The advantage of the MIDTAL microarray is that it is one technique that can be 437 used to identify the majority of western European toxic species in a sample. There is potential to expand the chip to include new species and also functional genes (i.e. 438 439 saxitoxin) (Medlin et al 2013). However, the main challenge with molecular techniques, 440 particularly in the case of the MIDTAL microarray has been to make them quantitative.

The results of the environmental stress experiments looking at RNA variation showed primarily that all the *Alexandrium spp* are able to tolerate a wide range of environmental conditions, at not only environmentally relevant range but also extremes that may be encountered rarely. For example, *A. minutum*, growth was affected by light and temperature, and although this has been previously documented (Hwang & Lu 2000; Grzebyk et al 2003), it surprisingly still grew at 40°C, although it may not have been able to survive prolonged periods at this temperature. As *A.minutum* may bloom regularly in harbours (Garcés et al. 2004; Pitcher et al. 2007) and is found thoroughout the tropics where coastal temperatures may be several degrees above open seawater, it is clear that its tolerance to conditions which many algae would not survive may give it a selective edge.

452 The main factor influencing growth rate change was salinity in the A. tamarense 453 strains and it is well documented that salinity affects the growth of A. tamarense (Watras 454 et al., 1982, Lim & Ogata, 2005). However, the majority of these studies focus on long 455 term effects of salinity on growth. In coastal settings, salinity can be periodically variable 456 and can change quickly. In estuarine zones during heavy rain, salinity can decrease 457 significantly (Fauchot et al., 2008, in contrast to semi-enclosed coastal lagoons or bays 458 where evaporation can take place during long dry summer periods. In this respect, this 459 study shows the effects of environmentally relevant changes in salinity conditions on 460 growth rates and RNA content and certainly when comparing to other species and strains 461 results were comparable with previous results (Table 3).

462 A. ostenfeldii showed no changes in growth rate throughout the environmental 463 conditions, as this species often has quite slow growing but can tolerate a wide range of 464 environmental conditions (Jensen & Moestrup 1997; Hansen et al. 2004). Short term 465 effects of nutrients are necessarily stressful even though some nutrients will have been 466 carried over in this experimental protocol. Light appeared to be the most significant factor influencing RNA content within the *Alexandrium* species and strains tested. Light has been shown in other algae to influence cell activity (Wallen and Geen, 1971); changes in light conditions may result in increased production of chlorophyll a in the case of low light (Leonardos & Geider, 2004) or the decreased chlorophyll a and increased production of photoprotective pigments in the case of higher light intensities (Niyogi, 1999). These processes require certain enzymes and specific proteins and so it is very likely there would be an upregulation of RNA.

474 Salinity showed no significant effects on the RNA content per cell in any of the 475 Alexandrium strains or species tested both between individual treatments and there was 476 no significant difference over time. Alexandrium spp. have also been shown to have a 477 wide ranging tolerance to salinities (Lim & Ogata 2005), and certainly within the ranges 478 tested for this experiment, for which there is little effect on RNA content. Although there 479 are significant changes in the responses to light stress, the RNA concentrations per cell 480 are still within the same the same range and it would have little effect on the overall cell 481 number calculations from the microarray signal.

482 Diercks et al., (2008) showed that total RNA isolated from three different strains of A. 483 minutum at optimum growth conditions and the mean concentration of RNA per cell were 484 within our range of results. This is comparable to results presented by Metfies et al., 485 (2005) for A. ostenfeldii with a slightly smaller concentration per cell. Alexandrium 486 fundyense (the third morphotype in Group I) showed a wider range of cell concentrations 487 (Anderson et al., 1999). Interestingly, short term stress that may occur under natural 488 conditions had little effect on RNA content per cell (for example the salinity response, 489 which is likely to be the most abrupt environmental change that the cells will encounter).

490 RNA content of single cells may change because of a number of factors, such as 491 metabolic activity (Cornelius et al., 1985) or time of day (Waltz et al., 1983). This study is 492 the first to compare RNA content per cell of *Alexandrium* species under differing 493 environmental stress conditions.

494 Although linear correlations between RNA were shown in some cases they were quite 495 variable suggested (e.g. A.minutum) there was quite a high degree of varability between 496 strains one solution to this problem may be to have regional specific calibration, which 497 could be easily performed as most Alexandrium strains are easily cultivated (Anderson et 498 al 2012). This biological variation between strains has been observed previously such as 499 Galuzzi et al 2004 and Galuzzi et al 2008 who have shown that rRNA gene content may 500 vary between strains of each species and McCoy et al 2014a who carried out similar 501 experiments for Karlodinium venerficum showed similar levels of variability between 502 strains tested.

503 The RNA extraction was optimised for the MIDTAL project (Lewis et al 2012). 504 However there may be a need to optimise the RNA extraction efficiency further where 505 cell numbers/RNA concentrations are low as precipitation in isopropanol may 506 incomplete, full precipitation relies on the number of Na+ ions present in the solution, 507 further improvements could be adding Sodium acetate and the addition of glycogen or 508 linear polyacrylamide as a precipitation carrier which can improve yields by up to 80% 509 for very low RNA amounts (Bartram et al 2009). Controls for RNA extraction efficiently 510 have been taken into account and the current methodology (Lewis et al 2012) involves 511 the addition of a known amount of *Dunaliella* cells to samples- signals on the chip for 512 *Dunaliella* probes can be compared to the optima for that cell number and the rest of the 513 probes normalised to the *Dunaliella* probes.

514 Linear calibration curves for all Alexandrium spp. species and strains on both 515 generation chips mean that back calculation to cell numbers from microarray signal is a 516 real possibility. Also the saturation profile of the spots, as depicted in the linear 517 relationships of the curve, shows that even under relatively high cell numbers >3000 cells 518 L^{-1} , the probes will not be saturated. Certainly, the chip operates in the range required for 519 detection of Alexandrium spp. and can detect cells at the current limit of detection 520 (presence in the counts within England, Wales and Scotland) for many monitoring 521 programs, and it is likely this would be the limit of detection in natural samples. We 522 assume that minor changes in the hybridization methodology (i.e., increased temperature, 523 the addition of kreablock, and higher stringency in wash buffers) account for any 524 differences in probe performance across the two generations of the microarray. Field 525 studies have further demonstrated the ability of the MIDTAL chip to quantitatively detect 526 Alexandrium spp (Taylor et al. 2013, Dittami et al. 2013a Dittami et al 2013b McCov et 527 al 2013) showing a clear correlation between signal strength and cell number. A recent study by McCoy et al 2014b has also characterised Alexandrium minutum in a field study 528 529 looking at a bloom over a number of months a found a clear relationship between cell 530 number and microarray signal, although detection limits were higher than those reported 531 here they conclude that the microarray chip would still be useful in monitoring.

532 Importantly where the microarray chip has been evaluated under field conditions it has 533 shown that the chip can distinguish between Group I strains and Group III and similarly 534 between the species which matches the results of this study. In addition, the microarray has a detection threshold that is equivalent to the threshold imposed by many monitoring
programs. However, further work is needed to make it truly quantitative, especially with
other dinoflagellates, such as *Dinophysis* and *Prorocentrum*, for which RNA extraction
or RNA quantification can be difficult.

539 The MIDTAL array follows in the footsteps of other microarrays made primarily for 540 the detection of prokarytotic organisms (DeSantis et al., 2007) and is a vast improvement 541 over the array originally designed for Alexandrium by Gescher et al., (2008) because it 542 uses longer probes, providing a stronger signal, and also a second array designed for toxic 543 species by Galluzi et al., (2011) because it uses RNA and avoids a PCR step. In addition to 544 this it targets far more species than any chips so far. These improvements on previous 545 chips make the MIDTAL array potentially quantitative, more universal, and less prone to 546 biases.

547 5. Conclusions

548 All Alexandrium and species had a high tolerance to rapid change in environment 549 conditions and showed a tolerance to those which are considered outside the optimal 550 range particularly Alexandrium minutum, this can in part explain why they can become a 551 bloom forming species outcompeting other phytoplankton and also why many 552 Alexandrium species have increased their or colonized new areas in recent years. Total 553 RNA extracts were positively correlated to cell numbers for all the tested species and 554 strains in this study but there was a good deal of variability between strains independently of the environmental conditions to which little significant effect was seen. 555

556 This study showed that species-specific probes on the MIDTAL microarray are able to 557 detect all the species tested here and in case of the *A.tamarense* complex distinguish between toxic and non-toxic strains. It is clear that signal intensity can be used to quantify cell concentration of one particular species, so this result is very promising for a final universal microarray to detect and quantify this and many other toxic species. But further field testing is needed to fully validate the chip. It suggests that the level of variation would not significantly influence a relationship between RNA content and cell number and allows us to provide quantitative data for more species on the MIDTAL microarray.

565

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Species	Strain Name	Isolation Location	Cells counted	Salinity range	Temperature	Light Intensity Range
				(psu)	Range (°C)	(µmol photons m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
Alexandrium minutum	AMAD06	Port River, Australia	Coulter Counter	Not tested ¹	15-30-40	15-100-200
	AL3T	Ria de Vigo, Spain	Coulter Counter	Not tested	15-30-40	15-100-200
	AMIA5	Syracuse, Ionian Sea, Sicily, Italy	Coulter Counter	Not tested	15-30-40	15-100-200
Alexandrium ostenfeldii	AONOR4	01. 2010, inner Oslofjord, Norway	Flow Cytometer	17-34-42	10-15-18	25-100-200
	NCH85	North Sea	Flow Cytometer	17-34-42	10-15-18	25-100-200
Alexandrium tamarense North	UoW 717	Water column, Stromness pier,	Sedgewick rafter	28-33-38	12-16-20	26-160-430
American Clade		Orkney Islands, U.K				
Group I						
	UoW 718	Water column, Stromness pier,	Sedgewick rafter	28-33-38	12-16-20	26-160-430
		Orkney Islands, U.K				
	UoW 719	Water column, Stromness Orkney	Sedgewick rafter	28-33-38	12-16-20	26-160-430
		Islands, U.K				
Alexandrium tamarense Western	UoW 700	Sediments, Weymouth Harbour,	Sedgewick rafter	28-33-38	12-16-20	26-160-430
European Clade		U.K				
Group III						
	UoW 702	Sediments, Weymouth Harbour,	Sedgewick rafter	28-33-38	12-16-20	26-160-430
		U.K				
	VG0927	Carnota Beach, NW Spain	Sedgewick rafter	28-33-38	12-16-20	26-160-430
		(Atlantic)	C			
Alexandrium tamarense (catenella	VGO 598	Tarragona harbour (Mediterranean	Not counted	Not tested	Not tested	Not tested
morphotype) Temperate Asian		Sea)				
Group IV						

Table 1. Summary of strains used in the study, counting methodology employed and experimental conditions tested

Table 2: Summary of *Alexandrium* species specific probes designed or modified from those published for FISH hybridization and used for the third generation of the MIDTAL microarray. Details of probe sequences for the microarray are patent pending.

Targeted species	Gene	Source/Designer
Genus Alexandrium	28S	Kegel et al., 2012
Alexandrium minutum	18S	Miller and Scholin,
		1998
Alexandrium ostenfeldii	18S	John et al., 2003
Alexandrium ostenfeldii	28S	John et al., 2003
Alexandrium species	18S	John et al.,, 2003
complex		
Alexandrium tamarense	28S	John et al., 2003
(North America)		
Alexandrium tamarense	28S	Guillou et al., 2002
(North America)		
Alexandrium tamarense	28S	Kegel et al., 2012
(Temperate Asian)		
	Targeted speciesGenus AlexandriumAlexandrium minutumAlexandrium ostenfeldiiAlexandrium ostenfeldiiAlexandrium speciescomplexAlexandrium tamarense(North America)Alexandrium tamarense(North America)Alexandrium tamarense(North America)Alexandrium tamarense(North America)Alexandrium tamarense(North America)Alexandrium tamarense(North America)Alexandrium tamarense(Temperate Asian)	Targeted speciesGeneGenus Alexandrium28SAlexandrium minutum18SAlexandrium ostenfeldii18SAlexandrium ostenfeldii28SAlexandrium species18Scomplex18SAlexandrium tamarense28S(North America)28SAlexandrium tamarense28S(North America)28SAlexandrium tamarense28S(North America)28S(North America)28S(North America)28S(North America)28S(North America)28S(North America)28S(North America)28S

	Mean RNA		Mean	
	content (pg		growth	
Species	cell ⁻¹)	Reference	rate (d ⁻¹)	Reference
A. tamarense Group I	54.66 ± 3.02	This study	0.20 ± 0.22	This study
_		Carter et		Lim & Ogata
	16.6	al.,unpublished	0.30-0.4-0	(2005)
A. tamarense Group III	40.93 ± 2.74	This study	0.24 ± 0.03	This study
A. ostenfeldii	42.86 ± 3.13	This study	0.41 ± 0.05	This study
		Metfies et al.,		Jensen &
	20	(2005)	0.30	Moestrup (1997)
			$0.12 \pm$	
A. minutum	3.86 ± 0.29	This study	0.015	This study
		Diercks et. al		Grzebyk et al.,
	28.00 ± 0.30	(2008)	0.5	(2003)
				Taroncher-
		Anderson et al.,		Oldenburg et al.,
A. fundeyese (Group I)	20-60	(1999)	0.031-0.227	(1999)
		Walz et al.,		
Gonyaulax polyedra	100	(1983)		

Table 3 Mean RNA content (pg cell⁻¹) and mean growth rate (d^{-1}) of the *Alexandrium* species/ strains used in this study with literature references.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Growth rates (d^{-1}) of a) *A. tamarense* Group I b) *A. tamarense* Group III c) *A. ostenfeldii* d) *A. minutum*, under varying conditions of Salinity, Light (μ E), Nutrients (+N, Control (C), +P) and Temperature (°C).

Figure 2. Mean RNA yield for *Alexandrium* species under various culture conditions (n = 9 for *A. tamarense* Group I, n = 9 for *A. tamarense* Group III, n=6 for *A. ostenfeldii* and n=3 for *A. minutum*; error bars +SE). The statistical significance of the effects of the treatment (condition) as well as the interaction term (condition* time) as assessed by Two-way ANOVA with Tukey post hoc analysis is indicated in the graphs (n. s. = not significant; * P > 0.05).

Figure 3.Average cell number against total amount of RNA extracted (ng) from stress experiments for **a** *A*. *tamarense* NA, **b** *A*. *tamarense* WE, **c** *A*. *ostenfeldii* and **d** *A*. *minutum*

Figure 4 **a** Calibration curves for *Alexandrium tamarense* Group I from Taylor et al (2013), showing the *Alexandrium* genus probe (AlexGD01_25) *Alexandrium tamarense* species complex probe (AtamaS01_25) and Group I ribotype specific probes (ATNA_D01_25, ATNA_D02_25) (Taylor et al 2013), **b** Calibration curves for *Alexandrium tamarense* NA Group III *Alexandrium* genus probe (AlexGD01_25), *Alexandrium tamarense* species complex probe (AtamaS01_25) and Group I ribotype specific probes (ATNA_D01_25, ATNA_D02_25) (Taylor et al 2013), **b** Calibration curves for *Alexandrium tamarense* NA Group III *Alexandrium* genus probe (AlexGD01_25), *Alexandrium tamarense* species complex probe (AtamaS01_25) and Group I ribotype specific probes (ATNA_D01_25, ATNA_D02_25) (Taylor et al 2013), b) (Tay

Figure 5. Two point calibration curves for *Alexandrium tamarense* from Taylor et al (2013), using the 3rd generation MIDTAL chip and the addition of 10 ng of *Dunaliella tertiolecta*. Group I showing an *Alexandrium* genus probe (AlexGD01_25_dT) , *Alexandrium tamarense* complex probe (AtamaS01_25) and Group I ribotype specific probes (ATNA_D01_25_dT, ATNA_D02_25_dT) showing normalisation to A) POSITIVE_25_dT and B) the *Dunaliella* specific probe DunGS02_dT; and calibration curves for *Alexandrium tamarense* NA

Group III *Alexandrium* genus probe (AlexGD01_25_dT), *Alexandrium tamarense* complex probe (AtamaS01_25) and Group I ribotype specific probes (ATNA_D01_25_dT, ATNA_D02_25_dT) showing normalisation to C) POSITIVE_25_dT and D) the *Dunaliella* specific probe DunGS02_dT. Hybridisation was done on generation 3.1 of the chip.

Figure 6. Cell number against microarray signal for probes specific for *A*. *ostenfeldii* Hybridization was done on the 3rd generation MIDTAL chip.

Figure 7. Cell number against microarray signal for probes specific for *A*. *minutum*. Hybridization was done on the 3^{rd} generation MIDTAL chip.

Figure 8. Amount RNA extracted from *A. tamarense (catanella morphotype) Group IV* against microarray signal for the probe ATTA_D01_25_dT. Hybridised with the generation 3.1 chip.



Treatment



Time (h)



Cell number



Cell number



A.tamarense Group I

A.tamarense Group III



Cell number





Supplementary Figure 1



b

Cell number