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42 Abstract

43 Over the past century, populations of Lake Trout Salvelinus namaycush have declined 44 throughout the Great Lakes basin due to over-fishing, habitat destruction, introduction of 45 invasive species and associated recruitment issues from high thiaminase, as well as emerging 46 infectious diseases. To combat these declines, state and federal fishery management agencies 47 undertook substantial stock enhancement efforts, including more stringent regulation of sport and 48 commercial catch limits and increasing hatchery propagation of Lake Trout stocked into Great 49 Lakes basin waterways. One state fish hatchery involved in these rehabilitation efforts 50 experienced a mass mortality event in 2012 and a milder mortality episode in 2017. In 2012, 51 following a period of abnormally heavy rain, hatchery staff observed abnormal behavior 52 followed by increased mortalities in two strains of Lake Trout fingerlings reaching upwards of 53 20% and totaling a loss of approximately 100,000 fish. In 2017, following another heavy rain 54 season, 6-8% of two-year old Lake Trout experienced morbidity and mortality similar to that 55 observed in 2012. During the 2012 event, Brook Trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) and splake (Lake 56 Trout x Brook Trout hybrid) reared in flow-through systems receiving water from diseased Lake 57 Trout remained clinically unaffected. Molecular analyses revealed all lots of affected Lake Trout 58 were infected with the Salmonid Herpesvirus-3 (Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus, 59 EEDV), a disease that caused complete depopulation of this hatchery in the late 1980s and since 60 has never been detected in this hatchery or in Michigan. Further sampling detected EEDV in apparently healthy 5-year old Lake Trout, and in wild Mottled Sculpin (Cottus bairdii) collected 61 62 in the hatchery source water. Rivers' postulates were fulfilled by exposing naïve Lake Trout to 63 the infectious material, resulting in similar disease signs. Despite going undetected for many

years, these two EEDV episodes clearly demonstrate the continued presence of this deadly
herpesvirus in the Great Lakes basin.

66

67 Introduction

68 The Lake Trout Salvelinus namaycush is an invaluable native constituent of the fish 69 fauna residing within the Laurentian Great Lakes Basin of North America (Bronte et al. 2008). In 70 addition to its intrinsic ecological value as a keystone species, Lake Trout are also a valuable 71 commercial and sports fishery commodity (Redick 1967). Through the 1970s, Great Lakes Lake 72 Trout fisheries had steadily declined due to overfishing, habitat degradation, predation by the Sea 73 Lamprey Petromyzon marinus, and the invasion of Alewife Alosa pseudoharengus that carried 74 high levels of thiaminase which disrupted Lake Trout recruitment processes (Hile et al. 1951; 75 Eschmeyer 1957; Redick 1967; Wells and McLain 1973; Holey et al. 1995; Eshenroder and 76 Amatnagelo 2002; Cline et al. 2013). As a result, state and federal fisheries management 77 agencies developed programs to regulate Lake Trout harvest and create self-sustaining wild 78 populations (Redick 1967), which included bolstering depleted wild populations by the stocking 79 of hatchery-raised Lake Trout as well as supplementing wild populations in water bodies with 80 low natural egg survival rates (Redick 1967).

During their tenure in hatcheries, Lake Trout are susceptible to a number of infectious
diseases (Faisal et al. 2010, 2013), including one particularly devastating disease caused by
Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus (EEDV; *Herpesvirales, Alloherpesviridae*). This
herpesvirus, also known as Salmonid Herpesvirus-3, led to the loss of approximately 15 million
juvenile, hatchery-reared Lake Trout in the 1980s. These mortalities occurred in seven state and
federal hatcheries across three states in the Great Lakes region following very heavy summer

87 rainfall events, leading to the first description of EEDV (Bradley et al. 1988, 1989; McAllister 88 and Herman 1989). In an attempt to control this virus and limit its spread, fisheries managers 89 opted for depopulation and disinfection of affected hatcheries, along with the implementation of 90 movement restrictions for Great Lakes basin Lake Trout (Kurobe et al. 2009). It appeared these 91 control efforts were largely successful because reports of EEDV outbreaks, characterized by a 92 rapid onset of mortality in young (< 2 years of age) Lake Trout, hyperplastic lesions of the skin 93 and gill epithelia, ocular hemorrhage (Bradley et al. 1988), and secondary infections (Kurobe et 94 al. 2009) ceased. However, in 2003, 2006 and 2007, the virus was detected in Wisconsin Lake 95 Trout. In 2003 and in 2006, EEDV was detected in the reproductive fluids of wild, apparently 96 healthy spawning adult Lake Trout in Lake Superior, and in the skin of hatchery-raised juvenile 97 Lake Trout experiencing mortalities, although the severity of mortalities was unreported (Kurobe 98 et al. 2009). In 2007, it was detected in the skin of apparently healthy juvenile Lake Trout in the same Wisconsin hatchery (Kurobe et al. 2009). 99

Herein, we report the resurgence of EEDV and describe two mortality events associated with this deadly virus that occurred in Lake Trout at a state fish hatchery in Michigan's Upper Peninsula during the fall of 2012 and 2017. This apparent resurgence of EEDV following decades of covertness highlights the need to better understand the biological properties of this virus, along with the intricacies of the host-virus interactions.

105

106 [A]Methods

107 [B]Lake Trout mortality events

In September of 2012, Michigan's Upper Peninsula experienced several days of heavy,
 warm rain, resulting in the flooding of many smaller streams and creeks including Cherry Creek,

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110 which is a surface water source for Marguette State Fish Hatchery (MSFH; Marguette County, 111 Lake Superior watershed). At the time, MSFH was raising two strains of Lake Trout (i.e., Lake 112 Superior (LS) and Seneca Lake (SE) strains), Brook Trout Salvelinus fontinalis, and splake 113 (Lake Trout x Brook Trout hybrid), all of which were housed in covered, outdoor raceways 114 (12,786-14,793 gallons) with an average of 90,000 fish/raceway. The original Lake Superior 115 (LS) strain Lake Trout were collected from Lake Superior in the early 2000s (2001, 2003 and 116 2004) in order to establish a lean Lake Trout strain. Seneca Lake (SE) strain Lake Trout came 117 from the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service hatchery system as fertilized eggs. As a whole, the 118 hatchery receives both well water and surface water from nearby Cherry Creek, a very high 119 quality, cold, and stable water source; production aged fish receive Cherry Creek water at an 120 approximate rate of 1,200 gallons/minute. As an additional precaution, all water supplying 121 broodstock fish is passed through an ultraviolet sterilization unit before entering the raceways. 122 Among the production fish, the Brook Trout, LS strain Lake Trout, and a portion of the SE strain 123 Lake Trout were receiving first pass water, whereas the splake and the remainder of the SE strain 124 Lake Trout were receiving second pass water and were housed immediately downstream of the 125 first pass raceways. Shortly after the period of abnormally heavy and warm rains, mortalities 126 began to climb in both strains of juvenile (approximately 8 months post-hatch) Lake Trout 127 (Figure 1). The signs of disease were first expressed in the LS strain Lake Trout and within several weeks were followed by signs in the SE strain Lake Trout. Between October 2nd and 128 November 8th, 2012, moribund 2011 year class Lake Trout from both strains were collected alive 129 130 for clinical examination at the Michigan State University – Aquatic Animal Health Laboratory 131 (MSU-AAHL). Over the five-week period, diagnostic examinations were performed on a total of 132 60 LS and SE strain Lake Trout (30/strain).

In September of 2017, elevated mortality was once again reported at MSFH, this time in one lot of 2-year old future broodstock LS strain Lake Trout. This mortality episode also occurred following a heavy, warm rain event during a period of unusually warm late season ambient air temperatures. Moribund fish (n = 10) were collected alive and sent to the MSU-AAHL for clinical examination.

138

139 [B]Clinical examination

140 Upon receipt at the MSU-AAHL, fish behavior was observed and noted, followed by 141 euthanasia with an overdose of tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222; Western Chemical, Ferndale, 142 Washington, USA; 0.25 mg/mL) and fish were immediately subjected to gross external clinical 143 examination. Wet mounts of gill tissues and skin lesions were prepared and examined for the 144 presence of parasites, fungi and bacteria via light microscopy. Tissues were collected as detailed below. Next, fish were surface disinfected with 70% ethanol and gross internal clinical 145 146 examination and aseptic tissue collections performed following guidelines of the American 147 Fisheries Society Fish Health Section (AFS-FHS) Blue Book (2016) for the diagnostic assays 148 detailed below.

149

150 [B]Bacteriology

For primary bacterial isolation, 10 μL sterile disposable loops were used to streak kidney
tissues directly onto trypticase soy agar (TSA; Remel, San Diego, California, USA), Hsu Shotts
medium (HSM) (Bullock et al. 1986), and cytophaga agar (CA) (Anacker and Ordal 1959),
which were incubated aerobically at 22°C (TSA and HSM) or 15°C (CA) for up to seven days.
Additionally, representative brain and gill tissues, as well as tissues from skin/muscle lesions,

were streaked onto HSM and/or CA due to suspicion of flavobacterial involvement. Resultant

156

157 bacterial growth was recorded, sub-cultured, and identified as recommended in the AFS-FHS 158 Blue Book (2016). Specifically for *Flavobacterium psychrophilum*, molecular confirmation was 159 performed as previously described (Van Vliet et al. 2015). 160 161 [B]Virus isolation 162 Kidney, spleen and heart tissue samples were aseptically collected, diluted 1:4 (w/v) with 163 Earle's salt-based minimal essential medium (MEM; Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, 164 Waltham, Massachusetts, USA), supplemented with 12 mM Tris buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, St 165 Louis, Missouri, USA), penicillin (100 IU/mL; Invitrogen), streptomycin (100 µg/mL; 166 Invitrogen), and amphotericin B (250 µg/mL; Invitrogen). Tissues and diluent were then 167 homogenized and centrifuged at 4,700 x g for 30 minutes, and the supernatant clarified by a 168 second centrifugation at 2,700 x g for 20 minutes. The final supernatant was used to inoculate 169 cell cultures of *Epithelioma papulosum cyprini* (EPC) (Fijan et al. 1983) and Chinook Salmon 170 embryo (CHSE-214) (Fryer et al. 1965) cell lines and examined for cytopathic effects as per the 171 guidelines of the AFS-FHS Blue Book (2016). Skin, fin, gill (2012 and 2017), and eye (2017) 172 only) tissues were collected and stored at -20° C for further molecular diagnostics (see below). 173 174 [B]Histopathology 175 Skin, muscle, fin, gill, eye, kidney, spleen, heart, and liver tissues, as well as transverse 176 and sagittal whole body sections, were collected from representative fish and preserved in

177 phosphate-buffered 10% solution of formalin for histopathological assessment. After embedding

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178	within paraffin, tissues were sectioned at 5 μ m, stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)
179	(Prophet 1992) and examined under a light microscope.
180	
181	[B]Molecular analysis
182	In the years following the 2012 mortality episode and as EEDV molecular assays were
183	being designed and improved, two novel salmonid herpesviruses (i.e., Salmonid Herpesvirus-4;
184	Atlantic Salmon papillomatosis virus (Doszpoly et al. 2013), and Salmonid Herpesvirus-5;
185	Namaycush Herpesvirus (Glenney et al. 2016a)) were identified and found to possess some
186	terminase gene sequence similarity with EEDV (Glenney et al. 2016b). However, glycoprotein
187	gene sequence analysis allowed for development of highly sensitive qPCR assays specific to
188	each of Salmonid Herpesviruses-3, -4, and -5 (Glenney et al. 2016b). Therefore, in the present
189	study, the following three separate PCR assays were employed (Glenney et al. 2016b):
190	
191	1. End-point PCR (terminase gene; amplifies DNA from Salmonid Herpesvirus-3, -4, and -5)
192	(Glenney et al. 2016b)
193	2. TaqMan qPCR (terminase gene; amplifies DNA from Salmonid Herpesvirus-3, -4, and -5)
194	(Glenney et al. 2016b)
195	3. SYBR Green qPCR (glycoprotein gene; amplifies DNA from Salmonid Herpesvirus-3 only)
196	(Glenney et al. 2016b)
197	
198	End-point PCR was used in the 2012 and 2017 EEDV outbreaks for gene sequencing and
199	phylogenetic analyses (see below) whereas the TaqMan qPCR was used for screening purposes

200	from 2012 through the summer of 2016 until the SYBR Green qPCR assay was developed and
201	optimized to definitively identify EEDV infected fish (Glenney et al. 2016b).
202	Available molecular assays changed between 2012 and 2017, so too did the knowledge
203	of EEDV tissue tropism and optimal diagnostic samples (data not shown). As a result, early
204	EEDV testing following the 2012 mortality episode was performed on pools of kidney, spleen
205	and gill tissues lethally collected from juvenile fish, while mucous was non-lethally collected
206	from adult broodstock in order to allow for screening of a larger number of fish without
207	significantly influencing broodstock availability for future fish production. Historical samples
208	from 2007-2012 consisted of kidney, spleen and heart pools previously collected for virological
209	screening and stored at -20°C.
210	For viral DNA extraction, one of two extraction methods was used. For the TaqMan
211	qPCR, the MagMax TM 96 Viral RNA isolation kit (Life Technologies, Grand Island, New York,
212	USA) was used manually, following manufacturer's instructions. Samples were lysed using
213	Proteinase K and Lysis buffer (Qiagen, Germantown, MD, USA), and incubated in a water bath
214	at 55°C for 1 hour. Following lysis, samples were centrifuged at 21,000 x g for 10 minutes and
215	the supernatant used in the extraction process. Following the development of the SYBR Green
216	qPCR assay, viral DNA extractions were performed manually using the Mag Bind® Blood and
217	Tissue DNA Kit (OMEGA Bio-tek, Inc., Norcross, Georgia, USA), following the manufacturer's
218	instructions and with the addition of a filtering step using the E-Z 96® Lysate Clearance Plate
219	(OMEGA Bio-tek, Inc.) after tissue digestion (Glenney et al. 2016b). Following all nucleic acid
220	extractions, DNA was quantified using a Quant-iT DS DNA Assay Kit and a Qubit fluorometer
221	(Life Technologies) and diluted to a standard concentration using nuclease free water.

222	All qPCR reactions were carried out in a Mastercycler ep $realplex^2$ S real-time PCR
223	machine (Eppendorf, Hauppauge, New York, USA). Both the TaqMan and SYBR Green assays
224	were performed as described previously (Glenney et al. 2016b) with the exception that the total
225	reaction volume of the SYBR Green assay was 20 μ L; 30-60 ng total DNA was added to each
226	qPCR reaction. Using the Mastercycler ep $realplex^2$ S accompanying software at the
227	manufacturer's default settings, samples were considered positive based on a threshold setting of
228	the computer default noiseband for the TaqMan assay and 10% maximum florescence for the
229	SYBR Green assay with a limit of 35 cycles for all samples. Positive extraction controls
230	consisted of EEDV-positive tissue samples from diseased Lake Trout collected during a natural
231	EEDV outbreak. Positive amplification controls and standards were produced for both the
232	TaqMan and SYBR Green assays as previously described (Glenney et al. 2016b). Negative
233	controls consisted of water as well as negative tissue extraction controls from disease-free Lake
234	Trout.
235	
235	
235	[B]Gene sequencing and phylogenetic analysis
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236 237	Representative samples ($n = 4$ /episode) that were positive via the TaqMan qPCR (in
236 237 238	[B]Gene sequencing and phylogenetic analysis Representative samples ($n = 4$ /episode) that were positive via the TaqMan qPCR (in 2012) or SYBR Green qPCR (in 2017) were selected for endpoint PCR and subsequent gene
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 236 237 238 239 240 	Representative samples ($n = 4$ /episode) that were positive via the TaqMan qPCR (in 2012) or SYBR Green qPCR (in 2017) were selected for endpoint PCR and subsequent gene sequencing and phylogenetic analysis. Amplicons for sequence analysis were produced using primers 194F (5' - TAG TCT GAT CCC CCT CAT GC - 3') and 249R (5' - GTC GAG TCC

244 DNase-free water. Cycling parameters consisted of an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 15

245	minutes, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 seconds, 59.5°C for 30 seconds and 72°C for 1
246	minute with a final step of 72°C for 10 minutes, and were carried out in a Mastercycler Pro
247	Thermal Cycler (Eppendorf). Amplicons and a 1 kb molecular ladder (Roche Applied Science,
248	Penzberg, Germany) were combined with SYBR Green (Cambrex Bio-Science, Lonza Group,
249	Basel, Switzerland), electrophoresed through a 1.5% agarose gel at 50V for 45 minutes, and
250	visualized under ultraviolet light. Amplicons were then purified using a QIAquick PCR
251	Purification Kit (Qiagen) and Sanger sequenced at the Michigan State University Research
252	Technology Support Facility using both the forward and reverse primers.
253	For phylogenetic analyses, contigs were assembled using the contig assembly program in
254	Bioedit Sequence Alignment Editor (Hall 1999). Multiple sequence alignment was done using
255	ClustalW in the Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis software (MEGA; version 6.0)
256	(Tamura et al. 2013), whereby reference terminase gene sequences for Salmonid Herpesvirus-1
257	through -5 were downloaded from GenBank (NCBI) and included in the alignment (a total of
258	303 bases were included in the final data alignment set). The optimal model for phylogenetic
259	reconstruction was assessed in MEGA 6.0 and the model with the lowest Bayesian Information
260	Criterion (Kimura Two Parameter model with gamma distribution, K2+G) was selected.
261	Neighbor-joining analysis was carried out in MEGA 6.0 with 1,000 resamplings. Bayesian
262	analysis was conducted in MRBAYES version 3.1.2 (K2+G model) (Ronquist et al. 2012). The
263	Markov chains $(n = 4)$ were run for up to one million generations, with a stopping rule in place
264	once the analysis reached an average standard deviation of split frequencies of <0.01. Two
265	independent analyses were conducted, with the initial 25% of Markov chain Monte Carlo
266	samples being discarded as burnin and sampling occurring every 500 generations. Results from
267	Bayesian analyses were visualized in FigTree v1.3.1 (Rambaut 2009).

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268	
269	[B]Experimental challenges and fulfillment of Rivers' Postulates
270	To confirm the virulence of the EEDV strain associated with the 2012 hatchery disease
271	outbreak and fulfill Rivers' Postulates, experimental challenges were performed. Apparently
272	healthy juvenile LS strain Lake Trout (approximately 6 months post hatch) were obtained from
273	MSFH while maintained on a closed (i.e., well) water system and transported live to the
274	Michigan State University - University Research Containment Facility (MSU-URCF, East
275	Lansing, Michigan, USA). The originating lot of fish used for experimental challenges was not
276	present in the hatchery system during either mortality episode. Upon receipt, fish were held in a
277	680 L fiberglass tank supplied with continuous flow-through oxygenated well water (12.0 \pm
278	1.0°C). Fish were fed 1.0 mm sinking feed (Bio-Oregon, Westbrook, Maine, USA) daily and
279	allowed to acclimate to laboratory conditions for at least one month prior to use in experimental
280	challenges. Sixty fish were randomly collected and clinically examined, as per the guidelines of
281	the AFS-FHS Blue Book (2016), and determined to be free from fish pathogens of concern as
282	per the Great Lakes Model Program (Phillips et al. 2014). Likewise, EEDV qPCR confirmed an
283	absence of EEDV. Experimental challenges were performed in accordance with MSU's
284	Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.
285	All experimental challenges were performed in 42 L continuous, flow-through tanks
286	receiving oxygenated, chilled, well water (9.0 \pm 0.5°C), and fish were allowed to acclimate for a

287 minimum of 48 hours to experimental conditions prior to start of challenges. A stock of

288 infectious EEDV was produced from the skin of MSFH-naturally infected Lake Trout following

289 mortality. Skin was homogenized in a sterile phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS; pH $7.5 \pm$

290 0.5; Sigma-Aldrich) at a 1:3 (w/v) ratio, and clarified via low speed centrifugation (1,400 x g) for
20 minutes at 4°C.

Next, LS strain Lake Trout (n = 5 challenge group and n = 5 control group) were anesthetized using MS-222 (0.1 mg/mL) then IP injected with either EEDV stock (1.22x10⁷ viral copies/fish) or sterile PBS. Following recovery from anesthesia, fish were transferred back to experimental tanks for the duration of the studies.

All fish were fed *ad lib* and monitored daily for development of clinical signs of disease, morbidity or mortality for up to 2 months following injection. Any moribund fish displaying a combination of severe clinical signs such as altered behavior, inability to maintain balance, difficulty respiring, significantly pale gills, or severe external lesions was euthanized with MS-222 (0.25 mg/mL). At the end of the two-month period, surviving fish were euthanized. Skin tissues were collected from all fish immediately following death and tested for the presence of EEDV using the TaqMan qPCR protocol described above.

303 Intra- and extra-hatchery EEDV surveillance

304 After the 2012 mortality event, all lots of fish at the hatchery were screened for the 305 presence of EEDV. Between the fall of 2012 and the spring of 2013, pools of kidney, spleen and 306 gill were collected from a total of 120 juvenile LS strain Lake Trout, 240 juvenile SE strain Lake 307 Trout, 480 juvenile Brook Trout, and 240 juvenile splake while mucous was collected non-308 lethally from 60 adult Brook Trout and 270 adult LS strain Lake Trout. Routine EEDV 309 surveillance screening continued among MSFH Lake Trout and splake through 2017 for 310 production fish (n = 60/lot) and broodstock fish (n = 10/lot) with the testing of kidney, spleen, 311 gill, fin, skin, and eye tissues (Table 2.1).

312

Additionally, wild fish were collected by standard electrofishing from Cherry Creek,

313 upstream of MSFH, and tested for the presence of EEDV (Table 2.2). In 2012, 70 each of Brook 314 Trout, Brown Trout (Salmo trutta), and Mottled Sculpin (Cottus bairdii) were collected from 315 Cherry Creek, and in 2013, 60 of each of these three species were collected and tested for EEDV. 316 From 2014-2017, 60 Mottled Sculpin/year were collected from Cherry Creek for EEDV 317 screening. 318 319 [A]Results 320 [B]Description of MSFH mortality events 321 In 2012, approximately 10 days after the heavy rains, juvenile LS strain Lake Trout 322 began exhibiting decreased appetites, evidenced by a lack of interest in food. Within three days, 323 the LS strain Lake Trout in raceways 5a and 5b began riding high in the water column, 324 displaying flashing behavior, and were generally lethargic. Similar changes were noted 10 days 325 later in the SE strain Lake Trout in raceway 6, followed one month later by the SE strain Lake 326 Trout in raceways 4a and 4b. Affected fish developed multifocal skin pallor that in some 327 instances became overgrown with whitish fungal masses. The mortality episode spanned over 328 200 days, with the cumulative mortality by raceway ranging from >15% to >25% (Figure 1) and 329 total losses exceeding 100,000 Lake Trout. Based upon initial clinical examinations, disease 330 signs, and the detection of *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* in external lesions (see below), 331 affected Lake Trout initially received an immersion treatment with Chloramine-T (Halamid®, 332 Syndel USA, Ferndale, Washington, USA; 10 mg/mL for 1 hour for 3 consecutive days, repeated 333 a second time after two days of no treatment). After no discernible improvements, this was 334 followed by two treatment courses with Florfenicol medicated feed (Aquaflor; Merck Animal

Health, Madison, New Jersey, USA; 10 mg/kg body weight/day for 10 days), which resulted inonly a slight and brief decrease in mortality.

Likewise, in late September 2017, 2-year old LS strain Lake Trout (20-27 centimeters in
length) at MSFH began developing disease signs similar to those seen in 2012. Initial mortalities
were approximately 5 fish/day with an additional 12-15 showing signs of morbidity by day.
These levels of mortalities continued through the following month.

341

342 [B]Clinical examination

343 During the 2012 mortality event, both strains of moribund Lake Trout showed a number 344 of external disease signs, including ocular hemorrhage with or without corneal opacity (Figure 345 2A, 2B), gill pallor, multifocal to diffuse skin "blotchiness" (Figure 2C) that was sometimes 346 accompanied by erythema (Figure 2D), ulcerations that penetrated through the epidermis and dermis of the skin into the underlying muscle (Figures 2E, 2F), as well as ulcers that were 347 348 overgrown by water mold hyphae (Figure 2G). In some instances, ulceration progressed to the 349 point where the caudal fin had eroded completely (Figure 2H) and was also accompanied by a 350 yellowish discoloration (Figure 2I), which is commonly associated with flavobacteria. Other 351 notable disease signs included erythema of the fins (Figure 2D), oral cavity, isthmus and 352 ventrum, and excess mucus production of the skin. Internally, occasional hemorrhage within the 353 adipose tissue, hemorrhagic enteritis, splenomegaly, and renal congestion were observed. 354 Clinical findings were similar between both strains of Lake Trout; however, those seen in the LS 355 strain tended to be more severe than those in the SE strain. 356 During the 2017 outbreak, disease signs similar to the 2012 outbreak were observed and 357 were once again predominated by ocular hemorrhage (Figure 3A), varying degrees of skin

358	ulceration (Figure 3B, 3C), and overgrowth by water mold (Figure 3D). In both the 2012 and
359	2017 outbreaks, microscopic examination of skin and gill preparations revealed the presence of
360	occasional monogeneans (Gyrodactylus spp.), gliding filamentous bacterial rods consistent with
361	flavobacteria, and aseptated hyphae consistent with the oomycete Saprolegnia.
362	
363	[B]Bacterial and viral isolation
364	Flavobacterium psychrophilum was recovered from a portion of the external lesions, and
365	motile Aeromonas spp. were occasionally recovered in kidney cultures, albeit in relatively low
366	quantities. No signs of viral replication were observed in cell lines following inoculation with
367	tissue homogenate supernatant.
368	Histopathology
369	Histopathological findings in EEDV-infected Lake Trout collected during the 2012
370	outbreak included corneal epithelial necrosis and/or ulceration (Figure 4A), epithelial necrosis
371	and ulceration of the skin (Figure 4B), lamellar edema (Figure 4C), gill epithelial
372	swelling/hypertrophy (Figure 4D), proteinaceous exudate within both Bowman's space and the
373	renal tubules (Figure 4E), renal tubular epithelial necrosis (Figure 4F), and multifocal necrosis of
374	the renal interstitium (Figure 4F). Similar microscopic changes were observed in EEDV-infected
375	2 year old LS strain Lake Trout in 2017; however, individual necrosis of the gill lamellar
376	epithelium and a moderate dermatitis in the skin were also observed, as was hemosiderosis
377	within the spleen.
378	

379 [B]Molecular identification

380 PCR-based molecular assays clearly demonstrated the presence of a salmonid herpesvirus 381 in affected MSFH Lake Trout tissues from 2012. Skin, gill and kidney/spleen tissues from 16 382 fish (8 LS and 8 SE strain Lake Trout) tested positive via endpoint and TagMan gPCR, although 383 sequencing was required for confirmation of EEDV identity (see below). EEDV was detected in 384 the LS strain Lake Trout from 7 of 8 gill samples, 7 of 8 kidney/spleen sample pools, and 8 of 8 385 skin samples, and in the SE strain Lake Trout from all 24 tissues tested. Viral gene copy number per reaction in the LS strain Lake Trout ranged from 3.0×10^1 to 2.3×10^3 (median = 2.01×10^2) in 386 the gills, to 1.4×10^{1} to 6.56×10^{2} (median = 1.34×10^{2}) in the kidney/spleen, and 1.98×10^{4} to 387 9.80×10^5 (median = 9.22×10^4) in the skin. Viral gene copy number per reaction in the SE strain 388 Lake Trout ranged from 1.92×10^3 to 9.63×10^4 (median = 1.26×10^4) in the gills, to 1.0×10^1 to 389 5.45×10^4 (median = 4.06×10^1) in the kidney/spleen, and 2.70×10^2 to 1.44×10^4 (median = 390 2.56×10^3) in the skin. 391 392 The presence of EEDV in the 2017 mortality event was confirmed using the SYBR green 393 gPCR assay, as well as with endpoint PCR and gene sequencing (see below). All tissues collected from moribund fish were positive for EEDV: 10 of 10 skin lesions $(2.57 \times 10^4 \text{ to})$ 394

395 1.42×10^6 ; median = 2.04×10^5 copies) and 10 of 10 eye tissues (8.68×10^3 to 2.38×10^7 ; median =

 1.38×10^6 copies).

397

398 [B]Sequencing and phylogenetics

Amplification and sequencing of a portion of the EEDV terminase gene from four naturally infected Lake Trout from each of the 2012 and 2017 EEDV outbreaks led to the generation of gene fragments totaling 311-322 bps in length. Percent similarity analysis revealed that three out of four MSFH EEDV isolates from 2012 and four out of four 2017 isolates were 100% similar to the Salmonid Herpesvirus-3 isolate from Wisconsin (accession # EU349284) at
this locus, whereas one 2012 isolate was 99.7% similar (310/311 bp) to the Wisconsin reference
isolate. Phylogenetic analyses placed the eight MSFH EEDV isolates into a robustly supported
clade (i.e., posterior probability and bootstrap values >70) that also contained the Wisconsin
reference isolate, which shared a most recent common ancestor with Salmonid Herpesvirus-4
and -5 (Figure 5).

409

410 [B]Pilot experimental challenges

411 In the EEDV experimentally challenged Lake Trout, 80% mortality was reached at 29 412 days post-infection with previous mortalities occurring at days 6, 13, and 20 post-infection. 413 EEDV was detected in multiple tissues from infected fish that died on days 13, 20, and 29 postinfection. The virus was found in the skin/fin pools (3 of 5 fish; 9.40×10^4 to 2.50×10^6 ; median = 414 5.85×10^5 copies/reaction), gill (2 of 5 fish; 4.61×10^3 to 5.26×10^3 ; median = 4.93×10^3 415 copies/reaction), and kidney/spleen pools (3 of 5 fish: 3.60×10^2 to 2.72×10^3 ; median = 8.68×10^2 416 417 copies/reaction) of experimentally challenged fish. Clinical signs were consistent with those seen 418 in the natural epizootics and included ocular hemorrhage (Figure 6A), skin pallor, erosions and 419 ulcerations (Figure 6B, 6C), with congestion and erosion of the fins. The control group 420 experienced only a single mortality, and no evidence of EEDV infection was detected in any 421 control fish.

422

423 [B]Intra- and extra-hatchery EEDV surveillance

424 Using qPCR as detailed above, EEDV was not detected in any of the adult Brook Trout
425 or Lake Trout broodstock tested in 2012. Of the 120 juvenile LS strain Lake Trout and 240

426	juvenile SE strain Lake Trout tested in 2012 following the mortality episode, EEDV was
427	detected in 24 fish (21 to 113 virus copies/reaction; median = 36) and 21 fish (20 to 1,828 virus
428	copies/reaction; median = 69), respectively. It is interesting to note that, while beyond the
429	established cut off of 35 cycles, amplification was observed between 35 and 40 cycles from a
430	total of 132 additional juvenile Lake Trout tested in 2012. Likewise, while no juvenile splake or
431	Brook Trout had detectible levels of EEDV, amplification was observed between 35 and 40
432	cycles in two Brook Trout samples and four splake samples (kidney, spleen, and gill tissues).
433	Following the 2012 mortality event, EEDV screening at MSFH continued through 2017, as
434	detailed in Table 2.1, including the testing of archived historical samples from 2007 and 2011.
435	During routine surveillance in 2017, EEDV was detected in 8 adult (5 years post-hatch)
436	and 5 juvenile (2 years post-hatch) LS strain Lake Trout in fin and eye tissues ranging from
437	1.27×10^2 to 1.1×10^7 viral copies in the fin (median = 3.89×10^3) and 6.9×10^3 to 2.5×10^5 viral
438	copies in the eye (median = 1.28×10^5). Of note, these samples were collected just prior to the
439	appearance of disease signs in the affected lot.
440	EEDV screening in fish collected from Cherry Creek (i.e., the surface water system
441	feeding MSFH) is detailed in Table 2.2. All Brook Trout and Brown Trout collected were
442	EEDV-negative ($n = 150$ and $n = 185$, respectively). All Mottled Sculpin were EEDV-negative
443	except for five pools ($n = 25$ fish) in 2013.
444	
445	[A]Discussion
446	The Lake Trout-lethal herpesvirus, EEDV, has re-emerged in one hatchery within the
447	Great Lakes basin, where it is again associated with substantial mortality, severe disease signs,
4.4.0	

448 and high viral loads in multiple strains of fingerling Lake Trout, with disease signs in 2 year old

449 Lake Trout and virus detection in 5 year old Lake Trout as well. Moreover, laboratory 450 experiments aimed at fulfilling Rivers' postulates confirmed the ability of the causative virus 451 strain to produce clinical signs and mortality consistent with those seen in natural EEDV 452 outbreaks, despite the absence of secondary invaders (e.g., oomycetes, F. psychrophilum, etc.) 453 that were present in the natural outbreaks. The resurgence of EEDV after decades of an apparent 454 absence is both surprising and perplexing. On one hand, it is known that some human and animal 455 herpesviruses can run a covert, low-level infection in which the host survives and becomes a 456 viral reservoir within a system, particularly with a long lived fish species with a low mortality 457 rate in the hatchery (Bonsall et al. 2005). On the other hand, sub-lethal infections are uncommon 458 among the other fish-pathogenic alloherpesviruses, although shedding of infectious virus has 459 been detected following survival from Cyprinid Herpesvirus-3 infection (an OIE reportable 460 pathogen) (Yuasa et al. 2008; Hanson et al. 2011; Baumer et al. 2013). In the case of EEDV, the 461 1980s reports demonstrated its high pathogenicity to Lake Trout and suggested that survival of 462 infected fish was unlikely. This concept prevailed until Kurobe et al. (2009) developed a novel 463 PCR assay based on the terminase gene sequence and reported the presence of EEDV in 464 apparently healthy Lake Trout collected from Wisconsin waters, signifying that EEDV may be 465 capable of causing sub-lethal infections within Lake Trout. Indeed, such infections have 466 subsequently been reported for EEDV (i.e., Salmonid Herpesvirus-3) and Salmonid Herpesvirus-467 5 in wild, clinically normal, adult Lake Trout throughout the northeastern United States (Glenney 468 et al. 2016a, 2016b). In this context, it is possible that MSFH Lake Trout harbored a sub-clinical 469 EEDV infection prior to the fall of 2012 and that stressors, such as the heavy, warm rain events 470 that preceded each of the outbreaks and resulted in an influx of sediment-laden water into 471 hatchery rearing units, led to clinical outbreaks of EEDV. This is a particularly key point when

discussing species such as Lake Trout whose natural habitats rarely see such decreases in water
quality. In combination with high hatchery densities (also not seen naturally), this demonstrates a
clear stress trigger for disease outbreaks caused by pathogens such as EEDV.

475 Alternatively, it is possible the virus found its way into the hatchery via the source water, 476 as, in 2013, EEDV DNA was detected in Mottled Sculpin residing upstream of MSFH in Cherry 477 Creek, the stream supplying water to the affected fish. Indeed, it was a surprise to detect EEDV 478 DNA in non-salmonids, as alloherpesviruses are known to be highly species-specific. Detection 479 of viral DNA on external tissues alone would be questionable as to whether these fish were truly 480 infected, or if EEDV genetic material was present in the water only. However, the detection of 481 EEDV DNA within pools of kidney, spleen and heart tissues raises the possibility that these fish 482 were truly infected, although conclusive determination of whether the virus was active or not 483 was unfortunately not possible. Nevertheless, experiments examining the susceptibility of 484 Sculpin to EEDV are currently underway. It is noteworthy that the UV system installed to treat 485 the incoming water serving the juvenile Lake Trout malfunctioned in the summer and fall of 486 2017. It is not known how long the system was nonfunctional but the timing of fall rains and 487 resulting water turbidity and the loss of UV treatment could have synergistically contributed to 488 the 2017 outbreak of EEDV in the 2012 year class of juvenile LS strain Lake Trout and to the 489 2017 detection of the virus in the 2015 year class of juvenile LS strain Lake Trout. 490 Finally, it is also possible that the LS strain Lake Trout broodstock collected as eggs from 491 the waters of western Lake Superior in 2001, 2003, and 2004 harbored a native sub-clinical 492 EEDV infection and acted as a source of infection for the progeny in 2012 and 2015 year classes.

- 493 Parental brood lots for the 2012 year class were the 2001, 2003, and 2004 Lake Trout. The
- 494 parental brood lots for the 2015 year class were the 2003, 2004, and F2 generation 2009 (2001

495	and 2003) Lake Trout. Although there are no reports of EEDV vertical transmission, Kurobe et
496	al. (2009) detected EEDV DNA in the ovarian fluids of spawning Lake Trout from Lake
497	Superior, and both Salmonid Herpesvirus-3 and -5 have been detected in the ovarian fluid of
498	clinically normal Lake Trout from Lake Champlain, Vermont (Glenney et al. 2016b). Likewise,
499	it was suggested that broodstock may be a source of infectious virus after multiple EEDV
500	outbreaks in the 1980s occurred in juvenile Lake Trout reared on well water (McAllister and
501	Herman 1989; Kurobe et al. 2009), indicating a source of infection other than the water supply.
502	Additionally, EEDV outbreaks occurred in first year progeny from wild source broodstock in the
503	1980s (Kurobe et al. 2009), and while infection source tracking wasn't possible at the time, the
504	more recent detection of EEDV genomic material in apparently clinically normal fish (Kurobe et
505	al. 2009; Glenney et al. 2016b) allows for the supposition that the MSFH broodstock were
506	harboring an undetected EEDV infection despite a two year period of juvenile isolation which
507	included stress and fish health testing prior to the fish arriving at MSFH.
508	The EEDV outbreak in 2017 was equally surprising given that: a) the virus had not been
509	detected in MSFH since 2012 despite regular surveillance of broodstock and production fish with
509 510	detected in MSFH since 2012 despite regular surveillance of broodstock and production fish with the highly sensitive TaqMan and SYBR green qPCR assays; b) it led to mortality in 2-year old
510	the highly sensitive TaqMan and SYBR green qPCR assays; b) it led to mortality in 2-year old
510 511	the highly sensitive TaqMan and SYBR green qPCR assays; b) it led to mortality in 2-year old Lake Trout as opposed to fingerlings or yearlings, which, to our knowledge, has not been
510 511 512	the highly sensitive TaqMan and SYBR green qPCR assays; b) it led to mortality in 2-year old Lake Trout as opposed to fingerlings or yearlings, which, to our knowledge, has not been reported previously; and c) it was associated with severe signs of disease and high virus loads in
510511512513	the highly sensitive TaqMan and SYBR green qPCR assays; b) it led to mortality in 2-year old Lake Trout as opposed to fingerlings or yearlings, which, to our knowledge, has not been reported previously; and c) it was associated with severe signs of disease and high virus loads in older fish. Importantly, during each mortality event, detection of EEDV was limited to a single
 510 511 512 513 514 	the highly sensitive TaqMan and SYBR green qPCR assays; b) it led to mortality in 2-year old Lake Trout as opposed to fingerlings or yearlings, which, to our knowledge, has not been reported previously; and c) it was associated with severe signs of disease and high virus loads in older fish. Importantly, during each mortality event, detection of EEDV was limited to a single cluster of raceways that shared common attributes such as age or proximity, further supporting
 510 511 512 513 514 515 	the highly sensitive TaqMan and SYBR green qPCR assays; b) it led to mortality in 2-year old Lake Trout as opposed to fingerlings or yearlings, which, to our knowledge, has not been reported previously; and c) it was associated with severe signs of disease and high virus loads in older fish. Importantly, during each mortality event, detection of EEDV was limited to a single cluster of raceways that shared common attributes such as age or proximity, further supporting the importance of biosecurity within the hatchery. As was the case in the 2012 outbreak, heavy

518	outbreaks. Thus, this study suggests that EEDV is not only capable of causing mortality and
519	disease in fingerling and yearling Lake Trout, but under certain conditions in older fish as well,
520	further demonstrating the effect this virus can have on Lake Trout rehabilitation efforts.
521	Typically, only two year classes of production Lake Trout are housed on hatchery grounds at any
522	given time, the youngest of which are held in indoor "nursery" raceways on well water until the
523	older fish in the production building are stocked into the wild. Because of this process, a
524	mortality event in production aged fish, while problematic to that year's stocking goals, can
525	potentially be compensated for in following years with alterations in the number of spawning
526	family pairs and in stocking management plans. Significant mortalities in captive broodstock,
527	however, have the potential to be catastrophic to Lake Trout rehabilitation and population
528	management, as these fish are frequently used to produce many consecutive years of production
529	fish. Additionally, Lake Trout are slow-maturing fish, taking typically 6-7 years to reach sexual
530	maturity, meaning that if a hatchery loses a younger lot of broodstock to EEDV, it could take
531	years to rebuild a new line of reproductive stock.
532	The 2012 disease outbreak also revealed some interesting epidemiological aspects of
533	EEDV within a hatchery environment. First, it is noteworthy that in 2012, the LS strain Lake
534	Trout were the first to show clinical signs of disease, followed by the SE strain Lake Trout
535	receiving 2nd pass water that included water from the affected LS strain Lake Trout rearing
536	units, followed lastly by the SE strain Lake Trout that were housed next to the affected LS strain
537	Lake Trout. As noted previously, the source of EEDV (e.g., source water, covert infections,
538	and/or broodstock) for this outbreak is unknown, but the pattern of EED initiation in 2012, when
539	coupled to the fish strain, suggests that susceptibility to EEDV may vary by Lake Trout strain.
540	Interestingly, however, comparison of viral loads between strains during the 2012 mortality

541 event revealed comparable levels of EEDV between the two strains in the kidney, spleen and 542 skin while the SE strain Lake Trout had higher viral loads in the gills. However, in future 543 screening, the virus was detectible either at comparable levels between strains (2012), or only in 544 the LS strain Lake Trout (2017). Knowledge of strain variation in disease resistance and research 545 into specific genetic markers provides resource managers with the option to focus or tailor 546 management strategies toward producing more resistant strains of fish or protecting more 547 susceptible ones. Such a strain variation in susceptibility of Rainbow Trout (Oncorhynchus 548 *mykiss*) to the Infectious Pancreatic Necrosis Virus (IPNV) has been well documented (Ozaki et 549 al. 2001). Armed with the ability to experimentally induce clinical EED, future experiments can 550 focus on dissecting these potential strain variations as well as more closely examining the non-551 Lake Trout species susceptibility to EEDV. 552 In addition, the observed temporal pattern of disease also suggests that a water borne

553 route of transmission (i.e., from LS strain fish in raceways 5a and 5b to SE strain fish in raceway 554 6), without the need for direct fish to fish contact, may be important in EEDV contagion. 555 Similarly, the initiation of disease signs and mortality in SE strain Lake Trout maintained next 556 to, not up- or down-stream from, the LS strain Lake Trout that first showed disease signs, 557 highlights the importance of biosecurity and the potential for virus spread without rearing unit 558 interconnectivity. Lastly, Brook Trout, which were reared in parallel raceways and next to the 559 affected SE strain Lake Trout, and splake, which were receiving 2nd pass water from the EEDV-560 infected SE and LS strain Lake Trout rearing units, never developed EED. These findings are in 561 line with the reports of Bradley et al. (Bradley et al. 1988) and McAllister & Herman (McAllister 562 and Herman 1989) as no other salmonids on hatchery grounds during the 1980s EEDV outbreaks 563 experienced mortalities, and experimental challenge of Brook Trout did not result in clinical

564 disease or mortalities (Bradley et al. 1989; McAllister and Herman 1989). Interestingly, although

there is no peer-reviewed data, it has been reported that Lake Trout hybrids can be

566 experimentally infected with EEDV (McAllister 1991).

Gross and histopathologic findings in these cases were consistent with those seen in the initial description of EEDV in the 1980s. As the name of this virus implies, the most significant microscopic lesions noted in this study were in the skin and gill epithelia, which may contribute to death of the host through osmoregulatory impairment and/or respiratory dysfunction.

571 Additionally, the outer layers of the skin and gills serve as an important line of defense against

572 fish pathogens, and as a result, any insult to this layer can predispose the affected host to a suite

573 of opportunistic microbial pathogens, as was observed in this study in the form of *F*.

574 psychrophilum, Aeromonas spp., and water mold infections in the more progressed EEDV-

575 associated skin lesions.

576 Recent advancements in phylogenetics have allowed for improvements in our knowledge 577 of the relationships among fish herpesviruses (Waltzek et al. 2009). Gene sequencing and 578 phylogenetic analyses performed in this study confirmed the identity of the etiological agent as 579 EEDV and also showed that seven of the eight isolates from the 2012 and 2017 outbreaks were 580 identical to the Salmonid Herpesvirus-3 reference isolate (Waltzek et al. 2009) over the 581 sequenced portion of the terminase gene. One isolate displayed a single nucleotide 582 polymorphism (SNP) when compared to the other seven MSFH isolates and the reference isolate 583 (Figure 5). Of note, this SNP led to an amino acid shift from a glutamine to a leucine (data not 584 shown), but its effects on the functionality of the terminase gene product, which involve 585 packaging viral DNA into the virus capsid (Sigamani et al. 2013), are currently unknown. 586 Nevertheless, this study confirms the continued presence of highly similar EEDV strains in

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multiple Great Lakes states, a matter of concern in the context of Lake Trout rehabilitation andconservation efforts in the Laurentian Great Lakes.

589 These recent outbreaks of EEDV within the Great Lakes basin have highlighted the 590 magnitude of work remaining to be completed in order to fully understand this disease. As 591 molecular diagnostic assays continue to improve, other testing strategies must improve to match. 592 This includes identifying and screening all at-risk populations, particularly gametes and live fish 593 slated to enter a hatchery system, as well as focusing diagnostic efforts on sample collections 594 most likely to highlight an EEDV infection by identifying viral target tissues. Increasing our 595 working knowledge of Lake Trout immunology will allow for the identification of previously 596 exposed fish and potential susceptibility differentiation between strains of Lake Trout, leading to 597 potential alterations in management strategies to produce larger numbers of more resistant fish, 598 assuming this process does not select against other important survival characteristics.

599 Efforts must be made to culture this virus, as the current lack of an EEDV-susceptible 600 cell line hampers both diagnostic options as well as research opportunities. Without the ability to 601 culture and produce an infectious stock of EEDV, frozen tissues and epizootic-surviving fish, 602 both potentially containing active EED virus, are of vital importance. Possession of these unique materials will allow this much-needed research to be conducted. Moreover, further research into 603 604 the pathogenesis and biological properties of this deadly virus in hatcheries will provide fishery 605 management agencies with the tools and information necessary to not only prevent future 606 outbreaks of EEDV, but also continue the successful rehabilitation of Lake Trout populations 607 across North America. As a result of the noted issues with detection in the past, we also suspect 608 EEDV has a much wider distribution throughout the Great Lakes than currently known, and is

likely present in many other hatchery systems, further highlighting the importance of continued
work on this virus.
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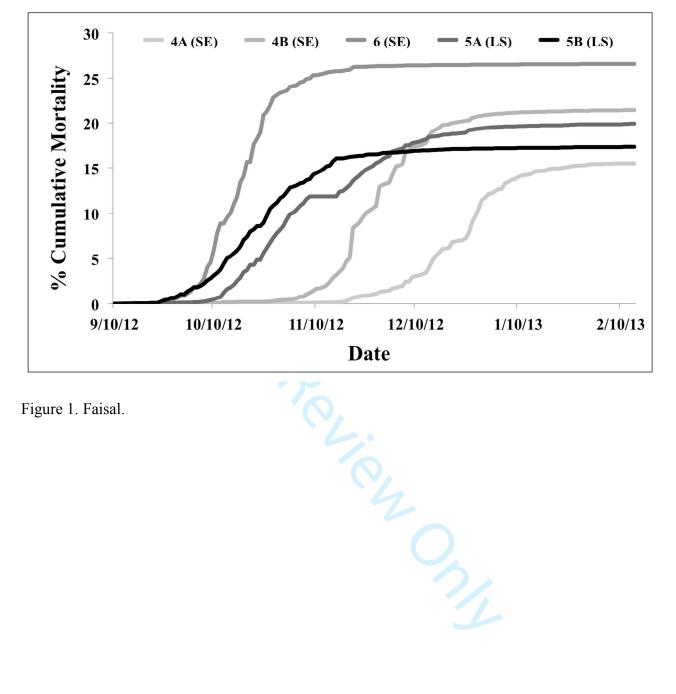
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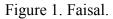
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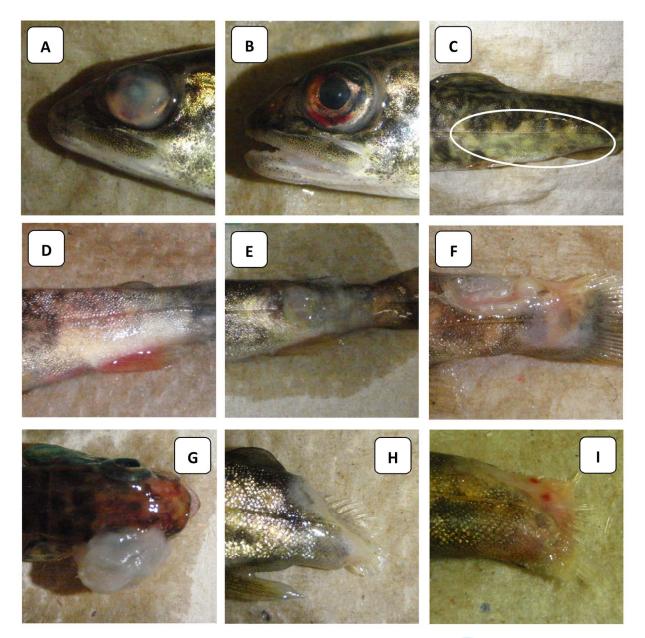


Figure 2. Faisal.

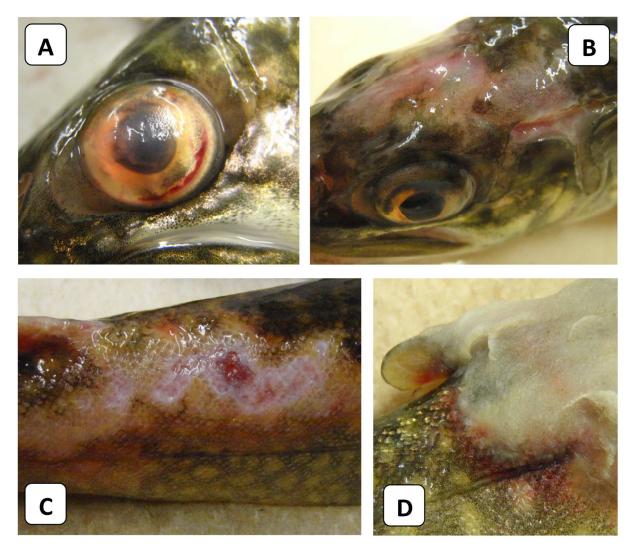


Figure 3. Faisal.



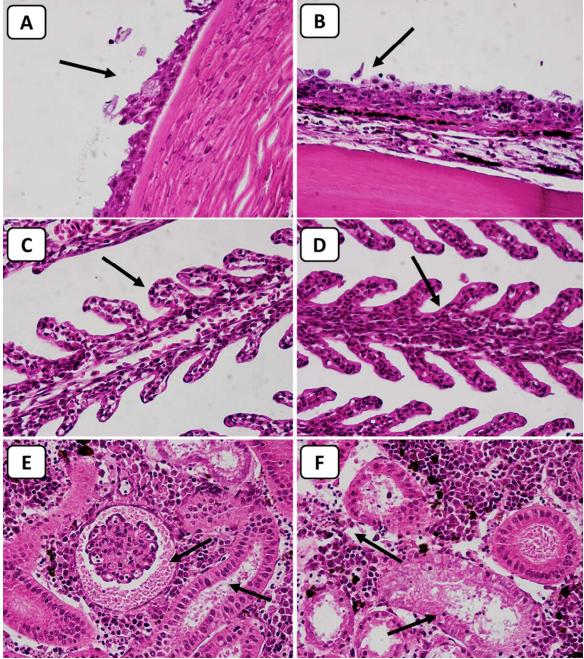
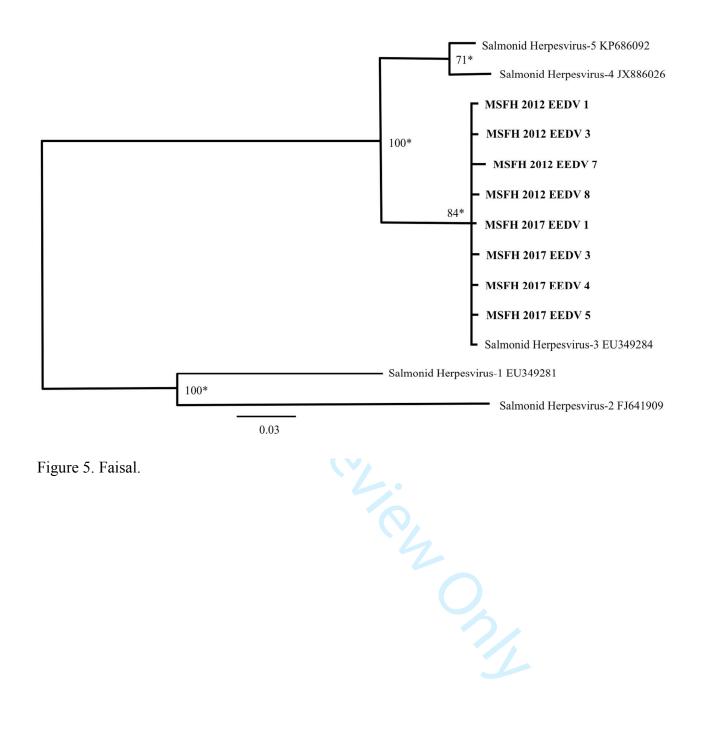


Figure 4. Faisal.



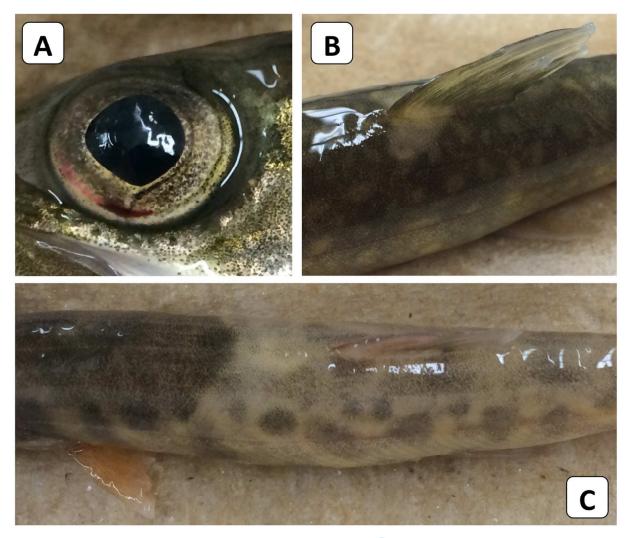


Figure 6. Faisal.

Figure Captions:

Figure 1. Cumulative percent mortalities during the 2012 mortality event at Marquette State Fish Hatchery (MSFH), Michigan, among juvenile production Lake Trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*) by rearing unit raceway. Prior to mortality event, production fish numbers were approximately as follows: Raceway 4A - 125,105 fish; Raceway 4B - 124,782 fish; Raceway 5A - 75,031 fish; Raceway 5B - 76,085 fish; and Raceway 6 - 56,167 fish.

Figure 2. Gross clinical signs exhibited by Lake Trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*) naturally infected with Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus (EEDV) at Marquette State Fish Hatchery (MSFH), Michigan, in 2012; (A, D, E, G) Lake Superior strain Lake Trout and (B, C, F, H) Seneca Lake strain Lake Trout. (A) advanced stage ocular degeneration with hemorrhage and corneal opacity; (B) ocular hemorrhage; (C) diffuse skin "blotchiness," dermal erosion and excess mucous production; (D) dermal erosion, "blotchiness" and erythema, anal fin congestion; (E) dermal erosion, ulceration of trunk and caudal peduncle; (F) caudal peduncle ulceration, necrosis and dermal erosion; (G) ocular degeneration with substantial water mold overgrowth; (H) caudal fin ulceration with exposed vertebrae; (I) caudal fin ulceration, exposed fin rays.

Figure 3. Gross clinical signs exhibited by Lake Superior strain Lake Trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*) naturally infected with Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus (EEDV) at Marquette State Fish Hatchery (MSFH), Michigan, in 2017. (A) ocular hemorrhage and ulceration; (B) cranial epithelial erosion, ulceration and hemorrhage; (C) skin erosion, ulceration and hemorrhage of trunk and dorsum; (D) skin ulceration with secondary overgrowth and hemorrhagic margins.

Figure 4. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stained tissue sections from hatchery-reared Lake Trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*) that were naturally infected with Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus (EEDV). (A) corneal epithelial ulceration and necrosis (400x magnification); (B) epithelial ulceration and necrosis of the skin (400x magnification); (C) gill lamellar edema (400x magnification); (D) gill epithelial swelling/hypertrophy (400x magnification); (E) proteinaceous exudate within both Bowman's space and the renal tubular epithelium (400x magnification); and (F) renal tubular epithelial necrosis and multifocal necrosis of the renal interstitium (400x magnification).

Figure 5. Dendrogram depicting the relationships of eight Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus (EEDV) isolates (denoted in bold) from the 2012 and 2017 outbreaks at Marquette State Fish Hatchery (MSFH), Michigan, with isolates representing the five currently described salmonid herpesviruses. The dendrogram was generated in MRBAYES 3.1.2 (*120*) using the Kimura Two Parameter model with gamma distribution based upon the lowest Bayesian Information Criterion. The Markov chains (n = 4) were run until an average standard deviation of split frequencies of < 0.01 was attained. Two independent analyses were conducted, with the initial 25% of Markov chain Monte Carlo samples being discarded as burnin. Posterior probabilities \geq 70 are displayed at the nodes, where an * denotes that the same node was supported in Neighbor-Joining analysis (i.e., boot strap value \geq 70). The final data set contained 303 bp of the terminase gene.

Figure 6. Gross pathology associated with Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus (EEDV) experimentally challenged Lake Trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*). (A) ocular hemorrhage; (B) multifocal pallor, skin and fin erosion; (C) generalized pallor with skin and fin erosion.

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Year tested	Species (strain)	Age	Tissue tested	EEDV-positive
2007	Lake Trout (LS)	Adult	KSp	0/11
2011	Lake Trout (LS)	Juvenile	KSpH	0/6
	Lake Trout (SE)	Juvenile	KSpH	0/20
2012	Brook Trout	Adult	Μ	0/60
	Brook Trout	Juvenile	KSpG	0/480
	Lake Trout (LS)	Adult	KSpH, M	0/270
	Lake Trout (LS)*	Juvenile	KSp, G, Sk	8/8
	Lake Trout (LS)	Juvenile	KSpH, G	24/120
	Lake Trout (SE)*	Juvenile	KSp, G, Sk	8/8
	Lake Trout (SE)	Juvenile	KSpH, G	21/240
	Splake	Juvenile	KSpG	0/240
2013	Lake Trout (LS)	Adult	KSpG	0/30
	Lake Trout (LS)	Juvenile	G, F, KSpG	2/300
	Lake Trout (SE)	Juvenile	G, F, KSpG	0/240
	Splake	Juvenile	G	0/60
2014	Lake Trout (LS)	Juvenile	G	0/60
	Lake Trout (SE)	Juvenile	G	0/80
2016	Lake Trout (LS)	Adult	SkG	0/20*
	Lake Trout (LS)	Juvenile	G, SkG	0/70 [§]
	Lake Trout (SE)	Juvenile	G	0/60
2017	Lake Trout (LS)	Adult	F, E	8/80*
	Lake Trout (LS)	Juvenile	F	5/120*
	Lake Trout (LS)*	Juvenile	Sk, E	10/10*
	Lake Trout (SE)	Juvenile	F	0/120*

Table 1. Number of positive fish detected by EEDV screening at Marquette State Fish Hatchery, Michigan, 2007-2017 (number positive/number tested). Sampling during mortality episodes denoted by a (*). Tissues tested included kidney (K), spleen (Sp), heart (H), mucous (M), gill (G), skin (Sk), fin (F), and eye (E) and were either pooled (e.g., KSpH) or individual (e.g., K, Sp, H). All samples tested using EEDV TaqMan qPCR as described, except where indicated: (�) tested with EEDV SYBR green qPCR, (§) tested with both qPCR assays.

Year tested	Species	Tissue tested	EEDV-positive	
2011	Brook Trout	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/4	
	Brown Trout	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/11	
	Mottled Sculpin	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/12	
2012	Brook Trout	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/14	
	Brown Trout	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/14	
	Mottled Sculpin	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/14	
2013	Brook Trout	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/12	
	Brook Trout	Gills	0/12	
	Brown Trout	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	0/12	
	Brown Trout	Gills	0/12	
	Mottled Sculpin	Kidney/Spleen/Heart	2/12	
	Mottled Sculpin	Gills	3/12	
2015	Mottled Sculpin	Gills	0/12	
2016	Mottled Sculpin	Gills	0/12	
2017	Mottled Sculpin	Fin	0/12*	

Table 2. EEDV screening in Cherry Creek, Michigan, 2011-2017. No sampling was associated with a mortality episode. All testing was performed in pools of five fish per pool. All samples tested using EEDV TaqMan qPCR as described, except where indicated: (�) tested with EEDV SYBR green qPCR.

Elucidating the host range of epizootic epitheliotropic disease virus (Salmonid herpesvirus-3)

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1. Abstract

Epizootic epitheliotropic disease virus (EEDV, salmonid herpesvirus-3; Family Alloherpesviridae) emerged in the 1980's as a significant mortality source in lake trout (Salvelinus namaycush) reared in multiple hatcheries within the Great Lakes basin. However, EEDV-associated losses were not reported again until the virus re-emerged in 2012 and 2017, at which time the source of the virus remained unknown. During these and the earlier EED outbreaks, questions surfaced regarding the intraspecific susceptibility to EEDV among Great Lakes lake trout strains that are raised for conservation and stock enhancement purposes, as well as whether EEDV was truly a lake trout-specific virus. Herein, the susceptibility of eleven Great Lakes fish species/strains, representing four families (i.e., Salmonidae, Cottidae, Centrachidae, and Esocidae) were intra-coelomically injected with two concentrations of EEDV corresponding to 4.75×10^3 (low dose, LD) or 4.74×10^5 (high dose, HD) virus copies per fish (as determined by an EEDV-specific SYBR Green qPCR assay). No mortality, EED disease signs, and/or virus were detected in brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis), brown trout (Salmo trutta), Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar), rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss), coho salmon (O. kisutch), lake herring (Coregonus artedii), largemouth bass (Micropterus salmoides), or muskellunge (Esox masquinongy). However, the same HD EEDV concentration led to clinical EED and 80% mortality in Lake Superior strain lake trout, as well as virus loads that in one case exceeded 1.9×10^9 virus copies/mg of skin tissue. The same infectious dose did not induce any mortality in Seneca strain lake trout, but nevertheless resulted in clinical EEDV infections, whereby EED signs were observed and virus loads in a subset of fish at 100 days post-infection ranged from $1.6 \times 10^7 - 7.2 \times 10^7$ virus copies/mg skin tissue. Moreover, EEDV was detected in one of ten HD-

challenged splake (lake trout x brook trout hybrid) that died 10 days post-infection at titers substantially higher than the initial inoculum (3.8x10⁷ viral copies/mg skin), indicating EEDV replication had occurred. EEDV DNA was also detected in one mottled sculpin (*Cottus bairdii*), although the role this species plays in supporting EEDV replication and serving as EEDV reservoir appears unlikely. Collectively, study results show that lake trout strains vary in their susceptibility to EEDV, that in some cases, splake may serve as a short term EEDV reservoir, and overall affirm the complexities of EEDV disease ecology.

2. Introduction

In the 1980's, Great Lakes fishery managers were confronted with the emergence of a deadly disease of lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*). These outbreaks resulted in the death of > 15 million lake trout in multiple hatcheries within the Laurentian Great Lakes region (Bradley et al., 1988, 1989), and were of particular concern due to the reliance of the basin-wide Lake Trout Rehabilitation Program on these hatchery fish. Despite the initial difficulties in identifying the etiological agent responsible for these mortality events, it was eventually determined that a herpesvirus was the cause; namely, the Epizootic Epitheliotropic Disease Virus (EEDV; Bradley et al., 1988, 1989) that was later identified as the Salmonid Herpesvirus-3 (SalHV-3) and placed in the family Alloherpesviridae (Waltzek et al., 2009). To date, EEDV has yet to be cultured under *in vitro* conditions.

Herpesviruses are thought to have emerged approximately 400 million years ago, and have since been associated with infections across an array of animal phyla. The fish herpesviruses make up a monophyletic family, the Alloherpesviridae (Waltzek et al., 2009). Several alloherpesviruses have been associated with severe economic losses in a variety of cultured fish species (lake trout (Bradley et al., 1988), catfish (Alborali et al., 1996) and common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*, Garver et al., 2010)). As is the case with terrestrial herpesviruses, those affecting fish are known to have a very narrow host range, typically causing disease in only one fish species (Hanson et al., 2011). Following this trend, to date, EEDV epizootics have only been reported in lake trout (Bradley et al., 1989), but the ability of other fish species to harbor EEDV in the absence of clinical disease signs is not well understood.

In efforts to examine whether other salmonid species were susceptible to EEDV, McAllister and Herman (1989) housed fingerling brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*), brown trout (*Salmo trutta*), rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) with EEDV-infected lake trout. They also immersed the same four species in water containing filtered skin homogenate collected from EEDV-infected lake trout. No deaths attributable to EEDV were observed in any non-lake trout salmonids through either exposure method during the 60 day experiments (McAllister and Herman, 1989); however, the authors acknowledged that this "does not preclude the possibility that these species could develop an inapparent infection...". Bradley et al. (1989) came to a similar conclusion, in that brook, brown, and rainbow trout, Atlantic salmon, and Chinook salmon cohabitated with EEDV-infected lake trout did not develop characteristic EED signs, despite the fact that mortality exceeded 60% in the challenged lake trout. EEDV infection status in these fish could not be assessed due to an inability to culture EEDV *in vitro* and the lack of EEDV-specific molecular diagnostic tests at that time.

In 2009, a PCR based diagnostic assay was developed and proved to be capable of detecting EEDV viral DNA in infected fish tissues (Kurobe et al., 2009). Unpublished reports using this assay have suggested that some non-lake trout salmonids may be capable of harboring EEDV, but the sensitivity of this assay has since been questioned (Glenney et al., 2016a) and

others have suggested that specificity problems may be at the core of these positive results. As a result, Glenney et al. (2016b) developed a new sensitive and specific quantitative PCR (qPCR) assay, which has since been employed to investigate EEDV infection status in Great Lakes fishes. In 2017, Shavalier (2017) found that mottled sculpin (*Cottus bairdii*) harbored EEDV DNA.

Armed with the new sensitive and specific qPCR assay of Glenney et al. (2016a), a series of experiments were designed to: a) determine if susceptibility to EEDV infection and mortality vary in lake trout strains; and b) assess the ability of EEDV to infect a range of Great Lakes fish species, including mottled sculpin, as well as the lake trout x brook trout hybrid known as splake, with the overarching goal of improving EEDV prevention strategies by investigating the potential for non-lake trout Great Lakes fish species to serve as reservoirs of EEDV infection.

3. Materials and methods

3.1.Fish maintenance

Eleven fish species currently residing within the Great Lakes basin, representing four families (i.e., Salmonidae, Cottidae, Centrachidae, and Esocidae) were selected for species susceptibility experiments (Table 1). This included two strains of lake trout (Lake Superior and Seneca Lake strains) that are a primary focus of hatchery-based lake trout rehabilitation efforts in the Great Lakes basin, as well as splake, a lake trout x brook trout hybrid. Fish were either obtained from the Michigan Department of Natural Resources State Fish Hatcheries, the Little Traverse Bay Bands of Odawa Indians Hatchery, or were collected from the wild (Table 1). All experimental animals were maintained at the Michigan State University Research Containment Facility (MSU-URCF). At the time of experimental challenge, fish ranged from 4 to 14 months old and from 11.5 to 16.5 cm length in Seneca (SE) strain lake trout, 9.5 – 16.9 cm in Lake Superior (LS) strain lake trout, 6.4 - 12.5 cm in splake, 10.5 - 14.8 cm in brook trout, 6.5 - 10.2cm in rainbow trout, 10.2 - 13.0 cm in brown trout, 10.4 - 13.0 in Atlantic salmon, 8.0 - 13.0 in coho salmon, 5.4 - 7.1 cm in lake herring, 5.7 - 9.1 cm in mottled sculpin, 7.0 - 12.3 cm in muskellunge, and 5.4 – 9.4 in largemouth bass (Table 1). Fish were housed in 680 L flowthrough fiber glass tanks supplied with oxygenated, dechlorinated water (9 to 14 °C), and fed commercial pellets twice per day. All fish handling and maintenance was performed in accord with the Michigan State University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) committee approval.

3.2. Infectious inoculum preparation

To date, all efforts to culture EEDV *in vitro* have been unsuccessful. Therefore, infectious inoculum was prepared from EEDV-infected lake trout skin collected during a natural EED outbreak in 2012 following the protocol of Shavalier (2017). In brief, the skin was homogenized via manually trimming until reaching a size of 1-2 mm in diameter, to which sterile sample diluent (pH 7.525 \pm 0.025) containing 458 mL Minimal Essential Medium (MEM; Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts), 7 mL of 1 M tris buffer, 1 mL gentamycin sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri), 5 mL penicillin/streptomycin (Invitrogen), and 5 mL Amphotericin B (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was added at a 1:3 (w/v) ratio. The suspension was then homogenized (Seward Stomacher 80, Biomaster Lab System) for 120 seconds at high speed, centrifuged at 368 x g (20 minutes; 4 °C), and then frozen at -80 °C until used for infections.

3.3.Infection challenges

Prior to infection challenge experiments, three groups of 10 fish each per fish species/strain were randomly assigned to 42 L fiberglass tanks (flow through and concurrently supplied with aeration) and acclimatized over 15 days from a water temperature of 14 to 9 °C. The three tanks for each species corresponded to a negative control (NC) group, a low dose group (LD), and a high dose (HD) group. After acclimation, fish were anesthetized with tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222; Western Chemical Inc., Ferndale, Washington) at dose 0.1 mg/ml buffered with sodium bicarbonate (Church & Dwight Co., Inc., Ewing, New Jersey) at dose of 0.2 mg/mL and then intraceolomically (IC) injected with 100 µl of either sample diluent as previously described (NC groups) or EEDV infectious inoculum corresponding to 4.75×10^3 (LD) or 4.74×10^5 (HD) virus copies per fish (as determined by qPCR; see below). The IC injection in this study was performed to induce a systemic infection with a limited virus stock, as EEDV cannot currently be cultured *in vitro*. The two doses were selected based upon median lethal doses experiments of Shavalier (2017).

After injection, fish were returned to their respective tanks, monitored for recovery, and then maintained for 30 - 100 days (challenge period modified based upon the observation of disease signs; Table 2). Daily fish care was done to include feeding and monitoring water flow, air flow, water temperature, fish behavior and clinical signs. Any severely moribund fish were euthanized using a lethal dose of MS-222 (0.25 mg/mL, buffered with sodium bicarbonate at dose of 0.5 mg/mL). Complete external and internal examinations were performed on all dead or moribund fish. During the necropsy, clinical signs were noted and skin samples collected from the caudal peduncle area and stored at -20 °C for molecular analysis. At the end of the study period, surviving fish were euthanized and analyzed as described above. *3.4.DNA extraction*

A maximum of 10 mg (as recommended by in the Mag-Bind® Blood & Tissue DNA HDQ 96 Kit Tissue Protocol) of skin tissue was transferred into a sterile 1.5 ml tube for DNA extraction. In this extraction, skin tissues were the primary samples to be investigated because previous EEDV studies revealed skin was a primary site of virus replication (Bradley et al., 1989; McAllister et al., 1989; Shavalier, 2017). All extractions were performed following the protocol outlined by Glenney et al. (2016a). Each tissue sample was digested using Proteinase-K at 55 °C overnight following the protocol in Mag-Bind® Blood & Tissue DNA HDQ 96 Kit (OMEGA Bio-tek), then added with 250 µl TL buffer (OMEGA Bio-tek) and 20 µl Proteinase-K (OMEGA Bio-tek) then incubated in the shaker at 55 °C overnight. The next day, the compound (samples, Proteinase-K, and TL buffer) were vortexed and pelleted in the centrifuge at 14,000 rpm for 10 minutes. The supernatant was then transferred into Lysate Clearance Plates (OMEGA Bio-tek) and clarified in the centrifuge at 1000 rpm for 3 minutes. The filtrate was received in 96-well round-bottom plates (Costar 3799, Corning Incorporation, Corning, New York) and the DNA extraction completed using the Mag-Bind® Blood & Tissue DNA HDQ 96 Kit (OMEGA Bio-tek) following the manufacturer's protocol. Extracted DNA was then quantified (QubitTM fluorometer, Invitrogen, Eugene, Oregon). Samples with greater than 50 ng of nucleic acid were diluted with sterile DNase-free water.

3.5. Molecular detection of EEDV

All qPCR reactions were carried out in a Mastercycler ep realplex² real-time PCR machine (Eppendorf, Hauppauge, New York) and were performed as described by Glenney et al.

(2016a) using the primers 5' – TGG GAG TCC GTC GTC GAA – 3' (SalHV3_23F) and 5' – TCC ACA CAG GAG CTC ACG AA – 3' (SalHV3_23F). The 20 μ l reaction contained 10 μ l of SYBR® Select Master Mix, 2 μ l of nuclease-free water (Promega), 2 μ l of forward primer, 2 μ l of reverse primer, and 4 μ l of template containing 50 nmol total DNA. The qPCR cycling parameters consisted of step at 50 °C for 2 minutes; 95 °C followed for 10 minutes; and 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 seconds, 60 °C for 60 seconds and were carried out in a Mastercycler Pro Thermal Cycler (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). Samples were considered positive if the cycle threshold (Ct) value was < 35 (Shavalier, 2017). Utilized controls included previously confirmed EEDV-positive tissue homogenate (positive extraction control, PEC), sample diluent (negative extraction control, NEC), EEDV-positive DNA extract positive reaction control, PRC), and nuclease-free water (negative reaction control, NRC). The quantification of EEDV copies present in a sample was determined based upon comparison to the standard curve generated by 8 serial 10-fold dilutions of EEDV PRC (Shavalier, 2017) that were run with each 96 plate.

3.6. Data analysis

The prevalence of EEDV infection in exposed fish was estimated by dividing the number of positive skin tissue samples by the total number of samples (i.e., positive fish / total fish exposed).

4. Results

4.1. Cumulative mortality, gross disease signs, and EEDV detection

Throughout the course of this study, no Seneca strain lake trout, brook trout, brown trout, rainbow trout, Atlantic salmon, coho salmon, lake herring, or largemouth bass died in any of the challenge groups, nor was EEDV detected in any of these species (Table 2). Three muskellunge died in the LD group and one muskellunge died in the HD group; in all cases, however, these were due to aggression (LD group) or cannibalism (HD group) and EEDV was never detected in any muskellunge (Table 2). The number of mortalities and/or gross disease signs for the remaining fish species/strains are presented in Table 2 and discussed in sections 4.1.1-4.1.4. *2.1.1. Lake Superior strain lake trout*

In the HD LS strain lake trout group, disease signs consistent with EED were observed in all fish and included mild to severe ocular hemorrhage, mild to severe corneal opacity, mild to severe exophthalmia, mild to severe skin erosion of the caudal peduncle, congestion at the base of the fins, mild petechial hemorrhage on the caudal peduncle, and gill pallor with concurrent mucous accumulation. Mortality in the HD group began 21 days post-infection (pi) and continued to day 66 (Table 3). The two surviving fish were euthanized on day 66. All 10 fish in the HD group were EEDV-positive according to qPCR (Table 2), whereby EEDV loads ranged from $1.3x10^4 - 2.0x10^9$ virus copies/mg of skin tissue taken from the caudal peduncle area in each individual fish (Table 3).

No disease signs consistent with EED were observed in the LD group and all fish survived until the end of the study period (Table 2). Likewise, EEDV was not detected in any LD fish (Table 3). Four fish died in the negative control group and were attributed to aggression; however, a low EEDV load (i.e., 8.9×10^3 virus copies/mg of skin tissue) was detected in one negative control fish (Table 2).

2.1.2. SE strain lake trout

No mortality occurred in the HD SE lake trout group; however, exophthalmia, ocular hemorrhage, congestion at the base of the fins, mild hemorrhage within the caudal peduncle, and multifocal skin pallor were observed, albeit less severe when compared to the LAT-LS HD group. EEDV was detected in three of ten fish in this group via qPCR at the end of the experiment (Table 2), with loads ranging from $1.6 \times 10^7 - 7.2 \times 10^7$ virus copies/mg of skin tissue (Table 3). No mortality occurred in the LD or NC groups, nor was EEDV detected via qPCR in either group (Table 2).

2.1.3. Splake

Three splake died in the HD group on days 5, 7 and 10 p.i. (Table 2), whereby severe lethargy, erythema along the lateral line, gill pallor, and congestion/hemorrhage at the base of the fins were observed. However, EEDV was only detected in one of these three fish, but at a load of 3.8×10^7 viral copies/mg skin (Table 3). In the 7 HD fish surviving until the end of the experiment, no EEDV was detected. No disease signs consistent with EED were observed in the LD or NC groups, nor was EEDV detected in either group. However, three fish died in the LD group, and one fish died in the NC group (Table 2).

2.1.4. Mottled Sculpin

Six of ten mottled sculpin in the HD group died (Table 2) during days 4 - 40 pi. Observed disease signs varied and included combinations of moderate exophthalmia, congestion at the base of the fins, and/or hemorrhage on the isthmus. Despite this, EEDV was not detected in the six fish succumbing to death, nor in any of the four survivors. Five fish died in the LD group (Table 2); EEDV was detected in one of the five mortalities and at a low load (i.e., 1.1×10^2 viral copies/mg skin; Table 3). Four fish died in the NC group, but EEDV was not detected in these fish, nor in the survivors (Table 2).

3. Discussion

Since EEDV was first described in the 1980's, the virus has been considered specific to lake trout even though no sensitive and specific diagnostic tools were available to test this hypothesis. Thus, despite the thorough studies that were designed by Bradley et al. (1989) and McAllister and Herman (1989) to examine the host range of EEDV in non-lake trout salmonids, questions surrounding EEDV host range remain. However, the development of a highly sensitive and specific SYBR Green qPCR assay by Glenney et al. (2016b) that targets the glycoprotein gene of EEDV, differentiates the virus from all other currently recognized salmonid herpesviruses, and detects as few as 10 viral copies/mg of skin tissue, enabled this knowledge gap to be addressed in the current study.

After ten fish species and one hybrid (representing Salmonidae, Coregonidae, Cottidae, Centrachidae, and Esocidae) were injected with two different doses of EEDV (i.e., 4.75×10^3 or 4.74×10^5 virus copies per fish), at least eight (i.e., brook trout, brown trout, rainbow trout, Atlantic salmon, coho salmon, lake herring, largemouth bass, and muskellunge) were found to be refractory to EEDV infection under laboratory conditions. Despite the fact that the HD EEDV infectious inoculum led to 100% infection prevalence in the EEDV susceptible lake trout LS strain, these findings strongly suggest that these other salmonid and non-salmonid fish species do not support the replication of EEDV, nor do they develop clinical disease under the utilized experimental conditions. Of particular note was the lack of EEDV detection in the coregonid representative, the Great Lakes indigenous lake herring, as Glenney et al. (2016b) recently detected very low EEDV titers in the skin of this species. Whether the previous detection of EEDV in lake herring was a result of virus/viral DNA being superficially present on the skin or whether the species can harbor EEDV infections under conditions not examined in this study remain to be determined.

Following the 2012 EEDV epizootic in a hatchery in northern Michigan, yearly routine surveillance continued both within the hatchery as well as in surrounding waters (Shavalier, 2017). In 2013, EEDV DNA was detected in wild mottled sculpin collected from Cherry Creek (Shavalier, 2017), which is the water source that feeds and drains the EEDV-affected hatchery. For this reason and to determine their potential as an EEDV reservoir, mottled sculpin was evaluated for their ability to support EEDV replication in the current study. Although 40 - 60%of the mottled sculpin died in the three challenge groups (e.g., NC, LD, and HD, respectively), daily observations revealed significant aggression between tank mates, as well as substantial competition for feed. Moreover, among the mortalities and survivors, EEDV was detected in only one mottled sculpin from the LD group at the lowest viral titer of this study (i.e., 110 viral copies/mg of skin), which notably also died early in the experiment at eight days PI. These findings, in conjunction with the lack of characteristic EED signs in sculpin, suggest that this fish species likely cannot support EEDV replication and that the single detection in this study, as well as that of Shavalier (2017), may have resulted from inactivated EEDV genetic material. However, exploration of EEDV loads in the internal organs of EEDV-challenged mottled sculpin warrant further investigation.

Splake, the lake trout x brook trout hybrid, were also assessed for susceptibility to EEDV/the ability to support virus replication. Although three fish died in each of the LD and HD EEDV-challenged groups, EEDV was only detected in one of three HD mortalities and was not detected in any splake surviving to the end of the experiment in either challenge group. However, a non-peer reviewed report indicates that splake can be experimentally infected with EEDV (McAllister, 1991) and in this study, some gross pathological changes consistent with EED were observed in a portion of EEDV-challenged splake. Moreover, EEDV was detected in the kidney/spleen homogenate of the same fish with an EEDV positive skin sample, as well as in the skin at a virus load of 3.8×10^7 viral copies/mg skin, which shows the EEDV replication did occur in this fish (i.e., fish was injected with 4.74×10^5 virus copies). Thus, it appears that, in some instances, splake can support EEDV replication over the short term. When designing a fish health management plan and/or EEDV surveillance efforts, splake should warrant attention, as their role as a potential EEDV reservoir cannot be currently excluded.

When EEDV re-emerged in a state fish hatchery in Michigan in 2012, Shavalier (2017) observed differences in cumulative percent mortality within the rearing units housing the SE and LS lake trout strains. However, differences in rearing unit densities, first vs. second pass water, and other epidemiological variables made any conclusive determination of differential strain susceptibility to EEDV all but impossible at that time. In this study, lake trout from both strains were challenged with identical EEDV doses and maintained under the same rearing conditions so that EEDV susceptibility within two lake trout strains could be assessed, a matter of importance for Great Lakes lake trout conservation and stock enhancement efforts. Surprisingly, no mortality occurred in the SE lake trout strain (HD group) compared to 80% mortality in the comparable LS lake trout strain. Likewise, EEDV loads were orders of magnitude higher in most LS strain lake trout compared to the SE strain (Table 3), but interestingly were higher in the SE strain lake trout that survived until the end of the study compared to the two surviving LS lake trout (Table 3). This is even more interesting considering that the SE lake trout were maintained for 100 days compared to 66 for the LS lake trout, perhaps indicating some SE lake

trout can serve as a relatively high titer EEDV reservoir for extended periods of time. Apparent intraspecies differences in virus infection susceptibility have also been reported in other fish species. For example, multiple koi carp strains showed differential susceptibility to koi herpesvirus (KHV) infection (Shapira et al., 2005). Among the five koi strains used in that study (NxS, NxD, NxN, DxD, and DxS) that were infected with KHV, the NxN strain experienced mortality sooner and reached the highest cumulative mortality rate, whereas the DxS strain had the lowest cumulative mortality rate with delayed onset of mortality (Shapira et al., 2005).

In conclusion, results from this study revealed that the SE and LS lake trout strains vary in their susceptibility to EEDV, whereby infection-induced mortality under laboratory conditions only occurred in LS lake trout. However, EEDV loads reached as high as 10^9 viral copies/mg skin tissue in LS lake trout but were 10^3 viral copies/mg skin tissue in survivors, compared to ~ 10^7 virus copies/mg skin tissue in SE lake trout surviving to 100 days pi, suggesting that some SE lake trout may serve as higher titer EEDV reservoirs that may be less likely to succumb to death. Study results also suggest that some splake have the potential to serve as a short term EEDV reservoir.

Table 1: Origin and median length/weight of the fish species that were assessed for Epizootic epitheliotropic disease virus (EEDV) susceptibility in this study. (*) (LS) Lake Superior strain lake trout; (SE) Seneca strain lake trout; (MSFH) Marquette State Fish Hatchery; (OSFH) Oden State Fish Hatchery; (PRSFH) Platte River State Fish Hatchery; (WLSFH) Wolf Lake State Fish Hatchery; (LTBBFH) Little Traverse Bay Bands of Odawa Indians Fish Hatchery.

Common name	Species/Strain	Median Length (cm)	Median Weight (g)	Origin
Lake trout (LS)*	Salvelinus namaycush, LS strain	13.36 ± 6.4	18.72 ± 7.6	MSFH*
Lake trout (SE)*	Salvelinus namaycush, SE strain	13.87 ± 1.5	22.40 ± 7.5	MSFH*
Brook trout	Salvelinus fontinalis	12.31 ± 1.1	17.35 ± 4.7	MSFH*
Mottled sculpin	Cottus bairdii	6.75 ± 1.1	4.69 ± 3.9	wild captured
Brown trout	Salmo trutta	11.68 ± 1.9	17.05 ± 8.9	OSFH*
Rainbow trout	Oncorhynchus mykiss	8.57 ± 0.9	5.82 ± 2.1	OSFH*
Atlantic salmon	Salmo salar	12.58 ± 3.2	12.9 ± 3.6	PRSFH*
Largemouth bass	Micropterus salmoides	5.7 ± 2.1	6.42 ± 1.6	wild captured
Coho salmon	Oncorhynchus kisutch	11.38 ± 1.8	11.55 ± 1.9	PRSFH*
Muskellunge	Esox masquinongy	7.9 ± 3.4	8.6 ± 3.4	WLSFH*
Splake	Salvelinus namaycush x Salvelinus fontinalis crosses	10.14 ± 2.6	10.90 ± 2.3	MSFH*
Lake Herring	Coregonus artedii	1.7 ± 1.7	3.9 ± 3.3	LTBBFH*

Table 2: The number of mortalities and prevalence of Epizootic epitheliotropic disease virus (EEDV; as determined by qPCR) in the fish treatment groups of this study. Results reported as number of EEDV positive skin samples out of number of skin samples tested. (*) mortality not associated with EEDV; (LS) Lake Superior strain lake trout; (SE) Seneca strain lake trout. Lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*), brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*), mottled sculpin (*Cottus bairdii*) brown trout (*Salmo trutta*), rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*), largemouth bass (*Micropterus salmoides*), coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*), muskellunge (*Esox masquinongy*), splake (*Salvelinus namaycush* x *Salvelinus fontinalis*), lake herring (*Coregonus artedii*). A pool of kidney and spleen tissues was also PCR tested from representative splake, with results: 0/2 (negative control), 0/2 (low dose), 1/5 (high dose).

	Experiment	8		Low dose (LD)		High dose (HD)	
Species tested	length (days)	Mortalities	PCR result	Mortalities	PCR result	Mortalities	PCR result
Lake trout (LS)	66	4/10	1/10	0/10	0/10	8/10	10/10
Lake trout (SE)	100	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	3/10
Brook trout	53	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10
Mottled sculpin	62	4*/10	0/10	*5/10	1/10	*6/10	0/10
Brown trout	35	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10
Rainbow trout	36	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10
Atlantic salmon	35	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10
Largemouth bass	33	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10
Coho salmon	33	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10
Muskellunge	33	0/9	0/9	3*/10	0/10	1*/10	0/9
Splake	36	1*/10	0/10	3/10	0/10	3/10	1/10
Lake herring	36	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10	0/10

Table 3: Days to death post- epizootic epitheliotropic disease virus (EEDV) infection, whether EED disease signs were present, and the estimated EEDV loads that were detected in the skin of fish that were EEDV positive throughout the course of this study. (*) Euthanized; (+) present; (-) absent; (PI) post-infection; (LS) Lake Superior strain lake trout; (SE) Seneca strain lake trout. Lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*), Mottled sculpin (*Cottus bairdii*), Splake (*Salvelinus namaycush* x *Salvelinus fontinalis*).

Species	Mortality Day (pi)	Presence of EED Disease Signs	Viral copies per mg skin
LS strain lake	21*	+	1.95x10 ⁹
trout	35	+	4.18×10^7
	46	+	4.08×10^8
	46	+	5.29×10^8
	50	+	1.05×10^9
	54	+	2.22×10^8
	54	+	1.55×10^8
	66	+	5.83×10^{6}
	66*	+	5.90×10^4
	66*	+	1.33×10^4
SE strain lake	100*	+	1.59×10^7
trout	100*	+	3.31×10^7
	100*	+	7.18×10^7
Mottled sculpin	8	-	1.10×10^2
Splake	10*	+	3.84 x 10 ⁷

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