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1 **A single regulatory gene is sufficient to alter *Vibrio aestuarianus* pathogenicity in**
2 **oysters**

4 **Running Title :** Comparative genomics of *Vibrio aestuarianus*

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34 **ABSTRACT**

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36 Oyster diseases caused by pathogenic vibrios pose a major challenge to the sustainability of
37 both commercial and natural oyster stocks. Problematically, vibrios form a very diverse group
38 of microorganisms with virulence not necessarily assigned to any specific lineages within it.
39 Furthermore, the required factors for virulence in vibrios pathogenic to oysters is still poorly
40 understood. Since 2012, a disease affecting specifically adult oysters has been associated with
41 the presence of *Vibrio aestuarianus* suggesting the possible (re) emergence of this organism
42 as a pathogen. Here, by combining genome comparison, phylogenetic analysis and high
43 throughput infection, we show that virulent strains are grouped into two *V. aestuarianus*
44 lineages independent of the sampling date. The bacterial lethal dose was not different between
45 strains isolated before or during the recent outbreaks. Hence the emergence of a new virulent
46 clonal strain is unlikely. Each lineage comprises nearly identical strains and the majority of
47 the strains are virulent. This suggests that within these phylogenetically coherent virulent
48 lineages a few strains lost their pathogenicity. Comparative genomics allowed for the
49 identification of a single frameshift in a non-virulent strain. The mutation affects the *varS*
50 gene that codes for a signal transduction histidine-protein kinase. Genetic analyses confirmed
51 that *varS* is necessary for infection of oysters and for a secreted metalloprotease expression.
52 Hence our results for the first time in a *Vibrio* species show that VarS is a key factor of
53 pathogenicity.

54

55 **IMPORTANCE**

56

57 Vibrios have been associated with successive mortality outbreaks of oyster beds (*Crassostrea*
58 *gigas*) in France that have resulted in losses up to 100% of production. Given the actual quasi
59 monoculture of *C. gigas*, there is an urgent need to understand the epidemiology of these
60 outbreaks. Here we show that *V. aestuarianus* strains, isolated from diseased oysters, can be
61 grouped into two phylogenetic lineages containing a majority of virulent strains. Genome
62 sequence comparison between virulent versus non-virulent strains led us to identify a key
63 regulator of *V. aestuarianus* pathogenicity. In the future, identification of the genes that are
64 controlled by this regulator should help in understanding the virulence mechanisms of *V.*
65 *aestuarianus*. Finally our results suggest that the recent adult mortality outbreaks of *C. gigas*
66 are not due to the emergence of a new genotype of *V. aestuarianus*.

67

68

69 **INTRODUCTION**

70

71 The Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* is by far the major mollusk species cultivated in France.
72 However, this situation of near monoculture significantly weakens this economic sector,
73 especially in the case of emergent diseases. This is illustrated by a recent decline of oyster-
74 producing companies due to successive mortality outbreaks presenting distinct
75 epidemiological characteristics (1).

76

77 For the last 20 years, French oyster production (mainly spat, i.e. oyster <12 months) has
78 experienced periodical mass mortalities on the west coast of France, known as “summer
79 mortalities” (2). This syndrome is the result of multiple factors including infectious agents (an
80 ostreid herpes virus designated OsHV-1 and bacteria of the genus *Vibrio*), elevated
81 temperature (>19°C), physiological stress associated with maturation, host genetic traits and
82 aquaculture practices, none of these individual factors being consistently responsible for the
83 syndrome. Although OsHV-1 was detected in half the mortality events, its pathogenicity was
84 experimentally demonstrated in oyster larvae only (3, 4). Regarding bacteria, vibrios related
85 to the species *V. aestuarianus* and to the clade *Splendidus* (containing several species) were
86 the most common taxons isolated from moribund animals (5). The virulence of some strains
87 belonging to either taxons was demonstrated by experimental infection on spat and adults (5-
88 7).

89

90 Over the past six years, the frequency of oyster spat mortality outbreaks has increased
91 considerably. Compared with the “summer mortalities”, these events occurred at a lower
92 threshold temperature (16°C) and are characterized by a geographical extension to all French
93 coasts (Atlantic, Channel and Mediterranean). Epidemiological analyses suggested that these

mortalities were linked to the emergence of a new genotype of OsHV-1 (μ var) (8) probably associated with environmental changes and/or an increased fragility of the oysters. Although oyster spat experimental infections confirmed pathogenicity of the OsHV-1 μ var (9), the relationship between genome diversity and the infectious virus titer is currently not established. In addition, oysters spat were shown to harbor multiple vibrio genotypes. We recently demonstrated that the mortality onset is linked to a progressive replacement within the oyster microflora of diverse benign colonizers by members of a phylogenetically coherent virulent population (Lemire et al., ISME J. under revision). This phylogenetic cluster includes the *V. crassostreae* type strain and belongs to the *Splendidus* clade (10).

While the outbreaks described above concerned mainly oyster spats, the number of reported cases of adult mortalities associated with the presence of *V. aestuarianus* has increased considerably over the last 3 years (Francois et al., 2014). During the same period, other infectious agents such as the herpes virus or *Splendidus* related strains were rarely detected suggesting the possible emergence of *V. aestuarianus* as a pathogen for adult oysters. Emergent infectious diseases can be caused by genomic modifications of an infectious agent that can improve its virulence (11). In such a scheme, experimental infections should highlight differences in the lethal doses between strains isolated during the recent outbreaks and a decade ago. Then sequencing closely related isolates with contrasted virulence and performing whole genome comparative analyses, should lead to correlate genomic modification(s) and virulence improvement.

In comparison to human pathogens, little is known about the requirements for virulence in vibrios pathogenic to oysters. The genome sequencing and development of new genetic tools in the strain LGP32 isolated from a “summer mortality” outbreak and pathogenic to oysters

(*V. tasmaniensis*, clade *Splendidus*), has become a model to investigate *Vibrio*-oyster interaction (12-17). However, it has not been possible to apply the knowledge gained in this model system to other *Vibrio* pathogens due to inter-species variations such as cellular interactions with the oyster immune-competent cells, the hemocytes. For instance, *V. aestuarianus* strain 01_032 inhibits phagocytosis (18) whereas *V. tasmaniensis* strain LGP32 invades hemocytes but resists intracellular elimination (14). Thus, extending genomic and genetic analyses to other *Vibrio* species such as *V. aestuarianus* is an essential step towards understanding the role of bacteria in oyster mortality outbreaks.

In the present study, we explored the virulence potential and genome diversity of *V. aestuarianus* isolates. We asked whether the recent adult mortality outbreaks are due to the emergence of a specific genotype. To address this question, we performed high throughput sequencing (HTS)-based comparative genome analysis of 14 *V. aestuarianus* strains isolated before or during the recent outbreaks in parallel to bacterial lethal dose determination by experimental challenge. We then took advantage of the near identity of some strains with contrasted virulence to identify key factor(s) of *V. aestuarianus* pathogenicity by comparative and functional genomics.

RESULTS

V. aestuarianus comprises virulent and non-virulent strains

To explore the virulence potential and genome diversity of *V. aestuarianus* strains, 4 and 6 strains isolated from diseased oysters during “summer mortality” events and the recent mortality outbreaks respectively were selected (Table 1). In addition, 4 strains isolated from

healthy oysters, cockles or zooplankton and not linked to mortality events were added to our analysis.

The strains were first injected into specific-pathogen-free (SPF) standardized oysters (19) at 10^7 CFU/animal, a bacterial concentration previously used in experimental infections (6, 18). At 6 days post injection, 10/14 strains induced mortality rates $>80\%$ (Fig. 1, black bars). We subsequently injected lower bacterial concentrations to oysters (ranging from 10^6 to 10^2 CFU/animal). Surprisingly, when injected at 10^2 CFU /animal, the strain 02_041 isolated in 2002 and 6 strains isolated in 2012 were still able to induce $>80\%$ mortality (Fig.1, grey bars). When injected at $<10^6$ CFU /animal, *V. tasmaniensis* and *V. crassostreae* strains, both species related to *Splendidus* clade, did not cause mortality (Lemire et al., ISME J. under revision) suggesting that the lethal dose of 10^2 CFU /animal is specific to some *V. aestuarianus* strains isolated in 2002 or 2012.

These results allowed us to classify 7 strains (12_063, 12_128a, 12_130, 12_142, 12_055, 12_016a and 02_041) as highly virulent (Vir+) (i.e. inducing $>50\%$ mortalities at 10^2 CFU/animal), and 4 strains (12_122, 11_U17, 11_KB19 and 01_151) as non-virulent (Vir-) (i.e. inducing $<50\%$ mortalities at 10^7 CFU/animal). Three strains (07_115, 01_308, 01_032) were defined as intermediate (i.e. pathogenic only at 10^7 CFU/animal).

General features of the *V. aestuarianus* genomes

The genome of strain 02_041 was the most completely assembled and manually annotated. It consists of two circular chromosomes of 2.98 (chromosome 1; 4 contigs) and 1.21Mb (chromosome 2, 4 contigs) with an average GC content of 43.11 and 42.16% respectively (Table 1; Fig.S1). Chromosomes 1 and 2 contain 7 and 0 rRNA operons, 74 and 10 tRNA

genes, respectively. However because the genome is not fully assembled, some rRNA and tRNA genes may have been missed.

The genome sequences of the 13 other strains were partially assembled, with contig numbers per strain ranging from 38 to 732 and approximate genome sizes ranging from 4.2 to 4.99 Mb compared to 4.19 Mb for strain 02_041 (Table 1). The difficulty to achieve a better genome assembly may be attributed to i) a high number of transposition elements (184 transposase genes in the strain 02_041); ii) the large size of the chromosomal integron (20) (94 cassettes in the chromosome 2 of strain 02_041) (Fig. S1).

Genes differentiating *Vibrio aestuarianus* from other *Vibrionaceae*

A phylogenetic analysis based on concatenated nucleic acid sequences derived from 50 shared genes from 223 *Vibrionaceae* genome sequences including 14 *V. aestuarianus* strains and *Shewanella baltica* as an outgroup demonstrated the cohesive genotypic structure of *V. aestuarianus* with relatively little diversity among genomes (Fig. S2). The clade *V. aestuarianus* is sister to a clade that contains two species previously associated with farmed fish diseases, *V. ordalii* and *V. anguillarum* (21). Our analyses confirmed that *V. aestuarianus*, *V. ordalii* and *V. anguillarum* are grouped in the *Anguillarum* clade (10).

Intraspecific genomic comparisons identified 2866 CDSs that are shared by all sequenced *V. aestuarianus* strains (Fig. S1) of which only 40 proteins were found in ≤ 5 other *Vibrionaceae* genomes (Table S1). Among these *V. aestuarianus*-specific genes, we identified a cluster of genes homologous to the Toxin co-regulated (Tcp) pilus biosynthesis cluster encoded by a pathogenicity island in *V. cholerae* that is necessary for colonization to the intestine (22). However in the strain 02_041, the *tcp* gene cluster is interrupted by a transposon, and genes

encoding the accessory colonization factors (*acf*) are absent (Fig.S3) suggesting that this *tcp* like cluster may play a distinct, if any, role in *V. aestuarianus*.

Within *V. aestuarianus*, two lineages A and B contain a majority of Vir+ strains

The phylogenetic relationships based on the core genome of the *V. aestuarianus* strains included in this study were investigated (Fig.2). The main outcome of this analysis was the grouping of 6/7 Vir+ isolates into a clade A, which also contains 1 Vir-, and 2 intermediate strains. Clade A is a sister of Clade B containing 1 Vir+ and one intermediate strain. Both clades A and B show very little intra-clade diversity (>99 % average nucleotide identity – ANI– value) (23). Inter-clade diversity was also low as determined by the ANI value calculation (>98.4 %) and by the number of clade-specific genes (180 CDSs, essentially in a clade B-specific phage). Vir- strains isolated from oysters in Spain, zooplankton in Italy or cockles in Brittany were found to be more diverse.

As a consequence of the low inter-clade diversity, the genes commonly used for multilocus sequence analysis (*hsp60*, *pyrH*, *atpA*, *gyrB*, *recA*, *topA*) do not allow the separation of clades A and B with a high bootstrap value. Thus, we compared the phylogenetic relationships of each core gene (2866 trees) and identified 55 genes allowing the placement of isolates in clade A or B with a bootstrap value of 100%. Among them, a gene encoding a putative D-lactate dehydrogenase (VIBAEv3_A30718) was selected to explore the genetic structure of *V. aestuarianus* using a larger collection of strains (n=116) isolated from diseased animals (Table S2). Phylogenetic analyses reveal that 87/116 (75%) and 29/116 (25%) of these strains belong to clade A and B, respectively (Fig.3). When injected intramuscularly to oysters at 10² CFU /animal, 81/87 (93%) and 23/29 (79%) strains from respectively clade A and B were classified as Vir+ (Fig.3). The remaining strains were defined as intermediate (i.e. pathogenic

at 10^7 CFU/animal). The dominance of clade A and Vir+ strains (belonging to either clade A or B) was observed during summer mortalities and the recent outbreaks, whatever the age of the diseased oysters (> or <12months). Altogether these data demonstrate that strains belonging to *V. aestuarianus* and isolated from diseased oysters can be grouped into two lineages containing a majority of Vir+ strains. However, since we did not find a correlation between virulence, genotype and date of isolation, the hypothesis of a specific genotype emergence is unlikely.

Non-virulent strains have undergone genetic modifications(s)

Although the Vir+ strains belong to near clonal lineages, each lineage contains a low proportion of intermediate strains (7 and 21% for A and B respectively, [table S2](#)). We therefore performed comparative genomic analyses to identify Vir+ specific genes or alleles. In the clade B, 49 genes localized in 7 genomic regions were found in the Vir+ strain 12_063 but not in the intermediate strain 01_308 ([Table S3](#)). These regions encode common phage-related proteins (e.g., integrase, helicase, relaxase and restriction endonuclease system) as well as other proteins of unknown function. None of these genes were found in the Vir+ strains from clade A. Finally, a frameshift was observed in 13 genes of strain 01_308, the majority of them coding for proteins of unknown function. However it should be noted that comparative genomic analyses within this clade are hampered by the reduced number of strains (one Vir+ and one intermediate) and by genome fragmentation.

In clade A, we could not identify genes present in all Vir+ and absent from the intermediate or Vir- strains. However, in the Vir- strain 01_151, we detected a frameshift in three genes encoding respectively an exported protein of unknown function (VIBAEv3_A31414 in strain 02_041), a putative acetyltransferase (VIBAEv3_A10934) and a membrane protein of

unknown function (VIBAEv3_A20116). Interestingly, a single frameshift was identified in the intermediate strain 07_115 in a gene that codes for a signal transduction histidine-protein kinase (VarS) (24). In the Vir⁺ strain 02_041 the *varS* gene (VIBAEv3_A30043) codes for a protein of 925 amino acids (aa) and contains 6 domains (Fig.4A): an uncharacterized signal transduction histidine kinase domain (DUF2222), a cytoplasmic helical linker domain and methyl-accepting proteins (HAMP), a phosphoacceptor domain (HisKA), an ATPase domain (HATPase_c), a response regulator receiver domain (response reg) and a histidine-containing phosphotransfer domain (HPt). In the strain 07_115 a deletion of a nucleotide result in a stop codon, generating a 677 aa protein that lacks the response reg and HPt domains (Fig. 4A). In *V. cholerae*, the VarS/VarA-CsrA/B/C/D system has been demonstrated to control the expression of virulence genes (25). Hence, based on genome comparison, we have identified a gene affected by a frameshift in an attenuated strain that could encode for a virulence regulator.

Disruption of *varS* is sufficient to alter *Vibrio aestuarianus* pathogenicity

We assessed the importance of *varS* for *V.aestuarianus* virulence using a genetic knockout approach described previously (15). We obtained a successful integration of the suicide plasmid by a single crossover in only one out of seven virulent strains (12_016a). After the second recombination event leading to plasmid excision, 30% of the colonies carried the deletion of *varS* (strains 12_016a_Δ*varS*). For two isolates selected randomly, this deletion did not impair bacterial growth in culture media, but resulted in a dramatic decrease in mortalities induced after bacteria injection in oysters (Fig. 4B, lanes 3 and 4 compared to lane 1). When constitutively expressed *in trans* from a replicative plasmid, the virulence of the mutant 12_016a_Δ*varS* was partially restored (Fig. 4B, lane 5 compared to 3) and sufficient to increase the virulence of the intermediate strain 07_115 (Fig. 4B, lane 6 compared to 2).

These complementation experiments confirm that *varS* is necessary to 12_016a pathogenicity and that the frameshift in *varS* is responsible of the 07_115 virulence attenuation.

The two-component regulatory system VarA/S (VarS being the sensor histidine-kinase and VarA the response regulator) has been involved in the regulation of the secreted hemagglutinin/metalloprotease expression HapA in *V. cholerae* (26). Here, the protease activity measured in the ECPs of the 12_016a_Δ*varS* mutants (Fig. 5B and C, lanes 2 and 3) was found to be 3 times lower than that of the wild type virulent strain 12_016a (Fig. 5B and C, lane 1) and in the range of the intermediate wild-type strain 07_115 (Fig. 5B and C, lane 4). The SDS-PAGE protein profiles of the ECPs prepared from 07_115 and two clones of 12_016a_Δ*varS* were found to be very similar and significantly different from this of 12_016a (Fig. 5A). A band found more intense in 12_016a (Fig. 5A, lane 1) was excised from the gel, analyzed by μLC-ESI MS/MS and demonstrated to correspond to the Vam metalloprotease, previously reported to be involved in *V. aestuarianus* toxicity (27). Unfortunately, several attempts to generate a Δ*vam* mutant were unsuccessful (100% wild type reversion after the second recombination), preventing a definitive conclusion about the direct role of Vam in virulence. In conclusion, we have demonstrated that VarS is a key regulator of *V. aestuarianus* pathogenicity, secreted proteolytic activity and extracellular Vam production.

DISCUSSION

The rise of aquaculture has been the source of anthropogenic changes on a massive scale, characterized by displacements of aquatic animals from their natural habitats, farming under high stocking density and exposition to environmental stresses. At the same time, over-

exploitation of some species and anthropogenic stress on aquatic ecosystems have placed pressure on wild populations, providing opportunities for the emergence of an expanding array of new diseases (28). In France, since 2012, a disease affecting specifically adult oysters has been associated with the presence of *Vibrio aestuarianus* suggesting the possible (re) emergence of this organism as a pathogen. However in the present study, we did not observe any correlation between *V. aestuarianus* lethal dose, genotype and isolation date suggesting that the hypothesis of the emergence of a new virulent clonal strain is unlikely.

Environmental changes have been shown to affect marine organism physiological functioning, behavior and demographic traits subsequently leading to an increased sensitivity to opportunistic pathogens, and/or amplification of resident infectious agents (29). Hence physiological alteration (s) of the oyster leading to an increased sensitivity to *V. aestuarianus* may also explain the recent outbreaks. Such physiological disorders may result from environmental factors or the presence of other infectious agents. It is also possible that trade-offs may have occurred between high levels of spat disease resistance and low levels of adult disease resistance (30). Experimental infections using wild stock of “naïve” oysters that have never experienced the spat disease or selected lineages resistant to one/several infectious agents may help testing of this hypothesis. Finally the identification of habitat(s) and a spatio-temporal survey of *V. aestuarianus* will help in understanding the ecological parameters that modulate the virulence, persistence and/or prevalence of this pathogen.

Phylogenetic analysis of whole genomes revealed that virulent strains are grouped into two *V. aestuarianus* lineages, containing nearly identical strains. As each lineage contains a majority of highly virulent strains, we hypothesized that their common ancestor was virulent, and that a few modern strains might have undergone genetic modification (s) leading to loss of

pathogenicity. This was illustrated by the identification of a unique frameshift in a strain showing intermediate virulence. A single nucleotide deletion generates a truncation of one third of the C-term part of the VarS protein, containing two functional domains. The deletion of the *varS* gene in a Vir⁺ strain confirmed the role of this regulator in the virulence of *V. aestuarianus*.

VarS is a component of the sensory system VarS/VarA implicated in pathogenesis of a variety of Gram-negative bacteria, including among others, *V. cholerae* (VarS/VarA), *Escherichia coli* (BarA/UvrY), *Salmonella typhimurium* (BarA/SirA), and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (GacS/GacA) (31-34). In *V. cholerae* the VarS/VarA system is involved in the expression of the metalloprotease HapA and TcpA protein and in biofilm production (25, 26, 35). Here the comparison of the proteins excreted by the Vir⁺ wild type compared to $\Delta varS$ strain demonstrates that the secretion and activity of a metalloprotease (Vam) is VarS dependant. The Vam metalloprotease of the *V. aestuarianus* strain 01_032 has been previously demonstrated to display lethality in *C. gigas* oysters (27). The expression of this gene by a non-toxicogenic vibrio strain (*V. tasmaniensis* LMG20012^T) induces the same immunosuppressant effects on hemocytes as those observed for *V. aestuarianus* ECPs showing that this protein is sufficient to induce immunosuppression in oysters (18). However the formal demonstration of the predicted, or supposed, role of a candidate gene requires a gene knock out strategy (15).

In the present study, a dramatic difference in DNA delivery (10^{-4} to 10^{-6} transconjugant per recipient cells) and allelic exchange efficiency (0 to 10^{-8} integration per recipients) was observed between nearly clonal strains. We were able to delete the *varS* gene in 1/7 virulent strain (12_016a); but could not generate a *vam* mutant, preventing a definitive conclusion

regarding the role of Vam in virulence. This suggests that the presence of this gene is essential in this strain in this culture condition. It is important to note that the lack of a second usable resistance marker prevented the demonstration that a *vam* mutant could be constructed when the gene was provided *in trans*. We are currently exploring a larger panel of antibiotic resistance genes to allow the development of such strategy in the future. Our study highlights the limitations of genetic methods when working with environmental non-model strains. Limitations can occur at several levels from the DNA delivery inside the cells, to the allelic exchange efficiency and the availability of selective genes. Consequently we strongly recommend testing the feasibility of genetic approaches from a collection of strains rather than a single isolate before starting genomic projects. Parameters such as antibiotic's resistance, conjugation and integration frequency should be tested to select the model strain to be used.

VarS is a key regulator of *V. aestuarianus* virulence and Vam seems to be a target of this regulator. Previous studies have examined the contribution to the virulence of various vibrio metalloproteases in animal experimental models (15, 36-39) but no conclusive evidence about the role of the protease in virulence was found, since mutants deficient in protease showed comparable virulence levels than their parental strains. There are only a few examples of toxins (such as diphtheria or tetanus), which act as single determinants to produce disease. Microbial pathogenesis is often multifactorial, and pathogens use several biochemical mechanisms operating in concert to produce infection and disease (40). For instance, the HA/P metalloprotease from *V. cholerae* was reported to activate proteolytically both the El Tor cytolysin/haemolysin (41) and the cholera toxin CT, an ADP-ribosylating enterotoxin inducing a highly secretory diarrhea (42). Research is now ongoing to identify other genes that are regulated by VarS and the protein targets that are processed by Vam in the ECP

fraction. Finally, due to the near clonality of strains within clades A and B, *V. aestuarianus* appears as a great model for comparative genome analysis, leading to the identification of a restricted number of virulence candidate genes. In the future, each of these genes will be knocked out to investigate their role in virulence.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and culture conditions. The strains used for genomic analyses are described in Table 1. Other bacterial strains are described in Table 2. *Vibrio* isolates were grown in Zobell or Zobell agar, Luria-Bertani (LB) or LB-agar (LBA) + NaCl 0.5M, at 20°C. *Escherichia coli* strains were grown in LB or on LBA at 37°C. Chloramphenicol (5 to 25µg/ml), thymidine (0.3 mM) and diaminopimelate (0.3 mM) were added as supplements when necessary. Induction of the P_{BAD} promoter was achieved by the addition of 0.2% L-arabinose to the growth medium, and conversely, repression was obtained by the addition of 1% D-glucose.

Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation. The complete genome sequence of 02_041 strain was obtained using two sequencing technologies: 1) A Sanger library was constructed after mechanical shearing of DNA and cloning of 10 kpb fragments into pCNS (pSU18 derived). Plasmids were purified and end-sequenced using dye-terminator chemistry on ABI3730 sequencers leading to a 4-fold coverage. 2) A 454 single read library was constructed and sequenced to a 16-fold coverage. The reads obtained using the two technologies were assembled using Newbler (www.roche.com). Then, primer walks, PCRs and transposon bombs were performed to finish the sequence of the *V. aestuarianus* reference genome. The 13 other *V. aestuarianus* strains were sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq2000

technology with ~50-fold coverage. Contigs were assembled *de novo* using Velvet (43) and genome assembly was improved by contig mapping against the 02_041 reference genome. Computational prediction of coding sequences and other genome features (RNA encoding genes, ribosome binding sites, signal sequences, etc...), together with functional assignments were performed using the automated annotation pipeline implemented in the MicroScope platform (44). An extensive manual curation of the genes, which includes correction of the start codon positions and of the functional assignments, was performed. This expert procedure was supported by functional analysis results [e.g., InterPro, FigFam, PRIAM, COGs (Clusters of Orthologous Groups), PsortB] which can be queried using an exploration interface, and by synteny groups computation visualized in cartographic maps to facilitate genome comparison.

***In silico* analyses.** To investigate the core and flexible genomes, an all-versus-all BlastP search was performed using genomic sequences of 209 *Vibrionaceae* and *Shewanella baltica* (strain OS155) available in Genbank and 14 *V. aestuarianus* sequenced in the present study (Table 1). A dedicated precomputing repository (marshalling) was created to perform comparative genomic and phylogenomic analyses. Orthologous proteins were defined as reciprocal best hit proteins with 80% MaxLrap and a minimum of 30% and 60% identity cutoff was used for intra- and inter-species analysis, respectively (45). The nucleic acid sequences were aligned using Muscle (46) and filtered by BMGE (47). Phylogenetic trees were built using the parallel version of PhyML applied to Maximum-likelihood algorithm and GTR model as parameters (48). Reliability was assessed by the bootstrap method with 100 replicates.

Vector construction. Cloning was performed using the Gibson assembly method according to the manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs, NEB). For the *varS* deletion, two

independent PCR amplifications of the regions (500 bp) encompassing the *varS* gene were performed using two primer pairs ($\Delta varS$ -1+2 and $\Delta varS$ -3+4) (Table 2). An inside out PCR was performed using pSW7848T suicide vector DNA (49) and primer pair (*pSW-F* and *pSW-R*) (Table 2). For the cloning of *varS* gene under a P_{LAC} promoter in a pMRB plasmid (50), two independent PCR amplifications of the gene and plasmid were performed using the primers *varS-F+R* and *pMRB-F+R* reciprocally. After purification and quantification, 100 ng of the PCR products were mixed with Gibson assembly Master Mix and incubated for 60 minutes at 50°C. Samples were diluted at 1/3 before *E. coli* transformation. Clones were controlled by digestion with restriction enzyme and sequencing using the primers described in Table 2. Strains II3813 and β 3914 were used as a plasmid host for cloning and conjugation, respectively (15). Plasmids and strains used and established in the present study are presented in Table 2.

Conjugation

Overnight cultures of donor and recipient were diluted at 1:100 in culture media without antibiotic and grown at 30°C to an OD_{600nm} of 0.3. The different conjugation experiments were done by a filter mating procedure described previously (15) with a donor/recipient ratio of 1ml/10ml. Conjugations were performed overnight on filters incubated on LBA + NaCl 0.5N + diaminopimelic acid (DAP) plates at 30°C. Counter-selection of $\Delta dapA$ donor was done by plating on a medium devoid of DAP, supplemented with chloramphenicol and 1% glucose. Cm^R resistant colonies were grown in LB + NaCl 0.5N up to late logarithmic phase and spread on plates containing 0.2% arabinose. Mutants were screened by PCR using primers $\Delta varS$ -1+4 (Table 2).

Extracellular products analyses. Bacterial extracellular products (ECPs) were produced by the cellophane overlay method as described previously (15). The protein concentration of the ECPs was measured by the method of Bradford with bovine serum albumin as the standard and normalized (BioRad). Protease activity was measured by the azocasein procedure as described previously (51). In addition, protease activity of separated proteins in an SDS-polyacrylamide gel was detected by copolymerizing 0.2% azocasein in the polyacrylamide matrix (Zymography) as described previously (15).

After concentration by ultrafiltration (Centricon® 10 Kda), twenty micrograms of crude ECPs were analyzed on a 4-15% Mini-PROTEAN® TGX Precast Gels. The differentially expressed protein band was manually excised from the gel, in-gel digested using trypsin and subjected to MS and MS/MS analyses for protein identification, following previously described protocols (52).

Production of “pathogen free” oysters

Oysters (18 to 36 months; n=40) collected in Fouras Bay (Marennes- Oléron, France) were transferred to the Ifremer facility located at Argenton (Brittany, France) for maturation conditioning as described previously (19). After gamete stripping and fertilization, obtained larvae, then spat, were reared under controlled conditions up to 12-13 months. PCR detection of Herpes was performed to confirm the negative status of oyster (19). Vibrios isolation on selective culture medium (Thiosulfate-citrate-bile salts-sucrose agar, TCBS) confirmed a low vibrio presence (~10 cfu/gr tissues).

Virulence studies using oysters. Bacteria were grown under constant agitation at 20°C for 24 h in Zobell. One hundred microliters of the diluted culture (10^7 to 10^2 CFU) were injected intramuscularly to anaesthetized SPF oysters (12-13 months old, 1.5 g, s.d. 0.2). The bacterial

concentration was confirmed by conventional dilution plating on Zobell agar. After injection, the oysters were transferred to aquaria (10 oysters per aquarium) containing 2.5 liter of aerated 5 µm-filtered and UV-treated seawater at 20°C and kept under static conditions for 6 days. Each bacterial treatment was performed in duplicates and mortality was recorded daily.

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Author contributions

DG, MAT and AL contribute equally to this work. MAT, AL, PH, YL, BP, DT, SM, JLN performed experiments. DG, AC and AJ performed the *in silico* analyses. FLR, designed experiments, interpreted results, and wrote the paper with the help of YL, MAT, AJ and DM.

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TITLES AND LEGENDS TO FIGURES

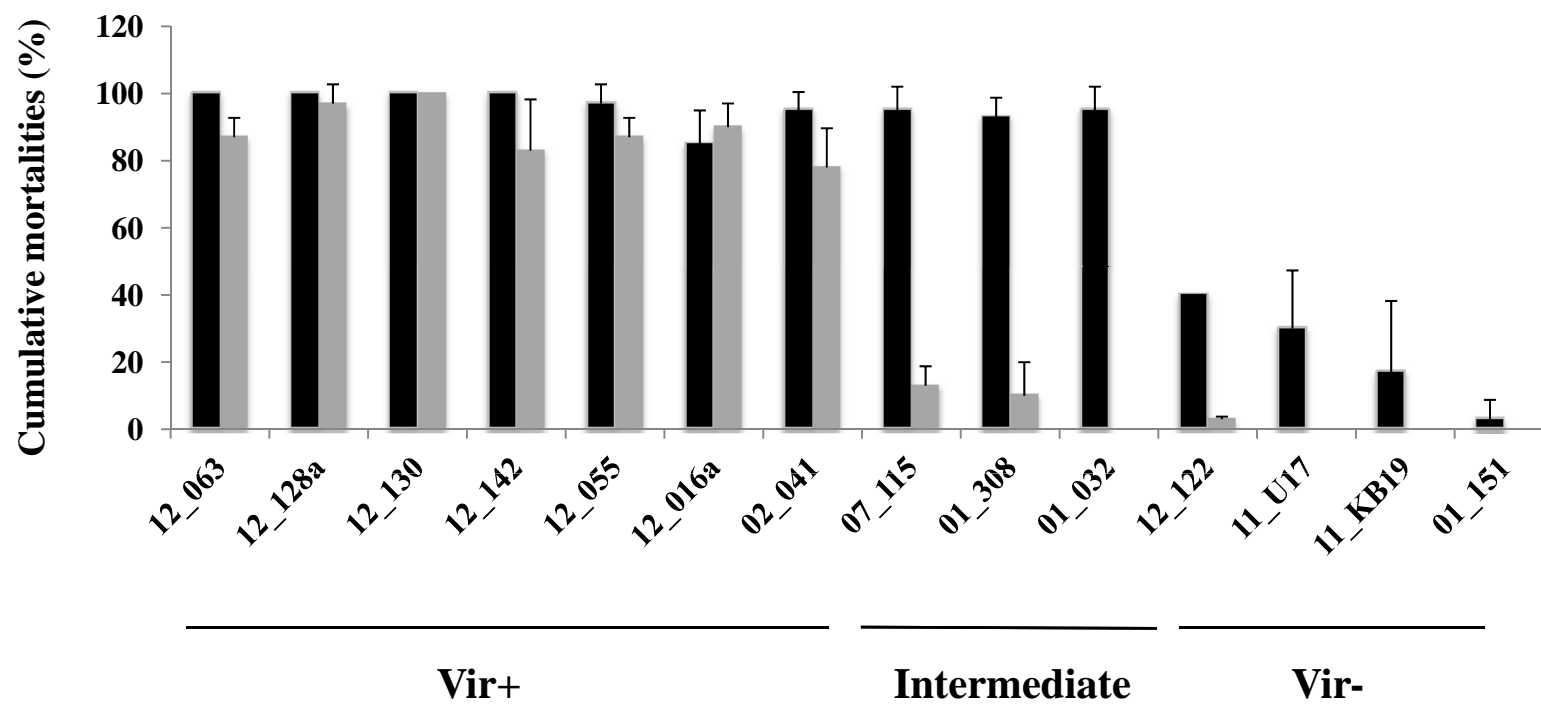
Figure 1: Oyster mortality in response to experimental infection with *V. aestuarianus* strains selected for genome sequencing. 10^7 CFU (black bar) or 10^2 CFU (grey bar) of the tested strain were intramuscularly injected into oysters (n= 10, in duplicate). Cumulative mortality (%) was assessed after 6 days. Strains were classified as virulent (Vir+) (i.e. inducing >50% mortalities at 10^2 CFU /animal), non-virulent (Vir-) (i.e. inducing <50% mortalities at 10^7 CFU /animal) or intermediate (i.e. pathogenic only at 10^7 CFU /animal).

Figure 2: Phylogenetic analysis based on concatenated alignments of nucleic acid sequences of 2866 core genes from 14 *V. aestuarianus* strains, KB19 as an outgroup. Tree was built by the Maximum-Likelihood method based on sequences aligned using Muscle. Branch lengths are drawn to scale and are proportional to the number of nucleotide changes. Number at each node represents the percentage value given by bootstrap analysis of 100 replicates. The pathotype of each *V. aestuarianus* strain (Vir+: virulent; Vir-: non virulent; int: intermediate) is indicated in parentheses.

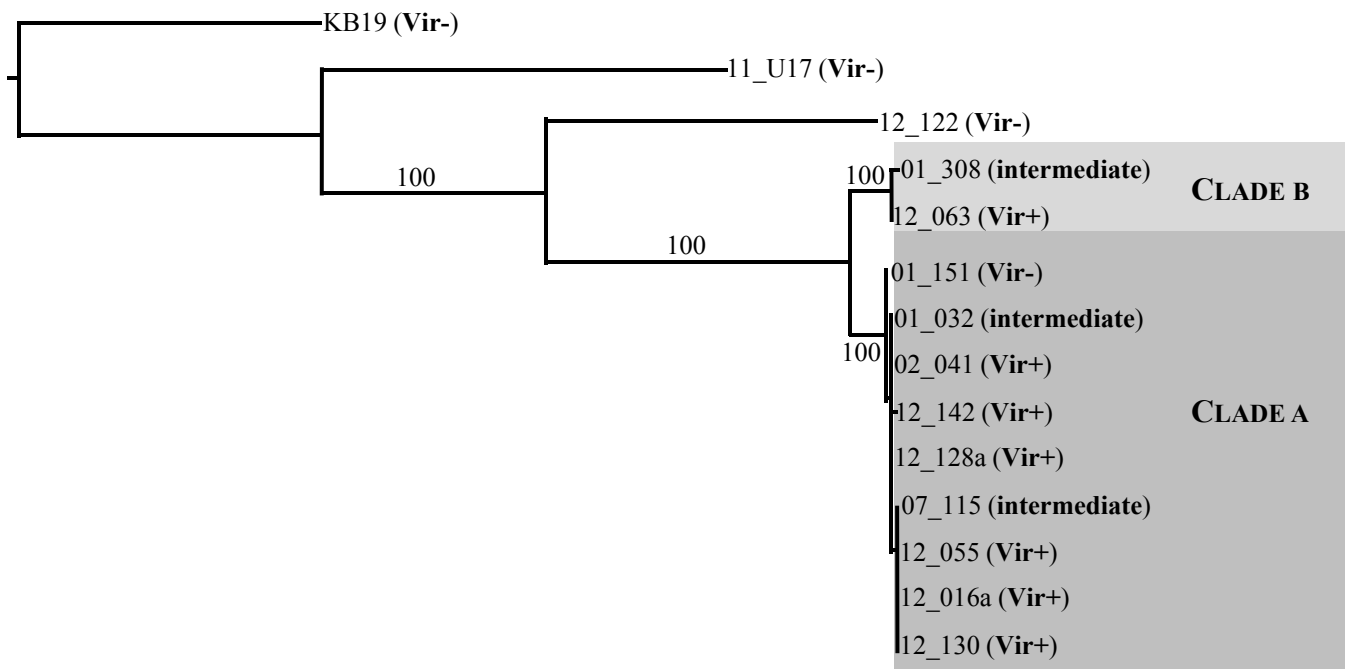
Figure 3: Virulence onto *V. aestuarianus* isolates phylogeny inferred by maximum likelihood analysis of partial D-lactate dehydrogenase gene sequences. The tree was built by the Maximum-Likelihood method based on sequences aligned using Muscle. Branch lengths are drawn to scale and are proportional to the number of nucleotide changes. Number at each node represents the percentage value given by bootstrap analysis of 100 replicates. The black bars indicate the % of mortalities occurring at 6 days post-injection (10^2 CFU/animal).

Figure 4: Role of *varS* in *Vibrio aestuarianus* pathogenicity. **A-** Schematic representation of the VarS functional domains identified in the Vir⁺ strain 02_041 and the truncated protein resulting from a frameshift in the intermediate strain 07_115. DUF2222 corresponds to an uncharacterized signal transduction histidine kinase domain; HAMP, a cytoplasmic helical linker domain and methyl-accepting proteins; HisKA, a phosphoacceptor domain; HATPase_c, an ATPase domain; Response reg, a response regulator receiver domain; HPt, an histidine-containing phosphotransfer domain. **B-** Experimental infection of wild type *V. aestuarianus*, $\Delta varS$ mutants and complemented $\Delta varS$ mutants. 10^2 CFU of the tested strains (lane 1: strain 12_016a wild type; lane 2: strain 07_115 wild type; lanes 3 and 4: GV1124 and 1125, two distinct clones of 12_016_ $\Delta varS$; lane 5: GV1124 i.e. 12_016_ $\Delta varS$ carrying an expression vector for VarS, pMRB-P_{LAC}*varS*; lane 6: 07_115 carrying pMRB-P_{LAC}*varS*) was intramuscularly injected into oysters (n= 20, in duplicate). Mortality (%) was assessed after 6 days.

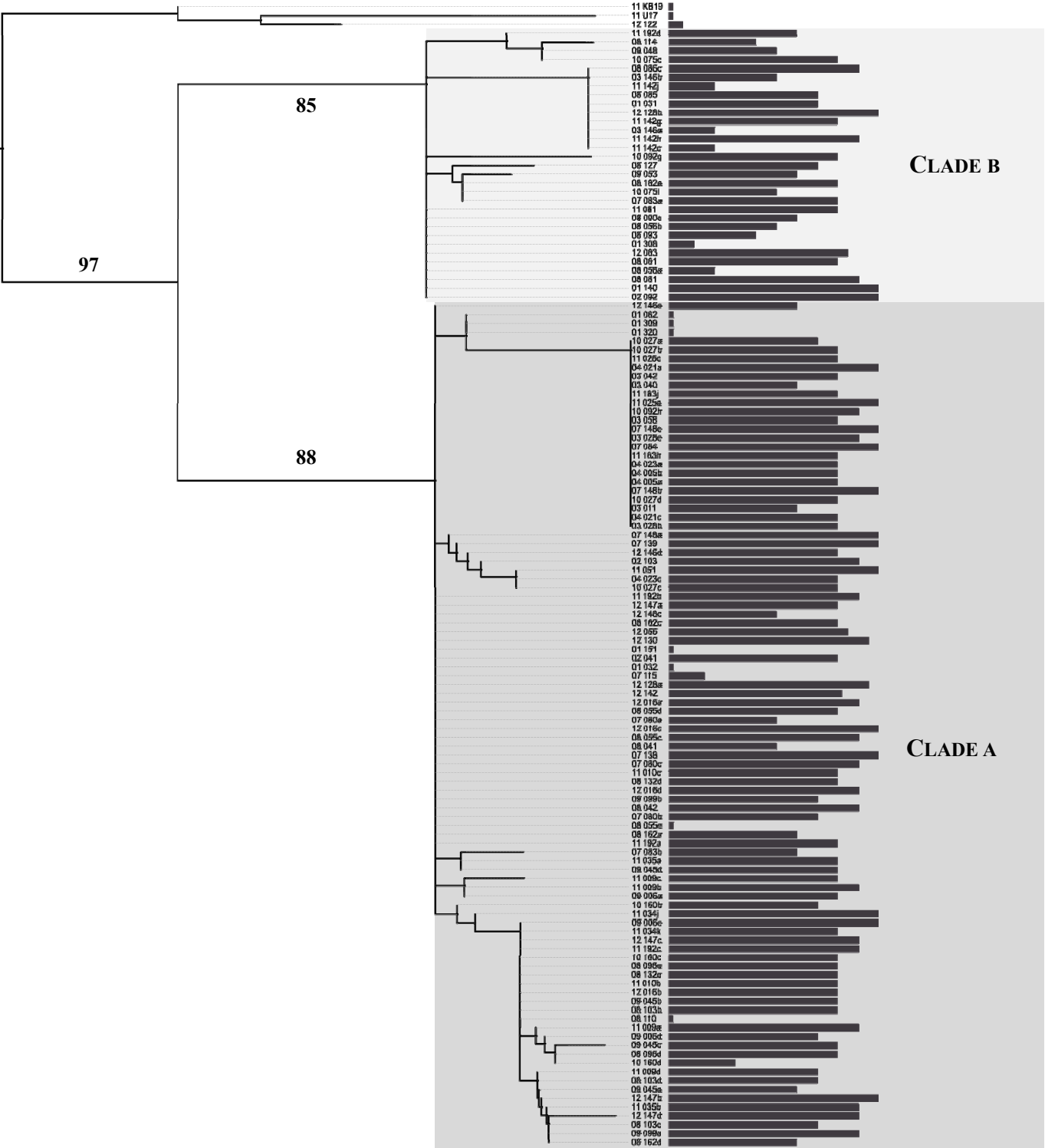
Figure 5: Role of *varS* in *Vibrio aestuarianus* metalloprotease expression. **A-** Extracellular product analysis by Coomassie blue stained 10% SDS-PAGE gel (lane 1: strain 12_06 wild type; lane 2 and 3: GV1124 and 1125, two distinct clones of 12_016_ $\Delta varS$; lane 4: 07_115 wild type). Arrow indicates the Vam metalloprotease identified by MS/MS. **B-** Azocasein-SDS-polyacrylamide gel (protease which degraded the gelatin are detected by zones of clearing). **C-** Proteolytic activities of ECPs determined by an azocasein assay (absorbance at 440 nm).

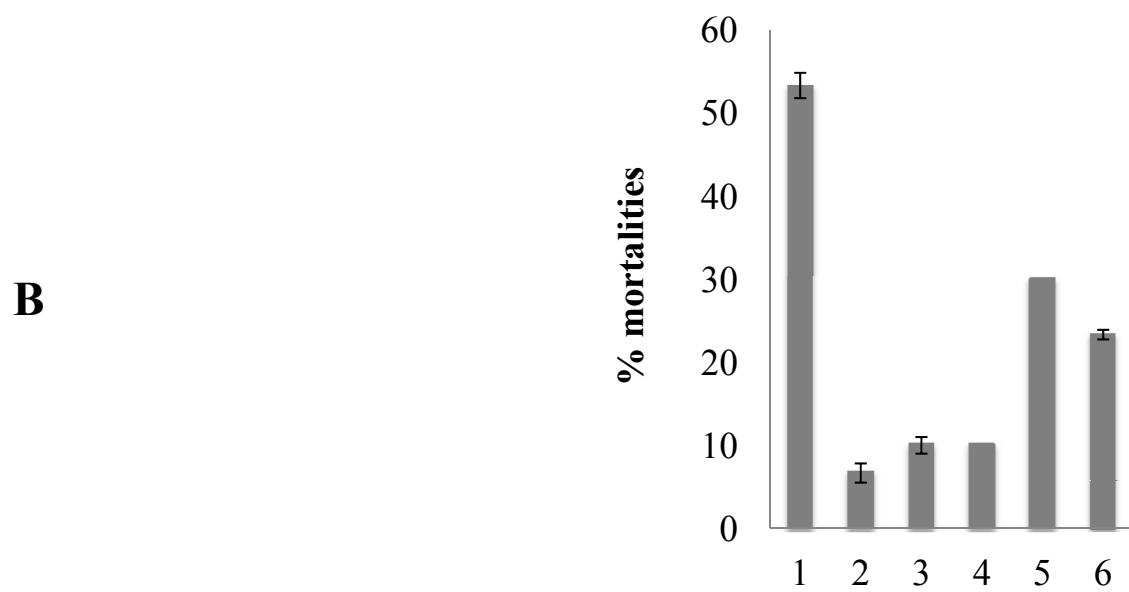
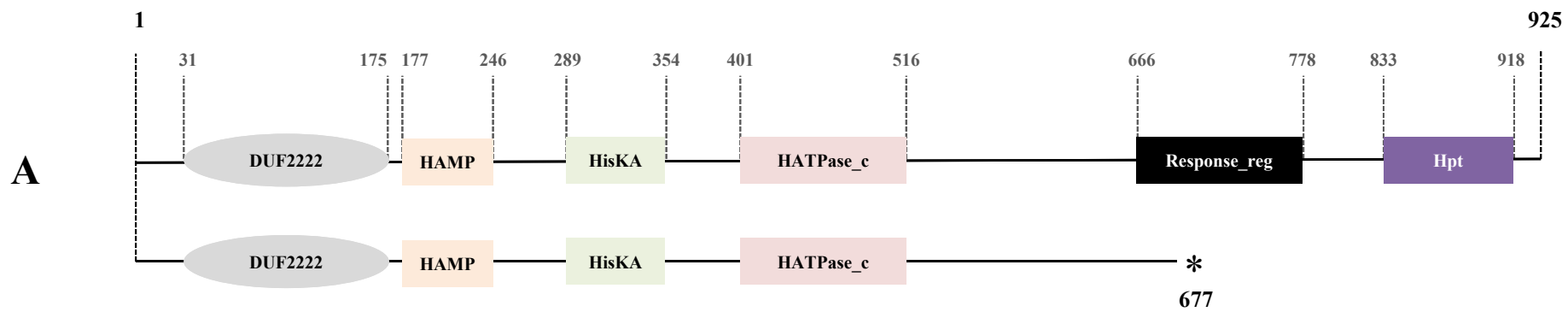


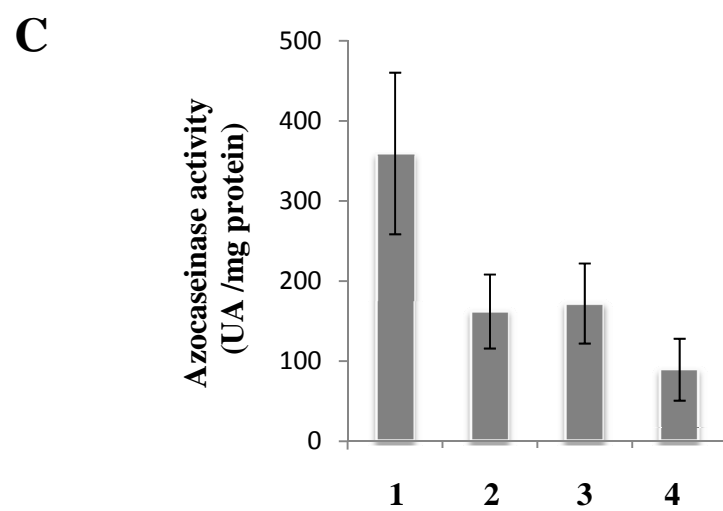
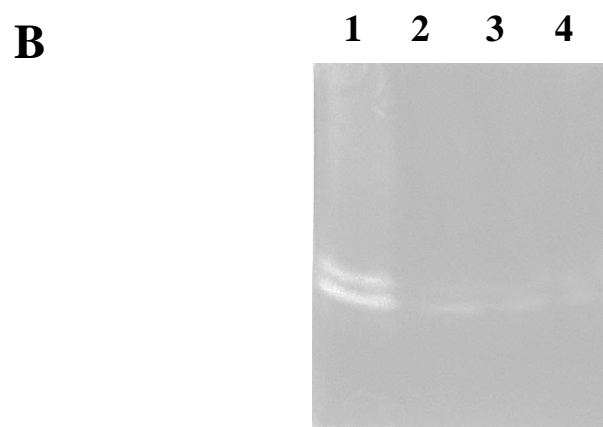
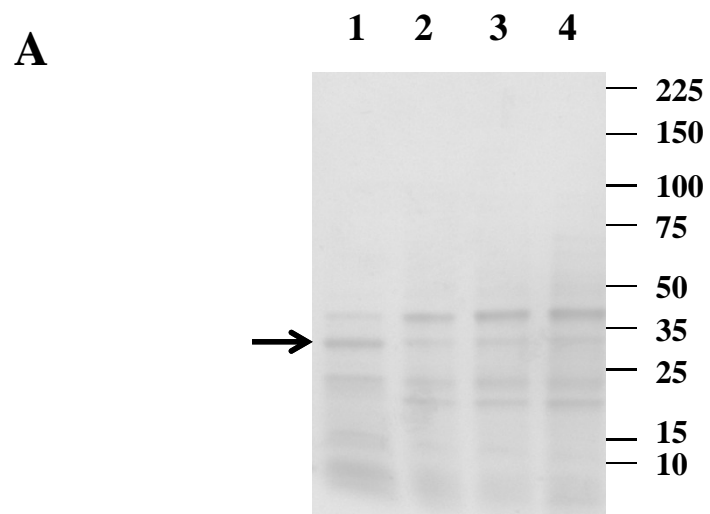
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Context	Strain	Origin	Mortality on field	Contigs number	Genome size (Mb)	CDSs	Accession number
Summer mortality	01_032	Oyster, September 2001, Argenton, Brittany, France	yes	38	4.20	4180	PRJEB5902
	01_151	Oyster, July 2001, La Trinité, Brittany, France	yes	73	4.36	4339	PRJEB5903
	01_308	Oyster, August 2001, Normandy, France	yes	157	4.49	4533	PRJEB5904
	<i>02_041</i>	<i>Oyster, 2002, Argenton, Brittany, France</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>4.20</i>	<i>4068</i>	<i>PRJEB5915</i>
Recent outbreak	12_016a	Oyster, March 2012, La Tremblade, Charente Maritime, France	yes	52	4.25	4246	PRJEB5906
	12_055	Oyster, June 2012, Agnas, Charente Maritime, France	yes	50	4.25	4237	PRJEB5907
	12_063	Oyster, September 2012, Brest, Brittany, France	yes	141	4.51	4524	PRJEB5908
	12_128a	Oyster, September 2012, Brittany, France	yes	65	4.24	4259	PRJEB5910
	12_130	Oyster, September 2012, Agnas, Charente Maritime, France	yes	80	4.29	4303	PRJEB5911
	12_142	Oyster, Octobre 2012, Normandy, France	yes	115	4.38	4401	PRJEB5912
Other	07_115	Oyster, 2007, Brittany, France	no	44	4.24	4243	PRJEB5905
	11_KB19	Oyster, March 2011, Fangar Bay, Spain	no	707	4.99	5277	PRJEB5913
	11_U17	Zooplankton, May 2011, Goro lagoon, Italy	no	732	4.41	4451	PRJEB5914
	12_122	Cockle, August 2012, Brittany, France	no	399	4.90	4988	PRJEB5909

Table 1: Strains used in the study

Strain	Description	Reference
P3813	B462 <i>DthyA::(erm-pir116)</i> [Erm ^R]	Le Roux et al., 2007
b3914	b2163 <i>gyrA462, zei298::Tn10</i> [Km ^R Em ^R Tc ^R]	Le Roux et al., 2007
GV1124	02_016 <i>D varS</i> clone 1	This study
GV1125	02_016 <i>D varS</i> clone 2	This study
GV1171	GV1124 + pMRB-P _{LAC} <i>varS</i>	This study
GV1174	07_115 + pMRB-P _{LAC} <i>varS</i>	This study
Plasmid	Description	Reference
pSW7848T	<i>oriV</i> _{R6Kg} ; <i>oriT</i> _{RP4} ; <i>araC</i> -P _{BAD} <i>ccdB</i> ; [Cm ^R]	Le Roux et al., 2007
pSWd <i>varS</i>	pSW7848T; <i>DvarS</i>	This study
pMRB-P _{LAC} <i>varS</i>	<i>oriV</i> _{R6Kg} ; <i>oriT</i> _{RP4} ; <i>oriV</i> _{pB1067} ; P _{LAC} <i>varS</i> [Cm ^R]	This study
Primer	Sequence 5'-3'	
<i>DvarS</i> -1	GTATCATAAGCTTATATCGAATTCGGGTAACGAGTGGCTATTGT	
<i>DvarS</i> -2	CCATATCCACACCACGATGTAGAATAGGTTGGAGTTGCGC	
<i>DvarS</i> -3	GCGCAACTCCAACCTATTCTACATCGTGGTGTGGATATGG	
<i>DvarS</i> -4	CCCCCGGGCTGCAGGAATTCGGTCAGATGTTGTAGATCGC	
pSW-F	GAATTCCTGCAGCCCCGGGGG	
pSW-R	GAATTCGATATCAAGCTTATCGATAC	
<i>varS</i> -F	GTGAGCGGATAACAAAGGAAGGGCCCATGACCAGATATGGCTTACGC	
<i>varS</i> -R	CGCGTCTGCAGCTCGAGCTAAACCAGATAAGGTTTTGCC	
pMRB-F	CTCGAGCTGCAGACGCGTCG	
pMRB-R	GGGCCCTTCCTTTGTTATCCGCTCAC	
vector-F seq	GCATGTAGAGTCGGTGCAAG	
vector-R seq	CCAGGCTTTACACTTTATGC	
<i>varS</i> -1 seq	CGTCCATACCAGCTTTCAAG	
<i>varS</i> -2 seq	GTTCTGACTCTTCAGGCATC	
<i>varS</i> -3 seq	CTGGTGGCTTGCAAATTCAC	
<i>varS</i> -4 seq	GTCGTGCAATAGTCGAAATG	

Table 2: Strains, plasmids and primers used in this study