

Plasticité phénotypique des huîtres face à l'acidification et au réchauffement des océans sous différentes contraintes environnementales

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Par Coline CAILLON

Plasticité phénotypique des huîtres face à l'acidification et au réchauffement des océans sous différentes contraintes environnementales

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À ma mère,

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INTRO	DDUCTION GÉNÉRALE	13
I.	L'Océan dans l'Anthropocène	14
1)	L'Homme et le climat	14
2)	Réchauffement des océans et variabilité du climat	16
3)	Système des carbonates et acidification des océans	18
4)	Modification de la productivité primaire	21
5)	Récurrence de maladies marines	22
II.	Stratégies expérimentales pour évaluer les effets du changement	-
glob	al en laboratoire	25
1)	Facteur environnemental unique	25
2)	Facteurs environnementaux multiples	27
III.	Réponses biologiques des organismes calcifiants	30
1)	Survivre à l'Anthropocène : la plasticité phénotypique	30
2)	Réponses au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans	32
3) ľa	Effets d'autres facteurs environnementaux associés au réchauffement et à cidification	37
IV.	Les huîtres, des modèles biologiques d'intérêt	41
1)	L'ostréiculture française : histoire et enjeux actuels	41
2)	Deux modèles biologiques différents : éléments de biologie et d'écologie	44
3)	Services écosystémiques	49
V.	Objectifs et plan de la thèse	49
CHAP et de l	ITRE 1 : Normes de réaction de l'huître creuse <i>Crassostrea g</i> l'huître plate <i>Ostrea edulis</i> face à l'acidification des océans	igas 55
Préa	mbule	57
Abst	ract	59
I.	Introduction	60
II.	Material and methods	63
III.	Results	71
IV.	Discussion	80
V.	Conclusion	85
Supj	plementary information	87

CHAPITRE 2 : Réponse de l'huître creuse <i>Crassostrea gigas</i> au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans, en fonction du régime tidal et de la disponibilité en nourriture		
Préa	ambule	97
Abst	tract	
I.	Introduction	100
II.	Material and methods	103
III.	Results	115
IV.	Discussion	124
V.	Conclusion	129
Supp	plementary information	131
CHAP récha dimin	ITRE 3 : Réponse de l'huître creuse <i>Crassostrea</i> uffement et à l'acidification des océans, combiné ution de la qualité de la nourriture	<i>gigas</i> au s à une

-			-
]	Préa	mbule	139
1	Abst	ract	141
]	I.	Introduction	143
]	II.	Materials and methods	145
]	III.	Results	158
]	IV.	Discussion	165
1	V.	Conclusion	168
	Supp	olementary information	170
וח	ISCII	Ιςςιον σένέραι ε	101
וע	IJCO	Principaux résultate et limites expérimentales	107
1	1)	Réponse des huîtres au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans	182
	2) ľac	Rôle des lipides membranaires dans la réponse au réchauffement et à ridification	186
	3) au	L'influence du milieu intertidal et subtidal : réponses inter- et intra-spécif changement climatique global	ique 188
	4) au 1	L'influence de la disponibilité et de la qualité de la nourriture dans la répo réchauffement et à l'acidification	nse 190

BILAN DE LA THÈSE
III. Perspectives
II. Conclusion : Le devenir des huîtres dans un océan en évolution rapide
5) L'influence des scénarios d'exposition sur le risque de mortalité des huîtres lors d'un challenge pathogène193

INTRODUCTION GÉNÉRALE

I. L'Océan dans l'Anthropocène

Nous vivons à une époque, l'Anthropocène, où l'homme est devenu une force dominante du changement planétaire (Steffen et al., 2011), impliquant de profondes et nombreuses altérations des écosystèmes marins et terrestres. On parle de changement global, comprenant à la fois des changements environnementaux abiotiques et biotiques. Couvrant les deux tiers de la planète, les systèmes océaniques et côtiers régulent le système climatique global, abritent une vaste biodiversité, et fournissent de nombreux services écosystémiques au bien-être humain (GIEC, 2022).

1) L'Homme et le climat

Le changement climatique 'naturel' est un phénomène naturel lent qui s'étend sur plusieurs milliers, voire millions, d'années et qui est retrouvé tout au long de l'histoire de la Terre (Figure 1; Lüthi et al., 2008; Rae et al., 2021). En revanche, le changement climatique anthropique, ou changement climatique global, est un processus relativement rapide (moins de 100 ans) modifiant les conditions météorologiques à long terme.



Figure 1. Évolution du niveau de dioxyde de carbone au cours des 66 derniers millions d'années : un reflet des climats passés. À des niveaux de CO₂ d'environ 1 500 ppm, observés pour la dernière fois il y a environ 50 millions d'années, le climat était si chaud que des alligators fossilisés de cette période sont trouvés dans l'Arctique. Figure simplifiée de Rae et al. (2021).

Depuis le début de la Révolution Industrielle en 1760, les émissions anthropiques de gaz à effet de serre, tels que le dioxyde de carbone (CO₂), augmentent dans l'atmosphère principalement en raison de la combustion des énergies fossiles, les transports, l'industrialisation et la déforestation (GIEC, 2022; Sabine et al., 2004). Malheureusement, 48% des émissions totales de CO₂ des activités humaines reste dans l'atmosphère (Friedlingstein et al., 2022). La concentration de CO₂ atmosphérique était de 278 parties par million (ppm) en 1750, mais cette concentration a augmenté d'environ 50% au cours des deux derniers siècles et est actuellement de 417 ppm (Figure 2; NOAA : https://www.climate.gov/maps-data). De plus, Siegenthaler et al. (2005) ont montré que la concentration atmosphérique de CO₂ n'avait pas dépassé 300 ppm au cours des 650 000 dernières années précédant l'ère préindustrielle.



Figure 2. La quantité de dioxyde de carbone (CO₂) dans l'atmosphère (ligne bleue) a augmenté en même temps que les émissions anthropiques de CO₂ (ligne grise) depuis le début de la Révolution Industrielle. Figure provenant de NOAA Climate.gov.

Les nouvelles projections du climat à l'horizon 2100 sont issues de modèles ESM (*Earth System Models*) du CMIP6 (*Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6*). Ces modèles sont basés sur les *Shared Socioeconomic Pathways* (SSPs), qui fournissent des scénarios d'émissions anthropiques révisés par les tendances socio-économiques (Kwiatkowski et al., 2020; Riahi et al., 2017). Contrairement à la précédente génération de modèles climatiques (CMIP5) qui était basée sur les *Representative Concentration Pathways* (RCPs). Les scénarios SPPs présentent quatre trajectoires futures possibles, à savoir, de la plus optimiste à la plus pessimiste, SSP1-2.6 (scénario de développement durable), SSP2-4.5 (scénario intermédiaire), SSP3-7.0 (émissions élevées) et SSP5-8.5 (émissions élevées, développement basé sur les énergies fossiles) (O'Neill et al., 2016). Néanmoins, le scénario pessimiste SSP5-8.5 est loin d'être envisageable car il traduit l'échec des politiques d'atténuation et la persistance des tendances de consommation d'énergie fossile (Riahi et al., 2017). Le scénario futur le plus probable correspond donc au scénario SSP3-7.0, si les émissions atmosphériques anthropiques élevées se poursuivent.

2) Réchauffement des océans et variabilité du climat

Les gaz à effet de serre anthropiques ajoutés dans l'atmosphère amplifient l'effet de serre naturel, en piégeant davantage de chaleur et entrainant un réchauffement de la planète (Mitchell, 1989). Environ 93 % de l'énergie thermique excédentaire piégée dans l'atmosphère a été absorbée par l'océan depuis 1970 (Wijffels et al., 2016), ce qui atténue le réchauffement atmosphérique mais provoque des changements dans les océans. En conséquence, la température moyenne de la surface de l'océan a augmenté d'environ 0.88°C depuis le début du 20^e siècle (GIEC, 2022). Les projections des modèles CMIP6 prévoient une augmentation supplémentaire de la température de surface d'ici la fin du siècle de 0.86°C dans le cadre du scénario SSP1-2.6 et 2.89°C dans le cadre du scénario SSP5-8.5 (Figure 3; GIEC, 2022).



Figure 3. Projections globales moyennes de (a) la température de surface de la mer et (b) du pH de l'océan de surface selon les modèles du système terrestre CMIP6 (scénarios SSP), et ceux de la précédente génération CMIP5 (scénarios RCP). Figure provenant de Kwiatkowski et al. (2020).

Les effets du réchauffement global sur d'autres facteurs physiques sont nombreux. La combinaison de l'expansion thermique de l'eau de mer à mesure qu'elle se réchauffe et de la fonte des calottes glaciaires ou des glaciers entraîne une élévation du niveau de la mer (Meehl et al., 2005), ce qui provoque l'érosion et la perte de certains habitats côtiers (GIEC, 2022). De plus, le réchauffement global peut affecter les phénomènes climatiques comme les cycles El Niño – Oscillation Australe, ainsi que les dynamiques et circulations globales des océans (Timmermann et al., 1999; Yeh et al., 2009), ce qui peut avoir des répercussions étendues sur le climat, les écosystèmes marins et les économies côtières. En effet, l'augmentation en fréquence et en intensité d'événements météorologiques extrêmes, tels que les vagues de chaleur, tempêtes et sécheresses sont attendus (Burger et al., 2022; GIEC, 2022; Gruber et al., 2021). L'augmentation de la température des océans intensifie aussi la stratification thermique, limitant ainsi les mélanges verticaux entre eaux de surface et profondes (GIEC, 2022; Moore et al., 2018). Enfin, ce réchauffement des océans entraîne également une diminution globale de l'oxygène (O₂) dissout dans les océans, appelée désoxygénation des océans, en raison d'une réduction de la solubilité de l'O₂ induite par le réchauffement, d'une stratification accrue et d'une ventilation réduite dans l'océan (Keeling et al., 2010; Oschlies et al., 2018).

3) Système des carbonates et acidification des océans

L'océan absorbe une part importante du CO₂ atmosphérique étant donné que la pression partielle de CO₂ (pCO₂) à la surface de l'océan tend à s'équilibrer avec la pression partielle de l'atmosphère. Le CO₂ se dissout donc dans l'océan lorsque le CO₂ atmosphérique augmente, ce qui fait de l'océan un puits de CO₂ atmosphérique (Sabine et al., 2004). Durant la décennie 2012-2021, 29% des émissions totales de CO₂ a été absorbé par les océans (Friedlingstein et al., 2022). Une fois aqueux, le CO₂ ne reste pas inerte et l'augmentation de sa concentration déséquilibre ainsi le cycle biogéochimique du carbone dans l'océan et plus particulièrement la chimie des carbonates. Ce phénomène provoque ainsi la diminution du pH de l'eau de mer, de la concentration en ions carbonates (CO₃²⁻) et des états de saturation en carbonate de calcium (Ω_{CaCO3}), phénomène que l'on appelle globalement l'acidification des océans (AO) (Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; Orr et al., 2005).

Plus précisément, le CO₂ dissout dans l'eau de mer va s'hydrater avec une molécule d'eau (H₂O), ce qui donne un acide carbonique (H₂CO₃) naturellement instable (Gattuso and Hansson, 2011). Cet acide faible va immédiatement se dissocier pour former un ion bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻), qui va aussi pouvoir se dissocier de nouveau pour former l'ion carbonate (CO₃²⁻). Les dissociations libèrent à chaque fois un ion hydrogène (H⁺; Figure 4). Le CO_3^{2-} en s'associant avec un ion calcium (Ca²⁺) forme le carbonate de calcium (CaCO₃), essentiel à la formation des coquilles et squelettes des organismes calcifiants (Feely et al., 2004). Lorsque le CO₂ atmosphérique augmente, la concentration des ions H⁺ augmente, provoquant la réduction du pH et donc l'AO (Figure 4). La réaction est alors détournée pour former des ions HCO₃⁻ au détriment des ions CO₃²⁻ dans le but de capter cet excès d'ions H⁺. Cette diminution en CO₃²⁻ est également associée à la diminution de Ω_{CaCO3} , sous la forme de deux espèces minérales, la calcite et l'aragonite. Lorsque $\Omega_{aragonite}$ ou $\Omega_{calcite}$ est > 1, la formation de la coquille est favorisée. A l'inverse, lorsque les valeurs (Ω) sont < 1, l'eau de mer est corrosive pour le CaCO₃ et, en l'absence de mécanismes pour empêcher cela, la dissolution de la coquille se produit (Fabry et al., 2008).



Figure 4. Représentation schématique du système des carbonates affecté par la dissolution excessive de CO₂ atmosphérique dans l'océan. Les flèches montrent le déplacement de l'équilibre.

Le pH global de surface des océans a déjà diminué de 0.1 unité de pH depuis l'ère préindustrielle (Jiang et al., 2019; Orr et al., 2005). Il est prédit que le pH moyen de l'océan diminuera de 0.08 et 0.37 unité de pH supplémentaire à la fin du siècle par rapport à 19952014, pour les scénarios SSP1-2.6 et SSP5-8.5, respectivement (Figure 3; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020). Aujourd'hui, les ions HCO_3^- et CO_3^{2-} et le CO_2 aqueux représentent ~90%, ~10% et <1% du carbone inorganique dissous, respectivement (Riebesell et al., 2011). La proportion de CO_3^{2-} continuera de diminuer avec la réduction du pH attendue à la fin du siècle (Figure 5).



Figure 5. Graphique de Bjerrum montrant les contributions relatives du dioxyde de carbone (CO₂), du bicarbonate (HCO₃-) et du carbonate (CO₃²⁻) au carbone inorganique dissout (DIC) en fonction du pH total (15°C et salinité de 35). Les lignes verticales indiquent les contributions relatives du DIC pendant le dernier maximum glaciaire (LGM), la période préindustrielle (1766), actuelles (2007) et prévues à la fin du siècle (2100). Figure provenant de Gattuso and Hansson (2011).

Ainsi, l'acidification des océans et le réchauffement sont concomitants et devraient affecter conjointement les écosystèmes marins dans l'océan futur. Le milieu côtier présente déjà une variabilité considérable du pH et de la température (données environnementales à haute fréquence : https://www.seanoe.org/data/00749/86131/ et https://cocorico2.ifremer.fr/en/Donnees). Cependant, le changement global pourrait provoquer une augmentation des extrêmes de conditions en milieu côtier, mettant à rude épreuve les organismes marins vivant déjà à leurs limites de tolérance (Helmuth et al., 2006; Melzner et al., 2013). De même, il est bien connu que la variation spatiale du pH de surface est principalement attribuée aux changements de température (Jiang et al., 2019). Lorsque la température de l'eau de mer augmente, les changements en concentration et solubilité du CO₂ se conjuguent pour créer une tendance de l'eau de mer à dégazer le CO₂ vers l'atmosphère, ce qui remonte à la fois le pH et l'état de saturation en aragonite (Jiang et al., 2019; Kroeker et al., 2014). A l'inverse, une température plus froide de l'eau de mer favorise une plus grande absorption du CO₂, augmentant ainsi l'acidification et la diminution des ions CO₃²⁻ (Steinacher et al., 2009). Les zones tropicales seront donc moins affectées par l'AO alors que les zones polaires seront les plus vulnérables (GIEC, 2022).

4) Modification de la productivité primaire

Une baisse significative de la productivité primaire dans les océans est attendue en raison du changement global (Gruber, 2011; Moore et al., 2018). Cette diminution s'explique par l'accentuation de la stratification thermique des océans, décrite précédemment. L'intensification de la stratification empêche la remontée des eaux profondes fraîches et riches en nutriments, ayant pour conséquence une réduction de l'apport en nutriments vers la zone euphotique (Roemmich and McGowan, 1995). La limitation accrue des nutriments conduit aux déclins observés de la productivité primaire nette (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Fu et al., 2016). De plus, cette limitation va également affecter la composition des communautés phytoplanctoniques. En effet, le petit phytoplancton est favorisé dans des conditions oligotrophes grâce à son rapport surface/volume élevé par rapport aux cellules de plus grande taille comme les diatomées (Edwards et al., 2011; Litchman et al., 2007; Winder and Sommer, 2012).

Nous pouvons penser que la diminution de la productivité primaire ne peut se produire en milieu côtier, étant donné que les zones côtières sont généralement considérées comme des zones eutrophiques. Il est bien connu que le réchauffement et les apports de nutriments terrestres via les cours d'eau exacerbent l'eutrophisation côtière, et donc la productivité primaire, mais cela provoque en contrepartie une désoxygénation importante des habitats côtiers (GIEC, 2022; Moss, 2011; Rabalais et al., 2009). Néanmoins, durant des épisodes de sécheresse intenses, les apports d'eau douce sont réduits dans les environnements côtiers, ce qui peut entraîner une réduction marquée de la concentration de chlorophylle *a* et/ou de la biomasse phytoplanctonique (Harding et al., 2015; Nichols, 1985; Wetz et al., 2011). Wetz et al. (2011) ont suggéré que la réduction de la productivité primaire va impacter les niveaux trophiques supérieurs en raison d'effets en cascade. De même, les ostréiculteurs et mytiliculteurs rapportent des baisses de production durant les périodes de sécheresse en raison du manque d'apport d'eau douce et de développement phytoplanctonique (communications personnelle et médiatique). Peu d'études ont rapporté une corrélation entre la productivité primaire côtière et les épisodes de sécheresse, comparé aux événements d'eutrophisation côtière. La productivité primaire est très variable spatialement et temporellement, et reste un facteur complexe en milieu côtier, particulièrement lorsqu'il interagit avec d'autres facteurs environnementaux.

5) Récurrence de maladies marines

L'augmentation de la fréquence des épidémies marines est l'une des conséquences biotiques induites par le changement global. En effet, un nombre croissant d'études montrent une augmentation de l'occurrence de maladies marines dans les océans, et ont amené des scientifiques à conclure qu'« un monde plus chaud serait un monde plus malade » (Harvell et al., 2004; Harvell et al., 2009). Les facteurs liés au changement climatique opèrent dans la composante « environnement » de la triade épidémiologique hôte-pathogène-environnement (Figure 6), avec des changements qui peuvent induire des perturbations de l'hôte et/ou de l'agent pathogène, affectant l'interaction hôtepathogène (Behringer et al., 2020; Burge et al., 2014; Cohen et al., 2018).



Figure 6. Les impacts de facteurs environnementaux sur les relations hôte-pathogèneenvironnement marin, dans un contexte de changement global. Figure modifiée de Burge et al. (2014).

L'augmentation des températures, l'acidification des océans, ainsi que des changements dans les régimes de précipitations (engendrant des changements de salinité), sont des facteurs qui peuvent influencer la prévalence et la virulence des maladies marines dans les habitats côtiers et estuariens (Burge et al., 2014). En outre, les changements environnementaux affectent la physiologie des organismes, entraînant un affaiblissement des défenses immunitaires qui les rend plus sensibles aux infections virales et bactériennes (Figure 5; Bibby et al., 2008; Matozzo et al., 2012). Il est aussi prouvé que les précipitations accrues peuvent augmenter le flux de pathogènes terrestres vers la zone côtière tout en diminuant la qualité de l'eau (excès de nutriments, polluants, turbidité), augmentant ainsi l'exposition des organismes marins (Haapkylä et al., 2011; Shapiro et al., 2010). De plus, le changement global peut augmenter la virulence et/ou l'abondance des pathogènes bactériens et viraux, ce qui pourrait entraîner l'introduction de nouvelles maladies dans de nouveaux habitats (Figure 6; Mackenzie et al., 2014; Maynard et al., 2015). Par exemple, le développement des lésions de la maladie des bandes jaunes des Caraïbes sur les coraux Orbicella faveolata est corrélé aux températures de l'eau de mer (Bruckner and Hill, 2009). Cependant, ces changements n'entraînent pas toujours une augmentation des maladies, comme lorsque l'augmentation des températures dépasse l'optimum thermique d'un pathogène, inhibant ainsi son action (Delisle et al., 2018, 2020).

La réalité environnementale englobe donc une multitude de facteurs environnementaux interagissant ensemble. Les effets interactifs complexes entre ces facteurs environnementaux sont importants, mais difficiles, à prendre en compte si nous voulons prédire avec précision les réponses des organismes, des communautés et des écosystèmes dans un océan en évolution rapide.

II. Stratégies expérimentales pour évaluer les effets du changement global en laboratoire

Il existe différentes approches expérimentales pour étudier les réponses biologiques aux changements environnementaux des océans. Ces approches présentent des avantages et des limites, et il est important de noter qu'il n'existe pas de méthode idéale (Boyd et al., 2018). Le but étant d'identifier les designs expérimentaux susceptibles de répondre au mieux aux questions de recherche posées.

1) Facteur environnemental unique

Les approches basées sur les scénarios du GIEC ont été largement employées pour étudier les effets individuels et combinés de facteurs environnementaux sur les organismes marins (Boyd et al., 2018). Traditionnellement, les approches basées sur les scénarios appliquent des traitements discrets, qui opposent les conditions ambiantes ou moyennes actuelles d'un facteur environnemental aux projections de ce même facteur à la fin du siècle (2100) et/ou au-delà (Boulais et al., 2017; Dupont et al., 2008). Ces expériences en conditions constantes sont logistiquement simples et permettent une grande réplication, mais manquent de réalisme écologique. Néanmoins, les approches par scénario fournissent une base simple pour lancer des designs expérimentaux plus ambitieux en matière de logistique, tels que ceux qui testent les scénarios du GIEC mais en conditions fluctuantes (Cornwall et al., 2013; Enochs et al., 2018). A noter que des expériences en conditions d'eau de mer fluctuantes sont à considérer surtout lorsque les modèles d'étude sont des espèces intertidales.

Les normes de réaction se distinguent des approches basées sur les scénarios climatiques, et sont plutôt considérées comme des approches mécanistiques (Boyd et al., 2018). Une norme de réaction décrit la variabilité d'un trait phénotypique d'un organisme à travers un gradient de variation d'un facteur environnemental, c'est-à-dire la plasticité phénotypique de l'organisme (Lutier et al., 2022; Schlichting and Pigliucci, 1998; Ventura et al., 2016). La relation phénotype-environnement peut alors adopter tous les types de forme, comme par exemple une régression linéaire, polynomiale, ou segmentée (dit aussi fragmentée) (Figure 7). Cette approche s'applique généralement aux clones (génotype identique), aux individus ou, occasionnellement, aux groupes d'individus pour décrire toute la gamme des réponses biologiques en fonction d'un facteur environnemental (Boyd et al., 2018). L'intérêt d'une norme de réaction réside dans le fait de mieux comprendre la sensibilité et le potentiel d'acclimation des organismes, ainsi que de mieux prédire leur réaction à la variabilité environnementale naturelle et l'impact du changement global (Chevin et al., 2010; Hutchings, 2011). Cependant cette approche est rarement appliquée à plusieurs facteurs environnementaux simultanés, bien que cela soit possible (Boyd et al., 2018). Pour être statistiquement robuste, il faut un nombre important de niveaux pour chaque facteur environnemental, ce qui limite la réplication et l'intégration d'autres facteurs d'un point de vue logistique.



Figure 7. Représentation visuelle de trois alternatives de norme de réaction pour un trait phénotypique donné le long d'un gradient environnemental. Une norme de réaction peut prendre tous les types de forme, cela peut être par exemple une régression (a) linéaire, (b) polynomiale ou (c) segmentée dit aussi fragmentée.

2) Facteurs environnementaux multiples

Dans le contexte du changement global, il est de plus en plus essentiel de mener des expériences intégrant des facteurs environnementaux multiples et simultanés afin de mieux comprendre les réponses complexes des organismes marins et des écosystèmes (Côté et al., 2016; Riebesell and Gattuso, 2015). Pour cela, les approches basées sur les scénarios permettent aussi de tester un plus grand nombre de facteurs, avec différentes combinaisons et/ou plusieurs niveaux d'intensité (Ko et al., 2014; Stevens and Gobler, 2018; Xu et al., 2014). Cependant, les expériences à facteurs multiples nécessitent généralement des ressources considérables, en termes de temps, d'efforts et de matériel. De même, l'ajout de variables (facteurs) supplémentaires peut rendre de plus en plus difficile la capacité de démêler les effets d'interaction (Boyd et al., 2018).

Il est intéressant de noter que le réductionnisme expérimental est une solution pour évaluer plusieurs facteurs environnementaux clés lorsque la logistique et les ressources sont limitantes (Figure 8; Boyd et al., 2018; Côté et al., 2016). Les approches réductionnistes, telles que des plans expérimentaux réduits et effondrés (Boyd et al., 2016; Willis-Norton et al., 2022), permettent de sélectionner les niveaux et les interactions des facteurs pour répondre au mieux aux questions d'intérêt (Boyd et al., 2018). Elles favorisent aussi une réplication plus importante et l'utilisation de plusieurs niveaux pour le facteur d'intérêt, donc une compréhension plutôt mécanistique sur ce dernier point.



Figure 8. Représentation de plans expérimentaux réalisables permettant d'étudier de facteurs multiples via un réductionnisme expérimental. (a) Design factoriel complet idéalisé définissant tous les facteurs (ici au nombre de trois) avec plusieurs niveaux d'intérêt pour chacun d'entre eux. (b) Identifier les niveaux et les combinaisons de facteurs les plus pertinents, afin de créer des designs réduits ou effondrés qui répondent au mieux aux questions d'intérêt. Figure provenant de Boyd et al. (2018).

En plus de tendre vers des expériences à facteurs multiples, nous devons aussi chercher à étendre les connaissances (1) de l'espèce unique aux réponses des communautés et des écosystèmes (point de vue spatial), et (2) de l'acclimation à l'adaptation (point de vue temporel) (Figure 9). Etant donné qu'il est impossible d'avancer sur tous ces points en une seule fois, il est essentiel de fixer des priorités, comme par exemple se concentrer sur des espèces modèles et ingénieurs de l'écosystème, et/ou sur des espèces ou des écosystèmes résilients ou vulnérables aux changements globaux (Riebesell and Gattuso, 2015). En effet, l'objectif est désormais de concevoir des expériences écologiquement réalistes qui reflètent le plus fidèlement possible la complexité des systèmes naturels. Il est donc nécessaire de comprendre les effets de facteurs concomitants pour évaluer de manière robuste la sensibilité des organismes marins à différents scénarios du changement global. Cela représente également un intérêt majeur pour les gestionnaires de l'écosystème et les décideurs politiques dans les stratégies d'adaptation et de mitigation (Boyd et al., 2018; Halpern et al., 2015; Riebesell et al., 2011).



Figure 9. Représentation schématique de l'état actuel des connaissances et des leurs besoins dans les études sur l'acidification des océans. La majorité de l'information actuelle concerne des espèces uniques acclimatées sous l'influence d'un facteur unique (coin inférieur gauche). Les flèches rouges indiquent la direction dans laquelle nous devons approfondir notre compréhension. L'évaluation des impacts sur les services écosystémiques nécessite des informations sur les capacités d'adaptation (c'est-à-dire à long terme et sur plusieurs générations) à de multiples facteurs au niveau écosystémique (coin supérieur droit). Figure provenant de Riebesell et al. (2011).

III. Réponses biologiques des organismes calcifiants

Pour persister dans un océan dont la température, le pH et d'autres facteurs de stress environnementaux changent, de nombreuses espèces marines devront probablement s'acclimater ou s'adapter afin d'éviter l'extinction. Dans ce travail, nous nous concentrons sur les organismes calcifiants, en particulier les bivalves, qui sont connus pour être plus vulnérables au changement global du fait de la dépendance de leur activité biologique à la température du milieu et de la disponibilité en carbonates (Gazeau et al., 2013; Kroeker et al., 2013).

1) Survivre à l'Anthropocène : la plasticité phénotypique

La plasticité phénotypique permet aux organismes de développer rapidement une résilience à des conditions environnementales variables lorsque le temps de réponse est plus court que la vitesse et l'intensité du changement (Fox et al., 2019; Seebacher et al., 2015). Cet ajustement réversible du phénotype, c'est-à-dire sans modification du génotype, est le phénomène d'acclimatation, constituant le premier rempart des organismes face au changement global (Tableau 1). Plus précisément, la plasticité peut se produire durant la durée de vie d'un organisme, et aussi à travers plusieurs générations, appelée alors la plasticité transgénérationnelle (Ross et al., 2016). Un organisme doté d'un phénotype réversible peut ainsi s'acclimater à un environnement nouveau ou changeant en ajustant son phénotype de manière à ce que le trait soit le plus adapté et maximise les performances de l'organisme (Figure 10). Les réponses différentes indiquent qu'il existe aussi une interaction génotype × environnement (DeWitt and Scheiner, 2004; Whitman and Agrawal, 2009).

Tableau 1. Glossaire de quelques termes utilisés pour décrire les réponses des organismes marins au changement global.

Terme	Définition
Acclimatation	Ajustement d'un organisme à des conditions expérimentales en laboratoire sans modification de sa génétique, décrivant ainsi les réponses phénotypiques plastiques des organismes en conditions contrôlées.
Acclimatisation	Ajustement d'un organisme aux conditions environnementales sur le terrain plutôt qu'en laboratoire sans modification de sa génétique, décrivant ainsi les réponses phénotypiques plastiques dans des conditions naturelles.
Adaptation	Mécanisme évolutif où la sélection naturelle de certains traits est transmise génétiquement, généralement sur plusieurs générations, afin de créer un organisme adapté à l'environnement.
Plasticité phénotypique	Capacité d'un organisme à produire plus d'un phénotype et d'ajuster sa physiologie, sa morphologie et/ou son comportement lorsqu'il est exposé à des environnements différents, sans altérer son génotype.

La plasticité phénotypique est néanmoins susceptible de contribuer à la persistance de la population en laissant le temps à l'adaptation génétique de se produire, un processus graduel et irréversible (Foo and Byrne, 2016). Cependant, il peut exister des coûts et des limites à la plasticité phénotypique lorsque l'amélioration d'un trait ou d'une fonction entraîne un compromis pour un autre trait ou une autre fonction, ce qui peut limiter gravement la valeur sélective (*fitness*) et la survie d'une espèce (DeWitt, 1998). La question est de savoir si la plasticité phénotypique pourra permettre aux espèces de répondre au rythme rapide du changement global.



Figure 10. Plasticité phénotypique hypothétique d'un trait spécifique (ex : longueur de la coquille) pour cinq génotypes dans une population. Les triangles indiquent la valeur moyenne des caractères de la population dans deux environnements différents, et cette moyenne a tendance à augmenter dans le nouvel environnement 2. Le génotype 4 ne montre pas de plasticité pour ce trait, le génotype 3 montre une plasticité phénotypique très importante, à l'inverse, le génotype 1 diminue dans l'environnement 2. Figure provenant de Whitman and Agrawal (2009).

2) Réponses au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans

Effet de la hausse de la température

La température joue un rôle fondamental dans les processus biologiques, des réactions biochimiques et des taux métaboliques (Gillooly et al., 2001; Hochachka and Somero, 2002) jusqu'aux taux de croissance (Gillooly et al., 2002) et aux interactions entre espèces (Freitas et al., 2007; Sanford, 1999). En effet, le réchauffement augmente généralement la croissance, la gamétogénèse et le développement larvaire (Di Poi et al., 2022; Dworjanyn and Byrne, 2018; Ko et al., 2014; Zimmerman and Pechenik, 1991). De plus, la température est un facteur clé qui détermine la biogéographie et la distribution des espèces marines (Somero, 2005; Tomanek, 2010). Par exemple, l'une des

catastrophes biotiques du réchauffement global est de faciliter le développement et l'expansion spatiale des espèces invasives dans un océan qui se réchauffe (Stachowicz et al., 2002).

Chez les ectothermes, tels que les bivalves, un réchauffement modéré augmente les taux biochimiques et physiologiques jusqu'à une température optimale spécifique à l'espèce. Mais au-delà de cet optimum, le réchauffement peut ralentir la croissance, dénaturer les protéines, et entraîner une réduction de la performance et de la survie de l'organisme (Figure 11; Brennand et al., 2010; Pörtner and Farrell, 2008). Plus précisément, l'augmentation de la température entraine l'augmentation des coûts de maintien (en énergie et oxygène) chez les organismes ectothermes, ce qui peut donner lieu à des compromis énergétiques entre les fonctions biologiques (Sokolova, 2013; Sokolova, 2021). À long-terme, cela peut entraîner une diminution des réserves énergétiques, voire la mort de l'organisme.



Figure 11. Fenêtre thermique de la performance aérobie des organismes aquatiques. La fenêtre thermique optimale de l'organisme est délimitée par les températures « pejus » en deçà et au-delà desquelles la performance de l'organisme diminue, entraînant le développement d'une réponse au stress. L'addition d'un stress hypercapnique ou hypoxique peut réduire la fenêtre thermique. Figure provenant de Pörtner and Farrell (2008).

Certains organismes sont capables de contrecarrer l'effet de la température sur les structures membranaires en remodelant les lipides membranaires par des modifications dans la composition des acides gras et la teneur en cholestérol, un processus connu sous le nom d'adaptation homéovisqueuse (Hazel, 1995). Par exemple, chez plusieurs espèces de bivalves tempérées et tropicaux, les acides gras poly-insaturés à longue chaîne diminuent avec l'augmentation de la température, ce qui diminue la fluidité de la membrane pour éviter sa rupture (Delisle et al., 2020; Le Luyer et al., 2022; Pernet et al., 2007).

Effet de la réduction du pH

L'acidification des océans (AO) peut affecter de nombreux processus physiologiques chez les mollusques marins, tels que la régulation acide-base (Fabry et al., 2008; Michaelidis et al., 2005), le métabolisme énergétique (Lannig et al., 2010; Thomsen and Melzner, 2010), l'ingestion (Clements and Darrow, 2018), la croissance (Di Poi et al., 2022; Milano et al., 2016; Omoregie et al., 2019; Parker et al., 2011), et la calcification (Gazeau et al., 2007; Lutier et al., 2022; Ries et al., 2009). La dissolution de la coquille est aussi observée chez les mollusques, ce qui implique une réduction de l'épaisseur et de la dureté de la coquille (Fitzer et al., 2015a; Fitzer et al., 2015b; Lutier et al., 2022; Waldbusser et al., 2011b; Welladsen et al., 2010), augmentant la vulnérabilité des organismes face à la prédation et aux conditions environnementales changeantes (Byrne and Fitzer, 2019; Wright et al., 2014). Cela est aussi favorisé par la délamination du périostracum avec l'acidité du milieu, qui est la couche organique externe protégeant la coquille du milieu extérieur (Figure 12; Alma et al., 2020; Avignon et al., 2020; Peck et al., 2016). L'exposition à une AO sévère peut également impacté la reproduction des huîtres en réduisant la gamétogénèse (Boulais et al., 2017). En outre chez les larves de mollusques, des études ont montré que l'AO rallonge le développement larvaire (Waldbusser et al., 2015; Wessel et al., 2018), augmente les anomalies morphologiques (Kurihara et al., 2007; Noisette et al., 2014), et diminue la survie (Huo et al., 2019; Talmage and Gobler, 2009).



Figure 12. Représentation schématique du processus de calcification dans la coquille d'un mollusque. Figure provenant de Gazeau et al. (2013), modifiée de Marin and Luquet (2004).

La calcification est le processus biologique qui devrait être le plus impacté par l'AO en raison de la réduction de la disponibilité des ions CO₃²⁻, qui sont essentiels pour la formation des coquilles. Les premières observations sur la sensibilité du processus de calcification à l'acidification des océans ont été faites sur les coccolithophores planctoniques (Riebesell et al., 2000) et les coraux (Gattuso et al., 1998; Langdon et al., 2000) qui présentaient des taux de calcification plus faibles dans des conditions acidifiées et sous-saturées en carbonates. Ces résultats ont également été confirmés par la suite chez les bivalves (Gazeau et al., 2007; Ries et al., 2009). Brièvement, la coquille est sécrétée par le bord du manteau. Les ions CO₃²⁻ et Ca²⁺ contenus dans l'eau de mer sont captés et
circulent dans l'hémolymphe via les hémocytes (Mount et al., 2004). Il a été suggéré que les ions sont d'abord séquestrés par endocytose et/ou canaux ioniques, puis des carbonates de calcium amorphes sont formés dans des vésicules intracellulaires, pour être ensuite sécrétés par le manteau vers l'espace extra-palléal (Figure 12; Addadi et al., 2006; Weiner and Addadi, 2011). Leur nucléation dans la matrice et leur conversion en polymorphes stables (calcite et aragonite) sont essentiellement médiées par des protéines matricielles spécifiques sécrétées par le manteau (Addadi et al., 2006; Falini et al., 1996). Ces protéines et les fibres de chitine vont ordonner et orienter les cristaux, et donc le tissu minéralisé mature.

Toutefois, les réponses physiologiques sont très variées entre les taxons, entre les espèces phylogénétiquement proches, et parfois même entre les populations d'une même espèce (Gazeau et al., 2013; Parker et al., 2010; Parker et al., 2011). De plus, des expériences en laboratoire ont révélé que les réponses dépendent aussi du stade de vie de l'organisme. En général, les stades larvaires et juvéniles sont en effet plus sensibles à l'AO que les stades adultes, ce qui peut représenter un goulot d'étranglement pour les populations (Kroeker et al., 2013; Przeslawski et al., 2015).

Combinaison des effets du réchauffement et de l'acidification

Les effets combinés du réchauffement et de l'acidification des océans sur les organismes marins sont difficiles à prévoir étant donné les réponses biologiques qui diffèrent entre les taxons, les espèces et les stades de vie. Il n'y a pas de consensus dans la littérature quant au type d'interaction intervenant entre ces deux facteurs. D'un côté, une température élevée peut compenser les effets négatifs de l'AO sur la croissance (Ko et al., 2014; Kroeker et al., 2014; Waldbusser et al., 2011a). D'un autre côté, une température élevée peut interagir de manière synergique avec l'AO en aggravant ses effets négatifs sur la survie et la croissance (Prada et al., 2017; Talmage and Gobler, 2009). Des études ont démontré que l'AO peut réduire la tolérance thermique des organismes marins en modifiant l'équilibre énergétique et en réduisant les capacité aérobie (Lannig et al., 2010; Pörtner, 2012; Sokolova et al., 2012). Finalement, il est très probable que les effets combinés d'une température élevée et d'une réduction de pH dépendent de la courbe de performance thermique de l'organisme étudié (Parker et al., 2017; Pörtner, 2008; Pörtner and Farrell, 2008). Si les limites de la fenêtre thermique optimale de l'organisme ne sont pas dépassées, alors une température élevée peut atténuer, voire même améliorer, les impacts négatifs avérés de l'AO.

Cependant, les stress environnementaux augmentent généralement les coûts énergétiques de la maintenance des organismes, et peuvent affecter l'allocation en énergie entre les différentes fonctions physiologiques (Sokolova, 2021). Par exemple, cette réallocation en énergie peut favoriser la maintenance et la survie des organismes, aux dépens des fonctions énergétiquement exigeantes telles que la calcification, la reproduction ou l'immunité (Lochmiller and Deerenberg, 2000; Palmer, 1992). Même si les organismes semblent tolérants à l'augmentation de la température et/ou la diminution du pH, cela peut s'accompagner de coûts sur la valeur sélective et de compromis physiologiques entre les fonctions, qui à long-terme, ne seront pas bénéfiques pour l'organisme et les populations.

3) Effets d'autres facteurs environnementaux associés au réchauffement et à l'acidification

Dans le contexte du changement global, d'autres facteurs environnementaux peuvent interagir avec la température et le pH, ce qui rend les prédictions encore plus imprévisibles, et peut influencer les capacités d'acclimatation des organismes marins.

Vie dans la zone intertidale

Les habitats de la zone intertidale, qui est la zone de balancement des marées, présentent naturellement une variabilité considérable du pH et de la température (réseau https://www.seanoe.org/data/00749/86131/ et **ECOSCOPA**: projet CocoriCO₂ : https://cocorico2.ifremer.fr/en/Donnees). Cependant, les facteurs associés au changement climatique sont susceptibles d'entraîner à l'avenir une augmentation des extrêmes de conditions dans la zone intertidale (Harley et al., 2006; Helmuth et al., 2006). De plus, la zone intertidale est physiquement exigeante pour les organismes marins en raison des températures extrêmes, de la dessication pendant la marée basse, des vagues, ainsi que des pressions biotiques de prédation et de compétition (Connell, 1961; Harley and Helmuth, 2003; Tomanek and Helmuth, 2002). Les organismes qui vivent dans la zone intertidale peuvent donc être particulièrement vulnérables aux futurs changements environnementaux, surtout si ils se trouvent déjà à leurs limites physiologiques de tolérance (Stillman, 2003; Tomanek and Somero, 1999).

Néanmoins, les organismes intertidaux ont un grand potentiel d'acclimatation et d'adaptation, grâce à des mécanismes physiologiques et biochimiques qui leur permettent d'atténuer les effets des conditions très variables et fluctuantes de leur habitat (Burnett, 1988; Melzner et al., 2009; Truchot, 1990). Par exemple, des études ont montré que des mollusques intertidaux, et/ou provenant de conditions naturelles très fluctuantes, étaient plus tolérants au changement climatique que leurs congénères subtidaux ou de conditions plus stables (Frieder et al., 2014; Leung et al., 2017; Scanes et al., 2017; Vargas et al., 2017, 2022). Cependant, la capacité de chaque organisme à faire face à ces variations environnementales est toujours limitée dans une fenêtre de tolérance thermique ou de pH (Pörtner and Farrell, 2008). Les réponses des organismes au changement global pourraient donc dépendre des fluctuations connus dans leur habitat d'origine, il est

essentiel de connaitre ces informations lors de la réalisation d'expériences en laboratoire (Vargas et al., 2017, 2022).

Disponibilité de la nourriture

Le manque de nourriture est un facteur de stress courant chez les organismes marins, en particulier pour ceux dont la mobilité est limitée, comme les filtreurs, qui sont exposés aux fluctuations naturelles de la disponibilité de la nourriture dans la colonne d'eau (https://www.seanoe.org/data/00749/86131/). Ces fluctuations de nourriture peuvent affecter l'état énergétique et la fitness des organismes et peuvent par conséquent avoir un impact sur leurs réponses aux changements environnementaux (Jeno and Brokordt, 2014; Sokolova, 2021). Des études ont montré que les effets négatifs de l'AO peuvent être atténués lorsque les organismes, ici bivalves, disposent de ressources alimentaires optimales (Melzner et al., 2011; Thomsen et al., 2013). De même, une disponibilité en nourriture importante peut favoriser la croissance et le développement des larves d'échinodermes et de bivalves exposées à un pH faible ou à un réchauffement, compris dans les seuils de tolérance (García et al., 2015; Hettinger et al., 2013). Chez les coraux, la disponibilité en nourriture module également la croissance et la calcification lorsqu'ils sont exposés à des conditions d'acidification et de réchauffement (Beck et al., 2023; Büscher et al., 2017). Selon Ramajo et al. (2016), de nombreuses études n'ont pas apporté de nourriture aux organismes durant les expérimentations, ce qui peut avoir conduit à une surestimation des effets négatifs de l'AO car les animaux n'avaient pas d'apport énergétique. Étant donné que l'apport en nourriture est un facteur majeur dans la tolérance des organismes, il est essentiel de fournir des niveaux de nourritures réalistes vis-à-vis systèmes naturels pour ne pas sous-estimer ou, à l'inverse, surestimer les effets des changements environnementaux.

Présence de pathogènes et défenses immunitaires

Nous avons évoqué dans l'une des sections précédentes que l'acidification et le réchauffement pouvaient changer l'abondance et la virulence des pathogènes viraux ou bactériens dans l'environnement marin. Au sein des organismes hôtes, les défenses immunitaires peuvent être impactées par les conditions environnementales changeantes (Behringer et al., 2020; Burge et al., 2014). En effet, des études sur les moules ont montré qu'une diminution du pH diminuait l'activité phagocytaire et l'activité des lysosomes, toutes deux liées aux réponses immunitaires de l'hôte (Bibby et al., 2008; Matozzo et al., 2012). Chez les coraux, le stress induit par la hausse des températures est responsable de mortalités massives associées à la fois au blanchiment et à une susceptibilité accrue aux maladies infectieuses (Harvell et al., 1999; Miller et al., 2009; Tracy et al., 2019), contribuant à la disparition des écosystèmes récifaux. Hernroth et al. (2012) ont constaté qu'une exposition combinée à l'AO et au réchauffement entraînait une réduction du nombre total d'hémocytes chez le homard de Norvège (Nephrops norvegicus), ce qui peut affecter la sévérité et la progression d'une maladie. Par ailleurs, les défenses immunitaires sont exigeantes en énergie, ce qui peut entraîner des compromis entre différentes fonctions physiologiques. Lorsque les organismes sont soumis à des stress environnementaux, ils peuvent réaffecter leur énergie vers des fonctions jugées plus essentielles, au détriment de leurs défenses immunitaire (Lochmiller and Deerenberg, 2000; Sheldon and Verhulst, 1996; Sokolova, 2021). De manière plus appliquée, des études ont montré que la mortalité des bivalves exposés à des agents pathogènes augmentait lorsque les animaux étaient acclimatés dans des conditions acidifiées, soit seules, soit en combinaison avec une augmentation de la température (Ellis et al., 2015; Fuhrmann et al., 2019). La présence de pathogènes est donc un facteur environnemental additionnel qui ne doit pas être négligé dans le contexte du changement global.

IV. Les huîtres, des modèles biologiques d'intérêt

En tant qu'organismes marins sessiles, les huîtres subissent les fluctuations du milieu en raison de leur incapacité à sortir de conditions défavorables. Elles peuvent ainsi être considérées comme des sentinelles des changements environnementaux dans les écosystèmes côtiers (Thomas et al., 2018). En France, il existe deux espèces d'huîtres : l'huître plate européenne, *Ostrea edulis* (Linnaeus, 1758), native de nos côtes européennes, et l'huître creuse du Pacifique, *Crassostrea gigas* (Thunberg, 1793), introduite il y a environ 50 ans pour sauver l'ostréiculture française (Tableau 2). Ces deux espèces sont de hautes valeurs économiques et écologiques dans les écosystèmes tempérés. Bien que leur origine et leur écologie diffèrent, ces deux espèces partagent des destins communs, notamment leur rôle essentiel dans l'équilibre de l'écosystème et leur vulnérabilité face aux pressions anthropiques croissantes.

	Huître creuse du Pacifique	Huître plate européenne
Phylum	Mollusca	
Classe	Bivalvia	
Ordre	Ostreida	
Famille	Ostreidae	
Genre	Crassostrea	Ostrea
Espèce	Crassostrea gigas	Ostrea edulis

Tableau 2. Classification taxonomique de Crassostrea gigas et d'Ostrea edulis.

1) L'ostréiculture française : histoire et enjeux actuels

Historiquement, l'huître endémique *O. edulis* était exploitée au 19ème siècle, en particulier dans le bassin d'Arcachon, atteignant 20 000 t (tonnes métriques) par an entre

1908 et 1912 (Figure 13; Buestel et al., 2009). Cependant, les populations d'*O. edulis* se sont effondrées dans toute l'Europe après 1920 en raison de la surpêche, de la destruction directe de l'habitat et d'un premier épisode d'épizootie (épidémie) (Gercken et Schmidt, 2014; Thurstan et al., 2013). A partir de cette période, l'huître creuse portugaise *Crassostrea angulata* (préalablement introduite dans les années 1860 dans le bassin d'Arcachon) remplace l'espèce endémique et devient l'espèce dominante de l'ostréiculture française, atteignant une production de 100 000 t en 1953 (Figure 13; Buestel et al., 2009). Cependant, une maladie virale, la « maladie des branchies », est apparue en 1966 provoquant des mortalités massives de *C. angulata* jusqu'à son extinction totale du littoral français. Au début des années 1970, l'industrie ostréicole a réagi rapidement avec l'introduction massive d'une nouvelle espèce, *C. gigas*, en provenance du Pacifique (Canada et Japon).

Depuis cette dernière introduction, *C. gigas* domine l'ostréiculture française avec une production de 100 000 – 120 000 t par an (Buestel et al., 2009; FAO, 2020), et constitue une économie mondiale très importante. De plus, cette espèce s'est parfaitement établie et a colonisé de nombreux écosystèmes à travers l'Europe grâce à sa croissance rapide et à sa grande plasticité phénotypique (Diederich, 2006; Troost, 2010). Elle forme des récifs denses et étendus, ce qui peut induire des compétitions avec les communautés natives (Diederich, 2006; Moreira et al., 2018; Parker et al., 2010; Schmidt et al., 2008). Cependant, depuis 2008, l'huître creuse est à son tour frappée par des épisodes de mortalités sévères durant l'été, causées par le virus Ostreid herpesvirus (OSHV-1) et des bactéries opportunistes (de Lorgeril et al., 2018; Segarra et al., 2010). Selon la localisation et la cohorte, la mortalité des huîtres juvéniles (aussi dits naissains, moins de 1 an) varie de 40 à 100% chaque année, alors que les animaux plus âgés sont généralement beaucoup moins touchés (Fleury et al., 2020; Petton et al., 2015). La production annuelle de l'huître creuse est donc plus ou moins stable, mais avec des grandes pertes.



Figure 13. Evolution historique de la production ostréicole française de trois espèces d'huîtres. *O. edulis* est l'huître plate endémique d'Europe, *C. angulata* est l'huître portugaise introduite dans les années 1860, et *C. gigas* est l'huître creuse du Pacifique introduite volontairement dans les années 1970. Figure provenant de **(Buestel et al., 2009)**.

Concernant l'huître plate, la production s'est toujours poursuivit en Bretagne, mais les élevages et la filière ont été et sont toujours terrassés par deux parasites, *Marteilia refringens* (« marteiliose ») puis *Bonamia ostreae* (« bonamiose »). Ces parasites sont apparus successivement à partir des années 1970 (Buestel et al., 2009), ce qui a réduit la production de *O. edulis* de 20 000 t à environ 2 000 t par an, encore aujourd'hui (FAO, 2020). Désormais l'huître plate est considérée comme une espèce en voie de disparition, ce qui a regroupé différentes pays européens au sein d'une alliance (NORA depuis 2018), afin de réaliser des démarches de restauration et réintroduction pour favoriser son retour sur les côtes européennes (Hughes et al., 2023; Pogoda et al., 2019).

2) Deux modèles biologiques différents : éléments de biologie et d'écologie

Distribution et habitat

L'huître creuse et l'huître plate occupent des niches écologiques différentes, en effet *C. gigas* est considéré comme une espèce intertidale alors que *O. edulis* est une espèce plutôt subtidale.

Tout d'abord, *C. gigas* présente une distribution mondiale (Bayne, 2017), qui s'explique par son introduction volontaire dans différents pays, puis son expansion naturelle dans différentes régions du globe. L'huître creuse *C. gigas* est considérée comme l'une des principales espèces invasives marines (Molnar et al., 2008). Cette colonisation sur de nombreuses écorégions s'explique par la capacité de l'huître creuse à tolérer une large gamme de conditions environnementales (température, salinité, etc) à travers une plasticité phénotypique importante. En effet, *C. gigas* occupe principalement les milieux intertidaux et estuariens où les facteurs abiotiques sont très variables, avec potentiellement des marées périodiques (Bayne, 2017; Walles et al., 2016; Zwerschke et al., 2018). A l'inverse, l'huître plate à une aire de répartition plus restreinte et est mieux adaptée à des environnements plus stables, comme les milieux subtidaux plus océaniques où les conditions abiotiques sont moins fluctuantes (Bayne, 2017; Stagličić et al., 2020).

De plus, il a été démontré par modélisation bioénergétique que l'expansion de l'huître creuse vers les hautes altitudes est liée au réchauffement global (Thomas et al., 2016). Cette espèce obtient ainsi un score élevé dans les caractéristiques propices à l'invasion (croissance et maturation sexuelle rapides, tolérance importante, espèce ingénieure), mais il en va de même pour de nombreux autres bivalves intertidaux (Bayne, 2017; Troost, 2010).

Anatomie et physiologie

Les huîtres creuses et plates présentent la même anatomie qui se compose d'un corps mou enfermé dans une coquille constituée de deux valves asymétriques, rattachées par une charnière (Figure 14; Bayne, 2017; Marteil, 1976). Le muscle adducteur assure la fermeture des valves. Le corps de l'animal est protégé par un manteau qui délimite la cavité palléale et qui est le tissu responsable de la calcification de la coquille en CaCO₃. La coquille est principalement constituée de calcite sous deux formes : prismatique et foliacée, et l'aragonite est limitée aux zones d'insertion du muscle adducteur (myostracum)et du ligament (ligostracum). A l'intérieur de la cavité, on retrouve les branchies qui sont responsables des activités de respiration et de nutrition, ainsi que le cœur et le système digestif (Figure 14). Enfin, l'appareil reproducteur comprend une gonade qui enveloppe la glande digestive (Bayne, 2017; Marteil, 1976).



Figure 14. Anatomie de (a) l'huître creuse du Pacifique Crassostrea gigas et (b) l'huître plate européenne Ostrea edulis. Les flèches vertes indiquent respectivement les flux inhalant (trait plein) et exhalant (trait pointillé).

Les huîtres sont des microphages filtreurs se nourrissant de particules sestoniques (microalgues, bactéries, débris organiques et inorganiques) depuis la colonne d'eau. Les particules filtrées sont <50 µm, et majoritairement autour de 10 µm de diamètre (Miossec et al., 2009; Nielsen et al., 2016). Le processus d'alimentation implique un tri au niveau de la bouche (Figure 14), où les palpes labiaux vont sélectionner les particules. Les particules rejetées sous la forme d'agrégats aux niveaux des palpes labiaux forment les pseudo-fèces. A l'inverse, pour les particules ayant passé la bouche et les processus de digestion, les éléments résiduels de l'assimilation sont évacués par l'anus sous la forme de fèces.

Les huîtres ont un système circulatoire semi-ouvert contenant l'hémolymphe qui permet la circulation de l'oxygène et des nutriments. L'hémolymphe est notamment composée de cellules immunitaires circulantes multipotentes, appelées hémocytes. Ces hémocytes sont impliqués dans la défense de l'organisme par le biais de la phagocytose qui permet l'élimination des corps indésirables (Bachère et al., 2004). Néanmoins, les hémocytes, en plus de leurs fonctions immunitaires, peuvent remplir d'autres fonctions telles que la cicatrisation des lésions et la réparation de la coquille (Canesi et al., 2002).

Stratégie de reproduction

L'huître creuse *C. gigas* et l'huître plate *O. edulis* présentent un cycle de vie benthopélagique, avec un stade benthique où les huîtres juvéniles et adultes vivent fixées, puis un stade pélagique larvaire jusqu'à la fixation, démarrant le stade benthique (Figure 15). Cependant leurs stratégies de reproduction diffèrent.

Les huîtres sont hermaphrodites asynchrones, soit mâle ou femelle, pour un ou plusieurs cycles annuels, à la fin desquels un changement de sexe peut se produire. L'huître creuse *C. gigas* est dite hermaphrodite protandre de type alternatif irrégulier, où l'organisme est généralement mâle lors des premières maturations, puis femelle avec l'âge et l'augmentation de la taille, mais un retour à l'état mâle est possible (Guo et al., 1998). Les huîtres plates *O. edulis* sont hermaphrodites alternatifs et rythmiques avec un changement de sexe plus régulier et rapide au cours d'une même saison de reproduction. Plus précisément, la gonade se développe généralement mâle et devient femelle après la première fraie, puis à nouveau en mâle, dans un cycle qui persiste tout au long de la vie adulte (Cole, 1942).



Figure 15. Cycle de vie de l'huître creuse du Pacifique Crassostrea gigas en milieu naturel et en élevage. Figure provenant de la thèse de Mathieu Lutier, 2022.

De manière générale, le cycle de reproduction des huîtres a un caractère saisonnier marqué par 4 phases : (1) une phase de stockage de réserves durant l'hiver, sous forme de glycogène et lipides, associée à une initiation de la gamétogénèse (à températures faibles); (2) une phase de maturation caractérisée par une forte croissance de la gonade au printemps grâce au réchauffement des eaux; (3) une période d'émission des gamètes matures en été lorsque les masses d'eau dépassent les 18°C; et (4) une éventuelle dégénérescence des gamètes non émis au cours de l'automne, appelée résorption, permettant l'initiation d'un nouveau cycle l'hiver suivant (Berthelin et al., 2000; Lango-Reynoso et al., 2006; Steele and Mulcahy, 1999; Wilson and Simons, 1985). Par ailleurs, la saison de reproduction des huîtres plates est plus étendue que celle des huîtres creuses, et dans les deux cas, des pontes multiples peuvent être observées au cours de la même saison en fonction des conditions environnementales.

Il existe une différence majeure dans la stratégie de reproduction entre l'huître creuse et l'huître plate. Une fois la gamétogénèse terminée, l'huître creuse émet ses gamètes mâles ou femelles dans la colonne d'eau ce qui donne lieu à une fécondation externe (Figure 14; Bayne, 2017), il s'agit d'une espèce ovipare. Chez l'huître plate, seule l'émission des gamètes mâles se produit dans le milieu extérieur (Martin et al., 1995). Les spermatozoïdes sont alors filtrés par la femelle et les ovocytes sont fécondés dans la cavité palléale de la femelle. Les larves y sont ensuite incubées de 7 à 12 jours (selon la température de l'eau) avant d'être émises dans la colonne d'eau à une taille comprise entre 140-160 μm, il s'agit donc d'une espèce vivipare ou larvipare (Bayne, 2017). Ces stratégies se répercutent sur la fécondité des huîtres, où l'huître plate émet beaucoup moins de larves (quelques milliers) comparé à l'huître creuse (plusieurs centaines de milliers).

3) Services écosystémiques

Bien que C. gigas et O. edulis présentent des niches écologiques et des stratégies de reproduction différentes, elles fournissent des services écosystémiques identiques et nombreux dans les zones côtières et estuariennes. Ces deux espèces d'huîtres sont dites espèces ingénieures (Gutiérrez et al., 2003; Smyth and Roberts, 2010). D'une part, les huîtres créent des habitats biogéniques sous la forme de récifs, servant de substrat et de refuge pour les autres espèces, et sont donc sources de biodiversité (Lenihan and Peterson, 1998; Smyth and Roberts, 2010). D'autre part, les huîtres participent activement l'amélioration de la qualité et de la clarté de l'eau grâce à leur importante capacité de filtration (Hily, 1991). En parallèle, le contrôle des blooms phytoplanctoniques par la filtration limite le risque d'anoxie lors des efflorescences printanières et estivales (Newell et al., 2007). Les huîtres contribuent au couplage benthopélagique essentiel pour le fonctionnement des écosystèmes marins, notamment en participant à la régénération des nutriments dans le milieu via leur forte déposition (fèces et pseudo-fèces) (Coen et al., 2007; Gili and Coma, 1998). Les impacts sur les huîtres et leur disparition compromettraient ainsi le fonctionnement de l'écosystème et la biodiversité locale, particulièrement dans un contexte de changement global.

V. Objectifs et plan de la thèse

Le changement global engendre une multitude de changements environnementaux abiotiques et biotiques. Il est de plus en plus essentiel d'innover vers des études multi-factorielles, qui considèrent simultanément plusieurs de ces variables environnementales, plutôt que des études se limitant à une seule variable. Ces approches « multi-stress » permettent de mieux comprendre l'impact global sur les organismes et les écosystèmes marins, reflétant ainsi plus fidèlement la complexité des systèmes naturels.

Cette thèse porte sur l'étude de la plasticité phénotypique des huîtres exposées au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans, en considérant différentes contraintes environnementales en termes (i) d'émersion périodique, (ii) de disponibilité et de qualité de la nourriture (ici phytoplancton) et (iii) de l'émergence d'une maladie marine. Deux stratégies expérimentales sont mises en œuvre dans cette thèse : une approche par norme de réaction et une approche à multiples facteurs environnementaux. Le principal objectif de cette thèse est de fournir de nouveaux éléments de compréhension dans la réponse et la capacité plastique des bivalves aux changements environnementaux. Pour ce faire, le travail de thèse va établir des liens entre plusieurs traits macro-physiologiques (i.e., croissance, ingestion, survie aux pathogènes) et biochimiques (i.e., lipidomique). Ces différents niveaux d'analyse sont très pertinents pour comprendre les compromis physiologiques et énergétiques qui se mettent en place au sein de l'organisme qui doit faire face à de multiples changements dans son environnement. Pour tester expérimentalement ces effets de compromis, l'application d'un challenge pathogène permet de montrer un coût physiologique potentiel à l'acclimatation, ainsi qu'une répercussion éventuelle sur la fonction immunitaire des organismes. Ensemble ces observations permettent de mieux comprendre les capacités d'acclimatation des organismes marins, qui sont déterminantes pour survivre à des changements environnementaux rapides.

Ce travail comprend quatre questions centrales de recherche, chacune mettant en lumière les effets des changements environnementaux sur les huîtres vivant dans les écosystèmes côtiers.

- Comment évolue la plasticité phénotypique de l'huître face au réchauffement et à l'acidification, aux échelles macro-physiologiques et biochimiques ?
 - a) Quelles sont les normes de réaction à l'AO de l'huître creuse et de l'huître plate, deux espèces taxonomiquement proches ? (Chapitre 1)
 - b) Quels sont les effets combinés du réchauffement et de l'AO sur la réponse de l'huître creuse ? (Chapitre 2 & 3)
- Quelles sont les influences de la niche écologique et du régime de marée sur les réponses inter- et intra-spécifiques de l'huître au réchauffement et à l'AO ? (Chapitres 1 & 2)
- Quelle est l'influence du régime trophique, en termes de disponibilité et de qualité, sur la réponse de l'huître au réchauffement et à l'AO ? (Chapitres 2 & 3)
- 4) Comment les scénarios d'exposition influencent-ils le risque de mortalité des huîtres lors d'un stress supplémentaire, à savoir une exposition à des pathogènes viraux ? (Chapitres 2 & 3)

Le **Premier Chapitre** établit les normes de réaction et les seuils de tolérance à l'AO de deux espèces d'huîtres provenant de différentes niches écologiques : l'huître creuse intertidale *Crassostrea gigas* et l'huître plate subtidale *Ostrea edulis*. L'objectif est aussi de comparer les normes de réaction macro-physiologiques à biochimiques entre les deux espèces, afin de mettre en évidence des réponses divergentes. Nous émettons l'hypothèse que l'huître creuse *C. gigas* pourrait avoir un meilleur potentiel d'acclimation à l'AO par rapport à l'huître plate *O. edulis*, en raison de son mode de vie intertidal qui peut lui conférer une plus grande plasticité.

À partir du Chapitre 2, nos investigations se concentrent exclusivement sur l'huître creuse *C. gigas*. Le Chapitre 1 révèle que *C. gigas* est globalement plus robuste à l'AO et a vraisemblablement une plus grande plasticité. Nous souhaitons tester jusqu'à quel point cette espèce est capable de garder cette plasticité en ajoutant des contraintes environnementales. D'autant plus qu'une littérature conséquente existe sur la réponse de l'huître creuse aux changements environnementaux, en raison de son statut d'espèce modèle.

Le **Second Chapitre** explore les effets de l'AO et du réchauffement, associés au régime tidal et à la disponibilité de la nourriture, sur les réponses biologiques de l'huître creuse intertidale *C. gigas*. Ces deux derniers facteurs sont souvent négligés dans les expériences portées sur le changement climatique, alors que la majorité des espèces étudiées proviennent des habitats intertidaux et n'ont pas toujours accès à une nourriture abondante. A la fin de l'acclimatation, un challenge pathogène est réalisé pour déterminer un potentiel coût physiologique à l'acclimatation. Nous émettons l'hypothèse que l'émersion périodique et la restriction alimentaire peuvent fortement influencer les réponses biologiques de l'huître creuse exposée à l'AO et au réchauffement.

Le **Troisième Chapitre** présente un design expérimental très similaire à celui du Chapitre 2, mais explore cette fois l'effet de la qualité de la nourriture sur la plasticité phénotypique de l'huître creuse *C. gigas* exposée au réchauffement et à l'AO. A nouveau, une exposition virale est réalisée à la fin de l'acclimatation aux conditions expérimentales. En effet, l'effet de la qualité de la nourriture sur un macro-organisme dans un contexte de changement climatique a été peu étudié. Nous émettons l'hypothèse que la qualité de la nourriture est également un facteur clé majeur, autant que la disponibilité de la nourriture, dans les réponses des organismes au changement global.

La **Discussion Générale** résume les principaux résultats des différents facteurs environnementaux étudiés pour répondre aux questionnements de la thèse, tout en discutant des limites de nos expériences en laboratoire. Cette partie conclut en suggérant des solutions et moyens pour les futurs efforts de recherche sur les réponses des organismes aux changements environnementaux.

Chaque chapitre fait l'objet d'un article distinct pour publication dans des revues scientifiques. Le Chapitre 1 a déjà été soumis au journal *Journal of Experimental Biology*, ainsi que le Chapitre 2 dans *Science of the Total Environment*. L'article du Chapitre 3 est en préparation et va évoluer. Les références des cinq parties de la thèse ont été regroupées en une seule liste de références à la fin du document, et les annexes respectives de chaque chapitre sont présentées à la fin de leur chapitre correspondant.

CHAPITRE 1

Normes de réaction de l'huître creuse *Crassostrea gigas* et de l'huître plate *Ostrea edulis* face à l'acidification des océans

Préambule

Le travail présenté dans ce premier article vise à déterminer, puis comparer, les normes de réactions à l'acidification des océans de deux espèces d'huîtres tempérées provenant d'habitats contrastés : l'huître creuse du Pacifique *Crassostrea gigas* et l'huître plate européenne *O. edulis*. Un seul facteur environnemental est étudié dans cet article, qui est la diminution du pH. Les huîtres ont été exposées en jardin commun à un gradient de pH allant de pH 7.7 à pH 6.4, pendant 48 jours. Les réponses biologiques ont été étudiées de l'échelle macro-physiologique (croissance, coloration de la coquille, survie) à l'échelle biochimique (réserves énergétiques, lipidomique).

Ce travail a été réalisé au cours de mon Master 2 avec Fabrice Pernet et Carole Di Poi, et nous avons souhaité intégrer ce travail dans ma thèse. Cet article s'inscrit dans la continuité des travaux de thèse de Mathieu Lutier (2022) sur les normes de réactions de l'huître creuse *C. gigas* et de l'huître perlière *Pinctada margaritifera*, particulièrement à la publication « Revisiting tolerance to ocean acidification: Insights from a new framework combining physiological and molecular tipping points of Pacific oyster » dans *Global Change Biology*.

L'article de ce Chapitre 1 s'intitulant « Differential reaction norms to ocean acidification in two oyster species from contrasting habitats » a été accepté et publié dans *Journal of Experimental Biology*.

Differential reaction norms to ocean acidification in two oyster species from contrasting habitats

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Abstract

Ocean acidification (OA), a consequence of the increase in anthropogenic emissions of carbon dioxide, causes major changes in the chemistry of carbonates in the ocean with deleterious effects on calcifying organisms. The pH/pCO₂ range to which species are exposed in nature is important to consider when interpreting the response of coastal organisms to OA. In this context, emerging approaches, which assess the reaction norms of organisms to a wide pH gradient, are improving our understanding of tolerance thresholds and acclimation potential to OA. In this study, we deciphered the reaction norms of two oyster species living in contrasting habitats: the intertidal oyster *Crassostrea gigas* and the subtidal flat oyster *Ostrea edulis*, which are two economically and ecologically valuable species in temperate ecosystems. Six-month-old oysters of each species were exposed in common garden tanks for 48 days to a pH gradient ranging from 7.7 to 6.4 (total scale). Both species were tolerant down to a pH of 6.6 with high plasticity in fitness-related traits such as survival and growth. However, oysters underwent remodelling of membrane fatty acids to cope with decreasing pH along with shell bleaching impairing shell integrity and consequently animal fitness. Finally, our work revealed species-specific physiological responses and highlights that intertidal *C. gigas* seems to have a better acclimation potential to rapid and extreme OA changes than *O. edulis*. Overall, our study provides important data about the phenotypic plasticity and its limits in two oyster species, which is essential for assessing the challenges posed to marine organisms by OA.

Key words: Bleaching, Fatty acid, Mollusc, pH, Plasticity, Tipping point

I. Introduction

The increase in atmospheric CO_2 emissions since the Industrial Revolution and its subsequent uptake by the ocean have led to an imbalance in seawater carbonate chemistry, causing a decrease in pH, a process known as ocean acidification (OA) (Caldeira and Wickett, 2003). The most likely climate model predict that sea-surface pH will decrease by 0.032 pH units by the end of the century (SSP3-7.0; IPCC, 2022). Concomitantly, the excess of hydrogen ions (H⁺) is responsible for a reduction in the availability of carbonate ions (CO_3^{2-}), the essential components of the shells and skeletons of marine calcifiers (Orr et al., 2005).

In most experimental studies, marine organisms are exposed to constant acidification levels derived from the IPCC OA scenarios for the global ocean, while most of

them inhabit variable coastal environments such as intertidal, estuarine, and upwelling areas (Cai et al., 2011; Feely et al., 2008; Provoost et al., 2010). In these habitats, current seawater pH/pCO_2 levels vary more temporally and spatially than in the open ocean, and may already exceed average OA projections (Vargas et al., 2017). Therefore, this large environmental variability in combination with expected global future acidification could drive resident organisms even closer to the limits of their physiological tolerance (Hofmann et al., 2011). To address this constraint, a few studies have investigated the physiological tolerance and acclimation capacities of coastal organisms to OA by assessing reaction norms to a broad range of pH levels, covering the natural variability of seawater chemistry (Comeau et al., 2013; Dorey et al., 2013; Lutier et al., 2022; Thor et al., 2018; Ventura et al., 2016). In addition, reaction norms can be used to identify physiological tipping points, corresponding to tolerance thresholds beyond which a small change in an environmental factor has large effects on the organism (Scheffer, 2010). Such approaches have proven to be complementary methods to standard scenario studies (present-day versus future), but they need to consider the entire natural pH/pCO₂ range to which species are exposed to be relevant (Vargas et al., 2017).

Among coastal organisms, shelled molluscs are considered particularly vulnerable to OA as acidified conditions lead to a decrease in the calcite and aragonite saturation states, which adversely affects their calcification, shell integrity and survival (Gazeau et al., 2013; Waldbusser et al., 2015). Nevertheless, it is not worth noting that there are species- and population-specific responses to OA that can be explained by divergent selection and plasticity, which may or may not allow a set of organisms to cope with rapid and extreme acidification events (Duarte et al., 2015; Parker et al., 2010). Interestingly, molluscs living in environments with high natural pH/pCO₂ variability seem less sensitive to OA (Thomsen et al., 2017; Vargas et al., 2017, 2022), and intertidal organisms seem to have evolved greater tolerance to lower pH than their subtidal counterparts (Leung et al., 2017; Scanes et al., 2017). Here, we aimed to determine and compare the reaction norms to OA of two economically and ecologically valuable oyster species living at different bathymetric levels. The Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* (Thunberg 1793) is distributed worldwide and predominantly inhabits the upper intertidal zone where it can experience severe metabolic hypercapnia during emersion (Burnett, 1988; Zwerschke et al., 2018). Indeed, intertidal oysters are exposed to spatially and temporally heterogeneous environments in terms of temperature, pH, oxygen, salinity and food supply conditions, throughout the tidal cycle, leading to extended phenotypic plasticity (Chevin and Hoffmann, 2017; Leeuwis and Gamperl, 2022). In contrast, the flat oyster *Ostrea edulis* Linnaeus 1758 is found only in Europe and lives mainly in the more stable subtidal zones where it rarely or never emerges (Pogoda, 2019; Laing et al., 2006). The life history traits of the two species are very different, with *C. gigas* reproducing through broadcast spawning and *O. edulis* using a brooding strategy, which can also lead to contrasting responses to changing environments (Gray et al., 2019; Stechele et al., 2022).

We therefore hypothesised that the reaction norms of the two oyster species to OA would differ, and that the intertidal C. gigas may be more tolerant to pH decrease than its subtidal counterpart O. edulis. To test our hypothesis, we established their reaction norms over a wide pH range, from 7.7 to 6.4, under laboratory conditions. We investigated the effect of decreasing pH on macrophysiological traits such as survival, growth and shell coloration. Indeed, acidification bleaches shells and the coloration is a simple and reliable indicator of the acidity of water and its impact on the integrity of molluscs' shells (Avignon et al., 2020). We also measured the energy reserves of oysters as a function of pH. Acclimation to acidification generally involves energy reallocation and strategies may differ depending on the species (Sokolova, 2013). Finally, we analysed the composition of membrane fatty acids, a key parameter governing exchanges between intra and extracellular compartments and overall metabolic rates (Hulbert, 2003). Overall, our study provides insight into phenotypic plasticity divergence in two oyster species from

contrasting tidal habitats, and a better understanding of how oysters are likely to respond and acclimatise in a rapidly acidifying ocean.

II. Material and methods

a) Animals and maintenance

Because of the different reproduction strategies between the two oyster species studied, the production and fertilisation protocols used were different. Pacific oysters were produced at the Ifremer experimental station (Argenton, Brittany, France) on 27 August 2019, according to the procedure described in Petton et al. (2015). Briefly, the broodstock consisted of 118 females and 22 males collected in the natural environment between 2011 and 2017 in Île d'Aix (Charente-Maritime, France), whose gametes were obtained by stripping and mixed in the same jar to fertilise the oocytes. At 1 month old, the juvenile oysters were transferred dry in a cooler to the Ifremer station in Bouin (Vendée, France) for growing in a flow-through seawater system depending on the temperature and pH of the natural environment. During this phase, the animals were fed a monospecific diet ad libitum with the microalga *Skeletonema costatum* (strain CCAP 1077/3). On 9 January 2020, these oysters were brought back to the Argenton facilities and kept in a 500 l flow-through tank for 19 days before the experiment.

In the flat oyster, the fertilisation is internal and the females incubate the larvae for nearly 10 days in the paleal cavity. Compared with that of the Pacific oyster, hatchery culture of the flat oyster is delicate and mortality occurs (Maneiro et al., 2020). We used juvenile oysters obtained by biparental mating (paired crossing) at the hatchery of the Comité Régional de la Conchyliculture (Lampaul-Plouarzel, Brittany, France) on 19 August 2019. The two parents used for breeding were wild oysters collected in the Bay of Brest in May 2019. On 17 January 2020, the juvenile oysters were transferred to the Argenton facilities and kept for 11 days in the same flow-through tank as the Pacific oysters.

During this time, the seawater temperature was gradually increased from 14°C to 19°C (+0.5°C.day⁻¹), which is an optimal temperature for both species (Bayne, 2017). Oysters were continuously fed a mixed diet of two phytoplankton species (1:1 in dry weight), the diatom *Chaetoceros muelleri* (strain CCAP 1010/3) and the haptophyte *Tisochrysis lutea* (strain CCAP 927/14). Phytoplankton concentration was maintained at 1500 μ m³. μ l⁻¹ at the tank outlet to ensure *ad libitum* feeding (Petton et al., 2015), and monitored twice daily using an electronic particle counter (Multisizer 3, Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN, USA; 100- μ m aperture tube). On 28 January 2020, at the onset of the experiment, the mean individual shell length and total mass were 18.5 ± 3.0 mm and 0.67 ± 0.18 g for *C. gigas*, and 8.9 ± 2.1 mm and 0.10 ± 0.08 g for *O. edulis*. Both species were divided into 16 batches containing 105 ± 3 *C. gigas* and 105 ± 4 *O. edulis* for a total biomass of 91.9 ± 2.4 g.

b) Experimental design

Each batch of oysters was exposed in 'common garden' tanks, i.e. both oyster species were maintained together in the same tank, to one constant nominal total pH (pH_T) condition ranging from pH 7.9 to 6.4, without pH replication, with a step of 0.1 between two levels, at 19°C for 48 days and fed *ad libitum* as described above. The experimental flow-through system consisted of 17 experimental units that were randomly assigned to one pH condition (n = 16) or to a control blank without animals (n = 1) to check the pH of the ambient seawater. Each experimental unit consisted of a header tank in which seawater was acidified by injecting pure CO₂ (except for the ambient pH

condition) and then delivered by a pump (ProFlow t500; JBL, Neuhofen, Germany) to a holding tank containing the oysters. These tanks were 45 l and their entire volume was renewed every 90 min.

The pH level was controlled in the header tank using a pH-controller connected to a pH electrode (ProFlora; JBL, Neuhofen, Germany). The pH electrode was calibrated with NBS (National Bureau of Standards) buffers (pH 4.00 and 7.00) at the beginning of the experiment. In the holding tank, the seawater was continuously oxygenated and mixed using air bubbling and a circulation pump (ProFlow t300; JBL, Neuhofen, Germany). The tanks and oysters were cleaned twice a week. The photoperiod was fixed at 14 h light: 10 h dark and no tidal regime was applied. Seawater was sampled twice daily at the inlet and outlet of each holding tank to determine the phytoplankton concentration (in cell volume) and total consumption of both species simultaneously using the electronic particle counter. When needed in each pH condition, the phytoplankton concentration at the inlet was gradually increased over time to compensate for the increasing grazing rate of the growing oysters (Fig. S1). Considering the seawater renewal time of the tanks, pH had no effect on the quality of microalgae (Fig. S2).

c) Seawater carbonate chemistry

Seawater pH_T, temperature, dissolved oxygen saturation and salinity were monitored twice daily in the holding tanks using a portable multi-parameter device (MultiLine® Multi 3630 IDS - WTW: pH electrode SenTix® 940, oxygen sensor FDO® 925, conductivity electrode TetraCon® 925; Xylem Analytics, Weilheim in Oberbayern, Germany). These measurements were used to adjust the settings of the pH-controllers. The accuracy of the pH electrode was checked once a week with Certipur® NBS buffers (pH 4.00, 7.00 and 9.00; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and calibrated twice a week on the total scale (pH_T) with a certified Tris/HCl buffer at a salinity of 35.0 (provided by A. G. Dickson, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, San Diego, CA, USA). Seawater samples (150 ml) were collected three times during the experiment for total alkalinity (A_T) analyses. The seawater was filtered through 0.7 μ m GF/F glass microfiber filters (Whatman®, Florham Park, NJ, USA) and immediately poisoned with 0.05% saturated mercuric chloride solution before storage. A_T was measured at the Laboratoire Environnement Ressources (Sète, Hérault, France) using potentiometric titrations with an automatic titrator (TitroLine® 7000; SI Analytics, Mainz, Germany) according to Dickson et al. (2007). A_T measurements were conducted in triplicate at 20°C on 25 ml subsamples with a measurement uncertainty of 0.44%. Parameters of the carbonate system were determined from pH_T, A_T, temperature and salinity using the R package *seacarb* (v3.3.1; https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=seacarb) (see Table 1).

d) Oyster survival

For each species, oyster survival was assessed visually inside the tanks once a day, then more exhaustively twice a week during cleaning. The dead individuals were immediately removed.

e) Biometric measurements

Total body weight (shell + tissue), and both shell length and weight, were measured individually with a calliper (Digimatic IP67, Mitutoyo, Sakado, Japan) and a precision balance (MettlerToledo, Greifensee, Switzerland) on a subsample of 30 individuals of each species at the start of the experiment (day 0), and on 20 oysters per species and pH condition after 41 days of exposure. The dissected flesh was pooled and weighted to obtain fresh flesh weight. Growth rate (G) was calculated as:

$$G=\frac{\overline{X_{41}}-\overline{X_0}}{41} \ (1)$$

where G is the growth rate expressed as increase in shell length or total body weight per day (mm.d⁻¹ and mg.d⁻¹, respectively), $\overline{X_0}$ and $\overline{X_{41}}$ are the mean values measured at the onset of the experiment (day 0) and at 41 days. The measurements relate to different individuals between day 0 and day 41.

f) Shell coloration

Analysis of shell coloration was performed on day 20, as shell condition deteriorated under the lowest pH conditions afterwards. The digestive gland was apparent through the shell later in the exposure and could distort shell coloration measurements. The left valves of 15 individuals per species and pH condition were randomly selected. The shells were photographed using an ultra-high precision digital microscope (Keyence® VHX-5000; Keyence Corporation, Osaka, Japan). The images were converted into grayscale images and analysed using ImageJ software. The mean coloration of the shell was calculated using the mean value of the grey levels of all pixels constituting the selected area (Fig. 1). Grayscale level was measured on a scale of 0-255 where 0 represents black and 255 represents white.



Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the procedure for analysing the coloration of oyster shells. The shell coloration was determined using ImageJ software that calculated the mean grayscale level of the entire left shell valve ranging from 0 (total black) to 255 (total white).

g) Biochemical analyses

Soft-tissue samples from 10 individuals per species and pH condition were collected at day 41, flash-frozen under liquid nitrogen, pooled, ground to a powder with a ball mill and stored at -80°C until analyses. Lipids and carbohydrates were not analysed for flat oysters exposed to pH below 6.8 and 6.9, respectively, because of the low amount of flesh available.

Energy reserves

Oyster powder was diluted with chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) and the neutral lipids (i.e., reserve lipids) were separated into lipid classes and quantified using a high-performance thin-layer chromatography and a scanning densitometer (Automatic TLC Sampler 4 and TLC Scanner 3, respectively; CAMAG, Muttenz, Switzerland). As triacylglycerols (TAG) are mainly reserve lipids and sterols (ST) are structural lipids of

cell membranes, the TAG:ST ratio was used as an index for the contribution of energy reserves to structure (Fraser, 1989).

The carbohydrate content was determined according to the colorimetric method described in Dubois et al. (1956). Milli-Q water was added to the powder samples and mixed with phenol (0.5 ml, 5% m/v) and sulphuric acid (2.5 ml, 98%), and then incubated for 40 min. Absorbance was measured at 490 nm using a Cary 60 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Total carbohydrate content was calculated using a standard calibration curve with pure glucose and expressed in mg.g⁻¹ fresh weight.

Proteins were extracted from powder on ice using lysis buffer [150 mM NaCl (Merck), 10 mM Tris/HCl (Sigma-Aldrich), 1 mM EDTA (Quantum), 1 mM EGTA (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% Triton X-100 (Bio-Rad), and 0.5% Igepal (Sigma-Aldrich); pH 7.4 at 4°C] with phosphatase and protease inhibitors [1% of phosphatase inhibitor cocktail II (Sigma-Aldrich), 2% NaPPi 250 mM (Sigma-Aldrich), and a tablet of complete EDTA free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) in 25 mL of lysis buffer]. Samples were ground and homogenised using a Polytron® PT 2500 E (Kinematica, Malters, Switzerland). The resulting lysates were used for quantification of the total protein content with the DC protein assay (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) according to Lowry et al. (1951). Absorbance was read at 750 nm and protein concentrations were determined by comparison with a standard calibration curve supplied with the kit. The results were expressed as mg.g⁻¹ fresh weight.

Fatty acid composition of polar lipids

Polar lipids (i.e., membrane lipids) were purified from the chloroform/methanol mixture used for lipid class analysis on a silica-gel micro-column, and transesterified with a mixture of 3.4% sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) in methanol at 100°C (Couturier et al., 2020).

This transesterification produces fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) from the fatty acids, and dimethyl acetals (DMA) from the alkenyl chains at the sn-1 position of plasmalogens. The resulting FAME and DMA were analysed using a flame ionization detector gas chromatograph system (HP - Agilent 6890; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) equipped with a DB-Wax capillary column (30 m length x 0.25 mm i.d. x 0.25 μ m film thickness). The DMA quantification allowed the indirect quantification of plasmalogens. Fatty acids were then identified by comparison of retention times with standards. Each FA was expressed as the relative percentage of peak area by the sum of all polar FA peaks.

h) Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were performed using RStudio software (v4.2.2) and the significance threshold was set at 0.05. All variables were plotted using the mean pH_T calculated from daily measurements throughout the experiment in each pH condition. The general statistical procedure was previously described in Lutier et al. (2022).

The relationships between dependent variables (survival rate, biometrics, shell coloration, biochemistry) and the mean pH_T were computed using regression models. Segmented and linear regression models were tested and compared for each variable. The model with the lowest Akaike and Bayesian information criteria (AIC, BIC) and the highest R^2 was selected. For segmented regression models, both the tipping point and its 95% confidence interval were estimated. The tipping point corresponds to the pH value at which the dependent variable tips, and was defined by applying the bootstrap restarting algorithm (Wood, 2001). For the growth rates, the critical point – i.e., the pH value at which the dependent variable was zero – and its 95% confidence interval were also determined. The normality of residuals and homogeneity of variances were graphically checked. The significance of each slope was tested using the Student t-test and compared

to a horizontal slope of zero. The segmented regression models were computed using the *segmented* package (v1.6-2). Dependent variables were averaged over the number of individuals collected for each species and pH condition.

In addition, slopes of each regression model obtained for *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* were compared using the Welch two-sample t-test to detect significant differences in response to acidification between the two species. The comparison of slopes was carried out above and below the tipping point when one of the species' reaction norms had been modelled by a segmented model. The test was not performed if the slopes were not different from zero. The statistical outputs are summarised in Table 2.

Specifically, survival of both species was evaluated by the Kaplan-Meier (KM) method (Kaplan and Meier, 1958) for each pH condition. Survival time was measured in days from the onset of the experiment. KM survival curves were generated using the *survival* package (v3.5-5). Multiple pairwise comparisons were then made using the Log-Rank survival test to identify significant differences in survival between the different pH conditions. Final survival rates were extracted and tested against pH_T.

Fatty acid data were summarised using principal component analysis (PCA) for each species separately. Only fatty acids contributing to >1% were considered. The pH condition 7.5 for *C. gigas* was removed from the fatty acid data analysis because of extraction problems. The fatty acids were then divided into two groups according to their positive or negative correlation with the first principal component (PC1). The contribution of fatty acids (%) was then summed for each group and plotted as a function of pH_T.

III. Results
a) pH regulation and carbonate chemistry

Table 1. Parameters of seawater carbonate chemistry in each experimental tank (16 pH_T levels and a blank without oysters).

Nominal	Measured						Calculated			
рН	рНт	A _T	Т	S	DO		pCO ₂	DIC	Ωc	Ω_{A}
		(µmol.kg ⁻¹)	(°C)	(ppt)	(%)		(µatm)	(µmol.kg ⁻¹)	-	
Blank	7.9±0.0	2444±6	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	100.4±0.5		693±22	2275±8	3.2±0.1	2.1±0.0
7.9	7.7±0.0	2349±29	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.7±0.7		947±18	2239±23	2.3±0.1	1.5±0.1
7.8	7.7±0.0	2350±54	19.2±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.6±0.6		964±54	2242±44	2.3±0.2	1.5±0.1
7.7	7.7±0.0	2321±37	19.2±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.5±0.7		1085±51	2233±39	2.0±0.0	1.3±0.0
7.6	7.6±0.1	2339±57	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	97.7±0.9		1382±312	2281±79	1.7±0.3	1.1±0.2
7.5	7.5±0.0	2345±27	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.6±0.6		1814±59	2325±29	1.3±0.0	0.9±0.0
7.4	7.4±0.0	2368±55	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.4±0.7		2292±126	2378±57	1.1±0.0	0.7±0.0
7.3	7.3±0.0	2361±29	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.1±0.9		2901±575	2403±55	0.9±0.1	0.6±0.1
7.2	7.2±0.0	2369±28	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.2±0.7		3405±153	2436±22	0.8±0.0	0.5±0.0
7.1	7.1±0.0	2391±33	19.2±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.8±0.6		4578±125	2508±37	0.6±0.0	0.4±0.0
7.0	7.0±0.0	2412±60	19.2±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.7±0.6		5759±152	2574±59	0.5±0.0	0.3±0.0
6.9	6.9±0.1	2404±22	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.8±0.5		6808±476	2606±4	0.4 ± 0.0	0.3±0.0
6.8	6.8±0.1	2426±20	19.2±0.1	34.6±0.2	99.2±0.4		9655±1173	2728±59	0.3±0.0	0.2±0.0
6.7	6.7±0.1	2433±21	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	99.0±0.5		10482±631	2765±23	0.3±0.0	0.2±0.0
6.6	6.6±0.0	2445±15	19.2±0.1	34.6±0.2	99.1±0.4		15930±2494	2962±93	0.2±0.0	0.1±0.0
6.5	6.5±0.1	2458±23	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.9±0.6		20108±1915	3117±70	0.1±0.0	0.1±0.0
6.4	6.4±0.0	2453±24	19.1±0.1	34.6±0.2	98.7±0.6		22186±1493	3182±72	0.1±0.0	0.1±0.0

Seawater pH on the total scale (pH_T), temperature (T), dissolved oxygen saturation (DO) and salinity (S) were measured twice daily and averaged over the entire experimental period, while total alkalinity (A_T) was measured three times over the experiment. Partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂), dissolved inorganic carbon concentration (DIC), saturation state of calcite (Ω_c) and aragonite (Ω_A) were calculated from pH_T, A_T, S and T using the R package *seacarb* (Gattuso et al., 2022). Values correspond to mean ± s.d.

During the experiment, pH levels in the oyster tanks were stable and reached the targeted values, except for the highest pH conditions, which were both 7.7 instead of 7.8

and 7.9 (Table 1). This was probably due to oyster respiration, which lowered the pH of the incoming seawater (already at a pH_T of 7.9), despite a relatively high turnover rate of seawater relative to oyster biomass. Nevertheless, a seawater pH of 7.7 is already experienced by marine organisms in the natural environment (high-frequency data from CocoriCO2 project: https://cocorico2.ifremer.fr/en/Donnees). A_T varied from 2321 to 2458 µmol.kg⁻¹ and increased significantly with decreasing pH_T (t-test, p < 0.001, R² = 0.95) up until reaching control values (seawater with no oyster). Seawater was undersaturated (Ω < 1) with respect to aragonite and calcite from pH levels 7.5 and 7.3, respectively.

b) Low pH induces oyster mortality particularly for O. edulis

No mortality was observed in *C. gigas* throughout the exposure period, except at the lowest pH_T of 6.4 where mortalities started at day 38 and survival dropped to 78% at the end of the experiment (Fig. 2A). No pH-based model fitted with the final survival of *C. gigas* (Fig. 2C). In contrast, in *O. edulis*, mortalities occurred in all pH conditions throughout the exposure period, and survival dropped to 38% at the lowest pH value (Fig. 2B). The final survival of *O. edulis* fitted with pH according to a segmented regression model with a tipping point at pH_T 6.6 below which survival declined drastically with decreasing pH (Fig 2C). Above this tipping point, survival ranged from 93% to 75% and did not correlate with pH (t-test, p = 0.98).



Fig. 2. Survival of oysters for each species as a function of exposure time and pH (on total scale). Kaplan-Meier survival curves of *Crassostrea gigas* (A) and *Ostrea edulis* (B) oysters during 48 days of exposure under 16 pH_T conditions, and final survival of oysters tested against pH_T (C). Tipping point and the 95% confidence interval for survival in *O. edulis* are shown by the vertical red line and striped area; this was not applicable for *C. gigas*. The significance level of the slope is represented using asterisks (*p<0.05).

c) Growth declines with decreasing pH more markedly for *C. gigas*, and shell dissolution occurred at pH 6.6 for both species

At day 41, all biometric parameters declined with decreasing pH for both oyster species (Fig. 3). In *C. gigas*, shell length and growth rate in terms of shell length and flesh weight, decreased significantly as the pH decreased, and reached a tipping point at pH_T ~7.2 below which they declined sharply (Fig. 3A, B and F). In contrast, shell weight, total body weight and growth rate calculated from body weight decreased linearly over the entire pH range (Fig. 3C, D and E). In *O. edulis*, all parameters decreased linearly with pH and showed no tipping point (Fig. 3A-F). Growth rates (calculated from shell length and shell weight) were negative when pH was lower than 6.6 (i.e., critical points) for both

species (Fig. 3B and E). For most parameters, slope comparison tests on either side of the tipping point indicated that the reaction norms to pH differed significantly between the two species, and that *C. gigas* generally showed steeper slopes (Table 2).



Fig. 3. Final biometric parameters in *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* oysters as a function of pH (on total scale). Shell length (A), growth rate in shell length (B), shell weight (C), total body weight (D), growth rate in total body weight (E) and fresh flesh weight (F) in oysters after 41 days of exposure under 16 pH_T conditions. Data correspond to means \pm s.d. when available (n = 20 per pH condition and species). The tipping points and 95% confidence intervals are shown by the vertical blue line and striped area for *C. gigas* and by the vertical red line and striped area for *O. edulis*. Critical points and 95% confidence intervals are shown by the vertical blue line and by the vertical red line and striped area for *C. gigas* and by the vertical red line and striped area for *S* or fidence intervals are shown by the vertical blue line and dotted area for *C. gigas* and by the vertical red line and dotted area for *C. gigas* and by the vertical red line and striped area line and dotted area for *S* or fidence intervals are shown by the vertical blue line and dotted area for *S* or fidence intervals area for *S* or *S* o

d) Shell bleaching increases with decreasing pH for both species

After 20 days of exposure, the mean grayscale value increased with decreasing pH for both species. This indicates that decreasing pH increased shell bleaching (Fig. S3). Shell coloration changed linearly over the pH range in *C. gigas*, while it tipped at pH 6.9 in *O. edulis* and below which it plateaued (t-test, p = 0.58; Fig. 4). The grayscale values of the shell were similar between the two species at pH_T 7.7 (F = 13.1, p = 0.07). Slope comparison test (above the tipping point) indicated that *O. edulis* showed the steepest slope for shell bleaching (Table 2).



Fig. 4. Shell coloration in *C. gigas* **and** *O. edulis* **oysters as a function of pH (on total scale).** Grayscale value corresponds to the shell coloration ranging from 0 (total black) to 255 (total white), after 20 days of exposure under 16 pH_T conditions. Data correspond to means \pm s.d. (n = 15 per pH condition and species). The tipping points and 95% confidence intervals are shown by the vertical red line and striped area for 0. edulis. The significance level of slopes is represented using asterisks (***p<0.001, **p<0.01).

e) Remodeling of membrane lipids occurs in both oyster species in response to decreasing pH, but involves different fatty acids and different tipping points

PCA of membrane fatty acids showed that the first axis (PC1) alone explained 61% and 47% of the total variance in relation to pH for *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* respectively (Figure 5A-B). Positively correlated fatty acids mainly consisted of palmitic acid (PA, 16:0), docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n-3) and docosapentaenoic acid (DPA, 22:5n-6) in *C. gigas* (Table S1), while they were DHA, DPA and monounsaturated FA (18:1n-7) in *O. edulis* (Table S2). This positively correlated group of FAs exhibited tipping points at pH_T ~ 7.0 for *C. gigas* and pH_T ~ 7.5 for *O. edulis*, below which their contribution to membranes decreased significantly (Fig. 5C). Concomitantly, the main negatively correlated FA (20:1n-7) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3) in *C. gigas* (Table S1), while they were dimethyl acetal (18:0DMA) and stearic acid (SA, 18:0) in *O. edulis* (Table S2). This negatively correlated significantly (Fig. 5D).



Fig. 5. Membrane fatty acid composition in *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* oysters as a function of pH_T . Principal component analysis of polar fatty acids of *C. gigas* (A) and *O. edulis* (B) after 41 days of exposure under 16 pH_T conditions (n = 10 oysters pooled per pH condition and species). Arrows represent fatty acids contributing to more than 5% of the first and second principal components (PC1 and PC2). The contributions of fatty acids positively (C) or negatively (D) correlated to PC1 were summed together and tested against pH_T for each oyster species. The tipping points and 95% confidence intervals are shown by the vertical blue line and striped area for C. gigas and vertical red line and striped area for 0. edulis. The significance level of slopes is represented using asterisks (***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05).

f) Energy reserves are unaffected by decreasing pH for both species

No relationship was found between TAG:ST ratio, total carbohydrate and total protein contents and pH_T for both oyster species (Fig. S4), although a segmented regression model was marginally significant for total proteins in *O. edulis* (t-test below tipping point, p = 0.08; Fig. S4C).

Table 2. Comparison of the reaction norms for whole-body and shell-related parameters inCrassostrea gigas and Ostrea edulis in response to ocean acidification.

Variable	Species	Model r	esults	Slope	value	Slope comparison	
vallable	Opecies	Regression	TP	<tp< td=""><td>>TP</td><td><tp< td=""><td>>TP</td></tp<></td></tp<>	>TP	<tp< td=""><td>>TP</td></tp<>	>TP
Shell length	C. gigas	segmented	7.20±0.28	16.97±1.93	6.64±2.41	-0.001	0.32
Sheir length	O. edulis	linear	n.a.	7.55	7.55±0.61		0.32
Total body	C. gigas	linear	n.a.	2.29:	2.29±0.14		04
weight	O. edulis	linear	n.a.	0.50:	±0.04	<0.0	01
Challwaight	C. gigas	linear	n.a.	1.55:	1.55±0.09 0.40±0.03		01
Shell weight	O. edulis	linear	n.a.	0.40			<0.001
Eloch woight	C. gigas	segmented	7.16±0.26	0.55±0.06	0.21±0.07	-0.001	0.001
Flesh weight	O. edulis	linear	n.a.	0.07:	±0.01	<0.001	0.001
Growth rate	C. gigas	segmented	7.20±0.28	0.41±0.05	0.16±0.06	-0.001	0.22
(length)	O. edulis	linear	n.a.	0.18	±0.01	<0.001	0.32
Growth rate	C. gigas	linear	n.a.	55.85	±3.39	-0 (101
(weight)	O. edulis	linear	n.a.	12.16	12.16±0.98		
Shell	C. gigas	linear	n.a.	-32.57	7±4.13	na	~0 001
coloration	O. edulis	segmented	6.93±0.25	n.s.	-44.77±7.44	n.a.	\U.UU

Comparison of the slopes was performed above (>TP) and below (<TP) the tipping point (TP) when one of the species displayed a segmented model. The test was not performed on slopes not significantly different from a zero horizontal slope. Values are TP or slope coefficient and their 95% confidence interval. Welch two-sample t-test was performed to compare species slopes and significant p-values (p < 0.05) are indicated in bold. n.a., not applicable; n.s., not significant.

IV. Discussion

Here, we determined and compared the reaction norms to OA in two oyster species living in different habitats: the intertidal Pacific oyster *C. gigas* and the subtidal European flat oyster *O. edulis* exposed in common garden tanks to a seawater pH_T from 7.7 to 6.4 for 48 days. We established the reaction norms of juvenile oysters for survival rate, biometrics, shell coloration, membrane fatty acids and energy reserves vis-à-vis pH_T. We found that both species showed high plasticity as they were able to survive and grow at extremely low pH_T (> 6.6). However, we found that lowering the pH decreased growth performance, increased shell bleaching and induced a major remodeling in membrane lipids. Interestingly, we found several interspecific differences, which suggest that the intertidal Pacific oyster has a higher acclimation potential than the subtidal flat oyster to cope with rapid and extreme acidification events.

a) OA reduces growth-related parameters and causes shell bleaching of oysters

Growth-related parameters decreased as soon as pH declined in both oyster species, probably reflecting the lowering of the calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) saturation state, and/or the increase in the metabolic cost of maintaining homeostasis (Beniash et al., 2010; Cyronak et al., 2016). The tipping points observed in *C. gigas* on the biometric parameters in this study are similar to those observed by Lutier et al. (2022), who used the same experimental design. Nevertheless, we obtained significant slopes above tipping points that Lutier et al. did not observe. This difference in pH responses between the two studies may be associated with differences in the experimental conditions or in the oyster

populations used. Indeed, seawater temperature was 19°C in our study compared to 22°C in Lutier et al. (2022). Higher temperature can mitigate the impacts of a pH reduction (Di Poi et al., 2022; Ko et al., 2014). Besides, we used oysters from the same origin as Lutier et al. (2022) but in different years, so their life history and their susceptibility to acidification may have been different (Duarte et al., 2015; Parker et al., 2011; Thor et al., 2018). There are no comparable studies for *O. edulis* in the literature. Overall, the negative impacts on growth-related parameters as soon as pH falls could affect animals' fitness, raising concerns about the future of oyster populations with even small changes in ocean acidity.

In addition, we found that shell bleaching increased with decreasing pH for both species. *O. edulis* exhibited a tipping point at pHT 6.9 below which the shell color no longer changed, probably corresponding to a maximal bleaching of the shell. Several studies conducted on oysters and gastropods have also reported shell bleaching at pH ~7.7-7.8, which could be attributed to delamination of the periostracum (Avignon et al., 2020; Duquette et al., 2017; Le Moullac et al., 2016; Sezer et al., 2018). Such alteration makes the shell more prone to CaCO₃ dissolution (Peck et al., 2016; Tunnicliffe et al., 2009), leading to subsequent changes in biomineral microstructure and shell hardness (Auzoux-Bordenave et al., 2019; Chandra Rajan et al., 2021; Fitzer et al., 2014). Overall, we demonstrate rapid shell alterations due to pH reduction in both species. Compromised shell integrity, resulting from the periostracum delamination, is likely to impair animal fitness and make the oysters more vulnerable to predation and environmental stressors (Waldbusser et al., 2011a; Wright et al., 2018).

b) OA causes a major remodeling of membrane fatty acids

We show for the first time interspecific divergence in the remodeling of membrane FA in response to OA at pH_T 7.0 in *C. gigas* and pH_T 7.5 in *O. edulis*. Remodeling of membrane FA is pivotal to maintaining organism's homeostasis in a changing environment (Lee et al., 2018). Similarly, Lutier et al. (2022) reported a major remodeling of FA at pH 7.0 in *C. gigas* juveniles. Overall, very few studies conducted on bivalves have investigated the effects of acidifying conditions on fatty acid composition and there is no such comparison in the literature in *O. edulis*.

Specifically, the level of DHA (22:6n-3) decreased with decreasing pH at the benefit of two molecules related to plasmalogenic phospholipids, which are NMI for *C. gigas* and DMA – a derivative product from plasmalogen transesterification – for *O. edulis*. These results are similar to those obtained in *C. gigas* by Lutier et al. (2022). We hypothesise that oysters' membrane fatty acids were modified in response to low pH to protect cell membranes from oxidative stress while maintaining membrane fluidity. Indeed, DHA is a long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) particularly susceptible to peroxidation (Munro and Blier, 2012), whereas NMI and plasmalogens can act as scavengers of reactive oxygen species (Barnathan, 2009; Kraffe et al., 2004; Leray et al., 2002; Munro and Blier, 2012). In addition, NMI and plasmalogens may contribute to maintaining membrane fluidity and ion exchanges between intra and extracellular compartments (Munro and Blier, 2012). Here, we show that the two oyster species use the same biochemical machinery to cope with low pH, but their tipping point vary markedly, suggesting different strategies.

c) Oysters are tolerant to corrosive water

Both oyster species survive and grow at pH levels as low as 6.6 while seawater was undersaturated in calcite and aragonite ($\Omega_{c} = 0.2$ and $\Omega_{A} = 0.1$). Several studies have

reported the ability of molluscs to calcify and grow in corrosive seawater, see e.g., the mussels *Mytilus edulis* in Berge et al. (2006) and *Bathymodiolus brevior* in Tunnicliffe et al. (2009), and the limpet *Patella caerulea* in Rodolfo-Metalpa et al. (2011).

Note however that the oysters were fed *ad libitum* and their energy reserves were unaffected by pH decrease. It is likely that food availability allowed oysters to cope with acidification while maintaining positive growth without depleting reserves. The effects of acidification on growth and energy may be more pronounced under limiting food conditions (Hettinger et al., 2013; Sanders et al., 2013; Thomsen et al., 2013). We may have underestimated the impacts of OA in our study and it would be interesting to obtain reaction norms under different food levels.

However, at $pH_T > 6.6$, oyster shells were smaller than at the onset of the experiment reflecting a net dissolution of the shell in both species. This coincides with a marked increase in mortality in *O. edulis* suggesting death by shell dissolution (Green et al., 2009). At this pH_T , *C. gigas* showed no mortality and reserves were not depleted. We hypothesise that *C. gigas* went through metabolic depression to cope with such an extreme acidification event. Indeed, organisms can shift to metabolic rate depression enabling them to delay the onset of homeostatic disturbances incompatible with survival (Guppy and Withers, 1999; Sokolova, 2021). This time-limited survival strategy was previously suggested in Lutier at al. (2022) in juvenile *C. gigas* exposed to extremely acidic waters thanks to additional respiration and calcification data. The absence of data on the state of reserves at this pH in *O. edulis* does not allow us to draw such a conclusion. Although both oyster species are tolerant to OA, they deploy different short-term survival strategies in highly corrosive waters, with *C. gigas* showing the greatest acclimation potential.

d) Oyster species exhibit different physiological trade-offs to cope with OA

Reaction norms differed markedly between the two oyster species. Acidification has a greater effect on the growth of *C. gigas*, as shown by the steeper regression slopes, compared to *O. edulis*, but its survival is better. Under acidified conditions, *C. gigas* may allocate a greater proportion of energy to maintenance processes to stay alive at the expense of growth than *O. edulis*. Such trade-offs between growth and survival under stressful conditions were previously suggested in several studies (Gazeau et al., 2013; Stumpp et al., 2011; Thomsen and Melzner, 2010). In addition, the marked decrease in growth in *C. gigas* in response to low pH may reflect shell dissolution that could compensate for internal acidosis by increasing bicarbonate ions in tissues and extracellular fluids (Michaelidis et al., 2005). Conversely, *O. edulis* may allocate energy towards growth at the expense of homeostasis. A full energy budget is necessary to further investigate the physiological trade-offs in response to pH.

These different strategies exhibited by the two oyster species towards OA can be explained by their respective ecological niches. Intertidal organisms that live in highly variable environments are likely to be more tolerant to pH fluctuation than those living in the more stable subtidal zone (Melzner et al., 2009; Vargas et al., 2017, 2022). Comparative studies have suggested that the intertidal *C. gigas* could even outcompete the subtidal *O. edulis* under fluctuating environmental conditions (Gilson et al., 2021; Green et al., 2017; Stechele et al., 2022). Moreover, the different strategies in reproduction associated with somatic allocation between the two species may help explain their response to OA (Stechele et al., 2022). Indeed, the flat oyster seems more susceptible to unfavourable environmental conditions during the brooding period, while the Pacific oyster's high-energy investment in reproduction and its capacity for massive spawning are beneficial in changing environments. Particularly with regard to seawater acidification, Bamber (1990) established the reaction norms to pH in *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* after a 30-day exposure and reported the highest sensitivity of *O. edulis*, although the pH gradient and the experimental procedure for acidifying the water (adding sulphuric acid) may be questionable. Overall, our results show that the intertidal Pacific oyster may have a higher acclimation potential than the subtidal flat oyster to cope with rapid and extreme OA events.

Nevertheless, the conclusions must be nuanced. Firstly, the two species, at the same age, were not the same size and probably did not have the same growth potential. Generally, flat oysters have a lower filtration rate, slower growth, smaller ultimate size and more limited energy storage than the Pacific oyster (Stechele et al., 2022), which may influence their tolerance to pH. The experiment was also conducted without a tidal regime for C. gigas, which may have led to an underestimation of OA effects in intertidal oyster species (Scanes et al., 2017).

V. Conclusion

Our study provides important data about the plasticity capacity and tolerance thresholds of two oyster species living in different habitats to future global changes. However, further works integrating several oyster populations at different life stages under different food regimes and temperatures is needed to fully characterise specific reaction norms. We emphasise the need for considering habitat-specific variability of pH/pCO₂ based on *in situ* observations to design more realistic experiments.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no financial or competing interests.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: C.C., F.P., M.L., C.D.; Methodology: C.C., F.P., M.L., C.D.; Formal analysis: C.C., F.P., M.L., C.D.; Investigation: C.C., F.P., C.D.; Data curation: C.C.; Resources: F.P., C.D.; Writing - original draft: C.C., C.D.; Writing - review & editing: F.P., M.L.; Visualization: C.C., M.L., F.P., C.D.; Supervision: F.P., C.D.; Funding acquisition: F.P.

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Data availability

Raw data supporting the findings of this study are publicly available at the SEANOE Digital Repository: https://doi.org/10.17882/95793.



Supplementary information

Fig. S1. Temporal evolution of the phytoplankton cell volume at the tank inlet (filled symbols) and outlet (empty symbols) during 48 days of exposure under 16 pH_T conditions. This food consumption was quantified at the scale of the whole oyster batch in each tank as both *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* species were exposed in common garden. The horizontal lines correspond to the mean phytoplankton cell volume (± s.d.) over the entire experimental period. The vertical lines correspond to the sampling times of oysters, thus this decreased biomass causes a decrease in the food consumption right after. The mean phytoplankton concentration at the outlet of tanks was $1383 \pm 214 \ \mu\text{m}^3$.µl⁻¹. These are raw zootechnical data not standardized by weight.



Fig. S2. Essential fatty acid proportions in phytoplankton as a function of pH (on total scale). Phytoplankton was exposed for two hours to 17 pH conditions considering a flow rate of 500 ml.min⁻¹. This experiment was performed after the main oyster experiment. Essential fatty acids were not correlated with pH decrease. Abbreviations: PUFA, total of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (including EPA and DHA); EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3); DHA, docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3).



Fig. S3. The gradual shell reduction and bleaching of *Crassostrea gigas* (A) and *Ostrea edulis* (B) after 20 days of exposure to pH_T levels ranging from 7.7 to 6.4. Only four oysters are shown from each condition and species, and a size variability is noted between individuals from the same condition. Corresponding seawater pH on the total scale (pH_T) and saturation state of calcite (Ω_C) are indicated.



Fig. S4. Energy reserves in *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* oysters as a function of pH (on total scale). Triacylglycerol:sterol ratio (A), total carbohydrate content (B) and total protein content (C) in oysters after 41 days of exposure under 16 pH_T conditions (n = 10 oysters pooled per condition and species). Tipping point and the 95% confidence interval of *O. edulis* is shown in striped red. The slopes were not significant (p > 0.05).

Mean	Fatty acid	(% polai	fatty acids)							
pHT	14:0	16:0	16:1n-7	18:0DMA	18:0	18:1n-9	18:1n-7	18:2n-6	18:3n-3	18:4n-3
7.7	2.3	12.2	2.1	9.1	3.1	1.7	5.6	1.3	1.1	1.6
7.7	2.2	12.2	1.9	9.3	3.9	1.7	5.2	1.3	1.2	1.6
7.7	2.2	11.9	1.9	9.1	3.6	1.8	5.3	1.4	1.3	1.6
7.6	2.3	11.9	2.0	9.1	3.1	1.7	5.9	1.3	1.1	1.6
7.4	2.4	11.2	2.1	8.9	3.1	1.8	5.8	1.4	1.2	1.7
7.3	2.3	12.0	2.0	7.0	3.1	1.9	6.0	1.5	1.3	2.0
7.2	2.1	11.1	1.9	8.9	3.4	1.8	5.9	1.4	1.2	1.9
7.1	1.9	10.1	1.8	9.7	3.7	1.8	5.6	1.5	1.3	1.9
7.0	1.9	10.5	1.6	9.5	3.9	1.8	5.5	1.3	1.3	1.7
6.9	2.0	11.1	1.9	9.0	3.5	1.8	5.9	1.4	1.1	1.7
6.8	2.0	11.4	2.1	7.9	4.5	1.9	6.3	1.3	1.2	1.6
6.7	2.0	10.5	2.2	8.3	3.5	1.9	6.8	1.4	1.1	1.7
6.6	1.4	8.8	2.0	8.7	4.0	1.7	6.2	1.0	0.9	1.1
6.5	1.4	9.4	2.1	7.7	4.1	2.0	6.2	0.9	0.7	1.0
6.4	1.0	9.6	1.8	9.0	4.9	2.4	5.6	0.6	0.3	0.5
Contribution	4 5	20.0	0.0	1 5	4.7	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.4	2.0
to PC1 (%)	4.5	28.9	0.0	1.5	4.7	0.4	1.1	1.3	1.4	3.0
Correlation	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
to PC1	0.9	0.9	-0.2	0.3	-0.7	-0.7	-0.4	0.8	0.8	0.8
Mean	Fatty acid ((% polaı	fatty acids)							
Mean pHT	Fatty acid (20:1DMA	(% polaı 20:0	fatty acids) 20:1n-11	20:1n-7	20:4n-6	20:5n-3	22:2 _{i,j} NMI	22:5n-6	22:6n-3	
Mean pHT 7.7	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3	(% polar 20:0 1.3	fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4	20:1n-7 4.0	20:4n-6 3.9	20:5n-3 11.8	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1	22:5n-6 3.0	22:6n-3 17.1	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2	r fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8	20:1n-7 4.0 4.0	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3	r fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9	20:1n-7 4.0 4.0 4.2	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3	r fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5	20:1n-7 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.3 1.1	fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6	20:1n-7 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1	fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6	20:1n-7 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1	r fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.6	20:1n-7 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0	22:2 _{1,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.2 5.3	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1	fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.3 5.5	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2	r fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.2 4.5	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.9 17.7	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0 2.0 2.1	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.5	fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9 1.9 1.6	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.5 4.3	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2 11.8	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0 5.4	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0 2.9	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.7 17.4	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.8	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.5 1.1	fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9 1.6 1.7	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.5 4.3 4.6	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.2	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2 11.8 12.3	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0 2.9 2.4	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.9 17.7 17.4 15.5	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.8 2.0	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.5 1.1 1.2	 fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9 1.6 1.7 1.6 	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.5 4.3 4.6 4.5	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2 11.8 12.3 12.3	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5 5.9	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0 2.9 2.4 2.5	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.9 17.7 17.4 15.5 16.2	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7 6.6	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.8 2.0 2.1 1.8 2.0 2.7	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.5 1.1 1.2 1.5 1.1 1.2 1.1	fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9 1.6 1.7 1.6 2.1	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.5 4.3 4.6 4.5 5.2	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.2	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2 11.8 12.3 12.3 12.4	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5 5.9 7.3	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0 2.9 2.4 2.5 2.2	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.7 17.4 15.5 16.2 16.0	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7 6.6 6.5	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.8 2.0 2.7 2.7	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.5 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1	 fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9 1.6 1.7 1.6 2.1 1.7 	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.5 4.3 4.6 4.5 5.2 5.2 5.3	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.9 4.9	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2 11.8 12.3 12.3 12.4 12.7	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5 5.9 7.3 7.0	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0 2.9 2.4 2.5 2.2 2.2 2.1	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.9 17.7 17.4 15.5 16.2 16.0 16.1	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7 6.6 6.5 6.4	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.8 2.0 2.1 1.8 2.0 2.7 2.7 3.3	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.5 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1	 fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9 1.6 1.7 1.6 2.1 1.7 1.6 	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.5 4.3 4.6 4.5 5.2 5.3 5.3	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.9 3.9	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2 11.8 12.3 12.3 12.3 12.4 12.7 12.8	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5 5.9 7.3 7.0 6.5	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0 2.9 2.4 2.5 2.2 2.1 2.1	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.9 17.7 17.4 15.5 16.2 16.0 16.1 15.7	
Mean pHT 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7 6.6 6.5 6.4 Contribution to PC1 (%)	Fatty acid 20:1DMA 2.3 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.6 1.9 1.9 2.0 2.1 1.8 2.0 2.7 2.7 3.3 3.9	(% polar 20:0 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.3 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.5 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0	 fatty acids) 20:1n-11 1.4 1.8 1.9 1.5 1.6 1.6 1.6 1.8 1.9 1.6 1.7 1.6 2.1 1.7 1.6 2.1 1.7 1.6 0.1 	20:1n-7 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.3 4.1 4.2 4.5 4.3 4.6 4.5 5.2 5.3 5.3 5.3 6.7	20:4n-6 3.9 4.0 3.8 3.9 3.8 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.2 4.0 4.9 3.9 2.0	20:5n-3 11.8 10.6 10.7 12.2 12.2 12.8 12.0 11.3 11.2 11.8 12.3 12.3 12.4 12.7 12.8 5.7	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 5.1 5.2 5.5 4.9 5.1 5.2 5.3 5.5 6.0 5.4 5.5 5.9 7.3 7.0 6.5 13.3	22:5n-6 3.0 3.3 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.1 3.2 3.0 2.9 2.4 2.5 2.2 2.1 2.1 2.1 5.0	22:6n-3 17.1 17.8 17.7 17.6 17.0 17.6 17.9 17.9 17.9 17.7 17.4 15.5 16.2 16.0 16.1 15.7 16.5	

Table S1. Relative contribution of membrane fatty acids in *Crassostrea gigas*.

The relative contribution (%) of each fatty acid is indicated for the 16 pH_T conditions. Only fatty acid contributing to >1% were considered. Their contribution and correlation to the first principal component (PC1) of the PCA (Fig. 5A) are indicated at the bottom of the table.

Mean	Fatty acid (% polar	fatty actus							
рНТ	14:0	16:0	16:1n-7	18:0DMA	18:0	18:1n-9	18:1n-7	18:2n-6	18:3n-3	18:4n-3
7.7	1.8	9.1	2.1	11.3	4.1	1.9	2.9	1.5	1.2	1.0
7.7	2.0	9.3	2.1	11.4	4.6	2.0	3.0	1.6	1.4	1.2
7.7	2.1	9.9	2.2	10.8	4.0	2.1	3.0	1.6	1.5	1.1
7.6	1.9	9.4	2.2	10.5	4.1	2.0	3.1	1.5	1.1	1.1
7.5	2.0	9.7	2.3	10.3	4.2	2.1	3.3	1.7	1.3	1.2
7.4	1.7	8.6	2.1	10.3	4.0	1.9	3.9	1.5	1.2	1.3
7.3	1.9	9.6	2.2	11.5	4.3	2.0	3.1	1.5	1.1	1.1
7.2	1.7	9.5	2.1	11.8	4.3	1.7	2.9	1.4	1.0	1.0
7.1	1.6	9.1	2.0	11.2	4.6	1.8	3.0	1.4	1.3	1.0
7.0	1.6	9.5	2.1	12.0	4.7	1.8	2.9	1.3	1.2	1.0
6.9	1.5	9.2	2.0	11.6	4.3	1.7	2.9	1.3	1.1	1.0
6.8	1.4	9.4	1.8	11.3	5.1	1.9	2.7	1.4	1.1	1.1
Contribution	3.7	0.0	0.9	29.7	6.8	1.3	6.6	1.3	0.8	1.4
to PC1 (%)										
Correlation	0.7	-0.0	0.7	-0.8	-0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.8
to PC1										
Moon	Fatty agid (04 nolar	fatty agida)							
Mean	rally actu (70 polai	fatty actus							
pHT	20:1DMA	20:0	20:1n-11	20:1n-7	20:4n-6	20:5n-3	22:2 _{i,j} NMI	22:5n-6	22:6n-3	
рНТ 7.7	20:1DMA	20:0 0.7	20:1n-11 1.5	20:1n-7 5.1	20:4n-6 5.1	20:5n-3 13.9	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 7.2	22:5n-6 3.2	22:6n-3 15.2	
рНТ 7.7 7.7	20:1DMA 1.2 1.1	20:0 0.7 0.6	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 7.2 6.8	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0	
рНТ 7.7 7.7 7.7	20:1DMA 1.2 1.1 1.1	20:0 0.7 0.6 0.8	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4 1.3	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8 4.8	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6 4.8	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1 13.2	22:2 _{i,j} NMI 7.2 6.8 6.8	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4 3.3	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0 15.2	
рНТ 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6	20:1DMA 1.2 1.1 1.1 1.2	20:0 0.7 0.6 0.8 0.8	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4 1.3 1.4	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8 4.8 5.0	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6 4.8 5.0	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1 13.2 14.2	22:2 _i ,NMI 7.2 6.8 6.8 7.1	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4 3.3 3.1	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0 15.2 14.9	
рНТ 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.5	20:1DMA 1.2 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.0	20:0 0.7 0.6 0.8 0.8 0.7	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4 1.3 1.4 1.3	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8 4.8 5.0 4.7	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6 4.8 5.0 4.9	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1 13.2 14.2 13.3	22:2 _i ,NMI 7.2 6.8 6.8 7.1 6.5	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4 3.3 3.1 3.2	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0 15.2 14.9 16.1	
pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.5 7.4	20:1DMA 1.2 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.0 1.4	20:0 0.7 0.6 0.8 0.8 0.7 0.6	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4 1.3 1.4 1.3 1.3	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8 4.8 5.0 4.7 5.0	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6 4.8 5.0 4.9 5.0	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1 13.2 14.2 13.3 14.4	22:2 _i ,NMI 7.2 6.8 6.8 7.1 6.5 6.6	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4 3.3 3.1 3.2 2.9	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0 15.2 14.9 16.1 16.1	
pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.5 7.4 7.3	20:1DMA 1.2 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.0 1.4 1.2	20:0 0.7 0.6 0.8 0.8 0.7 0.6 0.7 0.6 0.7	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4 1.3 1.4 1.3 1.3 1.3 1.2	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8 4.8 5.0 4.7 5.0 5.0	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6 4.8 5.0 4.9 5.0 4.8	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1 13.2 14.2 13.3 14.4 13.3	22:2 _i ,NMI 7.2 6.8 6.8 7.1 6.5 6.6 6.9	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4 3.3 3.1 3.2 2.9 3.1	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0 15.2 14.9 16.1 16.1 15.5	
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pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.5 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1	20:1DMA 1.2 1.1 1.1 1.2 1.0 1.4 1.2 1.2 1.0 1.4 1.2 1.2 1.1	20:0 0.7 0.6 0.8 0.8 0.7 0.6 0.7 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.7 0.8 0.7	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4 1.3 1.4 1.3 1.4 1.3 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.4	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8 4.8 5.0 4.7 5.0 5.0 5.2 5.1	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6 4.8 5.0 4.9 5.0 4.8 4.9 5.0	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1 13.2 14.2 13.3 14.4 13.3 14.2 14.0	22:2 _i ,NMI 7.2 6.8 6.8 7.1 6.5 6.6 6.9 6.8 7.1	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4 3.3 3.1 3.2 2.9 3.1 2.9 2.8	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0 15.2 14.9 16.1 16.1 15.5 15.3 15.3	
pHT 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.6 7.5 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0	Patty actu (20:1DMA 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.1 1.2 1.0 1.4 1.2 1.1 1.1	20:0 0.7 0.6 0.8 0.8 0.7 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.7 0.8 0.7 0.8	20:1n-11 1.5 1.4 1.3 1.4 1.3 1.4 1.3 1.2 1.3 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4	20:1n-7 5.1 4.8 4.8 5.0 4.7 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.2 5.1 4.8	20:4n-6 5.1 4.6 4.8 5.0 4.9 5.0 4.8 4.9 5.0 4.8	20:5n-3 13.9 13.1 13.2 14.2 13.3 14.4 13.3 14.4 13.3 14.2 14.0 14.1	22:2 _i ,NMI 7.2 6.8 6.8 7.1 6.5 6.6 6.9 6.8 7.1 6.7	22:5n-6 3.2 3.4 3.3 3.1 3.2 2.9 3.1 2.9 2.8 2.6	22:6n-3 15.2 16.0 15.2 14.9 16.1 16.1 15.5 15.3 15.2 14.8	
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Table S2. Relative contribution of membrane fatty acids in Ostrea edulis.

The relative contribution (%) of each fatty acid is indicated for the 16 pH_T conditions. Only fatty acid contributing to >1% were considered (then not 20:0). Their contribution and correlation to the first principal component (PC1) of the PCA (Fig. 5B) are indicated at the bottom of the table.

CHAPITRE 2

Réponse de l'huître creuse *Crassostrea gigas* au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans, en fonction du régime tidal et de la disponibilité en nourriture

Préambule

Le travail présenté dans ce deuxième article vise à évaluer les réponses physiologiques de l'huître creuse du Pacifique *Crassostrea gigas* au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans, sous différentes contraintes environnementales en termes de régime tidal et de disponibilité en nourriture (phytoplancton). L'émersion périodique et la limitation en phytoplancton pourraient en effet influencer les réponses biologiques de l'huître. Le but étant de réaliser des expériences sur le changement global qui soient plus conformes à la réalité environnementale et qui puissent être extrapolées aux systèmes naturels. Les huîtres ont été exposées pendant 81 jours à un scénario de réchauffement et d'acidification actuel et futur (+3°C et -0.3 unité de pH), sous deux régimes de marée (0% vs 30% d'émersion /jour) et deux niveaux de nourriture (*ad libitum* vs limité). À la fin de l'acclimatation, les huîtres ont été soumises à un challenge pathogène afin d'étudier le coût physiologique de l'acclimatation. Les réponses biologiques ont été étudiées de l'échelle macro-physiologique (croissance, reproduction, ingestion, survie aux pathogènes) à l'échelle biochimique (réserves énergétiques, lipidomique).

Dans le Chapitre 1, les normes de réaction ont été établies dans des conditions de température et nourritures optimales. Nous avons alors décidé d'entreprendre des expériences impliquant plusieurs facteurs environnementaux, afin d'obtenir des résultats plus représentatifs des systèmes naturels. Pour cela nous nous sommes concentrés exclusivement sur l'huître creuse qui s'est révélée globalement plus robuste à l'AO avec une grande plasticité, afin de tester comment évolue cette plasticité en ajoutant des contraintes environnementales.

L'article de ce Chapitre 2 s'intitulant « Food availability, but not emersion, influences the combined effects of ocean acidification and warming on oyster physiological performance » est en préparation et sera soumis dans *Science of the Total Environment*.

Food availability, but not emersion, influences the combined effects of ocean acidification and warming on oyster physiological performance

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Abstract

Ocean acidification and warming caused by increased anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions poses a tremendous challenge to marine calcifiers such as intertidal bivalves. The study of the acclimation potential of intertidal organisms to global climate change is often conducted under artificial conditions where food is provided *ad libitum* and tidal emersion is not considered. These experimental limitations pose problems for extrapolating results to natural systems. For instance, food availability and regular air exposure can change the acclimation capacities of marine organisms. Here we investigated the physiological responses of juvenile Pacific oyster Crassostrea gigas exposed for 81 days to current and future acidification and warming scenario (+3°C and -0.3 pH unit) under two tidal regimes (0% vs 30% emersion over a day) and two food levels (ad libitum vs limited) under laboratory conditions. We measured growth, reproduction and food ingestion alongside with biochemical traits like energy reserves and membrane fatty acids. At the end of the experiment, oysters were further challenged with a viral disease to investigate the physiological cost of acclimation and trade-offs. We found that oyster performance was improved under future conditions and high food level. Nevertheless, it is important to note that food availability emerged as the predominant factor significantly impacting oyster performance, causing limitations in growth, reproduction, energy reserves, and susceptibility to pathogens. Interestingly, future acidification and warming scenario and low food level had the greatest effects, with food acting as a limiting factor in the response of organisms to climate-related drivers. Finally, tidal level had no major effect on these variables, suggesting physiological compensatory mechanisms in oysters, particularly in food acquisition. Our study offers valuable insights for designing global change experiments that align with ecological realism and can be extrapolated to natural systems.

Keywords: Aquaculture, Global change, Mollusk, Multi stress, Nutrition, Pathogen

I. Introduction

Increasing anthropogenic emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in the atmosphere is causing ocean acidification and warming (OAW), thus putting marine organisms at risk

(Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; IPCC, 2022). Mollusks are particularly susceptible to OAW as several species are sessile for most of their life cycle and therefore cannot escape adverse conditions. As with any ectothermic organism, warming increases the metabolic rates of mollusks until they reach a critical temperature beyond which they can no longer cope (Hochachka and Somero, 2002; Pörtner, 2008). Besides, mollusks use carbonate minerals to build their shells, whose availability decreases with ocean acidification (Gazeau et al., 2013; Orr et al., 2005). Therefore, the combined effects of acidification and warming on mollusks can be additive, synergistic or even antagonistic depending on the species, the life-history stages, and the levels of each factor (Byrne and Przeslawski, 2013; Côté et al., 2016; Kroeker et al., 2013).

Simultaneously, marine mollusks may continue to face other abiotic factors, such as nutrient availability, salinity, hypoxia, pollution, as well as biotic factors, including marine disease outbreaks, invasive species, and harmful algal blooms, irrespective of their connection to global change (Burge et al., 2014; Gunderson et al., 2016; IPCC, 2022; Rahel and Olden, 2008). These environmental factors can interact with acidification and warming, thus highlighting the need for multiple driver experiments to better predict the effects of global change on marine organisms, and to contribute to the development of mitigation and adaptation strategies (Boyd et al., 2018; Côté et al., 2016; Riebesell and Gattuso, 2015).

The availability of food, directly influencing the energetic status of organisms, is probably one of the most important factors in the biological responses of organisms to global climate change (Hettinger et al., 2013; Melzner et al., 2011; Thomsen et al., 2013). For example, mussels reared in acidified and food-limited conditions have reduced growth and more corroded shells than their highly-fed counterparts (Melzner et al., 2011). However, the vast majority of studies related to OAW are conducted under nonlimiting food conditions, likely leading to underestimate the effects (Brown et al., 2018;

Ramajo et al., 2016). Unrestricted feeding does not accurately reflect natural systems, particularly given the potential decrease in primary productivity caused by intensified ocean stratification due to warming (IPCC, 2022).

Several mollusk species live in the intertidal zone where they are periodically exposed to air during low tide. During this time, intertidal mollusks stop feeding and their internal pH decreases (Burnett, 1988). While these species typically exhibit substantial phenotypic plasticity (Melzner et al., 2009; Vargas et al., 2022), it remains conceivable that natural tidal variations, combined with the effects of global change, may force them beyond their tolerance thresholds (Helmuth et al., 2006; Scanes et al., 2017). However, most studies on the effects of OAW on intertidal species are conducted under conditions of constant immersion, which is not representative of the real world and may again lead to an underestimation of these effects. To the best of our knowledge, only two studies have investigated the biological responses of mollusks to acidification under different tidal treatments (Parker et al., 2021; Scanes et al., 2017). Neglecting to account for the native habitats of intertidal organisms represents a significant oversight when interpreting the impacts of global change on natural coastal ecosystems.

It also appears that in the natural environment, organisms can be exposed to various pathogens, which can become opportunistic when individuals are faced with environmental conditions induced by global change. Few studies conducted on bivalves have reported a reduction in host immune defenses and an increase in pathogen susceptibility under acidification and/or warming (Bibby et al., 2008; Ellis et al., 2015; Matozzo et al., 2012). For instance, the increased energy demands to cope with increased temperature and reduced pH can increase susceptibility to infectious disease, reflecting an allocation trade-off between energy available to mount immune response and energy for other fitness-related functions (Lochmiller and Deerenberg, 2000; Sokolova, 2013). It

is therefore necessary to have the most realistic experimental approach possible when attempting to study the effects of global change on marine organisms.

Here, we investigated the effects of acidification and warming (current vs +3°C and -0.3 pH unit), food availability (high vs low food), and tidal regime (subtidal vs intertidal) on the performance of the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas* (Thunberg, 1793). *C. gigas* is a world-wide distributed marine calcifier that preferentially inhabits the upper intertidal zone (Bayne, 2017). After three months of acclimation to the different experimental conditions, oysters were further challenged with a well-known viral disease that severely hit juveniles every year (Barbosa Solomieu et al., 2015; EFSA, 2015; Pernet et al., 2016), in order to investigate the physiological cost of acclimation. We hypothesized here that these physiological trade-offs are exacerbated when food availability is limited or when animals are regularly exposed to air.

We examined the biological responses in macro-physiological traits such as growth, reproduction, ingestion and survival to pathogens. We also measured the energy reserves of oysters which can be involved in energy reallocation due to environmental stress (Sokolova, 2013, 2021). Finally, we analysed the composition of membrane fatty acids, a key parameter governing membrane fluidity and exchanges through cellular compartments, and overall metabolic rates (Hulbert et al., 2007). In summary, our study offers valuable insights for designing global change experiments that align with ecological realism and can be extrapolated to natural systems. Additionally, it enhances our understanding of the acclimation potential of bivalve populations in a rapidly changing ocean.

II. Material and methods

a) Animals and maintenance

Pacific oysters Crassostrea gigas were spawned on 8 March 2021 and grown at the Ifremer facilities in Argenton and Bouin (France) as previously described in Petton et al. (2015). The broodstock consisted of 74 females and 9 males collected in the wild between 2011 and 2018 in Île d'Aix (France). On 17 May 2021, young oysters were held in a 500-l flow-through tank for 4 days before the experiment, during which the seawater temperature was gradually increased from 15°C to 19°C. The seawater came from an outdoor pool, which was renewed at each spring tide, filtered at 1 µm and UV-treated (Di Poi et al., 2022). Oysters were fed continuously with the diatom Skeletonema costatum (strain CCAP 1077/3), a microalgae common to the North Atlantic coast which promotes oyster growth (O'Connor et al., 1992). Food concentration was controlled daily using an electronic particle counter (100-µm aperture tube; Multisizer 3, Beckman Coulter, USA) and maintained at 1500-2000 μ m³ μ l⁻¹ at the tank outlet, corresponding to *ad libitum* feeding (Petton et al., 2015). At the onset of the experiment on 21 May 2021, the oysters were 2.5-month-old and their average shell length and total weight were 8.4 ± 2.3 mm and 0.11 ± 0.07 g respectively. The oysters were screened using an OsHV-1-specific quantitative PCR assay at the different stages of production and no OsHV-1 DNA was detected.

b) Experimental set-up

Natural seawater was distributed to 18 independent experimental units consisting of a header tank (45 l), in which seawater was acidified and warmed, connected to a holding tank (45 l) containing the oysters (Fig. 1). The seawater was transferred from the header tank to the holding tank using a water pump (ProFlow t500, JBL, Germany). Flow rate was adjusted to 500 ml min⁻¹ ensuring a complete renewal of the seawater in the holding tank every 90 min. Seawater in oyster tanks was continuously aerated and mixed through air bubbling. Each tank was illuminated by LED (powerLED+, EHEIM, Germany) covering the full spectrum of sunlight, and the photoperiod was fixed at 14L:10D.

The acidified conditions were obtained by pure CO₂ bubbling into the seawater of the header tank and the pH level was controlled using a pH-controller connected to a pH electrode (ProFlora, JBL, Germany). The pH electrode was calibrated on a monthly basis throughout the experiment using NBS (National Bureau of Standards) buffer solutions (pH 4.00 and 7.00) provided in ProFlora equipment. Each header tank was also equipped with a thermostat and heating resistor (Biotherm Eco, Hobby, Germany; and Schego Titane 300W, Europrix, France) to maintain the seawater in the holding tanks at the targeted temperature.

The phytoplankton food was delivered directly into the holding tank containing the oysters by means of flexible tubes and a peristaltic pump (REGLO Analog ISM 827, Ismatec, Switzerland). The phytoplankton concentration at the inlet of the holding tank was adjusted by pump speed. There was one pump per condition combination, for all three replicate tanks. Seawater was sampled daily at the inlet and outlet of each holding tank to determine phytoplankton consumption using the electronic particle counter.

To stimulate tidal emersion, a submersible pump (ProFlow t300, JBL, Germany) was connected to an automatic timer (daily programmer TF-6A, Tibelec, France) to drain the water from the oyster tank twice daily. Following the emersion period, the drain pump was automatically turned off and the pump from the header tank slowly refilled the oyster tank.

c) Experimental design

Oysters were acclimated to six conditions for 81 days, then sampled for growth, reproduction, energetics and fatty acid analyses, and further exposed to a pathogenic challenge to assess the physiological cost of acclimation.

Acclimation phase

The oysters were divided into 18 equivalent batches ($n = 342 \pm 9$; 37.6 ± 0.8 g) and distributed in the holding tanks. Each experimental unit was randomly assigned to one of six conditions: (1) current OAW scenario, subtidal, high food (reference condition); (2) future OAW scenario, subtidal, high food; (3) current OAW scenario, intertidal, high food; (4) future OAW scenario, intertidal, high food; (5) current OAW scenario, intertidal, low food; (6) future OAW scenario, intertidal, low food (Fig. 1). Each condition included three replicate tanks (n = 3).

The current OAW scenario was 20°C and pH 7.9, corresponding to the average seawater temperature and pH encountered on the French Atlantic coast in summer months (https://cocorico2.ifremer.fr/en/Donnees). The future OAW conditions represented a scenario of +3°C and -0.3 pH unit predicted to occur by the end of the century (SSP3-7.0; IPCC, 2022). The intertidal condition consisted of 3.5 h emersion starting at noon and midnight followed by 8.5 h immersion (i.e. ~30 % emersion time per day), and the subtidal condition consisted of constant immersion. This emersion time corresponds to the tidal height at which wild and farmed oysters live (Pernet et al., 2019b; Walles et al., 2016). During low tide, atmospheric temperature around oysters was 20.0 \pm 0.2°C and 22.8 \pm 0.3°C (mean \pm s.d.) in current and future conditions respectively (unpublished results). The average phytoplankton concentration at the tank outlet was

1451 ± 538 μ m³ μ l⁻¹ for the high food conditions and 492 ± 153 μ m³ μ l⁻¹ for the low food conditions. The inlet phytoplankton concentration was gradually increased over time to compensate for the increasing grazing rate of the growing oysters. The oysters exposed to the high food condition were fed *ad libitum*, whereas the low food condition covered the maintenance costs of the oysters (Pernet et al., 2019a).



x 3 replicates

Fig. 1. Experimental design during acclimation of oysters and pathogenic challenge. Only one replicate out of three is represented for the six conditions. Arrows indicate the direction of seawater flow. Each experimental unit consists of a header tank, in which seawater is warmed and acidified, flowing to a holding tank containing the oysters. Food supply and infection flow are controlled upstream of the holding tank, while tidal regime is controlled within the holding tank. Subtidal treatments correspond to constant immersion (0% emersion), while intertidal treatments correspond to 8.5 h of immersion followed by 3.5 h of emersion (~30% emersion).
Viral exposure

On 10 August 2021, 1250 oysters (3 kg) from the same initial cohort were myorelaxed in MgCl₂ at 21°C (Suquet et al., 2009) and injected into the adductor muscle with 100 μ l of viral suspension of Ostreid Herpesvirus (OsHV-1 μ Var; 9.3 x 10⁵ copies. μ l⁻¹ diluted by 10x). They were held in a 100-l tank in static oxygenized seawater for 24 h in which they shed viral particles. The seawater surrounding the donors became contaminated with the virus and used as the source of infection (Dugeny et al., 2022). The water flow from the source of infection was ~3% of the total water flow and delivered directly into the oyster tanks by means of flexible tubes and a peristaltic pump (Fig. 1). The water input from the source of infection was arrested after 7 days of viral exposure. Survival of oysters was monitored daily for 19 days, and dead animals were removed from the tanks upon discovery. After 5 days post-infection (5 dpi), when recipient oysters began to die, 10 live oysters were sampled in each tank for OsHV-1 DNA detection and quantification.

d) Monitoring of seawater physicochemical parameters

Seawater pH on the total scale (pH_T), temperature, dissolved oxygen saturation and salinity were measured daily in holding tanks using a multi-parameter portable meter (MultiLine Multi 3630 IDS, WTW: pH electrode SenTix 940, oxygen sensor FDO 925, conductivity electrode TetraCon 925; Xylem Analytics, Germany). The accuracy of the pH electrode was calibrated weekly using NBS buffers (Certipur pH 4.00, 7.00 and 9.00; Merck, Germany), and then a certified Tris/HCl buffer (provided by A. G. Dickson, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, San Diego, USA) to convert pH values on the total scale (Dickson et al., 2007). All measurements were performed between 8 and 9 am throughout the experiment. Seawater samples (150 ml) were collected weekly in the holding tanks, filtered (Whatman GF/F glass microfiber filter 0.7 μ m) and poisoned with 0.05% saturated HgCl₂ for total alkalinity (A_T) determination. A_T was measured by potentiometric titration according to Dickson et al. (2007), using an automatic titrator (TitroLine 7000, SI Analytics, Mainz, Germany). Other carbonate system parameters, including partial pressure of CO₂, dissolved inorganic carbon concentration, saturation state of aragonite and calcite, were then calculated from pH_T, A_T, temperature and salinity using the R package *seacarb* (v3.3.1; Gattuso et al., 2022). The physicochemical parameters are summarised in Table S1.

e) Growth and ingestion

The total weight of each batch of oysters was measured twice weekly. In addition, the shell length and total body weight (shell + tissue) were measured individually on 50 oysters at the start of the experiment (day 0), and on 20 oysters from each tank at the end of the acclimation period (81 days). These oysters were dissected and pooled to determine separately the weight of shell and tissue. The tissues were then lyophilized to obtain the dry flesh weight. Growth rate was calculated as:

$$G = \frac{\overline{X_{81}} - \overline{X_0}}{81}$$
(1)

where G is the growth rate expressed as increase in shell length or total body weight per day (mm d⁻¹ and mg d⁻¹ respectively), $\overline{X_0}$ and $\overline{X_{81}}$ are the average of biometric values measured at the onset (day 0) and at the end of the acclimation period (day 81). The measurements related to different individuals between day 0 and day 81.

Seawater was sampled daily at the inlet and outlet of each oyster tank to determine phytoplankton concentrations (see the previous section). Ingestion rate was determined as:

$$I = \frac{(Cell_{inlet} - Cell_{outlet}) \times flow \, rate}{W} \, (2)$$

where I is the ingestion rate expressed as $mm^3 g^{-1} h^{-1}$, Cell_{inlet} and Cell_{outlet} are the phytoplankton cell volumes at the inlet and outlet of the tank ($\mu m^3 \mu l^{-1}$), flow rate is the water flow at the inlet of oyster tanks (ml h⁻¹), and W is the batch total weight (g). The cell volume of phytoplankton ingested per day was also reported to account for differences in immersion time between tidal conditions (24 vs 17 h immersion for subtidal and intertidal conditions respectively). Ingestion rates were averaged over the acclimation period for each tank.

f) Reproduction

At the end of the acclimation phase, 10 oysters per tank (n = 30 individuals per condition) were sampled for histological determination of reproductive development. A 2-3 mm cross-section of the visceral mass was excised and immediately fixed in modified Davidson's solution at 4°C for 48h, then kept in alcohol 70% at 4°C. Thereafter, sections were dehydrated in ascending ethanol solutions, cleared with xylene, embedded in paraffin wax and stained with Harry's hematoxylin - eosin as previously described in Fabioux et al. (2005). The sex and gametogenic stage of each oyster were determined under a light microscope according to a modified scale from Steele and Mulcahy (1999). Stage 0 was undifferentiated or resting phase, with no evidence of gonadal development. Stage I corresponded to the early gonadal development, with follicles filled with oogonia in females, or spermatogonia and spermatocytes in males, but the connective tissue was

still very abundant. Stage II defined the advanced gonadal development, with vitellogenic oocytes still attached to the follicle walls in females, or spermatids and spermatozoa with tails oriented toward follicle lumen in males. Finally, stage III characterized oysters that had reached maturity, with ripe gonad ready for spawning (unattached mature oocytes in females, or follicles filled with mature spermatozoa with flagella in males) or postspawning gonad (follicles partially empty and/or presence of phagocytes).

g) Biochemistry

Soft tissues of 10 oysters from each tank were collected at 81 days, pooled, flashfrozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. Then oysters were ground into powder with a ball mill under liquid nitrogen and subsampled for carbohydrate, lipid and protein analyses.

Neutral lipids, carbohydrates and proteins

For lipids, the resulting powder (300 mg) was diluted in 6 ml chloroform-methanol solution (2:1, v/v; Folch et al., 1957). Neutral lipids (i.e., reserve lipids) classes were analyzed and quantified by high-performance thin-layer chromatography and a scanning densitometer (Automatic TLC Sampler 4 and TLC Scanner 3 respectively, CAMAG, Switzerland) as previously described in Pernet et al. (2019b). This method allowed the separation of free fatty acids, alcohols, monodiacylglycerols, triacylglycerols (TAG) and sterols (ST). Since TAG are mainly reserve lipids and ST are structural lipids of cell membranes which remain essentially unchanged, the TAG:ST ratio was used as an index of the contribution of reserve to structure.

Carbohydrate content was determined according to the colorimetric method described in Dubois et al. (1956). Oyster powder (ca. 50 mg) was homogenized in 2 ml of Milli-Q water using a Polytron PT 2500 E (Kinematica, Switzerland). Samples (250 μ l) were mixed with phenol (500 μ l, 5% m/v) and sulfuric acid (2.5 ml, 98% v/v), and then incubated for 40 min. Absorbance was measured at 490 nm using a Cary 60 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, USA). Total carbohydrate concentration was calculated using a standard calibration curve with pure glucose, and expressed as mg g⁻¹ fresh weight.

Proteins were extracted from 450 mg of oyster powder using 3 ml of a lysis buffer [150 mM NaCl (Merck), 10 mM Tris/HCl (Sigma-Aldrich), 1 mM EDTA (Quantum), 1 mM EGTA (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% Triton X-100 (Bio-Rad), and 0.5% Igepal (Sigma-Aldrich); pH 7.4 at 4°C] with phosphatase and protease inhibitors [1% of phosphatase inhibitor cocktail II (Sigma-Aldrich), 2% NaPPi 250 mM (Sigma-Aldrich), and a tablet of complete EDTA free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) in 25 ml of lysis buffer]. The lysates were used for quantification of the total protein content with the DC protein assay (Bio-Rad, USA) according to Lowry et al. (1951). Absorbance was read at 750 nm. Protein concentration was determined by comparison with a standard calibration curve supplied with the kit and expressed as mg g⁻¹ fresh weight.

Membrane fatty acids

One mL of the sample stored in the chloroform-methanol solution was dried, recovered in chloroform/methanol (98:2, v/v) and placed at the top of a silica gel microcolumn. Neutral lipids were eluted with 10 mL of chloroform/methanol (98:2, v/v), and polar lipids were eluted with 15 mL of methanol. Tricosanoic acid (2.3 μ g) was added as internal standard. Polar lipids were transesterified with a 3.4% sulfuric acid in methanol solution at 100°C (Couturier et al., 2020). The resulting fatty acid methyl esters

(FAME) and dimethyl acetals (DMA) were analyzed by flame ionization detector gas chromatograph system (HP - Agilent 6890, Agilent Technologies, USA). Fatty acids (FA) were then identified by comparing their retention times with those of standard mixtures. Each FA was expressed as the relative percentage of peak area by the sum of all polar or neutral FA peaks. The unsaturation index was calculated as the number of double bonds per 100 molecules of fatty acids.

h) Detection and quantification of OsHV-1

Total DNA was extracted from 30 mg of live oysters collected at 87 days (5 dpi) using a Macherey-Nagel's tissue kit (NucleoSpin ref 740952.250). DNA concentration and purity were checked with a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (ND-1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA).

The detection and quantification of OsHV-1 DNA within each oyster were performed by droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) method using automated droplet generator and reader (QX200 Droplet Digital PCR System, Bio-Rad, USA). Each ddPCR reaction mixture included 11 µl Bio-Rad ddPCR Supermix for Probes (No dUTP), 2.97 µl sterile Millipore water, 0.99 µl of each 20 µM OsHV1BF and B4 primers, 0.55 µl of 10 µM B probe (Martenot et al., 2010), and then 5.5 µl of DNA sample, for a total reaction volume of 22 µl (assuming a 10% loss). The QX200 Droplet Generator partitioned each reaction mixture into thousands of nanodroplets by combining 20 µl of the reaction mixture with 70 µl of Bio-Rad oil for probes. The resulting droplet volumes of 40 µl were totally transferred into a ddPCR plate for PCR amplification (C1000 Touch Thermal Cycler, Bio-Rad, USA), using the following cycling protocol: hold at 95°C for 10 min, 40 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 59°C for 1 min, and a final enzyme deactivation step at 98°C for 10 min, then the plate was kept at 12°C. After processing, droplets from each sample were analyzed individually on the QX200 Droplet Reader. Samples were analyzed without replication, and for each ddPCR plate run, a negative control (nuclease-free water, Millipore) and a positive control containing OsHV-1 DNA (from a dead oyster during viral exposure, diluted 1/1000) were included. The reading of droplets was performed with a threshold fixed at 4000 on the software amplitude scale. Results were expressed as OsHV-1 DNA copy number per mg of fresh tissue.

i) Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were performed using RStudio software (v4.2.2) with alpha set at 0.05 for statistical significance. Mixed-effects models were used to assess differences in physiological traits (growth, ingestion, energy reserves, and membrane fatty acids), viral load and prevalence as a function of condition (fixed factor, 6 levels) with tank as a random factor. We used the 'lme' function with a Gaussian distribution (nlme package, v3.1-162) except for virus prevalence where we used 'glmer' function with a binomial distribution (Ime4 package, v1.1-32). The normality of residuals and homogeneity of variances were graphically checked, and the data were log-transformed when necessary. Subsequent Tukey post-hoc test was used to investigate the pairwise differences between conditions using 'glht' function (*multcomp* package, v1.4-23). Where necessary, planned contrasts were used to investigate main effects of scenario, food availability or tidal emersion. In addition, principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the composition of membrane fatty acids to visualize the effects of condition (FactoMineR package, v2.7). To investigate the effect of conditions on the reproductive development, we conducted multinomial logistic regression using the 'multinom' function (*nnet* package, v7.3-18) followed by likelihood ratio test using the Kaplan-Meier survival curves of oysters following 'Anova' function (*car* package).

virus exposure were plotted for each condition using the 'ggsurvplot' function and compared using the Log-Rank test (*survminer* package, v0.4.9). Odds of mortality was analyzed using a Cox mixed-effects model (*coxme* package, v2.2-18.1), considering condition as fixed factor and tank as random factor. The proportionality of hazards was checked and validated with Schoenfeld residuals.

III. Results

We successfully acclimated oysters for 81 days to current and future ocean acidification and warming (OAW) scenarios, with differing tidal regimes and food availability. During this period, the oysters suffered no mortality and their size was multiplied by almost 5 in the best conditions. At the end of the acclimation period, we exposed the oysters to a viral pathogen to assess their disease susceptibility in relation to the OAW scenario, tidal regime and food level. This stress-on-stress approach allows assessing the physiological cost of acclimation via a reduction in immune response and survival.

a) Future ocean acidification and warming (OAW) scenario accelerates growth and reproduction regardless of emersion

At the end of the acclimation period, oysters maintained under future OAW (+3°C, -0.3 pH unit) were larger and more sexually mature than their counterparts reared under current scenario regardless of tidal regime (Fig. 2 and 3; Table S2). We found no effect of emersion on reproduction nor growth-related parameters, except for total body weight,

shell weight and flesh weight which were reduced in the future scenario. Mass standardized ingestion rate was higher under future OAW than under current conditions when oysters were permanently submerged (Fig. 4; Table S2). In contrast, when oysters were regularly exposed to air, ingestion rate was not influenced by future OAW. The ingestion rate was higher in intertidal conditions than in subtidal conditions. Nevertheless, the cumulative ingestion over a day, which consider the time during which the oysters were out of the water and did not feed, was not different between the tidal conditions (see inset in Fig. 4). Therefore, oysters fully compensate the effect of tidal emersion on food intake.



Fig. 2. Biometric parameters of *C. gigas* oysters as a function of acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level at the end of 81-day acclimation period, before the viral exposure. Growth rates are measured in shell length (B) and total body weight (E), and total body weight (D) included shell and tissue weights. 'Subtidal' and 'Intertidal' on the x-axis indicate the tidal treatment at which oysters were placed into (subtidal: constant immersion; intertidal:

8.5 h immersion and 3.5 h emersion). Data are means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences between conditions.



Fig. 3. Relative percentage of *C. gigas* **oysters at each gonadal stage as a function of acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level at the end of 81-day acclimation period**. Gonadal development was evaluated over 30 individuals per condition (n = 10 per tank). Stage 0, inactive/resting stage; stage I, early maturation; stage II, advanced maturation; stage III, mature animal with ripe or spawning gonad.

b) Future OAW scenario accelerates growth and reproduction but food availability is a major influential factor

Oysters maintained under future OAW scenario were larger than their counterparts reared under current scenario, but only when food level was high (Fig. 2; Table S2). Under food limitation, all growth-related parameters were similar between future and current scenario. This interactive effect between OAW scenario and food level was clearly reflected in the reproductive development of oysters, which is also accelerated under future OAW scenario and high food level (Fig. 3). We indeed found that ~25% of oysters held in the future scenario with high food level was fully mature (stage 3), compared to only 3% in the current scenario with high food, and 0% under low food conditions regardless of the OAW scenario (Fig. 3). In fact, the majority of oysters maintained under low feeding conditions had inactive gonads (on average 58% were at stage 0) or showed early gonadal development (stage 1, Fig. 3). The mass standardized ingestion rate of oysters under high food conditions was about twice that of oysters under limited food, but it did not change between OAW scenarios (Fig. 4; Table S2). Overall, these results show that food level is a major influential factor in the physiological responses of oysters to OAW scenarios.



Fig. 4. Ingestion rate of *C. gigas* oysters as a function of acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level during the acclimation period (0-81 d). Ingestion rates were averaged over the whole acclimation period. 'Subtidal' and 'Intertidal' on the x-axis indicate the tidal treatment at which oysters were placed into (subtidal: constant immersion; intertidal: 8.5 h immersion and 3.5 h emersion). Inset shows the ingestion reported over a day considering the number of hours of immersion. Data are means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences between conditions.

c) Food is the main driver of the biochemical content of oysters

To provide an in-depth characterization of the whole organism, we analyzed the biochemical content of oysters. We found that the lipid reserves, evaluated using the TAG/ST ratio, and the carbohydrate content of oysters were respectively nearly 2- and 3-fold higher under high food level compared to those under food limitation, regardless of the OAW scenario and tidal regime (Fig. 5; Table S3). Both OAW scenario and tidal regime had no effect on TAG/ST and carbohydrate content of oysters. Protein content was much less variable than TAG/ST and carbohydrates, and the lowest level was recorded in oysters under future OAW, intertidal and low food conditions.



Fig. 5. Energy reserves in *C. gigas* **oysters as a function of acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level at the end of 81-day acclimation period**. The graphs are triacylglycerol:sterol ratio (A), total carbohydrate content (B) and total protein content (C). 'Subtidal' and 'Intertidal' on the x-axis indicate the tidal treatment at which oysters were placed into (subtidal: constant immersion; intertidal: 8.5 h immersion and 3.5 h emersion). Data are means ± s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences between conditions.

d) Ocean acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level modulate membrane fatty acids

We also analyzed the fatty acid composition of membrane lipids that play an important role in exchanges between intracellular and extracellular compartments. The major fatty acids - those that represent more than 5% of the total fatty acids - found in oyster tissues were eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3, 16.8%), palmitic acid (16:0, 16.0%), stearic acid (18:0, 7.2%), docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n-3, 7.1%), vaccenic acid (18:1n-7, 6.8%), and the non-methylene-interrupted fatty acids (22:2NMI, 5.5%). They together accounted for 59% of the polar fatty acids (Table S4). Multivariate analysis showed clear separation of membrane fatty acids dependent on OAW scenario, tidal regime and food level (Fig. 6A; PERMANOVA, Condition, F = 7.26, $R^2 = 0.75$, p < 0.001). The unsaturation index of membrane fatty acids, an indicator of lipid fluidity, decreased under future OAW scenario compared to current condition (planned contrast between group means: future vs. current, estimate = 15.0 ± 3.8 , z = 3.9, p < 0.001; Fig. 6). This change in unsaturation index mainly reflected 20:5n-3 (future vs. current, estimate = 2.6 \pm 0.5, z = 5.1, p < 0.001), 22:2NMI (future vs. current, estimate = 0.6 \pm 0.2, z = 2.5, p = 0.025), but less 22:6n-3 (future vs. current, estimate = 0.5 ± 0.3 , z = 1.6, p = 0.219). Arachidonic acid (20:4n-6), a fatty acid that was previously associated to the stress response in bivalves, was minor, representing on average 0.9% of the total fatty acids, and unaffected by OAW scenario, tidal regime and food availability (Fig. 6).



Fig. 6. Main membrane fatty acids (FA) and unsaturation index in *C. gigas* **oysters at the end of 81-day acclimation period, before the viral exposure**. Arrows on principal component analysis (graph A) represent FA contributing to more than 5% of the first and second principal components (PC1 and PC2), and larger symbols represent the average of the three condition replicates. 'Subtidal' (in blue) and 'Intertidal' (in orange and red) on the x-axis indicate the tidal treatment at which oysters were placed into (subtidal: constant immersion; intertidal: 8.5 h immersion and 3.5 h emersion). Data are means ± s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences between conditions. Abbreviation: NS, non-significant data.

e) Food limitation increases the susceptibility of oysters to disease but not the future OAW scenario nor the tidal regime

Pathogenic challenge induced moderate mortalities as survival were between 83.2 \pm 2.2% for oysters under current conditions, tidal emersion and low food, and 98.5 \pm 0.8% for those under future OAW scenario, no tidal emersion and high food (Fig. 7A). On average, food limitation increased the risk of oyster mortality by 4.8 times compared to that under high food (Table 1). Although the risk of oyster mortality tended to be lower under future OAW scenario regardless of tidal regime and food availability, the differences were not significant (Fig. 7A).



Fig. 7. Survival of *C. gigas* **oysters exposed to OsHV-1 after acclimation to acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level (A), and prevalence of OsHV-1 in oysters (B).** The thick lines in graph A represent average survival per condition, while the vertical line corresponds to the animal sampling at 5 dpi for OsHV-1 prevalence analysis. The y-axis of graph B is the number of OsHV-1-positive oysters out of 10 tested for each tank and condition. There are three bars per condition, each corresponding to one tank (replicate). The bottom darker part of

the bars corresponds to positive individuals, while the lighter part corresponds to virus-negative individuals. Letters indicate significant differences between conditions.

Oyster mortalities were clearly associated with the detection of OsHV-1 DNA. The viral DNA was indeed detected in large quantities in dead oysters (5.3 10⁵ ± 6.9 10⁵ OsHV-1 DNA cp mg⁻¹). Moreover, detection of viral DNA in live oysters sampled at 5 dpi varied among conditions, consistently with mortality risk. Virus prevalence was higher in low-fed oysters which had a higher risk of mortality than in high-fed oysters which had a lower risk of mortality (more than 22 vs. less than 7 positive individuals out of 30 respectively, Fig. 7B). These differences in virus prevalence in oysters among conditions were consistent with DNA quantification (Table S5).

Table 1. Summary of Cox mixed-effects model for survival to OsHV-1 of *C. gigas* oysters previously acclimated to acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.

Condition ^a	Estimate	SE	Z	р	Odds ratio
Future, Subtidal, HF ^b	-0.79	0.60	-1.31	0.19	0.45
Current, Intertidal, HF	0.64	0.41	1.55	0.12	1.89
Future, Intertidal, HF	0.10	0.46	0.21	0.83	1.10
Current, Intertidal, LF ^b	1.69	0.36	4.65	<0.001	5.44
Sur 1 0110, 111001 01001, 21	2107	0.00			0.11
Future Intertidal LF	1 43	0 37	3 82	<0.001	416
i acare, inter tidal, bi	1.15	0.57	5.02	-01001	1.10

^aReference condition was 'current OAW scenario x subtidal treatment x high food level'.

^bAbbreviations: HF, high food; LF, low food.

IV. Discussion

In this study, we found that oysters are tolerant to ocean acidification and warming (OAW; +3°C and -0.3 pH unit) exhibiting strong phenotypic plasticity in physiological and biochemical traits. In fact, when food is non-limiting, oysters under future OAW scenario grow and reproduce faster than those held under current scenario. This probably reflects the fact that oysters in future OAW conditions have remained in their thermal niche, so increasing temperature rises metabolic rates as in any ectothermic organism. Also, when food is non-limiting, oysters under future OAW scenario show the same susceptibility to viral disease as those under current conditions, suggesting that acclimation to OAW does not induce physiological trade-offs between immunity and other fitness-related functions. However, food availability is a major influential factor in the physiological responses of oysters to OAW scenarios and in disease susceptibility. Finally, the tidal regime had no major effect on the performance of the oysters, reflecting the adaptation of this species to the intertidal zone and regular air exposure.

a) Oysters are robust to ocean acidification and warming under high food condition

We found that when food is non-limiting, oysters under future OAW scenario grow and reproduce faster than under current scenario, probably reflecting the dominating effect of warming over acidification. In ectothermic organisms like oysters, warming accelerates the velocity of chemical reactions, metabolic rates and development (Hochachka and Somero, 2002). Although decreasing pH can reduce net calcification and shell growth of oysters (Caillon et al., in review; Parker et al., 2011; Ries et al., 2009), this effect can be compensated by warming which accelerates the metabolism. Studies conducted on Pacific oyster and sea urchin also reported that warming can mitigate the impacts of reduced pH, even resulting in greater growth under OAW than under control conditions (Dworjanyn and Byrne, 2018; Ko et al., 2014). In addition, sexual ripeness of adult Pacific oyster is reached earlier under OAW condition (Di Poi et al., 2022). It is possible that the decrease of 0.3 pH unit applied under future OAW condition was not sufficient to decrease shell growth since the carbonate saturation state remained above 1. Overall, oysters performed better under OAW in our study because they were still within their optimal range of physiological performance.

In contrast to previous studies, climate-related drivers had no effect on disease susceptibility of oysters (Ellis et al., 2015; Fuhrmann et al., 2019; Matozzo et al., 2012). However, the increased growth of oysters at 23°C compared with 20°C could have favored the replication of the virus and the associated mortalities which directly depend on host metabolism (Petton et al., 2023). On the other hand, lower pH has already been identified as a factor aggravating virus-induced oyster mortalities, whereas this is not the case here in the future OAW conditions (Fuhrmann et al., 2019). The difference here with previous studies is probably due to the fact that the mortalities observed following exposure to the virus were rather low, thus limiting the expression of variance. Nevertheless, the fact that oyster susceptibility to disease is not increased under future OAW experimental conditions suggests that there are no additional physiological costs requiring trade-offs between immunity and other functions.

Although our data suggest that the highly-fed oysters under future OAW were maintained in low-stress conditions, they nevertheless showed strong plastic phenotypic responses: acceleration of growth and reproduction supported by increased food intake in the case of oysters in subtidal condition. Another striking evidence of the acclimation response to the future OAW conditions is the major remodeling of membrane lipids. We

125

indeed found that the unsaturation index of fatty acids, an indicator of the membrane fluidity, was lower under future OAW conditions than under current conditions, due to lower levels of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) such as 20:5n-3 and 22:2NMI. These changes are consistent with the homeoviscous adaptation theory (Hazel, 1995). According to this theory, increasing temperature increases the fluidity and disorder of ectotherms' cell membranes, which can lead to major metabolic dysfunctions. Consequently, ectotherms compensate for the effects of temperature on membrane fluidity by changing the unsaturation level of fatty acids, following the principle that the higher the level of unsaturation, the more fluid the membranes. The homeoviscous response based on the unsaturation level of membrane fatty acids via the regulation of PUFAs, including 20:5n-3 and NMI, has already been reported in several bivalve species such as oysters, mussels or clams from different thermal habitats (Le Luyer et al., 2022 and references therein; Pernet et al., 2007). In addition, just like increasing temperature, decreasing pH reduces membrane PUFAs in oysters but the causes remain to be elucidated (Caillon et al., in review; Di Poi et al., 2022; Lutier et al., 2022). Therefore, the membrane plasticity is also a key parameter that may help oysters tolerate acidification and warming.

b) Food availability is the main driver affecting responses of oysters to OAW and disease susceptibility

The increase in food availability accelerated the growth and reproduction of oysters in interaction with the OAW scenario. Under low food conditions, oysters did not express the increase in growth and reproduction observed under future OAW conditions. Therefore, food can act as a limiting factor in the response of organisms to climate-related drivers, meaning that energy intake from a low food supply may not be sufficient to sustain higher metabolic rates under the future OAW scenario. Likewise, the growth of juvenile sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) and cold-water coral (*Lophelia pertusa*) are similar under ambient and future OAW conditions when food is limited (Büscher et al., 2017; Cominassi et al., 2020). We therefore highlight the importance of incorporating realistic food levels (compared to the natural environment) into experimental designs examining OAW and support the idea that *ad libitum* feeding used in the majority of studies to date may have minimized impacts, or conversely overestimated them if animals were not fed (Cominassi et al., 2020; Ramajo et al., 2016).

Low food condition increases mortality and infection in oysters during virus exposure, irrespective of OAW scenario and tidal regime. The relationship between food level and susceptibility to diseases is complex because a low quantity of food can reduce the host's physiological condition, thereby increasing its susceptibility to infectious diseases. However, at the same time, this can slow down the proliferation of the pathogen (Civitello et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2005), reflecting a delicate trade-off between metabolism and immunity (Lochmiller and Deerenberg, 2000). However, short-lasting dietary restrictions generally lead to a reduction in disease susceptibility in oysters exposed to OsHV-1 (Evans et al., 2015; Moreau et al., 2015; Pernet et al., 2019a; Petton et al., 2023). Although this seems contradictory to our results, the effect of food limitation on disease susceptibility may change depending on intensity and duration. Prolonged dietary limitation may result in a reduction in available energy, impair immune response and survival, and mask the positive effect of reduced host metabolism on viral proliferation and mortality. In our study, food limitation lasted three months, compared to less than a month in previous studies, and was accompanied by a marked drop in lipid and carbohydrate reserves, but also in proteins which are generally used as a last resort (Aldridge et al., 1995; Pörtner et al., 1999).

c) Effect of tidal regime does not interact with ocean acidification and warming, reflecting compensatory mechanism

We did not find any major effect of tidal regime on macro-physiological traits such as growth, reproduction, ingestion and survival to pathogens, whereas intertidal oysters have been surrounded by food and pathogens for less time than subtidal oysters. This suggests that there may be physiological compensatory mechanisms during immersion. We indeed observed that intertidal oysters ingest more food per unit of time available for feeding and therefore compensate for the food limitations imposed by air exposure (Gillmor, 1982).

Our results contrast with those of Scanes et al. (2017) on adult *Saccostrea glomerata* who found that tidal emersion and acidification have synergistic and sublethal effects as oysters reach their physiological limit of tolerance to hypercapnia. Beyond possible species-related effects, discrepancies between studies possibly reflect differences in duration of air exposure (emersion time was 75% in Scanes et al. (2017) compared to 30% here). For instance, hypercapnia during emersion caused a drop in extracellular pH of 0.6 pH unit that was not fully compensated by the end of the immersion cycle of *S. glomerata* (Scanes et al., 2017).

Finally, we found that the shell length of intertidal oysters under future OAW scenario is similar to that of their subtidal counterparts, but their shell weight was reduced, suggesting alteration of the shell thickness and/or porosity. This could be explained by a dissolution of the shell during emersion to release bicarbonate ions HCO₃- to compensate internal acidosis and extracellular acid-base disturbances (Michaelidis et al., 2005; Scanes et al., 2017). Overall, further investigation on the structural and mechanical properties of shells are required to fully understand this potential combined effect of emersion and future seawater conditions on calcification.

V. Conclusion

In this study, our aim was to enhance the laboratory environment to better replicate the natural conditions experienced by oysters. This allowed us to more accurately assess the impact of Ocean Acidification and Warming (OAW), while considering factors such as tidal regimes and food availability. Although the tidal regime did not have a significant influence on oysters' responses to OAW, it is important to continue considering the effects of this factor on intertidal organisms. In scenarios with even more pronounced OAW, exposure to air may potentially become a limiting factor in the acclimation response. Therefore, it would be valuable to investigate a performance curve for intertidal organisms in relation to OAW, considering the variable of air exposure.

A significant finding from this study underscores the paramount influence of food availability on oysters' acclimation response to Ocean Acidification and Warming (OAW), as well as their susceptibility to disease. While OAW is anticipated to increase the metabolism and nutritional demands of marine organisms (Clements and Darrow, 2018), it is also likely to coincide with a decrease in primary production due to increased ocean stratification and prolonged droughts, which can limit nutrient supply and availability (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Wetz et al., 2011). Consequently, OAW may intensify the challenges associated with matching food supply to organismal needs, potentially resulting in trophic mismatches. Hence, it is imperative to take this parameter into account in future studies.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Coline Caillon: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft. **Elodie Fleury**: Conceptualization,

129

Methodology, Investigation, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition.
Carole Di Poi: Investigation, Writing - review & editing. Frédéric Gazeau: Investigation,
Writing - review & editing. Fabrice Pernet: Conceptualization, Methodology,
Investigation, Writing - original draft, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

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Supplementary information

Table S1. Parameters of the seawater carbonate chemistry during the 101-day experiment, including acclimation period and viral exposure. Dissolved oxygen saturation averaged 99.8 ± 0.1%. Data are represented as means ± s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks).

-	Measured			Estimated				
Condition	Т	рНт	A _T	S	pCO ₂	DIC	$\Omega_{\rm A}$	Ωc
	(°C)		(µmol.kg ⁻¹)	(ppt)	(µatm)	(µmol.kg ⁻¹)		
Current climate scenario								
Subtidal, High food	20.0±0.0	7.89±0.01	2198±5	35.2±0.0	614±11	2029±2	1.98±0.03	3.04±0.05
Intertidal, High food	20.0±0.0	7.89±0.00	2173±2	35.2±0.0	632±11	2011±4	1.89±0.02	2.91±0.03
Intertidal, Low food	20.0±0.0	7.90±0.00	2225±5	35.2±0.0	609±10	2052±4	2.02±0.03	3.11±0.04
Future climate scenar	io							
Subtidal, High food	23.0±0.0	7.60±0.00	2130±12	35.2±0.0	1226±3	2052±11	1.20±0.01	1.84±0.02
Intertidal, High food	22.9±0.0	7.60±0.00	2064±7	35.3±0.0	1179±17	1987±9	1.17±0.01	1.78 ± 0.01
Intertidal, Low food	23.0±0.0	7.60±0.00	2190±3	35.2±0.0	1265±12	2112±2	1.23±0.01	1.88±0.02

Abbreviations: T, temperature; pH_T , pH on the total scale; A_T , total alkalinity; S, salinity; pCO_2 , partial pressure of CO_2 ; DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon concentration; Ω_A , saturation state of aragonite; Ω_C , saturation state of calcite.

Table S2. Summary of linear mixed-effects models to assess the effect of condition (6 levels)on the growth-related parameters and ingestion rate of *Crassostrea gigas* oystersmeasured at the end of acclimation period. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.</td>

Effect	df	F	р
Shell length			
Condition	5	76.74	<0.001
Residual	12		
Growth rate in shell length			
Condition	5	77.36	<0.001
Residual	12		
Shell weight			
Condition	5	122.04	<0.001
Residual	12		
Total body weight (shell + tissue)			
Condition	5	124.56	<0.001
Residual	12		
Growth rate in total body weight			
Condition	5	124.61	<0.001
Residual	12		
Dry flesh weight			
Condition	5	86.94	<0.001
Residual	12		
Ingestion rate (h ⁻¹)			
Condition	5	84.07	<0.001
Residual	12		

Table S3. Summary of linear mixed-effects models to assess the effect of condition (6 levels) on the main membrane fatty acids (FA). TAG:ST ratio. carbohydrate and protein contents of *C. gigas* oysters measured at the end of acclimation period. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.

Effect	df	F	р
Unsaturation index			
Condition	5	11.38	<0.001
Residual	12		
Arachidonic acid (ARA)			
Condition	5	1.31	0.323
Residual	12		
Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA)			
Condition	5	4.84	0.012
Residual	12		
Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA)			
Condition	5	15.66	<0.001
Residual	12		
Non-methylene-interrupted FA (NMI)			
Condition	5	7.84	0.002
Residual	12		
TAG:ST ratio			
Condition	5	7.33	0.002
Residual	12		
Total carbohydrate content			
Condition	5	19.18	<0.001
Residual	12		
Total protein content			
Condition	5	4.49	0.016
Residual	12		

Table S4. Composition of polar fatty acids (mass %) in *C. gigas* oysters according to acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level. Only the fatty acid (FA) accounting for >1% of total polar FA in at least one condition are shown. Data are represented as means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks).

	Cu	Current OAW scenario			Future OAW scenario			
	Subtidal, HF	Intertidal, HF	Intertidal, LF	Subtidal, HF	Intertidal, HF	Intertidal, LF		
14:0	3.1±0.0	2.7±0.2	3.4±0.2	3.0±0.0	3.2±0.2	3.4±0.2		
16:0	15.3±0.4	13.5±0.7	17.0±0.7	16.4±0.8	15.1±0.9	18.5±0.8		
17:0	0.7±0.0	0.6±0.1	0.9±0.0	0.8±0.1	0.7±0.1	1.0±0.1		
18:0	6.7±0.1	6.0±0.7	8.3±0.2	7.2±0.5	6.4±0.1	8.6±0.3		
Σ SFA	26.8±0.4	23.6±1.4	30.4±0.9	28.4±1.4	26.3±1.4	32.5±1.0		
16:1n-7	1.9±0.0	2.0±0.0	1.9±0.1	2.0±0.1	2.1±0.1	1.9±0.1		
18:1n-7	7.2±0.1	7.0±0.1	6.6±0.1	6.7±0.1	7.1±0.0	6.0±0.1		
20:1n-11	2.5±0.1	2.5±0.1	2.2±0.1	2.8±0.1	2.9±0.1	2.8±0.1		
20:1n-9	0.3±0.0	0.3±0.0	0.3±0.0	0.3±0.0	0.3±0.0	0.3±0.0		
20:1n-7	5.3±0.1	5.3±0.1	4.9±0.2	4.7±0.1	4.9±0.1	4.5±0.2		
Σ MUFA	18.5±0.0	18.6±0.1	16.7±0.3	18.3±0.2	18.9±0.5	16.5±0.4		
18:2n-6	1.3±0.1	1.4±0.1	1.1±0.0	1.3±0.1	1.6±0.1	1.1±0.0		
18:3n-3	0.8±0.0	0.6±0.0	0.8±0.1	0.7±0.0	0.8±0.1	0.9±0.1		
20:4n-6 (ARA)	1.0±0.0	0.9±0.0	0.9±0.0	1.0±0.0	0.9±0.0	0.9±0.0		
20:5n-3 (EPA)	18.2±0.1	20.3±1.1	16.0±0.7	16.0±0.6	17.6±0.4	12.8±0.4		
22:2n-6	0.0 ± 0.0	0.3±0.1	0.3±0.3	0.2±0.2	0.0 ± 0.0	0.8±0.4		
22:5n-6	2.1±0.0	1.0±0.5	3.3±0.4	2.3±0.4	1.7±0.3	4.0±0.4		
22:5n-3	1.0±0.0	1.1±0.0	1.1±0.0	1.1±0.0	1.1±0.0	1.1±0.0		
22:6n-3 (DHA)	7.4±0.1	8.1±0.6	6.5±0.3	7.0±0.3	7.7±0.4	6.0±0.3		
Σ PUFA	62.5±0.1	65.7±1.7	56.2±1.7	58.8±1.7	62.0±1.4	53.0±0.7		
18:0DMA	6.6±0.6	7.6±0.6	8.8±0.5	8.8±0.6	7.8±0.1	9.8±0.9		
20:1DMA	1.4 ± 0.1	1.7±0.1	1.3±0.0	1.3±0.1	1.2±0.1	1.1±0.2		
Σ DMA	8.8±0.6	10.1±0.5	10.9±0.6	10.8±0.8	9.7±0.3	11.6±0.9		
22:2i.j	6.0±0.1	6.6±0.3	4.7±0.5	5.4±0.2	5.5±0.3	4.6±0.3		
Σ ΝΜΙ	7.0±0.1	7.6±0.3	5.7±0.4	6.5±0.3	6.6±0.3	5.4±0.3		

Abbreviations: OAW, ocean acidification and warming; HF, high food; LF, low food.

Table S5. Levels of OsHV-1 DNA in *C. gigas* oysters acclimated to acidification and warming scenario, tidal regime and food level, and further exposed to pathogens (5 dpi). Data are means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Summary of linear mixed-effects model was performed on log-transformed (x+1) data. Letters indicate significant differences between conditions.

(Condition, F=9.43, p<0.001)

Condition	OsHV-1 DNA (cp mg ⁻¹)	Post-hoc
Current, Subtidal, HF	$4.7 \ 10^1 \pm 8.1 \ 10^1$	ab
Future, Subtidal, HF	2.7 10 ⁻¹ ± 2.4 10 ⁻¹	а
Current, Intertidal, HF	$1.2\ 10^4 \pm 2.1\ 10^4$	bc
Future, Intertidal, HF	$6.4\ 10^{\circ} \pm 8.1\ 10^{\circ}$	ab
Current, Intertidal, LF	9.0 $10^4 \pm 3.2 \ 10^4$	С
Future, Intertidal, LF	$6.9\ 10^4 \pm 6.4\ 10^4$	С

Abbreviations: HF, high food; LF, low food.

CHAPITRE 3

Réponse de l'huître creuse *Crassostrea gigas* au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans, combinés à une diminution de la qualité de la nourriture

Préambule

Le travail présenté dans ce troisième article vise à évaluer les réponses physiologiques de l'huître creuse du Pacifique *Crassostrea gigas* au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans, combinés à différentes qualités de nourriture. L'une des conséquences du changement global, moins bien connue, est la réduction de la production des acides gras essentiels (AGE) dans la chaine trophique marine. A notre connaissance, cette étude est la première à regarder l'influence de la qualité de nourriture sur la réponse d'un organisme calcifiant, dans un contexte de changements environnementaux. Les huîtres ont été exposées pendant 44 jours à un scénario de réchauffement et d'acidification actuel et futur (+3°C et -0.3 unité de pH), sous trois régimes de microalgues différents reflétant un gradient de qualité en AGE (élevé, moyen et faible). À la fin de l'acclimatation, les huîtres ont été soumises au même challenge pathogène que le Chapitre 2. Les réponses biologiques ont été étudiées de l'échelle macro-physiologique (croissance, calcification, reproduction, ingestion, respiration, survie aux pathogènes) à l'échelle biochimique (réserves énergétiques, lipidomique).

Le plan expérimental de ce chapitre est similaire à celui du Chapitre 2. Il est très probable que l'effet de la qualité de nourriture soit tout aussi important que celui avéré de la disponibilité en nourriture.

L'article de ce Chapitre 3 s'intitulant « Food quality influences the phenotypic responses of oysters to ocean acidification and warming by altering metabolism: What role for omega-3 fatty acids? » est en cours de préparation, les conclusions présentées dans ce manuscrit seront amenées à être davantage développées. Nous souhaitons le soumettre dans *Global Change Biology*.

139

Food quality influences the phenotypic responses of oysters to ocean acidification and warming by altering metabolism: What role for omega-3 fatty acids?

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Abstract

Ocean acidification and warming caused by increased anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions pose a tremendous challenge to marine calcifiers such as intertidal bivalves. An important, but largely overlooked, consequence of global change is the reduced availability of dietary long-chain omega-3 highly unsaturated fatty acids (n-3 HUFA) in aquatic food webs. As these multiple drivers operate simultaneously, it is critical to understand their combined effects on marine organisms. Generally, environmental stress increases the energy costs of organisms' maintenance, leading to changes in energy allocation, as well as physiological trade-offs, between different energy-demanding functions. Here we investigated the physiological responses of juvenile Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* exposed for 2 months to current and future (+3°C, -0.3 pH unit) acidification and warming scenarios under three different food qualities, mimicking a depletion in n-3 HUFA. We linked up the macro-physiological traits (growth, calcification, food intake, reproduction, respiration) of sampled oysters to their biochemical responses (fatty acid composition, energy reserves). At the end of the acclimation period, oysters were further challenged with a viral disease to investigate the physiological cost of acclimation. We found that future seawater conditions and high food quality improved growth and food intake, through high phenotypic plasticity. However, low-quality diet interacted with future warming and acidification scenario by limiting growth performance and increasing oxygen consumption, which may indicate that oysters increased their energy expenditures to maintain homeostasis under stressful conditions. Finally, the viral challenge revealed higher susceptibility and risk mortality to disease under future seawater conditions and increasing food quality, suggesting that higher metabolic rate, growth and/or food intake promote viral proliferation. Overall, this study highlights the importance of food quality, as much as food quantity, in experiments. Additionally, it suggests that essential fatty acids could be a major influential factor of acclimation/adaptation to global change.

Keywords: Aquaculture, Bivalve, Global change, Marine disease, Mollusk, Multi stress, Nutrition, Pathogen, Plasticity, Omega-3

I. Introduction

Ocean acidification and warming (OAW) are two of the most prominent changes in the ocean, and threaten to have widespread ecological consequences (IPCC, 2022). The relentless increase in carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions has intensified the greenhouse effect, warming both land and ocean. In addition, the ocean absorbs *ca*. 25% of atmospheric CO₂, causing changes in the carbonate system that result in reduced seawater pH and saturation level of carbonate minerals (Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; Orr et al., 2005). This represents a tremendous challenge for marine organisms, especially calcifiers that produce shells and skeletons in calcium carbonate. In coastal ecosystems, the most likely climate model predicts that surface temperature will increase by 3.0°C, while surface pH will decrease by 0.03 pH unit by the end of the century (scenario SSP3-7.0; IPCC, 2022).

Yet, marine organisms will simultaneously experience several other environmental stressors, whether or not associated with global change, such as hypoxia, changes in salinity and nutrient availability, marine disease outbreak, pollution (Burge et al., 2014; Gunderson et al., 2016; IPCC, 2022). These multiple environmental drivers can interact with warming and acidification complicating even more predictions, particularly in coastal waters where the stressor combinations are more complex and varied (Halpern et al., 2015). Exploring how organisms and ecosystems react to co-occurring environmental changes is a priority for scientists, ecosystem managers and policymakers in adaptation and mitigation strategies (Boyd et al., 2018; Riebesell and Gattuso, 2015).

Although few papers investigate the effects of food availability on the capacity of calcifying organisms to acclimate to environmental changes (Caillon et al., submitted; Comeau et al., 2013; Delorme et al., 2020; Mackenzie et al., 2014; Melzner et al., 2011), the influence of food quality remains largely unexplored. The quality of a phytoplankton-
based diet can be determined by the species-specific nutritional composition in essential fatty acids (EFA) such as arachidonic acid (20:4n-6, ARA), eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3, EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3, DHA). These long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids are essential components of biological membranes and cell signaling, influencing growth, reproduction, immunity, and survival (Bergé and Barnathan, 2005). Essential FAs could therefore play a major role in the response of calcifying organisms to environmental changes.

It is particularly important to evaluate the sensitivity of marine calcifiers to climate change based on EFAs content because their availability in the future may decrease markedly. Indeed, the EFA content of phytoplankton decreases in response to warming and acidification for both physiological and ecological reasons. Firstly, warming promotes the incorporation of more saturated fatty acids to maintain membrane rigidity, in accordance with the theory of homeoviscous adaptation (Hazel, 1995; Hixson and Arts, 2016; Rousch et al., 2003). Likewise, decreasing pH reduces membrane EFAs in primary producers but the causes remain to be elucidated (Rossoll et al., 2012). Secondly, the increasing thermal stratification of the ocean due to warming reduces nutrient availability and change the community composition of primary producers toward a dominance of low n-3 EFA species (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Galloway and Winder, 2015).

Few studies conducted on bivalves have reported a reduction in host immune defenses and an increase in pathogen susceptibility under acidification and/or warming (Bibby et al., 2008; Ellis et al., 2015; Matozzo et al., 2012). For instance, the increased energy demands to cope with increased temperature and reduced pH can increase susceptibility to infectious disease, reflecting an allocation trade-off between energy available to mount immune response and energy for other fitness-related functions (Lochmiller and Deerenberg, 2000; Sokolova, 2013; Sokolova, 2021). It is very likely that these physiological trade-offs are exacerbated when food quality is impoverished,

144

considering that dietary EFAs influence both growth performance and immune response of several bivalve species (Delaporte et al., 2003; Delaporte et al., 2006; Delaunay et al., 1993; Rojas et al., 2023).

The objective of the present study is to investigate for the first time the effects of food quality on the response of the Pacific oyster Crassostrea gigas under ocean acidification and warming. C. gigas is an ecosystem engineer cultivated worldwide (FAO, 2020). We conducted a 2-month experiment in which juvenile oysters were exposed to current or future conditions of combined acidification and warming (current vs +3°C and -0.3 pH unit), under three microalgal diets differing in n-3 EFA content. At the end of acclimation to the different experimental conditions, oysters were further challenged with a well-known viral disease that severely hit juveniles every year (Barbosa Solomieu et al., 2015; EFSA, 2015; Pernet et al., 2016) to investigate the potential physiological cost of acclimation (Caillon et al. submitted). We measured fitness-related parameters like growth, sexual maturity and survival to pathogens, as well as food intake, calcification and respiration. We also measured the energy reserves of oysters involved in energy allocation during acclimation (Sokolova, 2013; Sokolova, 2021). Finally, we analysed the composition of membrane fatty acids, a key parameter modulating membrane fluidity and ion gradients across cellular compartments, and overall metabolic rates (Hulbert et al., 2007). We hypothesize that a reduction in n-3 EFA availability, associated with environmental changes, would negatively impact the physiological performance of oyster. In summary, our study shows the importance of considering food quality as well as quantity in experiments related to global change.

II. Materials and methods

145

a) Animals and maintenance

Pacific oysters Crassostrea gigas were spawned on 8 September 2021 at the Ifremer facility (Argenton, France) as previously described in Petton et al. (2015). The broodstock consisted of 125 females and 20 males collected in the wild between 2011 and 2019 in Île d'Aix (France). Then, 1.5-month-old oysters were transferred and grown at the Ifremer facility in Bouin (France). On 13 April 2022, young oysters were brought back to Argenton and held in a 500-l flow-through tank for 7 days prior to the experiment, during which the seawater temperature was gradually increased from 15°C to 19°C. The filtered (1 µm) and UV-treated seawater came from an outdoor pool, which was renewed at each spring tide (Di Poi et al., 2022). Oysters were continuously fed a mixed diet of two phytoplankton species; the diatom Chaetoceros muelleri (strain CCAP 1010/3) and the haptophyte *Tisochrysis lutea* (strain CCAP 927/14) (3:1, v/v). Food concentration was monitored daily using an electronic particle counter (100-µm aperture tube; Multisizer 3, Beckman Coulter, USA) and maintained at 800 μ m³ μ l⁻¹ at the tank outlet. This ration allowed covering the maintenance costs of the oysters (Pernet et al., 2019a). At the start of the experiment on 20 April 2022, the oysters were 7.5-month-old, and their average shell length and total body weight (shell + tissue) were 16.5 ± 2.4 mm and 0.68 ± 0.22 g respectively. The oysters were analyzed using an OsHV-1-specific quantitative PCR assay at the different stages of production, and no OsHV-1 DNA was detected.

b) Experimental set-up

Natural seawater was evenly distributed in 18 independent experimental units consisting of a header tank, in which the seawater was acidified and heated, connected to a holding tank containing the oysters. The experimental setup is the same as Caillon et al., (in prep). All the tanks were identical, rectangular, in transparent plexiglass, with a capacity of 45 l. The seawater was transferred from the header tank to the holding tank using a water pump (ProFlow t500, JBL, Germany) adjusted to a flow rate of 500 ml min⁻¹ to ensure complete renewal of the tank seawater every 90 min. The tide was also stimulated in the oyster tanks using a water pump connected to an automatic programmer (ProFlow t300, JBL, Germany; and TF-6A daily programmer, Tibelec, France) to drain water twice a day (Caillon et al., submitted). The tidal regime consisted of 3.5 h emersion, initiated at noon and midnight, followed by 8.5 h immersion (i.e., \sim 30 % emersion time per day). Seawater surrounding oysters was continuously aerated and mixed through air bubbling. Each tank was illuminated by LED (powerLED+, EHEIM, Germany) covering the full spectrum of sunlight, and the photoperiod was fixed at 14L:10D.

Each header tank was equipped with a thermostat and a heating resistor (Biotherm Eco, Hobby, Germany; and Schego Titane 300W, Europrix, France) to maintain the temperature seawater in the holding tanks at the targeted temperature. The pH level was also adjusted using a pH-controller connected to a pH electrode (ProFlora, JBL, Germany) by bubbling pure CO₂ into the seawater of the header tank. The pH electrode was calibrated monthly using buffer solutions (pH 4.00 and 7.00) supplied with the ProFlora equipment.

The microalgae diets were delivered directly into the holding tanks containing the oysters by means of flexible tubes and peristaltic pumps (REGLO Analog ISM 827, Ismatec, Switzerland). The phytoplankton concentration at the inlet of the holding tank was adjusted by pump speed. There was one pump per condition combination, for all three replicate tanks.

147

c) Experimental design

The experiment consisted of two successive phases: the acclimation to six conditions of warming and acidification (OAW) scenario and food quality for 44 days, followed by the viral exposure to investigate the physiological cost of acclimation.

Acclimation

The oysters were divided into 18 equivalent batches ($n = 203 \pm 3$; 144.4 ± 0.3 g) which were each assigned to a holding tank. We used a two-way full factorial design with warming and acidification scenario (2 levels, current vs future) and diet quality (3 levels of n-3 HUFA) as factors. Each experimental unit was randomly assigned to one of six conditions (n = 3 tanks per condition).

The current condition was 20°C and pH 7.9, and represented the average seawater temperature and pH encountered on the French Atlantic coast during the summer months (https://cocorico2.ifremer.fr/en/Donnees). The future OAW scenario corresponded to the most likely IPCC scenario SSP3-7.0 of +3°C and -0.3 pH unit by the end of the century (IPCC, 2022). Differences in dietary n-3 HUFA content were obtained by mixing three microalgae species in varying proportions; the EPA-rich diatom *Chaetoceros muelleri*, the DHA-rich haptophyte *Tisochrysis lutea*, and the chlorophyte *Dunaliella tertiolecta* which is poor in n-3 HUFA (Table 1 and S1). The microalgae species were similar in size and known to be consumed by suspension feeders (Miossec et al., 2009; O'Connor et al., 1992), i.e., 8-10, 4-5 and 10-12 μ m diameter for *C. muelleri*, *T. lutea* and *D. tertiolecta*, respectively. To achieve identical microalgae diets throughout the experiment, biovolumes of each microalga were adjusted daily maintaining the targeted proportions. The average phytoplankton concentration was 786 ± 309 μ m³ µl⁻¹ at the tank outlet (mean

148

 \pm s.d.), and the phytoplankton concentration at the tank inlet was progressively increased over time to compensate for the increased grazing rate of growing oysters.

Table 1. Microalgae proportions and fatty acid composition in the high-, medium- and lowquality diets.

		Experimental diets	
	High	Medium	Low
	75 Cm : 25 Tl : 0 Dt	37.5 Cm : 25 Tl : 37.5 Dt	0 Cm : 25 Tl : 75 Dt
14:0	16.9 ± 3.5^{a}	11.0 ± 1.0 ^b	6.9 ± 0.9°
16:0	15.0 ± 4.1	16.1 ± 1.5	17.3 ± 1.8
Σ SFA	34.1 ± 8.3	28.6 ± 2.8	25.8 ± 3.0
16:1n-7	14.5 ± 2.1^{a}	8.1 ± 0.7^{b}	1.5 ± 0.3°
18:1n-9	3.4 ± 1.4	4.6 ± 1.4	5.4 ± 1.4
Σ MUFA	21.9 ± 3.0^{a}	17.3 ± 1.8 ^b	12.3 ± 1.4 ^c
16:4n-3	0.6 ± 0.5 ^c	4.5 ± 1.0^{b}	10.5 ± 0.7^{a}
18:3n-3	$2.6 \pm 0.9^{\circ}$	13.4 ± 1.2^{b}	23.6 ± 1.8^{a}
20:4n-6 (ARA)	1.6 ± 0.5^{a}	0.9 ± 0.2^{b}	$0.0 \pm 0.0^{\circ}$
20:5n-3 (EPA)	12.5 ± 1.6^{a}	7.0 ± 0.4^{b}	0.1 ± 0.1 ^c
22:6n-3 (DHA)	3.7 ± 1.4	3.5 ± 0.8	2.8 ± 0.8
ARA + EPA + DHA	17.8 ± 3.1^{a}	11.4 ± 0.7^{b}	$2.9 \pm 0.8^{\circ}$
Σ ΡυξΑ	65.2 ± 8.4	70.8 ± 2.9	73.7 ± 3.4

Values are expressed as a percentage of FA mass per total FA mass (mean ± s.d.%; n = 5). Bold denotes significant differences determined using one-way ANOVA and Tukey's test. Abbreviations: Cm, *Chaetoceros muelleri*; Tl, *Tisochrysis lutea*; Dt, *Dunaliella tertiolecta*; SFA, saturated fatty acid; MUFA, monounsaturated fatty acid; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid.

Viral exposure

On 3 June 2022, a pool of 1000 oysters (4 kg), from another cohort produced on 22 February 2022, was myorelaxed with magnesium chloride at 21°C (Suquet et al., 2009) and injected into the adductor muscle with 100 μ l of viral suspension of Ostreid herpesvirus (OsHV-1 μ Var; 1.46 x 10⁵ DNA copies μ l⁻¹ diluted by 10x). Injected oysters

were used as OsHV-1 donor oysters for the pathogenic challenge. They were maintained in a 100-l tank, upstream of the experimental system, connected to the main seawater distribution network by means of flexible tubes and a peristaltic pump. The donor oysters shed viral particles into the seawater, which was used as the source of infection for the recipient oysters. The water flow from the source of infection was ~4.3% of the total water flow and delivered directly into the holding tanks containing the oysters. The source of infection flow was stopped 10 days after the onset of viral exposure. Oyster survival was monitored daily for 19 days, and dead animals were removed daily from the tanks.

d) Seawater physicochemical parameters

Seawater pH_T, temperature, dissolved oxygen saturation and salinity were monitored daily in the holding tanks using a MultiLine Multi 3630 IDS-WTW (connected to pH electrode SenTix 940, oxygen sensor FDO 925, and conductivity electrode TetraCon 925; Xylem Analytics, Germany). The accuracy of the pH electrode was checked once a week using NBS buffers (Certipur pH 4.00, 7.00 and 9.00, Merck, Germany), and calibrated twice a week on the total scale with a certified Tris/HCl buffer (salinity 35; provided by A. G. Dickson, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, USA). All measurements were performed between 8 and 9 am throughout the experiment, corresponding to the mid-point of high tide.

Seawater samples (150 ml) were collected weekly in the holding tanks for total alkalinity (A_T) determination. Seawater was filtered through GF/F glass microfiber filter (0.7 μ m, Whatman) and poisoned with 0.05% saturated mercury (II) chloride. A_T was measured by potentiometric titration according to Dickson et al. (2007), using an automatic titrator (TitroLine 7000, SI Analytics, Germany). Other carbonate system

parameters, including partial pressure of CO₂, dissolved inorganic carbon concentration, saturation state of aragonite and calcite, were then calculated using the R package *seacarb* (v3.3.1; Gattuso et al., 2022). The physicochemical parameters are summarised in Table S2.

e) Diet characterization

Experimental microalgae diets were sampled for lipid analyses, twice before the start of the experiment and on days 35, 55 and 58 of the experiment. Each diet preparation was filtered through a 0.7 μ m GF/F, until the filter was saturated, and placed in 6 ml chloroform-methanol solution pending for total fatty acid composition analyses.

f) Physiological measurements in oysters

Growth-related parameters

The shell length and total body weight (shell + tissue) were individually measured on 30 oysters at the onset of the experiment (day 0), and on 20 oysters from each tank at the end of the acclimation period 44 days later. These oysters were dissected to determine both shell and flesh weights. The tissues were then lyophilized to obtain the dry flesh weight. Growth rate was calculated as:

$$G = \frac{\overline{X_{44}} - \overline{X_0}}{44}$$
(1)

where *G* is the growth rate expressed as increase in shell length or total body weight per day (mm d⁻¹ and mg d⁻¹ respectively), $\overline{X_0}$ and $\overline{X_{44}}$ are the average of biometric values

measured at the onset (day 0) and at the end of the acclimation period (day 44). The measurements related to different individuals between day 0 and day 44.

In addition, the condition index (CI) of oysters was individually calculated at the end of acclimation period using the following equation:

$$CI = \frac{dry \, flesh \, weight}{dry \, shell \, weight} \times 100 \, (2)$$

The condition index is a useful tool in the aquaculture sector to evaluate the physiological state of the animal in terms of quality and health (Lucas and Beninger, 1985).

Ingestion

Seawater was sampled daily at the inlet and outlet of each oyster tank to determine the concentrations of microalgae diets. Ingestion rate was calculated as:

$$I = \frac{(Cell_{inlet} - Cell_{outlet}) \times flow \, rate}{W} \, (3)$$

where *I* is the ingestion rate expressed as mm³ g⁻¹ h⁻¹, *Cell*_{inlet} and *Cell*_{outlet} are the phytoplankton cell volumes at the tank inlet and outlet (μ m³ μ l⁻¹) respectively, *flow rate* is the water flow at the inlet of oyster tank (ml h⁻¹), and *W* is the total biomass of oysters in the tank (g). Ingestion rates were averaged over the acclimation period for each tank.

Net calcification and respiration

Net calcification and respiration rates were measured directly in holding tanks on the entire group of oysters after 41 days of exposure. Oysters were starved for 18 h prior to the onset of the measurements. The general procedure was previously described in Lutier et al. (2022). Briefly, temperature, pH_T, salinity, and oxygen concentration (mg l⁻¹) were measured at the start and at the end of the incubation period. Simultaneously, seawater samples were filtered through a 0.7 μ m GF/F, then poisoned for A_T (150 ml; see above) or immediately frozen at -20°C for ammonium measurements (NH₄⁺; 20 ml). Incubation period lasted 2 h, and temperature was maintained constant (0.0 ± 0.2°C) while pH_T decreased slightly (-0.12 ± 0.07 pH unit). Blanks (i.e., control tanks) containing only seawater were made at the end of the 2-month experiment (acclimation and viral exposure) and showed that variations in the seawater parameters due to potential biological processes and/or evaporation were insignificant (data not shown). The net calcification rate was calculated using the alkalinity anomaly method based on A_T changes before and after incubation, corrected from the excretion effect on A_T, following a modified procedure from Gazeau et al. (2015):

$$NC = \frac{\left(\Delta NH_4^{+} - \Delta A_T \times \rho\right) \times V}{2 \times t \times W \times \frac{DW}{TW}}$$
(4)

where *NC* is the net calcification rate (in µmol CaCO₃ g⁻¹ h⁻¹), ΔNH_{4^+} and ΔA_T are the changes in NH₄⁺ (excretion; in µmol l⁻¹) and A_T (in µmol kg⁻¹) before and after incubation, ρ is the seawater density based on temperature and salinity (in kg l⁻¹), *V* is the tank volume (l), *t* is the incubation time (h), *W* is the batch total weight (g), and $\frac{DW}{TW}$ is the ratio of dry flesh weight and total body weight, determined after lyophilization of a pool of tissues from 20 oysters (see above).

The respiration rate was estimated as the rate of oxygen consumption over the 2 h incubation period, using the following equation:

$$R = \frac{\left(\Delta O_2 - \Delta O_{2(blank)}\right) \times V}{t \times W \times \frac{DW}{TW}}$$
(5)

where *R* is the respiration rate (in mg O_2 g⁻¹ h⁻¹), ΔO_2 is the difference in oxygen concentration at the start and end of incubation (in mg O_2 l⁻¹), and $\Delta O_{2(blank)}$ is the change of oxygen concentration in control tanks (blanks; in mg O_2 l⁻¹).

g) Reproduction

At the end of the acclimation period, a transverse cross-section of tissue through the gonad and digestive gland was sampled from 10 oysters in each tank (n = 30 individuals per condition) for histology. The tissue samples were immediately fixed in Davidson's solution for 48 h at 4°C, then stored in 70% ethanol at 4°C. Thereafter, the tissue sections were dehydrated in ascending ethanol solutions, cleared with xylene, embedded in paraffin wax, cut and mounted on glass slides, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin as previously described in Fabioux et al. (2005). Slides were examined under a light microscope to determine oyster sex and stage of gonadal development according to a modified reproductive scale from Steele and Mulcahy (1999). Stage 0 was the undifferentiated or resting phase, with no evidence of gonadal development. Stage 1 corresponded to the early and late ripening phases. Stage 2 identified fully mature oysters, with ripe gonads ready for spawning. Stage 3 defined the post-spawning phase, with numerous empty or partially empty follicles and the presence of residual gametes. Finally, stage 4 characterized the resorption phase, with collapsed follicles and the presence of phagocytes.

h) Biochemistry

Soft tissues from 10 oysters in each tank were collected at the end of the acclimation period, before the pathogenic challenge, flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen, pooled, and stored at -80°C pending analyses. Tissues were then ground in liquid nitrogen using a ball mill to obtain oyster powder, of which *ca.* 50 mg were directly stored at -20°C for carbohydrate measurements. For lipids, ca. 300 mg of oyster powder were diluted in

6 ml chloroform-methanol solution (2:1, v/v; Folch et al., 1957) and stored at -20°C under a nitrogen atmosphere.

Lipid class determination of oysters

Neutral lipid – i.e., reserve lipid – were quantified by high-performance thin-layer chromatography and a scanning densitometer (Automatic TLC Sampler 4 and TLC Scanner 3 respectively, CAMAG, Switzerland) as previously described in Pernet et al. (2019). This method allowed the separation of lipid classes into sterols (ST), alcohols, free fatty acids, triacylglycerols (TAG), glycerol ethers, and sterol esters. Since TAG are mainly reserve lipids and ST are structural lipids of cell membranes that remain essentially unchanged, the TAG:ST ratio was used as an index of the reserve contribution to structure (Fraser, 1989).

Fatty acid composition

To analyze the fatty acid (FA) composition of oyster biological membranes, polar lipids were separated from neutral fatty acids, and only FA from polar lipids were considered. An aliquot (1 ml) of total lipid extract was evaporated to dryness under nitrogen, recovered with 3 washings of 0.5 ml of chloroform-methanol (98:2, v/v) and placed at the top of a silica gel microcolumn. Neutral lipids were eluted with 10 ml of chloroform-methanol (98:2, v/v), polar lipids were eluted with 15 ml of methanol, and both were transferred into vials containing 2.3 µg of internal standard (tricosanoic acid, 23:0). Polar lipids were transesterified with 800 µl of sulfuric acid-methanol (3.4%, v/v) and heated at 100°C for 10 min (Couturier et al., 2020). The resulting fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) and dimethyl acetals (DMA) were analyzed by flame ionization detector gas chromatograph system (HP - Agilent 6890, Agilent Technologies, USA). The quantification of DMA allowed the indirect quantification of plasmalogens. FA were identified by comparing their retention times with those of standard mixtures. Individual FA content was then expressed as the relative percentage of peak area by the sum of all polar FA peaks.

In addition, the total fatty acids of the microalgae diets were obtained following the same method starting at transesterification step. The internal standard (23:0) allowed to calculate the FA content in microalgae diets, expressed as ng per μ m³ of microalgae.

Carbohydrates

Samples of oyster powder (50 mg) were homogenized in 1 ml of Milli-Q water using a Polytron PT 2500 E (Kinematica, Switzerland) and diluted by 2x. Total carbohydrate content was determined by the colorimetric method described in Dubois et al. (1956). Diluted samples (250 μ l) were mixed with phenol (0.5 ml, 5% m/v) and sulfuric acid (2.5 ml, 98% v/v), and incubated for 40 min. Absorbance was read at 490 nm using a Cary 60 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, USA). Total carbohydrate concentration was calculated using a standard calibration curve with pure glucose, and expressed as mg g⁻¹ of fresh weight.

i) Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were performed using the software RStudio (v4.2.2) with alpha set at 0.05 for statistical significance. Mixed-effects models with OAW scenario (2 levels) and food quality (3 levels) as fixed factors and tank as a random factor (18 levels), were used to investigate differences in macro-physiological and biochemical traits, between conditions. We used the 'lme' function with a Gaussian distribution (*nlme* package, v3.1-162). The normality of residuals and homogeneity of variances were graphically checked. Subsequent post-hoc comparisons using the 'glht' function from *multcomp* package (v1.4-23). In addition, principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the composition of fatty acids to visualize the effects of OAW scenario and food quality (*FactoMineR* package, v2.7).

Differences on the reproductive development were determined by using a multinomial logistic regression from *nnet* package (v7.3-18). Then, we ran likelihood ratio test and determine differences among conditions using the 'Anova' function (*car* package).

Finally, Kaplan-Meier survival curves were plotted using the *survminer* package (v0.4.9). During virus exposure, the survival of oysters was analyzed using a Cox mixedeffects model (*coxme* package, v2.2-18.1), considering OAW scenario and food quality as fixed factors, and tank as a random factor. Survival time was measured as days postinfection from the onset of the experiment (dpi 0) when recipient oysters were exposed to the infection source. The proportionality of hazards was checked and validated with Schoenfeld residuals. Multiple pairwise comparisons using Log-Rank test was then performed to compare survival of oysters among conditions.

For each analysis, models were run with and without interactions between OAW scenario and food quality. We then used Akaike and Bayesian information criteria (AIC and BIC) to select the best-fitting model. The models with the lowest values were considered to have the most support.

157

III. Results

Here we acclimated oysters for 44 days to current and future ocean acidification and warming (OAW) scenarios under three different diets. Each diet showed different levels of essential fatty acids (EFAs, Table 1). For instance, levels of eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3), the main dietary EFA, were 12.5%, 7.0% and 0.1% in the high-, mediumand low-quality diets respectively. During the acclimation period, the oysters suffered no mortality and their size was multiplied by almost 2 in the best food condition. At the end of the acclimation period, we exposed the oysters to a viral pathogen to assess their disease susceptibility in relation to OAW scenario and food quality, and the physiological cost of acclimation.

a) Food quality, and to a lower extent climate scenario, modulate food ingestion

Feed intake decreased with decreasing EFA content from the beginning to the end of the experiment (Fig. 1; Table S3). Therefore, the effect of diet quality was confounded with the quantity ingested by the oysters. Secondarily, we observed that food consumption was higher in oysters under future OAW (+3°C and -0.3 pH unit) compared to those under current conditions.



Fig. 1. Ingestion rate of oysters over time (a) and averaged over the acclimation period (0-44 days) (b) as function of acidification and warming scenario, and food quality. High-, medium- and low-quality diets correspond to green, orange and red color, respectively. Data are means ± s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences between conditions.

b) Food quality and OAW scenario interacted in their effects on all growth and physiological parameters

Overall, increasing food quality increased growth-related parameters and conditions index of oysters (Fig. 2). These parameters also increased in response to OAW under high/medium food quality, but not under low food quality (Fig. 2; Table S3). Net calcification rate was similar in oysters under high/medium food quality, but decreased by 2x in oysters under low food quality regardless of the OAW scenario. Respiration rate did not differ between conditions, except under future OAW/low food quality where oxygen consumption was 2x greater. There was no effect of OAW scenario and food quality on the gonadal development of oysters, they all reached sexual maturity at the end of the experiment (Fig. S1; Table S4).



Fig. 2. Growth-related measurements and physiological rates of oysters as function of acidification and warming scenario, and food quality. Growth rates in shell length (a) and total body weight (b), net calcification rate (c), shell length (d), shell weight (e), dry flesh weight (f), condition index (g), and respiration rate (h) were measured during the acclimation period, prior to viral exposure. Data are means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences between conditions.

c) Energy reserves were impacted by diet quality and OAW scenario

To provide an in-depth characterization of the whole organism, we analyzed the biochemical content of oysters. We found that both TAG/ST ratio and carbohydrate content of oysters decreased with decreasing food quality (Fig. 3; Table S5). While TAG/ST was not influenced by OAW scenario, carbohydrates decreased markedly under future OAW condition regardless of food quality (Fig. 3; Table S5).



Fig. 3. Energy reserves of oysters as function of acidification and warming scenario, and food quality. Triacylglycerols/sterols ratio (a) and total carbohydrate content (b) were measured at the end of 44-day acclimation period, prior to viral exposure. Data are means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences among conditions. If no interaction, the significance of factors is represented using symbols (p <0.05*, <0.01**, <0.001***).

d) Both OAW scenario and food quality modulate membrane fatty acids in oysters

We also analyzed the composition of membrane lipids that play an important role in exchanges between intracellular and extracellular compartments. The major components found in oyster membranes were palmitic acid (16:0, 13.8%), docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n-3, 11.2%), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3, 10.1%), 18:0 dimethyl acetal (18:0DMA, 8.8%), stearic acid (18:0, 7.3%), vaccenic acid (18:1n-7, 5.4%), and the non-methylene-interrupted FA (22:2NMI, 5.3%), regardless of the condition. They together accounted for 62% of the polar fatty acids (Table S6). The predominant and characteristic fatty acid in oysters fed mainly with *C. muelleri* or *D. tertiolecta* in their diet was 20:5n-3 and 18:3n-3, respectively (Fig. S2; Table S1).

Multivariate analysis showed a clear separation of membrane fatty acids dependent on OAW scenario and food quality, which was confirmed by permutational analysis of variance (Fig. S2; Table S7). The unsaturation index of membrane fatty acids, an indicator of membrane fluidity, decreased under future OAW scenario (Fig. 4a; Table S8). This change in unsaturation index mainly reflected EPA and 22:2NMI (Fig 4b-d; Table S8). In addition, the incorporation of EPA, DHA and NMI varied with food quality. Arachidonic acid (ARA, 20:4n-6), a fatty acid previously associated with stress response in bivalves, increased with increasing food quality and remained similar between OAW scenarios (Fig 4e; Table S8). Interestingly, food quality interacted with OAW scenario for DMA values, resulting in higher DMA proportion under future OAW scenario and low food quality than under all other conditions (Fig 4f; Table S8). Finally, EFA and particularly EPA levels in oysters reflected dietary levels, and they were also lower in the future OAW scenario (Tables 1, S6 and S8).



Fig. 4. Unsaturation index and membrane fatty acids in oysters as function of acidification and warming scenario, and quality diet. Lipids were quantified at the end of 44-day acclimation period, prior to viral exposure. Data are means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3 tanks). Letters indicate significant differences among conditions. If no interaction, the significance of factors is represented using symbols (p <0.05*, <0.01**, <0.001***).

e) Disease susceptibility of oysters is strongly affected by future OAW scenario and high-quality diet

Pathogenic challenge induced variable mortalities among conditions as survival ranged from 95.2 \pm 1.3% for oysters under current OAW scenario and low-quality of food, to 66.2 \pm 2.9% for those under future OAW scenario and high-quality of food (Fig. 5). Oyster mortalities were clearly associated with the detection of OsHV-1 DNA. The viral DNA was indeed detected in large quantities in dead oysters (1.2 10⁶ \pm 6.9 10⁵ OsHV-1 DNA cp mg⁻¹). Future OAW scenario and increasing food quality both increased disease

mortality risk in oysters (Table S9). On average, future OAW scenario increased the risk of oyster mortality by 1.6 times compared to current seawater conditions (Table 2). In addition, the risk of mortality was reduced by a factor of 5 when the animals were fed the low-quality diet, compared with those fed the high-quality diet.



Fig. 6. Survival of oysters exposed to OsHV-1 after acclimation to ocean acidification and warming (OAW) scenario and food quality. The thick lines represent average survival per condition (n = 3 tanks), while the vertical line corresponds to the animal sampling at 5 dpi for OsHV-1 prevalence analysis.

Table 2. Summary of Cox mixed-effects model for the effects of ocean acidification andwarming (OAW) scenario and food quality on the odds of oyster mortality.

Effects	Estimate	SE	Z	р	Odds ratio
OAW scenario (current vs future)	0.44	0.15	2.93	0.003	1.56
Food quality (high vs medium)	-0.56	0.16	-3.43	<0.001	0.57
Food quality (high vs low)	-1.84	0.22	-8.36	< 0.001	0.16

The best fitting-model is without interaction. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.

IV. Discussion

Although few studies investigate the effects of food availability on the capacity of calcifying organisms to acclimate to future ocean warming and acidification (OAW), the influence of food quality remains largely unexplored. Here, we investigated the effects of future OAW (+3°C and -0.3 pH unit) and diet on the physiological response of juvenile *Crassostrea gigas* oysters. We found that oysters were highly tolerant to future conditions through a strong plasticity in growth, physiological rates (food intake, calcification, respiration), energy reserves, and fatty acid composition of membrane lipids. We also found that diet quality was a major influencing factor on the response of oysters to future OAW. Low food quality in the future OAW scenario limited growth and increased oxygen consumption in oysters, likely reflecting increased energy expenditure related to stressful conditions. Finally, fast-growing oysters under future OAW scenario were more susceptible to the disease which is consistent with the idea that a warmer ocean is also sicker. Overall, our results show that food quality can act as a limiting/fostering factor in the response of organisms to global change, as previously reported for food quantity.

Future OAW conditions increased overall growth-related parameters in juvenile oysters, suggesting that increased temperature may offset the negative effects of ocean acidification on oyster growth. In ectothermic organisms such as oysters, higher temperature accelerates biological processes, from biochemical reactions to metabolic rates and growth (Hochachka and Somero, 2002). Although ocean acidification can reduce growth and calcification in bivalves (Caillon et al., in review; Gazeau et al., 2015; Ries et al., 2009), this effects can be compensated by increased metabolic rates due to warming. According to studies, the growth of oysters under future conditions is similar to or greater than that of oysters maintained under current conditions (Caillon et al., in prep; Di Poi et al., 2022; Harney et al., 2016; Ko et al., 2014). Overall, oysters performed better under OAW in our study because they were still within their optimal range of physiological performance.

Oysters further showed higher feeding rates under future OAW conditions, regardless of food quality. This likely reflects the fact that, as with all marine ectotherms, the feeding rate of oysters increases with increasing temperature to cope with increased metabolism (Beiras et al., 1995; Kroeker et al., 2014). In a systematic review, Clements and Darrow (2018) reported that the feeding rate of marine organisms may increase in response to OAW but not to OA alone.

Specifically, we found that warm and acidified conditions influenced the composition of membrane fatty acids (FA) in oysters, probably to maintain fluidity of biological membranes. Indeed, the fatty acid unsaturation index, an indicator of membrane fluidity, decreased under OAW conditions, that is consistent with the homeoviscous adaptation theory (Hazel, 1995). This change in unsaturation index mainly reflect two polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), namely eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3) and non-methylene-interrupted FA (22:2NMI). Similarly, other studies conducted on bivalves have shown that warming and acidification reduce unsaturation index and PUFA content of membrane lipids (Caillon et al., in prep; Le Luyer et al., 2022; Lutier et al., 2022; Pernet et al., 2007).

Diet was a major influencing factor on the response of oysters to future OAW by affecting their food intake, growth performance, calcification rate, energy reserves and fatty acid composition. More particularly, food intake decreased with decreasing food quality and this may explain (1) the observed differences in growth performance of oysters among the three tested diets, and (2) the lack of growth increase in future OAW scenario compared to current condition under low-quality diet.

In addition, the three diets presented very different contents of essential fatty acids (EFA) and more particularly of the most abundant, EPA (0.1, 7.0 and 12.5% of total fatty

acids). Dietary levels of EFAs/EPA were clearly reflected membrane lipids of oysters. However, the performance, growth, reproduction and survival of marine organisms depends on essential fatty acids (Delaunay et al., 1993; Flores-Vergara et al., 2004; Norsker and Støttrup, 1994; Vagner et al., 2014; Wacker and von Elert, 2003). It is therefore possible that the dietary differences in EFAs and more particularly in EPA in our study influenced the growth of the oysters. More particularly, the low level of EPA in the low-quality diet could also explain why oyster growth did not increase in the future OAW scenario compared to the current condition.

Future OAW conditions associated with low quality diet may be stressful for oysters. We indeed observed an increase in oxygen consumption in oysters under OAW/low food quality compared to other conditions that could reflect an increase in basal maintenance costs (Sokolova, 2021). Concomitantly, level of dimethyl acetals (DMA) in membrane lipids were also higher. The DMA originate from plasmalogen, a group of antioxidant lipids. Plasmalogens have vinyl-ether bond which is highly susceptible to oxidative damages thus protecting other membrane components from lipid peroxidation (Lesser, 2006; Lessig and Fuchs, 2009). Although speculative, the higher level of DMA in oysters under future OAW fed the low-quality diet may reflect stimulation of the antioxidant response due to the higher respiration rate.

Energy reserves of oysters, evaluated by means of the triacylglycerol to sterol ratio (TAG/ST) and carbohydrate content, were slightly affected by the diet and OAW condition. Compared to other studies on the same species, the energy reserves here were rather low as well as magnitude of the variations (Pernet et al., 2018; Pernet et al., 2019a; Petton et al., 2023). Nevertheless, carbohydrates in oysters in the future OAW condition were lower compared to the ambient condition irrespective of the diet. Reproduction is likely not involved since the maturity level of oysters was similar under future and current OAW conditions. This could more likely reflect an increase in glycogen catabolism linked

167

to the general increase in metabolism and growth, although not significant in oysters exposed to the low-quality diet.

Finally, we found that future OAW conditions and increasing food quality increased the mortality risk of oysters exposed to the Ostreid herpesvirus (OsHV-1). Although this observation may appear paradoxical – oysters fed a lower quality diet survive better – it is necessary to consider here the nature of the pathogen and the importance of the host metabolism in the replication process. Indeed, OsHV-1 is an obligate parasite that depends on the host cellular machinery to proliferate (Delisle et al., 2020; Jouaux et al., 2013). The more active the host metabolism, the stronger the viral replication. This was demonstrated in the Pacific oyster and OsHV-1, where increasing growth due to temperature, food availability or selection of fast-growing animals all increase OsHV-1-induced mortality (Pernet et al., 2019a; Petton et al., 2023). In addition, global change is expected to influence marine infectious diseases by increasing host susceptibility and modifying the proliferation and/or virulence of pathogens (Burge et al., 2014; Ellis et al., 2015; Matozzo et al., 2012). Consequently, even if oyster performance seems improved in future seawater conditions, environmental changes can impair the immune response and thus oyster survival, as well as increased the frequency and intensity of diseases.

V. Conclusion

In this study, we assessed for the first time the role of food quality in the response of a marine calcifier, the Pacific oyster, to ocean warming and acidification. The results are clear: food quality is as important as food availability. However, we know that the quality of food will change under warming, acidification and strengthening of stratification (Galloway and Winder, 2015; Rossoll et al., 2012). Our study also suggests that essential fatty acids could be a major influential factor of acclimation/adaptation to global change. This hypothesis must, however, be supported by dedicated experiments in which EFAs are manipulated without limited confounding effects. Experiments involving the metabolic orientation of microalgae cultures to alter their fatty acid composition (Rojas et al., 2023) or dietary supplements of EFAs in the form of microcapsules, microspheres or emulsion (Coutteau and Sorgeloos, 1997; Nevejan et al., 2003) may be the next step.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Coline Caillon: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Visualization, Writing - original draft. **Elodie Fleury**: Funding acquisition, Supervision, Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Charlotte Corporeau**: Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Philippe Soudant**: Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Fabrice Pernet**: Funding acquisition, Supervision, Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing - original draft.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

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Supplementary information

Fig. S1. Relative percentage of oysters at each gonadal stage as function of acidification and warming scenario, and quality diet. Gonadal development was evaluated over 29 or 30 individuals per condition (n = 9-10 per replicate tank) at the end of 44-day acclimation period. Conditions H, M and L indicate high, medium and low food quality, respectively. Stage 0, inactive/resting phase; stage I, early and late maturation; stage II, mature animal with ripe gonad; stage III, post- spawning phase; stage IV, resorption phase.



Fig. S2. Principal components analysis (PCA) for the composition of membrane fatty acids of Pacific oysters as function of acidification and warming scenario, and food quality. Larger symbols represent the average of the three condition replicates. Abbreviations: OAW, ocean acidification and warming.

Table S1. Amounts of major long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), total PUFA and total FA in microalgae species (fg μ m⁻³).

	Chaetoceros muelleri	Tisochrysis lutea	Dunaliella tertiolecta
16:2n-7	1.57 ± 0.18	_	0.84 ± 0.21
16:3n-4	1.83 ± 0.19	-	-
16:4n-3	-	-	5.28 ± 1.43
18:2n-6	0.04 ± 0.05	3.86 ± 1.78	3.96 ± 1.15
18:3n-6	0.21 ± 0.04	0.30 ± 0.15	1.53 ± 0.47
18:3n-3 (ALA)	-	4.17 ± 0.23	11.62 ± 3.07
18:4n-3	0.18 ± 0.02	6.62 ± 0.64	0.16 ± 0.05
18:5n-3	-	1.40 ± 0.20	-
20:4n-6 (ARA)	0.56 ± 0.02	-	-
20:5n-3 (EPA)	4.32 ± 0.81	0.19 ± 0.02	-
22:5n-6	-	1.01 ± 0.05	-
22:6n-3 (DHA)	0.41 ± 0.06	4.90 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.01
Σ PUFA	9.67 ± 1.43	22.83 ± 2.79	24.74 ± 6.77
ΣFA	22.48 ± 1.56	45.08 ± 5.35	35.53 ± 9.09

Values are means \pm s.d. (n = 2).

	Measured				Estii	mated		
Condition	T (°C)	рН _т	A _T (μmol.kg ⁻¹)	S (ppt)	pCO ₂ (µatm)	DIC (µmol.kg ⁻¹)	$\Omega_{ m A}$	Ω_{C}
Current OAW sc	enario							
High FQ	20.0±0.0	7.88±0.00	2272±2	35.1±0.0	678±30	2103±5	2.02±0.02	3.10±0.04
Medium FQ	20.0±0.0	7.90±0.00	2299±3	35.1±0.0	704±5	2130±3	2.03±0.01	3.12±0.01
Low FQ	20.0±0.0	7.91±0.00	2332±1	35.1±0.0	604±5	2145±1	2.20±0.02	3.39±0.02
Future OAW sce	nario							
High FQ	22.9±0.0	7.61±0.00	2227±6	35.2±0.0	1169±5	2132±4	1.38±0.01	2.11±0.02
Medium FQ	23.0±0.0	7.60±0.00	2257±1	35.2±0.0	1262±30	2173±3	1.31±0.03	2.00±0.05

Table S2. Parameters of the seawater carbonate chemistry during the 2-month experiment, including acclimation period and viral exposure.

Dissolved oxygen saturation ranged between 100.0 and 101.0%, and averaged 100.4 ± 0.1%. Data are represented as means ± s.e.m. (n = 3 tank replicates). Abbreviations: OAW, ocean acidification and warming; FQ, food quality; T, temperature; pH_T, pH on the total scale; A_T, total alkalinity; S, salinity; pCO₂, partial pressure of CO₂; DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon concentration; Ω_{A} , saturation state of aragonite; Ω_{C} , saturation state of calcite.

 35.2 ± 0.0

1266±33

2234±5

1.38±0.04

2.11±0.06

Low FQ

23.0±0.0

7.62±0.01

2324±1

Table S3. Summary of linear mixed-effects models to assess the effects of acidification and warming scenario (current and future) and food quality (high, medium and low) on the macro-physiological traits of Pacific oysters measured during or at the end of the acclimation period. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.

Effects	df	F	р
Ingestion rate			
OAW scenario	1	74.99	<0.001
Food quality	2	293.17	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	5.29	0.023
Residual	12		
Growth rate in length			
OAW scenario	1	93.48	<0.001
Food quality	2	244.83	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	14.72	<0.001
Residual	12		
Growth rate in weight			
OAW scenario	1	325.63	<0.001
Food quality	2	521.80	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	51.60	<0.001
Residual	12		
Net calcification rate			
OAW scenario	1	0.01	0.943
Food quality	2	39.29	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	6.08	0.015
Residual	12		
Shell length			
OAW scenario	1	93.48	<0.001
Food quality	2	244.83	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	14.72	<0.001
Residual	12		
Shell weight			
OAW scenario	1	153.10	<0.001
Food quality	2	383.62	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	19.32	<0.001
Residual	12		
Dry flesh weight			
OAW scenario	1	90.86	<0.001

Food quality	2	372.74	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	20.48	<0.001
Residual	12		
Condition index			
OAW scenario	1	20.55	<0.001
Food quality	2	312.99	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	10.76	0.002
Residual	12		
Respiration rate			
OAW scenario	1	5.89	0.032
Food quality	2	16.95	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	19.32	<0.001
Residual	12		

Table S4. Summary of multinomial logistic regression model to assess the effects of acidification and warming scenario (current and future) and food quality (high, medium and low) on the reproductive development of Pacific oysters measured at the end of acclimation period.

Effects	Likelihood ratio Chisq	df	р
OAW scenario	7.43	4	0.115
Food quality	7.69	8	0.465
OAW scenario x Food quality	11.57	8	0.171

Table S5. Summary of linear mixed-effects models to assess the effects of acidification and warming scenario (current and future) and food quality (high, medium and low) on the energy reserves of Pacific oysters measured during the acclimation period. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.

Effects	df	F	р
TAG:ST ratio			
OAW scenario	1	0.57	0.464
Food quality	2	6.34	0.013
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	4.08	0.045
Residual	12		
Total carbohydrate content			
OAW scenario	1	54.02	<0.001
Food quality	2	5.16	0.021
Residual	14		

Table S6. Composition of polar fatty acids (mass %) in *Crassostrea gigas* oysters according to acidification and warming scenario (current and future) and food quality (high, medium and low).

	Cu	rrent OAW scenai	rio	Future OAW scenario		io
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
14:0	2.5 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.0	2.4 ± 0.0	1.5 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1
16:0	13.6 ± 0.1	13.2 ± 0.6	13.0 ± 0.2	14.7 ± 0.2	15.2 ± 0.3	13.1 ± 0.3
17:0	0.8 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.0	1.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.0
18:0	5.8 ± 0.3	7.5 ± 0.1	8.8 ± 0.2	5.5 ± 0.1	7.3 ± 0.3	8.7 ± 0.1
20:0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.1	0.7 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.0	1.1 ± 0.1
Σ SFA	24.2 ± 0.3	25.0 ± 0.7	26.0 ± 0.5	25.3 ± 0.2	27.1 ± 0.5	26.0 ± 0.6
16:1n-7	2.3 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.0	0.5 ± 0.0	2.2 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.1
18:1n-9	1.1 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.0	1.5 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.0	1.5 ± 0.0	1.6 ± 0.1
18:1n-7	7.5 ± 0.1	5.3 ± 0.1	3.9 ± 0.0	7.3 ± 0.3	5.2 ± 0.1	3.6 ± 0.2
20:1n-11	2.2 ± 0.0	2.5 ± 0.1	2.7 ± 0.1	2.5 ± 0.0	3.0 ± 0.2	3.5 ± 0.0
20:1n-7	4.6 ± 0.1	4.6 ± 0.1	4.5 ± 0.0	4.2 ± 0.1	4.0 ± 0.0	3.9 ± 0.1
Σ MUFA	19.2 ± 0.1	16.4 ± 0.1	15.1 ± 0.0	19.1 ± 0.4	16.3 ± 0.1	15.1 ± 0.3
18:2n-6	1.4 ± 0.0	1.9 ± 0.1	2.2 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 0.1	2.5 ± 0.1	2.3 ± 0.3
18:3n-3 (ALA)	0.8 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.1	4.1 ± 0.3	0.9 ± 0.0	3.3 ± 0.1	3.9 ± 0.4
18:4n-3	1.0 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.0
20:4n-6 (ARA)	5.4 ± 0.0	4.6 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.0	5.5 ± 0.2	4.8 ± 0.2	4.2 ± 0.3
20:5n-3 (EPA)	12.9 ± 0.2	10.7 ± 0.1	9.4 ± 0.1	11.8 ± 0.4	8.8 ± 0.2	7.0 ± 0.5
21:5n-3	0.9 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.1
22:5n-6	2.8 ± 0.1	2.8 ± 0.2	2.5 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.1	3.2 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.1
22:5n-3	0.9 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.0	1.1 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0
22:6n-3 (DHA)	11.1 ± 0.2	11.1 ± 0.1	12.0 ± 0.2	11.3 ± 0.2	10.2 ± 0.2	11.5 ± 0.8
Σ PUFA	67.0 ± 0.4	64.2 ± 0.6	63.9 ± 0.7	66.3 ± 1.1	62.0 ± 0.7	61.0 ± 0.9
18:0DMA	7.6 ± 0.4	9.1 ± 0.4	8.4 ± 0.2	7.3 ± 1.1	9.1 ± 0.5	11.6 ± 0.6
20:1DMA	1.5 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.1
Σ DMA	10.2 ± 0.4	11.9 ± 0.6	11.2 ± 0.2	9.4 ± 1.2	11.3 ± 0.5	14.3 ± 0.7
22:2i,j	5.1 ± 0.1	5.7 ± 0.2	6.0 ± 0.1	4.7 ± 0.0	4.9 ± 0.1	5.3 ± 0.1
Σ ΝΜΙ	5.6 ± 0.1	6.2 ± 0.3	6.6 ± 0.1	5.2 ± 0.0	5.4 ± 0.1	5.8 ± 0.0
UI	225.2 ± 2.1	215.7 ± 1.6	215.8 ± 1.9	224.3 ± 4.0	205.7 ± 2.9	202.1 ± 5.0

Only the FA accounting for >1% of total polar FA in at least one condition are shown. Data are represented as means \pm s.e.m. (n = 3). Abbreviations: OAW, ocean acidification and warming.

Table S7. Summary of permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) to assess theeffects of acidification and warming scenario (current and future) and food quality (high,medium and low) on the composition of membrane fatty acids of Pacific oysters measuredat the end of acclimation period. PERMANOVA was based on Euclidean distance matrix using999 permutations. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.</td>

Effects	df	SS	F	р
OAW scenario	1	28.98	9.68	0.004
Food quality	2	219.94	36.73	0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	21.80	3.64	0.032
Residual	12	35.92		
Total	17	306.64		

Table S8. Summary of linear mixed-effects models to assess the effects of acidification and warming scenario (current and future) and food quality (high, medium and low) on the membrane fatty acids of Pacific oysters measured at the end of acclimation period. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold. Best-fitting model is represented with or without interaction.

Effects	df	F	р
Unsaturation index			
OAW scenario	1	8.58	0.011
Food quality	2	12.87	<0.001
Residual	14		
Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA)			
OAW scenario	1	56.39	<0.001
Food quality	2	96.92	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	2.56	0.119
Residual	12		
Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA)			
OAW scenario	1	1.92	0.188
Food quality	2	4.53	0.030
Residual	14		
Non-methylene-interrupted fatty acid (NMI)			
OAW scenario	1	34.18	<0.001
Food quality	2	16.34	<0.001
Residual	14		
Arachidonic acid (ARA)			
OAW scenario	1	2.97	0.107
Food quality	2	47.70	<0.001
Residual	14		
Dimethyl acetal (DMA)			
OAW scenario	1	0.96	0.346
Food quality	2	9.52	0.003
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	5.35	0.022
Residual	12		
ARA + EPA + DHA			
OAW scenario	1	29.93	<0.001
Food quality	2	67.58	<0.001
OAW scenario x Food quality	2	2.44	0.129
Residual	12		

Table S9. Summary of Cox mixed-effects model to assess the effects of acidification and warming scenario (current and future) and food quality (high, medium and low) on the survival of Pacific oysters measured during viral exposure. The best fitting-model is without interaction. Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are in bold.

Effects	df	χ^2	р
OAW scenario	1	8.58	0.004
Food quality	2	70.37	<0.001
DISCUSSION GÉNÉRALE

I. Principaux résultats et limites expérimentales

Les modifications de la température des océans, des composants du système des carbonates et d'autres facteurs environnementaux induits par le changement global imposent des défis importants pour les écosystèmes marins côtiers (IPCC, 2022). En tant qu'organismes sessiles, les huîtres sont incapables d'échapper à des conditions environnementales stressantes et subissent donc de plein fouet les variations des conditions dans leur environnement. Les huîtres représentent des enjeux écologiques et économiques majeurs, il est donc primordial d'évaluer leur réponse et leur potentiel d'acclimatation aux changements environnementaux. Pour cela, nous nous intéressons à la plasticité phénotypique qui constitue la première ligne de défense des espèces pour persister à court-terme et s'adapter sur le long-terme face au changement global (Fox et al., 2019; Seebacher et al., 2015). Cette thèse vise à améliorer notre connaissance et notre compréhension de la réponse des huîtres au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans (AO), associés à d'autres contraintes environnementales telles que l'émersion périodique, la disponibilité et la qualité de la nourriture, et l'émergence d'une maladie marine. Dans cette section finale, nous dresserons un bilan de ces observations et discuterons des limites de nos approches, avant de conclure sur le devenir potentiel des huîtres et de proposer des futures directions de recherche.

1) Réponse des huîtres au réchauffement et à l'acidification des océans

Le Chapitre 1 visait à étudier la plasticité phénotypique de deux espèces d'huîtres, l'huître creuse *Crassostrea gigas* et l'huître plate *Ostrea edulis*, face à un seul facteur environnemental, l'acidification des océans (AO), par le biais d'une approche par norme de réaction. Alors que les Chapitres 2 et 3 se sont orientés vers une approche par scénario à facteurs multiples où le réchauffement et l'acidification sont combinés et basés sur les prédictions du GIEC. Sur ces deux derniers chapitres, seule la plasticité phénotypique de l'huître creuse *C. gigas* a été étudiée.

Facteur environnemental unique : l'acidification

L'étude du Chapitre 1 révèle des impacts négatifs évidents de l'AO sur les traits macro-physiologiques et biochimiques des deux espèces d'huîtres (Figures 3 et 5 du Chapitre 1). Les deux espèces font preuve d'une plasticité phénotypique importante puisqu'elles sont capables de survivre et de se développer à des pH extrêmement faibles (> 6.6). Néanmoins, la réduction du pH diminue les performances de croissance, augmente le blanchiment de la coquille et induit un remodelage majeur des lipides membranaires pour les deux espèces. Il a été suggéré que la coquille serait la composante clé déterminant la sensibilité des huîtres à l'AO (Gazeau et al., 2013; Lutier et al., 2022), son altération peut donc réduire la fitness et augmenter la vulnérabilité face à la prédation et aux stress physiques (Sanford et al., 2014; Wright et al., 2018). Il est marquant de constater que les résultats observés chez *C. gigas* par Lutier et al. (2022) sont similaires à ceux de notre étude avec les mêmes points de bascule concernant les paramètres liés à la croissance (pH 7.1-7.2) et le remodelage des acides gras membranaires (pH 6.9-7.0). Cela indique que les résultats sont robustes d'une cohorte d'huîtres creuses à l'autre. Les différences de pentes (des normes de réaction) observées entre les deux études sont probablement liées à la hausse de température (19°C vs 21°C pour Lutier et al., 2022) qui pourrait atténuer les effets négatifs de l'AO (Kroeker et al., 2014).

De telles normes de réaction (jusqu'à pH 6.4) peuvent sembler surprenante de prime abord, mais il est observé que le pH diminue régulièrement en dessous de 7.9 lors de fluctuations naturelles en milieu côtier (https://cocorico2.ifremer.fr/en/Donnees

183

projet CocoriCO₂) et parfois même en-dessous de 7.0 dans des conditions d'hypoxie et d'eutrophisation (Melzner et al., 2013; Wallace et al., 2014). L'approche par norme de réaction est un très bon outil pour étudier la vraie sensibilité d'un organisme à une variable environnementale, et aussi pour comparer les réponses de différentes populations ou espèces, comme cela a déjà été fait chez les salmonidés (Hutchings, 2011), les coraux (Comeau et al., 2013a) et les copépodes (Thor et al., 2018). Cependant, les expériences portant sur un seul facteur environnemental, bien qu'elles constituent souvent une première étape nécessaire à l'analyse et à l'interprétation, peuvent conduire à des conclusions trop simplifiées et hâtives sur les impacts réels du changement global (Boyd et al., 2018; Somero et al., 2016). D'autant plus que les autres variables environnementales de l'expérience (température stable, alimentation *ad libitum*, apport continu d'oxygène) sont en général optimales pour les organismes, et ne reflètent donc pas totalement la complexité des systèmes naturelles.

Facteurs environnementaux multiples : la combinaison du réchauffement et de l'AO

L'effet bénéfique de la hausse de température sur l'acidification se confirme dans les Chapitres 2 et 3 (Figure 1). En l'absence d'autres contraintes environnementales, les huîtres présentent un effet positif significatif sur la croissance et la reproduction lorsqu'elles sont exposées à la combinaison du réchauffement et de l'AO. Étant donné les effets négatifs ou neutres avérés d'une diminution de pH à 7.6 sur les huîtres (Chapitre 1; Di Poi et al., 2022; Gazeau et al., 2013; Lutier et al., 2022; Ries et al., 2009), il est très probable que le réchauffement a atténué, voire amélioré, les réponses biologiques des huîtres (Di Poi et al., 2022; Ko et al., 2014; Kroeker et al., 2014). Les huîtres dans cette condition montrent même une croissance supérieure à celles acclimatées dans la condition actuelle (contrôle). Cette observation s'explique par le fait que les conditions expérimentales futures se situent probablement toujours dans la courbe de performance thermique optimale de l'huître creuse (Boyd et al., 2018; Pörtner and Farrell, 2008). Une hausse de température va ainsi augmenter les taux métaboliques chez les organismes ectothermiques, tels que les huîtres, jusqu'à la limite de leur fenêtre thermique optimale (Hochachka and Somero, 2002). L'huître creuse fait donc preuve d'une remarquable capacité d'acclimatation aux conditions prévues pour la fin du siècle, réfutant l'hypothèse selon laquelle les huîtres seraient sensibles au changement global.

Espèce	Condition	Paramètre	Effet
Chapitre 1	**	Croissance (des deux espèces)	-
	рН рН 7.7 à 6.4 (19°С)	Reproduction	?
Chapitre 2	** ()	Croissance	+
	рн 🕑 рН 7.6 23°С	Reproduction	+
Chapitre 3	** ()	Croissance	+
and the second s	рн 🔍 рН 7.6 23°С	Reproduction	Ø

Figure 1. Figure bilan des effets du réchauffement et de l'acidification sur la croissance et la reproduction des huîtres des expérimentations de la thèse. Ces observations ne considèrent pas d'autres contraintes environnementales. Les effets positifs, neutres ou négatifs sont indiqués par rapport à la condition de référence (conditions ambiantes).

Outre ces résultats intéressants sur l'effet compensatoire de la température dans le contexte du changement global, la limite principale de notre approche par scénario réside dans le fait d'étudier les réponses des organismes dans des conditions expérimentales constantes. En effet, dans le milieu naturel, les variables environnementales fluctuent sur plusieurs échelles de temps, allant des heures aux mois. Une exposition constante ne restitue donc pas les périodes de répit qui sont importantes pour les organismes, ce qui favorise l'observation d'une synergie entre les facteurs et des résultats les plus négatifs (Gunderson et al., 2016). Dans notre cas, nous n'avons pas obtenus d'effets négatifs en tant que tels, mais il n'en reste pas moins que des conditions statiques manquent de réalisme écologique (Boyd et al., 2018; Gunderson et al., 2016). Ce choix expérimental s'est fait en raison du stockage extérieur d'eau de mer (vivier), d'où provenait l'eau des conditions expérimentales, qui n'est pas représentatif du milieu naturel à cause de blooms phytoplanctoniques et de l'apport d'eau douce. Il était donc difficile d'appliquer un *offset* réaliste sur une longue période.

Rôle des lipides membranaires dans la réponse au réchauffement et à l'acidification

Les trois études de la thèse montrent un remodelage important des lipides membranaires en réponse à l'acidification seule et aussi à la combinaison du réchauffement et de l'AO, ce qui est cohérent avec la théorie de l'adaptation homéovisqueuse (Hazel, 1995).

Nos résultats indiquent que les effets combinés du réchauffement et de l'AO sur l'huître creuse *C. gigas* (Chapitres 2 et 3) diminuent l'indice d'insaturation des acides gras (AG) membranaires, un indicateur de la fluidité des membranes biologiques, via la diminution de AG poly-insaturés (AGPI) : 20:5n-3 (acide eicosapentaénoïque), 22:6n-3 (acide docosahexaénoïque) et 22:2NMI (AG non méthylène interrompues). En effet, la réduction de la fluidité membranaire lors de l'augmentation des températures permet d'abaisser le point de fusion de la membrane et donc de préserver l'intégrité des cellules. Nos observations confirment ainsi les résultats d'études antérieures obtenus sur des bivalves exposés à des températures élevées, montrant une diminution des AGPI avec l'augmentation des températures (Fokina et al., 2015; Le Luyer et al., 2022; Pernet et al., 2007). De plus, la composition des acides gras membranaire est liée à l'activité des transporteurs transmembranaires d'ions et de solutés, et aux taux métaboliques globaux (Hazel and Williams, 1990; Hulbert et al., 2007), ce qui pourrait contribuer au maintien de l'homéostasie chez les huîtres face à des conditions stressantes. Nos études corroborent que le remodelage des lipides membranaires est un mécanisme commun de l'acclimatation thermique chez les ectothermes marins.

Dans le cas de l'acidification seule (Chapitre 1), l'huître creuse *C. gigas* et l'huître plate *O. edulis* présentent un remodelage majeur des lipides membranaires à pH 7.0 et pH 7.5, respectivement. Très peu d'études se sont intéressées à la composition des acides gras face à l'AO chez les bivalves (Alma et al., 2020; Lutier et al., 2022; Timmins-Schiffman et al., 2014), et seuls Lutier et al. (2022) ont identifié ce modèle de réaction avec un point de bascule similaire (pH 6.9) chez l'huître creuse. Dans notre étude, le remodelage des lipides implique une diminution de 22:6n-3 au bénéfice de NMI chez *C. gigas* et de plasmalogènes chez O. edulis, en réponse à la diminution du pH. Leurs fonctions précises ne sont pas encore bien connues mais il est suggéré dans la littérature qu'ils peuvent protéger les membranes cellulaires du stress oxydatif tout en maintenant la fluidité membranaire (Barnathan, 2009; Kraffe et al., 2004; Leray et al., 2002; Munro and Blier, 2012). Ces résultats sont très prometteurs, même si le rôle du remodelage des acides gras membranaires dans la réponse à l'AO reste largement à déterminer. Il est intéressant de noter que le remodelage des lipides membranaires chez C. gigas et O. edulis n'implique pas les mêmes lipides (NMI vs plasmalogènes), mais tend pourtant vers les mêmes fonctions : protéger les membranes cellulaires d'un stress oxydatif, tout en maintenant la fluidité membranaire. Ce mécanisme de tolérance pourrait être répandu chez les organismes calcifiants.

Par conséquent, le remodelage et la fluidité des membranaire, autrement dit la plasticité membranaire, peuvent jouer un rôle essentiel dans le processus d'acclimatation des organismes marins au changement global.

187

3) L'influence du milieu intertidal et subtidal : réponses inter- et intraspécifique au changement climatique global

Les niches écologiques respectives de l'huître creuse intertidale *C. gigas* et de l'huître plate subtidale *O. edulis* peuvent conditionner leurs stratégies d'acclimatation à l'AO (Chapitre 1). Plus précisément, O. edulis montre un point critique à pH 6.6 associé à une augmentation drastique de la mortalité, tandis que *C. gigas*, bien qu'elle partage le même point critique (pH 6.6), ne montre pas de mortalité. Le point critique d'une espèce correspondant vraisemblablement à ses phénotypes les plus extrêmes, et représente donc potentiellement la limite de la plasticité adaptative de l'espèce. Les résultats obtenus au cours de cette étude indiquent aussi que le remodelage des lipides ne se produit pas à la même valeur de pH entre les deux espèces (indiqué dans la section précédente). En effet, *O. edulis* modifie ses lipides membranaires à pH plus élevé (pH 7.5) que *C. gigas* (pH 7.0). Cela semble confirmer que les organismes intertidaux développent des mécanismes physiologiques et biochimiques avantageux pour peupler les habitats intertidaux très fluctuants (Melzner et al., 2009), leur permettant ainsi de résister à des pH plus extrêmes. Nos observations corroborent les résultats de précédentes études qui suggèrent que les espèces intertidales, ou de conditions fluctuantes, peuvent avoir une meilleure capacité d'acclimatation au changement climatique global que les espèces subtidales, ou de conditions plus stables (Frieder et al., 2014; Leung et al., 2017; Pansch et al., 2014; Scanes et al., 2017; Vargas et al., 2017, 2022). La limite de cette étude est que nous avons travaillé sur une seule cohorte de chaque espèce, ainsi il faudrait comparer plusieurs lignées pour statuer et comparer pleinement les réponses entre *C. gigas* et *O. edulis*. D'autant plus qu'O. *edulis* est reconnue de base comme une espèce plus fragile aux conditions zootechniques (communications personnelles : écloserie de Porscave et projet Océanolab -MicroCO₂sme).

Compte tenu de ces résultats différents entre espèces subtidales et intertidales, il nous a semblé intéressant de regarder les effets d'un traitement subtidal (immersion constante) ou intertidal (30% d'exondation par jour) pour une seule et même espèce (Chapitre 2). L'huître creuse *C. gigas* est un modèle d'étude idéal car cette espèce est retrouvée principalement en zone intertidale avec des périodes d'exondation plus ou moins longues, mais aussi parfois en zone subtidale (Tully and Clarke, 2012; Walles et al., 2016). Cela est d'autant plus intéressant que les études expérimentales qui ont étudié jusqu'alors les réponses de C. gigas au changement climatique global, étaient seulement réalisées en conditions d'immersion constante, ce qui n'est pas représentatif de sa niche écologique. Lors de l'exondation, le CO₂ induit par le métabolisme s'accumule dans l'animal, provoquant une hypercapnie et une acidose du liquide extracellulaire (Burnett, 1988; Truchot, 1990), qui sont d'ailleurs très similaires aux changements acido-basiques subis par les bivalves lors de l'exposition à l'AO (Gazeau et al., 2013; Parker et al., 2013). À ce jour, seulement deux études se sont intéressées aux réponses d'huîtres (Saccostrea glomerata) exondées à l'AO (Parker et al., 2021; Scanes et al., 2017). Scanes et al. (2017) suggèrent que les huîtres de la zone intertidale haute atteindront rapidement leurs limites physiologiques et seront les plus vulnérables à l'AO. Il est aussi intéressant de souligner que les larves issues de parents conditionnés dans un habitat intertidal montrent une plus grande tolérance au CO₂ élevé que les larves issues de parents conditionnés dans un habitat subtidal (Parker et al., 2021).

Les résultats de l'étude du Chapitre 2 suggèrent que des mécanismes de compensation physiologique se mettent en place chez les huîtres exposées au traitement intertidal, en particulier pour l'acquisition de nourriture. En effet, les huîtres creuses intertidales ont moins longtemps accès à la nourriture et pourtant elles présentent les mêmes taux de croissance que leurs congénères subtidaux. De plus, l'intégrité de la coquille de l'huître semble être impactée par l'interaction traitement intertidal/conditions futurs, puisque que le poids de la coquille est le seul paramètre significativement différent, et non la longueur (Figure 2 du Chapitre 2). Cela pourrait s'expliquer par une exacerbation de la dissolution interne de la coquille pendant l'exondation, en raison d'une acidose interne associée aux conditions réchauffées et acidifiées (Burnett, 1988; Scanes et al., 2017; Truchot, 1990). La coquille ainsi fragilisée, en termes d'épaisseur ou de porosité, peut réduire la fitness de l'animal et augmenter le succès de la prédation (Sanford et al., 2014; Wright et al., 2018), suggérant que les huîtres intertidales peuvent être plus vulnérables dans le future. Cependant, pour aller plus loin dans ces hypothèses, il faudrait compléter les analyses par les caractéristiques structurelles et mécaniques des coquilles, afin de mieux comprendre les relations entre l'exondation et les futures conditions d'eau de mer. Nous encourageons les futures études expérimentales à continuer d'étudier les effets du changement climatique associés à l'émersion périodique si les organismes d'étude sont intertidaux.

4) L'influence de la disponibilité et de la qualité de la nourriture dans la réponse au réchauffement et à l'acidification

La disponibilité (Chapitre 2) et la qualité (Chapitre 3) de la nourriture interagissent avec les effets du réchauffement et de l'AO, et façonnent les réponses biologiques des huîtres. Il a déjà été démontré que les effets négatifs de l'AO peuvent être atténués par des ressources alimentaires optimales (Melzner et al., 2011; Thomsen et al., 2013), mais nous obtenons ici des résultats nouveaux en raison de la combinaison de deux facteurs environnementaux. Il est important d'indiquer que nous avons obtenu des réponses biologiques très similaires entre les deux études vis-à-vis des effets de la quantité et de la qualité de phytoplancton. Plus précisément, le scénario futur augmente les taux métaboliques de l'huître creuse. Lorsque la nourriture est abondante et de bonne qualité, cela permet de fournir une énergie suffisante à l'organisme pour répondre aux besoins de ce métabolisme accéléré en termes de croissance et d'activités métaboliques. A l'inverse, lorsque la nourriture est restreinte et de moins bonne qualité, elle devient limitante et bride l'expression des effets positifs du réchauffement et de l'acidification. Il est intéressant de noter que des niveaux plus élevés de pCO₂ peuvent booster la productivité primaire des algues marines non-calcifiantes en augmentant ainsi la disponibilité de nourriture (Johnson et al., 2013; Kroeker et al., 2010), mais peuvent également altérer la qualité de la nourriture (Rossoll et al., 2012). Le réchauffement global réduit lui la productivité primaire par l'intensification de la stratification verticale dans la colonne d'eau (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Polovina et al., 2008). En parallèle, les changements environnementaux augmentent les besoins énergétiques des organismes (Sokolova, 2021), ce qui créé une interaction complexe entre la susceptibilité physiologique des organismes et la disponibilité/qualité des ressources (Gaylord et al., 2015). Chez les organismes marins, l'état énergétique, lié à la source de nourriture, est un facteur crucial dans le maintien des processus biologiques face aux changements environnementaux (Lee et al., 2018; Sokolova, 2013).

Nous ne savons pas clairement ce qu'implique l'existence d'une interaction entre les conditions environnementales futures et la disponibilité ou la qualité de nourriture. Il est néanmoins probable que cette interaction diffère selon les espèces et les habitats. Plus globalement, ces résultats suggèrent que les études précédentes, qui utilisent généralement une alimentation *ad libitum* lors des expérimentations, pourraient avoir sous-estimé les effets du réchauffement et/ou de l'acidification. Nous soulignons ici la nécessité d'introduire des niveaux de nourriture (ici, phytoplancton) différents et réalistes dans les futurs efforts de recherche.

Nos approches expérimentales sur la disponibilité et la qualité de la nourriture présentent deux limites majeures qu'il convient de discuter. Premièrement, les quantités de microalgues (Tableau 1) ont été choisies en fonction des précédentes expériences

191

menées à la station expérimentale d'Argenton (Fuhrmann et al., 2019; Pernet et al., 2019a; Petton et al., 2015; Rico-Villa et al., 2009), mais ne correspondent pas forcément aux quantités appliquées dans d'autres études, ce qui complique la comparaison des résultats. La solution idéale serait de s'appuyer sur des concentrations in situ de microalgues ou de chlorophylle *a*, en tenant compte des périodes de blooms phytoplanctoniques et des périodes oligotrophes, pour que l'apport en microalgues soit représentatif des systèmes naturels. Deuxièmement, nous avons utilisé trois espèces de microalgues dans le Chapitre 3 (Tableau 1) pour créer trois régimes alimentaires de qualités différentes, plus ou moins riches en AG essentiels. Cependant, nous n'avons pas étudié la préférence et la sélection des huîtres vis-à-vis des espèces de microalgues, ce qui donne lieu à des effets confondants potentiels. Pour étudier les effets de régimes différents en oméga-3, l'idéal serait de conserver les mêmes espèces entre les régimes, mais (1) d'induire une orientation métabolique des microalgues par des conditions nutritionnelles différentes au cours de leur culture (Rojas et al., 2023), ou (2) d'intégrer des emulsions ou microsphères de lipides pour ajouter des AG essentiels (Coutteau and Sorgeloos, 1997; Nevejan et al., 2003).

Tableau 1. Récapitulatif des quantités et des espèces de microalgues appliquées à chaqueétude expérimentale.

Quantité appliquée	Espèces	Chapitre concernée
1500 μm³ μl-1	C. muelleri & T. lutea (1)	18.2
élevée, ad libitum	S. costatum (2)	102
500 μm³ μl-1	S. costatum	2
faible, restreinte		
800 μm³ μl-1	C. muelleri, T. lutea & D. tertiolecta	3
intermédiaire, assure maintenance de l'organisme		

5) L'influence des scénarios d'exposition sur le risque de mortalité des huîtres lors d'un challenge pathogène

Dans les Chapitres 2 & 3, nous avons étudié de la même façon le risque de mortalité de l'huître lorsque qu'elle rencontre des pathogènes de type Ostreid herpesvirus (OsHV-1) dans son milieu, après la période d'acclimatation aux différents scénarios d'exposition. La période d'acclimatation était de 81 jours d'acclimatation pour l'expérience du Chapitre 2, et de 44 jours pour celle du Chapitre 3, mais dans les deux études il y a eu les mêmes 19 jours d'exposition virale, avec le début des mortalités des huîtres receveuses au 5^{ème} jour. Cependant, la mortalité finale suite à l'infection était très faible dans le Chapitre 2, allant de 1 à 22%, par rapport aux précédentes expériences (Dugeny et al., 2022; Pernet et al., 2019a; Petton et al., 2015), ce qui limite probablement l'expression des effets des facteurs, à savoir le régime tidal et le scénario de réchauffement et d'AO. Cette faible infection peut s'expliquer par l'altération de la suspension virale qui pourrait avoir été altérée lors de son transport depuis l'Ifremer de La Tremblade, via par exemple un mauvais conditionnement thermique impactant l'infectiosité des particules virales. Cette hypothèse est confirmée par la faible mortalité des huîtres donneuses, pourtant directement injectées avec la suspension virale (données non présentées). En plus, dans les deux études (Chapitres 2 & 3), le taux de renouvellement important de l'eau de mer i.e., 500 ml min⁻¹ – peut avoir jouer sur l'infection en évacuant trop rapidement les particules virales (Petton et al., 2015), ce qui ne permet pas d'atteindre plus de 40 % de mortalité dans nos deux Chapitres.

Malgré une mortalité potentiellement faible dans la première étude, il convient de discuter des résultats de survie aux pathogènes entre les deux études, qui semblent contradictoires. Dans le Chapitre 2, la mortalité est plus importante chez les huîtres receveuses plus petites (croissance faible), nourries pendant 81 jours avec une faible

quantité de phytoplancton. Alors que dans le Chapitre 3, la mortalité est plus importante chez les huîtres receveuses de grande taille (croissance élevée), nourries avec une qualité élevée de phytoplancton. Dans la littérature, la susceptibilité de l'huître creuse à OsHV-1 est surtout déterminé par les réserves énergétiques et le taux de croissance des animaux (Pernet et al., 2014; Pernet et al., 2019a; Petton et al., 2023). Il existe un paradoxe : (1) un apport en nourriture conséquent peut améliorer la condition physiologique de l'organisme et baisser le risque de maladie, mais (2) la croissance élevée par la nourriture et la température peut favoriser la réplication du pathogène qui dépend de la machinerie cellulaire de l'hôte, augmentant le risque de maladie (Petton et al., 2023). De manière alternative, la restriction alimentaire peut limiter l'agent pathogène en ralentissant la croissance et le métabolisme de l'hôte dont dépend la prolifération du pathogène (Civitello et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2005). Une autre explication non exclusive est que le jeun ou la restriction alimentaire peuvent induire l'autophagie, une voie de dégradation cellulaire, qui peut constituer un mécanisme de défense immunitaire en réduisant la charge virale intracellulaire (Desai et al., 2015; Moreau et al., 2015). L'observation d'une augmentation significative de la mortalité chez des huîtres à faible croissance et nourries faiblement (Chapitre 2) est donc très surprenante par rapport aux études précédentes (Pernet et al., 2019a; Petton et al., 2023). Cependant, les huîtres de ces études ont été acclimatées pendant 14 ou 28 jours aux conditions expérimentales, contre 81 jours d'exposition dans notre étude, il est donc très probable que l'état physiologique des petites huîtres (Chapitre 2) aient été sévèrement affecté par cette longue période de restriction nutritive, avec un épuisement global des réserves énergétiques (Figure 5 du Chapitre 2). Il est évident que la disponibilité et la qualité de nourriture influencent les taux métaboliques des huîtres, ainsi que la mise en réserves de l'énergie, ces facteurs sont donc essentiels dans la réponse de l'huitre pour combattre les pathogènes du milieu environnant. Mais à la fin, l'issue de la maladie, c'est-à-dire la survie ou la mort de l'hôte, dépendra de l'utilisation optimale des réserves énergétiques par l'hôte ou par l'agent pathogène.

Seule l'étude du Chapitre 3 a montré une diminution significative de la survie aux pathogènes lorsque les huîtres sont maintenues dans les conditions réchauffées et acidifiées. Cette absence de résultats similaires (non significatifs) dans le Chapitre 2 s'explique probablement par la faible mortalité globale. Il est reconnu que toute adaptation métabolique aux facteurs de stress liés au réchauffement et/ou à l'acidification pourrait entraîner un transfert de ressources énergétiques vers d'autres fonctions physiologiques, aux dépens des défenses immunitaires coûteuses (Lochmiller and Deerenberg, 2000; Sokolova, 2021). En effet, des études ont montré que l'AO et le réchauffement impactaient négativement les défenses immunitaires en affectant la fonctionnalité des hémocytes et la phagocytose (Bibby et al., 2008; Matozzo et al., 2012). Deux études ont mesuré l'effet du réchauffement et/ou de l'acidification sur le taux de survie d'un bivalve à un agent pathogène, notamment l'infection de la moule Mytilus edulis par la bactérie Vibrio tubiashii, et de l'huître C. gigas avec OsHV-1 comme nos études (Ellis et al., 2015; Fuhrmann et al., 2019). Dans ces deux études, la survie des bivalves aux pathogènes était diminuée avec l'acidification seule, et la combinaison du réchauffement et de l'acidification, ce qui est cohérent avec les observations des effets des changements environnementaux sur les réponses cellulaires immunitaires.

Nous n'avons pas obtenu de résultats significatifs concernant l'effet du régime tidal dans le Chapitre 2. Néanmoins, il est démontré dans la littérature que la marée périodique pourrait bien protéger les huîtres en présence de pathogènes via l'exondation où les huîtres sont moins longtemps en contact avec les pathogènes et des mécanismes adaptatifs au milieu intertidal, tels qu'une stimulation du métabolisme, de l'inflammation et de l'immunité innée (Corporeau et al., 2022; Oliver et al., 2019; Pernet et al., 2019b).

195

Pour mieux comprendre les mécanismes qui se mettent en place à la fin de la période d'acclimatation en fonction des scenarios d'exposition, il aurait été intéressant et révélateur d'associer les taux de survie aux pathogènes avec les réponses immunitaires impliquées, via des analyses de gènes ciblés en transcriptomique et des mesures sur les hémocytes en cytométrie en flux (Delisle et al., 2020; Picot et al., 2022).

II. Conclusion : Le devenir des huîtres dans un océan en évolution rapide

Nos observations supportent la nécessité d'étudier une gamme de traits phénotypiques à différentes échelles de l'organisme afin d'avoir un aperçu global de l'état physiologique de l'espèce et de sa capacité d'acclimatation aux futures changements environnementaux. Les nouveaux facteurs étudiés (nutrition et période d'émersion), dans un contexte de changement global, peuvent moduler la sensibilité des espèces et complexifier les prévisions concernant le devenir des espèces. En effet, il ne faut pas oublier que les surprises écologiques sont plutôt une règle qu'une exception (Orr et al., 2020).

L'huître creuse et l'huître plate semblent être tolérantes aux conditions futures prédits par le GIEC, particulièrement l'huître creuse en raison de son mode vie intertidal. Néanmoins, cet effet positif apparent sur quelques mois au réchauffement et à l'acidification, pourrait s'inverser à long-terme. Bien que les huîtres puissent être très plastiques, le réchauffement et l'AO devraient augmenter le métabolisme et les besoins nutritionnels des organismes, mais en même temps, ils peuvent aussi entraîner une diminution de la production primaire (Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Sokolova, 2021). Par conséquent, cela pourrait être difficile d'ajuster l'apport nutritionnel aux besoins des organismes, entraînant des déséquilibres trophiques (*trophic mismatches*) ce qui peut menacer les populations de bivalves. De même, la descendance pourrait pâtir de l'exposition des parents au réchauffement et à l'AO, avec des réponses transgénérationnelles bénéfiques limitées pour les œufs et les larves d'huîtres (Gibbs et al., 2021). D'un point de vue anthropocentré, la qualité nutritionnelle des bivalves sera réduite dans le futur, avec une diminution de l'apport des acides gras omega-3 essentiels dans la consommation et la santé humaine (Colombo et al., 2020).

Enfin, ce travail de thèse fournit une meilleure compréhension de la réponse des huîtres aux changements environnementaux, tout en soulignant la nécessité de poursuivre l'effort de recherche en approfondissant notre connaissance des mécanismes sous-jacents et des interactions complexes entre les facteurs environnementaux. Les directions futures de recherche devraient tenir compte de ces limites et viser à rendre les expériences plus représentatives des systèmes naturels pour mieux anticiper l'impact du changement climatique global sur les écosystèmes marins côtiers et la filière conchylicole.

III. Perspectives

D'un point de vue méthodologique, la détermination de norme de réaction sur une variable environnementale peut permettre d'adapter le choix des approches basées sur les scénarios du GIEC. En effet, la norme de réaction apporte une première étape dans l'identification de la vraie sensibilité et du seuil de tolérance d'une espèce. A partir de cette base simple, il est possible de sélectionner des niveaux clés sur le gradient environnemental (par exemple, optimum, seuil de tolérance, point critique), selon la question d'intérêt. Ces conditions peuvent ensuite lancer des plans expérimentaux plus ambitieux et complexes, avec plusieurs autres variables environnementales, basés sur les

197

prédictions du GIEC. Ensemble, ces approches ont le potentiel de fournir la compréhension mécanistique nécessaire ainsi que la puissance prédictive pour évaluer les effets des changements environnementaux et la vulnérabilité des espèces et écosystèmes.

Le manque d'études expérimentales au niveau de l'écosystème et/ou à plus long terme (mois à années) est une lacune importante dans la connaissance scientifique car ces échelles spatiales et temporelles sont pertinentes pour projeter les effets du changement global (Riebesell and Gattuso, 2015). La solution est la réalisation d'expériences en mésocosme qui permettent d'incorporer les assemblages naturels, et ainsi de prédire les effets du changement global à l'échelle de l'écosystème et de la chaine trophique (Boyd et al., 2018). Même si ces expériences nécessitent des ressources considérables et limitent une grande réplication, elles sont plus écologiquement réalistes et représentent un intérêt majeur pour les scientifiques, les gestionnaires écosystémiques et les décideurs politiques dans les stratégies d'adaptation et de mitigation (Boyd et al., 2018; Riebesell and Gattuso, 2015). Par exemple, le projet Océanolab - MicroCO₂sme (https://www-iuem.univ-brest.fr/lemar/projets-scientifiques/microco2sme/) évalue le devenir d'un récif d'huîtres plates et de sa communauté associée face aux changements environnementaux (réchauffement et acidification) et à la pollution plastique, pendant une année. De même, les études à long terme, parfois menées sur plusieurs générations, pourraient montrer des réponses biologiques contrastées par rapport aux réponses d'une exposition à court terme, en raison des effets transgénérationnels et des interactions biotiques au sein de l'écosystème.

Il est évident que la réalisation d'expériences en laboratoire doit s'appuyer sur des données *in situ* afin d'être le plus représentatif possible des systèmes naturels, en termes de fluctuations de la température, du pH, de la nourriture, de la marée, etc. Ces informations doivent être spécifique à la région et/ou à l'espèce d'intérêt. Néanmoins,

198

dans cette optique, il est aussi nécessaire d'établir de longues séries temporelles sur les conditions physico-chimiques du milieu (données environnementales haute fréquence). Un exemple est le projet CocoriCO₂ dont l'objectif principal est d'anticiper les effets de changements environnementaux (acidification et réchauffement de l'eau) sur la conchyliculture en évaluant les capacités d'adaptation et la vulnérabilité des espèces en élevage (https://www.obs-vlfr.fr/~gazeau/CocoriCO2/CRCM/CocoriCO2_CRCM.html). Dans cette expérience, des huîtres et des moules sont maintenues dans des conditions de pH et de température attendues pour 2050, 2075 et 2100, en réalisant un *offset* (+1 à +3 °C et -0.1 à -0.3 unité de pH) par rapport aux conditions ambiantes témoins (Figure 2). De plus, la nourriture apportée aux bivalves est directement celle du milieu naturel ambiant, donc une alimentation réaliste qui ne constitue pas un biais expérimental. Ce type d'approche expérimentale est très informative auprès des entreprises aquacoles qui peuvent plus facilement se projeter sur la performance et la qualité des bivalves attendues en fonction des saisons et des années clés en situation d'élevage.



Figure 2. Fluctuations expérimentales des conditions de pH et de température en fonction des traitements ambiant témoin, 2050, 2075 et 2100, dans le projet CocoriCO₂. Figure de Fabrice Pernet.

BILAN DE LA THÈSE

Publications (3)

Caillon C, Pernet F, Lutier M, Di Poi C. (2023). Differential reaction norms to ocean acidification in two oyster species from contrasting habitats. *Journal of Experimental Biology*. https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.246432

En préparation

Caillon C, Fleury E, Di Poi C, Gazeau F, Pernet F. (in prep.). Food availability, but not emersion, influences the combined effects of ocean acidification and warming on oyster physiological performance. For submission to *Science of the Total Environment*.

Caillon C, Fleury E, Corporeau C, Soudant P, Pernet F. (in prep.). Food quality influences the phenotypic responses of oysters to ocean acidification and warming by altering metabolism: What role for omega-3 fatty acids? For submission to *Global Change Biology*.

Présentations à des conférences internationales (3)

Présentations orales

Caillon C, Fleury E, Diagne M, Le Roy V, Quéré C, Quilien V, Corporeau C, Pernet F. Physiological responses of the Pacific oyster Crassostrea gigas to climate change and omega-3 fatty acid shortage. **Society for Experimental Biology (SEB) Centenary Conference**. Edinburgh, UK. Juillet 2023.

Caillon C, Fleury E, Diagne M, Dubreuil C, Le Roy V, Quéré C, Quilien V, Di Poi C, Pernet F. Physiological responses of the oyster Crassostrea gigas to climate change as a function of diet and tidal regime. **5th International Symposium on the Ocean in a High CO2 World**. Lima, Peru. Septembre 2022.

Présentations poster

Caillon C, Fleury E, Corporeau C, Pernet F. Physiological response of the oyster Crassostrea gigas to climate change as a function of food supply and tidal regime. **Society for Experimental Biology (SEB) Annual Conference**. Montpellier, France. Juillet 2022.

Enseignements

64 heures de TP/TD de la Licence 1 à la Licence 3 à l'UBO durant l'année universitaire 2021/2022 dans les unités d'enseignement suivantes :

- Introduction à la biodiversité
- Biologie Animale
- Ecologie Générale

Sciences et Sociétés

• Fête de la Science, Octobre 2022, Brest

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Titre : Plasticité phénotypique des huîtres face à l'acidification et au réchauffement des océans sous différentes contraintes environnementales

Mots clés : Aquaculture, Changement global, Mollusques, Multi-stress, Norme de réaction, Physiologie

Résumé : Le changement global expose les populations de bivalves des écosystèmes côtiers à une combinaison de différents facteurs de stress (par exemple, le réchauffement, l'acidification des océans, les changements nutritionnels du phytoplancton, les épidémies marines), menaçant la durabilité de leurs services écosystémiques et de la conchyliculture. L'objectif de cette thèse est d'apporter de nouveaux éléments de compréhension dans la réponse et la capacité plastique des bivalves aux changements environnementaux, en adoptant une approche multi-méthodes via la norme de réaction et l'exposition multi-stress. Dans nos expériences en laboratoire, nous nous sommes concentrés sur deux espèces tempérées différentes: l'huître creuse du Pacifique Crassostrea gigas intertidale et l'huître plate européenne Ostrea edulis subtidal. Nous avons étudié les réponses physiologiques, des traits macro-physiologiques aux traits biochimiques, ce qui est important pour comprendre les compromis physiologiques se

mettant place face aux en stress environnementaux. Cette recherche souligne la remarquable plasticité phénotypique et le potentiel d'acclimatation des bivalves au réchauffement et à l'acidification Néanmoins, des océans. la disponibilité et la qualité du phytoplancton modulent significative de manière les réponses phénotypiques des huîtres au réchauffement et à l'acidification, complexifiant les prévisions. De plus, ces facteurs nutritionnels influencent aussi la survie des huîtres face aux agents pathogènes viraux. D'un point de vue écosystémique, cette résilience apparente aux changements environnementaux pourrait être renversée à plus long-terme à cause de potentiels déséguilibres trophiques. En résumé, ce travail offre des indications précieuses pour la réalisation d'expériences sur le changement global pouvant être extrapolées aux systèmes naturels, et améliore notre compréhension du devenir des populations d'huîtres dans un océan en évolution rapide.

Title : Phenotypic plasticity of oysters to ocean acidification and warming under different environmental conditions

Keywords : Aquaculture, Global change, Mollusks, Multi-stress, Reaction norm, Physiology

Abstract : Global change exposes bivalve populations in coastal ecosystems to a combination of different stressors (e.g., warming, ocean acidification, nutritional changes in phytoplankton, marine outbreaks), threatening the sustainability of ecosystem services and the shellfish their aquaculture. The aim of this thesis is to provide new insights into the response and plastic capacity of bivalves to environmental changes by adopting a multi-method approach via reaction norm and multistress exposure. In our experiments, we focused on two different temperate species: the intertidal Pacific oyster Crassostrea gigas and the subtidal European flat oyster Ostrea edulis. We investigated the physiological responses, from macro-physiological to biochemical traits, which is important for understanding the physiological trade-offs that occur against environmental stressors. This research

underscores the remarkable phenotypic plasticity and acclimation potential in bivalves to ocean acidification and warming. Nevertheless, the availability and quality of phytoplankton diet significantly modulate the phenotypic responses of oysters to warming and acidification, making predictions more complex. In addition, these nutritional factors also influence oyster survival in the presence of viral pathogens. From an ecosystem point of view, this apparent resilience to environmental changes could be reversed in the longer term due to potential trophic mismatches. In summary, this work offers valuable insights for designing global change experiments that can be extrapolated to natural systems, and improves our understanding of the fate of oyster populations in a rapidly changing ocean.