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Failure of bivalve foundation species recruitment related to trophic changes during an extreme heatwave event

Correia-Martins A ¹, Tremblay R ¹, Bec Beatrice ², Roques C ², Atteia Ariane ⁸, Gobet Angélique ³, Richard Marion ³, Hamaguchi M ⁴, Miyajima T ⁵, Hori M ⁴, Miron G ⁶, Pouvreau Stephane ⁷, Lagarde Franck ³, *

- ¹ Institut des sciences de la mer, Université du Québec à Rimouski, 310 allée des Ursulines, Rimouski, QC G5L 3A1, Canada
- ² MARBEC, Université de Montpellier, CNRS, Ifremer, IRD, 34095 Montpellier, France
- ³ MARBEC, Université de Montpellier, CNRS, Ifremer, IRD, 34200 Sète, France
- ⁴ National Research Institute of Fisheries and Environment of Inland Sea, Fisheries Research Agency, Maruishi 2-17-5, Hatsukaichi, Hiroshima 739-0452, Japan
- ⁵ Department of Chemical Oceanography, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute, University of Tokyo, Kashiwanoha 5-1-5, Kashiwa, Chiba 277-8564, Japan
- ⁶ Département de biologie, Université de Moncton, 18 avenue Antonine-Maillet, Moncton, NB E1A 3E9, Canada
- ⁷ LEMAR, Ifremer, CNRS, IRD, UBO, 29840 Argenton en Landunvez, France
- 8 MARBEC, Université de Montpellier, CNRS, Ifremer, IRD, 34200 Sète, France
- * Corresponding author: Franck Lagarde, email address: franck.lagarde@ifremer.fr

Abstract:

Bivalves are regulators of coastal lagoons and provide a wide range of ecosystem services. However, coastal lagoons are sensitive to climate change. Our objective was to describe the drivers of the cascade of ecological events that occurred during a summer heatwave and which resulted in recruitment failure of the Pacific oyster Crassostrea gigas. Results show that elevated temperatures and salinity caused a shift in planktonic food availability toward smaller taxa. These trophic changes did not affect food accumulation by oyster larvae or their fatty acid composition but did affect post-metamorphosis success, with up to 24% fewer young metamorphosed postlarvae at some sites and no development of juveniles at all sites. This resulted in the failure of oyster recruitment and in the development of tubeworms, a trophic and spatial competitor that can better ingest small particles. This knowledge suggests that, in the context of marine heatwaves, the ecological limits of oyster larvae are narrower than their physiological limits.

Keywords: Climate change, Phenology, Extreme heatwave, Bivalves, Pacific oyster, · Crassostrea gigas, Reproduction, Larval ecology, Cascade of environmental effects, Trophic changes

1. INTRODUCTION

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Coastal lagoons provide a wide range of ecosystem services (Villamagna et al. 2013, 42 Kermagoret et al. 2019, van der Schatte Olivier et al. 2020) associated with biodiversity, 43 including bivalves that are of great ecological interest and high commercial value. Bivalves also 44 have important regulatory functions in the ecosystem thanks to their capacity to extract particles, 45 to regenerate and store nutrients, and to form hard biogenic structures (Smaal et al. 2018). 46 However, because coastal lagoons are shallow and exchange with the ocean is limited, they are 47 highly sensitive to eutrophication, heatwaves, hypoxia and acidification, as well as to the effects 48 of global climate change (Lloret et al. 2008, Lu et al. 2018, Thomas et al. 2018). An atmospheric 49 heatwave is defined as five consecutive days with a maximum temperature 5 °C above the 1976-50 2005 normal (Jouzel et al. 2014). Summer 2019 was characterized by two heatwaves of 51 exceptional intensity in France, including the Thau Basin, one lasting from June 24 to July 7, 52 the other from July 21 to 27. The absolute heat record for France (46 °C) was measured in 53 54 Vérargues in the Herault administrative department (Météo-France 2019), which includes the Thau Basin. A 13-day period of temperature stress between June 24 and July 13 was recorded 55 with water temperatures above 27.5 °C in the Thau lagoon (Lagarde et al. 2021, Messiaen et al. 56 2021). Marine heatwaves (MHW) are extreme events defined as abrupt but prolonged periods 57 of high sea surface temperatures that can occur anywhere, at any time (Scannell et al. 2016, 58 Schlegel et al. 2017, Hobday et al. 2018). More specifically, an abnormally warm event is 59 considered to be a MHW if it lasts for five or more days, with temperatures higher than the 90th 60 percentile based on a 30-year historical baseline period (Hobday et al. 2016). High water 61 temperatures increase the metabolic requirements of bivalves (Filgueira et al. 2016, Thomas & 62 Bacher 2018). Even if temperatures remain within the species' thermal range, high temperatures 63

combined with variations in salinity and/or food availability, can negatively impact the life cycle of bivalves (Filgueira et al. 2016, Scanes et al. 2020, Vázquez et al. 2021).

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The development of planktonic larvae of the Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*) underlies their complex life history strategy (Byrne & Przeslawski 2013, Ko et al. 2014, Dineshram et al. 2016). The context of hydroclimatic stress provides a range of environmental possibilities that need to be described in order to better understand the larvae development. Several studies suggest that global changes are disrupting plankton communities and their nutritional values by affecting the abundance, size and diversity of primary producers (Klauschies et al. 2012, Sommer et al. 2012, Trombetta et al. 2019). Generally, elevated temperatures affect phytoplankton cell size with a shift from larger to smaller species (Bec et al. 2005, Trombetta et al. 2019). Adult bivalves can assimilate small phytoplanktonic particles (Sonier et al. 2016). However, the efficiency of capture is regulated by the morphology of their gills, and efficiency is generally low when small particles such as picoplankton are present (Rosa et al. 2018). Larvae feed through a less selective velum (Bower & Meyer 1990). Marine phytoplankton species are major producers of long-chain polyunsaturated essential fatty acids (EFA) but are now predicted to decrease due to ocean warming (Hixson & Arts 2016, Colombo et al. 2017). The fatty acids docosahexaenoic acid (22:6ω3; DHA), eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5ω3; EPA) and arachidonic acid (AA) are essential for the growth and survival of marine invertebrates, particularly during their metamorphosis from pelagic larvae to benthic juveniles and ultimately, their recruitment success (Gagné et al. 2010, Bassim et al. 2015). Since EFAs are poorly biosynthesized by marine animals, their intake depends on their food (Glencross 2009, Da Costa et al. 2015). Thus, both the right size of larval food and the right fatty acid composition are essential for the recruitment success of bivalves.

The aim of this study was to identify the environmental factors and trophic conditions (Table S1 & Table S2) associated with the recruitment failure of the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*, during a heat wave. We compared two contrasted years (2017,no heatwave and 2019, occurrence of a heatwave) at four sites in the Thau lagoon, France (Fig. 1). We hypothesize that heatwaves, characterized by high temperatures and high salinity, have a negative impact on oyster recruitment due to poor larval feeding conditions caused by changes in plankton diversity.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Experimental design

Annual oyster recruitment was monitored at four experimental sites in the Thau lagoon (Southern France; Fig 1.) on the same dates, i.e. between July 24 and August 21, in 2017, and between July 2 and July 29, in 2019. The average depth of the Thau lagoon is 4 m, and the lagoon covers an area of 7 500 ha (19 km x 4.5 km) of which 20% is used for shellfish culture (oysters and mussels). The lagoon is connected to the Mediterranean Sea via a network of channels through Sète Harbor (Fiandrino et al. 2017). Two experimental sites were located inside the shellfish farming areas (Marseillan and Bouzigues) and the other two outside the shellfish farming areas (Meze and Listel) (Fig 1.).

2.2 Oyster analyses

Three sets of oyster collectors were submerged vertically 2 m below the surface at each of the four study sites in the Thau lagoon. Three different oyster settler stages (Table S1) were used to estimate benthic abundances: i) pre-settled pediveliger larvae, ii) young metamorphosed postlarvae and iii) juveniles (Arakawa 1990, Lagarde et al. 2017). The sums of abundances of pediveligers and

postlarvae are listed under "young settlers" (Table S1). The collectors were installed once the oyster's larval supply reached a density of 10 000 larvae/m³ (Pouvreau et al. 2021). The collectors located inside the shellfish culture areas were suspended from existing farming structures. Those outside the area were suspended using a tailored mooring system (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2019). Each collector was made of 44 white PVC plastic plates (15 cm in diameter; surface area 250 cm²) stacked on a 110 cm long tube. Two weeks after their immersion, three plates per collector were harvested [at the top (i.e., the 5th from the top of the collector), in the middle (the 22nd) and at the bottom (the 39th)] and data were pooled to assess the abundance of young settlers and fatty acid (FA) content (µg larva⁻¹). A similar sampling procedure was used four weeks after the collectors were immersed to assess the abundance of juveniles. The abundance of young settlers and juveniles was assessed on the upper surface of each plate using standard 15 cm² sub-units. Depending on abundance, 3 to 12 sub-units were randomly selected for counting and the resulting replicates were averaged to obtain the total number of individuals per plate. Recruitment was evaluated from the abundance of juveniles and metamorphosis from the ratio of juvenile to young-settler abundances. Size at metamorphosis was estimated by measuring the prodissoconch II (PII) (Martel et al. 1995). Maximum 60 juveniles were removed from each plate sampled after the fourth week after immersion, and placed on a plasticine flange fixed on a microscope blade. Observations were made under the wide-range zoom lens of a high-resolution digital microscope Keyence (VHX 2000E, 1 μm resolution, HDR images), and the maximum dorsoventral axis was measured. This measurement corresponds to the distance between the umbo and the most distant part of the clear demarcation formed by a growth line delimiting the PII from the dissoconch shell.

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The fatty acid (FA) composition of young settlers was determined using a pool of 77 to 212 individuals per replicate (2-3 replicates per site depending on pediveliger abundances). Samples were preserved in vials filled with 3 mL of dichloromethane methanol (CH₂Cl₂:MeOH, 2:1 v:v), closed with a Teflon-lined cap under nitrogen atmosphere and stored at -80 °C until analysis. Lipids were extracted by grinding in dichloromethane methanol using a modified Folch procedure (Parrish 1999). Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were prepared using sulfuric acid and methanol (2:98 v:v) heated at 100 °C for 10 min and using 19:0 as internal standard (Lepage & Roy 1984). Samples were purified on an activated silicagel with 1 mL of hexane ethyl acetate (v:v) to eliminate free sterols. FAME were analyzed in the full scan mode (ionic range: 50–650 m:z) on a Polaris Q ion trap coupled with a Trace GC Ultra gas chromatograph (Thermo Scientific) equipped with a TriPlus autosampler, a PTV injector and an ITQ900 mass detector (Thermo Scientific). An Omegawax 250 (Supelco) capillary column was used for separation using high purity helium. Xcalibur v.2.1 software (Thermo Scientific) was used for FAME identification and quantification with the standard reference solution (Supelco 37 Component FAME Mix and Supelco menhaden oil). Unknown peaks were identified according to their mass spectra with emphasis on FA trophic makers.

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2.3 Environmental measurements

Environmental factors were measured once a week (Table S1 and Table S2) starting just after the collectors were immersed and continuing until all the plates were harvested, i.e., a total of five weeks. Temperature (°C), salinity and dissolved oxygen concentrations (mg L⁻¹) were measured at a depth of 1 m and at the bottom of the water column with an Oxi1970i WTW oximeter and an LF 197-S WTW conductivity meter.

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Potential food for oysters is expressed as the concentration of total suspended particulate matter varying in size from 0.7 and 20 μm (TPM_{0.7-20μm}, mg L⁻¹). It consisted of inorganic (PIM_{0.7-20μm}, mg L⁻¹) and organic particulate matter (POM_{0.7-20µm}, mg L⁻¹). Once a week, three replicate water samples were collected at a depth of 1 m using a Ruttner Standard Water Sampler (Hydro-Bios Apparatebau) and stored at 4 °C for less than 2 hours before filtration to measure the concentrations (mg mL⁻¹) of pico and nano-seston. In 2017, 500-mL subsamples of 1-L samples were used for filtration, while on 2019, 1-L subsamples of 2-L samples were used. Water samples were first filtered by gravity through a Nuclepore membrane (20 µm pore size). Fractionated water samples were then filtered using a vacuum pressure pump (0.3 bar) on preweighed (Mettler Toledo XP6 microbalance) pre-combusted (at 500 °C) Whatman 25 mm GF/F filters (0.7 µm pore size). The GF/F filters were rinsed with an isotonic seawater solution of ammonium formate (38 g L⁻¹ distilled water) to eliminate salt deposits and stored in MilliporeTM PetriSlideTM containers at -25 °C. The filters were dried at 70 °C for 24 h, weighed and the concentration of total particulate matter TPM_{0.7-20µm} was determined. The filters were then combusted at 500 °C for 5 h and weighed again to determine the concentration of particulate inorganic matter (PIM_{0.7-20um}, mg L⁻¹). The concentration of particulate organic matter (POM_{0.7-20um}, mg L⁻¹). _{20um}, mg L⁻¹) is the difference in weight between the dried and the combusted filter. To determine the FA content of the pico- and nano-seston (µg.mg TPM_{0.7-20µm}⁻¹), 1-L water samples collected in 2017 and 2-L water samples collected in 2019 were filtered as described above without addition of ammonium formate solution. GF/F filters were stored in 3 ml of CH₂Cl₂:MeOH (2:1 v:v) under a nitrogen atmosphere in vials closed with a Teflon-lined cap and stored at -80 °C. The mass of total fatty acids in the seston (MTFA; µg mg⁻¹ POM) and its composition (% fatty

acids) were obtained as already described for oysters, with lipid extraction carried out by sonification rather than grinding.

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Plankton diversity was measured in 1 L samples collected in 2017 and in 2 L samples collected weekly in 2019 with a Ruttner Standard Water Sampler (Hydro-Bios Apparatebau) at each sampling site. This sampling strategy enabled 40 observations (4 sites x 5 weeks x 2 years). Phytoplankton was characterized using the standard Utermöhl method NF-EN-152014, 2006 in 10 mL seawater samples. Abundances of 52 diatom taxa and 38 dinoflagellate taxa are expressed as the number of individuals per liter. Chlorophyll a (Chl-a), b (Chl-b) and c (Chl-c) biomasses were evaluated in 200 ml seawater samples filtered on Whatman GF/F membranes (0.7 µm pore size) with a vacuum pressure pump (<10 cm Hg) (Bec et al. 2005, 2011). Filters were stored in glass tubes at -20 °C until analysis. To determine the contribution of picophytoplankton (<3 μm), nanophytoplankton (3 to 20 μm) and microphytoplankton (>20 μm), two out of three samples were size-fractioned beforehand by gravity through Nuclepore membranes (3 and 20 μm pore size). Filters were ground in acetone (90%) and extracted at 4 °C for 24 h in the dark. Pigment contents were measured with a spectrofluorometer (Perkin-Elmer LS50b) (Neveux & Lantoine 1993) and are expressed in μ g Chl a L⁻¹. Concentrations of picocyanobacteria (<1 μ m), autotrophic picoeukaryotes (<3 µm), nanophytoplankton (3-20 µm) and bacteria were estimated using a FACSCalibur flow cytometer according to flow cytometry methods (Marie et al. 1997, Bec et al. 2011). Seawater samples (1-ml) were analyzed; abundances are expressed in cells per liter. Total picophytoplankton abundances were assessed by summing picocyanobacteria and photosynthetic picoeukaryote abundances. Fluorescent beads (0.94 µm; 2 and 3 µm, Polysciences) were added to each sample to calibrate for cell size of phytoplankton in terms of

equivalent spherical diameter. To measure bacterial abundances, seawater samples were fixed with prefiltered (0.2 µm) buffered formaldehyde (2% final concentration) and stored in liquid nitrogen. The procedure was slightly modified as higher concentrations of fluorochromes (SYBR Green I) were used (Bouvy et al. 2016). The fixed samples were incubated with SYBR Green I (Molecular Probes) at a final concentration of 1/375 at 4 °C for 15 min in the dark. Stained bacterial cells excited at 488 nm were determined according to their side-scattered light and green fluorescence collected using a 530/30 nm filter. Fluorescent beads (0.94 µm; Polysciences) were added to each sample as size reference beads. Protozooplankton (heterotrophic flagellates) abundances were determined using the standard 2006 Utermöhl method NF-EN-152014, and are expressed in cells per liter. Until used for heterotrophic flagellate analysis, 30 ml seawater samples were preserved with 2.5 ml of prefiltered (0.2 µm) formaldehyde and kept at 4 °C in the dark. Before counting, 10 ml subsamples were stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) to reach a final concentration of 2.5 µg ml⁻¹. Heterotrophic flagellates were counted by size class (2-5 µm, 5-10 μm and >10 μm) under an epifluorescence microscope (Olympus AX70) with UV illumination (Sherr et al. 1993).

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2.4 Territorial competition

The percent cover of tubeworms (*Ficopomatus enigmaticus*) on 6 plates per site sampled in the fourth week after immersion was estimated to assess territorial competition with oyster juveniles, but only during the 2019 sampling season, as no tubeworms were observed in 2017. In 2017, each plate used for oyster sampling was checked for the presence of potential competitors, which was when the absence tubeworms was noted. Photographs of each plate

were taken with a GoPro HERO4 Silver camera equipped with a macro pro filter (San Mateo, CA, USA) and in 2019, the % of tubeworms recovered on the plate was estimated using Image-Pro Insight 9.1 software (MediaCybernetics, Rockville, MD, USA).

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2.5 Statistical analyses

All PERMANOVA analyses were performed with Primer 7 and Permanova+1 (version 7.0.13) software. A two-way PERMANOVA (n perm.: 9999) was conducted using a Euclidian distance matrix to test the effect of year (2 fixed levels) and sampling site (4 fixed levels) on size at metamorphosis, total and essential fatty acid contents in young settlers, and on all the environmental variables measured, except the oxygen level, which was added as a third factor (depth) in the analysis. Homogeneity was evaluated using the permutation analysis of multivariate dispersion (PERMDISP). When significant PERMANOVAs were observed, post hoc multiple comparison tests were carried out. Multivariate analyses of total FA composition in young settlers and in seston, including a posteriori pairwise comparison, were done using distance-based permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, 9999) permutations) based on Euclidian dissimilarities, with year (2 fixed levels) and sampling site (4 fixed levels) as sources of variation. Variations in FA composition, expressed in percentages, were visualized using non-metric multidimensional scaling (n-MDS). The similarity percentage (SIMPER) procedure was performed on untransformed data to identify the FAs that explained the most dissimilarity between significantly different levels.

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3. RESULTS

3.1 Oyster recruitment

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Recruitment numbers showed dramatic annual variability with great success at some sites in 2017 but an overall near-zero recruitment level at all sites in 2019 (Fig. 2a, b). In 2017, the metamorphosis survival rate, expressed as the ratio of juvenile to young settler abundances per plate, also showed marked spatial variability (Fig. 2a). The ratio of juvenile (123 ± 9 ind. plate ¹) to young-settler abundances per plate $(49 \pm 6 \text{ ind. plate}^{-1})$ was 2.5 in Bouzigues. However, at the other sites, the level of recruitment was 24% lower (94 \pm 16 juveniles plate⁻¹) in Meze, 90% $(13 \pm 2 \text{ juveniles plate}^{-1})$ in Listel, and 97% $(4 \pm 2 \text{ juveniles plate}^{-1})$ in Marseillan. A smaller supply of larvae $(6 \pm 2 \text{ young-settlers plate}^{-1})$ was observed in Marseillan, but the metamorphosis survival rate was 0.6. However, in Meze and Listel, the low recruitment rates were not linked to the supply of larvae, as young settler abundances were higher in Meze (328) \pm 71 young settler plate⁻¹, with a metamorphosis survival rate of 0.3) and in Listel (670 \pm 65 young settler plate⁻¹, with a metamorphosis survival rate of 0.02) than in Bouzigues. Failure characterized the 2019 oyster recruitment season: low abundances of young settlers were observed in Meze (116 \pm 5 ind. plate⁻¹) and in Listel (31 \pm 2 ind. plate⁻¹), with almost 3 and 22 times fewer individuals than in 2017, respectively. This trend was not observed in Bouzigues $(84 \pm 9 \text{ ind. plate}^{-1})$ or in Marseillan $(45 \pm 3 \text{ ind. plate}^{-1})$ in 2019. Instead, young settlers were respectively 2 and 7 times higher in 2019 than in 2017. However, two weeks later, almost no juveniles were observed on the plates (average 0.14 ± 0.06 ind. plate⁻¹), regardless of the sites, pointing to a general oyster recruitment failure in 2019. The size of the juveniles at metamorphosis (PII length) was established in all samples except in samples from Bouzigues in 2019 (Fig 2c, d), in which no metamorphosis of young settlers to juveniles was observed. PII individuals sampled in 2019 were 5.1% smaller (mean $262 \pm 1 \mu m$)

than those sampled in 2017 (mean 276 \pm 1 μ m). Differences among sites were only observed in 270 2017, when PII sizes in Bouzigues were 2.7% smaller than those in Meze (p = 0.02), Listel (p 271 = 0.01) and Marseillan (p = 0.03). 272 No significant differences in total fatty acid (TFA) contents were observed in young settlers at 273 the four sites and in the two years (p > 0.05). The overall TFA average was 51 ± 19 ng larvae⁻¹. 274 The sum of essential fatty acids (EFA) corresponded to about 10% of TFA with an effect of 275 year \times site (pseudo- $F_{3,19}$ =6.47, p=0.007), as individuals in Listel (p=0.02) and Marseillan 276 (p=0.006) had 5 times lower EFA contents in 2017 than in 2019. The fatty acid composition of 277 young settlers varied with the year \times site interaction (pseudo- $F_{3,19}$ =2.34, p=0.017), as 278 individuals sampled in Listel (p=0.047) and Marseillan (p=0.044) had different profiles between 279 SIMPER analysis, the interannual differences 280 the two years (Fig. S1). According to a observed at these two sites were linked to DHA (22:6n3), EPA (20:5n3), AA (20:4n6), 18:2n6, 281 18:0 and 16:0 explained more than 83% of the average dissimilarity in the fatty acid profiles. 282 283 DHA, EPA and AA levels in young settlers sampled in 2019 were twice higher than in 2017, while the levels of 18:2n6 were five times lower in 2019 than in 2017, except at the Meze and 284 Bouzigues sites (p > 0.09). 285

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3.2 Physicochemical parameters

Average water temperatures were 2.6 °C higher in 2019 than in 2017, respectively, 26.8 °C (the maximum temperature measured at the surface in Marseillan, (August 7, 2019, with 29.7 °C) and 24.2 °C. In the same way, salinity was 0.3 higher, respectively, 39.3 and 39.0 in 2019 than in 2017 (Fig 3a, b, Table S3 and Table S4). A site effect was also observed for salinity in the Thau lagoon. On average over the 2 years, observed salinity increased from east to west: mean

salinity (39.5) in Marseillan was 0.68 higher than in Bouzigues where mean salinity was 38.8. Conversely, no significant difference in temperature was observed among sites although the averages varied from 23.8 °C in Bouzigues to 24.5 °C in Marseillan in 2017 and from 26.3 °C to 27.2 °C, respectively, in 2019. There was a site \times year interaction effect on the oxygen concentration (Table S5). No significant difference was observed among sites in 2017 with oxygen concentrations ranging between 6.23 mg O₂ l⁻¹ and 6.53 mg O₂ l⁻¹ (c). The lowest mean oxygen concentration, 5.64 mg O₂ l⁻¹ at the surface of the lagoon and 3.52 mg O₂ l⁻¹ at the bottom, were observed in Bouzigues in 2019 during the heatwave (p = 0.001). Oxygen concentrations varied with water depth, lower values were generally observed near the bottom (Fig. 3c). Minimum concentrations of oxygen, i.e. below 2mg l⁻¹, were recorded as early as July 8, 2019 at the bottom of the lagoon in Bouzigues.

3.3 Potential food for oyster larvae

Concentrations of TPM_{0.7-20}, PIM_{0.7-20} and POM_{0.7-20} were more than twice higher in 2019 than in 2017 (Fig. a, b, c, Table S6, S7 and S8). Significant differences among the four sites were only observed in the concentrations of POM_{0.7-20}. For both years, POM_{0.7-20} concentrations in Marseillan were 0.7 and 0.8 times lower than in Listel and Meze (p = 0.01 and 0.03, respectively). An effect of the year × Chl-a biomass fraction was observed (Table S9). Mean nanophytoplankton and picophytoplankton biomasses (p = 0.0001 and p = 0.0004 respectively) were 3 times higher in 2019 than in 2017 (Fig.4d, e). A site × year effect was also observed, Chl-a biomass values were 45% lower in Bouzigues than in Listel (p = 0.01) and Meze (p = 0.004) in 2017. In 2019, biomass in Marseillan was 62% lower than at the other sites (p < 0.02). Interannual variability in Chl-a biomass in Bouzigues was found to be 3 times in 2019

(p = 0.0007) than in 2017. Similar patterns were observed for Chl-b and Chl -c biomass, with 316 twice as much Chl-b in the samples collected in 2019 than in the samples collected in 2017 317 $(0.069 \,\mu g \, L^{-1} \, versus \, 0.026 \,\mu g \, L^{-1}; \, p=0.0001)$, and a more than two-fold increase in Chl-c (0.103) 318 ug L⁻¹ versus 0.046 ug L⁻¹), particularly in Listel (p=0.039) and Bouzigues (p=0.0003). 319 Oysters feed primarily on nanophytoplankton and microphytoplankton based on diatoms and 320 dinoflagellates, both of which decreased in 2019 relative to 2017 in favor of picoplankton. Flow 321 cytometry data showed an effect of the year on cells smaller than 3 µm (Fig.). Abundances of 322 picoeukaryotes (< 3 μm) (Table S10), picocyanobacteria (< 1 μm) (Table S11 and S12) and 323 bacteria (Table S14) were higher in 2019 than in 2017. However, nanophytoplankton (3-20 μm) 324 abundances decreased by 39% in 2019 (Table S13). The abundance of total heterotrophic 325 flagellates did not vary significantly among sites or between years, the mean value being 2 866 326 ± 291 cell mL⁻¹. Dinoflagellate and diatom abundances were affected by the year (pseudo-327 $F_{1.35}$ =5.64, p=0.023), total values decreased by 60% in 2019 compared to 2017. These variations 328 were linked to a 93% decrease in *Chaetoceros* abundance from 184 715 \pm 66 846 to 12 483 \pm 3 329 540 cells L⁻¹ (SIMPER contribution: 77%, pseudo- $F_{1,35}$ =8.73, p=0.0001) and the disappearance 330 of Skeletonema in Listel and Meze between 2017 and 2019. Diatom taxa were fewer in number 331 332 at all sites sampled in 2019 with a maximum of 13 identified compared to 21 taxa identified in 2017. A marked increase in *Pseudo-nitzschia* (19 920 \pm 10 513 to 50 562 \pm 13 652 cells L⁻¹) 333 with a SIMPER contribution of 8% and (pseudo-F_{1,35}=8.73, p=0.0001), Leptocylindrus 334 (SIMPER contribution 7%), Thalassionema, and Cylindrotheca (1 837 \pm 222 to 18 712 \pm 12 335 010 cells L-1) was observed in 2019 compared to 2017. This trend was particularly clear in 336 Bouzigues (Fig. 6). This result also reflects the higher diversity of dinoflagellate taxa observed 337 in 2019 (16 taxa) than in 2017 (12 taxa). 338

TFA contents in the TPM_{0.7-20} samples were twice higher in 2019 (19.2 μg mg TPM_{0.7-20}-1) than in 2017 (9.9 μg mg TPM_{0.7-20}-1; pseudo- $F_{1.61}$ =17.1, p=0.0002) with no differences among sites and year × site effects. The fatty acid composition of the TPM_{0.7-20} samples differed between years (pseudo- $F_{3.76}$ =3.08, p=0.0001) and, as determined by SIMPER analysis, explained 97% of the differences in the levels of 18:1n9, 18:0, 16:1, 18:2n6, 16:0, 14:0, 20:5n3 and 22:6n3. Twenty-six percent of the difference observed between years was related to 18:1n9, an FA that was twice as abundant in 2017 (up to 24.1% of the TFA) than in 2019. The dissimilarity in the FA profiles observed between years was also explained by higher values of 18:2n6 (representing up to 10.8% of TFA), and EPA (7%) in 2017. 18:2n6 and EPA were, respectively, 11.3% and 5% higher in 2017 than in 2019. The most abundant FAs in the TPM_{0.7-20} samples in 2019 were 16:1 and DHA, which explained, respectively, 13% and 4.3% of the dissimilarity revealed by SIMPER analysis.

3.4 Territorial competition by worms

The percent cover of tubeworms (*Ficopomatus enigmaticus*) on the plates in 2019 showed a marked increase in this species. Differences were observed among the sites (pseudo- $F_{3,33}$ =157, p=0.0001). Results showed a similar percent cover of tubeworms (93.6 ± 1.5%) in Listel and Bouzigues and a lower percent cover in Meze (83.2 ± 2.6%) (p < 0.032) and in Marseillan (23.6 ± 3.7%) (p < 0.0001).

4. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to identify the environmental and trophic drivers of the decline in the recruitment of the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*, associated with a heatwave. Our hypothesis

that a heatwave has a negative effect on oyster recruitment by altering plankton diversity is supported by our results. The year 2017 is a reference year from a hydroclimatic point of view with known ecological functioning of larval development of oysters (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2019). The larval developments led to different metamorphosis rates in the study areas that are linked to environmental cues such as the abundance of nanophytoplankton (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2018). If there are more spat than larvae, we assume 100% successful metamorphosis by competent larvae and the arrival of competent larvae from elsewhere between the two observation periods, i.e. between the 14th and 28th day after the collectors were installed (Lagarde et al. 2017). While oyster recruitment was normal in 2017, an unprecedented failure was observed in summer 2019 in the Mediterranean Thau lagoon. The atmospheric conditions that prevail during a heatwave have strong direct effects on marine and lagoon environments that normally provide a variety of ecosystem services and host valuable species (Sarà et al. 2021). Temperature and salinity conditions are key ecological and physiological factors for *Crassostrea* larvae (His et al. 1989b, Baldwin & Newell 1995, Devakie & Ali 2000, Troost et al. 2009). In controlled experimental conditions, the entire larval life of C. gigas, including metamorphosis, showed high tolerance to temperatures ranging from 17 °C to 32 °C at a salinity level of 34, with low mortality (≤10%) and a maximum growth rate at 32 °C (Rico-Villa et al. 2009). The physiological limits of temperature tolerance were therefore not reached in our experimental conditions where the average temperature was 26.8 °C during the heatwave (with a maximum of with 29.7 °C measured at the surface of the lagoon in Marseillan on August 7, 2019), so in this case, temperature was not the origin of the failure. Salinity did not drop below 38 in 2017 and 2019 recruitment season, and intermittently reached more than 40 in 2019. Crassostrea gigas is an estuarine organism that tolerates a wide range of salinity (Nell & Holliday 1988), but no

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information is available in the literature on the upper salinity tolerance of the larval stage in real conditions. The high salinity in 2019 may represent the physiological salinity threshold for oyster larvae. Our results showed that at the time of metamorphosis (PII), the larval shell (prodissoconch) was smaller in 2019, suggesting a reduction in larval growth or more rapid achievement of metamorphosis competence in high salinity years. An optimal salinity range for larval growth up to 27 and very marked reduction in growth has been observed at 31-39 (Nell & Holliday 1988). The smaller observed PII size could be linked to growth limitation under high salinity. Interestingly, no significant effect of salinity on larval survival between 19 and 39 has been reported, but a marked reduction in larval growth rate has been observed from 30 (Helm & Millican 1977, Nell & Holliday 1988). The upper tolerance limits of oysters to high salinity ranging from 35 to 45 should thus be further tested in laboratory conditions, including interactions between high temperatures and different nutritional inputs (His et al. 1989a). Marine bivalve populations are known to be unstable due to causes intrinsic to the population or to extrinsic causes linked to environmental conditions (Skazina et al. 2013, Reed et al. 2021). The heatwave that occurred in 2019 resulted in large quantities of particulate matter and chlorophyll biomass, but their quality appeared to be unfavorable for oyster recruitment. The failure of oyster recruitment in 2019 could thus be linked to the change in phytoplankton communities with low abundance of forage diatoms and high abundance of picoplanktonic prokaryotes and eukaryotes, of heterotrophic flagellates, as well as of the diatoms *Pseudo*-Nitzschia and Cylindrotheca. However, the trophic environment was not characterized by a planktonic community poor in fatty acids, in fact it was richer than in 2017. Pediveliger larvae accumulated the same quantity of fatty acids in 2017 as in 2019, but metamorphosis failures were observed at all sites. We suggest that this failure may be linked to inappropriate trophic

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conditions, due to the development of picophytoplankton. These species are poorly retained by the newly developed gills of postlarvae. Our results suggest that the overabundance of small particles (picoplanktonic prokaryotes and eukaryotes) could be critical for larval settlement and metamorphosis. Higher chlorophyll biomass was observed in the nanophytoplankton fraction during the heatwave in 2019 than in 2017 (with no heatwave), indicating changes in the phytoplankton community.

The heat wave was characterized by the increasing abundances of picocyanobacteria (Bec et al. 2005, Collos et al. 2009, Derolez et al. 2020b) and decreasing abundances of nanophytoplankton. The oligotrophication trajectory of the Thau lagoon began in the early

nanophytoplankton. The oligotrophication trajectory of the Thau lagoon began in the early 2000s (Collos et al. 2009, Derolez et al. 2020a). This process caused a community shift due to a reduction in nutrient loads that had prevailed since the 1970s thanks to improved wastewater treatment in the watershed aimed at halting eutrophication (EC 1991a b, 2000). The reduction in nutrient loads has been amplified by a decrease in total rainfall since the 2000s due to climate change (Derolez et al. 2020a). Our results corroborate evidence that the proportion of small taxa like picoplankton, in the phytoplankton community, is increasing in coastal, marine and freshwater ecosystems in response to global warming (Daufresne et al. 2009, Mousing et al. 2014, Pinckney et al. 2015). Small phytoplankton cells have been reported to dominate in oligotrophic environments (Irwin et al. 2006).

The 2019 heatwave had a negative impact on oyster larval recruitment by shifting the phytoplankton community towards picoplankton and opening a favorable ecological window for tubeworms that compete for food and land space. In this case, the failure of recruitment seems to be more linked to the ecological conditions at the time of metamorphosis of the larvae

than to their physiological limits, which were not reached. We hypothesize that the limitations encountered by oyster larvae are ecological in the sense of the absence of trophic settlement triggers (Toupoint et al. 2012, Androuin et al. 2022), which are known to be high concentrations of diatoms and high abundance of nanophytoplankton for metamorphosis survival in the Thau Lagoon (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2018). Tubeworms are opportunistic ecosystem engineers that play an important role in determining benthic species abundance and composition (Heiman & Micheli 2010, McQuaid & Griffiths 2014). In our case, high temperatures and high salinity coincided with the development of the tubeworm *Ficopomatus enigmaticus*, triggering a shift in benthic community composition that was destructive for oyster recruitment on collectors. The feeding abilities of F. enigmatus make it very efficient for small particles, with high ingestion rates in the size range 2-16 µm, including diatoms (Davies et al. 1989, Bruschetti et al. 2008), which exert strong top-down trophic control (Pan & Marcoval 2014). We consequently hypothesize that tubeworms are important territorial competitors and trophic competitors of oyster larvae in shallow water and brackish habitats that develop in the context of heatwaves. This study demonstrates, for the first time, an ecological process leading to the recruitment failure of the Pacific oysters due to an extreme heatwave. The oligotrophication trajectory of our study site combined with the effects of high water temperatures caused a shift of phytoplankton communities towards small species of picophytoplankton including cyanobacteria, but that are likely unfavorable for the successful larval development of oysters until their juvenile metamorphosis (Lagarde et al. 2017). The present study thus reveals the ecological limits of the recruitment process of the Pacific oyster in the context of a heatwave in a Mediterranean lagoon. The heatwave phenomenon observed in 2019 severely disrupted the reproductive cycle of oysters in the Thau lagoon. In this context, the oyster nursery function in

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an oyster farming ecosystem can only be achieved or maintained when pico-, nano- and microphytoplankton communities are present and abundant and oysters can find favorable areas for larval development and optimize their recruitment. This study provides evidence that, in the conditions created by a heatwave, the ecological limits of Pacific oyster larvae are narrower than their physiological limits. The effects of climate change, particularly the warming of waters in semi-enclosed basins, will certainly lead to problems in larval harvesting in the near future. The information included in this paper should help adapt oyster aquaculture, including husbandry practices, to a future marked by climate change.

5. Data and code availability

All the data used in the current study and the scripts used in our analysis are publicly available or were obtained by the corresponding author. This research benefited from the VELYGER Database: The Oyster Larvae Monitoring French Project (http://doi.org/10.17882/41888) and REPHY Dataset - French Observation and Monitoring program for Phytoplankton and Hydrology in coastal waters. Metropolitan data. SEANOE (https://doi.org/10.17882/47248).

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8. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.C.M. was involved in investigation, methodology, writing, data curation, formal analysis, and visualization. R.T. and F.L. were involved in conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing, data curation, formal analysis, visualization, and project administration. S.P. was involved in conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing and project administration. B.B was involved in conceptualization,

funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing, data curation, formal analysis, and visualization. C.R. contributed to funding acquisition, methodology, writing, data curation and formal analysis. A.A and A.G. contributed to writing and interpretation. G.M. contributed to funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing and formal analysis. M.R., M.Ho, M.Ha. and T.M. contributed to conceptualization, investigation, methodology and writing.

9. COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

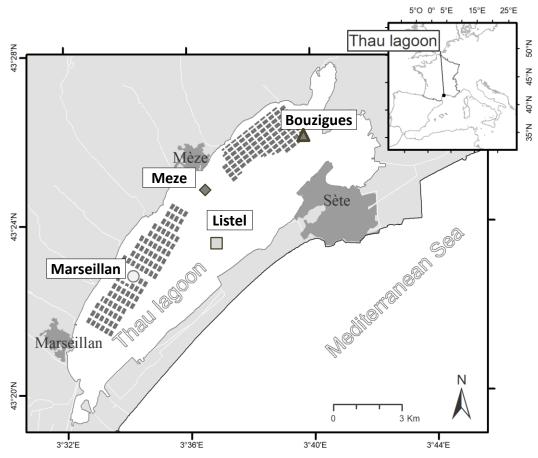


Fig. 1. The four sampling sites in the Thau lagoon. Marseillan and Bouzigues are located in the shellfish farming area; shaded areas indicate the location of shellfish culture areas. Meze and Listel are located outside the shellfish farming area.

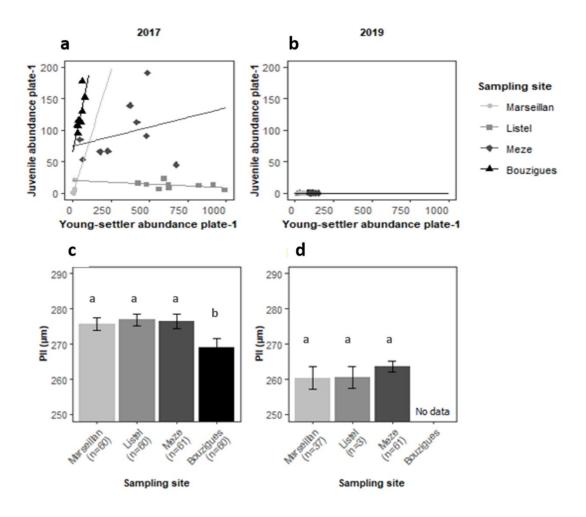


Fig. 2. Variability of oyster recruitment and prodissoconch II size in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). *Crassostrea gigas* recruitment performance with young settlers (pediveligers + post-larvae) and juvenile abundance per collector plate observed at the four sampling sites during the summer recruitment events in (a) 2017 and in (b) 2019. Size at metamorphosis was estimated based on the length of prodissoconch II shell (PII, μm ± SE) of juveniles sampled in (c) 2017 and (d) 2019. Different letters indicate significant differences between sites according to post-hoc multiple comparison tests after PERMANOVA.

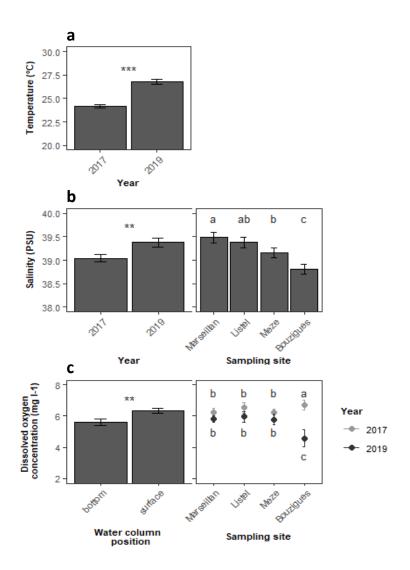


Fig. 3. Physicochemical monitoring in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). (a) Mean temperature (°C \pm SE) per year (n = 40), (b) mean salinity (PSU \pm SE) per year (n = 40) and per sampling site (n = 20) and (c) mean dissolved oxygen concentration (mg L⁻¹ \pm SE) according to the position of the sample in the water column (n = 40) and per year and sampling site (n = 10). Asterisks indicate significant differences in average parameters per year (* p \leq 0.05, ** p \leq 0.01, *** p \leq 0.001). Different letters indicate significant differences between sites according to post hoc multiple comparison tests after PERMANOVA.

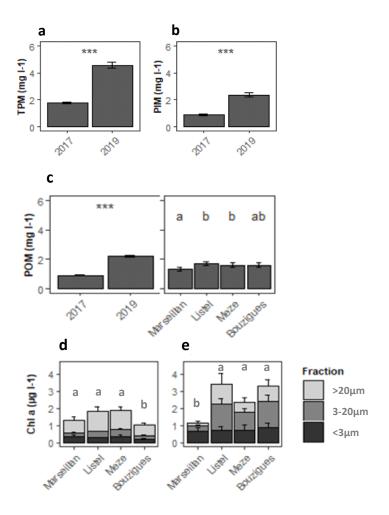


Fig. 4. Hydrobiological monitoring in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). Mean concentrations of (a) total particulate matter (TPM, mg L⁻¹ \pm SE), (b) particulate inorganic matter (PIM, mg L⁻¹ \pm SE) and (c) particulate organic matter (POM, mg L⁻¹ \pm SE) per year and sampling site (n = 5 per sampling site and year). Mean concentrations of chlorophyll-a (d, 2017 and e; 2019; μg L⁻¹ \pm SE), found in the picophytoplankton fraction (< 3 μm), the nanophytoplankton fraction (3 to 20 μm) and the microphytoplankton fraction (> 20 μm) per year and sampling site (n = 5 per sampling site, year and phytoplankton fraction). Asterisks indicate significant differences according to the average parameters per year (* p \leq 0.05, ** p \leq 0.01, *** p \leq 0.001). Different letters indicate significant differences between sites according to post-hoc multiple comparison tests after PERMANOVA.

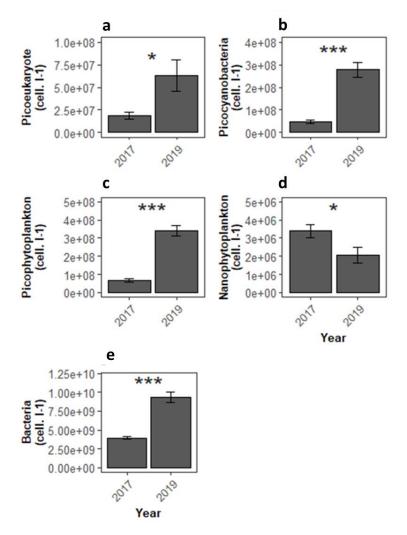


Fig. 5: Monitoring of picophytoplankton population in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). Average abundances for all sites of (a) photosynthetic picoeukaryotes, (b) picocyanobacteria, (c) picophytoplankton, (d) nanophytoplankton and (e) bacteria (cells $L^{-1} \pm SE$) per year (n=20). Asterisks indicate significant differences according to the average parameters per year (* p ≤ 0.05 , ** p ≤ 0.01 , *** p ≤ 0.001).

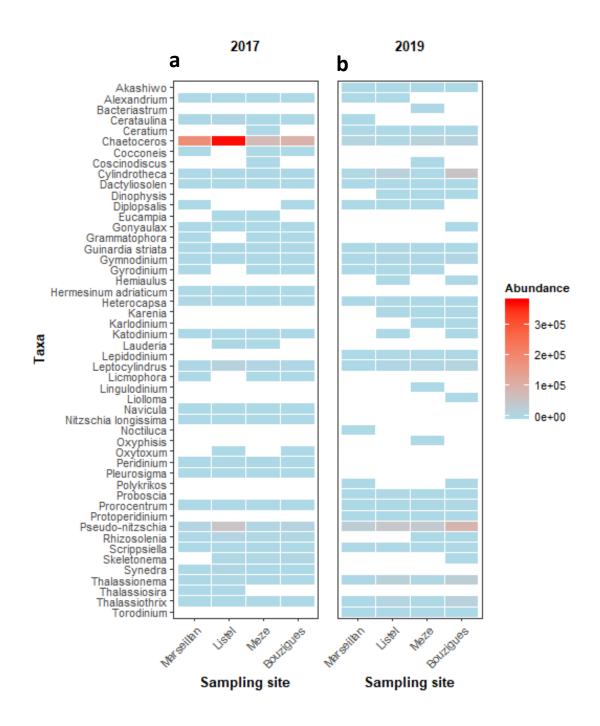


Fig. 6: Heatmap of microphytoplankton genera with changes in abundances in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). Average phytoplankton abundance (cells L^{-1}) per taxon and sampling site in (a) 2017 (n = 5) and (b) in 2019 (n = 4).

Table S1: Summary of the parameters characterizing the oyster larvae analyzed in this study

Variables	Description	Unit of	Abbreviation
		measure	
Oyster variables			
Pediveligers	Abundance of pre-settled pediveliger larvae on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	pediveligers
Metamorphosed postlarvae	Abundance of newly metamorphosed postlarvae on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	postlarvae
Young settlers	Abundance of pediveligers+ postlarvae on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	young settlers
Juveniles	Abundance of recruited juveniles on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	juveniles
Prodissoconch II size	Measurement of prodissoconch maximum shell height along maximal dorsoventral axis of larvae or juvenile Pacific oysters	μт	PII size
Total fatty acids in young settlers	Total fatty acid contents in larvae (young settlers)	ng lavae ⁻¹	TFA
Essential fatty acids	Sum of essential fatty acids in larvae (docosahexaenoic acid (22:6ω3; DHA), eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5ω3; EPA) and arachidonic acid (AA))	ng lavae ⁻¹	EFA

Table S2: Summary of the parameters characterizing the environment analyzed in this study.

Variables	Description	Unity	Abbreviation
Environmental variables			
Temperature	Discrete measure	$^{\circ}\!C$	-
Salinity	Discrete measure	No unit	-
Oxygen concentration	Discrete measure	mg l ⁻¹	-
Total particulate matter _{0.7} -	Total particular pelagic material in	mg l⁻¹	TPM _{0.7-20μm}
20 μm	the 0.7-20 μm fraction		υ
•	Particulate pelagic material in	mg l ⁻¹	POM _{0.7-20um}
Particulate organic	fraction the 0.7-20 µm fraction	mg i	1 Ο1010.7-20μm
Particulate organic	jruction the 6.7 20 µm jruction		
matter _{0.7-20μm} Particulate inorganic	Particulate inorganic pelagic	mg l ⁻¹	PIM _{0.7-20μm}
matter _{0.7-20um}	material in the fraction 0.7-20 μm	nig i -	F11V10.7-20μm
111αττει 0.7-20μm	fraction		
TFA content in TPM _{0.7-20}	TFA content in TPM _{0.7-20}	µg mg ТРМ _{0.7-20} -1	
TPA CONCENT III TPIVI _{0.7-20}	TFA COINCIN IF IVI _{0.7-20}	μy my r ivi _{0.7-20}	
Total chlorophyll a	Total chlorophyll a biomass	μgChla l ⁻¹	Chloa
Total chlorophyll b	Total chlorophyll b biomass	μgChlb l ⁻¹	Chlob
Total chlorophyll c	Total chlorophyll c biomass	μgChlc l ⁻¹	Chloc
Picophytoplankton biomass	Chlorophyll a biomass in the <3 μm	μgChla l ⁻¹	pico_Chloa
, ,,	fraction (picoeukaryotes)	7-5 -	, <u>_</u>
Nanophytoplankton	Chlorophyll a biomass in the 3-20	μgChla l-1	nano Chloa
biomass	μm fraction (nanoeukaryotes)	7-5 -	
Picophytoplankton+		μgChla l ⁻¹	nano total Chloa
nanophytoplankton	Biomass	7-5 -	
Microphytoplankton > 20		μgChla l ⁻¹	micro_Chloa
μт	Biomass (microeukaryotes)	, 3	-
Bacteria	Abundance of picocyanobacteria	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	bacteria
	(<1 μm)		
Total picoeukaryotes	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l⁻¹	peuk_tot
picoeukaryotes+	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l⁻¹	pico_tot
cyanophyceae			. –
Nanophytoplankton	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	nano
cryptophyceae	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	crypto
Nanophytoplankton +	Abundanaa	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	nano_tot
cryptophyceae	Abundance		_
Heterotrophic flagellates	Abundance	cell l ⁻¹	HF
Ciliates	Abundance	cell l ⁻¹	ciliates
Tintinnidae	Abundance	cell l ⁻¹	tinti
Diatoms	Abundance	cell l ⁻¹	diatom
Dinoflagellates	Abundance	cell l ⁻¹	dinoflagellate
Territorial competition by w	orms		
Worm coverage	Percent cover of tubeworms	%	-
	(Ficopomatus enigmaticus) on		
	plates		

Table S3: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site and year effect for Temperature

Unique												
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)					
site	3	7,087	2,3623	1,158	0,3305	9951	0,3335					
year	1	135,72	135,72	66,53	0,0001	9825	0,0001					
position	1	3,2	3,2	1,5686	0,2085	9805	0,217					
sitexyear	3	0,3865	0,12883	0,063154	0,9764	9951	0,9754					
sitexposition	3	2,573	0,85767	0,42042	0,7357	9950	0,7371					
yearxposition	1	1,1045	1,1045	0,54142	0,4681	9828	0,473					
sitexyearxposition	3	0,0865	0,028833	0,014134	0,9977	9955	0,9977					
Res	64	130,56	2,04									
Total	79	280,72										

Table S4: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, depth and year effect for salinity

						Unique	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)
Site	3	5,331	1,777	7,5677	0,0002		0,0004
Year	1	2,2445	2,2445	9,5587	0,0031	9805	0,0034
position	1	0,072	0,072	0,30663	0,5764	9733	0,5827
sitexyear	3	0,5245	0,17483	0,74457	0,5286	9960	0,5323
sitexposition	3	0,059	0,019667	0,083755	0,9666	9945	0,9679
yearxposition	1	0,1125	0,1125	0,47911	0,4824	9806	0,4966
sitexyearxposition	3	0,0805	0,026833	0,11428	0,9545	9942	0,9503
Res	64	15,028	0,23481				
Total	79	23,452					

Table S5: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, depth and year effect for oxygen

						Unique	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)
site	3	3,8333	1,2778	1,3099	0,2739	9944	0,27
year	1	15,878	15,878	16,277	0,0004	9825	0,0001
position	1	10,039	10,039	10,292	0,002	9854	0,0018
sitexyear	3	10,01	3,3366	3,4205	0,0215	9947	0,0217
sitexposition	3	3,8499	1,2833	1,3156	0,2758	9955	0,2805
yearxposition	1	3,3048	3,3048	3,388	0,0708	9812	0,0682
sitexyearxposition	3	1,7959	0,59865	0,6137	0,6012	9955	0,5985
Res	64	62,43	0,97547				
Total	79	111,14					

Table S6: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site and year effect for TPM

						Unique	5	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	1,493	0,49767	0,28089	0,8424	9962	0,8364	
year	1	207,48	207,48	,	0,0001		0,0001	
sitexyear	3	2,0244	0,67479	0,38085	0,7691	9958	0,7708	
Res	100	177,18	1,7718					
Total	107	388,6						

Table S7: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site and year effect for PIM

						Unique		
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	0,11747	0,039156	0,039431	0,9901	9949	0,9904	
year	1	54,939	54,939	55,325	0,0001	9814	0,0001	
sitexyear	3	0,33001	0,11	0,11077	0,957	9958	0,9508	
Res	100	99,303	0,99303					
Total	107	154,73						

Table S8: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site and year effect for POM

						Uniqu	e	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	1,4638	0,48793	2,796	0,0429		0,0407	
year		- ,	48,888	280,15	0,0001	9824	0,0001	
sitexyear	3	1,193	0,39765	2,2787	0,0834	9952	0,0832	
Res	100	17,451	0,17451					
Total	107	69,327						

Table S9: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for CHLOA

						Unique			
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)		
site	3	3,35	1,1167	3,9887	0,0088	9958	0,0088		
year	1	3,6519	3,6519	13,045	0,0003	9848	0,0007		
taille	2	1,8257	0,91286	3,2608	0,0401	9953	0,0456		
sitexyear	3	2,9083	0,96945	3,4629	0,0167	9953	0,0175		
sitexsize	6	1,984	0,33066	1,1811	0,3199	9933	0,3246		
yearxsize	2	5,0665	2,5333	9,0488	0,0004	9951	0,0004		
sitexyearxsize	6	0,84964	0,14161	0,50582	0,8156	9949	0,8092		
Res	96	26,876	0,27995						
Total	119	46,512							

Table S10: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site and year effect for PEUK_TOT

						Unique	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)
site	3	1,2885E+16	4,2951E+15	1,3441	0,2784	9945	0,2768
year	1	1,959E+16	1,959E+16	6,1306	0,0155	9835	0,0187
sitexyear	3	2,6684E+15	8,8948E+14	0,27835	0,8512	9952	0,8401
Res	32	1,0226E+17	3,1955E+15				
Total	39	1,374E+17					

Table S11: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for CYAN

						Unique			
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)		
site	3	2,552E+16	8,5068E+15	0,7044	0,5664	9949	0,5635		
year	1	5,3384E+17	5,3384E+17	44,205	0,0001	9851	0,0001		
sitexyear	3	1,2146E+16	4,0486E+15	0,33524	0,8082	9953	0,797		
Res	32	3,8645E+17	1,2077E+16						
Total	39	9,5796E+17							

Table S12: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for PICO

						Unique		
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3 2	,3685E+15	7,8951E+14	0,083154	0,9729	9939	0,9697	
year	1 7	,5797E+17	7,5797E+17	79,832	0,0001	9841	0,0001	
sitexyear	3 3	,7254E+15	1,2418E+15	0,13079	0,9431	9944	0,938	
Res	32 3	,0383E+17	9,4946E+15					
Total	39 1,	,0679E+18						

Table S13: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for NANO

						Unique	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)
site	3	1,2396E+12	4,1319E+11	0,13497	0,9421	9944	0,9377
year	1	1,7765E+13	1,7765E+13	5,8032	0,0196	9837	0,0175
sitexyear	3	2,0028E+13	6,6759E+12	2,1807	0,1051	9950	0,1082
Res	32	9,7961E+13	3,0613E+12				
Total	39	1,3699E+14					

Table S14 : multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for BACT_TOT

						Unique		
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	1,622E+19	5,4066E+18	0,93657	0,4508	9949	0,4387	
year	1	2,909E+20	2,909E+20	50,392	0,0001	9839	0,0001	
sitexyear	3	1,0607E+19	3,5358E+18	0,61249	0,6213	9957	0,6151	
Res	32	1,8473E+20	5,7728E+18					
Total	39	5,0246E+20						

Non-metric MDS

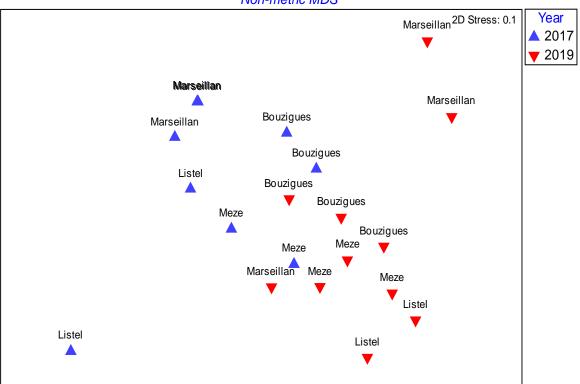


Figure S1. Non-metric multidimensional scaling of the Euclidean similarity matrix based on the relative abundance of fatty acid profiles measured in young settler larvae collected in 2017 and 2019 at each sampling site in the Thau lagoon.

Failure of bivalve foundation species recruitment related to trophic changes during an 1 extreme heat wave event 2 3 Alana Correia-Martins¹, Réjean Tremblay¹, Béatrice Bec², Cécile Roques², Ariane Atteia³, Angélique Gobet³, Marion Richard³, Masami Hamaguchi⁴, Toshihiro Miyajima⁵, Masakazu Hori⁴, Gilles Miron⁶, Stéphane Pouvreau⁷, Franck Lagarde^{3*} ¹Institut des sciences de la mer, Université du Québec à Rimouski, 310 allée des Ursulines, G5L 8 3A1, Rimouski, QC, Canada 9 ²MARBEC, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, Ifremer, IRD, Montpellier, France 10 ³MARBEC, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, Ifremer, IRD, Sète, France 11 ⁴National Research Institute of Fisheries and Environment of Inland Sea, Fisheries Research 12 Agency, Maruishi 2-17-5, Hatsukaichi, Hiroshima 739-0452, Japan 13 ⁵Marine Biogeochemistry Group, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute, University of Tokyo, Kashiwanoha 5-1-5, Kashiwa, Chiba 277-8564, Japan 15 ⁶Département de biologie, Université de Moncton, 18 avenue Antonine-Maillet, E1A 3E9 16 Moncton, NB, Canada 17 ⁷UMR LEMAR 6539, IFREMER, Argenton-en-Landunvez, France 18 19 *Corresponding author 20

RUNNING PAGE HEAD: Failure of oyster recruitment during heatwave

23 ABSTRACT

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- 24 Bivalves are regulators of coastal lagoons and provide a wide range of ecosystem services.
- 25 However, coastal lagoons are sensitive to climate change. Our objective was to describe the
- 26 drivers of the cascade of ecological events that occurred during a summer heatwave and resulted
- 27 in recruitment failure of the Pacific oyster Crassostrea gigas. Results showed that elevated
- 28 temperatures and salinity caused a shift in planktonic food availability toward smaller taxa.
- 29 These trophic changes did not affect food accumulation by oyster larvae or their fatty acid
- 30 composition but did affect post-metamorphosis success with up to 24% fewer young
- 31 metamorphosed postlarvae at some sites and absence no development of juveniles development
- 32 at all sites. This resulted in the failure of oyster recruitment and in the development of
- 33 tubeworms, a trophic and spatial competitor that can better ingest small particles. This
- 34 knowledge suggests that in the context of marine heatwaves, the ecological limits of oyster
- 35 larvae are narrower than their physiological limits.

37 KEYWORDS

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- 38 Climate change, Phenology, Extreme Heatwave, Bivalves, Pacific Oyster, Crassostrea gigas,
- 39 Reproduction, Larval Ecology, Cascade of Environmental Effects, Trophic Changes.

1. INTRODUCTION

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Coastal lagoons provide a wide range of ecosystem services (Villamagna et al. 2013, 42 Kermagoret et al. 2019, van der Schatte Olivier et al. 2020), associated with biodiversity, 43 including bivalves that are of great ecological interest and high commercial value. Bivalves also 44 have important regulatory functions in the ecosystem thanks to their capacity to extract particles, 45 46 to regenerate and store nutrients, and to form hard biogenic structures (Smaal et al. 2018). However, because coastal lagoons are shallow and exchange with the ocean is limited, they are 47 48 highly sensitive to eutrophication, heatwaves, hypoxia and acidification, as well as to the effects of global climate change (Lloret et al. 2008, Lu et al. 2018, Thomas et al. 2018). An atmospheric 49 heatwave is defined as five consecutive days with a maximum temperature 5 °C above the 1976-50 2005 normal (Jouzel et al. 2014). Summer 2019 was characterized by two heatwaves of 51 exceptional intensity over in France, including the Thau Basin, one lasting from June 24 to July 52 7, the other from July 21 to 27. The absolute heat record for France (46 °C) was measured in 53 Vérargues in the Heérault administrative department (Météo-France 2019), which includes the 55 Thau basinBasin. A 13-day period of temperature stress between June 24 and July 13 was recorded with water temperatures above 27.5 °C in the Thau lagoon (Lagarde et al. 2021, 56 Messiaen et al. 2021). Marine heatwaves (MHW) are extreme events defined as abrupt but 57 prolonged periods of high sea surface temperatures that can occur anywhere, at any time 58 (Scannell et al. 2016, Schlegel et al. 2017, Hobday et al. 2018). More specifically, an abnormally 59 warm event is considered to be a MHW if it lasts for five or more days, with temperatures higher 60 than the 90th percentile based on a 30-year historical baseline period (Hobday et al. 2016). High 61 water temperatures increase the metabolic requirements of bivalves (Filgueira et al. 2016, 62 Thomas & Bacher 2018). Even if temperatures remain within the species' thermal range, high 63

negatively impact the life cycle of bivalves (Filgueira et al. 2016, Scanes et al. 2020, Vázquez 65 et al. 2021). 66 67 The development of planktonic larvae of the Pacific oyster (Crassostrea gigas) underlies their complex 68 life history strategy (Byrne & Przesławski 2013, Ko et al. 2014, Dineshram et al. 2016). The context of 69 70 hydroclimatic stressers provides a range of environmental possibilities that need to be described in order to better understand the larvae development-of larvae. Several studies suggest that global changes 71 are disrupting plankton communities and their nutritional values by affecting the abundance, 72 size and diversity of primary producers (Klauschies et al. 2012, Sommer et al. 2012, Trombetta 73 74 et al. 2019). Generally, elevated temperatures affect phytoplankton cell size with a shift from larger to smaller species (Bec et al. 2005, Trombetta et al. 2019). Adult bivalves can assimilate 75 76 small phytoplanktonic particles (Sonier et al. 2016). However, the efficiency of the capture is regulated by the morphology of their gills, and efficiency is generally low when small particles 77 such as picoplankton are present (Rosa et al. 2018). Larvae feed through a less selective velum 78 (Bower & Meyer 1990). Marine phytoplankton species are major producers of long-chain 79 polyunsaturated essential fatty acids (EFA) but are now predicted to decrease due to ocean 80 warming (Hixson & Arts 2016, Colombo et al. 2017). The fatty acids docosahexaenoic acid 81 (22:6ω3; DHA), eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5ω3; EPA) and arachidonic acid (AA) are essential 82 for the growth and survival of marine invertebrates, particularly during their metamorphosis 83 from pelagic larvae to benthic juveniles and ultimately, their recruitment success (Gagné et al. 84 85 2010, Bassim et al. 2015). Since EFAs are poorly biosynthesized by marine animals, their intake

temperatures combined with variations in salinity and/or food availability variations, can

depends on their food (Glencross 2009, Da Costa et al. 2015). Thus, both the right size of larval

food and the right fatty acid composition are essential for the recruitment success of bivalves.

88 The aim of this study was to identify the environmental factors and trophic conditions (Table

S1 & Table S2) associated with the recruitment failure of the Pacific oyster, Crassostrea gigas,

during a heat wave. We compared two contrasted years (2017, when there was no heatwave and

2019, when occurrence of a heatwave occurred) in at four sites in the Thau lagoon, France (Fig.

1). We hypothesize that heatwaves, characterized by high temperatures and high salinity, have

a negative impact on oyster recruitment due to poor larval feeding conditions caused by changes

94 in plankton diversity.

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2.1 Experimental design

98 Annual oyster recruitment was monitored at four experimental sites in the Thau lagoon

(southern Southern France; Fig 1.) on the same dates, i.e. between July 24 and August 21, in

2017, and between July 2 and July 29, in 2019. The average depth of the Thau lagoon is 4 m,

and the lagoon covers an area of 7 500 ha (19 km x 4.5 km) of which 20% is used for shellfish

culture (oysters and mussels). The lagoon is connected to the Mediterranean Sea via a network

of channels through Sète Harbor (Fiandrino et al. 2017). Two experimental sites were located

inside the shellfish farming areas (Marseillan and Bouzigues) and the other two others-outside

the shellfish farming areas (Meze and Listel) (Fig 1.).

2.2 Oyster analyses

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Three sets of oyster collectors were submerged vertically 2 m below the surface at each of the four study sites in the Thau lagoon. Three different oyster settler stages (Table S1) were used to estimate benthic abundances: i) pre-settled pediveliger larvae, ii) young metamorphosed postlarvae and iii) juveniles (Arakawa 1990, Lagarde et al. 2017). The sums of abundances of pediveligers and postlarvae are listed under "young settlers" (Table S1). The collectors were installed once the oyster's larval supply reached a density of 10 000 larvae/m³ (Pouvreau et al. 2021). The collectors located inside the shellfish culture areas were suspended from existing farming structures. Those outside the area were suspended using a tailored mooring system (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2019). Each collector was made of 44 white PVC plastic plates (15 cm in diameter; surface area 250 cm²) stacked on a 110 cm long tube. Two weeks after their immersion, three plates per collector were harvested [at the top (i.e., the 5th from the top of the collector), in the middle (the 22nd) and at the bottom (the 39th)] and data were pooled to assess the abundance of young settlers and fatty acid (FA) content (µg larva-1). A similar sampling procedure was used four weeks after the collectors were immersed to assess the abundance of juveniles. The abundance of young settlers and juveniles was assessed on the upper surface of each plate using standard 15 cm² sub-units. Depending on the abundance, 3 to 12 sub-units were randomly selected for counting and the resulting replicates were averaged to obtain the total number of individuals per plate. Recruitment was evaluated from the abundance of juveniles and metamorphosis from the ratio of juvenile to young-settler abundances. Size at metamorphosis was estimated by measuring the prodissoconch II (PII) (Martel et al. 1995). MA maximum of 60 juveniles were removed from each plate sampled after the fourth week after immersion, and placed on a plasticine flange fixed on a microscope blade. Observations were made under the wide-range zoom lens of a high-resolution digital microscope Keyence (VHX 2000E, 1 μ m resolution, HDR images), and the maximum dorsoventral axis was measured. This measurement corresponds to the distance between the umbo and the most distant part of the clear demarcation formed by a growth line delimiting the PII from the dissoconch shell.

The fatty acid (FA) composition of young settlers was determined using a pool of 77 to 212

The fatty acid (FA) composition of young settlers was determined using a pool of 77 to 212 individuals per replicate (2-3 replicates per site depending on pediveliger abundances). Samples were preserved in vials filled with 3 mL of dichloromethane methanol (CH₂Cl₂:MeOH, 2:1 v:v), closed with a Teflon-lined cap under nitrogen atmosphere and stored at -80 °C until analysis. Lipids were extracted by grinding in dichloromethane methanol using a modified Folch procedure (Parrish 1999). Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were prepared using sulfuric acid and methanol (2:98 v:v) heated at 100 °C for 10 min and using 19:0 as internal standard (Lepage & Roy 1984). Samples were purified on an activated silica gel with 1 mL of hexane ethyl acetate (v:v) to eliminate free sterols. FAME were analyzed in the full scan mode (ionic range: 50–650 m:z) on a Polaris Q ion trap coupled to with a Trace GC Ultra gas chromatograph (Thermo Scientific) equipped with a TriPlus autosampler, a PTV injector and an ITQ900 mass detector (Thermo Scientific). An Omegawax 250 (Supelco) capillary column was used for separation using high purity helium. Xcalibur v.2.1 software (Thermo Scientific) was used for FAME identification and quantification with the standard reference solution (Supelco 37 Component FAME Mix and Supelco menhaden oil). Unknown peaks were identified according to their mass spectra with emphasis on FA trophic makers.

2.3 Environmental measurements

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immersion of the collectors were immersed and continuing until all the plates were harvested, 154 i.e., a total of five weeks. Temperature (°C), salinity and dissolved oxygen concentrations (mg 155 L-1) were measured at a depth of 1 m and at the bottom of the water column with an Oxi1970i 156 157 WTW oximeter and an LF 197-S WTW conductivity meter. 158 Potential food for oysters is expressed as the concentration of total suspended particulate matter 159 varying in size from 0.7 and 20 μm (TPM_{0.7-20μm}, mg L⁻¹). It consisted of inorganic (PIM_{0.7-20μm}, 160 mg L⁻¹) and organic particulate matter (POM_{0.7-20μm}, mg L⁻¹). Once a week, three replicate water 161 samples were collected at a depth of 1 m using a Ruttner Standard Water Sampler (Hydro-Bios 162 Apparatebau) and stored at 4 °C for less than 2 hours before filtration for to the measurement 163 of the concentrations (mg mL⁻¹) of pico and nano-seston. In 2017, 500-mL subsamples of 1-L 164 samples were used for filtration, while on 2019, 1-L subsamples of 2-L samples were used in 165 2019. Water samples were first filtered by gravity through a Nuclepore membrane (20 μm pore 166 size). Fractionated water samples were then filtered using a vacuum pressure pump (0.3 bar) on 167 pre-weighed (Mettler Toledo XP6 microbalance) pre-combusted (at 500 °C) Whatman 25 mm 168 GF/F filters (0.7 µm pore size). The GF/F filters were rinsed with an isotonic seawater solution 169 of ammonium formate (38 g L-1 distilled water) to eliminate salt deposits and stored in 170 Millipore™ PetriSlide™ containers at – 25 °C. The filters were dried at 70 °C for 24 h, weighed 171 and the concentration of total particulate matter $TPM_{0.7\text{-}20\mu m}$ was determined. The filters were 172 then combusted at 500 °C for 5 h and weighed again to determine the concentration of 173

Environmental factors were measured once a week (Table S1 and Table S2) starting just after

particulate inorganic matter (PIM_{0.7-20µm}, mg L⁻¹). The concentration of particulate organic

matter (POM_{0.7-20µm}, mg L⁻¹) was is the difference in weight between the dried and the combusted filter. To determine the FA content of the pico- and nano-seston ($\mu g.mg$ TPM_{0.7-20 μm} 1), 1-L water samples collected in 2017 and 2-L water samples collected in 2019 were filtered as described above without addition of ammonium formate solution. GF/F filters were stored in 3 ml of CH₂Cl₂:MeOH (2:1 v:v) under a nitrogen atmosphere in vials closed with a Teflon-lined cap and stored at -80 °C. The mass of total fatty acids in the seston (MTFA; µg mg⁻¹ POM) and its composition (% fatty acids) were obtained as already described for oysters, with lipid extraction carried out by sonification rather than grinding. Plankton diversity was collected measured in 1 -L samples collected in 2017 and in 2 -L samples collected weekly in 2019 collected weekly with a Ruttner Standard Water Sampler (Hydro-Bios Apparatebau) at each sampling site. This sampling strategy enabled 40 observations (4 sites x 5 weeks x 2 years). Phytoplankton was characterized using the standard Utermöhl method NF-EN-152014, 2006 in 10 mL seawater samples. Abundances of 52 diatom taxa and 38 dinoflagellate taxa are expressed as the number of individuals per liter. Chlorophyll a (Chl-a), b (Chl-b) and c (Chl-c) biomasses were evaluated in 200 ml seawater samples filtered (Bec et al. 2005, 2011) on Whatman GF/F membranes (0.7 μm pore size) with a vacuum pressure pump (<10 cm Hg) (Bec et al. 2005, 2011). Filters were stored in glass tubes at -20 °C until analysis. To determine the contribution of picophytoplankton (<3 μm), nanophytoplankton (3 to 20 μm) and microphytoplankton (>20 µm), two out of three samples were size-fractioned beforehand by gravity through Nuclepore membranes (3 and 20 μm pore size). Filters were ground in acetone (90%) and extracted at 4 °C for 24 h in the dark. Pigment contents were measured with

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a spectrofluorometer (Perkin-Elmer LS50b) (Neveux & Lantoine 1993) and are expressed in

μg ehlChl a L-1. Concentrations of picocyanobacteria (<1 μm), autotrophic picoeukaryotes (<3 198 μm), nanophytoplankton (3-20 μm) and bacteria were estimated using a FACSCalibur flow 199 cytometer according to Becton Dickinson flow cytometry methods (Marie et al. 1997, Bec et al. 200 201 2011). Seawater samples (1-ml) were analyzed; abundances are expressed in cells per liter. Total picophytoplankton abundances were assessed by summing picocyanobacteria and 202 203 photosynthetic picoeukaryote abundances. Fluorescent beads (0.94 µm; 2 and 3 µm, Polysciences) were added to each sample to calibrate for cell size of phytoplankton in terms of 204 205 equivalent spherical diameter. To measure bacterial abundances, seawater samples were fixed with prefiltered (0.2 µm) buffered formaldehyde (2% final concentration) and stored in liquid 206 nitrogen. The procedure was slightly modified as higher concentrations of fluorochromes 207 (SYBR Green I) were used (Bouvy et al. 2016). The fixed samples were incubated with SYBR 208 Green I (Molecular Probes) at a final concentration of 1/375 at 4 °C for 15 min in the dark. 209 Stained bacterial cells excited at 488 nm were determined according to their side-scattered light 210 and green fluorescence collected using a 530/ 30 nm filter. Fluorescent beads (0.94 $\mu m;$ 211 212 Polysciences) were added to each sample as size reference beads. Protozooplankton (heterotrophic flagellates) abundances were determined using the standard 213 2006 Utermöhl method NF-EN-152014, and are expressed in cells per liter. Until used for 214 heterotrophic flagellate analysis, 30_-ml seawater samples were preserved with 2.5_-ml of 215 prefiltered (0.2 µm) formaldehyde and kept at 4 °C in the dark. Before counting, 10 ml 216 subsamples were stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) to reach a final 217 concentration of 2.5 μg ml⁻¹. Heterotrophic flagellates were counted by size class (2-5 μm , 5-218 10 μm and >10 μm) under an epifluorescence microscope (Olympus AX70) with UV 219 illumination (Sherr et al. 1993). 220

2.4 Territorial competition

The percent cover of tubeworms (*Ficopomatus enigmaticus*) on 6 plates per site sampled in the fourth week after immersion was estimated to assess territorial competition with oyster juveniles, but only during the 2019 sampling season, as no tubeworms were observed in 2017. In 2017, each plate used for oyster sampling was checked for the presence of potential competitors, which is was when the absence tubeworms was observed noted. Photographs of each plate were taken of each plate with a GoPro HERO4 Silver camera equipped with a macro pro filter (San Mateo, CA, USA) and in 2019, the % of tubeworms recovered on the plate was estimated using Image-Pro Insight 9.1 software (MediaCybernetics, Rockville, MD, USA).

2.5 Statistical analyses

All PERMANOVA analyses were performed with Primer 7 and Permanova+1 (version 7.0.13) software. A two-way PERMANOVA (n perm.: 9999) was conducted using a Euclidian distance matrix to test the effect of year (2 fixed levels) and sampling site (4 fixed levels) on size at metamorphosis, total and essential fatty acid contents in young settlers, and on all the environmental variables measured, except the oxygen level, which was added as a third factor (depth) in the analysis. Homogeneity was evaluated using the permutation analysis of multivariate dispersion (PERMDISP)—routine. When significant PERMANOVAs were observed, post hoc multiple comparison tests were carried out. Multivariate analyses of total FA composition in young settlers and in seston, including *a posteriori* pairwise comparison, were done using distance-based permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, 9999 permutations) based on Euclidian dissimilarities, with year (2 fixed

levels) and sampling site (4 fixed levels) as sources of variation. Variations in FA composition, expressed in percentages, were visualized using non-metric multidimensional scaling (n-MDS). The similarity percentage (SIMPER) procedure was performed on untransformed data to identify the FAs that explained the most dissimilarity between significantly different levels.

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3. RESULTS

3.1 Oyster recruitment

Recruitment numbers showed dramatic annual variability with great success at some sites in 2017 but an overall near-zero recruitment level at all sites in 2019 (Fig. 2a, b). In 2017, the metamorphosis survival rate, expressed as the ratio of juvenile to young settler abundances per plate, also showed marked spatial variability (Fig. 2a). The ratio of juvenile (123 ± 9 ind. plate 1) to young-settler abundances per plate (49 \pm 6 ind. plate- 1) was 2.5 in Bouzigues. However, at the other sites, the level of recruitment was 24% lower (94 ± 16 juveniles plate⁻¹) in Meze, 90% (13 ± 2 juveniles plate⁻¹) in Listel, and 97% (4 ± 2 juveniles plate⁻¹) in Marseillan. A lowersmaller supply of larvae (6 ± 2 young-settlers plate-1) was observed in Marseillan, but the metamorphosis survival rate was 0.6. However, in Meze and Listel, the low recruitment rates were not linked to the supply of larvae, as young settler abundances were higher in Meze (328 \pm 71 young settler plate⁻¹, with a metamorphosis survival rate of 0.3) and in Listel (670 \pm 65 young settler plate-1, with a metamorphosis survival rate of 0.02) than in Bouzigues. Failure characterized the 2019 oyster recruitment season: low abundances of young settlers were observed in Meze (116 \pm 5 ind. plate⁻¹) and in Listel (31 \pm 2 ind. plate⁻¹), with almost 3 and 22 times fewer individuals than in 2017, respectively. This trend was not observed in Bouzigues $(84 \pm 9 \text{ ind. plate}^{-1})$ or in Marseillan $(45 \pm 3 \text{ ind. plate}^{-1})$ in 2019. Instead, young settlers were

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respectively 2 and 7 times higher in 2019 than in 2017. However, two weeks later, almost no
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      juveniles were observed on the plates (average 0.14 \pm 0.06 ind. plate<sup>-1</sup>), regardless of the sites,
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      pointing to a general oyster recruitment failure in 2019.
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      The size of the juveniles at metamorphosis (PII length) was established in all samples, except
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      in samples from Bouzigues in 2019 (Fig 2c, d), in which no metamorphosis of young settlers to
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      juveniles was observed. PII individuals sampled in 2019 were 5.1% smaller (mean 262 \pm 1 \mu m)
      than those sampled in 2017 (mean 276 \pm 1 \mu m ). Differences among sites were only observed in
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      2017, when PII sizes in Bouzigues were 2.7% smaller than those in Meze (p = 0.02), Listel (p
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      = 0.01) and Marseillan (p = 0.03).
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      No significant differences in total fatty acid (TFA) contents were observed in young settlers in
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      at the four sites and in the two years (p > 0.05). The overall TFA average was 51 \pm 19 ng larvae
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      1. The sum of essential fatty acids (EFA) corresponded to about 10% of TFA with an effect of
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      year \times site (pseudo-F_{3,19}=6.47, p=0.007), as individuals in Listel (p=0.02) and Marseillan
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      (p=0.006) had 5 times lower EFA contents in 2017 than in 2019. The fatty acid composition of
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      young settlers varied with the year \times site interaction (pseudo-F_{3,19}=2.34, p=0.017), as
      individuals sampled in Listel (p=0.047) and Marseillan (p=0.044) had different profiles in
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      between the two years (Fig. S1). According to a SIMPER analysis,
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      differences observed at these two sites were linked to DHA (22:6n3), EPA (20:5n3), AA
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      (20:4n6), 18:2n6, 18:0 and 16:0 explained more than 83% of the average dissimilarity in the
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      fatty acid profiles. DHA, EPA and AA levels in young settlers sampled in 2019 were twice
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      higher than in 2017, while the levels of 18:2n6 were five times lower in 2019 than in 2017,
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      except for at the Meze and Bouzigues sites (p > 0.09).
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3.2 Physico-chemical parameters 290 Average water temperatures were 2.6 °C higher in 2019 than in 2017, respectively, 26.8 °C 291 (withthe maximum temperature measured at the surface in Marseillan, (August 7, 2019, with 292 29.7 °C) and 24.2 °C. In the same way, salinity was 0.3 higher, respectively, 39.3 and 39.0, 293 respectively, in 2019 than in 2017 (Fig 3a, b, Table S3 and Table S4). A site effect was also 294 295 observed for salinity in the Thau lagoon. On average over the 2 years, observed salinity increased from east to west: mean salinity (39.5) in Marseillan was 0.68 higher than in 296 Bouzigues where mean salinity was 38.8. Conversely, no significant difference in temperature 297 was observed among sites although the averages varied from 23.8 °C in Bouzigues to 24.5 °C 298 in Marseillan in 2017 and from 26.3 °C to 27.2 °C, respectively, in 2019. There was an 299 interaction site × year interaction effect on the oxygen concentration (Table S5). No significant 300 difference was observed among sites in 2017 with oxygen concentrations ranging between 6.23 301 mg O_2 l^{-1} and 6.53 mg O_2 l^{-1} (Fig. 3c). The lowest mean oxygen concentration, 5.64 mg O_2 l^{-1} 302 Code de champ modifié at the surface of the lagoon and 3.52 mg O2 1-1 at the bottom, were observed in Bouzigues in 303 2019 (p = 0.001) during the heatwave (p = 0.001). Oxygen concentrations varied with water 304 depth, lower values were generally observed near the bottom (Fig. 3c). Minimum concentrations 305 of oxygen, i.e. below 2mg 1⁻¹, were recorded as early as July 8, 2019 at the bottom of the lagoon 306 in Bouzigues. 307 308 3.3 Potential food for oyster larvae 309 Concentrations of TPM_{0.7-20}, PIM_{0.7-20}and POM_{0.7-20} were more than twice higher in 2019 than 310 in 2017 (Fig. Fig. 4a, b, c, Table S6, S7 and S8). Significant differences among the four sites 311 Mis en forme : Police :12 pt were only observed in the concentrations of POM_{0.7-20} concentrations. In For both years, 312

POM_{0.7-20} concentrations in Marseillan were 0.7 and 0.8 times lower than in Listel and Meze 313 (p = 0.01 and 0.03, respectively). An effect of the year \times chlChl-a biomasses fraction was 314 observed (Table S9). Mean nanophytoplankton and picophytoplankton biomasses (p = 0.0001 315 and p = 0.0004 respectively) were 3 times higher in 2019 (Fig.4d, e) than in 2017 (Fig.4d, e). A 316 317 site × year effect was also observed, ehlChl-a biomass values were 45% lower in Bouzigues 318 than in Listel (p=0.01) and Meze (p = 0.004) in 2017. In 2019, biomasses in Marseillan wasere 62% lower than at the other sites (p < 0.02). Interannual variability in ehlChl-a biomass was 319 found in Bouzigues was found to be with 3 times more biomass in 2019 (p = 0.0007) than in 320 2017. Similar patterns were observed for ehlChl-b and ehlChl -c biomass, with twice as much 321 chlChl-b in the samples collected in 2019 than in the samples collected in 2017 (0.069 μg L⁻¹ 322 versus 0.026 μg L⁻¹; p=0.0001), and a more than two-fold increase in ehlChl-c (0.103 ug L⁻¹ 323 versus 0.046 ug L⁻¹), particularly in Listel (p=0.039) and Bouzigues (p=0.0003). 324 Oysters feed primarily on nanophytoplankton and microphytoplankton based on diatoms and 325 dinoflagellates, both of which decreased in 2019 relative to 2017 in favor of picoplankton. Flow 326 327 cytometry data showed an effect of the year on cells smaller than 3 µm (Fig. Fig. 5). Abundances of picoeukaryotes (< 3 μm) (Table S10), picocyanobacteria (< 1 μm) (Table S11 and S12) and 328 bacteria (Table S14) were higher in 2019 than in 2017. However, nanophytoplankton (3-20 μm) 329 abundances decreased by 39% in 2019 (Table S13). The abundance of total heterotrophic 330 331 flagellates did not vary significantly among sites or between years, the mean value being: 2 866 ± 291 cell mL⁻¹. Dinoflagellate and diatom abundances were affected by the year (pseudo-332 $F_{1,35}$ =5.64, p=0.023), total values decreased by 60% in 2019 compared to 2017. These variations 333 were linked to a 93% decrease in *Chaetoceros* abundance from 184 715 \pm 66 846 to 12 483 \pm 3 334 540 cells L⁻¹ (SIMPER contribution: 77%, pseudo-F_{1,35}=8.73, p=0.0001) and a decrease that led 335

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to the disappearance of Skeletonema in Listel and Meze between 2017 and 2019. Diatom taxa 336 were fewer in number at all sites sampled in 2019 with a maximum of 13 identified compared 337 to 21 taxa identified in 2017. A marked increase in Pseudo-nitzschia (19 920 \pm 10 513 to 50 562 338 \pm 13 652 cells L⁻¹) with a SIMPER contribution of 8% and (pseudo-F_{1,35}=8.73, p=0.0001), 339 Leptocylindrus (SIMPER contribution 7%), Thalassionema, and Cylindrotheca (1 837 \pm 222 to 340 341 18.712 ± 12.010 cells L⁻¹) was observed in 2019 compared to 2017. This trend was particularly apparent clear in Bouzigues (Fig. 6). This result also reflects the higher diversity of 342 dinoflagellate taxa observed in 2019 (16 taxa) than in 2017 (12 taxa). 343 TFA contents in the TPM_{0.7-20} samples were twice higher in 2019 (19.2 μ g mg TPM_{0.7-20}⁻¹) than 344 in 2017 (9.9 µg mg TPM_{0.7-20}-1; pseudo- $F_{I,6I}$ =17.1, p=0.0002) with no differences among sites 345 and year \times site effects. The fatty acid composition of the TPM_{0.7-20} samples differed between 346 years (pseudo-F_{3,76}=3.08, p=0.0001) and, as determined by SIMPER analysis, explained 97% 347 of the differences in the levels of 18:1n9, 18:0, 16:1, 18:2n6, 16:0, 14:0, 20:5n3 and 22:6n3. 348 Twenty-six percent of the difference observed between years was related to 18:1n9, an FA that 349 was twice as abundant in 2017 (up to 24.1% of the TFA) compared tothan in 2019. The 350 dissimilarity in the FA profiles observed between years was also explained by higher values of 351 18:2n6 (representing up to 10.8% of TFA), and EPA (7%) in 2017. 18:2n6 and EPA were, 352 respectively, 11.3% and 5% higher in 2017 than in 2019. The most abundant FAs in the TPM_{0.7}-353 20 samples in 2019 were 16:1 and DHA, which explained, respectively, 13% and 4.3% of the 354 dissimilarity revealed by SIMPER analysis. 355

3.4 Territorial competition by worms

The percent cover of tubeworms (*Ficopomatus enigmaticus*) on the plates in 2019 showed a marked increase in this species. Differences were observed among the sites (pseudo- $F_{3,33}$ =157, p=0.0001). Results showed a similar percent cover of tubeworms (93.6 ± 1.5%) in Listel and Bouzigues and a lower percent cover in Meze (83.2 ± 2.6%) (p < 0.032) and in Marseillan (23.6 ± 3.7%) (p < 0.0001).

4. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to identify the environmental and trophic drivers of the decline in the recruitment of the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*, associated with a heatwave. Our hypothesis that a heatwave has a negative effect on oyster recruitment by altering plankton diversity is supported by our results. The year 2017 is a reference year from a hydroclimatic point of view with known ecological functioning of larval development of oysters (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2019). The larval developments led to different metamorphosis rates in the study areas that are linked to environmental cues such as the abundance of nanophytoplankton (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2018). If there are more spat than larvae, we assume 100% successful metamorphosis by competent larvae and the arrival of competent larvae from elsewhere between the two observation periods, i.e. between the 14th and 28th day after the collectors were installed (Lagarde et al. 2017). While oyster recruitment was normal in 2017, an unprecedented failure was observed in summer 2019 in the Mediterranean Thau lagoon. The atmospheric conditions that prevail during a heatwave have strong direct effects on marine and lagoon environments that normally provide a variety of ecosystem services and host valuable host species (Sarà et al. 2021). Temperature and salinity conditions are key ecological and physiological factors for *Crassostrea* larvae (His et al. 1989b,

Baldwin & Newell 1995, Devakie & Ali 2000, Troost et al. 2009). In controlled experimental 380 settingsconditions, the entire larval life of C. gigas, including metamorphosis, showed high 381 tolerance to temperatures ranging from 17 °C to 32 °C at a salinity level of 34, with low 382 mortality (≤10%) and a maximum growth rate at 32 °C (Rico-Villa et al. 2009). The 383 physiological limits of temperature tolerance were therefore not reached in our experimental 384 conditions where the average temperature was 26.8 °C during the heatwave (with a maximum 385 of with 29.7 °C measured at the surface of the lagoon in Marseillan, on August 7, 2019), so in 386 this case, temperature was not the origin of the failure in this case. Salinity did not drop below 387 38 in either the 2017 or and 2019 recruitment season, and intermittently reached more than 40 388 in 2019. Crassostrea gigas is an estuarine organism that tolerates a wide range of salinity (Nell 389 & Holliday 1988), but no information is available in the literature on the upper salinity tolerance 390 of the larval stage in real conditions. The high salinity in 2019 may represent the physiological 391 salinity threshold for oyster larvae. Our results showed that the larval shell (prodissoconch) at 392 393 the time of metamorphosis (PII), the larval shell (prodissoconch) was smaller in 2019, 394 suggesting a reduction in larval growth or more rapid achievement of metamorphosis competence in high salinity years. In agreement with Nell and Holliday (1988), who reported 395 an-An optimal salinity range for larval growth up to 27 and very marked reduction in growth 396 has been observed at 31-39 (Nell & Holliday 1988), (Nell & Holliday 1988). the The smaller 397 observed PII size could be related linked to growth limitation under high salinity. Interestingly, 398 Nell & Holliday reported no significant effect of salinity on larval survival between 19 and 39 399 has been reported, but a marked reduction in larval growth rate has been observed from 30_on 400 was reported by? (Helm & Millican 1977, Nell & Holliday 1988). The upper tolerance limits of 401 oysters to high salinity ranging from 35 to 45 should thus be further tested in the laboratory 402

conditions, including interactions between high temperatures and different nutritional inputs 403 (His et al. 1989a). 404 Marine bivalve populations are known to be unstable due to causes intrinsic to the population 405 or to extrinsic causes linked to environmental conditions (Skazina et al. 2013, Reed et al. 2021). 406 The heatwave that occurred in 2019 resulted in large quantities of particulate matter and 407 408 chlorophyll biomass, but their quality appeared to be unfavorable for oyster recruitment. The failure of oyster recruitment in 2019 could thus be linked to the change in the phytoplankton 409 community communities with low abundance of forage diatoms and high abundance of 410 411 picoplanktonic prokaryotes and eukaryotes, of heterotrophic flagellates, and as well as of the diatoms Pseudo-Nitzschia and Cylindrotheca. However, the trophic environment was not 412 characterized by a planktonic community poor in fatty acids, and it was in fact it was richer than 413 in 2017. Pediveliger larvae accumulated the same quantity of fatty acids in 2019-2017 as in 414 20172019, but metamorphosis failures were observed at all sites. We suggest that this failure 415 416 may be linked to inappropriate trophic conditions, due to the development of 417 picophytoplankton which in turn, are mainly linked to the size of picoplankton species. These species are poorly retained by the newly developed gills of postlarvae. Our results suggest that 418 the overabundance of small particles (picoplanktonic prokaryotes and eukaryotes) could be 419 critical for larval settlement and metamorphosis. Higher chlorophyll biomass was observed in 420 421 the nanophytoplankton fraction during the heatwave in 2019 than in 2017 (with no heatwave), indicating changes in the phytoplankton community. 422 The heat wave was characterized by the Increasing increasing abundances of picocyanobacteria 423 (Bec et al. 2005, Collos et al. 2009, Derolez et al. 2020b) and decreasing abundances of 424 nanophytoplankton. The oligotrophication trajectory of the Thau lagoon began in the early 425

2000s (Collos et al. 2009, Derolez et al. 2020a). This process caused a community shift due to a reduction in nutrient loads that had prevailed since the 1970s thanks to improved wastewater treatment in the watershed aimed at halting eutrophication (EC 1991a b, 2000). The reduction in nutrient loads has been amplified by a decrease in total rainfall since the 2000s due to climate change (Derolez et al. 2020a). Our results corroborate evidence that the proportion of small taxa, like picoplankton, in the phytoplankton community, is increasing in coastal, marine and freshwater ecosystems in response to global warming (Daufresne et al. 2009, Mousing et al. 2014, Pinckney et al. 2015). Small phytoplankton cells have been reported to dominate in oligotrophic environments (Irwin et al. 2006). The 2019 heatwave had a negative impact on oyster larval recruitment by shifting the phytoplankton community towards picoplankton and opening a favorable ecological window for tubeworms that compete for food and land space. In this case, the failure of recruitment seems to be more linked to the ecological conditions at the time of metamorphosis of the larvae than to their physiological limits, which were not reached. We hypothesize that the limitations encountered by oyster larvae are ecological in the sense of the absence of trophic settlement triggers (Toupoint et al. 2012, Androuin et al. 2022), which are known to be the high concentrations of diatoms and high abundance of nanophytoplankton for metamorphosis survival in the Thau Lagoon (Lagarde et al. 2017, 2018). Tubeworms are opportunistic ecosystem engineers that play an important role in determining benthic species abundance and composition (Heiman & Micheli 2010, McQuaid & Griffiths 2014). In our case, high

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temperatures and high salinity coincided with the development of the tubeworm Ficopomatus

enigmaticus, triggering a shift in benthic community composition that was destructive for oyster

recruitment on collectors. The feeding abilities of F. enigmatus make it very efficient for small 449 particles, with high ingestion rates in the size range 2-16 µm, including diatoms (Davies et al. 450 1989, Bruschetti et al. 2008), which exert strong top-down trophic control (Pan & Marcoval 451 452 2014). We consequently hypothesize that tubeworms are important territorial competitors and 453 trophic competitors of oyster larvae in shallow water and brackish habitats that develop in the 454 context of heatwaves. This study demonstrates, for the first time, an ecological process leading to the recruitment 455 failure of the Pacific oysters due to an extreme heatwave. The oligotrophication trajectory of 456 our study site combined with the effects of high water temperatures caused variations in a shift 457 of the phytoplankton communities that benefittowards small species of picophytoplankton 458 including cyanobacteria, but that are likely unfavorable for the successful larval development 459 460 of oysters until their juvenile metamorphosis (Lagarde et al. 2017). The present study thus reveals the ecological limits of the recruitment process of the Pacific oyster in the context of a 461 heatwave in a Mediterranean lagoon. The heatwave phenomenon observed in 2019 severely 462 disrupted the reproductive cycle of oysters in the Thau lagoon. In this context, the oyster nursery 463 function in an oyster farming ecosystem, can only be achieved or maintained when pico-, nano-464 and microphytoplankton communities are present and abundant and oysters can find favorable 465 areas for larval development and optimize their recruitment. This study provides evidence that, 466 in the conditions brought aboutcreated by a heatwave, the ecological limits of Pacific oyster 467 larvae are narrower than their physiological limits. The effects of climate change, particularly 468 the warming of waters in semi-enclosed basins, will certainly lead to problems in larval 469 harvesting in the near futures. The information presented included in this paper should help 470

adapt oyster aquaculture, including husbandry practices, to a future marked by climate change.

472	5. Data and code availability
473	All the data used in the current study and the scripts used in our analysis are publicly available
474	or were obtained by the corresponding author. This research benefited from the VELYGER
475	Database: The Oyster Larvae Monitoring French Project (http://doi.org/10.17882/41888) and
476	REPHY Dataset - French Observation and Monitoring program for Phytoplankton and
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7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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8. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.C.M. was involved in investigation, methodology, writing, data curation, formal analysis, and visualization. R.T. and F.L. were involved in conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing, data curation, formal analysis, visualization, and project administration. S.P. was involved in conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing and project administration. B.B was involved in conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing, data curation, formal analysis, and visualization. C.R. contributed to funding acquisition, methodology, writing, data curation and formal analysis. A.A and A.G. contributed to writing and interpretation. G.M. contributed to funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, writing and formal analysis. M.R., M.Ho, M.Ha. and T.M. contributed to conceptualization, investigation, methodology and writing.

9. COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare have no competing interests to declare.

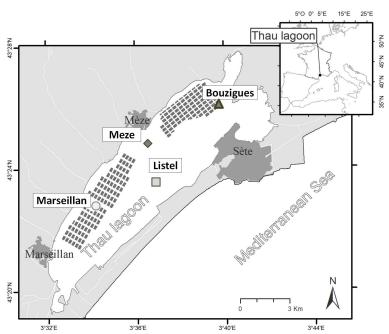


Fig. 1. The four sampling sites in the Thau lagoon. Marseillan and Bouzigues are located in the shellfish farming area; shaded areas indicate the location of shellfish culture areas. Meze and Listel are located outside the shellfish farming aquaculture area.

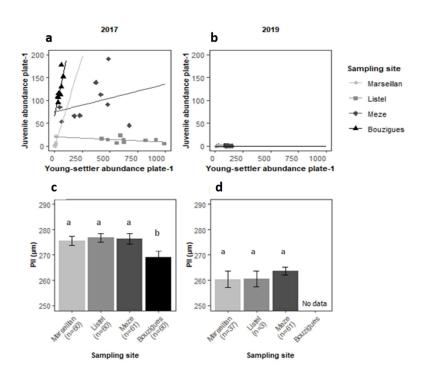


Fig. 2. Variability of oyster recruitment and prodissoconch II size according to the yearsin 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). *Crassostrea gigas* recruitment performance with young settlers (pediveligers + post-larvae) and juvenile abundance per collector plate observed at the four sampling sites during the summer recruitment events in (a) 2017 and in (b) 2019. Size at metamorphosis was estimated based on the length of prodissoconch II shell (PII, μ m \pm SE) of juveniles sampled in (c) 2017 and (d) 2019. Different letters indicate significant differences between sites according to post-hoc multiple comparison tests after PERMANOVA.

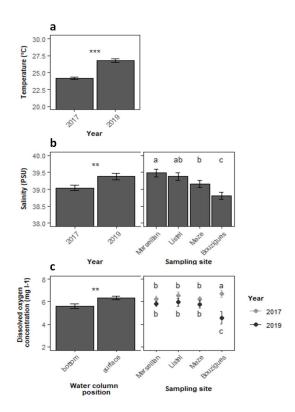


Fig. 3. Physico-chemical monitoring in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). (a) Mean temperature (°C \pm SE) per year (n = 40), (b) mean salinity (PSU \pm SE) per year (n = 40) and per sampling site (n = 20) and (c) mean dissolved oxygen concentration (mg L⁻¹ \pm SE) according to the position of the sample in the water column (n = 40) and per year and sampling site (n = 10). Asterisks indicate significant differences in average parameters per year (* p \leq 0.05, ** p \leq 0.01, *** p \leq 0.001). Different letters indicate significant differences between sites according to post hoc multiple comparison tests after PERMANOVA.

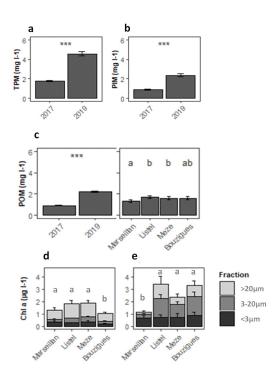


Fig. 4. Hydrobiological monitoring in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). Mean concentrations of (a) total particulate matter (TPM, mg $L^{-1}\pm SE$), (b) particulate inorganic matter (PIM, mg $L^{-1}\pm SE$) and (c) particulate organic matter (POM, mg $L^{-1}\pm SE$) per year and sampling site (n = 5 per sampling site and year). Mean concentrations of chlorophyll-a (d, 2017 and e; 2019; $\mu g L^{-1} \pm SE$), found in the picophytoplankton fraction (< 3 μm), the nanophytoplankton fraction (3 to 20 μm) and the microphytoplankton fraction (> 20 μm) per year and sampling site (n = 5 per sampling site, year and phytoplankton fraction). Asterisks indicate significant differences according to the average parameters per year (* p \le 0.05, ** p \le 0.01, *** p \le 0.001). Different letters indicate significant differences between sites according to post-hoc multiple comparison tests after PERMANOVA.

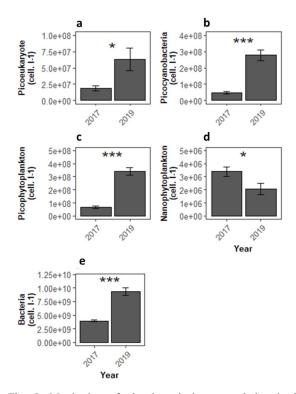


Fig. 5: Monitoring of picophytoplankton population in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). Average abundances for all sites of (a) photosynthetic picoeukaryotes, (b) picocyanobacteria, (c) picophytoplankton, (d) nanophytoplankton and (e) bacteria (cells $L^{-1} \pm$ SE) per year (n=20). Asterisks indicate significant differences according to the average parameters per year (* p \leq 0.05, ** p \leq 0.01, *** p \leq 0.001).

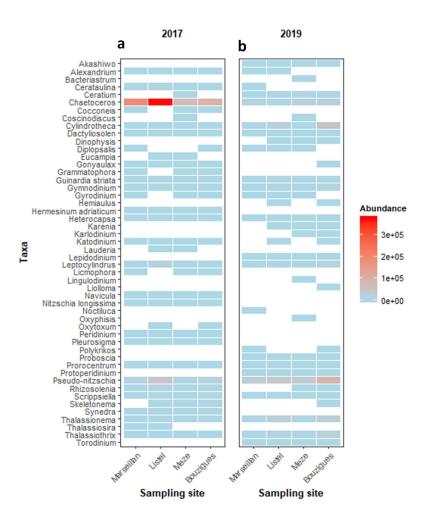


Fig. 6: Heatmap of microphytoplankton genera with changes in abundances in 2017 (no heatwave) and 2019 (heatwave). Average phytoplankton abundance (cells L^{-1}) per taxon and sampling site in (a) 2017 (n = 5) and (b) in 2019 (n = 4).

Table S1: Summary of the parameters characterizing the oyster larvae analyzed in this study

Variables	Description	Unit of	Abbreviation
		measure	
Oyster variables			
Pediveligers	Abundance of pre-settled pediveliger larvae on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	pediveligers
Metamorphosed postlarvae	Abundance of newly metamorphosed postlarvae on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	postlarvae
Young settlers	Abundance of pediveligers+ postlarvae on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	young settlers
Juveniles	Abundance of recruited juveniles on collector plates	ind. plate ⁻¹	juveniles
Prodissoconch II size	Measurement of prodissoconch maximum shell height along maximal dorsoventral axis of larvae or juvenile Pacific oysters	μт	PII size
Total fatty acids in young settlers	Total fatty acid contents in larvae (young settlers)	ng lavae ⁻¹	TFA
Essential fatty acids	Sum of essential fatty acids in larvae (docosahexaenoic acid (22:6ω3; DHA), eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5ω3; EPA) and arachidonic acid (AA))	ng lavae ⁻¹	EFA

Table S2: Summary of the parameters characterizing the environment analyzed in this study.

Variables	Description	Unity	Abbreviation
Environmental variables			
Temperature	Discrete measure	°C	-
Salinity	Discrete measure	No unit	_
Oxygen concentration	Discrete measure	mg l ⁻¹	-
Total particulate matter _{0.7} -	Total particular pelagic material in	mg l⁻¹	TPM _{0.7-20μm}
20 μm	the 0.7-20 μm fraction		
	Particulate pelagic material in	mg t¹	POM _{0.7-20μm}
Particulate organic	fraction the 0.7-20_µm fraction		
matter _{0.7-20μm}			
Particulate inorganic	Particulate inorganic pelagic	mg l⁺¹	PIM _{0.7-20µm}
matter _{0.7-20μm}	material in the fraction 0.7-20 μm		·
TEA	fraction	T014 -1	
TFA content in TPM _{0.7-20}	TFA content in TPM _{0.7-20}	μg mg TPM _{0.7-20} -1	
Total chlorophyll a	Total chlorophyll a biomass	μgChla l ⁻¹	chl Chloa
Total chlorophyll b	Total chlorophyll b biomass	μgChlb l ⁻¹	chl Chlob
Total chlorophyll c	Total chlorophyll c biomass	μgChlc l ⁻¹	chl Chloc
Picophytoplankton biomass	Chlorophyll a biomass in the <3 μ m	μgChla l ⁻¹	pico_ chl Chloa
	fraction (picoeukaryotes)		
Nanophytoplankton	Chlorophyll a biomass in the 3-20	μgChla l ⁻¹	nano_ chl Chloa
biomass	μm fraction (nanoeukaryotes)		
Picophytoplankton+	Biomass	μgChla l ⁻¹	nano_total_ chl Chloa
nanophytoplankton	Biolituss		
Microphytoplankton > 20	Biomass (microeukaryotes)	μgChla l ⁻¹	micro_ chl Chloa
μт	Biolituss (illicioeukuryotes)		
Bacteria	Abundance of picocyanobacteria	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	bacteria
	(<1 μm)		
Total picoeukaryotes	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	peuk_tot
picoeukaryotes+	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	pico_tot
cyanophyceae			
Nanophytoplankton	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	nano
cryptophyceae	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	crypto
Nanophytoplankton + cryptophyceae	Abundance	10 ⁶ cell. l ⁻¹	nano_tot
Heterotrophic flagellates	Abundance	cell I⁻¹	HF
Ciliates	Abundance	cell t1	ciliates
Tintinnidae	Abundance	cell t1	tinti
Diatoms	Abundance	cell l ⁻¹	diatom
Dinoflagellates	Abundance	cell l ⁻¹	dinoflagellate
Territorial competition by w	orms		
Worm coverage	Percent cover of tubeworms	%	-
-	(Ficopomatus enigmaticus) on		
	plates		

0,11077

0.0001

0,957

9814 0,0001 9958 0,9508

1 54,939 54,939 55,325 3 0,33001 0,11 0,11077

0,99303

100 99,303

154,73

107

826

827

828 829

830

year

Total

sitexyear Res

						Uniqu	e	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	1,4638	0,48793	2,796	0,0429	9952	0,0407	
year	1	48,888	48,888	280,15	0,0001	9824	0,0001	
sitexyear	3	1,193	0,39765	2,2787	0,0834	9952	0,0832	
Res	100	17,451	0,17451					
Total	107	69,327						

Table S9: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for CHLOA

-						Unique
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms P(MC)
site	3	3,35	1,1167	3,9887	0,0088	9958 0,0088
year	1	3,6519	3,6519	13,045	0,0003	9848 0,0007
taille	2	1,8257	0,91286	3,2608	0,0401	9953 0,0456
sitexyear	3	2,9083	0,96945	3,4629	0,0167	9953 0,0175
sitexsize	6	1,984	0,33066	1,1811	0,3199	9933 0,3246
yearxsize	2	5,0665	2,5333	9,0488	0,0004	9951 0,0004
sitexyearxsize	6	0,84964	0,14161	0,50582	0,8156	9949 0,8092
Res	96	26,876	0,27995			
Total	119	46,512				

 ${\it Table S10: multivariate PERMANOVA\ investigating\ site\ and\ year\ effect\ for\ PEUK_TOT}$

						Unique		
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	1,2885E+16	4,2951E+15	1,3441	0,2784	9945	0,2768	
year	1	1,959E+16	1,959E+16	6,1306	0,0155	9835	0,0187	
sitexyear	3	2,6684E+15	8,8948E+14	0,27835	0,8512	9952	0,8401	
Res	32	1,0226E+17	3,1955E+15					
Total	39	1,374E+17						

Table S11: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for CYAN

						Unique	e	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	2,552E+16	8,5068E+15	0,7044	0,5664	9949	0,5635	
year	1	5,3384E+17	5,3384E+17	44,205	0,0001	9851	0,0001	
sitexyear	3	1,2146E+16	4,0486E+15	0,33524	0,8082	9953	0,797	
Res	32	3,8645E+17	1,2077E+16					
Total	39	9,5796E+17						

Table S12: multivariate PERMANOVA investigating site, size and year effect for PICO

						Unique	
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)
site	3	2,3685E+15	7,8951E+14	0,083154	0,9729	9939	0,9697
year	1	7,5797E+17	7,5797E+17	79,832	0,0001	9841	0,0001
sitexyear	3	3,7254E+15	1,2418E+15	0,13079	0,9431	9944	0,938
Res	32	3,0383E+17	9,4946E+15				
Total	39	1,0679E+18					

Table S13.	: multivariate	PERMANOVA	investigating s	site, size and	year effect for	NANO

						Unique		
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	1,2396E+12	4,1319E+11	0,13497	0,9421	9944	0,9377	
year	1	1,7765E+13	1,7765E+13	5,8032	0,0196	9837	0,0175	
sitexyear	3	2,0028E+13	6,6759E+12	2,1807	0,1051	9950	0,1082	
Res	32	9,7961E+13	3,0613E+12					
Total	39	1.3699E+14						

Table S14: multivariate	DERMANIONA	invectigating	cito cizo n	nd year e	ffect for R	ACT TOT	-

						Unique		
Source	df	SS	MS	Pseudo-F	P(perm)	perms	P(MC)	
site	3	1,622E+19	5,4066E+18	0,93657	0,4508	9949	0,4387	
year	1	2,909E+20	2,909E+20	50,392	0,0001	9839	0,0001	
sitexyear	3	1,0607E+19	3,5358E+18	0,61249	0,6213	9957	0,6151	
Res	32	1,8473E+20	5,7728E+18					
Total	39	5.0246E+20						

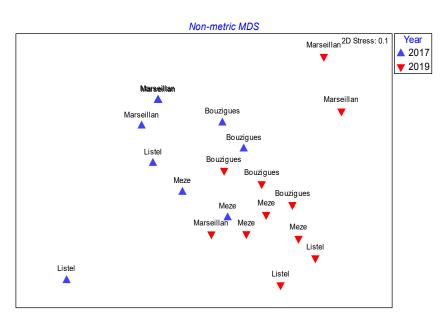


Figure S1. Non-metric multidimensional scaling of the Euclidean similarity matrix based on the relative abundance of fatty acid profiles measured in young settler larvae collected in 2017 and 2019 at each sampling site in the Thau lagoon.