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Temperature modulate disease susceptibility of the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* and virulence of the Ostreid herpesvirus type 1

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Abstract :

Temperature triggers marine diseases by changing host susceptibility and pathogen virulence. Oyster mortalities associated with the Ostreid herpesvirus type 1 (OsHV-1) have occurred seasonally in Europe when the seawater temperature range reaches 16–24 °C. Here we assess how temperature modulates oyster susceptibility to OsHV-1 and pathogen virulence. Oysters were injected with OsHV-1 suspension incubated at 21 °C, 26 °C and 29 °C and were placed in cohabitation with healthy oysters (recipients) at these three temperatures according to a fractional factorial design. Survival was followed for 14 d and recipients were sampled for OsHV-1 DNA quantification and viral gene expression. The oysters were all subsequently placed at 21 °C to evaluate the potential for virus reactivation, before being transferred to oyster farms to evaluate their long-term susceptibility to the disease. Survival of recipients at 29 °C (86%) was higher than at 21 °C (52%) and 26 °C (43%). High temperature (29 °C) decreased the susceptibility of oysters to OsHV-1 without altering virus infectivity and virulence. At 26 °C, the virulence of OsHV-1 was enhanced. Differences in survival persisted when the recipients were all placed at 21 °C, suggesting that OsHV-1 did not reactivate. Additional oyster mortality followed the field transfer, but the overall survival of oysters infected at 29 °C remained higher.

Highlights

► High temperature (29 °C) decreases the susceptibility of oysters to the virus. ► There was no alteration of its infectivity and virulence. ► At 26 °C, the pathogen virulence was enhanced. ► Disease mitigation measures based on temperature are discussed.

Keywords : Bivalve, Health, Marine disease, Mortality risk, Temperature, Virulence

1

27 Introduction

The risk of disease outbreaks in the marine environment are governed by interactions between 28 host, parasite, and environmental factors [1]. Of all the environmental factors, seawater 29 temperature plays a decisive role in triggering diseases [2]. Temperature modulates the aptitude 30 31 of a parasite to colonize its host and the ability of the host to defend itself. For example, mass mortalities of shrimps and sea-stars caused by pathogenic viruses occurred during the warm 32 season [3-5]. Similarly, when abalones were exposed to the pathogenic bacteria Vibrio harveyi, 33 an increase of seawater temperature of one degree during the spawning season altered the host-34 parasite relation in favor of the pathogen and lead to epidemic disease [6]. 35

In warm-blooded species, fever, which consists of an increase in body temperature, makes it possible to fight against viral and bacterial infections. Although marine animals are mostly ectotherms (cold blooded), the application of high temperature treatments has proven efficient to treat diseases. For instance, shrimps infected with the white spot syndrome virus at 32°C showed no mortality, whilst they all died at 25°C [3,7].

There is a range of possible influences of high temperature effects on the infectivity of parasites (replication, virulence) and host susceptibility. For instance, high temperature improves shrimp resistance without altering the infectivity of the white spot syndrome virus [3,8]. However, the stability of some shellfish pathogens is altered at high temperature, as reported for the abalone herpesvirus [9].

This study focuses on the effect of high temperatures on the interaction between the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* and the Ostreid herpesvirus type 1 (OsHV-1). Indeed, OsHV-1 outbreaks have caused mass mortalities in young oysters along the European coastline since 2008

and the virus has spread to Australia and New Zealand [10–13]. Seawater temperature defines the 49 start and the end of OsHV-1 epizootics. In France, the optimal seawater temperature range for 50 disease transmission and subsequent mortalities is between 16°C and 24°C in the field [14,15]. In 51 the laboratory, oyster survival of individuals acclimated to temperatures between 13°C and 29°C 52 exposed to OsHV-1 were much higher when temperatures were exceeded 26°C [16]. An 53 Australian study comparing survival of oysters injected with OsHV-1 at 14°C, 18°C, 22°C and 54 26°C shows that it was the lowest at 26°C [17]. Furthermore, the infectivity of OsHV-1 kept for 55 56 54 h at 25°C is lower than at 16°C [18].

Although the temperature clearly influences the risk of oyster mortality caused by OsHV-1, it is not known at this time whether the temperature affects the host, by modifying its susceptibility to the virus, the pathogen, by acting on virulence, or both. Also, we do not know if oysters that have survived a high temperature infection are able to transmit the virus to healthy animals and if they remain protected against a second infection. The answer to these questions is crucial to develop OsHV-1 control measures from heat treatment.

Here we tested the effect of three temperatures on disease susceptibility of oysters and virulence of OsHV-1. The control was 21°C as this temperature is permissive to OsHV-1 replication and close to the optimal temperature for oyster growth and reproduction [19]. The tested temperatures were 26°C, a temperature whose effects on the survival of the oyster remains to be clarified, and 29°C, a temperature at which the survival of oysters exposed to the virus is improved [16,17]. These two temperatures are in the thermal range of the oyster since the filtration stops only at 33°C and mortality occurs at 38°C [19] (*Petton com pers*).

The first experiment was designed to investigate the effects of high temperatures on OsHV-1
transmission, infection and mortality of oysters. Specific-pathogen-free (SPF) oysters were

injected with OsHV-1 suspension (pathogen donors) or synthetic seawater (controls) and placed 72 in cohabitation with SPF oysters hereafter called "pathogen recipients" or "control recipients" 73 respectively (Fig. 1). These recipients were previously acclimated or directly dipped (not-74 acclimated) at 21°C, 26°C or 29°C. Their survival was followed for 14 d and the infectivity of 75 OsHV-1 was evaluated (experiment 1A). Next, the recipients were all placed at 21°C, and new 76 SPF oysters were added to the tanks in order to evaluate the potential for virus reactivation and 77 transmission (experiment 1B). Finally, recipients were transferred to a farming area where 78 79 OsHV-1 induced mortalities were occurring to evaluate the long-term susceptibility to the disease 80 (experiment 1C). Concomitantly, a second experiment (experiment 2) evaluated the effect of temperature on the OsHV-1 suspension per se. The viral suspension and synthetic seawater 81 (control) were incubated at 21°C, 26°C and 29°C prior injection in oysters at 21°C. Survival of 82 recipients cohabited with injected oysters was followed for 14 d. 83

84 Experimental procedures

85 Animals and maintenance

Two cohorts of specific-pathogen-free (SPF) oysters were produced under controlled conditions 86 [20,21]. Briefly, wild ovsters were collected in Fouras (Marennes-Oleron, France; 46° 00' 43.2' 87 'N, 1° 07' 02.9'' W) in August 2015 and were transferred to the Ifremer facilities in Argenton 88 (Brittany, France; 48°34'30''N, 4°36'18'' W) for conditioning. These animals were held in 500 L 89 flow through tanks with seawater kept at a constant temperature of 17°C that was enriched with a 90 phytoplankton mixture. Seawater was UV treated and filtered thought 1 µm mesh. Fertilization 91 was performed by stripping the gonads from 100 individuals (1/3 males, 2/3 females) on 23 92 93 August 2015 (cohort 1) and 23 February 2016 (cohort 2). The fertilization rate was up to 90%.

The embryos developed in 150l tanks at 21°C for 48h, and D-larvae were transferred to flowthrough rearing systems at 25°C. After 13 days, competent larvae were collected and allowed to settle in downwellers. On 1st October 2015 and 1st April 2016, oysters were transferred to Ifremer facilities in Bouin for nursery where were seawater was UV treated and filtered thought 1 μ m mesh (Vendée, France, 46°57′15.5″N 2°02′40.9″W).

The two cohorts of SPF oysters were moved back to Argenton on 28 April 2016 and split into 99 five 500 L tanks at 21°C prior to starting the experiments in open flow systems. At this time, 100 oysters from the first cohort were 8 months old, with a mean weight of 1.48 g. Oysters from the 101 second cohort were 2 ¹/₂ months old with a mean weight of 0.80 g. The oysters were screened for 102 the herpesvirus by qPCR at all the different production steps it was always undetected [22]. They 103 were fed with a mixture of Chaetoceros muelleri (CCAP 1010/3) and Tisochrysis lutea (CCAP 104 927/14) (1:1 in dry weight). Food concentration was set at $1500\mu m^3.\mu l^{-1}$ of microalgae at the 105 outlet pipe of the tank so that oysters were fed ad libitum [23]. Temperature, salinity, pH and 106 oxygen were controlled daily with the WTW probes xi3101, cond340, pH3310 and FDO 925, 107 respectively. 108

109 Oysters from the first cohort were either injected with a suspension of OsHV-1 (pathogen donors) 110 or synthetic seawater (controls), or they were not injected and used as recipients in both 111 experiments 1 and 2. Oysters from the second cohort served as new recipients in experiment 1B.

112 Experimental design

113 Acclimation of oysters

114 On 9 May 2016, oysters for injection (N=3000 individuals) were either left at 21°C (control 115 temperature), or gradually increased to 26°C and 29°C at 2°C day⁻¹ in three 500 L tanks (one for

each temperature, Fig. S1). At the same time, some of the recipient oysters (N=3600 individuals)
were transferred to the experimental room, distributed into twenty-five 45 L tanks and either left
at 21°C or gradually increased to 26°C or 29°C (15 tanks were set at 21°C, 5 tanks at 26°C and 5
tanks at 29°C, see Table 1). The remaining recipients were left undisturbed in 500 L tank at 21°C
and later served as non-acclimated recipients. Acclimation lasted for 11 days up until 19 May.

Each tank was equipped with a thermostat and heating resistor (Biotherm Ecco Hobby and 121 SCHEIGO Titane 300W, Europrix, France) to maintain the seawater at the desired temperature 122 (Fig. S2). Three tanks (one for each temperature) were equipped with a high-frequency 123 temperature data logger (iButton DS1922L) with 0.1°C resolution and a final accuracy of ± 124 0.3°C. A light bubbling and a circulation pump (Aquapower 200 superfish 200L/H, Europrix, 125 France) were added in each 45 L tanks to maintain >90% oxygen saturation and seawater 126 homogenization. Seawater salinity was 35%. The oyster filtration rate was measured daily in 127 each tank as reported in [23] (Fig. S3). The water flow was set at 70 L h⁻¹ in the 500 L tanks and 128 12 L h⁻¹ in the 45 L tank. Throughout this time, there was no oyster mortality. 129

130 Infection

131 On 19 May 2016, oysters for injection were myorelaxed in MgCl₂ solution at their respective 132 acclimation temperature until valve opening [24]. Pathogen donors were injected with 100 μ l of 133 viral suspension containing 6.9×10⁶ copies of OsHV-1 μ Var in the adductor muscle, while 134 controls were injected with the same volume of sterile synthetic seawater. Donors and controls 135 were further incubated for 5 hours at their respective acclimation temperature.

136 The viral suspension was obtained from 10 infected oysters. The gills and mantle of these oysters 137 were placed in a sterile 50 ml tube containing 10 volumes of artificial seawater (ASW, 9 mL g^{-1}

tissue). Tissues were ground on ice using an Ultraturax $(3 \times 5 \text{ s})$ mixer. After centrifugation (1000 g, 5 min, 4°C), the supernatant was transferred to a new tube and diluted in 4 volumes of ASW. The homogenate was filtered under sterile conditions using syringe filters at pore sizes of 5 µm, 2 µm, 0.45 µm and 0.22 µm (Millipore, Billerica, USA).

142 Effect of high temperatures on OsHV-1 transmission, infection, and mortality of oysters
143 (experiment 1-part A)

Injected oysters (pathogen donors and controls) were transferred into the 45 L tanks to cohabit with the recipients acclimated and maintained at 21°C, 26°C and 29°C. Donors were distributed in triplicate tanks while controls were in duplicates for each temperature (Table 1). At the same time, the non-acclimated recipients left at 21°C were added to the tanks that contained pathogen donors or controls, and the volume of water was reduced to 30 L and left stagnant for 12 hours. Dead donors were removed 24 h post-injection (hpi) and all the donors were removed 72 hpi. The biomass of controls and pathogen donors was 230 g while that of recipients was 350 g (Fig. 1).

Survival of acclimated and non-acclimated recipients was monitored for 14 days. Thirty living recipients (both acclimated and non-acclimated, 15 individuals for each group) were sampled in each tank at 0, 12, 24, 48 and 96 h post-cohabitation (hpc). Whole tissues of 9 recipients out of 15 were removed from the shells, pooled together, flash frozen and stored in liquid nitrogen. Then, oyster tissues were crushed in liquid nitrogen with a MM400 homogenizer (Retsch, Eragny, France) and divided for OsHV-1 DNA and viral gene expression.

157 *Effect of previous temperature treatments on survival of recipients at 21°C (experiment 1-part B).*

158 On 2 June 2016, the temperature of all recipient tanks was set at 21°C and new SPF oysters were 159 added. Recipient and new SPF survival was monitored for 11 days up until 13 June. Effect of previous temperature treatments on susceptibility of oysters to a second infection in a
farming area (experiment 1-part C).

162 On 13 June 2016, the recipients surviving the experiment 1A and B were transferred into the Bay

163 of Brest at Pointe du Chateau in (48° 20' 06.19" N, 4° 19' 06.37" W) where mass mortalities of

164 oysters caused by OsHV-1 were occurring [25], and their survival was followed for 302 days.

165 *Effect of incubation temperature on the OsHV-1 suspension (experiment 2).*

On 19 May 2016, the viral suspension and the synthetic seawater were incubated at 21°C, 26°C 166 and 29°C for 5 hours before injecting 100 µl into the adductor muscle of both pathogen donors 167 and controls kept at 21°C. Virus suspension remain infectious for 48 h in seawater at 20°C but 168 169 infectivity decreases after 24 h [26]. These injected animals remained for 5 h in six separate tanks (one for each combination of injection type and incubation temperature). Injected oysters 170 (pathogen donors and controls) were transferred to the 45 L tanks to cohabit with the recipients 171 acclimated at 21°C. Donors were distributed in triplicate tanks while controls were in duplicates 172 for each temperature (Table 1). The volume of water was reduced to 30 L and left stagnant for 12 173 hours. Dead donors were removed 24 hpi and all the donors were removed 72 hpi. The biomass 174 of controls and pathogen donors was 230 g while that of recipients was 350 g (Fig. 1). Controls 175 and pathogen donors at 21°C were common to experiments 1 and 2 (Table 1). 176

177 OsHV-1 DNA quantification

Level of OsHV-I DNA was quantified in both control and pathogen recipients, acclimated or non-acclimated, sampled at 0, 12, 24, 48 and 96 hpc in experiments 1A and 2. These analyses were conducted by the Laboratoire Departemental Veterinaire de l'Herault (Montpellier, France) using oyster powder homogenized in sterile artificial seawater [27]. Total DNA was then

extracted with a QIAamp tissue mini kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The
extract was stored at -20°C before detection and quantification according to a real-time PCR
protocol based on SYBR Green chemistry [27] with specific primers validated by [28]. The
results were expressed as the log of OsHV-1 DNA copies per mg of wet tissue.

186 Viral gene expression

187 Viral gene expression was quantified in acclimated pathogen recipients sampled at 24 and 48 hpc188 in experiments 1A and 2.

189 Total RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis.

Total RNA was isolated using Extrac-all (Eurobio, Courtaboeuf, France) at a concentration of 1.5 190 mL 30 mg⁻¹ powder, and treated with DNAse I (Sigma, 1 U µg⁻¹ total RNA). Samples were then 191 treated with DNAse (DNase MaxTM Kit, MO BIO laboratories, Inc) using (1 U μ g⁻¹ total RNA) 192 to remove genomic DNA. Quality of RNA and quantity were determined using a NanoDrop 2000 193 (Thermo Scientific). First strand cDNA synthesis was performed using the iScript[™] cDNA 194 Synthesis Kit (BIO-RAD) with 1µg of RNA [29]. A no reverse transcription was performed after 195 each DNAse treatment using real time PCR to control for the absence of oyster and virus 196 genomic DNA. 197

198 *Real time PCRs and relative expression.*

Six viral genes (ORFs 27, 38, 41, 67, 87 and 99) were selected among the 39 ORFs described by
[30]. These ORFs encoded for different protein functions and expressed differently during an
OsHV-1 replication cycle [30].

The real-time PCR assay was performed in triplicate with 5µl cDNA (1/10 dilution) in a total 202 volume of 10µL. The concentrations of the reaction components were as follows: 10µM of each 203 primer, 1.5µl H2O, 7.5µl of iQ[™] SYBR Green Supermix (BIO-RAD). Real time PCR cycling 204 205 conditions were as follows: activation at 95°C for 5min followed by 45 cycles of 30s at 95°C, 1 min at 60°C, and a melting curve program from 95 to 70°C by decreasing the temperature by 206 0.5°C every 10s. Each run included a positive cDNA control (a pool of the 30 cDNA samples of 207 the present experiment analyzed in each amplification plate) and in all cases negative controls 208 209 (without cDNA) were included to rule out DNA contamination. The elongation factor-1 (EF) 210 from C. gigas was chosen to normalize the viral gene expression. PCR efficiency (E) was determined by drawing standard curves from a serial dilution analysis of the pool of cDNA to 211 ensure that E ranged from 99% to 108% for each primer pair. 212

The calculation of the relative mRNA levels was based on a comparative Ct method [31]. No differences between Ct values were observed for EF among temperatures and between injection types and times. Therefore, the relative quantification value of the samples was normalized with EF and relative to the positive control, and was expressed as $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$, $\Delta Ct = [Ct(cDNA \ sample) - Ct(positive \ cDNA \ control)]$ and $\Delta\Delta Ct = \Delta Ct \ of \ cDNA - \Delta Ct \ of \ EF$.

Standard curves were performed for each primer pair using serial dilutions of total DNA, with PCR efficacy ($E=10^{(-1/slope)}$) being subsequently calculated thanks to these curves [32].

220 Statistical analysis

Survival functions were computed according to [33]. Survival time was measured in hours (experiments 1A and 2) or days (experiment 1C) from the onset of each experiment phase. The data were read as the number of dead oysters within each tank at each count. Survival time curves

of recipients were compared using the Cox model (1972) after adjusting for temperature effect 224 (21°C, 26°C, 29°C, experiments 1A, 1C and 2), acclimation (acclimated vs non acclimated, 225 experiment 1A) or injection (OsHV-1 vs SSW, experiments 1C). In experiment 1A, the survival 226 227 of control recipients was not included in the statistical model because it was 100 %. The proportionality of hazards (PH) was checked with Martingale residuals [34]. Because the PH 228 assumption was violated, time dependent covariates representing the interaction of the original 229 covariates and times were added to the model. Time (t) was defined as dichotomous: $t \le 120$ h or 230 231 t > 120 h. Custom hazard ratios were produced by means of contrasts.

Mixed-design ANOVAs were performed to assess differences in (i) OsHV-1 DNA in pathogen 232 recipients (experiments 1A and 2), depending on temperature (3 levels, main plot), acclimation (2 233 levels, subplot) and time (4 levels, sub-subplot) and (ii) the viral gene expression in acclimated 234 pathogen recipients (experiments 1A and 2), depending on temperature (3 levels, main plot) and 235 time (2 levels subplot). The replication unit was the tank in which the temperature and infection 236 treatments were applied. All mutual interactions among factors were tested, and Tukey's HSD 237 was used as a *post hoc* test. The normality of residuals and homogeneity of variances were 238 graphically checked, and the data were log(x+1) transformed where necessary. Statistical 239 240 analyses were performed in SAS 9.4 software (SAS institute).

241

242 **Results**

243 Effect of high temperatures on OsHV-1 transmission, infection, and survival of oysters
244 (experiment 1A)

The oysters injected with OsHV-1 suspension (pathogen donors) showed significant mortalities 48 hpi at the three tested temperatures (Fig. S1). Their final survival at 72 hpi was ranked as 29°C ($72 \pm 2.1\%$) >26°C ($62 \pm 2.1\%$) >21°C ($46 \pm 2.6\%$).

The survival of control recipients (oysters living in cohabitation with SSW injected oysters) was 100 \pm 0 % irrespective of temperature and acclimation treatments (data not shown), but low levels of OsHV-1 DNA were occasionally detected in these animals (<10³ cp mg⁻¹ wet tissue, Table S1). Although control recipients were no longer considered SPF, absence of mortality suggest that they were healthy, and only the pathogen recipients were considered hereafter.

At the end of the cohabitation trial, the survival of pathogen recipients acclimated at 29°C was higher (85.7 \pm 2.0%) than at 21°C and 26°C, where survival rates were 52.4 \pm 3.1% and 43.9 \pm 3.1% respectively (Fig. 2A). Survival of non-acclimated pathogen recipients was 5-9% lower than that of their acclimated counterparts irrespective of temperature. Mortality started 72 h postcohabitation (hpc) at 26°C and 120 hpc at 21°C (Fig. 2A). Overall, mortality risk was lowest at 29°C (Table S2).

At the onset of the experiment, OsHV-1 DNA was not detected in SPF oysters. Between 0-24 259 hpc, the level of OsHV-1 DNA in pathogen recipients increased above 10⁴ cp.mg⁻¹ irrespective of 260 temperatures, but rates of increase were the highest at 26°C and 29°C (Fig. 2B, Table S3). 261 Between 24-48 hpc, the level of OsHV-1 DNA continued to increase at 21°C, remained high at 262 26°C, and initiated a decrease at 29°C. Therefore, at 48 hpc, the level of OsHV-1 DNA ranked as 263 $26^{\circ}C = 21^{\circ}C > 29^{\circ}C$. Finally, between 48-96 hpc, OsHV-1 DNA decreased at $26^{\circ}C$ and $29^{\circ}C$ 264 while it remained stable at 21°C. Therefore, at 96 hpc, OsHV-1 DNA ranked as $21^{\circ}C > 26^{\circ}C =$ 265 266 29°C. Interestingly, maximum values of OsHV-1 DNA were similar among temperatures

267 $(1.9 \times 10^6 \text{ cp.mg}^{-1} \text{ at } 21^\circ \text{C} 48 \text{ hpc}; 3.4 \times 10^6 \text{ cp.mg}^1 \text{ at } 26^\circ \text{C} 24 \text{ hpc} \text{ and at } 29^\circ \text{C}, 4.0 \times 10^5 \text{ cp.mg}^{-1} 24$ 268 hpc) but these maximum values were observed for longer at 26°C and 21°C than at 29°C.

The six viral Open Reading Frames (ORFs) selected in our study were expressed in pathogen recipients at the three tested temperatures. Three of them were modulated by temperature (ORFs 27, 38 and 87). Gene expression levels were highest at 26°C, except ORF 87 at 48 hpc, which exhibited the highest values at 21°C. At 29°C, viral gene expressions of these three ORFs were lower than at 26°C and 21°C. Viral gene expression of the other ORFs (41, 67 and 99) increased between 24 and 48 hpc (Fig. 2C and D).

275 *Effect of previous temperature treatments on recipient survival at 21°C (experiment 1B).*

The survival of both control and pathogen recipients placed at 21° C for 11 days was $100 \pm 0 \%$ irrespective of previous temperature treatments (data not shown). Moreover, the new SPF oysters placed in cohabitation with them showed no mortality.

279 Effect of previous temperature treatments on oyster susceptibility to a second infection in a
280 farming area (experiment 1C).

Both pathogen and controls recipients transferred to a farming area where OsHV-1 occurred showed high mortalities. However, the survival of pathogen recipients was higher (75.9 \pm 5.3%) than that of control recipients (44.9 \pm 9.9%, Fig. 3, Table S4). There was no effect of previous temperature treatments on the survival of control recipients. In contrast, the survival of the pathogen recipients infected at 29°C was lower (67.9 \pm 10.8%) than those infected at 21°C and 26°C, where survival was 79.3 \pm 3.7% and 80.6 \pm 5.5% respectively. Throughout the whole experiment 1, the survival of the pathogen recipients previously exposed to donors at 29°C

remained higher (56.6%) than at 21°C and 26°C, where survival was 41.9% and 32.0%
respectively.

290 *Effect of incubation temperature on the OsHV-1 suspension (experiment 2).*

As observed in experiment 1, the survival of control recipients was 100 ± 0 % but low levels of OsHV-1 DNA were occasionally detected (< 10^2 cp mg⁻¹ wet tissue, Table S1). However, given the absence of mortality and temperature effect on control recipients, only the pathogen recipients were considered hereafter.

Pathogen recipients showed significant mortalities after 72 hpc (Fig. 4A, Table S5). At the end of experiment 2, the survival of pathogen recipients ranked as a function of incubation temperature of the viral suspension: $26^{\circ}C$ ($46 \pm 3 \%$) < $21^{\circ}C = 29^{\circ}C$ ($52 \pm 2 \%$). The level of OsHV-1 DNA and viral gene expression in pathogen recipients increased during the experiment but were not influenced by the incubation temperature of the viral suspension (Fig. 4B and C).

300 Discussion

The major result of this study is that the survival of recipient oysters exposed to the virus at 29°C (85.7% survival) was markedly higher than at 21°C and 26°C (52.4% and 43.9% respectively), reflecting changes in host susceptibility and/or virus virulence. This concurs with a previous study where recipients cohabited with field-infected donors [16]. These differences in survival persisted when the pathogen recipients were all placed at 21°C, the optimal temperature for OsHV-1 replication, and when they were re-exposed to OsHV-1 in the field. This result opens new perspectives for mitigation measures using high temperature.

The differences in survival between recipients exposed to OsHV-1 at 21°C and 29°C coincided 308 with differences in viral replication in the host. Although levels of OsHV-1 DNA increased from 309 undetectable amounts to values higher than 10^4 DNA cp mg⁻¹ (the threshold at which mortality 310 311 generally occurs) for both temperatures during the first 24 hpc, it then decreased markedly in recipients at 29°C whereas it continued to increase at 21°C. A similar pattern was observed in 312 SPF oysters having cohabited with field infected donors at these two temperatures [16]. In our 313 study, the expression of three viral genes (ORF 27, 38 and 87) involved in regulation of a ring 314 315 finger motif, DNA repairing and apoptosis inhibition [30] were lower in recipients at 29°C than at 21°C. High temperature may reduce the expression of some viral genes that could be essential 316 to the development of the disease and viral cycle. Also, equally high expression levels of ORF 317 41, 67 and 99 at 21°C and 29°C suggest the induction of the OsHV-1 lytic cycle irrespective of 318 temperature [35]. 319

Survival of pathogen donors at 29°C was higher than at 21°C, as observed in pathogen recipients. This suggests that high temperature (29°C) decreased the susceptibility of oysters to OsHV-1. This, however, raises the possibility that viral shedding of pathogen donors at 29°C was lower than that at 21°C, which could have contributed to the increased survival of the pathogen recipients at 29°C.

We also found that these temperatures (21°C and 29°C) had no effect on the virus suspension *per se*. Indeed, the survival, level of OsHV-1 DNA and virus gene expression of recipients at 21°C having cohabited with donors injected with viral suspension incubated were all similar at 21°C or 29°C. Therefore, high temperature (29°C) had no effect on the infectivity (a measure of the ability of a disease agent to establish itself in the host) or the virulence (a measure of the severity of a disease) of OsHV-1.

Therefore, high temperature (29°C) decreased the susceptibility of oysters to OsHV-1 without altering virus infectivity and virulence; however, the underlying mechanism remains unknown. Temperature impacts all aspects of ectotherm physiology, including their immunity [36]. For instance, the antiviral response of oysters is stimulated at 22°C compared to 12°C [37]. High temperatures (32°C) induce overexpression of heat shock proteins 70 involved in the repression of white spot syndrome virus replication in shrimps [38].

At 26°C, the mortality of pathogen recipients started earlier than at 21°C and 29°C, survival was lowest, levels of OsHV-1 DNA were highest (between 12-48 hpc) and the expression of three viral genes was enhanced. Furthermore, the survival of pathogen recipients having cohabited with donors injected with viral suspension incubated at 26°C was lowest, but levels of OsHV-1 DNA and viral gene expression were similar among temperature treatments. Therefore, it appears that the virulence of OsHV-1 was enhanced at 26°C, although an increase in susceptibility of the host cannot be ruled out.

344 In our study, the survival of pathogen recipients at 26°C is the lowest as reported by [17]. However, in a previous study, survival of oysters exposed to OsHV-1 at 21°C was lower than at 345 26°C [16]. Discrepancies may reflect different methods of infection among studies. Here, the 346 donors were injected with a viral suspension, whereas in [16] they were naturally infected by a 347 short exposure to field conditions where OsHV-1 induced mortalities of oysters were occurring. 348 349 Therefore, their study probably encompasses other microorganisms naturally encountered in the 350 marine environment, including populations of pathogenic vibrios that influence oyster survival 351 [22,39].

When temperature of pathogen recipients decreases from 29°C to 21°C, a temperature permissive for OsHV-1 replication, there was neither additional mortality nor disease transmission to the new SPF oysters. Although high temperature increases elimination of several viruses in oysters [40], herpesviruses are generally incurable and complete elimination from the host is unlikely [41]. Our results suggest that OsHV-1 did not reactivate at 21°C, or at least not sufficiently to induce mortality. However, OsHV-1 can persist in oysters for several months at low temperatures

 $(<13^{\circ}C)$ and can reactivate and kill the host after a thermal elevation to $21^{\circ}C$ [42].

Recipients showed additional mortalities following the second exposure to OsHV-1 in the field. The survival of pathogen recipients previously infected at 29°C was lower than those infected at 21°C and 26°C, likely reflecting the persistence of a greater number of susceptible hosts at 29°C.

Throughout the whole experiment, the survival of recipients exposed to pathogen donors at 29°C 362 was on average 20% higher than at 21°C and 26°C. Oysters first infected at 29°C seemed less 363 susceptible to the virus than those first infected at 21°C and 26°C. For the second infection, the 364 365 oysters were 1 ¹/₂ month older and therefore potentially less susceptible to the pathogen [43]. Also, the first exposure to OsHV-1 may have lowered the susceptibility of oysters to a second 366 infection. A non-lethal exposure to a pathogen can enhance invertebrate immunity by immune 367 priming [44,45]. Immune priming against OsHV-1 has already been reported for oysters injected 368 with a synthetic viral analogue [46]. 369

Oysters exposed to the virus at 29°C were less susceptible to OsHV-1 than at 21°C and 26°C over the long term, thus opening new perspectives for mitigation measures. Hyperthermia was already suggested as preventive method in shrimp farming to minimize the risk of a viral outbreak [47]. Regarding the potential of high temperature treatment to mitigate disease risk in oyster farms, several questions need to be answered. What is the sanitary status of the oysters exposed to OsHV-1 at high temperature (OsHV-1-free or asymptomatic carrier)? What is the optimal treatment duration and temperature to optimize survival and minimize energy costs? How is it possible to practically implement a high temperature treatment on a production farm? Finally, what are the economic efficiency (i.e. the cost of disease control measures compared to ensuing benefits) and acceptability (the willingness of organizations to put into action disease control measures) of high temperature treatment?

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- 542
- **Table 1.** List of all treatment combinations used in experiments 1A, 1B and 2 in the laboratory.
- 544 Abbreviations: SSW, synthetic seawater; A, acclimated; NA, non-acclimated.

Seawater	Injection	Injection	Replicate	Tank	Acclimation	Experiment
temperature		temperature				

Seawater	Injection	Injection	Replicate	Tank	Acclimation	Experiment
temperature		temperature				
21°C	SSW	21°C	1	1	А	1-2
			2	2	А	1-2
		26°C	1	3	А	2
			2	4	A	2
		29°C	1	5	A	2
			2	6	A	2
	OsHV-1	21°C	1	7	A-NA	1-2
			2	8	A-NA	1-2
			3	9	A-NA	1-2
		26°C	1	10	А	2
			2	11	А	2
		L.	3	12	А	2
		29°C	1	13	А	2
			2	14	А	2
			3	15	А	2
26°C	SSW	21°C	1	16	А	1
	\mathbf{C}		2	17	А	1
	OsHV-1	21°C	1	18	A-NA	1
			2	19	A-NA	1
			3	20	A-NA	1
29°C	SSW	21°C	1	21	А	1

Seawater	Injection	Injection	Replicate	Tank	Acclimation	Experiment
temperature		temperature				
			2	22	А	1
	OsHV-1	21°C	1	23	A-NA	1
			2	24	A-NA	
			3	25	A-NA	1
						7
					5	
					\mathcal{S}	
		, C				

547 Figure legends

Fig. 1. Experimental design to investigate the effect of temperature on disease susceptibility of
the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* and virulence of the Ostreid herpesvirus type 1.
Abbreviations: OsHV-1, Ostreid herpesvirus type 1; SPF, specific-pathogen free oyster; SSW,
synthetic seawater.

Fig. 2. (A) Survival of oysters (pathogen recipients) having cohabited with donors injected with 552 OsHV-1 at 21°C, 26°C and 29°C with or without prior acclimation. (B) Quantification of OsHV-553 554 1 DNA in pathogen recipients as a function of temperature. Data of acclimated and nonacclimated oysters were averaged due to temperature \times acclimation \times time interaction not being 555 significant. Inset represents the significant interaction of temperature × acclimation. Data were 556 log (x+1) transformed. (C and D) Viral gene expression expressed as a delta threshold cycle 557 number (Ct) of OsHV-1 open reading frames (ORFs) relative to C. gigas elongation factor in live 558 acclimated pathogen recipients as a function of temperature. Inset represents the main effect of 559 time averaged for the six tested ORFs. The gene expression analyses were conducted only at 24 560 hpc and 48 hpc. For all analyses, values are means \pm SE (n=3 tanks), and different letters indicate 561 significant differences. Only significant effects are represented. 562

Fig. 3. Survival of pathogen recipient after being transferred to a farming area where OsHV-1
occurred as a function of temperature during the first exposure to OsHV-1 in the laboratory.

Fig. 4. (A) Survival of oysters (pathogen recipients) having cohabited with donors injected with OsHV-1 incubated at 21°C, 26°C and 29°C for 5 hours. (B) Quantification of OsHV-1 DNA in pathogen recipients as a function of incubation temperature of the viral suspension. Data of recipients at 21°C, 26°C and 29°C were averaged because the interaction of temperature \times time was not significant (black line). Data were log (x+1) transformed. (C) Viral gene expression

570 expressed as a delta threshold cycle number (Ct) of OsHV-1 open reading frames (ORFs) relative 571 to *C. gigas* elongation factor 1 in live acclimated recipients as a function of time. The gene 572 expression analyses were conducted only at 24 hpc and 48 hpc. For all analyses, values are means 573 \pm SE (n=3 tanks), and different letters indicate significant differences. Only significant effects are 574 represented.

575

Fig. 1.





Y'



Fig. 3.



Fig. 4.



