理として従前から食されてきたものの食中毒に関する知見はなかったことから、近年ハコフグによる事例が続発していることを受けて今後の発生の増加が懸念されている<sup>9)</sup>、食中毒が続発している原因については、海水温の上昇などの海洋環境の変化、またハコフグ科魚類の毒化への関与が示唆されている Ostreopsis 属渦鞭毛藻の分布がこれまで確認されていた南西諸島から本州沿岸へ拡大していることが一因ではないかと言われている<sup>9),10)</sup>.

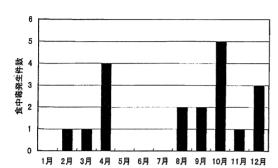


Fig. 11. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるパリトキシン様 毒による食中毒事例の月別の発生件数

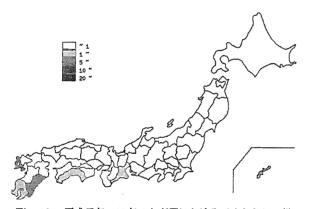


Fig. 12. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるパリトキシン様 毒による食中毒事例の地域別の発生件数

パリトキシン様毒による食中毒事例の原因施設では、家庭が最も多く13件、次いで飲食店で3件発生していた(Table 10).

#### 下痢性または麻痺性貝毒による食中毒

過去22年間に報告された下痢性および麻痺性貝毒を Table 11に示した. 下痢性貝毒は3件, 麻痺性貝毒は8件 が報告された. ほかに貝毒による食中毒として1件報告されていた. この残り1件の事例は平成2年6月に宮城県産

Table 9. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるパリトキシン様 毒による食中毒事例の魚種

原因魚類(推定の事例を含む) #1,2	発生件数
アオプダイ	12
ハコフグ	3
ウミスズメ	1
ナンヨウブダイ <sub>性8</sub>	. 1
ハコフグ科 <sup>生4</sup>	1
ハタ科	1
総計	19

- 注1 全国食中毒事件録等の参考資料に記載された魚種をその まま記載した
- 注2 推定事例も含み合算した.
- 注3 同定についての記録がないため、アオブダイの可能性も 否定できないとされている。
- 注4 谷山ら[食品衛生研究, **59**(8), 45-51 2009] によると, ウミスズメ(推定) と報告されている.

Table 10. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるパリトキシン 様毒による食中毒事例の原因施設

原因施設	発生件数	%
家庭	13	68.4
飲食店	3	15.8
採取場所	1	5.3
販売店	1	5.3
不明	1	5.3
総計	19	100.0

Table 11. 平成元~22年にわが国で発生した下痢性および麻痺性貝毒の食中毒事例

貝毒	平成(年)	都道府県 <sup>往1</sup>	発生月	原因魚介名	原因施設	摂食者数	患者数	死者数
下痢性	. 2	宫城県 注2	6	ホタテガイ	販売店	21	1	0
	5	大阪府	. 8	ムラサキイガイ	家庭	3	1	0
	6	青森県 注3	7	ホタテガイ	販売店	8	5	0
麻痺性	1	岩手県	4	ホタテガイ	不明	19	5	0
	1	青森県	7	ムラサキイガイ	家庭	14	6	1
	1	岩手県	4	ムラサキイガイ	不明	5	1	0
	3	北海道	5	ホタテガイ	家庭	18	1	0
	8	宮城県	. 4	ムラサキイガイ	摂取場所	4	2	0
	9	長崎県	3	カキ	家庭	不明	26	0
	20	大阪府	4	ムラサキイガイ	家庭	8	3	0
	22	鳥取県	6	ハボウキガイ	採取場所	4	1	0

- 注1 全国食中毒事件録において当該食中毒を報告した都道府県.
- 注2 食中毒の発生場所は千葉県.
- 注3 食中毒の発生場所は埼玉県.

平成(年)	都道府県 <sup>注1</sup>	発生月	原因魚介名	原因毒	原因施設	摂食者数	患者数	死者数
2	宮城県  建2	6	アプラソコムツ	ワックス	製造所	36	11	0
2	福岡県	4	イシナギ	ビタミンA	販売店	4	4	0 .
19	富山県	2	イシナギ	ビタミンA	飲食店	不明	14	0
15	沖縄県	6	ウミガメ(推定)	不明	家庭	2	1	0
15	北海道	3	ナガヅカ	ジノグネリン	家庭	14	4	0
19	長崎県	7	キンシバイ(巻貝)	テトロドトキシン	販売店	2	1	0
20	熊本県	7	キンシバイ(巻貝)	テトロドトキシン	家庭	. 4	1	0

Table 12. 平成元~22年におけるわが国の動物性自然毒によるまれな食中毒事例

- 注1 全国食中毒事件録において当該食中毒を報告した都道府県.
- 注2 食中毒の発生場所は栃木県.

の出荷自粛規制中のホタテガイによる発生のため、Table 11に示した同時期の事例と同様に下痢性貝毒によると推定されたが、補足資料でも貝毒の種類が確認できなかったためTable 11には加えなかった。

主な発生原因は、出荷自粛規制中の出荷や知人から譲り受けた二枚貝の摂取であった。

貝毒による食中毒対策において今後問題になると考えられるのは、わが国での規制対象外の貝毒による食中毒の発生と試験法である。わが国では麻痺性貝毒と下痢性貝毒の2種類を規制対象とし、公定法としてマウス毒性試験を用いている。しかし国際的な観点からすれば、特異性が低いこと、結果のばらつきが大きいことおよび動物愛護(倫理上の問題)などを理由に、機器分析による代替試験法についての検討が進められている。EUでは他国に先んじて2011年に脂溶性貝毒(オカダ酸群、ペクテノトキシン群、イエッソトキシン群、アザスピロ酸群)を測定するための公定法をマウス試験法からマウスを使用しない代替法へ変更しており\*2、国際的な動向に基づくと、わが国でも貝毒試験の機器分析への移行が今後必要になると考えられる。

#### その他の動物性自然毒による食中毒

動物性自然毒による食中毒のまれな事例を Table 12に 示した. アブラソコムツは筋肉中の脂質として含まれる難 消化性のワックスエステル (高級アルコールと脂肪酸のエステル), イシナギは肝臓に含まれる過剰ビタミンA, ナガヅカは魚卵に含まれるジノグネリン, 腐肉食性巻貝のキンシバイは筋肉や内臓に含まれるテトロドトキシンが食中毒の原因毒であった 111. ウミガメ (推定) の明確な原因については不明とされていた.

動物性ではないが、ほかに海洋性のものとして平成5年にオゴノリを原因食品とする食中毒が横浜市で1件(患者数2名,死者数1名)報告されている。オゴノリが多量に産生したプロスタグランジン類が原因であると推定されていたが、これはあくまで科学的推定であるとして病因物質

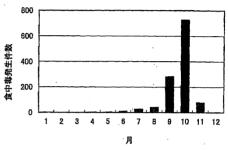


Fig. 13. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるキノコ による食 中毒事例の月別の発生件数

は不明とされていた12),18).

#### 3. 植物性自然毒

#### キノコによる食中毒

キノコによる食中毒事例は、過去22年間に確認できただけでも1,172件(患者数4,291名)が報告されていた(Table 1). 平成16年に秋田県や新潟県でスギヒラタケが原因と推定される急性脳症が多発したが、この事例は原因が確定されず食中毒として取り扱われていないため本研究での集計には含んでいない.

月別の発生件数を比較すると、全発生件数の62%は10 月に発生し、9月の発生件数と合算すると、この2か月間 で86%が発生していた (Fig. 13).

地域別の発生件数の比較で多かったのは新潟県の143件であり、次いで福島県の93件、山形県および長野県の91件、北海道の87件であった(Fig. 14). 2010年は例年よりもキノコによる食中毒の発生が多く報告されたが、その中で福島県は19件と全国で最も報告件数が多かった。

原因施設の88%は家庭であり(Table 13), 自らが採取または知人から譲り受けたキノコによる事例が大部分を占めた. 販売店を原因施設とする事例が31件あり, 直売所等での監視・指導が必要と考えられた.

キノコの種類別の食中毒発生件数および患者数の比較を Table 14に示した. 原因となったキノコの種類は推定事例も含み,本研究で参考にした資料での記載と同じように記載した. 過去22年間に食中毒発生件数が最も多かったのはツキヨタケで,次いでクサウラベニタケ,カキシメジであった. 発生件数および患者数はツキヨタケとクサウラベニタケで全体の半数を超え,この2種類の食中毒の発生

<sup>\*2</sup> COMMISSION REGULATION (EU) No 15/2011 of 10 January 2011 amending Regulation (EC) No 2074/2005 as regards recognised testing methods for detecting marine biotoxins in live bivalve molluscs (http://eur-lex.europa. eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2011:006:0003:00 06:EN:PDF)

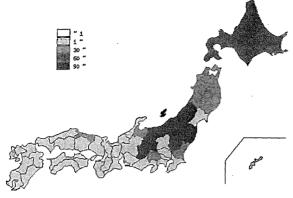


Fig. 14. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるキノコによる食中毒事例の地域別の発生件数

Table 13. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるキノコによる 食中毒事例の原因施設

原因施設	発生件数	%
家庭	1,036	88.4
事業場	31	2.6
販売店	31	2.6
飲食店	15	1.3
旅館	9	0.8
採取場所	7	0.6
学校	2	0.2
その他	39	3.3
不明	2	0.2
計	1,172	100.0

Table 14. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるキノコの種類別の食中毒発生件数および患者数

度国技物 (サウの専用さみと)	Ē	t .		Ē	F
原因植物(推定の事例を含む)	発生件数	患者数	原因植物(推定の事例を含む)	<b>発生件数</b>	患者数
アイセンボンダケ	1	2	. スギタケ属の一種	1	1
アセタケ	1	2	タマゴタケモドキ	1	1
イッポンシメジ	19	69	タマゴテングダケ	1	4
イッポンシメジ,クサウラベニタケ	2	10	タマゴテングタケ、ドクツルタケ	1	2
イッポンシメジ科	7	26	タマゴテングダケモドキ類	1	1
イッポンシメジ又はクサウラベニタケ	2	3	チチアワタケ	1	2
イボテングダケ	3	4	ツキヨタケ	393	1,719
ウスキテングタケ	1	1	ツチスギタケ	. 8	14
ウスムラサキシメジ	1	1	テングタケ	39	60
オオキヌハダトマヤタケ	6	16	テングタケ科	4	8
オオキヌハダトマヤタケ、キヌハダニセトマ	1	5	ドクカラカサタケ	6	23
ヤタケ		Ü	1,7,4,7,7,7	U	20
オオシビレタケ	3	5	ドクササコ	50	109
オオシロカラカサタケ	14	27	ドクツルタケ	16	52
オオシロカラカサタケ、ドクカラカサタケ	1	2	ドクツルタケ又はシロタマゴテングダケ	10	2
オオワライタケ	6	9	ドクヤマドリタケ、ドクヤマドリ	20	72
オシロイシメジ	1	3	ナカグロモリノカサ	20 1	
カエンタケ	4	11	ナラタケ	1	. 3
カオリツムタケ	2	14	ナラタケモドキ	1	1 2
カキシメジ	86	347	ニガクリタケ	10	
カキシメジ, ハナホウキタケ	1	2	ニガクリタケ、カキシメジ		19
カプラアセタケ	1	1	ニセクロハツ	1	3
カヤタケ属	12	23	ニセショウロ	3 2	9
キツチスギタケ	1	1	ネズミシメジ		3
・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・ ・	258	1.041	ハイイロシメジ	4	14
ウサウラベニタケ. カキシメジ	200	1,041	ハナホウキタケ	8	18
サウラベニタケ,近縁種	1	13	ヒカゲシビレタケ	1	2
プサウラベニタケ、ハナホウキタケ	1	2	ヒメアジロガサタケ	20	60
プロハツモドキ	1	6		1	2
ロウタケ	1	-	ヒメアジロガサモドキ	1	10
ュッック ユガネタケ	_	3	ヒメカタショウロ	1	2
- ペパンソ 1カブイヌシメジ	2	5	フクロツルタケ	1	4
- ルノイスシスシ 1クサウラベニタケ	1	1	ベニテングタケ	4	8
·クリソフペーテク <sup>1</sup> テングタケモドキ	2	5	ホテイシメジ	1	1
コンシックでトヤ コレラタケ	. 1	3	モリノカレバタケ属	1	4
·	2	5	ワライタケ	1	3
<b>バンタケ</b>	2	8	種類不明/無記載	98	330
/ビレタケ属	4	7	総計	1,172	4,291
<b>ロタマゴテングタケ</b>	7	20		•	
/ロタマゴテングダケ,ツルタケダマシ	1	2	<b>\</b>		
<b>ロテングタケ</b>	2	3			
ヘロトマヤタケ	1	2		1	
ヘロヒメカヤタケ	1	1			

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 Table 15.
 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるキノコによる

 食中毒の死亡事例

キノコ種類 (推定の事例も含む)	発生件数	死亡者数
ドクツルタケ	9	11
シロタマゴテングタケ	3	4
ニセクロハツ	3	4
カエンタケ	2	2
ツキヨタケ	1	2
タマゴタケモドキ	1	1
タマゴテングタケ,ドクツルタケ	1	1
ニガクリタケ	1	1
無記載	3	4
計	24	30

を低減するだけでも対策としては十分に効果があり優先的 に進める必要がある。

死亡事例は24件,30名が報告された(Table 15).原因のキノコはドクツルタケが最も多かった。ドクツルタケの毒成分は強毒性のアマニタトキシンとされるが、ほかのシロタマゴテングタケ、タマゴタケモドキ、タマゴテングタケも同様の毒成分を含んでおり、死亡事例の大部分はこの毒成分を含むキノコによると考えられる。

食中毒発生件数が上位6位のキノコについて、月別および地域別の食中毒の発生件数を比較した(Fig. 15). 月別比較では、ツキヨタケ、カキシメジおよびドクササコは10月の発生件数が特に多く、クサウラベニタケ、テングタケおよびヒカゲシビレタケは9,10月の2か月間にわたり発生していた. 地域別では、ツキヨタケおよびドクササコは新潟県、クサウラベニタケおよびカキシメジは福島県および長野県、テングタケは北海道で他の都道府県よりも食中毒報告件数が多い傾向が見られた. ただし、テングタケの食中毒については池海道では主に8,9月に発生しており、クサウラベニタケについては発生件数が多かった地域のうち北海道、青森県および秋田県では主に9月、福島県、山形県および新潟県では9,10月の2か月間、茨城県および長野県を含む関東より西方地域では主に10月に食中毒の発生が集中していた.

キノコによる食中毒の主な原因は、食べられると勘違いして有毒なキノコを自ら採取することである。そのため、過去22年間の食中毒事例について、中毒者が採取しようとしたキノコと食中毒の原因キノコをTable 16に示した、キノコの鑑別は長年の経験に基づく知識を必要とするが、そのような知識を持つ人が年々減少していると懸念されており、今後のキノコによる中毒の予防対策には、行政機関、研究機関および教育機関の連携に加えて、経験的な知識を持つ人たちが集まる全国各地のキノコ同好会の協力を得ることが必要だと指摘されている<sup>14</sup>.

過去のキノコによる食中毒事例の中には、根拠のない言い伝え(迷信)を信じたために食中毒となった事例が報告されている。そのため、キノコについてどのような迷信があるのか全国自治体を対象にアンケート調査を実施した。

キノコについては計208例の回答(複数回答可)が得られ、「地味な色のキノコは食べられる」、「塩漬けにすれば(毒キノコ)でも食べられる」、「ナスと一緒に料理すれば食べられる」、「虫食い跡のあるキノコは食べられる」といった迷信を挙げた自治体が特に多かった(Table 17)、自治体の中にはすでに迷信についても注意を喚起しているところもあるが、今後は、有毒なキノコの特徴や誤認しやすいキノコの情報に加えて、これら迷信についても科学的な根拠の裏づけがないことを消費者へ広く周知することが望まれる。

#### 高等植物による食中毒

高等植物による食中毒は、過去22年間に287件の発生事例、1,546名の患者が報告されていた(Table 1). 食中毒事例の月別の発生件数を比較すると、発生は年間を通して見られるが、特に新芽が出てくる4、5月に著しい増加が見られた(Fig. 16). 地域別の比較では、287件中30件は北海道、23件は山形県からの報告であった(Fig. 17).

原因施設は、全体の約74%は家庭、約7%は学校であった (Fig. 18). 家庭で発生する原因は、山菜採りなどに行って自ら採取したり、採取した植物を知人から譲り受けたりする場合が多かった.一方、学校で発生した事例の大部分 (82%) はジャガイモによる事例で、ほかにスイセン、タマスダレ、マレインによる事例が報告されていた.

死亡者は、トリカプト、イヌサフランおよびグロリオサによる事例が報告されていた(Table 18). 過去22年間に報告された高等植物による食中毒の原因植物をTable 19に示した。発生件数ではバイケイソウ類(バイケイソウ、コバイケイソウ、オオバイケイソウ)が最も多く、次いでチョウセンアサガオ類(チョウセンアサガオ、キダチチョウセンアサガオ)、トリカプトであった。

食中毒事例の発生件数が上位の高等植物について11年 ごとに比較すると、スイセン、ジャガイモ、イヌサフラン は先の11年間に比べて後の11年間では増加が見られ、ト リカプトおよびハシリドコロでは減少が見られた。

患者数が15名を超える集団食中毒の事例では、学校で の授業で収穫および調理されたジャガイモによる事例が最 も多かった. ジャガイモによる食中毒事例は平成元年~9 年には報告がなく、平成10年以降は平成14および20年 を除き毎年報告されていた. つまり, ジャガイモの有害作 用については以前から知られていたが、学校でのジャガイ モによる食中毒事例は比較的最近になってから報告数が増 加している. ジャガイモには、多量に摂取すると中毒を起 こすグリコアルカロイドのソラニン類 (α-ソラニンやα-チャコニン) が含まれ、特に光があたった皮、芽の部分ま たは未成熟なものに多い. 授業で収穫したジャガイモは十 分に注意しないと未熟で小さいものも一緒に収穫したり. 収穫後の保管状態が悪い場合もある. 山形県衛生研究所の 阿彦らは、最近のジャガイモによる食中毒の発生を受け て、教育・食育担当者の自然毒への認識不足を懸念して 「学校の授業や食育事業を通じた啓発」が今後必要だと指

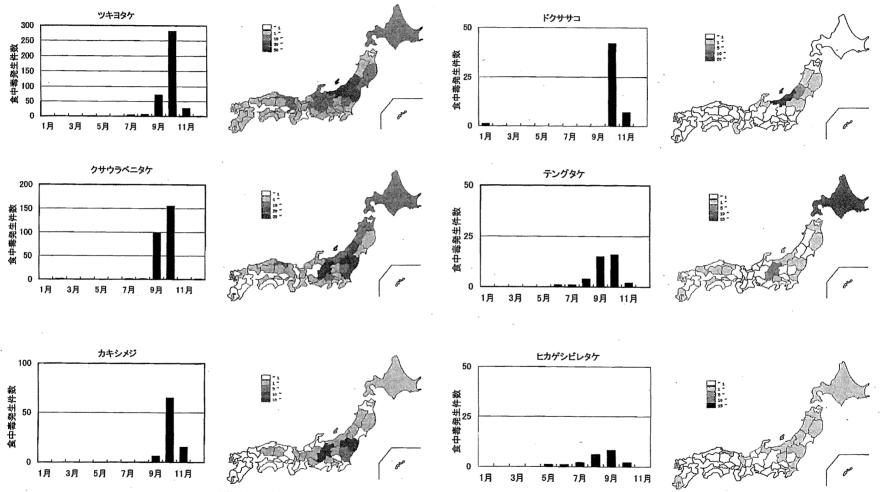


Fig. 15. 平成元年~22年のわが国におけるキノコによる食中毒事例の発生件数上位6位の月別および地域別の発生件数

Table 16. 平成元年~22年のキノコによる食中毒事例において、採取しようとしたキノコと食中毒の原因キノコ (括弧内は事例件数:採取しようとしたキノコが確認できた272事例中)

原因キノコ(推定の事例を含む)	採取しようとしたキノコ
イッポンシメジ	ウラベニホテイシメジ、シメジ
イッポンシメジ科	ウラベニホテイシメジ
オオキヌハダトマヤタケ	ナラタケ
オオシビレタケ	ナラタケ
オオワライタケ	コガネタケ (2), シメジ
カエンタケ	ベニナギナタタケ
カオリツムタケ	ナラタケ、ナラタケモドキ、クリタケ
カキシメジ	クリタケ(2), クリフウセンタケ(4: ニセアブラシメジ含む), シメジ(7), ツチナメコ, ハナ
•	イグチ (2), マツタケ, ムラサキシメジ
カヤタケ属	シメジ(2), ナラタケ, ハタケシメジ(2), ムラサキシメジ
キツチスギタケ	スギタケ
クサウラベニタケ	ウラベニホテイシメジ (24), ウラベニホテイシメジ又はサクラシメジ, クロシメジ, シイタケ,
	シメジ (13), ナラタケ (4), ハタケシメジ (9), ヒラタケ, ホテイシメジ (2), ホンシメジ
	(7), ミネシメジ
コクサウラベニタケ	ホンシメジ
シロタマゴテングタケ	シロマツタケ、シロマツタケモドキ、スギモダシ
シロテングタケ	サワマツタケ (2)
タマゴテングタケ・ドクツルタケ	ツチスギタケ
ツキヨタケ	キキタケ,シイタケ(38),ナラタケ(4),ヒラタケ(53),ブナシメジ,ブナハリタケ,ムキタ
	ケ (21), ムキタケまたはヒラタケ (2)
テングタケ	カラカサタケ、ガンタケ、シメジ(2)、ハツタケ、マツタケ
ドクササコ	シメジ, ナラタケ (13; モタセ含む)
ドクツルタケ	オトメノカサ、シロマツタケモドキ(2)、ツルタケ
ドクヤマドリタケ、ドクヤマドリ	ヤマドリダケ (3), ヤマドリタケモドキ (2)
ニガクリタケ	クリタケ(5), ナラタケ
ニガクリタケ,カキシメジ	クリタケ
ニセクロハツ	クロハツ
ネズミシメジ	シモフリシメジ
ハイイロシメジ	シロシメジ (2)
ヒカゲシビレタケ	エノキダケ、ナラタケ(2)、ハタケシメジ(2)
ヒメアジロガサタケ	ナラタケ
ヒメアジロガサモドキ	ナラタケ
フクロツルタケ	ツルタケ

#### 摘している15)、

食中毒事例の発生件数が上位の高等植物について、月別および地域別の発生件数を比較した(Fig. 19). バイケイソウ類、トリカプトおよびスイセンによる食中毒事例は主に4~5月に、チョウセンアサガオ類による食中毒事例は年間を通じて報告されていた、地域別では、バイケイソウ類は東北地方南部から中部地方、トリカプトは北海道から東北地方で食中毒の発生件数が多く、チョウセンアサガオ類およびスイセンによる食中毒は北海道や東北地方で比較的多いものの全国的に発生していた、気候の影響と考えられるが、北海道ではトリカプトによる食中毒が7,8月と比較的遅い時期にも発生し、スイセンによる食中毒の発生は5月に集中していた。一方、スイセンによる11月~2月の発生は関東より西方地域であった。

また採取しようとした植物をTable 20に示した(採取しようとした植物が確認できたのは144事例)。食中毒発生件数が多いバイケイソウおよびコバイケイソウはギボウシ属およびギョウジャニンニクと、チョウセンアサガオは根がゴボウ、つぼみがオクラ、種子がゴマおよび葉がモロヘイヤなどと、トリカプトは新芽がニリンソウおよびモミ

ジガサと、スイセンは葉がニラ、球根がタマネギなどと誤認した事例が報告されていた。高等植物による食中毒は季節に応じて注意すべき植物の種類や部位が異なり、注意喚起する内容も季節毎に変化させる方がより効果的な対策になると考えられる。

#### 4. まとめ

過去22年間に報告された自然毒による食中毒事例のデータによると、自然毒による食中毒は例年必ず発生し、22年間を通じて発生件数に減少の傾向は見られない、そのため、今後も自然毒による食中毒の発生を低減するために予防について継続的な取り組みが必要であると考えられる、特に食中毒発生件数および死者数に基づくと、優先的に対策が必要なのはフグとキノコを原因とする食中毒である。さらに近年の傾向として、シガテラおよび高等植物による食中毒の発生件数が少しずつ増加しており、今後継続的に注意していく必要がある。しかも、いずれの自然毒でも食中毒の原因施設の大部分は「家庭」で、その多くは自ら捕獲あるいは採取したものの喫食による発生である。「家庭」での自然毒による食中毒発生を予防するためには、自然毒による健康リスクが高いことや十分な知識を持たず

Table 17. 自然毒食中毒に関連するキノコの迷信

<u> </u>	キノコ迷信内容(合計208例: 複数回答可)	回答自治体数
色	色が鮮やか(派手、綺麗、毒々しい)なキノコは有毒、地味な色のキノコは食べられる	36
	茶色いきのこは食べられる	, 1
	ねずみ色のキノコは安全	1
<b></b>	紫色のキノコは食べられる	1
香り	臭いが良ければ食べられる	8
味	毒キノコは美味しい	1
	美味しいキノコは食べられる	2
	かじってみて変な(嫌な)味がしないものは大丈夫	2
	苦いキノコには毒がある	1
	ぬめりのあるキノコは食べられる	, 1
加工・調理	油で炒めて調理すれば食べられる(毒が抜ける)	5
	火を通せば食べられる(毒が抜ける)	2
	干して乾燥すれば食べられる(毒が抜ける)	2 7
	塩漬けにすれば毒がぬける	29
	(他に, 塩漬けにし水洗いすれば食べられる)	
	ナスと一緒に料理(他に煮る,炒める,焼く)すれば食べられる	33
	キノコ汁に大根おろしを入れると中毒にならない	1 .
生育場所	木(または枯木)に生えているものは食べられる	3
	群生していれば食べられる	1
	毒のあるキノコと毒のないキノコはそれぞれ生育場所が決まっている	1
その他	<b>茎(柄)が縦に裂けるキノコは食べられる</b>	$1\overline{2}$
	傘の裏がスポンジ状のきのこは食べられる	8
	虫食い跡のあるキノコは食べられる	39
	煮汁に銀のスプーンを入れ黒変したら毒キノコ	8
	しめじの仲間は食べられる	ī
	つばがあるキノコは食べられる	$\overline{2}$
	野生動物が食べているものは安全	1
	猫に食べさせ中毒しなけらば食べられる	1

注1 都道府県、保健所設置市および特別区の食品安全担当者(計136か所)へのアンケート調査において、「自然毒に関連する食品について、ご存知の「根拠のない言い伝え(迷信)」がありましたら、お教えください」との質問に対する回答である。複数回答可とし、計208例の回答が得られた。

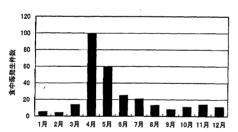


Fig. 16. 平成元年〜22年のわが国における高等植物による 食中毒事例の月別の発生件数

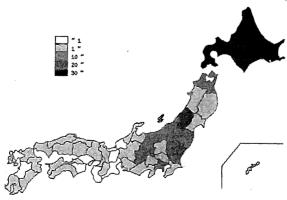
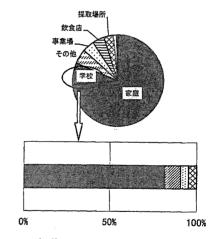


Fig. 17. 平成元年~22年のわが国における高等植物による 食中毒事例の地域別の発生件数



**ロジャガイモ ロスイセン ロタマスダレ ロマレイン** 

Fig. 18. 平成元年~22年のわが国における高等植物による 食中毒事例の原因施設および学校事例の原因内訳

Table 18. 平成元年~22年のわが国における高等植物による食中毒の死亡事例

種類	発生件数	死者数
イヌサフラン	2	2
グロリオサ	2	. 2
トリカブト	3	3
計	7	7

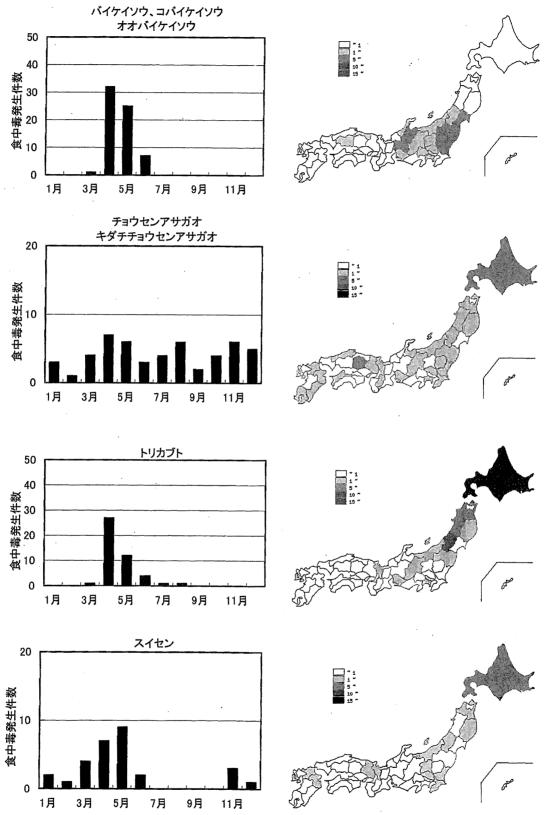


Fig. 19. 平成元年~22年のわが国における高等植物による食中毒事例の発生件数上位の月別および地域別の発生件数

Table 19. 平成元年~22年のわが国の高等植物による食中毒事例の原因植物

原因植物 <sup>性1</sup>	<del>発生件数</del>
バイケイソウ・コバイケイソウ・オオバイケイソウ	65
チョウセンアサガオ・キダチチョウセンアサガオ	51
トリカプト	46
スイセン	29
ジャガイモ こうしゅうしゅう しゅうしゅう しゅうしゅう しゅうしゅう しゅうしゅう	18
クワズイモ, ハシリドコロ	14
ヨウシュヤマゴボウ	7
イヌサフラン	6
ドクゼリ、ユウガオ、テンナンショウ類	3
グロリオサ、ジギタリス、シキミの実、ドクニンジン、ヤマゴボウ、アジサイ、アブラギリ、ヒョウタン	2
カラー、カロライナジャスミン、キダチタバコ、キルタンサス、ザゼンソウ、シャクナゲ、シュロソウ、タバコ、タマス ダレ、ドクウツギ、マレイン、ヤハズエンドウ	1

注1 原因が確認できた事例(推定事例含む)のみ記載した、ただし、平成18年に発生した白インゲン豆の不適切な調理法による中毒事例は、テレビ放送がダイエット法の1つとして紹介したことが原因とされる特殊事例のため含めていない。白インゲン豆については、厚生労働省発表では平成18年5月22日の時点で38自治体から158名の患者が報告されたとしている。

Table 20. 平成元年~22年の高等植物による食中毒事例において、採取しようとした植物と食中毒の原因植物(括弧内は事例件数:採取しようとした植物が確認できた144事例中)

原因植物	採取しようとした植物
アブラギリ	クルミ
イヌサフラン	オオアマドコロ、イモ、ギョウジャニンニク、タマネギ
カロライナジャスミ	
<b>&gt;</b>	·
キダチタバコ	カラシ (カラシダネ)
グロリオサ	ヤマイモ(2)
クワズイモ	サトイモ茎 (2), ハスイモ
コパイケイソウ	ギボウシ属 (オオバギボウシ, ウルイ; 11), ギョウジャニンニク (2)
ザゼンソウ	ウバユリ
シキミの実	シイの実,松の実
スイセン	ニラ(15),タマネギ,ノビル,べんり菜
チョウセンアサガオ	ゴボウ (17), オクラ (3), モロヘイヤ (3), アシタバ, アマランサス, ゴマ, バジル
テンナンショウ類	タラの芽
ドクウツギ	ヤマモモ
ドクゼリ	ワサビ
ドクニンジン	シャク(2)
トリカプト	ニリンソウ (フクベラ, コモチグサ; 12), モミジガサ (シドケ; 9), アズキナ, ウワバミソウ, ショウガ,
	フキノトウ,フクベラ,ミツバ,ヨモギ
バイケイソウ	ギボウシ属 (オオバギボウシ, ウルイ: 24), ギョウジャニンニク
ハシリドコロ	タラの芽 (2), サワアザミ, ツリガネニンジン, フキノトウ, シオデ, イタドリ, ウド
マレイン	コンフリー
ヨウシュヤマゴボウ	ヤマゴボウ (2), ヤマイモ, 西洋ワサビ, ヤマゴボゥ

に自らの判断で摂取することが非常に危険であることについて消費者へ広く啓蒙・広報を行うことが重要と考えられるが、実際は情報を十分に行き届かせる困難さも指摘されている。例えば、平成20年に大阪府と茨城県でアジサイの葉による食中毒が発生し、厚生労働省から注意喚起の通知が出され全国の自治体が注意を呼びかけるとともに、メディアでもニュースとして広く報じられた。しかしながら、公的機関だけでなくメディアを介して広く広報されたとしても、平成23年7月には秋田県で弁当の付け合わせとして入れられたアジサイの葉によって5名が嘔吐などの症状を呈するという食中毒が再発している。これは情報を消費者へ徹底して伝えることがいかに難しいかを示す事例

であった.

消費者への情報伝達の困難さのほかにも自然毒食中毒の対策が抱える問題は多く、例えば熟練した鑑識眼や知識を持つ人が少なくなっていること、汚染が散発的に発生すること、自然毒を含む魚介類の生息地やキノコおよび高等植物の発生地には地域性があり全国一律の対策では不十分になること、原因物質が特定されていないものもあるためモニタリングや検査態勢が十分ではないこと、原因物質が特定されても検査のための標準品の入手が困難なことなどがある。これらの問題は、動物性や植物性に限らず、自然毒全体の問題である。今後はこれらの問題を解決または解決を支援するための研究を発展させるとともに、流通の拡大

に伴いこれまで国内で食中毒が発生していない自然毒への 監視,消費者の知識向上,消費者への注意喚起などを効果 的に行う方法について行政機関,研究者,民間団体などが 協力的に検討していくことが必要である.

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#### Toxicon





## Differential gene expression profile in the liver of the marine puffer fish *Takifugu rubripes* induced by intramuscular administration of tetrodotoxin

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Intramuscular administration

#### ABSTRACT

Marine puffer fish accumulate a high level of tetrodotoxin (TTX) in the liver and ovary, but the underlying mechanism of this toxification is unclear. To elucidate the genes related to toxification of the marine puffer fish, we examined the hepatic gene expression profile of the marine puffer fish Takifugu rubripes by suppression subtractive hybridization in response to the intramuscular administration of 0.50 mg TTX/kg body weight into the caudal muscle. The accumulation of TTX in the liver reached 68  $\pm$  4% that of the administered dose within 12 h of administration. A total of 1048 clones from the subtracted cDNA libraries were successfully sequenced. The nucleotide sequence of 92 of the 1048 clones was identified as a hepcidin precursor. Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction experiments revealed that hepcidin precursors were highly expressed in the TTX-administered group. In addition, complement C3 (31 clones), serotransferrin (30 clones), apolipoprotein A-1 (14 clones), high temperature adaptation protein Wap65-2 (14 clones). complement C7 (12 clones), fibrinogen beta chain (12 clones), and 70 kDa heat-shock protein 4 (11 clones) were obtained. This study confirmed that the intramuscular administration of TTX increases the gene expression of the acute-phase response proteins in the liver of puffer fish T. rubripes.

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#### 1. Introduction

Marine puffer fish of the family Tetraodontidae generally accumulate tetrodotoxin (TTX), which binds with very high affinity to the  $\alpha$ -subunit of voltage-gated sodium channels (Na<sub>V</sub>), at high levels in specific tissues, such as liver, ovary, and skin (Halstead, 1988; Lee and Ruben, 2008). Puffer fish likely do not actually produce TTX, but instead acquire the toxin through the food chain (Yasumoto and Yotsu-Yamashita, 1996; Noguchi and Arakawa, 2008), because cultured puffer fish are non-toxic and non-toxic cultured puffer fish become toxic when fed artificial TTX-containing diets (Matsui et al., 1981; Yamamori et al., 2004; Honda et al., 2005a; Kono et al., 2008).

Marine puffer fish must therefore have special mechanisms to protect their bodies against a large accumulation of TTX and to resist the toxin. Saito et al. (1985) examined the minimum lethal dose (MLD) of TTX in some fish species by injecting fish intraperitoneally with TTX and demonstrated that Takifugu rubripes, Takifugu pardalis, and Takifugu niphobles have the highest resistance to TTX with MLD scores ranging from 3.0 to 7.5 mg TTX/kg body weight, while non-toxic fish, such as largescale blackfish Girella punctata, parrot bass Oplegnathus fasciatus, and spiny goby Acanthogobius flavimanus, are sensitive to TTX with MLD scores ranging from 3 to 42 µg TTX/kg body weight. The TTX resistance of puffer fish is partly attributable to the insensitivity of Nav to the toxin. Yotsu-Yamashita et al. (2000) reported a substitution of a non-aromatic amino acid (Asn) for an aromatic amino acid (Tyr or Phe) at amino acid 401 in the domain I pore loop regions of skeletal

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muscle Na $_{V}$  (fMNa $_{V}$ 1.4a) of *T. pardalis*. A similar mutation of Asn or Cys also occurs in the Na $_{V}$ 1.4a of *T. rubripes*, *Tetraodon nigroviridis*, and *Arothron nigroviridis* (Jost et al., 2008). Venkatesh et al. (2005) used patch clamp experiments to determine that these mutant channels are approximately 2000-fold less sensitive to TTX than the wild-type channels.

Binding of TTX to biologic components might be associated with the accumulation of TTX in puffer fish, which might also alleviate its toxicity. Kodama et al. (1983) found TTX in a non-toxic high-molecular fraction obtained from the toxic liver of Takifugu poecilonotus by RNase T2 digestion. Nagashima et al. (1993) reported that high molecularweight substances prepared from the toxic liver of Takifugu snyderi release the TTX-related compound when treated with protease or acid hydrolysis. On the other hand, the blood plasma of T. niphobles and T. pardalis has a unique protein that binds to both TTX and saxitoxin, a paralytic shellfish-poisoning toxin, suggesting the involvement of the protein in toxin-transportation in the circulating blood of puffer fish (Matsui et al., 2000; Yotsu-Yamashita et al., 2001). It is unlikely, however, that the puffer fish saxitoxin- and tetrodotoxin-binding protein (PSTBP) has an important role in the TTX disposition of puffer fish, because our recent study using the equilibrium dialysis method demonstrated that TTX binds non-specifically to plasma proteins, including bovine serum albumin and bovine α-1 acid glycoprotein, with low affinity and TTX exists predominantly in its unbound form in the circulating blood of T. rubripes (Mastumoto et al., 2010).

Honda et al. (2005b) examined the immunopotentiating effect of TTX administration on the cultured puffer fish *T. rubripes*. Feeding experiments with TTX-containing diets were performed for 60 days. The blood serum of puffer fish in the toxic diet group exhibited higher hemagglutination activity than that in the non-toxic diet group. Furthermore, the splenocytes from the toxic diet group had significantly higher proliferation rates than those from the non-toxic diet group when stimulated with mitogens such as pokeweed mitogen, concanavalin A, or lipopolysaccharide.

Lee et al. (2007) investigated the genes related to hepatic toxicity by comparing the mRNA expression patterns in the wild marine puffer fish Takifugu chrysops and T. niphobles, which have different concentrations of TTX in the liver. mRNA arbitrarily-primed RT-PCR provided a cDNA comprising at least three fibrinogen-like protein (flp) genes, flp-1, flp-2, and flp-3, from the liver of T. chrysops and T. niphobles containing high concentrations of TTX, and the relative mRNA levels of these genes showed a linear correlation with the TTX levels in the liver of the two species. In addition, flp-1 in the liver of T. niphobles located in scaffold 628 of the Fugu Genome database, and the amino acid sequence in a C-terminal region of flp-3 in T. chrysops liver had homology with those of proteins homologous to hepcidin precursors of the spotted green puffer fish Tetraodon nigroviridis, European sea bass Dicentrachus labrax, mouse, and human. It is unclear, however, whether the transcripts of these genes are involved in the TTX disposition and how they function in the puffer fish body.

In this article, we used genetic engineering procedures to evaluate the biochemical significance of the accumulation of TTX in the body of puffer fish, and examined the hepatic gene expression profile of the marine puffer fish *T. rubripes* using suppression subtractive hybridization (SSH) in response to intramuscular administration of TTX into the caudal muscle.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Materials

Marine puffer fish *T. rubripes* (approximately 1 kg body weight) were obtained live from the Tokyo central wholesale fish market and transported to our laboratory. TTX for the administration was purified from the ovaries of *T. pardalis* by a combination of ultrafiltration and a series of column chromatographic separations, as reported previously (Matsumoto et al., 2007). Crystalline TTX (Wako Pure Chemicals Industries, Osaka, Japan) was used as a standard for the liquid chromatography/electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS) analysis. All other chemicals were reagent grade.

## 2.2. Time-course of the blood concentration of TTX after intramuscular administration

We examined the effect of intramuscular administration of TTX into the caudal muscle of puffer fish. Prior to a single injection of TTX, the puffer fish T. rubripes specimen was anesthetized with the artificial seawater containing 0.03% 2-phenoxyethanol and placed on the experimental workbench. Breathing of the fish was maintained by gill ventilation using the perfusion technique with artificial seawater at 20 °C. After the fish was laparotomized, the hepatic vein was cannulated with a PE50 polyethylene tube (Clay Adams, Parsippany, NJ) for blood collection. TTX solution (0.50 mg TTX/500 μL/kg body weight) was prepared with modified Hank's balanced salt solution (pH 7.4), and administered in a single injection into the caudal muscle using a 1-mL disposable syringe (Terumo, Tokyo, Japan). Blood samples were obtained from the hepatic vein cannula at various time points after the injection. TTX was extracted from the blood sample with methanol/acetic acid and purified by ultrafiltration (MWCO 5000). TTX in the liver tissue sample was extracted with 0.1% acetic acid by heating in a boiling water bath for 10 min after ultrasonication for 1 min following the standard assay procedures for TTX (Kodama and Sato, 2005). TTX quantitation was performed by LC/ESI-MS analysis according to the previously reported method (Matsumoto et al., 2008).

#### 2.3. Treatment of puffer fish and RNA preparation

Three puffer fish (1.04  $\pm$  0.04 kg body weight) of the TTX-administration group were given an intramuscular injection of 0.50 mg TTX/500  $\mu L/kg$  body weight into the caudal muscle and maintained in a tank of 100 L artificial seawater for 12 h at 20 °C. At 12 h after the administration, the fish were anesthetized in ice-chilled seawater and dissected. The liver was cut into 5-mm pieces, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C until use. For the control group, three puffer fish (1.04  $\pm$  0.07 kg body

weight) were given an intramuscular injection of buffer (500  $\mu L/kg$  body weight) that did not contain TTX, and the liver samples were prepared as described above. Total RNA was extracted from the puffer fish liver of each group. Briefly, 1 g of liver was homogenized with 20 mL of ISOGEN reagent (Nippon Gene, Tokyo, Japan) and the total RNA was extracted following the manufacturer's instructions. mRNA was purified from the total RNA using an Oligotex^-dT30 < Super > mRNA Purification kit (TaKaRa Bio, Shiga, Japan).

## 2.4. Construction of subtracted cDNA library and cDNA cloning

Aliquots (1 µg) of the mRNAs from the TTX-administered group (tester) and the non-TTX-administered group (driver) were applied to a Clontech PCR-Select™ cDNA subtraction kit (Clontech Laboratories, Mountain View, CA). The subtracted cDNAs, enriched in over-expressed genes from the TTXadministered group, were amplified by PCR using Advantage® cDNA PCR kit (Clontech Laboratories), and the amplified products were checked by agarose gel electrophoresis. The nested PCR products of the subtracted cDNA library were purified using ChargeSwitch®-Pro PCR Clean-up kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and subcloned into pT7Blue T-Vector (Novagen, Madison, WI) using Escherichia coli strain JM109 as the competent cell. Plasmid DNAs were prepared using the illustra plasmidPrep Mini Spin kit (GE Healthcare. Buckinghamshire, UK). Sequencing was performed using a BigDye® Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, CA) with the forward primer R-20mer primer (5'-ATGACCATGATTACGCCAAG-3') and the reverse primer U-19mer primer (5'-GTTTTCCCAGTCACGACGT-3'), ABI Veriti® 200 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems), and ABI PRISM® 3130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). The nucleotide sequences were analyzed for similarity with the fourth Fugu genome assembly (http://www.fugu-sg.org/), Ensemble Fugu genome browser (http://www.ensembl.org/ Takifugu\_rubripes/Info/Index), and the other animals by nucleotide BLAST search (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast. cgi).

#### 2.5. Reverse transcription (RT)-PCR

Differences in the expression of hepcidin precursors between the livers of the TTX-administered group and non-TTX-administered group were evaluated by RT-PCR. First-strand cDNAs were synthesized with oligo-dT primers from 6 µg of total RNA using a PrimeScript® II High Fidelity RT-PCR kit (TaKaRa Bio) following the manufacturer's protocol. The first-strand cDNAs were combined from three

TTX-administered fish as testers and three non-TTX-administered fish as drivers. The sequences of specific primers for the hepcidin precursor (hepcidin A) located in scaffolds 145, 456, 511, 3526, 5143, and 8479, hepcidin precursor (hepcidin B) located in scaffold 35, and  $\beta$ -actin (GenBank No. U37499) are listed in Table 1. PCR was performed in a 20- $\mu$ L reaction mixture containing 1  $\mu$ L of the cDNA template, 0.2  $\mu$ M forward and reverse specific primers, 1× Ex Taq buffer (TaKaRa Bio), 200  $\mu$ M dNTP mixture, and 0.5 U TaKara Ex Taq DNA polymerase (TaKaRa Bio). The reaction was performed for 20 cycles at 98 °C for 10 s, 58 °C for 15 s, and 72 °C for 1 min. RT-PCR products were separated by electrophoresis on a 2.0% agarose gel and stained with SYBR Safe (Invitrogen).

#### 2.6. Statistics

Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard error (SE), and Students' *t*-test was used to analyze the significance of differences among the means at the 5% significance level.

#### 3. Results

The puffer fish *T. rubripes* used in this study initially contained no detectable amounts of TTX (<0.01 ng TTX/ $\mu$ L blood and <10 ng TTX/g liver).

## 3.1. Time-course of the TTX blood concentration after intramuscular administration

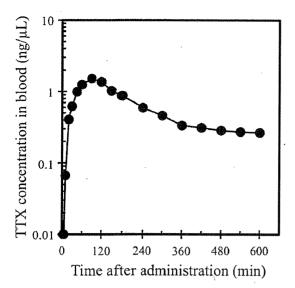
Prior to the SSH study, we investigated the time-course of the blood concentration of TTX after an intramuscular administration of 0.50 mg TTX/500  $\mu L/kg$  body weight into the caudal muscle of a puffer fish (Fig. 1). The blood levels of TTX were detectable (0.07 ng TTX/ $\mu L$ ) at 10 min after the administration, and sharply increased to 1.52 ng TTX/ $\mu L$  at 90 min and thereafter gradually decreased to 0.27 ng TTX/ $\mu L$  at 600 min after the administration. The amount of TTX in the liver accounted for 44% of the administered dose within 600 min of administration. The result demonstrated that caudal intramuscular administration produces relatively high blood levels of TTX for at least 10 h. Based on these data, we set the dosing condition of TTX for the SSH study as described in the *Materials and methods* section.

#### 3.2. Cloning of the subtracted cDNA library

The hematocrit level of the TTX-administered group (28  $\pm$  2%) was not significantly different from that of the control group (27  $\pm$  1%; p > 0.05). The accumulation of TTX

**Table 1**Oligonucleotide primers used for RT-PCR analysis.

Gene	Location	Oligonucleotide sequence	Amplicon (bp)	
Hepcidin precursor A	Scaffolds 145, 456, 511, 3526, 5143 and 8479	5'-GGAACCAGTTGGAGCAGTTC-3' 5'-ATCAGAACCTGCAGCAGACAC-3'		
Hepcidin precursor B	Scaffold 35	5'-CTGGTCTGACACCCATGAGA-3'	373	
β–Actin	GenBank No. U37499	5'-GCGACAGGACTCCTCAGAAC-3' 5'-AGAGCTACGAGCTGCCTGAC-3' 5'-GCTGGAAGGTGGACAGAGAG-3'	348	

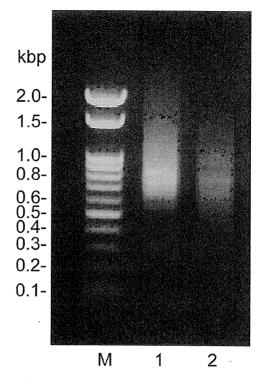


**Fig. 1.** Time-course of the blood concentration of TTX in *Takifugu rubripes* after the intramuscular administration of TTX solution (0.50 mg TTX/500  $\mu$ L/kg body weight) into the caudal muscle. Each point represents the value of an experiment performed in triplicate measurement.

in the liver reached 68  $\pm$  4% that of the administered dose within 12 h of administration.

To identify the differentially expressed genes in the liver of the marine puffer fish T. rubripes in response to intramuscularly administered TTX, a subtracted cDNA library was constructed. The amount of total RNA extracted from the liver of the TTX-administered group was  $1159 \pm 48~\mu g/g$  liver, while that of the control group was  $1534 \pm 169~\mu g/g$  liver. The amount of total RNA was not significantly different between the two groups (p > 0.05). An SSH study was performed with mRNAs from the livers of the TTX-administered group as the tester sample, and those of the control group as the driver sample. There was a clear difference in the expression pattern between subtracted and unsubtracted cDNAs based on nested suppression PCR (Fig. 2).

In this study, 1136 bacterial clones were isolated, 1048 of which were successfully sequenced and each contained insert cDNA located in the fourth Fugu genome database. The major clones are summarized in Table 2. The greatest number of clones were hepcidin precursors (92 clones). and 75 of these 92 clones were located in scaffolds 145, 456, 511, 3526, 5143, and 8479, and the other clones were located in scaffold 35 in the Fugu genome database. These clones had strong homology with hepcidin precursors of marine puffer fish Takifugu obscurus (Accession No. EU178862) and large yellow croaker Pseudosciaena crocea (Accession No. AM748024), and with the hepcidin-like precursor of red seabream Pagrus major (Accession No. AY557619). Analysis of hepcidin precursor expression by RT-PCR indicated that the levels of hepcidin precursor amplification products were relatively higher in the tester samples (Fig. 3). The second greatest number of clones corresponded to complement C3 (31 clones) located in scaffolds 26, 189, 194, 206, 364, 2218, 3729, and 3840 in the Fugu genome database. Other complement components, 4 clones of C1r (Scaffold 205), 6 clones of C4 (Scaffold 48), 4 clones of C5 (Scaffold 114), 1 clone of C6 (Scaffold 128), 12



**Fig. 2.** Confirmation of the subtraction efficiency by suppression PCR of the subtracted and unsubtracted cDNA pools. Nested PCR was performed on the subtracted or unsubtracted primary PCR products with the nested PCR primers included in the kit. PCR products were separated by electrophoresis on a 2.0% agarose gel and stained with SYBR Safe. Lane M: marker; lane 1: nested PCR products of the unsubtracted cDNAs; lane 2: nested PCR products of subtracted cDNAs.

clones of C7 (Scaffold 128), 1 clone of C8 (Scaffold 367), and 4 clones of C9 (Scaffolds 49 and 65) were also observed. The third highest number of clones related to serotransferrin (30 clones) and located in scaffolds 334 and 417.

The clones obtained from the subtracted cDNA library were assigned to seven major biologic functions of the putative translated proteins based on their sequence identities with the gene ontology database (http://www. geneontology.org/) and the fourth Fugu genome database (Fig. 4). All of the clones were located in the Fugu genome database, except 33.9% of the clones had no gene ontology information in the database (Fig. 4). This classification of gene function shows that 15.7% of the clones were associated with the immune response, including the hepcidin precursors and complement components. Genes involved in metabolism constituted 13.7% of the clones, in which the breakdown was as follows: single clone (80 sets), pair of clones (34 sets), trio clones (21 sets), and quartet clones (2 sets). The third most common category comprised genes involved in transcription and translation, such as ribosomal proteins and transcription factors, and constituted 11.0% of the clones. Genes involved in transport and binding, such as serotransferrin and apolipoprotein A-I, constituted 10.7% of the clones. Only two clones located in scaffolds 533 and 3348 had a strong homology with the T. pardalis PSTBP1 mRNA (Accession No. AB055707). Genes involved in signal transduction, including hormones, regulator proteins, and signaling cascade proteins, constituted 10.4% of the clones.

**Table 2** *Takifugu rubripes* genes over 5 clones obtained from the subtracted cDNA library in the liver induced by intramuscular administration of TTX.

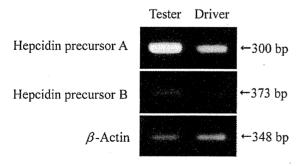
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Scaffold	Clone	Putative identity	Function
35, 145, 456, 511, 3526, 5143, 8479	92	Hepcidin	Iron homeostasis, antimicrobial activity; APP
26, 189, 194, 206, 364, 2218, 3729, 3840	31	Complement C3	Complement pathway; APP
334, 417	30	Serotransferrin	Plasma iron transport; APP
86, 155	15	Catechol-O-methyltransferase domain-containing protein 1	Putative O-methyltransferase; APP
363	14	Apolipoprotein A-I	Plasma lipid transport; APP
64	14	Warm-temperature-acclimation- related-65 kDa protein 2	Transcript level; APP
128	12	Complement C7	Membrane attack complex component, inflammation
209, 661	12	Fibrinogen beta chain	Coagulation factor; APP
82, 314, 2469, 12168	11	70 kDa heat-shock protein 4	Heat-shock response; APP
256	11	Protein diaphanous homolog 2	Involved in the regulation of endosome dynamics
94	9	Leucine-rich α <sub>2</sub> -glycoprotein	Unexplained plasma protein; APP
59	9	Leukocyte-cell-derived chemotaxin-2	Chemotactic activity; APP
2147	6	Apolipoprotein E-2	Unexplained plasma protein
48	6	Complement C4	Complement pathway; APP
628	6	Fibrinogen alpha chain	Coagulation factor; APP
40 .	6	Fibrinogen gamma chain	Coagulation factor; APP
345	5	Beta-2-glycoprotein 1 (Apolipoprotein H)	Plasma lipid transport; APP
256	5	Cyclin-dependent kinase-like 3	Serine/threonine protein kinase
2087	5	Ectonucleotide pyrophosphatase/ phosphodiesterase family member 2	Adenine extracellular nucleotide hydrolase
1	5	Fibronectin	Extracellular matrix
235	5	Microfibril-associated glycoprotein 4	Putative extracellular matrix
66	5	Ribosomal protein L1	Involved in RNA processing

Scaffold is based on the fugu gene database ver. 4.0. Sequence is identified with ensemble fugu gene browser and BLAST search. Function is putative function of UniProtKB, gene ontology search, and references in this paper. APP indicates acute-phase protein.

In this group, 12 clones of fibrinogen beta chain, 6 clones of fibrinogen alpha chain, and 6 clones of fibrinogen gamma chain were identified (Table 2). Cytoskeletal genes constituted 3.3% of the clones. The number of stress responsive genes was only 1.3% of the total clones, and included 11 clones of 70 kDa heat-shock protein 4 (HSP70-4) and 3 clones of 90 kDa heat-shock protein beta-3.

#### 4. Discussion

In the present study, we examined the hepatic differential gene expression profile of the marine puffer fish *T. rubripes* in



**Fig. 3.** Reverse transcription-PCR analysis of hepcidin precursor expression in the *Takifugu rubripes* liver samples of TTX-administration group (tester) and control group (driver). The hepcidin precursor located in the scaffolds 145, 456, 511, 3526, 5143 and 8479 as hepcidin A and hepcidin precursor located in the scaffold 35 as hepcidin B were amplified with the gene specific primers listed in Table 1. β-Actin (GenBank No. U37499) was used as a positive control. RT-PCR products were separated by electrophoresis on a 2.0% agarose gel and stained with SYBR Safe. The amplicon size (bp) is shown on the right margin.

response to intramuscular administration of 0.50 mg TTX/kg body weight into the caudal muscle and isolated 1136 bacterial clones, 1048 of which were successfully sequenced and determined to contain insert cDNA that is listed in the fourth Fugu genome database.

Genes for hepcidin precursors were most commonly obtained from the subtracted cDNA library of T. rubripes liver. Hepcidin is an antibacterial peptide first found in human blood and urine (Krause et al., 2000; Park et al., 2001). Hepcidin regulates cellular iron export into plasma by binding to ferroportin, the transporter for iron efflux (Nemeth and Ganz, 2009). Consistently, 30 clones of serotransferrin, which delivers iron to cells via a number of mechanisms, were also obtained from the subtracted cDNA library (Anderson and Vulpe, 2009). Clones of complement components constituted the second greatest number of clones. Complement system protein in circulating blood acts in series to produce a variety of biologic effects such as antibacterial, antiviral, and opsonic. Many of the clones identified in the present study are related to innate immunologic compounds, suggesting that the intramuscular administration of TTX triggers an immune response in T. rubripes, as is the case for the oral administration of TTX (Honda et al., 2005b).

The acute-phase response is a pervasive physiologic response of the body to injury, trauma, or infection, and is induced by the release of the pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-1, interleukin-6, and tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$ . Inflammation increases the synthesis and secretion of acute-phase proteins, including fibrinogen chains, hemopexin, complement components, transferrin, apolipoprotein A-1, and other plasma proteins (Bayne and

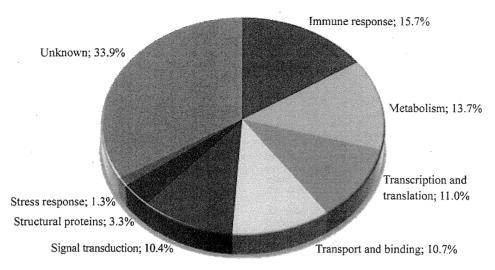


Fig. 4. Classification of clones obtained from the subtracted cDNA library of Takifugu rubripes liver induced by intramuscular administration of TTX.

Gerwick, 2001). It might be that intramuscular injection of TTX induces stress or trauma to the puffer fish, which increases the expression levels of the genes related to acute-phase response system in the liver of *T. rubripes*.

Many of the clones summarized in Table 2 are reported to be acute-phase response genes in experiments utilizing stress assays and bacterial infection. Talbot et al. (2009) reported that the expression of leukocyte-cell-derived chemotaxin 2 (LECT 2) gene was significantly increased in the stressed rainbow trout Oncorhynchus mykiss compared to the unstressed control fish, at 8 h and 168 h in a confinement stress assay. Infection of channel catfish Ictalurus punctatus with Edwardsiella ictaluri induced the upregulation of the acute-phase response genes in the liver, i.e., Wap65-like protein, apolipoprotein 4, transferrin, complements C3, C3-H1, C7-1, and C8 beta, catechol-O-methyltransferase domain containing protein 1, and fibrinogen beta chain (Peatman et al., 2007). In addition, Lin et al. (2007) demonstrated in zebrafish Danio rerio that the genes for LECT2, hepcidin, transferrin, and complement C3 are induced by intraperitoneal injection of Staphylococcus aureus and exposure to Aeromonas salmonicida. In the liver of rainbow trout O. mykiss, the expression of apolipoprotein and transferrin is also upregulated by intraperitoneal injection of A. salmonicida lipopolysaccharide (Russell et al., 2006). These observations indicated that these genes are acute-phase responsive in fish liver, and that various stressors induce the acute-phase response in the host. It is likely that the sharp rise in the plasma TTX level and the abrupt increase in TTX in the body after an intramuscular bolus administration are stressful conditions in the T. rubripes, because TTX is eventually toxic against the marine puffer fish (Saito et al., 1985). These acute-phase response genes might protect against cellular damages by large amounts of TTX. If TTX is a foreign substance to puffer fish, the administration of xenobiotics besides TTX to the puffer fish T. rubripes could affect the expression of acutephase response genes in the liver.

Lee et al. (2007), however, also found fibrinogen- and hepcidin-related genes from the toxic wild marine puffer fish *T. chrysops* and *T. niphobles* by mRNA arbitrarily-primed RT-

PCR. Expression of these genes was significantly increased in the toxic liver of puffer fish, in both toxic wild marine puffer fish *T. chrysops* and *T. niphobles* (Lee et al., 2007), and TTX-administered *T. rubripes* (present study). These results imply the involvement of fibrinogen- and hepcidin-related genes in the accumulation of TTX in the liver, although the mechanism of expression of these genes is unclear. The genes might be biologic markers associated with the accumulation of TTX in the liver of marine puffer fish.

Ikeda et al. (2009) reported an interesting finding regarding the TTX disposition in juveniles (approximately 4 months old) of T. rubripes after intramuscular administration of commercial crystalline TTX. The amount of TTX in the skin accounted for 58% that of the administered dose within 24 h of administration, despite the negligible accumulation of TTX in the liver (less than 1.6% of the administered dose). On the contrary, in the present study using adult fish (approximately 2 years old), the hepatic accumulation reached  $68 \pm 4\%$  that of the administered dose within 12 h of administration. The difference in the TTX disposition between juvenile and adult puffer fish suggests growth stage-specific accumulation of TTX in the marine puffer fish *T. rubripe*; that is, the ability of the adult puffer fish to take up and accumulate TTX in the liver. Further studies are needed to identify the genes related to the TTX disposition and to clarify the biochemical significance of TTX in marine puffer fish.

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#### **Conflict of interest**

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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#### Research Article

### Toxicity and Molecular Identification of Green Toadfish Lagocephalus lunaris Collected from Kyushu Coast, Japan

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Green toadfish Lagocephalus lunaris inhabits tropical and subtropical seas and contains high tetrodotoxin (TTX) levels in the muscle as well as liver and gonad. In 2008 to 2009, food poisoning due to ingesting L. lunais occurred in Western Japan. Five specimens of green toadfish caught in Kyushu coast, Japan, were analyzed for toxicity, toxins, and species identification. All five specimens were toxic by bioassay. Comparing the maximum toxicity in tissues, ovary contained the most toxin (1810 mouse unit [MU]/g), followed by liver (341 MU/g), muscle (135 MU/g), skin (79 MU/g), and intestine (72 MU/g). Liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry analysis revealed that TTX was the major toxin. Nucleotide sequence analysis of the 16S rRNA gene fragment of muscle mitochondrial DNA indicated that partial sequences of PCR products of four specimens were identical with that of L. lunaris. The sequence of one specimen was indistinguishable from that of the brown-backed toadfish Lagocephalus wheeleri, a nontoxic species.

#### 1. Introduction

Food poisoning incidents due to ingestion of toxic green toadfish *Lagocephalus lunaris* consecutively occurred in Western Japan in 2008 to 2009. As shown in Table 1, a total of 5 incidents including 11 victims and no death were documented. The patients exhibited symptoms similar to tetrodotoxin (TTX) poisoning, such as paralysis, nausea, vomiting, and ataxia. It is well known that puffer fish belonging to the family Tetraodontidae has a high level of TTX in liver and ovary. There are as many as 50 species of Tetraodontidae in the coasts of Japan. Among them green toadfish *L. lunaris* is a notorious species, because it contains high toxin level in even muscle and has caused severe food poisoning [1–3]. The first case was reported in 1959 when five persons ate a few pieces of the fried flesh of green toadfish

L. lunaris caught in the Vietnam Sea and developed typical signs and symptoms of TTX poisoning [4, 5].

Green toadfish *L. lunaris* usually distributes in tropical and subtropical seas including the East China Sea, the South China Sea, and the Indian Ocean but rarely appears in Japanese off coasts, temperate waters [6–12]. Therefore, less attention has been paid to *L. lunaris* in Japan. However, it is notable that the puffer fish poisoning incidents in 2008 and 2009 resulted from *L. lunaris* caught in coasts of Japan, and the patients misidentified it as brown-backed toadfish *Lagocephalus wheeleri*. It is difficult to distinguish a toxic species *L. lunaris* from a nontoxic species *L. wheeleri* that is allowed to eat in Japan, because the two species are closely similar to each other in external morphology [13] and often caught together [12]. In this study, we analyzed toxicity and toxins of *L. lunaris* collected from the Kyushu coast, Japan,

Date	Place	Number of ingestion	Number of patient
August 18, 2008	Miyazaki Pref.	6	3
August 18, 2008	Kochi Pref.	5	3
August 19, 2008	Kochi Pref.	1	• 1
October 10, 2008	Kagoshima Pref.	2	2
October 5, 2009	Kagoshima Pref.	2	2
Total		16	11

TABLE 1: Recent food poisoning incidents due to green toadfish Lagocephalus lunaris in Japan.

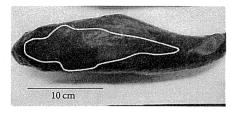


FIGURE 1: Dorsal side of green toadfish specimen. The spines extend to the base of the dorsal fin.

and identified the puffer fish by PCR amplification method from the view point of food hygiene.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Materials. Puffer fish specimens were caught by longline fishing in the Kyushu coast, Japan, on March 2001, November 2008, and February 2009. They were immediately frozen, transported to the Laboratory of Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology, and stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C until use. The puffer fish extending spines to the base of the dorsal fin were recognized as green toadfish *L. lunaris* according to the morphological identification [13]. A typical example of *L. lunaris* is shown in Figure 1.

2.2. Assay of Toxicity. After partially thawed, each specimen was dissected into five tissues such as muscle, skin, liver, intestine, and gonad (ovary or testis). The tissue samples were ground in a mortar with a pestle and homogenized with 0.1% acetic acid. TTX was extracted by heating in a boiling water bath for 10 min according to the official guidance of the Japan Food Hygiene Association [14]. The toxicity of each sample was measured by bioassay using four-week-old male ddY strain mice weighing 20 g, following the above official guideline [14]. The toxicity in the mouse bioassay was expressed as mouse unit (MU) where one MU is defined as the amount of toxin that kills a mouse in 30 min after intraperitoneal injection. All the animal experiments were performed in compliance with the fundamental guidelines for proper conduct of animal experiment and related activities in academic research institutions under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology and approved by the animal experiment committee in the Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology.

2.3. Toxin Analysis. Aliquots of the tissue extracts from sample no. 2 in Table 2 were ultrafiltered through a Vivaspin 500 (MWCO 5000, VivaScience AG, Hannover, Germany). The resulting filtrate was subjected to liquid chromatography/electron spray ionization-mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS) and analyzed for their toxin profiles as previously reported [15]. Briefly, LC/ESI-MS was performed on an alliance Zspray MS 4000 LC/ESI-MS system (Waters, Milford, Mass, USA). The analytical column was a Develosil C30-UG-5 (1.5  $\times$  250 mm, Nomura chemical, Seto, Japan). and maintained at 25°C. The mobile phase was 20 mM heptafluorobutyric acid in 10 mM ammonium formate (pH 4.0) containing 1% acetonitrile and eluted at a flow rate of 0.10 mL/min. The eluate was induced into the ion source block of ESI-MS detector and ionized by the positive ion mode with desolvation temperature at 350°C, ion source block temperature at 100°C, and cone voltage at 45 kV.

2.4. DNA Extraction and PCR Amplification of Mitochondrial 16S rRNA Gene Fragment. Total cellular DNA was extracted from muscle of each specimen with a DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit (Quiagen K.K., Tokyo, Japan) by manufacturer's instructions. In brief, 25 mg aliquots of ordinary muscle were mixed with 180  $\mu$ L Buffer ATL and 40  $\mu$ L proteinase K solution, incubated at 55°C for 1 h, and centrifuged at 20,000 ×g for 15 min. The resulting supernatants were treated with 4  $\mu$ L RNase A (100 mg/mL) for 2 min, followed by adding 200  $\mu$ L Buffer AL to incubate at 70°C for 10 min and then adding 200  $\mu$ L ethanol. DNA was purified with a DNeasy Mini Spin column. The preparations were subjected to the column, washed with each 500  $\mu$ L Buffer AW1 and Buffer AW2, successively, and eluted with 200  $\mu$ L AE Buffer.

A partial region (about 615 bp) of the mitochondrial 16S rRNA gene was amplified by the conventional PCR using universal primers (16SarL, 5'-CGCCTGTTTATC AAAAACAT-3' and 16SbrH, 5'-CCGGTCGAAACTCA GATCACGT-3') [16]. PCR was performed in  $50\,\mu\text{L}$  total volume of reaction buffer containing  $4\,\mu\text{L}$  2.5 mM dNTPs,  $1.5\,\mu\text{L}$  20  $\mu\text{M}$  of each primer,  $0.4\,\mu\text{L}$  EXTaq DNA polymerase,  $5\,\mu\text{L}$  5 × EXBuffer, and  $5\,\mu\text{L}$  extracted template DNA ( $1\,\mu\text{g}$ ). PCR was carried out with a thermal cycler PC-801 (Astec, Fukuoka, Japan). Amplifying conditions were 98°C for 30 s in denaturing, 53°C for 30 s in annealing, and 70°C for 60 s in extension for 30 cycles. The PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis in a 2% agarose gel containing SYBR

TABLE 2: Toxicity of green toadfish Lagocephalus lunaris caught in the Kyushu coast, Japan.

Sample no.	Date of sampling	Toxicity (mouse unit/g)					
		Muscle	Skin	Liver	Intestine	Ovary	Testis
1	February, 2009	<5	<5	<5	<5	29	,
2	November, 2008	109	79	341	72	1810	
3	November, 2008	15	. 26	143	. 7	302	
4	March, 2001	135	41	110	62	362	
5 .	March, 2001	8.2	15	35	14		<5

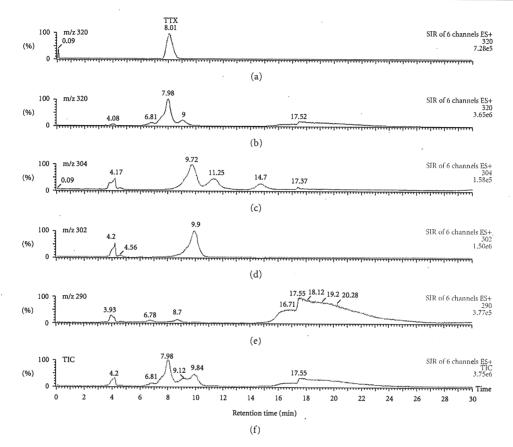


FIGURE 2: LC/ESI-MS of TTX standard (top) and the muscle extract of sample no. 2.

Safe DNA Gel Stain (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, Calif, USA) and observed with a luminescent image analyzer (LAS-4000 mini, Fujifilm Cooperation, Tokyo, Japan).

2.5. DNA Sequencing. After amplification, the PCR products were used as a template for direct sequencing. DNA was sequenced with ABI PRISM 3130 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster, Calif, USA). To identify the puffer fish species, the sequences were searched against DNASIS Taxon V3.0 for Fugu (Hitachi Solutions Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and the original database of puffer fish mitochondrial sequences in our laboratory of Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology.

#### 3. Results and Discussion

Toxicity of the green toadfish is shown in Table 2. All five individuals showed toxicity by bioassay, although there was marked individual variation in toxicity. Comparing the maximum toxicity in the organs, the ovary was the highest at 1810 MU/g, followed by liver (341 MU/g), muscle (135 MU/g), skin (79 MU/g), and intestine (72 MU/g). The toxicity of puffer fish is classified into four levels, based on the estimated minimum lethal dose (10,000 MU) of TTX in human; extremely strongly toxic (more than 1000 MU/g), strongly toxic (100–999 MU/g), weakly toxic (10–99 MU/g), and nontoxic (below 10 MU/g). Accordingly, the toxicity level of ovary was regarded as extremely strongly toxic,