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1	Experimental infection of Mytilus edulis by two Vibrio splendidus-related
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10 Abstract

11 This study aimed at assessing the pathogenicity of two Vibrio splendidus-related species and evaluating the influence of the origin and annual life cycle of mussels on their 12 13 sensitivity during a bacterial challenge. Thus, in vivo infection assays were made with Vibrio 14 crassostreae 7T4 12 and Vibrio splendidus 3G1 6, over respectively thirteen and nine 15 months, on adult blue mussels from five recruitment areas in France. Two bacterial 16 concentrations were tested: one consistent with the loads of Vibrio spp. in environment and mussel tissues (~ 10^5 CFU mL⁻¹) and another one much higher (~ 10^8 CFU mL⁻¹). The tested 17 18 environmental concentration has no pathogenic effect whatever the time of year, the strain 19 used and the origin of mussels. However, at the highest concentration, a pathogenic effect was 20 observed only at specific moments, and one of the origins appeared to be more resistant. The 21 physiological state of mussels -depending on the time of year- seemed significant in mussels' 22 sensitivity, as their recruitment origin. This study is the first to test the pathogenicity of V. splendidus-related strains at concentrations close to what is found in the wild, over the annual 23 24 cycle of mussels, and considering their origin.

25

26 Keywords:

27 mussels, Vibrio splendidus, pathogenicity, annual cycle, sensitivity, recruitment origin

28 **1. Introduction**

29 The marine mussels, Mytilus sp., are distributed worldwide (Gaitán-Espitia et al., 2016) 30 and constitute food source for aquatic and terrestrial animals including human beings, making 31 them a high economic value product (FAO, 2016). The blue mussel industry occupies an important place in Europe, which is one of the main producers of mussels in the world with 32 33 almost 600,000 tons per year. France is the second major European producer after Spain, with 34 around 80,000 tons per year, most of them from aquaculture (FAO, 2018). Mussel farming in 35 France is undertaken along the English Channel, the Atlantic, and the Mediterranean coasts 36 and all mussel juveniles are collected -at spring for Mytilus edulis- in the wild. Thus, 37 production is exposed to several external biotic and abiotic risks.

38 Indeed, filter feeding bivalves such as mussels are continually exposed to microbiota 39 from the surrounding seawater and therefore vulnerable to attack from potential pathogens. 40 Up to a recent time, adult mussels were considered to be very resistant to bacterial infections 41 (Eggermont et al., 2014) as well as to disease because of a well-working immune system 42 (Venier et al., 2011; Philipp et al., 2012). Mytilus edulis was classified as a resilient cultivated 43 species by mussel farmers insofar as they have only experienced very rare episodes of 44 abnormal mortalities contrarily to what happened to the Pacific oysters, Crassostrea gigas 45 (Barbosa-Solomieu et al., 2015). In addition, these rare mass mortality events have not been 46 attributed to pathogenic bacteria, but only to unfavourable environmental conditions or toxic 47 algal blooms (Tsuchiya, 1983; Peperzak & Poelman, 2008). Nevertheless, since 2014, several 48 important production areas on the French west coast have been affected by high and unusual 49 mass mortality, resulting in significant losses and considerable economic consequences 50 (Béchemin et al., 2014; Allain & Bernard, 2016; FAO, 2016; Polsenaere et al., 2017).

51 As the pathogenic bacteria *Vibrio splendidus* has been found in large abundance in 52 French moribund mussels, its involvement was rapidly suggested (Béchemin *et al.*, 2015; 53 François et al., 2015; Eggermont et al., 2017). Vibrio spp. are indigenous, saprophytic and 54 very abundant in aquatic environments such as estuaries, coastal waters, marine sediments 55 and aquaculture environments all over the world (Colwell et al., 1977; Ortigosa et al., 1989). 56 Some of these gram-negative bacteria are pathogenic to humans and other animals, including 57 molluscs (Barbieri et al., 1999; Romero et al., 2014). Species belonging to the genus Vibrio 58 are the most frequently isolated bacteria from molluscs and V. splendidus is widely distributed 59 in marine ecosystems (Macián et al., 2000); they are known to have impacted marine shellfish 60 for many years with infectious diseases and have caused mortalities reported in the history of shellfish aquaculture (Beaz-Hidalgo et al., 2010; Lemire et al., 2015; Travers et al., 2015). 61 62 However, knowledge on their ecology and pathogenicity is still scarce.

63 In France, past mortalities of mussels greatly varied from one year to another, from one season to another and from one site to another (Lupo et al., 2019). However, the French 64 65 cultural practices, of natural larval recruitment make spat transfers to several growing sites on the Atlantic coast and English Channel, very common; the various growing areas in northern 66 67 France are almost all supplied with spat from the same locations -roughly between the Loire 68 and Garonne estuaries. Besides, even though mortality events have been reported at different 69 times of the year, the majority of them took place at the end of winter and early spring, when 70 the temperature increased (Soletchnik & Robert, 2016; Travers et al., 2016; Cochennec-71 Laureau et al., 2018; Glize & Gourmelen, 2018). It appeared that the etiology of these 72 mortalities is complex; several factors could be involved like environmental conditions, 73 infectious agent, physiology and genetic of the host, as suggested by Goulletquer et al. (1998) 74 for mortality observed with C. gigas.

The objective of the present work was precisely to assess the influence of some internal and external factors of the host during a bacterial injection challenge. In this way, *in vivo* infection assays were made over a year, with adult blue mussels (*M. edulis*) from five 78 different recruitment areas, by using two V. splendidus-related species described as virulent for mussels from Brittany at high concentrations (Le Roux, pers. comm., unpubl. data): Vibrio 79 80 crassostreae 7T4_12 and V. splendidus 3G1_6. The aims of this study were to evaluate (i) the pathogenicity and the virulence of these two strains on mussels by testing two different 81 82 concentrations: one consistent with the general environmental loads of *Vibrio* spp. in seawater ~ $10^4/10^5$ CFU mL⁻¹ (Pfeffer *et al.*, 2003: Eiler *et al.*, 2007), also corresponding to the 83 bacterial concentrations that can be reached in *M. edulis* (equal to 2.9 x 10^4 CFU per mL or g 84 according to Garnier *et al.*, 2007), and another one much higher ~ 10^8 CFU mL⁻¹; (ii) the 85 86 influence of the first farming method used and original spat recruitment area on the sensitivity 87 to vibriosis; (iii) the role of physiological and morphological conditions of mussels -impacted 88 by the season- in susceptibility to bacterial infections.

89 2. Materials and Methods

90 2.1 Bacterial strains and inoculum preparation

The two V. splendidus-related strains used for experimental infection were provided from the 91 French institute, Ifremer. As part of their study (ANR 13-ADAP-0007-01 "OPOPOP"), they 92 93 isolated many strains from a Vibrio population assembly isolated from oyster tissues (C. 94 gigas) during and outside mortality events that hit oysters and mussels in the bay of Brest 95 (Finistère, France) in 2014. Among the hundred species isolated, several appeared to be 96 highly pathogenic for oysters (Bruto et al., 2017) and mussels from Brittany (Le Roux, pers. comm., unpubl. data) of which V. crassostreae 7T4_12 and V. splendidus 3G1_6, that are 97 98 used in this study, and respectively named S1 and S2 in the rest of the article. Twenty-four 99 hours before infection, the bacteria were grown in fresh liquid sterile marine Zobell at 22 °C. 100 The bacterial inocula were prepared using the fresh bacterial suspensions by diluting it in 101 Artificial Sterilised Sea Water (ASSW) from 1:10 to 1:10,000,000 (serial ten-fold dilutions from 10^{-1} to 10^{-7}). The two dilutions used as inocula for experimental infections were 1:10 102

103 (10^{-1}) and 1:10,000 (10^{-4}) . Bacterial load of pure bacterial suspension (BL) was defined by 104 enumeration of Colony Forming Units (CFU) according to the standard NF ISO7218:2007 105 (AFNOR, 2007): BL (CFU mL⁻¹) = $\frac{\sum c}{V \times 1, 1 \times d}$; where $\sum c$ is the sum of the colonies counted on 106 the two plates of marine Zobell agar spread with two successive dilutions (10^{-6} and 10^{-7}) that 107 incubated for 48 h at 22 °C; V is the volume that has been spread on plate (0.1 mL) and d is 108 the dilution corresponding to the first dilution retained (10^{-6}).

109 2.2 Experimental mussels

110 Adult mussels used for this experiment were placed on intertidal mussel stakes ('bouchot') in 111 the shellfish growing area off the coast of Bricqueville-sur-Mer, Normandy, France (48°55'05.8"N 1°34'23.9"W) since automn 2015. Spats were initially collected in early 112 spring 2015 in five different recruitment areas: the cove of Port-Mânes (Ile Dumet, Loire-113 114 Atlantique, France); the Loire Estuary (La-Plaine-sur-Mer, Loire-Atlantique, France); the bay 115 of Bourgneuf (Noirmoutier, Vendée, France); the bay of Aiguillon (Charron, Charente-116 Maritime, France); the Antioche Sound (Fouras, Charente-Maritime, France) (Fig. 1). These 117 five origin groups are respectively named ID, LP, No, Ch, Fo in the rest of the article. The 118 mussels from ID were different from the others: first, larval recruitment and first months of 119 farming were made on longlines (while the others were on 'bouchot'). Second, they were 120 'pelisse' mussels, *i.e.* mussels from the upper layer of the collection rope that grew faster than 121 the others. To leave space for the lower layer mussels, and to prevent these bundles of 122 mussels from coming off, farmer collects and puts them back into 2.5 m long mesh tubes. 123 Like initial collection rope, these nets are then coiled around a wooden pole at the growing 124 area.

125 2.3 Experimental procedure of bacterial challenges

Experimental infections were performed monthly during one year for S1 (from April 2017 toApril 2018) and during nine months for S2 (from August 2017 to April 2018). Mussels were

128 collected during low tide, transported in cooler bags to the laboratory and once there, 129 immediately put back in tanks filled with oxygenated natural seawater at 15 °C overnight. The next day, they were anesthetised by bathing in a solution containing 40 g L^{-1} of magnesium 130 131 chloride during 30 min. Then, 100 µL of inocula or ASSW (for negative controls) per mussel 132 were injected into the posterior adductor muscle. In the rest of the article, the bacterial loads corresponding to the 100 μ L of dilutions 10⁻¹ and 10⁻⁴ have been respectively named C1 and 133 134 C2. Following the injections, 20 mussels of each group (origin/strain/loads) were placed in 135 separated tanks filled with 1 L of aerated seawater at 15 °C (Fig. 2). Thus, 100 mussels were 136 injected for each condition (S1_C1; S1_C2; S2_C1; S2_C2 or negative controls). Water 137 exchange and tank cleaning were carried daily for seven days and then, mortalities were 138 recorded. All mussels that did not spontaneously close their valves when the seawater was 139 removed were considered as dead. Dead mussels were sampled for biometry (flesh weight and 140 shell length) and microbiological analysis. The objective was to verify whether among the 141 main bacteria found in the tissues of dead mussels, the strain initially injected was present 142 (Koch's fourth postulate).

143 2.4 Microbiological and molecular analyses of dead mussels

144 Tissues of dead mussels were mashed with scalpels and a volume of 450 µL of ASSW was 145 added to 50 mg of the homogenate. After stirring and a pulse centrifugation to pellet cellular debris, ten-fold dilutions of supernatant were made and 100 μ L of 1: 10,000 (10⁻⁴) and 1: 146 100.000 (10⁻⁵) dilutions were sown on Zobell marine agar and incubated for 48 h at 22 °C. 147 148 For each plate, the three predominant bacterial colonies were re-isolated in order to ensure 149 their purity. Then, DNA extraction of these three predominant colonies was performed by heating the colony placed in 250 µL of purified water (DNA/nuclease free water) for 10 min 150 at 95 °C. The successful extraction was confirmed by DNA quantification with NanoDropTM 151 2000c spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher ScientificTM, Waltham, MA USA) and strains were 152

then characterised by molecular analysis. One TaqMan® real-time PCR targeting the 16S 153 154 rRNA gene of V. splendidus-related strains (PCR1) (Oden et al., 2016) was carried out on a Smart Cycler[®] (Cepheid, USA); the primers used for 155 PCR1 SpF1 were 5'ATCATGGCTCAGATTGAACG3' and SpR1 5'CAATGGTTATCCCCCACATC3' (Nasfi 156 157 et al., 2015) and the probe SpProbe (5'-3') FAM-CCCATTAACGCACCCGAAGGATTG-BHO1. The reaction volume of 25 uL contained 12.5 uL of Premix Ex Tag[®] 2 X Takara[®] 158 159 (Lonza, Verviers, Belgium), 0.5 µL of each primer (20 µM), 0.5 µL of probe (10 µM), 9 µL 160 of purified water and 2 µL of extracted DNA (replaced with 2 µL of purified water in the 161 negative control). The thermal cycling profile was 95 °C for 10 s, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 5 s and 62 °C for 30 s. Then, when PCR1 was positive, the objective was to 162 differentiate strains of V. splendidus-related species from each other and identify the 163 164 inoculated strain.

165 2.5 Genotyping of V. splendidus-related strains

A conventional PCR targeting the housekeeping genes *mreB* of *V. splendidus*-related strains 166 167 (PCR2) was performed since it is the most discriminant gene for the identification of closely related strains among the Splendidus clade (Oden et al., 2016); the primer pair for PCR2 was 168 5'CTGGTGCTCGYGAGGTTTAC3' 169 mreB-F and mreB-R 170 5'CCRTTYTCTGAKATATCAGAAGC3'. For the conventional PCR, typical 25 µL reaction mixtures contained 12.5 µL of Premix Ex Taq[®] 2 X Takara[®] (Lonza, Verviers, Belgium), 0.5 171 µL of each primer (20 µM), 9.5 µL of purified water and 2 µL of DNA template (replaced 172 173 with 2 µL of purified water in the negative control). Conventional PCR amplifications were carried out in a T100TM Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, France) and the thermal program was as 174 follows: 10 s at 95 °C; 30 cycles for 10 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 55 °C, 40 s at 72 °C and a final 175 extension of 3 min at 72 °C. PCR products were then analysed with OIAxcel[®] Advanced 176

177 System (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France) and sent to Eurofins MWG Operon (Ebersberg,178 Germany) to be purified and subsequently sequenced.

179 2.6 Phylogenetic analyses

180 The *mreB* sequences were aligned using a multiple sequence alignment Multiple Sequence 181 Comparison by Log-Expectation (MUSCLE); phylogenetic analyses were performed in 182 MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016) using the Neighbor Joining method (Tamura et al., 2013) and 183 the maximum composite likelihood model with a bootstrap of 1000 replications. Thus, the 184 sequences of the mreB gene of V. spendidus-related strains from dead mussels could be 185 compared with the sequences of the injected strains and with forty-seven different reference 186 bacterial strains (whose forty-two belonging to the Splendidus clade; see 2.1. in Oden et al. 187 2016). Vibrio aestuarianus 02/041, Vibrio ordalii 12B09 and Vibrio penaeicida AQ115, were 188 provided from Genomic of Vibrio Research Department (CNRS Roscoff, France) and used as 189 Splendidus clade outsiders.

190 2.7 Establishment of periods related to the annual life cycle of mussels

191 In order to estimate the role of physiological conditions of mussels in susceptibility to 192 bacterial infections, 'periods' have been defined, related to the mussel cycle. The cycle of M. 193 edulis in cold waters has been known for several years (Boromthanarat et al., 1987; Gosling, 194 2003): gametogenesis begins in late summer and early autumn (Sept./Oct.), gonads are ripe 195 and animals mature in early winter (Dec./Jan.). The emission of gametes in water occurs in late winter and early spring (Feb.-Apr.) and the resting stage begins in late spring and early 196 197 summer (June). Thus, the following periods have been defined: from February to April = 198 period A; from May to July = period B; from August to October = period C; from November 199 to January = period D.

200 2.8 Statistical analyses

201 Statistical analyses and graphical representations were performed by using R software, 202 version 3.5.1 and Microsoft Excel software, version 2016. The differences in mortality 203 observed between (i) the conditions tested (negative control, C1 and C2) and (ii) the periods 204 of the year, were tested using a Kruskal-Wallis test (K-W). When significance was obtained, a 205 pairwise Wilcoxon test was done. The difference in virulence between S1 and S2 was tested 206 by comparing two observed distributions with a chi-squared test of independence. To finish, 207 the numbers of dead mussels observed for each origin were compared with a chi-squared 208 goodness-of-fit test. The statistical analyses described above were carried out on the number 209 of dead mussels found positive for the strain initially injected (S1- or S2-positive); except for 210 the first test (which compared dead mussel counts among all conditions), the comparison was 211 first made between all the dead mussels, then only with the S-positive. Regarding biometry 212 data, normality was confirmed with a Shapiro test and an ANOVA was done. When results 213 were significant, a *post-hoc* test (Tukey test) was performed. Statistical significance was accepted for *p < 0.05 and **p < 0.01. 214

215 **3. Results**

216 3.1 Bacterial inocula concentrations

The BL of all experiments performed with S1 and S2 are reported in Table 1. Mussels were inoculated with average bacterial loads equal to 3.12×10^7 CFU (S1_C1) and 3.12×10^4 CFU (S1_C2) for S1, and 2.23 x 10^7 CFU (S2_C1) and 2.23 x 10^4 CFU (S2_C2) for S2.

220 **3.2** Overall obtained mortalities and strain-positive mussels

The numbers of infected mussels, dead mussels and strain-positive dead mussels obtained for each experimental infection are reported in Table 1. On all experimental infections made with S1, 1,300 mussels were inoculated with S1_C1 and 189 died (mean = 15; min = 0; max = 65), and 1,300 mussels were infected with S1_C2 and 26 died (mean = 2; min = 0; max = 10). On

all bacterial challenges performed with S2, 900 mussels were inoculated with S2_C1 and 326 225 died (mean = 36; min = 0; max = 86), and 900 mussels were infected with S2_C2 and 19 died 226 227 (mean = 2; min = 0; max = 11). On average over all experimentations, S1 was found in 48 %(90/189) of dead mussels in condition S1_C1 and in 4 % (1/26) in S1_C2, and S2 was found 228 229 in 50 % (163/326) of dead mussels in condition S2_C1 and in 5 % (1/19) in S2_C2. None of 230 the dead mussels in the negative controls (n = 15) were positive in S1 or S2. Figure 3 shows 231 one of the phylogenetic analysis; in total, 255 mreB sequences were aligned over all these 232 bacterial challenges.

233 3.2.1 Comparison of mortality by tested conditions (strains / loads)

The observed mortality between the tested conditions differed significantly (K-W, S1: pvalue** = $2.7.10^{-5}$; S2: p-value** = $2.1.10^{-6}$). For S1 and S2, the mortality obtained at the highest concentration (C1) is significantly higher from the others (Wilcoxon test, S1: C1/C2 p-value* = 0.02 and C1/controls p-value** = 0.009; S2: C1/C2 p-value** = 0.007 and C1/controls p-value** = 0.0006). There was no difference between C2 and negative controls for both strains (positive to the strain or not).

240 3.2.2 Comparison of mortality by period

241 Figure 4 illustrates the obtained mortality with S1 (Fig. 4A) and S2 (Fig. 4B) at each month of 242 each period at the highest concentration tested (C1). The obtained mortality differs according to the defined periods and therefore according to the life cycle of mussels (K-W, S1: p-value* 243 244 = 0.04; S2: p-value* = 0.02). For S1, period A is significantly different from periods B, C and D (Wilcoxon test, p-values $^* < 0.05$). For S2, there is no difference between period A and C 245 246 (Wilcoxon test, p-value = 0.07) but significative difference exists between, A or C, and period 247 D (Wilcoxon test, p-values * < 0.05). What is also quite remarkable in this figure is the percentage of S-pos dead mussels; over the period A, the percentage of S-pos dead mussels 248 249 was on average < 50 % for S1 and S2 while for period C, it was ~ 75 % for S2.

250 3.2.3 Comparison of the pathogenicity of the two strains over the common time interval

251 By comparing the numbers of dead mussels following infection by S1 and S2 over the 252 common time interval, it appears that S2 was globally significantly more pathogenic than S1 253 (chi-squared = 68.25 > chi-squared_{0.01} = 15.08, df = 5; p-value** < 0.01). When the obtained 254 mortalities for each month are compared, it is notable that the mortalities caused by S2 are 255 significantly higher in most months (Fig. 5). Indeed, S2 caused mortality during period C 256 whereas S1 did not; moreover, it caused mortality over the entire period A whereas S1 caused 257 significantly less, with a bell-shaped evolution during the period and, with a peak in March. 258 However, despite the difference in pathogenicity, S1 and S2 both cause similar mortalities in 259 March (S-positive dead mussels).

260 3.2.4 Comparison of mortality depending on spat recruitment sites

Among all S1- or S2-positive dead mussels (n=253), 12 % were from ID (30/253), 19 % from LP (48/253), 22.5 % from Ch (57/253), 22.5 % from Fo (57/253) and 24 % from No (61/253) (Fig. 6). The number of dead mussels originating from ID is significantly lower than the others (chi-squared = $13.87 > chi-squared_{0.01} = 13.27$, df = 4; p-value** < 0.01).

265 **3.3** *Biometry*

Figure 7 shows the mean values (\pm SEM) of length and flesh weight of dead mussels according to their origin. Several differences appear between the biometric values of the mussels, but the most notable is for the mussels of ID. Overall, they were much larger and fleshier than the others. On the contrary, the mussels from LP were slightly smaller and less fleshy.

271 **3.4** Other observations

The parasite, *Mytilicola intestinalis*, was fortuitously found in the intestinal tract of some dead animals. Even though, the objective of the study was not to search for it, parasites easily visible to the naked eye (> 0.25 mm) were counted still; between one to five individuals were observed in more than a third of dead mussels. Also, less than 10 % of the mussels had their
mantle full of macroscopically visible trematode sporocysts or metacercaria.

For experiments done during period A, an interesting phenomenon was observed. Just a few hours after injection, the mussels that have been infected at the highest concentration with S1 and S2, began to lay their gametes in water tank (Fig. 8A and Fig. 8B). When spawning was observed, the water was immediately changed. However, this occurred several times during the first 2-3 days after infection. For dead mussels collected during this period, more than half had a mantle with some remnants of gametes not expelled (un-spawned gametes) (Fig. 8C and Fig. 8D) or totally empty (like the valve on the right in Fig. 8D).

284 **4. Discussion**

285 4.1 Pathogenicity of V. crassostreae 7T4_12 and V. splendidus 3G1_6

286 Performing an enumeration to obtain the BL of bacterial suspension of each inoculum 287 allowed to verify precisely the tested concentrations. By achieving the objective of testing bacterial concentrations consistent with those found in seawater or in mussel tissues (~ 10^4 288 CFU animal⁻¹; Eiler et al., 2007; Garnier et al., 2007; Pfeffer et al., 2003), as well as high 289 concentrations (~ 10^7 CFU animal⁻¹), different results was observed. Most of the experimental 290 291 infections performed on mussels (Parisi et al., 2008; Tanguy et al., 2013; Ben Cheikh et al., 292 2016, 2017) or oysters (Gay et al., 2004; Garnier et al., 2007; Travers et al., 2017) were made by injections with high bacterial strain concentrations around $10^7/10^8$ CFU animal⁻¹ which is 293 294 quite far from those found in the field. On this point, Travers et al. (2017) mentioned that 295 defining a strain as virulent through high concentration injections was a debatable issue. As 296 for Goudenège et al. (2015), they determined three categories of strains as part of their highthroughput bacterial infections: virulent (> 50 % mortalities at 10^2 CFU animal⁻¹), non-297 virulent (< 50 % mortalities at 10^7 CFU animal⁻¹) and intermediate (*i.e.* pathogenic; an effect 298 is observed only at 10^7 CFU animal⁻¹). They have thereby shown that a real virulent strain 299

induces high mortality rates on oysters, even at very low concentrations (10^2 CFU animal⁻¹). 300 301 The present study has indicated that even by intramuscular injection of a pure bacterial solution of S1 or S2 at 10⁴ CFU animal⁻¹, there was no significant mortality whatever the time 302 303 of the year. Thus, it is possible to affirm that these two strains are not virulent. In contrast, it appeared that, with a high concentration $(10^7 \text{ CFU animal}^{-1})$, both strains were capable to 304 305 cause significant mortalities (14.5 % in period C for S2, and in period A, 19.5 % and 38.5 % 306 respectively for S1 and S2). According to the classification of Goudenège et al. (2015), these 307 two strains could be defined as, at most, non-virulent or pathogenic; because it entirely 308 depends on the time of year and that is part of what this study highlights. Indeed, these two strains could have wrongly been defined as pathogenic or non-pathogenic, depending on the 309 310 period during which bacterial challenges were performed. In any case, it appeared that S2 was overall more pathogenic than S1 at 10⁷ CFU animal⁻¹ because it caused significantly more 311 312 mortality. Besides, S2 caused mortality at a time when S1 caused almost none (period C), and 313 the mortalities observed during this period appear to be actually due to S2 insofar as it is 314 found in three out of four mussels. Indeed, to verify the presence of the inoculated strain 315 seems to be also an important detail to check. During period A -more particularly in March-316 similar mortalities were obtained with S1- and S2-pos mussels and the injected strains were 317 absent in more than half of the total of dead mussels (over the period A, only 58 out of 122 318 mussels were S1-pos and only 115 out of 254 mussels were S2-pos); however, higher 319 mortalities were observed with S2 during period A. It can be hypothesized that, in order to 320 disrupt the animal at this vulnerable period, the injected bacteria did not necessarily need to 321 get the upper hand, compared to other commensal bacteria, as during less sensitive periods 322 such as period C. Therefore, if the presence of bacteria had not been investigated, and the 323 experiments had only been carried out at that time of the year, the strains would have been 324 wrongly defined as very pathogenic.

325 4.2 Influence of the annual life cycle during a bacterial challenge

326 In this study, the observation of forced egg laying following bacterial challenges 327 suggests that the physiological condition of mussels plays a decisive role in the observed 328 mortality. Carrying out the same bacterial challenges monthly over several months made it 329 possible to study and compare mussel response to the same bacterial challenges, in the same 330 laboratory conditions, and thus to evaluate the role of the physiological status of the host. 331 These experimentations showed that there was a seasonality in mortality caused by the 332 bacteria pointing out a link between sensitivity to infection and the annual cycle of mussels. 333 The annual cycle of cold-water mussels includes several stages: growth, ripening of gametes, 334 spawning, and gonad redevelopment; this cycle is adjusted according to environmental 335 conditions (temperature and food supply mostly; Gosling, 2003). During summer, gonadal 336 reserves are accumulated and once the minimum level is reached, the gametes development 337 starts -usually in October-, it continues throughout the winter months and, in February, the 338 gonads are ripe. At that point, mussels are ready to spawn waiting for natural exogenous 339 factors (rise in water temperature, salinity change, etc.). Nevertheless, under laboratory 340 conditions, spawn could be induced by a temperature shock or a physical stimulation -like 341 scraping the shell or pulling the byssus threads (Gosling, 2003; Seed & Suchanek, 1992). This 342 study showed that the inoculation of a high bacterial load constitutes a stress strong enough to 343 induce spawning in mussels that are in an advanced state of maturation or ripe (period A) and 344 no matter what strain used. Soletchnik et al. (1999) described this physiological condition as 345 one of the major factors in the numerous mortality episodes observed in oysters and in mass 346 mortality episodes of French mussels in 2014 and 2015 (Soletchnik & Robert, 2016). 347 Spawning is an energy demanding process during which mussels are in poor condition with 348 low glycogen content (depleted reserves) which makes them particularly vulnerable to 349 stressful environmental conditions (Bayne et al., 1980; Bayne & Worrall, 1980; Najdek & 350 Sapunar, 1987; Myrand et al., 2000). The results observed here are consistence with these 351 studies. Indeed, the high mortalities obtained during period A were the outcome of global 352 weakness of mussels --that accompanies this triggering of spawning-- and the inoculation of a 353 high concentration of pathogenic bacteria. It is even more obvious because, as for S1, no 354 mortality has been observed during other periods. Inoculation induced significant stress that 355 triggered spawning; it is then possible to wonder: if the nature of the stress had been different 356 (e.g. chemical contaminant spill or toxic algae bloom), would the spawning have been 357 triggered and what would have been the result on the observed mortality rates? Nevertheless, 358 in the case of S2, the strain seems to have increased mortality more strongly during this period 359 than for S1, but as showed above, S2 caused mortality during period C while S1 did not. This 360 is interesting because this post-spawning period corresponds to the sexual rest during which 361 glycogen content is improved and is accumulated as an energetic reserves (Bayne & Worrall, 362 1980); it shows that mussels remain sensitive during this period and this is also what Myrand 363 et al. (2000) observed in their analysis of the link between reproduction and summer mortality 364 in Québec mussels. On the other hand, period D appears to be the interval when mussels are 365 more robust since no significant mortality has occurred. During this period, energy reserves 366 are usually used to meet the energy needs of gametogenesis and in December, mussels are full 367 -mature- with gonads that occupy all the space, without being ready or able to spawn. The 368 lack of observed mortality suggests that they have accumulated enough energy to fight against and deal with high infection. It seems that this time of the year is the most appropriate time to 369 370 test a strain for virulence or pathogenicity; indeed, if strain causes mortality at that moment, 371 then it will cause probably more at another time.

372 4.3 Mortality according to original spat recruitment site

373 Moving forward in the study, it became very clear that the mussels from ID were 374 different from the others. They were larger, fleshier and died significantly less than the others

as a result of bacterial challenge. However, all the mussels were the same age and had the 375 376 same living conditions over three quarters of their lifespan since they had been on 'bouchot' 377 during the same time (~ the last 18 months at the beginning of the study); only the recruitment 378 site and the first five months of farming method varied. Despite these more than 18 months of 379 identical life, the mussels from ID were significantly bigger and more robust. Thus, two 380 hypotheses to explain their robustness can be proposed: it would either come from (i) the 381 morphology of the mussels, influenced by the farming method used during the first months; or 382 from (ii) the genetic inheritance of the mussels, influenced by the genetic characteristics of the 383 natural local population; or perhaps from a combination of both factors.

384 Mussel growth is mainly influenced by food availability (Gosling, 1992) and the longlines 385 farming method -with continuous immersion- allows mussels to have access to trophic 386 resources without interruption. Mussels grown on longlines have higher growth performance 387 than mussels grown on 'bouchot' (Prou & Goulletquer, 2002); and this is what was observed 388 for the ID mussels which were larger from the beginning to the end of the study. As described 389 above, the life cycle of mussels is very energy-intensive, so larger individuals have logically 390 more glycogen reserves, which probably allows them to have a negative energy balance later 391 than others.

392 Several authors have compared the growth rates and the mortality of mussels by transferring 393 samples from different natural populations in the same growing areas (Dickie et al., 1984; 394 Mallet et al., 1986, 1987; Fuentes et al., 1994). These studies have demonstrated that survival 395 capacities of mussels -and so variations in mortality- could be attributed to different origins 396 (source of mussel stocks). Mallet and Haley (1984) indicated that mortality variation from one 397 origin to another evidences the differences between populations of *M. edulis*; this is also what 398 Dickie et al. (1984) observed thanks to the significant differences in genetic constitution 399 among the stock used in their experiments. Following this, Mallet et al. (1986) showed that

400 viability is highly heritable in *M. edulis* populations and, very recently, Dégremont *et al.* 401 (2019) revealed that selected populations of French M. edulis were significantly more 402 resistant to mortality outbreaks than natural unselected populations. Mytilus edulis and M. 403 galloprovincialis are native species to the French coast, and numerous different natural 404 populations exists and are capable to hybridise with each other. Thus, the Atlantic coasts of 405 France is very complex -in terms of genetic structure- with several mosaic hybrid zone 406 between *M. edulis* and *M. galloprovincialis* (Bierne *et al.*, 2003; Riquet *et al.*, 2017). It is 407 therefore possible that some natural French populations could be more resistant than others.

408

409 Snieszko (1974) wrote 'an overt infectious disease occurs when a susceptible host is 410 exposed to a virulent pathogen under proper environmental conditions' which means that 411 three elements -pathogen, environment, and status of the host- strongly interact in the 412 disease. In some cases, only two unfavourable elements seem sufficient to provoke mortality 413 (Garnier et al., 2007). This fact was observed in this study since the experiments were 414 conducted under the same laboratory conditions. What could be added to Snieszo's quote is 415 that within the host itself, many parameters -physiological state, morphology, and probably 416 genetic inheritance- can influence the host's response to the disease.

417

Overall, the results provide information on the mortalities observed in mussels, *M. edulis*, over the annual life cycle, in response to bacterial stress. To our knowledge, this is the first study to test the pathogenicity of *V. splendidus*-related strains at concentrations close to what is found in the wild, over the entire annual cycle of mussels, and considering their origin. The results demonstrate that these two strains are not virulent for mussels and that the mortalities obtained during *in vivo* bacterial challenges are distinct depending on the physiological state of mussels –reliant on the time of the year–, and on the recruitment origin of the spat. Thus, to 425 test the virulence or the pathogenicity of a bacterial strain on mussels, it seems consistent to 426 consider the origin of the population and the state of maturity of mussels and thereby, avoid 427 bacterial challenges during the spawning period of the mussels because this is not strictly 428 representative of the pathogenicity of the strain.

429

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659 **7. Table(s)**

Table 1: Bacterial load of pure bacterial suspension (BL) used to make the dilutions used for each bacterial challenge, and number of infected mussels, total dead mussels and strain-positive dead mussels in each condition tested for every monthly experiment. S1: *Vibrio crassostreae* 7T4_12 and S2: *Vibrio splendidus* 3G1_6; C1: dilution 1:10 (10^{-1}) and C2: dilution 1:10,000 (10^{-4}).

	BL (CF	$U m L^{-1}$)	number of infected mussels / dead mussels / strain-positive dead mussels				
Months	S1	S2	S1_C1	S1_C2	S2_C1	S2_C2	Negative controls
Apr 2017	7.22 x 10 ⁸	NA [§]	100 / 18 / 15	100 / 0 / 0	NA [§]	NA	100 / 0 / 0
May 2017	2.50 x 10 ⁹	NA	100 / 9 / 4	100 / 0 / 0	NA	NA	100 / 0 / 0
Jun 2017	5.64 x 10 ⁸	NA	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 0 / 0	NA	NA	100 / 4 / 0
Jul 2017	5.85 x 10 ⁹	NA	100 / 1 / 0	100 / 0 / 0	NA	NA	100 / 1 / 0
Aug 2017	1.19 x 10 ⁹	9.27 x 10 ⁹	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 16 / 9	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 0 / 0
Sep 2017	3.09 x 10 ⁹	1.41 x 10 ⁹	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 12 / 11	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 0 / 0
Oct 2017	1.13 x 10 ⁹	$3.00 \ge 10^8$	100 / 9 / 7	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 31 / 23	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 1 / 0
Nov 2017	6.27 x 10 ⁹	4.27 x 10 ⁹	100 / 2 / 2	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 4 / 4	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 0 / 0
Dec 2017	5.18 x 10 ⁸	2.82 x 10 ⁹	100 / 5 / 0	100 / 2 / 0	100 / 0 / 0	100 / 1 / 0	100 / 4 / 0
Jan 2018	7.91 x 10 ⁹	4.45 x 10 ⁸	100 / 23 / 4	100 / 8 / 0	100 / 9 / 1	100 / 11 / 1	100 / 5 / 0
Feb 2018	8.73 x 10 ⁹	4.09 x 10 ⁸	100 / 39 / 18	100 / 3 / 0	100 / 86 / 34	100 / 3 / 0	100 / 4 / 0
Mar 2018	1.49 x 10 ⁹	4.73 x 10 ⁸	100 / 65 / 30	100 / 10 / 0	100 / 86/ 34	100 / 1 / 0	100 / 0 / 0
Apr 2018	6.36 x 10 ⁸	6.36 x 10 ⁸	100 / 18 / 10	100 / 3 / 1	100 / 82 / 47	100 / 3 / 0	100 / 1 / 0
	$m^{\dagger} = 3.12 \times 10^9$	$m^{\dagger} = 2.23 \times 10^9$	$\Sigma^{\ddagger} = 1,300 / 189 / 90$	$\Sigma = 1,300 / 26 / 1$	$\Sigma = 900 / 326 / 163$	$\Sigma = 900 \ / \ 19 \ / \ 1$	$\Sigma = 1,300 / 20 / 0$
	$(\pm 3.00 \text{ x } 10^9)$	(± 2.93 x 10 ⁹)					

[§] no data; [†] mean; [‡] sum

663 **8. Figures**



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Figure 1: Location of the five mussel original recruitment areas and the shellfish growing area
Bricqueville-sur-Mer (Normandy, France) with a picture of '*bouchot*'.

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Figure 2: Schematisation of the post-infection monitoring system. Mussels inoculated with 100 μ L of artificial sterilised sea water (controls), dilution 1:10 (C1) or dilution 1:10,000 (C2) of pure bacterial suspension of *Vibrio crassostreae* 7T4_12 (S1) or *Vibrio splendidus* 3G1_6 (S2).



673 Figure 3: Phylogenic tree made from mreB sequences of Vibrio spendidus-related strains isolated 674 during one of the experiments (color box) and forty-eight different reference bacterial strains (Oden et 675 al., 2016); Vibrio aestuarianus 02/041 and Vibrio penaeicida AQ115, were provided by the Genomic 676 of Vibrio Research Department (CNRS Roscoff, France) and used as Splendidus clade outsider. 677 Horizontal branch lengths are proportional to evolutionary divergence. Bootstrap scores of 1000 678 replicates appear next to the corresponding branch (significant bootstrap score > 80). In color boxes, 679 mreB sequences of (red box) Vibrio splendidus 3G1_6 (S2), (blue box) S2-positive dead mussels and 680 (yellow box) S2-negative dead mussels.





Figure 4: Mortality (%) observed in each monthly experiment at the highest concentration $(10^7 \ CFU/mussel)$. A: experimental infection with *Vibrio crassostreae* 7T4_12 (S1); B: experimental infection with *Vibrio splendidus* 3G1_6 (S2). Dark grey bars: S-positive dead mussels in injected strain; light grey bars: negative dead mussels in injected strain; grey bars (light & dark): 'all' dead mussels. At the top of the histograms are indicated the periods of the year (A, B, C and D) defined in 2.5. Kruskal-Wallis test and Wilcoxon test; p-value* < 0.05. NA: no data.

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Figure 5: Comparison of mortalities obtained at each month with *Vibrio crassostreae* 7T4_12 (white bars) and *Vibrio splendidus* 3G1_6 (dark grey bars) at the highest concentration (10^8 CFU mL⁻¹). Chisquared test of independence; p-value** < 0.01.



Figure 6: Proportion (%) of dead mussels on all experiments (all strains included) according to the
origin of mussels. ID: Ile Dumet; LP: La-Plaine-sur-Mer; Ch: Charron; Fo: Fouras; No: Noirmoutier.
Chi-squared; p-value** < 0.01.









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Figure 8: Spawning observed during experiments conducted through period A (Feb. to Apr.). (A) Male egg-laying in tanks where mussels were infected with both strains *Vibrio crassostreae* 7T4_12 and *Vibrio splendidus* 3G1_6 at the highest concentration $(10^8 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1})$ (black arrows). No spawning in negative controls (white arrowhead), or in mussels infected with both strains at the lowest concentration $(10^5 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1})$ (black arrowheads). (B) Female egg-laying sediment in tanks where mussels were infected with both strains at the highest concentration. Dead male (C) and female (D) mussel with remnants of gametes not expelled into the mantle (un-spawned gametes) (*).