Conflict of interest statement

We declare here with the undersigned that this manuscript is an original paper, which has not been published previously and has not been considered by publication elsewhere. There are also no conflicts of interests for the submitted work in financial supports, personal relationships and any organizations.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by Special Purpose on System Construction of Industrial Technology of Modern Agriculture (Shellfish, Number 47) from the Ministry Agriculture of China.

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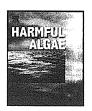
Harmful Algae 20 (2012) 11-18



Contents lists available at SciVerse ScienceDirect

Harmful Algae

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/hal



N:P ratios controlling the growth of the marine dinoflagellate *Alexandrium* tamarense: Content and composition of paralytic shellfish poison

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 7 April 2012
Received in revised form 1 July 2012
Accepted 1 July 2012
Available online 25 July 2012

Keywords: C toxin Gonyautoxin N:C ratio N-limitation N:P ratio P-limitation Toxicity

ABSTRACT

The responses of cell growth and paralytic shellfish poison (PSP) content and composition of a strain of the marine dinoflagellate Alexandrium tamarense to the availability of nitrate, ammonium, and phosphate were tested with a gradient of N:P ratios in a semi-continuous batch culture. The N:P ratios ranged from 4 to 64 and, were prepared with either a fixed phosphorus concentration at 1.56 µM-P or a fixed nitrate or ammonium concentrations at 25 μ M-N. These ratios were applied to study the responses of cell growth and PSP. Cell growth was correlated with the concentrations of nitrogen and phosphorous but was correlated with not high concentrations of ammonium, which depressed the growth due to ammonium toxicity. When the phosphate concentration was held at 1.56 μ M, the growth rate increased hyperbolically as the N:P ratio increased but decreased logarithmically at ammonium concentrations higher than 25 μ M. When nitrogen was held at 25 μ M, the growth rate decreased hyperbolically with increasing N:P ratio. The PSP consisted of C2 toxin and gonyautoxins, including GTX4, GTX3, and GTX1, in order of decreasing magnitude. The total cellular toxicities of PSP were estimated from the measurements of cellular content and the composition of C2 toxin and gonyautoxins. The cellular contents of PSP increased hyperbolically with the nitrate concentration as a result of saturated growth, and logarithmically with the ammonium concentration as a $result\ of\ depressed\ growth\ (p<0.001).\ PSP\ contents\ decreased\ logarithmically\ with\ increasing\ phosphorus$ concentration (p < 0.001). The cellular contents of PSP increased significantly with increasing N:P ratios regardless of whether nitrate or ammonium was used (p < 0.05). The most dominant toxin was C2 (about 80%), whereas the least dominant was GTX1 (less than 8%). The highest abundance of GTX was observed at an N:P ratio of 16, which usually corresponded to the transition between the initial increase and saturated phases of growth for the nitrogen variable experiment and vice versa for the phosphate variable experiment, or corresponded to the beginning of a decline in growth due to ammonium toxicity. The present study suggests that the cellular toxicities of PSP in the present strain of the dinoflagellate A. tamarense can be estimated from the N:P ratios, ranging from 4 to 64. The high total cellular toxicities of PSP observed at high N:P ratios should be considered in addition to the conventional consideration of P-limitation for further regulation of nutrients by provincial governments to reduce the aquatic damage caused by the toxic dinoflagellates in coastal waters.

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1. Introduction

Harmful algal blooms (HABs) are known to cause fish kills, poison seafood, and develop anoxic conditions at the bottom layer of water columns. As human populations place more stress on coastal waters, these blooms are becoming a more significant world-wide environmental issue, resulting in economic damage and threats to public health (Hallegraeff, 1995). One of the most harmful known algae in coastal waters is the marine dinoflagellate genus *Alexandrium*, which produces paralytic shellfish poison (PSP)

and is distributed throughout the world, for instance, along western European coasts (Collos et al., 2004), northeastern American coasts (Anderson, 1997; Cembella et al., 1988), the tropical Malaysian coast (Lim and Ogata, 2005), the northeastern Asian coast (Yamamoto and Tarutani, 1999), and the Tasmanian coast (Hallegraeff, 1993). The PSP produced by *A. tamarense* can accumulate in shellfish and other primary consumers through feeding, and consequently transfer to higher-level consumers, causing mass mortalities of vertebrates, including humans (Shimizu et al., 1975; Smayda, 1992; Anderson et al., 1994).

PSP is composed of saxitoxin (STX) and its analogs, such as gonyautoxins (GTX) and C toxin (Kellmann and Neilan, 2007). PSP primarily interferes with the functioning of sodium and calcium (Su et al., 2004) and potassium ion channels (Wang et al., 2003).

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The interference caused by PSP is a function of the toxin profile of A. tamarense. Several different toxin profiles have been reported for A. tamarense (Boyer et al., 1987; Anderson et al., 1990a; Parkhill and Cembella, 1999; Ichimi et al., 2002). These profile differences could result from phylogenetic differences among strains within A. tamarense (Scholin et al., 1994), although a detailed study has not been conducted to prove a relationship between phylogeny and toxin profile. The PSP produced by A. tamarense primarily consists of C toxin and GTX. The toxic profile of A. tamarense in eastern Japanese waters primarily consists of C2 and GTX4, GTX1, GTX3, and GTX2, in decreasing order of relative abundance (Ichimi et al., 2002), but no GTX2 is detected in western Japanese waters (Hamasaki et al., 2001; Leong et al., 2004). The relative proportions of C2 and GTX, for example, have exhibited 2- and 3-fold variations, respectively, among 20 culture strains isolated from similar locations (Ichimi et al., 2002). The total toxicity of the PSP produced by A. tamarense is dependent upon the content and composition of specific toxins.

Both the content and the composition of PSP are essential information for predicting total cellular toxicity because each toxin has a specific toxicity (Oshima, 1995). The content and composition of the PSP produced by a given strain of the genus Alexandrium have been known to be influenced by environmental conditions, such as light (Parkhill and Cembella, 1999; Hwang and Lu, 2000; Hamasaki et al., 2001), temperature (Hwang and Lu, 2000; Hamasaki et al., 2001), salinity (Parkhill and Cembella, 1999; Hwang and Lu, 2000; Hamasaki et al., 2001; Lim and Ogata, 2005), pH (Hwang and Lu, 2000), ammonium (Hamasaki et al., 2001; Leong et al., 2004), urea (Leong et al., 2004), nitrate (Boyer et al., 1987; Anderson et al., 1990b; Flynn et al., 1994; MacIntyre et al., 1997; Parkhill and Cembella, 1999; Leong et al., 2004), and phosphorous (Boyer et al., 1987; Anderson et al., 1990b; Flynn et al., 1994; Guisande et al., 2002). Among those environmental conditions, there are contrasting arguments regarding the effect of nutrients on the content and composition of PSP (Boyer et al., 1987; Anderson et al., 1990b; Flynn et al., 1994), although the relevant studies might have focused on different strains or species. Variation in the toxic composition of a strain of A. fundyense depends on either nitrogen (N)-limitation or phosphorus (P)-limitation (Anderson et al., 1990a), where GTX2 and GTX3 are favored under P-limitation C1 and C2, and GTX1 and GTX4 are favored under N-limitation.

When we combine a level of nitrate (NO₃) or ammonium (NH₄) that is high but low enough not to induce toxicity with a low phosphorus (PO₄) concentration, inducing a high N:P ratio, high cellular PSP content can be predicted in A. tamarense on the basis of the following observations. First, high concentrations of dissolved inorganic nitrogen such as NO₃ or NH₄ enhance the cellular PSP content of A. tamarense (e.g., Anderson et al., 1990b; MacIntyre et al., 1997; Leong et al., 2004). Second, a low concentration of dissolved inorganic phosphorus such as PO₄ also enhances the cellular PSP content of A. tamarense (Boyer et al., 1987; Anderson et al., 1990b; Flynn et al., 1994). Various N:P ratios can be produced by wide concentration ranges of nitrate or ammonium and phosphorus. Therefore whether similar N:P ratios comprising different combinations of nitrate or ammonium with phosphorus induce similar effects on cellular PSP content and composition is not well understood. Furthermore, a possible link between a high N:P ratio of 50, regardless of whether it is based on NO₃ or NH₄ and a high PSP content has not yet been confirmed except for A. fundyense (John and Flynn, 2000). When A. fundyense was exposed to a high N:P ratio based on NO₃ or NH₄ at a 50 µM concentration and PO₄ at a 0.3-1.0 μ M concentrations, the cellular PSP content was enhanced, but cellular PSP was not enhanced from a higher NO₃ concentration of 380 μM, which resulted in extremely high N:P ratios, such as 146 and 380. The multiple effects of the N:P ratio on the content and composition of cellular PSP have not been

systematically investigated on *A. tamarense* to our knowledge, except for John and Flynn (2000). Once the multiple effects of the N:P ratio on PSP synthesis are clarified, the physiological aspects of PSP synthesis, in addition to nutrient utilization (Rhee, 1978), can be understood in relation to the significance of biogeochemical processes with regard to N or C in the ocean (Redfield, 1958) because the patterns of change in the cellular concentrations of N, C, and toxin are closely linked.

The N:C ratio is related to relative growth rate (Goldman, 1980). The limitation of either N or P reduces the growth rate, whereas excess ammonium depresses growth rate. An increasing N:C ratio with increasing growth rate is expected under NH₄-limitation, as growth under these conditions is ultimately regulated by the N content of the cells (Sunda et al., 2009). Nitrogen is largely present in algal cells in the form of functional proteins, and thus, the higher N:C ratio associated with P-limited growth rates may simply reflect the higher requirements for metabolic enzymes and biosynthetic proteins as growth rate increases (Shuter, 1979). Leong et al. (2004) suggest that PSP synthesis appears to result from excess N availability for metabolic activities at high NO₃ or NH₄ concentrations of 100 µM, whereas at low NO₃ or NH₄ concentrations of 6 µM, intracellular N might be utilized for the maintenance of cellular materials instead. High N:C ratios of 0.07-0.20 were observed when Alexandrium fundyense was incubated at high N:P ratios based on 50 µM NO₃ or NH₄ with 1-0.3 µM PO₄ but not when the ratio was based on a high NO₃ concentration of 380 µM that resulted in extremely high N:P ratios, such as 146 and 380 (John and Flynn, 2000).

In the present study, a single strain of the dinoflagellate *A. tamarense* was grown under 5 different N:P ratios in a semicontinuous culture experiment and changes in cell growth and the content and composition of PSP were recorded. The semicontinuous mode is employed to acclimate the cells to given nutritional conditions after repetitive dilution. The stimulus for this research is the recognition that the responses of total cellular toxicity to the N:P ratio can be estimated from the cellular content and composition of PSP in *A. tamarense*. The purpose of our study was to examine the multi-dimensional relationships among NO₃ or NH₄ and PO₄ in unialgal semi-continuous cultures of a highly toxic clonal isolate from Hiroshima Bay. The variability in cell growth and the toxin content and composition of *A. tamarense* cells was related to nutritional gradients based on the N:P ratio.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cultures

Alexandrium tamarense (strain ATKR-020415) that had been isolated in 2002 during a bloom in Kure Bay, Japan, was obtained from Hiroshima University. A stock culture of A. tamarense was maintained at 17 °C and 35 psu salinity (Hamasaki et al., 1998) in a modified enriched f/2 medium without silicate (Guillard and Ryther, 1962) in aged seawater. A light intensity of 350 μ mol photons $m^{-2}\,s^{-1}$ was provided by cool fluorescent tubes (Toshiba FL40SW, Japan) under a 12L:12D cycle (Hamasaki et al., 1998). The culture was adapted semi-continuously under each experimental condition for 10 days, longer than 3 cell divisions, by transferring the culture every 2 days into a fresh medium with appropriate nutrient concentrations as described in the next section. The volume of the mother culture was determined to obtain the initial cell density, approximately 400 cells mL $^{-1}$.

2.2. Experiments

The exponentially growing cells were acclimated to each experimental set of nutrient conditions, consisting of different

combinations of NO₃ or NH₄ and PO₄ concentrations for 10 days. The concentrations of NO₃ or NH₄ were adjusted to 6, 12, 25, 50, and 100 µM-N while the PO₄ concentration was maintained at 1.56 μ M-P. Additionally, the PO₄ concentrations were adjusted to 0.375, 0.75, 1.56, 3.125, and 6.25 μ M-P while maintaining the NO₃ or NH₄ concentration at 25 μ M-N. These combinations resulted in N:P ratios of 4, 8, 16, 32, and 64. The experiments using NO₃ and NH₄ were defined as NO₃ experiments (NO₃-Exp) and NH₄ experiments (NH₄-Exp), respectively. All treatments were conducted in triplicate in 2L sterilized screw-top polycarbonate bottles and incubated in the same conditions as the stock culture. All experiments were conducted at hour 6 of the light phase to avoid a diel effect on the cultures. Duplicate subsamples were taken from each experimental bottle on day 10 for measurements of cell density, total cellular paralytic shellfish poison (PSP) content and composition, and cellular carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) contents.

2.3. Cell number measurements

Cells in the subsamples were centrifuged for 10 min at $530 \times g$. The centrifuged pellets of cells were then collected and resuspended in 250 μ L of filtered sea water. The number of cells in the subsamples was counted under a light microscope (Olympus IMT-2, Japan) using a haemacytometer (Erma 03-202-3, Japan).

2.4. Determination of PSP

The cellular PSP was determined following a modification of the method of Arakawa et al. (1995) as described by Leong et al. (2004). More than 10^5 cells collected from each experiment by centrifugation for 10 min at $530\times g$ were suspended in 1 mL of 0.03 M acetic acid and sonicated in an ice bath for 5 min. The extracts were filtered through a membrane filter with a pore size of 0.45 μm and performed on a HPLC system (Tosho, Japan) with a reverse-phase LiChroCART RP-18(e) column (4 mm \times 250 mm, Merck), except for C toxin. For the analysis of C toxin, the extract was treated with 0.05 M phosphate buffer (pH = 7.0) containing 4 mM tetrabuty-lammoniumchloride and 1% methanol and performed as mentioned above. Integrated HPLC peak areas were quantified with gonyautoxin and C toxin standards.

2.5. Estimation of total cellular toxicity

The total cellular toxicity of *A. tamarense* (Tx_{total} ; 10^7 MU cell⁻¹) was estimated from the cellular PSP content and composition obtained in this study. The toxicities (Tx) of gonyautoxins GTX1, GTX3, and GTX4 and C toxin (C2) are 2468, 1584, 1803, and 239 MU μ mol⁻¹, respectively (Oshima, 1995). The Tx_{total} under five different NO₃ based or NH₄ based N:P ratios were calculated from the cellular contents (C_T ; fmol cell⁻¹) and the Tx of GTX1, GTX3, GTX4, and C2 in NO₃-Exp and NH₄-Exp as follows:

$$Tx_{\text{total}} = \sum C_{Ti} \times Tx_i \tag{1}$$

where C_{Ti} and Tx_i were the content and toxicity of the *i*th toxin and *i* represented GTX1, GTX3, GTX4, and C2.

2.6. Total C and N measurements

Subsamples for the analyses of total cellular C and N were collected on GF/F glass fiber filters precombusted at 500 °C for 2 hours. The filtered samples were oven-dried overnight at 60 °C and stored at room temperature in a dessicator until further analysis. Total C and N were measured on an elemental analyzer (Fisions, NA 1500, Germany) with acetanilide as the working standard (Nagao et al., 2001).

2.7. Statistical analysis

All values of PSP contents were divided by cell density and reported as cellular contents.

The relationships between total cellular PSP content and nutrient concentrations (NO_3 and PO_4 concentrations in NO_3 -Exp or the PO_4 concentration in NH_4 -Exp) were fitted by a hyperbolic function:

$$Y = A + \left(\frac{B}{X}\right) \tag{2}$$

where *Y* was the total cellular PSP content and *X* was the nutrient concentrations.

A one-way ANOVA was performed to assess the differences in the total cellular PSP content and cellular N:C ratio among five different N:P ratios in NO₃-Exp and NH₄-Exp.

The differences in PSP composition and total cellular toxicity among five different N:P ratios in NO₃-Exp and NH₄-Exp were analyzed using Tukey's test to investigate each difference among all N:P ratio at p < 0.05.

Differences in the cellular N:C ratio and total cellular toxicity between NO₃-Exp and NH₄-Exp were analyzed using Student's t test at p < 0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Cell growth

The maximum growth rate obtained in the present study was $0.25~d^{-1}$. When phosphate concentrations were fixed at $1.56~\mu\text{M}$, the growth rate appeared to follow a hyperbolic-like curve in the NO_3 : PO_4 experiment (Fig. 1A), whereas in the NH_4 : PO_4 experiment, the growth rate increased with the N:P ratio up to a value of 8, and, then exhibited a logarithmic decrease with an increasing N:P ratio (p < 0.01) (Fig. 1B). When nitrate or ammonium concentrations were fixed at $25~\mu\text{M}$, the growth rate followed a hyperbolic curve with increasing PO_4 concentrations (p < 0.05, Fig. 1C and D). Notice that the axis of PO_4 concentration is reversed in Fig. 1C and D. A N:P ratio of 16 appeared to represent either the approximate intersection between the initial increase in the growth rate and the saturated level of growth rate (Fig. 1A, C, and D) or the beginning of a decrease in the growth rate (Fig. 1B).

3.2. Total cellular PSP contents

Only gonyautoxins (GTX1, GTX3, and GTX4) and C toxin (C2) were detected in the studied strain of *A. tamarense*. The total cellular PSP content, which was the sum of C2, GTX1, GTX3, and GTX4, doubled from 0.23 ± 0.025 to 0.49 ± 0.084 fmol cell⁻¹ with an increase in the N:P ratio that corresponded to an increase in the NO₃ concentration (p < 0.01, Fig. 2A) and the NH₄ concentration (p < 0.001, Fig. 2B). In contrast, the total cellular PSP content increased 0.34 times from 0.25 ± 0.083 to 0.72 ± 0.071 fmol cell⁻¹ with an increase in the N:P ratio that, corresponded to a decrease in the PO₄ concentration (p < 0.001, Fig. 2C). At a N:P ratio of 64, which corresponded to the lowest PO₄ concentration, the total cellular PSP content exhibited the highest maximum value of 0.76 ± 0.084 among the maximums of all treatments in the present study (p < 0.05, Fig. 2D). Total cellular PSP content varied with the N:P ratio in NO₃-Exp (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.001, Table 1).

3.3. PSP composition

The most dominant toxin was C2, and its highest relative abundance was 82% in NO₃-Exp (Fig. 3A and C) and 87% in NH₄-Exp

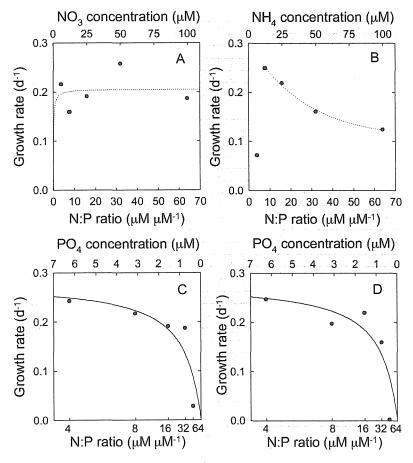


Fig. 1. The relationship between the N:P ratio (mol mol⁻¹) and growth rate (d⁻¹) of Alexandrium tamarense in NO₃:PO₄ (A), NH₄:PO₄ (B), PO₄:NO₃ (C), and PO₄:NH₄ experiments (D). Note that the x-axis of PO₄ is reversed (C and D). The dotted line indicates a hyperbolic-like curve (A). The dotted line indicates a logarithmic decrease (p < 0.01, B). The solid lines indicate a hyperbolic curve (p < 0.05, C and D).

(Fig. 3B and D). The least dominant toxin was GTX1, and its lowest relative abundance was 2.2% in NO₃-Exp (Fig. 3A and C) and 1.5% in NH₄-Exp (Fig. 3B and D). The proportion of GTX toxins in the total PSP at N:P ratios of 16 was at least 1.25 times higher than that at other N:P ratios. PSP composition varied with the N:P ratio (Tukey's test, p < 0.05, Table 1).

3.4. Cellular N:C ratio

Table 1Results of the one-way ANOVA of PSP content and N:C ratio with N:P ratio and of Tukey's test of PSP composition and toxicity with N:P ratio.

| Experiment | Source of variation | df | F | p value | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|----|-------|---------|--|--|
| One-way ANOVA | | | | | | |
| NO ₃ -Exp | PSP content with N:P ratio | 4 | 8.30 | < 0.001 | | |
| NH₄-Exp | PSP content with N:P ratio | 4 | 71.13 | < 0.001 | | |
| NO ₃ -Exp | N:C ratio with N:P ratio | 4 | 3.19 | < 0.05 | | |
| NH ₄ -Exp | N:C ratio with N:P ratio | 4 | 3.11 | < 0.05 | | |
| Tukey's test | | | | | | |
| NO ₃ -Exp | PSP composition with N:P ratio | | | < 0.001 | | |
| NH₄-Exp | PSP composition with N:P ratio | | | < 0.05 | | |
| NO ₃ -Exp | Toxicity with N:P ratio | | | < 0.05 | | |
| NH ₄ -Exp | Toxicity with N:P ratio | | | < 0.01 | | |

3.5. Total cellular toxicity

The total cellular toxicity of *A. tamarense* ranged from 1.1 ± 0.10 to $3.9\pm0.49\times10^7$ MU μ mol $^{-1}$ in NO $_3$ -Exp (Fig. 5A and C) and from 1.5 ± 0.060 to $3.4\pm0.40\times10^7$ MU μ mol $^{-1}$ in NH $_4$ -Exp (Fig. 5B and D). The values at N:P ratios higher than 16 were always significantly higher than those at lower N:P ratios in NO $_3$ -Exp (Tukey's test, p<0.05, Table 1) and in NH $_4$ -Exp (Tukey's test, p<0.01, Table 1).

4. Discussion

The maximum growth rate of 0.25 d⁻¹ obtained in the present study is approximately 84% of the maximum value reported for the same strain of A. tamarense (Leong and Taguchi, 2004), although the experimental conditions were similar in this experiment and that study. The present study confirms that a hyperbolic response in growth rate to changes in nitrate or phosphate concentrations (Fig. 1A and C) is observed for the marine dinoflagellate A. tamarense by Leong and Taguchi (2004) and Yamamoto and Tarutani (1999). When the ammonium concentration is kept under approximately 25 µM, the growth rate is a hyperbolic function of either the ammonium concentration (Fig. 1B), as observed for the marine dinoflagellate Gonyaulax polyedra by Eppley et al. (1969), or the phosphate concentration (Fig. 1D), as observed for the marine dinoflagellate A. tamarense by Yamamoto and Tarutani (1999). When the ammonium concentration is higher than 25 µM, ammonium toxicity depresses the growth rate (Fig. 1B), as confirmed by Leong and Taguchi (2004). The present study indicates that the validity of the theory of N:P ratios can only be



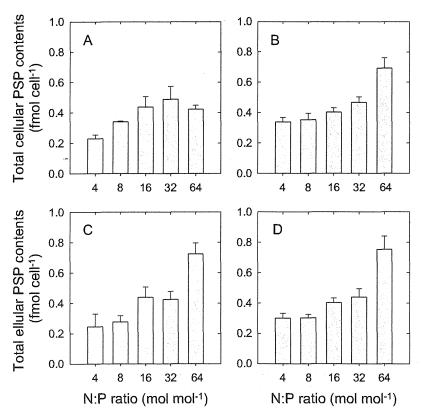


Fig. 2. Total cellular PSP contents (fmol cell $^{-1}$) of Alexandrium tamarense as a function of NO₃ concentration (A) and PO₄ concentration (C) in NO₃-Exp and as a function of NH₄ concentration (B) and PO₄ concentration (D) in NH₄-Exp. The scale of the x-axes is transformed to N:P ratios of 4, 8, 16, 32, and 64.

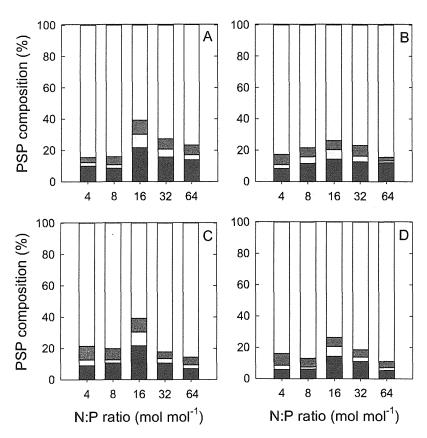


Fig. 3. PSP composition (%) of Alexandrium tamarense as a function of NO₃ concentration (A) and PO₄ concentration (C) in NO₃-Exp and as a function of NH₄ concentration (B) and PO₄ concentration (D) in NH₄-Exp. The scale of the x-axes is transformed to N:P ratios of 4, 8, 16, 32, and 64. The white and black bars, the left striped line and the right striped line indicate GTX4, GTX1, GTX3, and C2, respectively.

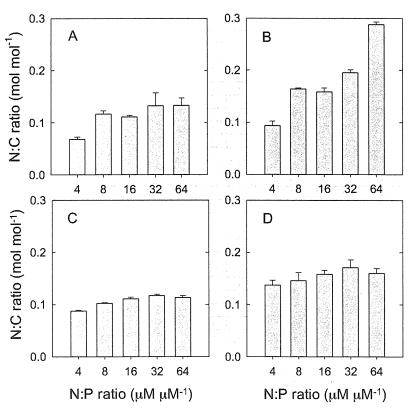


Fig. 4. The cellular N:C ratio of Alexandrium tamarense as a function of NO₃ concentration (A) and PO₄ concentration (C) in NO₃-Exp and as a function of NH₄ concentration (B) and PO₄ concentration (D) in NH₄-Exp. The scale of the x-axes is transformed to N:P ratios of 4, 8, 16, 32, and 64. Vertical bars indicate one standard deviation.

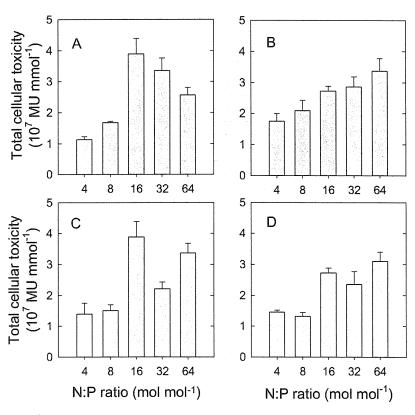


Fig. 5. Total cellular toxicity (10⁷ MU μmol⁻¹) as a function of NO₃ concentration (A) and PO₄ concentration (C) in NO₃-Exp and as a function of NH₄ concentration (B) and PO₄ concentration (D) in NH₄-Exp. The scale of the x-axes is transformed to N:P ratios of 4, 8, 16, 32, and 64. Vertical bars indicate one standard deviation.

assumed when nitrate is considered to be a nitrogen source for a wide range of concentrations.

The present study confirms the effects of varying NO₃ or NH₄ and PO₄ concentrations on the content and composition of PSP in the dinoflagellate A. tamarense, as observed for the marine dinoflagellate Alexandrium minutum (Flynn et al., 1994). The enhanced cellular PSP content of A. tamarense at a high NO3 or NH4 concentration may indicate that the availability of N in the medium plays a physiologically important role in PSP accumulation (MacIntyre et al., 1997). The increases in cellular PSP content induced by the low PO_4 concentration suggest that there might be a link between PO₄ concentration and cellular PSP content. Little explanation of the possible link between PO₄ concentration and cellular PSP content has been established. One possible explanation is a change in the rate of cell division. At low PO₄ concentrations, the intracellular P content is usually reduced to low levels. The lack of intracellular P content, which is an essential element for the production of RNA, may shut down cell division at the M phase of the cell cycle (Taroncher-Oldenburg et al., 1997). Because PSP is produced during the G1 phase of the cell cycle (Taroncher-Oldenburg et al., 1997), the discontinuation of cell division may lead to the accumulation of cellular PSP content (Lippemeier et al., 2003). Until this finding becomes conclusive, the explanation of the relationship between the PO₄ concentration and PSP accumulation remains an open question.

The present study assesses the variability of cellular PSP content in light of nutrient ratios such as N:P ratios based on either NO₃ or NH₄, and suggests that the variability in cellular PSP content is governed directly by N:P ratios (Fig. 2). The variability in cellular PSP content observed in the present study was similar for both NO₃-based and NH₄-based N:P ratios. The nutrient ratio is recognized as a good indicator of nutrient availability for phytoplankton (Moisander et al., 2003). At N:P ratios lower than the Redfield ratio of 16, phytoplankton cells might be exposed to low N and high P availabilities, and vice versa. Cells at lower ratios are regarded as N-limited (Fig. 2A and B), whereas cells at higher ratios are regarded as P-limited (Fig. 2B and D). The present study confirms that P-limitation enhances cellular PSP content. John and Flynn (2000) suggested that P-limitation induces a high cellular N:C ratio such as the ratio of 0.16 \pm 0.009 observed with a N:P ratio of 64 based on ammonium in the present study. These results appear to support secondary N synthesis such as PSP synthesis. On the basis of the findings of John and Flynn (2000) and the increase in the N:C ratio at high N:P ratios observed in the present study (Fig. 4), we suggest a high rate of PSP synthesis under P-limitation as follows. First, the cells are not able to actively divide under low P availability because of the lack of intracellular P. Second, cell volume might increase, allowing cells under high N availability to store proteins, amino acids, and PSP, which are N-rich compounds. Consequently, a high N:C ratio might be obtained under P-limitation as suggested by John and Flynn (2000). The present study may suggest that high N and low P availabilities could slow cell division and enhance the accumulation of intracellular N and PSP contents within the cells

The present study also indicates that the composition of PSP is associated with N- or P-limitation. The composition of PSP in *Alexandrium* spp. can vary as a result of N- or P-limitation in a semicontinuous experiment (Anderson et al., 1990a; MacIntyre et al., 1997). Therefore, the estimation of cellular PSP composition is also essential for estimating the toxicity of *A. tamarense*. We suggest a possible explanation of how the changes in cellular PSP composition occur based on the current knowledge of the biosynthetic pathways of specific toxins (Shimizu, 1993; Taroncher-Oldenburg et al., 1997). Taroncher-Oldenburg et al. (1997) showed that C2 is created, and then transformed into GTX2 and GTX3 and finally transformed into GTX4. GTX4 is fully produced when cells

complete toxin synthesis. The proportions of GTX toxins in the total toxin at N:P ratios lower or higher than the Redfield ratio (Redfield, 1958) may be depressed by the low accumulation of toxin in the cells due to N- or P-limitation, respectively (Fig. 3). Although the Liebig limitation along a gradient of N:P ratio is described for cell abundance by MacIntyre and Cullen (2005), the abundance of GTX toxins at the Liebig yield can also be explained to be limited below the critical ratio of 16 by nitrogen and above it by phosphate.

Under a continuous or semi-continuous supply of nutrients with a given N:P ratio, cells are able to acclimate to a newly supplied nutrient with a different N:P ratio, and the cellular PSP composition may acclimate to prospective nutrient-limiting conditions. There are contradictory arguments about the status of PSP composition even under nutrient limitation; some suggest constant PSP composition, such as Boyer et al. (1987), Cembella et al. (1988), Ogata et al. (1987), Flynn et al. (1994), and John and Flynn (2000), whereas others support variable PSP composition, such as Anderson et al. (1990a). The former findings are likely based on batch culture experiments, which feature a pulsed supply mode for nutrients. The supply mode of nitrogen is known to have consequences on the kinetic parameters of nitrogen uptake and the cellular constituents of the marine dinoflagellate A. tamarense (Leong et al., 2010). Cells might not be able to acclimate to nutrient-limiting conditions under a pulsed supply mode. In the present study, exponentially growing cells under a semi-continuous supply mode are not forced to a nutrient-exhausted condition within 2 days. Under our mode, the cells eventually acclimate to novel nutritional conditions after repetitive dilution.

In nitrogen- and phosphorous-limited semi-continuous cultures, toxin composition varied systematically with growth rate (Anderson et al., 1990a). When cells grew slowly under severe nutrient limitation, the toxin composition was dominated by one or at most two toxin epimer pairs; as nutrient stresses eased at higher growth rates, the toxin profile became more heterogeneous. Steady-state, sustained nitrogen limitation favored the production of toxin C1, C2 and GTX1 and GTX4, whereas phosphorus limitation produced cells with high relative abundances of GTX2 and GTX3. Therefore, to accurately assess cellular PSP composition, an appropriate supply mode of nutrients should be adopted to simulate the environmental conditions. The variation in cellular PSP composition observed in the present study could be useful for evaluating the composition of cellular PSP in coastal waters, where nutrients are continuously supplied from coastal urban areas via rivers.

In the present study, we assess the total cellular toxicity of A. tamarense under N (low N:P ratios)- or P (high N:P ratios)limitation to evaluate the potential toxicity of A. tamarense in coastal waters. The high total cellular toxicity at N:P ratios higher than the Redfield ratio indicates that the cells of A. tamarense may become more toxic under P-limitation than under N-limitation. Guisande et al. (2002) suggested that one possible reason for the enhancement of toxicity under P-limitation could be the ecological advantages. They postulated that cells of A. tamarense under Plimitation could avoid zooplankton grazing because of the cells' high toxicity. Certain zooplankton species, such as copepods, can distinguish toxic dinoflagellates from other natural assemblages of phytoplankton by ingesting cells and learning from trial and error (Uye and Takamatsu, 1990). Under P-limitation, the high toxicity of A. tamarense could enhance its survival ability compared with other phytoplankton. However, A. tamarense under P-limitation is not expected to grow, because any decreases in intracellular P content may discontinue the production of RNA, resulting in the interruption of cell division due to a lack of RNA. To maintain continuous growth, the ecological advantage suggested by Guisande et al. (2002) might be significant for A. tamarense to

be able to outcompete other phytoplankton species and eventually capture the limiting resource, such as P.

The recent regulation of nutrients employed by provincial governments in Japan has introduced high N:P ratios in coastal waters and lead to P-limitation. If P-limitation in coastal waters persists, A. tamarense could maintain a high cellular toxicity and contaminate other marine organisms, such as zooplankton, shellfish and fish, regardless of the magnitude of cell density in the field. To reduce the damage caused by A. tamarense, the consideration of the influence on nutrient limitation, particularly P-limitation, in the governmental regulation of nutrients would be highly recommended.

Acknowledgements

We are indebted to T. Matsumoto for assisting in the analysis of PSP. The standards for gonyautoxin and C toxin were provided by the Japan Food Research Laboratory of Fisheries Agency, Japan. We express our sincere appreciation to S.C.Y. Leong for his helpful guidance and suggestions. The present study was partly supported by the Sasagawa Scientific Research Grant (19-704M) from the Japan Science Society.[SS]

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78(3), 380–383 (2012)

平成 23 年度水産学進歩賞

フグ類の体内におけるテトロドトキシンの動態に関する研究

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Study on toxicokinetics of tetrodotoxin in puffer fish

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フグは強力な神経麻痺毒であるフグ毒テトロドトキシ ン (TTX) をもち、その主な毒化経路は海洋微生物に よる TTX 産生を出発点とするという食物連鎖説が有力 視されている。1) これは、TTX との接触を断った条件下 で人工飼育されたクサフグやトラフグは毒性を示さない こと,2-4) そして、人工飼育された無毒のクサフグやト ラフグに TTX を含む餌料を投与するとフグは毒化さ れ、高濃度のTTXを肝臓などに長期間蓄積するこ と2,5-7)が複数の研究グループによって明らかにされたこ とによる。これら給餌飼育実験から、フグでは経口的に 摂取された TTX は腸管で吸収され、血液による運搬を 経て、肝臓など特定の組織に取り込まれ濃縮蓄積すると いう一連の体内動態が成立していることが推測される (図1)。これに対し、TTXを含む餌を与えて飼育して も TTX を蓄積しなかったマアジやマダイなどでは,8) この過程の一部またはすべてが働いていないか、TTX の排出が速やかであることが予想される。そこで、私た ちはフグの毒化機構解明に資するため、薬物動態解析手 法を用いてフグ体内における TTX の動態を調べ、次 に、フグとTTX非保有魚におけるTTXの吸収、運 搬、取り込みをステップごとに比較した。フグの毒化メ カニズムは予想以上に複雑で巧妙だが、毒化機構解明の

消化管 血液 肝臓 吸収 運搬 蓄積

図1 フグにおけるテトロドトキシンの体内動態

研究ポイントは見えてきたように思う。以下に,これまでの研究概要を紹介する。

トラフグ体内における TTX の薬物動態

フグが経口的に摂取した TTX を肝臓に蓄積するには、TTX を消化管で吸収し、血液を介して運搬し、肝臓に取り込むというすべての過程をクリアしなければならない。これを検証するため、麻酔下の養殖トラフグにTTX 溶液を単回投与して、同一個体から経時的に採血する *in vivo* 実験モデルを構築して TTX の体内動態を評価した。9)

トラフグの消化管に TTX 溶液(0.25 mg TTX/kg 体重)を単回投与すると、投与 3 分後には血中から TTX が検出され、投与 30 分後に血中 TTX 濃度は最大となり、その後漸減するという 1 次吸収過程を伴う吸収曲線が得られ、トラフグ消化管で TTX は吸収されることが確認できた。

消化管内に投与した TTX がどの程度吸収されて循環血液に到達したのかを定量的に評価する指標として"バイオアベイラビリティー"がある。これは TTX 投与量と血中 TTX 濃度曲線下面積(AUC)から求めることができる。静脈投与のとき TTX は 100% 血液中に入ったことになるので,このときの AUC に対してトラフグ消化管に TTX を投与したときの AUC を比較すると,0.25 mg TTX/kg 投与のときのバイオアベイラビリティーは 62% と見積もられた。なお,腸管内に投与された TTX の大半は投与 300 分後に肝臓から検出された。

フグでは肝臓以外の組織からも TTX が検出されるので、 10 フグに投与した TTX が組織間でどのように分布するのかを調べるため、養殖トラフグの肝静脈内に TTX 溶液(0.25 mg TTX/kg 体重)を単回投与し、60 分間における血中および組織中の TTX 濃度変化を観察

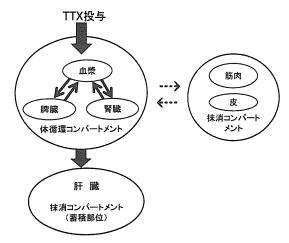


図2 トラフグにおけるテトロドトキシンのコンパート メントモデル

トラフグ肝静脈にテトロドトキシン (0.25 mg/kg 体重) を単回投与したときの状態。

した。¹¹⁾ 血中 TTX 濃度は経時的に減少し、腎臓および脾臓中 TTX 濃度は血中 TTX 濃度に並行して低下した。筋肉および皮では 60 分間の観察中、TTX 濃度に有意な増減は認められず、いずれも低いレベルで推移した。一方、肝臓中 TTX 濃度は、血中 TTX 濃度の減少に反して経時的に増加する傾向を示し、投与 60 分後の肝臓 TTX 量は投与量の 63±5% を示した。

この結果から、TTX の体内動態に関してトラフグの 組織を3つのコンパートメント(同じ挙動を示す組織 を1つの区画と考える)に分けることができる(図2)。

- ① 血中濃度と同じ挙動を示す体循環コンパートメント (腎臓、脾臓)
- ② 血中から TTX を濃縮して蓄積する抹消コンパートメント (肝臓)
- ③ 血中 TTX 濃度と瞬間的な分布平衡が成立しない 抹消コンパートメント (筋肉,皮)

したがって、トラフグの組織は TTX に対して3つの 違った働きをしていることがわかる。

このように、トラフグ消化管に投与された TTX は消化管で吸収され、血液で運搬され、比較的短時間で肝臓に移行することが in vivo 実験で確認できたので、TTX の体内動態を、①消化管における吸収、②循環血液による運搬、③肝臓への取り込み、の3つのステップに分け、それぞれ in vitro 実験モデルを構築してトラフグとTTX 非保有魚における TTX の挙動を比較検討した。

消化管における TTX の吸収

体内への TTX 取り込みの第一関門となる消化管吸収 を調べるため、反転腸管法による TTX の消化管吸収測 定法を確立し、トラフグと TTX 非保有魚を用いて TTX の消化管吸収を比較した。対照の TTX 非保有魚には、活魚で入手でき消化管が太くて丈夫なマコガレイとトラフグと同じ無胃魚のコイを用いた。

試料魚から摘出した消化管を長さ5cm 程度に切断 後、反転させて両端を結紮して反転嚢を作製した。反転 囊内に緩衝液を注入後, TTX を含む同緩衝液に浸漬し て,20℃で180分間インキュベートし,粘膜から漿膜 方向への TTX 通過速度を測定した。トラフグ消化管で は反転囊内の TTX 濃度は経時的に増加し、外部緩衝液 中の TTX 濃度が 50, 100, 200 μmol/L と高くなるに 伴い増加した。TTX非保有魚のマコガレイとコイの消 化管もトラフグ消化管と同様の傾向を示したが、180分 後のTTX 通過速度は、トラフグ (0.37 ± 0.12 pmol $TTX cm^{-2} min^{-1}$) よりもマコガレイ (1.43 ± 0.16 pmol TTX cm $^{-2}$ min $^{-1}$) \geq \exists \checkmark (1.32 ± 0.33 pmol TTX cm-2 min-1) の方が3倍以上大きかった。TTX 非保有魚の消化管でも TTX は吸収されたことから, TTX の消化管吸収はフグの毒化を決定する要因ではな いと考えられた。

血液による TTX の運搬

TTX 体内動態の第 2 のステップとして循環血液による TTX の運搬を調べるため,トラフグ血漿と対照のアイナメ血漿およびウシ血清アルブミン(BSA)を用いて,平衡透析法で TTX との結合親和性を調べた。 $^{12)}$ 実験に用いた平衡透析装置は透析膜で分離された 2 つのチャンバー(容積各 1 mL)をもち,試料側チャンバーには血漿試料あるいはタンパク質溶液と TTX の混合溶液を入れ,他方の緩衝液側チャンバーには緩衝液を入れた。本実験では,透析膜の分画分子量は 3500,平衡化のためのインキュベート時間は 48 時間,インキュベート温度は 20 $^{\circ}$ とし,試料側チャンバーに添加する TTX 濃度は $0\sim1000$ μ g TTX/mL に設定した。

TTX はトラフグ血漿タンパク質だけでなく,アイナメ血漿タンパク質や BSA とも結合した。いずれの場合も TTX 濃度が増加すると結合型 TTX 量は増え,TTX 濃度 $1000~\mu g$ TTX/mL のとき,結合型 TTX 量はトラフグ $3.92\pm0.42~\mu g$ TTX/mg protein,アイナメ $1.86\pm0.36~\mu g$ TTX/mg protein,BSA4. $65\pm0.70~\mu g$ TTX/mg protein となり,TTX はトラフグ血漿タンパク質以外にも非特異的に結合することが明らかになった。このように,トラフグのみならず TTX 非保有魚のアイナメの血漿,さらには TTX とは無縁な BSA さえも非特異的に TTX と結合することから,フグ血漿中の TTX 結合タンパク質による運搬がフグの毒化を特徴付けているわけではないと推測された。

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肝臓への TTX の取り込み

TTX は電荷をもった極性分子であるため、二重脂質膜からなる肝細胞膜を容易に通過できないと考えられる。
TTX はいったいどのようにしてトラフグ肝臓に取り込まれるのだろうか。TTX の肝細胞膜透過を明らかにするため、トラフグ肝臓から作製した組織切片を、TTX 添加した培養液中でインキュベートして TTX 蓄積量を調べる組織培養法を構築した。¹³⁾ TTX(25 μg TTX/mL)を含む培養液中、20℃で48時間培養したところ、トラフグ肝組織切片中の TTX 濃度は培養時間に伴い増加した。一方、対照に用いた TTX 非保有魚のアイナメ、イシダイ、ウマヅラハギおよびカワハギの肝組織切片では TTX 蓄積量に経時的増加はみられず、トラフグ肝臓が TTX を特異的に取り込み、蓄積することが in vitro 実験で再現できた。

次に、トラフグ肝組織切片における TTX の取り込みを詳細に検討するため、TTX 取り込み速度を測定した。¹⁴ 肝組織切片の TTX 取り込み速度は、TTX 濃度の増加に伴い上昇したが、TTX 濃度が高くなるとTTX 取り込み速度の伸びは抑制され、担体輸送の特徴である Michaelis-Menten kinetics 様の飽和性が確認された。速度論的解析の結果、これは飽和性コンポーネントと非飽和性コンポーネントに分析され、低 TTX 濃度領域では飽和性コンポーネントの寄与が大きかった。

TTX 取り込み速度は、培養液中の Na^+ をコリンに置換した場合、対照区の 6 割に低下し、測定温度を 20° から 5° にすると TTX 取り込み速度は 4 割に低下した。ウマヅラハギ肝組織切片の TTX 取り込み速度は N ラフグに比べて著しく低く、トラフグ肝組織切片で観察された飽和性や温度依存性は認められなかった。

以上の結果から、トラフグ肝臓には TTX を積極的に 細胞内へ取り込む機構が存在することが示唆された。細胞膜を介した物質の輸送速度に飽和性を示す細胞内取り 込み経路として、受容体介在型エンドサイトーシスとトランスポーターが考えられる。別の実験で、ショウサイフグとヒガンフグの肝細胞オルガネラにおける TTX の分布を調べた結果によると、遠心分離法で細胞分画した血球画分、核画分、ミトコンドリア画分、ミクロソーム画分および細胞質画分の中で、細胞質画分に 80% 以上の TTX が検出されたことから、15) TTX の輸送にはトランスポーターが関与する可能性が高いと考えられる。

今後の課題

トラフグを用いた in vivo ならびに in vitro での毒化 モデル実験から、肝臓での TTX 取り込みがフグの毒化 における主要な支配要因であることが明らかになった が、フグの毒化機構の全貌を明らかにするにはまだまだ 解決しなければならない課題が多い。例えば、給餌飼育 長島

実験で一旦毒化したフグは、毒の供給を断っても長期間 TTX を保持することが知られているので、肝臓における TTX の保持蓄積ならびに排出メカニズムは喫緊の検討課題である。これら毒化にかかわる重要な代謝メカニズムが明らかになり、科学的根拠に基づいた毒をもたない安全なフグの創出へ発展することを期待したい。

謝 辞

本研究は、東京水産大学ならびに東京海洋大学の学生と行ったもので、一緒に実験し議論し興味深い成果を生み出した研究室の学生諸氏にお礼申し上げます。本研究を遂行するにあたり、多くの師、友人、共同研究者から暖かいご指導とご支援を賜りました。東京大学大学院でマリントキシンの基礎からご指導くださった橋本周久先生、野口玉雄先生、薬物動態学のご指導を賜わった東京大学大学院薬学系研究科杉山雄一先生、楠原洋之先生に感謝申し上げます。そして、東京大学農学部水産化学研究室(当時)ならびにマリントキシン研究会の皆様には刺激と激励をいただきましたこと、東京水産大学および東京海洋大学の田口武先生、田中宗彦先生、塩見一雄先生、嶋倉邦嘉先生、石崎松一郎先生には多方面でご協力をいただきましたことを深謝します。

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小児の中毒

Ⅱ. 各論:食中毒

- 3. 自然毒食中毒
- 2) 動物性自然毒
 - ①フグ毒

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KEY WORDS

フグ、フグ毒、テトロドトキシン、食中毒、巻貝

□ I. フグ毒による食中毒の概要

「ふぐは喰いたし命は惜しい」という言葉に象徴されるように、フグは毒をもち、誤って有毒部位を食べると毒にあたり中毒死することはよく知られている。それにもかかわらずフグによる食中毒が絶えない。最近10年間(2001~2010年)に限っても、フグ食中毒は336件発生し、485人が中毒し、このうち23人が死亡した。この間の食中毒による全死亡者数は57人なので、全体の40%をフグ食中毒が占め、永年連続第1位という不名誉な地位を保っている。このように、フグ毒は食中毒のなかでも最も危険な毒であり、フグは危険な食べ物とみなされるのは仕方ないかもしれない。

なぜこのような危険なフグを私たちは食べることができるのだろうか。その前に、フグ食中毒をもう少し詳しく分析してみよう。フグ料理の季節は秋の彼岸から春の彼岸までとされているが、フグは一年を通して漁獲される。このため、フグによる食中毒事件は秋か

ら春にかけて多いものの、一年中発生している。地域別でみると、フグ食中毒は西日本で多く、広島県、兵庫県、山口県、福岡県の順となり、瀬戸内海沿岸であることが共通している。また、フグ食中毒発生の主な原因施設は家庭で、フグの肝臓や卵巣などの内臓と皮を食べての食中毒がほとんどである。すなわち、フグ食中毒の特徴は、釣り人や家庭での素人料理により、毒性の高い内臓や皮を食べて少人数規模(2001~2010年の平均として、フグ食中毒1件当たりの患者数1.4人)で中毒していることである10。

さて本題にもどるが、フグの食用は<u>原則として禁止</u>されている。食品衛生法第6条で、

「腐敗した食品、有毒・有害物質を含む食品、病原微生物に汚染された食品および不潔、異物が混入した食品の販売等は禁止」されており、フグは毒をもつのでこれに該当する。しかし、わが国では永年フグの食経験があり、適切な処理を施せばフグを安全に食することができる方策が確立しているので、

「ただし、人の健康を損なうおそれがない場

合として厚生労働大臣が定める場合においては、その限りではない」というただし書きによって<u>例外的にフグの食用が許可</u>されているのである。後述のように、フグ食の安全性を確保するため、食用可能なフグの種類と部位等を定め、さらに、フグの取扱いはフグに関する専門的な知識と高度な除毒技術をもった有資格者に限定している。したがってフグ食中毒は、フグの取扱い資格をもたない釣り人、一般家庭、飲食店が適切な処理を施さないでフグを食したり、提供した場合に発生しているのである。

創 Ⅱ. 毒性

前述のように、フグがフグ毒をもつことはよく知られているが、すべての種類のフグがフグ毒をもつわけでない。フグと名のつく魚の中でフグ毒テトロドトキシンをもつのはフグ科魚類に限られている²⁾。そして、フグの毒力は

- ・フグの種類によって異なる
- ・同一種でも組織によって異なる
- ・同一種でも個体によって異なる(個体差)
- ・同一種でも漁獲海域によって異なる (地域 差)
- ・同一種でも漁獲時期によって異なる(季節 差)

という特徴をもつ。

表1に日本沿岸で漁獲された主なフグの種類別、組織別毒力を示す²⁾。この表は、これまでに測定された試料魚のなかで最も高い毒力を表しており、すべての個体がそのレベルの毒力をもつことを表しているのではない。例えば、ドクサバフグ卵巣は"猛毒"に分類されているが、ドクサバフグの卵巣がすべて

"猛毒"レベルの毒力をもつという意味ではなく、これまでに調査したドクサバフグ卵巣の中で最も高い毒力を示したのが"猛毒"レベルに達したことを表している。したがって、トラフグ卵巣では最高毒力が"強毒"レベル止まりで、1,000マウスユニット/g^{注1}を超える"猛毒"レベルのものはこれまでになかったということである。

これは食品の安全性を考えるうえで重要である。なぜなち、フグの毒力が個体によって大きく異なるため、中に一つでも危険なものがあればほかでもそれと同じことが起こる可能性があると考えるからである。

フグ食中毒の原因物質であるフグ毒はテトロドトキシンとその誘導体から成る。現在までのところ、30以上のテトロドトキシン誘導体が単離精製され、構造が決定されている。図1にテトロドトキシンの構造を示す。テトロドトキシンは、分子式 C11H17O8N3。分子量319.27の非タンパク質性毒素で、その結晶は有機溶媒や水に不溶だが、含水アルコールや酸性溶液には可溶である。市販されているテトロドトキシン試薬は凍結乾燥品で塩になっているものが多く、それらは水に易溶である。テトロドトキシンは中性付近の水溶液中で双生イオンとなる。弱酸性溶液中では加熱に対して安定だが、中性溶液での加熱ならびにアルカリや強酸溶液中では不安定である。

テトロドトキシンは強力な神経毒で、Na チャネルに特異的に作用して Na イオンの透 過を妨げるため、筋肉の末梢神経および中枢 神経を麻痺させる。テトロドトキシンのマウ スに対する半数致死量(LD₅₀)は静脈投与 で8.7 μg/kg、腹腔内投与で10 μg/kg であ る。毒力をマウスユニットで表す場合、テト

^{は1マウスユニット (MU: 毒の毒力を表す単位。フグ毒の毒性試験はマウスに対する致死毒性で評価するためマウスユニットが用いられ、その値が大きいほど毒力は強い。例えば、1,000マウスユニット/gとは、組織1g中にマウス1,000匹を殺すことのできる毒量をもつことを表す。ここで1マウスユニットとは、検液1mLを体重20gのマウスに腹腔内投与したときマウスを30分間で死亡させる毒量と定義される。}

| 種別 | 卵巣 | 精巣 | 肝臓 | 胆のう | 皮膚 | 腸 | 筋肉 | 血液 |
|-------------|----|----|----|---------|----|---|--|----------|
| キタマクラ | x | | 0 | | 0 | 0 | х | |
| カワフグ(ヨリトフグ) | x | x | x | | x | x | x | |
| クマサカフグ | x | x | x | | x | | x | ***** |
| サバフグ | x | x | x | | x | x | х | |
| ドクサバフグ | | 0 | 0 | | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| カナフグ | 0 | x | | 0 | x | 0 | x | |
| センニンフグ | | - | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| メフグ | | x | 0 | ****** | 0 | 0 | x | - |
| シマフグ | | x | 0 | ***** | x | 0 | ж | - |
| トラフグ | 0 | x | 0 | | x | 0 | x | x |
| カラス | | 4 | | ******* | | | and the same of th | |
| クサフグ | | 0 | | ****** | 0 | | 0 | |
| ゴマフグ | | 0 | | 0 | 0 | x | 0 | ******* |
| ショウサイフグ | | 0 | | | | 0 | 0 | |
| ナシフグ | | 0 | 0 | - | | 0 | 0 | |
| マフグ | | x | | | 0 | | x | |
| コモンフグ | | 0 | | ****** | 0 | 0 | 0 | ***** |
| ムシフグ | 0 | ж | 0 | - | | 0 | х | ***** |
| ヒガンフグ | | 0 | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | х |
| アカメフグ | | x | 0 | | 0 | 0 | x | х |
| サンサイフグ | 0 | х | 0 | ****** | 0 | | x | ******** |
| ナメラダマシ | | x | 0 | ****** | 0 | 0 | x | |
| ホシフグ | 0 | x | x | ****** | 0 | 0 | x | |
| シロアミフグ | | | 0 | 0 | х | x | x | |

表 1 日本産フグ科魚類の組織別毒力

- ●:猛毒、組織1gあたり1,00MU(マウスユニット)以上の毒力
- ◎:強毒. 組織1gあたり100~999MUの毒力
- ○: 弱毒. 組織 1 g あたり10~99MU の毒力
 - x:無毒、組織1gあたり10MU未満の毒力
 - 一: 測定データなし
 - 谷の「日本産フグの毒力表」21)にその後の知見を加えた.

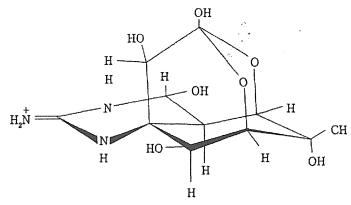


図1 テトロドトキシンの構造

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ロドトキシン 1 mg は5,000マウスユニット の毒力をもつ。

⑩ Ⅲ. 症状

フグ毒による中毒症状は食後20分から3時 間程度と短時間で現れる。中毒症状は臨床的 に4段階に分けられ、第1段階は口唇部およ び舌端に軽い痺れが現れ、指先に痺れが起こ り、歩行はおぼつかなくなる。頭痛や腹痛を 伴うことがある。第2段階は不完全運動麻痺 が起こり、嘔吐後まもなく運動不能になり、 知覚麻痺、言語障害も顕著になる。呼吸困難 を感じるようになり、 血圧降下が起こる。 つ づく第3段階は全身の完全麻痺が現れ、骨格 筋は弛緩し、発声はできるが言葉にならな い。血圧が著しく低下し、呼吸困難となる。 フグ毒中毒では意識は最後まで明瞭といわれ るが、第4段階では意識消失がみられ、呼吸 が停止する。呼吸停止後心臓はしばらく拍動 を続けるが、やがて停止し死亡する。

フグ毒中毒の最小発症量は不明だが、ヒトの致死量はテトロドトキシン換算で約1~2 mg. 毒力で3,000~10,000マウスユニット程度と推定されている。テトロドトキシンの小児に対する感受性のデータはないが、一般に、毒物による中毒は患者の体重に依存する例が多いので、小児がフグ毒中毒に罹った場合、成人よりも低用量で発症し、重篤化する可能性が考えられる。

■ IV. 処置および治療上の注意点

現在のところ、フグ毒中毒に対する効果的な治療法ならびに解毒剤はない。中毒の初期段階では、催吐や胃洗浄による胃内容物の除去も有効ではあるが、中毒が進行した場合には誤嚥の原因となる。フグ毒中毒による死亡原因は呼吸停止なので、初期症状の段階から人工呼吸を確保することが有効で確実な対処法といえる。テトロドトキシンの代謝は速

く、中毒症状を呈しても8時間程生命を維持できれば回復に向かう。中毒による後遺症はないが、フグ毒中毒に罹ってもフグ毒に対して免疫や抵抗力をもつことはない。

フグ毒中毒は細菌やウイルスによる食中毒 に比べて、摂食から中毒するまでの時間が短 く、中毒量と致死量が近く、毒量によっては 中毒症状の展開が速い急性の致死性中毒であ る。しかしながら、早期に中毒に気付き適切 な救急治療が施されれば、必ず救命できるこ とを強調しておきたい。

② V. 予防方法

フグ毒中毒の予防は、表2の『処理等により人の健康を損うおそれがないと認められるフグの種類および部位』で許可された21種類のフグの、決められた部位(筋肉、皮、精巣)を食べることである。食用可能な部位はフグの種類によって異なり、トラフグのように筋肉、皮、精巣の3部位が食用可能なもの、ショウサイフグのように筋肉と精巣だけのもの、ヒガンフグのように筋肉しか食用できないものがあるので、注意が必要である。また、フグの名称は地方によって異なるの

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| 科名 | 種類(種名) | 部 位 | | | | |
|---------|------------|-----|----------|-----|--|--|
| | | 筋肉 | 皮 | 精 巣 | | |
| フグ科 | クサフグ | 0 | | | | |
| | コモンフグ | 0 | | | | |
| | ヒガンフグ | 0 | 4990000; | | | |
| | ショウサイフグ | 0 | | 0 | | |
| | マフグ | 0 | **** | 0 | | |
| | メフグ | 0 | | 0 | | |
| | アカメフグ | 0 | | 0 | | |
| | トラフグ | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | カラス | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | シマフグ | 0 | 0 | O O | | |
| | ゴマフグ | 0 | | 0 | | |
| | カナフグ | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | シロサバフグ | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | クロサバフグ | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | ヨリトフグ | 0 - | 0 | 0 | | |
| | サンサイフグ | 0 | | | | |
| ハリセンボン科 | イシガキフグ | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | ハリセンボン | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | ヒトヅラハリセンボン | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| | ネズミフグ | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| ハコフグ科 | ハコフグ | 0 | | 0 | | |

(注)

- 1. 本表は、有毒魚介類に関する検討委員会における検討結果に基づき作成したものであり、ここに掲載されていないフグであっても、今後、鑑別法および毒性が明らかになれば追加することもある。
- 2. 本表は、日本の沿岸域、日本海、渤海、黄海および東シナ海で漁獲されるフグに適用する。ただし、岩手県 越喜来湾および釜石湾ならびに宮城県雄勝湾で漁獲されるコモンフグおよびヒガンフグについては適用しな い。
- 3. ○は可食部位.
- 4. まれに、いわゆる両性ワグといわれる雌雄同体のワグが見られることがあり、この場合の生殖巣はすべて有毒部位とする.
- 5. 筋肉には骨を、皮にはヒレを含む、
- 6. フグは、トラフグとカラスの中間種のような個体が出現することがあるので、これらのフグについては、両種とも○の部位のみを可食部位とする.

海域が限定されているもの

| 科名 | 種類 (種名) | 可食部位 | |
|-----|---|----------|--|
| | ナシフグ(有明海、橘湾、香川県および岡山県の瀬戸内海域で漁獲さ れたものに限る) | 筋肉(骨を含む) | |
| フグ科 | ナシフグ(有明海、橘湾で漁獲され、長崎県が定める要領に基づき処 理されたものに限る) | 精巣 | |

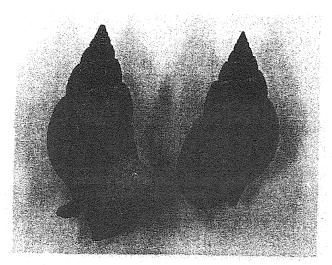


図2 キンシバイ (長崎大学水産食品衛生学研究室提供)

で、魚種の鑑別は図鑑や専門書³⁾⁴⁾をもとに 慎重に行わなければならない。厚生労働省や 地方自治体のホームページにも有毒魚介類の 写真や特徴が掲載されているので、それらも 参考にするとよい⁵⁾。フグ毒中毒は釣り人や 素人による家庭料理が多いので、都道府県条 例で定めたフグの取扱い資格を有した専門店 で購入または摂食することが確実な予防法で ある。

フグはどうして毒をもつのか? フグ毒はだれがどこで作っているのか?というフグの毒化に関する根本的な疑問について, いまだ明確な答えは得られていない。しかしながら, テトロドトキシンは自然界に広く分布しており, フグ以外にも脊椎動物のイモリ(アカハライモリ, シリケンイモリ), カエル(ヤドクガエル), 無脊椎動物のヒトデ(トゲモミジガイ), カニ (スベスベマンジュウガニ), タコ (ヒョウモンダコ), 巻貝などからもテトロドトキシンおよび誘導体が検出されている²)。テトロドトキシンは食物連鎖を加して上位の動物に移行し, 生物濃縮される6)7つ。そのため, 肉食性巻貝の中腸腺にテトロドトキシンが高濃度に蓄積されることが

あり、わが国ではボウシュウボラとバイでフグ毒中毒事例が複数発生している^{8)~10)}。さらに、2007年と2008年にそれぞれ長崎県と熊本県で腐肉食性小型巻貝のキンシバイの摂食によるフグ毒中毒が発生した¹¹⁾¹²⁾(図2)。その後の調査により、中毒発生海域で採取されたキンシバイは内臓だけでなく筋肉部の毒力も極めて高く、1,000MU/gを超える "猛毒"レベルの毒力を示すものもみられた¹²⁾。キンシバイが生息する場所で同時期に採取された他種の巻貝からは毒性はほとんど検出されなかったので、キンシバイだけ高濃度のテトロドトキシンを蓄積する理由は不明だが、キンシバイは筋肉にも著量の毒を蓄積する点でとくに注意が必要である。

日本沿岸あるいは近海で漁獲されるフグのほとんどは肝臓、卵巣、皮の毒力が強く、その毒成分はテトロドトキシンとその誘導体だが、麻痺性貝毒が検出されることがある。モヨウフグ属のホシフグでは部位によって毒成分が大きく異なり、皮ではフグ毒テトロドトキシンが、卵巣では麻痺性貝毒がそれぞれ毒の主成分であった¹³⁾。東南アジアやバング

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ラデシュの淡水産フグ Tetraodon suvatii, T. leiurus, T. cutcutia, Chelonodon patoca は、肝臓の毒力は弱いが皮の毒力が強く、そ の原因毒は麻痺性貝毒で, テトロドトキシン は検出されなかった14%。フィリピンで漁獲 された海産モヨウフグ Arothron 属はフグ毒 と麻痺性貝毒を同時にもつことも報告されて いる15)。アメリカ合衆国フロリダで漁獲さ れたヨリトフグの仲間 (Sphoeroides 属) は 麻痺性貝毒をもち、これによるフグ中毒が報 告されている16)。また、バングラデシュ産 淡水フグ Tetraodon sp.からはパリトキシン (palytoxin) に似た作用をもつ毒も検出さ れた17)。フグは種類や生息場所によって違 った毒素をもっているが、その原因はわかっ ていない。

ハコフグはフグ科ではないのでテトロドトキシンをもたないが、皮膚にパフトキシンとよばれる溶血性毒素をもつ²⁾。しかし、パフトキシンは食中毒を引き起こすことはないと考えられている。わが国でハコフグ類が原因食品とされる食中毒事例は2001年以降6件(推定を含む)報告されているが¹⁸⁾、原因物質は特定されていない。中毒した患者は肝臓を含む内臓を食し、筋肉痛やミオグロビン尿症という特異な症状を呈したため、テトロドトキシンによる中毒とは明らかに異なる。

フグ中毒とフグ毒中毒は複雑になってきており、フグ毒によらないフグ中毒(原因毒がテトロドトキシンではない)やフグ以外を原因食品とするフグ毒中毒(原因毒はテトロドトキシン)が散見される。また、地球温暖化や海流の変化が影響しているためか、これまで日本沿岸でみられなかった南方産ドクサバフグが出現しフグ中毒が発生したり¹⁹⁾、これまでの毒力レベルを超えるフグが検出されるフグの高毒性化²⁰⁾など新たな問題も懸念される。

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