1	Comparative cryopreservation study of trochophore larvae from two
2	species of bivalves: Pacific oyster (Crassostrea gigas) and Blue mussel
3	(Mytilus galloprovincialis).
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34 Abstract

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Oysters and mussels are among the most farmed species in aquaculture industry around 36 the world. The aim of this study was to test the toxicity of cryoprotective agents to 37 trochophore larvae from two different species of bivalves and develop an improved 38 cryopreservation protocol to ensure greater efficiency in the development of 39 40 cryopreserved trochophores (14 h old Oyster larvae and 20 h old Mussel larvae) to normal D-larvae for future developments of hatchery spat production. The 41 cryopreservation protocol producing the best results for Oyster trochophores 42 (60.0±6.7% normal D-larvae) was obtained holding at 0°C for 5 min then cool at 1°C 43 min⁻¹ to -10 °C and hold for 5 min before cooling at 0.5°C to -35°C, hold 5 min and 44 then plunge into liquid nitrogen (LN), using 10% EG. For mussel experiments, no 45 significant differences were found when cooling at 0.5°C min⁻¹ or at 1°C min⁻¹ for CPA 46 combinations with 10% EG and at 0.5°C min⁻¹ c. Using these combinations, around half 47 of trochophores were able to develop to normal D-larvae post-thawing. 48 49 50 Keywords: Cryopreservation, Crassostrea gigas, Mytilus galloprovincialis, 51 52 Trochophore larvae.

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56 **1. Introduction**

Oysters and mussels are among the most farmed species in the aquaculture industry 57 with around 2 million tonnes of mussels farmed and 4.5 million tonnes of oyster 58 produced worldwide in 2010 (FAO 2010). The Pacific oyster, Crassostrea gigas, is 59 among the most produced aquaculture species in New Zealand, with more than 230 60 oyster farms in 2005 producing around 3300 tonnes of oysters (US\$20 million) 61 according to FAO in 2010. Spain is also a big European oyster producer (4565 tonnes, 62 data from ICEX 2010) but the most farmed bivalve species in Spain is the mussel, 63 64 Mytilus galloprovinciallis, which constituted 82% of Spain's marine aquaculture products in 2010 (FAO, 2010). Not long ago, the culture of those species, C. gigas and 65 66 M. galloprovincialis, relied on the collection of natural seed because is a simple and cheap option, with C. gigas in New Zealand as well as in other countries as France or 67 68 the US, this is no longer an option due to the Herpes-Virus infection. Diseases like Ostereid herpes virus 1 (OsHV-1) which has reduced the worldwide Oyster production -69 70 affecting several countries like France, Spain, New Zealand or the US- together with increasing environmental human pressure and weather unpredictability are sources of 71 72 uncertainty and high economic risk for this economic activity. In response to the 73 economic importance of these two bivalve species, there is an increasing interest in developing hatchery spat production to ensure a reliable, safe supply of on-growing 74 75 biological healthy material and selective infection-resistant broodstock (Robert et al. 1999, Adams et al. 2004). 76

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Cryopreservation of shellfish embryos and larvae can improve aquaculture 78 79 management, enhance breeding design flexibility and provides a reference family for selective breeding. Cryopreservation can enable enough spat supply in hatcheries, 80 without the need to condition broodstock for out of season production. Moreover, 81 cryopreservation techniques may help to manage the biological and commercial risks 82 due to diseases or market changes. Indeed, cryopreservation of gametes is already 83 widely used in many farmed aquatic species. Cryopreservation research has been carried 84 85 out mainly with Pacific oysters (Chao et al. 1997, Lin et al. 1999, Tervit et al. 2005, Usuki et al. 2005, Adams et al. 2008), whilst much less effort has been devoted to 86 mussels (Toledo et al. 1989, Adams et al. 2009, Wang et al. 2011). 87

89 The cryopreservation of sperm is quite-well defined for most bivalve species (e.g. Adams et al. 2004, Di Matteo et al. 2009). On the contrary, oocytes and early embryos 90 91 are more difficult to cryopreserve. The cryopreservation of trochophore larvae can be 92 considered as an alternative to separately cryopreserving oocytes and sperm, since previous studies with the oysters C. gigas and C. rhizophorae, and with the mussel M. 93 edulis have shown that the more advanced the developmental stage is, the more resistant 94 95 cells are to cryoprotectant toxicity, and the higher the post-thaw survival results (Toledo et al. 1989). These studies together with our experiments on GreenshellTM mussel 96 trochophores (Paredes et al. 2012) lead us to select the trochophore larval stage for 97 98 further detailed cryopreservation studies. The aim of this study was to test the toxicity of cryoprotective agents to trochophore larvae from two different species of bivalves 99 100 and develop an improved cryopreservation protocol to ensure greater efficiency in the 101 development of cryopreserved trochophores to normal D-larvae.

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103 2. Materials and Methods

104 **2.1. Gamete collection and handling**

105 Mature ripe oysters (Crassostrea gigas) were obtained from oyster farms in Northland, 106 New Zealand, and maintained during the natural spawning season at the Cawthron 107 Aquaculture Parkin Nelson. Sperm and oocytes were obtained by "strip spawning". The 108 oysters were opened and a small sample of gonad tissue was examined microscopically 109 to determine sex. Oocytes were collected by lacerating the gonad wall with the tip of a 110 pipette and gently scraping and washing the gonad contents into 1 L beakers filled with 1 µm filtered seawater (FSW). Oocytes were maintained at 4°C to minimise any loss of 111 viability associated with aging. Sperm were collected into plastic containers in the same 112 manner, but held undiluted at 4°C prior to experiments. Oyster oocytes and sperm (500 113 114 sperm/egg) were mixed during a contact time of approximately 15 to 20 min, before being transferred into tanks containing ~ 150 L of FSW and 1 mg L⁻¹ 115 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), at a temperature of 22°C and density of 116 15×10^6 oocytes/tank. 117

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119 Mature blue mussels (*Mytilus galloprovinciallis*) were obtained from the wild in the 120 south margin of Ria de Vigo (Galicia, NW Spain) and were maintained at the Estación 121 Científica Mariña de Toralla (ECIMAT). Thermal cycling was used to induce mussels 122 to spawn as described by Bellas et al. (2005). Oocytes were examined for maturity based on their shape and colour, and sperm were visually assessed for vigorous motility

- after activation with FSW. Mussel sperm and oocytes were allowed a contact time of 15
- 125 to 20 min before being transferred into tanks containing 30 L of 1 μm filtered seawater
- 126 (FSW) and 1 mg L^{-1} ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), at a temperature of 20°C
- 127 and a density of 1×10^6 oocytes/tank.
- After 14 h for oysters) and 20 h for mussels, trochophores of both species were collected by gently siphoning the contents of the tanks through a 15 µm screen semisubmerged in order to avoid larvae being physically damaged. Trochophores were then gently swirled on the screen, concentrated and placed into 50 mL falcon tubes for experiments. For each experiment, three replicate runs were carried out. Oocytes and sperm were pooled from three individuals per pool and three female pools were used for each experiment.
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136 **2.2. Experimental reagents**

137 CPA combinations of ethylene glycol (EG) and trehalose (TRE), obtained from Sigma138 Aldrich chemicals (St Louis, MO, USA), were prepared in Milli-Q water. In addition,
139 polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) obtained from Sigma-Aldrich was used in oyster
140 experiments. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was used during thawing (GIBCO
141 Invitrogen and Sigma-Aldrich).

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143 **2.3. Toxicity tests**

Toxicity trials with mussel and oyster trochophores were undertaken using different 144 145 concentrations of EG and TRE. In addition, PVP was also tested for toxicity with oyster embryos on the basis of previous experimental results (unpublished data). 146 Cryoprotectant solutions were added 1:1 to a high concentrated suspension of 147 148 trochophores in one step. Samples were allowed 15 min for equilibration and then were incubated in FSW at a density of 40 embryos mL⁻¹, for a further 24 h at 20-22°C until 149 D-stage was reached. Larvae were then fixed by adding formalin (1% v/v final 150 151 concentration).

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The percentage of trochophores developing to normal D-larvae was calculated as an indicator of CPA toxicity and the No Observed Effect Concentration (NOEC) and Lowest Observed Effect Concentration (LOEC) were determined. The percentage of Dlarvae was calculated in each experiment and at least three replicates were counted under a light microscope for each treatment. The average count of the three replicateswas normalized against the controls before being used in further data analysis.

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160 **2.4. Cryopreservation experiments**

161 Following the toxicity evaluation of the CPAs, cryopreservation experiments were carried-out using a Freeze Control System (Cryologic Pty Ltd). Cryoprotective agents 162 163 were prepared at twice their final concentration (in Milli-Q water) and 1 mL of CPA was then added in a single step to 1 mL of trochophores suspension, allowing for 15 164 165 min equilibration before freezing. Trochophores were then loaded into 0.25 mL plastic straws (IMV Technologies, France) and sealed with PVC powder. Two cooling rates 166 were tested 0.5°C min⁻¹ and 1°C min⁻¹ as described: hold at 0°C for 5 min then cool at 167 1°C min⁻¹ to -10°C and hold for 5 min before cooling at either 0.5°C or 1°C to -35°C, 168 hold 5 min and then plunge into liquid nitrogen (LN). Seeding was always checked at 169 the -10 °C hold and straws were manually seeded using a LN cooled cotton bud where 170 171 necessary.

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173 Straws were thawed in a 28°C water bath until the ice had melted. Trochophores were 174 then diluted 1:1 with FSW containing 0.1% (w/v) BSA and left for 15 min before being 175 diluted into 20 L buckets with FSW containing EDTA for a further 24 h incubation 176 (density of ~300,000/bucket) at 20-22°C, until D-larval stage was attained. D-larvae 177 were collected on a 45 μ m mesh screen and samples were fixed with formalin (1% v/v 178 final concentration) for larval length measurement and % normal D-larvae count.

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180 **2.5 Effects of cryopreservation on larval development**

Finally, a mussel trochophores cryopreservation experiment was performed using 10%
EG + 0.2M TRE. Thawed mussel larvae were then incubated for 48, 72 and 96 hours to
determine whether the average D-larvae size changed significantly along the first days
of incubation due to recovery from exposure to low temperatures.

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186 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

187 Statistical analyses of toxicity tests data were conducted using the SPSS version 5.0 188 statistical software. Differences in the percentage of normal larvae and larval growth 189 among each one of the treatments and control were analyzed by one-way analysis of 190 variance (ANOVA), followed by the Dunnett's test for calculation of the CPA's No observed Effect Concentration (NOEC) and Lowest Observed Effect Concentration
(LOEC). Cryopreservation data was analyzed using R 2.12.2 free software with the
additive main effects model being used for ANOVA-II without replication (pool effect
was introduced as another factor into the analysis). In all instances, a P-value of less
than 5% was considered significant.

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197 **3. Results**

198 **3.1. Toxicity tests**

The NOEC for oyster trochophores was 15% EG while LOEC was 20% EG. There was no significant difference in toxicity between using EG in combination with TRE alone or with both TRE and PVP, as long as the EG concentration was less than 20% (Figure 1). Two non-toxic levels of EG were selected to continue with cryopreservation experiments using oyster trochophores, 10% EG and 15% EG in combination with TRE and PVP.

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The NOEC for mussel trochophores was also 15% EG and the LOEC was 20% EG. Below the LOEC level there was no significant difference in toxicity between using EG alone or in combination with TRE 0.2 M or 0.4 M. For mussel trochophores, 10% EG and 15% EG in combination with TRE were selected as non toxic levels of CPAs for further cryopreservation experiments (Figure 2).

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212 **3.2.** Cryopreservation experiments

213 Development of thawed oyster trochophores to D-larval stage was highest ($60.0\pm6.7\%$; 214 mean \pm SE) when trochophores were frozen in 10% EG and a cooling rate of 0.5°C min⁻¹ 215 ¹ was used (Figure 3). The addition of TRE or TRE plus PVP did not improve D-larval 216 yield from that obtained with EG alone. The size of D-larvae obtained from thawed 217 oyster trochophores was significantly different to the size of unfrozen control larvae 218 (10.3% smaller on average; data not shown).

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For mussels, the percentage of D-larvae developing from thawed trochophores was highly variable between the replicate pools evaluated. Despite having taken into account pool variability in our statistical analysis no significant differences were found when cooling at 0.5 °C min⁻¹ or at 1 °C min⁻¹ for CPA combinations with 10% EG and at 0.5 °C min⁻¹ with 15% EG + 0.4M TRE (Figure 4). 225

Finally, the growth of D-larvae produced from thawed mussel trochophores was examined over a four day incubation period. Whereas unfrozen larvae increased in size over the incubation period, thawed larvae showed no significant increase in size (Figure 5).

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231 **4. Discussion**

Our test species developmental stage was selected because trochophores had been
widely documented to be more resistant to CPA toxicity (Chao *et al.* 1997, Gwo 1995,
Nascimiento 2005) than other stages. We also choose to use this stage in our previous
work on Greenshell[™] mussels (*Perna canaliculus*; Paredes *et al.* 2012).

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237 Cryoprotectant toxicity tests are an important step in optimizing a cryopreservation protocol for a given species or cell type. In this study, the CPA toxicity tests with 238 239 bivalve trochophores yielded a NOEC of 15% EG and a LOEC of 20% EG for both species. Below this concentration there were no toxic effects of EG, whether it was 240 241 used alone or in combination with TRE and/or PVP. These results are consistent with our previous studies on GreenshellTM mussel trochophores (Paredes et al. 2012). 242 243 However, the response to CPA exposure of the same developmental stage in different species should not be assumed since CPA tolerance can be specific to a given species 244 245 and/or cell type/developmental stage and toxicity studies may or may not take into 246 account the osmotic tolerance limits and permeability of the particular cell that is of 247 interest (Nascimiento et al. 2005) (Chao et al. 1997, Gwo 1995, Paniagua 2001, Tervit 248 et al. 2005). Here, cryoprotectants were added in a single step and it is possible that cells could tolerate a higher cryoprotectant concentration if stepwise methods of 249 250 addition and removal had been used. The variability among responses to CPAs found in literature confirm that different species and different developmental stages may behave 251 252 in a different way when exposed to a CPA and cryopreserved, although our results also 253 suggest that the same development stage of similar species might behave in a similar 254 way due to shared characteristics on membranes composition, cell structure and permeability as well as similar response to CPAs toxicity (Paredes et al. 2012) 255

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In the present study, the presence of TRE and/or PVP did not reduce or enhance EG
toxicity below a concentration of 20% EG. Results of our cryopreservation experiments

showed that 10% EG alone yielded the best results for oyster trochophores with $60\pm6\%$

- 260 developing to normal D-larvae when a cooling rate of 0.5° C min⁻¹ was used.
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262 The highest % normal D-larvae (over 80%) were achieved with one single pool, using 10 % EG + 0.2 M TRE, and a cooling rate of 0.5 $^{\circ}$ C min⁻¹. In this case, considering this 263 264 high outcome as an outlayer and examining the results achieved for the other two pools 265 and other treatments with no significant differences, namely 10% EG + 0.2 M TRE and 10% EG +0.4 M TRE (1°C min⁻¹), and 15% EG + 0.4 M TRE (0.5°C min⁻¹), with 266 average percentages of normal D-larvae of 48.9±7.6%, 47.5±11.2% and 48.8±17.5%, 267 respectively, we obtained more probable consistent, results. Concluding, our protocol 268 for mussel cryopreservation provides an outcome around 50% normal larvae. 269

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271 As for oyster larvae, mussel D-larvae that were produced from thawed trochophores were found to be significantly smaller (17.9% smaller) than controls, and these size 272 273 differences persisted over the 4 day incubation that with cryopreserved larvae showing no growth over this time. These results are consistent with Paredes et al. (2012), where 274 observed size differences between frozen and fresh GreenshellTM mussel D-larvae that 275 were maintained till settlement and with Wang et al. (2011) with Mytilus 276 277 galloprovincialis where cryopreserved D-larvae remained smaller than controls during the first week of incubation following cryopreservation. However the incubation time 278 279 was too short to derive any conclusions about the viability of the resulting larvae.

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For both, oysters and mussels, results were very similar while freezing at 0.5 °C min⁻¹ or 1 °C min⁻¹ with 10% EG, and no significant differences among cooling temperatures were found. However, when using 15% EG, better results were obtained at 0.5°Cmin⁻¹. Survival of cryopreserved and thawed bivalve trochophores was $60.0\pm6.7\%$ for oysters and $48.9\pm7.6\%$ for mussels.

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In conclusion, a successful freezing protocol for both bivalve species trochophore larvae (*M. galloprovincialis* and *C. gigas*) was developed with specific adaptations for the different bivalve requirements. Further investigations to increase the percentage of normal D-larvae resulting from cryopreservation, and cryopreserved larval growth and health along incubation to spat, would ensure the future of application of cryopreservation techniques as useful tools to guarantee a reliable supply of on-growingbiological material in developing hatchery spat production.

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380 Figure captions

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Figure 1. - Percentage of D-larvae developing from oyster trochophores following exposure to increasing concentrations of EG in combination to TRE (M) and/or 1% PVP. The FSW bar represents a handling control. All data has been normalized to the controls. Mean ± Standard Error (SE).

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Figure 2. - Percentage of D-larvae developed from Mussel trochophores following
exposure to increasing concentrations of EG in combination to TRE (M). All data has
been normalized to the controls. Mean ± Standard Error (SE).

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Figure 3.- Percentage of Pacific oyster trochophores developing to D-larvae following cryopreservation at 0.5 °C min⁻¹ and 1 °C min⁻¹ in 10 or 15% ethylene glycol (EG) alone or in combination with 0.2 M trehalose (TRE) with or without 1% polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP). All data has been normalized to the controls. Mean \pm Standard Error (SE).

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Figure 4.- Percentage of Mussel D-larvae following cryopreservation at 0.5 °C min⁻¹ and 1 °C min⁻¹ in 10 and 15% EG in combination to TRE(M). All data has been normalized to the controls. Mean \pm Standard Error (SE).

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401 Figure 5. - D larvae size for unfrozen controls and frozen trochophores at 48, 72 and
402 96 incubation hours post fertilization. Mean ± Standard Error (SE).



Figure 1



Figure 2







Figure 4



Figure 5