

The definitive version is available at <http://www3.interscience.wiley.com/>

Ecology of pathogenic and non-pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* on the French Atlantic coast. Effects of temperature, salinity, turbidity and chlorophyll a

Deter Julie^{1,2}, Lozach Solen¹, Véron Antoine^{1,3}, Chollet Jaufrey¹, Derrien Annick⁴ and Hervio-Heath Dominique^{1,*}

¹ IFREMER, centre de Brest, Département Environnement, Microbiologie et Phycotoxines (EMP), Laboratoire de Microbiologie, ZI de la pointe du diable, B.P. 70, 29280 Plouzané, France.

² Laboratoire Ecosystèmes Lagunaires (ECOLAG), UMR 5119 CNRS-IFREMER-UM2-IRD, Université de Montpellier II, Place Eugène Bataillon, 34095 Montpellier, France.

³ IFREMER, centre de Nantes, EMP/Laboratoire National de Référence Microbiologie des Coquillages, BP 21105, 44311 Nantes Cedex 3, France.

⁴ IFREMER, LERPC, centre de La Rochelle, place Gaby Coll, BP 7, 17137 L'Houmeau, France.

*: Corresponding author : Hervio-Heath Dominique, Tel. (+33) 2 98 22 43 49; Fax (+33) 2 98 22 45 94, email address : Dominique.Hervio.Heath@ifremer.fr

Abstract:

Vibrio parahaemolyticus is one of the principal bacterial causes for seafood-borne gastroenteritis in the world. In the present study, three sites located on the French Atlantic coast were monitored monthly for environmental parameters over 1 year. The presence of total and pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus* in sediment, water and mussel samples was detected following enrichment by culture and real-time PCR (toxR gene, tdh, trh1 and trh2 virulence genes). Using generalized linear models, we showed that the presence of *V. parahaemolyticus* in water could be explained by a combination of mean temperature over the 7 days before the day of sampling ($P < 0.001$) and turbidity ($P = 0.058$). In mussels, an effect of chlorophyll a ($P = 0.005$) was detected when an effect of the mean salinity over the 7 days before sampling was significant for the sediment ($P < 0.001$). We did not detect any significant effect of phytoplanktonic blooms or of the number of culturable bacteria on *V. parahaemolyticus* presence. No sample was revealed positive for tdh. The presence of trh1 and trh2 was positively influenced by the mean temperature during the 2 days before the day of sampling ($P < 0.001$ and $P = 0.032$). The importance of these ecological parameters is discussed in relation to the biology of *V. parahaemolyticus*.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* is a Gram-negative halophilic bacterium occurring naturally in
3 aquatic environments worldwide. Its abundance in water is seasonally variable, reaching its
4 maximum in summer when temperature is at its highest. The seasonal cycle of *V.*
5 *parahaemolyticus* in the sediment, water and plankton of Chesapeake Bay (USA) was first
6 reported by Kaneko and Colwell (1973; 1978). The bacterium might survive in sediments
7 during the winter and be released into the water column in late spring or early summer when
8 the temperature rises to 15 °C. Due to their filter-feeding activity, molluscs concentrate
9 bacteria in their tissues. The consumption of raw or undercooked contaminated seafood (and,
10 more rarely, the contact between a wound and contaminated water) may lead to the
11 transmission of bacteria to humans. However, only bacteria producing virulence factors, i.e.
12 thermostable direct haemolysin (TDH) and/or TDH-related haemolysin (TRH), are considered
13 to be pathogenic and can cause acute gastroenteritis (or, more rarely, invasive septicaemia)
14 (Nishibuchi *et al.*, 1995). Since 1996, the incidence of *V. parahaemolyticus* infections has
15 increased dramatically from sporadic cases to large-scale outbreaks in America and epidemics
16 in India and Asia (Matsumoto *et al.*, 2000). This increase in incidence seems to be related to
17 the emergence of a new pandemic clone, belonging to the O3:K6 serovar. In Europe, the risk
18 of *V. parahaemolyticus* infections is considered to be very low (European Commission, 2001;
19 Su and Liu, 2007). Consequently, the monitoring of this microorganism has not been included
20 in the most important European infectious disease surveillance networks. However, validation
21 of the ISO standard (ISO/TS 21872-1 and -2, 2007) and the preparation of a draft code of
22 hygienic practice for *Vibrio* spp in seafood (Codex Committee on Food Hygiene, *Codex*
23 *Alimentarius* Commission 2008) could contribute to the monitoring of this bacterium in
24 shellfish and water for risk assessment purposes (WHO-FAO, 2005). In France, the
25 temperature of coastal water tends to increase (this is monitored by IFREMER; see

1 <http://wwz.ifremer.fr/envlit/>) and the O3:K6 serovar was shown to be present and persistent
2 (Quilici *et al.*, 2005). However, apart from two outbreaks caused by imported shrimps (44
3 patients, Lemoine *et al.*, 1999) and mussels (100 patients, Hervio-Heath *et al.*, 2005), only
4 sporadic cases have been reported (Quilici *et al.*, 2005) and there has only been one case of
5 mortal septicaemia (Quilici *et al.*, 2004). A few environmental studies have shown the
6 presence of pathogenic strains in French coastal areas; *tdh*⁺ samples were never detected but
7 the prevalence of *trh*⁺ strains ranged between 3 and 10 % (Hervio-Heath *et al.*, 2002; Robert-
8 Pillot *et al.*, 2004). With a national production of 60 000 t per year, France is the third largest
9 mussel-producing country in Europe after Spain (250 000 t) and The Netherlands (100 000 t)
10 (Ifremer, 2006). Pertuis Breton (Poitou-Charentes Region) is an important area for this
11 activity economically, as it represents the second largest site for mussel culture in France
12 (production ranging from 7 000 to 9 000 t). Moreover, it provides most of the young mussels
13 to be grown on in Brittany and Normandy, two other French regions that do not produce spat
14 (Dardignac-Corbeil, 2004). Poitou-Charentes is one of the two French regions where the
15 highest number of vibrioses is reported (Quilici *et al.*, 2004).

16 Numerous authors worldwide have become interested in the identification of the causative or
17 associative factors that affect *V. parahaemolyticus* incidence, but no such study had been
18 made in France. The distribution of total coastal *V. parahaemolyticus* populations is
19 influenced by environmental factors including temperature in temperate zones (Duan and Su,
20 2005; Parveen *et al.*, 2008), turbidity (Blackwell and Oliver, 2008; Parveen *et al.*, 2008),
21 salinity (Martinez-Urtaza *et al.*, 2008) and factors related to plankton (planktonic species,
22 plankton detritus, or other particulate matter trapped during plankton hauls) due to attachment
23 and/or a chitinoclastic activity (Kaneko *et al.*, 1973). Similarly, climate, especially increasing
24 temperature, has been shown to impact other pathogenic *Vibrionaceae* as *V. vulnificus* and *V.*
25 *cholerae* diseases (Colwell, 1996; Lipp *et al.*, 2002; Paza *et al.*, 2007; de Magny *et al.*, 2008).

1 In particular, *Vibrio cholerae* has been extensively studied and associations with chlorophyll
2 a, rainfall and temperature have been shown (de Magny *et al.*, 2008). In oysters, temperature,
3 turbidity and dissolved oxygen were also positively correlated with *V. parahaemolyticus*
4 densities (Parveen *et al.*, 2008). All of these studies evaluated the links between
5 environmental factors and total *V. parahaemolyticus* but, as recently reported by Drake *et al.*
6 (2007), less is known about pathogenic strains in shellfish or water.
7 The objectives of the present study are first to determine the incidence of total and pathogenic
8 *V. parahaemolyticus* in mussels, water and sediment in the Pertuis Breton, and second, to
9 investigate the relationships with either abiotic (water temperature, salinity, turbidity,
10 dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll *a*) or biotic parameters (phytoplankton blooms, number of
11 culturable bacteria).

12

13 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

14 *Description of the data*

15 All environmental (water temperature, salinity, turbidity and chlorophyll *a*) parameters
16 showed temporal variation during this one-year study (see Fig. 1). All of these parameters are
17 presented in Figure 1. Technical problems with sensors (battery or biofouling) led to a few
18 gaps in water temperature and salinity data. Measurements of dissolved oxygen were
19 insufficient in number (only 18 observations) for the variable to be included in the statistical
20 analyses. The monitoring of phytoplankton showed blooms of *Pseudo-nitzschia* sp,
21 *Chaetoceros* sp, *Skeletonema costatum* and *Leptocylindrus* (*danicus* and *curvatulus*),
22 especially in May-June. All of these data were normalized (square root or log transformation)
23 before statistical analysis.

24 Overall, total *V. parahaemolyticus* was present in mussels from May to October (present
25 during winter at l'Eperon and in December-February and March in La Carrelère), in water

1 from June to October and in sediment from June to December (see Fig. 2 for details). No
2 effect of sampling site was detected ($P = 0.381$) but the source effect was significant ($P =$
3 0.035). Data from the different sites were thus pooled but considered separately for mussels,
4 water and sediment in the statistical analyses concerning the presence of total *V.*
5 *parahaemolyticus*. When we considered the presence of pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus*, *tdh*
6 was not detected in any of the 483 *toxR* positive (*toxR*+) samples, which is in agreement with
7 the other field studies conducted in France (Hervio-Heath *et al.*, 2002; Robert-Pillot *et al.*,
8 2004). *trh1* was detected in *toxR* + samples of mussels and sediment but never of water. The
9 presence of the *trh2* gene was almost detected in all sites depending of the time. All of these
10 results are presented in Fig. 3. Based on the lack of substantial differences for the presence of
11 *trh1* + or *trh2* + samples (presence of pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus*) between the sources of
12 samples and/or sampling sites (all $P > 0.400$), virulence data were pooled for the general
13 linear models. Among the *toxR* + samples, 24.64 % (119/483) were *trh*+: 11/483 *trh1* + with
14 0/223 isolated strains and 113/483 *trh2* + with 34/223 isolated strains (15.25%), a few samples
15 were simultaneously *trh1* + and *trh2* +. This prevalence is similar (considering isolated strains
16 only) or a little greater (considering RT-PCR on DNA directly extracted from enriched
17 samples and from strains) than those reported in previous short studies on the situation in
18 France (3-15 %, see Introduction).

19

20 *The influence of abiotic parameters on the presence of total V. parahaemolyticus depends on*
21 *the source (compartment)*

22 In water, the best model (minimal AIC = 31.851, $P < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.506$) explaining the
23 presence of total *V. parahaemolyticus* was composed of mean temperature over the seven
24 days before the date of sampling, hereon referred to as *Temp-7* ($P < 0.001$), and turbidity ($P =$
25 0.058) (see Table 1). More than half of the variance ($R^2 = 0.506$) in presence-absence of total

1 *V. parahaemolyticus* in water could be attributed to differences in water turbidity and *Temp-7*.
2 Increasing temperatures are linked to a higher risk of encountering *V. parahaemolyticus* in
3 water (mean temperature when total *V. parahaemolyticus* were detected was 20 °C, compared
4 with 13°C when they were not; Fig. 4). The same effect of temperature has been frequently
5 observed in previous studies (Cook *et al.*, 2002; Blackwell and Oliver, 2008; Parveen *et al.*,
6 2008) and directly linked to the growing capacities of this bacterium. In the USA, the Gulf
7 Coast has the warmest mean water temperature (22 °C, although it can reach 30 °C) and was
8 seen to have the highest mean *V. parahaemolyticus* levels (11000 CFU/100 g oysters, 44/100
9 ml water), while the Pacific Coast presents the coldest water temperature and has lowest
10 levels of *V. parahaemolyticus* (2100 CFU/100 g oysters, 2 CFU/100 ml water). The direct
11 relationship between *V. parahaemolyticus* and water temperature seems to determine its
12 geographical distribution in the USA, Europe and Asia (Igbinosa *et al.*, 2008). In the present
13 study, we tested the effect of mean temperature calculated over a longer or shorter period
14 (one, two and seven days before the sampling) and we found that a seven day-period allowed
15 a better prediction of the presence of the bacteria. This makes sense, considering the time
16 needed for the growth of *V. parahaemolyticus* once favourable temperature conditions arise.
17 Turbidity, although clearly less important, was also often linked to the bacteria presence
18 because nutrients levels were higher (when waters are more turbid and richer in organic
19 matter) stimulating bacterial growth or attachment to sediment particles, or reducing the
20 penetration of solar radiation (Jones and Summer-Brason, 1998; Blackwell and Oliver, 2008;
21 Parveen *et al.*, 2008).

22 In sediment, the best model (AIC = 21.86, $P < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.420$) explaining the presence of
23 *V. parahemolyticus* included only mean salinity over the seven days before sampling, *Sal-7*,
24 ($P < 0.001$; Table 1). The second best model included *Temp-2* ($P = 0.034$) and *Sal-2* ($P =$
25 0.106, AIC of the model = 23.536, $P = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.430$). A few studies have reported the

1 influence of environmental parameters on the occurrence of vibrios in sediment. Kaneko and
2 Colwell (1973; 1978) mention an effect of temperature on the *Vibrio* sp life cycle over-winter
3 in sediment. Blackwell and Oliver (2008) only detected a positive influence of pH (no
4 influence of water salinity or temperature) on the occurrence of *V. vulnificus* in sediment but
5 an effect of water temperature and turbidity (no impact of salinity) on *V. parahaemolyticus*. In
6 the present study, we showed that the bacteria are found during a longer period in sediment
7 than in water, but they are not detected year-round in sediment. Moreover, salinity of water
8 estimated over several days seemed to have a greater influence than temperature on the
9 presence of *V. parahaemolyticus* in sediment. A positive influence of water salinity on the
10 occurrence of vibrios in water has often been detected when the range of variation of salinity
11 levels is broad enough and the sample size sufficient (Cook *et al.*, 2002; DePaola *et al.*, 2003;
12 Zimmerman *et al.*, 2007; Martinez-Urtaza *et al.*, 2008; Parveen *et al.*, 2008). The particular
13 link that we found between salinity and presence of total *V. parahaemolyticus* in sediment
14 may also be due to a direct influence of salinity and/or of freshwater inputs and other water
15 perturbations. The higher the salinity of the sea water, the less important freshwater inputs
16 become and the less the sea water would be perturbed by them. High salinity would,
17 therefore, allow a more important sedimentation of bacteria. Salinity has been shown to
18 influence the deposition of coliform bacteria in bottom muds of an estuarine system, thus
19 prolonging their survival (Roper and Marshall, 1979).

20 In mussels, only chlorophyll *a* was found to have a positive effect on the presence of the
21 bacteria ($P = 0.005$, AIC of the model = 28.160, $P = 0.013$, $R^2 = 0.149$). However, biotic
22 parameters (culturable bacteria or phytoplanktonic blooms) were never found to have a
23 significant effect explaining the presence of total *V. parahaemolyticus*, even in mussels. This
24 could be due to links between chlorophyll *a* – phytoplankton – zooplankton, but
25 unfortunately, we were not able to monitor zooplankton during this study to confirm this.

1 *Vibrio* species have previously been shown to be influenced by the presence and abundance of
2 zooplankton due to attachment and/or the chitinoclastic activity of the bacteria (see the
3 introduction). The influence of chlorophyll *a* detected in mussel samples is not due to the
4 bloom of any of the phytoplanktonic species reported in this study, but rather to an overall
5 effect or to the influence of zooplankton in relation to phytoplankton, linked in turn to
6 chlorophyll *a*. Chlorophyll *a* in water, assessed with remote sensing, is already used to predict
7 cholera epidemics (de Magny *et al.*, 2008). It also seems to be able to explain some of the
8 variation in *V. parahaemolyticus* levels in oysters (Phillips *et al.*, 2007).

9

10 *Influence of mean temperature recorded prior to sampling on the presence of pathogenic V.*
11 *parahaemolyticus (detected in all toxR+ samples)*

12 The presence of pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus* is mainly positively linked to past
13 temperature *Temp-2* ($P < 0.001$, AIC for the model = 22.920, $P = 0.031$, $R^2 = 0.047$ for *toxR+*
14 *trh1+* samples and $P = 0.032$, AIC for the model = 38.635, $P = 0.011$, $R^2 = 0.017$ for *toxR+*
15 *trh2+* samples; Table 1 and Fig. 3). The models are highly significant but only explain a small
16 part of the variance (<5%), suggesting that the major influencing factor was not found.

17 Contrary to the model selected for the presence of total *V. parahaemolyticus* in water, *Temp-2*
18 was a better explaining factor than *Temp-7* for pathogenic bacteria. This may be due to a
19 faster growth of pathogenic strains than non-pathogenic ones or simply because the lowest
20 variations in temperature occurred during summer (when pathogenic strains are more
21 frequent) making it unnecessary to calculate the mean over as long a period as seven days.

22 Moreover, even though several parameters influenced the presence of total *V.*

23 *parahaemolyticus*, only one (*Temp-2*) had an impact on the presence of pathogenic strains.

24 This raises two important points: although total *V. parahaemolyticus* data may be very
25 informative and easier to predict (greater R^2), it is worth studying bacteria that are more

1 pathogenic as (1) according to Zimmerman *et al.* (2007) there are differences in predicting
2 total and pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus* and (2) there is a strong disadvantage of being a
3 pathogenic strain during cold periods because pathogenic strains should have optimal growth
4 at warm temperatures (at least 37°C for a human body) to be pathogenic for humans.
5 Considering the three sites, *V. parahaemolyticus* was always detected in at least one of the
6 samples even during cold months. This suggests that *V. parahaemolyticus* is always present in
7 the environment and simply spatially redistributed between the different sources (shellfish,
8 sediment and water). No difference was detected between sources either for the presence (see
9 above) or the proportions of pathogenic strains (contingency table, all $P > 0.05$). This
10 confirms the equal role of these different sources in the maintenance of pathogenic *V.*
11 *parahaemolyticus*, as recently proposed by Johnson *et al.* (2009) on genetic grounds.
12 This study is based on qualitative data, but it would now be better to work with quantities of
13 total and pathogenic bacteria measured directly in the samples (without any enrichment step)
14 using quantitative PCR. Thus, methods for concentration (filtration) of materials and DNA
15 extractions need to be further developed and validated. This would remove any potential
16 culture bias, to enable us to detect more *V. parahaemolyticus* cells and to study how the
17 bacteria are spatially and temporally structured using a genetic approach (multilocus sequence
18 analysis; Johnson *et al.*, 2009). Further observations would contribute to the development of
19 predictive models to evaluate proliferation of pathogenic species and thus, help to characterize
20 risk periods for the benefit of public health.

21

22 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

23 *Sampling sites and collection of samples*

24 Pertuis Breton is located on the French Atlantic coast close to La Rochelle (Fig. 5). It
25 represents an area of 350 km². The fresh water input from the Le Lay and La Sèvre Niortaise

1 rivers is relatively low (flow around 100m³/s in winter) (Dardignac-Corbeil, 2004). Climate in
2 the region is oceanic with mean annual temperature around 12 °C (from –6 to 36 °C, data
3 from the Poitou-Charentes Regional environmental observatory [http://www.observatoire-
5 environnement.org/tbe/Climat.html](http://www.observatoire-
4 environnement.org/tbe/Climat.html)).

6 Water (N = 16 x 3 sites = 48) and mussel *Mytilus edulis* (N = 48) samples were collected
7 monthly (twice monthly between May and August, noted “Month-1” and “Month-2”) from
8 April 2008 to March 2009 from the three selected sites (L’Eperon, La Carrelère and Filière
9 W, see Fig. 5) by the Laboratoire Environnement Ressources du Pertuis Charentais (LER/PC)
10 IFREMER. Sediment samples (N = 12 x 2 sites = 24) were collected monthly during the same
11 period in La Carrelère and L’Eperon (at low tide) but not in Filière W where the depth was
12 too great and the mussels are never out of the water. Mussels were sampled from “bouchots”
13 (wooden stakes) at La Carrelère and L’Eperon and on lines at Filière W. Water samples were
14 collected just below the surface. All microbiological analyses were initiated within 20-24 h of
15 sample collection following transportation to IFREMER Brest (transport in coolers at ~12
16 °C).

17 Environmental parameters were measured regularly by IFREMER LER/PC (between zero and
18 two days before or after the sampling on average) for the REseau de surveillance du
19 PHYtoplancton (REPHY) database (Ifremer phytoplankton monitoring network).

20 Phytoplanktonic data concerned the monitoring of toxic species such as *Pseudo-Nitzschia*,
21 *Alexandrium* and *Dinophysis*, but also the blooms of all other species (> 100 000 cells / l).

22 Abiotic parameters were measured simultaneously in the upper 0.5 m of the surface water:
23 chlorophyll *a* (µg / l), turbidity (in formazin nephelometric units = FNU) and dissolved
24 oxygen (mg / l, measured from June to September only) were measured. Temperature (in °C)

1 and salinity (no unit) were measured every 15 minutes by STPS sensors (NKE, France)
2 placed in the proximity of the sampling points.

3

4 *Preparation of samples*

5 Mussels were washed, opened using a sterile scalpel and emptied of sea water. All of the
6 following steps were done in sterilized conditions, with sterile instruments. Around 200 g of
7 flesh were collected per site. Liquid (hemolymph) and solid (remaining flesh) phases were
8 analysed separately for another experiment. As no difference was found between the two
9 matrices, final results were pooled as “mussel” in the present study. The solid phase was then
10 blended (3 x 20 sec. at high speed in a sterile Warring® Blender) and diluted 1:2 with sterile
11 alkaline peptone water 1% NaCl (APW, 20g Bacto™ peptone Becton Dickinson and Co, 10 g
12 NaCl per liter, pH 8.2). Eight hundred ml water from each site were filtered (nitrocellulose
13 0.22 µm, Millipore). Filter contents were re-suspended in 25 ml (40 ml for l’Eperon and La
14 Carrelère in summer) of sterile artificial sea water (water and Instant® Ocean Sea Salt). For
15 sediment samples, 20 g were 1:2 diluted with APW 1% NaCl.

16

17 *Detection of V. parahaemolyticus*

18 *Direct culture and enrichment.* Three filtrations of 10 ml, 50 ml and 100 ml water (5, 10 and
19 25 ml in summer) were realized for each site. Filters (nitrocellulose 0,22 µm Ø 47 mm,
20 Millipore) were deposited onto three different culture media: Difco™ Marine Agar 2216
21 (=MA) (Becton Dickinson and Co.), Difco™ Thiosulfate Citrate Bile Salts Sucrose agar
22 (=TCBS) (Becton Dickinson and Co.), and CHROMagar™ Vibrio (=CA) (CHROMagar Paris
23 France). One filter was deposited per plate (three plates / culture medium /site). For each site,
24 0.1 ml of hemolymph and 0.1 ml of the following two 10-fold serial dilutions with buffered
25 physiological water (BPW, 4.52 g Na₂HPO₄, 12H₂O, 0.4g KH₂PO₄, 7.2 g NaCl per liter) were

1 spread plated onto TCBS, MA and CA. We proceeded similarly for the 1:2 mussel and 1:2
2 sediment homogenates. All the plates were incubated 24 h at 37 °C.
3 Undiluted hemolymph, re-suspended filter contents, a 1:10 dilution (APW) of the 1:2 mussel
4 homogenate and of the 1:2 sediment homogenate, were studied using the Most Probable
5 Number method (MPN) with three series of six tubes. Each series corresponded to a 1:10,
6 1:100 and 1:1000 dilution (with APW). Tubes were incubated 20 h at 41 °C (a negative
7 control per series is placed at 4°C). The number of total halophilic bacteria culturable at 41 °C
8 (selection of *Vibrionaceae*) was estimated using Mac Grady tables (Santé Canada, 1993).
9 Bacteria were isolated from 10 µl of one positive tube per series on TCBS, MA and CA
10 (incubation of one plate / medium during 24h at 37°C). No enumeration was done for
11 sediment, but 6 ml of 1:2 diluted sediment were enriched in 24 ml of APW. After 20h at 41
12 °C, 100 µl of 10⁻⁴, 10⁻⁵ and 10⁻⁶ dilution with BPW were spread-plated onto TCBS, MA and
13 CA and incubated 24h at 37°C.

14

15 *Biochemical identification.* One colony of each morphotype per source/culture medium/site
16 (up to three colonies) suspected to be *V. parahaemolyticus* (green on TCBS, purple on CA,
17 white on MA) was isolated twice on Bacto™ Heart Infusion agar with 2 % NaCl (=HI)
18 (Becton Dickinson and Company) and incubated at 37 °C. Oxidase disks and Api20E system
19 (BioMerieux, France) were used for the biochemical identification of presumed *V.*
20 *parahaemolyticus* strains.

21

22 *DNA extraction and detection of total and pathogenic V. parahaemolyticus by real-time PCR.*
23 DNA from oxidase positive strains was extracted from a 10 µl inoculation loop washed twice
24 with BPW (centrifugation 10 min at 5900 g). The pellet was suspended in 100 µl of DNase,
25 RNase, protease-free water (5-Prime inc.), heated 15 min at 100 °C for cell lysis and

1 centrifuged 10 min at 5900 g at 4 °C. The lysate supernatant fluid was transferred to a new 0.5
2 ml tube.
3 Ten ml of enriched sediment were filtered (nitrocellulose 8µm, Millipore) and centrifuged 15
4 min at 2500 g. The pellet was suspended in 2 ml of BPW and centrifuged 5 min at 5900 g
5 before the heating at 100 °C and performing the following steps.
6 Two ml of each MPN positive tube were centrifuged (10 min 5900 g). DNA was extracted as
7 described above for strains. All DNA extractions were kept at -20 °C until real-time PCR
8 (RT-PCR). DNA were tested for the presence of total and pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus*
9 using respectively *toxR* gene and *tdh*, *trh1* and *trh2* virulence gene detection (patent in
10 process) by RT-PCR on a MX3000P™ (Stratagene). Each *toxR*+ sample was considered to be
11 positive for the presence of *V. parahaemolyticus* and tested for the presence of the virulence
12 genes.

13

14 *Statistical analyses*

15 We investigated the relationships between the environmental parameters measured and the
16 presence of total (*toxR*+) and pathogenic (*tdh*+, *trh1*+ or *trh2*+) *V. parahaemolyticus* samples
17 for each site and sampling session (binomial dependant variable: presence / absence). The
18 dataset (overall pooled data) was tested for the effect of sampling site (Filière W, L'Eperon
19 and La Carrelère) and source (mussel, water and sediment) using a logistic regression. We
20 used generalized linear models with a logit function to test for the influence of (1) abiotic
21 parameters (quantitative data): mean temperature (on the day of sampling itself, or estimated
22 over the two preceding days = *Temp-2* or seven preceding days = *Temp-7*) × mean salinity (on
23 the day of sampling, or estimated over two preceding days = *Sal-2* or seven preceding days =
24 *Sal-7*) × turbidity × chlorophyll *a* × dissolved oxygen; and (2) biotic parameters: blooms of
25 phytoplanktonic species (qualitative data) and number of culturable bacteria estimated by the

1 MPN method in mussels and water (quantitative data). The interactions between all of the
2 variables in each model were investigated. We used an exhaustive approach, testing all the
3 interactions between variables, and searched for the most parsimonious (the least number of
4 variables but most explanation of results) using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)
5 (Akaike, 1974; Burnham and Anderson, 1998). All analyses were based on Legendre and
6 Legendre (1998) and performed with Statistica 6.1 (StatSoft, Inc.).

7

8 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

9 We thank James Grizon for his help with sampling and the EMP/MIC team for opening the
10 mussels. We appreciate the assistance of Jean-Michel Chabirand and Alain Fillon for
11 providing the sensor data and map, respectively. We thank Monique Pommepuy, Jean Côme
12 Piquet, Mireille Ryckaert and Jean Prou for their scientific advice. This project was supported
13 by IFREMER and a post-doctoral grant from the French Ministry of Higher Education and
14 Research (Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche).

15 Akaike, H. (1974) A new look at the statistical model identification. IEEE Trans Automat
16 Contr **19**: 716-723.

17 Blackwell, K.D., and Oliver, J.D. (2008) The ecology of *Vibrio vulnificus*, *Vibrio cholerae*
18 and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in North Carolina estuaries. J Microbiol **46**: 1-8.

19 Burnham, K.P., and Anderson, D.R. (1998) Model Selection and Inference - A practical
20 information-theoretic approach. New York, USA: Springer-Verlag.

21 Cook, D.W., Bowers, J.C., and Depaola, A. (2002) Density of total and pathogenic (*tdh+*)
22 *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Atlantic and Gulf Coast molluscan shellfish at harvest. J Food
23 Prot **65**: 1873-1880.

24 Colwell, R.R. (1996) Global climate and infectious disease: the cholera paradigm. Science
25 **274**: 2025–2031.

1 Dardignac-Corbeil, M.-J. (2004) La mytiliculture dans le "Pertuis Breton". Synthèse des
2 travaux réalisés de 1980 à 1992. Annales de la Société des sciences naturelles de la Charente-
3 Maritime: 3-79.

4 de Magny, G.C., Murtugudde, R., Sapiano, M.R.P., Nizam, A., Brown, C.W., Busalacchi,
5 A.J. *et al.* (2008) Environmental signatures associated with cholera epidemics. Proc Natl
6 Acad Sci U S A **105**: 17676-17681.

7 DePaola, A., Nordstrom, J.L., Bowers, J.C., Wells, J.G., and Cook, D.W. (2003) Seasonal
8 abundance of total and pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Alabama oysters. Appl
9 Environ Microbiol **69**: 1521-1526.

10 Drake, S.L., DePaola, A., and Jaykus, L.-A. (2007) An overview of *Vibrio vulnificus* and
11 *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. Comp Rev Food Sci Food Safety **6**: 120-144.

12 Duan, J., and Su, Y. (2005) Occurrence of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in two Oregon oyster-
13 growing bays. J Food Sci **70**: M58-M63.

14 European Commission (2001) Opinion of the scientific committee on veterinary measures
15 relating to public health on *Vibrio vulnificus* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*.

16 Hervio-Heath, D., Colwell, R.R., Derrien, A., Robert-Pillot, A., Fournier, J.-M., and
17 Pommeuy, M. (2002) Occurrence of pathogenic vibrios in coastal areas of France. J Appl
18 Microbiol **92**: 1123-1135.

19 Hervio-Heath, D., Zidane, M., Le Saux, J.-C., Lozach, S., Vaillant, V., Le Guyader, S., and
20 Pommeuy, M. (2005) Toxi-infections alimentaires collectives liées à la consommation de
21 moules contaminées par *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* : enquête environnementale. Bulletin
22 épidémiologique de l'AFSSA **17**: 1-2.

23 IFREMER (2006). Aquaculture - Filière mollusques [www document]. URL
24 http://wwz.ifremer.fr/aquaculture/filieres/filiere_mollusques/decouverte_mollusques

1 Igbinosa, E.O., and Okoh, A.I. (2008) Emerging *Vibrio* species: an unending threat to public
2 health in developing countries. *Res Microbiol* **159**: 495-506.

3 ISO/TS 21872-1 and -2, International Organization for Standardization. (2007) Microbiology
4 of food and animal feeding stuffs. Horizontal method for the detection of potentially
5 enteropathogenic *Vibrio* spp. Microbiology of food and animal feeding stuffs *Vibrio* spp. Part
6 1: Detection of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and *Vibrio cholerae*. Part 2: detection of species
7 other than *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and *Vibrio cholerae*.

8 Johnson, C.N., Flowers, A.R., Young, V.C., Gonzalez-Escalona, N., Depaola, A., Noriea III,
9 N.F., and Grimes, D.J. (2009) Genetic relatedness among *tdh+* and *trh+* *Vibrio*
10 *parahaemolyticus* cultured from Gulf of Mexico oysters (*Crassostrea virginica*) and
11 surrounding water and sediment. *Microb Ecol* **57**: 437-443.

12 Jones, S.H., and Summer-Brason, B. (1998) Incidence and detection of pathogenic *Vibrio* sp.
13 in a northern New England Estuary, USA. Conference Information: 2nd International
14 Conference on Molluscan Shellfish Safety 1997, Iloilo (Philippines). *J Shellfish Res* **17**:
15 1665-1669.

16 Kaneko, T., and Colwell, R.R. (1973) Ecology of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Chesapeake
17 Bay. *J Bacteriol* **113**: 24-32.

18 Kaneko, T., and Colwell, R.R. (1978) Annual cycle of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in
19 Chesapeake Bay. *Microbiol Ecol* **4**: 135-155.

20 Legendre, P., and Legendre, L. (1998) Numerical Ecology. Developments in environmental
21 modelling. Amsterdam, Netherlands: Elsevier Sciences B. V.

22 Lemoine, T., Germanetto, P., and Giraud, P. (1999) Toxi-infection alimentaire collective à
23 *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. *Bulletin Epidémiologique Hebdomadaire* **10**: 37-38.

24 Lipp, E.K., Huq, A., and Colwell, R.R. (2002) Effects of global climate on infectious disease:
25 the Cholera model. *Clin Microbiol Rev* **15**: 757-770.

1 Martinez-Urtaza, J., Lozano-Leon, A., Varela-Pet, J., Trinanes, J., Pazos, Y., and Garcia-
2 Martin, O. (2008) Environmental determinants of the occurrence and distribution of *Vibrio*
3 *parahaemolyticus* in the rias of Galicia, Spain. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **74**: 265-274.

4 Matsumoto, C., Okuda, J., Ishibashi, M., Iwanaga, M., Garg, P., Rammamurthy, T. *et al.*
5 (2000) Pandemic spread of an O3:K6 clone of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and emergence of
6 related strains evidenced by arbitrarily primed PCR and toxRS sequence analyses. *J Clin*
7 *Microbiol* **32**: 578-585.

8 Nishibuchi, M., and Kaper, J.B. (1995) Thermostable direct hemolysin gene of *Vibrio*
9 *parahaemolyticus*: a virulence gene acquired by a marine bacterium. *Infect Immun* **63**: 2093-
10 2099.

11 Parveen, S., Hettiarachchi, K.A., Bowers, J.C., Jones, J.L., Tamplin, M.L., McKay, R. *et al.*
12 (2008) Seasonal distribution of total and pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Chesapeake
13 Bay oysters and waters. *J Food Microbiol* **128**: 354-361.

14 Paza, S., Bisharatb, N., Pazc, E., Kidara, O., and Cohenb, D. (2007) Climate change and the
15 mergence of *Vibrio vulnificus* disease in Israel. *Env Res* **103**: 390-396.

16 Phillips, A.M.B., DePaola, A., Bowers, J., Ladner, S., and Grimes, D.J. (2007) An evaluation
17 of the use of remotely sensed parameters for prediction of incidence and risk associated with
18 *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Gulf Coast oysters (*Crassostrea virginica*). *J Food Protec* **70**:
19 879-884.

20 Quilici, M.-L., Guenole, A., Lemee, L., and Fournier, J.-M. (2004) Les infections à vibrions
21 non cholériques en France : cas identifiés de 2001 à 2003 par le Centre national de référence
22 des vibrions et du choléra. *Synthèse du Centre national de référence des vibrions et du*
23 *choléra*.

24 Quilici, M.-L., Robert-Pillot, A., Picart, J., and Fournier, J.-M. (2005) Pandemic *Vibrio*
25 *parahaemolyticus* O3:K6 spread, France. *Emerg Infect Dis* **11**: 1148-1149.

1 Robert-Pillot, A., Guérolé, A., Lesne, J., Delesmont, R., Fournier, J.-M., and Quilici, M.-L.
2 (2004) Occurrence of the *tdh* and *trh* genes in *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolates from waters
3 and raw shellfish collected in two French coastal areas and from seafood imported into
4 France. *Int J Food Microbiol* **91**: 319-325.

5 Roper, M.M., and Marshall, K.C. (1979) Effects of salinity on sedimentation and of
6 participates on survival of bacteria in estuarine habitats. *Geomicrobiol J* **1**: 103-116.

7 Santé Canada (1993) Compendium des méthodes. Méthodes officielles pour l'analyse
8 microbiologique des aliments. In: Direction Générale des Produits de Santé et des Aliments -
9 Santé Canada, Annexe D vol 1-3.

10 Su, Y.-C., and Liu, C. (2007) *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*: A concern of seafood safety. *Food*
11 *Microbiol* **24**: 549-558.

12 WHO, FAO (2005) Risk assessment of *Vibrio vulnificus* in raw oysters, MRA series 8.

13 Zimmerman, A.M., Depaola, A., Bowers, J.C., Krantz, J.A., Nordstrom, J.L., Johnson, C.N.,
14 and Grimes, D.J. (2007) Variability of total and pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* densities
15 in Northern Gulf of Mexico water and oysters. *App Env Microbiol* **73**: 7589-7596.

16

17 TABLE AND FIGURE LEGENDS

18

19 Table 1. Description of the models selected to explain the presence / absence (P/A) of total
20 and pathogenic (presence of *trh1* or *trh2* genes) *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (=Vp). *Sal-y* or
21 *Temp-y* = mean salinity or temperature estimated over y days before the sampling.

22

Variable to be explained	Variables included in the selected model	Log likelihood	χ^2	P-value
P/A Vp in water	<i>Temp-7</i>	-41.155	40.309	< 0.001

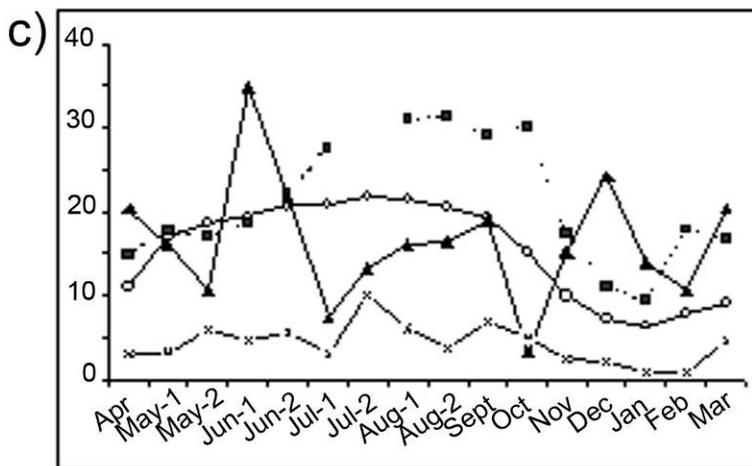
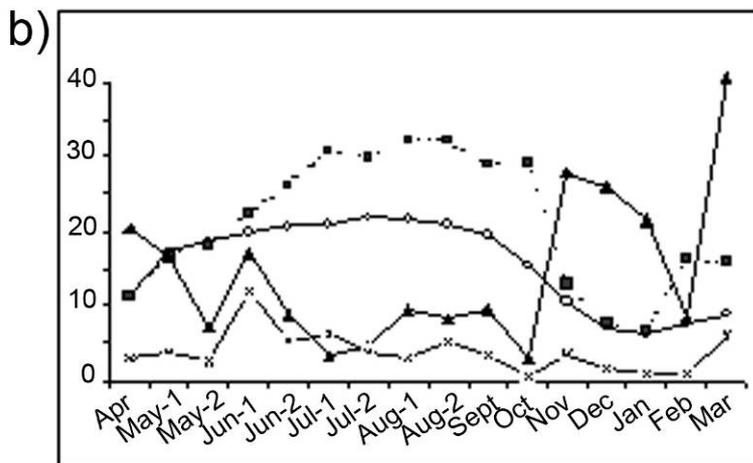
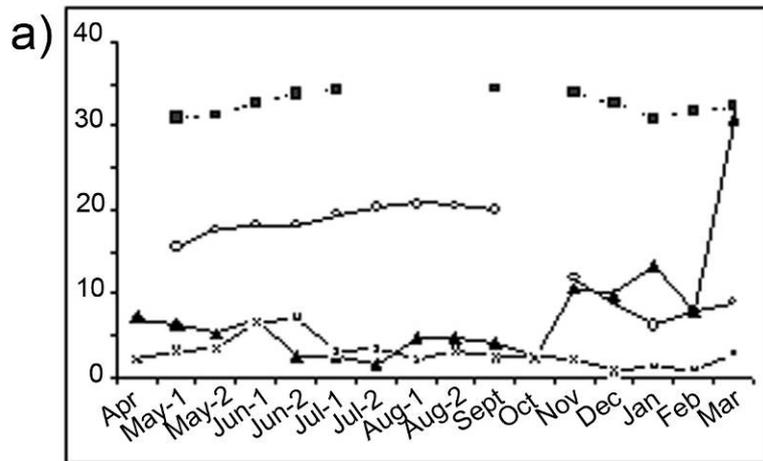
	Turbidity	-21.800	3.591	0.058
P/A Vp in sediment	<i>Sal-7</i>	-18.094	15.187	< 0.001
P/A Vp in mussels	Chlorophyll a	-27.017	8.034	0.005
P/A <i>trh1</i> gene in <i>toxR</i>+ samples	<i>Temp-2</i>	-23.102	13.205	< 0.001
P/A <i>trh2</i> gene in <i>toxR</i>+ samples	<i>Temp-2</i>	-18.811	4.623	0.032

1

2

1

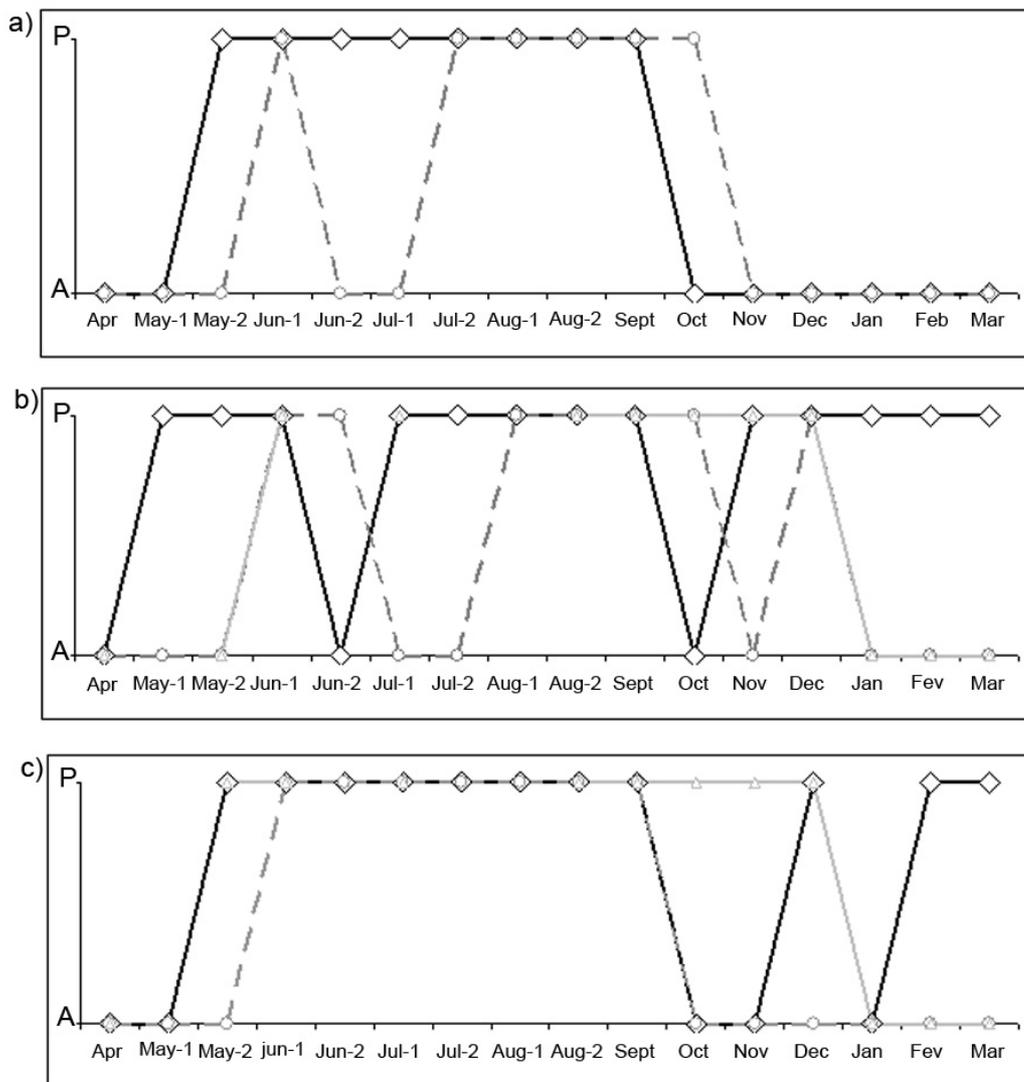
2 Figure 1. Variation of the abiotic parameters: mean temperature (white circles) and salinity
3 (black squares) of the day of sampling, turbidity (black triangles) and chlorophyll *a* (crosses).
4 The study period (April 2008- March 2009) covered 16 sampling sessions (generally one
5 sample per month year round and two per month between May and August) at a) Filière W, b)
6 L'Eperon and c) La Carrelère. Gaps in temperature and salinity measurement are due to
7 technical problems with sensors.



1

2

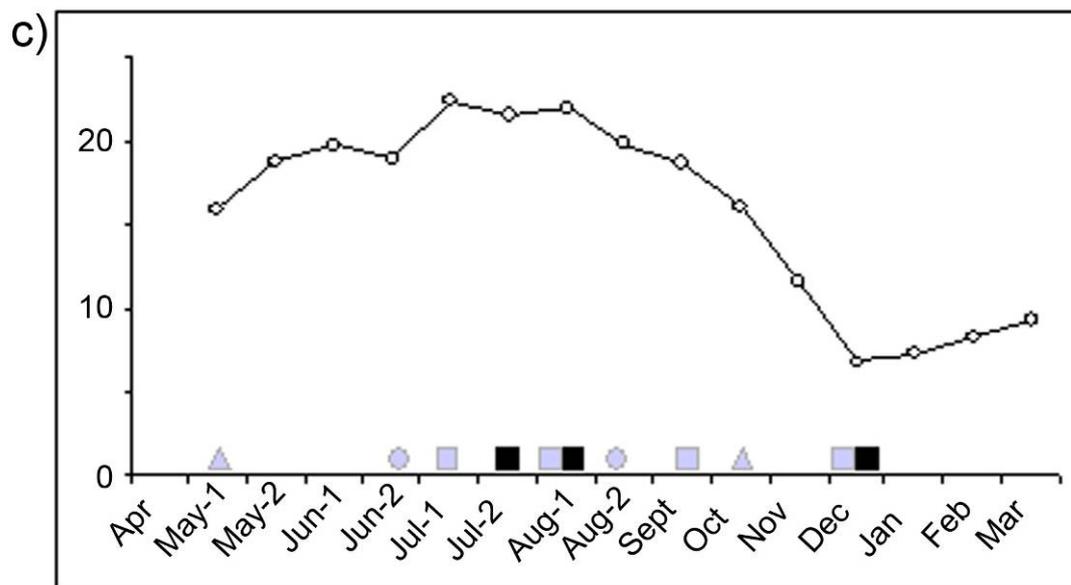
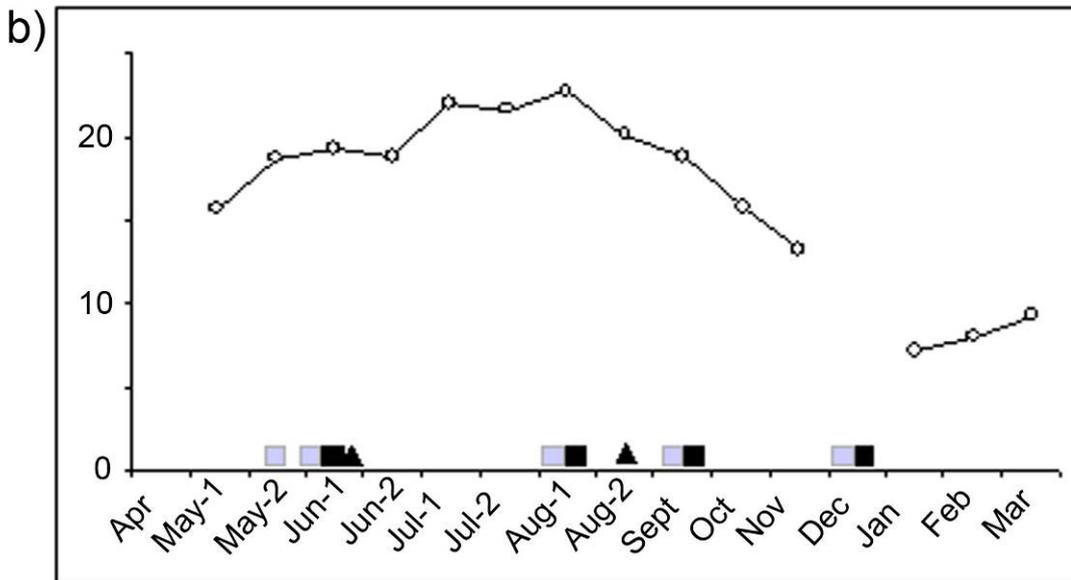
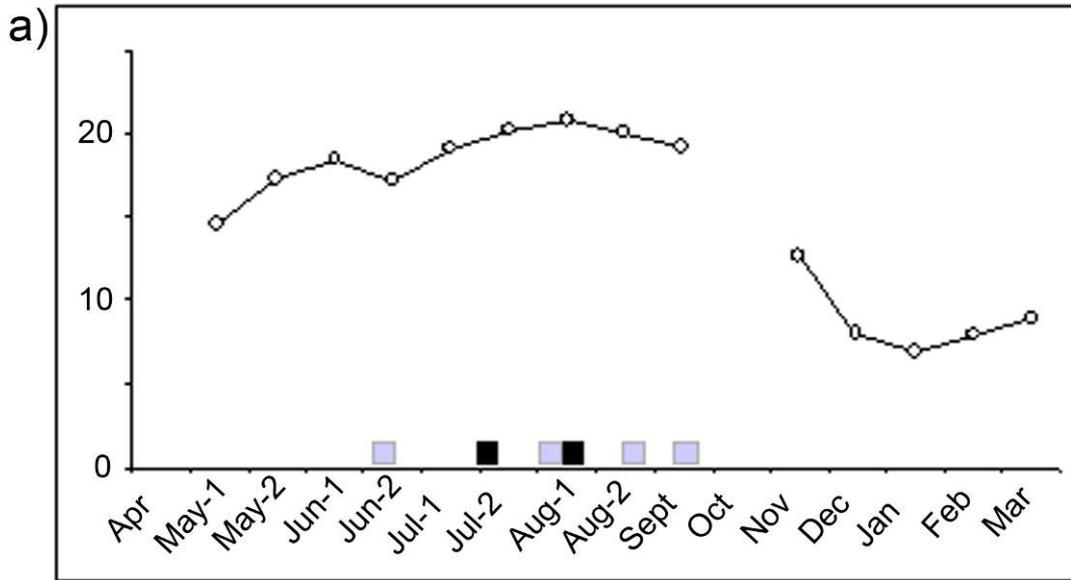
- 1 Figure 2. Presence (P) / Absence (A) of total *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in mussels (full black
- 2 lines, squares), water (dotted grey lines, circles) and sediment (full grey lines, small triangles)
- 3 per date of sampling at a) Filière W, b) L'Eperon and c) La Carrelère.



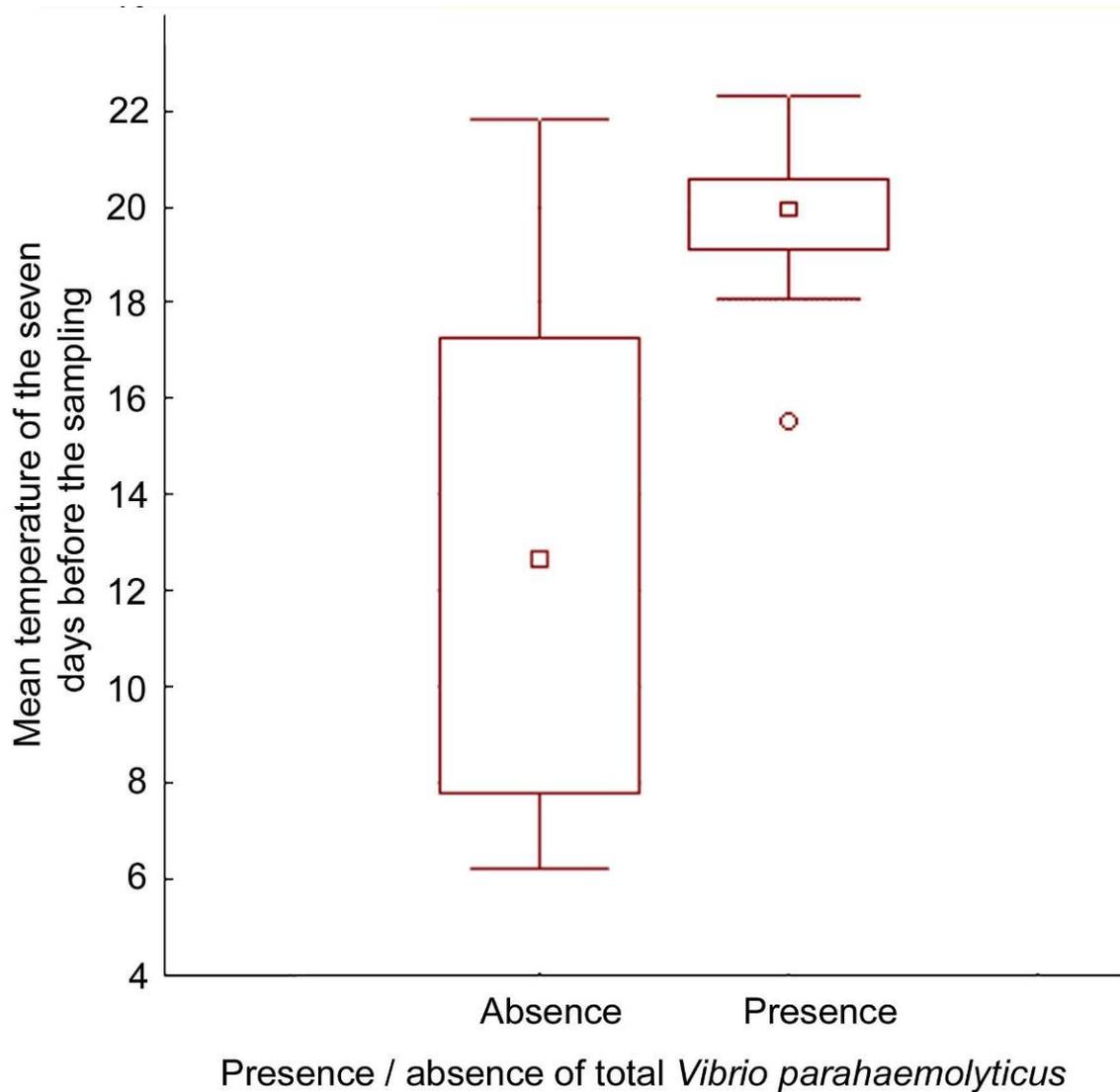
4

5

1 Figure 3. Variation of mean water temperature (°C) estimated over the two days before the
2 day of sampling (*Temp-2*) at a) Filière W, b) L'Eperon and c) La Carrelère. Presence of
3 pathogenic (*trh1+* in black, *trh2+* in grey, no *tdh+*) *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in mussels
4 (squares), water (circles) and sediment (triangles) are indicated on the graphs. Gaps in
5 temperature measurements are due to technical problems with sensors.
6



1 Figure 4. Positive relationship between the presence and absence of total *Vibrio*
2 *parahaemolyticus* in water and mean water temperature over the seven days before sampling
3 (*Temp-7* in °C). Squares represent the median of the data, box-plots show 25 % to 75 % of the
4 data (boxes) and horizontal traits, how minimal and maximal values are distributed. Circles
5 represent atypical points (the detection of total *V. parahaemolyticus* in October 2008 at
6 L'Eperon).

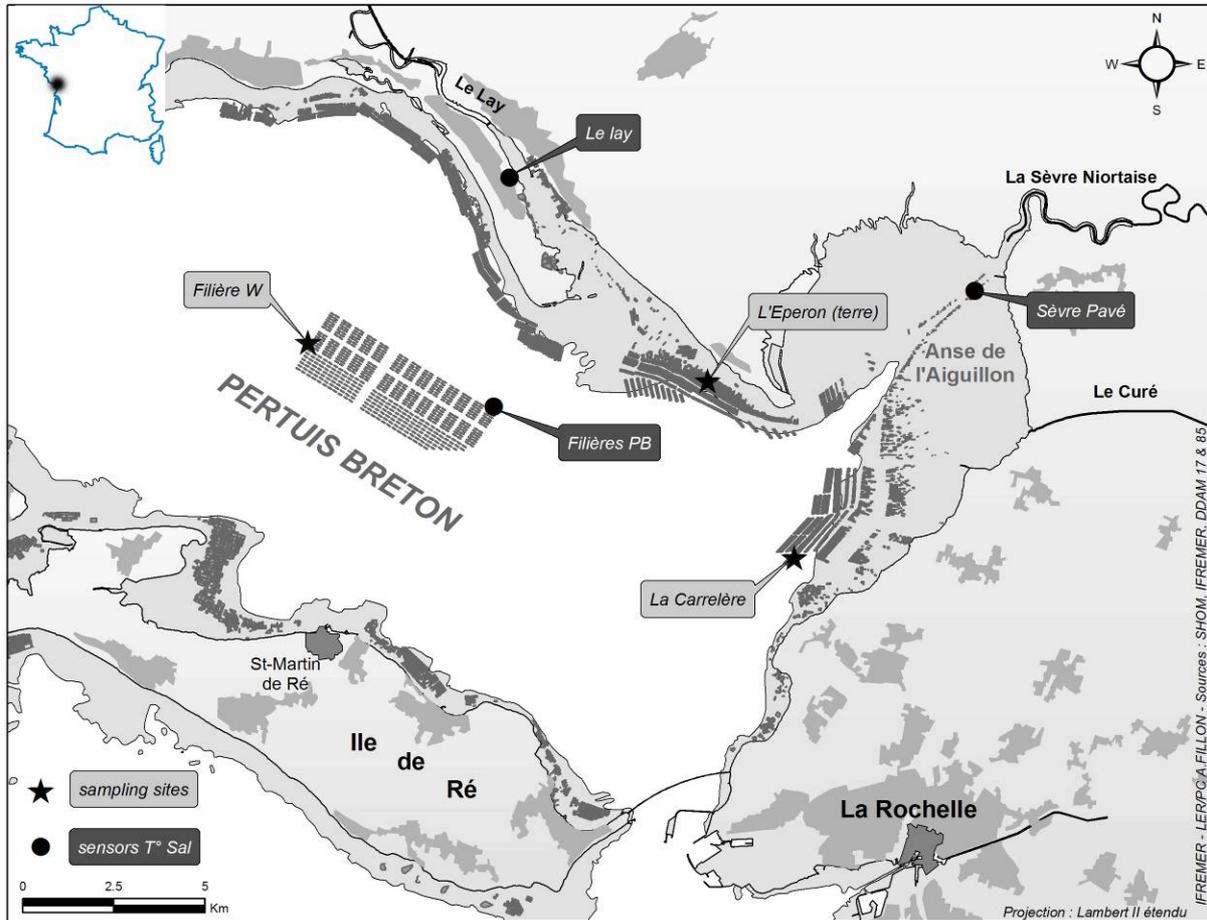


7

8

1 Figure 5. Map of the Pertuis Breton showing the locations of the sampling sites and sensors.

2



3