1	Specific regulation of the chemokine response to viral hemorrhagic septicemia
2	virus (VHSV) at the entry site
3	
4	Jana Montero <sup>1</sup> , Jessica Garcia <sup>1</sup> , M. Camino Ordas <sup>1</sup> , Isabel Casanova <sup>1</sup> , Antonia
5	Gonzalez <sup>1</sup> , Alberto Villena <sup>2</sup> , Julio Coll <sup>3</sup> , Carolina Tafalla <sup>1*</sup>
6	
7	
8 9	<ol> <li>Centro de Investigación en Sanidad Animal (CISA-INIA). Carretera de Algete a El Casar km. 8.1. Valdeolmos 28130 (Madrid). Spain.</li> </ol>
10 11	<ol> <li>Área de Biología Celular. Departamento de Biología Molecular. Universidad de León. 24071 León. Spain.</li> </ol>
12	3. INIA. Departmento Biotecnología, 28040 Madrid, Spain
13	
14	Running title: Chemokines at VHSV entry site
15	
16	*Address correspondence and reprint requests to Dr. Carolina Tafalla, Centro de
17	Investigación en Sanidad Animal (CISA-INIA). Carretera de Algete a El Casar km. 8.1
18	Valdeolmos 28130 (Madrid). Spain. Tel.: 34 91 6202300; Fax: 34 91 6202247; E mai
19	address: tafalla@inia.es
20	
21	7 February 2011
22	Submitted to: Journal of Virology
23	Revised version
24	
25	
26	
27	
28	

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

The fin bases constitute the main portal of rhabdovirus entry into rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss), and replication in this first site strongly conditions the outcome of the infection. In this context, we studied the chemokine response elicited in this area in response to viral hemorrhagic septicemia rhabdovirus (VHSV). Among all the rainbow trout chemokine genes studied, only the transcription levels of CK10 and CK12 were significantly up-regulated in response to VHSV. As the virus had previously shown to elicit a much stronger chemokine response in internal organs, we compared the effect of VHSV on the gills, another mucosal site which does not constitute the main site of viral entry nor rhabdoviral replication. In this case, a significantly stronger chemokine response was triggered, with CK1, CK3, CK9 and CK11 being up-regulated in response to VHSV and CK10 and CK12 being down-modulated by the virus. We then conducted further experiments to understand how these different chemokine responses of mucosal tissues could correlate with their capacity to support VHSV replication. No viral replication was detected in the gills, while at the fin bases, only the skin and the muscle were actively supporting viral replication. Within the skin, viral replication took place in the dermis, while the viral replication was blocked within epidermal cells at some point before the protein translation level. This different susceptibility of the different skin layers to VHSV correlated with the effect that VHSV has on their capacity to secrete chemotactic factors. Altogether these results suggest a VHSV interference mechanism on the early chemokine response at its active replication sites within mucosal tissues, a possible key process that may facilitate viral entry.

## INTRODUCTION

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

51

Viral hemorrhagic septicemia virus (VHSV) belongs to the Novirhabdovirus genus within the Rhabdoviridae family, and is the etiological agent of a lethal disease for many cultivated fish species worldwide, including rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss). In fish, the fin bases constitute one of the main portals of pathogen entry and pathogen multiplication prior to dissemination through the host, as has been demonstrated for many different pathogens (5, 11, 33-35). This is also true for VHSV and a very closely related salmonid pathogen, the infectious hematopoietic necrosis virus (IHNV) (17, 43, 44), since bioluminescence imaging of live infected rainbow trout revealed the fin bases and not the gills as the major portal of entry (17), prior to dissemination to hematopoietic tissues, where these viruses replicate most frequently (9, 48). Upon bath exposure, viral replication was already visible as early as 8h postinfection in this area, whereas no replication was observed at this point in the gills. Moreover, when fish were exposed to a non-pathogenic recombinant IHNV, viral replication remained limited to the fin bases, suggesting that in this case the local immune response was sufficient to block further viral dissemination (17). For VHSV, viral replication in excised fin tissue has even been shown to correlate with mortality after waterborne infection (43, 44), highlighting again the importance of this early replication at fin bases in the outcome of the infection. However, whether the level of viral replication in skin tissues determines if the amount of virus that arrives to the internal organs is too high for the internal defenses to eliminate, or if the external fin tissues send the appropriate "danger" signals to the immune system enabling the systemic defenses to clear the virus in internal organs, remains unsolved.

Chemokines constitute one of the first secreted immune factors upon an encounter with a pathogen that not only orchestrate immune cell recruitment to the area of inflammation, but also condition the immune response that is mounted as they regulate the immune functions of their target cells (14). Chemokines have been shown to be crucial for the elimination of many different viruses (2, 7, 10, 40), but on the other hand, inappropriate persistence of chemokine expression in viral infections can drive tissue damage and inflammation (2, 7, 18). Although the mucosal tissues (epithelium and associated immune tissue) such as the skin or the gills provide a first line of defense against viral entry, early innate signaling molecules such as chemokines are crucial for the protection against viral infections. Therefore, for a complete understanding of VHSV pathogenesis it is of great importance to study the chemokine response to VHSV at these mucosal sites. Through the comparison of the chemokine response between the fin bases and the gills in which the virus replicates very differently, we may deduce whether the chemokine response is a consequence of viral encounter or if viral replication influences the response.

In rainbow trout, twenty two different chemokine genes have been identified to date, even though functional studies to determine their immune role have not yet been performed for most of them, and only their chemotactic capacity has been described for some of them (28, 36, 41). The extensive duplication events and the fact that chemokines evolve more quickly than other immune genes, being one of the eight most rapidly changing proteins as a reflection of different infectious experiences (42, 53) }, make difficult the establishment of true orthologues between fish and mammalian chemokines. Therefore, no clear inferences as to the chemokine functions can be made based on their similarities to potential mammalian counterparts, and their roles have to

be experimentally addressed. However, recent very complete studies have completely changed the previous phylogenetic grouping of fish chemokines into groups or clades trying to reflect better the ascription of orthologues and homologues with their mammalian counterparts (21, 42). Phylogenetic analysis of teleost CXC chemokine sequences have identified six different CXC chemokine clades: CXCa, CXCb, CXCc, CXCd, CXCL12, and CXCL14 (reviewed in (21)), but in rainbow trout, only representatives of three clades have been identified so far, IL-8 (CXCa) (26), γIP (CXCb) (24) and CXCd1/2 (54). Concerning CC chemokines, after the identification of CK1 (13), CK2 (30) and CK3 (EMBL Accession number AJ315149), fifteen new rainbow trout CC chemokine sequences were identified within expressed sequence tag (EST) databases (25), bringing the total to eighteen. Recently, seven large groups of fish CC chemokines have been established through phylogenetic analysis: the CCL19/21/25 group, the CCL20 group, the CCL27/28 group, the CCL17/22 group, the macrophage inflammatory protein (MIP) group, the monocyte chemotactic protein (MCP) group and a fish-specific group (42).

In this work, we analyzed the chemokine response to VHSV in the fin bases and gills by choosing representatives of each of these mentioned phylogenetic groups, and in those cases in which we observed an important effect of VHSV on their expression, we then proceeded to study all the chemokines within that group. Our results revealed that while only two specific chemokines were up-regulated in response to VHSV at the fin bases, a much wider effect was observed in the gills, where we detected no viral replication. Moreover, our studies revealed that are mainly chemokines belonging to phylogenetic groups CCL19/21/25 group and CCL27/28 which play a major role in mucosal immunity. As the skin revealed as a major chemokine-producing tissue and a

major viral replication site within the fin bases, we studied the capacity of different skin cell types to support viral replication in combination with studies concerning the effects that VHSV provoked on their capacity to produce chemotactic factors. Having observed that dermis cells support active replication but viral translation is interrupted within epidermis cells, a correlation between these differences in their susceptibility to VHSV with the effect that VHSV has on their capacity to secrete chemotactic factors might be established. Our results highlight the very specific chemokine response elicited by VHSV in the area of viral entry in which the skin plays a major role, and suggests a viral interference effect on the chemokine response, a key mechanism to begin an effective local inflammation and a correct triggering of the systemic immune response.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Fish.** For bath infection experiments, healthy specimens of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) were obtained from Centro de Acuicultura El Molino (Madrid, Spain), located in a VHSV-free zone. Fish were maintained at the Centro de Investigaciones en Sanidad Animal (CISA-INIA) laboratory at 14°C with a recirculating water system, 12:12 hours L:D photoperiod and fed daily with a commercial diet (Trow, Spain).

Prior to any experimental procedure, fish were acclimatized to laboratory conditions for 2 weeks and during this period no clinical signs were ever observed. The experiments described comply with the Guidelines of the European Union Council (86/609/EU) for the use of laboratory animals.

1	4	1	_
ı	И	L	1

Virus preparation. VHSV (0771 strain) was propagated in the RTG-2 rainbow trout cell line. Cells were cultured at 18 °C in Minimal Essential Medium (MEM, Invitrogen, Carlsbad CA, USA) supplemented with 10 % fetal calf serum (FCS, Invitrogen), containing 100 units/ml penicillin and 100 μg/ml streptomycin. The virus was inoculated on RTG-2 grown in MEM with antibiotics and 2 % FCS at 14 °C. When cytophatic effect was extensive, supernatants were harvested and centrifuged to eliminate cell debris. Clarified supernatants were used for the experiments. All virus stocks were titrated in 96-well plates according to Reed and Müench (45).

VHSV bath infection. For the VHSV challenge, 30 rainbow trout of approximately 4-6 cm were transferred to 2 1 of a viral solution containing 5 x10<sup>5</sup> TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml. After 1 h of viral adsorption with strong aeration at 14°C, the water volume was restored to 50 1. A mock-infected group treated in the same way was included as a control.

At days 1, 3, and 6 post-infection, seven trout from each group were sacrificed by overexposure to MS-222. The area surrounding the base of the dorsal fin and the gills were removed for RNA extraction in the case of four or five fish and for immunohistochemistry in the case of the other three.

cDNA preparation. Total RNA was extracted using Trizol (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's instructions. Tissues were first homogenized in 1 ml of Trizol in an ice bath, 200 µl of chloroform were added and the suspension was then

centrifuged at 12 000 x g for 15 min. The clear upper phase was aspirated and placed in a clean tube. Five hundred  $\mu l$  of isopropanol were then added, and the samples were again centrifuged at 12 000 x g for 10 min. The RNA pellets were washed with 75% ethanol, dissolved in diethylpyrocarbonate (DEPC)-treated water and stored at -80°C.

RNAs were treated with DNAse I to remove any genomic DNA traces that might interfere with the PCR reactions. One µg of RNA was used to obtain cDNA in each sample using the Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). In all cases, RNAs were incubated with 1 µl of oligo (dT)<sub>12-18</sub> (0.5 µg/ml) and 1 µl 10 mM dinucleoside triphosphate (dNTP) mix for 5 min at 65°C. After the incubation, 4 µl of 5x first strand buffer, 1 µl of 0.1 M dithiothreitol (DTT) and 1 µl of Superscript III reverse transcriptase were added, mixed and incubated for 1h at 50°C. The reaction was stopped by heating at 70°C for 15 min, and the resulting cDNA was diluted in a 1:10 proportion with water and stored at -20°C.

Evaluation of chemokine gene expression by real time PCR. To evaluate the levels of transcription of the different chemokine genes studied, real-time PCR was performed with an Mx3005P<sup>TM</sup> QPCR instrument (Stratagene) using SYBR Green PCR Core Reagents (Applied Biosystems). Reaction mixtures containing 10  $\mu$ l of 2x SYBR Green supermix, 5  $\mu$ l of primers (0.6 mM each) and 5  $\mu$ l of cDNA template were incubated for 10 min at 95°C, followed by 40 amplification cycles (30 s at 95°C and 1 min at 60°C) and a dissociation cycle (30 s at 95°C, 1 min 60°C and 30 s at 95°C). For each mRNA, gene expression was corrected by the elongation factor  $1\alpha$  (EF- $1\alpha$ ) expression in each sample and expressed as  $2^{-\Delta Ct}$ , where  $\Delta$ Ct is determined by subtracting the EF- $1\alpha$  Ct value from the target Ct as previously described (8). The

primers used were designed from sequences available in the GenBank using the Oligo Perfect software tool (Invitrogen) and are shown in Table I. All amplifications were performed in duplicate to confirm the results. Negative controls with no template were always included in the reactions. As controls for effective viral infection in the fin bases, the levels of expression of the interferon (IFN) induced Mx gene and the VHSV N gene were also evaluated by real time PCR using primers previously described (8).

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

194

195

196

197

198

199

Light microscopy and immunocytochemistry Fin tissue including the fin bases obtained from control and VHSV-infected fish at different times post-infection were fixed in Bouin's solution for 24 h, embedded in paraffin (Paraplast Plus; Sherwood Medical) and sectioned at 5 µm. After dewaxing and rehydration, some sections were stained with hematoxylin-eosin in order to determine the levels of infiltration or any other apparent damages or pathological changes. Other sections were subjected to an indirect immunocytochemical method to detect VHSV using 1P1D11, a monoclonal antibody (mAb) specific to the G protein of VHSV, obtained from Dr N. Lorenzen at the Danish Institute for Food and Veterinary Research (Århus, Denmark) (31). The sections were first incubated for 30 min phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.2-7.4) containing 5% BSA (PBT). Then sections were incubated overnight at 4°C with the mAb at an optimal dilution of 1:100 in PBS with 1% BSA. After washing in PBT, the sections were exposed to anti-mouse IgG biotin-conjugated antibody (Sigma) diluted 1:100 for 1 h at room temperature. The samples were then washed in PBT and incubated for 1 h with Avidin-biotin alkaline phosphatase mouse IgG, The immunocytochemical reactions were then revealed by incubation with Fast-Red (Sigma) diluted in Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.6) for 15 minutes at room temperature. The specificity

218	of the reactions was determined by omitting the first antiserum and comparing the
219	results obtained in control fins. Slides were examined with an Axiolab (Zeiss) light
220	microscope.
221	
222	Skin primary cultures. Complete skin cultures were established after removing
223	round sections of 1 cm of diameter of skin with a scalpel. For each rainbow trout, four
224	different sections were obtained and each section was then placed in 24 well plates with
225	1 ml of Leibovitz medium (L-15, Invitrogen) supplemented with 100 IU/ml penicillin,
226	100 μg/ml streptomycin and 5% FCS.
227	In other cases, only epidermal cells were removed from round sections of 1 cm
228	of diameter by scratching the skin surface with a scalpel. Posterior histological
229	examination of the area showed that only epidermal cells were removed through this
230	technique.
231	To determine the susceptibility of each of these cultures to VHSV, cultures were
232	infected with VHSV at a final concentration of 5 x10 <sup>4</sup> TCID50/ml in culture medium
233	with 2%FCS or mock infected with medium alone and incubated at 14°C for different
234	time points depending on the experiment performed.
235	
236	Isolation of peripheral blood leukocytes (PBLs). PBLs were isolated from
237	labeled rainbow trout from which fin explants or epidermal cultures had been
238	established following the method previously described (16). Briefly, blood was
239	extracted with a heparinized needle from the caudal vein and diluted 10 times with L-15
240	supplemented with antibiotics, 10 units/ml heparin and 2% FCS. The resulting cell

suspension was placed onto 51% Percoll and centrifuged at 500 x g for 30 min at 4°C.

The interface cells were collected and washed twice at 500 x g for 5 min in L-15 containing 0.1% FCS. The viable cell concentration was determined by Trypan blue exclusion. Cells were resuspended in L-15 with 2% FCS at a concentration of  $1x10^6$  cells/ml.

Chemotactic capacity of supernatants from primary skin cultures infected with VHSV. Complete skin or epidermal cell cultures were infected with VHSV at a final concentration of 5 x10<sup>5</sup> TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml in culture medium with 2%FCS or mock infected with medium alone. After 3 days of incubation at 14°C, culture supernatants were collected and tested on their capacity to induce the migration of PBLs from the same individual rainbow trout. The same day that supernatants were collected, PBLs were extracted from each trout and the chemotaxis assay later performed.

The chemotaxis assays were performed chemotaxis chambers introduced in 24-well plates (Costar-Corning Life Sciences). Six hundred μl of 1:2 dilutions of the different supernatants in culture medium were placed in the wells. Controls with media alone and media and VHSV were also included. After introducing the chemotaxis chambers in each of the wells, 100 μl of the PBL cell suspensions were loaded to the upper part of the chamber. The upper and lower chambers are separated by a 3 μm pore-sized polycarbonate filter. After 2h of incubation at 20°C, the number of cells that had migrated to the bottom of the wells was quantified by flow cytometry (FACSCalibur, Becton Dickinson). Cell number was determined at constant flow time (1 min) of the medium in the lower chamber. The migrating cells were analyzed based of forward and side light scatter parameters. All experiments were performed in duplicate

Western blot analysis of viral proteins. Cell lysates were prepared from either fin cultures or epidermal cell cultures exposed to VHSV as described above. Electrophoresis of cell lysates and Western blotting were performed as described previously (12, 49) using the IP5B11 monoclonal antibody recognizing the N protein of VHSV provided by Dr N. Lorenzen at the Danish Institute for Food and Veterinary Research (Århus, Denmark).

## **RESULTS**

Chemokine gene expression at the fin bases in response to VHSV. In order to elucidate the chemokine role at the fin bases, the main portal of VHSV entry, we studied the levels of expression of a wide selection of rainbow trout chemokine genes by real-time PCR upon a VHSV bath infection. Table II shows the mean levels of transcription of all the chemokine genes studied at the fin bases in response to the VHSV infection at days 1, 3 and 6 post-infection. We first determined the level of expression of one rainbow trout chemokine representative gene ascribed to either one of the CXC clades or CC chemokine groups previously described. As this first screening revealed an important effect of VHSV on CK12 regulation of transcription, we also included the other rainbow trout chemokines belonging to the CCL19/21/25 group, CK9 and CK10. Out of the twelve genes studies, VHSV was only capable of significantly upregulating the levels of expression of CK10 and CK12 at day 3 post-infection, and only CK10 at day 6 post-infection, revealing a very specific response, as VHSV had been proved to significantly up-regulate the transcription of many of these other chemokine

genes in other organs such as spleen or head kidney (37). No significant downregulations were observed.

One noticeable result was the level of constitutive transcription that we observed in fin bases for CK9 and CK11. The mean constitutive expression levels for these two chemokines varied throughout the sampling time points from 52 to 235 times the level of expression of the EF-1 $\alpha$  house-keeping gene for CK9, and from 7 to 72 times for CK11, suggesting an important role of these chemokines in this fin base area. In response to VHSV, the levels of expression of these highly expressed chemokines decreased moderately, but differences were not significant.

Chemokine gene expression at the gills in response to VHSV. Since the chemokine induction pattern in response to the virus at the fin bases was much more specific in comparison to what we had previously observed in immune organs (37), we studied in parallel the chemokine response to another mucosal tissue, the gills. Previous studies had revealed that although some viral particles could be found in the gills upon bath infection, this is not the main site of viral entry for fish rhabdoviruses (17) and viral replication can only be detected in a few specific cells (4). In this case, the chemokine response to the virus was very different than that observed in the fin bases (Table III). At day 1 post-infection, VHSV provoked a significant up-regulation of the levels of transcription of CK1, CK3, CK9 and CK11. At day 3, the only up-regulation that is maintained is that of CK3, whereas at this point we found an unexpected down-regulation of CK10 and CK12 transcription in response to the virus that is maintained for CK12 at day 6. These results show that the response to a viral infection at mucosal surfaces is highly specific, and most probably is dependant on both the cell composition

of the mucosal tissue and the degree of viral susceptibility of the different cell types present.

Viral gene and Mx transcription in response to VHSV in the fin bases and gills. To further understand the distinct chemokine response to VHSV of these two mucosal tissues, we also evaluated the levels of transcription of the N viral gene as well as the transcription of the IFN-induced Mx gene, since the levels of expression of Mx in fish have been shown to correlate well with an efficient immune response to viral replication (32).

Fig. 1 shows the Mx transcription in response to VHSV at the fin bases (Fig. 1A) and gills (Fig. 1B). While the levels of Mx were significantly induced in the fin bases in response to VHSV at day 3 post-infection, the levels of Mx transcription in the gills were not significantly modulated by the viral encounter. These results are in correlation with those obtained for the transcription of the N VHSV gene, since while a significant viral transcription was detected at both days 1 and 3 post-infection at the fin bases (Fig. 2), no viral transcription was ever detected in our gill samples.

VHSV replication at the fin bases. To further understand the relation between chemokine production and viral replication and confirm in which specific tissues the virus was replicating at the fin bases, we next performed immunohistochemical studies to detect VHSV G gene expression in this area (Fig. 3). The fin base section in which we studied the chemokine response is represented in Fig. 3A showing the presence of the different skin layers, muscle and cartilages that may support viral replication differently upon viral entry. Among these different tissues, we detected the G viral

protein in the dermis and muscle but never in the epidermis layer of the skin (Fig. 3B-F).

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

338

339

VHSV actively replicates only in dermis cells but not in skin epidermis. To verify the results obtained through immunohistochemical studies of complete fin bases in which we had seen different susceptibility to VHSV in the different skin layers, we conducted in vitro experiments comparing the response of the complete dissectioned skin to epidermis cell cultures in which only this outermost layer was present as verified by histology. When studying viral transcription through real time PCR analysis of N gene expression, we detected active transcription in both explants and epidermal primary cultures (Fig. 4A) indicating that the virus was capable of entering both endodermis and epidermis cells thus transcribing its viral genome. Lower levels of transcription were observed in epidermis cells than in dermis cells, but the differences were not significant. No significant differences in the levels of Mx induction in response to VHSV were observed either between epidermis and complete skin. However, and in correlation to what we had previously observed through immunohistochemistry, viral N protein expression was strongly detected in fin explants in which dermis tissue was also present, but was only weakly detected in epidermis cultures (Fig. 4B). Finally, the titration of viral yields in these cultures further confirmed these results (Fig. 4C), since the viral titers were significantly higher after 7 days of infection in complete skin cultures than in epidermis cultures in which the viral titer obtained was even lower that the viral input. Therefore, it seems as VHSV is capable of entering both the dermis and the epidermis, but this outermost layer is

capable of interrupting the viral cycle to abort the infection at some point before the translation of the viral genes.

Epidermis cells are the main contributors to chemokine production. As a step towards the understanding of the contribution of each skin layer to the chemokine response observed at the fin bases, we compared their chemokine production capacity of the different skin layers through the primary skin cultures established. Among the CXC chemokines studied, the skin only transcribed IL-8, at similar relative levels in epidermis cells than in complete skin indicating that both dermis and epidermis contribute to its mRNA expression (Fig. 5). Among CC chemokines, there were specially the chemokines previously catalogued within the CCL19/21/25 and CCL27/28 groups, CK9, CK10, CK11 and CK12 that were being mainly expressed the different skin layers. In the case of CK9, the epidermis does not seem as a major source for its transcription. Apart from chemokines in these phylogenetic groups, the epidermis cells strongly expressed CK6 and both types of skin cultures expressed CK3.

VHSV infection affects the chemotactic capacity of dermis and epidermal skin cells differently. Since VHSV replicates differently in dermis and epidermal cells, we next wanted to determine the effect that VHSV had on their capacity to produce chemotactic factors, and then compare these responses to the effects observed in the original samples in which the chemokine transcription levels were determined. For this, we obtained supernatants from either skin sections or epidermal primary cultures infected or not with VHSV and compared their ability to attract autologous PBLs.

Supernatants derived either from fin explants or from epidermal cell cultures strongly attracted PBLs (Fig. 6). However, when these cultures were infected with VHSV prior to the supernatant generation, the effects differed in both types of cultures. When fin explants were infected with VHSV, the chemotactic capacity of the supernatants significantly decreased, whereas when epidermal cell cultures were infected with VHSV, the chemotactic capacity of their supernatants significantly increased. A clear ascription of these viral effects to a specific chemokine was not possible, as it may be an overall effect in which many of these skin chemokines cooperate. What seems clear is that epidermis and dermis cells produce a very different secretion of chemotactic factors in response to VHSV.

## DISCUSSION

A complete knowledge of the early immune mechanisms triggered at the site of viral entry into the host, provides us with important information for the understanding of viral pathogenesis. It has been recently demonstrated that rhabdovirus enter the fish through the fin bases and moreover that early replication in this first site strongly conditions the outcome of the infection (17). While a virulent IHNV replicates in this area as a first step to then distribute itself through the organism, a low virulence IHNV remains confined to this area, highlighting the importance of the early local immune mechanisms for controlling rhabdoviral infections.

In this context and given the central role of chemokines in antiviral defense, we have determined which rainbow trout chemokines are modulated by a viral encounter in

this fin base area in comparison to the viral effect in a further mucosal tissue, the gills, in which the virus replicates poorly. Our results revealed that the local chemokine response is much stronger in a low replication tissue such as the gills that in one in which the virus efficiently replicates such as the fin bases. More in depth studies in this fin base area demonstrated that epidermal cells and dermal cells support differently VHSV replication, and again produce chemotactic factors differently in response to the virus, pointing again to an interference of viral replication with the chemokine response. This viral interference may be an important pathogenicity factor that may explain why the virus enters the body through the fin base in which the epidermis layer is thinner and even interrupted, highlighting as well the importance of the epidermis in the fish antiviral defense.

Although IL-8 is strongly expressed constitutively in the skin, when studying the effect of VHSV on CXC chemokines of mucosal tissues, we included all the genes that have been characterized in rainbow trout to date, and found no significant effect of the virus on their levels of transcription. This suggests that these chemokines, which are known to act preferentially on neutrophils and some lymphocyte subsets (6, 39), do not have a preferential role in mucosal antiviral immunity. CC chemokines, on the other hand, act primarily on monocytes instead of neutrophils, as well as on other specific lymphocyte subsets (50). In this case, we selected a group of chemokine genes belonging to different phylogenetic groups that had been proven to be strongly regulated in response to VHSV in lymphoid organs such as spleen and head kidney (37). In fact, VHSV strongly up-regulates γIP, CXCd, CK3, CK5B, CK6 and CK12 in spleen and γIP, CXCd, CK3 and CK12 in head kidney. In our current study, only CK10

and CK12 were significantly up-regulated in response to VHSV infection in the fin bases, whereas CK1, CK3, CK9 and CK11 were strongly up-regulated in the gills.

The great differences that were observed in the chemokine response to VHSV in fin bases and gills do not seem to be only a consequence of different chemokines being secreted by different cell types as the constitutive chemokine profile for both mucosal tissues is very similar, thus it seems that the key difference is whether an active viral replication is taking place or not. Having seen in our experiments that the infected fish suffered strong symptomatology from viral infection and began to die as early as 6 days post-infection (data not shown), we further studied viral replication in these locations. Viral replication was confirmed by analysis of viral gene transcription and immunohistochemistry in the fin bases, and an efficient IFN response was mounted as determined through the study of the IFN-induced Mx gene. On the contrary, no viral N protein expression was detected in the gills despite the fact that other authors had described a low-moderate VHSV replication in the gills focused in the cells lining the vessels of the primary gill arch (4). Therefore it seems as an efficient viral replication is not needed for the induction of an effective chemokine response, but on the other hand, the infected tissues have a suppressed reaction.

Furthermore, through the development of fin explants in which both epidermis and dermis cells are present and epidermis cell cultures in which no dermis cells were present in combination with immunohistochemistry studies, we could conclude that both epidermis and dermis cells supported viral transcription, although the levels of transcription were slightly lower in epidermis cells. However viral N protein expression was only observed in cultures in which dermal cells were present, indicating that epidermal cells were able to block the viral cycle at some point before viral protein

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

expression, in concordance to what is observed by immunohistochemistry. This blockage of viral protein expression was also consistent with viral titration of primary skin cultures, as the virus produced a significantly higher viral yield in complete skin cultures than in epidermis cell cultures in which the viral yield did not increase throughout the infection period. Similarly, RTS11 rainbow trout monocytemacrophages have also been shown to block VHSV replication at some point of the viral cycle before the translation of viral proteins (49). Consequently, the effect that the virus had on the capacity of these cells to produce chemotactic factors also differed between dermis and epidermis cells, since while VHSV provokes an up-regulation of the chemotactic factors produced by the epidermis, it provokes a down-regulation of the chemotactic factors produced by epidermis and dermis cells together. It has been very difficult to ascribe the chemokine responsible for these viral effects of the different layers to a specific chemokine as it may be an overall effect observed due to the combined effects of different chemokines. What seems clear however is that in cells that can control the viral infection, an induced chemokine response is observed, whereas in cells in which there is active viral replication, this defense mechanism is impaired. It may be possible that this limitation is a consequence of a general shut-off mechanism induced by VHSV upon translation as widely demonstrated for rhabdovirus (22), but although this may explain the reduction of the chemotactic activity, it would not explain the absence of chemokine transcription up-regulation, as the shut-off does not affect mRNA synthesis (23). Some viruses such as poliovirus can block secretion of proteins in infected cells thus blocking chemokine release, but this again would not explain the direct effect of gene transcription.

On the other hand, it is well known that many viruses have developed strategies to either exploit or avoid chemokine networks and thus replicate more efficiently (27). For large DNA viruses, the most common strategy is the encoding of chemokine homologs, chemokine receptor decoy homologs or soluble chemokine binding proteins (1, 27, 47), but some RNA viruses have also developed strategies to directly interfere with chemokine synthesis. For example, the non-structural (NS) 3/4A protein complex of hepatitis C virus down-regulates the transcription of CCL5, IL-8 and γIP through the inhibition of the retinoic acid inducible gene I (RIG-I) pathway (46). On the other hand, many viruses interfere with the NF-κB pathway (20), which is know to be directly responsible for the transcription of many chemokine genes (29, 52).

Finally, in a context in which the exact immune function is unknown for most rainbow trout chemokines, our results point to an important role in mucosal immunity of chemokines CK9, CK10, CK11 and CK12, ascribed to phylogenetic groups CCL19/21/25 and CCL27/28 by Peatman and Liu (42). All of these chemokines were either modulated by the virus at mucosal sites or were produced in very high constitutive levels. Interestingly, major roles in mucosal immune responses have been demonstrated for mammalian chemokines belonging to these two groups, CCL19/21/25 and CCL27/28 (3, 15, 19, 38, 51), therefore, although much more work should be done to determine if these rainbow trout chemokines are the true orthologues of these mammalian chemokines, it seems that some functional equivalence is observed.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that a very restricted chemokine response is observed to VHSV in the area of primary replication, the fin bases, where the virus actively replicates in the dermis and muscle cells, while a much stronger chemokine response is observed in the gills. Within the fin bases, epidermis cells are capable of

502	blocking viral replication before viral translation while the virus replicates in the						
503	dermis, in which the virus is capable of limiting the production of chemotactic factors.						
504	More work should be done to determine the exact mechanism through which the virus is						
505	capable of limiting the chemokine response upon its active replication.						
506							
507							
508	ACKNOWLEDGMENTS						
509							
510	This work was supported by grant AGL2008-03519-C04-02 from the Spanish						
511	Plan de I+D+i 2008-2011 and by the European Network of Animal Disease Infectiology						
512	and Research Facilities (NADIR, UE-228394).						
513	The authors want to thank Jose Maria Nieto for assistance with the						
514	immunohistochemical processing and Ali Alejo and Noemi Sevilla for fruitful scientific						
515	discussions. Niels Lorenzen is acknowledged for providing the monoclonal antibodies						
516	against VHSV.						
517							
518	REFERENCES						
519							
520 521 522 523 524 525 526 527 528 529 530 531	<ol> <li>Alcami, A. 2003. Viral mimicry of cytokines, chemokines and their receptors. Nat. Rev. Immunol. 3:36-50.</li> <li>Alfano, M., and G. Poli. 2005. Role of cytokines and chemokines in the regulation of innate immunity and HIV infection. Mol. Immunol. 42:161-82.</li> <li>Baird, J. W., R. J. Nibbs, M. Komai-Koma, J. A. Connolly, K. Ottersbach, I. Clark-Lewis, F. Y. Liew, and G. J. Graham. 1999. ESkine, a novel betachemokine, is differentially spliced to produce secretable and nuclear targeted isoforms. J. Biol. Chem. 274:33496-503.</li> <li>Brudeseth, B. E., J. Castric, and O. Evensen. 2002. Studies on pathogenesis following single and double infection with viral hemorrhagic septicemia virus and infectious hematopoietic necrosis virus in rainbow trout (<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>). Vet. Pathol. 39:180-9.</li> </ol>						

- 532 5. **Buchmann, K.** 1998. Histochemical characteristics of *Gyrodactylus derjavini* parasitizing the fins of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Folia Parasitol. (Praha) **45:**312-8.
- Clark-Lewis, I., B. Dewald, T. Geiser, B. Moser, and M. Baggiolini. 1993.
   Platelet factor 4 binds to interleukin 8 receptors and activates neutrophils when its N
   terminus is modified with Glu-Leu-Arg. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U S A 90:3574-7.
- Cook, W. J., M. F. Kramer, R. M. Walker, T. J. Burwell, H. A. Holman, D. M.
   Coen, and D. M. Knipe. 2004. Persistent expression of chemokine and chemokine receptor RNAs at primary and latent sites of herpes simplex virus 1 infection. Virol. J. 1:5.
- 542 8. **Cuesta, A., and C. Tafalla.** 2009. Transcription of immune genes upon challenge with viral hemorrhagic septicemia virus (VHSV) in DNA vaccinated rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Vaccine **27:**280-9.
- 9. **Chilmonczyk, S., I. Voccia, and D. Monge.** 1995. Pathogenesis of viral haemorrhagic septicaemia virus: cellular aspects. Vet. Res. **26:**505-11.
- 547 10. Christensen, J. E., C. de Lemos, T. Moos, J. P. Christensen, and A. R. Thomsen. 2006. CXCL10 is the key ligand for CXCR3 on CD8+ effector T cells involved in immune surveillance of the lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus-infected central nervous system. J. Immunol. 176:4235-43.
- 11. de Kinkelin, P., P. Besse, and G. Tuffery. 1968. A recent necrosing disease of fish teguments and fins: larval bucephalosis due to *Bucephalus polymorphus* (Baer, 1827). Bull. Off. Int. Epizoot. 69:1207-30.
- 554 12. **Dewitte-Orr, S. J., J. A. Leong, and N. C. Bols.** 2007. Induction of antiviral genes, 555 Mx and vig-1, by dsRNA and Chum salmon reovirus in rainbow trout monocyte/macrophage and fibroblast cell lines. Fish Shellfish Immunol. **3**: 670-82.
- 557 13. **Dixon, B., B. Shum, E. J. Adams, K. E. Magor, R. P. Hedrick, D. G. Muir, and**558 **P. Parham.** 1998. CK-1, a putative chemokine of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Immunol. Rev. **166:**341-8.
- 560 14. **Esche, C., C. Stellato, and L. A. Beck.** 2005. Chemokines: key players in innate and adaptive immunity. J. Invest. Dermatol. **125:**615-28.
- 562 15. Gao, J. Q., Y. Tsuda, M. Han, D. H. Xu, N. Kanagawa, Y. Hatanaka, Y. Tani,
   563 H. Mizuguchi, Y. Tsutsumi, T. Mayumi, N. Okada, and S. Nakagawa. 2009. NK
   564 cells are migrated and indispensable in the anti-tumor activity induced by CCL27
   565 gene therapy. Cancer Immunol. Immunother. 58:291-9.
- 16. **Graham, S., and C. J. Secombes.** 1988. The production of macrophage-activating factor from rainbow trout *Salmo gairdneri* leucocytes. Immunology **65:**293-297.
- Harmache, A., M. Leberre, S. Droineau, M. Giovannini, and M. Bremont.
   2006. Bioluminescence imaging of live infected salmonids reveals that the fin bases are the major portal of entry for Novirhabdovirus. J. Virol. 103:3655-9.
- 571 18. **Heydtmann, M., and D. H. Adams.** 2009. Chemokines in the immunopathogenesis of hepatitis C infection. Hepatology **49:**676-88.
- 573 19. **Hieshima, K., Y. Kawasaki, H. Hanamoto, T. Nakayama, D. Nagakubo, A.**574 **Kanamaru, and O. Yoshie.** 2004. CC chemokine ligands 25 and 28 play essential
  575 roles in intestinal extravasation of IgA antibody-secreting cells. J. Immunol.
  576 **173:** 3668-75.
- 577 20. **Hiscott, J., H. Kwon, and P. Genin.** 2001. Hostile takeovers: viral appropriation of the NF-kappaB pathway. J. Clin. Invest. **107:**143-51.

- 579 21. Huising, M. O., R. J. Stet, C. P. Kruiswijk, H. F. Savelkoul, and B. M. Lidy 580 Verburg-van Kemenade. 2003. Molecular evolution of CXC chemokines: extant 581 CXC chemokines originate from the CNS. Trends Immunol. 24:307-13.
- 582 22. **Jayakar, H. R., E. Jeetendra, and M. A. Whitt.** 2004. Rhabdovirus assembly and budding. Virus Res. **106:**117-32.
- 584 23. **Kaariainen, L., and M. Ranki.** 1984. Inhibition of cell functions by RNA-virus infections. Annu Rev Microbiol **38:**91-109.
- 24. Laing, K. J., N. Bols, and C. J. Secombes. 2002. A CXC chemokine sequence isolated from the rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* resembles the closely related interferon-gamma-inducible chemokines CXCL9, CXCL10 and CXCL11. Eur. Cytokine Netw. 13:462-73.
- 590 25. **Laing, K. J., and C. J. Secombes.** 2004. Trout CC chemokines: comparison of their sequences and expression patterns. Mol. Immunol. **41:**793-808.
- 592 26. Laing, K. J., J. J. Zou, T. Wang, N. Bols, I. Hirono, T. Aoki, and C. J. Secombes. 2002. Identification and analysis of an interleukin 8-like molecule in rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Dev. Comp. Immunol. **26:**433-44.
- 595 27. **Lalani, A. S., and G. McFadden.** 1999. Evasion and exploitation of chemokines by viruses. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev. **10:**219-33.
- 597 28. Lally, J., F. Al-Anouti, N. Bols, and B. Dixon. 2003. The functional characterisation of CK-1, a putative CC chemokine from rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Fish Shellfish Immunol. **15:**411-24.
- 29. Le Page, C., O. Popescu, P. Genin, J. Lian, A. Paquin, J. Galipeau, and J. Hiscott. 2001. Disruption of NF-kappa B signaling and chemokine gene activation by retroviral mediated expression of IKK gamma/NEMO mutants. Virology 286:422-33.
- 604 30. **Liu, L., K. Fujiki, B. Dixon, and R. S. Sundick.** 2002. Cloning of a novel rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) CC chemokine with a fractalkine-like stalk and a TNF decoy receptor using cDNA fragments containing AU-rich elements. Cytokine **17:**71-81.
- 31. Lorenzen, N., N. J. Olesen, and P. E. V. Jorgensen. 1988. Production and characterization of monoclonal antibodies to four Egtved virus structural proteins.
   Dis. Aquat. Org. 4:35-42.
- 32. McLauchlan, P. E., B. Collet, E. Ingerslev, C. J. Secombes, N. Lorenzen, and A.
   E. Ellis. 2003. DNA vaccination against viral haemorrhagic septicaemia (VHS) in rainbow trout: size, dose, route of injection and duration of protection-early protection correlates with Mx expression. Fish Shellfish Immunol. 15:39-50.
- 33. **Molnar, K.** 2002. Site preference of myxosporean spp. on the fins of some Hungarian fish species. Dis. Aquat. Org. **52:**123-8.
- 34. **Molnar, K., and C. Szekely.** 2003. Infection in the fins of the goldfish Carassius auratus caused by *Myxobolus diversus* (Myxosporea). Folia Parasitol. (Praha) **50:**31-6.
- 35. Molnar, K., and C. Szekely. 1997. An unusual location for *Ergasilus sieboldi* Nordmann (Copepoda, Ergasilidae) on the operculum and base of pectoral fins of
   the pikeperch (*Stizostedion lucioperca* L.). Acta Vet. Hung. 45:165-75.
- 623 36. Montero, J., J. Coll, N. Sevilla, A. Cuesta, N. C. Bols, and C. Tafalla. 2008. 624 Interleukin 8 and CK-6 chemokines specifically attract rainbow trout 625 (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) RTS11 monocyte-macrophage cells and have variable
- effects on their immune functions. Dev. Comp. Immunol. **32:**1374-84.

- 627 37. **Montero, J., E. Chaves-Pozo, A. Cuesta, and C. Tafalla.** 2009. Chemokine 628 transcription in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) is differently modulated in 629 response to viral hemorrhagic septicaemia virus (VHSV) or infectious pancreatic 630 necrosis virus (IPNV). Fish Shellfish Immunol. **27:**661-9.
- 38. Morales, J., B. Homey, A. P. Vicari, S. Hudak, E. Oldham, J. Hedrick, R. Orozco, N. G. Copeland, N. A. Jenkins, L. M. McEvoy, and A. Zlotnik. 1999.
   CTACK, a skin-associated chemokine that preferentially attracts skin-homing memory T cells. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U S A 96:14470-5.
- 39. Morohashi, H., T. Miyawaki, H. Nomura, K. Kuno, S. Murakami, K.
   Matsushima, and N. Mukaida. 1995. Expression of both types of human interleukin-8 receptors on mature neutrophils, monocytes, and natural killer cells. J. Leuk. Biol. 57:180-7.
- 639 40. Nansen, A., O. Marker, C. Bartholdy, and A. R. Thomsen. 2000. CCR2+ and CCR5+ CD8+ T cells increase during viral infection and migrate to sites of infection. Eur. J. Immunol. 30:1797-806.
- 642 41. Omaima Harun, N., J. Zou, Y. A. Zhang, P. Nie, and C. J. Secombes. 2008. The
   643 biological effects of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) recombinant interleukin 8. Dev. Comp. Immunol. 32:673-81.
- 42. **Peatman, E., and Z. Liu.** 2007. Evolution of CC chemokines in teleost fish: a case study in gene duplication and implications for immune diversity. Immunogenetics **59:**613-23.
- 43. **Quillet, E., M. Dorson, G. Aubard, and C. Torhy.** 2007. In vitro assay to select rainbow trout with variable resistance/susceptibility to viral haemorrhagic septicaemia virus. Dis. Aquat. Org. **76:**7-16.
- 44. Quillet, E., M. Dorson, G. Aubard, and C. Torhy. 2001. In vitro viral haemorrhagic septicaemia virus replication in excised fins of rainbow trout: correlation with resistance to waterborne challenge and genetic variation. Dis. Aquat. Org. 45:171-182.
- 45. **Reed, L. J., and A. Muench.** 1938. A simple method of stimating fifty per cent end points. J. Hyg. **27:**493-497.
- 46. **Sillanpaa, M., P. Kaukinen, K. Melen, and I. Julkunen.** 2008. Hepatitis C virus proteins interfere with the activation of chemokine gene promoters and downregulate chemokine gene expression. J. Gen. Virol. **89:**432-43.
- 47. **Smith, V. P., and A. Alcami.** 2000. Expression of secreted cytokine and chemokine inhibitors by ectromelia virus. J. Virol. **74:**8460-71.
- 48. **Tafalla, C., A. Figueras, and B. Novoa.** 1998. In vitro interaction of viral haemorrhagic septicaemia virus and leukocytes from trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) and turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*). Vet. Immunol. Immunopathol. **62:**359-66.
- 49. Tafalla, C., E. Sanchez, N. Lorenzen, S. J. DeWitte-Orr, and N. C. Bols. 2008.
   Effects of viral hemorrhagic septicemia virus (VHSV) on the rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) monocyte cell line RTS-11. Mol. Immunol. 45:1439-48.
- 50. Uguccioni, M., M. D'Apuzzo, M. Loetscher, B. Dewald, and M. Baggiolini.
   1995. Actions of the chemotactic cytokines MCP-1, MCP-2, MCP-3, RANTES,
   MIP-1 alpha and MIP-1 beta on human monocytes. Eur. J. Immunol. 25:64-8.
- 51. Unsoeld, H., K. Mueller, U. Schleicher, C. Bogdan, J. Zwirner, D. Voehringer,
   and H. Pircher. 2007. Abrogation of CCL21 chemokine function by transgenic
   over-expression impairs T cell immunity to local infections. Int. Immunol. 19:1281 9.

- 52. Viatour, P., M. P. Merville, V. Bours, and A. Chariot. 2005. Phosphorylation of
   NF-kappaB and IkappaB proteins: implications in cancer and inflammation. Trends
   Biochem. Sci. 30:43-52.
- 53. Waterston, R. H., K. Lindblad-Toh, E. Birney, J. Rogers, J. F. Abril, P.
   Agarwal, R. Agarwala, R. Ainscough, M. Alexandersson, P. An, S. E.
   Antonarakis, et al. 2002. Initial sequencing and comparative analysis of the mouse genome. Nature 420:520-62.
- 54. Wiens, G. D., G. W. Glenney, S. E. Lapatra, and T. J. Welch. 2006.
   Identification of novel rainbow trout (*Onchorynchus mykiss*) chemokines, CXCd1
   and CXCd2: mRNA expression after *Yersinia ruckeri* vaccination and challenge.
   Immunogenetics 58:308-23.

689	
690	Figure legends
691	
692	FIG. 1. Levels of Mx gene transcription in response to VHSV bath infection in fin bases
693	(A) and gills (B). Samples were collected from both infected and mock-infected
694	controls after 1 or 3 days of VHSV infection, RNA obtained and the levels of
695	transcription of the Mx gene determined by real time PCR. Individual data (black
696	circles) were analyzed in triplicate and are shown as the mean gene expression relative
697	to the expression of endogenous control EF1- $\alpha$ . *Relative mean expression (black bar)
698	significantly higher than the relative mean expression in the respective control (p<0.05).
699	
700	FIG. 2. Levels of VHSV N gene transcription in the fin bases in response to VHSV. Fir
701	bases were collected from both infected and mock-infected controls after 1 or 3 days of
702	VHSV infection, RNA obtained and the levels of transcription of the N viral gene
703	determined by real time PCR. Individual data (black circles) were analyzed in triplicate
704	and are shown as the mean gene expression relative to the expression of endogenous
705	control EF1- $\alpha$ . *Relative mean expression (black bar) significantly higher than the
706	relative mean expression in the respective control (p<0.05).
707	
708	FIG. 3. Immunohistochemical staining of fin bases infected with VHSV. Although the
709	immunohistochemical staining was performed with both control and infected fish
710	obtained at days 1, 3 and 6 post-infection, no significant differences in the level or
711	distribution of staining was observed in infected fish at different days post-infection

Therefore, samples taken at day 1 post-infection are shown. A shows a control fin base

area stained with hematoxilin eosin corresponding to the area sampled in chemokine expression studies (10X magnification). B, D and F constitute images from control fish showing dermis, epidermis and muscle respectively, in which no staining is observed (20x magnification). C, E and G constitute images from infected fish showing dermis, epidermis and muscle respectively (20x magnification). Specific staining for VHSV in red was always observed in muscle and dermis, but not in epidermis.

FIG. 4. Cultures were established from either from complete skin in which both epidermis cells and dermis cells were present, or exclusively from epidermal cells. These two types of skin cultures were infected *in vitro* with VHSV or mock-infected to determine their susceptibility to VHSV. A, Levels of transcription of the viral N gene and Mx gene transcription determined through real time PCR in complete skin or epidermis cultures after 3 days of incubation with the virus *in vitro*. Data are shown as the gene expression relative to the expression of endogenous control EF1- $\alpha$  obtained in individual cultures or as stimulation indexes in the case of Mx obtained by dividing the levels of Mx expression observed in response to VHSV to those observed in the respective mock-infected culture. B, Detection of N viral protein through Western blot in fin explants or epidermis cell cultures infected with VHSV (V) or mock-infected (C) *in vitro* at day 3 post-infection. C, Viral titer obtained in four independent cultures after 7 days of infection with VHSV at a final concentration of 5 x10<sup>4</sup> TCID<sub>50</sub>/ml.

FIG. 5. Levels of transcription of the different chemokine genes in the different skin cultures established. RNA was extracted either from complete skin cultures or epidermis cell cultures from which supernatants were collected and the levels of

738 mean chemokine gene expression relative to the expression of endogenous control EF1-739  $\alpha \pm SD$  of four independent cultures. 740 741 FIG. 5. Effect of VHSV on the capacity of the different skin cultures to secret 742 chemotactic factors. Cultures were established from either from complete skin in which 743 both epidermis cells and dermis cells were present, or exclusively from epidermal cells. 744 These two types of skin cultures were infected in vitro with VHSV or mock-infected 745 and incubated for 3 days at 14°C. At this point, supernatants from VHSV-infected 746 cultures (VHSV SN) as well as from mock-infected cultures (Control SN) were 747 collected to determine the capacity of these supernatants to induce migration of 748 autologous PBLs comparing the migration to the migration observed towards media 749 alone (Control) or media with VHSV (VHSV). The chemotaxis assay was performed as 750 described in the Materials and Methods and FACS analysis used to enumerate the 751 number of migrating cells. Experiments were performed in triplicate and data are shown 752 as the mean number of migrating cells obtained in individual rainbow trout (RT)  $\pm$  SD. 753 \*Migration levels towards supernatants from infected cultures significantly different 754 than migration levels obtained with supernatants from mock-infected cultures (p<0.05). 755 756 757 758

transcription of these chemokines studied through real time PCR. Data are shown as the

TABLE I. Chemokine genes analyzed in this study with accession numbers, primer sequences and phylogenetic clade or group to which each of these chemokines is assigned.

GENE	ACC. NUMBER	PRIMER SEQUENCE (5'→3')	PHYLOGENETIC CLADE / GROUP
EF1-α	AF498320	F: GATCCAGAAGGAGGTCACCA R: TTACGTTCGACCTTCCATCC	
IL-8	AJ279069	F: ATTGAGACGGAAAGCAGACG R: CTTGCTCAGAGTGGCAATGA	CXCa
γΙΡ	AJ417078	F: TGGACTGGTGAACCGTGTTA R: TCTTGGCAAATGGAGCTTCT	CXCb
CXCd	DQ191448 (1) DQ191448 (2)	F: GCTCACACTGCTCTAAGGAAGAA R: GGAGAGAGTCTCAATGGAACGT	CXCd
CK1	AF093802	F: GATGGCTGAAAGGCTACACC R: TGGGATTTGTTCTCCTGACG	CCL20
СК3	AJ315149	F: AGATCACCGTTCCCATCATC R: GTGACTTTCTGGCCATCTCC	Fish CC group
CK5B	CA374135	F: TTTGCTGATCGTCAGATACCC R: GTGTCTGCTCCCCAGACTTC	MIP group
CK6	CA355962 (A) CA355812 (B)	F: TGAAAGGCCTACGAATCTGC R: GTTGTTGTTGGCTGGTTGTG	CCL17/22
CK7A	CA343117	F: CCGAGAATCCCTCTTCAACA R: TCATCGTCGTCTTTGGCAGTA	MCP group
СК9	CA378686	F: GGCTCTTATGGGAACTGCTG R: CTGGGATTGGCACAAACAG	CCL19/21/25
CK10	CA361535	F: ATTGCCAAGATCCTCTTCTGTGTTC R: CCTGAGGCTGGTAACCTATGACAAC	CCL19/21/25
CK11	BX072681	F: CCTTTGAGCATACTAATGCGAGTGG R: GTCTGCACAATACTTCCTCCCATTG	CCL27/28
CK12	CA358073 (A) CA346383 (B)	F: GACATCGATGCCACTGTGTT R: GGAGATGGTTCGCTCCAGAC	CCL19/21/25
CCR7	CX721232 CU065128	F: TTCACTGATTACCCCACAGACAATA R: AAGCAGATGAGGGAGTAAAAGGTG	
CCR9	AJ003159.1	F: TCAATCCCTTCCTGTATGTGTTTGT R: GTCCGTGTCTGACATAACTGAGGAG	

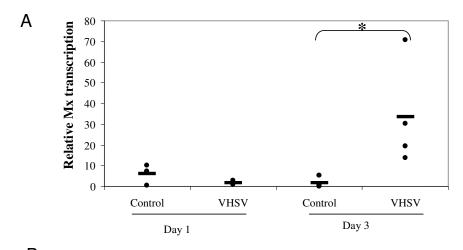
TABLE II. Levels of transcription of a selection of rainbow trout CXC and CC chemokines in the fin bases in response to VHSV bath infection. At days 1, 3 and 6 post-injection four trout from both the infected and the mock-infected group were sacrificed, RNA extracted and the levels of expression of the different chemokines studied through real-time PCR in triplicate. Data are shown as the mean chemokine gene expression relative to the expression of endogenous control EF1- $\alpha \pm SD$ . \*Values in bold constitute relative expression levels significantly higher than the relative expression in respective control (p<0.05). ND= levels of expression not detected.

	Day1		Day 3		Day 6	
	Control	VHSV	Control	VHSV	Control	VHSV
IL-8	$0.0152 \pm 0.02$	$0.0022 \pm 0.00$	$0.0274 \pm 0.05$	$0.0060 \pm 0.00$	$0.0359 \pm 0.02$	$0.0396 \pm 0.05$
γIP	0.0272 ± 0.01	$0.0284 \pm 0.02$	$0.0699 \pm 0.13$	$1.1948 \pm 0.73$	$0.0130 \pm 0.01$	0.0548± 0.07
CXCd	0.2902 ± 0.30	$0.0279 \pm 0.01$	$0.0225 \pm 0.01$	$0.0431 \pm 0.07$	$0.0350 \pm 0.04$	$0.0064 \pm 0.00$
CK1	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
CK3	$0.6826 \pm 0.76$	0.2642 ± 0.18	$0.3118 \pm 0.44$	2.7193 ± 2.64	1.1951 ± 1.16	1.2815 ± 0.60
CK5B	0.0245 ± 0.01	0.0108 ± 0.00	$0.0182 \pm 0.02$	$0.0243 \pm 0.02$	$0.0146 \pm 0.01$	$0.0057 \pm 0.00$
CK6	0.3394 ± 0.41	0.0443 ± 0.04	$0.2033 \pm 0.38$	$0.0305 \pm 0.02$	0.0309 ± 0.02	0.2558 ± 0.47
CK7A	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
CK9	235.0912 ± 198.07	58.8618 ± 68.73	54.0372 ± 77.60	38.4374 ± 36.95	52.7418 ± 46.44	10.7460 ± 13.26
CK10	$0.0309 \pm 0.02$	$0.0168 \pm 0.01$	$0.0146 \pm 0.01$	2.0167 ± 1.10	$0.0158 \pm 0.00$	$0.9253 \pm 0.45$
CK11	72.8666 ± 123.19	4.0194 ± 3.08	36.9005 ± 68.64	7.1217 ± 7.58	7.8178 ± 6.53	1.0905 ± 1.25
CK12	1.1877 ± 0.91	1.2991 ± 0.93	0.9388 ± 1.04	33.4860± 30.00	3.6679 ± 2.54	1.0162 ± 0.66

TABLE III. Levels of transcription of a selection of rainbow trout CXC and CC chemokines in gills in response to VHSV bath infection. At days 1, 3 and 6 post-injection five trout from both the infected and the mock-infected group were sacrificed, RNA extracted and the levels of expression of the different chemokines studied through real-time PCR in triplicate. Data are shown as the mean chemokine gene expression relative to the expression of endogenous control EF1- $\alpha$   $\pm$  SD. \*Values in bold constitute relative expression levels significantly higher than the relative expression in respective control, whereas values underlined constitute expression levels significantly lower than relative expression in the respective control (p<0.05). ND= levels of expression not detected.

	Day1		Day 3		Day 6	
	Control	VHSV	Control	VHSV	Control	VHSV
IL-8	$0.0005 \pm 0.00$	ND	$0.0004 \pm 0.00$	$0.0002 \pm 0.00$	$0.0046 \pm 0.00$	0.0041 ± 0.01
γIP	$0.0006 \pm 0.00$	$0.0006 \pm 0.00$	$0.0004 \pm 0.00$	ND	1.2317 ± 1.66	1.3387 ± 1.49
CXCd	$0.0629 \pm 0.09$	$0.0049 \pm 0.01$	$0.1149 \pm 0.15$	$0.04 \pm 0.03$	$0.0275 \pm 0.06$	1.1964 ± 1.31
CK1	0.0036±0.00	0.0536±0.03	ND	ND	ND	ND
CK3	$0.0341 \pm 0.03$	5.7203 ± 5.25	$0.2413 \pm 0.31$	7.380 ± 4.79	0.0041 ± 0.01	$0.0039 \pm 0.01$
CK5B	ND	ND	$0.0004 \pm 0.00$	$0.0002 \pm 0.00$	$0.0680 \pm 0.06$	$0.0309 \pm 0.03$
CK6	0.4987 ± 1.00	0.0137 ± 0.01	$0.05108 \pm 0.07$	$0.0925 \pm 0.12$	$0.0986 \pm 0.18$	0.1102 ± 0.19
CK7A	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
CK9	$0.0611 \pm 0.03$	27.4551 ± 18.66	$0.1843 \pm 0.22$	$0.2556 \pm 0.25$	0.7172 ± 1.09	$3.8930 \pm 0.02$
CK10	$0.0117 \pm 0.01$	$0.0120 \pm 0.02$	1.6597 ± 1.97	<u>ND</u>	0.5842 ± 1.09	$0.01601 \pm 0.02$
CK11	$0.0117 \pm 0.01$	21.9521 ± 18.15	$0.5777 \pm 0.90$	281.5384 ± 304.76	1.0340 ± 1.26	1.5975 ± 2.23
CK12	0.2628 ± 0.25	0.1809 ± 0.17	1.766 ± 1.20	$0.1714 \pm 0.09$	279.6089 ± 168.53	12.7088 ± 8.22

Fig. 1



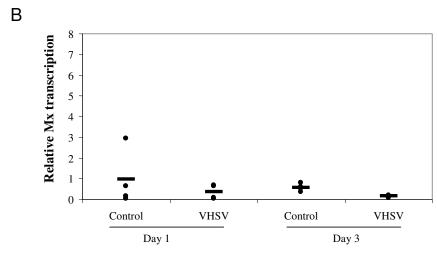


Fig. 2

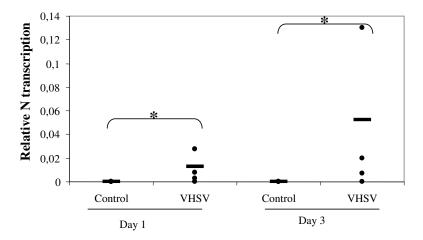


Fig. 3

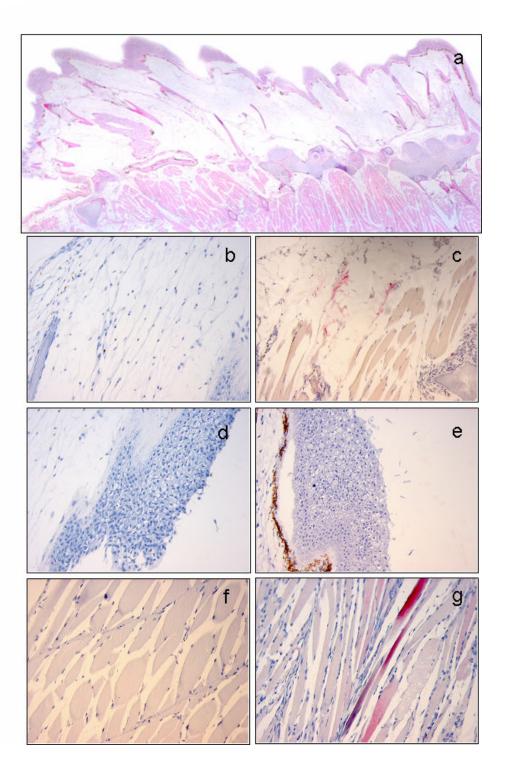


Fig. 4

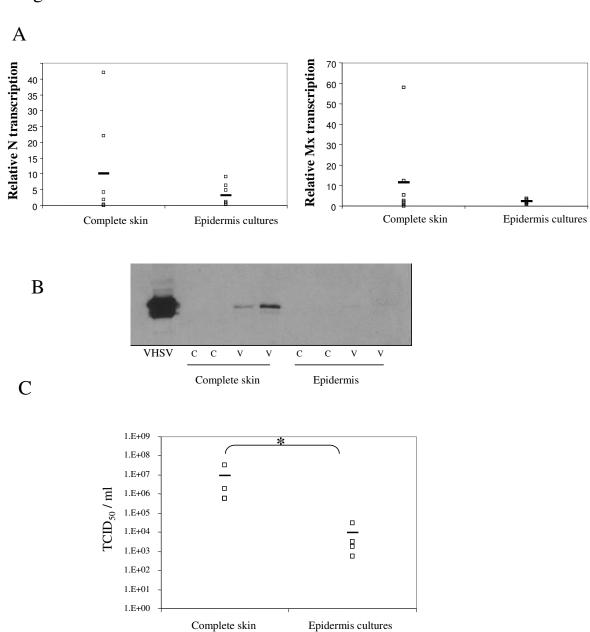


Fig. 5

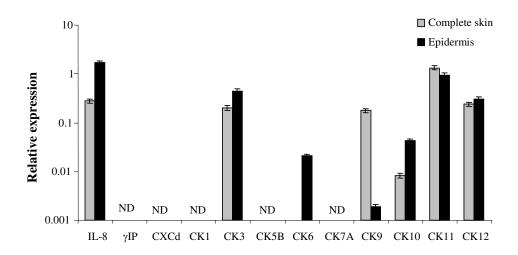


Fig. 6

