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# **Long term survival of cryopreserved mussel larvae (***Mytilus galloprovinciallis***)**

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# **Abstract**

 Due to the economic importance of the mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* in the Spanish aquaculture, there is a growing interest in developing alternative methods to ensure the supply of good-quality biological material and to minimize the uncertainty and variability that might be a source of economic risk for this sector. The aim of this work was to develop a successful cryopreservation protocol for *Mytilus galloprovincialis* larvae and study long-term effects by assessing survival and development post cryobanking. We evaluated the effect of previously studied cryoprotecting agent, Ethylene glycol (EG) for cryopreservation of trochophore larvae and D-veliger larvae 48h and 72h old, following an existing preliminary protocol for *M. galloprovincialis* mussel trochophores. The protocol selected for cryopreservation consisted on holding at 4ºC for 2 min, then cooling at 1ºC/min to -12ºC, holding for 5 min, then cooling at -35ºC with a rate of 1ºC/min, then plunging into liquid nitrogen for storage. Thawing took place by immersion in 35ºC water bath. With this protocol the initial percentage of short-term developed a D-larvae (48 hours incubation post-thaw) was  $48.9 \pm 7.6\%$  with 10% EG + 0.2 M Trehalose (TRE). This initial test only studied the trochophore larvae until they reached the D-stage (48h old); in the present experiment experiments, we replicated this study but also carried out a long-term larval rearing with cryopreserved trochophore larvae in comparison to fresh larvae. This experiment allowed a comparative post-freezing analysis of both larval development and survival. Larval settlement was also characterized after 13 days. The data revealed that until settling, the survival of the cryopreserved larvae was slightly lower than the 2.8% 28 reported in the larval rearing for Greenshell<sup>TM</sup> mussel. Over time, there was an initial difference in size of cryopreserved larvae when compared to controls, but from day 17 onwards the size between both types of larvae began to stabilize. Attending to settlement, we obtained a 64% of success of cryopreserved larvae respect to the control.

*Keywords: Mytilus galloprovincialis, trochophore larvae, cryopreservation, larval rearing.* 

#### **1. Introduction**

 *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (Lamarck, 1819) is one of the most cultivated mollusc species worldwide due to its great economic value and growing demand over last years (Di Matteo *et al.,* 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2014). The mussel global production in 2014 was 1,901 million tons and represented 12% of total mollusc production (FAO 2018). Moreover, its economic value amounted to 4,070 million dollars (OESA, 2017, FAO 2018). The EU inner market of mussel is shy below 600,000 tonnes with a low import rate and most of EU´s mussels come from Spain (FAO 2018), where mussels represent annually 81% of their total national aquaculture production. Globally, Spain is the third mussel producer, behing China and Chile (FAO, 2018). The latests Spanish figures show that in 2017, 273,517 tons were obtained from mussel harvesting, from a total production of 345,635 tons of total molluscs (APROMAR, 2018). Most of Spanish mussels come from the northwest, 95.7% of all Spanish´s production is concentrated in the region of Galiciawith 3386 mussel rafts. Mussel rafts are usually family owned and the mussel farming business remains quite traditional but sustaining a high socio-economic impact, generating 11000 direct jobs and and stimate that for each one of the latter 2.5 indirect jobs are generated in the area.

 Several factors can affect the larval development and/or culture, such as seasonal variations, food availability, temperature or even population densities during feeding (FAO, 2017). Although not only environmental factors can be the cause of a poor season. The production can also be affected by 51 other reasons such as the presence of parasites or punctual pollution events (FAO, 2017; Day et al., 2007; Paredes et al., 2013). Due to the great importance of mussels in the mollusc aquaculture industry, there is a big interest in the development of production methods for inland seed production, to ensure the continuous good-quality supply of biological material. In these lines, selective breeding programmes have been carried out to enhance farming and cryopreservation techniques, which have been demonstrated useful for achieving selective breeding programs (Di Matteo et al., 2009; Paredes et al., 2012). The cryopreserved sperm of livestock has become a billion-dollar global industry, while cryopreservation of aquatic species remains a research activity with little commercial application despite reports of successful protocols for many organisms. In the field of molluscs, sperm cryopreservation has been widely studied (Paredes, 2014) but there are also positive reports for different types of larvae. The initial approach of local aquaculture, still very traditionally managed, to the global markets has been successful. For example, the average EU members increase their annual consumption of mussels from 200 gr to 4 kg (FAO, 2018).

 Taking into account the increased challenges, the industry is facing irregular production due to: pollution events, disseases, increasing production costs. Without forgetting about the long term sources of uncertainty like global warming: ocean acidification, increasing coastal population, expanding market demands orecosystem over exploitation. It is time to rely more on all the

 knowledge and resources technology can offer to the sector in order to allow the sector some independence from unforeseen circumstances that can affect the mussel industry at a local or global level. As in the case of livestock, cryopreservation is apowerful biotechnology for marine farming as it has proven to be for inland farming.

 Cryopreservation allows to store genetic information in a stable state at -196ºC in Liquid Nitrogen (Dennison et al., 2000), proving to be an interesting tool for aquaculture management (Paredes et al., 2013). Cryobiology not only allows biological storage, but from the industrial point of view it helps to synchronize the gametes of both sexes from different seasons, decrease the expenses on maintaining broodstock all year round and provides seed supply throughout the year (Smith et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2001). In a suitable scale, cryopreservation could store genetic biodiversity for seed production of species such as *M. galloprovincialis* (Paredes et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014).

 Lanan 1971 on *C. gigas* sperm was a Pioneer study on applying cryopreservation to marine 80 organisms and molluscs. Most publications in the field of marine cryopreservation  $(\pm 100)$  deal with molluscs, and among them, oysters are the best studied due to their global economic importance. *Crassostrea gigas*, followed by *C. virginica* are the most popular (Paredes 2015). Regarding mussels, sperm cryopreservation is the most reported followed by larvae due to the difficulty of cryopreserving oocytes successfully, described protocols and cryopreservation information for *M. galloprovincialis* can be found in few reports like Di Mateo et al. 2009, Wang et al 2011, Paredes et al. 2013, Wang et al. 2014 or Heres et al. 2019.

 The aim of this study was to test and improve the preliminary cryopreservation protocol for *M. galloprovincialis* larvae developed by Paredes et al. (2013) that had only addressed mussel survival 48 hours post-thaw and study the long-term survival post-cryopreservation. In addition, we tested the capacity of this preliminary protocol to produce seed and alternatively look for other larval stages that could potentially resist cryopreservation better.

#### **2. Material and Methods**

# **2.1 Gamete Collection and Cryopreservation Methods**

 Mature blue mussels (*M. galloprovincialis*, Lamark 1819) were obtained from the wild in the south margin of Ria de Vigo (Galicia, NW Spain) and deposited in PVC tanks with Filtered Sea Water -  $35-37\%$  (FSW 0.22  $\mu$ m + UVA) at 18<sup>o</sup>C. Mussel spawning was induced by thermal cycling into a 20L tray and during the process, actively spawning individuals were transferred to 250 mL beakers. Gametes from a male and a female were collected and transferred into FSW separately, in order to minimize genetic variability (Stebbing et al., 1980; Klöckner et al., 1985). Oocyte quality and  maturity were examined focusing on their shape and colour before fertilization, sperm was checked for motility. A small volume of sperm was added to the oocyte suspension (approximately a rate of 20:1) and a 15 minutes contact period was allowed before the evaluation of the fertilization percentage. The cell batches were incubated up to 72h at 18ºC. At 18-20h post-fertilization, the fertilized eggs had developed to trochophores, at this point a subsample was retrieved for cryopreservation experiments. The rest of the sample continued to be incubated to 48 and 72h-old D- larvae, at both this points in time (48 and 72h) subsamples were also collected for subsequent cryopreservation trials to evaluate, in this case, the short-term cryopreservation effects on each development stage. In another spawning event a pool composed by two females and a pool of three males were collected to carry out another set of cryopreservation experiments with trochophore larvae (18-20h post-fertilization) followed by a complete larval rearing to study long-term effects of cryopreservation and settlement.

 The protocol selected for cryopreservation (Cryologic Controlled-rate freezer) consisted on holding at 4ºC for 2 min, then cooling at 1ºC/min to -12ºC, holding for 5 min for seeding check, then cooling at -35ºC with a rate of 1ºC/min, then plunging into liquid nitrogen for storage. Thawing of the 0.25 mL cryopreservation straws took place by immersion in 35ºC water bath for 6 seconds. Addition/dilution of the cryoprotecting agents was done in a single (1:1) step at room temperature (18-20ºC).

#### **2.2 Cryoprotecting Reagents**

 The cryoprotecting solutions consisted of different combinations of Ethylene-Glycol (EG) and Trehalose (TRE), chemicals obtained from Sigma Aldrich chemicals (St Louis, MO, USA). All of 122 them were prepared in Filtered Sea Water (FSW,  $0.22 \mu m + UVA$ ). The cryoprotecting solutions of Ethylene-Glycol (10-15% v/v) were always prepared at double the final concentration required in the experiments (During exposure to cryoprotectants there is a 1:1 dilution step). Cryoprotecting agents were selected according to results from Heres et al., 2019.

#### **2.3 Larval Rearing**

127 Pre-cryopreservation incubation was made in two 150 L tanks at 18-20 °C (0.04x10 $^6$  /litre). After 20 h under these conditions, the larval development was checked and cells ability to reach the trochophore larvae stage was evaluated (motility, normal development). Trochophore larvae were carefully collected by gently siphoning the contents of the tanks through a 40µm screen semi- submerged in order to avoid larvae being mechanically damaged. Trochophores were then gently swirled on the screen, concentrated into 30 mL tubes for experiments.

 As on prior occasions, the cryoprotective agent was added 1:1 in a single step, to a FSW with the sample. After 15 min of equilibration, the 0.25 mL straws were loaded, sealed and introduced in the controlled-rate freezer.

 Taking into account prior reports of 50% survival to the cryopreservation process (Paredes et al. 2013), twice as many cells were cryopreserved in comparison to control density (1million/tank). Therefore, if 50% of cryopreserved larvae survived, as expected after 48 hours consideration preliminary data (Paredes et al., 2013), both cryopreserved and controls would have the same density at the start of the larval rearing. During 33 days a larval rearing of the mussel *M. galloprovincialis* was carried out from cryopreserved trochophore larvae (18-20h) to seed, the tanks were repeatedly sampled throughout the incubation, usually twice a week, in order to check parameters such as survival, density or larvae growth. The constant aeration necessary for the larvae was provided by 144 glass tubes and the cultivation temperature was maintained at  $18{\text -}20$  °C in tanks of 150 L. Feeding consisted 60 to 100 equivalentes (mix of *Tisochrysis lutea, Rhodomonas lens, Chaetoceros neogracile, Phaeodactylum tricornutum* and *Tetraselmis suecica*), as described in Mueller-Feuga et al. 2003.

 From day 22 onwards, the larvae stopped being in suspension in the water column and were placed in settlement drums (150 micron mesh). On the last day of culture (day 33), all juvenile mussels that had been fixed to the drums were collected and fixed with formalin in labelled containers. In the subsequent analysis, the total number of larvae fixed was calculated and the average size of each treatment were measured (n=35 for each tank).

# **2.4 Cryopreservation Survival Alongside Larval Age**

 In order to compare survival 48 hours post cryopreservation at different development stages, trochophore larvae, D-lavae 48 hours old and D-larvae 72 hours old were cryopreserved, using the same protocol and same cryoprotecting agent concentration. In the case of trochophores, the guideline for survival was the percentage of metamorphosed larvae to D-larvae stage after 48 hours. In the case of larvae that had been cryopreserved in the D-larvae stage, survival criteria was based on feeding the larvae for 48 hours and counting the number of normal D-larvae that had fed (clear coloration can be seen through the proto-shell).

#### **2.5 Larval Abnormality Criteria**

 The discrimination between normal D-larvae and abnormal D-larvae was determined under microscope attending to previous work focused on shell larval morphology and guidelines from other experts in the shell abnormalities and abnormally developing larvae of related mollusc in ecotoxicological larval bioassays (His et al., 1997, Paredes et al., 2013, Rusk, 2012, Ventura et al.,

 2016). Typical larval abnormalities found ranged from: delayed development (trochophores), deviations from the D-larvae shell shape like indented margins or hinge deformations (concave or convex hinges) or presence of clear protruding mantle.

# **2.6 Data and Statistical Analysis**

 Filtered Sea Water parameters were monitored with a multiparametric probe, cooling/warming during cryopreservation were controlled by either a Cryologic controlled-rate freezer or a K-type Hanna thermocouple. The data were analysed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett or Bonferrony post-hoc tests, using the SPSS 15.0, with p˂0.05. Prior to the statistical analysis, both homogeneity of variance and normality were tested and when necessary data were first arcsine-transformed to achieve normality (Hayes, 1991). Statistical tests were performed according to Newman, 1995 and Sokal and Rohlf, 1995.

# **3. Results**

 The effects of cryopreservation beyond 48 hours post-thawing are shown in figure 1 as larval density for 22 days (Cryoprotecting agent used 10% EG + 0.4M Trehalose). There was a steep drop in larval survival for the first 12 days post-thaw. From that point onwards, survival stabilized at 0.17% of the initial amount of larvae, meanwhile in the case of controls the survival in average was 28.13%. This represented a survival of cryopreserved trochophore larvae less than 1% of the controls.

 Regarding larval fitness, both larval normality (morphological assessment) and size (growth indicator) were within typical parameters. In the case of larval normality (Fig. 2), it was found that normality remained constant through the incubation without significant differences during the first days, progressively increasing up to day 17 when no difference was found longer with controls. This high number of normal larvae coincided with the point in time where (Fig. 1) survival of the cryopreserved larvae equilibrated.

 The length difference between cryopreserved and control D-larvae (Fig. 3) was 15% on day zero (corresponds with day 5 post-fertilization and by this time all larvae had undergone metamorphosis to D-veliger larvae) and almost 4% on day 17 (Fig. 3, Table 1). Larval settlement was calculated as a last quality measure of the larval rearing, it is a crucial step in larval development, settlement in controls was higher than in the cryopreserved treatments only by 36% (Fig. 4).

 Table 1. Average larval size (μm) during 17 days, measured from normal D larval rearing from 195 control and cryopreserved larvae. Mean  $\pm$  SD, n=35 per tank, 3 tanks per treatment.



 When comparing post-thaw normal development of larvae alongside different larval stages and concentrations of cryoprotecting agents. There was a clear variability when comparing larval stages. Ethylene glycol 10% and 10%+0.4M Trehalose was the best option for Trochophore larvae, meanwhile D-larvae (48h) seems to be severely affected by cryopreservation with at least 75% 201 abnormality. On the opposite side of the spectrum was D-larvae (72h) which shows survivals over 75% normal larvae in all treatments (Fig. 5). For D larvae of 48 and 72 hours old, the best results 203 were obtained using a concentration of EG 15% (96.3  $\pm$  3.51%) and EG 10% (6.42  $\pm$  3.10%) respectively.

#### **Discussion**

 Worldwide mussel aquaculture depends mostly on the harvesting of mussel seed from natural environment, despite the fact that this seems quite cheap and convenient, it implies that the supply of mussel individuals for rearing might be limited due to the seasonal availability and other unexpected circumstances, such as water quality parameters. Conditions that in the context of climate change and raising coastal population might be highly unreliable (Sea Grant 2007, Kamermans and Capelle 2019) are increasingly unpredictable both short and long-term.

 However, cryopreservation could ensure a sustainable source of seed and provide a repository of interesting biological material and genetic crosses or selected mussel lines whose genetic properties provide suitable generations for hatchery production (Adams et al. 2009, Smith et al. 2001). Mussels (germ cells, embryos and larvae) are also a very interesting and increasingly popular model organism for marine research; therefore, this study has also important implications for marine basic research. In the present study, we have developed a long-term evaluation of cryopreserved trochophore larvae from the spawning of the reproductors to cryopreservation, thawing, larval rearing and settlement for the first time using *M. galloprovincialis.*

 The survival of cryopreserved trochophore larvae in the first 48 hours post-thaw had been reported to be around 50% by Paredes et al., (2013). In this current set of experiments, the previously mentioned protocol was used to test the ability to produce seed from the cryopreserved trochophores. Clear differences were located among treatments of cryopreserved larvae in comparison to controls within a few hours post-thaw, even despite the initial correction on density (cryopreserved larval rearing started at double the control density to compensate for the before mentioned expected mortality of 50% in the first 48 hours). The important drop in survival found in the first 10-12 days had also been observed in another mussel species, *Perna canaliculus* (Paredes et al., 2012, Rusk, 2012). The achieved 1% survival after 22 days is also in the line with the survival obtained with *P. canaliculu*s cryopreserved trochophores, which was 2.8% and 0.03% respectively (Paredes et al., 2012, Rusk, 2012).

 Fitness indicators showed a high percentage of normality of the metamorphosed D-larvae but also showed an evolving difference in size of those D-larvae along the rearing period, from 15% difference with controls at the beguinning to a 4% difference at the end of the 22 days incubation period. Trochophore larvae are lecitotrophic and therefore they do not feed, the metamorphosis to D- larvae depends on the energy accumulated in the remaining yolk. Cryopreserved trochophore larvae do their metamorphosis to D-veliger larvae and two interesting effects can be seen in 48 hours: first, there is a small percentage of abnormal larvae. This includes those larvae that do not undergo metamorphosis and therefore remain as trochophores and those that have morphological defects including indented margins or hinge deformations in the shell (concave or convex hinges) or presence of clear protruding mantle. This low percentage of abnormality reflects that cryopreservation in this case does not interfere with metamorphosis and therefore, the percentage of D-larvae post metamorphosis cannot be used as an indicator of long-term cryopreservation success, although it can be very useful as an early quality indicator.

 Second, there is a difference in size between cryopreserved larvae and controls. This could be explained as a growth delay due to low temperature exposure and metabolic reactivation post-thaw but together with the survival data, it might indicate sublethal damage caused during cryopreservation. The stresses and micro-damages caused during the process of cryopreservation might use up part of the energy otherwise used for metamorphosis and growth and deviate it to deal 249 with Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) or repair structural micro-damages (Odintsova et al., 2017).

 It seems clear that most of those larvae can indeed grow and feed and no direct relation was found between mortality during larval rearing and initial D-larvae size (although this might need an in depth study in order to understand underlying mechanisms). This finding about reduced size is in agreement with prior studies; cryopreserved trochophores of *Crassostrea gigas* showed a 10% and  *Perna canaliculus* D-larvae showed a20% delay in size when compared to controls after 48h incubation post-thaw (Paredes et al. 2012, Rusk 2012, Paredes et al 2013, Heres et al. 2019).

 The development of a suitable cryopreservation protocol depends on the targeted species and cell type, meanwhile the prior has been suggested to be not as determinant in the case of Molluscs as it seems to be for other fila like Echinodermata (Paredes et al., 2013), the latter is a widespread agreement in the cryobiology community and has been proved many times, including in this work (Adams et al., 2009, Odintsova and Boroda, 2012, Paredes and Bellas, 2009, Tiersch et al., 2011, Rusk, 2012, Wang et al., 2011).

 The high survival obtained with the D-larvae of 72h-old is quite surprising taking into account that 263 after 72 hours the mussel protoconch is quite developed. Prior studies with mollusc's D-larvae from Rusk, 2012 (48h old larvae *P. canaliculus*) and Wang et al., 2011 (30h old larvae of *M. galloprovinciallis*) obtained respectively high (50-60%) post-thaw survival but after a larval rearing a 0.1% and 1% survival was obtained. Results shown in figure 5 for D-larvae of 48 h-old are not promising at all with our protocol; meanwhile the 72h-old D-larvae yielded the best survival numbers obtained up to date. This results point towards an interesting direction for future research, pondering the differences among the protocols, the larval age, development characteristics in order to understand why this variability happens. It would also be in order to carry out a complete larval rearing with the 72hour-old D-larvae in order to assess survival along incubation and settlement and study in depth the possible correlations between growth and survival post-thaw.

 Settlement is the final fitness test. Paredes et al., 2012, Rusk, 2012 and Wang, 2011 reported a high number of competent larvae among those few that had survived the larval rearing process but there was no actual data of settlement. We obtained a 64% settlement in comparison to control larvae. This is extremely important because, even after 22 days of larval rearing, settlement is significantly lower than controls, therefore there are some long-term repercussions on the cryopreservation process. When addressing the survival of a cryopreservation test, is important that survival is reported, but also that is clear how powerful the experimental ending point is, there are weaker survival clues: movement post-thaw, division, intact morphology. On the other side, there are stronger points of survival assessment: metamorphosis, growth, presence/absence of abnormalities, feeding. On top of that, it seems that above all, it is important that not only one point of assessment be used to report survival post cryopreservation.

 It is clear that this protocol can right now be used to produce juveniles from cryopreserved larvae, in enough quantities that could be used either for research purposes or for small scale aquaculture proceeding like selective breeding (Nguyen et al., 2012) all year-round. Mussels are incredibly fertile organisms and the cryopreservation process still allows us to increase the density of larvae during the cryopreservation process to increase the final number of larvae settled. On the other side,  there are some factors worth studying in order to understand the drastic decline in survival along larval rearing and it´s connection to larval abnormality levels and size. These studies should be accompanied by measurements of the ROS, apoptotic processes and other parameters that could help us understand the stresses these larvae are under during the process of cryopreservation in order to try to improve their fitness. Finally, we already knew that trochophore larvae were very delicate and our preliminary results about D-larvae has allowed us to identify a larval stage that seems to be quite resistant to cryopreservation.

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# **Captions**

 Figure 1. Percentage of survival (± SD) of *Mytilus galloprovincialis* larvae after cryopreservation 398 during a larval rearing of 22 days (1 million larvae/tank,  $n=3$  tanks per treatment, except squares where n=2)). The open cycle represents the theoric 50% survival from cryopreserved trochophore to D larvae that has been obtained by Paredes et al. 2013 and fits with our survival data.

 Figure 2. Percentage of normal D-veliger larvae for the two treatments after cryopreservation at the trochophore larvae stage. Typical larval abnormalities found ranged from: delayed development (trochophores), deviations from the D-larvae shell shape like indented margins or hinge deformations (concave or convex hinges) or presence of clear protruding mantle. The asterisk 405 symbol indicate statistical differences  $P \le 0.05$ . Mean  $\pm$  SD

 Figure 3. Average growth (μm) during 17 days of normal D larval rearing from control and cryopreserved larvae of the trochophore larvae cryopreservation. The asterisk symbol indicate 408 statistical differences  $P \le 0.05$ . Mean  $\pm$  SD

409 Figure 4. Number of settled larvae for both types of treatment. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n=3)

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- 410 Figure 5. Percentage of normal D-veliger larvae after 48 hours post-thaw obtained after
- 411 cryopreservation of 24 h (dashed) trochophores and 48h (black) and 72h (grey) old D-veliger larvae.
- 412 Data has been normalized regarding to their corresponding controls. Mean  $(n=4) \pm SD$ .









