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1 *Edwardsiella ictaluri*: a systemic review and future perspectives on disease 2 management

- 2 management
- 3 Vimbai Irene Machimbirike^{a,d*}, Margaret Crumlish^b, Ha Thanh Dong^c, Javier Santander^d, Pongsak
- 4 Khunrae^a, Triwit Rattanarojpong^a
- 5 ^aDepartment of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, King Mongkut's University of Technology
- 6 Thonburi (KMUTT), Bangkok, 10140, Thailand
- ⁷ ^bInstitute of Aquaculture, University of Stirling, Stirling, UK
- 8 School of Environment, Resources & Development, Asian Institute of Technology, Pathum
- 9 Thani, 12120, Thailand
- ⁴ Marine Microbial Pathogenesis and Vaccinology Laboratory, Department of Ocean Sciences,
- 11 Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL, Canada

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- 13 *Corresponding author: V. I. Machimbirike
- 14 Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, King Mongkut's University of Technology
- 15 Thonburi (KMUTT), 126 Pracha Uthit Rd, Bang Mot, Thung Khru, Bangkok 10140, Thailand
- 16 Marine Microbial Pathogenesis and Vaccinology Laboratory, Department of Ocean Sciences,
- 17 Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL, Canada
- 18 Tel: +66957745871
- 19 E-mail: <u>vimbai.matafi@kmutt.ac.th</u>/imachimbirik@mun.ca
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- 30 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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53 Abstract

54 Edwardsiella ictaluri, a non-zoonotic Gram-negative bacterium, has been known to science for more than 4 decades. It was reported for the first time in 1979 in Ictalurus punctatus in the USA, 55 56 and later in Pangasianodon hypophthalmus and Pelteobagrus fulvidraco in Asia. Even though 57 catfish species are more susceptible to E. ictaluri, other fish species are also affected, and up to 44 58 fish species in 4 continents are known to be susceptible. The diseases caused by E. ictaluri are 59 known as enteric septicaemia of catfish (ESC) in channel catfish, bacillary necrosis of pangasius 60 (BNP) in striped catfish, red-head disease in yellow catfish and edwardsiellosis in tilapia. 61 Outbreaks caused by E. ictaluri can cause up to 100% mortality resulting in substantive economic losses to the industry, threatening food security and undermining sustainability. Although efforts 62

have been made to prevent and control this pathogen using vaccines, antibiotics, disease resistance selective breeding, functional feed ingredients, prebiotics and probiotics, and biosecurity measures, *E. ictaluri* is still causing health issues in different countries. Here, we provided with a comprehensive review that addressed the current knowledge of *E. ictaluri* bacteriological characteristics, epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnosis, control and management. Furthermore, we also provided the future perspectives based on advanced technologies and biosecurity management in aquaculture to assist pathogen control and/or eradication.

70 Keywords: Edwardsiella ictaluri, fish, pathogenesis, control strategies

71

72 Introduction

73 Aquaculture is an important sector of the food industry, which had a total value of USD 263.6 74 billion in 2018, employs 59.5 million people globally, and provides approximately 17% of the animal protein consumed, as well as essential nutrients such as Omega-3 fatty acids, iodine, 75 vitamin D, trace minerals like iron, calcium, and zinc¹. However, despite the positive contribution 76 77 of aquaculture, it is an intensive farming practice and there are health management issues that impede both economic and socio-economic expansion of the sector ^{2,3}. The primary constraint to 78 the culture of many aquaculture species is the emergence of infectious diseases caused by 79 pathogens such as bacteria, viruses, fungi, and infestations caused by parasites ⁴⁻⁷. The most 80 prevalent bacterial infections in channel, yellow, and striped catfishes are caused by *Edwardsiella* 81 ictaluri followed by Flavobacterium columnare, and Aeromonas hydrophila⁸⁻¹⁰. In tilapia culture, 82 substantial losses are experienced from infections caused by the bacteria Aeromonas spp., 83 *Francisella* spp., *F. columnare*, *Streptococcus agalactiae* and *Streptococcus iniae*¹¹, and recently 84 due to *E. ictaluri* infections ^{12,13}. 85

E. ictaluri is a freshwater fish host generalist pathogen that causes mortalities up to 50% and 100%
in naturally infected tilapia, and yellow and striped catfishes in Asia, respectively ^{10,14-17}. Also, *E. ictaluri* causes losses of up to 50.5% to catfish operations in the USA ¹⁸. A channel catfish study
on the direct impacts of fish diseases carried out in East Mississippi Catfish Industry identified a
total loss of USD \$16.9 million in 2016 ¹⁹. Of the pathogens studied, *E. ictaluri* contributed a loss
of 1.2 million fish and USD 0.7 million farm-gate value ¹⁹. Thus, *E. ictaluri* is an economically
important pathogen in aquaculture and extensive research has been carried out to study the

93 pathogen. Even though there is a lot of literature available related to *E. ictaluri* infections in aquatic 94 animals, a comprehensive updated review could contribute to potential disease control and 95 management. Based on the economic importance of *E. ictaluri* and the need to explore potential 96 ways to manage the pathogen, the present study is conducted to provide a systemic review on 97 current state of knowledge on *E. ictaluri* infections in aquaculture and future perspectives on 98 combating the pathogen.

99 Pathogen discovery, susceptible hosts, geographical distribution, and epidemiology

The first report on the isolation of *E. ictaluri* was by Hawke in 1979²⁰. *E. ictaluri* was identified 100 as the causative agent of enteric septicemia of catfish (ESC), primarily infecting fingerlings of 101 102 channel catfish (Ictalurus punctatus) in the United States of America (USA) aquaculture industry ²⁰. However, it was later discovered that ESC was already present in Arkansas a decade before the 103 first official report using archived samples ²¹. After the initial report in the USA in 1979 in channel 104 105 catfish, E. ictaluri has been identified in several continents, for instance in Asia it is the frequent causative agent of bacillary necrosis of Pangasius (BNP)²² and red-head disease¹⁰ in striped and 106 yellow catfish, respectively. 107

108

E. ictaluri is a fish-host generalist infecting up to 44 fish species, of which 31 species are naturally 109 110 infected and 13 species were experimentally infected as shown in Table 1. A total of seven catfish families have been described to be susceptible to E. ictaluri, including Ictaluridae, Bagridae, 111 Clariidae, Pangasiidae, Ariidae, Siluridae and Plotosidae. For non-catfish species, 10 fish families 112 are susceptible including Plecoglossidae, Sternopygidae, Cyprinidae, Cichlidae, Salmonidae, 113 Moronidae, Anguillidae, Percichthyidae, Balaenopteridae and Pleuronectidae. To date, there are 114 several documented isolations of E. ictaluri in several continents that include North America, 115 Caribbean, Asia, Australia, and Europe with mortalities reaching 100% (Table 1). A timeline of 116 117 *E. ictaluri* isolation in different host species and geographical locations is described in Table 2. Even though up to 44 susceptible fish hosts have been reported, E. ictaluri predominantly affects 118 intensively reared channel catfish and striped catfish in USA and Vietnam^{8,23}, respectively, yellow 119 catfish (*Pelteobagrus fulvidraco*) in China ^{10,24}, and riverine ayu (*Plecoglossus altivelis*) in Japan 120 ²⁵. Most of the available literature on *E. ictaluri* is related to these 4 hosts and only 3 articles 121 describe *E. ictaluri* infections in tilapia culture ^{12,13,26}. 122

123

In the United States, epizootics in channel catfish are mainly experienced during late spring and 124 early fall whereby acute ESC is usually experienced when temperatures are between 22 °C and 28 125 126 °C and chronic ESC usually occur when temperatures are cooler in the range of 18°C-22 °C or above 28 °C ^{27,28}. On the other hand, epizootics in striped catfish and tilapia in Southeast Asia are 127 experienced during the rainy season when temperatures range from 23 to 30 °C where only an 128 acute form is exhibited ^{12,14,15,29}. Studies have shown that the peak mortality of channel catfish 129 from *E. ictaluri* is experienced at 25 °C 30,31 and hypoxia results in increased bacterial load in 130 channel catfish tissues ³². Environmental persistence studies of *E. ictaluri* using specific 131 bacteriophages suggested that E. ictaluri can survive for up to 15 days in pond water and up to 95 132 days in pond sediments, implicating that water and mud could be *E. ictaluri* reservoirs ^{33,34}. *E.* 133 *ictaluri* has also been shown experimentally to produce biofilms on common aquaculture material 134 which might be a reservoir for recurrent epizootics and contributes to disinfectant resistance ³⁵. So 135 far E. ictaluri has not yet been implicated in zoonosis and this might be because E. ictaluri is not 136 capable of growth at 37 °C ³⁶. Nevertheless, *E. ictaluri* was isolated from the mammal minke 137 whale (Balaenoptera acutorostrata) excrement ³⁷. Although E. ictaluri infections can occur 138 139 independently of stressors and still cause high mortalities of up to 77%, stressors such as handling, adverse environmental conditions and stocking density greatly enhance mortalities up to 97% ³⁸⁻ 140 ⁴⁰. A recent epidemiological survey on environmental factors that influence *E. ictaluri* infection in 141 riverine ayu was conducted in Japan over a five-year period. The survey revealed that E. ictaluri 142 143 related mortalities in ayu are exacerbated by adverse environmental conditions that include an increase in diurnal water temperature range (DWTR), high water temperatures, higher than normal 144 air temperatures and lower levels of streamflows ⁴¹. 145

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147 Naturally, E. ictaluri is mainly transmitted horizontally from dead infected catfish to naïve population due to infected fish cannibalization or *E. ictaluri* being shed from dead fish ^{39,42} whereas 148 vertical transmission has not been reported yet ⁴³ although presence of the bacteria in gonads may 149 imply possible vertical transmission ^{44,45}. A high bacterial count was also found in the vicinity of 150 the dying fish which decreased with the removal of the dead fish whilst survivors of an epizootic 151 become carriers and pathogen reservoirs ^{32,46,47}. Contrarily, bacterial shedding into water was not 152 observed for experimentally infected striped catfish ⁴⁸. Fish eating birds such as Great blue heron 153 (Ardea herodias), Double-crested cormorants (Phalacrocorax auritus), Snowy egret (Egretta 154

thula) and Great egret (*Casmerodius albus*) have also been implicated in the spread of *E. ictaluri*between ponds ^{49,50}. *E. ictaluri* can be experimentally transmitted via exposure to pathogen in
water, injection both intramuscular and intraperitoneal, intubation of the intestines and infection
via the nares ^{8,51-54}.

159

160 E. ictaluri general characteristics and genomic composition

E. ictaluri, a Gram-negative Enterobacteriaceae family member, is a pleomorphic rod of varied 161 lengths and widths depending on host ^{13,14,55,56} that is peritrichous and was found to be weakly 162 motile at optimal growth temperature, but non-motile strains were also isolated ^{55,57,58} (Table 2). 163 *E. ictaluri* culture conditions in complex media are optimal temperature between 25-30 °C and pH 164 range of 7.0-7.5⁵⁹, respectively, and it reaches stationary phase in about 48 hours ^{14,55}. Generally, 165 strains of *E. ictaluri* is facultative anaerobic ^{44,60}. In terms of biochemical characteristics, *E. ictaluri* 166 strains isolated from different host species exhibit heterogeneity mainly in striped catfish, sea bass, 167 yellowhead catfish, hybrid catfish and tilapia strains with differences mainly in activities from 168 ornithine decarboxylase, cytochrome oxidase, H₂S production and production of gas and acid 169 from glucose (Table 2) 59,61-63. Serologically, E. ictaluri is heterogenous and has antigenic 170 variations in the O antigens and immunogenic epitopes that are recognized by different isolates 171 ^{58,62,64-67}, however, a serotyping scheme is yet to be developed ⁶⁸. One of the most intriguing aspects 172 of *E. ictaluri* isolates from different hosts is the failure to cross-infect and failure of immunization 173 174 with one E. ictaluri isolate from catfish to cross-protect against heterologous isolates, suggesting high genetic variations within the different isolates and genotypes ^{58,69,70}. All *E. ictaluri* isolates 175

176 from different hosts were generally susceptible to the antibiotics florfenicol, penicillins, 177 quinolones, fluoroquinolones, aminoglycosides, tetracyclines and resistant to macrolides whereas 178 tilapia and striped catfish strains were additionally resistant to sulphonamides 64,71,72 . Intrinsic 179 resistance to cationic antimicrobial peptides (CAMPs) such as colistin and polymyxin B of *E*. 180 *ictaluri* is well documented 71,73 .

181

A total of 11 whole genome sequenced *E. ictaluri* isolates obtained from the USA and Southeast
Asia are publicly available in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI).
Genomes from channel catfish isolates include 93-146 (CP001600.2), MS-17-156 (CP028813.1),
NCTC12122 (UFXT00000000.1), ATCC 33202 (AFJI00000000.1), S97-773

(OBLD00000000.1) and S07-698 (ODAD00000000.1). Only 1 striped catfish isolate genome is 186 available namely T1-1 (CP054060). Two E. ictaluri genomes isolated from zebrafish (Danio 187 188 rerio) isolates are available, including LADL11-100 (LDWX00000000.1) and LADL11-194 (LEAL00000000.1). Two E. ictaluri genomes, isolated from Nile tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) 189 and red hybrid tilapia (Oreochromis spp.), respectively, have been described including RUSVM-190 1 (CP020466.1) and 2234 (CP053781). The E. ictaluri isolates have genomic sizes ranging from 191 3.6 to above 3.9 Mbp, with similar G+C contents (~57%) and between 3,235 to 3,641 protein 192 193 coding sequences.

194

Catfish isolates from the USA and Thailand were found to contain an intervening sequence (IVS) 195 located in helix-45 of the 23S rRNA gene that is absent in E. tarda and can provide a basis for 196 differentiating the two closely related species ⁷⁴. Genetic variation of *E. ictaluri* isolates from 197 diverse hosts have been investigated using fingerprinting based on amplified-fragment length 198 polymorphism (AFLP) analysis, repetitive-sequence-mediated polymerase chain reaction (rep-199 PCR) and phylogenetic analysis using the gyrB gene and have revealed that the species consists of 200 host-based genotypes ^{13,64,75}. E. ictaluri genomes consists of Type I, III, V, and VI secretion 201 systems with variations in Type IV secretion system among genotypes ^{70,76}. Comparative genomics 202 203 studies have shown variation in the O-antigen biosynthesis cluster and type IV secretion system (T4SS) genes between channel catfish and zebrafish isolates ⁷⁰, absence of T4SS-type G genes in 204 Nile tilapia isolate RUSVM-1⁷⁶ and presence of oxidative resistance stress gene (aconitate 205 hydratase B, *acn*B) in a virulent *E. ictaluri* isolated from avu⁷⁷. Genes encoding for surface 206 207 structures such as cell wall, capsule and flagellar biosynthesis were found to be under positive selection which might explain some adaptive traits in the species ⁷⁸. Recently, our research group 208 209 carried out comparative genomics of the 11 E. ictaluri genomes mentioned above and the results 210 revealed that host specificity is brought about by intra-species evolution driven by gene gain and loss driven by prophages and insertion sequences ⁷⁹. 211

212

213 E. ictaluri plasmidome

E. ictaluri genomes contain different number of plasmids. Generally, channel catfish isolates were found to contain between 1 to 3 plasmids, with most of them containing the plasmids pEI1 (4,807

kb) and pEI2 (5,643 kb) ^{64,80,81}. Plasmids pEI1 and pEI2 are involved in virulence as they contain

Type III secretory system genes that are responsible for direct injection of effectors into host cells 217 and invasion⁸². Striped catfish *E. ictaluri* isolates were found to contain 3 different plasmids (~ 218 4.0 kb, 5.7 kb, 10 kb) and yellow catfish contains 2 plasmids (~ 4.1 kb and 5.6 kb)^{24,58,83} whereas 219 E. ictaluri isolated from non-silurids such as zebrafish and tilapia were shown to contain 2 220 plasmids (pEI1 and pEI2 homologs), and a green knife fish isolate had 4 plasmids (3.1, 4.1, 5.7 221 and 6.0 kb) ^{12,64,66}. From the data in the public database, the *E. ictaluri* plasmids have common 222 lengths ranging from 3kb to about 9kb as reported earlier ⁸⁴ with the exception of 2 plasmids pEI-223 MS-17-156-1 and pEI-2234-3 that have lengths above 100kb. Plasmid similarities within a host-224 based genotype as well as differences among genotypes from different hosts were reported, 225 although most of the plasmids carried Type III secretion system proteins except plasmids from 226 zebrafish isolates, whilst a striped catfish isolate contained a unique plasmid ^{58,64,82,84}. Recent 227 studies in comparative genomics revealed that 2 isolates, MS-17-156 from channel catfish (USA) 228 and 2234 from red hybrid tilapia (Vietnam) contain plasmids containing multi-drug resistant genes 229 ⁷⁹. E. ictaluri isolates also contain species specific bacteriophages (qeiAU, qeiDWF, qeiMSLS) 230 that are lytic, showing homogeneity despite isolation temporal and spatial divergence ⁸⁵ as well as 231 a large number of insertion elements and genomic islands ^{76,78}. 232

233 Pathogenesis, pathology, clinical signs of disease and virulence

234 Pathogenesis mechanism of E. ictaluri has been elucidated in channel catfish, striped catfish, and 235 Nile tilapia. Ports of E. ictaluri entry into susceptible hosts include the nares, oral-gastric route, gills and skin (Figure 1A). For ESC in channel catfish, the acute form seems to occur when E. 236 ictaluri infects via the oral-gastric route, likely when channel catfish ingest infected carcasses, 237 contaminated water or food ^{54,86,87}. Upon the bacterial attachment in the intestinal mucosa, 238 intestinal epithelial cells are rapidly invaded, and the bacteria is translocated and systemic 239 disseminated to the liver, spleen, and kidney, likely through infected macrophages ^{52,54,86}. The gills 240 and skin are also primary sites for infection and systemic infection of lymphoid organs ^{88,89}. It 241 seems that chronic infection happens when E. ictaluri infects channel catfish nares, colonizing the 242 brain via the olfactory bulb and olfactory nerve ^{51,52,54}. After colonizing the brain, a systemic 243 infection could occur ⁹⁰. The major clinical sign in channel catfish that appears 2-4 weeks post 244 infection is the classic 'hole in the head' lesion, which is related to cartilaginous skull cap digestion 245 caused by *E. ictaluri* chondroitinase activity ^{54,91}. Experimentally challenged channel catfish were 246 247 shown to have reduced plasma components like erythrocyte, leucocyte counts, plasma glucose

248 levels ⁹². Also, whole-blood components like hematocrit counts and hemoglobin concentration are

reduced after *E. ictaluri* infection, mostly due to hemolysin activity ^{92,93}. It also has been reported

- the *E. ictaluri* persist in the posterior kidney, brain, and blood of surviving infected channel catfish
- 251 fingerlings ⁸⁷, suggesting that some individual might be able to resist the acute infection.
- 252

Interestingly, in striped catfish, experimental immersion challenge with E. ictaluri revealed that 253 254 one of the ports of entry of *E. ictaluri* during pathogenesis are gills ⁴⁸. Another immersion challenge of striped catfish with E. ictaluri showed that the gastrointestinal tract is also a port of 255 bacterial entry into the fish ⁹⁴. Edwardiellosis clinical signs in striped fish is different from channel 256 catfish. Typically, striped fish exhibit external clinical signs such as skin lesions, pale gills and 257 pale colour ^{8,57,94} but the classic 'hole in the head' lesion has not been reported. In experimentally 258 challenged striped catfish, behavioral changes (e.g., gasping for air, lethargy, lack of appetite, 259 erratic swimming) were observed as early as 4 hours post infection (hpi) whereas gross clinical 260 signs were seen 96 hpi ^{39,94,183}. E. ictaluri bacterial cells were notably absent in the brain of BNP 261 experimentally infected striped catfish although the bacteria were found in the other internal organs 262 including head kidney, trunk kidney, liver, spleen, gills, skin and muscle ^{48,94}. Intracellular 263 replication of *E. ictaluri* in macrophages was also elucidated in striped catfish and the pathogen 264 265 could persist in necrotic-participating phagocytic cells and in melano-macrophage centers up to 1 month ^{48,94}. From their findings, Pirarat et al., suggested that *E. ictaluri* damages the endothelial 266 267 cells leading to inflammation of the perivascular sheath and blood vessels and results in tissue hypoxia and necrosis ⁴⁸. 268

269

Although E. ictaluri infection has been reported in tilapia, there are no reports of behavioral change 270 271 or external clinical signs, but increased fish morbidity and mortality was reported ^{12,13}. Pathogenesis of *E. ictaluri* in tilapia was investigated by Soto et al., in 2013²⁶. As reported earlier, 272 the port of entry of E. ictaluri for colonization into Nile tilapia is via the oral-gastric route and 273 cutaneous routes. The bacteria are then disseminated hematogenously to organs such as gills, 274 275 brain, head kidney, heart, and spleen. The spleen and head kidney are the main targets of infection 276 and bacterial survival as shown by presence of high bacterial DNA levels and presence of clumps of rod-shaped bacteria in the organs ^{12,26}. Bacterial systemic dissemination is facilitated by antigen-277 presenting cells like macrophages ²⁶. 278

279

Channel catfish and striped catfish suffering from E. ictaluri infection have been reported to 280 281 display behavioral changes. Infected catfishes show erratic rapid circular swimming and spinning caused by meningoencephalitis as well as lethargy, listless up-side down hanging or slow 282 swimming near pond edge ^{20,23,57,95}. E. ictaluri infected fish such as catfishes (channel, striped and 283 yellow) and ayu, exhibit external gross clinical signs like skin haemorrhage and ulceration, 284 distended abdomen, discoloration, reddened anus, exophthalmos and meningio-encephalitis (red 285 head) (Figure 2) ^{96,23,24,57}. The general internal clinical signs reported in the susceptible hosts that 286 include catfishes and tilapia and ayu are white nodules granulomas, abdomen ascites, pale gills, 287 enlarged gallbladder, reddened gonads and enlarged and haemorrhagic posterior kidney (Figure 3) 288 ^{12,23,39,96}. Both channel catfish and yellow catfish display classic 'hole in the head' lesion whilst 289 yellow catfish additionally display the 'hole-under-the-jaw' lesion ^{24,97}. Histopathological 290 examinations in most susceptible hosts revealed similar results such as granulomatous 291 inflammatory reactions, necrosis, haemorrhage, pyknosis and karyorrhexis in internal organs, 292 epithelial lining hyperplasia in gills and observation of clumps of rod shaped bacteria in tissues 293 (Figure 4) ^{12,39,96,98}. Electron transmission microscopy also revealed the intracellular localisation 294 295 of *E. ictaluri* in macrophage in infected zebrafish zebrafish head kidney tissue (Figure 5).

296

297 The molecular mechanisms of E. ictaluri pathogenesis were described in channel catfish and 298 zebrafish using epithelial cells, phagocytic cells and macrophages and a graphical illustration is shown in Figure 1B. Pathogen attachment is facilitated by the recognition of *E. ictaluri* by host 299 cell receptors e.g. Toll-like receptor 5 (TLR5) and (NOD)-like receptor subfamily C (NLRC) 99 300 and the help of *E. ictaluri* proteins Hcp2¹⁰⁰, EseI and EseH¹⁰¹. For invasion, the plasmid encoded 301 protein, EseI plays a role ¹⁰¹, and *E. ictaluri* enters into the target cells using Ca²⁺-dependent 302 receptor-mediated endocytosis and macropinocytosis ^{102,103}. Endocytosis of *E. ictaluri* into the 303 epithelial cells is enabled when the polymerization of actin, manipulation of myosin components 304 and apical junction complex (AJC) components are dysregulated ^{99,102,103}. This facilitates entry of 305 306 the bacteria enclosed in an Edwardsiella-containing-vacuole (ECV) thereby protecting the bacteria from lysosomal degradation ⁹⁹. The ECV is acidified immediately by host cell vacuolar ATPases 307 ¹⁰⁴. Consequently, intracellular survival of *E. ictaluri* is enabled by the upregulated expression of 308 T3SS by the two-component regulatory proteins EsrA and EsrB¹⁰⁵ and the activity of the Type VI 309

Secretion System (T6SS) effector, Hcp2¹⁰⁰. Also, using urea that would have been produced by 310 arginase enzyme from the host cell, the *E. ictaluri* acid-activated urease produces ammonia, which 311 312 neutralizes the ECV acidic environment to a pH level (>pH 5.0). This creates an environment conducive for E. ictaluri replication and translocation of T3SS effectors (EseGHIJKLMNO) 313 directly into the host cytoplasm ^{106,107}. These T3SS effectors interact with target host proteins to 314 disrupt host defense mechanisms ^{105,106}. Conducive pH is then maintained by the prevention of 315 phagosomal/lysosomal fusion, nutrients for bacterial growth and ECV enrichment are supplied by 316 the Golgi and programmed cell death is suppressed ¹⁰⁸. Lysosomal acid hydrolases and reactive 317 oxygen species production is downregulated by the T6SS effector, EvpP, indicating exploitation 318 of the endosomal machinery thereby enabling intra-phagosome survival ^{99,100}. Lastly, 319 inflammatory and immune responses are modulated with the putative aid of the EseN protein, for 320 321 disease progression and then genes responsible for endocrine and growth are downregulated which may contribute to faltering growth ⁹⁹. It was also shown that *E. ictaluri* replicates intracellularly 322 in macrophages 109 and can survive in fish organs up 65 days post infection 45 . 323

324

325 Virulence and pathogenesis of *E. ictaluri* is facilitated by type III, IV and VI secretion systems that enable intracellular replication and survival in channel catfish ^{76,106,110-112}. Several 326 327 investigations also demonstrate that E. ictaluri employs lipopolysaccharide (LPS), extracellular capsular polysaccharide, outer membrane proteins, adhesins and fibrillar processes for attachment 328 to and survival in macrophages and host cells ¹¹³⁻¹¹⁶. E. ictaluri requires flagella for motility ¹¹⁷, 329 oligo-polysaccharide (O-PS) for modulation of host immune responses ¹¹⁸ as well as hemolysins 330 and chondroitinase whose activities were mentioned earlier ^{91,93}. Pathogenesis of *E. ictaluri* is 331 regulated by a number of mechanisms. Intracellular multiplication of E. ictaluri requires iron 332 333 uptake and heme synthesis systems both under the regulation of the ferric uptake regulator (Fur) ¹¹⁹. TonB is an important virulent factor that is required by *E. ictaluri* for TonB-mediated active 334 transport of nutrients, especially iron, which is critical for survival of pathogenic bacteria during 335 infection ¹²⁰. Urease activity is required for intracellular virulence and proliferation and is 336 337 facilitated by pH increase due to production of ammonia. This probably neutralizes the acidic phagosome environment 104,107. Pathogenesis of *E. ictaluri* is also promoted by stress-related genes 338 that also enable survival of the pathogen in phagolysosomal conditions that are harsh ¹²¹. Two 339

component regulatory system RstA/B and putative regulatory ribonuclease were shown to be
 important for regulation of invasion and adhesion, respectively ¹¹⁴.

342

343 Immune response to *E. ictaluri* experimental infections in catfish

Immune responses to E. ictaluri infections have only been documented in catfishes. An earlier 344 review on the immune response of channel catfish to E. ictaluri infections stated that E. ictaluri 345 triggers innate immune response, specific antibody-based humoral response and cell-mediated 346 immunity ¹²². Also, transcriptome analysis of differentially expressed immune response genes 347 induced by E. ictaluri infections in channel catfish was carried out by numerous investigators and 348 these are listed in a review by Zhou et al. 123 . On top of inducing immune responses in catfish, E. 349 ictaluri was found to also increase alternative splicing of catfish genes. This facilitates the 350 351 regulation of host gene expression with a subsequent increase in proteomic complexity, resulting in enhanced immune regulatory networks ¹²⁴. 352

353

Numerous molecules related to the innate immune response of catfish infected with E. ictaluri 354 were reported and are described in a review by Gao et., al ¹²⁵. E. ictaluri-infected channel catfish 355 initially undergoes rapid physiological and metabolic responses known as acute phase response 356 357 (APR) in the liver triggered by recognition of pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) by Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs)¹²⁶. These PRRs include Toll-like receptors such as TLR3, 358 TLR5 and TLR21, that recognise flagellin, and LPS as well as activate systemic immunity ¹²⁷⁻¹³¹. 359 The other PRRs involved in *E. ictaluri* infection are Peptidoglycan recognition proteins (PGRPs) 360 361 that recognize bacterial cell wall and function in direct bacterial killing, and multiple signalling pathways regulation ¹³². NOD-like receptors (NLRs) and retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I)-362 363 like receptors (RLRs) were also identified which play a role in the recognition of cytosolic microbial components and trigger inflammatory responses ^{133,134}. Galectins that recognize surface 364 exposed glycans and play key roles in inflammatory responses and apoptosis were also identified 365 in channel catfish after E. ictaluri exposure ¹³⁵. 366

367

368 Innate immune response molecules involved in antigen degradation that were found in *E. ictaluri*-

369 infected channel catfish were antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) ¹³⁶⁻¹⁴⁰, cathepsins ^{141,142}, Lysozymes

¹⁴³, nitric oxide (NOS) ¹⁴⁴, myeloperoxidase ¹⁴⁵ and FOXO proteins that regulate the expression of

antimicrobial peptides ¹⁴⁶. The proteins phosphoinositide-3-kinase (PI3Ks) ¹⁴⁷, transferrin, an acute response protein responsible for iron storage ¹⁴⁸ and expression of tumour suppressor genes like PTEN that can induce elevated cytokines production in response to TLR agonists ¹⁴⁹ were also upregulated in channel catfish in response to *E. ictaluri* infection. Phagocytosis of *E. ictaluri* can be enhanced by increased monocytes and neutrophils ¹⁵⁰, septins ³⁵ and lectins ¹⁵¹ while the alternative complement pathway plays a role in bacterial opsonophagocytosis ¹⁵².

377

Complement related genes such as C1r, C3, C5, C7, C9, and C1-INH were identified in E. ictaluri-378 infected darkbarbel catfish (Pelteobagrus vachelli) and are essential for linking innate to adaptive 379 immune responses ¹⁵³. Immune regulators such as chemokines, cytokines in channel catfish and 380 Cyclophilin A (CypA) in yellow catfish also play a role in inflammatory response and bridging 381 innate to adaptive immunity after E. ictaluri infections ^{150,154,155-158} with the mediation of Janus 382 kinase/signal transducers and activators of transcription (JAK/STAT) signalling pathway proteins 383 ¹⁵⁹. Other innate immune response molecules produced channel catfish in response to *E. ictaluri* 384 infection are annexins ¹⁶⁰, Intelectins (IntL2) which probably plays an immune response 385 downstream role ¹⁶¹ and apolipoproteins that modulates inflammatory response to LPS ¹⁶². E. 386 ictaluri infected channel catfish also mounts antioxidant defense mechanisms using stress response 387 proteins like calreticulin and Hsp70^{163,164}. 388

389

Channel catfish infected with E. ictaluri are able to mount protective T and B cell-dependent 390 adaptive immunity ^{165,166}. IgM antibody is produced as humoral response to *E. ictaluri* in channel 391 catfish ¹²². Cell-mediated immune response was evidenced in resistant channel catfish family 392 whereby macrophages formed aggregations in the posterior kidney and spleen ^{165,167}. On the other 393 394 hand, channel catfish before 4 weeks old failed to mount a detectable immune response, even after 395 two exposures to the pathogen, probably due to poorly differentiated primary lymphoid organs and tissues ¹⁶⁸. Leukocyte immune-type receptors (LITRs) were also found to play a role in cell-396 mediated immunity of channel catfish ¹⁶⁹. Catfish also utilize the major histocompatibility complex 397 398 (MHC) class I as a cell-mediated defense mechanism against E. ictaluri in resistant blue catfish. 399 In a study by Peatman et al. two different MHC class I alpha chains and beta-2-microglobulin $(\beta_2 m)$ were significantly upregulated in the *E. ictaluri* resistant blue catfish 3 days post *E. ictaluri* 400 infection but not in channel catfish ¹⁷⁰. Moreover, Recombination-activating gene 2 (rag 2) was 401

detected in high quantities in the thymus and head-kidney of yellow catfish indicating a role in
diversification of B and T cells via V(D)J (variable/diversity/joining) recombination ¹⁷¹. Also, coupregulation with pro-inflammatory cytokines implicated Rag 2 involvement in yellow catfish
immune responses ¹⁷¹.

406

407 **Disease diagnosis**

Laboratory diagnosis of diseases caused by E. ictaluri is typically by first isolating the bacterium 408 from the internal organs or brain tissue on culture media. Commonly used media include tryptic 409 soy agar (TSA) or brain heart infusion (BHI) agar supplemented with 5% blood and selective 410 morphology differentiating medium (E. ictaluri medium, EIM), that is inhibitive of most Gram-411 negative and Gram-positive bacteria ^{23,172}. A defined minimal medium was formulated that 412 contains only 8 essential components instead of 46 and can sustain growth of E. ictaluri ¹⁷³. 413 Subsequently, bacterial isolation is usually followed by biochemical tests using kits like Crystal[™] 414 or the API 20E ⁹⁷ which distinguishes between *E. ictaluri* and *E. tarda*. Histopathology is then 415 employed to diagnose based on microscopic cellular analysis ^{90,95,98}. Invasive techniques for 416 417 identifying bacterial location in host tissues include in situ hybridization, immunohistochemistry and radioisotope labeling ^{15,114,89,48}. In vivo bioluminescence imaging (BLI) was introduced by 418 Karsi et al.,¹⁷⁴ for non-invasive identification of bacterial in host tissues. Identification of E. 419 ictaluri was also carried out using MALDI-TOF (matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time-420 of-flight mass spectrometer) ^{175,176}. 421

422

423 Confirmatory tests performed in identification of the bacterium are necessary for diagnosis of diseases caused by *E. ictaluri* and these include serology tests and molecular detection ¹⁷⁷. 424 425 Serology tests used to confirm E. ictaluri infection include enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) such as a FAST-ELISA that rapidly detected antibodies to *E. ictaluri* exoantigen ¹⁷⁸; 426 indirect ELISA using rabbit anti-catfish immunoglobulin and mouse anti-catfish immunoglobulin 427 ^{179,180}; and modified ELISA using detergent coupled with filtration ¹⁸¹. Enzyme immunoassay 428 (EIA) to detect *E. ictaluri* in decomposing fish samples ¹⁸² and indirect fluorescent antibody 429 technique (IFA) using either highly specific monoclonal antibodies ¹⁸³ or antibody conjugated 430 fluorochromes ¹⁸⁴ were also employed. For detection of *E. ictaluri* in yellow catfish, a dot-enzyme 431 linked immunosorbent assay (Dot-ELISA) and an indirect fluorescence antibody technique (IFAT) 432

with high specificity and sensitivity were designed ¹⁰. Additional serology tests used in *E. ictaluri*diagnosis are passive hemagglutination, bacterial agglutination, microagglutination, complementdependent passive hemolysis, agar gel immunodiffusion and indirect immunofluorescence ^{185,186}.

The other confirmatory tests are based on molecular detection using Polymerase chain reaction 437 (PCR). Generally, E. ictaluri was confirmed as the causative agent using amplification and 438 sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene and the gyrB gene ^{12,187,188}, E. ictaluri-specific PCR targeting 439 upstream region of fimbrial gene ¹⁸⁹ and IVS /IRS PCR assay method using primers targeting 440 regions between the ribosomal DNA gene clusters, inter-ribosomal spacer (IRS) and 23S rRNA 441 gene intervening sequence (IVS) ¹⁹⁰. Rapid PCR and a real-time PCR assay which could detect 442 low levels of *E. ictaluri* in water, were also developed ^{188,191}. The molecular diagnostic loop-443 444 mediated isothermal amplification method (LAMP) which recognizes the *eip*18 gene was also used for E. ictaluri confirmation ¹⁹². Application of OmniAmp DNA polymerase (Pol) in LAMP using 445 lateral flow strips to detect E. ictaluri amplification was demonstrated as sensitive, rapid, and easy-446 to-use point-of-care (POC) method ¹⁹³. Recently, high-gradient immunomagnetic separation 447 448 (HGIMS) coupled with PCR was also evaluated as a diagnostic tool with a higher detection sensitivity when compared with conventional PCR¹⁹⁴. 449

450

451 **Disease management and limitations**

452 Of importance to note is the fact that despite extensive research on E. ictaluri in aquaculture for a period spanning over 4 decades, the pathogen continues to be problematic in spite of efforts to 453 454 prevent outbreaks. The widely adopted treatment strategies of ESC in channel catfish aquaculture include restricted feeding, administration of medicated feed and water chemical treatment ^{97,195}. 455 456 However, the pitfalls of restricted feeding that can lead to production loss are that growth of fish can be reduced and careful monitoring of the water temperature is required ⁹⁷. Approved antibiotics 457 for treatment of E. ictaluri infections are Romet ® (a 5:1 mixture of sulfadimethoxine and 458 ormetoprim) and Aquaflor® (florfenicol) in the USA, enrofloxacin and florfenicol in Vietnam and 459 doxycycline (DC) in China (Table 3) 29,196-199. The constraints of using feed medicated with 460 461 antibiotics are that the cost of antibiotics can be prohibitive to small scale farmers, also, there is emergence of antimicrobial resistant strains and the inefficient drug delivery via medicated feed 462 because of loss of appetite in sick fish ^{29,200-202}. On the other hand, prevention of *E. ictaluri* 463

infection can be aided by avoiding stress in fish, use of chemicals, winter overfeeding, production of disease resistant hybrids and use of specific pathogen free (SPF) fish 40,97,203,204 . The limitation of stocking SPF fish in ponds where they can encounter *E. ictaluri* carriers is that very high mortalities occur in the naïve SPF fish therefore it is preferable to stock survivors from a previous outbreak that would have acquired immunity 97 .

469

470 Vaccine formulations have been made using either bacterins or attenuated bacteria (Table 3). The early bacterin vaccines that were developed for the channel catfish reported high relative percent 471 survival (RPS) values more than 90% under experimental laboratory trials but varying 472 effectiveness under field conditions and did not provide long term acquired immunity ^{205,206}. The 473 formalin killed vaccine also failed to protect the fish unless administered in Freund's complete 474 adjuvant (FCA)²⁰⁷, probably due to failure of killed *E. ictaluri* to invade the fish⁸⁹. For striped 475 catfish, two commercial inactivated vaccines, Alpha ject Panga 1 and Alpha Ject Panga 2 were 476 licensed in Vietnam for prevention of BNP ²⁰⁸. Alpha ject Panga 1 and 2 vaccines have reported 477 high efficacy, where the mortalities of vaccinated striped catfish were reduced to $0-4.7\%^{209}$. There 478 479 are two patented attenuated vaccines available in the USA namely live attenuated E. ictaluri bacterium lacking the evpB gene (patent number US20170065695A1)²¹⁰ and AQUAVAC-ESC® 480 481 (US Patent no. 6,019,981) that was attenuated by multiple passages in increased concentrations of rifampicin resulting in a mutant that is missing part of the O-lipopolysaccharide ²¹¹. Other attempts 482 483 at producing high efficacy live attenuated vaccines (Relative percent survival, RPS \geq 66%) for both channel and striped catfish included the construction of E. ictaluri mutants of wzzE, purA, 484 *fhuC*, *aroA*, *crp* and *asdA* genes and a novobiocin attenuated *E*. *ictaluri* ^{200,212-217}. Another vaccine 485 approach was the use of *E. ictaluri* bacterial ghosts (EIGs), generated by introduction of a plasmid 486 that encodes the phage PhiX174 lysis gene E, that had an RPS of 89.3% in channel catfish 218 . 487 488 Limited studies on subunit-based vaccines development and their efficacy against E. ictaluri have been carried out. Attempts to produce a subunit vaccines with promising results (RPS 62.5-95%) 489 have been made using the *E. ictaluri* lipopolysaccharide in Freund's complete adjuvant ²⁰⁷ and *E.* 490 ictaluri outer membrane proteins (OMPN1-3)²¹⁹, while five different *E. ictaluri* proteins including 491 hypothetical protein (yggE), specific inhibitor of chromosomal initiation of replication (iciA), 492 ribose 5-phosphate isomerase (rpiA) and fructose 1,6-bisphosphate aldolase (fda) ²²⁰ provided 493 inclusive results. We recently constructed a multi-epitope chimeric subunit vaccine (EiCh) that 494

provided partial protection in Nile tilapia with an RPS of 42% 221 Economic assessment of vaccination in catfish aquaculture in the US depicted that the practice could result in significant profits for the farmer around \$71,758 to \$133,887/400-ha per farm 222 . However, efficacy of the *E. ictaluri* vaccines under field conditions has not been entirely elucidated due to prohibitive costs and varied field efficacies with 41.9% of farmers the farmers reporting improved survival rates after vaccination and 37.5% of the farmers being unsure of vaccination efficacy thus posing a limitation in vaccine use 123,223 .

502

Selective-breeding programs that have been implemented for resistance against E. ictaluri 503 infections in aquaculture include a genetically improved channel catfish strain (NWAC103) that 504 is a non-transgenically purebred produced after breeding fish with desired traits whereby the traits 505 were identified using microsatellite loci identification method and DNA fingerprinting ²²⁴. Also, 506 selective genotyping and genome-wide association studies (GWAS) identified a microsatellite and 507 quantitative trait locus (QTL) using interspecific backcross progenies, respectively, that confer E. 508 *ictaluri* resistance in channel catfish ^{123,225,226} implying applicability of marker-assisted selection 509 510 for disease resistance selective breeding. Although genetic selection was shown to enhance resistance against *E. ictaluri*²²⁴, the method can also result in the genetically improved channel 511 catfish strain being more susceptible to other pathogens (e.g., ictalurid herpesvirus, CCV)⁹⁷. 512

513

514 Dietary supplements such as vitamins, minerals, nutrients and glycans have been proven experimentally to enhance immune response of channel catfish but did not conclusively alter 515 susceptibility to *E. ictaluri* infections ^{97,227-230}. In fact, Menhaden oil supplemented alone in fish 516 feed was reported to increase susceptibility of catfish to ESC infection 231 . On the other hand, β -517 518 glucan enhanced protection of striped catfish from E. ictaluri infection ²³². The studies on the 519 application of probiotics for growth enhancement and ESC resistance indicated that commercial probiotics supplemented in feed could neither enhance growth nor protect juvenile catfish ²³³. 520 however, Vibrio parahaemolvticus and E. coli could protect zebrafish larvae ²³⁴ and Bacillus 521 pumilus inhibited E. ictaluri in striped catfish ²³⁵. Studies of effects of commercial prebiotics 522 523 (mannan oligosaccharide, MOS) in channel catfish were encouraging as there was a significant increase in survival rate ²³⁶. Essential oils in prevention of *E. ictaluri* infections also proved 524 efficacious ²³⁷. 525

526

527 FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

528 Urgent need for more *E. ictaluri* sequenced genomes

Despite the knowledge that E. ictaluri has been isolated from 44 diverse hosts, only 11 sequenced 529 genomes exist in public database. From literature, we already know that the species is composed 530 of host specific genotypes and members of the species are biochemically, antigenic, and 531 serological heterogenous ^{62,64,67,79}. This implies genomic variations among the isolates and a deeper 532 understanding can only be achieved by sequencing more host specific isolates and conducting 533 comparative genomic studies. Most of the groundwork in aquaculture disease studies are being 534 accomplished with whole genome sequencing and comparative genomics. This provides valuable 535 information on host-pathogen relationships, pathogen evolution, niche adaptation and 536 pathogenicity ²³⁸⁻²⁴³. Also, potential universal vaccine candidates and drug targets towards 537 different genotypes can be developed using reverse vaccinology based on identified antigenic 538 proteins ²⁴⁴. 539

540

541 Grassroot capacity building

The primary tool in combating spread of *E. ictaluri* that need to be implemented sooner rather than 542 543 later is capacity building at grassroot level of mainly the farmers as well as technical personnel. These key players should be educated in proactive programs like awareness on E. ictaluri 544 545 infections in aquaculture, good aquaculture practices, preventative measures, and management of fish health. Also, they should be educated in reactive strategies like remedial action, timeous 546 reporting in epizootics and performing simple diagnostic procedures ²⁴⁵. Since training is usually 547 548 costly, the participation at government and international level is greatly anticipated to help fund such programs ²⁴⁶. To address the need for timeous pathogen identification, early forecast of 549 550 disease outbreak and disease diagnosis, the concept of point-of-care (POC) methods was suggested whereby simple diagnostic methods can be carried out at farm-level using portable devices like 551 real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) device, MinIon devices for DNA/RNA sequencing 552 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, UK) and lateral flow strips ^{193,247}. These approaches can 553 554 facilitate bio-surveillance but however, need to be coupled with remedial strategies for effective 555 and efficient control of E. ictaluri.

556

557 **Biosecurity Measures**

Movement of live fish for aquaculture usually contributes to movement of pathogens. 558 559 Transboundary importation of E. ictaluri was implicated in Trinidad and Tobago and Australia where outbreaks occurred during quarantine of imported fish ^{57,248}. This calls to attention the need 560 for policy makers to enforce stricter biosecurity at national and local levels. The biosecurity 561 562 measures should include disease surveillance using rapid, highly accurate diagnostic tools and selfquarantine in closed system for imported animals at farm level. This will assist in preventing 563 pathogen spread and development of control strategies ²⁴⁹. Moreover, it will be beneficial to use 564 genetically modified fish for E. ictaluri resistance coupled with strict biosecurity at the farms to 565 prevent and contain epizootics ²⁴⁷. It is imperative to perform Import risk analysis (IRA) including 566 passive and active surveillance both for wild and farmed fish to prevent pathogen spread to new 567 hosts and geographical locations ²⁵⁰. 568

569

570 Alternatives to antibiotic and chemical use

On top of the antibiotic alternatives already researched against E. ictaluri mentioned above such 571 572 as vaccines, prebiotics, probiotics, essential oils and feed supplements, there are yet other therapies that remain unexplored. These include use of bacteria capable of disrupting quorum sensing 573 molecules and phage therapy ²⁵¹. In aquaculture, bacteria such as *Bacillus, Halobacillus salinus* 574 and Actinobacteria Streptomyces albus have been identified as biocontrol agents due to their 575 576 ability to quench pathogen quorum sensing system for bacteria like Vibrio sp. and Aeromonas hydrophila thereby increasing fish survival after challenge ²⁵¹. Quorum sensing therapy can be 577 578 enhanced by using Biofloc technology whereby extra carbon is added to pond water resulting in improved growth of biocontrol agents in situ²⁵². Bacteriophages are known for their therapeutic 579 580 properties by inhibiting pathogens in single doses without reported side effects ²⁵³. For the control and inhibition of E. ictaluri using phage therapy, a patent exists of 2 bacteriophages, $\Phi eiAU$ and 581 ΦeiDWF ²⁵⁴ but extensive use and efficacy is still to be reported Hence, these alternative to 582 antibiotics therapies can help in the control of *E. ictaluri* to curb antimicrobial resistance (AMR). 583 584

585 An emerging ozone nanobubble technology has been reported to be effective in reducing pathogen 586 concentration in water and its safety in marine and aquaculture species was also exhibited. This 587 technique entails injection of ozone created nanobubbles (NB-O₃) into water with various salinity

and results in up to 99.27 % concentration reduction of pathogen such as *Streptococcus agalactiae* 588 or Aeromonas veronii after 3 treatments of fish-cultured water ²⁵⁵. Safety was established for Nile 589 590 tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus), sea urchins (Strongylocentrotus intermedius) and sea cucumbers (Apostichopus japonicas)^{255,256}. Ozone nanobubble treatment also modulates the fish immune 591 system to fight infection more effectively ²⁵⁷. Application of ozone nanobubble technology in 592 disinfection against E. ictaluri might be a feasible approach that could contribute to reducing 593 chemical disinfectants and antibiotics use thereby reducing AMR and negative impact to the 594 environment. 595

596

597 Application of genomics in disease control

Improved disease resistance in aquaculture production has been greatly enhanced by application 598 599 of genome-based biotechnologies which can also help in managing and controlling E. ictaluri infections. Metagenomic analysis have been employed to study microbiomes to monitor fish health 600 indices, aquatic environments safety and susceptibility of skin invasion by microbes ²⁵⁸. By 601 applying whole genome sequencing coupled with *in vivo* induced antigen technology (IVIAT) and 602 603 tandem mass tag (TMT) labelling-based quantitative proteomics, immunogenic proteins have been identified for vaccine production ^{259,260}. The other important application of genomics to *E. ictaluri* 604 605 control would be the editing of host species genomes by manipulating disease-resistance genes with techniques such as zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs), clustered regularly interspaced short 606 607 palindromic repeats (CRISPRs)-CRISPR-associated protein 9 (Cas9) and transcription activatorlike effector nucleases (TALENs)²⁶¹. Most of these techniques have already been applied to 608 609 channel catfish but application on other susceptible hosts and investigations of the consequences 610 from the induced mutations are yet to be carried out.

611

612 Selective breeding for disease resistant traits

Although a number of trials in selective breeding and even a patented selectively bred strain of channel catfish strain (NWAC103) was reported, there are technological advances that has been made that can be applied not only to channel catfish but to all susceptible hosts. One such advance is Genomic Selection (GS) whereby genomic estimated breeding values (GEBV) are calculated based on marker-assisted selection such as single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) using a genotyped and phenotyped 'training population' that will provide the next generation parents with

desirable traits such as disease resistance ²⁶². Furthermore, the introgression technique can be 619 applied to introduce and transfer disease resistance genes to a population through backcrossing 620 621 and marker-assisted selection repeatedly ²⁶³. The technique has been applied in Rainbow trout (Onchorhynchus mykiss) for inferring resistance against bacterial cold water disease (BCWD)²⁶⁴, 622 and columnaris resistance in channel catfish ²⁶⁵. Control of *E. ictaluri* can also be achieved by 623 identification of E. ictaluri resistance traits in host species and production of specific pathogen 624 resistant (SPR) fish species. SPR is a qualitative trait where the fish is resistance to a particular 625 pathogen ²⁶⁶ and in aquaculture the application of SPR species has been implimented in shrimp 626 culture where in the USA, commercial SPR Litopenaeus vannamei with resistance to Taura 627 syndrome virus (TSV) are available 267 . 628

629

630 **Trained Innate Immunity**

It is crucial to stimulate protective immunity in fish before they reach the susceptible stages mainly 631 fry, fingerlings and juvenile stages (Table 1). The stimulation of defenses of the innate immunity 632 resulting in enhanced non-specific resistance against pathogens is what is termed trained innate 633 634 immunity and can be transferred vertically from brood stock or used to prime fish at the larval stage ²⁶⁸. The innate immune cells e.g., macrophages, natural killer cells and monocytes undergo 635 636 epigenetic reprogramming when they encounter a pathogen thereby acquiring immunological memory resulting in enhanced clearance of the pathogen upon a subsequent encounter ²⁶⁹. Pattern 637 638 recognition receptors (Toll-like receptors, C-type lectin receptors, RIG-1-like receptors, NOD-like receptors (NLRs) and scavenger receptors) are stimulated by ligands such as flagellin, ß-glucan, 639 640 CpG containing oligodeoxynucleotides and muramyl dipeptide resulting in trained innate immunity ²⁶⁸. Evidence of trained innate immunity of fish by administration of ß-glucan was 641 reviewed by Petit & Wiegertjes²⁷⁰ and when channel catfish were injected with ß-glucans, 642 phagocytic and bactericidal abilities were enhanced as well as reduced mortality ²⁷¹. This evidence 643 proves the potential of priming the trained innate immunity of fish especially catfish to fight 644 against E. ictaluri. 645

646

647 Concluding remarks

Despite efforts that have been made to control or manage infections, new susceptible hosts andevidence of spread in new geographical locations keep on being reported. Research on this

pathogen is lacking in areas that include available whole genomes, serotyping scheme and bio-650 surveillance programmes, universal vaccines against all genotypes and selective breeding for 651 652 resistant host species. It is important to prioritise research on whole genome sequencing of all genotypes from all host species as this will enable a deeper understanding of the pathogen which 653 is instrumental in understanding host-pathogen interactions, bacterial evolution vaccine 654 development via reverse vaccinology. Implementation of increased biosecurity measures, use of 655 genetically modified and selective bred fish species can help avoid spread of the E. ictaluri into 656 new territories and facilitate pathogen management and control. To counter antimicrobial 657 resistance, there is need for new alternative to antibiotics through the use biocontrol agents and 658 technologies such as Biofloc technology and ozone nanobubble. This review provided 659 comprehensive current knowledge of *E. ictaluri* infection in aquatic animals with special reference 660 661 to aquaculture susceptible hosts and future perspective on disease management.

662

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Host family	Host species	Geographical location	Occurrence	Affected fish stage	Mortality	Reference	
	Ictalurus punctatus	USA	Natural infection	fingerling	100% (experimental challenge)	20	
	Ictalurus furcatus	USA	Experimental infection	fingerling	0.7% (natural infection)	272	
Ictaluridae	Ameiurus catus	USA	Natural infection	Information not available	Information not available	55	
	Amieurus nebulosus	USA	Natural infection	mixed sizes	35 to 40% (natural infection)	61	
	Noturus gyrinus	USA	Natural infection	juvenile	Not reported	273	
Bagridae	Pelteobagrus fulvidraco	China	Natural infection	Juvenile-adult	50% (natural infection)	16	
C	Pelteobagrus nudiceps	Japan	Natural subclinical infections	Not specified	100% (experimental challenge)	33	
	Pelteobagrus vachelli	China	Experimental infection	Juvenile	26-62% (natural infection)	153	
	Tachysurus tokiensis	Japan	Experimental infection	Juveniles	100% (natural infection)	274	
	Clarias batrachus	Thailand	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	275	
Clariidae	<i>Clarias</i> Thailand <i>macrocephalus x Clarias gariepinus</i>		Natural infection	Not specified	100% (experimental challenge)	276	
	Pangasianodon hypophthalmus	Thailand	Natural concurrent infection	juvenile	80% (experimental challenge)	15	
	Pangasianodon hypophthalmus	West Indies	Natural infection	juvenile	approximately 2000 animals	57	
Pangasiidae	Pangasius hypophthalmus Vietnam (Sauvage)		Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	22	
	Pangasius hypophthalmus (Sauvage)	Indonesia	Natural infection	fingerlings and immature fish	50 to 100% (natural infection)	17	
	Pangasius pangasius	Indonesia	Natural infection	Young adults	95% (natural infection)	277	
Plecoglossidae	Plecoglossus altivelis	Japan	Natural infection and experimental	Fingerlings-adult	100% (experimental challenge)	25	
	Silurus asotus	Japan	Experimental infection	fingerlings, juveniles	100% (natural infection)	33	
Siluridae	Silurus soldatovi meridionalis	China	Natural infection	Juveniles	60% (natural infection)	187	
	Silurus glanis	USA	Experimental infection	Juveniles	80% (natural infection)	278	
	Ompok bimaculatus	Thailand	Experimental infection	Fingerlings	2.5%-100% (natural infection)	279	
	Anodontiglanis dahli	Australia	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	248	
Plotosidae	Neosilurus ater	Australia	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	248	
	Tandanus tropicanus	Australia	Natural infections	Not specified	Not reported	175	
Ariidae	Neoarius berneyi	Australia	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	248	
Sternopygidae	Eigenmannia virescens	USA	Information not available	Information not available	Information not available	55,280	

1562 Table 1. *E. ictaluri* hosts, distribution, and occurrence

Host family	Host	Geographical	Occurrence	Affected fish stage	Mortality	Reference
	species	location				
	Danio rerio	USA	Natural infection	adult	19% (natural infection)	281
Cyprinidae	Danio devario	USA	Natural infection	Not specified	100% (experimental challenge)	282
	Puntius conchonius	Australia	Natural infection	Not specified	40% (natural infection)	283
	Zacco platypus	Japan	Experimental infection	Not specified	15% (experimental challenge)	33
	Tribilodon hakonensis	Japan	Experimental infection	Fingerlings	40% (natural infection)	274
	Tribolodon brandtii maruta	Japan	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	284
	Candidia temminckii	Japan	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	284
	Hemibarbus barbus	Japan	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	284
	Rhynchocypris lagowskii Japan Natural infection		Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	284
	Scardinius erythrophthalmus hesperidicus H.	Croatia	Natural infection	Juveniles	Not reported	285
	Sarotherodon aureus	USA	Experimental infection	fingerlings	70% (experimental challenge)	53
Cichlidae	Oreochromis niloticus	West Indies	Natural infection	fry and fingerlings	100% (experimental challenge)	13
	Oreochromis spp.	Vietnam	Natural infection	juveniles	40-50% (natural infection)	12
Salmonidae	Oncorhynchus tshawytscha	USA	Experimental infection	Juveniles	75% (experimental challenge)	286
	Oncorhynchus mykiss	Turkey	Natural infection	juveniles	100% (experimental challenge)	287
Moronidae	Morone americana	USA	Experimental infection	Information not available	100% (experimental challenge)	288
	Dicentrarchus labrax 🕇	Spain	Natural infection	fry	90% (experimental challenge)	289
Anguillidae	Anguilla japonica	Japan	Experimental infection	Fingerlings	10% (natural infection)	274
Percichthyidae	Coreoperca kawamebari	Japan	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	284
Balaenopteridae	Balaenoptera acutorostrata	Japan	Natural infection	Not specified	Not reported	37
Pleuronectidae Platichthys stellatus		China	Experimental infection	Juveniles	Not reported	290

†-Edwardsiella ictaluri-like infection

Year of isolation	Country	•										Reference			
			Motility	Nitrate reductase	Catalase	Ornithine decarboxylase	Lysine decarboxylase	Cytochrome oxidase	NaCl >1.5%	Gas/acid from glucose	Methyl Red test	H ₂ S production	Urease	Citrate	
1979	USA	channel catfish	+	+	N/R	+	+	-	NR	+/NR	+	-	-	-	20
1981‡	USA	white bullhead	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	55
1982‡	USA	green knife fish	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	280
1983	USA	danio	+	+	NR	+	+	-	NR	+/NR	+	-	-	-	282
1985 ‡	Thailand	walking catfish	+	NR	NR	+	+	-	NR	NR/+	NR	-	-	+	275
1985	Australia	rosy barb	-	NR	+	+	+	-	NR	+/+	-	-	-	-	283
1989	Spain	sea bass	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	289
2001 ‡	Vietnam	striped catfish	+	-	-	-	-	+	NR	-/-	NR	+	-	NR	22
2002	USA	tadpole madtom	NR	NR	NR	NR	+	-	NR	+	NR	NR	NR	NR	273
2004 ‡	Turkey	rainbow trout	-	+	+	+	+	-	NR	NR/+	+	-	-	-	287
2004	USA	brown bullhead	+	+	+	+	+	-	NR	-/NR	-	NR	NR	-	61
2006	China	yellow catfish	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+/+	-	-	-	-	16
2007	Japan	ayu	+	NR	+	+	+	-	-	+/NR	+	+	NR	-	25
2008- 2010	Japan	Forktail bullhead	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	NR/+	+	+	-	-	33
2010-	West	Nile tilapia	NR	NR	NR	-	+	-	NR	+	NR	-	-	-	13
2011 2011	Indies China	southern catfish	+	+	+	+	+	-	NR	+/+	-	-	+	NR	187
2011	USA	zebrafish	+	NR	NR	NR	NR	-	NR	+	NR	-	NR	+	281

1564 Table 2. Timeline of *Edwardsiella ictaluri* isolations from natural infected fish including the biochemical characteristics.

Year of isolation		·											Reference		
			Motility	Nitrate reductase	Catalase	Ornithine decarboxylase	Lysine decarboxylase	Cytochrome oxidase	NaCl >1.5%	Gas/acid from glucose	Methyl Red test	H ₂ S production	Urease	citrate	
2011	Australia	toothless catfish narrowfront tandan Berney's catfish	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	291
2011- 2012	Japan	Pacific redfin dark chub Japanese barbel Amur minnow Japanese aucha perch	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	284
2014 ‡	Thailand	hybrid catfish	+	NR	+	-	+	-	NR	NR/+	NR	-	-	+	276
2016 ‡	Australia	eeltail catfish/ tandan	+	+	NR	+	+	-	+	V/NR	+	NR	-	-	175
2016	Vietnam	red hybrid tilapia	NR	NR	+	-	+	-	NR	NR/+	NR	-	-	V	12
566	‡ represent	s publication year	r where	year of is	solation	was not spe	cified.								
567	V-variable	:													
568	NR-not rej	ported.													
569	NA-data n	ot available													
570															
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Method	Туре	Description	Delivery route	Fish species	Efficacy	Reference
				(age)	(survival	
					rate)	
Antibiotics	Sulfonamide	Romet-30 TM	Oral	Channel catfish	Up to 89.1%	198
				(fingerlings)		
	florfenicol	Aquaflor®	Oral	Channel and	Up to 100%	196
				striped catfish		
				(fingerlings)		
	Enrofloxacin		Oral	Striped catfish	Not reported	197
				(fingerlings)		
	Doxycycline		Oral	Yellow catfish	Not reported	199
				(fingerlings)		
		evpB gene mutant (patent number	Immersion,	Channel catfish	80.83%-	210
	Live	US20170065695A1)	injection, oral or	(Fry/fingerlings)	92.58%	
	attenuated		combination			
Vaccines	bacteria	AQUAVAC-ESC® (US Patent no.	immersion	Channel catfish	Up to 94.7%	211
		6,019,981)		(Fry/fingerlings)		
	Inactivated	Alpha ject Panga 1 and 2	injection	Striped catfish	95.3-100%	PHARMAQ Vietnam
	bacteria			(fingerlings)		(https://www.pharmaq.no/sfiles/1/58/4/file/pharmaq-
						vn-handout 2013-2- lighter-version.pdf)

1578 Table 3. Summary of antibiotic and vaccines used in aquaculture against *E. ictaluri*.

1580 Figures and legends

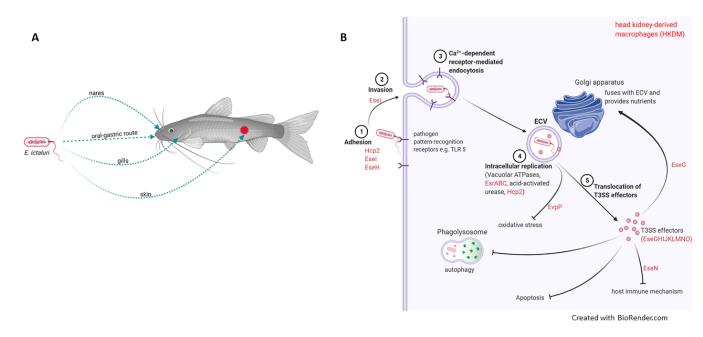


Figure 1. Pathogenesis of *E. ictaluri*. A) Ports of entry into the host fish used by *E. ictaluri* during infection. B) molecular mechanisms of *E. ictaluri* pathogenesis into host cells e.g. macrophage.

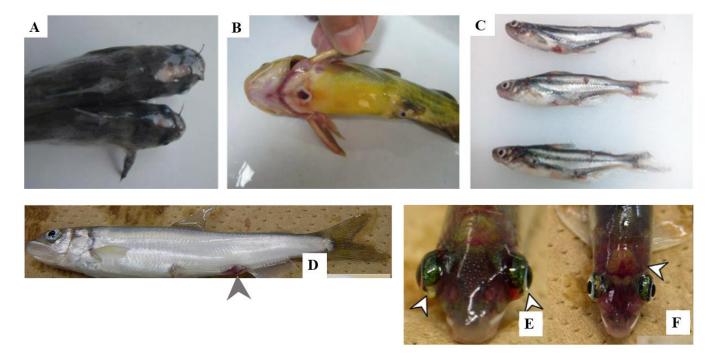


Figure 2. Examples of gross external clinical signs of natural E. ictaluri infections in fish hosts. Channel and yellow catfish exhibit 'Hole in the head' lesion (A). Yellow catfish also present 'hole under the jaw' lesion (B). Striped catfish exhibit haemorrhage and ulceration on the skin (C). Ayu exhibits distended abdomen with reddened anus (D), exophthalmos (E) and meningio-encephalitis (red head) (F) shown by arrowheads. Images A) and (B) reproduced with permission granted © 2010 The Authors. Aquaculture Research © 2010 Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Image (C) reproduced with permission granted © 2016 John Wiley & Sons Ltd. Images (D), (E), (F) reproduced with permission granted © 2020 Wiley Periodicals LLC.

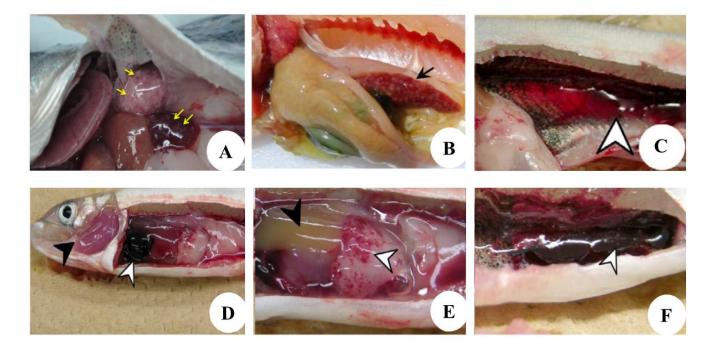
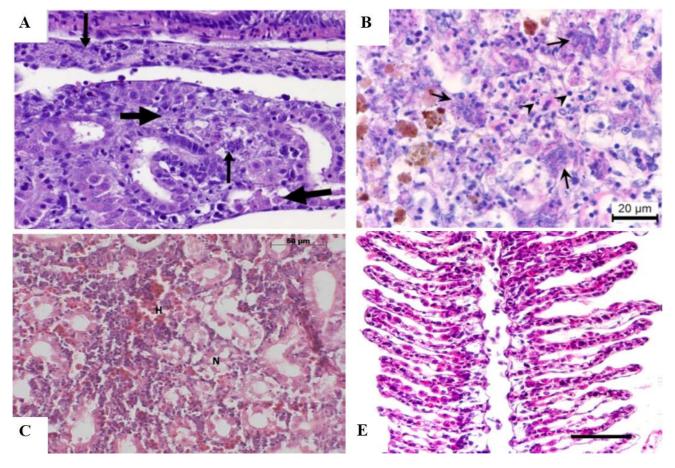


Figure 3. Examples of gross internal clinical signs of natural E. ictaluri infections include mottled spleen and anterior kidney indicated by yellow arrows in striped catfish (A), pale liver and mottled spleen and kidney in tilapia indicated by black arrow (B), and in ayu; bloody ascites in peritoneal region (C), pale gills and a gallbladder that is enlarged (D), reddened gonads (E) and posterior kidney that is enlarged and haemorrhagic (F) all indicated by arrowheads. Images A) reproduced with permission granted © 2020 John Wiley & Sons Ltd. Image (B) Reprinted from Aquaculture Volume 499/15, Dong et al., Natural occurrence of edwardsiellosis caused by Edwardsiella ictaluri in farmed hybrid red tilapia (Oreochromis sp.) in Southeast Asia, Pages 17-23, Copyright (2019), with permission from Elsevier. Images (C), (D), (E), (F) reproduced with permission granted © 2020 Wiley Periodicals LLC.



1630

Figure 4. Typical histopathological findings. (A) in channel catfish fry, diffuse necrosis of the 1631 hematopoietic tissues (arrows) was identified. (B) in red hybrid tilapia, there was spleen and cell pyknosis 1632 and karyorrhexis (arrow heads). (C) in striped catfish kidney, histopathology showed necrosis (denoted 1633 by N) and haemorrhagic areas (denoted by H). (D) in the gills of ayu, epithelial lining hyperplasia was 1634 evident at base of secondary gill lamellae together with in-between separation of the underlying capillary 1635 bed from the epithelial cell lining of secondary gill lamellae. Image (A) Reprinted from Fish and Shellfish 1636 Immunology Volume 72, Abdelhamed et al., The virulence and immune protection of Edwardsiella 1637 ictaluri HemR mutants in catfish, Pages 153-160, Copyright (2018), with permission from Elsevier. Image 1638 (B) Reprinted from Aquaculture Volume 499/15, Dong et al., Natural occurrence of edwardsiellosis 1639 caused by Edwardsiella ictaluri in farmed hybrid red tilapia (Oreochromis sp.) in Southeast Asia, Pages 1640 17-23, Copyright (2019), with permission from Elsevier. Image (C) reproduced with permission granted 1641 © 2020 John Wiley & Sons Ltd. Image (D) reproduced with permission granted © 2020 Wiley Periodicals 1642 LLC. 1643

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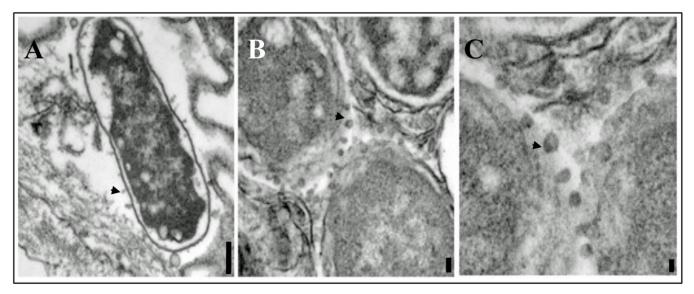




Figure 5. Transmission electron microscopy intracellular visualization of E. ictaluri of infected zebrafish head kidney. The tissue samples were taken 6 h post-infection (105 CFU dose⁻¹). (A) Intracellular E. ictaluri in infected zebrafish head kidney macrophage (Scale bar = $0.5 \mu m$). (B) Magnification of transverse sectioned intracellular E. ictaluri in infected zebrafish head kidney macrophage (Scale bar $0.5 \mu m$). (C) High magnification of cross-sectioned TEM images of intracellular E. ictaluri membrane (Scale bar = $0.2 \mu m$). Arrowheads indicate outer membrane vesicles-like (Images kindly provided by Dr. Santander).