

1 **Title:** Simulated marine heat wave alters abundance and structure of *Vibrio* populations  
2 associated with the Pacific oyster resulting in a mass mortality event

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13  
14 **Abstract**

15 Marine heat waves are predicted to become more frequent and intense due to anthropogenically  
16 induced climate change, which will impact global production of seafood. Links between rising  
17 seawater temperature and disease have been documented for many aquaculture species,  
18 including the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas*. The oyster harbors a diverse microbial  
19 community that may act as a source of opportunistic pathogens during temperature stress. We  
20 rapidly raised the seawater temperature from 20°C to 25°C resulting in an oyster mortality rate  
21 of 77.4%. Under the same temperature conditions and with the addition of antibiotics, the  
22 mortality rate was only 4.3%, strongly indicating a role for bacteria in temperature-induced  
23 mortality. 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing revealed a change in the oyster microbiome when  
24 the temperature was increased to 25°C, with a notable increase in the proportion of *Vibrio*  
25 sequences. This pattern was confirmed by qPCR, which revealed heat stress increased the  
26 abundance of *V. harveyi* and *V. fortis* by 324-fold and 10-fold, respectively. Our findings  
27 indicate that heat stress induced mortality of *C. gigas* coincides with an increase in the  
28 abundance of putative bacterial pathogens in the oyster microbiome and highlights the negative  
29 consequences of marine heat waves on food production from aquaculture.

30  
31 **Keywords:** *Crassostrea*; *Vibrio harveyi*; marine heat wave; temperature stress; disease event.

## 32 **Introduction**

33 Extreme climatic events, such as heat waves, are becoming more frequent, intense and  
34 persistent due to the anthropogenic climate change, but their economic and ecological impacts  
35 are poorly understood, particularly in marine systems [1,2]. Marine heat waves are defined as  
36 “discrete prolonged anomalously warm water events” [3], and can be caused by a combination  
37 of atmospheric and oceanographic processes [4,5]. Well-known marine heat waves have  
38 occurred in the Mediterranean Sea [6], Western Australia [7], in the northwest Atlantic [8], and  
39 in the northeast Pacific [9,10]. Ecological and economical impacts of these heat waves include  
40 fish kills and range expansion of marine fauna (Western Australia, [7]), benthic habitat loss  
41 (Mediterranean Sea, [11]), and harmful algal blooms prompting fishery closures (northeast  
42 Pacific, [12]).

43 Heat waves and rising seawater temperatures have also been linked to increased disease  
44 incidence in marine ecosystems [reviewed by 13]. In southeastern Australia, atmospheric and  
45 marine heat waves have coincided with several new disease events of farmed Pacific oysters  
46 (*Crassostrea gigas*) [14-16]. In January 2013 during an unprecedented atmospheric heat wave,  
47 where *C. gigas* inhabiting the intertidal zone would have experienced air temperatures  $>40^{\circ}\text{C}$   
48 during low tide ([www.bom.gov.au](http://www.bom.gov.au)), oyster farmers in the Hawkesbury River (New South  
49 Wales, Australia) experienced their first mass mortality event caused by Ostreid herpesvirus  
50 [15]. In January 2016, the first occurrence of Ostreid herpesvirus derived mortality occurred in  
51 Tasmania [17], during the longest and most intense marine heat wave ever recorded in the  
52 region [16]. During this period, the ocean off the Tasmanian coastline reached  $2.9^{\circ}\text{C}$  above  
53 mean climatology [16]. Notably, Ostreid herpesvirus is not the only cause of *C. gigas*  
54 mortalities in southeastern Australia. From January to June 2013 and November to January  
55 2014, mass mortalities of cultivated *C. gigas* were reported in the Port Stephens estuary (New  
56 South Wales, Australia) [14]. No known aetiological agent was isolated from these disease  
57 events in Port Stephens. However, environmental data indicated that mortality coincided with  
58 periods of high temperature [14]. In synthesis, a pattern of mass mortality associated with heat  
59 stress is a reoccurring problem wherever *C. gigas* are farmed around the world [18-20].

60 There are a number of potential mechanisms for increased *C. gigas* mortality and  
61 disease susceptibility under higher temperatures, including effects on host physiology [20-22],  
62 and increases in the occurrence and virulence of potential pathogens [23]. *C. gigas* are known  
63 to survive a broad range of temperatures, but the thermal optimum for this species is predicted  
64 to be  $<23^{\circ}\text{C}$  [24-29]. Abundant literature underlines the negative impacts of temperatures above  
65  $20\text{-}25^{\circ}\text{C}$  on *C. gigas* feeding activity (filtration rate), while showing respiration continues to

66 exponentially increase over 30°C [27,24,25]. *C. gigas* experiencing thermal conditions above  
67 ~21°C are likely to be physiologically stressed due to reduced aerobic scope and a mismatch  
68 between energy acquisition and expenditure [27,24]. It has been hypothesised that results in  
69 physiological tradeoffs that divert energy from essential processes, such as immunity towards  
70 maintenance [30].

71 Heat waves may also exacerbate disease outbreaks in marine ecosystems by changing  
72 the virulence of pathogens [31]. For example, bacteria belonging to the *Vibrio* genus that can  
73 cause disease in oysters [reviewed by 32] have a preference for warm water conditions [33].  
74 Elevated seawater temperature not only causes an increase in the growth rate and abundance of  
75 *Vibrio* species within coastal microbial communities [34,35], but can also directly influence the  
76 expression of their virulence factors [36,23,37]. For instance, *V. coralliilyticus* is a temperature-  
77 dependent pathogen of larval *C. gigas* [38,39], for which numerous virulence factors involved  
78 in motility, host degradation, secretion, antimicrobial resistance and transcriptional regulation  
79 are up-regulated at higher temperatures (27°C versus 24°C) [23].

80 To date, our understanding of heat stress on oyster health has largely been derived from  
81 laboratory-based experiments that injected *C. gigas* with pathogens, such as Ostreid herpesvirus  
82 [40] and *Vibrio* species [41,22]. These experimental challenges have typically used unrealistic  
83 doses of the pathogen and intramuscular injection avoids natural barriers of immunity [42].  
84 Here, we investigated how heat stress impacts the health and microbiome of *C. gigas* using an  
85 experiment designed to replicate the effect of a marine heat wave event. An antibiotic treatment  
86 was also included to disentangle the impacts of elevated temperature on *C. gigas* physiology  
87 and the pathogenicity of the microbial community associated with the oyster. Our results  
88 demonstrate that heat stress increases the abundance of putative pathogen(s) (*Vibrio* spp.) in  
89 the oyster microbiome, and these changes coincided with mortality of *C. gigas*.

90

## 91 **Material and Methods**

92

### 93 **Simulated marine heat wave**

94 Triploid *Crassostrea gigas* (spat, shell length 6 mm) were collected from a Pacific oyster farm  
95 located at Oyster Cove (New South Wales, Australia) on the 9<sup>th</sup> of January, 2017. *C. gigas* were  
96 deliberately collected prior to an atmospheric heat wave (10<sup>th</sup> to 14<sup>th</sup> of January) that affected  
97 large parts of New South Wales [43] to ensure the oyster's physiology and bacterial community  
98 was consistent between our experiment and mortalities that naturally occur in the field. The  
99 nearest weather station at Williamstown (station 061078) set a new temperature record on the

100 morning of the 14<sup>th</sup> of January, with a minimum daily air temperature of 26.1°C [43]. This  
101 extreme heat wave was forecasted by the heat wave Service of the Australian Bureau of  
102 Meteorology ([www.bom.gov.au/australia/heatwave](http://www.bom.gov.au/australia/heatwave)). The farm at Oyster Cove experienced  
103 high mortality of *C. gigas* spat during this period of time, which they attributed to the heat wave  
104 event.

105 *C. gigas* were transported from Oyster Cove to the Sydney Institute of Marine Science  
106 in an air-conditioned vehicle (<3.5 hrs). Upon immediate arrival at the laboratory, four groups  
107 of *C. gigas* were exposed to a seawater matrix that differed in temperature (20±1°C versus  
108 25±1°C) and concentration of penicillin-streptomycin. Each treatment consisted of 3 replicate  
109 glass tanks. Each tank held 25 *C. gigas* individuals within 500 ml of seawater. Three tanks at  
110 each temperature were treated daily with 100 units/ml of penicillin and 0.1 mg/ml of  
111 streptomycin (Sigma #P4333). Each day, tanks received a 100 % seawater change to avoid the  
112 accumulation of bacterial exo-toxins. Seawater was 5 µm filtered and UV sterilized. Oysters  
113 were fed daily with live microalgae (*Isochrysis galbana*, 10<sup>8</sup> cells). The *I. galbana* culture was  
114 routinely plated on thiosulfate citrate bile salts sucrose agar (TCBS) to confirm absence of  
115 culturable *Vibrio* species.

116 Oyster mortality was assessed each day, with dead *C. gigas* removed from tanks and  
117 frozen at -80°C for subsequent DNA extraction. Three live *C. gigas* were sampled from each  
118 tank on day 0, 3, 4, 5 and 6. Each *C. gigas* was shucked using a sterile scalpel blade and the  
119 oyster soft tissue was placed in an individual 2 ml sterile tubes for storage at -80°C.

120

#### 121 **Nucleic acid extraction**

122 Genomic DNA and total RNA was co-extracted from individual oysters. The whole oyster (soft  
123 tissue) was homogenised in lysis buffer using a bead mill (Qiagen TissueLyser II) and ceramic  
124 beads. Homogenised tissue was briefly centrifuged (14,000 g x 1 min) and split into two  
125 samples for nucleic acid extraction. DNA was purified using the Isolate II Genomic DNA Kit  
126 (Bioline) and RNA was purified using TriReagent® LS (Sigma #T3934). Total RNA was  
127 reverse transcribed using a Tetro cDNA synthesis kit (Bioline #BIO-65043) using random  
128 hexamers.

129

#### 130 **Quantitative PCR of the 16S rRNA gene and OsHV-1**

131 Absolute quantification of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was performed using a TaqMan® assay  
132 adapted from Yu et al [44]. PCR reaction volume was 10 µl and contained SensiFAST™ Probe  
133 Mix (Bioline #), and the BAC338F (5'-ACTCC TACGG GAGGC AG), BAC516F Probe (5'-

134 6FAM-TGCCA GCAGC CGCGG TAATA C-TAMRA) and BAC805R (5'-GACTA CCAGG  
135 GTATC TAATC C) primers. Absolute quantification of the *Vibrio* 16S rRNA gene was  
136 performed using SensiFAST™ SYBR® No-ROX (Bioline) and 16S rRNA *Vibrio* specific  
137 primers, Vib1-F (5'-GGCGT AAAGC GCATG CAGGT) and Vib2\_R (5'-GAAAT TCTAC  
138 CCCCC TACAG) [35,45]. The abundance of the 16S rRNA gene in oyster samples was  
139 estimated from a serial curve generated from *Vibrio harveyi* 16S rRNA amplicon cloned into  
140 the pCR4-TOPO vector (Thermo Scientific Inc.).

141 DNA from *C. gigas* samples (including dead oysters) were tested for the presence of  
142 OsHV-1 using quantitative PCR according to Pepin et al., [46]. All qPCR assays were  
143 performed in duplicate and the reaction volumes were 10 µl containing SensiFAST™ SYBR®  
144 No-ROX (Bioline), C9 (5'-GAGGG AAATT TGCGA GAGAA), C10 (5'-ATCAC CGGCA  
145 GACGT AGG) and 50 ng of DNA. The qPCR assay included positive and negative samples.

146

#### 147 **16S rRNA gene sequencing**

148 High-throughput sequencing of the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was used to  
149 characterise the *C. gigas* microbiome. Equimolar amounts of DNA were combined from 3  
150 replicate *C. gigas* from each tank to generate 15 pooled samples. This represented a pooled  
151 sample from each tank on day 4. Pooled DNA samples were PCR amplified using the 341F (5'-  
152 CCTAY GGGRB GCASC AG) and 806R (5'-GGACT ACNNG GGTAT CTAAT) primers,  
153 with indexing (Illumina, Nextera® XT Index Kit) and pair-end sequencing performed using the  
154 Illumina MiSeq protocols and sequencing platform (Australian Genome Research Facility  
155 (AGRF). To account for possible contamination, a blank sample (milliQ water) was subjected  
156 to PCR amplification and sequencing. Raw data files in FASTQ format were deposited in NCBI  
157 Sequence Read Archive (SRA) with the study accession number SRP126703 under Bioproject  
158 number PRJNA421986.

159 Bacterial 16S rRNA reads were analysed as outlined in  
160 <https://github.com/timkahlke/ampli-tool>. Briefly, paired-end DNA sequences were joined  
161 using FLASH [47] and subsequently trimmed using mothur [48] (PARAMETERS:  
162 maxhomop=6, maxambig=0, minlength=441, maxlength=466). The resulting fragments were  
163 clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) and chimeric sequences were identified  
164 using vsearch [49] and the Silva v128 database. To assign taxonomy, QIIME Version 1.9.1 [50]  
165 was used with the uclust algorithm against the Silva v128 database. Sequences were then  
166 rarefied to the same sequencing depth (118,000 reads) to remove the effect of sampling effort  
167 upon analysis. Similarity matrices of the 16S rRNA gene sequencing data were prepared using

168 Bray-Curtis distance and analysed with PRIMER V6 + PERMANOVA add-on (PRIMER-E  
169 Ltd). SIMPER Analysis was used to identify operational taxonomic units (OTUs) contributing  
170 most to the dissimilarity between treatments.

171

### 172 **Bacterial isolation & Species-Specific TaqMan® Assays**

173 Bacteria were recovered from live and dead *C. gigas* by plating a serial dilution of homogenised  
174 oyster tissue on tryptic soy agar supplemented with 2% NaCl (TSA). Plates were incubated for  
175 48 h at 20°C. Ten single colonies of the dominant morphotypes were picked and re-isolated in  
176 pure culture on fresh TSA. Pure isolates were identified by PCR amplifying and sequencing the  
177 16S rRNA and gyrase B subunit genes [51-53] using a high fidelity polymerase (Accuzyme™,  
178 Bionline) and universal primer pairs 27F (5'-AGAGT TTGAT CCTGG CTCAG), 1492R (5'-  
179 GTTAC CTTGT TACGA CTT) and Up1E (5'-GAAGT CATCA TGACC GTTCT GCAYG  
180 CNGGN GGNA A RTTYR A), UP2AR (5'-AGCAG GGTAC GGATG TGCGA GCCRT  
181 CNACR TCNGC RTCNG YCAT). Sequences were aligned with selected reference 16S rRNA  
182 and gyrase B subunit sequences from GenBank using the ClustalW algorithm in Mega v 6.0  
183 and phylogenetic trees were constructed using the neighborhood-joining distance method [54].

184 Quantitative PCR primer and probe sets were designed using the GyrB partial gene  
185 sequences for the *Vibrio* isolates putatively assigned to be *V. harveyi* (2017-PS03 & 2017-  
186 PS05) and *V. fortis* (2017-PS02). **Primer and probe sequences targeting the *V. harveyi* isolates**  
187 **are Vhf (5'- AAGTA TCAGG CGGTC TAC), Vhp (5'-6FAM-TTCTG ACTAT CCACC**  
188 **GCGGC GGT-TAMRA), and Vhr (5'- CAATT ACTGC TAGTG GC). Primer and probe**  
189 **sequences for the *V. fortis* isolate are Vff (5'- AGCAG GTTAC TCTTA CTATC), Vfp (5'-**  
190 **6FAM- GTG AAA CTG ACA AAA CGG GTA CAG AG), and Vfr (5'- GAATT CGGTG**  
191 **TTAGA GAACG). Specificity and amplification efficiency of each primer and probe set was**  
192 **verified by testing against a panel of DNA isolated from bacteria isolated from *C. gigas* (Table**  
193 **1). The abundance of these *Vibrio* species in oyster samples was estimated from a serial curve**  
194 **generated from a *gyrB* subunit cloned into the pCR4-TOPO vector (Thermo Scientific Inc.).**

195

### 196 **Immune Gene Expression**

197 The *C. gigas* immunological response was compared between heat stressed and control  
198 treatments by quantifying the mRNA expression of ten oyster immune genes by Reverse  
199 Transcriptase quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). These ten genes represent a heat shock protein  
200 (*HSP68*), immune-signaling proteins (*Rel*, *IL17*, *TNF*) and antimicrobial peptides (*Laccase*,  
201 *Mpeg*, *Cg-DefH*, *Cg-DefM*, *Cg-BigDef1*, *EcSOD*). Primer sequences are outline in [55]. The

202 PCR reaction volume was 8  $\mu$ l and contained SensiFast™ SYBR No-ROX master mix  
203 (Bioline), 100 nM of each specific primer and 20 ng of cDNA in a CFX96 Touch™ Real-Time  
204 PCR Detection System (BIO-RAD) using an initial denaturation (95°C, 2 min) followed by 40  
205 cycles of denaturation (95°C, 5 s) and hybridization-elongation (60°C, 30 s). A subsequent  
206 melting temperature curve of the amplicon was performed. EF1 $\alpha$  was used as the internal  
207 reference for normalising *C. gigas* gene expression [56]. Data was analysed using the univariate  
208 general linear model (GLM) with post hoc Tukey's HSD test in IBM SPSS Statistics version  
209 20.0.0.2.

210

## 211 **Results**

212

### 213 **Heat stress affects oyster survival**

214 The simulated marine heat wave had a significant effect on *C. gigas* survival (Figure 1).  
215 Cumulative mortality of *C. gigas* in the heat stress treatment (25°C) was  $77.4 \pm 10.7$  %, with  
216 the mortality starting on day 2 and continuing to day 6. The rate of mortality was highest  
217 between 3-5 days after the start of the experiment. The remaining (live) *C. gigas* in the heat  
218 stress treatment were sampled on day 6 when the experiment was terminated. In contrast,  
219 cumulative mortality of *C. gigas* in the normal temperature treatment (20°C) was only  $3.4 \pm 5.9$   
220 % after 6 days. Addition of penicillin-streptomycin caused a significant reduction in mortality  
221 of *C. gigas* in the heat stress treatment with a cumulative mortality of only  $4.3 \pm 3.7$  % observed  
222 after 6 days (Figure 1).

223

### 224 **Heat stress is associated with increase abundance of total bacteria and *Vibrio***

225 The low levels of oyster mortality in the penicillin-streptomycin treatment suggests bacteria  
226 played a key role in the mortality experienced in the heat stress treatment. Changes in the  
227 abundance of total bacteria and total *Vibrio* species were assessed using qPCR targeting the  
228 16S rRNA gene. In the heat stress treatment the abundance of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene  
229 increased from  $2.5 \times 10^7$  copies  $\text{ng}^{-1}$  of DNA on day 0 to a peak of  $1.1 \times 10^8$  copies  $\text{ng}^{-1}$  DNA on  
230 days 4 and 5 (Figure 2A). Likewise, the mean abundance of *Vibrio* species-specific 16S rRNA  
231 gene increased from  $2.8 \times 10^6$  copies  $\text{ng}^{-1}$  DNA on day 0 to a peak of  $3.6 \times 10^7$  copies  $\text{ng}^{-1}$   
232 DNA on day 4 (Figure 2B). In the normal temperature and penicillin-streptomycin treatments,  
233 the concentration of bacteria and *Vibrio* 16S rRNA gene in *C. gigas* tissue was stable at  $10^7$  and  
234  $10^6$  copies  $\text{ng}^{-1}$  DNA, respectively. OsHV-1 viral DNA was not detected in any of the

235 *C. gigas* samples tested in this study using an established qPCR assay for OsHV-1 (and OsHV-  
236 1 microvariant) [46].

237

### 238 **Heat stress changes the composition of the oyster's bacterial community**

239 To identify shifts in the *C. gigas* microbiome occurring in response to heat stress we sequenced  
240 the hypervariable V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene. Microbial community composition was  
241 significantly different between treatments (PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F<sub>4,14</sub> = 5.1206, p = 0.001),  
242 with the bacterial community in heat stress samples 57.9 % and 50.3 % dissimilar to day 0 and  
243 20°C groups, respectively (SIMPER Analysis). In addition, PCO analysis revealed the bacterial  
244 communities associated with heat stress clustered separately to day 0 and 20°C groups (Figure  
245 3). Vector overlay (r > 0.9) showed the bacterial communities within the heat stressed *C. gigas*  
246 possessed a different suite of dominant operational taxonomic units (OTU), in particular a  
247 *Vibrio* sp. (OTU\_1) and an *Arcobacter* sp (OTU\_750).

248 Taxonomic classification revealed the bacterial community associated with *C. gigas* at  
249 day 0 were dominated by the *Rhodobacteraceae* (55.4 ± 6.2%), *Erythrobacteraceae* (10.5 ± 1.1  
250 %), *Flavobacteriaceae* (9.2 ± 1.7 %) and *Vibrionaceae* (3.5 ± 2.3 %). The relative proportion  
251 of 16S rRNA gene sequences is provided as mean ± standard deviation. During the course of  
252 the experiment, the bacterial community in the 20°C treatment shifted slightly, with an increase  
253 in the relative proportion of *Flavobacteriaceae* (18.0 ± 6.3 %), *Alteromonadaceae* (13.6 ± 0.9  
254 %), *Vibrionaceae* (10.4 ± 1.5 %) and a decrease in relative proportion of *Rhodobacteraceae*  
255 (20.5 ± 2.8 %). These shifts are indicative of an experimental effect. However, the heat stress  
256 treatment (25°C) caused a substantially greater shift in bacterial assemblage structure, with a  
257 large increase in the relative proportion of *Vibrionaceae* (56.6 ± 18.7 %) and a concurrent  
258 decrease in the proportion of *Rhodobacteraceae* (6.4 ± 5.78 %) and *Flavobacteriaceae* (3.4 ±  
259 2.5 %). In contrast, the bacterial communities associated with the penicillin-streptomycin  
260 treatments remained dominated by *Rhodobacteraceae* and *Flavobacteriaceae*.

261 SIMPER analysis identified OTU\_1 (*Vibrio* sp.) as being the OTU that contributed the  
262 most to the dissimilarity in the bacterial community between the heat stress and control groups  
263 (20°C and day 0 samples). The relative proportion of OTU\_1 in the heat stress, 20°C and day 0  
264 samples was 40.5±15.4 %, 3.6±3.4 % and 0.7±0.5 %, respectively (Figure 4). The relative  
265 proportion of OTU\_1 in the penicillin-streptomycin treatments ranged from 0.0 to only 2.2 %.

266

### 267 **Heat stress changes the abundance of *Vibrio harveyi***



268 A limitation of 16S rRNA gene sequencing is the technique has low phylogenetic power at the  
269 species level and poor discriminatory power for some genera, in particular *Vibrionaceae* [53].  
270 In an attempt to identify the *Vibrio sp.* (OTU\_1) that displayed marked increases in relative  
271 abundance in the heat stress treatment, homogenised *C. gigas* was plated on TSA and 10  
272 representative colonies were sub-cultured and characterised by sequencing the 16S rRNA and  
273 GyrB subunit genes. Species designation for the isolates were putatively assigned based on  
274 phylogenetic comparisons of the 16S rRNA and GyrB subunit genes (Supplementary Figure  
275 1). Details about the strains isolated and GenBank accession numbers are provided in Table 1  
276 and 2. Eight *Vibrio* strains were isolated and several of these isolates had 16S rRNA gene  
277 sequences that matched ( $\geq 99$  % nucleotide identity) with OTUs identified in the SIMPER  
278 Analysis as key drivers of differences between the heat stress treatment and control microbial  
279 assemblages (Table 2). In particular, *Vibrio harveyi* isolates (2017-PS03 and 2017-PS05) had  
280 100 % nucleotide identity to OTU\_1. The *Vibrio fortis* isolate (2017-PS02) had 99.5 %  
281 nucleotide identity to OTU\_2.

282 The *gyrB* sequences of the bacterial isolates putatively identified to be *V. harveyi* (2017-  
283 PS03 and 2017-PS05) and *V. fortis* (2017-PS02) were used for designing qPCR primers and  
284 probes. The specificity of these TaqMan® assays were verified against a panel of gram-negative  
285 bacteria isolated from *C. gigas* (Table 1). These TaqMan® assays were used to assess changes  
286 in the abundance of *V. harveyi* and *V. fortis*. On day 0, the average copy number of *gyrB* from  
287 *V. harveyi* was  $4.1 \times 10^3$  copies.ng DNA<sup>-1</sup>. During the mortality event on day 4, the abundance  
288 of *gyrB* from *V. harveyi* and *V. fortis* was 324-fold and 10-fold higher within the heat stressed  
289 *C. gigas* tissue (Figure 5A and 5B).

290

### 291 **Immunological response of *Crassostrea gigas***

292 To determine whether heat stress causes immunosuppression in *C. gigas*, we quantified the  
293 expression of ten immune genes by RT-qPCR. Eight of these immune genes were up-regulated  
294 in heat stressed *C. gigas* (2way ANOVA,  $p < 0.05$ ). The expression of a defensin (*Cg-DefM*)  
295 peaked on day 3, whereas the highest expression of a heat shock protein (*HSP68*), immune-  
296 signaling proteins (*Rel*, *IL17*, *TNF*) and antimicrobial peptides (*Laccase*, *Mpeg*, *Cg-DefH*)  
297 occurred on day 4 (Supplementary Figure 2). Extracellular superoxide dismutase (*EcSOD*) and  
298 big defensin (*Cg-BigDef1*) were not differentially expressed during the experiment ( $p > 0.05$ ).  
299

300

### 300 **Discussion**

301 The results of this study indicate that a shift in the microbiome of *Crassostrea gigas* may have  
302 played an important role in oyster mortality during a stimulated marine heat wave. The total  
303 mortality of *C. gigas* exposed to heat stress was 77.4 %, which occurred in concert with clear  
304 shifts in the bacterial community associated with *C. gigas*, whereby there was an increase in  
305 the abundance of putative pathogens belonging to the bacterial families of *Vibrionaceae* and  
306 *Campylobacteraceae*. The likely involvement of these bacteria in the mortality event was  
307 confirmed by the low-levels of mortality observed in an antibiotic-exposed treatment that  
308 experienced the same temperature regime. Specifically, the relative proportion of 16S rRNA  
309 gene sequences for three *Vibrio* OTUs and an *Arcobacter* OTU were more abundant in heat  
310 stressed *C. gigas* (Figure 4). In addition, qPCR data identified the abundance of *V. harveyi* and  
311 *V. fortis* to be 324-fold and 10-fold higher in *C. gigas* exposed to heat stress, respectively. These  
312 observations are highly relevant to the aquaculture industry, which is now the fastest food  
313 producing sector in the world [57]. *C. gigas* is one of the most important global aquaculture  
314 species [58], however, the predicted increase in the frequency and intensity of marine heat  
315 waves due to anthropogenic climate change [1] may have a significant impact on global oyster  
316 production. Our data provides compelling evidence that the oyster's natural bacterial  
317 community can act as a source of opportunistic pathogens during heat stress events.

318 Our research builds upon previous studies investigating the role of opportunistic  
319 bacterial pathogens causing episodes of mortality of *C. gigas* during the water summer months  
320 [59-61,22,41,62,63]. The majority of these studies have been observational and reported  
321 seasonal changes to the oyster's bacterial community [59,60,63]. However, seasonality does  
322 not equal temperature [41,64,65]. Seasonality has an impact on many environmental and  
323 biological parameters that may alter the oyster's bacterial community. These include  
324 physiological stresses associated with host reproductive effort [20,21], and changes in the  
325 quality and quantity of food [66]. Experimental studies investigating the role of temperature on  
326 the development of oyster disease have typically inoculated oysters with *Vibrio* pathogens *via*  
327 intramuscular injection [22,41,56], which circumvents natural barriers of immunity [42]. Our  
328 study avoided many of these pitfalls. Until this study, scientific efforts to simulate "summer  
329 mortality" in the laboratory had been unsuccessful [19,56]. Our approach was to collect *C.*  
330 *gigas* immediately prior to a heat wave [43] to ensure variables, such as the oyster's metabolic  
331 rate and microbiome were consistent between our experiment and mass mortality events that  
332 naturally occur in the field [67,14]. We did not inoculate oysters with bacterial pathogens, but  
333 instead used an antibiotic treatment to disentangle the effect of elevated seawater temperature  
334 and altered bacterial community on oyster health and survival. We also used triploid oysters,

335 which have three sets of chromosomes, to circumvent the confounding factor of physiological  
336 stress associated with the oyster's reproduction and spawning. Triploid oysters have vastly  
337 reduced gonadogenesis [68].

338 The 16S rRNA gene sequencing showed that heat stress increased the relative  
339 proportion of bacterial groups with close homology to known *C. gigas* pathogens, such as  
340 members of the *Vibrio* and *Arcobacter* genera [41,32,59]. The *Vibrio* genus comprises a diverse  
341 group of largely marine and estuarine bacteria that often occur in close association with marine  
342 plants and animals, where they act as mutualistic symbionts or pathogens [34]. Evidence is  
343 emerging that rising seawater temperatures associated with anthropogenic climate change is  
344 increasing the frequency of *Vibrio*-related infections [69]. The genus *Arcobacter* belongs to the  
345 family *Campylocateraceae* [70]. *Arcobacter* grow well under aerobic or microaerobic  
346 conditions [70], and have been described as a spoilage organism in many types of seafood,  
347 including *C. gigas* [71]. The bacterial community of diseased *C. gigas* can be dominated by  
348 *Arcobacter* [41]. While some strains of *Arcobacter* are known to be human pathogens [72], the  
349 pathogenic potential of *Arcobacter* towards *C. gigas* remains unexplored.

350 We identified the dominant *Vibrio* strains associated with heat-stressed *C. gigas* by  
351 isolating ten pure cultures of bacteria and putatively assigning their taxonomy based on  
352 phylogenetic analysis of their 16S rRNA and GyrB subunit gene sequences. In total, eight of  
353 the ten pure isolates belonged to the *Vibrio* genus and they clustered with *V. harveyi*, *V.*  
354 *antiquarius* (*Harveyi* clade), *V. diabolicus* (*Harveyi* clade), *V. fortis* (*Splendidus* clade) and *V.*  
355 *coralliilyticus* (Supplementary Figure 1). Although classification of *Vibrio* based on the 16S  
356 rRNA and *gyrB* gene sequences remains problematic [53], we view our taxonomic designations  
357 to be robust based on the consensus between our phylogenetic trees. *Vibrio* bacteria belonging  
358 to the *Harveyi* clade, *Splendidus* clade or to the species *V. coralliilyticus* are commonly reported  
359 in association with mortality events of *C. gigas* [32,59]. Our bacterial isolates of *V. harveyi* and  
360 *V. fortis* had 16S rRNA gene sequences with  $\geq 99.5\%$  nucleotide identity to the dominant OTUs  
361 in heat stressed *C. gigas* samples. Next, we developed qPCR assays to track changes in the  
362 abundance of these two *Vibrio* species. During peak mortality on day 4, the abundance of *V.*  
363 *harveyi* and *V. fortis* was 324-fold and 10-fold higher in *C. gigas* exposed to heat-stress,  
364 respectively. These changes to the bacterial community indicate that specific *Vibrio* species, in  
365 this case *V. harveyi* and *V. fortis*, can proliferate and dominate the microbial community of *C.*  
366 *gigas* during acute heat stress. However, our data cannot distinguish if *V. harveyi* and *V. fortis*  
367 are pathogenic, or whether they cooperate or act independently to cause disease. Experimental  
368 challenges trials using these isolates are required to answer this question. Intriguing,

369 experimental infections of *C. gigas* using a bacterial inoculum comprising a mix of *V. harveyi*,  
370 *V. alginolyticus*, *V. splendidus* and *V. crassostreae*, which had been isolated during a disease  
371 outbreak in Port Stephens, Australia during January 2014 could induce >50% mortality within  
372 72 hour post-inoculation [14]. Of the four *Vibrio* spp. used in the inoculum, *V. harveyi* was the  
373 most dominant organism re-isolated from the hemolymph of moribund oysters [14].

374 Having shown that heat stress coincides with an increase in *V. harveyi* and *V. fortis*, we  
375 next considered whether the origin of these putative pathogens was the oyster's natural bacterial  
376 community or an external environmental source, such as the daily seawater change or addition  
377 of microalgae. The microalgae fed to oysters is unlikely to be a source of these putative  
378 pathogens because the cultures are confirmed to be free of culturable *Vibrio* species. Despite  
379 filtration and UV sterilization, the seawater used during the experiment was collected from  
380 Sydney Harbour and may have been the source of these putative pathogens, but we consider  
381 this scenario to be unlikely. The 16S amplicon sequencing identified *V. harveyi* (OTU\_1) and  
382 *V. fortis* (OTU\_2) in all samples from day 0 (Figure 4), indicating these *Vibrio* strains, or highly  
383 related strains, were present in the *C. gigas* population from Port Stephens.

384 The immune system of *C. gigas* in the heat stress treatment was reactive to the mortality  
385 event by up-regulating genes involved in immune-signaling pathways and antimicrobial  
386 peptides. Maximum expression for the majority of these immune genes coincided with peak  
387 abundance of *V. harveyi* and *V. fortis* in *C. gigas* tissue (Figure 5). These immune genes were  
388 chosen from previous studies investigating the immune response of *C. gigas* to vibriosis  
389 [56,73,74]. In the current study, expression of big defensin (*Cg-BigDefl*) was not induced  
390 during the mortality event. This result, based on a single gene, does not indicate that acute heat  
391 stress at 25°C caused the *C. gigas* immune response to be compromised. Indeed, the *Cg-*  
392 *BigDefl* gene is not present in the genomes of all *C. gigas* [73,75] and no correlation has been  
393 found between transcription level of *Cg-BigDefl* and capacity of oysters to survive inoculation  
394 with virulent *V. tasmaniensis* [75]. Our immune gene data indicates that *C. gigas* were able to  
395 sense microbial invasion and respond by up-regulating the expression of cytokines and  
396 antimicrobial peptides. Thus, acute heat stress treatment at 25°C does not appear to compromise  
397 the immune response of *C. gigas*. Instead, our results are consistent with a previous study that  
398 found heat stress causes a rapid proliferation of opportunistic pathogens and their abundance in  
399 *C. gigas* tissue exceeds the capacity of the host's immune system resulting in mortality [22].  
400 These shifts in the bacterial community may be a direct effect of elevated temperature on the  
401 growth rate of *Vibrio* species [34,35], or alternatively the elevated temperature may influence  
402 the virulence of oyster-associated *Vibrio* species [23,37]. *V. harveyi* also causes disease in the

403 marine gastropod, *Haliotis tuberculata* [76,77]. Pathogenicity of *V. harveyi* to *H. tuberculata*  
404 is also temperature dependent with a difference of only 1°C having a significant impact on  
405 mortalities [76]. *V. harveyi* invades the tissues of *H. tuberculata* during the summer spawning  
406 period, when energy reserves are limited and the immune system of the host is partially  
407 depressed [77].

408

#### 409 **Conclusion**

410 Our findings indicate that a marine heat wave has the potential to cause mass mortality of *C.*  
411 *gigas* by causing specific members of the oyster's bacterial community to proliferate and  
412 potentially overwhelm the oyster's immunological capacity. Importantly, these microbial shifts  
413 involve an increase in the abundance of *Vibrio* belonging to the *Harveyi* and *Splendidus* clades,  
414 which are known oyster pathogens [32]. Our research builds upon previous studies using  
415 cultured isolates [41,22], to highlight that the diverse microbiome of *C. gigas* harbors putative  
416 pathogens that can rise to prominence during periods of environmental stress, such as a marine  
417 heat wave. Considering the global importance of *C. gigas* as an aquaculture species, this  
418 information is essential for understanding how anthropogenically induced climate change will  
419 impact future food production by aquaculture.

420

#### 421 **Conflicts of Interest**

422 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

423

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656

657 **Tables**

658 Table 1: Specificity of the quantitative PCR assays to a range of bacterial strains isolated from  
 659 *Crassostrea gigas*. Primers and probes outline in the method section were designed to target  
 660 *Vibrio harveyi* (strain 2017-PS03) and *V. fortis* (strain 2017-PS02). The GenBank accession  
 661 numbers for partial nucleotide gene sequences for 16S rRNA and gyrase subunit B for each  
 662 bacterial isolate is provided. Strain IDs beginning with an asterisk (\*) were isolated in this  
 663 study.

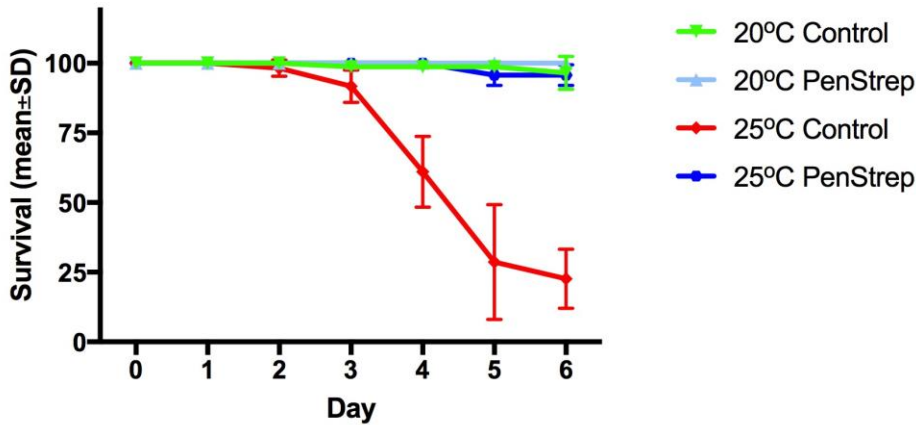
Isolate		GenBank Accession			qPCR Results (+/-)	
STRAIN ID	Putative Species ID	Vibrio clade	16S rRNA	Gyrase Subunit B	<i>V. harveyi</i>	<i>V. fortis</i>
*2017-PS01	<i>Vibrio antiquarius</i>	Harveyi clade	MG693188	MG712842	—	—
*2017-PS02	<i>Vibrio fortis</i>	Splendidus clade	MG693189	MG712843	—	+
*2017-PS03	<i>Vibrio harveyi</i>	Harveyi clade	MG693190	MG712844	+	—
*2017-PS04	<i>Alteromonas sp.</i>		MG693191	MG712845	—	—
*2017-PS05	<i>Vibrio harveyi</i>	Harveyi clade	MG693192	MG712846	+	—
*2017-PS06	<i>Vibrio diabolicus</i>	Harveyi clade	MG693193	MG712847	—	—
*2017-PS07	<i>Vibrio coralliilyticus</i>	Coralliilyticus clade	MG693194	MG712848	—	—
*2017-PS08	<i>Vibrio coralliilyticus</i>	Coralliilyticus clade	MG693195	MG712849	—	—
*2017-PS09	<i>Vibrio harveyi</i>	Harveyi clade	MG693196	MG712850	+	—
*2017-PS10	<i>Pseudoalteromonas sp.</i>		MG693197	MG712851	—	—
2015-GR29	<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	Harveyi clade	MG693198		—	—
2015-GR48	<i>Vibrio harveyi</i>	Harveyi clade	MG693199		+	—
2015-GR56	<i>Pseudoalteromonas sp.</i>		MG693200		—	—
2015-GR61	<i>Photobacterium sp.</i>		MG693201		—	—
2015-GR98	<i>Vibrio crassostreae</i>	Splendidus clade	MG693202		—	—
2015-GR100	<i>Pseudoalteromonas sp.</i>		MG693203		—	—

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 666 Table 2: Taxonomic classification of bacterial isolates from *Crassostrea gigas* based on  
 667 sequencing the 16S rRNA and gyrase subunit B genes. Top BlastN match (nucleotide identity)  
 668 is provided for each bacterial isolate. Significant matches between bacterial isolate and  
 669 dominant OTUs (Identity) is also provided.

Isolate ID	Condition	16S rRNA gene [GenBank #] (Identity)	Gyrase B subunit [GenBank #] (Identity)	OTU Match	Identity (%)
2017-PS01	25C - Mort.	<i>Vibrio antiquarius</i> [MH044597] (99%)	<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i> [CP001805] (97%)	OTU712	97.8
<b>2017-PS02</b>	<b>25C - Mort.</b>	<b><i>Vibrio fortis</i> [KU197914] (99%)</b>	<b><i>Vibrio splendidus</i> [JQ698508] (90%)</b>	<b>OTU2</b>	<b>99.5</b>
<b>2017-PS03</b>	<b>25C - Mort.</b>	<b><i>Vibrio harveyi</i> [KY229855] (100%)</b>	<b><i>Vibrio harveyi</i> [JQ698506] (98%)</b>	<b>OTU1</b>	<b>100</b>
2017-PS04	25C - Mort.	<i>Alteromonas mediterranea</i> [CP018029] (100%)	<i>A. mediterranea</i> [CP001103] (99%)	OTU3	99.5
<b>2017-PS05</b>	<b>25C - Mort.</b>	<b><i>Vibrio harveyi</i> [KY229811] (100%)</b>	<b><i>Vibrio harveyi</i> [JQ698506] (99%)</b>	<b>OTU1</b>	<b>100</b>
2017-PS06	Time 0	<i>Vibrio diabolicus</i> [CP014134] (100%)	<i>Vibrio splendidus</i> [JQ698508] (90%)	OTU712	97.5
2017-PS07	Time 0	<i>Vibrio coralliilyticus</i> [KX904710] (100%)	<i>Vibrio coralliilyticus</i> [CP016556] (96%)	OTU33	99.5
2017-PS08	Time 0	<i>Vibrio coralliilyticus</i> [CP009617] (99%)	<i>Vibrio sp.</i> GM4 [AY795846] (98%)	OTU1692	99
2017-PS09	25C - Live	<i>Vibrio harveyi</i> [KY229855] (99%)	<i>Vibrio harveyi</i> [JQ698506] (99%)	OTU570	98.5
2017-PS10	25C - Live	<i>Pseudoalteromonas sp.</i> [KF758689] (99%)	<i>P. undina</i> [AF007284] (88%)	OTU4	97.9

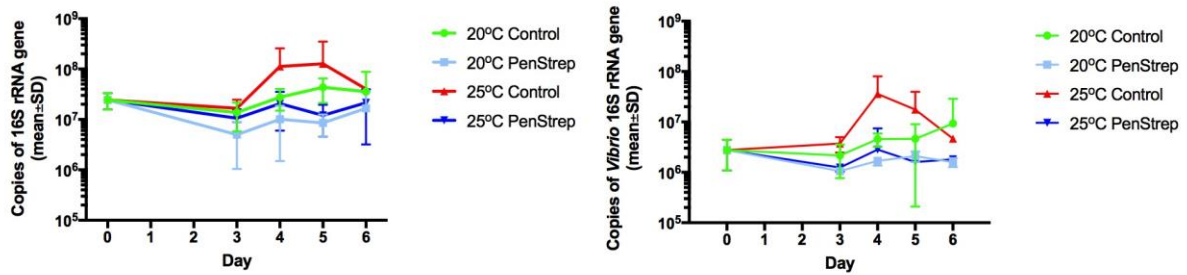
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671 **Figures**  
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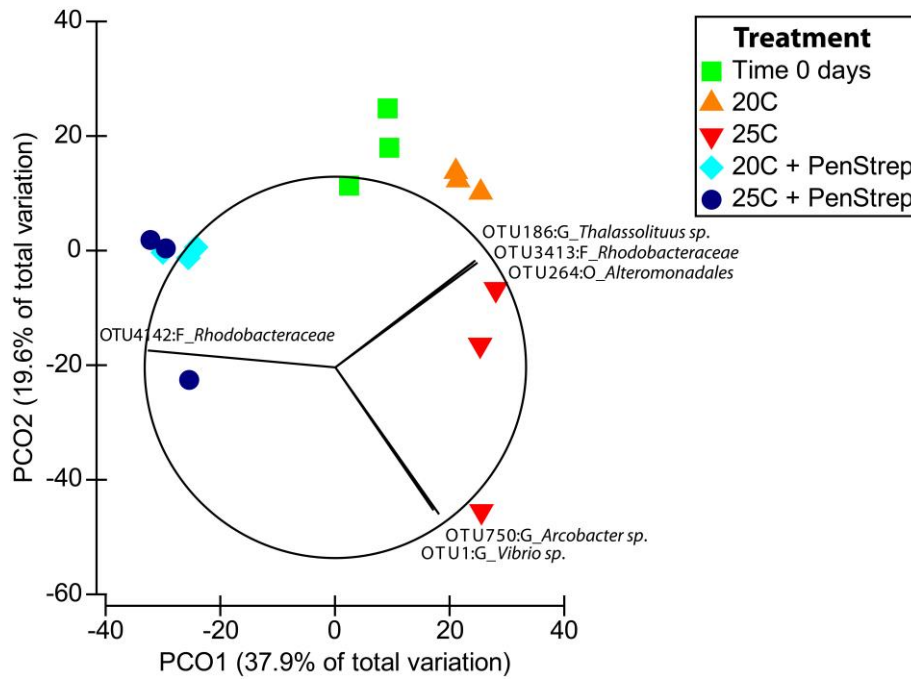
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**Figure 1:** Cumulative mortality (mean  $\pm$  SD) of *Crassostrea gigas* in the heat stress (25°C) and control groups (20°C), with or without the addition of penicillin-streptomycin (PenStrep). Each group consisted of three replicate tanks. Cumulative mortality accounted for 3 oysters removed (sampled) from each tank on day 3, 4, 5 and 6.

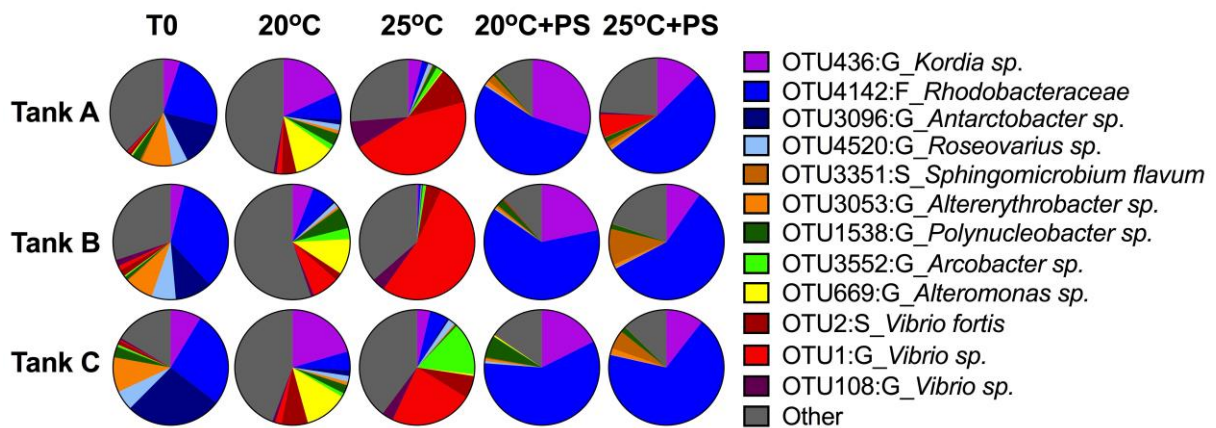


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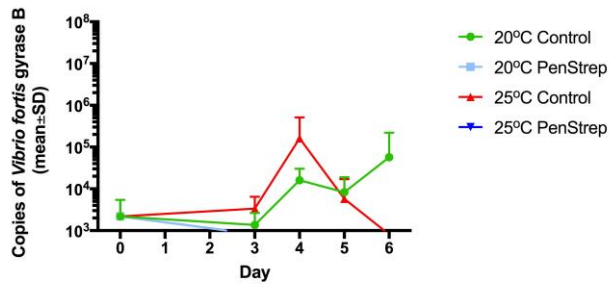
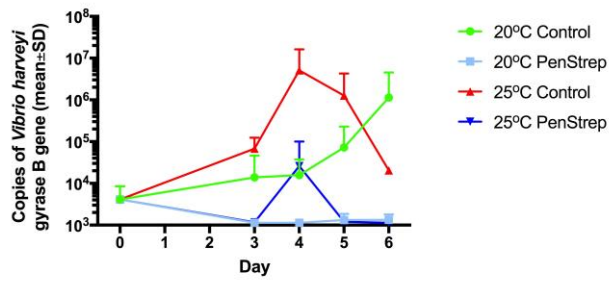
**Figure 2:** Quantitative PCR assays were used to quantify the abundance of total bacteria and total *Vibrio* 16S rRNA gene in *Crassostrea gigas* tissue (copies of 16S rRNA gene.ng of total DNA; mean  $\pm$  standard deviation). Treatments consisted of heat stress (25°C) and control groups (20°C), with or without the addition of penicillin-streptomycin (PenStrep). The dynamic range of the qPCR assays were  $10^{10}$  to  $10^3$  copies of the 16S rRNA gene.



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 687 Figure 3: Principal coordinate analysis plot based on a Bray-Curtis distance matrix calculated  
 688 from the square-root transformed OTU abundance data of the bacterial community (V3-V4  
 689 region of the 16S rRNA gene) of *Crassostrea gigas* in the heat stressed (25°C) and control  
 690 treatments (20°C) at day 4, with or without the addition of penicillin-streptomycin (PenStrep).  
 691 Vector overlay ( $r > 0.9$ ) showed the bacterial communities from heat stressed *C. gigas* possess  
 692 a different suite of dominant operational taxonomic units (OTU), in particular a *Vibrio* sp.  
 693 (OTU\_1) and an *Arcobacter* sp (OTU\_750).  
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 697 **Figure 4:** Differences in the dominant operational taxonomic units (OTUs). The matrix shows  
 698 the top twelve OTUs in each tank at the beginning of the experiment (T0) and in the heat  
 699 stressed (25°C) and control treatments (20°C) at day 4, with or without the addition of  
 700 penicillin-streptomycin (PS). The V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was sequenced from a  
 701 pool of *C. gigas* tissue (N=3) from each tank.  
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Figure 5: TaqMan® PCR assays were used to quantify the abundance of specific *Vibrio* species in *Crassostrea gigas* tissue by targeting the gyrase B subunit gene (copies of gyrase B subunit gene/ng of total DNA; mean  $\pm$  standard deviation). Treatments consisted of heat stress (25°C) and control groups (20°C), with or without the addition of penicillin-streptomycin (PenStrep).