

1 **Title**

2 Host specific preference of some *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* multi-locus sequence typing
3 genotypes determines their ability to cause bacterial coldwater disease in coho salmon
4 (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*)

5 **Running title**

6 *F. psychrophilum* MLST variant host preference

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29

30 **Conflict of Interest**

31 All authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

32

33 **Data Availability Statement**

34 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
35 reasonable request.

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47 **Abstract**

48 *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* causes bacterial coldwater disease (BCWD) in salmonids,
49 resulting in significant losses worldwide. Several serotyping and genetic studies of *F.*
50 *psychrophilum* have suggested some geno-/serotypes may be either host specific or generalistic
51 in nature; however, this association has not been adequately explored *in vivo* using more natural
52 exposure routes. Herein, *F. psychrophilum* isolate US19-COS, originally recovered from coho
53 salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) and belonging to multi-locus sequence typing clonal complex
54 (CC) CC-ST9, and isolate US53-RBT, recovered from rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*) and belonging
55 to CC-ST10, were serotyped via PCR, evaluated for proteolytic activity, and utilized to
56 determine their median lethal dose in immersion-challenged coho salmon fingerlings. US19-
57 COS belonged to serotype 0, hydrolyzed casein and gelatin but not elastin, led to fulminant
58 multiorgan infections, and elicited severe gross and microscopic pathology. In contrast, US53-
59 RBT, belonging to serotype 2, hydrolyzed all three substrates, but did not lead to detectable
60 infections, disease signs, or mortality in any exposed coho salmon despite proving virulent to
61 rainbow trout in previous experiments. This study provides *in vivo* evidence for potential host
62 specificity of some *F. psychrophilum* genotypes that can also be serologically distinct, a matter
63 of importance towards better understanding *F. psychrophilum* disease ecology and epidemiology.

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70 **1. Introduction**

71 *Flavobacterium psychrophilum*, causative agent of bacterial coldwater disease (BCWD)
72 and rainbow trout fry syndrome, causes substantial economic losses in salmonid aquaculture
73 facilities and hatcheries worldwide (reviewed in Loch & Faisal, 2017). Although all salmonid
74 species (Family *Salmonidae*) are considered susceptible, coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*)
75 and rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*) are particularly vulnerable to BCWD epizootics (Holt, 1987).
76 Indeed, *F. psychrophilum* was first isolated from a disease outbreak resulting in mass mortality
77 of juvenile coho salmon in the Pacific Northwest region of the United States in the 1940s (Borg,
78 1948); similar disease outbreaks affecting rainbow trout in the eastern USA were described by
79 Davis (1946).

80 Since its initial isolation, multiple studies utilized a variety of methodologies to
81 investigate the intraspecific diversity of *F. psychrophilum* for epidemiological purposes. Pacha
82 (1968) and Holt (1987) used serological approaches to compare *F. psychrophilum* isolates
83 recovered from different fish host species (e.g., coho salmon, Chinook salmon; *O. tshawytscha*,
84 and brook trout; *Salvelinus fontinalis*) and locations across the USA (e.g., Oregon, New
85 Hampshire, Michigan, and Alaska); their studies revealed both shared and distinct bacterial
86 antigens, some of which varied by host species and location (Pacha, 1968; Holt, 1987).
87 Subsequent serological studies of isolates recovered from multiple fish species on several
88 continents led to descriptions of three to seven *F. psychrophilum* serotypes (Wakabayashi,
89 Toyama, & Iidia, 1994; Lorenzen & Olesen, 1997; Izumi & Wakabayashi, 1999; Mata,
90 Skarmeta, & Santos, 2002; Izumi, Aranishi, & Wakabayashi, 2003), some of which appeared to
91 be associated with particular host species (Wakabayashi, Toyama, & Iidia, 1994; Izumi &
92 Wakabayashi, 1999; Mata, Skarmeta, & Santos, 2002). More recently, Rochat et al. (2017)
93 devised a reproducible multiplex PCR-based serotyping assay that revealed at least three
94 molecular serotypes (Types 1-3) that overlap with the conventional serotypes described by

95 Lorenzen & Olesen (1997). In addition, Rochat et al. (2017) described a molecular “Type 0”
96 comprised of a diversity of isolates that were genomically distinct from Types 1-3 because of
97 their less conserved genomic structure. Since then, “Type-4” has been described, following
98 further genomic analyses, by Avendaño-Herrera et al. (2020). Importantly, use of this scheme
99 provided further evidence that some *F. psychrophilum* molecular serotypes appeared to be linked
100 to infections in particular host species (i.e., Type-0 isolates are generally recovered from coho
101 salmon, Type-1 isolates are typically recovered from rainbow trout, Type-3 isolates are
102 recovered from ayu, *Plecoglossus altivelis*, and Type-2 and Type-4 are recovered from multiple
103 species; Rochat et al., 2017; Sundell et al., 2019; Avendaño-Herrera et al., 2020).

104 Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) has also been used to investigate the epidemiology
105 of *F. psychrophilum* after a scheme was devised by Nicolas et al. (2008). Therein and in
106 subsequent studies, findings based upon observations from natural disease events have suggested
107 that some *F. psychrophilum* MLST clonal complexes (CCs) preferentially infect certain host
108 species (Nicolas et al., 2008; Fujiwara-Nagata et al., 2013; Avendaño-Herrera et al., 2014;
109 Nilsen et al., 2014; Van Vliet et al., 2016; Knupp et al., 2019). Indeed, the largest and most
110 widespread CC worldwide, CC-ST10, has been recovered almost exclusively from rainbow trout
111 (Nilsen et al., 2014; Van Vliet et al., 2016; Knupp et al., 2019), whereas almost all *F.*
112 *psychrophilum* isolates belonging to CC-ST9 have been recovered from coho salmon (Fujiwara-
113 Nagata et al., 2013; Avendaño-Herrera et al., 2014; Van Vliet et al., 2016; Knupp et al., 2019).

114 Despite field-based evidence supporting the host specificity of some *F. psychrophilum*
115 sero- and geno-variants, *in vivo* experiments testing this epidemiologically relevant hypothesis
116 under controlled laboratory conditions have, for the most part, been only indirectly tested. By
117 elucidating host-species preferences that may be dictated by *F. psychrophilum*
118 serotype/genotype, it is possible that targeted and more efficacious BCWD control and

119 prevention (e.g., vaccination) methods can be devised. Herein, we report the molecular serotype,
120 proteolytic activity, and virulence of two genetically distinct *F. psychrophilum* isolates from two
121 globally relevant MLST CCs that putatively infect either coho salmon or rainbow trout.

122

123 **2. Materials and Methods**

124 **2.1 *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* Isolate Selection**

125 Two *F. psychrophilum* isolates **recovered from systemically infected fish** (e.g., US19 and
126 US53) belonging to two MLST sequence types (STs; e.g., ST13 and ST78; Van Vliet et al.,
127 2016) within two MLST CCs (e.g., CC-ST9 and CC-ST10) that have been detected on four
128 continents (Knupp et al., 2019) were selected for this study. In addition to their global
129 significance, both CCs have been recovered almost exclusively from one of two salmonid
130 species: CC-ST9 from coho salmon (COS), and CC-ST10 from rainbow trout (RBT).

131

132 **2.2 Molecular Serotyping**

133 Because *F. psychrophilum* serotype has also been implicated in strain-host species
134 preference, the molecular serotypes for *F. psychrophilum* US19-COS and US53-RBT were
135 determined using the multiplex PCR (mPCR)-based serotyping scheme developed by Rochat et
136 al. (2017) with minor modification to the reaction mixture. Briefly, each 50 µl mPCR reaction
137 comprised 25 µl of 2X GoTaq[®] Green Master Mix (Promega), 20 ng of DNA template, 0.1 µM
138 of each control primer, 0.5 µM of each primer used to identify each molecular serotype, with
139 nuclease-free water composing the remainder. Sterile nuclease-free water served as a negative
140 control, whereas *F. psychrophilum* type strain ATCC 49418^T, FP900406, and CSF259-93 served
141 as positive controls for serotypes 0, 1, and 2, respectively. The mPCR cycling parameters of
142 Rochat et al. (2017) were utilized in an Eppendorf[®] Mastercycler[®] pro thermal cycler. Five µl

143 of amplified PCR product was separated by electrophoresis in a 1.5% agarose gel prepared with
144 1X SYBR Safe DNA gel stain for 35 minutes at 100V, with 1-Kb Plus DNA Ladder (Thermo
145 Fisher Scientific) as the molecular size standard. The gel was then viewed under UV
146 transillumination to estimate amplicon size and assign mPCR serotype (e.g., Type-0, 188 bp;
147 Type-1, 188 and 549 bp; Type-2, 188 and 841 bp; Type-3, 188 and 361 bp; Type-4, 188 and 992
148 bp; Rochat et al., 2017; Avendaño-Herrera et al., 2020).

149

150 **2.3 Characterization of Proteolytic Activity**

151 *F. psychrophilum* exhibits an array of proteolytic activities (Pacha, 1968), and some
152 studies have suggested such proteases (e.g., caseinase, gelatinase, and elastase) may contribute to
153 virulence (Bertolini et al., 1994, Madsen & Dalsgaard, 1999; Rochat et al., 2019), thereby
154 potentially playing a role in host-species specificity. Thus, the proteolytic activities of US19-
155 COS and US53-RBT were assessed alongside reference isolates ATCC 49418^T and CSF259-93
156 on tryptone yeast extract salts medium (TYES; Holt, 1987) agar supplemented with casein,
157 elastin, or gelatin as previously described (Sundell et al., 2019). Briefly, isolates were revived
158 from cryostock on TYES, which was modified according to Michel, Antonio, & Hedrick (1999)
159 and is referred to hereafter as mTYES, and then incubated at 15°C for 72h, after which cultures
160 were visually inspected for purity. A 1- μ l loopful of each isolate was inoculated into 1L of
161 mTYES broth and incubated at 15°C with constant shaking at 150rpm for 48h to achieve bacteria
162 in a logarithmic phase of growth. Bacteria were harvested from mTYES broth via centrifugation
163 (2,571 x g, 10min), rinsed in a sterile 0.65% saline suspension, and adjusted to an optical density
164 at 600-nm (OD₆₀₀) corresponding to 1 x 10⁹ CFU/mL⁻¹ using a Biowave CO8000 Cell Density
165 meter (WPA Inc., Cambridge, UK). To quantify flavobacterial concentrations, serial dilutions in
166 ten-fold increments were plated on mTYES agar in duplicate and incubated at 15°C for 7d, after

167 which final colony counts were performed. For each of the three proteolytic assays, 10 µl of
168 bacterial suspension was spotted in triplicate onto the agar surface, allowed to dry, and then
169 incubated for 7d at 15°C. After incubation, the clear zone diameter, which is a summation of the
170 colony diameter and the hydrolyzed portion of the medium, was divided by the colony diameter
171 to produce a clear-zone ratio (CZR; Sundell et al., 2019).

172

173 **2.4 *In Vivo* Assessment of Virulence to Coho Salmon**

174

175 **2.4.1 Origin of Fish for Challenge Experiments**

176 Embryonated coho salmon eggs that had been surface disinfected with iodophor at 50
177 ppm for 30 min immediately after artificial egg fertilization and again at 100 ppm for 10 min
178 were obtained from the Platte River State Fish Hatchery (Michigan, USA). Upon arrival at the
179 Michigan State University – University Research Containment Facility, eggs were again
180 iodophor disinfected at 100 ppm (10 min) and maintained in a vertical incubator supplied with
181 dechlorinated pathogen-free water (12°C ± 1°C; ~19 L/min) until hatching. Sac-fry were
182 transferred into aerated flow-through tanks (40 L; 12°C ± 1°C); upon commencement of
183 exogenous feeding, fry were continuously fed a commercial trout diet (Skretting, The
184 Netherlands) of appropriately sized food (e.g., starter crumble – 1.5mm) via automatic feeder.
185 After 8 weeks, fish were fed by hand twice daily until satiation and the water volume was
186 increased to 400 L (12°C ± 1°C). Throughout rearing, tanks were cleaned and siphoned 1-2x
187 daily to remove detritus and any uneaten food. Prior to challenge, a subset of fish to be used in
188 challenge experiments were screened for the presence of bacteria, including *F. psychrophilum*
189 via culture, and verified to be free from infection.

190

191 **2.4.2 *F. psychrophilum* Inoculum Preparation for Experimental Challenges**

192 *F. psychrophilum* isolates US53-RBT and US19-COS were revived from cryostock on
193 mTYES agar, incubated at 15°C for 72h, and then visually inspected for purity. Each isolate was
194 inoculated into 5L of mTYES broth, incubated, harvested, and adjusted to $\sim 1 \times 10^{10}$ CFU/mL⁻¹ as
195 described in section 2.3. The bacterial suspension was serially diluted ten-fold to create four *F.*
196 *psychrophilum* suspensions corresponding to $10^8 - 10^5$ CFU/ml as subsequently verified via plate
197 counts.

198

199 **2.4.3 Median Lethal Dose Experiments**

200 *F. psychrophilum* isolates US53-RBT and US19-COS were assessed for their ability to
201 infect and cause disease in coho salmon (five-month old; mean weight 6.3g) using *in vivo*
202 immersion challenge experiments. Three-hundred-ninety-six coho salmon were anesthetized in
203 sodium bicarbonate-buffered tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222; Syndel, USA) at a
204 concentration of 100mg L⁻¹, adipose fin-clipped using sharp sterile scissors (Holt, 1987), and
205 then allowed to recover in aerated water. Fish ($n = 22$ per dose in duplicate) were subsequently
206 immersed for 30 minutes in aerated water containing 10^8 , 10^7 , 10^6 , or 10^5 CFU/ml of either
207 US19-COS or US53-RBT, whereas control fish ($n = 22$ in duplicate) were immersed in an
208 identical volume of water only. Following immersion challenge, fish were transferred into
209 aerated flow-through glass tanks (37.85 L; $n = 22$ fish per tank in duplicate) supplied with
210 dechlorinated pathogen-free water (12°C \pm 1°C).

211 Fish were monitored daily for 34d and cared for as described previously; mortalities were
212 necropsied, clinically examined, and multiple tissues (e.g., external ulcerations, gill, brain, heart,
213 kidney, liver, and spleen) were bacteriologically analyzed for *F. psychrophilum* on mTYES agar.
214 Terminally moribund and surviving fish (i.e., survived 34d post-challenge) were euthanized via

215 MS-222 overdose (250mg L⁻¹) and analyzed similarly. To estimate the median lethal dose (LD₅₀)
216 for US19-COS and US53-RBT, the Reed-Muench method (Reed & Muench, 1938) was utilized.
217 All challenge experiments were conducted in accordance with the MSU-Institutional Animal
218 Care and Use Committee (AUF:201800132).

219 To confirm the identity of representative isolates from each challenge dose, the *F.*
220 *psychrophilum* specific endpoint PCR assay of Toyama, Kita-Tsukamoto, & Wakabayashi,
221 (1994) was utilized as described previously (Van Vliet, Loch, & Faisal, 2015). Similarly, to
222 confirm the CC/ST of representative recovered *F. psychrophilum* isolates, two - three MLST loci
223 that can differentiate ST13 (e.g., *trpB* and *tuf*) and ST78 (e.g., *gyrB*, *fumC*, and *tuf*) from other
224 STs were PCR-amplified and sanger-sequenced as previously described (Knupp et al., 2019).

225

226 **2.4.4 Histopathological Assessment**

227 To begin to explore if *F. psychrophilum* strains US19-COS and US53-RBT vary in the
228 tissue changes they elicit at the microscopic level, one challenged coho salmon from each
229 treatment replicate was euthanized via MS-222 overdose at seven regular time points throughout
230 the experiment, and fixed whole (after body cavity was opened using sterile scissors) in
231 phosphate-buffered 10% formalin for 24h. Given the progression of morbidity and mortality (see
232 section 3.3 below), however, only fish receiving the highest challenge dose were further
233 processed for histopathological assessment, which entailed paraffin-embedding, microtome
234 sectioning (5 µm), and staining with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E; Prophet, Mills, & Arrington,
235 1992). Slides were then examined via light microscopy.

236

237 **2.5 Data Analysis**

238 A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Welch correction (to account for
239 unequal within-group variances) was used to test mean CZR among the isolates for the evaluated
240 media (i.e., caseinase, gelatinase, or elastase) as a measure of differences in proteolytic activity
241 for the CZR. If the null hypothesis of no difference in mean CZR among the isolates was
242 rejected, pairwise comparisons of mean CZRs between the isolates were conducted using
243 pairwise two-sample, two-tailed *t*-tests assuming unequal variances with the Bonferroni
244 correction for multiple comparisons ($\alpha = 0.05$). The ANOVA test and follow-up *t*-tests were
245 performed in SAS® Version 9.4 using PROC GLM and PROC TTEST.

246 Differences in cumulative mortality among the isolates and dosages were tested with a
247 generalized linear model assuming a beta family distribution and logit link function. Isolate and
248 dosage were treated as factor variables and an isolate \times dosage interaction term was included in
249 the model. Each tank housing experimentally challenged fish was treated as the experimental
250 unit in the model. Because the beta distribution assumes data to be > 0 and < 1 , tanks where no
251 mortality occurred were assigned a cumulative mortality rate of 3.125% so that analyses could
252 proceed. Because the isolate \times dosage interaction term was found to be significantly different
253 from 0 (see result below), the experimental data suggested that differences among the isolates
254 depended on the dosage level. Consequently, we examined the simple effect differences between
255 the isolates at each of the dosage levels. The generalized linear model was fit in SAS® Version
256 9.4 using PROC GLIMMIX.

257

258 **3. Results**

259 **3.1 Molecular Serotype**

260 Using the multiplex PCR assay developed by Rochat et al. (2017), *F. psychrophilum*
261 isolate US19-COS yielded a 188bp amplicon and thus was assigned to molecular serotype Type-

262 0, whereas US53-RBT yielded two amplicons of 841bp and 188bp, corresponding to Type-2
263 (Figure 1).

264

265 **3.2 Proteolytic Activity of *F. psychrophilum* strains US19-COS and US53-RBT.**

266 *F. psychrophilum* isolates US53-RBT and US19-COS both proteolyzed casein and
267 gelatin (Table 1); however, only US53-RBT showed elastase activity (Table 1). When compared
268 to two reference strains belonging to the same two MLST CCs, similar results were found. For
269 example, ATCC 49418^T (CC-ST9) and CSF259-93 (CC-ST10) both showed caseinase and
270 gelatinase activity but only CSF259-93 proteolyzed elastin (Table 1). The variance-weighted
271 ANOVA tests indicated that there were overall significant differences among the isolates in
272 mean CZR for caseinase ($F=10.15$; $df=3$, 3.813; P -value=0.0270) and elastase ($F=139.82$; $df=1$,
273 3.885, P -value=0.0003). However, the null hypothesis of no difference in mean CZR among the
274 isolates for gelatinase could not be rejected ($F=1.08$; $df=3$, 3.868; P -value=0.4556). Even though
275 the null hypothesis of no difference in mean CZR among the isolates for caseinase was rejected,
276 the pairwise t -tests comparing mean CZR between isolates did not detect any significant
277 differences at a Bonferroni-corrected alpha of 0.0083. For elastase, mean CZR produced by
278 US53-RBT (e.g., 2.83 ± 0.03) was significantly greater than the other tested isolates (US53-RBT
279 vs. CSF259-93: $t=11.82$; $df=3.885$; P -value=0.0003; US53-RBT vs. US19-COS: $t=55.0$; $df=2$;
280 P -value=0.0003; US53-RBT vs. ATCC 49418: $t=55.0$; $df=2$; P -value=0.0003). Likewise, mean
281 CZR for CSF259-93 was significantly greater for elastase than for US19-COS ($t=30.77$; $df=2$; P -
282 value=0.0011) and ATCC 49418 ($t=30.77$; $df=2$; P -value=0.0011). A test of the differences in
283 mean CZR between US19-COS and ATCC 49418 could not be performed because the value of
284 all observations were the same (Table 1).

285

286 **3.3 Virulence of *F. psychrophilum* strains US19-COS and US53-RBT to Coho Salmon**

287 Coho salmon immersed in the highest concentration (e.g., 10^8 CFU/ml) of *F.*
288 *psychrophilum* strain US19-COS developed classical gross external signs of BCWD as early as
289 four days post-challenge in the form of a shallow focal dermal ulceration of the caudal peduncle
290 (Figure 2A). As the disease progressed, multifocal ulcerations on the caudal peduncle formed
291 and deepened (Figure 2B) and additional focally extensive ulcerations of the rostrum became
292 apparent (Figure 2C). In the most severely affected coho salmon, caudal peduncle necrosis
293 extended deep into the musculature, leaving the underlying spinal processes exposed (Figure
294 2D). Additional external signs of BCWD included diffuse ecchymoses and petechiae of the gills
295 and intraocular focal ecchymosis (Figure 2E-F). Likewise, US19-COS infected coho salmon
296 developed multiple internal lesions, including severe splenic swelling (Figure 3A), severe
297 perisplenic hemorrhage (Figure 3B), multifocal hepatic ecchymoses (Figure 3C), and severe
298 hemorrhage within the pyloric caeca and the surrounding adipose tissue (Figure 3D). In coho
299 salmon exposed to the second highest US19-COS concentration (e.g., 10^7 CFU/ml), similar
300 external signs of BCWD were observed, including ulcerations of the rostrum and caudal
301 peduncle as well as gill hemorrhage. Internally, visceral organs (e.g., heart, liver, and kidney)
302 appeared severely pale, whereas the spleen retained its normal color (e.g., dark red) but was
303 severely swollen. No gross lesions were noted in coho salmon challenged with the two lowest
304 bacterial concentrations (e.g., 10^6 and 10^5 CFU/ml).

305 In stark contrast to coho salmon challenged with US19-COS, coho salmon challenged
306 with the two highest concentrations (e.g., 10^8 and 10^7 CFU/ml) of US53-RBT remained
307 apparently healthy throughout the experiment, as was also the case for coho salmon exposed to
308 the two lowest *F. psychrophilum* concentrations (e.g., 10^6 and 10^5 CFU/ml). Likewise, no gross
309 lesions were observed in any mock-challenged (i.e., negative control) coho salmon.

310 The cumulative percent mortality in coho salmon immersed in four different
311 concentrations of US19-COS corresponding to $2.44 \times 10^8 - 2.22 \times 10^5$ CFU/ml ranged from 0-
312 93.3% (Figure 4). Mortality began four to eight days post-infection and peaked between days 12
313 and 16 (Figure 4). By comparison, no coho salmon immersed in *F. psychrophilum* isolate US53-
314 RBT at any of the four bacterial concentrations (e.g., $2.44 \times 10^8 - 3.33 \times 10^5$ CFU/ml) died
315 throughout the course of the 34d experiment (Figure 4). Similarly, no mock-challenged (i.e.,
316 negative control) fish died prior to euthanasia at 34d post-challenge.

317 The isolate \times dosage interaction term in the generalized linear model fit to the cumulative
318 mortality data was statistically different from 0 ($F=203.83$; $df=3,8$; $P<0.0001$). As a result, we
319 used the SLICE option in PROC GLIMMIX to evaluate the simple effect differences between
320 the isolates at each of the dosage levels. At the highest dose (e.g., 10^8 CFU/ml), US19-COS
321 caused significantly higher mortality in coho salmon than US53-RBT ($F=964.5$, $df=1,8$,
322 $P<0.0001$). Similarly, at the second highest dose (e.g., 10^7 CFU/ml), US19-COS caused
323 significantly higher mortality in coho salmon than US53-RBT ($F=39.36$, $df=1,8$, $P=0.0002$).
324 Based on the experimental results, the LD_{50} for US19-COS was estimated to be 6.62×10^7 CFU,
325 whereas the LD_{50} for US53-RBT could not be estimated but is expected to greatly exceed $2.44 \times$
326 10^8 CFU (i.e., the highest challenge dose; Table 1).

327

328 **3.4 Infection Status in Coho Salmon Challenged with *F. psychrophilum* US19-COS and** 329 **US53-RBT**

330 In all coho salmon that died after immersion exposure to *F. psychrophilum* US19-COS,
331 the bacterium was recovered in a pure form at intensities ranging from $10^4 - 10^5$ CFU g^{-1} from
332 multiple external lesions (e.g., skin/muscle ulcerations and gills) using calibrated inoculating
333 loops. Similarly, pure cultures of *F. psychrophilum* were recovered from multiple internal organs

334 (e.g., brain, spleen, and kidney), at high intensities ranging from $10^3 - 10^5$ CFU g^{-1} of tissue. *F.*
335 *psychrophilum* was also recovered from the kidneys of all survivors (i.e., 34d post challenge)
336 that had been challenged with US19-COS at the highest dose. *F. psychrophilum* was not
337 recovered from any survivors that were challenged with the remaining three concentrations.
338 Molecular analyses confirmed bacterial identity as *F. psychrophilum* in all cases and sequencing
339 confirmed the recovered *F. psychrophilum* to be ST13 (data not shown).

340 In contrast to fish challenged with US19-COS, *F. psychrophilum* was not recovered from
341 any coho salmon exposed to US53-RBT, including at the highest exposure concentration (e.g.,
342 2.44×10^8 CFU/ml). Likewise, *F. psychrophilum* was not detected from any mock-challenged
343 coho salmon.

344

345 **3.5 Histopathology in Coho Salmon Challenged with *F. psychrophilum* US19-COS and** 346 **US53-RBT**

347 Fish that had been exposed to the highest dose of US53-RBT were euthanized on days 0
348 (i.e., immediately after challenge), 1, 2, and 3 and multiple cross sections, including the eyes,
349 gills, brain, internal organs and bone and cartilage were examined microscopically. The only
350 lesion observed was localized tissue loss with minimal secondary inflammation at the site of the
351 removed adipose fin (Figure 5A) consistent with the experimentally induced trauma. There were
352 no other microscopic lesions in any of the examined samples and bacterial colonization was not
353 observed. Fish that had been exposed to the highest dose of US19-COS were euthanized on days
354 0, 1, 2, 3, and 11 and multiple cross sections, including the eyes, gills, brain, internal organs and
355 bone and cartilage were examined microscopically. Lesions were similar to those observed in
356 fish exposed to US53-RBT in fish that had been euthanized on days 0, 1 and 2. However, in fish
357 euthanized at day 3, there was severe necrosis of the whole adipose fin at the caudal peduncle

358 and replacement with fibrosis (Figure 5B). By day 11, the two examined fish had complete loss
359 of the adipose fin at the caudal peduncle and epidermal ulceration had extended laterally and the
360 necrotic surface was covered by large numbers of bacteria (Figure 5C). The inflammation
361 extended deep into the underlying muscle causing a severe extensive necrotizing myositis and
362 muscle loss (Figure 5D).

363

364 **4. Discussion**

365 Despite evidence from field-based studies suggesting that some *F. psychrophilum* sero-
366 and/or genotypes preferentially infect certain salmonid species and that others may be more
367 generalistic in nature (Nicolas et al., 2008; Fujiwara-Nagata et al., 2013; Avendaño-Herrera et
368 al., 2014; Van Vliet et al., 2016; Rochat et al., 2017; Sundell et al., 2019; Knupp et al., 2019), *in*
369 *vivo* experiments directly or indirectly testing such hypotheses have yielded mixed results to
370 date. For example, Holt (1987) challenged coho salmon, Chinook salmon, and rainbow trout
371 with a *F. psychrophilum* isolate (e.g., SH3-81) recovered from coho salmon that was only
372 recently determined as belonging to MLST CC-ST9 (i.e., the same clonal complex containing the
373 current study isolate, US19-COS; Van Vliet et al., 2016), and found this strain to be virulent to
374 all three species. Similarly, Ekman & Norrgren (2003) found a *F. psychrophilum* isolate
375 recovered from Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) was virulent to three different salmonid species
376 (e.g., Atlantic salmon, rainbow trout, and sea trout; *S. trutta* L.); however, the sero-/MLST
377 genotype of this strain was not reported. In contrast, Nagai & Nakai (2011) found that isolates
378 recovered from and virulent to ayu (*Plecoglossus altivelis*) were avirulent to red spotted masou
379 trout (*O. masou ishikawae*), and isolates (e.g., OH-224, ST54 and OH-0519, ST55; Fujiwara-
380 Nagata et al., 2013) recovered from masou salmon (*O. masou*) or red spotted masou trout were
381 virulent to red spotted masou trout but not ayu. Likewise, Fredriksen et al. (2016) found a *F.*

382 *psychrophilum* isolate recovered from rainbow trout was avirulent to Atlantic salmon despite
383 causing fulminant mortality in rainbow trout in a previous experiment (Fredriksen et al., 2013),
384 and that an isolate recovered from Atlantic salmon was highly virulent to Atlantic salmon but
385 weakly virulent to rainbow trout. However and of importance, in each of these studies, fish were
386 experimentally exposed to *F. psychrophilum* using a form of injection (e.g., subcutaneous,
387 intraperitoneal, or intramuscular), a route that is known to bypass a multitude of immune defense
388 mechanisms that have been shown to play a role in differential pathogen susceptibility and thus
389 may confound host-pathogen interaction studies (Fast et al., 2001; Fuochi et al., 2017; Dash et
390 al., 2018).

391 To more closely mimic a natural route of infection, this study utilized immersion
392 challenge in combination with clipping of the adipose fin, a practice commonly utilized in
393 salmonid hatcheries to delineate hatchery fishes from their wild counterparts (Auld, Noakes, &
394 Banks, 2019). By allowing two genetically and serologically distinct *F. psychrophilum* strains to
395 interact with the front-line immune defense mechanisms of immersion-exposed coho salmon, the
396 subsequent host-pathogen interactions could be more rigorously explored. In doing so, an isolate
397 recovered from coho salmon (e.g., US19-COS) belonging to an MLST CC (CC-ST9; Nicolas et
398 al., 2008) recovered nearly exclusively from this same species on four continents (Nicolas et al.,
399 2008; Fujiwara-Nagata et al., 2013; Avendaño-Herrera et al., 2014; Nilsen et al., 2014; Van Vliet
400 et al., 2016; Knupp et al., 2019) proved highly virulent to immersion-challenged coho salmon
401 fingerlings as evidenced by the generation of systemic and long-lasting (e.g., at least 34 days
402 post-challenge) infections, severe clinical signs and gross and microscopic BCWD lesions, and
403 nearly 100% cumulative mortality in treatment groups receiving the highest challenge dose. In
404 stark contrast, isolate US53-RBT, which was recovered from rainbow trout and belongs to a
405 MLST CC (CC-ST10; Nicolas et al., 2008) that almost exclusively affects rainbow trout on four

406 continents (Nicolas et al., 2008; Siekoula-Nguedia et al., 2012; Strepparava et al., 2013;
407 Avendaño-Herrera et al., 2014; Nilsen et al., 2014; Van Vliet et al., 2016; Knupp et al., 2019)
408 was avirulent to coho salmon under our experimental conditions; proving incapable of
409 establishing detectable infections and of causing tissue damage, or mortality despite being
410 administered at a high concentration. Moreover, this isolate had previously proven virulent to
411 experimentally challenged rainbow trout in a previous study (Knupp et al., submitted).
412 Collectively, these findings provide *in vivo* evidence for an important facet of the disease
413 ecology and epidemiology of this globally significant bacterial fish pathogen; namely, that some
414 *F. psychrophilum* geno-variants have differential capacities to infect and cause subsequent
415 disease in specific salmonid hosts.

416 In a similar context, the serotype of some *F. psychrophilum* strains, as determined using
417 the mPCR-based serotyping scheme of Rochat et al. (2017) and that was based upon the
418 serotypes Fd, Fp^T, and Th described by Lorenzen & Olesen (1997), may also be tied to host
419 species associations (Wakabayashi, Toyama, & Iidia, 1994; Izumi & Wakabayashi, 1999; Mata,
420 Skarmeta, & Santos, 2002). Currently, the majority of *F. psychrophilum* isolates that have been
421 serotyped using this assay have been recovered outside of North America, where they belong to
422 serotypes 0 – 4, some of which appear to be more closely associated with rainbow trout (e.g.,
423 Type-1), ayu (e.g., Type-3), coho salmon (e.g., Type-0), or multiple fish species (e.g., Type-2
424 and Type-4; Rochat et al., 2017; Saticioglu et al., 2018; Sundell et al., 2019; Avendaño-Herrera
425 et al., 2020). In agreement with these studies, isolates US19-COS, originally recovered from
426 coho salmon (Van Vliet et al., 2016), and US53-RBT, originally recovered from rainbow trout
427 (Van Vliet et al., 2016), were found to belong to Type-0 and Type-2, respectively. This
428 congruence with previous studies is noteworthy given the lack of recently published serotyping
429 data available for *F. psychrophilum* isolates recovered from the USA in combination with how

430 genetically distinct many US isolates are from strains recovered elsewhere in the world (Knupp
431 et al., 2019). Whether such relationships hold true for other isolates recovered from North
432 America remains to be determined and highlights the need for comprehensive serotyping studies
433 of North American *F. psychrophilum* isolates.

434 Although thoroughly characterizing *F. psychrophilum* pathogenesis at the cellular level
435 and examining the molecular host and/or pathogen mechanisms behind host species-associations
436 were not primary goals of this study, initial histopathological and *in vitro* proteolytic evaluations
437 were conducted. Interestingly, isolates US19-COS and US53-RBT both proteolyzed gelatin and
438 casein, but only the latter degraded elastin, which is an extracellular matrix protein and
439 component of connective tissue (Sage, 1982). These same results held true for two reference
440 isolates belonging to the same CCs (e.g., CC-ST9 and CC-ST-10; Table 1), as well as for the
441 majority of *F. psychrophilum* CC-ST10 isolates analyzed by Sundell et al. (2019). Moreover,
442 Rochat et al. (2019) found that all but one of the *F. psychrophilum* CC-ST10 isolates they
443 analyzed carry a novel elastase gene and degraded elastin *in vitro* (Rochat et al., 2019). Sundell
444 et al. (2019), Rochat et al. (2019), and Soule et al. (2005) all concluded that elastase activity
445 appears to be correlated with genetic lineage and may provide an evolutionary advantage for
446 rainbow trout-associated isolates. In the current study, the elastinolytic US53-RBT isolate was
447 incapable of causing disease in coho salmon, whereas the elastase negative US19-COS was
448 highly virulent and led to severe pathological changes and death in the same fish species. Thus, it
449 is possible that elastase plays a role in virulence for some *F. psychrophilum* strains affecting
450 rainbow trout, but clearly other mechanisms appear sufficient for virulence for at least one CC-
451 ST9 strain with a penchant for coho salmon. In this context, Barbier et al. (2020) found that the
452 type IX secretion system, which secretes multiple potential virulence factors (e.g., peptidases,
453 adhesins, and gliding motility proteins) was important for *F. psychrophilum* virulence.

454 Histological findings showed US19-COS was highly virulent to coho salmon, as evidenced by
455 causing severe necrosis and extensive necrotizing myositis at the caudal peduncle. Such
456 histological changes are consistent with what has been reported for BCWD in other salmonid
457 species (e.g., Atlantic salmon and rainbow trout; Ostland et al., 2000; Nilsen et al., 2011). In
458 contrast to US19-COS, US53-RBT challenged fish only had superficial necrosis of the adipose
459 fin, which was most consistent with its removal as part of the experimental design.

460 Even though coho salmon and rainbow trout are both particularly susceptible to *F.*
461 *psychrophilum* infections (Nematollahi et al., 2003) and despite the global importance of coho
462 salmon farming (FAO, 2020), most *F. psychrophilum in vivo* challenge studies have focused on
463 rainbow trout (Holt, 1987; Madsen & Dalsgaard, 1999; Decostere, Lammens, & Haesebrouck,
464 2000; Long et al., 2013; Long et al., 2014; Sundell et al., 2019) rather than coho salmon (Holt,
465 1987; Bertolini et al., 1994), leaving *in vivo* challenge models for this species relatively
466 understudied. However, this study demonstrated the utility of an immersion-based challenge
467 model for studying BCWD in coho salmon that will likely be of benefit for future *in vivo* studies
468 focused on this species. Results herein also provide some important context for the *F.*
469 *psychrophilum* type strain (NCMB 1947^T), which belongs to the same ST as US19-COS (i.e.,
470 ST13; reported in Nicolas et al., 2008) and has been deemed avirulent by multiple researchers
471 who have utilized it in rainbow trout studies (Madsen & Dalsgaard, 2000; Jarau et al., 2018;
472 Sundell et al., 2019). Considering this study’s findings, however, it is possible that *F.*
473 *psychrophilum* NCMB 1947^T is not “equipped” to cause disease in rainbow trout, but rather has
474 a preference for coho salmon, a hypothesis that is also supported by the seminal work of Holt
475 (1987), who reported 98% mortality in yearling coho salmon challenged with this strain.

476 In conclusion, this study has provided *in vivo* evidence that some *F. psychrophilum* geno-
477 variants exhibit host species preferences that lead to differential capacities to cause disease. This,

478 combined with varying serotypes, has important implications not only for the disease ecology
479 and epidemiology of this bacterium of global significance, but also must be accounted for in
480 ongoing and future BCWD vaccine efforts if they are to be effective in multiple salmonid
481 species. Further research on the mechanisms behind such host species preferences, as well as any
482 host specificity or genericity of other *F. psychrophilum* geno-/sero-variants is warranted and will
483 likely be necessary to guide the development of targeted BCWD control strategies so that future
484 BCWD losses can be more effectively mitigated.

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714 **Tables**

715 Table 1. *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* isolates used in this study for *in vivo* challenge against juvenile coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus*
 716 *kisutch*) and/or for the assessment of proteolytic activity, which is presented as a ratio of the clear zone diameter to the colony
 717 diameter (in mm) \pm standard deviation (SD). Clear zone ratios for a particular enzyme (e.g., caseinase, gelatinase, or elastase)
 718 containing an identical symbol (e.g., *, **, ***) are not significantly different ($\alpha > 0.05$) and a ratio of 1.00 ± 0.00 indicates no
 719 protease activity.

Isolate ID	Host of origin	ST [†]	CC [‡]	LD ₅₀ [§] (CFU)	Mean protease clear zone ratio (SD) 720		
					Caseinase	Gelatinase	Elastase 721
US19-COS	Coho salmon	ST13	CC-ST9	6.62×10^7	1.46 (0.07)*	1.97 (0.03)*	1.00 (0.00)*
ATCC 49418 ^T	Coho salmon	ST13	CC-ST9		1.39 (0.02)*	2.09 (0.11)*	1.00 (0.00)* 722
US53-RBT	Rainbow trout	ST78	CC-ST10	$>2.44 \times 10^8$	1.82 (0.08)*	2.11 (0.08)*	2.83 (0.03)***
CSF259-93	Rainbow trout	ST10	CC-ST10		1.58 (0.04)*	1.93 (0.09)*	2.22 (0.04)** 723

724 [†] Sequence type

725 [‡] Clonal complex

726 [§] Median lethal dose

727 **Figure legends**

728 Figure 1. Molecular serotyping of *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* using a multiplex PCR
729 developed by Rochat et al. (2017). *F. psychrophilum* experimental challenge isolate US19, which
730 was recovered from a coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) and challenge isolate US53, which
731 was recovered from a rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*), were identified as Type-0 and Type-2,
732 respectively. Lanes: (Ladder) 1-Kb Plus DNA Ladder; (1) US19; (2) US53; (3) ATCC 49418^T,
733 positive control for Type-0; (4) FP900406, positive control for Type-1; (5) CSF259-93, positive
734 control for Type-2; (6) negative control.

735
736 Figure 2. Gross external lesions in coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) following immersion
737 challenge with *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* isolate US19-COS. A) Focal dermal ulceration of
738 the caudal peduncle. B) Multifocal deep dermal ulceration of the caudal peduncle. C) Deep,
739 focally extensive ulceration of the upper jaw. D) Deep, focally extensive ulceration of the caudal
740 peduncle and myonecrosis, exposing the underlying vertebral column. E) Diffuse petechiae and
741 ecchymoses of the gill. F) Intraocular focal ecchymoses.

742
743 Figure 3. Gross internal lesions in coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) following immersion
744 challenge with *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* isolate US19-COS. A) Severe splenic swelling
745 and diffuse erythema of the adipose tissue. B) Perisplenic hemorrhage. C) Multifocal
746 ecchymoses of the liver. D) Hemorrhage of the pyloric caeca and surrounding adipose tissue.

747
748 Figure 4. Mean cumulative percent mortality of coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*; mean
749 weight 6.3g) over a period of 34 days following immersion challenge with *Flavobacterium*
750 *psychrophilum* isolates US19-COS and US53-RBT, which belong to multilocus sequence typing

751 genotypes ST13 (in CC-ST9) and ST78 (in CC-ST10), respectively. Standard error bars are
752 shown.

753

754 Figure 5. Microscopic lesions in coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) following immersion
755 challenge with *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* isolate US19-COS and US53-RBT, which belong
756 to multilocus sequence typing genotypes ST13 (in CC-ST9) and ST78 (in CC-ST10),
757 respectively. A) Necrosis of the superficial portion of the adipose fin at the caudal peduncle three
758 days post-infection with *F. psychrophilum* isolate US53-RBT. B) Severe necrosis of the whole
759 adipose fin at the caudal peduncle and replacement with fibrosis three days post-infection with *F.*
760 *psychrophilum* isolate US19-COS. C) Complete loss of the adipose fin at the caudal peduncle
761 and extensive necrotizing myositis with bacterial colonization 11 days post-infection with *F.*
762 *psychrophilum* isolate US19-COS. D) Severe ulceration and extensive necrotizing myositis with
763 bacterial colonization of the caudal peduncle 11 days post-infection with *F. psychrophilum*
764 isolate US19-COS.