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Research Paper

First investigation of the temporal distribution of neurotoxin β-N-methylamino-L-alanine (BMAA) and the candidate causative microalgae along the South Sea Coast of Korea

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HIGHLIGHTS GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

- Neurotoxin BMAA was first detected in phytoplankton and mussels on the Korean coasts.
- Elevated concentrations of BMAA were observed from late autumn to spring.
- Phase lags were observed between phytoplankton and mussels in BMAA concentrations.
- Chl. a and BMAA accumulation exhibited a negative correlation throughout the year.
- Four genera of diatoms are proposed as BMAA-producing microalgae on the Korean coast.

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ABSTRACT

The neurotoxin β-N-methylamino-L-alanine (BMAA), produced by cyanobacteria and diatoms, has been implicated as an environmental risk factor for neurodegenerative diseases. This study first investigated the occurrence and monthly distributions of BMAA and its isomers, 2,4-diaminobutyric acid (DAB) and N-2-aminoethylglycine (AEG), in phytoplankton and mussels from 11 sites along the South Sea Coast of Korea throughout 2021. These toxins were quantified using LC-MS/MS, revealing elevated BMAA concentrations from late autumn to spring, with phase lags observed between phytoplankton and mussels. The highest concentration of BMAA in phytoplankton was detected in November (mean: 1490 ng $g⁻¹$ dry weight (dw)), while in mussels, it peaked in December (mean: 1240 ng $g⁻¹$ dw). DAB was detected in phytoplankton but was absent in mussels, indicating limited bioaccumulation potential. In February, the peak mean DAB concentration in phytoplankton was 89 ng g- 1 dw. AEG was not detected in any samples. Chlorophyll-a concentrations consistently showed an inverse correlation with BMAA concentrations in mussels throughout the year. Through correlation analysis, four diatom genera, *Bacillaria*, *Hemiaulus*, *Odontella*, and *Pleurosigma*, were identified as potential causative microalgae of

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1. Introduction

Algal biotoxins, naturally synthesized by microalgae, pose significant hazards to ecosystems and human health. The rapid proliferation of these microalgae, termed harmful algal blooms (HABs), has become increasingly prevalent worldwide, attributed to factors such as global climate change and excessive nutrient inputs [1,2]. Various microalgal groups, including cyanobacteria, diatoms, and dinoflagellates, have been identified as producers of biotoxins, each categorized by their specific harmful effects [3-7]. For instance, hepatotoxins, such as cyanobacterial microcystins and nodularins, are notorious for causing liver damage [8,9]. Neurotoxic compounds like β-N-methylamino-L-alanine (BMAA), 2,4-diaminobutyric acid (DAB), and domoic acid (DA) primarily induce neurotoxicity via excitotoxicity mechanisms [3,10-14]. Cyanobacteria and diatoms have been identified as primary producers of BMAA and DAB, whereas DA is associated with diatom blooms [4,6,15, 16]. Notably, BMAA has garnered attention as a secondary metabolite with potential neurodegenerative implications, including its association with disorders such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis-parkinsonism dementia complex (ALS-PDC) and Alzheimer's disease [17,18].

Bioaccumulation and biomagnification of BMAA have been documented globally. Bioaccumulation of BMAA has been observed in zooplankton and various invertebrate and vertebrate species inhabiting diverse ecosystems across multiple countries [17,19–36]. BMAA was detected in filter feeders, herbivores, insectivores, omnivores, piscivores, and planktivores originating from aquatic ecosystems in China, South Africa, Sweden, the USA, France, Norway, and Portugal [20,22, 27,29,31–37]. The phenomenon of BMAA biomagnification was initially identified in the terrestrial ecosystem of Guam, particularly within the food web of the indigenous Chamorro population [17]. Subsequently, instances of BMAA biomagnification within aquatic environments were observed in the Baltic Sea [26], followed by the Yellow Sea [35]. Notably, concentrations of BMAA in organisms were higher in the Yellow Sea, characterized by diatom dominance, compared to the Baltic Sea, where cyanobacteria dominate. However, because of the initial finding of cyanobacteria as BMAA producers [17], studies on diatom-dominated ecosystems are relatively limited. Distributions of BMAA were reported in diatom-abundant aquatic ecosystems in China [35] and France [33], where BMAA was commonly found being accumulated in mussels, as well as in Australia [38]. Chinese and French studies focused on marine ecosystems, while the Australian study examined freshwater ecosystems.

Diatoms are an abundant plankton group that thrives in marine ecosystems, including the South Sea Coast (SSC) of Korea [39-41]. The SSC consistently exhibits diatom dominance, with specific genera such as *Asterionellopsis*, *Chaetoceros*, *Eucampia*, *Pseudo-nitzschia*, *Skeletonema*, and *Thalassiosira* being the most prevalent [39,40]. Among these genera, *Chaetoceros*, *Pseudo-nitzschia*, *Skeletonema*, and *Thalassiosira* have been identified as producers of BMAA [28,35,42,43]. Considering that SSC serves as a central hub for aquaculture in South Korea [44], regular biotoxin monitoring is imperative to mitigate the risks associated with the occurrence of HABs [40,41]. However, the current regulatory and monitoring efforts for microalgal biotoxins, overseen by the National Institute of Fisheries Science (NIFS) in Korea [\(https://www.nifs.go.](https://www.nifs.go.kr/main.do) [kr/main.do\)](https://www.nifs.go.kr/main.do), are limited to saxitoxin causing paralytic shellfish poisoning (PSP), and okadaic acid (OA) and dinophysistoxins (DTXs) causing diarrhetic shellfish poisoning (DSP). Other marine biotoxins such as DA and its isomers, ciguatoxin, brevetoxin, azaspiracids (AZAs), pectenotoxins (PTXs), yessotoxins (YTXs), BMAA, DAB, and N-2-aminoethylglycine (AEG) have not yet been subject to regulation and monitoring. However, a recent study has revealed a spatiotemporal

pattern of AZAs, PTXs, and YTXs on the SSC, highlighting the urgency of researching unregulated and unmonitored toxins [45].

The primary objective of this study is to investigate the temporal distribution of unregulated biotoxins, such as BMAA, DAB, and AEG, in Korean marine ecosystems, focusing on the SSC. Additionally, the study aims to identify potential causative microalgae associated with these toxins. Specifically, the objectives include assessing the concentrations of these toxins in phytoplankton and mussels collected from the SSC throughout all months of 2021 and identifying specific microalgae correlated with toxin concentrations. It is noteworthy that DAB and AEG are structural isomers of BMAA; no research has been conducted on these toxins in Korean marine ecosystems. Thus, this study fills a critical knowledge gap in understanding the occurrence of these toxins in the region. Furthermore, another aim of the study is to elucidate the environmental factors that may be correlated with toxin concentrations in phytoplankton and mussels. This holistic approach provides valuable insights into toxin production and accumulation dynamics in Korean marine ecosystems.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sample collections

Mussels ($n = 118$, *Mytilus galloprovincialis*) and phytoplankton ($n =$ 132, 20–200 µm suspended particulate matter, SPM) were collected monthly at 11 sites (S1-S11) along SSC of South Korea in 2021 (Fig. 1). Detailed information on the sampling campaign was presented in our previous study [45]. At each sampling site, 10–15 wild mussels were collected using landing nets to achieve an average wet weight of approximately 50 g after deshelling and pooling. These mussels were not intended for consumption. In the laboratory, the pooled mussels were homogenized in a blender each month to ensure the representativeness of samples for each site. The samples were stored at –20 ◦C until analysis. Seawater was first filtered through a 200 µm mesh size net to remove zooplankton, followed by filtration through a 20 µm nylon net

Fig. 1. Map showing the sampling sites of phytoplankton (20-200 µm suspended particulate matter, SPM) and mussels. Phytoplankton and mussels were collected monthly from sites S1–S11 along the South Sea Coast of Korea from January to December 2021.

filter (Millipore, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) to collect phytoplankton samples. The net was towed until a sufficient amount of 20-200 µm SPM (approximately 0.1–0.5 g wet weight) was collected for BMAA analysis. The collected samples were stored at –20 ◦C until toxin extraction and analysis.

2.2. Identification of phytoplankton and measurement of water quality

Optical microscopy was used to identify phytoplankton at the genus level and to quantify their abundance based on their morphological features, as outlined in the phytoplankton identification guides by Omura et al. [46]. A collected 500 mL of seawater was fixed with 3% Lugol's solution and then concentrated to 50 mL. The Sedgewick-Rafter Chamber was utilized to distinguish the morphology of each phytoplankton genus and count their number. Water quality data, such as temperature, salinity, pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), and nutrients, were reported previously [45].

2.3. Extraction of neurotoxins

Extraction procedures were conducted based on previous methodologies [47,48] with minor modifications (Fig. S1). Briefly, for mussels, 50 mg (dry weight, dw) was dissolved in 3 mL of 0.1 mol L^{-1} trichloroacetic acid (TCA). Phytoplankton samples, freeze-dried on nylon net filters, were treated with 3 mL of TCA, followed by vertexing for 30 s to detach the plankton from the filter. This process was repeated three times. Subsequently, the same procedures were applied to both mussel and plankton samples. The samples, kept in an ice-water bath, were sonicated to minimize protein degradation, utilizing an ultrasonic homogenizer (Sonics & Material Inc., Newtown, CT) for 2 min at AMPL 30% and pulse 07 03. After incubating for 48 h at 4 ℃ and lyophilization, the samples were hydrolyzed with 1.2 mL of 6 M HCl for 20 h at 110 ℃. The samples were filtered using an Ultrafree-MC centrifugal filter (Merck Millipore, Billerica, MA) for 1 min at 10,000 g. The filtered samples were lyophilized again and reconstituted with 20 mM HCl for LC-MS/MS analysis.

2.4. LC-MS/MS analysis

The AccQ-Tag method using a WAT052880 AccQ-Tag kit (Waters, Milford, MA) was employed to derivatize the samples. BMAA and DAB standard materials were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO) and AEG from Tokyo Chemical Industry (TCI, Tokyo, Japan). The target neurotoxins BMAA, DAB, and AEG were analyzed based on methodologies described by Faassen et al. [49] and Kim et al. [42] with minor modifications, using an Agilent 1290 infinity II LC system (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) coupled with an Agilent 6470 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies). Chromatographic separation was achieved using an AccQ-Tag Ultra C18 column $(100 \times 2.1$ mm, 1.7 µm particle size, Waters), with the column temperature maintained at 40 ℃. The mobile phases consisted of 0.1% formic acid in (A) water and (B) methanol. The injection volume was 20 µL. Detailed LC-MS/MS conditions are provided in Table S1. For identification of BMAA, DAB, and AEG, one general transition (459.18 *>* 119.08) and three diagnostic transitions (459.18 *>* 258.09, 459.18 *>* 188.1, and 459.18 *>* 214.1) were monitored.

2.5. Quality control

Several studies have assessed the reliability of BMAA analysis by examining linearity, the limit of detection (LOD), the limit of quantification (LOQ), and matrix spike tests [18,27,35,50,51] (Table S2). Previous BMAA studies have recommended using different dilution ratios as an effective strategy to mitigate matrix effects $[47,52]$. In this study, 20 randomly selected extracted samples were diluted in different ratios (1:2, 1:4, and 1:8) and screened for the presence of a BMAA peak.

Among them, five samples with no BMAA peak detected were selected and spiked with BMAA at a concentration of 5 ng mL-1 to check the deviation of peak size among the samples and for each sample across three test runs, as well as to evaluate the background noise of the chromatogram. The dilution ratio of 1:4 exhibited a deviation of 6%, whereas the others showed deviations exceeding 6%. Thus, the 1:4 dilution ratio was selected for BMAA analysis and quality control. A blank sample spiked with 5 ng mL^{-1} of BMAA was run every ten samples to ensure consistent peak size and retention time, and comparisons were made between samples and between batches. The LOD for BMAA was determined as 3.143 times the standard deviation (SD) of each matrix (i. e., phytoplankton and mussels) spiked with a standard concentration of 1 ng mL⁻¹ ($n = 7$). The LOQ was set at 10 times the SD of each matrix spiked with the standard. The LOD of BMAA was found to be 7.2 ng g^{-1} dw in phytoplankton and 24.7 ng g^{-1} dw in mussels. The LOQ of BMAA was determined to be 23.0 ng g^{-1} dw in phytoplankton and 78.6 ng g^{-1} dw in mussels. The LOD and LOQ of DAB were calculated using the same approach applied for BMAA, with phytoplankton as the representative matrix. The LOD and LOQ of DAB were determined to be 20.6 and 65.6 ng g^{-1} dw, respectively. Spike recovery tests were performed using mussels as a representative matrix. Twenty ng of BMAA and DAB were spiked into 50 mg of freeze-dried BMAA-free mussels $(n = 3)$. The analytical method was performed in the same manner as described above. The recovery rates were $87 \pm 4\%$ for BMAA and $84 \pm 5\%$ for DAB, both within satisfactory ranges. Quality control was not performed on AEG due to the absence of detectable levels of AEG in all samples.

2.6. Statistical analysis

Spearman correlation analysis was employed to assess the relationship between the concentrations of BMAA in phytoplankton and mussels and environmental factors (i.e., temperature, salinity, pH, DO, Chl. a, and nutrients), given the non-normally distributed data. Additionally, the correlation between the concentrations of BMAA in phytoplankton and the cell densities of each observed microalgae was investigated, with a significance level set at *p <* 0.05. ANOVA was performed to assess the influence of temporal changes (i.e., month) and site on BMAA concentrations. Alpha and beta diversity were evaluated using the Shannon index and Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, respectively. R software (version 4.2.3) was used for the statistical analyses, and Microsoft Excel and Adobe Illustrator were used for visualization of results and rearrangement of figures. For statistical analysis, concentrations in samples below the LOD, below the LOO (but $>$ LOD), and with no detected peak were treated as LOD/2, LOQ/2, and "0", respectively.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Distributions of BMAA in phytoplankton

BMAA was detected in phytoplankton samples, with concentrations ranging from <LOD to 5130 ng g⁻¹ dw (Fig. 2a, Table 1, and Table S3). Bacillariophyceae dominated the phytoplankton community throughout the year and was more dominant in seasons with high BMAA concentrations (Fig. S2a and Table S5). No significant difference in the genus richness of phytoplankton was observed between the months (*p >* 0.05), but the composition varied, explaining 50% of the variance (Fig. S2b and S2c). Cyanobacteria have been identified as BMAA producers since 2003 [17], while diatoms were identified as producers in 2014 [6], with research on them remaining relatively limited. In addition, studies investigating the year-round temporal distribution of BMAA in diatom-dominated marine ecosystems are scarce [32,33,35], and are discussed for the first time in the present study. A relatively elevated concentration of BMAA was observed during late autumn to winter, with the highest monthly mean concentration detected in November (1490 ng g^{-1} dw), followed by February (650 ng g^{-1} dw) and December (463 ng g^{-1} dw). The concentration of BMAA in phytoplankton along the

Fig. 2. Concentrations of BMAA in **(a)** phytoplankton (20–200 µm SPM) and **(b)** mussels collected from 11 sites (S1–S11) along the South Sea Coast of Korea from January to December 2021. The numbers above the y-axis have been rounded to the nearest whole number.

SSC differed greatly from site to site, which appears to be due to the heterogeneous distribution of causative microalgae. Comparing the findings with those from China [35], the highest mean concentration of BMAA in phytoplankton in Korea surpassed that of China, albeit showing a similar seasonal pattern. In Jiaozhou Bay, China, BMAA concentrations in phytoplankton ranged from *<*LOD to 1000 ng g-1 dw, with the highest mean concentration of 470 ng g^{-1} dw in January, representing winter [35]. In contrast, the highest concentration of BMAA in phytoplankton in Thau Lagoon, France, was approximately 1000 ng g^{-1} dw, observed in September, representing late summer or early autumn [33]. Despite the distinct seasonal patterns observed for BMAA, diatoms were consistently identified as the dominant phytoplankton groups in all three countries, with diatoms isolated from Chinese and French studies identified as BMAA producers [33,35]. The research outcomes reveal variations in both the concentration and temporal distribution of BMAA in phytoplankton, particularly with diatoms serving as the causative microalgae across different countries. Remarkably, phytoplankton along the SSC of South Korea demonstrates higher concentrations of BMAA than those in Jiaozhou Bay, China and Thau Lagoon, France.

3.2. Bioaccumulation of BMAA in mussels

BMAA was detected in mussels, with concentrations ranging from *<*LOD to 2260 ng g-1 dw (Fig. 2b, Table 1, and Table S3). The variability in BMAA concentrations among sites in mussels was lower compared to the variability of BMAA observed in phytoplankton. The highest monthly mean concentration was observed in December (1240 ng g^{-1} dw) during winter, followed by March (850 ng g^{-1} dw) and April (720 ng g^{-1} dw) during spring (Table 1). BMAA concentrations in mussels in other months remained relatively low. In contrast to Korea, the seasonal pattern of BMAA accumulation in *M. galloprovincialis* was similar in the Yellow Sea and the Mediterranean Sea, with the highest BMAA concentration accumulating in September (Table 1), representing later summer or autumn in both countries [32,33,35]. The highest BMAA concentration accumulated in *M. galloprovincialis* in China and France was 6650 ng g^{-1} dw (1330 ng g^{-1} ww) and 14,400 ng g^{-1} dw, respectively, indicating potential variations in both the concentration and seasonal pattern of BMAA accumulation among countries [32,33, 35]. The study conducted in China utilized wet weight to quantify the concentration of BMAA in bivalves, crustaceans, and gastropods, with a conversion factor of 5:1 between wet and dry weights [35]. The same conversion factor was applied to mussels in this study (Table S3). Considering the observed seasonal pattern of BMAA production and its

accumulation in mussels, BMAA produced by phytoplankton in France may exhibit a higher propensity to accumulate at elevated levels in *M. galloprovincialis* than in China and Korea.

The bioaccumulation of BMAA has been documented across trophic levels in both marine and freshwater ecosystems [26,35,36]. Higher concentrations of BMAA have been observed in higher trophic-level organisms, including zooplankton, fish, bivalves, crustaceans, and gastropods. However, some studies, including this study, have presented controversial results regarding BMAA bioaccumulation, reporting lower concentrations of BMAA in marine animals compared to phytoplankton [53,54]. Further studies are needed to evaluate BMAA concentrations across different trophic-level organisms and to assess its bioaccumulation and biomagnification potentials.

The concentrations of BMAA tended to increase first in phytoplankton and then increase in mussels (Fig. 2 and Fig. S3). A phase lag in BMAA concentrations was observed between phytoplankton and mussel samples. This phenomenon was evident at specific sites (i.e., sites 1, 4, 7, and 11 from January to April, and sites 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, and 11 from November to December), as depicted in Fig. S3, and in the average concentrations across all sites along the South Sea Coast of Korea, as shown in Fig. 2. The initial increase in production and accumulation of BMAA occurred in February and March, followed by a second increase in November and December, respectively. To elaborate, while BMAA concentration in phytoplankton peaked in February and November, mussels exhibited higher concentrations in March and December, with an approximate one-month time difference. In addition, although small, the production of BMAA in phytoplankton showed a slight increase in May, which appeared to be reflected in mussels in June. This observation can be attributed to the biological half-life of BMAA in mussels. The biological half-life of an exogenous substance is the time required for half of the substance to be eliminated by biological processes [55]. This is related to the metabolic and excretion capabilities of the organism and is generally species-specific and compound-specific. The phase lag phenomenon has been documented in previous studies investigating lipophilic marine biotoxins (LMTs) within the same region (i.e., SSC) as the present study [45,56]. The determination of the phase lag relied on the half-life of biotoxins: no phase lag was observed for PTXs [45], with a known half-life of 2.9 d [57], whereas a phase lag was evident for YTXs during summer [45], with reported half-lives ranging from 20 to 24 d [58]. The reported half-life of BMAA in bivalves ranges between 9.8 and 20.4 d [55], demonstrating a duration comparable to that of YTXs. Given that this study collected samples from natural environments rather than controlled environmental experiments, various confounding

Table 1

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Concentrations of BMAA in phytoplankton and mussels collected along the South Sea Coasts in Korea obtained from this study and previously reported data from China and France.

Country $\&$						Concentration (ng g^{-1} dw)							References	
Organisms		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	
Korea														
Phytoplankton	Range	$<$ LOQ ^a -754	$53-$	$35 -$	$55 -$	$135 -$	$77-$	$47-$	$32-$	$32-$	$74-$	$102 -$	$139-$	This study ^b
$(20-200 \mu m)$			5130	419	353	983	499	371	145	420	327	3990	1200	
	Mean	334	650	159	147	384	252	186	84	202	169	1490	463	
Mussels	Range	$<$ LOQ $-$	$<$ LOQ $-$	$362-$	$387-$	$<$ LOD ^c $-$	$<$ LOQ-576	$-CLOQ-$	$\rm <\!LOD-$	$<$ LOQ $-$	$\rm <\!LOD-$	$<$ LOD $-$	$777-$	
		148	245	1500	1120	372		250	162	340	98	217	2260	
	Mean	94	155	850	720	146	196	136	55	121	36	110	1240	
China														
Phytoplankton	Range	$30 -$		ND ^d			$ND-$			$ND-$				Wang et al. $[35]$ ^e
$(20-200 \mu m)$		1000		150			110			190				
	Mean	470		30			20			50				
Mussels	Range	2250		1900 ^f						6650				
		(450) ^e		$(380)^8$						$(1330)^8$				
France ^h														
Phytoplankton	Range							400-600	180	1000	$ND-$	$\rm ND$		Réveillon et al. $[32,33]$ ⁱ
$(20-125 \mu m)$											250			
Mussels	Range	3500-3800			1000-9000				4000-14,400					

a *<*LOQ: below the limit of quantification.

b Reverse-phase liquid chromatography (RPLC)-MS/MS with AQC (6-aminoquinolyl-N-hydroxysuccinimidyl carbamate) derivatization was used for BMAA analysis. c *<*LOD: below the limit of detection.

^d ND: not detected.

e Hydrophilic-interaction chromatography (HILIC)-MS/MS without derivatization was used for BMAA analysis.

 f One sample was used in the previous study (on a dry weight basis, converted from wet weight assuming 80% water content).

 $\frac{g}{g}$ Original data (wet weight basis concentration).

^h Raw data is not available. This table provides approximate concentrations of BMAA.

ⁱ HILIC-MS/MS without derivatization was used for BMAA analysis.

factors may have influenced the results, making it challenging to identify any absolute trend. Nevertheless, the phase lag was observed both in BMAA concentrations at specific sites and in the average concentrations across all sites. Altogether, these findings suggest that the half-life of microalgal biotoxins is a critical factor affecting the accumulation period in shellfish.

3.3. DAB and AEG in phytoplankton and mussels

DAB was detected in phytoplankton samples, as shown in Fig. S4 and Table S3. No AEG was detected in any of the phytoplankton samples. The detection rate of DAB was 45% (59 out of 132), and the highest concentrations reached 386 ng g^{-1} dw (Table S3). The monthly mean concentration of DAB in phytoplankton mostly remained below the LOQ. Nevertheless, mean concentrations surpassing LOQ were observed in February (89 ng g^{-1} dw), November (86 ng g^{-1} dw), and December (82 ng g^{-1} dw). DAB was also detected in phytoplankton collected in studies in China and France; the concentrations were approximately 480 ng g^{-1} dw and 1440 ng g^{-1} dw, respectively [33,35], which were

higher than those in the SSC of Korea. In the SSC of Korea, the seasonal distribution trend of DAB in phytoplankton appeared similar to that of BMAA, suggesting that the causative microalgae of DAB might be the same or similar to those of BMAA.

Microalgae known to produce DAB include the diatoms *Halamphora coffeaeformis*, *Asterionellopsis glacialis*, *Pseudo-nitzschia delicatissima*, and *Odontella aurita* [59]. Among them, *O. aurita* showed the highest DAB production, with 5100 ng g-1 dw of DAB detected. *Odontella* has also occurred in the SSC of Korea (Table S5), and it is believed to be a potential causative microalgae of DAB. In Australia, freshwater diatoms such as *Aulacoseira*, *Cyclotella*, *Fragilaria*, *Navicula*, and *Tabellaria* have been identified as producers of DAB, with concentrations of 103, 283, 259, 5274, and 395 ng g^{-1} dw, respectively [38]. Further research is needed to assess the DAB production potential of species from these diatom genera isolated from marine and freshwater ecosystems in Korea. Meanwhile, phytoplankton abundance and Chl. a concentrations in the SSC varied depending on season and water depth $[60,61]$, suggesting that relatively high DAB and AEG concentrations may exist in phytoplankton communities living below the surface layer. The

Fig. 3. Relationships between environmental factors and concentrations of BMAA in phytoplankton and mussels. Spearman's rank correlations using **(a)** transformed raw data and **(b)** transformed monthly average values. **(c)** Monthly distributions of environmental factors and BMAA concentrations in phytoplankton and mussels. Environmental factors that showed significance in the correlation analysis were selectively highlighted (e.g., water temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, and Chl. a). ANOVA results for BMAA concentrations are presented in Table S4.

bacterial origin of DAB was demonstrated through the absence of DAB detection in diatom cultures treated with antibiotics [62] and the presence of DAB in bacteria isolated from diatom cultures [43]. Further research on DAB and AEG is imperative, particularly considering the contribution of symbiotic bacteria and water depth-stratified sampling of plankton.

In the present study, DAB and AEG were not detected in mussels (*M. galloprovincialis*) of the SSC of Korea. The bioaccumulation potential of AEG could not be assessed because AEG was not detected in phytoplankton. DAB did not exhibit bioaccumulation in shellfish, suggesting that DAB may have a shorter biological half-life than BMAA. In a previous study, DAB was detected in *M. galloprovincialis* in China, and AEG was not detected [35]. Wang et al. [35] proposed that marine animals (i. e., crustaceans, gastropods, and mollusks) in Jiaozhou Bay can effectively metabolize DAB. They observed that DAB did not biomagnify in the food web, and the concentrations of DAB were similar among marine animals. Future studies are needed to investigate the biomagnification potential and species-specific biological half-life of BMAA and DAB in coastal ecosystems.

3.4. Correlation between BMAA in phytoplankton and mussels and environmental factors

The relationship between BMAA concentrations in biological samples and environmental factors (temperature, salinity, pH, DO, Chl. a, and nutrients) was determined through correlation analysis (Fig. 3). Results indicated that pH was consistently correlated with BMAA concentration in phytoplankton when using transformed raw data and monthly mean values (Fig. 3a and b). However, considering the monthly distribution of pH and BMAA in phytoplankton using raw data revealed no correlation throughout the year (Fig. 3c). Previous studies showed that the production of BMAA is influenced by nitrogen availability in both cyanobacteria [63,64] and diatoms [28]. However, the results of this study did not show a significant correlation between the concentrations of dissolved inorganic nitrogen and BMAA, suggesting that additional research is necessary to assess the influence of multiple environmental factors on BMAA production in the causative microalgae. Chl. a, DO, and water temperature were consistently correlated with BMAA concentrations in mussels based on the correlation analyses (Fig. 3a and b). However, only Chl. a showed a year-round correlation with BMAA accumulation (Fig. 3c). Since no study has investigated the relationship between different forms of Chl. a (e.g., Chl. a in non-visible live microalgae via microscopy, Chl. a emitted from deceased microalgae, and Chl. a in herbivorous zooplanktons) and BMAA accumulation in mussels, further studies are necessary to understand the underlying reasons and mechanisms for their association. Additionally, the elevated BMAA concentrations in mussels during periods of low Chl. a concentrations necessitates further investigation. One possible explanation is that microalgae might be stimulated by copepodamides released by starved herbivorous copepods due to food scarcity (i.e., low Chl. a), potentially leading to increased BMAA production as a defense mechanism. While the correlation between copepodamides and enhanced PSP and DA production is reported [65,66], its association with BMAA production remains unclear.

3.5. Identification of causative microalgae of BMAA

Cyanobacteria and diatoms have been previously identified as BMAA producers [4,6]. A total of 30 genera of diatoms were identified in this study (Table 2 and Table S5), including *Amphora*, *Asterionellopsis*, *Bacillaria*, *Bacteriastrum*, *Cerataulina*, *Chaetoceros*, *Coscinodiscus*, *Cylindrotheca*, *Dactyliosolen*, *Detonula*, *Ditylum*, *Entomoneis*, *Eucampia*, *Guinardia*, *Gyrosigma*, *Hemiaulus*, *Leptocylindrus*, *Licmophora*, *Navicula*, *Nitzschia*, *Melosira*, *Odontella*, *Pleurosigma*, *Pseudo-nitzschia*, *Rhizosolenia*, *Skeletonema*, *Stephanopyxis*, *Thalassionema*, *Thalassiosira*, and *Lauderia*. Among the observed genera, *Chaetoceros, Pseudo-nitzschia, Skeletonema*,

Table 2

Diatom genera observed in this study, and the species reported as the producer of BMAA with the reported concentrations.

Genus in this study	Species reported as BMAA	Concentrations (ng BMAA g^{-1} dry	References
	producer	weight)	
Amphora*			
Asterionellopsis			
Bacillaria			
Bacteriastrum			
Cerataulina			
Chaetoceros	C. calcitrans	320	Réveillon et al.
			[33]
	C. calcitrans	560-1800	Réveillon et al. [43]
	C. decipiens	110	Réveillon et al. [33]
	C. diadema	260	Wang et al. [35]
	$C.$ sp.	580	Réveillon et al.
			[33]
	$C.$ sp.	260-1600	Réveillon et al. [43]
Coscinodiscus			
Cylindrotheca			
Dactyliosolen			
Detonula			
Ditylum			
Entomoneis			
Eucampia			
Guinardia			
Gyrosigma			
Hemiaulus*			
Leptocylindrus			
Licmophora			
Navicula			
Nitzschia			
Melosira			
Odontella*			
Pleurosigma*			
Pseudo-nitzschia	P. bipertita	170	Wang et al. [35]
	P. caciantha	300	Wang et al. [35]
	P. delicatissima	3050	Wang et al. [35]
	P. fraudulenta	270	Wang et al. [35]
	P. lundholmiae	1240	Wang et al. [35]
	P. multiseries	410-1350	Wang et al. [35]
	P. simulans	840	Wang et al. [35]
Rhizosolenia			
Skeletonema	S. marinoi	$1.07 - 1.1$	Jiang et al. [6]
Stephanopyxis	L,		
Thalassionema			
Thalassiosira	T. pseudonana	-0.2	Lage et al. $[28]$
	T. pseudonana	750	Réveillon et al. [33]
	T. pseudonana	170-280	Réveillon et al. $[43]$
	T. sp.	3.28	Jiang et al. [6]
	T. weissflogii	-50	Lage et al. [28]
Lauderia	ä,		

* Candidates for the production of BMAA proposed in the present study.

and *Thalassiosira* have been reported to produce BMAA, with specific species within each genus [6,28,33,43,35]. BMAA concentrations were specific to the genus as well as the species (Table 2). For species within the genus *Chaetoceros*, including *calcitrans*, *decipiens*, *diadema*, and others, BMAA concentrations ranged from 110 to 1800 ng g^{-1} dw [33, 35,43]. Similarly, for species within the genus *Pseudo-nitzschia,* such as *bipertita*, *caciantha*, *delicatissima*, *fraudulenta*, *lundholmiae*, *multiseries*, and *simulans*, BMAA concentrations ranged from 270 to 3050 ng g-1 dw [35]. *Thalassiosira* species, including *pseudonana*, *weissflogii*, and others, exhibited BMAA concentrations ranging from 2 to 750 ng g^{-1} dw [6,28, 33,43]. *Skeletonema marinoi* was also documented to produce BMAA, with concentrations reaching up to 1.1 ng g^{-1} dw [6]. Future research on BMAA should evaluate the potential of the aforementioned diatom genera and species indigenous to Korea for BMAA production.

Months with relatively high concentrations of phytoplankton were initially selected to identify the microalgal genus responsible for elevated BMAA production along the SSC. Subsequently, the similarity of environmental conditions among these selected months (January, February, November, and December) and adjacent months (March and April) was assessed. Disparities in environmental conditions between seasons were observed during periods of heightened BMAA concentrations in phytoplankton from January to February (Jan-Feb) and from November to December (Nov-Dec) (Fig. S5). These findings facilitated the identification of BMAA-producing microalgae in a season-specific manner (Fig. 4). In Jan-Feb, seven genera of diatoms (*Amphora*, *Coscinodiscus*, *Dactyliosolen*, *Eucampia*, *Gyrosigma*, *Nitzschia*, and *Stephanopyxis*), eight genera of dinoflagellates (*Alexandrium*, *Ceratium*, *Gonyaulax*, *Gymnodinium*, *Gyrodinium*, *Katodinium*, *Prorocentrum*, and *Protoperidinium*), and one genus of cryptomonad (*Cryptomonas*) was found to be correlated with the concentrations of BMAA in phytoplankton (Fig. 4a). Given the absence of dinoflagellates and cryptomonads but the presence of diatoms, which are reported BMAA producers, it is suspected that biotic stresses could be contributory factors for the elevated BMAA concentration in Jan-Feb. Biotic stresses (e.g., predation and competition) between different plankton species have been shown to stimulate the production of microalgal biotoxins [42,65,67], including BMAA [62].

Eight genera of diatoms were found to be correlated with the concentration of BMAA in phytoplankton in Nov-Dec (Fig. 4b): *Amphora*, *Bacillaria*, *Dactyliosolen*, *Hemiaulus*, *Odontella*, *Pleurosigma*, *Pseudo-nitzschia*, and *Skeletonema*. Among these genera, the increase in cell densities of *Amphora*, *Bacillaria*, *Hemiaulus*, *Odontella*, *Pleurosigma*, and *Skeletonema* corresponded with the pattern in BMAA concentration (Fig. 5). Specifically, higher cell densities of *Amphora* and a higher concentration of BMAA in phytoplankton were observed at site S1 in November compared to other sites, as well as across all sites in December. Similarly, the density of *Bacillaria* and the concentration of BMAA at sites S7 to S9 in November surpassed those at other sites in November and across all sites in December. Relatively high cell densities of *Hemiaulus* and a high concentration of BMAA were observed at site S2 in November. The cell densities of *Odontella* at sites S1, S7, and S8, as well as those of *Pleurosigma* at sites S1, S6, and S9 in November, were higher than those at the other sites, accompanied by elevated concentrations of BMAA, respectively. In terms of *Skeletonema*, higher cell densities and a greater concentration of BMAA were observed at site S8

in November compared to other sites in November and all sites in December. Among these six genera, only *Bacillaria*, *Hemiaulus*, *Odontella*, and *Pleurosigma* exhibited higher cell density in November or December compared to April, all under similar environmental conditions (Figs. S5 and S6). The average cell densities of *Bacillaria*, *Hemiaulus*, *Odontella*, and *Pleurosigma* in November were higher than in April (Fig. S6). Additionally, the average densities of *Odontella* in December were higher than in April. These findings suggest that these four diatom genera can be considered candidates for causative microalgae of BMAA in the SSC, Korea. None of these candidates have been reported as BMAA producers to date. Therefore, further investigations are necessary to evaluate the BMAA production capability of isolated diatom genera in Korea.

4. Conclusions

The present study represents the first comprehensive investigation of the occurrence and monthly distribution of the neurotoxin BMAA and the identification of its putative causative microalgae in Korean marine ecosystems. This study mainly focused on BMAA in phytoplankton and mussels in the diatom-dominated marine ecosystems. Notably, high concentrations of BMAA were detected during late autumn and spring, with phase lags observed between BMAA concentrations in phytoplankton and mussels. Furthermore, a significant negative correlation was observed between the concentration of Chl. a and BMAA in mussels. Four diatom genera, namely *Bacillaria*, *Hemiaulus*, *Odontella*, and *Pleurosigma*, were identified as candidates for BMAA-producing microalgae. In this study, we could not evaluate the production of BMAA for these candidate species; additional research is needed to isolate and culture candidate species, confirm the production of toxins, and identify the major factors for producing BMAA. Despite these limitations, this study provides a solid foundation for further BMAA research in Korea, such as the BMAA production capacity of selected diatom genera. Considering all the aforementioned findings, further studies are imperative to elucidate the underlying reasons and relevance between Chl. a and BMAA accumulation, explore allelopathic compounds that might influence BMAA production as putative defensive metabolites, understand the multimedia fate of BMAA in the environments, and assess the biological half-life of DAB.

Fig. 4. Relationships between the density of microalgae identified at genus level and BMAA concentrations in phytoplankton **(a)** from January to February and **(b)** from November to December 2021.

Fig. 5. The cell densities of eight diatom genera [(a) Amphora, (b) Bacillaria, (c) Dactyliosolen, (d) Hemiaulus, (e) Odontella, (f) Pleurosigma, (g) Pseudo-nitzschia, and **(h)** *Skeletonema*] and concentrations of BMAA in phytoplankton at 11 sites along the South Sea Coast of Korea in November and December 2021.

Environmental implication

The biotoxin β-N-methylamino-L-alanine (BMAA), which is associated with neurodegenerative diseases, is known to be produced by diverse microorganisms across various ecosystems worldwide. However, its presence has not been previously documented in the Korean coastal waters. This study represents the first observation of the occurrence and seasonal variation of BMAA along the South Sea Coast of Korea, thereby suggesting potential causative microalgae. The findings are anticipated to establish a baseline for predicting the seasonal distribution of BMAA across all Korean coasts, including the South Sea, and offer valuable insights into confirming the microalgae suspected of contributing to high BMAA production.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Sea-Yong Kim: Writing – original draft, Visualization, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Mungi Kim:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Young Kyun Lim:** Investigation, Data curation. **Seung Ho Baek:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Ji Yoon Kim:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Kwang-Guk An:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Seongjin Hong:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2024.135486.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2024.135486)

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Supplementary materials for

First investigation of the temporal distribution of neurotoxin β-Nmethylamino-L-alanine (BMAA) and the candidate causative microalgae along the South Sea Coast of Korea

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Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Instrumental conditions for analyzing neurotoxins in biological samples using LC-MS/MS.

Instrument	LC: Agilent Infinity 1290 II										
	MS/MS: Agilent 6470 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer										
Column		Waters AccQ-Tag Ultra C18, 2.1 mm \times 100 mm, 1.7 µm									
Column temperature	40 °C										
Mobile phase	(A) : 0.1% formic acid in water; (B) : 0.1% formic acid in methanol										
Mobile phase gradient	Time (min)		Mobile phase								
		A(%)	B(%)								
	0.0	99									
	0.5	99									
	1.5	95	5								
	22.0	40	60								
	23.5	95	5								
	24.0	99									
	25.0	99									
Injection volume	$20 \mu L$										
Flow rate	0.4 mL min ⁻¹										
Ion source	ESI (electrospray ionization)										
Polarity	Positive										
Ion spray voltage	2500 V										
Gas temperature	300 °C										
Sheath gas temperature	400 °C										
Nebulizer gas	N_2 (45 psi)										

Table S2. Linear range, coefficient of determination (R^2) , limit of detection (LOD), limit of quantification (LOQ), and spike test recovery of BMAA and DAB analyzed using LC-MS/MS.

Dompounds	Matrix	Linear range (ng mL $^{-1}$)	D ₂	LOD (ng g ⁻¹ dw)	LOQ (ng g ⁻¹ dw)
BMAA	Phytoplankton	$2-120(60-3600)^{a}$	0.99		23.0
BMAA	Mussel	$2-100(80-4000)$	0.99	24.7	78.6
DAB	Phytoplankton	$2 - 200(60 - 6000)$	0.99	20.6	65.6

 $a: Linear range in ng g⁻¹$

Month	Sites	Concentration of BMAA (ng g^{-1} dw ^a)		Concentration of DAB (ng g^{-1} dw)				
		Phytoplankton	Mussels	Phytoplankton	Mussels			
Jan.	S1	706	$139(28)^{b}$	$<$ LOQ ^d	$<$ LOD \circ			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S2}}$	209	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S3	301	117(23)	69	$<$ LOD			
	S4	575	107(21)	$80\,$	$<$ LOD			
	S5	270	131 (26)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S ₆	294	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S7}}$	$<$ LOQ	110(22)	98	$<$ LOD			
	${\rm S}8$	147	126(25)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S9	293	148 (30)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S10	754	$<$ LOQ	80	$<$ LOD			
	S11	117	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
Feb.	S1	5127	200(40)	386	$<$ LOD			
	S ₂	186	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S3	337	245 (49)	107	$<$ LOD			
	S4	339	194 (39)	80	$<$ LOD			
	S5	226	172 (34)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S ₆	134	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S7}}$	384	134(27)	198	$<$ LOD			
	${\bf S8}$	108	114(23)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S9	53	215(43)	$<$ LOD	$<$ LOD			
	S10	76	196 (39)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S11	179	158 (32)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
Mar.	S1	41	1232 (246)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S2}}$	120	561 (112)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S3	109	575 (115)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S4	44	526 (105)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S5	217	800 (160)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S ₆	105	823 (165)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S7	419	582 (116)	154	$<$ LOD			
	${\rm S}8$	184	362(72)	67	$<$ LOD			
	S9	214	1500 (300)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S10	35	1365 (273)	$<$ LOD	$<$ LOD			
	S11	257	1020 (204)	85	$<$ LOD			
Apr.	S1	154	559 (112)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S2}}$	55	568 (114)	72	$<$ LOD			
	S ₃	165	478 (96)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S4	80	523 (105)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S ₅	81	625 (125)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S ₆	107	451 (90)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S7}}$	$81\,$	994 (199)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	${\rm S}8$	178	387 (77)	79	$<$ LOD			
	S9	183	1110 (222)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S10	179	1119 (224)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S11	353	1109 (222)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
May.	S1	218	130(26)	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S2}}$	363	$<$ LOD	$<$ LOQ	$<$ LOD			
	S3	234	94 (19)	71	$<$ LOD			
	S4	135	$<$ LOD	67	$<$ LOD			
	S ₅	678	115(23)	83	$<$ LOD			
	S ₆	560	147 (29)	76	$<$ LOD			
	$\ensuremath{\mathrm{S7}}$	146	167(33)	55	$<$ LOD			

Table S3. Concentrations of BMAA and DAB in phytoplankton and mussels along the South Sea Coast of Korea from January to December 2021.

^a dw: Dry weight.
^b: Concentrations in ng g⁻¹ wet weight based on a conversion factor of 5:1 between wet weight and dry weight.

^c < LOD: Below limit of detection.

^d < LOQ: Below limit of quantification.
^e -: Not collected.

	Month			Site			
	df			df			
Phyto-BMAA		4.76	< 0.001	10	0.09	0.38	
Mussel-BMAA		37.45	< 0.001	10	1.36	0.21	

Table S4. ANOVA results for BMAA concentrations in phytoplankton and mussels along the South Sea Coast of Korea from January to December 2021.

Month	Genus		Density (cells L^{-1})									
		$\overline{\text{st.1}}$	$\overline{\text{st.2}}$	$\overline{\text{st.3}}$	st.4	$\overline{\text{st.5}}$	st.6	$\overline{\text{st.7}}$	st.8	$\overline{\text{st.9}}$	st.10	st.11
Jan.	Amphora	$\overline{0}$	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	454	θ	Ω	1615
	Asterionellopsis	Ω	Ω	Ω	$\overline{0}$	857	433	θ	0	Ω	Ω	O
	Bacillaria	Ω	θ	θ	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω	
	Bacteriastrum	Ω	θ	Ω		Ω	θ	Ω	θ	0	Ω	
	Cerataulina	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	0	Ω	
	Chaetoceros	6936	135393	10242	60242	71098	45886	15634	3631	11571	10819	18570
	Cosinodiscus	$\overline{0}$	θ	0	$\mathbf{0}$	2	2	0	4	4	28	10
	Cylindrotheca	462	θ	θ	0	θ	433	θ	454	890	1664	0
	Dactyliosolen	θ	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	$\mathbf{0}$	Ω	$\mathbf{0}$	Ω	Ω	Ω
	Detonula	Ω	Ω	1707	Ω	857	Ω	Ω	908	3560	Ω	3230
	Ditylum	462	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω	$\mathbf{0}$	2497	807
	Entomoneis	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω
	Eucampia	Ω	5721	θ	Ω	Ω	5195	823	30406	6231	7490	31489
	Guinardia	462	3337	θ	873	θ	$\boldsymbol{0}$	411	Ω	1780	Ω	
	Gyrosigma	θ	$\mathbf{0}$	Ω	Ω	$\overline{0}$	5628	$\overline{0}$	θ	$\overline{0}$	Ω	
	Hemiaulus	Ω	Ω	Ω	θ	Ω	θ	θ	0	θ	Ω	
	Leptocylindrus	Ω	Ω	Ω		0	Ω	Ω	0	5341	Ω	
	Licmphora	Ω	Ω	Ω		0	θ	Ω	$\overline{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	Ω	
	Navicular	0	θ	Ω			$\overline{0}$	Ω	$\overline{0}$	Ω	Ω	
	Nitzschia	0	Ω	5121	0		Ω	823	$\overline{0}$	1780	2497	2422
	Melosira	Ω	Ω	Ω			Ω	Ω	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω
	Odontella	925	Ω	Ω	0		Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	807
	Pleurosigma	Ω	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω		Ω	Ω	0
	Pseudo-nitzschia	5086	10965	8535	43653	191022	22077	2057	4992	890	Ω	13726
	Rhizosolenia	92	953	Ω	$\mathbf{0}$	1713	$\boldsymbol{0}$	411	908	Ω	832	4844
	Skeletonema	1850	4291	Ω	315106	558461	32033	1646	4992	Ω	$\overline{0}$	3230
	Stephanopyxis	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	θ	$\mathbf{0}$	857	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\overline{0}$	Ω	Ω	$\overline{0}$
	Thalassionema	18958	73417	10242	6111	10279	1299	823	2723	890	832	3230
	Thalassiosira	925	$\mathbf{0}$	0	$\mathbf{0}$	θ	433	$\mathbf{0}$	0	890	$\mathbf{0}$	0
	Lauderia	Ω	θ	θ	Ω	θ	1732	θ	0	Ω	Ω	
	Meuniera	0	Ω	Ω	0	0	Ω	Ω	0	0	Ω	
	Asteromphalus	Ω	Ω	Ω			Ω			0		
	Amphidinium	Ω	Ω	θ	0	Ω	θ	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω	
	Alexandrium	462	Ω	θ			θ	0	$\overline{0}$	890	1664	
	Akashiwo	Ω	Ω	0	0		Ω	0	0	Ω	Ω	
	Ceratium	925	477	Ω		Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	
	Dinophysis	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	θ	0	Ω	Ω	Ω	$\overline{0}$	θ	Ω	
	Gonyaulax	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	433	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω	
	Gymnodinium	2774	1907	1707	2619	2570	3463	823	θ	890	1664	3230
	Gyrodinium	1387	$\mathbf{0}$	θ	Ω	θ	θ	Ω	0	$\mathbf{0}$	1664	0
	Heterocapsa	θ	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	θ	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω

Table S5. Density of phytoplankton in the South Sea Coast of Korea from January to December 2021.

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Supplementary Figures

Fig. S1. Workflow of extraction, clean-up, and instrumental analysis of BMAA in phytoplankton and mussels.

Fig. S2. (a) Phytoplankton compositions at the class level, and **(b)** alpha and **(c)** beta diversity of phytoplankton at the genus level along the South Sea Coast of Korea in 2021. **(b)** A box plot based on the Shannon index was used to determine phytoplankton genus richness within each month. **(c)** A principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) plot based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was used to assess the difference between months in genus composition.

Fig. S3. Phase lag between phytoplankton and mussels in BMAA concentrations at the specific sites. The numbers above the y-axis have been rounded to the nearest whole number.

Fig. S4. Monthly distributions of DAB in phytoplankton in the South Sea Coast of Korea in 2021.

Fig. S5. Principal component analysis (PCA) using environmental factors in January, February, March, April, November, and December 2021.

Fig. S6. Average cell numbers of six diatom genera in the South Sea Coast of Korea in April, November, and December 2021.