

The fish parasite *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* – Host immunology, vaccines and novel treatments

A review

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Abstract

Ichthyophthirius multifiliis, the causative agent of white spot disease (Ichthyophthiriasis) is a major burden for fish farmers and aquarists globally. The parasite infects the skin and the gills of freshwater fish, which may acquire a protective adaptive immune response against this disease, making vaccine strategies feasible. However, there is no prophylactic treatment available and repetitive treatments with auxiliary substances are needed to control the infection. Historically, a variety of drugs and chemicals have been used to combat the disease but due to changing regulations and recognition of carcinogenic and environmentally damaging effects the most efficient compounds are prohibited. A continuous search for novel substances, which are highly effective against the parasites and harmless for the fish is ongoing. These compounds should be environmentally friendly and cost-effective. This review presents recent progress within host immunology, vaccinology and a description of novel substances, which have been tested as treatments against ichthyophthiriasis.

Introduction

Ichthyophthirius multifiliis is a protozoan parasite, causing white spot disease and is a major burden for fish farmers and aquarists worldwide. The infective theront stage of the parasite invades the

31 skin and gills of fish, penetrates the epidermis and settles above the basal lamina [1, 2]. Here it
32 transforms into the trophont stage that feeds on fish tissue until it reaches a size of 0.5-1.0 mm and
33 is macroscopically visible as a white spot [3]. The mature trophont exits the fish and transform into
34 a tomont, which seeks bottom surfaces for encystment into a tomocyst in which asexual
35 reproduction takes place. When the trophont emerges from the fish host it disrupts the epidermis
36 and gill epithelia, which may challenge osmoregulation and leave the fish susceptible to secondary
37 infections [4, 5]. High mortalities occur during epidemics and the fish die from either theront
38 penetration, parasites feeding on cells and tissues or trophont escape from the fish surfaces.

39 At least five different serotypes of this parasite exist, characterized by differences in the
40 surface immobilisation antigens (Iag) [6] and more serotypes may exist since a total of 17 Iag-genes
41 have been identified in the *I. multifiliis* genome [7]. These Iags are immuno-dominant and are
42 thereby targeted by *I. multifiliis*-specific antibodies produced in the host [8]. Cross-linking of Iags by
43 antibodies elicits either an escape response in the parasites or immobilization [9, 10]. The
44 immunological responses of the hosts have been investigated since 1910 [11] and both innate and
45 adaptive factors are activated during infection [3, 8]. Immunoglobulins are of particular importance
46 in the protective response at mucosal surfaces [8, 10] but a more detailed description of the
47 immune mechanisms is needed.

48 Different treatments have been used to combat the parasite with treatment regimes
49 changing according to new legislation regarding toxicity and carcinogenicity of the applied
50 substances. The trophont stage of the parasite, which is protected by the epidermis of the fish, is
51 generally more resistant to treatments than the theront stage but it takes intensive effort and
52 repetitive treatments to eliminate the infection by targeting the theront stage. A search for novel
53 efficient and safe compounds for the treatment of white spot disease is ongoing and some new
54 drug candidates appear promising. Prophylaxis is in the long run cheaper and environmentally safer
55 than treatments and management methods including water filtration technologies [12] and
56 immunoprophylactic measures [13, 14] may be part of a future integrated control system. Due to
57 the well described protective immune response erected by fish against *I. multifiliis* a continuous
58 search for vaccines is being undertaken. Progress within this field is evident however, no vaccine
59 has yet been developed that targets all serotypes and is produced independently of parasite
60 production.

Novel investigations have utilized the zebrafish as a model organism to further investigate the immunological mechanisms involved in innate and adaptive responses of the host [15-17]. This model holds the potential for further investigation of the *in vivo* immunological mechanism involved in the responses in an unprecedented way, due to the availability of transparent and immunologically relevant transgenic lines. Utilising this model may provide a more detailed description of host/parasite interactions and key factors for production of vaccines may be revealed.

This review is focused on the current knowledge and understanding of immunology, vaccinology and treatments and building on information gathered into earlier reviews [3, 4, 8].

Immunological responses

Historically, immune response studies against *I. multifiliis* have been conducted primarily with rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*) and common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*). It has been assumed that the responses are similar across species yet this is not always the case. For example, channel catfish do not possess IgT immunoglobulins (an immunological important mucosal antibody in rainbow trout) corresponding to IgZ in zebrafish. The skin of channel catfish has antibody-secreting cells for IgM instead and IgD is a prominent Ig in this species. Antibody titers increase from 4 h post immunisation with *I. multifiliis* [18] and species-specific responses will differ due to species related characteristics, illustrating the importance of conducting these investigations at the species level. Therefore, this review divides current knowledge into primary and secondary immunological responses according to findings at the species level.

Recently, investigations have expanded to other species of fish and new tools for immunological analyses have been applied, which contribute to the understanding of the complicated host/parasite interactions.

Primary response

Rainbow trout

Non-specific innate factors target the parasite, which was shown by testing cross protective responses across different fish pathogens and *I. multifiliis* or the *in vitro* demonstration of

serological cross-reactivity between *I. multifilis* and *Tetrahymena pyriformis* [19-21]. Complement factors have also been suggested to be involved in the innate response against *I. multifiliis* [13, 21-23] and evidence that C3 plays an important role, together with the mucosal immunoglobulin IgT, in the fight against the parasite in the skin has recently been provided [24].

Cellular factors have been shown to be involved in the primary response. Four days following infection, MHCII⁺ cells with the morphology of macrophages and CD8 α ⁺ cells were found to surround the parasites in the gills [23]. Gene expression of the cytokines IFN-gamma (which activates macrophages) was elevated both during the innate and the adaptive response indicating that macrophages may play a key role in both responses [23]. The production of serum amyloid A (SAA) is highly upregulated during *I. multifiliis* infections [13, 22, 25] but the function of this apolipoprotein in relation to ichthyophthiriasis is unknown.

A study focusing on primary immune responses was conducted on rainbow trout larvae receiving an infection with *I. multifiliis*. IL-1 beta was the first gene to be up-regulated, followed by IL-8, cathelicidin-2, TNF-alfa, hepcidin, IL-6, iNOS and SAA. MHCII and SAA were found at the sites of parasite localization. This study showed that 10 day old larvae are able to regulate immune-relevant factors during an *I. multifiliis* infection [26].

Channel catfish

It is known that toll-like receptors (TLRs), which are type-I integral trans-membrane receptors and crucial for recognition of different pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), are activated during parasite infections. They are implicated in innate sensing of the parasites in mammals [27], however their functions are still relatively poorly understood in fish. During an *I. multifiliis* infections in channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*) it was found that the TLRs 1, 2, 9, 19 were upregulated in skin and TLR2, 9, 19 in gill and that the TLRs 21 and 25 were upregulated in spleen and kidney [28]. Immune-relevant gene expression has also been studied in channel catfish immunised intra-peritoneally (i.p.) with live theronts and already from 4 h to 2 days post-immunisation expression of IgM, IgD, TLRs, complement factors and a range of cytokines increased. Immune cell receptor genes for CD4, Cd8 α , MHC I, MHCII β , TcR α and TcR β were upregulated from 4 h to 6 days post-immunisation, indicating activation of cell mediated responses [18]. Nonspecific cytotoxic cells (NCC) have also been suggested to play a role in innate immune responses of channel catfish against the parasite [29, 30].

123

124 *Carp*

125 Bauer (1954) characterized the immune response in carp against *I. multifiliis* and reported that the
126 protective response was dependent on the immunization dosage. In this species the cell-mediated,
127 innate immune response has been investigated showing that penetration of the skin by the parasite
128 elicits chemokine release [31] and within 24 h neutrophils are attracted to areas of infection [32].
129 The neutrophils surround the parasites during the next 2-6 days and thereafter other inflammatory
130 cells such as eosinophils and basophils become attracted [32-34].

131

132 *Grass carp (Ctenopharyngodon idellus)*

133 The major histocompatibility (MH) DAB gene belongs to antigen-presented genes in the class II
134 genomic region and is associated with anti-parasitic resistance. It has been shown that up-
135 regulation of the DAB gene occurs in skin and gills following a primary infection. These results
136 support the long-established opinion that antibody production is involved in responses against *I.*
137 *multifiliis* [35]. Two important signalling molecules involved in TLR signal transduction, TRAF6 and
138 TAK1, were found to be upregulated in grass carp in skin, gill, head kidney, and spleen following an
139 *I. multifiliis* infection [36]. These studies support the notion that TLRs are involved in primary
140 recognition of the parasite.

141

142 *Zebrafish*

143 It has recently been discovered that zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) are susceptible towards the parasite and
144 that they are able to acquire immunity against it. An increase of mucous cells was associated with
145 infected areas and severe proliferation in the gill tissue was observed during a primary infection,
146 with 87.5 % survival compared to 100 % mortality in control fish during a secondary infection [15].
147 Neutrophils, which are key players during innate immunity have been shown to be involved in the
148 response against *I. multifiliis* in carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) [32]. A recent study showed a 3.4 fold
149 increase of neutrophils in the caudal fin 24 h following a primary infection of zebrafish using the
150 transgenic line Tg(MPO:GFP)ⁱ¹¹⁴, indicating a direct interaction of the neutrophils and the parasites
151 [16]. During the following two days, the number of neutrophils in the infected area decreased in
152 spite of the parasites increasing in size and whether this is due to other immune cells taking over or
153 evasion by the parasite needs further investigation. However, it was observed that the parasites

154 ingested moving functional neutrophils, which must be considered a direct host evasion
155 mechanism. By ingesting immune cells signal pathways and immune reactions may be suppressed.
156 The gills of infected zebrafish have also been investigated in an gene expression study revealing
157 that the cytokines IL-1beta, IL-10, TNF-alpha, IL-8, TGF-beta and IL-4/13, the acute-phase reactant
158 SAA, the compliment factor C3 and a neutrophil marker were up-regulated in infected fish
159 compared to non-infected fish, indicating immune activation [37]. This immune activation is
160 comparable to other fish species infected with this parasite such as rainbow trout [13, 25], carp [31,
161 38, 39] and channel catfish [18].

162 Zebrafish are, however, naturally more resistant to *I. multifiliis* infections than rainbow
163 trout, yet a high infection (lethal) can be obtained [40] if zebrafish are exposed to a stressor at the
164 same time e.g. transfer to a new tank, crowding or a decreased quality of water (unpublished
165 results from our laboratory). Zebrafish are also more resilient towards the parasite and obtain
166 much lighter gill infections compared to channel catfish [41]. This points towards zebrafish having
167 innate factors that play a key role in natural protection. The use of genetics approaches in this
168 species is highly relevant and holds promise for an elucidation of host factors responsible for
169 susceptibility and resistance.

170

171 **Secondary response**

172 It has been known since 1989 that a glycoposphatidylinositol (GPI) anchored protein, the
173 immobilisation antigen (Iag) is a target for protective antibodies of the host [42, 43]. The GPI is a
174 common PAMP amongst protozoans and may be the dominant glycolipid coating the surface of
175 protozoan parasites [27]. *I. multifiliis* specific antibodies cross-bind the Iags and the parasite either
176 escapes the immune fish or gets immobilized and destroyed. A few parasites may settle and
177 develop normally. Even though it is recognized that immunoglobulins are key players for protection
178 against *I. multifiliis* in immune fish it has also been found that a cell-mediated immune response is
179 involved [44].

180

181 *Rainbow trout*

182 Since 1910 it has been recognised that fish may acquire protection against *I. multifiliis* following
183 sub-lethal infections [45]. Rainbow trout also acquires protection against the parasite following
184 sub-lethal infections or intraperitoneal injections with live parasites [13, 46]. In this species, it was

discovered that the mucosal immunoglobulin IgT and IgM bound directly to the parasite in the gills of immune fish [9] within two hours following infection. In carp it has been shown that the parasites exit prematurely the immune fish, within two hours [47], and if this also is the case in rainbow trout, then humoral factors may be playing the major role in protection.

Since the discovery of the specialized mucosal immunoglobulin IgT in rainbow trout [48] its functionality has been investigated in skin, gill and gut infections [49-51]. In rainbow trout IgT plays a major role in the protective response against *I. multifiliis* at the mucosal surfaces skin and gills. In the skin IgT⁺ B cells represent the majority of the B cell subtypes and during infection with *I. multifiliis* the parasite is covered with IgT. Fish surviving an infection had high concentrations of IgT in the mucus [49]. In the gills IgT⁺ B cells were, for the first time, shown to proliferate locally and generate *I. multifiliis* specific IgT. IgT coated the parasite and, in contrast to a previous study [9], almost no IgM was found to bind the parasite in the gills [50]. *I. multifiliis* specific IgM was detected in the serum of infected and survivor fish [49, 50]. Preliminary results from our laboratory show that transcripts of IgM in the gills are 10 fold upregulated in immune rainbow trout whereas IgT is 7 fold upregulated 1 h following challenge. This could indicate that IgM⁺ B memory cells reside in the gill tissue or that they are homing to areas of infection during a challenge.

Markers of cells associated with the cellular adaptive response such as IgM, IgT, MHCII and CD8 are regulated in areas of infection [23] but their direct involvement during an adaptive response needs further investigation.

Channel catfish

Protection against *I. multifiliis* by immunization in channel catfish was first demonstrated by Goven et al. 1980 [52]. Tetrameric IgM, which together with IgD are the only classes of immunoglobulins present in channel catfish, is the functional protective antibody produced in the skin and in the systemic compartment of channel catfish [8, 53-55]. Using this species it was discovered that the parasite was forced to exit the host after administration of mouse IgG antibodies targeted against the immune-dominant surface protein lag, confirming the role of lags in protective immunity [10].

In channel catfish, it has been shown that three years following an *I. multifiliis* infection IgM⁺ memory B cells maintained humoral immunity by differentiating into antibody secreting cells during a challenge infection, and were found both in systemic and mucosal tissue compartments [56].

216 *Carp*

217 Bauer (1953) demonstrated a protective response in carp dependent on the primary infection
218 pressure. Hines and Spira (1974) demonstrated that serum from immunized fish was able to
219 immobilise parasites *in vitro* [57]. In this species, it was shown that only around 5% of theronts
220 were able to infect immunized fish [32, 47]. The remaining theronts prematurely exited the host
221 within two hours. The premature exit was so fast that it can be doubted that the protective
222 mechanisms rely on cell-mediated responses [47]. Established parasites in immune fish were
223 surrounded by neutrophils, macrophages, eosinophilic granular cells (ECG) and basophils, which did
224 not affect the parasite [33].

225

226 **Vaccines**

227 Since fish are able to acquire protection against *I. multifiliis* following exposure to the parasite,
228 vaccination as a prophylactic approach represents a better alternative than repeated treatments to
229 control the disease. With a vaccine, handling of and stress for the fish is minimized and given that
230 the fish will not suffer from the diseases, there will be a major impact on the welfare of the animal.
231 A further benefit of vaccines, is the reduced impact of repetitive treatments of environmentally
232 disruptive substances.

233 Sub-lethal infections and i.p. injections provide fish hosts with protective immunity [9, 11,
234 13, 58-61], which holds promise for possible vaccines. However, to date there is no commercially
235 available prophylaxis on the market. Immunizations using dead parasite materials have induced
236 varying degrees of protection and Burkart *et al.* (1990) induced a significant level of protective
237 immunity in channel catfish using formalin-killed trophonts [62]. In rainbow trout fry protection
238 was also obtained by i.p. injection using sonicated formalin-killed trophonts [63]. On the other
239 hand, Xu *et al.* (2009) found that sonicated trophonts, and not formalin inactivated trophonts,
240 induced both serum and cutaneous antibody responses and protection against a live theront
241 challenge in channel catfish [64]. Vaccinations with purified lag and Freund's complete adjuvant
242 induce protection only against the same serotype of the parasite bearing homologous lag on their
243 surface [65, 66], however other protective proteins exist because vaccination with live theronts,
244 either as natural sub-lethal infections or i.p. injections, confers protection which is not serotype
245 specific [67, 68].

I. multifiliis is an obligate parasite and culturing of the parasite without the use of fish has, to date, not been successful. Therefore, it is impossible to produce parasites in bulk for the large-scale vaccine production that would be needed to make a parasite-based vaccine. Therefore, a biotechnological approach is more feasible.

DNA vaccines using an IAG52B as a vaccine candidate were successfully expressed in rainbow trout and channel catfish muscle tissues, inducing lag-specific antibody responses but not providing significant protection [14, 69].

A recombinant vaccine using *Escherichia coli* with a successfully expressed fusion protein with a 316 bp gene fragment containing a potential antigenic epitope of a 48 kDa lag induced 95 % survival in goldfish compared to 55 % for the controls. Even though the result was promising no further studies have been reported for this recombinant vaccine. The gene for lag (IAG52B) has been inserted into the closely related ciliate *Tetrahymena thermophila* and successful recombinant expression was achieved [70, 71] and protection in channel catfish was obtained. However, the concentration of cadmium, which was the gene promoter in the transformed *T. thermophila* was found to be elevated in fish tissues [72], thus posing a potential health danger.

A radiovaccine (gamma irradiated trophonts) has also been tested in rainbow trout using feed and bath administration and immune parameters were activated but no data on protection was reported [73, 74].

A live recombinant *Lactococcus lactis* vaccine expressing a 48 kDa immobilization antigen has been tested in goldfish. The recombinant vaccine was administered through feed and, even though lag-specific antibody levels were detected, only a limited effect was observed on survival of the fish (50-60 % compared to 40 % in controls) [75].

Progress in genomic and transcriptomic techniques have opened up the door for identification of novel vaccine and drug targets, with a recent study using *in silico* techniques to select new antigens from the proteome for potential immunogenicity. Three antigens were chosen, expressed recombinantly and tested in an adjuvanted sub-unit vaccine against *I. multifiliis*. Sonicated tomonts were used as benchmark and the sub-unit vaccine performed almost as efficient (modest protection) as the benchmark vaccine [76]. Such biotechnology-based approaches are viewed increasingly as promising for the development of vaccines against this parasite, which cannot be cultivated in the laboratory without sacrificing fish.

Explorative platform and future perspectives

With advances in biotechnological approaches a vaccine against this important fish pathogen is within reach. Two major obstacles have to be overcome: 1) the expression system must be inexpensive for large scale productions and must produce recombinant proteins with the correct tertiary structure for immunogenicity, 2) novel antigens, which are protective against all serotypes are necessary requirements. Immunological studies are essential to understand how the fish is able to battle the parasite and thus may help us in the search for an efficient vaccine strategy or novel antigens.

With the zebrafish available as a novel explorative platform for this fish disease unprecedented opportunities are offered. The underlying host mechanisms behind the immunological responses can be mapped in much more detail than previously possible and with immunologically relevant transgenic lines specific aspects of the response can be investigated. An example would be the study of the impact of neutrophils in disease development, using a line with a normal level of neutrophils, to compare pathology with a line where all neutrophils are depleted during infection. Novel methods have been developed for *in vivo* studies of host/parasite interactions using specialized equipment such as a confocal microscope [16]. Since the parasite is naturally restricted to gills and skin these observations can be conducted with non-invasive techniques.

Until a cost-efficient vaccine against *I. multifiliis* is on the market, management and treatment are the only means of controlling the disease. Using zebrafish for treatment studies provides significant advances as *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies can be conducted according to common practice. Both acute and lethal toxicity estimations can be obtained easily according to the OECD guidelines for fish embryo acute toxicity test (test no. 236) [77]. Zebrafish are furthermore relatively easy to keep and breed in captivity with a single breeding pair able to produce up to 300 eggs per week.

I. multifiliis is still a major threat to sustainable aquaculture and for aquarists and an effective means of control is urgently needed. Until an effective prophylaxis has been developed, repetitive treatments are required. However, revealing more detail of the immunological mechanisms involved in the fight against the parasite may provide knowledge leading to novel approaches to combat the disease.

308 **Treatments**

309 At present, there is no vaccine on the market against ichthyophthiriasis and the only way to control
310 the parasite is through treatments of fish or water containing infective theronts. Through the years,
311 the primary treatment against *I. multifiliis* has changed according to efficacy, toxicity or
312 carcinogenicity of the substances. Some treatments are non-toxic and non-carcinogenic e.g. salt, pH
313 and temperature regulations and may be more or less effective. Salt has been used against *I.*
314 *multifiliis* since 1893 [4, 78, 79] and in 1972 Cross [80] suggested that salt only had a positive effect
315 on fish recovery. Since then, several studies have shown that salt can directly affect and reduce
316 parasite populations [81-85]. Both the parasite and the fish can be severely affected by pH and
317 considerations related to fish species and welfare have to be taken into account. It has been shown
318 that the parasite thrived at pH 7 in silver catfish (*Rhamdia quelen*) and reduction or increase of pH
319 reduced parasite survival [86-88]. Temperature is a common way of controlling ichthyophthiriasis
320 for hobby aquarists and in this forum, it is said that raising the temperature to 30 C° “burns” out
321 the parasite. It has been shown that raising the temperature to 32 C° for 5 days does, indeed,
322 destroy the parasite but this has limited application for production in large-scale aquaculture [4].

323 The use of chemicals for treatment of white spot disease is common practice for
324 aquaculturists and aquarists. Aquarists use, primarily, formulations that include malachite green,
325 methylene blue, copper sulfate and formaldehyde. Malachite green and methylene blue target
326 both the free-living stages and the stages within the fish epidermis, which indicate that the dyes
327 penetrate deeply or act systemically and kill subcutaneous stages of *I. multifiliis* [89]. However,
328 reports of carcinogenic and teratogenic effects of malachite green on humans [90-93] led to the
329 withdrawal of the substance for food fish in the USA and in Europe [4]. Methylene blue is an aniline
330 dye and is not likely to get approved for food fish. Copper sulfate is also effective against
331 ichthyophthiriasis but only prevents transmission and can be extremely toxic to fish in water of low
332 alkalinity [89, 94]. It is not approved for use in fish for consumption. The use of formaldehyde for
333 food fish is described in the following paragraph.

334

335 **Auxiliary products for water treatment**

336 Control can be achieved by use of water treatment with auxiliary substances, which target free-
337 living stages of the parasite in the fish water, preventing infection of fish. For many years
338 formaldehyde has been the most used substance in the aquaculture industry worldwide to combat

339 *I. multifiliis* [4, 95] and this chemical is lethal to the parasites at 50-100 mg/L between 30-60 min.
 340 Such dosages can be tolerated by certain fish species e.g. rainbow trout [12, 96]. The toxicity and
 341 effectivity of treatments are also dependent on water parameters such as temperature, pH and
 342 hardness [97] and should, therefore, be designed to match individual aquaculture systems.
 343 Furthermore, formaldehyde has been classified as carcinogenic (EU directive 2004/37/EC) [98] and
 344 in Denmark legislation declares that formaldehyde only can be used when there is no effective
 345 substitute for it [99]. A series of other environmentally problematic compounds have also recently
 346 been suggested for water treatment. One study focused on *in vitro* treatments using chlorine
 347 dioxide against *I. multifiliis* and *in vivo* studies in infected silver catfish (*Rhamdia quelen*). Theronts
 348 were killed *in vitro* with 50 mg/L for 1 h and with a dosage of 25 mg/L for 48 h the parasite burden
 349 *in vivo* was reduced by more than 50 % [100]. The use of copper sulfate and chloramine T to kill
 350 theronts was found to be effective at a concentration of 1 mg/L and 21 mg/L for 13 min,
 351 respectively but the toxicity was highly dependent on water parameters [101]. Nitazoxanide has
 352 also been tested in silver catfish juveniles against the parasite and the use of 1.5 mg/L showed an
 353 increased survival of 97 % compared to 40 % survival in the controls and a reduction of the parasite
 354 burden with 98 % [102].

355

356 Table 1. A selection of recently *in vitro* tested substances against *I. multifiliis*. Concentrations of the
 357 substances, theront and tomont mortalities and references are provided.

358 Table 2. A selection of recently *in vivo* tested substances against *I. multifiliis*. The relevant fish
 359 species, the LC₅₀, concentrations of the substances, percent mortality of treated versus control
 360 animals, the reduced parasite burden and references are provided.

361

362 Environmentally friendly products leave only highly biodegradable products in the fish farm. Among
 363 these, compounds based on the release of hydrogen peroxide have been introduced with some
 364 success during recent years. Hydrogen peroxide has been tested and kills the parasites with a lower
 365 concentration compared to formaldehyde [12]. It is lethal for the parasites at concentrations which
 366 are tolerable for the fish. Peracetic acid, which disintegrates to hydrogen peroxide and acetic acid
 367 (which further disintegrates to water, oxygen and carbon dioxide) has been tested through
 368 continuous addition in a field trial study against *I. multifiliis* and was found to be efficient in a

369 concentration of 0.10-0.15 mg/L [103, 104]. Another effective auxiliary compound applied at farm
370 level is sodium percarbonate, which is known to eliminate theronts within hours [105].

371

372 **Drugs**

373 Antiparasitic drugs, such as toltrazuril, which are not specifically licensed for use in fish and are
374 used in other animals, can be used in the European community if the so-called “cascade principle”
375 is taken into account. This regulation is described in EC Directive 2004/28/CE and states that drugs
376 licensed for other host animals can be used if no drug is available for treatment of a disease in the
377 specific species [106]. Toltrazuril was tested for any protective effect against *I. multifiliis* through
378 feed administration and it was found that the drug conferred protection against infection but had
379 no effect on already established parasites [107]. Antibiotics, such as this one, are not seen as
380 acceptable for control measures due to their negative impact on the environment (see also the
381 section Actinobacteria, for more detail).

382 There is a standing need for novel agents to kill *I. multifiliis* and in recent years many
383 substances have been investigated. To assess a novel substance a range of investigations should be
384 reviewed to get a holistic and realistic picture of the usefulness of the agent, including: 1) *in vitro*
385 studies describing the effect on theronts, non-encysted tomonts and encysted tomonts.
386 Concentration, time span and mortality should be registered, 2) *in vivo* studies conducted on fish
387 with a primary infection. Concentration, time span for reduced mortality and parasite burden
388 should be registered, 3) the median lethal concentration (LC₅₀) of the substance determined for the
389 relevant fish species.

390 A good candidate substance will kill all stages of the parasite at a low concentration *in vitro*,
391 significantly reduce mortality and the parasite burden at a low concentration *in vivo* and have an
392 LC₅₀ value for the relevant fish species much higher than the needed concentration for treatment
393 against ichthyophthiriasis.

394 It should be emphasised that any compound being considered as a commercial drug must
395 hold the promise of cost-efficient, large-scale production and regulatory compliance for both fish
396 and humans.

397

398 **Plant extracts**

399 Plant extracts have also been suggested as alternative treatments against *I. multifiliis*. A series of
400 publications have focused on antiparasitic effects but environmental and toxic effects need to be
401 addressed as well. The effect of various of these plant extracts is described below and a summary
402 of the related *in vitro* and *in vivo* investigations can be found in Tables 1 and 2.
403 Three essential oils from *Melaleuca alternifolia*, *Lavandula angustifolia* and *Mentha piperita* were
404 tested for their toxic effect on *I. multifiliis* trophonts obtained from pacu (*Piaractus*
405 *mesopotamicus*). All three oils showed toxicity towards the trophonts and *M. alternifolia*, was also
406 tested as an *in vivo* antiparasitic agent in infected fish, showing some promise at relatively high
407 concentrations compared to other substances described in this review [108]. Ethanol extracts from
408 three medicinal plants *Cynanchum atratum*, *Zingiber officinale*, and *Cynanchum paniculatum* were
409 tested against theronts, nonencysted tomonts and encysted tomonts and administered, through
410 feed, against *in vivo* infections in grass carp. A concentration of 8 mg/L for *Z. officinale* was 100 %
411 effective against theronts and a concentration of 4 mg/L of *C. atratum* was sufficient to kill
412 encysted tomonts. Applying the extract to the feed had a limited effect [109]. Another study
413 showed that cynatratoside-C isolated from *C. atratum* showed 100 % mortality against *I. multifiliis*
414 theronts from grass carp in approximately three hours at a low concentration of 0.25 mg/L. The
415 same concentration was used for *in vivo* infections and showed significant treatment efficacy and
416 protection. Furthermore, the substance was tested for toxicity to grass carp and the median lethal
417 concentration (LC₅₀) was found to be 46.8 mg/L and thus safe for treatment against *I. multifiliis*
418 [110].

419 Gracillin and zingiberenis newsaponin from the plant species *Costus speciosus* showed
420 efficiency against *I. multifiliis* *in vitro* and *in vivo* in grass carp. *In vitro* concentrations of 0.8 and 4.5
421 mg/L of Gracillin and zingiberenis newsaponin, respectively were 100% lethal to theronts whereas a
422 concentration of 1 and 5 mg/L was effective against nonencysted tomonts and encysted tomonts
423 respectively after 6 h exposure. *In vivo* experiments demonstrated that the latter concentrations
424 were also effective *in vivo* and that the parasite burden was significantly reduced. Acute toxicities
425 (LC₅₀) of gracillin and zingiberenis newsaponin to grass carp were 1.64 and 20.7 mg/L, respectively
426 [111].

427 Root bark of white mulberry (*Morus alba*) has also been investigated for its potentially anti-
428 parasitic effect against *I. multifiliis*. One study used a range of extraction methods on powdered
429 bark, and *in vitro* efficiency was shown but the concentrations were relatively high compared to the

other tested substances described in this review [112] (Table 1). In another study, two flavonoids (kuwanons G and O) induced 100 % mortality in theronts at a concentration of 2 mg/L and were able to reduce infectivity of theronts following exposure. The median lethal concentrations (LC₅₀) of kuwanons G and O to grass carp were 38.0 and 26.9 mg/L respectively [113].

Extracts of chelerythrine and chloroxylonine from *Toddalia asiatica* were 100% effective against *I. multifiliis* in concentrations of 1.2 mg/L and 3.5 mg/L *in vitro*, respectively, within 4 h. *In vivo* experiments showed that infected fish treated with chelerythrine and chloroxylonine at the concentrations of 1.8 and 8.0 mg/L, respectively carried significantly fewer parasites. The acute toxicity (LC₅₀) of chelerythrine for goldfish was 3.3 mg/L [114]. The compound pentagalloylglucose extracted from *Galla chinensis* was also shown to be lethal to *I. multifiliis* with theront mortality at 100 % after treatment with 2.5-20 mg/L for 6-234 min. Infectivity of theronts was significantly reduced at 1, 2 and 5 mg/L and pentagalloylglucose at 20 mg/L was effective in treating infected catfish and preventing naive catfish from *I. multifiliis* infection. The LC₅₀ for this compound in channel catfish was 151.3 mg/L [115].

Two compounds (psoralidin and isopsoralen) extracted with methanol from *Psoralea corylifolia* were also tested *in vitro* and *in vivo* against *I. multifiliis* in goldfish (*Carassius auratus*). Psoralidin was found to be the most effective of them, killing all theronts *in vitro* at a concentration of 0.8 mg/L during a 4 h exposure and terminated reproduction in trophonts at 0.9 mg/L and in encysted tomonts at 1.2 mg/L. Infection pressure was significantly reduced after exposure of 2.5 mg/L psoralidin within 5 h in *in vivo* trials [116]. Another study with methanol extracts from the same plant showed 100 % theront mortality at 1.25 mg/L within 4 h, and 100 % mortality of non-encysted tomonts and terminated reproduction of encysted tomonts at 1.2 mg/L within 6 h. A 24 h bath of infected goldfish in 5 mg/L significantly reduced survival and reproduction of *I. multifiliis* [117].

Actinobacteria

Extracellular fungicidal products from *Streptomyces* have been shown to have some effect against *I. multifiliis* and within recent years isolated compound have been tested for their bioactivity. Amphotericin B from *Streptomyces* sp. strain HL-2-14 has been tested for *in vitro* and *in vivo* efficacy against *I. multifiliis* in grass carp. The *in vitro* studies showed that a median lethal concentration (LC₅₀) of 0.8 mg/L and 4.3 mg/L killed theronts and non-encysted tomonts within 30

461 min and 2h respectively. The related *in vivo* studies showed that 5 mg/L significantly reduced *I.*
462 *multifiliis* infectivity and intensity on grass carp but also found that the acute toxicity (LC₅₀) of
463 amphotericin B on grass carp was 20.6 mg/L, with fish mortality observed when exposed to 13 mg/L
464 [118]. The compound nystatin from *Streptomyces griseus* SDX-4 was effective against theronts and
465 encysted tomonts at a concentration of 6 mg/L for 4 h. The same concentration *in vivo* reduced the
466 mortality of goldfish and both parasite survival and reproduction were significantly reduced. The
467 median lethal dose (LD₅₀) of nystatin for goldfish was 16.8 mg/L [119].

468 Many of the substances mentioned here have antibiotic properties and consequently are
469 less desirable as control measures against *I. multifiliis* since they may lead to environmental
470 selection of antibiotic-resistant microorganisms. Some of the same antibiotics used, or with
471 potential for water treatment in aquaculture, are also used to treat human disease and the
472 microorganisms causing such disease may increase in resistance to these antibiotics as a result of
473 their use in fish farms. For this reason, and given that compounds may only be degraded very
474 slowly in nature, the use of antibiotics as a control measure in aquaculture may create public health
475 issues and is unlikely to be widely adopted.

476

477 **Biological control strategies**

478 A feasible approach to control ichthyophthiriasis could be the implementation of biological control.
479 In warm water systems the use of an algae grazing fish, the leopard pleco (*Glyptoperichthys*
480 *gibbiceps*), resulted in significant reduction of *I. multifiliis* infections as the fish graze the biofilms on
481 which the parasite settles for encystment [120]. Copepods and other filtrating microorganisms are
482 frequently found in fish tank systems and they may influence the biota in the system. It was found
483 that cyclopoid copepods ingested oncomiracidia of *Pseudodactylogyrus* spp [121]. Likewise, a
484 variety of filter feeders may be able to ingest tomonts and theronts and thereby reduce infection
485 pressure of *I. multifiliis* in the system. Such biological control systems may be considered as
486 relatively benign, in environmental terms and may benefit controlling the disease.

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491 Table 1. A selection of recently *in vitro* tested substances against *I. multifiliis*.

<i>In vitro</i> test	Origin	Compound	Conc. mg/L (exposure time)	Theront mortality	Conc. mg/L (exp. time)	% non-encysted tomont mortality	Conc. mg/L (exp. time)	% encysted tomont mortality	References
Chemicals	Chloride dioxide		50 (1 h)	100					[100]
	Copper sulfate*		1 (13 min)	100	-	-	-	-	[101]
	Chloramine T*		21 (13 min)	100	-	-	-	-	[101]
	Nitazoxanide								[102]
Plant extracts	<i>Melaleuca alternifolia</i>	Essential oil	-	-	114 µL/L (4 h)	93.32	-	-	[108]
	<i>Lavandula angustifolia</i> *	Essential oil	-	-	114 µL/L (4 h)	73.28	-	-	[108]
	<i>Mentha piperita</i> *	Essential oil	-	-	114 µL/L (4 h)	84.34	-	-	[108]
	<i>Cynanchum paniculatum</i>	Ethanol extract	16 (4 h)	100	4 (5 h)	45.5	16 (-)	100	[109]
	<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	Ethanol extract	8 (4 h)	100	4 (5 h)	35.6	16 (-)	100	[109]
	<i>Cynanchum atratum</i>	Ethanol extract	16 (4 h)	100	4 (5 h)	78.3	4 (-)	100	[109]
		Cynatratoside-C	0.25 (186.7 ±5.8 min)	100	-	-	-	-	[110]
	<i>Costus speciosus</i>	Gracillin	0.8 (4 h)	100	0.8 (6 h)	100	1 (6 h)	100	[111]
		Zingiberensis	4.5 (4 h)	100	5 (6 h)	100	5 (6 h)	100	[111]
	<i>Morus alba</i>	Acetone extract (powdered bark)	8 (4 h)	100	25 (4 h)	100	50 (4 h)	100	[112]
		Kuwanon G	2	100	-	-	-	-	[113]

		Kuwanon O	2	100	-	-	-	-	[113]
	<i>Toddalia asiatica</i>	Chelerythrine	-	-	1.2 (-)	100	-	-	[114]
		Chloroxylonine	-	-	3.5 (-)	100	-	-	[114]
	<i>Galla chinensis</i>	Pentagalloylglucose	2.5-20 (5.6-233.9 min)	100	80 (4 h)	100	-	-	[115]
	<i>Psoralea corylifolia</i>	Psoralidin	0.8 (4 h)	100	0.9 (6 h)	100	1.2 (6 h)	Terminate reproduction	[116]
		Methanol extract*	1.25 (4 h)	100	5 (4 h)	100	5 (4 h)	88.9	[117]
Actinobacteria	Streptomyces sp. strain HL-2-14	Amphotericin B	1.6 (30 min)	85.4	12.5 (2 h)	87.6	-	-	[118]
	Streptomyces griseus SDX-4	Nystatin	6 (4 h)	100	-	-	6 (4 h)	100	[119]

*No information available for these substances in Table 2. Conc. = concentration, exp. = exposure time

Table 2. A selection of recently *in vivo* tested substances against *I. multifiliis*.

<i>In vivo</i> test	Origin	Compound	Fish species	LC ₅₀ mg/L	Concentration mg/L	% mortality, treated/contr.	% reduced parasite burden	References
Chemicals	Chloride dioxide		Silver catfish	-	25 (48 h bath)		>50	[100]
	Nitazoxanide		Silver catfish	-	1.5	10/60	98 % with 1.5 mg/L	[102]
Plant extracts	<i>Melaleuca alternifolia</i>	Essential oil	Pacu	-	50 µL/L (bath)	47/100	99	[108]
	<i>Cynanchum paniculatum</i>	Ethanol extract	Grass carp	-	4 % (feed, 10 days)	0/0	18.6 (non significant)	[109]

	<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	Ethanol extract	Grass carp	-	4 % (feed, 3 days)	0/0	51.6 (significant)	[109]
	<i>Cynanchum atratum</i>	Ethanol extract	Grass carp	-	4 % (feed, 10 days)	0/0	76.5 (significant)	[109]
		Cynatratoside-C	Grass carp	46.8	1 (10 days bath)	0/100 (after 30 days)	100 (after 15 days)	[110]
	<i>Costus speciosus</i>	Gracillin	Grass carp	1.64	1 (10 days bath)	10/100 (after 15 days)	-	[111]
		Zingiberensis	Grass carp	20.7	5 (10 days bath)	6.7/100 (after 15 days)	16.7	[111]
	<i>Morus alba</i>	Acetone extract (powdered bark)	Grass carp	80		-	-	[112]
		Kuwanon G	Grass carp	38	-	-	-	[113]
		Kuwanon O	Grass carp	26.9	-	-	-	[113]
	<i>Toddalia asiatica</i>	Chelerythrine	Goldfish	3.3	1.8	0/20	55.4	[114]
		Chloroxyllonine	Goldfish	-	8	0/20	45.9	[114]
	<i>Galla chinensis</i>	Pentagalloylglucose	Channel catfish	151.3	20 (10 days bath)	6.7/100	-	[115]
	<i>Psoralea corylifolia</i>	Psoralidin	Goldfish	5.6	-	-	-	[116]
Actinobacteria	Streptomyces sp. strain HL-2-14	Amphotericin B	Grass carp	20.6	5 (bath)	30/100	53.3	[118]
	Streptomyces griseus SDX-4	Nystatin	Goldfish	16.8	6 (bath day 1, 3 and 5 post infection)	23.8/85.7	45.7	[119]

495 Contr. = control

496 Acknowledgements

497 This work was funded by H2020 Food, Grant/Award Number: 634429

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