Screening of associated bacteria of *Alexandrium catenella* on affecting PSTs production and influence mechanism

Shanmei Zou*, Xinke Yu, Tiantian Sun, Xuemin Wu

College of Resources and Environmental Science, Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing 210095, China
* Corresponding authors. E-mail: zousm912@njau.edu.cn

Abstract

Alexandrium causes serious food safety and human death due to paralytic shellfish toxins (PSTs) production. The associated bacteria can affect PSTs production of *Alexandrium*. However, the influencing mechanism is still unclear. Here we firstly screened functional associated bacteria for affecting PSTs production of *Alexandrium catenella* in Yangtze Estuary and further studied their influence on physiological process and molecular regulation of *A. catenella*. Thirteen bacteria strains for affecting PSTs production of *A. catenella* were selected. The *A. catenella* strains co-cultured with different functional associated bacteria all produced more PSTs than axenic strain with antibiotic treatment. Compared with axenic *A. catenella*, the non-axenic *A. catenella* produced more algal cells, soluble sugar, soluble protein and neutral lipid. By RNA-seq, it was found that non-axenic *A. catenella* produced more upregulated functional genes than axenic *A. catenella*. The biosynthesis of cofactors and spliceosome were the dominant different pathways between axenic and non-axenic *A. catenella* strains. The sxtA expression was closely related with Arginine and proline metabolism, Arginine biosynthesis, Fatty acid biosynthesis, TCA cycle and Glutathione metabolism, which were all downregulated in axenic *A. catenella*. Meantime, the non-axenic *A. catenella* under nitrogen deprivation produced less PSTs and functional genes than non-axenic strain under common culture condition, indicating the nitrogen significance for PSTs production. The detailed signal molecular released by associated bacteria for regulating PSTs of *A. catenella* needs to be further studied.

Keywords: *Alexandrium catenella*; associated bacteria; PSTs; physiological process; molecular regulation

Introduction

Harmful algal blooms (HABs) occur globally and have produced severe effects on fisheries, aquaculture, tourism and recreation (Hallegraef 2004; Berdalet et al., 2016). Dinoflagellates, a large group of phytoplanktonic organisms during marine HABs, play a crucial role in food webs and in balancing ecosystem energy fluxes (Totti et al., 2010; Corinaldesi et al., 2011; Tas and Okus 2011; Canini et al., 2013; Rosic et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2016). Many marine dinoflagellates can cause food safety and human fatalities through their production of paralytic shellfish toxins (PSTs) which accumulate in shellfish through the food chain when contaminated seafood is consumed (Hallegraef 2004; Tsujino and Uchida 2004; Persson et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2011; Meyer et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2016). The most widespread dinoflagellates species producing PSTs are in the genus *Alexandrium* (Cembella 1998; Anderson et al., 2012).

PSTs, mainly produced from dinoflagellate and cyanobacteria, is one of the most powerful neurotoxins such as TTX (Akbar et al., 2020). Currently, the regulation mechanism for PSTs production in cyanobacteria is clear, which mainly refers to 26 functional genes for PSTs biosynthesis (Troco et al., 2009). However, the mechanism regulation for PSTs production of harmful dinoflagellates remains poorly understood due to the exceptionally large genome size and high gene copy number of dinoflagellates (Zhang et al., 2014). Thus, uncovering the factors that influence the biosynthesis of PSTs toxins in dinoflagellates is not only important for understanding PSTs biosynthesis mechanism but also crucial for seafood safety and human health assurance worldwide (Shumway 1990; Hallegraeff 1993; Scholin and Anderson 1994; Scholin et al., 1994; Su et al., 2004).

The environmental factors, such as light, temperature, salinity, nitrogen or phosphorous, have been shown to affect PSTs content for several *Alexandrium* species (Han et al., 2016). For example, while nitrogen limitation causes the toxin content to decrease phosphorous limitation often results in higher toxin cell quotas (Boyer et al., 1987; Anderson et al., 1990; Matsuda 1996; Marsot 1997; Bechemin et al., 1999; John and Flynn 2000; Maestrini et al., 2000; Etheridge and Roesler

2005; Wang and Hsieh 2005). But the salinity and temperature just have limited effects on toxin composition (Taroncher-Oldenburg et al., 1999; Etheridge and Roesler 2005).

Bacteria directly or indirectly affect the growth and toxin production of *Alexandrium* species (Doucette 1995; Dantzer and Levin 1997; Doucette and Powell 1997; Gallacher et al., 1997; Gallacher and Smith 1999; Maas et al., 2007; Kodama 2010). Originally it was considered that the PSTs in dinoflagellate was produced by their associated bacteria, e.g., *protogonyaulax* and *Alexandrium* (Kodama et al., 1988; Gallacher et al., 1997; Smith et al., 2002). However, the subsequent research has shown that the "PSTs" produced by bacteria was actually the analogues of PSTs (Baker et al., 2003; Martins et al., 2003). The false positive for PSTs detection in bacteria is mainly because of the low concentration. Subsequently many studies indicated that the PSTs in dinoflagellate was produced by dinoflagellates alone, but their associated bacteria could affect their PST production (Hold et al., 2001; Uribe and Espejo 2003; Ho et al., 2006; Green et al., 2010; Albinsson et al., 2014). Different bacteria community had different capacity for affecting PSTs production of dinoflagellate (Albinsson et al., 2014). It has been suggested that the effects of bacteria on PSTs production of dinoflagellate can be explained by altered toxin synthesis pathways through algal-bacterium interactions (Maas et al., 2007). But the detailed influencing mechanism is still unclear. It is hypothesized that the associated bacteria of dinoflagellate affect the PSTs production by releasing some signals or metabolites that regulate the growth and physiological process of dinoflagellate (Ho et al., 2006; Green et al., 2010; Albinsson et al., 2014). Thus, understanding the influencing mechanism of associated bacteria for PSTs production of dinoflagellate is not only helpful for underlying the PSTs biosynthesis in dinoflagellate but also useful for controlling the PSTs production by microbial ways.

Yangtze Estuary is the largest estuary in China, which plays an important role for industry, agriculture, aquaculture and marine ecology. However, HABs often happen in Yangtze Estuary due to the environmental pollution and eutrophication,

especially for dinoflagellate. Therefore, the production of PST from dinoflagellates, especially from *Alexandrium* species, can cause severe shellfish food poisoning (Liu 2017). Due to the difficulty in identifying dinoflagellate by morphological characters, in this study, the eDNA metabarcoding (Chariton 2019) was employed to reveal the community composition of dinoflagellate in Yangtze Estuary. The associated bacteria community diversity of *A. catenella* from Yangtze Estuary was revealed and the functional bacteria strains for affecting PSTs production were screened. Then the physiological process and molecular regulation of *A. catenella* under influence of associated bacteria on PSTs production were further evaluated.

Materials and methods

Sample collection

A. catenella seawater samples collected from Shanghai (*A. catenella*-C, 121.92348°E, 30.862512°N), Shengsi (*A. catenella*-S, 122.454838°E, 30.700638°N) and Zhoushan (*A. catenella*-Z, 122.413229°E, 29.92582°N) in Yangtze Estuary of China were firstly pre-filtered through a 200μm pore-size sieve to remove debris, mesoplankton, and macroplankton. Three subsamples of equal volume from 0.5 m, 1.0 m and 2.0 m depths were collected and mixed as one sample from each plot. Then each water sample (~500 ml) was subsequently filtered through a 0.22μm pore-size polycarbonate membrane (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). The membranes were stored at -80 °C until DNA extraction. The toxicity of *A. catenella* strains from different locations was detected, where the stains with the highest toxicity was selected for experiment analysis.

Dinoflagellate community diversity

The 18S-v4-v5 and 28S primers (Table 1) were used for metabarcoding eukaryotic plankton and dinoflagellates by Illumina-miseq high throughput sequencing. DNA was extracted by OMEGA E.Z.N.ATM Mag-Bind Soil DNA Kit for each sample. PCR amplification of all samples was performed in triplicate. After sequencing, the fastq files were demultiplexed to separate the samples based on the indexes. Reads were then analyzed and assigned using QIIME2, where the PCR primers were removed by cut adapt package and Dada2 was applied for denoising,

dereplicate-sequence, filtering chimera and merging the paired reads (Bolyen et al., 2019). Taxonomic classification was performed by feature-classifier module with Naive Bayes (Bolyen et al., 2019). The reference library for ASV classification was referred from Zou et al (Zou and Smith 2020).

A. catenella isolation, culture and antibiotic treatment

Vegetative cells preliminarily identified as *A. catenella* based on morphological characteristics were isolated by pipette under a microscope (40× zoom), and transferred to a 24-well plates containing culture f/2 medium. These strains were cultured at 19-26°C, 3000-6000lux light and light to dark ratio of 12D: 12N. Then the cultures were expanded from orifices to 250ml triangulated vials and maintained in the laboratory using f/2 medium under the same conditions. The obtained strains were then further detected by 18S sequencing. A set of publicly available 18S sequences of *Alexandrium* downloaded from GenBank was added to the new sequences to build phylogenetic trees by the maximum-likelihood method.

For obtaining axenic strains, cefotaxime sodium and vancomycin hydrochloride were selected as the antibacterial antibiotics after testing with different antibiotic mixtures. 30μg/ml cefotaxime sodium and 50μg/ml vancomycin hydrochloride were added to the sterile f/2 medium for producing axenic *A. catenella* cultures, which was conducted for triple replicates. Tow replicates were used to assess the axenic state of the cultures, while the remainder was used to determine the toxicity. For non-axenic culture with nitrogen deprivation (non-axenic-ndep) the concentration of $NaNO_3$ was set at 1/4 of the control group (2.94 mmol/liter).

Associated bacteria community diversity of *A. catenella*

The associated bacteria community diversity of *A. catenella* under laboratory culture condition was analyzed by 16Sv3v4 and 16S metabarcoding respectively (Table 1). *A. catenella* culture was filtered with a 0.22μm pore-size polycarbonate membrane to obtain the associated bacteria (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). DNA was extracted by OMEGA E.Z.N.ATM Mag-Bind Soil DNA Kit. PCR

amplification of all samples were triple. The QIIME2 was used for bioinformatics analysis as above (Bolyen et al., 2019).

Isolation and reseeding of associated bacteria

The 2216E medium was used for isolation of associated bacteria of *A. catenella* (Fidalgo et al., 2016). Each sample was plated in three plates that were incubated at 20°C, 30°C and 37°C respectively, which were then checked for colonies after 24h, 48h and 72h. Individual bacterial colonies showing different colour, colony size or morphology were re-isolated on the same medium and further characterized morphologically and biochemically with microscope and Gram staining method. Finally, the single clones were further identified by 16Sv3v4 sanger sequencing.

The isolated bacteria were then reseeded to axenic *A. catenella* with antibiotic treatment, through ways of separate strain and different combined strains. While *A. catenella* was cultured to logarithmic phase antibiotic treatment was carried out to get axenic algal solution. The isolated bacterial strains were cultured to logarithmic phase and then added to the algal solution.

Toxicity Type and content test

The type of PSTs potentially produced by A. catenella and associated bacteria was detected by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS). Samples were analyzed on an Ultimate 3000 ultra-high-pressure liquid chromatography-Q-Exactive electrostatic field Orbitrap high-resolution mass spectrometer system. The column was TSK-gel Amide-80 (3μm, 2mm×15cm). Algal toxin extraction was performed using acetic acid and ultrasound. The instrumental conditions were determined with reference to the method of Zhang et al. (Zhang et al.).

The PSTs content of different treatments of *A. catenella* and associated bacteria was measured by mouse toxin assay. The algae solution was collected on the 7th day of culture and was centrifuged at 2,500 g for 10 min. After the supernatant was discarded 5 mL of 0.01 mol/L HCl was added into the algae centrifugate and the pH was adjusted to 3 with 1 mol/L NaOH. Then all algae cells were broken with ultrasonic and were placed in a boiling water bath for 5 min with

pH 3 adjusted. The final volume was fixed to 5 mL with distilled water, and its supernatant was taken as the stock solution for algal toxicity test. The Kunming male mice was used for toxicity test. 1 mL toxin supernatant was injected into the abdomen of the mice. The reaction of the mice was observed and the death time was recorded. The Mouse Unit was used for toxicity (1 mouse unit means that the TTX could kill the mouse within 30 minutes).

Measurements of growth and biochemical composition

The biomass was detected based on cell number using a hemacytometer (improved double-Neubauer). Soluble sugar was determined by phenol-sulfuric acid method. Soluble proteins were determined using the Thomas Brilliant Blue G-250 staining method. The neutral lipid content was determined by Nile red fluorescence method.

RNA isolation, library construction and transcriptome sequencing

The axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains were selected for RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) respectively. Triple replicates of each strain were cultured under the same conditions and were mixed for RNA extraction and sequencing. Total RNA was firstly extracted and qualified by ethanol precipitation protocol and Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA) respectively. Then the mRNA was purified, fragmented and cDNA produced. The cDNA was subsequently index ligated and enriched. The product was validated on the Agilent Technologies 2100 bioanalyzer for quality control. Finally, the qualified library was sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq platform. Clean reads were mapped to the assembled unique genes by Bowtie2 (v2.2.5) (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) and the expression levels of genes was calculated by RSEM (v1.2.8) and normalized to the FPKM (Dewey and Bo 2011).

Functional annotation of genes was achieved by mapping genes to different databases (NT, NR, GO, COG, KEGG, Swiss-Prot, and InterPro) using the software BLAST (v2.2.23) (Miller et al., 2008). GO annotation was performed by Blast2GO (v 2.5.0) with NR annotations. PossionDis (Audic and Claverie 1997) was used to detect different expression genes (DEGs), and DEGs with a fold change of >2 or <-

2 and a false-discovery rate (FDR) of <0.001 were considered significantly differentially expressed genes. GO and KEGG enrichment analysis were performed using Phyper, a function of R. The significant levels of terms and pathways were corrected by Q value with a rigorous threshold (Q <0.05).

Results

The dinoflagellate community diversity

From the relative abundance of 18S-v4 and 28S ASVs (Figure 1A), it was shown that the Pyrrophyta accounted for a considerable proportion compared to another microalgae phylum, especially higher than Bacillariophyta (Figure 1A). The zooplankton was revealed with a high proportion but the Chlorophyta was uncovered with a low proportion. The dominant dinoflagellate species were mainly included in *Alexandrium*, *Karlodinium*, *Prorocentrum*, Dinophyceae, etc. Thereinto, the *Alexandrium fundyense*, *Alexandrium* sp*., A. catenella* and *Alexandrium tamarense* dominated high abundance (Figure 1B). The phylogenetic tree showed that the *A. catenella* sequences from Shanghai, Shengsi and Zhoushan (Genbank: OR357631-OR357633) clustered as one clade (Figure 2A). The toxin content of *A. catenella* samples from the three locations was different (Figure 2B), consistent with the difference in bacterioplankton (Figure 2C). The *A. catenella* strain with the highest toxin content from Shengsi was selected for detailed experimental analysis.

The associated bacteria composition of *A. catenella*

Here the 16S and 16Sv3v4 assignments were combined together to reveal the associated bacteria composition of *A. catenella* (Figure 3). Six phyla, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria, Steptophyta, Firmicutes, Bacteroidota and Pseudomonadota, were detected. The dominant classes were Chrysophyceae, Cytophagia, Deltaproteobacteria, Flavobacteriia, Bacilli, Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria and Bacteroidia. The main orders included Alteromonadales, Chromulinales, Cytophagales, Rhodobacterales etc. The dominant associated bacteria species included *Paenibacillus* sp., *Yangia pacifica*, *Formosa* sp., *Bacillus humi*, *Alteromonas macleodii*, *Ochromonas* sp., *Cesiribacter* sp., *Flavobacteriales*

bacterium etc. Among them, *Ochromonas* accounted for the highest proportion in 16S and *Paenibacillus* accounted for the highest proportion in 16Sv3v4 (Figure 3).

Associated bacteria isolation and capacity of affecting toxin production test

A total of 31 associated bacteria of *A. catenella* were isolated, which were identified to 13 different bacteria species by 16Sv3v4 sequences (Figure 4A). These were *A. macleodii, Alteromonas gracilis, Alteromonas marina, Thalassospira marina, Alteromonas* sp.*, Exiguobacterium acetylicum, Marinobacter* sp.*, Cellvibrio* sp.*, Spongiibacter* sp.*, Saccharospirillum* sp.*, Saccharospirillum alexandrill, Marinobacter confluentis, Marinobacterium rambilcola* (Genbank: OR958743-OR958746, OR960642-OR960647, OR976523-OR976525). The 13 bacteria were assigned to four classes, six orders and eight families (Figure S1).

With LC-MS analysis, it was showed that no PSTs was detected in the mixed associated bacterial culture since there was no same molecular weight with PSTs component was found (Figure 5A). On the other hand, a molecular weight of 395.0878 was detected in the algal culture, which was the same as GTX toxin at the peak time of 6.475min (Figure 5B, C).

The capacity of isolated bacteria for affecting PSTs production of *A. catenella* was tested separately, together with different combined bacteria strains (Figure 4B, C). Under normal cultivation conditions, the non-axenic *A. catenella* strains without antibiotic treatment apparently produced more PSTs than strains with antibiotic treatment (Figure 4B). Generally, the non-axenic *A. catenella* strains with separate and combined isolated bacteria all produced more PSTs than axenic strain, especially for stains with combined bacteria strains (Figure 4B). Moreover, the capacity of isolated bacteria for affecting PSTs production was detected under nitrogen deprivation, to select typical bacteria that affects PSTs production pronouncedly (Figure 4C). It was apparent that the toxin content decreased for almost all treatments under nitrogen deprivation (Figure 4C). Among the 13 bacterial strains, it was showed that *A. catenella* produced more PSTs with five associated bacteria strains, e.g. *E. acetylicum, A.* sp.*, A. macleodii, S. alexandrill and T. marina* (Figure 4B, C).

The growth and biochemical composition for axenic and non-axenic *A. catenella* strains

It was shown that the axenic *A. catenella* strain with antibiotic treatment grew slower than non-axenic *A. catenella* strain without antibiotic treatment during the whole growth cycle under normal cultivation conditions (Figure 6A). Thereinto, the non-axenic *A. catenella* strain with nitrogen deprivation (non-axenic-ndep) grew the slowest (Figure 6A). The non-axenic *A. catenella* strain produced more soluble protein, sugar and neutral lipid than axenic *A. catenella* strain with antibiotic treatment normal cultivation conditions (Figure 6B). On the other hand, the soluble sugar and protein content decreased and the neutral lipid content increased in the non-axenic *A. catenella* strains with nitrogen deprivation (non-axenic-ndep), compared with both axenic and non-axenic *A. catenella* strains under normal cultivation conditions (Figure 6B).

Genetic regulation for PSTs production with influence of associated bacteria

A total of 45,778,990, 48,518,624 and 43,035,798 reads were generated for each treatment of axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains respectively (Table 2). The clean read ratio of all samples was approximately 97%. The total number of transcripts for three treatments were 145,580, with a mean length 923 bp and 1382 N50 length. A total of 126,626 unigenes were obtained for three treatments, with a mean length of 879 bp and an N50 length of 1327. Thus, the reads and assembly quality showed a good preformation of transcriptome sequencing for functional analysis.

Among the annotations of the six databases, the Pfam database showed higher annotation proportion and more unique annotation (Figure 7A). Among the transcription factors, the vast majority of unigenes were assigned to C3H, followed by MYB_superfamily (Figure 7B). The axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep strains all produced abundant common and distinct unigenes (Figure 7C). The up-regulated and down-regulated genes among three *A. catenella* treatments were different (Figure 7D). The GO functional enrichment was performed for all unigenes where the membrane part, cell part, cellular progress, metabolic process,

binding and catalytic activity accounted for the top classification categories (Figure S2). The KEGG database assigned the Carbohydrate metabolism, Amino acid metabolism, Translation and Folding, sorting and degradation as the top annotation (Figure S3). It was indicated that the biosynthesis of cofactors was the dominant KEGG pathway annotated between axenic and non-axenic strains (Figure 8A). The dominant DEGs included Glutathione metabolism, Plant-pathogen interaction, Arginine and proline metabolism, Tryptophan metabolism, and spliceosome, etc. (Figure 8B). The PSTs synthesis genes sxtA was found in *A. catenella* strains of all three treatments, which were expressed highly in non-axenic strain (Figure 8B). The main pathways enriched between non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep strains were Phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, Spliceosome, etc. (Figure S4).

The pathway network related with PSTs production was further constructed among axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep strains, including variable physiological metabolism and PSTs production genes (Figure 9). The pathways Arginine and proline metabolism, Arginine biosynthesis, Fatty acid biosynthesis, TCA cycle and Glutathione metabolism were closely related with sxtA expression, which were all downregulated in axenic strain (Figure 9A). As expected, the plant hormone signal transduction and Indole-3-acetic acid-amido synthetase were up-regulated in non-axenic strain (Figure 9A). Similar with non-axenic vs axenic comparison, generally the non-axenic *A. catenella* strains with nitrogen deprivation produced more downregulated genes than non-axenic *A. catenella* strains under normal cultivation conditions in the various pathways of Glycolysis, TCA cycle, Arginine biosynthesis, Fatty acid biosynthesis, etc. Some potential functional genes connecting various pathways related with PSTs production were found, like arginine deiminase and ornithine decarboxylase among Arginine biosynthesis, Arginine and proline metabolism and Glutathione metabolism.

Discussion

The PSTs production by dinoflagellate is associated with bacteria (Orr et al., 2011; Brandenburg et al., 2018; Zou 2020). The PSTs control by microbes is becoming important since the microbes play a key role in microalgae' growth,

metabolism and toxin production (Croft et al., 2013; Ramanan et al., 2016; Kristy et al., 2017). Elucidating the associative mechanism between dinoflagellate and associated bacteria can control the PSTs production of dinoflagellate in environmental ways.

The metabarcoding results here indicated that the dinoflagellate and *Alexandrium* were dominant microalgae phylum and species in Yangtze Estuary, suggesting that the PSTs produced by dinoflagellate in China coast is becoming serious. Actually, the dominant phytoplankton in Yangtze Estuary has been transferred from diatom to dinoflagellates in recent years (Li et al.). The toxin-producing capacity and associated bacteria community diversity of *A. catenella* from three Yangtze Estuary locations both differed from each other, indicating that the associated bacteria possibly affect the PSTs production of *A. catenella*. Green et al. (2010) also found that the associated bacteria diversity of *G. catenatum* was related with environmental factors and speculated that the associated bacteria regulated the physiological ecological progress to affect PSTs production.

The LC-MS detection showed that the PSTs produced by *A. catenella* was GTX and the associated bacteria did not produce any component of PSTs. This is consistent with previous reports that the associated bacteria did not produce PSTs and the "PSTs" detected from bacteria may be the analogues of PSTs or false positive (Baker et al., 2003; Martins et al., 2003). Apparently, the PSTs production capacity of axenic *A. catenella* strains with antibiotic treatment decreased compared with non-axenic strains, which is consistent with previous reports that the associated bacteria affected the PSTs production of dinoflagellate (Hold et al., 2001; Uribe and Espejo 2003; Ho et al., 2006; Green et al., 2010; Albinsson et al., 2014).

The capacity of associated bacteria for affecting PSTs production was further detected. The *A. catenella* stains co-cultured with separate and combined associated bacteria both produced higher levels of PSTs than axenic *A. catenella* stains, especially with combined associated bacteria. Albinsson et al. (2014) also demonstrated that different bacterial communities had different effects on *G.catenatum* toxin production. These further confirm that the associated bacteria

affect the PSTs production of dinoflagellate. In this case, it is important to untangle the regulation mechanism of bacteria for PSTs production of dinoflagellate.

The axenic *A. catenella* strains grew slowly compared with non-axenic strains, indicating that the associated bacteria also affect the growth of dinoflagellate. Likewise, the bacterial associates can modify growth dynamics of *Gymnodinium catenatum* (Bolch et al., 2017). These support the concept that algal–bacterial interaction is an important structuring mechanism in phytoplankton communities. Also the contents of soluble sugar, soluble protein and neutral lipid in non-axenic *A. catenella* strains were somewhat higher than that in axenic strains. All these suggest that the associated bacteria affect the PSTs production of dinoflagellate by regulating growth and physiological metabolism (Gallacher and Smith 1999; Maas et al., 2007; Kodama 2010). On the other hand, the PST production capacity of non-axenic *A. catenella* strains under nitrogen deprivation were both decreased compared to axenic and non-axenic strains under normal culture conditions, indicating that nitrogen is an important factor for toxin production of dinoflagellate since it is the main component of PSTs (John and Flynn 2000; Maestrini et al., 2000; Etheridge and Roesler 2005; Wang and Hsieh 2005).

The sxt gene cluster for STX synthesis has been elucidated in cyanobacteria (Kellmann et al., 2008; Troco et al., 2009; Stucken et al., 2010; Mihali et al., 2011). Among 26 sxt gene revealed in cyanobacteria, only several sxt genes were found in dinoflagellate, including sxtA, sxtG and sxtO (Wang et al., 2016). The biosynthesis of PSTs starts with sxtA (Kellmann et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2016). However, the functional mechanism of sxt for PSTs production is still unclear in dinoflagellate. The polyketide synthase-like (PKS) is another important catalyzing enzyme for carbon skeleton formation of algae toxins (Snyder et al., 2003). Here the sxtA and PKS were both included in the DEGs. We found that the sxtA expression was related with TCA cycle, Arginine biosynthesis, proline metabolism, Glutathione metabolism, and Fatty acid biosynthesis, which were all downregulated in axenic strains. Also Arginine is the main elements of PSTs. Thus here it is clear that the associated bacteria enhance PSTs production of *A. catenella* by upregulating the

expression of sxtA genes and their associated physiological pathways. Other sxt genes, like sxtG and sxtO, were not detected in this study, which may be related with the intraspecific difference that different strains within one species have different toxicity and possible regulation mechanism (Orr et al., 2011; Brandenburg et al., 2018). Consistent with the physiological analysis, the genetic expression related with PSTs production was generally downregulated in *A. catenella* strain with nitrogen deprivation, confirming the nitrogen importance in molecular regulation.

Compared with axenic strain, the Tryptophan metabolism and Plant hormone signal transduction were also upregulated in non-axenic *A. catenella* strain, consistent with their growth tendency. This indicates that the associated bacteria can also promote the growth of *A. catenella* except the toxin production. It has already been reported that the associated bacteria advanced the growth of diatom by releasing signal molecules (Amin et al., 2015; Shibl et al., 2020). Finally, some functional genes that were possibly related with the PSTs production were revealed. So the future studies will focus on uncovering the determinant signal molecular released by associated bacteria and their related regulation pathways for affecting PSTs production of dinoflagellates.

Conclusion

The toxin production capacity, physiological process and molecular regulation among *A. catenella* strains of axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic with nitrogen deprivation were compared. Thirteen associated bacteria for affecting PSTs production of *A. catenella* were selected. Compared with axenic strain with antibiotic treatment, the non-axenic strain with associated bacteria produced more PSTs contents, soluble sugar, soluble protein and neutral lipid. The biosynthesis of cofactors and spliceosome were the dominant pathways between axenic and non-axenic strains. The pathways Arginine and proline metabolism, Arginine biosynthesis, Fatty acid biosynthesis, TCA cycle and Glutathione metabolism were closely related with sxtA expression. The nitrogen plays key role in PSTs production of *A. catenella* through affecting physiological and molecular regulation.

These findings highlight the importance of associated bacteria in affecting PSTs production of dinoflagellate through physiological and molecular regulation.

Author contribution statement

Shanmei Zou conceived the design and wrote the manuscript. Xinke Yu conducted the experiments. Shanmei Zou, Xinke Yu, Tiantian Sun analyzed the data. Xinke Yu and Xuemin Wu collected the samples.

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflict of interest.

Availability of data and materials

The NGS sequence data of all samples obtained in this study are deposited in NCBI. The SRA accession for the NGS sequences is PRJNA992270, PRJNA998555. The submission information for each sample mainly includes the reads sequence in fastq form, the sampling location, the sequence platform.

Acknowledgement

The bioinformatics analysis of the project was supported by the Bioinformatics Center of Nanjing Agricultural University.

References:

Akbar, M. A.,Yusof, N. Y. M.,Tahir, N. I.,Ahmad, A.,Usup, G.,Sahrani, F. K.Bunawan, H., 2020. Biosynthesis of Saxitoxin in Marine Dinoflagellates: An Omics Perspective. Marine Drugs **18**(2): 103.

Albinsson, M. E.,Negri, A. P.,Blackburn, S. I.Bolch, C. J. S., 2014. Bacterial Community Affects Toxin Production by Gymnodinium catenatum. Plos One **9**(8).DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0104623.

Amin, S. A.,Hmelo, L. R.,van Tol, H. M.,Durham, B. P.,Carlson, L. T.,Heal, K. R.,Morales, R. L.,Berthiaume, C. T.,Parker, M. S.,Djunaedi, B.,Ingalls, A. E.,Parsek, M. R.,Moran, M. A.Armbrust, E. V., 2015. Interaction and signalling between a cosmopolitan phytoplankton and associated bacteria. Nature **522**(7554): 98-U253.DOI: 10.1038/nature14488.

Anderson, D. M.,Alpermann, T. J.,Cembella, A. D.,Collos, Y.,Masseret, E.Montresor, M., 2012. The globally distributed genus Alexandrium: Multifaceted roles in marine ecosystems and impacts on human health. Harmful Algae **14**: 10-35.DOI: 10.1016/j.hal.2011.10.012.

Anderson, D. M.,Kulis, D. M.,Sullivan, J. J.Hall, S., 1990. Toxin composition variations in one isolate of the dinoflagellate Alexandrium-fundeyense. Toxicon **28**(8): 885-893.DOI: 10.1016/0041-0101(90)90018-3.

Audic, S.Claverie, J. M., 1997. The significance of digital gene expression profiles. Genome Research **7**(10): 986-995.DOI: 10.1101/gr.7.10.986.

Baker, T. R.,Doucette, G. J.,Powell, C. L.,Boyer, G. L.Plumley, F. G., 2003. GTX(4) imposters: characterization of fluorescent compounds synthesized by Pseudomonas stutzeri SF/PS and Pseudomonas/Alteromonas PTB-1, symbionts of saxitoxin-producing Alexandrium spp. Toxicon **41**(3): 339-347.

Baumgarten, S.,Bayer, T.,Aranda, M.,Liew, Y. J.,Carr, A.,Micklem, G.Voolstra, C. R., 2013. Integrating microRNA and mRNA expression profiling in Symbiodinium microadriaticum, a dinoflagellate symbiont of reef-building corals. Bmc Genomics **14**.DOI: 10.1186/1471-2164-14-704.

Bechemin, C.,Grzebyk, D.,Hachame, F.,Hummert, C.Maestrini, S. Y., 1999. Effect of different nitrogen/phosphorus nutrient ratios on the toxin content in Alexandrium minutum. Aquatic Microbial Ecology **20**(2): 157-165.DOI: 10.3354/ame020157.

Berdalet, E.,Fleming, L. E.,Gowen, R.,Davidson, K.,Hess, P.,Backer, L. C.,Moore, S. K.,Hoagland, P.Enevoldsen, H., 2016. Marine harmful algal blooms, human health and wellbeing: challenges and opportunities in the 21st century. J Mar Biol Assoc U K **2015**(01): 1-31.

Bolch, C. J. S.,Bejoy, T. A.Green, D. H., 2017. Bacterial Associates Modify Growth Dynamics of the Dinoflagellate Gymnodinium catenatum. Frontiers in Microbiology **8**: 670.DOI: 10.3389/fmicb.2017.00670.

Bolyen, E.,Rideout, J. R.,Dillon, M. R.,Bokulich, N. A.,Abnet, C. C.,Al-Ghalith, G. A.,Alexander, H.,Alm, E. J.,Arumugam, M.,Asnicar, F.,Bai, Y.,Bisanz, J. E.,Bittinger, K.,Brejnrod, A.,Brislawn, C. J.,Brown, C. T.,Callahan, B. J.,Caraballo-Rodriguez, A. M.,Chase, J.,Cope, E. K.,Da Silva, R.,Diener, C.,Dorrestein, P. C.,Douglas, G. M.,Durall, D. M.,Duvallet, C.,Edwardson, C. F.,Ernst, M.,Estaki, M.,Fouquier, J.,Gauglitz, J. M.,Gibbons, S. M.,Gibson, D. L.,Gonzalez, A.,Gorlick, K.,Guo, J.,Hillmann, B.,Holmes, S.,Holste, H.,Huttenhower, C.,Huttley, G. A.,Janssen, S.,Jarmusch, A. K.,Jiang, L. J.,Kaehler, B. D.,Bin Kang, K.,Keefe, C. R.,Keim,

P.,Kelley, S. T.,Knights, D.,Koester, I.,Kosciolek, T.,Kreps, J.,Langille, M. G. I.,Lee, J.,Ley, R.,Liu, Y. X.,Loftfield, E.,Lozupone, C.,Maher, M.,Marotz, C.,Martin, B. D.,McDonald, D.,McIver, L. J.,Melnik, A. V.,Metcalf, J. L.,Morgan, S. C.,Morton, J. T.,Naimey, A. T.,Navas-Molina, J. A.,Nothias, L. F.,Orchanian, S. B.,Pearson, T.,Peoples, S. L.,Petras, D.,Preuss, M. L.,Pruesse, E.,Rasmussen, L. B.,Rivers, A.,Robeson, M. S.,Rosenthal, P.,Segata, N.,Shaffer, M.,Shiffer, A.,Sinha, R.,Song, S. J.,Spear, J. R.,Swafford, A. D.,Thompson, L. R.,Torres, P. J.,Trinh, P.,Tripathi, A.,Turnbaugh, P. J.,Ul-Hasan, S.,van der Hooft, J. J. J.,Vargas, F.,Vazquez-Baeza, Y.,Vogtmann, E.,von Hippel, M.,Walters, W.,Walters, W.,Wan, Y.,Wang, M.,Warren, J.,Weber, K. C.,Williamson, C. H. D.,Willis, A. D.,Xu, Z. Z.,Zaneveld, J. R.,Zhang, Y. L.,Zhu, Q. Y.,Knight, R.Caporaso, J. G., 2019. Reproducible, interactive, scalable and extensible microbiome data science using QIIME 2 (vol 37, pg 852, 2019). Nature Biotechnology **37**(9): 1091-1091.DOI: 10.1038/s41587-019-0252-6.

Boyer, G. L.,Sullivan, J. J.,Andersen, R. J.,Harrison, P. J.Taylor, F. J. R., 1987. Effects of nutrient limitation on toxin production and composition in the marine dinoflagellate Protogonyaulax-tamarensis. Marine Biology **96**(1): 123-128.DOI: 10.1007/bf00394845.

Brandenburg, K. M.,Sylke, W.,Uwe, J.,Anke, K.,Jacqueline, J.,Bernd, K.,Van, d. W. D. B.Ian, D., 2018. Intraspecific trait variation and trade-offs within and across populations of a toxic dinoflagellate. Ecology Letters **21**: 1561-1571.

Canini, N. D.,Metillo, E. B.Azanza, R. V., 2013. Monsoon-influenced phytoplankton community structure in a Philippine mangrove estuary. Tropical Ecology **54**(3): 331-343, <Go to ISI>://WOS:000321419900006.

Cembella, A. (1998). Ecophysiology and metabolism of paralytic shellfish toxins in marine microalgae. Physiological Ecology of Harmful Algal Blooms, Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg, Anderson, DM, AD Cembella, GM Hallegraeff (Eds.), NATO-Advanced Study Institute Series. **41:** 381-404.

Chariton, A. A., 2019. Book review: Environmental DNA: For Biodiversity Research and Monitoring by Pierre Taberlet, Aurélie Bonin, Lucie Zinger and Eric Coissac. Molecular Ecology **28**(20): 4549-4551.

Corinaldesi, C.,Barucca, M.,Luna, G. M.Dell'Anno, A., 2011. Preservation, origin and genetic imprint of extracellular DNA in permanently anoxic deep-sea sediments. Molecular Ecology **20**(3): 642-654.DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-294X.2010.04958.x.

Croft, M. T.,Lawrence, A. D.,Evelyne, R. D.,Warren, M. J.Smith, A. G., 2013. Algae acquire vitamin B12 through a symbiotic relationship with bacteria. Nature **2015**(4): 90-93.

Dantzer, W. R.Levin, R. E., 1997. Bacterial influence on the production of paralytic shellfish toxins by dinoflagellated algae. Journal of Applied Microbiology **83**(4): 464-469.DOI: 10.1046/j.1365-2672.1997.00246.x.

Dere, Ş.,GÜNEŞ, T.Sivaci, R., 1998. Spectrophotometric determination of chlorophyll-A, B and totalcarotenoid contents of some algae species using different solvents. Turkish Journal of Botany **22**(1): 13-18.

Dewey, C. N.Bo, L., 2011. RSEM: accurate transcript quantification from RNA-Seq data with or without a reference genome. BMC Bioinformatics **12**(1): 323-323.

Doucette, G. J., 1995. Interactions between bacteria and harmful algae: a review. Natural Toxins **3**(2): 65-74.

Doucette, G. J.Powell, C. L. (1997). Algal-bacterial interactions: can they determine the PSP-related toxicity of dinoflagellates? VIII International conference on Harmful algae-Abstracts and Posters Classification. vp. 1997.

Etheridge, S. M.Roesler, C. S., 2005. Effects of temperature, irradiance, and salinity on photosynthesis, growth rates, total toxicity, and toxin composition for Alexandrium fundyense isolates from the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy. Deep-Sea Research Part Ii-Topical Studies in Oceanography **52**(19-21): 2491-2500.DOI: 10.1016/j.dsr2.2005.06.026.

Fidalgo, C.,Henriques, I.,Rocha, J.,Taco, M.Alves, A. J. E. S. P. R. I., 2016. Culturable endophytic bacteria from the salt marsh plant Halimione portulacoides: phylogenetic diversity, functional characterization, and influence of metal(loid) contamination. Environmental Science and Pollution Research **23**(10): 1-15.

Gallacher, S.,Flynn, K. J.,Franco, J. M.,Brueggemann, E. E.Hines, H. B., 1997. Evidence for production of paralytic shellfish toxins by bacteria associated with Alexandrium spp (Dinophyta) in culture. Applied and Environmental Microbiology **63**(1): 239-245.DOI: 10.1128/aem.63.1.239-245.1997.

Gallacher, S.Smith, E. A., 1999. Bacteria and paralytic shellfish toxins. Protist **150**(3): 245-255.DOI: 10.1016/s1434-4610(99)70027-1.

Green, D. H.,Hart, M. C.,Blackburn, S. I.Bolch, C., 2010. Bacterial diversity of Gymnodinium catenatum and its relationship to dinoflagellate toxicity. Aquatic Microbial Ecology **61**(1): 73-87.

Guo, R.,Wang, H.,Suh, Y. S.Ki, J. S., 2016. Transcriptomic profiles reveal the genome-wide responses of the harmful dinoflagellate Cochlodinium polykrikoides when exposed to the algicide copper sulfate. Bmc Genomics **17**: 1-16.DOI: 10.1186/s12864-015-2341-3.

Hallegraef, G. M., 2004. Harmful algal blooms: a global overview. J manual on harmful marine microalgae.

Hallegraeff, G. M., 1993. A review of harmful algal blooms and their apparent global increase. Phycologia **32**(2): 79-99.DOI: 10.2216/i0031-8884-32-2-79.1.

Han, M.,Lee, H.,Anderson, D. M.Kim, B., 2016. Paralytic shellfish toxin production by the dinoflagellate Alexandrium pacificum (Chinhae Bay, Korea) in axenic, nutrient-limited chemostat cultures and nutrient-enriched batch cultures. Marine Pollution Bulletin **104**(1-2): 34-43.DOI: 10.1016/j.marpolbul.2016.01.057.

Ho, A. Y. T.,Hsieh, D. P. H.Qian, P. Y., 2006. Variations in paralytic shellfish toxin and homolog production in two strains of Alexandrium tamarense after antibiotic treatments. Aquatic Microbial Ecology **42**(1): 41-53.

Hold, G. L.,Smith, E. A.,Birkbeck, T. H.Gallacher, S., 2001. Comparison of paralytic shellfish toxin (PST) production by the dinoflagellates Alexandrium lusitanicum NEPCC 253 and Alexandrium tamarense NEPCC 407 in the presence and absence of bacteria - ScienceDirect. Fems Microbiology Ecology **36**(2–3): 223-234.

John, E. H.Flynn, K. J., 2000. Growth dynamics and toxicity of Alexandrium fundyense (Dinophyceae): the effect of changing N : P supply ratios on internal toxin and nutrient levels. European Journal of Phycology **35**(1): 11-23.DOI: 10.1080/09670260010001735581.

Kellmann, R.,Mihali, T. K.,Jeon, Y. J.,Pickford, R.,Pomati, F.Neilan, B. A., 2008. Biosynthetic intermediate analysis and functional homology reveal a saxitoxin gene cluster in

cyanobacteria. Applied and Environmental Microbiology **74**(13): 4044-4053.DOI: 10.1128/aem.00353-08.

Kodama, M., 2010. Paralytic Shellfish Poisoning Toxins: Biochemistry and Origin. Aqua-BioScience Monographs **3**(1): 1-38.

Kodama, M.,Ogata, T.Sato, S., 1988. Bacterial production of saxitoxin. Agricultural biological chemistry **52**(4): 1075-1077.

Kristy,Deiner,Holly, M.,Bik,Elvira,M?chler,Mathew,Seymour,Ana?sLacoursière-Roussel, 2017. Environmental DNA metabarcoding: Transforming how we survey animal and plant communities. Molecular Ecology: 5872-5895.

Langmead, B.Salzberg, S. L., 2012. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nature Methods **9**(4): 357-U354.DOI: 10.1038/nmeth.1923.

Li, H. M., Tang, H. J., Shi, X. Y., Zhang, C. S. and Wang, X. L., 2014.   Increased nutrient loads from the Changjiang (Yangtze) River have led to increased Harmful Algal Blooms. Harmful Algae **39**(39): 92-101.

Lin, S. J.,Cheng, S. F.,Song, B.,Zhong, X.,Lin, X.,Li, W. J.,Li, L.,Zhang, Y. Q.,Zhang, H.,Ji, Z. L.,Cai, M. C.,Zhuang, Y. Y.,Shi, X. G.,Lin, L. X.,Wang, L.,Wang, Z. B.,Liu, X.,Yu, S.,Zeng, P.,Hao, H.,Zou, Q.,Chen, C. X.,Li, Y. J.,Wang, Y.,Xu, C. Y.,Meng, S. S.,Xu, X.,Wang, J.,Yang, H. M.,Campbell, D. A.,Sturm, N. R.,Dagenais-Bellefeuille, S.Morse, D., 2015. The Symbiodinium kawagutii genome illuminates dinoflagellate gene expression and coral symbiosis. Science **350**(6261): 691-694.DOI: 10.1126/science.aad0408.

Liu, Y., 2017. Studies of Phycotoxin Contamination in the Coastal Waters of China and Preparation of Toxin Reference Materials. Institute of Oceanology, Chinese Academy of Sciences: 55-158.

Lu, Y. M.,Wohlrab, S.,Groth, M.,Glockner, G.,Guillou, L.John, U., 2016. Transcriptomic profiling of Alexandrium fundyense during physical interaction with or exposure to chemical signals from the parasite Amoebophrya. Molecular Ecology **25**(6): 1294-1307.DOI: 10.1111/mec.13566.

Maas, E. W.,Latter, R. M.,Thiele, J.,Waite, A. M.Brooks, H. J. L., 2007. Effect of multiple antibiotic treatments on a paralytic shellfish toxin-producing culture of the dinoflagellate Alexandrium minutum. Aquatic Microbial Ecology **48**(3): 255-260.DOI: 10.3354/ame048255.

Maestrini, S.,Bechemin, C.,Grzebyk, D.Hummert, C., 2000. Phosphorus limitation might promote more toxin content in the marine invader dinoflagellate Alexandrium minutum. Plankton Biology Ecology **47**(1): 7-11.

Marsot, P., 1997. Variations in volume and nutrient (N and P) content of the dinoflagellate Alexandrium tamarense in N-limited continuous culture. Oceanologica Acta **20**(4): 639-643, <Go to ISI>://WOS:A1997XU31400006.

Martins, C. A.,Alvito, P.,Tavares, M. J.,Pereira, P.,Doucette, G.Franca, S., 2003. Reevaluation of Production of Paralytic Shellfish Toxin by Bacteria Associated with Dinoflagellates of the Portuguese Coast. Applied Environmental Microbiology **69**(9): 5693-5698.

Matsuda, A., 1996. Effects of nitrogen deficiency on the PSP production by Alexandrium catenella under axenic cultures. Harmful Toxic Algal Blooms: 305-308.

Meyer, J. M.,Rodelsperger, C.,Eichholz, K.,Tillmann, U.,Cembella, A.,McGaughran, A.John, U., 2015. Transcriptomic characterisation and genomic glimps into the toxigenic

dinoflagellate Azadinium spinosum, with emphasis on polykeitde synthase genes. Bmc Genomics **16**: 1-14.DOI: 10.1186/s12864-014-1205-6.

Mihali, T. K.,Carmichael, W. W.Neilan, B. A., 2011. A Putative Gene Cluster from a Lyngbya wollei Bloom that Encodes Paralytic Shellfish Toxin Biosynthesis. Plos One **6**(2).DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0014657.

Miller, R.,Wu, G. X.,Deshpande, R. R.,Vieler, A.,Gartner, K.,Li, X. B.,Moellering, E. R.,Zauner, S.,Cornish, A. J.,Liu, B. S.,Bullard, B.,Sears, B. B.,Kuo, M. H.,Hegg, E. L.,Shachar-Hill, Y.,Shiu, S. H.Benning, C., 2010. Changes in Transcript Abundance in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii following Nitrogen Deprivation Predict Diversion of Metabolism. Plant Physiology **154**(4): 1737-1752.DOI: 10.1104/pp.110.165159.

Miller, W.,Myers, E.Lipman, D., 2008. Blast (basic local alignment search tool). Encycl. Genet. Genom. Proteom. Inform **215**: 221.

Moellering, E. R.Benning, C., 2010. RNA Interference Silencing of a Major Lipid Droplet Protein Affects Lipid Droplet Size in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. Eukaryotic Cell **9**(1): 97-106.DOI: 10.1128/ec.00203-09.

Orr, R. J. S.,Stüken, A.,Rundberget, T.,Eikrem, W.Jakobsen, K. S., 2011. Improved phylogenetic resolution of toxic and non-toxic Alexandrium strains using a concatenated rDNA approach. Harmful Algae: 676-688.

Persson, A.,Smith, B. C.,Wikfors, G. H.Quilliam, M., 2006. Grazing on toxic Alexandrium fundyense resting cysts and vegetative cells by the eastern oyster (Crassostrea virginica). Harmful Algae **5**(6): 678-684.DOI: 10.1016/j.hal.2006.02.004.

Ramanan, R.,Kim, B.-H.,Cho, D.-H.,Oh, H.-M.Kim, H.-S., 2016. Algae–bacteria interactions: evolution, ecology and emerging applications. Biotechnology advances **34**(1): 14-29.

Rosic, N.,Ling, E. Y. S.,Chan, C. K. K.,Lee, H. C.,Kaniewska, P.,Edwards, D.,Dove, S.Hoegh-Guldberg, O., 2015. Unfolding the secrets of coral-algal symbiosis. Isme Journal **9**(4): 844-856.DOI: 10.1038/ismej.2014.182.

Scholin, C. A.Anderson, D. M., 1994. Identification of group-and strain-specific genetic markers for globally distributed Alexandrium(dinophyceae).I.RFLP analysis of SSU rRNA genes. Journal of Phycology **30**(4): 744-754.

Scholin, C. A.,Herzog, M.,Sogin, M.Anderson, D. M., 1994. Identification of group-specific and strain-specific genetic-markers　for globally distributed Alexandrium (dinophyceae) .2. sequence-analysis of a fragment of the LSU ribosomal-RNA gene. Journal of Phycology **30**(6): 999-1011.DOI: 10.1111/j.0022-3646.1994.00999.x.

Shibl, A. A.,Isaac, A.,Ochsenkuhn, M. A.,Cárdenas, A.,Fei, C.,Behringer, G.,Arnoux, M.,Drou, N.,Santos, M. P.Gunsalus, K. C., 2020. Diatom modulation of select bacteria through use of two unique secondary metabolites. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences **117**(44): 27445-27455.

Shumway, S. E., 1990. A Review of the Effects of Algal Blooms on Shellfish and Aquaculture. Journal of the World Aquaculture Society **21**: 65-104.

Smith, E. A.,Mackintosh, F. H.,Grant, F.Gallacher, S., 2002. Sodium channel blocking (SCB) activity and transformation of paralytic shellfish toxins (PST) by dinoflagellate-associated bacteria. Aquatic Microbial Ecology **29**(1): 1-9.

Snyder, R. V.,Gibbs, P. D. L.,Palacios, A.,Abiy, L.,Dickey, R.,Lopez, J. V.Rein, K. S., 2003. Polyketide synthase genes from marine dinoflagellates. Marine Biotechnology **5**(1): 1-12.DOI: 10.1007/s10126-002-0077-y.

Stucken, K.,John, U.,Cembella, A.,Murillo, A. A.,Soto-Liebe, K.,Fuentes-Valdes, J. J.,Friedel, M.,Plominsky, A. M.,Vasquez, M.Glockner, G., 2010. The Smallest Known Genomes of Multicellular and Toxic Cyanobacteria: Comparison, Minimal Gene Sets for Linked Traits and the Evolutionary Implications. Plos One **5**(2).DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0009235.

Su, Z.,Sheets, M.,Ishida, H.,Li, F. H.Barry, W. H., 2004. Saxitoxin blocks L-type/(Ca). Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics **308**(1): 324-329.DOI: 10.1124/jpet.103.056564.

Taroncher-Oldenburg, G.,Kulis, D. M.Anderson, D. M., 1999. Coupling of saxitoxin biosynthesis to the G(1) phase of the cell cycle in the dinoflagellate Alexandrin fundyense: Temperature and nutrient effects. Natural Toxins **7**(5): 207-219.DOI: 10.1002/1522-7189(200009/10)7:5<207::Aid-nt61>3.0.Co;2-q.

Tas, S.Okus, E., 2011. A review on the Bloom Dynamics of a Harmful Dinoflagellate Prorocentrum minimum in the Golden Horn Estuary. Turkish Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences **11**(4): 673-681.DOI: 10.4194/1303-2712-v11_4_03.

Totti, C.,Accoroni, S.,Cerino, F.,Cucchiari, E.Romagnoli, T., 2010. Ostreopsis ovata bloom along the Conero Riviera (northern Adriatic Sea): Relationships with environmental conditions and substrata. Harmful Algae **9**(2): 233-239.DOI: 10.1016/j.hal.2009.10.006.

Troco, M.,Ralf, K.Brett, N., 2009. Characterisation of the paralytic shellfish toxin biosynthesis gene clusters in Anabaena circinalis AWQC131C and Aphanizomenon sp. NH-5.

Tsujino, M.Uchida, T., 2004. Fate of resting cysts of Alexandrium spp. ingested by Perinereis nuntia (Polychaeta) and Theola fragilis (Mollusca). Journal of Experimental Marine Biology Ecology **303**(1): 1-10.

Uribe, P.Espejo, R. T., 2003. Effect of Associated Bacteria on the Growth and Toxicity of Alexandrium catenella. Applied Environmental Microbiology **69**(1): 659.

Wang, D. Z.Hsieh, D. P. H., 2005. Growth and toxin production in batch cultures of a marine dinoflagellate Alexandrium tamarense HK9301 isolated from the South China Sea. Harmful Algae **4**(2): 401-410.DOI: 10.1016/j.hal.2004.07.002.

Wang, D. Z.,Zhang, S. F.,Zhang, Y.Lin, L., 2016. Paralytic shellfish toxin biosynthesis in cyanobacteria and dinoflagellates: A molecular overview. Journal of Proteomics **135**: 132-140.DOI: 10.1016/j.jprot.2015.08.008.

Wang, Z. H.,Nie, X. P.,Jiang, S. J.,Zhao, J. G.,Cao, Y.,Zhang, Y. J.Wang, D. Z., 2011. Source and profile of paralytic shellfish poisoning toxins in shellfish in Daya Bay, South China Sea. Marine Environmental Research **72**(1-2): 53-59.DOI: 10.1016/j.marenvres.2011.04.007.

Wang, Z. T.,Ullrich, N.,Joo, S.,Waffenschmidt, S.Goodenough, U., 2009. Algal Lipid Bodies: Stress Induction, Purification, and Biochemical Characterization in Wild-Type and Starchless Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. Eukaryotic Cell **8**(12): 1856-1868.DOI: 10.1128/ec.00272-09.

Zhang, X. L., Feng, B., Cai, Y. Q. and Yu, H. J., 2011. Development and Application of Tandem LC-MS Method for the Determination of Paralytic Shellfish Poisoning Toxins for Pollution

Monitoring. Applied Mechanics and Materials Vols 55‑57: 51‑56.DOI: 10.4028/www.scientific.net/AMM.55‑57.51

Zhang, Y.,Zhang, S. F.,Lin, L.Wang, D. Z., 2017. Whole Transcriptomic Analysis Provides Insights into Molecular Mechanisms for Toxin Biosynthesis in a Toxic Dinoflagellate Alexandrium catenella (ACHK‑T). Toxins **9**(7): 213.DOI: 10.3390/toxins9070213.

Zhekisheva, M.,Boussiba, S.,Khozin‑Goldberg, I.,Zarka, A.Cohen, Z., 2002. Accumulation of oleic acid in Haematococcus pluvialis (Chlorophyceae) under nitrogen starvation or high light is correlated with that of astaxanthin esters. Journal of Phycology **38**(2): 325‑331.DOI: 10.1046/j.1529‑8817.2002.01107.x.

Zou, S., 2020. Comparative Transcriptome Analysis of Toxic and Non‑Toxic Nassarius Communities and Identification of Genes Involved in TTX‑Adaptation. Toxins **12**(12): 761.

Zou, S.Smith, L., 2020. Comprehensive primer sets and cost efficient multiplex PCR‑based EDNA sequencing for community dynamics of cyanobacteria, eukaryotic phytoplankton and zooplankton in lake.

Figure legends

Figure 1. The community diversity of dinoflagellate in Yangtze Estuary. (A): ASV mean relative abundance; (B): Dominant dinoflagellate species.

Figure 2. (A): Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Alexandrium catenella* from 18S. (B): The toxin content of *A. catenella* samples from three locations; (C): The associated bacteria difference of *A. catenella* samples from three locations. The points represent means ± SD of triplicate samples.

Figure 3. Associated bacteria composition of *A. catenella* from 16S and 16Sv3v4 in each taxonomic level.

Figure 4. (A): Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of isolated associated bacteria of toxic *A. catenella* strain. (B): The influence of isolated bacteria on toxin production of *A. catenella* under normal culture conditions. (C): The influence of isolated bacteria on toxin production of *A. catenella* under nitrogen deprivation conditions. B1-B13 indicates the bacteria serial number for reseeding with *A. catenella*.

Figure 5. (A): LC-MS mass spectral peaks for mixed bacterial solution. Vertical coordinate is mean relative abundance, horizontal coordinate is time. (B): LC-MS mass spectral peaks of the toxic *A. catenella* strain; (C): The molecular weight of detected GTX toxins (395.0878) from LC-MS peaks of toxic *A. catenella* strain.

Figure 6. (A): Growth of axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains; (B): The content of soluble protein, sugar and neutral lipid from non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains. The points represent means $\pm$ SD of triplicate samples. Different letters above the bars indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between growth condition.

Figure 7. (A): Annotation difference of six databases; (B): Transcription factors annotated from unigenes; (C): Shared and distinct unigenes from axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains; (D): Up and down-regulated genes among axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains. For example, non-axenic vs axenic comparison shows that non-axenic strains generated more downregulated genes (green) than upregulated genes (orange) in comparison with axenic strain.

Figure 8. (A): Biosynthesis of cofactors annotated between axenic and non-axenic *A. catenella* strains from KEGG pathway; (B): The dominant different expression genes (DEGs) among axenic, non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains.

Figure 9. The pathway network related with genetic expression of PSTs production. Red box and circle: upregulated genes, green box and circle: downregulated genes. For example, "non-axenic vs axenic" means the upregulated and downregulated genes non-axenic strains produced compared with axenic strain. The size of box and circle indicates the amount of upregulated and downregulated genes.

Figure S1. Assignments of isolated associated bacteria at each taxonomic level.

Figure S2. The GO functional enrichment performed for all unigenes.

Figure S3. The KEGG pathways assigned.

Figure S4. The main pathways enriched between non-axenic and non-axenic-ndep *A. catenella* strains.

Table 1. Primers for PCR amplification

Fragment	Primer Name	Sequence (5'-3')	Reference	Fragment size (bp)
16S-v3v4	16Sv3v4F	CCTACGGGNGGC WGCAG	Klindworth et al., 2012	450-500
	16Sv3v4R	GACTACHVGGGTA TCTAATCC	Klindworth et al., 2013	
16S	16SF174F	CGGTAAGACRGRG GATGCAA	Zou et al., 2020	450
	16SR316R	CRGCTARGACTAC TGGGGTA	Zou et al., 2020	
18S-v4-5	v4-387F	GYTGCAGTTAAAA MGCTCGT	Zou et al., 2020	500-520
	v4-730R	TTCAGNCTTGCGA CCATACT	Zou et al., 2020	
28S	1FC1RF272F	GAGACCGATAGCR MACAAGT	Zou et al., 2020	400-500
	1FC1RF593R	CTYGGTCCGTGTT TCWAGAC	Zou et al., 2020	

Table 2 Sequencing data statistics table

Sample	Raw reads	Clean reads	Error rate (%)	Q20 (%)	Q30 (%)	GC content (%)
non-axenic-ndep	4577 8990	45067 136	0.0234	98.6 8	95.8 3	56.25
non-axenic	4851 8624	48028 712	0.024	98.4 4	95.1 5	58.51
axenic	4303 5798	42337 016	0.0245	98.2 5	94.7 6	56.55

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4