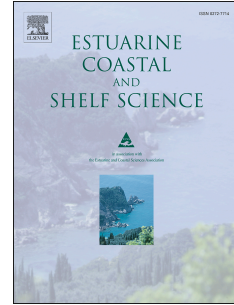


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Impact of the future coastal water temperature scenarios on the risk of potential growth of pathogenic *Vibrio* marine bacteria

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Authors' contributions

H.Ferchichi, A.St-Hilaire, T.B.M.J.Ouarda, and B.Lévesque participated in the design of the study. H.Ferchichi had completed the analysis under the supervision of A.St-Hilaire, T.B.M.J.Ouarda, and B.Lévesque.

H.Ferchichi had completed the bulk of the writing and prepared the Figures 1-3, with assistance from A.St-Hilaire, T.B.M.J.Ouarda, and B.Lévesque. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

1 **Impact of the future coastal water temperature** 2 **scenarios on the risk of potential growth of** 3 **pathogenic *Vibrio* marine Bacteria**

4 Habiba Ferchichi^{1,*}, André St-Hilaire^{1,2}, Taha B.M.J Ouarda³, Benoît Levesque^{4,5}

5 *Vibrio* (*V*), a genus of marine bacteria, are common inhabitants of warm coastal waters and
6 estuaries. *Vibrio* includes *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. vulnificus* species that can cause human
7 infections through the consumption of contaminated shellfish (as bivalve molluscs). The
8 growth of pathogenic *Vibrio* is related to ambient water temperature and seems to increase at
9 15 °C and over. The expansion of *Vibrio* infection outbreak is increasing worldwide due to the
10 increase of the sea surface temperature as a result of ocean warming. Canada's coast is not an
11 exception to this worldwide *Vibrio* spread. Faced with this issue, this study focuses on
12 modelling the future potential *Vibrio* growth risk along the coasts of the St. Lawrence Gulf and
13 Estuary, where the shellfish industry is well developed. This is done using the adequate
14 machine learning model with explanatory variables that include air temperature and wind
15 speed for predicting future water temperatures. Based on the predicted future water
16 temperature scenarios and a threshold of 15 °C to determine the conditions favorable to the
17 growth of *Vibrio* bacteria, we modelled the *Vibrio* growth risk indicator, i.e. the number of
18 days exceeding the minimum temperature for *Vibrio* pathogenic growth (15 °C), in the horizon
19 2040-2100. Simulations show that the number of days, where the minimum temperature
20 (15 °C) will be reached ,will increase spatially and even seasonally and all the shellfish beds
21 would meet the temperature condition for *Vibrio* growth regardless of the climate scenario
22 (optimistic and pessimistic).

23 *Key words: Coastal Water temperature, Vibrio bacteria, machine learning models, modelling,*
24 *prediction, climate change.*

25 Abbreviations: ANN, Artificial Neural Networks; Bagging, Bootstrap Aggregating;
26 CANOPA, CANadian Océan PARallélisé; CART, Classification and Regression Tree;
27 CDC, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; GHG, Greenhouse Gas GSL; Gulf of
28 St. Lawrence; IDW, Inverse Distance Weighted; MA, Moving Average; MK, Mann-
29 Kendall; MLP, Multilayer Perceptron; MMK, Modified Mann-Kendall; MSE, Mean
30 Square Error; Nash, Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient; Ntry, The number of bootstrap input
31 variables at each split of a tree; OOB, Out-Of-Bag; PEI, Prince Edward Island; ppt,
32 parts per thousand; rBias, Relative mean bias; RCM, Regional Climate Model; RCP,
33 Representative Concentration Pathways; RF, Random Forests; RFE, Recursive
34 feature Elimination; RMSE, Root Mean Square Error; SST, Sea Surface Temperature;
35 *Vibrio, V; Vibrio parahaemolyticus, Vp; Vibrio vulnificus, Vv.*

36

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46 **1. Introduction**

47 *Vibrio (V.) parahaemolyticus* and *Vibrio vulnificus* belong to the family of
48 *Vibrionaceae*, a group of aquatic microorganisms that includes other human
49 pathogens such as *V. cholera*. They are natural inhabitants of warm coastal waters
50 (>15 °C) and estuaries with low salinity (<25 ppt) (Baker-Austin et al., 2010; Heng
51 et al., 2017; Kaspar and Tamplin, 1993; Motes et al., 1998; Vezzulli et al., 2013).

52 *V. parahaemolyticus (Vp)* is recognised as a leading cause of gastroenteritis
53 associated with seafood consumption worldwide (Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2010) and
54 it was the cause of significant outbreaks of infections in North America. For example,
55 the largest outbreak of *Vp* in Canadian history, associated with the consumption of
56 raw oysters, occurred in summer 2015 in British Columbia and resulted in the
57 highest reported *Vp* cases (82 cases) (Taylor et al., 2018) since the 1997 outbreak
58 (Fyfe et al., 1997).

59 *V. vulnificus (Vv)* infections are less frequent. However, *Vv* is a lethal opportunistic
60 human pathogen responsible for the majority of deaths related to seafood
61 consumption worldwide. For instance, in the USA, more than 95% of seafood-
62 related deaths are caused by this bacterium (Oliver, 2013). Consumption of raw or
63 undercooked bivalve shellfish (oysters, mussels, clams, etc.) contaminated with *Vv*
64 can lead to major infections such as septicemia, with subsequent highest mortality
65 (sometimes exceeding 50%) than any foodborne pathogen (Dechet et al., 2008;
66 Feldhusen, 2000; Oliver, 2005). In the USA, the CDC estimates an average of 100

67 foodborne infections associated to *Vv* annually, resulting in 50 fatalities per year
68 (Mead et al., 1999).

69 The growth of pathogenic *Vibrio* species causing human illness is directly related to
70 the exceedance of a threshold of water temperature (about 15 °C) (Baker-Austin et
71 al., 2013; Jacobs et al., 2015; Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2010; McLaughlin et al., 2005).
72 Because most of bivalves are filter feeders, *Vibrio* bacteria may concentrate in their
73 tissues. When the water temperature exceeds a certain threshold, shellfish are more
74 likely to be contaminated with *Vibrio*. These contaminated shellfish transmit, in
75 turn, the *Vibrio* bacteria to humans through consumption of raw or undercooked
76 shellfish (Baker-Austin et al., 2017; Davis et al., 2017; McLaughlin et al., 2005; Motes
77 and DePaola, 1996; Zimmerman et al., 2007).

78 Several reports and scientific researches show that the incidence of *Vibrio* infections
79 has increased significantly worldwide (Centers for Disease and Prevention, 2013;
80 Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2010; Newton et al., 2012). For instance, during the Canadian
81 *Vp* outbreak, the number of reported cases was 2.5 times the number of expected
82 cases and the outbreak unusually occurs earlier than expected (June-July) (Taylor et
83 al., 2018). This unusual outbreak emergence was associated with abnormally high
84 sea surface temperatures (SST>15°C) and the human *Vp* incidence decreased when
85 the SST decreased below 15°C (Taylor et al., 2018). Numerous studies on this
86 Canadian *Vp* outbreak show that the sea surface temperature is the most significant
87 environmental predictor of the *Vp* proliferation in oysters and the *Vp* illness

88 incidence is strongly associated with the increase of SST and the exceedance of the
89 temperature threshold (Galanis et al., 2020; Konrad et al., 2017; Taylor et al., 2018).

90 In addition to the increase of spatial spread worldwide, sudden *Vibrio* outbreaks had
91 emerged in new temperate and even cold regions including Peru (Martinez-Urtaza
92 et al., 2008), Europe (Baker-Austin et al., 2010), Chile (Narjol et al., 2005) and
93 Alaska (McLaughlin et al., 2005). This unusual outbreak emergence of *Vibrio*
94 infections coincides with water temperatures anomalies (SST>15°C) (Baker-Austin
95 et al., 2017; Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2010). Many microbiologists agree that climate
96 change may explain this increase of *Vibrio* infections spread worldwide as well as
97 the likelihood of its geographical expansion in new areas (Baker-Austin et al., 2012;
98 Deeb et al., 2018; Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2010; McLaughlin, 2005; Vezzulli et al.,
99 2013; Vezzulli et al., 2016). They have even considered *Vibrio* pathogens as
100 microbial barometer of climate change (Baker-Austin et al., 2017).

101 The global average land-ocean temperature has risen by approximately 0.85 °C
102 since the late nineteenth century (IPCC, 2013). This increase in SST, caused by
103 atmospheric warming, heavily affects the coastal ecosystems (Baker-Austin et al.,
104 2017; Burge et al., 2014; Halpern et al., 2008), resulting in significant warming of
105 70% of the world's coastline (Baker-Austin et al., 2017; Lima and Wetthey, 2012).

106 In order to evaluate and manage the *Vibrio* infection risk, various models have been
107 developed. Among these models, some are related to the prediction of *Vibrio*
108 concentration, which is based either on only sea surface temperature (SST) (Chu et
109 al., 2011) or both SST and salinity (Jacobs et al., 2014; United States Food and Drug

110 Administration (FDA), 2005). Another category includes models developed to
111 explain the relation of *Vibrio* infections exposure in response to SST
112 threshold exceedances (Semenza et al., 2017). Given the paucity of *Vibrio*
113 concentration and *Vibrio* infection data, the aim of this study is to evaluate the *Vibrio*
114 growth risk through its relation with SST threshold exceedances.

115 The harvesting of molluscs is an important part of the Canadian economy. It is well
116 developed in the provinces of Quebec, and Prince Edward Island (PEI). PEI is
117 Canada's top shellfish producer with about 49434 tons in 2018 between wild
118 shellfish and aquaculture, while Quebec produces about 1840 tons (Statistics
119 Canada, 2019). The shellfish beds are distributed over coastal zones of the Estuary
120 and Gulf of St. Lawrence (GSL), located in the eastern part of Canada, including
121 Rimouski, Gaspé, Baie des Chaleurs, the Quebec North Shore, Magdalen Islands and
122 PEI (Fig 1).

123 As the rest of worldwide marine ecosystems affected by ocean warming, the SST of
124 GSL has increased by 1 to 1.5 °C during 1982-2011 by calculating the annual
125 average of temperatures from May to November (Galbraith et al., 2012). The
126 predicted SST in Eastern Canada, through climate scenarios projections, indicate a
127 possible rise by more than one degree Celsius during the next century (Galbraith et
128 al., 2012). Therefore, this increase of water temperature could lead to the
129 proliferation of *Vibrio* pathogens as well as shellfish contamination and human
130 infections.

131 In fact, a recent surveillance study on the diversity and dynamics of the *Vibrio*
132 communities in Canada's coasts (British Columbia [Pacific Coast], Nova Scotia
133 [Atlantic Coast] and Gaspé) highlights the emergence of *V. cholerae* in temperate
134 Canadian estuaries and the detection of pathogenic strains of *V. parahaemolyticus* in
135 bivalve molluscs harvested in Canada (clams, mussels and oysters) with increasing
136 trend during the warmest months of 2006-2016 (Banerjee et al., 2018).

137 In order to protect the shellfish industry as well as human health, modelling the
138 future scenarios of SST in the Estuary and the GSL, with the aim of mapping future
139 potential risk areas, is primordial. Predicting SST in GSL has been generally realized
140 through deterministic model, based on physical and mathematical representation of
141 the climatic and ocean processes, such as the three-dimensional coastal ice-ocean
142 model called CANOPA (CANadian Océan PARallélisé) (Long et al., 2015; Saucier,
143 2003). Recently, we used machine learning models (Artificial Neuron Networks-
144 ANN, and Random Forest-RF) in predicting daily SST in the GSL by entering a
145 combination of predictors (also known as features) explaining most of SST
146 variation: 3-day trailing Moving Average (MA) of daily mean air temperature (i.e.
147 average of daily mean air temperature of the present and two previous days), the 30
148 day-MA of daily mean wind speed, the 30 day-MA of maximum daily tidal range, 120
149 day-MA mean St. Lawrence freshwater runoff and 60 day-MA of North Atlantic
150 Oscillation (Ferchichi et al., 2019). The MAs are used as filters for smoothing
151 predictors' data and detecting a better association between the dependent (SST)
152 and independent variables. The results showed that Random Forests provided the
153 best SST prediction accuracy of historical SST in the GSL (Ferchichi et al., 2019). In

154 the same study, it has been demonstrated that both of the air temperature and wind
155 speed are the most relevant predictors by explaining more than 70% of SST
156 variation for most of the stations (Ferchichi et al., 2019). A recent study, focusing on
157 coastal water temperature prediction, shows the impact of daily maximum and the
158 average air temperature of previous 1 and 2 days on the daily water temperature
159 variation. Considering this lag time factor and entering these variables as predictors
160 improved significantly the daily coastal temperature prediction (Trinh et al., 2019).

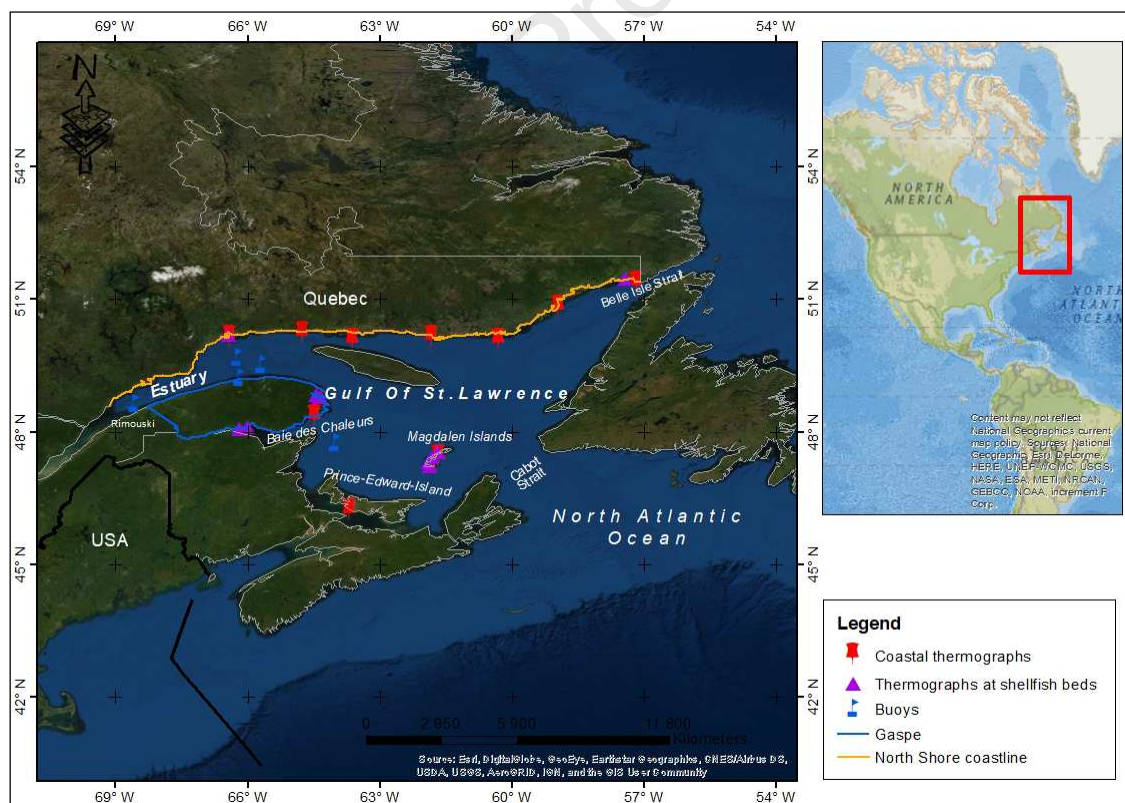
161 In this paper, we present the future scenarios of *Vibrio* growth risk in the GSL by
162 modelling the future water temperatures under different climate scenarios
163 (optimistic and pessimistic). By entering the most relevant and readily available
164 predictors (air temperature and wind speed) to the machine learning models (ANN
165 and RF), we test their performance predictions and select the best inputs for each
166 model using the backward selection method (Recursive Feature Elimination-RFE).
167 After choosing the best model and entering the climate projections of the selected
168 predictors, we produce the future water temperature in both of optimist and
169 pessimist climatic scenarios. Finally, we map the future potential *Vibrio* growth risk
170 area in the Estuary and GSL by interpolating the calculated risk indicator, in relation
171 to the theoretical proliferation of pathogenic *Vibrio*, over our study area.

172 **2. Study Area**

173 The St. Lawrence River is the second largest river in North America (El-Sabh and
174 Murty, 1990), with an average flow of approximately 12100 m³/s (Galbraith et al.,

175 2017). Originating from the Great Lakes, it reaches a vast estuary, where the fresh
 176 water of the river and salt water from the Atlantic Ocean mix. It flows over
 177 approximately 250 km to Pointe-des-Monts where it becomes the Gulf of St-
 178 Lawrence, opened to the Atlantic Ocean through the straits of Cabot and Belle-Isle.
 179 The GSL is one of the largest and most diverse marine ecosystems in the world
 180 covering an area of 225000 km².

181 The study region, as shown in (Fig 1), covers the coastal areas of the Estuary
 182 (downstream limit near Rimouski) and the Gulf of St-Lawrence (the Quebec North
 183 Shore, Gaspé, Baie-des-Chaleurs, PEI and Magdalen Islands).



184

185 *Figure 1. Geographic location of the thermographs and buoys in the Estuary and*
 186 *Gulf of Saint Lawrence*

187

188 The most abundantly harvested shellfish in the GSL are oysters, mussels, clams and
189 scallops (Statistics Canada, 2019). The major shellfish aquaculture techniques are
190 the intertidal, subtidal and suspended cultures. The shellfish produced using the
191 intertidal method are growing directly in the substrate. Since the clams and the
192 oysters may be farmed intertidally, they are more exposed to higher water
193 temperature at low tide, which increases the risk of *Vibrio proliferation*. In order to
194 provide assurance of bivalve molluscs' safety for human consumption, a Canadian
195 Shellfish Sanitation Programme (CSSP) was established (Sauvé, 2010). The aim of
196 this program is to monitor the shellfish growing areas, classify them with regard to
197 environmental conditions and water quality to determine the safety of shellfish
198 consumption, to monitor the marine biotoxins and to control the shellfish
199 harvesting and processing in these areas (Sauvé, 2010).

200

201 **3. Material and methods**

202 **3.1 Data collection**

203 For modelling daily mean water temperature, we use the 3 day-MA mean air
204 temperature and 30 day-MA wind speed as they present the most relevant
205 explanatory variables of SST variation in the most of stations. The daily air
206 temperature and wind speed data are available online from the Government of
207 Canada through this site:
208 http://climate.weather.gc.ca/historical_data/search_historic_data_e.html.

209 The daily sea surface temperatures of the buoys and costal thermographs were
 210 supplied by Fisheries and Oceans Canada and the Maurice-Lamontagne Institute.

211 The daily sea surface temperatures of coastal thermographs, located at shellfish
 212 beds, were provided by MERINOV-Québec Centre for Innovation in Aquaculture and
 213 Fisheries.

214 The predictor projections (daily air temperature and the 30-day MA wind speed)
 215 come from eight climate simulations obtained from Ouranos-a climate-science
 216 consortium based in Quebec (Martynov et al., 2013; Šeparović et al., 2013), and the
 217 CORDEX program (Giorgi et al., 2009). These simulations are generated through
 218 regional climate models driven by global climate model under one of the two
 219 Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs; RCP4.5 (Knutti and Sedláček, 2013)
 220 or RCP8.5 (Meinshausen et al., 2011)).

221 The scenarios used in this study were the average of the regional model outputs
 222 mentioned in the Table 1.

223 *Table 1. List of the Regional Climate Models (RCMs) used in simulations.*

Sources of RCMs	Modelling groups	Regional Climate Model (RCM)
Ouranos	-	CRCM5
	DMI (Danish Meteorological Institute)	HIRHAM5
CORDEX	UQUAM (L'Université du Québec à Montréal)	CRCM5

CCCma (Canadian
Centre for Climate
Modelling and
Analysis)

CanRCM4

224

225 **3.2 Modelling water temperature**

226 We model the target variable (the daily water temperature of each buoy and coastal
227 thermograph) by entering the selected predictors (3 day-MA air temperature and
228 30-day MA wind speed) into tested models (RF and ANN). The RFE was selected as
229 feature selection method in order to choose the best subset of the predictors. In this
230 case, only two combinations of the predictors were likely to be selected, either the
231 air temperature as the sole input variable, or both air temperature and wind speed.
232 80% of original data are used for training and the remaining data serve as test data
233 to evaluate the model predictive power. We use the k-fold cross validation (10-fold
234 cross validation) as model validation technique.

235 **3.2.1 Artificial Neural Network Model**

236 In this study, we use a Multilayer Perceptron (MLP), a feedforward Artificial Neural
237 Network, trained by using the supervised learning based on the error gradient back-
238 propagation algorithm. This class of model is composed of three layers: the input
239 layer includes the predictors which are standardized by subtracting each variable by
240 its means and dividing by its standard deviations, the output layer, composed of
241 single node, produces the response variable (water temperature) and the hidden

242 layer connects both of the input and output layers. At the state of hidden layer, the
 243 ANN attributes weights to the set of inputs (x_i) and applies an activation function
 244 (f_1) on the weighted sum of inputs. Then, a linear function (f_2) is applied on the
 245 output of the hidden layer to produce the desired output (O), given by:

$$O = f_2 \left[\sum_{j=1}^n w_{jk} \left[f_1 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij} x_i + b_j \right) \right] + b_0 \right] \quad (1)$$

246 Where w_{ij} is the weight between the input x_i and hidden neuron j , b_j is the bias
 247 associated to each hidden neuron j , w_{jk} is the weight between the hidden neuron j
 248 and the output neuron k , and b_0 is the bias associated to the output neuron .

249 The activation function (f_1) used in this study is the sigmoid, given by:

$$f_1(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \quad (2)$$

250 The used MLP is composed by one hidden layer holding only one neuron. A single
 251 hidden layer is sufficient to approximate any continuous function, but there is no
 252 general rule for selecting the appropriate number of hidden nodes in the hidden
 253 layer (Haykin, 1994; Piotrowski et al., 2015). The ANN architecture selection is done
 254 via the trial-error method. It tests the model performance by using a grid search of
 255 hidden neurons number (1 to 10 hidden nodes). Adding more than one neuron does
 256 not improve significantly the prediction accuracy.

257 3.2.2 Random Forests Model

258 Random Forests (RF) is a recent machine learning algorithms (2000) developed by
 259 Braiman (Breiman, 2001). The RF is a tree-based ensemble method that randomly
 260 selects a subset of predictors to build a binary tree based on bootstrap samples of
 261 the training data (Breiman, 2001). The overall prediction is the average of the
 262 predictions from all the generated decision trees (Aggregation).

263 The RF generalization error is estimated by averaging the prediction error of each
 264 tree using the Out-Of-Bag (OOB) samples, i.e. samples that are not included in the
 265 bootstrap training sets (1/3 bootstrap samples of the training sets). This OOB error
 266 is computed with a Mean Square Error (MSE) as shown below:

$$MSE^{OOB} = \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^n [\hat{Y}(X_i) - Y_i]^2 \quad (3)$$

267 Where n is the size of the OOB sample, $\hat{Y}(X_i)$ corresponds to the RF output given the
 268 input sample X_i , and Y_i represents the actual output.

269 The parameters set are: the number of trees, the number of bootstrap input
 270 variables at each split of a tree (Ntry) and the minimum node size of each tree. The
 271 minimum node size of each tree, recommended by RF creators, and used in many
 272 studies is 5. The smaller the minimum node size is, the deeper that the tree is. The
 273 Ntry, recommended by the RF developers, is the number of input variables divided
 274 by three (Breiman, 2001) (Ntry=1). The number of trees would be experimentally

275 set through plotting the OOB error plot in function of tree numbers (number of
276 trees=50).

277 3.2.3 Feature Selection

278 The Recursive feature Elimination (RFE) presents a backward selection technique
279 used in selecting the best subset of input variables (features) that contribute the
280 most in model accuracy during the training process. The RFE consists in training the
281 model by entering all the features then removing the variables with the lowest
282 contribution in model accuracy, i.e., based on variable importance. Using the new
283 reduced feature subset, it retrains the model (Guyon et al., 2002). The best selected
284 subset is the one that optimizes the most of the chosen performance criteria. In this
285 study, we chose the RMSE as performance criterion for best subset features
286 selection.

287 We use the k-fold cross validation (k=10) in performance prediction assessment of
288 the possible feature subsets. In fact, the goodness of models fit, according to each
289 feature subset, is assessed by computing the 10-fold cross validated RMSE
290 ($RMSE_{CV}$), i.e. the average of the ten RMSE computed over the 10 validation sets:

291 The ($RMSE_{CV}$) is given by:

$$RMSE_{CV} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k RMSE_j \quad (4)$$

292 Where the RMSE calculated for each fold j is given by:

$$RMSE_j = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_{i,p} - y_{i,obs})^2}{N}} \quad (5)$$

293 Where the k is the number of folds (10 in this example), j is one of the k folds, N is
 294 the sample size of the fold j, $y_{i,p}$ are predicted data and $y_{i,obs}$ are the observed data.

295 3.2.4 Performance evaluation of models

296 In this paper, we compare the prediction accuracy of tested models (ANN and RF)
 297 according to three performance criteria: the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), Nash-
 298 Sutcliffe coefficient (Nash) and Relative mean bias (rBias).

- 299 • Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(y_{i,obs} - y_{i,p})^2}{n}} \quad (6)$$

- 300 • Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient (Nash)

$$Nash = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_{i,obs} - y_{i,p})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_{i,obs} - \bar{y}_{obs})^2} \quad (7)$$

- 301 • Relative mean bias (rBias)

$$rBias = \frac{100}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_{i,obs} - y_{i,p}}{y_{i,obs}} \quad (8)$$

302 Where $y_{i,obs}$ is the observed data, $y_{i,p}$ is the predicted data, \bar{y}_{obs} corresponds to the
303 means of observed data and n is the size of observed data. Generally, a computed
304 value of Nash greater than 0.5 indicates a relative satisfactory model performance,
305 with a value of 1 corresponding to an ideal model (N. Moriasi et al., 2007). Low
306 values of RMSE and rBias indicate better performing models.

307 **3.3 Trend Analysis**

308 After selecting the best model for all the stations, we generate the projections of the
309 daily water temperature for the horizon 2040-2100. In order to cover the range of
310 plausible water temperature scenarios, we select two different climatic scenarios: a
311 relatively optimistic scenario (RCP4.5) and a pessimistic scenario (RCP8.5), known
312 as “Business as usual” (i.e. continuous rise in GHG emissions). These scenarios lead
313 to a warming of average air temperatures of 2.5 °C to 5 °C around 2100. We
314 perform a trend analysis of the predicted water temperature for each station under
315 pessimistic scenario during the horizon 2040-2100 by using the Modified Mann
316 Kendall (MMK) test, which takes into account the serial correlation. Then, we
317 compute the trend slope of each station using the Theil-Sen’s slope estimator.

318 **3.3.1 Modified Mann Kendall test (MMK)**

319 The non-parametric Mann-Kendall (MK) test is commonly used for detecting
320 monotonic trends in time series (Kendall, 1975; Mann, 1945). The null
321 hypothesis H_0 of this test is that there is no trend in the series.

322 The MK test statistic S is calculated as follows:

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \text{sgn}(x_j - x_i) \quad (9)$$

323 Where x_i and x_j denote the values of observations for the respective periods i and j
 324 ($j > i$), n is the length of the times series and $\text{sgn}(x_i - x_j)$ presents the sign function
 325 given by:

$$\text{sgn}(x_j - x_i) \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_j - x_i > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x_j - x_i = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } x_j - x_i < 0 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

326

327 Mann (1945) and Kendall (1975) have noted that for large values of n ($n \geq 8$), the
 328 distribution of the S statistic is approximately normal (Kendall, 1975; Mann, 1945),
 329 with the mean E and variance V of the statistic S , are defined as follows:

$$E(S) = 0 \quad (11)$$

330

$$V(S) = \frac{n(n-1)(2n+5) - \sum_{i=1}^m t_i(i-1)(2i+5)}{18} \quad (12)$$

331 Where m represents the number of tied groups in the data set and the t_i represents
 332 the number of values in the i^{th} tied group.

333 The standardized statistic Z_S is calculated by:

$$Z_S = \begin{cases} \frac{S-1}{\sqrt{V(S)}} & \text{if } S > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } S = 0 \\ \frac{S+1}{\sqrt{V(S)}} & \text{if } S < 0 \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

334 The sign of the statistic Z_S indicates the direction of the trend whether it is upward
 335 (positive Z_S) or downward (negative Z_S). The standardized statistic Z_S follows the
 336 standard normal distribution with a mean of 0 and variance of 1. The null
 337 hypothesis would be rejected, implying the presence of a significant trend, when Z_S
 338 is higher than a critical value $Z_{1-\alpha/2}$, where α represents the chosen significance level
 339 (5% in this study) and $Z_{1-\alpha/2}$ could be deduced from the standard normal cumulative
 340 distribution tables.

341 In order to account for the autocorrelation that may exist in the time series, Hamed
 342 and Rao proposed to modify the variance of the MK test (Hamed and Rao, 1998).

343 The variance is corrected through multiplying by the factor n/n^* , where n^* presents
 344 the effective sample size. Yue and Yang have demonstrated that incorporating the
 345 effective sample size in variance correction limits effectively the effect of serial
 346 correlation on the MK test (Yue and Wang, 2004).

$$\frac{n}{n^*} = 1 + \frac{2}{n(n-1)(n-2)} \sum_{i=1}^p (n-i)(n-i-1)(n-i-2) \rho_s(i) \quad (14)$$

347 Where n is the actual sample size, n^* is the effective sample size to account for
 348 autocorrelations in the data, ρ_s presents the autocorrelation function of the ranks of
 349 the observations for lag i and p is the maximum of time lags taking into account.

350 In this paper, the variance is corrected through considering complete
 351 autocorrelations (all lags) in the effective sample size computation, proposed by Yue
 352 and Wang (2004), and applied by using the mmky R package.

353 **3.3.2 Theil-Sen's slope estimator**

354 Theil-Sen's slope estimator, proposed by Theil (1950) (Theil, 1950) and Sen (1968)
 355 (Sen, 1968), allows to capture the direction and the strength of significant trend
 356 slope. It has been considered as robust estimate of the magnitude of trend's slope
 357 (Yue and Wang, 2004).

358 It is given by the following equation:

$$b = \text{median} \left(\frac{x_j - x_i}{j - i} \right) \forall i < j$$

(15)

359 **3.4 Mapping future potential risk growth *Vibrio***

360 In order to evaluate the potential risk of *Vibrio* growth, we chose as thermal metric:
 361 the number of days above the minimum known temperature for *Vibrio* growth
 362 (15 °C). This thermal metric, selected as *Vibrio* growth risk indicator, is computed
 363 from the produced daily future water temperatures for both of optimistic and
 364 pessimistic scenarios.

365 We calculate the monthly average of this risk indicator, during the study period
366 (June-October), averaged over twenty years during the study horizon 2040-2100.
367 Subsequently, we interpolate the risk indicator computed for the available stations
368 over the study area using the Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) method, using
369 ARCGIS. As a result of a comparison between IDW and kriging, we select IDW
370 interpolation as it is the simplest method, given similar interpolation errors to
371 kriging. We produce maps for two selected future horizons 2040-2060 and 2080-
372 2100 under both climate change scenarios (optimistic-RCP4.5 and pessimistic-
373 RCP8.5) in order to compare the level of potential *Vibrio* expansion risk over the
374 study area.

375 We compute the root mean squared error (RMSE) of the interpolation using a leave-
376 one-out procedure. The relative RMSE is calculated by dividing the RMSE of the IDW
377 interpolation, produced for every month i of study period, by the areal average of
378 the risk indicator for the same month. Sometimes the relative error is quite strong,
379 which may be due to the large spatial variation of the selected variable. For cases
380 that are too uncertain (relative error > 50%), interpolation is useless.

381 **3.4.1 Inverse Weighted Distance (IWD) interpolation method**

382 The IDW method, a deterministic spatial interpolation approach, allows to compute
383 an average of a selected variable in ungauged sites using values from nearby
384 weighted sites.

385 The weights, accorded to gauged locations, are proportional to the distance between
386 the gauged and ungauged sites and determined by the IDW power coefficient. The

387 larger the power coefficient is, the stronger the weights are attributed to the closest
 388 locations. The estimated variable at ungauged location (z_j^*) is defined by the
 389 following equation:

$$z_j^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij}} \quad (16)$$

390 Where:

$$w_{ij} = \frac{1}{d_{ij}^p} \quad (17)$$

391 Where x_i is the variable value of a neighboring gauged site, w_{ij} is the weight assigned
 392 to the gauged sites (i), d_{ij} is the distance between the gauged (i) and ungauged sites
 393 (j), n is the number of gauged sites and p is the exponent of the distance. In this
 394 study, the interpolation was performed using the ArcGIS software and a default
 395 value of $p = 2$ was chosen.

396 **4 Results**

397 After applying the Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE) on the selected potential
 398 predictors, air temperature and wind speed, we found that the ANN uses only the air
 399 temperature as input for most of the stations while the RF uses both predictors.
 400 Table 2 presents the results of performance criteria for ANN and RF in SST
 401 prediction of the tested dataset.

402

403

Table 2. Performance criteria results of tested models (RF and ANN)

Models	Stations	RMSE (°C)	Nash	rBiais(%)
ANN (Artificial Neural Network)	Grande Rivière	1.7	0.708	-2.05
	Borden	1.991	0.585	-1.529
	Blanc Sablon	2.437	0.331	-13.774
	Courant de Gaspé	1.368	0.84	-1.235
	Havre St Pierre	2.435	0.29	-12.67
	Ile Shag	2.097	0.651	-4.008
	Montlouis	1.323	0.854	-1.647
	Natashquan	2.028	0.709	-6.409
	Rimouski	1.139	0.827	-0.779
	Rivière aux Tonnerre	2.015	0.627	-7.809
	Romaine	1.345	0.816	-2.929
	Tabatière	2.342	0.391	-9.577
	Sept-Îles	1.957	0.702	-3.175
	Shediac Valley	1.056	0.893	-0.568
	Mean	1.802	0.659	-4.868
RF (Random Forests)	Grande Rivière	1.654	0.708	-1.877
	Borden	1.837	0.585	-0.66
	Blanc Sablon	2.29	0.331	-10.614
	Courant de Gaspé	1.37	0.84	-1.018
	Havre St Pierre	2.519	0.29	-10.844
	Ile Shag	1.958	0.685	-3.478
	Montlouis	1.418	0.687	-1.407
	Natashquan	2.082	0.693	-4.756
	Rimouski	1.157	0.827	-0.794
	Rivière aux Tonnerre	2.08	0.627	-6.377
	Romaine	1.404	0.816	-2.496
	Tabatière	2.323	0.391	-7.193
	Sept-Îles	1.982	0.702	-3.676
	Shediac Valley	1.02	0.893	-0.43
	Mean	1.792	0.648	-3.973

404

405 By using the paired t-test ($DF=13$, $t\text{-value}=0.436$) on RMSE values at all of our sites
406 for both models, we note that there is no significant difference between the
407 performances of models in terms of RMSE ($p\text{-value}=0.67$) at a significance level of
408 5%. The average RMSE performance for all the stations is approximately $1.8\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for
409 both of RF and ANN. Both models present good performing results in terms of Nash-
410 Sutcliff criterion, i.e. higher than 0.5, and low relative mean bias ($<5\%$). Given that
411 there is no significant difference between RF and ANN, we choose the ANN as it is
412 the most parsimonious model for modelling future water temperatures. Then, we
413 proceed to generate future daily mean water temperature for each station for the
414 horizon 2040-2100 for a pessimistic climate scenario, RCP8.5, and a more optimistic
415 one (RCP4.5), by using the projections of air temperature.

416 We proceed with a trend analysis of the predicted water temperature for each
417 station under pessimistic scenario during the horizon 2040-2100 by using the
418 Modified Mann Kendall (MMK) test, which takes into account the serial correlation.
419 Significant positive trends ($p\text{-value}<1\%$) in future daily mean SST, for the period
420 from June to October in the horizon 2040-2100, were revealed in all the tested
421 stations at a significance level of 5%. Table 3 presents the results of Theil Sen's slope
422 computed for each station after applying the MMK test. By averaging the trend
423 slopes of all the stations over the horizon (2040-2100), we found that the water
424 temperatures are likely to increase by $0.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ per decade, for a total of $2.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ up to
425 2100.

426
427

Table 3. Theil-Sen's slope for projected daily mean water temperature times series during the horizon (2040-2100)

Stations	Theil-Sen's slope	^aSlope-10 years	^bSlope-60years
Natashquan	4.59E-04	0.711	4.266
Baie Cascapedia	1.69E-04	0.262	1.57
Baie Trascapedia	1.73E-04	0.269	1.613
Sept-Îles	2.42E-04	0.376	2.255
Baie Plaisance	1.34E-04	0.208	1.245
Lagune Havre	3.31E-04	0.513	3.079
Bassin Havre	3.71E-04	0.575	3.447
Lagune Grande	3.16E-04	0.489	2.935
Belles Amours	2.81E-04	0.436	2.618
Blanc Sablon	2.64E-04	0.41	2.458
Borden	1.49E-04	0.232	1.39
Grande Rivière	1.66E-04	0.257	1.54
Iles Shag	1.50E-04	0.233	1.4
Havre St Pierre	1.75E-04	0.271	1.624
Rivière aux Tonnerre	4.10E-04	0.635	3.813
Romaine	4.49E-04	0.696	4.176
Tarbatière	3.30E-04	0.512	3.072
Rimouski	3.77E-04	0.584	3.506
Courant Gaspé	2.57E-04	0.399	2.391
Gyre Anticosti	2.02E-04	0.312	1.875

Montlouis	2.63E-04	0.407	2.443
Shediac Valley	2.03E-04	0.315	1.889
Mean	2.67E-04	0.414	2.482

428 ^a **Slope-10 years:** the average of Theil-Sen's slope for 10 years for the time period between
 429 June and October

430 ^b **Slope-60years:** the average of Theil-Sen's slope for 60 years for the time period between
 431 June and October

432

433 After generating the future daily means of SST, we calculate the number of days
 434 exceeding the threshold of 15 °C, the minimum temperature for *Vibrio* growth, as a
 435 risk indicator. Then, we interpolate the values of this risk indicator, averaged for
 436 each month over 20 years. We present the results of August and September as
 437 examples of spatial interpolation of the risk indicator over the study area in Figures
 438 2 and 3 respectively.

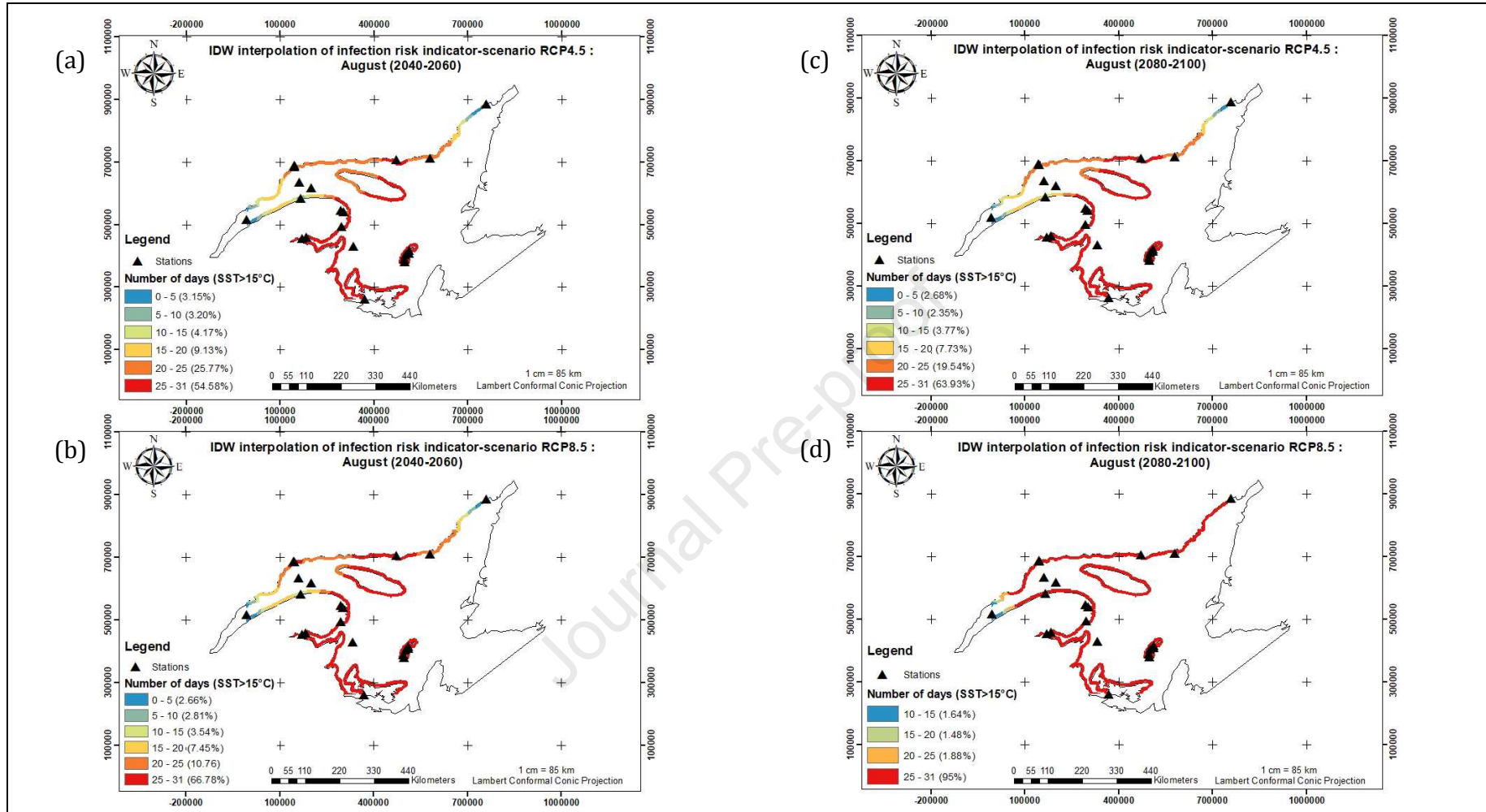
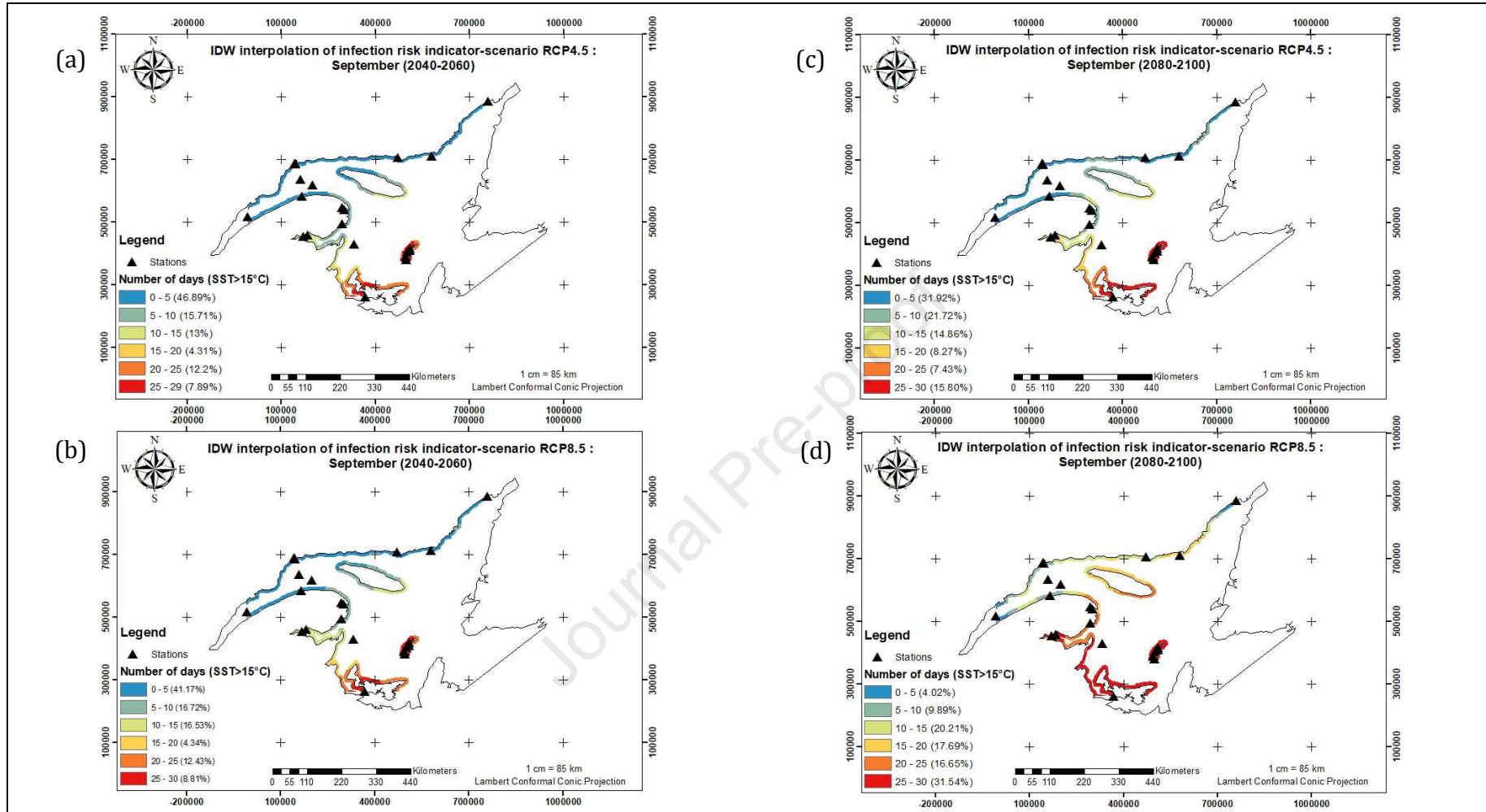


Figure 2. Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) interpolation of risk indicators (number of days exceeding the threshold (15 °C)) over the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence under pessimistic and optimistic climatic scenario for the horizons (2040-2060) and (2080-2100) in August. **(a)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in August during the horizon (2040-2060) under optimistic scenario (RCP4.5). **(b)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in August during the horizon (2040-2060) under pessimistic scenario (RCP8.5). **(c)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in August during the horizon (2080-2100) under optimistic scenario (RCP4.5). **(d)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in August during the horizon (2080-2100) under pessimistic scenario (RCP8.5).



439
 Figure 3. Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) interpolation of risk indicators (number of days exceeding the threshold (15 °C)) over the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence under pessimistic and optimistic climatic scenario for the horizons (2040-2060) and (2080-2100) in September. **(a)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in September during the horizon (2040-2060) under optimistic scenario (RCP4.5). **(b)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in September during the horizon (2040-2060) under pessimistic scenario (RCP8.5). **(c)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in September during the horizon (2080-2100) under optimistic scenario (RCP4.5). **(d)** IDW interpolation of the risk indicator in September during the horizon (2080-2100) under pessimistic scenario (RCP8.5).

440 Figure 2(a) shows that, during the horizon 2040-2060, under an optimistic scenario
441 (RCP4.5), the waters in the shellfish beds of Magdalen Islands, PEI, the Gaspé
442 Peninsula and Baie des Chaleurs are likely to be at high risk of infection as the risk
443 indicator (number of days above the 15 °C) exceeds 25 days. The risk indicator of
444 some stations in the Quebec North Shore coast along the GSL varies between 20 and
445 25 days, so the shellfish beds in this area might also be under high risk of *Vibrio*
446 growth. For the same horizon, but under a pessimistic scenario as shown in Figure
447 2(b), most shellfish beds would probably be at high risk of *Vibrio* growth since the
448 calculated risk indicator exceeds 25 days for approximately 67% of coastal areas.

449 By comparing the interpolation maps of August (Fig 2(c) and Fig 2(d)) during the
450 horizon 2080-2100 for both scenarios, we note that the risk indicator, exceeding 25
451 days, covers between 64% (scenario RCP4.5) and 95% (scenario RCP8.5) of the total
452 coastal area. Therefore, by 2100, most of the stations located in shellfish beds,
453 where harvesting occurs, are likely to be at high risk of *Vibrio* growth whatever the
454 considered scenario.

455 During September (Fig 3), the risk indicator at the shellfish beds of the Magdalen
456 Islands and PEI exceeds 20 days for both climate scenarios and horizons. So, they
457 might be at a higher risk of *Vibrio* growth. During the horizon (2080-2100) under a
458 pessimistic scenario (Fig 3(d)), we note that in addition to the Magdalen Islands and
459 PEI, the shellfish beds of Gaspé Peninsula and Baie des Chaleurs would probably be
460 at high risk of *Vibrio* growth as the number of days above the 15 °C threshold
461 exceeds 20 days.

462 Table 4 presents the results of the risk indicator calculated for the month of October
 463 for some stations under a pessimistic scenario during the horizon 2080-2100. It was
 464 not possible to perform a spatial interpolation because too few stations had non-
 465 zero values. Table 4 shows that the risk of *Vibrio* growth may also occur during
 466 October on the coasts of PEI and Magdalen Islands. Therefore, the risk of *Vibrio*
 467 growth would probably expand both spatially and temporally (i.e. into the fall for
 468 some regions).

469 *Table 4. The number of days exceeding the minimum temperature threshold (15 °C)*
 470 *for the growth of pathogenic Vibrio during October in the horizon (2080-2100) under*
 471 *pessimistic scenario (RCP-8.5)*

Localisation	stations	October
PEI	Borden	19
	Baie Plaisance	6
Magdalen Islands	Bassin Havre	20
	Lagune Havre	16
	Lagune Grande	14
	Ile Shag	4

472
 473 The risk assessment was not just limited to one risk indicator. We also compute the
 474 number of days exceeding a threshold of 20 °C. In fact, the increasing water
 475 temperature trend under the pessimistic scenario results in exceedance of the
 476 higher temperatures thresholds (20 °C) associated with higher abundance of *Vibrio*,
 477 in contrast with the optimistic scenario where the water temperature does not
 478 exceed the 20°C threshold. Table 5 presents the stations that would be at high risk
 479 of pathogenic *Vibrio* growth. For the rest of the stations, the number of days
 480 exceeding 20 °C is zero so they have not been included in the table. Table 5 shows
 481 that during 2080-2100 under a pessimistic scenario, the threshold of 20 °C would be

482 exceeded along the coast of the Magdalen Islands , where the blue mussels, clams
 483 and scallops are harvested, the threshold of 20 °C would be exceeded for about 31
 484 days in August against an average of 18 days in September”.

485 The shellfish beds of mussels and scallops in the Gaspé Peninsula could be at the
 486 same degree of risk with about 30 days in August while the shellfish beds of PEI
 487 (mussels, oysters and clams) and North Shore would be under a lower risk with an
 488 average of 16 days.

489 *Table 5. The number of days exceeding the threshold (20 °C) in the horizon (2080-*
 490 *2100) under pessimistic scenario (RCP 8.5)*

491	Localisation	stations	August	September
492	North Shore	Natashquan	17	0
493		Bassin Havre	31	22
494	Magdalen Islands	Lagune Havre	31	16
495		Lagune Grande	31	16
496	Gaspé	Havre Gaspé	30	4
497	PEI	Borden	16	0

499

500 **5 Discussion**

501 By using one or both of the most relevant predictors, air temperature and wind
 502 speed, the results show that the SST prediction performance of ANN and RF were
 503 similar. However, RF requires more predictors than ANN to achieve similar
 504 prediction performance. Thus, we select the ANN for SST prediction and used the

505 mean of climate models projections of air temperature, as input for ANN model,
506 without exploring the variability between the projections.

507 Modelling future water temperature through ANN constitutes a useful tool to
508 predict the plausible future water temperatures in the coastline of the Estuary and
509 GSL where shellfish beds occur. The trend analysis results for daily mean water
510 temperature, using the MMK test, indicates that our study area exhibits a significant
511 increasing trend by 2.5 °C up to 2100 under a pessimistic scenario. This positive
512 trend in water temperature implies a rise in risk indicator of *Vibrio* growth. This
513 result is demonstrated in the interpolation maps between the horizons 2040-2060
514 and 2080-2100. In fact, by comparing the interpolation maps in August for both of
515 the horizons under the pessimistic scenario (RCP8.5), we note an expansion of
516 *Vibrio* growth risk from 64% to 95% of the total coastal area of the Estuary and the
517 Gulf of Saint Lawrence. The risk indicator distribution during July was similar to
518 August so the shellfish beds would be exposed to a similar risk as in August under
519 both scenarios. Whereas, in June the risk of *Vibrio* growth would be less severe than
520 August and July except over the horizon (2080-2100) under pessimistic scenario,
521 where all the shellfish beds on the coasts of North Shore, Gaspé Peninsula, Baie des
522 Chaleurs, Magdalen Islands and PEI would be under high risk of *Vibrio* growth. Their
523 risk indicator could exceed an average of 20 days.

524 The results of risk indicator interpolation in August, suggest that *Vibrio* growth risk
525 may increase under both of pessimistic or optimistic scenario so all the shellfish
526 beds practically (on the coasts of North Shore, Gaspé Peninsula, Baie des Chaleurs,

527 Magdalen Islands and PEI) would be at risk of *Vibrio* growth regardless the scenario.
528 In addition to this spatial spread, the *Vibrio* growth risk would extend seasonally by
529 occurring out of the summer time during September and even October, especially on
530 the coasts of Magdalen Islands and PEI.

531 The lowest temperature threshold for the *Vibrio* growth, based on the literature, is
532 15 °C. Computing the number of days exceeding a higher temperature threshold
533 (20 °C) allowed to locate the shellfish beds that would be at higher risk of *Vibrio*
534 growth, like the Magdalen Islands and PEI.

535 This study focused on surface temperatures (average depth of 1.5 m). Wild molluscs
536 can be found or harvested at this depth, e.g. on the foreshore or near the islands.
537 However, in some cases, molluscs harvesting occurs in deeper water (e.g. oysters).
538 The risk maps produced may be biased, i.e. the risk of *Vibrio* growth may be
539 overestimated, as there may be significant thermal stratification in some coastal
540 sites. Molluscs that are found under the thermocline may not be as much as risks as
541 those in shallow, well mixed areas.

542 In this study, we focused on water temperature as the main factor affecting *Vibrio*
543 growth. However, it should be noted that many studies confirm the importance of
544 salinity in *Vibrio* growth. So, future work on *Vibrio* risk management should
545 concentrate of the combined effects of water temperature and salinity on the
546 proliferation of pathogenic *Vibrio* and use the projections of both variables to better
547 locate the potential risk areas followed by sampling of water and shellfish to
548 confirm the presence of *Vibrio*.

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579

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Journal Pre-proof

The highlights are:

- The statistical modelling (Random forest and Artificial Neural Network) of the coastal water temperature from air temperature and wind speed.
- Future coastal water temperature scenarios were produced under optimistic and pessimistic climate scenarios, using Artificial Neural Network model.
- Maps of the future *Vibrio* growth risk indicator were produced, from the future water temperature scenarios.
- Maps show that the *Vibrio* risk will increase spatially and seasonally regardless the climate change scenario.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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