

Vertical and horizontal distributions of ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* (Dinophyceae) cysts in coastal sediment with special reference to paralytic shellfish poisoning caused by tsunamis - a case study of Osaka Bay (Japan) and the southern coast of the Korean Peninsula

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Abstract: Severe damages will result in human society, when several different critical natural phenomena coincide. One example relates to the resting cysts of *Alexandrium* species (dinoflagellates that cause paralytic shellfish poisoning), which are preserved in surface sediments throughout Osaka Bay, Japan. These cysts have been found to accumulate particularly densely in shallow areas in the inner parts of Osaka Bay, where a tsunami caused by an earthquake could occur any time. Damage by a tsunami could cause a change of the coastal ecosystems at Osaka Bay including the resuspension of surface sediments containing resting *Alexandrium tamarense* cysts and the subsequent redistribution of the cysts in newly deposited sediment. Under certain environmental conditions, these cysts could germinate and form dense blooms, leading to paralytic shellfish poisoning. Such a scenario could also affect other coastal areas, including the southern coast of the Korean Peninsula.

Keywords: *Alexandrium* cyst, PSP, Osaka Bay, Tsunami, Korean Peninsula

INTRODUCTION

Coastal ecosystems are affected by changes in environmental conditions (both natural and anthropogenic), and their ongoing continuous evolution is well documented. Unusual natural phenomena, such as typhoons/hurricanes or extreme temperatures, can have severe effects on coastal ecosystems (e.g., UN Atlas of the Oceans 2005: www.oceanatlas.org/results-search/en/?querystring=2005). In particular, a tsunami caused by an earthquake, submarine landslide, or other disturbance could cause an unusual set of conditions. The tsunami that followed the Great East Japan

Earthquake in 2011 had a notable effect on the environment, mainly on coastal topography and ecosystems in coastal wetlands, on the shallow sea floor, and on the shoreline (Ecosystem Sub-Working Group 2011; Hara and Higurashi 2013). The tsunami that followed the Indian Ocean Sumatran Earthquake in 2004 reportedly affected phytoplankton populations recorded by IRS P4-Ocean Colour Monito data (Tang *et al.* 2009) and benthic ecosystems which showed large declines in abundance and diversity (Whanpetch *et al.* 2010). After the Great East Japan Earthquake, several studies related with dinoflagellate cyst ecology were performed by Nishitani *et al.* (2012), Kamiyama

et al. (2014), Natsuike *et al.* (2014), Ishikawa *et al.* (2015), and Matsuoka *et al.* (2018). These studies focused the unusual big blooms of *Alexandrium tamarense* (Lebour) Balech accompanied with paralytic shellfish poisoning (PSP) along the Sanriku Coast of East Japan.

Intensive *A. tamarense* blooms were first observed in Osaka Bay in 2002. This dinoflagellate species had not previously formed such dense blooms in Osaka Bay or caused any paralytic shellfish poisoning (PSP) incidents in the area (Yamamoto 2004). Several studies of the horizontal distributions of ellipsoidal dinoflagellate cysts identical to *A. tamarense* in Osaka Bay have been undertaken recently, and it was found that these ellipsoidal cysts are abundant in surface sediments (Yamamoto *et al.* 2009, 2011; Matsuoka and Ishii 2018). A high cyst density may play an important role in the formation of blooms by acting as a seed population. *A. tamarense* blooms now occur almost every year in the inner part of Osaka Bay and off its east coast. However, the accumulation of large numbers of *A. tamarense* cysts in coastal ecosystems can pose other important risks. For example, the coastal ecosystem and fishing industry of the Sanriku Coasts were badly affected by strong *A. tamarense* blooms caused by the germination of large numbers of cysts after the Great East Japan Earthquake (Ishikawa *et al.* 2015; Matsuoka *et al.* 2018). It has been predicted that a huge earthquake (referred to as the Tonankai Earthquake) will affect the Pacific coast of Western Japan in the near future. This earthquake and the tsunami likely to follow it will cause serious damage to the environment and to society as a whole (Osaka Prefecture 2013).

Here, we investigate the possibility of the occurrence of harmful algal blooms after the Tonankai Earthquake using data on the spatiotemporal distribution of ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts in surface sediments in Osaka Bay. We also investigate the possibility of similar effects on the south and east coasts of the Korean Peninsula, where ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts are also preserved in surface sediments.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Three 10 cm long core samples, labelled OS 2, OS 19, and OS 23, were collected in 2017. The sampling sites are marked on Figure 1. Core OS 23 was collected from the inner part of Osaka Bay, and core OS 19 was collected from the southeast coast of the bay. The samples were collected using a KK-type gravity corer (Kimata *et al.* 1960). Core OS 2 was collected from the bed at the mouth of the Yodo-Gawa

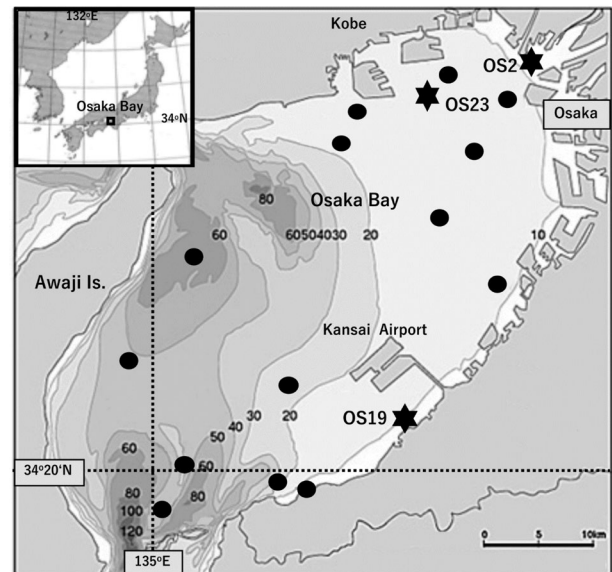


Fig. 1. Sampling locations in Osaka Bay. Closed circles (●) indicate stations used by Matsuoka and Ishii (2018), and stars (★) indicate the sites of the three cores in the present study. Numbers on the contour lines indicate water depths (m).

River. The sediment in each core was composed of medium to fine silt. The OS 19 and OS 23 cores were cut into 1 cm slices, and each slice was stored in a black plastic bottle to exclude light. Only the top and bottom 1 cm sections of the OS 2 core were analyzed due to the particular location of the sample. The samples were processed using a method described by Matsuoka and Fukuyo (2000). Each sample was treated with HCl and HF at room temperature to remove calcium carbonate and silicate particles, respectively. Each sample was then passed through 125 and 20 μm stainless steel sieves. The material that passed through the 125 μm sieve but retained by the 20 μm sieve was analyzed. Dinoflagellate cysts (including ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts) in each sample were counted by examination using an optical microscope with a magnification of 400–600. Dinoflagellate cysts were identified following the procedure described by Matsuoka and Fukuyo (2000) and Matsuoka and Ishii (2017) (Table 1).

In recent studies, new species names and combinations have been proposed for the species previously known as *A. tamarense*, *Alexandrium fundyensei* Balech, and *Alexandrium catenella* (Whedon and Kofoid) Balech (John *et al.* 2014; Fraga *et al.* 2015). However, use of the new species name *A. catenella*, instead of the old name *A. tamarense* and use of the new species name *Alexandrium pacificum* R.W. Litaker instead of the old name *A. catenella*, causes confusion when

Table 1. List of dinoflagellate cyst species found in sediment from Osaka Bay

Cyst-based name	Plankton-based name	Remarks
GONYAULACALES		
<i>Spiniferites bentori</i> (Rossignol 1964) Wall & Dale 1970	<i>Gonyaulax digitale</i> (Pouchet 1883) Kofoid 1911	
<i>Spiniferites bulloideus</i> sensu Wall (1965)	<i>Gonyaulax scrippsae</i> Kofoid 1911	non Deflandre & Cookson 1955
<i>Spiniferites delicatus</i> Reid 1974	<i>Gonyaulax</i> sp.	
<i>Spiniferites elongatus</i> Reid 1974	<i>Gonyaulax elongate</i> (Reid 1974) Ellegaard <i>et al.</i> 2003	
<i>Spiniferites hyperacanthus</i> (Deflandre & Cookson 1955) Cookson & Eisenack 1974	<i>Gonyaulax</i> cf. <i>spinifera</i> (Claparède & Lachmann 1859) Diesing 1866	
<i>Spiniferites mirabilis</i> (Rossignol 1964) Sarjeant 1970	<i>Gonyaulax</i> cf. <i>spinifera</i> (Claparède & Lachmann 1859) Diesing 1866	
<i>Lingulodinium machaerophorum</i> (Deflandre & Cookson 1955) Wall 1967	<i>Lingulodinium polyedrum</i> Dodge 1989	
<i>Operculodinium centrocarpum</i> sensu Wall & Dale (1968)	<i>Protoceratium reticulatum</i> (Claparède & Lachmann 1859) Bütschli 1885	non Deflandre & Cookson 1955
<i>Tuberculodinium vancampoae</i> (Rossignol 1964) Wall 1965	<i>Pyrophacus steinii</i> (Schiller 1935) Wall & Dale 1971	
<i>Alexandrium tamarense/catenella</i> (Ellipsoidal cyst)	<i>Alexandrium tamarense/catenella</i>	According to John <i>et al.</i> (2014), <i>Alexandrium catenella</i> is formerly attributed as <i>A. tamarense</i> and <i>A. fundyense</i> , and <i>A. pacificum</i> is formerly called as <i>A. catenella</i> in Japan.
PERIDINIALES		
<i>Brigantedinium simplex</i> (Wall 1965) Reid 1977	<i>Protoberidinium conicoides</i> (Paulsen 1905) Balech 1974	
<i>Brigantedinium cariacense</i> (Wall 1965) Reid 1977	<i>Protoberidinium avellana</i> (Meunier 1919) Balech 1974	
<i>Brigantedinium majusculum</i> Reid 1977	<i>Protoberidinium sinuosum</i> Lemmermann 1905	
<i>Brigantedinium</i> spp.	<i>Protoberidinium</i> spp.	
<i>Quinquecuspis concreta</i> (Reid 1977) Harland 1977	<i>Protoberidinium leonis</i> (Pavillard 1916) Balech 1974	
<i>Lejeunecysta</i> sp.	<i>Protoberidinium</i> sp.	
<i>Selenopemphix nephroides</i> (Benedek 1972) Benedek & Sarjeant 1981	<i>Protoberidinium subinerme</i> (Paulsen 1904) Loeblich III 1970	
<i>Selenopemphix quanta</i> (Bladford 1975) Matsuoka 1985	<i>Protoberidinium conicum</i> (Gran 1900) Balech 1974	
<i>Stelladinium reidii</i> Bradford 1975	<i>Protoberidinium compressum</i> (Abé 1927) Balech 1974	
<i>Stelladinium stellatum</i> (Wall 1965) Reid 1977	<i>Protoberidinium compressum</i> (Abé 1927) Balech 1974	
<i>Trinovantedinium applanatum</i> (Bradford 1977) Bujak & Davies 1983	<i>Protoberidinium shanghaiense</i> Gu, Liu & Mertens 2015	
<i>Votatdinium spinosum</i> Reid 1977	<i>Protoberidinium claudicans</i> (Paulsen 1907) Balech 1974	
<i>Votatdinium calvum</i> Reid 1977	<i>Protoberidinium latidosale</i> Balech 1974	
<i>Votatdinium rhomboideum</i> Gurdebeke, Mertens, Pospelova, Matsuoka, Li & Louwye 2019	<i>Protoberidinium quadriblongum</i> Sarai, Kawami, Yamaguchi & Matsuoka 2013	<i>Votatdinium calvum</i> (rhombohedral type)
Cyst of <i>Protoberidinium lattisimum</i>	<i>Protoberidinium lattisimum</i> (Kofoid 1907) Balech 1974	
Cyst of <i>Protoberidinium americanum</i>	<i>Protoberidinium americanum</i> (Gran & Braarud 1935) Balech 1974	
Cyst of <i>Protoberidinium acromaticum</i>	<i>Protoberidinium acromaticum</i> (Levander 1902) Balech 1974	

Table 1. Continued

Cyst-based name	Plankton-based name	Remarks
Cyst of <i>Protoperidinium</i> spp.	<i>Protoperidinium</i> spp.	
Cyst of <i>Peridinium quinquecorne</i> Abé	<i>Peridinium quinquecorne</i> Abé 1927	
Cyst of <i>Scrippsiella</i> spp.	<i>Scrippsiella</i> spp.	
<i>Dubridinium cavatum</i> Reid 1977	<i>Diplopsalopsis orbicularis</i> (Paulsen 1907) Meunier 1909	
Cyst of <i>Niea acanthocysta</i>	<i>Niea acanthocysta</i> (Kawami, Iwataki & Matsuoka 2006) Liu, Mertens & Gu 2015	
<i>Echinidinium aculeatum</i> Zonneverd 1997	Unknown	
<i>Echinidinium</i> spp.	Unknown	
GYMNODINIALES		
Cyst of <i>Polykrikos kofoidii</i>	<i>Polykrikos kofoidii</i> Chatton 1914	
Cyst of <i>Polykrikos schwartzii</i>	<i>Polykrikos schwartzii</i> Bütschli 1873	
Cyst of <i>Levanderina fissa</i>	<i>Levanderina fissa</i> (Levander) Moestrup, Hakanen, Hansen, Daugbjerg & Ellegaard 2014	Formerly called as Cyst of <i>Gyrodinium instriatum</i>
Cyst of <i>Cocholodinium</i> sp.	<i>Cocholodinium</i> sp.	

attempting to interpret data published before 2014. We therefore use the old species names in this study.

RESULTS

Vertical distributions of dinoflagellate cysts in the three cores samples

Dinoflagellate cysts of > 45 species in 21 genera were found in core OS 19. The cysts belonged to five genera and nine species in the Gonyaulacales, three genera and four species in the Gymnodiniales, and 13 genera and 39 species in the Peridinales. The dinoflagellate cyst densities ranged from 1,109 cysts g^{-1} at 5–6 cm deep to 2,016 cysts g^{-1} at 8–9 cm deep, and the mean cyst density was 1,563 cysts g^{-1} . (Fig. 2, Table 2). Heterotrophic dinoflagellate cysts predominated, and contributed > 70% of the cysts in each sample. The heterotrophic dinoflagellate cyst contribution increased from the bottom to the top of the sample. As shown in Figures 2 and 3, ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts were most abundant at a depth of 1–2 cm, where the cyst density was 935 cysts g^{-1} , and least abundant at a depth of 9–10 cm, where the cyst density was 11 cysts g^{-1} (Fig. 2).

Dinoflagellate cysts from > 40 species in 19 genera were identified in core OS 23. These cysts belonged to five genera and nine species in the Gonyaulacales, three genera and four species in the Gymnodiniales, and 13 genera and 39 species in the Peridinales. The dinoflagellate cyst densities ranged from 1,684 cysts g^{-1} at 7–8 cm to 3,375 cysts g^{-1} at

6–7 cm, and the mean cyst density was 2,395 cysts g^{-1} . Heterotrophic dinoflagellate cysts were extremely abundant, and contributed > 65% of the cysts throughout the core (Fig. 2, Table 2). Ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts were most abundant at 0–1 cm, where the cyst density was 616 cysts g^{-1} , and least abundant at 4–5 cm, where the cyst density was 20 cysts g^{-1} (Fig. 2).

Dinoflagellate cysts from 12 genera and 20 species were abundant in the top 1 cm of core OS 2, but few ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts, *Brigantedinium simplex* (Wall) Reid, and *Votadinium calvum* Reid were found (Table 2). Ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts were most abundant at the top of the core, where the cyst density was 1,080 cysts g^{-1} , and least abundant at the bottom of the core, where the cyst density was 190 cysts g^{-1} .

Horizontal distribution of dinoflagellate cysts in surface sediment in Osaka Bay

The results of our study and Matsuoka and Ishii (2018) are combined in Figure 5. The dinoflagellate cyst densities were higher in the northern part of Osaka Bay than elsewhere. Ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts were abundant in the northern part of Osaka Bay, at the mouth of the Yodo-Gawa River, and along the east coast of Osaka Bay (Fig. 4). The ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cyst density was highest (3,610 cysts g^{-1}) at Station 7 in Matsuoka and Ishii (2018) and lowest (4 cysts g^{-1}) at Station 3 in the same work. Ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts were abundant in the inner part of Osaka Bay, but were also found in the southern part of the bay. Other

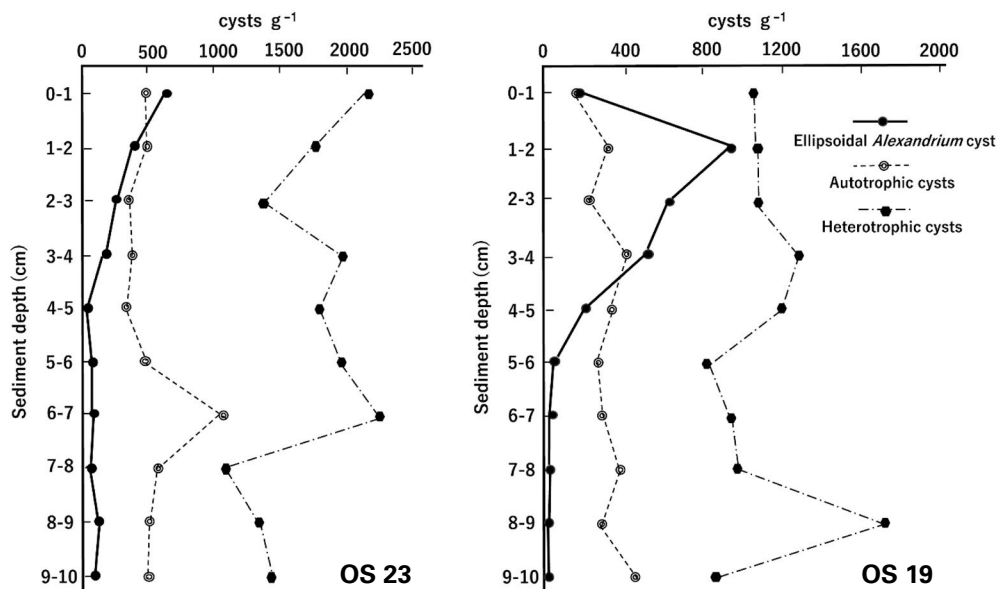


Fig. 2. Vertical distributions of three dinoflagellate cyst groups (ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts, autotrophic dinoflagellate cysts, and heterotrophic dinoflagellate cysts) in cores OS 19 and OS 23.

Table 2. Occurrences of phototrophic, heterotrophic, and ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts in sediment cores OS 19 and OS 23 from Osaka Bay

		OS19									
Sample depth (cm)		0-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10
Cyst type		cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹
Ellipsoidal <i>Alexandrium</i> cyst		168	935	620	516	195	36	33	12	12	11
Cyst of phototrophic species*		150	319	210	408	325	257	273	373	276	445
Cyst of heterotroph species		1,050	1,078	1,070	1,296	1,183	816	946	972	1,728	858
		OS 23									
Sample depth (cm)		0-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10
Cyst type		cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹	cysts g ⁻¹
Ellipsoidal <i>Alexandrium</i> cyst		616	384	242	171	20	69	75	52	120	85
Cyst of phototrophic species*		464	464	330	361	320	460	1,050	552	494	493
Cyst of heterotrophic species		2,156	1,744	1,364	1,976	1,800	1,965	2,250	1,080	1,349	1,445

*: excluding ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts.

dinoflagellate cysts were less abundant in the southern than in the northern part of Osaka Bay.

DISCUSSION

Concentrations of ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts in sediment

Hamano *et al.* (2002) stated that the first recorded PSP events caused by bivalves *Ruditapes philippinarum* (Adams & Reeve 1850), *Mytilus galloprovincialis* Lamarck, 1819, and

Crassostrea gigas (Thunberg 1793) occurred in Osaka Bay on 2002. Yamamoto (2004) reported that PSP in Osaka Bay could be caused by the dinoflagellates *Gymnodinium catenatum* H.W. Graham, *A. tamarensis*, *A. catenella*, and *Alexandrium tamiyavanichii* Balech. The year 2007 saw the first red tide (discoloration) in Osaka Bay caused by *A. tamarensis* (Yamamoto *et al.* 2009).

A PSP-causing dinoflagellate species found around Hara-Nada in the Seto Inland Sea and in Osaka Bay has been identified as *Protogonyaulax catenella* (Whedon & Kofoid) Taylor (= *A. catenella*) from the results of cyst germination



Fig. 3. Microphotographs of ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts. (A) Living cyst filled with protoplasm, (B) and (C) cysts containing protoplasm but probably not alive. The scale bar indicates 10 μm .

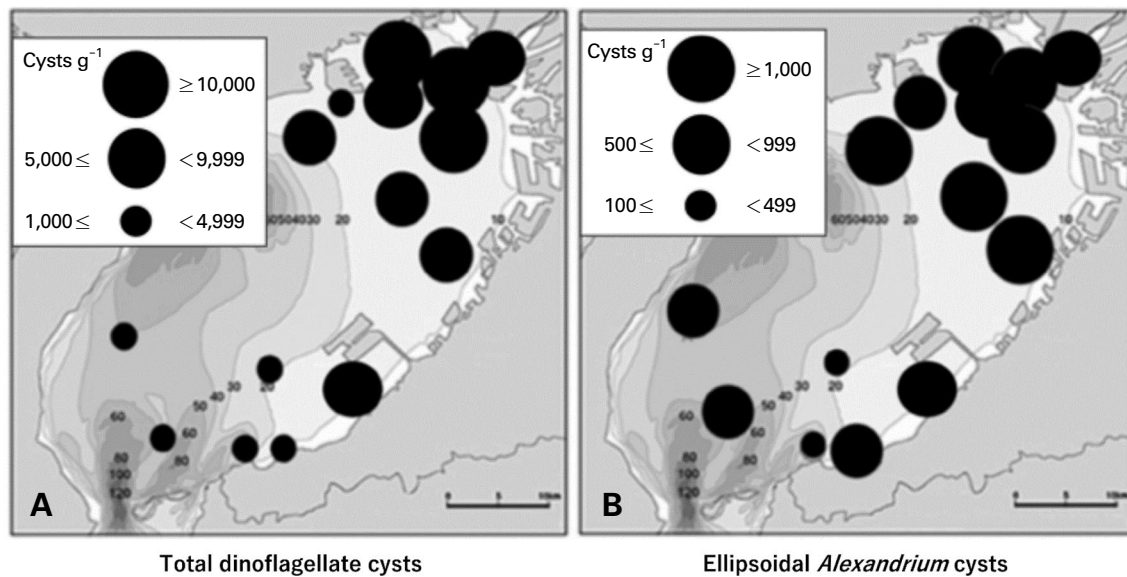


Fig. 4. (A) Horizontal distribution of total dinoflagellate cysts. (B) Horizontal distribution of ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts. Data for cores OS 2, OS 19, and OS 23 were added to Figure 7A and 7B from Matsuoka and Ishii (2018).

experiments and plankton observations (Fukuyo 1983). Interestingly, no *A. tamarense* was detected at that time. Yamaguchi *et al.* (1996) investigated the distributions and abundances of *A. tamarense* and *A. catenella* cysts in surface sediment in the eastern Seto Inland Sea, including Osaka Bay, and found high cyst densities between the inner part and middle of the east coast of Osaka Bay. Yamamoto (2004) and Nagai *et al.* (2007) suggested that the cyst-producing dinoflagellate species might be *A. tamarense* because the cyst distribution found by Yamaguchi *et al.* (1986) was similar to

those found after the *A. tamarense* blooms in 2002.

Seven PSP events and red tides caused by *A. tamarense* have been reported since 2002 (Yamamoto 2018). The ellipsoidal cysts with colourless walls found were identical to the cysts of *Alexandrium acathenella* (Whedon & Kofoid) Balech, *A. tamarense*, or *A. catenella*. However, these cysts could not be differentiated from their external morphologies, so Yamamoto *et al.* (2011) performed cyst incubation experiments and concluded that most of the ellipsoidal cysts preserved in the surface sediment were identical to *A. tama-*

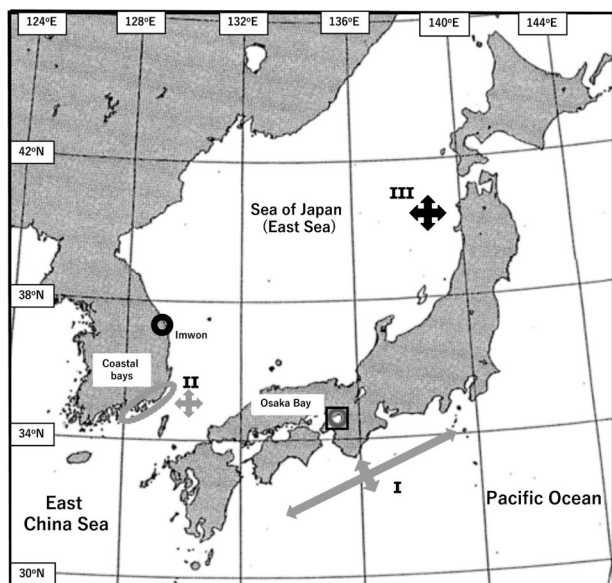


Fig. 5. Sites of possible earthquake epicenters and subsequent tsunamis that could affect coastal areas. (I) Tonankai Earthquake and Osaka Bay. The epicenter of the Tonankai Earthquake is estimated to cover a wide area along the Nankai Trough. (II) Nishiyama Fault and its northward extension and the east and south coasts of the Korean Peninsula. (III) Middle Japan Sea (Nihonkai-Chubu) Earthquake and the east coast of the Korean Peninsula. The tsunami was 3.9 m high at Imwon according to Cho (2018a).

rense cysts. *A. acathenella* was found extremely rarely, and only small amounts of *A. catenella* have ever been found in Osaka Bay. The ellipsoidal cysts related to PSP events and red tide were therefore concluded to be *A. tamarensis/catenella* (mainly *A. tamarensis*) cysts.

Ellipsoidal cysts identical to *A. catenella/tamarensis* cysts were found in all three cores, but the cyst densities varied. The cyst densities were lowest in the lower parts of the cores, and increased from the middle parts of the cores in an upward direction. The highest cyst densities were found at 0–1 cm in core OS 23 and 1–2 cm in core OS 19. A similar trend was found for core OS 2. This suggests that the production of *A. catenella/tamarensis* ellipsoidal cysts has increased strongly in recent years.

The *A. tamarensis* cyst densities in surface sediments around the world have been investigated, as shown in Table 3 in Matsuoka *et al.* (2018). The maximum cyst densities (915 cysts g^{-1} in core OS 19 and 616 cysts g^{-1} in core OS 23) were not high compared with those found in other areas. Matsuoka and Ishii (2018) found an ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cyst density of 3,610 cysts g^{-1} at station OS 5 in Osaka Bay, which was ~3 km southwest of core OS 23. Yamamoto *et al.*

(2009) found a maximum cyst density of $5,683 \pm 631$ cysts g^{-1} in wet sediment on the east coast of Osaka Bay (near core OS 19) in 2007 after an *A. tamarensis* bloom. The highest cyst density recorded after that was $90,672 \pm 11,269$ cysts g^{-1} in 2017 (unpublished data). Mizushima and Matsuoka (2004) found that empty *A. tamarensis* and *A. catenella* cysts representing after germination are not preserved well compared with the empty cysts of other dinoflagellates, because *A. tamarensis* and *A. catenella* cysts are extremely weak and have thin autophragm. More resting cysts than were counted were therefore probably produced and deposited in the surface sediment. These data suggest that ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts are widely distributed at high densities in the inner to southeastern shallow parts of Osaka Bay (Fig. 4B).

Erosion, resuspension, and redeposition of surface sediments containing ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts as caused by a tsunami

Case study of Osaka Bay

The high densities of ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts preserved in surface sediments appear to indicate a high potential risk of PSP incidents in future. *A. tamarensis* blooms have occurred regularly along the Osaka Bay coast ever since the first bloom was recorded (Yamamoto 2004, 2018). This means that cysts preserved in surface sediments may play a role in initiating new blooms. The risks posed by a tsunami after the expected Tonankai Earthquake should also be considered. According to the Osaka Prefecture (2013), a tsunami 3.2–5.1 m high will reach the Osaka Bay coast after the expected Tonankai Earthquake off central Japan. The tsunami is expected to be 5.1 m high in the innermost part of Osaka Bay (Fig. 5). The Showa Nankai Earthquake of 1946 caused a tsunami that was ~3 m high when it reached the inner part of Osaka Bay. Unfortunately, no detailed data on sediment disturbance in Osaka Bay were recorded at the time. However, we can predict the effects of a large tsunami on a shallow bay by examining data recorded after the Great East Japan Earthquake. After the tsunami that followed the Great East Japan Earthquake, *A. tamarensis* blooms were observed at Sendai Bay (Kamiyama *et al.* 2014), Kesenuma Bay (Nishitani *et al.* 2012; Ishikawa *et al.* 2015), Ofunato Bay (Kaga *et al.* 2012; Matsuoka *et al.* 2018), and Funka Bay (Natsuike *et al.* 2014). These blooms were initially caused by the germination of living cysts in sediment suspended by the tsunami. In Ofunato Bay, the maximum *A. tamarensis* cell density reached 100,600 cells L^{-1} on 26 May 2011 and 179,500–676,500 cells L^{-1} in early June 2011 (Kaga *et al.*

2012). These extremely dense blooms appeared to be related to the environmental conditions. The tsunami on 11 March 2011 eroded the Ofunato Bay sea floor by more than 25 cm, and sediment containing *A. tamarensis* cysts was resuspended and redeposited on the bottom of the sea. Ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts are more abundant in the inner part of Osaka Bay, where the water is < 20 m deep, than in other parts of the bay. This means that the sea floor could easily be eroded by a tsunami. The disruption caused by a tsunami will cause *A. tamarensis* cysts to reach unusually high concentrations near the sea bed. A water temperature of around 10°C is suitable for the germination of *A. tamarensis* cysts, so living cysts that resettle on the sea floor will start to germinate when the temperature reaches ~10°C, and dense blooms toxic to shellfish will form. A further environmental factor was also important to *A. tamarensis* blooms in Ofunato Bay. Zooplankton that are predators of *A. tamarensis* and other phytoplankton are scarce in Ofunato Bay (Yamada 2012). Strong *A. tamarensis* blooms were therefore caused by resuspension and redeposition of ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts and sediments by the tsunami, a water temperature of ~10°C (because it was early spring), and the absence of predation by zooplankton.

A high ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cyst density in sediment can therefore act as a seed population for subsequent blooms and also cause extremely large blooms after a tsunami caused by an earthquake.

Case study of the Korean Peninsula

Ellipsoidal cysts identical to *A. tamarensis* and/or *A. catenella* cysts are also found in surface sediments along the southern coast of the Korean Peninsula. Ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts were first found in Jinhae Bay by Kim (1994) and Shin *et al.* (2017, 2018) and have since been found at several locations, including Masan Bay (Kim *et al.* 2002), Gwangyang Bay (Kim *et al.* 2003, 2009), Gamak Bay (Shin *et al.* 2008, 2010), and Yeosu Bay (Shin *et al.* 2009, 2010). However, the *Alexandrium* cyst densities in these locations were < 200 cysts g⁻¹, which is low compared with the cyst densities found in Osaka Bay. The east coast of the Korean Peninsula has been affected by tsunamis several times (Cho 2018a). An earthquake called the Middle Japan Sea (Nihonkai-Chubu) Earthquake (magnitude 7.7) off Akita Prefecture in North Japan in 1983 caused a tsunami that reached the east coast of the Korean Peninsula and was 3.9 m high at Imwon, 1.56 m high at Sokucho, and 0.62 m high at Pohang (Japan Marine Science and Technology Center 1997; Cho 2018a, b) (Fig. 5). It can be seen that the Korean

Peninsula experiences tsunamis of considerable height, and may be affected by tsunamis from either the Sea of Japan (East Sea) or from near Tsushima Island. Tsunami risk for the area around Tsushima Island provided by Nagasaki Prefecture is shown in Figure 5. The highest risk of a tsunami around Tsushima Island is from the possibility of an earthquake caused by the active submarine Nishiyama Fault and its northward extensions. Such an earthquake could cause a tsunami that could be 5 m high at the Tsushima coast (Nagasaki Prefecture 2016). It can be seen that strong tsunamis could affect the east and south coasts of the Korean Peninsula. Such a tsunami would resuspend and redeposit sediment containing ellipsoidal *Alexandrium* cysts, and the cysts may then cause strong blooms and PSP. Such a scenario should be kept in mind and plans made to minimize damage that may be caused.

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