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## Stress response of farmed European abalone reveals rapid domestication process in absence of intentional selection

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### Abstract :

Farming, and thus the domestication of *Haliotis tuberculata*, began recently. We compared the responses of unselected farmed and wild abalone to stressors that occur on farms. The aim was to determine if the farm environment had induced differences in the behavioural or physiological performances of the abalone. Thirty hatchery-born 3.5 year-old abalone and thirty wild ones were reared under standard farm conditions for 6 months and characterised for 19 traits related to growth, survival, behaviour and immunology. Behavioural and immunological responses to stressors differed between the two stocks. Farmed abalone retracted and swivelled less in reaction to a finger contact. Phagocytosis efficiency was reduced by shaking in abalone from both origins, but the farmed stock returned to the basal level after the recovery week, while wild abalone did not, and a rise of total haemocyte count after shaking and its return to a basal level after one week was only observed for the farmed stock. This indicates that both behaviour and immune responses following a stress have been affected by the farming practices. This suggests that a domestication process has already been initiated in the farmed stock. Our results may also be important for the success of any population enhancement based on hatchery-produced abalone as they raise the question of the capacity of abalone with a farmed origin to be adapted to the wild environment.

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## Highlights

► Domestication effect on the European abalone *Haliotis tuberculata* biology. ► The ethology approach provides useful tools to characterize wild and farmed abalone. ► Foot contraction and righting latency are indicators of growth and survival after stress procedure.

**Keywords** : Abalone aquaculture, Domestication syndrome, Behavioural adaptation, Responses to stress, Immune response, Farm stressors

## Abbreviations

ANOVA	analysis of variance
PCA	principle component analysis
SEM	standard error to the mean
Df	degree of freedom
NS	non significant

## Introduction

Worldwide, farmed abalone stocks are in the early stages of their domestication process (Elliott, 2000). At the beginning of a domestication process, stocks may acquire specific traits to become more adapted to their captive environment as a result of the stressors or specific conditions in the farm environment (Lorenzen et al., 2012). As farming of these species has begun only recently, the study of behavioural and physiological responses to common stressors on farms may be useful both to improve the husbandry system and to study the domestication process.

Abalone are herbivorous marine gastropods that occur naturally in coastal waters of all continents. The European abalone *Haliotis tuberculata* is found on sheltered to exposed rocky shores between the intertidal and 10 meters depth, where it leads a cryptic life (Forster, 1962). *Haliotis tuberculata* is exclusively nocturnal in the wild. It was reported to move less than 10% of its time during the spring at 18°C (Allen et al., 2006; Cenni et al., 2009). Like most abalone species, *Haliotis tuberculata* is highly sensitive to environmental changes (Cenni et al., 2010). Farm stressors, like high temperature or high density (Huchette et al., 2003; Hooper et al., 2014a), manipulations (Hooper et al., 2011a), shaking (Malham et al., 2003), high ammonia or low oxygen saturation (Cheng et al., 2004c) and air exposure (Ragg and Watts, 2015) are known to produce higher disease susceptibilities and subsequent mortalities or reduced growth. Abalone that can tolerate these rearing stressors are more suitable for producers (Robinson et al., 2013). But multiple stressors may occur in an abalone rearing system and their consequences are often observed after some delay. Thus it is important to observe abalone for a long enough period after the stress application when studying stress responses (Ragg et al., 2000; Ragg and Watts, 2015).

To quantify the degree of fish domestication in aquaculture, a 5-level scale has been proposed (Teletchea and Fontaine, 2014). The level 0 is attributed to species that are only

74 harvested by fisheries. 1, 2 and 3 are considered “pre-domestication phase” levels, where the  
75 life cycle is not closed in the farm. At level 3, the animals are grown in a farm, but wild animals  
76 are used as broodstock to produce larvae. At level 4, the larvae are produced using farm reared  
77 broodstock, and unintentional selection can occur progressively across the generations. At level  
78 5, a selective breeding plan involving intentional selection is implemented leading to clear  
79 genetic differentiation between wild and farmed population.

80 For marine species in the pre-domesticate phase, the impact of rearing environment on  
81 behaviour and physiology may be higher than for terrestrial species. Indeed most marine species  
82 have high phenotypic plasticity and rapid unintentional selection is facilitated by high fecundity  
83 and high mortality rates at early stages, imposed by the rearing system in the early phases of  
84 production (Taris et al., 2007; Lorenzen et al., 2012). Thus behavioural changes may occur  
85 quickly for these species. Indeed, immune and metabolic changes in fish, associated with  
86 differential expression of hundreds of genes have been observed after only one generation of  
87 domestication (Christie et al., 2016), and interestingly small changes of rearing environment  
88 with no intentional selection affect the behaviour differentiation between wild and farmed stock  
89 (Straus and Friedman, 2009). In Australia, abalone produced from broodstock selected for a  
90 high growth rate over three generations displayed higher mobility than wild specimens  
91 (Robinson et al., 2013). A loss of predator avoidance reactions in farm-reared abalone may  
92 explain the low survival success of some stock rebuilding or enhancement strategies, where  
93 farm-produced juveniles were used (Kojima, 1995). Experiments to investigate the feasibility  
94 of abalone enhancement strategies have underlined the importance of understanding their  
95 behaviour and ecology in order to maximize the chance of success (Dixon et al., 2006; Hansen  
96 and Gosselin, 2013). Predation has been identified as the highest source of mortality in  
97 outplanting strategies (Hansen and Gosselin, 2013), and hatchery stock of *Haliotis*

98 *kamtchatkana* originating from wild broodstock showed an anti-predator behavioural deficit  
99 compared to wild stock (Hansen and Gosselin, 2016).

100

101 Previous work has shown that behavioural and physiological reactions to stressors are  
102 indicators of suboptimal conditions in abalone. For example, a deficit in calcium in the water  
103 can induce a reduction in sheltering behaviour (Cenni et al., 2010). Handling stressors like the  
104 sampling of an epipodium resulted in increased movement (Robinson et al., 2013).  
105 Physiological traits such as immunological parameters can also be used to assess the effect of  
106 such stress (Hooper et al., 2007; Ragg and Watts, 2015). In abalone, haemocytes are the main  
107 defense cells (Travers, 2008); the density of haemocytes in circulation and their phagocytic  
108 activity both vary after a stress. A shaking of fifteen minutes and heat stress both enhance  
109 phagocytosis rate, which then returns to the basal level within two days (Malham et al., 2003;  
110 Hooper et al., 2014a), and suboptimal rearing conditions or handling procedures induces a  
111 decreased phagocytosis rate, which returns to the control level within 5 days (Cheng et al.,  
112 2004b; Cheng et al., 2004c; Hooper et al., 2011a). Similarly, the total haemocyte count in  
113 samples of haemolymph was increased by shaking and heat stress (Malham et al., 2003; Hooper  
114 et al., 2011a; Hooper et al., 2014a), but decreased when the water quality decreased (Cheng et  
115 al., 2004a).

116

117 Based on this international research in abalone biology, the present study aimed to  
118 compare behavioural and physiological responses to farm stressors of farmed abalone (at  
119 domestication level 3) and wild European abalone (domestication level 0). Our objective was  
120 to assess if the early domestication process may have impacted abalone behaviour and  
121 physiology in a farming context. The eventual consequences on growth and mortality were also  
122 studied.

123

## Materials and Methods

### 124 2.1 Animals

125 Farmed adult *H. tuberculata* (n= 30,  $70.0 \pm 4.0$  mm total shell length, 3.5 years old) were  
126 sampled from 9 sea-based breeding structures of the company France Haliotis (48°36'46N,  
127 4°33'30W; Plouguerneau, France). Abalone were sampled randomly: an abalone was selected  
128 haphazardly, and then the 3<sup>rd</sup> closest neighbour to this animal was gently detached ('chipped')  
129 from the surface and tagged. The animals of the experiment were the third generation bred in  
130 the farm, as a result of systematic mating in each generation between wild and farmed  
131 broodstock (either males or females were wild broodstock) to prevent any inbreeding. Thus this  
132 stock can be considered to be at domestication level 3 (Teletchea and Fontaine, 2014). A  
133 professional diver collected wild adults of similar size to the farmed ones (n = 30,  $70.1 \pm 4.0$   
134 mm total shell length, age unknown) on the same day, near to the sea-based rearing structures,  
135 separated from them by at least 100 m of sandy bottom. We assume that no genetic  
136 contamination occurs in this area because the biomass of abalone is low considering wild  
137 population and farm abalone are harvested before that they reach complete maturity (Clavier  
138 and Richard, 1986). Farm abalone have a green coloration at the apex, as a result of the juveniles  
139 feeding on *Ulvelia*. Shells of wild abalone were examined to make sure that they were not  
140 escapees from the farm. Individuals of this population can be considered at domestication level  
141 0 at the beginning of the experiment (Teletchea and Fontaine, 2014). Both farmed and wild  
142 abalone were inspected when chipped, to ensure there were no cuts on the feet, and placed in  
143 bags containing circular black plastic oyster seed collectors as attachment surfaces (diameter:  
144 140 mm). Wild abalone were transported to the laboratory in a 100 L seawater tank in less than  
145 one hour, to be held for 3 weeks in experimental tanks, during which time their responses to  
146 stressors were measured. Then they were transferred into sea-growing structures for 5 months.

## 147 **2.2. Experimental tanks**

148 The experimental tanks consisted of two grey, flat, sub-square, epoxy-painted fibreglass tanks  
149 (1.10 m x 1.10 m x 0.20 m, water volume = 100 L) with rough plastic grass strips on the edges  
150 to prevent escapes. Each tank received 75 L.h<sup>-1</sup> of 3 µm mechanically filtered seawater at a  
151 temperature of 10°± 1°C and an aeration system was placed in each tank. Ten pairs of oyster  
152 collectors as hides were uniformly distributed along the tank edges. Photoperiod was adjusted  
153 to the seasonal rhythm 10:14h (light: 8:30 h to 18:30 h). To avoid stressful conditions during  
154 light changes, the light was adjusted slowly for 30 minutes during dawn (8:00 to 8:30 h) and  
155 dusk (18:30 to 19:00 h) using a dimmer (Gold Star, Besser Elektronik, Italia). Tanks were  
156 cleaned twice a week using a hose and the water filters were changed every day. *Palmaria*  
157 *palmata*, *Saccharina latissima*, *Laminaria digitate* and *Ulva lactuca*, algae that occur on the  
158 farm and on the Plouguerneau sea-shore, were placed in 4 plastic boxes in the middle of the  
159 tank. All tanks were continuously videotaped with 4 digital cameras (TS-WD6001HPSC,  
160 Sygonix GmbH, Germany), linked to a 24h-recording device (TVVR 40021, Abus, Germany).

## 161 **2.3. Experimental stress factors**

162 Growth, survival and behavioural and immunological traits were measured in the laboratory in  
163 three batches, from December to February. For each batch, 10 wild and 10 farmed abalone were  
164 carefully chipped with a spatula from their attachment surface , length and weight was  
165 measured and abalone were individually marked with a reflective tag and a numbered plastic  
166 tag attached with cyanoacrylate glue to their shell (Shepherd, 1988). They were then placed by  
167 origin into two experimental tanks.

168 The laboratory observations (of responses to stressors) were made over three periods,  
169 corresponding to three stressors that are regularly experienced by abalone during husbandry  
170 procedures:

- 171 • The habituation period (days 1 to 7) corresponded to the period of recovery from the  
172 mild stress of transport and handling and living in the lab environment. Previous  
173 observations have shown that the stress of chipping and tagging has no impacts on  
174 assays of haemocytes after 3 days (Hooper et al., 2011b).
- 175 • The high density period (days 8 to 14) : 52 additional individuals were added to each  
176 tank on day 8 in order to induce a high-density stress ( $62 \text{ abalone.m}^{-2}$ ) slightly higher  
177 than the densities normally used in the farm. This stress lasted one week, and the  
178 extra animals were removed on day 15.
- 179 • The post-acute stress period (days 15 to 21): on day 15, abalone were detached and  
180 shaken (three jolts per second of 3 cm height) with an oyster farm spat screener for  
181 20 min in air, which mimicked the stress experienced by abalone during the  
182 screening process to separate sizes on farms (Hooper et al., 2011a). After one hour  
183 of emersion and shaking, they were put back into their tank. After the stress, the  
184 abalone were left undisturbed until day 21, when immunological parameters and  
185 righting time were measured.

186 When all batches were completed, the abalone were replaced in a grow-out sea-cage (10  
187  $\text{abalone.m}^{-2}$ ) for 2.5 months (post-stress sea growing period, Figure 1) at low density so that the  
188 maximum subsequent growth and survival would be expected. At the end of May (T3), the  
189 grow-out sea-cage was brought to the farm. Weight, length, visual gonad index and the survival  
190 of each abalone were determined before they were returned to the sea-cages at the normal  
191 rearing density ( $50 \text{ abalone.m}^{-2}$ ) for a summer growth period. In August (T6) after about 6  
192 months of grow-out, they were brought back to the experimental tanks, measured to determine  
193 growth and observed for 10 days to measure survival capacity after the handling procedure in  
194 summer. This stress involved one hour of emersion due to the carrying of abalone from the sea  
195 to the hatchery and chipping to remove the abalone from the sea-cages and place them in the



196 experimental tanks (Figure 1).

## 197 **2.4 Growth and Survival**

198 The variables are listed in Table 1 for reference. Length (L) was measured at T0, T3 and T6 for  
199 each batch of abalone and each origin (Table 1). Growth and survival were calculated using the  
200 initial measurement times for each batch and period. The first growing period ( $G_{0-3}$ ) is related  
201 to their ability to recover during and after acute stressors, the second growing period ( $G_{3-6}$ )  
202 occurred under the usual farm rearing conditions, although there is also a change between spring  
203 and summer between these growth periods.

$$204 \quad G_{0-3} = 30 * (L_{T3} - L_{T0}) / (ND) \quad (1)$$

$$205 \quad G_{3-6} = 30 * (L_{T6} - L_{T3}) / (ND) \quad (2)$$

206 Where: ND is the number of days between measurements.

207 Mortalities were recorded over time when abalone were found to be dead in the tanks or by the  
208 observation of empty shells in the rearing structures. A 5-level scale (*SurvRank*- see Table 1)  
209 was used for subsequent analysis.

## 210 **2.5 Behavioural measurements**

211 A reactivity test was performed on the last days of both the habituation period and the high  
212 density period between 16:30 and 19:00. It involved gently touching the abalone with a finger  
213 on the border of the abalone and running the finger clockwise around the abalone in 10 s.  
214 Reactions were observed before, during and for 5 s after touching the abalone.

- 215 ○ At rest, before touching the foot, the retraction of the foot was recorded as  
216 *Hab.RetractT0* for the habituation period and as *HighD.RetractT0* for the high  
217 density period (criteria: O if retracted, P if partially relaxed, N if relaxed). The

218 foot was considered retracted when the shell was in contact with the edge or the  
219 bottom of the tank.

220 ○ While touching the abalone, the protective swivelling movement of the shell was  
221 recorded as *Hab.SwivellT1* for the habituation period and as *HighD.SwivellT1*  
222 for the high density period.

223 ○ After touching, the contraction of the foot was recorded as *Hab.RetractT2* for  
224 the habituation period and as *HighD.RetractT2* for the high density period.

225

226 A righting test was performed on day 21, the last day of the post-acute stress period, just after  
227 the haemolymph sampling procedure described below, in order to have a measure of the energy  
228 reserves of the abalone after the 3 weeks of stress and recovery (Baldwin et al., 2007). The  
229 righting test was performed after the haemolymph sampling in order to have an unbiased  
230 measurement of the haemolymph parameters. Indeed handling can affect haemocyte parameters  
231 in less than 5 minutes and for up to 3 days (Malham et al., 2003; Hooper et al., 2011a). Abalone  
232 were gently placed on their back in the center of a white 12-L bucket containing 5 L of sea  
233 water at the same temperature as the tanks. The abalone were filmed for 4 min with a camcorder  
234 (Sony, HDR-XR155), to measure how long they took to right themselves, using the software  
235 VLC media player. The time to right themselves (*Righting*) was measured from the moment the  
236 abalone was placed in the bucket on its back to when it had fully turned over. If an abalone did  
237 not turn over in 4 minutes, a 4-min maximum time was recorded.

238

## 239 **2.6 Immunological measurements**

240 Measures of phagocytosis efficiency and total haemocyte count (THC) were performed on day  
241 15, just before the shaking at the end of the high density period (*THC<sub>T0</sub>*, *Phago<sub>T0</sub>*), 30 minutes  
242 after the beginning of the shaking (*THC<sub>T30</sub>*, *Phago<sub>T30</sub>*) and 60 minutes after the beginning of

243 shaking ( $THC_{T60}$ ,  $Phago_{T60}$ ). Final measures of THC and phagocytosis efficiency were also  
244 performed ( $THC_{Tend}$ ,  $Phago_{Tend}$ ) at the end of the experiment, on day 21. To reduce the direct  
245 impact of haemolymph sampling as a stressor, this measurement was performed by a single  
246 experienced person and if sampling was done in more than 1 min, the procedure was stopped  
247 in order to avoid excessive stress and mortality linked with the sampling.

248 Following the protocol of Duchemin et al. (2008), haemolymph (less than 0.2 ml per individual)  
249 was collected from the pedal sinus for these measurements, using a 1 ml syringe and fine needle.  
250 Each abalone was sampled in less than 2 minutes, by the same person. The sample was  
251 transferred into a vial and kept on ice. Samples were treated just after collection to avoid  
252 aggregation. Haemolymph was used for determining: (1) total haemocyte count (150  $\mu$ l); (2)  
253 phagocytosis efficiency (50  $\mu$ l). Both analyses were performed on a FACS-Calibur flow  
254 cytometer (Becton Dickinson, France) equipped with a 488 nm laser. Cells were counted for 60  
255 s. The immunological parameters were calculated using WinMDI software.

256 For the THC samples, 150  $\mu$ l of haemolymph was immediately added to 6% formalin (100  $\mu$ l)  
257 and kept at 4°C before analysis, when it was diluted into 200 $\mu$ l of filtered and sterile seawater  
258 (FSSW) and incubated for 30 min in dark conditions with SYBR green fluorescent dye (4  $\mu$ l,  
259 Molecular Probes, 10<sup>-3</sup> dilution of the commercial stock solution) before flow cytometry.  
260 Results were expressed as number of cells. $\mu$ L<sup>-1</sup>.

261 To measure phagocytosis efficiency, a protocol adapted from Travers et al. (2008a) was  
262 followed. In summary, 50  $\mu$ l of haemolymph was deposited into a 24-well plate containing 50  
263  $\mu$ l of sterile seawater. Haemocytes were allowed to adhere for 15 min at 18°C. Then 30  $\mu$ l of  
264 fluorescent beads (fluoresbrite YG Microspheres 2.00  $\mu$ m, Playscale, 1:100 in distilled  
265 water) were added. After 2 h at 18°C, supernatants were removed, 100  $\mu$ l of trypsin (2.5 mg.mL<sup>-1</sup>  
266 in AASH anti-aggregant solution) was added; and the plates were shaken for 10 min to detach  
267 the adherent cells. Then 100  $\mu$ l of 6% formalin was used to fix the cells. Samples were kept at

268 4°C before analysis by flow cytometry. The phagocytosis efficiency (*Phago*) was defined as  
269 the percentage of haemocytes that had engulfed three or more beads.

## 270 **2.7 Statistical analyses**

271 Statistical analyses were performed with R 3.0.3 software. After a verification of the  
272 assumptions of variance homogeneity and normal distribution, comparisons of growth  
273 measurements between the farmed and wild abalone were done using an ANOVA model with  
274 the origin as a fixed effect (wild versus farmed). Differences between the two origins on the  
275 qualitative behavioural variables were tested by a Fisher test. For each of the immunological  
276 variables, the first analysis was a repeated measure ANOVA to determine whether the timing  
277 of the measurement had an effect for each origin. A log transformation of the THC and a logit  
278 transformation of the percentage phagocytosis were used (Warton and Hui, 2011). The second  
279 step of this analysis was to compare the two origins at each time of measurement using a  
280 Kruskal-Wallis test (Day and Quinn, 1989) because the two variables did not satisfy the  
281 assumption of variance homogeneity.

282 A NMDS (non-parametric multi-dimensional scaling) was carried out with the package MASS  
283 on R 3.2.2, as a first step in a multi-dimensional analysis of the dataset. The aim of the NMDS  
284 was to select variables that discriminated the two groups (data not shown). Based on the  
285 ANOVAs of the variables for behaviour and immunology, those variables that were not  
286 significantly different between origins were progressively removed from the NMDS analyses,  
287 to find a combination of variables that clearly discriminated the origins at a stress level  $<0,05$   
288 with  $k=2$ . The variable *SurvRank* was retained in the analyses, to see if there was any  
289 relationship between survival and the other variables. The second step was carried out by using  
290 the Factominer package to plot two Multi Factorial Analyses (MFA) (Lé et al., 2008). The eight  
291 variables identified as discriminant in the NMDS analysis were reduced and scaled before the

292 implementation of the two MFA models. The first analysis was focused on the 60 individuals  
293 observed in the laboratory period to study the survival process. This model was implemented  
294 with 4 quantitative variables (*SurvRank*,  $THC_{T60}$ ,  $THC_{Tend}$ ,  $Phago_{Tend}$ ) and 1 qualitative variable  
295 (*Origin*). In this dataset 8% of the data were missing. In order to increase the degrees of freedom  
296 and use the information from all the individuals, a regularized iterative imputation was  
297 performed on the dataset, using the package missMDA (Josse et al., 2013). Iterative imputation  
298 can create false correlation in the dataset (Quinn and Keough, 2002). To reduce this risk, a  
299 recommended methodology was followed before the implementation of the analysis (Quinn  
300 and Keough, 2002). This imputation was carried out after an optimization step of noise  
301 reduction, in order to implement values by iteration independently of the noise and decrease the  
302 risk of creating false correlations (Josse et al., 2013).

303 The second MFA model was built to study the growth of the 21 individuals that survived after  
304 6 months in the experiment, with 5 quantitative variables ( $G_{0-3}$ ,  $G_{3-6}$ ,  $THC_{T60}$ ,  $THC_{Tend}$ ,  
305  $Phago_{Tend}$ ) and one qualitative variable (*Origin*). The same imputation process was applied as  
306 3% of the data were missing.

307 In the two MFA the quantitative variables were pooled in three groups in order to give the same  
308 weight to each group: the Growth ( $G_{0-3}$ ;  $G_{3-6}$ ), the Survival (*SurvRank*), and the Immunology  
309 ( $THC_{T60}$ ,  $THC_{Tend}$ ,  $Phago_{End}$ ).

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## Results

### 316 **3.1. Behavioural traits**

317 Overall, 62% of the abalone had a retracted foot before their reactivity test was initiated, and  
318 80% after touching. No significant differences were observed between the habituation and high  
319 density periods for retraction before and after the foot was touched (Table 2). Foot retraction  
320 was not significantly different before touching between the farmed and wild abalone (Table 2).  
321 After touching however, wild abalone performed more swivelling movements and the foot was  
322 more often retracted than in farmed abalone, both after the habituation period and after the high  
323 density period (Table 2). No significant difference in the righting time was observed between  
324 farmed and wild abalone at the end of the post-acute stress period (Table 2).

### 325 **3.2 Immunological traits**

326 High individual variability was observed for both phagocytosis efficiency and total haemocyte  
327 count, with the standard deviation representing respectively 40% and 50% of the mean. The  
328 shaking stress generated a decrease in phagocytosis efficiency, with a maximum decrease 60  
329 minutes after the end of the shaking period (Figure 2a). After 6 days, the phagocytosis  
330 efficiency was back to a value close to the value observed before the stress. The decrease  
331 between T0 and T60 was significant in abalone from both origins (Figure 2a). THC values were  
332 relatively stable for the wild abalone before, 30 and 60 m after the shaking and 6 days later  
333 (around 3000 cells. $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$ ), whereas they rose significantly for the farmed abalone and were at  
334 their highest level 60 minutes after the end of the stress period (Increase from 4000 to 5500  
335 cells. $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 2b). Five days later, the THC for the farmed abalone had declined  
336 significantly (2200 cells. $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 2b).

337

338 For all times of measurement, no significant differences in the phagocytic efficiency were  
339 observed between the two origins, although the sample means differed at T60: wild abalone  
340 tended to have a lower phagocytosis efficiency than farmed abalone (respectively, 20 vs 24 %,  
341  $K= 2.8$ ,  $P = 0.09$ ). The THC values were, in contrast, significantly lower for wild abalone after  
342 the density stress before the shaking, and after the shaking stress at T60 compared to the farmed  
343 abalone (Figure 2b). At the end of the post-stress period this difference was reversed: wild  
344 abalone had significantly higher THC values (Figure 2b).

### 345 **3.3 Survival and growth**

346 The two origins presented similar mortality patterns, with a major mortality event observed in  
347 the first months of rearing after the stress. No difference of survival was observed between the  
348 wild and farmed abalone after 6 months of the experiment (Table 3). Almost no growth was  
349 observed during the post-stress period, so there was no difference between wild and farmed  
350 abalone. However, during the 3-6 month period, farmed abalone grew significantly faster than  
351 wild abalone (Table 3). Growth performances just after the stress period and in the later summer  
352 period were significantly correlated ( $t=2.68$ ,  $df=20$ ,  $P= 0.01$ ).

### 353 **3.4 1<sup>st</sup> Multivariate analysis: origin, immune parameters, and survival after** 354 **stress**

355 In the first MFA model, based on 60 individuals, the first two components explained 60% of  
356 the total variance (34% for the first, 26% for the second) (Figure 3). The two groups were  
357 clearly discriminated by the analysis ( $V_{test} > 2$ ) (Figure 3,1). The most important loadings on  
358 the first component were the origin and the immunity parameters (Table 4). This component  
359 represents the differential immune responses of the two origins during the laboratory period.  
360 The  $THC_{T60}$  and the  $Phago_{Tend}$  were associated and opposed to the  $THC_{tend}$  (Figure 3.2). The  
361 most important loading on the second component was the survival rate (Table 4) (Figure 3). No

362 immunological parameter had an important loading in this component. This indicates that  
363 abalone of the two origins were different from an immunological point of view, but their origin  
364 and the immune parameters seemed to be not related to their survival after the stress period  
365 (Figure 3).

### 366 **3.5 2<sup>nd</sup> Multi-variate analysis: origin THC and growth**

367 In the second MFA model based on 21 individuals still alive after 6 months of experiment, the  
368 first two components explained 64% of the total variance (42% for the first, 22% for the second)  
369 (Figure 4). The two origins were clearly discriminated by the model on the first component  
370 ( $V_{test} > 2$ ) (Figure 4, 1). The most important loadings on the first component were the origin  
371 (*Origin*), the growth in the summer period ( $G_{3-6}$ ) and the THC 60 min after the shaking ( $THC_{160}$ )  
372 (Table 4). This component can be interpreted as the differential capacity of the two groups to  
373 react to the shaking stress and later growth in the normal rearing conditions (Figure 4, 2). In the  
374 second component, the most important loadings were the THC at the end of the laboratory  
375 period ( $THC_{Tend}$ ) and growth in the spring period ( $G_{0-3}$ ) but this component was not associated  
376 with origin. This component may represent the resilience of individuals to the shaking stress in  
377 terms of post stress THC response and growth.

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## Discussion

389           The study was designed to assess the potential effects of early domestication on  
390 behaviour, physiology, and production traits, by comparing a farmed stock with a wild stock in  
391 a farm environment. We have found that farmed and wild abalone could be discriminated by  
392 several different traits related to rearing stressors early in the domestication process.

393           Firstly, during habituation and in the high-density period, wild abalone retracted their  
394 foot more frequently and did more swivelling movements than farmed ones in response to a  
395 finger contact. These results are consistent with other observations done in *H. kamtschakana*  
396 (Hansen and Gosselin, 2016). The swivelling shell movements have been described as  
397 responses to predator contact (Day et al., 1995; Allen et al., 2006) and heat stress (Hooper et  
398 al., 2014a). Two hypotheses can be proposed: either the farmed abalone were less stressed by  
399 a contact and did not react to it, or they have partially lost the capacity to react their foot in  
400 response to a contact. The testing of these hypotheses is important for any restocking programs  
401 for European abalone (Lorenzen et al., 2012) and can explain why outplanted hatchery stocks  
402 are subject to high predation mortality (Hansen and Gosselin, 2013). Further studies are  
403 required to determine if this result indicates a habituation to this stress or a loss of reflex for  
404 farm animals that were raised in an artificial environment, with no predators and frequent  
405 handling. These results show that abalone behavioural reactions to stress can be significantly  
406 modified by a single cycle of domestication. Such changes have been described in some farmed  
407 fish species (Millot et al., 2010). The first generation of hatchery salmon obtained with no  
408 intentional selection had a lower fitness in the wild than wild stocks, which highlights that a  
409 genetic adaptation to a captive environment can occur in a single generation with deleterious  
410 effects in the wild (Christie et al., 2012). This quick adaptation in response to unintentional  
411 selection can be explained by a large effective population size (Christie et al., 2012), and a high

412 mortality rate in the first production stages in most farmed aquatic species (Taris et al., 2007).  
413 Conversely, wild and unselected farmed sea bass populations were reported to present similar  
414 reactions to stress (Millot et al., 2010).

415         In both farmed and wild abalone, 62% had a retracted foot during the day, before they  
416 were disturbed. The normal foot contraction during the day in wild abalone was not modified  
417 in the farmed abalone by the early domestication process. Donovan *et al.* (1999) proposed 2  
418 hypotheses to explain the variation in foot position seen in an abalone population: (1)  
419 individuals with a relaxed foot might have lower energy consumption; and (2) individuals with  
420 a contracted foot may have higher energy consumption but less chance of being removed by  
421 predators. As abalone are nocturnal (Cenni et al., 2009), it would be interesting to perform these  
422 observations at night, when the frequency of individuals with retracted feet is expected to be  
423 lower (Cenni et al., 2010).

424         The second set of parameters that discriminated the two stocks were the immunological  
425 traits following the acute stress of 20 minutes of shaking coupled with an emersion of one hour.  
426 The phagocytosis rate of both stocks decreased after the shaking and had partly recovered by  
427 the end of the experiment. This result is not congruent with results reported by Malham et al.  
428 (2003) on the same species, but is in accordance with other studies showing that stress induces  
429 a reduction of phagocytosis capacity for some time after the stress (Cheng et al., 2004b; Hooper  
430 et al., 2014a) on other abalone species. The lowest values of phagocytosis rate were observed  
431 60 minutes after the shaking period and were significantly different from the basal level for  
432 both stocks.

433         After one week of recovery, the phagocytosis rates were still lower than those measured just  
434 before the shaking stress for the wild abalone, indicating that wild abalone may need more than  
435 one week to completely recover from an acute shaking stress. The farmed stock had returned to

436 the basal level, which may indicate a better adaptation to acute farm stressors, probably due to  
437 previous exposure to this stressor one or perhaps two times during the rearing process. This  
438 result suggests that a single cycle of domestication without intentional selection can alter the  
439 dynamic of the stress response, which is a key measure of the animal's robustness and  
440 adaptation to the environment (Monget and Le Bail, 2009; Friggens et al., 2010).

441 The phagocytosis efficiency was similar to the one reported in summer in a previous  
442 study *H. tuberculata* (Travers et al., 2008b). The phagocytosis rate of *Haliotis tuberculata*  
443 observed in our study is also close to that reported in *Haliotis diversicolor* in Taiwan (Cheng et  
444 al., 2004b), but lower than in the Australian hybrid *Haliotis laevigata* \* *Haliotis rubra* (Hooper  
445 et al., 2011a; Hooper et al., 2014b), although there may be some differences due to the methods  
446 used. Phagocytosis efficiency at T60 and at the end of the stress procedures was unexpectedly  
447 not correlated with the later survival of the studied abalone. It has been proposed that a decrease  
448 of phagocytosis efficiency is related to an increase in disease susceptibility (Malham et al.,  
449 2003; Cheng et al., 2004a; Hooper et al., 2011a), but eventual subsequent mortality will likely  
450 depend on both the physiologic status of an individual and its likelihood to be infected by a  
451 pathogen in its environment (Travers, 2008; Lachambre et al., 2017). Pathogens were  
452 presumably not abundant during our stress period.

453 The Total Haemocyte Counts (THC) were measured to follow the immunological status  
454 of abalone, but haemocytes are also important in different functions like the carrying of energy  
455 reserves (Travers, 2008). In our study, different responses to shaking were observed in the two  
456 stocks. The wild abalone always showed lower total THC across all the measurements after the  
457 shaking. In contrast, THC in the farmed abalone rose after the shaking and decreased after one  
458 the week of recovery. The pattern of response in the farm abalone is consistent with previous  
459 observations (Malham et al., 2003). The increased response of farmed abalone may indicate  
460 that they were able to react more to the combined acute stress of shaking and emersion; and is

461 consistent with what was observed for the phagocytosis efficiency. In further studies, it would  
462 be interesting to complete this observation with glucose or glycogen measurement in order to  
463 determine if these two response patterns are linked with physiological status or the availability  
464 of reserves in individuals. In our study, the differences between farmed and wild stock might  
465 be linked with energetic reserves available before the experiment. A farm environment is  
466 characterised by a high food availability (Travers, 2008). This hypothesis is consistent with the  
467 fact that wild abalone need more time to right themselves (Lachambre et al., 2017).

468 Our factor analysis showed that THC of individuals 60 minutes after the shaking was positively  
469 related with the phagocytosis at the end of the experiment and negatively related to THC at the  
470 end of the experiment. Consequently, the THC level observed one hour after the shaking and  
471 the depression in phagocytosis after the recovery week may be associated parameters that are  
472 part of the same stress reaction. The rise of THC after a stress has been proposed as a positive  
473 reaction to stress (Cheng et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2004c; Travers, 2008). Farmed abalone have  
474 been shaken at least once or twice at juvenile age during husbandry rearing, so that their  
475 modified reaction may indicate phenotypic plasticity in response to the repeated stress.

476 The two MFA models show that abalone origin can be clearly differentiated, based on the  
477 immunological differences discussed above between the origins. Interestingly, these differences  
478 were not associated with significant differences in survival between the two origins. This  
479 suggests that immune differences observed in this study were not large enough to initiate  
480 mortality differences. It could be interesting to reproduce the same study with a less important  
481 stressor than a shaking stress together with one hour of emersion time to see if the differential  
482 reaction of the two stocks induce differences of growth in a higher survival context. The fact  
483 that  $THC_{60}$  is associated with a better growth rate in the second MFA model and that growth  
484 rates in the post stress period and the summer period are correlated consolidates the idea that  
485 that the rise of THC is a positive reaction to the acute stress.

486 Two hypotheses can be proposed to explain why that summer growth was higher in our farmed  
487 abalone than in the wild ones. Firstly, farm abalone may be better adapted to the rearing  
488 structures due to unintentional selection, or individuals in this cohort with higher growth  
489 performance may have been selected during the early stages of rearing. Secondly, farmed  
490 abalone may have had a better recovery from the stress period, as no differences were observed  
491 just after the stress. As the growth of wild individuals was close to 0, it is also possible that they  
492 were not able to recover from the stress period in winter and therefore stopped growing. Another  
493 hypothesis to explain the growth differences is that the wild abalone were not in the same  
494 physiological status as farm abalone at the beginning of the experiment because the farm  
495 abalone were fed in the winter and the availability of suitable algae is likely to be lower in the  
496 winter in the wild.

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## **Conclusion**

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Our study suggests that a domestication process may have occurred in a single generation of rearing in the European abalone *H. tuberculata*. The farm environment seems to have modified the response to different stressors of our farmed stock compared to the wild one. The rise of THC after an acute stress, the return to a lower level of THC after one week of recovery and the return to a basal phagocytosis efficiency level appear to be positive reactions to stressors and these reactions characterised the response of farmed abalone. Interestingly the two stocks responded differentially to shaking and finger contact, but this was not associated with significant differences of later survival or post-stress growth. This suggests that the impact of the farm environment on the biology of our farmed stock did not have a huge impact in its agronomic performances and did not induce rapid economic gains. The effect of a captive environment and husbandry practice on the behaviour and immune response of abalone was unexpected, although this has been previously reported in salmon (Christie et al., 2012).

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## 662 **Tables:**

663

664 Table 1: Description of the variables used in this study

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666 Table 2: Behaviour by farmed and wild abalone origin after touching the foot of abalone in a  
667 standardized manner (% of each population. Comparison by Fisher test, NS= Non significant  
668 differences) and a righting test

669

670 Table 3: Comparison between wild and farmed abalone origins of the mean of survival and growth  
671 rates by ANOVA for length and growth, and Kruskal Wallis test for survival

672

673 Table 4: Relationships between the variables and the MFA component (the values mentioned is the  
674 cos<sup>2</sup> between the variables and the component)

## Figures caption:

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677 Figure 1: Representation of the experimental design at three levels: the global experiment design, a batch  
678 of the laboratory period and the detail of shaking and haemolymph procedure

679

680 Figure 2: The means and standard errors of a) the phagocytosis efficiency in % (*Phago*) and b) the THC  
681 in cells. $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$  (*THC*). Black bars: farmed origin. Grey bars: wild origin. The X axis shows the time of  
682 measurement after the shaking on day 15. T0: just after the shaking, T30: 30 minutes after, T60: 60  
683 minutes after, End: on day 21 at the end of the 3 week stress period. a, b indicate the significance of  
684 differences between the times of measurement within each origin. Differences between origins at one  
685 time are represented by \* when  $P\text{value} < 0,05$  and • when  $P\text{value} < 0,1$ .

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687 Figure 3: Multiple factorial phenotype differentiation between wild and farmed abalone (n=60): **1)**  
688 **Individual map:** wild abalone in gray and farmed abalone in black, *Origin* (farmed abalone / wild  
689 abalone), **2) Quantitative variable factor map:** *Phago<sub>Tend</sub>*= phagocytosis efficiency at the end of the  
690 stress period, *THC<sub>T60</sub>*= THC 60 minutes after the shaking, *THC<sub>Tend</sub>*= THC at the end of the stress period;  
691 *SurvRank*= survival rank

692

693 Figure 4: Multiple factorial phenotype differentiation between wild and farmed abalone, in  
694 relation with growth rates: **1) Individual map:** wild abalone in gray and farmed abalone in  
695 black and the barycentre of each group (W, F) **2) Quantitative variable factor map:**  
696 *Phago<sub>Tend</sub>*= phagocytosis efficiency at the end of the stress period, *THC<sub>T60</sub>*= THC 60 minutes  
697 after the shaking, *THC<sub>Tend</sub>*= THC at the end of the stress period; *G<sub>0-3</sub>* Monthly growth in length  
698 in the spring at low density; *G<sub>3-6</sub>* Monthly growth in length in the summer at normal density.

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**Figure 1 :**

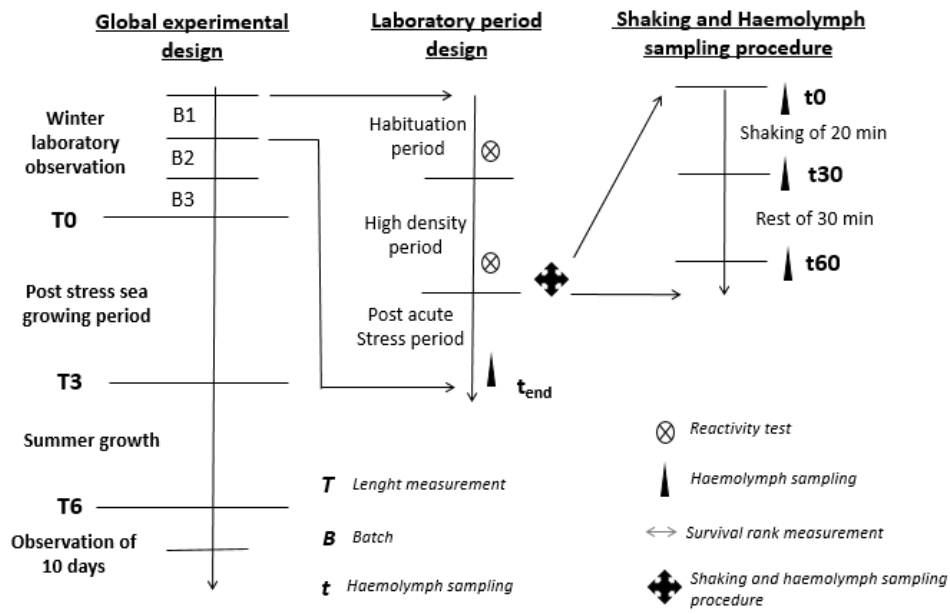


Figure 2:

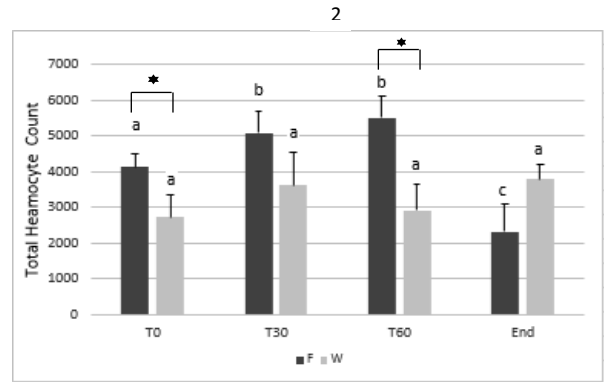
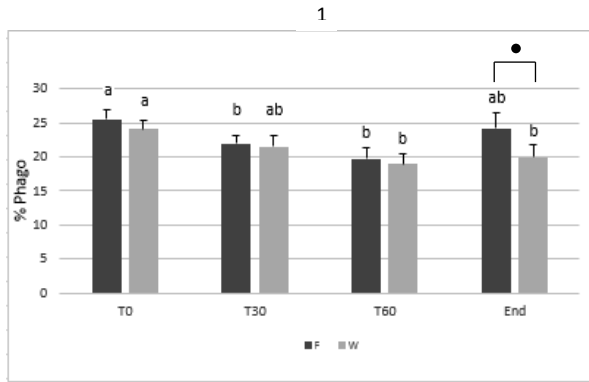


Figure 3 :

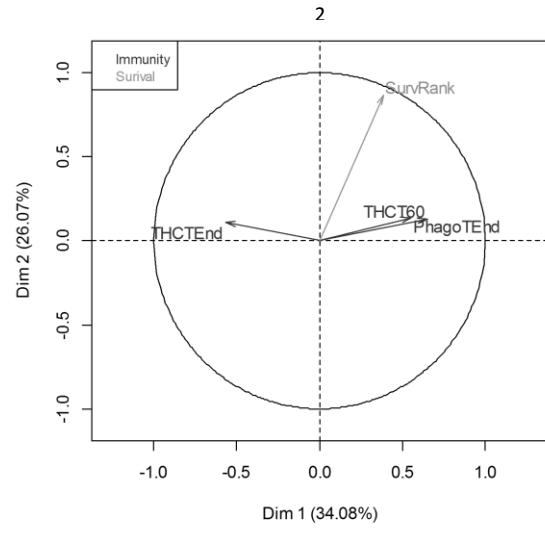
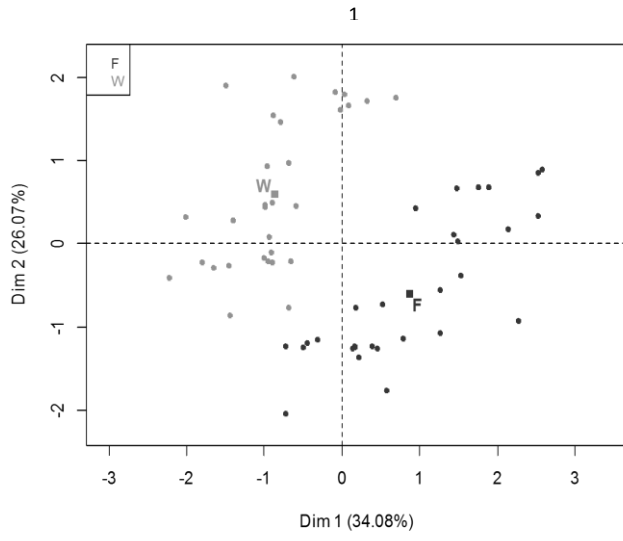




Figure 4

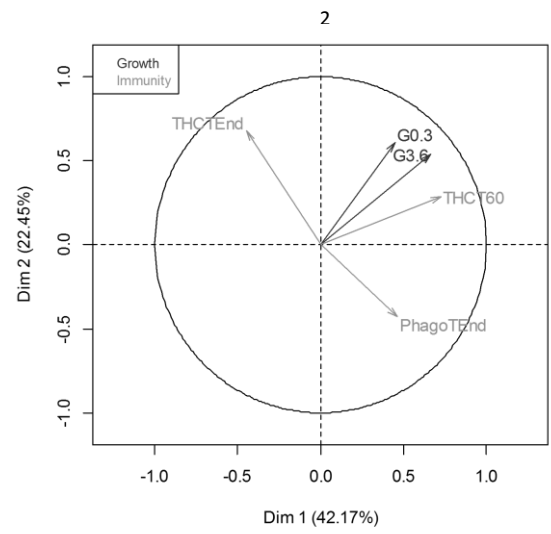
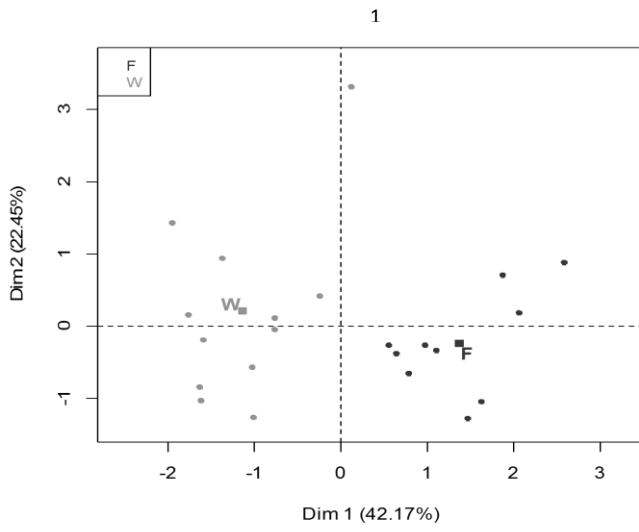


Table 1:

<b>Variables categories</b>	<b>Variables names</b>	<b>Variables definitions</b>
<b>Growth</b>	<i>G<sub>0-3</sub></i>	Growth in length between T0 and T3, mm.month
	<i>G<sub>3-6</sub></i>	Growth in length between T3 and T6, mm.month
<b>Survival</b>	<i>SurvRank</i>	Survival Rank with 5 categories: 0= Abalone dead during the laboratory period, 1=abalone dead before T3, 2=abalone dead between T3 and T6, 3=abalone dead during the 10 days of summer observations, 4= abalone alive at the end of the experiment
<b>Origin</b>	<i>Origin</i>	Origin of the abalone study: farm abalone labelled F, and wild abalone W
<b>Behaviour</b>	<i>Hab.RetractT0</i>	% of the population with a retracted foot, on day 7 of the habituation period (Hab.RetractT0.O= Abalone with foot retracted, Hab.RetractT0.N=Abalone with foot relax)
	<i>Hab.SwivellT1</i>	% of the population that performed a swivelling movement in reaction to finger contact, on day 7 of the habituation period
	<i>Hab.RetractT2</i>	% of the population that retracted the foot after a finger contact, on day 7 of the habituation period
	<i>HighD.RetractT0</i>	% of the population with a retracted foot, on day 7 of the high density period
	<i>HighD.SwivelT1</i>	% of the population that performed a swivelling movement in reaction to a finger contact, on day 7 of the high density period
	<i>HighD.RetractT2</i>	% of the population that retracted the foot in reaction to a finger contact, on day 7 of the high density period
	<i>Righting</i>	The time needed by the abalone to turn itself over when placed upside down
<b>Physiology</b>	<i>THC<sub>T0</sub></i>	Total haemocyte count before the shaking in cells/ yL <sup>-1</sup>
	<i>THC<sub>T30</sub></i>	Total haemocyte count 30 minutes after the shaking in cells/ yL <sup>-1</sup>
	<i>THC<sub>T60</sub></i>	Total haemocyte count 60 minutes after the shaking in cells/ yL <sup>-1</sup>
	<i>THC<sub>TEnd</sub></i>	Total haemocyte count 6 days after the shaking in cells/ yL <sup>-1</sup>
	<i>Phago<sub>T0</sub></i>	Phagocytosis efficiency before the shaking
	<i>Phago<sub>T30</sub></i>	Phagocytosis efficiency 30 minutes after the shaking
	<i>Phago<sub>T60</sub></i>	Phagocytosis efficiency 60 minutes after the shaking
	<i>Phago<sub>Tend</sub></i>	Phagocytosis efficiency 6 days after the shaking

Table 2:

	wild stock	farmed stock	N(wild, farmed)	Stat-Test	Pvalue
<b>Habituation period</b>					
<b>Hab.RetractT0</b> (% of the population with foot retracted)	60%	63%	30, 30	3.8	NS
<b>Hab.SwivelT1</b> (% of the population that swivelled in reaction to a finger contact)	33%	10%	30, 30	5.5	P=0,06
<b>Hab.RetractT2</b> (% of the population that retracted the foot after a finger contact)	26%	10%	30, 30	6.3	P=0,03
<b>High density period</b>					
<b>HighD.RetractT0</b> (% of the population with foot retracted)	68%	66%	28, 29	0.12	NS
<b>HighD.SwivelT1</b> (% of the population that swivelled in reaction to a finger contact)	25%	3%	28, 29	6.8	P=0,01
<b>HighD.RetractT2</b> (% of the population that retracted their foot after a finger contact)	21%	24%	28, 29	1.08	NS
<b>Righting</b> (Time to right in min)	1.6	1.3	25; 23	1.8	NS

Table 3

	<b>wild</b>	<b>farmed</b>	<b>N(wild, farmed)</b>	<b>Stat Test</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Test</b>
<i>L</i> <sub>T0</sub> (Initial length in mm)	70,1±1,45	70.0±1,40	30, 30	0.19	1;58	NS
<i>SurvivalR</i>	2.3±0.26	1.9±0.23	30, 30	0.73	1;58	NS
<i>G</i> <sub>0-3</sub> (between T0 and T3, mm.month)	0.03 ±0,09	0.18 ±0,09	17, 14	1.3	1;20	NS
<i>G</i> <sub>3-6</sub> (between T0 and T3, mm.month)	0.07 ±0,10	0.36 ± 0;11	12, 10	4.6	1;20	P=0,04

Table 4 :

<b>MFA model 1:</b>			<b>MFA model 2</b>		
Variables name	MFA component 1	MFA component 2	Variables name	MFA component 1	MFA component 2
<i>Origin</i>	0,63	0,43	<i>Origin</i>	0,94	0,03
<i>Phago<sub>Tend</sub></i>	0,30	0,02	<i>Phago<sub>Tend</sub></i>	0,21	0,18
<i>THC<sub>T60</sub></i>	0,42	0,02	<i>THC<sub>T60</sub></i>	0,53	0,08
<i>THC<sub>TEnd</sub></i>	0,32	0,02	<i>THC<sub>TEnd</sub></i>	0,20	0,46
<i>SurvRank</i>	0,14	0,75	<i>G<sub>0-3</sub></i>	0,20	0,37
			<i>G<sub>3-6</sub></i>	0,45	0,29