

ผลของแบคทีเรียในระบบทางเดินอาหารต่อพยาธิกำเนิดและภูมิคุ้มกันของ
กุ้งกุลาดำ *Penaeus monodon*

นางสาววิภาศิริ สุนทรชัย



จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
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ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

EFFECTS OF BACTERIA IN DIGESTIVE SYSTEM ON PATHOGENESIS AND
IMMUNITY OF BLACK TIGER SHRIMP *Penaeus monodon*

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การแพร่ระบาดของโรควุ้นเป็นสาเหตุให้กุ้งตายเป็นจำนวนมาก และส่งผลให้เกิดความเสียหายต่ออุตสาหกรรมการส่งออกกุ้งอย่างมาก ส่วนใหญ่แล้วลักษณะของการเกิดโรคจะปรากฏที่บริเวณทางเดินอาหารของกุ้ง ดังนั้นความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างแบคทีเรียก่อโรคและระบบภูมิคุ้มกันของกุ้งกุลาดำในระบบทางเดินอาหาร จึงมีความสำคัญในการหาทางป้องกันการติดเชื้อในระบบทางเดินอาหารของกุ้ง การศึกษาโดยใช้กล้องจุลทรรศน์อิเล็กตรอนสามารถนำมาใช้ตรวจสอบปฏิสัมพันธ์ของแบคทีเรียไม่ก่อโรคและแบคทีเรียก่อโรควุ้นกับบริเวณภายในของทางเดินอาหารได้ การแสดงออกของยีนที่เกี่ยวข้องกับระบบภูมิคุ้มกันที่แตกต่างกันสามารถตรวจสอบโดยใช้วิธี suppression subtractive hybridization (SSH) และ RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) จากการศึกษาพบว่า *Vibrio harveyi* 1526 มีการเพิ่มจำนวนและพบโครงสร้างลักษณะคล้ายไบโอฟิล์ม (biofilm-like formations) ในบริเวณกระเพาะอาหาร และตอนบนถึงกลางของลำไส้ส่วนกลาง แต่ไม่พบลักษณะดังกล่าวในบริเวณตอนท้ายของลำไส้ส่วนกลาง และลำไส้ส่วนปลาย และมีการสร้างไฟเบอร์เส้นเดี่ยว (single polar fibre) เพื่อยึดเกาะเนื้อเยื่อผิวของกระเพาะอาหารของกุ้ง ส่วน *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* มีการสร้างโครงสร้างลักษณะคล้ายเพอริทริคัสฟิลิ (peritrichous pili-like structures) เพื่อยึดเกาะพื้นผิวของกระเพาะอาหาร ในขณะที่แบคทีเรียไม่ก่อโรคในกลุ่ม *Vibrio* sp. และ *Micrococcus luteus* ไม่พบลักษณะการยึดเกาะพื้นผิวในบริเวณทางเดินอาหารของกุ้ง จากการหาชิ้นในกระเพาะอาหารที่เกี่ยวกับการตอบสนองของกุ้งในภาวะติดเชื้อ *V. parahaemolyticus* 3HP โดยวิธี suppression subtractive hybridization โดยการสุ่มโคลน และหาลำดับนิวคลีโอไทด์จำนวน 612 โคลน พบว่ามียีนที่มีลำดับนิวคลีโอไทด์เหมือนกับยีนในฐานข้อมูลจำนวน 69 ยีน โดยพบยีนที่เกี่ยวข้องกับภูมิคุ้มกันมีการแสดงออกเพิ่มขึ้นในกระเพาะอาหาร หลังการเหนี่ยวนำให้ติดเชื้อผ่านไป 6 ชั่วโมงเมื่อเทียบกับกลุ่มควบคุม ได้แก่ salivary alkaline phosphatase, pacifastin heavy chain precursor, ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, ferritin, astakine variant 1 และ dicer 2 พบยีนที่มีการแสดงออกแตกต่างกันจำนวน 1,514 ยีน (ยีนที่มีการแสดงออกเพิ่มขึ้นจำนวน 1,122 ยีน และยีนที่มีการแสดงออกลดลงจำนวน 392 ยีน) สามารถจำแนกเป็นยีนที่เกี่ยวข้องกับระบบภูมิคุ้มกันจำนวน 141 ยีน และสามารถจัดกลุ่มตามหน้าที่ได้ 10 หน้าที่ ได้แก่ เปปไทด์ต้านจุลชีพ วิธีการส่งต่อสัญญาณ ระบบโปรตีน (proPO system) สภาวะเครียดออกซิเดชัน (oxidative stress) เอนไซม์ย่อยโปรตีนหรือเอนไซม์ยับยั้งการย่อยโปรตีน (proteinases/proteinase inhibitors) โปรตีนที่เกี่ยวข้องกับอะพอพโทซิส (apoptotic tumor-related protein) ตัวรับที่จดจำสิ่งแปลกปลอม (pathogen recognition receptors) ระบบการแข็งตัวของเลือด (blood clotting system) โปรตีนยึดเกาะ (adhesive protein) และฮีตช็อกโปรตีน (heat shock protein) และพบไอโซฟอร์มใหม่ของแอนติไลโปพอลิแซคคาไรด์แฟลเคอร์ (ALF) ในกระเพาะอาหาร ที่มีนิวคลีโอไทด์ที่สามารถแปลรหัสได้จำนวน 369 คู่เบส จึงเรียกไอโซฟอร์มใหม่นี้ว่า *PmALF7* และพบการแสดงออกเพิ่มขึ้นในกระเพาะอาหารหลังการเหนี่ยวนำให้ติดเชื้อผ่านไป 6 และ 12 ชั่วโมง เมื่อเทียบกับกลุ่มควบคุม นอกจากนี้ การศึกษาชิ้น C-type lectin ที่ได้จากห้องสมุดยีนเก่าของตับและตับอ่อนของกุ้งกุลาดำ ซึ่งเป็นยีนที่มีความสำคัญเกี่ยวกับภูมิคุ้มกันในตับและตับอ่อน พบ นิวคลีโอไทด์ที่สามารถแปลรหัสได้จำนวน 522 นิวคลีโอไทด์ และการแสดงออกลดลงในตับและตับอ่อนหลังการเหนี่ยวนำให้ติดเชื้อผ่านไป 6 ชั่วโมงเมื่อเทียบกับกลุ่มควบคุม การศึกษาครั้งนี้แสดงให้เห็นว่าแบคทีเรียมีการเข้ายึดครองพื้นที่ในทางเดินอาหารก่อน โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งบริเวณกระเพาะอาหารที่มีโคติน หลังจากนั้นมีการปล่อยสาร และเอนไซม์ที่ก่อให้เกิดโรคเพื่อทำให้กุ้งมีการติดเชื้อ ขณะเดียวกันกุ้งจะมีการป้องกันตัวจากเชื้อ โดยกระบวนการทางกายภาพ และกลไกของภูมิคุ้มกัน โดยความรู้เพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับปฏิสัมพันธ์ของแบคทีเรียและทางเดินอาหารของกุ้งกุลาดำ สามารถนำไปใช้ในการควบคุมและจัดการการเกิดโรคในกุ้งได้

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WIPASIRI SOONTHORNCHAI: EFFECTS OF BACTERIA IN DIGESTIVE SYSTEM ON PATHOGENESIS AND IMMUNITY OF BLACK TIGER SHRIMP *Penaeus monodon*. ADVISOR: PROF. PADERMSAK JARAYABHAND, Ph.D., CO-ADVISOR: PIKUL JIRAVANICHPAISAL, Ph.D., PROF. KENNETH SÖDERHÄLL, Ph.D., 194 pp.

The outbreak of shrimp diseases causes massive mortality, and a huge loss of income from the shrimp exporting industry. Since most of the symptoms appear in the gastrointestinal tract, understanding the interaction between pathogenic bacteria and shrimp immune system in the digestive system is crucial to possible find means to prevent the infection of the gut. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to investigate the interaction between bacteria, both pathogenic and non-pathogenic, and the inner surface of the gastrointestinal tract of *P. monodon*. The differential expression of immune-related genes during an infection was examined using suppression subtractive hybridization (SSH) as well as RNA sequencing (RNA-seq). Results showed that an infection by *Vibrio harveyi* 1526 was initiated by a proliferation of the bacteria in the biofilm-like formations in the stomach, the upper and middle midgut, but neither in the posterior midgut nor the hindgut. SEM also revealed the induced production of peritrichous pili-like structures by the *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* attaching to the stomach lining, whilst only a single polar fibre was seen forming an apparent physical bridge between *V. harveyi* and the host's epithelium. In contrast, no adherences or linkages were seen when trials were conducted with non-pathogenic *Vibrio* sp. or with *Micrococcus luteus*, and no obvious resultant changes to the host's gut surface was observed. A total of 612 randomly recombinant clones from SSH was matched to 69 known transcripts. The expressions of known genes, *i.e.* salivary alkaline phosphatase, pacifastin heavy chain precursor, ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, ferritin, astakine variant 1 and dicer 2 homologues were significantly up-regulated in stomach at 6 hours post infection. A set of 1,514 DEGs (1,122 unique genes up-regulated and 392 unique genes down-regulated) in the stomach was reported during *V. parahaemolyticus* (3HP) infection. Among these significantly differentially expressed genes, 141 unique genes could be classified as immune-related genes, and their functions were categorized into 10 functions including antimicrobial peptides, signal transduction pathways, proPO system, oxidative stress, proteinases/proteinase inhibitors, apoptotic tumor-related proteins, pathogen recognition immune regulators, blood clotting system, adhesive proteins and heat shock proteins. A novel isoform of anti-lipopolysaccharides was significantly increased in the stomach at 6 and 12 hours post infection. After characterization, this novel isoform contains 369 bp of the open reading frame, and was named *PmALF7*. Additionally, a C-type lectin receptor from an older *P. monodon* library was identified in hepatopancreas, and it is likely an important gene in the immune response of the hepatopancreas. The C-type lectin receptor contains 522 bp of the open reading frame, and its expression was significantly decreased in the hepatopancreas at 6 hours post infection. The current dissertation suggests that pathogens of *P. monodon* must be able to colonize in the digestive tract, particularly the stomach, where chitin is present, and then they use an array of virulent factors and enzymes to establish an infection in their host and *P. monodon* responds to pathogenic bacteria through physical barriers and activation of immune processes. These studies about interaction between bacteria and gastrointestinal tract of *P. monodon* increase the knowledge of how the shrimp stomach responds to bacteria and might provide new strategies for controlling and managing shrimp diseases.

Field of Study: Biotechnology

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ABBREVIATIONS

bp	Base pair
°C	Degree Celsius
CTAB	Cetyl trimethylammonium bromide
DEPC	Diethylpyrocarbonate
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	Deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
IPTG	Isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside
Kb	Kilobase
kD	Kilo dalton
L	Liter
M	Molar
mg	Miligram
ml	Mililiter
mM	Milimolar
ng	Nanogram
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
pI	Isoelectric point
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
RNase A	Ribonuclease A
rpm	Revolution per minute
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulfate
Tris	Tris (hydroxyl methyl amino methane)
μ g	Microgram
μ l	Microliter
μ M	Micromolar
U	Unit
UV	Ultraviolet

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationales

Shrimp aquaculture is an important sea food industry in the world and a great potential to generate high export earnings in China, Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Ecuador and India [1]. However, its development is seriously affected by the outbreak of viral and bacterial diseases.

In aquatic animals, gut microbes have been recognized to play a role in the development, nutrition, immune response and disease resistance of their hosts [2-5]. In shrimp, bacteria may also have several beneficial roles [4-6]. As with other animals, the gut of shrimp are exposed to the environment, *i.e.* pond bottom and water. This is an important port of entry for pathogens (bacteria and viruses), which they can establish and develop into an infection.

Vibrios are ubiquitous marine bacteria that are found in a wide range of aquatic habitats, and are frequently encountered in association with marine organisms. Some species of *Vibrio* such as *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and *Vibrio cholera* are a concern in food safety as the pathogenic bacteria that can cause gastroenteritis in human. Both species of *Vibrio* can produce chitinolytic enzymes and utilize chitin; they are frequently associated with the exoskeletons of crustacean [7]. Chitin-binding proteins for the attachment of these *Vibrio* species to chitin have been reported in *Vibrio harveyi* [8,9] and *V. parahaemolyticus* (*i.e.* chitovibrin) [10]. In black tiger shrimp *Penaeus monodon*, vibriosis is a generic term for an infection caused by any number of *Vibrio* species including *V. harveyi*, *Vibrio vulnificus* and *V. parahaemolyticus*, any of which can result in mass mortality of stock in hatcheries and grow-out ponds [11,12]. Among these, *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* are the virulent and dominant pathogens of cultured penaeid shrimp [13-15].

A recently emerging disease in shrimp aquaculture is AHPND (Acute Hepatopancreatic Necrosis Disease)/EMS (Early Mortality Syndrome) that causes mass mortalities of black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* and white shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*

during the first 20 to 30 days after rearing in a pond [16,17]. The first outbreak was reported in South of China in 2010 [16-18]. In Thailand, it was widespread in the eastern coast of the Gulf of Thailand during late 2012 causing a large decrease in the production of shrimp aquaculture [18,19]. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) [20] reported that AHPND was a major problem for shrimp aquaculture in Thailand, resulting in 25% lower production in 2014 compared to 2013.

Histopathology studies showed that the effects appear to be limited to the hepatopancreas. More specially, the tubule epithelial cells of hepatopancreas sloughed into the tubule lumens [17,21]. Recently, the bacteria in stomachs of AHPND-positive shrimp were identified as *V. parahaemolyticus* [21]. The bacteria were also isolated from hepatopancreas of shrimp collected at a shrimp farm experiencing massive death in Thailand and were also identified as *V. parahaemolyticus*. Three strains of *V. parahaemolyticus* isolated from hepatopancreas showed the characteristics of AHPND in hepatopancreas. *V. parahaemolyticus* 3HP is highly virulent both if it is used for injection into the animal or oral infections [19]. Consequently, stomach and hepatopancreas are the organs of AHPND infection.

Host defense in invertebrates such as shrimp is believed to rest entirely on innate, non-adaptive immune responses [22]. A cDNA library of hepatopancreas *P. monodon* was already constructed and several genes in HP and their response to pathogenic bacteria have been studied [23-26]. But no studies in the literature of immune response to pathogenic bacteria in stomach exists, and only one study in stomach immune response to WSSV has been published [27].

A healthy gastrointestinal tract is vital for human well-being and the same is true for shrimp. Consequently, it is crucial to understand the interaction between gastrointestinal bacteria and shrimp immune response in both healthy and infected conditions. In order to study the effects of bacteria in the shrimp digestive system, scanning electron microscopic examination are important tools for investigating the interaction between pathogenic *Vibrio* and the inner surface of the digestive tract of *P. monodon*. To understand the immune response, the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the stomach of uninfected and infected *P. monodon* was compared by

suppression subtractive hybridization and Ion torrent sequencing. Additionally, C-type lectin genes from the *P. monodon* EST database [23] were identified and characterized.

1.2 Objectives

1. To examine the attachment and localization of bacteria in gastrointestinal tract *P. monodon* during non-pathogenic and pathogenic infection.

2. To identify DEGs in the stomach of uninfected and infected *P. monodon* and characterize candidate immune-related gene.

3. To identify and characterize pattern recognition receptor proteins (PRRP) in hepatopancreas from the *P. monodon* EST database.



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEWS

2.1 Shrimp Aquaculture in Thailand

Shrimp aquaculture has increased dramatically since the early 1970s [28], and Thailand has been a world leader in the export of cultured shrimp since 1992 [29]. *P. monodon* was the most important farmed shrimp because this species has a high export value and is able to grow quickly [30]. The rapid development of aquaculture also brought several problems for shrimp farming. From 2000 to 2002, the production of *P. monodon* decreased (Figure 2.1) because of retarded growth and outbreaks of shrimp diseases [31-34].

The retard growth is mainly caused by hepatopancreatic parvovirus (HPV) but it also can be caused by other virus or bacterial pathogens [34]. Additionally, *P. monodon* has a fairly low reproductive maturation in female broodstock when domesticated and has a low quality of sperms from captive male broodstock [35]. In order to avoid these problems in *P. monodon*, *L. vannamei* has been introduced in Thailand aquaculture since 2003. An advantage of *L. vannamei* is rapid growth rate, tolerance to high stock density, high survival rate during larval rearing, lower protein requirement, it resists to low salinity and temperature, and it has certain disease resistance especially if specific pathogen resistant stocks are used. However, *L. vannamei* has a disadvantage, *i.e.* *L. vannamei* is an alien species of Thailand and broodstock must be imported from the outside. Therefore, it might act as a carrier of various pathogens, *i.e.* Taura Syndrome Virus (TSV) [36] and acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease (AHPND) [18].

In late 2012, EMS (Early Mortality Syndrome) was reported in Thailand [18], and it resulted in a significant decrease of *L. vannamei* production in 2013 (Figure 2.1). EMS is defined as causing massive mortality in shrimp within the first 35 days after rearing in ponds. The new disease called acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease (AHPND), which might be caused by different *V. parahaemolyticus* isolates [19].

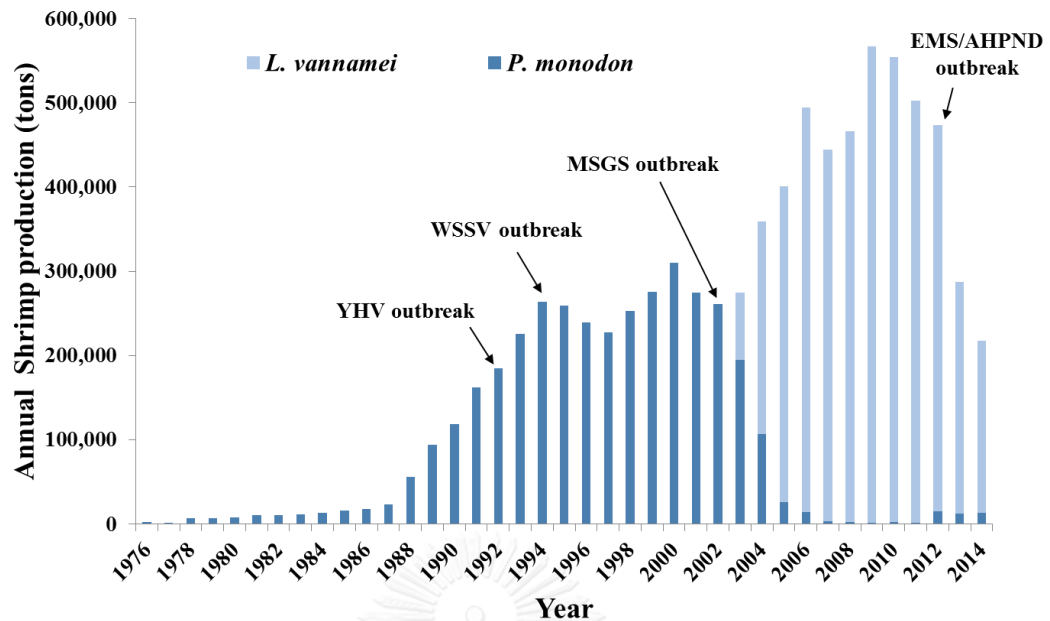


Figure 2.1 Production of *P. monodon* and *L. vannamei* in Thailand from 1976 to 2014 (Source: International Technical Seminar/Workshop “EMS/AHPND: Government, Scientist and Farmer Responses”)

2.2 *P. monodon* Biology

2.2.1 Taxonomy of *P. monodon*

The common name of *P. monodon* is black tiger shrimp (English) and Kung klula-dam (Thailand). *P. monodon* is classified as detailed below.

Kingdom: Animalia

Phylum: Arthropoda

Class: Malacostraca

Order: Decapoda

Family: Penaeidae (Rafinesque, 1815)

Genus: *Penaeus* (Fabricius, 1798)

Species: *Penaeus monodon* (Fabricius, 1798)

2.2.2 Morphology

Cephalothorax and abdominal segments are main parts of the external anatomy of shrimp (Figure 2.2). The cephalothorax consists of a carapace, a rostrum, compound eyes and appendages. The carapace covers the whole cephalothorax to protect the internal organs and supports muscle regions. The rostrum curves down very slightly with 7-8 dorsal teeth and 3-4 ventral teeth. The appendages have several functions, *i.e.* an antennae and antennules forming sensory organ, mandibles and maxillae forming jaw-like structures and maxillipeds are for food handling and walking legs (pereiopods).

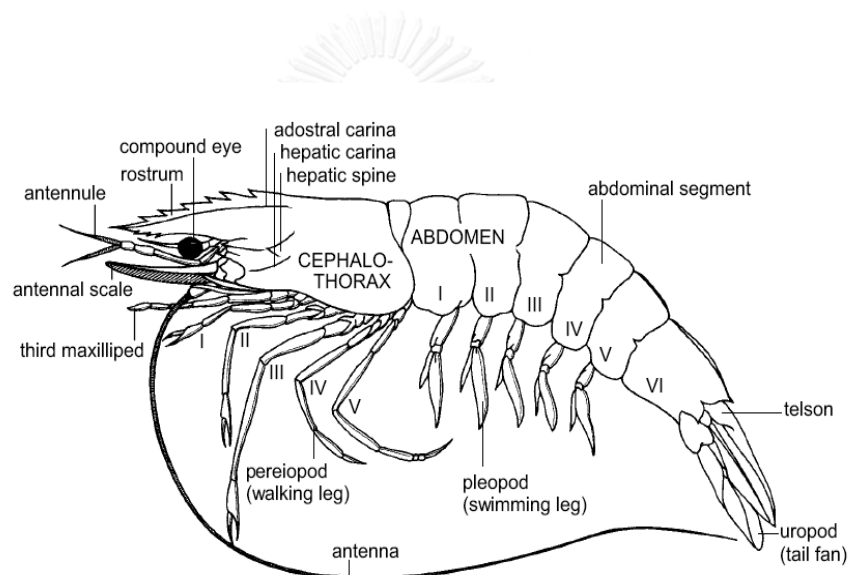


Figure 2.2 Lateral view of the external anatomy of a female penaeid shrimp (Source: Primavera, 1990) [37]

The basic internal organs of penaeid shrimp are divided into 4 systems including digestive system, circulatory system, nervous system and reproductive system. The digestive system consists of stomach, intestine, hindgut and hepatopancreas. The hepatopancreas is the main part of the cephalothorax. The stomach ends connecting with the anterior intestine and is inserted into the hepatopancreas and connects together with the primary duct. The anterior stomach is on the upper part of hepatopancreas. The intestine longitudinally lays on the abdominal segment and

connects to hindgut at the end of the abdominal segment. The open circulatory system of penaeid shrimps has a heart which is located on the hepatopancreas. One of the hemolymph vessels leaves the heart and ends in the lymphoid organ, where the hemolymph is filtered. This organ is located ventro-anteriorly to the hepatopancreas. The hematopoietic tissue which contains the stem cells of hemocytes is mainly located around the stomach and in the onset of the maxillipeds. The nervous system consists of a dorsal brain, a pair of ganglia and two ventral nerve cords. The reproductive system consists of ovary and testis. Both ovary and testis are located on the hepatopancreas and along the tail following intestine. Additionally, the body movement is controlled by several kinds of muscle, and the gills are the respiratory organ.

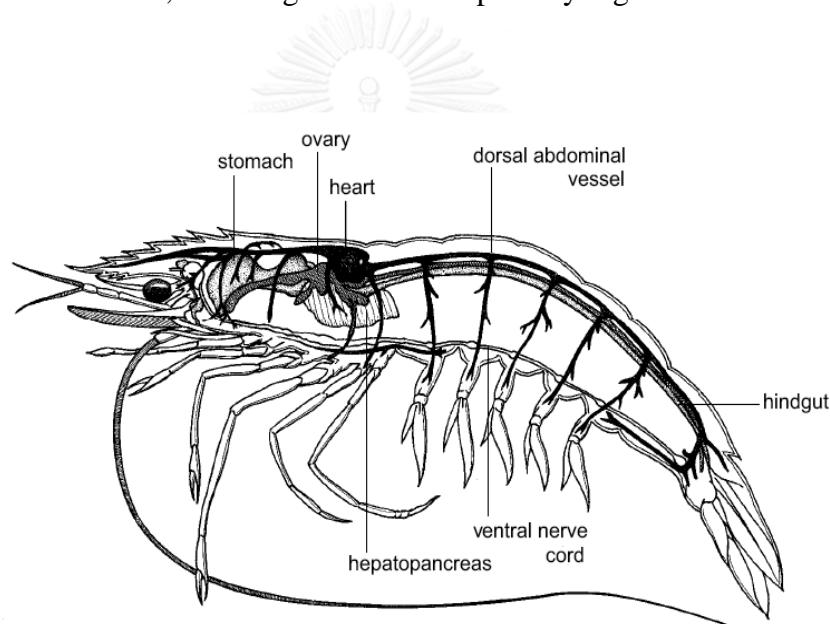


Figure 2.3 Lateral view of the internal anatomy of a female penaeid shrimp (Source: Primavera, 1990) [37]

2.2.3 Digestive system

The digestive system is divided into three parts: foregut, midgut and hindgut. Additionally, hepatopancreas is also included in the digestive system which helps to produce digestive enzyme. The foregut comprises oral, esophagus, and stomach. The midgut is composed of the intestine, anterior midgut caeca and posterior midgut caeca. Finally, the hindgut consists of rectum and anus.

The foregut comprises mouth, esophagus and stomach. The mouth is located between a pair of mandible, and is covered with cuticle. The mandibles are used to cut, smash and grind food. After that, there is a labrum to push the grinded food into the esophagus. Additionally, the mouth has a pair of paragnatha to protect the food from reversing. The esophagus is a short tube covered with epicuticle, exocuticle, endocuticle and a membranous layer. It receives the food from mouth and sends it to the stomach. The stomach is located at the middle hepatopancreas and consists of a cardiac stomach and pyloric stomach. The cardiac stomach is the anterior stomach lined with cuticle. The end of cardiac stomach has an upper and lower cardiac groove to receive enzyme from hepatopancreas, as well as gastric mill to grind food. The pyloric stomach is posterior stomach also lined with cuticle. The pyloric stomach is divided into dorsal and ventral subchamber. Teeth and ossicle are in the dorsal subchamber. They grind and send the food to the ventral subchamber. The ventral subchamber has gastric sieves to filter the ingested food. The gastric sieves consist of setae and longitudinal inter-setal groove to send ingested food to midgut.

The midgut is composed of intestine, anterior and posterior midgut caeca. The intestine is a hollow tubule extending from the pyloric stomach to hindgut. It is divided into mucosa layer and submucosa layer. The mucosa layer has microvilli covered with peritrophic matrix (PM). The anterior midgut caeca is inserted into the pyloric stomach, which secretes the PM. Additionally, the posterior midgut caeca is located at the end of intestine. The anterior and posterior midgut caeca have several tegmental glands. The hindgut connects from posterior caeca to anus, which is lined by cuticle. The folding of a simple epithelium forms a multi-chamber tube in hindgut. There are several tegmental glands in hindgut especially near posterior midgut caeca. The end of hindgut forms an ampulla [38].

2.3 The Major Shrimp Diseases in Thailand

2.3.1 Luminous disease

Luminous disease has been the major problem in shrimp farming since 1990s. *Vibrio harveyi* is the main bacterium which causes the luminous symptoms in

P. monodon larvae and juveniles [14,39,40]. *V. harveyi* is a rod shaped, Gram-negative bacterium with 0.5-0.8 µm width and 1.4-2.6 µm length. Presumptive diagnosis is based on clinical signs such as blood or hepatopancreas that is streaked on a *Vibrio*-selective or general marine agar plate. After incubation at room temperature overnight, colonies of *V. harveyi* grow and show strong luminescence in dim light. *Vibrio* species live in cultured water, in low oxygen environments such as in the gut of aquatic animals and sometimes are found in the bottoms of shrimp ponds. Consequently, this bacteria can enter shrimp via the cuticle or sub-cuticle that also give the name shell disease or black/brown spot disease, punctured wounds such as loss of limbs and into the gut or hepatopancreas and can cause general septicemia [41].

The infected shrimp have a milky white body and appendages, are weak, have a disoriented swimming, lethargy and loss of appetite. The post larvae display cloudy hepatopancreas and brown gills [42,43]. Finally, it leads to death. Histopathology of infected shrimp organs are done using basophilic and histological techniques [14]. Hepatopancreatic and midgut epithelial cells in the gut lumen are commonly detached. The cuticular colonization is the reason of necrosis of the cuticular epithelium and the formation of melanised lesion. Septic hemocytic nodules are formed in the lymphoid organ, heart and connective tissues of the gills, hepatopancreas, antennal gland, nerve cord, telson and muscle [15,43].

2.3.2 AHPND/EMS

A newly emerging disease called early mortality syndrome (EMS) caused a mass mortality of shrimp in southern China in 2009 and spread over China in 2010. EMS was found in Vietnam in 2010 and was spread to the Mekong Delta (South Vietnam) in 2011. In addition, the disease was reported in Malaysia in 2011. In Thailand, it was recently spread in the eastern coast of the Gulf of Thailand during late 2012 [16,18,44].

Early mortality syndrome (EMS) is generally a term of unusually high mortality of shrimp postlarvae within 30 days after pond stocking due to the problem of pond management and pathogen related factors. White spot syndrome virus (WSSV), yellow head virus (YHV) and vibriosis have been linked to outbreaks of EMS [44]. Acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease (AHPND) is the definition of the characteristic

histopathology of shrimp which also includes (1) acute progressive degeneration and dysfunction of the hepatopancreas, (2) necrosis and sloughing of tubule epithelial cells of hepatopancreas (3) hemocytic infiltration, necrotic and sloughed hepatopancreatic tubules. Additionally, the infected shrimp have a white hepatopancreas, an atrophy of hepatopancreas and soft shells and guts with no contents (Figure 2.4) [44].

Recently, the bacteria in stomach and hepatopancreas of AHPND-positive shrimp were identified as *V. parahaemolyticus* [19,21]. *V. parahaemolyticus* is a rod shaped Gram-negative bacterium with 0.5 - 0.8 μm in width and 1.4 - 2.6 μm in length [45]. The AHPND *V. parahaemolyticus* strains carries a 69-kb plasmid which contains the insecticidal *Photorhabdus* insect-related binary toxin PirAB [46,47].

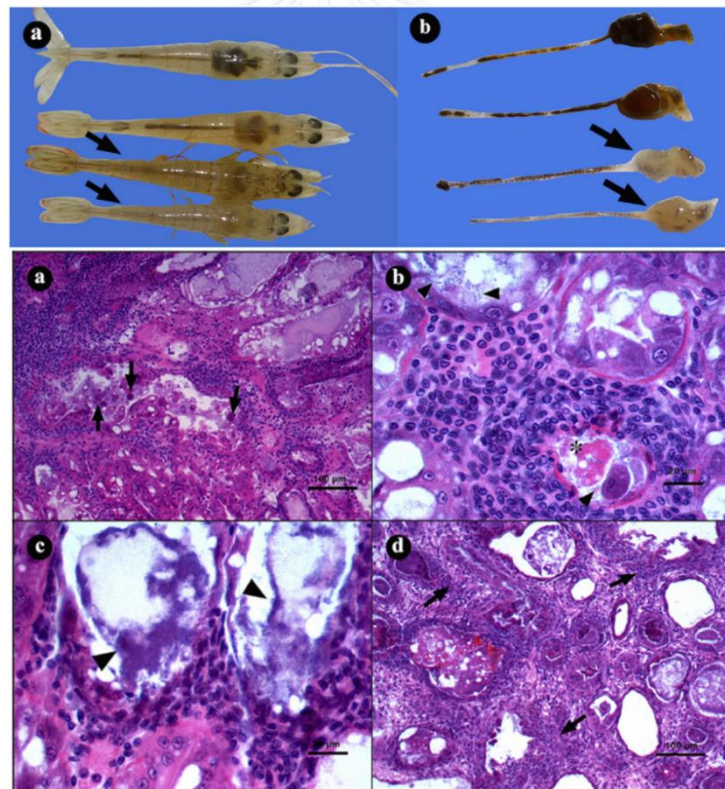


Figure 2.4 The hepatopancreas of white shrimp *L. vannamei* naturally infected by AHPND. (a and b) of blue background show infected white shrimp which showed atrophy and white color of hepatopancreas (arrow), and (a-d) show the terminal stage of AHPND infection in hepatopancreas. (Source: Soto-Rodriguez et al., 2015) [48]

2.3.3 White Spot Syndrome Virus (WSSV)

White Spot Syndrome Virus (WSSV) infections started in Taiwan since 1992 and then rapidly spread over Asia, Pacific Ocean, North, South and Central America. The disease causes up to 100% mortality within 10 days in shrimp [33,49-51]. WSSV is a tailed, rod shaped, double stranded DNA virus with a very large circular genome of about 300 kbp [52,53].

WSSV is infecting all life stages of shrimp. WSSV infected shrimp has white spots on the inner carapace. The white spot has a small dark spot at the center when observed under the light microscope. The infected shrimp displays a pale or reddish body color and has swollen or shrunken lymphoid organs [54]. The target tissue of WSSV infection is connective tissue, nervous tissue, muscle tissue and epithelium [55]. The pathogenicity shows an initial stage with a prominent eosinophilic response with an intranuclear inclusion with a clear zone around to a heavy stage with a large basophilic response with an intranuclear inclusion with variable multifocal necrosis [49,56].

2.4 Shrimp Immune Response

The immune system is generally classified into two types: namely innate and adaptive immunity. Host defense in invertebrates such as shrimp is believed to rest entirely on innate, non-adaptive immunity [22]. At present, there are several publications studying the shrimp immunity and their defense against pathogens. However, only a few publications have studied the immune response in the gastrointestinal tract and since there are a few studies of the intestine of fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* it has been used as a model to understand shrimp innate immune response in gastrointestinal tract. However recently some studies have been published on the shrimp immune system in intestine.

2.4.1 Antimicrobial peptide (AMP) production

Toll and Immune Deficiency (Imd) pathway regulate the synthesis of antimicrobial peptide in *Drosophila*. Those pathways are triggered by the pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) to produce the antimicrobial peptides. In

shrimp, the Toll and IMD pathways have been studied since 2007 but until now the full details of the pathways are not known.

2.4.1.1 Toll pathway

The components of *D. melanogaster* Toll pathway consist of Spätzle, Toll, dMyD88, Tube, Pelle, TNF receptor associated factors 6 (dTRAF6), Dorsal, Dorsal-related immune (DIF) and Cactus. After an infection in *D. melanogaster* PAMPs from the pathogen trigger a pro-Spätzle processing enzyme to cleave pro-Spätzle to Spätzle which can bind to the ectodomain of the transmembrane receptor Toll. Then after, the intracellular TIR domains of the activated Tolls recruit dMyD88 to form a trimeric complex (dMyD88-Tube-Pelle). The trimeric complex triggers a cytoplasmic Dorsal/Cactus complex leading to phosphorylation and degradation of Cactus. Then, the Dorsal is released and translocated into the nucleus to activate immune-related genes, *i.e.* Drosomycin and other antimicrobial peptides [57-60].

In shrimp, Spätzle was found in Chinese shrimp *Fenneropenaeus chinensis* and white shrimp *L. vannamei*. The functions are possibly involved in the innate immune signal pathways to defend both a *Vibrio alginolyticus* and a WSSV infections [61,62].

Tolls and Toll-like receptors (TLR) have evolutionary conserved transmembrane glycoproteins which are characterized by an extracellular domain containing several numbers of leucine-rich repeat (LRR) motifs and an intracellular signaling domain homologous to Toll/IL-1 receptor (TIR) domain [63]. In shrimp, Toll-like receptors have been cloned in white shrimp *L. vannamei* (*LvToll*), black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* (*PmToll*), kuruma shrimp *Marsupenaeus japonicus* (*MjToll*) and Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* (*FcToll*) [64-66]. They are likely to be involved in defense mechanism in shrimp. Recently, the silencing *LvToll* significantly decreased penaeidin 3; therefore, *LvToll* might be involved in regulation of the penaeidin production [67].

In *D. melanogaster*, dMyD88, Tube and Pelle formed a trimeric complex (dMyD88-Tube-Pelle) to trigger Dorsal/Cactus complex, which regulates the Toll-dependent gene expression, *i.e.* antimicrobial peptides and many other innate immune responsive genes [57,58]. The dMyD88 protein contains a death domain (DD)

in the N-terminus and a TIR domain in the C-terminus [68]. Tube contains the N-terminal DD and five evolutionarily conserved 8-amino acid repeats in the C-terminus [69]. Pelle contains the N-terminal DD and a catalytic kinase domain in the C-terminus [70]. In shrimp, MyD88s have been characterized in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis*, black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* and white shrimp *L. vannamei* [71-73]. *FcMyD88* responded to bacterial and viral pathogen, and *PmMyD88* responded to WSSV infection [71,72]. Two isoforms of Tube (*LvTube* and *LvTube-1*) were isolated in white shrimp *L. vannamei*, and they showed different activities, different tissue distributions and different expression profiles during bacterial and viral stimulation. It might play different roles in the TLR pathway[73]. Two Pelles were cloned in white shrimp *L. vannamei*. They responded to pathogenic infection and are likely involved in Toll pathway [73,74].

TNF receptor associated factors 6 (TRAF6) and Pelle can form a receptor complex and this complex is downstream of the Toll pathway [75-77]. TRAF6 was identified in white shrimp *L. vannamei*. It could activate the promoters of antimicrobial peptide genes in *D. melanogaster* S2 cells, and it is likely to play an important role in host defense mechanism to bacterial and viral pathogen [78].

Cactus/Dorsal complex is triggered by the trimeric complex (dMyD88-Tube-Pelle) to phosphorylate and degrade the Cactus; therefore, the Dorsal is released and translocated into the nucleus to activate antimicrobial production [57-60]. Cactus was identified in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis*, white shrimp *L. vannamei* and black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [79-81]. Dorsal was identified in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* and white shrimp *L. vannamei* [82,83].

2.4.1.2 Immune Deficiency pathway

In *D. melanogaster*, IMD pathway is essentially activated by Gram-negative bacteria through the recognition of the diaminopimelic acid (DAP)-type peptidoglycan by specific PGRPs [84]. The components of *D. melanogaster* IMD pathway consist of the PGRP-LC receptor, Immune deficiency (IMD), TGF- β -activated kinase 1 (TAK1), TGF- β -activated kinase 1/MAP3K7 binding protein 2 (TAB2), *Drosophila* inhibitor of apoptosis protein (DIAP2), I κ B kinase signalosome (IKK1, IKK2), *Drosophila* fas-associated death domain protein (dFADD) adaptor, death-

related ced-3/Nedd2-like protein (Dredd) and Relish [58]. Gram negative bacteria directly binds to PGRP-LC receptor which activates a cytoplasmic IMD [85,86]. Active IMD interacts with dFADD adaptor, and this adaptor binds to caspase DREDD [87] to cleave Relish/Rel. Then, the Rel is released and translocated into the nucleus to activate immune-related genes, *i.e.* Diptericin and other antimicrobial peptides [88,89]. Additionally, an activated IMD triggers the Tab2/Tak1 complex leading to activate the IKK complex [90-93]. The IKK complex phosphorylates and cleaves Relish/Rel [92], and then the Rel is released and translocated into the nucleus to activate immune-related genes.

IMD was characterized in white shrimp *L. vannamei* and Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [94,95]. In *L. vannamei*, *LvIMD* transcript was expressed in most tissues and, it was induced in hepatopancreas and hemocytes after immune challenge with LPS (from *E. coli*) and Gram-negative *V. alginolyticus*, while not induced in gill after immune challenge. In addition, the localization study showed that *LvIMD* was localized in the cytoplasm [94]. In *F. chinensis*, *FcIMD* mRNA was expressed in gill and stomach. It was induced in hemocytes and gill after WSSV infection, but no change in gills after challenge with *V. anguillarum*. Additionally, *FcIMD* localization shows that *FcIMD* was localized in the cytoplasm of hemocytes [95].

TGF- β -activated kinase 1/MAP3K7 binding protein 2 (TAB2) was identified in white shrimp *L. vannamei*, and its transcript was expressed in most tissues. The expression level of TAB2 was induced in gill and hemocyte post infection with LPS, *V. parahaemolyticus* and WSSV. TAB2 silencing caused a down-regulation of anti-bacterial peptide, *i.e.* ALF and penaeidin. Moreover, TAB2 protein was located in cytoplasm of hemocyte [96].

Inhibitor of apoptosis protein (IAP) was characterized in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* and white shrimp *L. vannamei* [97-99]. All IAPs were expressed in most tissues. *PmAPI* could block Rpr's pro-apoptotic activity in insect cells [97]. *LvAPI1* might be involved in host defense to WSSV, while *LvAPI2* might be involved in host defense to bacteria [98].

I κ B kinase signalosome (IKKs) were identified in white shrimp *L. vannamei* (*LvIKK β* and *LvIKK ϵ*), their transcripts were expressed in most tissues. The

expression level of *LvIKK β* was induced in gill, and *LvIKK ϵ* was slightly induced in gill, hemocyte and hepatopancreas post WSSV infection. Moreover, the *LvIKK β* and *LvIKK ϵ* transcripts were increased in gill, hepatopancreas and intestine post *V. alginolyticus* infection. The localization of IKKs showed that *LvIKK β* was localized in the cytoplasm and nucleus, while *LvIKK ϵ* was only localized in the cytoplasm of *Drosophila* S2 cells. The silencing of *LvIKK β* or *LvIKK ϵ* decreased the antimicrobial peptide of *L. vannamei*, *i.e.* penaeidin, lysozyme and crustins, but shrimp was more resistant to WSSV infection. Therefore, *LvIKK β* and *LvIKK ϵ* might participate in the regulation of shrimp antimicrobial peptides and that WSSV may subvert the *L. vannamei* IKK–NF- κ B signaling pathway to facilitate viral gene expression [100].

Relish was found in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* and white shrimp *L. vannamei* [101,102]. The expression of *FcRelish* was mainly in hemocytes as well as the lymphoid organ, and its transcription profile was induced after infection with *V. anguillarum*, *Micrococcus lysodeikticus* and WSSV [83,102]. Silencing of *FcRelish* could significantly affect ALF, crustin, penaeidin 3 and penaeidin 5 production [102,103].

2.4.1.3 Antibacterial peptides

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are one important parts of innate immunity. In all kingdoms, from bacteria to human, a wide variety of AMPs have been identified and characterized. Normally, AMPs contain less than 150-200 amino acid residues and have a wide variety and diversity in amino acid sequence, structure and range of activity. AMPs are active against a broad spectrum of microorganisms such as bacteria, filamentous fungi, virus and parasites [104,105] and also exhibit an anti-tumor property [106]. Depending on their tissue distribution, AMPs ensure either a systemic or local protection of the host against pathogen. The major AMPs in shrimp includes anti-lipopolysaccharide factors (ALFs), crustin and penaeidins.

ALFs are active against a broad spectrum of microorganism such as Gram-negative, Gram-positive bacteria, fungi and virus. ALF was initially isolated and characterized in hemocytes of the horseshoe crab *Limulus polyphenus* [107]. Additionally, several isoforms of ALF were reported in crustacean species, *i.e.* six isoforms from black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [108,109], six isoforms from Chinese

shrimp *F. chinensis* [110], seven isoforms from swimming crab *Portunus trituberculatus* [111-114] and three isoforms from white shrimp *L. vannamei* [115]. Each isoform is similar in nucleotide sequence, and showed a conserved cysteine residues as the LPS-binding domain (LBD) [108,110,116]. In *P. monodon*, *PmALF2* and *PmALF3* were major expressed in hemocytes, and were significantly increased after *V. harveyi*-challenge [117]. The localization of *PmALF3* was studied and shown to be mainly in hemocytes and this ALF was increased after *V. harveyi* infection [118]. Additionally, *ALFPm6* was significantly increased at 6 hours post infection with *V. harveyi* and at 12, 24 and 48 hours post infection with WSSV [109].

Crustins are cationic cysteine-rich AMPs with single whey acidic protein (WAP) domain at the C-terminus, and are classified into three types including type I, II and III [119]. Crustins are active against Gram-negative, Gram-positive bacteria, fungi and virus. Crustin was initially isolated and characterized in the shore crab *Carcinus maenas* [120]. After that, crustin was identified and characterized in several crustacean species, *i.e.* black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [121-126], white shrimp *L. vannamei* [127,128], Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [129-132] and kuruma shrimp *M. japonicus* [133-135]. In vitro study of the protein of *CrusFc* and *CrustinPm1* had only activity against Gram-positive bacteria and had no inhibition on the growth of Gram-negative bacteria [130,136]. However, the expression profile of crustin-like antimicrobial peptide was decreased at 6 hours then after it was a significant increase in hemocyte at 24 hours post injection with *V. harveyi* in *P. monodon* [125]. Additionally, the transcript level of crustin was decreased at 4 hours post-injection and the decreased transcript levels returned to initial levels by 72 hours post-injection with LPS in *L. vannamei* [137].

Penaeidins contain a proline-rich N-terminus and a C-terminus containing six cysteine residues engaged in three disulfide bridges [138,139]. Penaeidins were classified into three subgroups based on amino acid sequence comparison and the position of specific amino acids [140,141]. They have a strong antimicrobial activity against Gram-positive bacteria, fungi and a modest activity against Gram-negative bacteria [138,142,143]. Penaeidin was initially isolated and characterized in hemocytes of *L. vannamei* [144]. Subsequently, the penaeidins were

detected in several shrimps, *i.e.* black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [122,145-147], white shrimp *L. vannamei* [141,148] and Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [143,149]. The expression level of penaeidin was significantly decreased in *P. monodon* hemocytes at 3 hours post injection with *V. harveyi* [108]. Additionally, the transcript of penaeidin 2, penaeidin 3, penaeidin 4 were decreased in hemocytes at 4 hours post injection with LPS and returned to initial levels at 72 hours post injection in *L. vannamei* [137]. However, the expression levels of penaeidin 5 increased after 24 hours post injection with a bacterial mix of both *S. aureus* and *V. anguillarum* in all tissues especially in hemocyte, heart, gill, hepatopancreas, stomach and intestine of *F. chinensis* [143].

2.4.2 Melanization and the prophenoloxidase system

Melanization is an important component to defend the pathogen by producing the toxic intermediates and activated proteins which are involved in wound healing, encapsulation, elimination and killing of the microorganism [150-152]. Its reaction products provide both toxic quinone substances and other short-lived reaction intermediates to form melanin for the encapsulation process, to form sclerotisation for wound healing and to help phagocytosis during cellular defense [153]. Melanization requires the activation of phenoloxidase (PO) which catalyses the oxygenation of monophenols to o-diphenols and further oxidation of o-diphenols to o-quinones and eventually the synthesis of melanin [154].

The proPO system is an important innate immune defense in invertebrate and consists of several proteins involved in melanin production, cell adhesion, encapsulation and phagocytosis [152,153,155-157]. Additionally, the proPO system might fulfil some functions of a complement-like system in chordate animals, because the activation of this system producing cytotoxic and opsonic factors [157]. The proPO system is triggered by pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), *i.e.* lipopolysaccharide from Gram negative bacteria, peptidoglycan from Gram positive bacteria and β -1,3-glucan from fungi [156,158,159]. The proPO activating system requires a serine proteinase cascade to activate the proPO activating enzyme (proPPAE) into active PPAE, then PPAE cleaves the proPO into active PO. The proPO activation is inhibited by serpin/pacifastin [153,154] (Figure 2.5).

The proPO activating enzymes (PPAE) is synthesized and maintained as a zymogenic protein (proPPAE) and is activated another serine proteinase [153,160]. The C-terminal half of the proPPAE is composed of a typical serine proteinase domain with a sequence similar to other invertebrate and vertebrate serine proteinase domain, the N-terminal half contains glycine-rich domain, a cationic proline-rich domain and a clip-domain, in which the disulfide-bonding pattern is likely to be identical to those of the horseshoe crab big defensin and mammalian β defensins [161]. In crustacean, the PPAE was initially identified in crayfish *Pacifastacus leniusculus* [162,163] and later in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [164,165] and white shrimp *L. vannamei* [166,167]. Additionally, several clip-domain serine protein proteinases were identified in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [168], Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [169], Indian white shrimp *Fenneropenaeus indicus* [170] and white shrimp *L. vannamei* [166]. The *PmPPAE1*, *PmPPAE2*, *LvPPAE1* and *LvPPAE2* [164-167] are only the clip domain containing protein involved in the proPO activating system.

Phenoloxidase (PO) is a major enzyme produced during proPO system activation, and it is necessary for the melanization. It is generally synthesized and maintained as an inactive form (proPO) activated by PPAE to active form (PO) [153,154]. It was first cloned and characterized in crayfish *P. leniusculus* [171], later in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [25,172], brown shrimp *Penaeus californiensis* [173], white shrimp *L. vannamei* [174-176], giant freshwater prawn *M. rosenbergii* [177,178] and Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [179]. In shrimp, the expression of proPO was significantly constant expression after injection with LPS [137] and *V. alginolyticus* [176] in *L. vannamei* and feeding with β -1,3-glucan [180]. The expression of proPO was up-regulated post *V. anguillarum* infection in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [179]. In contrast, the proPOI and proPOII expressions significantly decreased in white shrimp *L. vannamei* after injection with *V. alginolyticus* and WSSV [174,181]. Silencing of proPO demonstrated a decrease of the hemocyte count, an increase of the bacterial load and the shrimp mortality in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [182], and also increased the mortality of white shrimp *L. vannamei* post infection with *V. harveyi* [166]. In addition, silencing of proPO component resulted in the decline of the PO activity in hemolymph and the increase of the shrimp mortality post infection with *V. harveyi* in black tiger

shrimp *P. monodon* [25,164,165]. All results suggest that proPO system is a vital system to defend against pathogenic infection in penaeid shrimp.

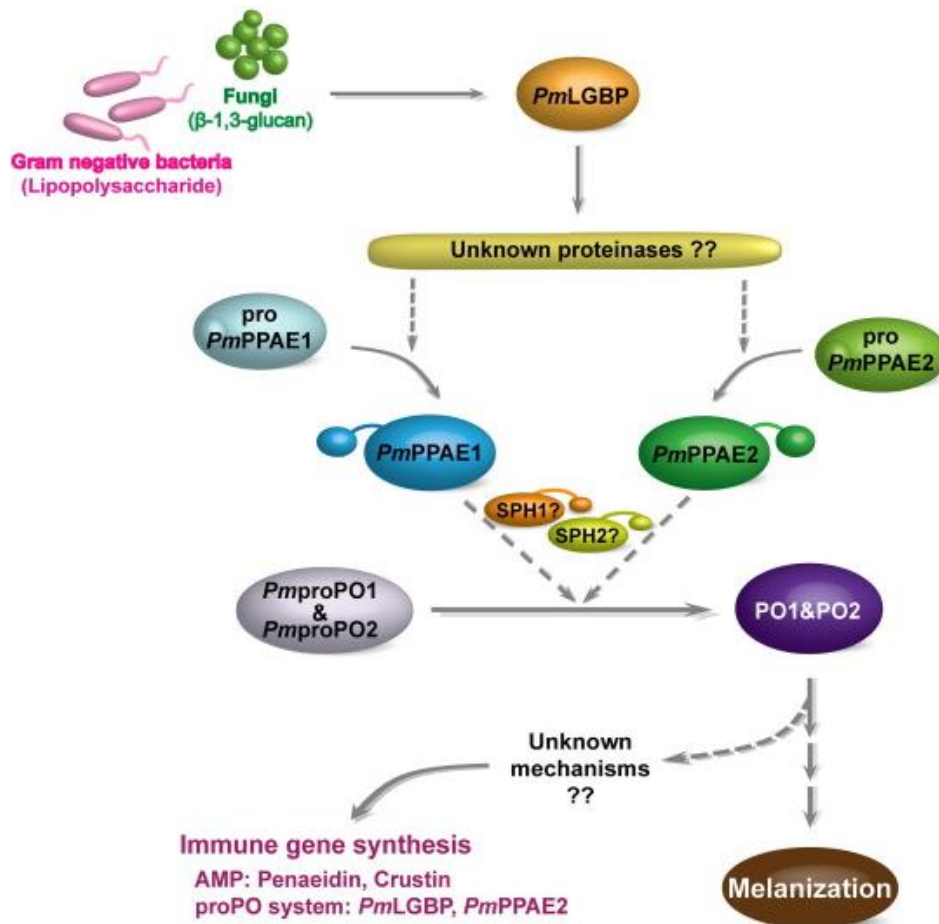


Figure 2. 5 The proPO cascade in the penaeid shrimp *P. monodon* (Source: Amparyup et al., 2013) [183]

Proteinase cascades such as that of the proPO system have to be cautiously regulated by some process to prevent excessive activation of endogenous cascades and damage to host tissue. PO can produce highly toxic intermediates; consequently, host cells can produce several proteinase inhibitors for preventing over-activation of ppA [162]. The proteinase inhibitors, *i.e.* pacifastin, serpin and melanization-inhibiting protein (MIP), are negative regulators of proPO activation or activity [153]. In crustacean, pacifastin is a protein inhibitor, which is specific to

PPAE1 in crayfish *P. leniusculus* [184]. In shrimp, several proteinase inhibitors were identified in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* (*PmMIP*, *PmSERPIN*) [185-188], white shrimp *L. vannamei* [189-191], Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [192] and kuruma shrimp *M. japonicus* [193]. In black tiger shrimp *P. monodon*, *PmSERPIN3* is potentially regulation of the proPO activating system. The expression of *PmSERPIN3* was constantly expressed in hemocytes post infection with *V. harveyi*, WSSV and YHV. *In vitro* experiments showed that the recombinant *PmSERPIN3* could inhibit the proPO activating system. Additionally, *PmSERPIN3* reduced the *V. harveyi* clearance rate in hemolymph of shrimp [186]. Moreover, *LvSERPIN*, *LvSERPIN3* and *LvSERPIN7* may play an important role to inhibit the proPO system and an involvement in innate immunity of *L. vannamei* [189-191]. Overall, the SERPINs of shrimp likely play a role as inhibitor proteins of the proteases of the proPO system.

2.4.3 Pattern recognition protein receptors

Innate immune processes are often activated by components of pathogens called pathogen-associated molecule pattern (PAMPs) such as lipopolysaccharides (LPSs), peptidoglycans (PDNs), lipoteichoic acids of bacteria, glycolipids of microbacteria, mannans of yeasts, β -1,3-glucan of fungi and double stranded RNA (dsRNA) of replicating viruses [152,194,195]. The PAMPs can bind to conserved structures called pattern recognition receptors (PRR) on host cells, *i.e.* peptidoglycan recognition proteins (PGRPs), Gram-negative binding proteins (GNBP) or lipopolysaccharide, β -1,3-glucan binding proteins (LGBPs), C-type lectins, galectins, thioester-containing proteins (TEPs), fibrinogen-related proteins (FREPs), scavenger receptors (SRs), Down syndrome cell adhesion molecules (DSCAMs) and Toll like receptors (TLRs) [196-198]. PRR is localized on the surface of cells and secreted into the hemolymph, ready to signal the presence of invading pathogen in every compartment.

β -1,3-glucans are structurally complex homopolymers of glucose and usually isolated from yeast and fungi. Differentially physicochemical parameters, such as solubility, primary structure, molecular weight, branching, and polymer charge, influence the biological activities of β -1,3-glucans. It is apparently monovalent and does not induce agglutination but activates degranulation and proPO system. Therefore,

these recognition proteins are capable of activating cellular activities only after reaction with microbial carbohydrates that are LPS, peptidoglycan or glucan [199]. β -1,3-glucan binding proteins were first characterized in crayfish *P. leniusculus* [200] and later in several crustaceans including, yellow leg shrimp *Penaeus californiensis* [195], white shrimp *L. vannamei* [199,201], *M. japonicus* [202] and *F. chinensis* [203].

C-type lectins or immulectins constitute a large family of PRRs found in almost all metazoans and their functions depend on the carbohydrate recognition domain [204,205]. C-type lectins are abundant in shrimp and have various functions in innate immunity, including phagocytosis, melanization, respiratory burst, agglutination, antibacterial and anti-viral responses [206]. Several shrimp C-type lectins are identified, *i.e.* *PmAV* [207], *PmLec* [208], *PmLT* [209] in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon*, *Fclectin* [210], *Fc-hsL* [211], *FcLec2-5* [212-215] in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* and *LvLT*[216], *LvCTL1* [217], *LvLec* [218], *LvLectin-1*, *LvLectin-2* [219] in white shrimp *L. vannamei*. Both *PmAV* and *PmLec* were found in *P. monodon* and contain a single CRD domain and *PmAV* contributed to virus resistance, while *PmLec* served as a PRR for Gram-negative bacteria. A two CRD domain is *PmLT* which was detected only in the hepatopancreas and the transcript level decreased initially and then gradually increased after WSSV-challenge whereas its expression was not affected by bacteria.

Galectins are a family of proteins first identified as galactoside-binding lectins in vertebrates [220] This family is defined into two properties: a characteristic affinity for β -galactosides, and a conserved CRD [221]. The galectins were classified into three types: prototype containing one CRD, the tandem-repeat-type galectins containing two homologous CRDs in a single polypeptide chain and chimera type containing a C-terminal CRD and a N-terminal domain rich in proline and glycine [222]. Recently, Galectins were characterized in Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* [223] and white shrimp *L. vannamei* [224,225]. *MjGal* was up-regulated in hemocytes and hepatopancreas post infection with *V. anguillarum*. The recombinant *MjGal* protein was bound to lipoteichoic acid (LTA) and lipopolysaccharide (LPS). Additionally, *MjGal* protein promoted phagocytosis activity towards microbial pathogens. Silencing *MjGal*

also promoted bacterial infection in hemolymph; therefore, *MjGal* may play a key role in the shrimp defense against bacterial infection [223].

The thioester-containing protein (TEP) family is present in a wide variety of species. These proteins play a central role in the innate immune responses of vertebrates as complement factors C3, C4, and C5 [226]. The TEP, a complement-like protein, TEP1 has been shown to specially bind to the surface of the ookinete stage of Plasmodium parasites in susceptible mosquitoes [227]. In *Drosophila*, Tep family was characterized including Tep1-Tep6. They are involved in innate immunity [228]. Recently, a *PTTEP* was first reported in crayfish *P. leniusculus* [229]. It was found specifically expressed in gill and intestine, and was shown to have an important immune function in intestine since if the thioester motif was silenced, crayfish were more susceptible to bacterial infection. [229].

Fibrinogen-related proteins are identified by a highly conserved fibrinogen-like domain (FBG) found in vertebrates and invertebrates [230]. They play an important role in the innate immunity of crustaceans. For example, the tachylectins, which was identified in the horseshoe crab *Tachypleus tridentatus*, can agglutinate Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and human erythrocytes in calcium-dependent manner [231]. In shrimp, a fibrinogen-related protein was isolated in kuruma shrimp *M. japonicus* (*MjFREP1*). The expression of *MjFREP1* was mainly in the gill, and the expression profile was significantly increased post infection with *V. anguillarum*, *S. aureus* and WSSV. The recombinant *MjFREP1* protein could agglutinate Gram-positive bacteria *Bacillus subtilis*, *B. thuringiensis*, *B. megaterium*, and *S. aureus* in calcium-dependent manner. Moreover, the recombinant protein could bind peptidoglycans, LPS, Gram positive and negative bacteria and VP28 of WSSV [232].

Down syndrome cell adhesion molecule (DSCAM) consists of immunoglobulin (Ig) and fibronectin (FN) domains at the extracellular region, and it plays an essential role in neural circuit formation [233,234]. In invertebrates, DSCAM was initially identified in *D. melanogaster*, and its transcripts was expressed in the neural system, fat body cells and hemocytes. Silencing DSCAM could significantly reduce the phagocytic activity in hemocyte. Additionally, DSCAM could bind onto pathogen surfaces. Therefore, it is possibly in immunity in *Drosophila* [197]. In

shrimp, DSCAM was characterized in white shrimp *L. vannamei* [235] and black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [235]. The *LvDscam* transcript was highly expressed in the lymphoid organ and heart [235], while the *PmDscam* was highly expressed in lymphoid organ, heart and nerve [235]. Both *LvDscam* and *PmDscam* are likely to play a crucial immune response to WSSV [235,236].

2.4.4 Blood clotting system

The clotting system is a vital process to limit hemolymph loss and to begin wound healing in all metazoans. It is a humoral immune response, which is the first line defense of the invertebrate immune system, and it is quickly forming a secondary barrier to infection and immobilizing bacteria. There are two different models to explain the clotting system one in crayfish and one in horse-shoe crab. In crayfish, the clotting system depends on a transglutaminase (TGase)-dependent clotting reaction [237,238]. The coagulation is formed by the polymerization of a clotting protein in plasma catalyzed by a calcium ion dependent TGase, which is released from the hemocytes under foreign particle stimulation or tissue damage [238]. Another model, the clotting system in horse-shoe crabs is regulated by a proteolytic cascade that is linked with the release of antimicrobial substances [239,240].

The clotting protein, a glycoprotein, has two physiological functions one is in crustacean coagulation and it is also involved in lipid transport [241]. The regulation and localization of clotting protein are in the outer layer of stromal matrix cells of lymphoid organ [242]. Crustacean clotting proteins were first cloned and characterized in the crayfish *P. leniusculus* [237,238], and later in the sand crayfish *Ibacus ciliatus* [243], the black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [244], the white shrimp *L. vannamei* [245] and the pink shrimp *Farfantepenaeus paulensis* [246].

TGase, calcium ion dependent enzymes, catalyze calcium-dependent acyl-transfer reactions between glutamine residues and lysine residues in protein substrates in the presence of calcium ion to form a soft gel at the wounding site [163]. TGase gene was initially cloned and localized in crayfish *P. leniusculus* [247] and two TGase genes including STG I and STG II were characterized in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* [248]. Another type of TGase was found to be involved in the coagulation of the black tiger

shrimp *P. monodon* [249]. Moreover, a biochemical study was utilized to investigate the involvement of TGase in coagulating the plasma clotting protein [247]

In shrimp, the silencing of TGase in kuruma shrimp *M. japonicus* significantly reduced the concentration of antimicrobial peptides, *i.e.* crustin and lysozyme [250], and therefore it is possible that the clotting system of shrimp might be linked to the antimicrobial peptide production. Therefore, the shrimp clotting system is similar to the horse-shoe crab clotting system and may have a function in AMP production. In addition, the silencing of TGase in kuruma shrimp *M. japonicus* significantly increased shrimp mortality post infection with *Vibrio penaeicida* and WSSV [251]. In white shrimp *L. vannamei*, the TGase activity was reduced post infection with Taura Syndrome Virus (TSV) resulting in poor coagulation [252], while the expression of TGase was increased post infection with *V. harveyi* [253].

2.4.5 Epithelial immune response

The epithelial surface must be protected with efficient systems for microbial recognition and control because the barrier epithelia are in constant contact with large numbers of microorganisms. *Drosophila* lives on decaying matter and feeds on fermented medium. Both gut and trachea, two main routes of infection, are lined with a chitinous matrix. Moreover, the gut lumen is hostile to microbial colonization due to its physical and physiological properties and the secretion of lysozymes [254,255]. In addition, local production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and AMPs (Figure 2.6) provide two complementary inducible defense mechanisms in the gut [58]. In *Drosophila*, natural gut infection has been associated with the rapid synthesis of ROS and the dynamic cycle of ROS generation and elimination appears to be vital, because flies that lack ROS-removal capacity have an increased mortality [256]. The dual oxidase (Duox) proteins form a conserved family of molecules containing both the NADPH domain and N-terminal extracellular peroxidase domain (PHD) that can produce ROS in a regulated manner [257]. These proteins can transform H₂O₂ into the highly microbicidal hypohalous acid (HOCL). Excessive ROS production is prevented by immune responsive catalase (IRC) [258], so ROS can be detoxified by IRC. The IRC and Duox phenotype demonstrate that a fine redox balance is critical for control of microorganisms in the gut lumen. This ROS-dependent gut immunity is not affected by

the Imd pathway and provides an additional barrier against ingested microorganisms [259].

Local AMP production in the gut has been suggested to be a second line of defense after ROS production to fight pathogens. The use of GFP reporter transgenes has revealed that AMP genes are expressed in several surface epithelia that are in contact with the external environment [260]. This AMP synthesis is referred to as the local immune response as opposed to the systemic response. One can distinguish between constitutive and inducible AMP expression in epithelia. Firstly, the AMP gene is expressed constitutively in a defined tissue, and its transcription is not up-regulated during microbial infection such as Drosomycin in salivary glands and in the female spermatheca, and for Cecropin in the male ejaculatory duct [260]. This constitutive expression is regulated by various tissue specific transcription factors such as the homeobox-containing protein Caudal [261,262]. Secondly, there is the inducible local AMP gene expression. This response is triggered upon natural infection by Gram-negative bacteria and is mediated by the Imd pathway [260,263] such as Drosomycin and Diptericin induced in both trachea and gut via the Imd pathway in response to local infection by bacteria [264].

In shrimp, the role of ROS in innate immunity has been studied in systemic immune system. During infection, ROS production was produced such as O_2^- , the hydroxyl radical (OH^-), H_2O_2 and singlet oxygen (1O_2). In white shrimp *L. vannamei*, the production of O_2^- was related to the concentration of bacteria in hemocytes during *E. coli* infection [265]. Moreover, the expression level of superoxide dismutase (SOD) was increased at early stage of 1 hour post WSSV infection revealing an early ROS detoxification response, while its transcript was decreased at later stage of 12 hours post infection indicating that it is an important mechanism to limit viral replication in white shrimp *L. vannamei* [266]. It has previously been reported that the O_2^- production is involved in Nox and phenoloxidase pathways in hemocytes of giant freshwater prawn *M. rosenbergii* [267]. Recently in kuruma shrimp *M. japonicus*, the *MjNox*, nitric oxide synthase (*MjNOS*) and Dual oxidases (*MjDuox*) were characterized. The nitric oxide (NO) was generated after LPS stimulation [268]. The transcript of *MjNOS* was increased post *V. penaeicida* injection in the gills [269]. The expression level of *MjNox*

was up-regulated post *V. penaeicida* or poly (I:C) challenge [270]. In addition, the *MjDuoX* transcript was up-regulated in the gills post WSSV infection [271]. All results show that the ROS productions are also important in innate immune response in shrimp.

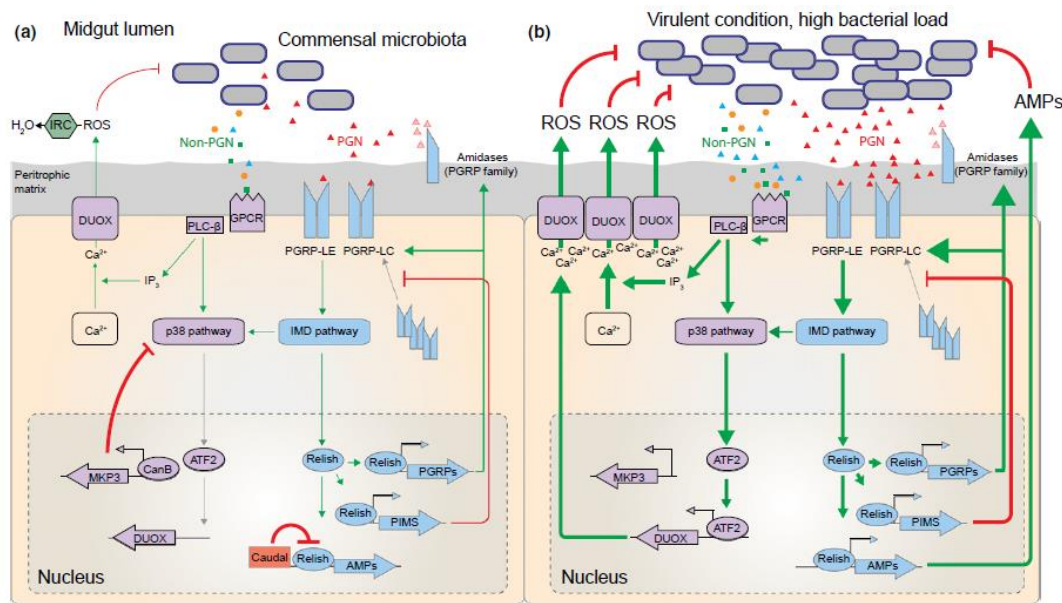


Figure 2.6 The midgut immune response in *Drosophila* (Source: Engel and Moran, 2013) [272]

2.4.6 Intestinal epithelium cell renewal

In *Drosophila*, a factor that the host is producing to survive from pathogenic infection is epithelium cell renewal [273]. The infection of pathogens causes a damage of the epithelium layer; therefore, the tissue proliferation and differentiation of intestinal stem cells (ISCs) to rebuild the epithelial intestine are of importance for host survival [274,275]. There are three signaling pathways in progenitor cells regulating cell proliferation and differentiation including the Wingless, JAK/STAT and Epidermal growth factor receptor (Egfr) pathway (Figure 2.7) [276-281]. Firstly, the JAK/STAT ligand Upd3 and the epidermal growth factor Keren are induced by JNK and Hippo signaling pathways. Secondly, the induction of the JAK/STAT pathway in progenitor cells increases their differentiation and promotes the synthesis of Upd3 and the epidermal growth factor Spitz. Additionally, the activation of JAK/STAT in the

surrounding visceral muscles promotes the synthesis of the epidermal growth factor ligand Vein. Thirdly, Upd3, Keren, Spitz and Vein factors induce the Egfr pathway in ISCs to increase the ISC proliferation rate. In contrast, the kinase Gcn2 is increased and the target of rapamycin (Tor) signaling decreasing lead to a lack of epithelial repair during pathogenic infection resulting to the death of the fly [282].

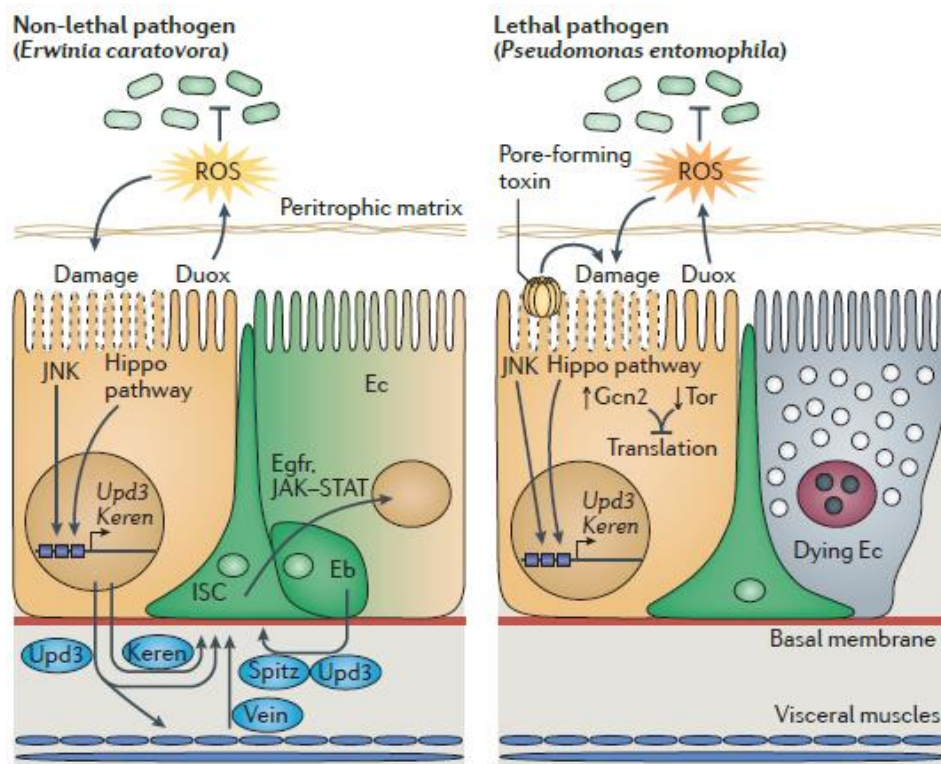


Figure 2. 7 Intestinal epithelium cell renewal in *Drosophila* (Source: Buchon et al., 2013) [282]

In crustaceans, the JAK/STAT pathway is only studied in shrimp. There are main cellular components in JAK/STAT pathway including the Janus Kinase (JAK) Hopscotch and the STAT transcription factor [283]. Stats were identified in black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* (*PmSTAT*) [284] and Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* (*FcSTAT*) [285]. The transcript level of *PmSTAT* was down-regulated, but activated *PmSTAT* protein was increased in the cephalothorax after WSSV infection [284]. The transcript of *FcSTAT* was detected in all tissues, and the *FcSTAT* transcript was up-regulated in

hemocytes, hepatopancreas, and intestines at an early stage of infection with WSSV. Additionally, the *FcSTAT* transcript was up-regulated in hemocytes and hepatopancreas after *V. anguillarum* infection [285]. Although some component of the JAK/STAT pathway was studied, but the studies do not relate to the cell proliferation and differentiation. The studies are focused on WSSV infection.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Presence of Normal Flora in Un-infected *P. monodon*

3.1.1. Normal shrimp

One-month old shrimp were obtained from the Marine Technology Research Center, Faculty of Marine Technology, Burapha University Chanthaburi Campus, Thailand. The shrimp were raised in a 20 × 20 m plastic-lined pond (10-11 parts per thousand (ppt) salinity) and fed four times daily with a commercial feed (Starfeeds® containing 40% protein). Once the shrimp arrived in the laboratory, apparently healthy individuals were selected for the study. The entire gastrointestinal (GI) tract including the stomach, midgut and hindgut from several shrimp were prepared for SEM to study the presence and attachment of normal flora in the GI tract of *P. monodon*.

3.1.2 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

The GI tract from each *P. monodon* was dissected and then fixed in 3% glutaraldehyde in 0.1M phosphate buffer (19 ml of 0.2 M NaH₂PO₄·2H₂O and 81 ml of 0.2 M Na₂HPO₄·2H₂O) pH 7.4. The samples were stored in the dark overnight at 4 °C and then rinsed twice with 0.1 M phosphate buffer for 10 minutes followed by one rinse of distilled water for 10 minutes. Thereafter they were dehydrated through graded ethanol series, *i.e.* 10 minutes each in 30, 50, 70 and 95% ethanol, and followed by 10 minutes each in three changes of absolute ethanol. The samples were subsequently critical-point dried using carbon dioxide as the transitional fluid and mounted on stubs. During mounting, samples of the foregut, midgut and hindgut were split longitudinally to expose the gut contents and the inner lining of the gut. After sputter coating the samples with gold using a Blazers model SCD 040, the specimens were examined in a JEOL model JSM-5410LV scanning electron microscope. All process were performed at Science and Technological Research Equipment Centre, Chulalongkorn University.

3.2 The Interaction of Pathogenic and Non-pathogenic Bacteria with the Epithelial Surface of the Gastrointestinal Tract of *P. monodon*

3.2.1 Bacteria and experiment animal

Vibrio harveyi 1526 [286] and *V. parahaemolyticus*, previously isolated from wounded *P. monodon*, were chosen as representatives of shrimp pathogens, whilst *Micrococcus luteus* MI 11 [287] and *Vibrio* B4-24, closely related to *V. sagamiensis* based on 16S rDNA and isolated from intestines of broodstock shrimp, served as two non-pathogenic species for the assessment.

One month old shrimp (average 2-3 g body weight) were obtained from a commercial shrimp farm in Pathumthani province and transported to Chulalongkorn University where they were maintained in tank with running, aerated 5 ppt water at ambient temperature (28 ± 2 °C).

Adult *Artemia* were purchased from Sunday Market at Chatuchak, Thailand. They were maintained in a plastic tank with artificially aerated seawater at 30 ppt salinity overnight before the experiment was performed.

3.2.2 Bacterial preparation

Bacterial colony was inoculated in tryptic soy broth (TSB) (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK) with either no supplement (*M. luteus*) or with 2% NaCl (marine bacteria) with constant agitation and optimal temperature. Bacterial cells were harvested from stationary phase, washed twice with 2% NaCl for marine bacteria or 0.85% NaCl for freshwater bacteria, and resuspended in the same solution. Bacterial cells were diluted to the optical density (OD) values at 600 nm [19,21] of 1.0 (approximately 1.0×10^8 CFUs). *Artemia* were allowed to filter feed on each bacterial suspension for 30 minutes before they were presented to the shrimp.

3.2.3 Oral route of infection with the delivery of bacteria via an *Artemia* diet

Individual shrimp was placed in 5 L plastic boxes each containing 1.5 L of 5 ppt salinity seawater. Each shrimp was fed once with 60 *Artemia* (control, *V. harveyi*, *V. parahaemolyticus*, *M. luteus* MI 11 and *V. sagamiensis*) and feeding was monitored for 60 minutes to ensure that the shrimp consumed all 60 *Artemia*. Three shrimp from

each treatment group were collected at 1.5, 6 and 24 hours post infection and then processed for SEM. The bacterial concentrations of the pre-soaked *Artemia* were determined on TCBS agar (Oxoid). One *Artemia* was subsequently found to contain approximately 10^7 CFU of bacteria, and hence each shrimp received approximately 6×10^8 CFUs of bacteria/shrimp.

3.2.4 SEM

SEM was performed as mentioned in section 3.1.2.

3.3 The Appearance of the Pathogenic Bacteria in Gastrointestinal Tract

3.3.1 Shrimp collection

To confirm the presence of *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* in the GI tract, the experiment design was as mentioned in session 3.2.1-3.2.3 and shrimp were collected at 24 hours to confirm shrimp infection by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) assay, PCR-denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) and quantitative real-time PCR.

3.3.2 Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) assay

FISH was used to identify and detect localization of bacterial cell in GI tract. Two sectioning methods consisting of parafin section and cryosectioning were used. All method were modified form Seidman [288].

3.3.2.1 Parafin section

Hepatopancrease, stomach and intestine were dissected and fixed for 24 hours in 4% paraformaldehyde prepared in 0.1 M phosphate buffer pH 7.4. After fixation, all samples were washed 3 times with 0.1 M phosphate buffer pH 7.4 and 50% ethanol, respectively. All samples was kept in 70% ethanol at 4 °C until next process.

Hepatopancreas, stomach, midgut and hindgut were dissected by a single edge razor blade and placed into embedding cassettes. The cassette containing the tissue were twice dehydrated in the following solutions: ethanol series (70%, 85%, 95% and 100% absolute ethanol) and Bioclear (Bio Optica, Milan, Italy) for 50 minutes. The parafin was allowed to infiltrate into the dehydrated tissue for 1.5 hours at 56 °C.

The paraffin infiltrated tissues were placed in embedding molds, and the embedding molds were filled with melted paraffin. The molds were placed on a cold tray for about 20 minutes. Lastly, the infiltrated tissues were separated from embedding molds to obtain the successfully infiltrated tissue blocks for sectioning. The tissue blocks were kept in -20 °C until used.

For sectioning, the sample blocks were carefully face-trimmed until part of tissue could be seen and kept at -20 °C. A new disposable microtome blade was used, and a microtome was set to cut thick sections at 6 µm. Each sample was cut as a series of ribbons and floated on a water bath at 42 °C to expand and separate the ribbon. The sample was collected in the water bath using a glass slide and then excess water was removed. The dry slides were placed on a slide warmer at 45 °C overnight to fix. All slides were allowed to cool to room temperature and kept in -20 °C until used.

For fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH), the sample slides were dewaxed in toluene for 3 minutes twice, then slides were rehydrated for 3 minutes per each in the following solutions: 100, 95, 70, 50% ethanol and sterile water. The slides were incubated with 2 mg/ml lysozyme in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.2 at 37 °C to partially digest the bacterial cell membrane. After incubation, the slides were washed with 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.2 for 10 minutes. A 20 µl of hybridization buffer (30% formamide, 0.9 M NaCl, 0.01% SDS in 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.2) was mixed with a 10 µl of 1.5 µg/ml probe (Table 3.1) per slide and allowed to hybridize with the samples in a dark moist chamber at 50 °C for 1-3 hours. After incubation, slides were washed with hybridization buffer without formamide for 20 minutes. Finally, the slide samples were mounted with Antifade Mounting Medium (Vectashield, CA, USA) and observed using Olympus microscope BX51 fluorescence (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Table 3.1 Fluorescence bacterial probes

Name	Specificity	Sequence (5' to 3')	Label	References
UNIV1390	Universal bacteria	GACGGGCGGTGTGTACAA	5' CY3	[289]
VIB572a	<i>Vibrio</i> spp.	ACCACCTGCATGCGCTTT	5' FAM	[290]
LGC354b	Gram positive bacteria	CGGAAGATCCCTACTGC	5' CY3	[291]
SP_VP1253	<i>Vibrio parahaemolyticus</i>	CACTTTCGCAAGTTGGCTGCCC	5' HEX	[292]
SP_VH	<i>Vibrio harveyi</i> (can not use)	CCGCATAATACCTACGGGTCAA AGAGGG	5' FAM	[293]

3.3.2.2 Cryosectioning

Bacteria were prepared as mentioned in section 3.2.2. and a 10 μ l resuspended bacteria were dropped onto a coated glass slide. The slides were dried at room temperature and heat-fixed by quickly passing through the flame from an alcohol lantern. Additionally, the fixed slides were refixed with ethanol/formaline (9:1) at room temperature for 20 minutes.

The intestine and stomach were first dissected and immersed into Jung Tissue Freezing Medium (Leica, Nussloch, Germany) at -20 °C in Leica CM1950 cyostate (Leica), then the samples were placed at -20 °C until freezing medium became a solid. The samples were sectioned at 7 μ M thickness and the warm slide was collected the sample. The sample slides were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 6-10 minutes.

To stop the fixation reaction, all slides were washed with 3X PBS, pH 7.2 (390 mM NaCl/30 mM Na₂HPO₄ and 390 mM NaCl/30 mM Na₂PO₄) for 2 minutes followed by rinsing twice with 1X PBS for 2 minutes each. After that, slides were dehydrated with ethanol series (50%, 70% and 95%) for 5 minutes each and then 3 times with 100% ethanol for 5 minutes to completely dehydrate. Sample slides were air-dried at room temperature until they were completely dried, kept in slide box and stored at -80 °C. FISH was performed as mentioned above.

3.3.3 PCR-denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) analysis

3.3.3.1 DNA extraction

Total genomic DNA from shrimp stomach and intestine was extracted by CTAB and chloroform-isoamylalcohol extraction method modified from Zhou et al. [294]. Briefly, tissue were thoroughly ground in 250 μ l of 2% NaCl, and 750 μ l of 2% NaCl was added to homogenized samples to make 1 ml volume. The homogenate of each sample was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 1 minute at room temperature, and then the supernatant was discarded. The pellet was resuspended with 600 μ l of extraction buffer (final concentration 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 100 mM sodium EDTA pH 8.0, 100 mM sodium phosphate, 1.5 M NaCl, 1% CTAB) and 10 μ l proteinase K (10 mg m/ml), and then mixed by vortex. The mixture was incubated at 65 °C for 2 hours and gently mixed by inversion every 15 minutes. At the end of the incubation period, 75 μ l 20% sodium dodecyl sulfate (20% SDS) was added. The mixture was further incubated for 1 hour at 65 °C and gently mixed by inversion every 15 minutes during the incubation. After incubation, the sample was centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 10 minutes. The supernatant was collected in a new microcentrifuge tube and the pellet was re-extracted with extraction buffer and SDS for 15 min using the same procedure. The supernatant was mixed twice with equal volume of chloroform: isoamylalcohol (24:1) and centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 2 minutes at room temperature to separate the phase. The aqueous phase was carefully transferred into a new collection tube to precipitate with 0.6X volume of isopropanol for 1 hour at room temperature. The DNA pellet was recovered by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature and washed with 1 ml of 70% ethanol. The DNA pellet was completely air dried at room temperature and resuspended in 100 μ l of TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 and 0.1 mM EDTA). The DNA solution was stored at -20 °C until analysis. A total DNA quality and concentration were measured by gel electrophoresis and spectrophotometer.

3.3.3.2 Measuring of DNA concentration using NanoDrop 2000c UV-Vis spectrophotometers

Total genomic DNA quality and concentration were measured by NanoDrop 2000c UV-Vis spectrophotometers (Thermo Fisher Scientific, DE, USA).

One μl of total genomic DNA was pipetted onto lower measurement pedestal, and then upper measurement pedestal was closed. The operating software calculated the optical density at 260 nanometre (OD_{260}). Additionally, the quality of total DNA can be assessed from a ratio of $\text{OD}_{260}/\text{OD}_{280}$, which the ratio of 1.8 and 2.0 is considered good quality.

3.3.3.3 PCR amplification

First, a PCR amplification of near-complete 16S rDNA fragments from the isolates was conducted using primer 8fm and primer 1492R (Table 3.2) as described by Lane [295]. Briefly, PCR amplification was performed in 25 μl consisting of 1X Mg-free PCR buffer, 3.0 mM MgCl_2 , 0.2 mM dNTPs, 200 nM of each primer, 0.4 U DyNAzyme II DNA Polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Vilnius, Lithuania) and approximately 20-100 ng template. A BSA solution (10 mg/mL) was added into the PCR reaction to increase yield in PCR amplification. The PCR cycle parameters were 4 minutes initial denaturation at 95 °C, 35 cycles of 1 minute at 95 °C, 30 seconds at 55 °C, 2 minutes at 72 °C, and 7 minutes final extension at 72 °C on DNA Thermal Cycler PTC-200 (MJ Research Inc., MA, USA). The presence of a 1,500-bp fragment was confirmed on a 1 % agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized with a UV transilluminator Gel DocTM XR imaging system (Bio-Rad, Milan, Italy) after ethidium bromide staining. PCR-DGGE was performed following standard methods but with some modifications [296]. Briefly, the 1:10 diluted product from the first PCR reactions were used as a template for the nested PCR using 338f with GC clamps attached to the 5' end and 517r primers (Table 3.2). The PCR conditions for the nested DGGE were as follows: an initial denaturation of 4 minutes at 95°C, followed by 25 cycles of 30 seconds at 95°C, 30 seconds at 60°C, 30 seconds at 72°C, and then a 7 minutes final extension at 72°C. The presence of a 200-bp fragment was confirmed on a 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis.

3.3.3.4 DGGE

A 10 μl aliquot of each PCR-DGGE product was loaded directly onto an 8% acrylamide gel with a 20% to 55% denaturant vertical gradient. Samples were loaded with in-house DGGE clone ladders (two per gel) and reference DGGE products (a mix of DGGE products from two samples; four per gel) to assist in the alignment

and comparison between different gels [297]. The electrophoresis was performed at 200 V at 60 °C for 5 hours using a DGGE Electrophoresis System (CBS Scientific, Union City, CA). After electrophoresis, the gels were stained using SYBR gold (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and visualized using a Pharos FX™ Molecular Imager (Bio Rad Laboratories Inc., Hercules, CA).

3.3.3.5 DGGE analysis

All gel analyses were performed using InfoQuest™ Software (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc). Individual DGGE profiles were subjected to normalization among different gels using clone ladders and reference samples [297].

Table 3.2 List of 16S rDNA universal PCR primers used in this study

Primer name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Product size (bp)	Ta (°C)	Reference
8fm	AGAGTTTGAT(AC)MTGGCTCAG	1500	55	[295]
1492r	G(CT)TACCTGTTACGACTT			
338f-GC ^a	(GC)-ACTCCTACGGGAGGCA	200	60	[296]
517r	ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG			

^aThis primer has the following GC clamp at its 5' end:

5' CGCCCGCCGCGCGCGGGCGGGGCGGGGGCACGGGGG- 3' [296]

3.3.4 Quantitative real-time PCR

3.3.4.1 Primer

Specific bacterial species primer were obtained from previous publications that revealed specific for *V. harveyi* and *V. paraheamolyticus*. *V. harveyi*-specific primers targeting to the gyrase B gene (*gyr B*) [298], and *V. paraheamolyticus* specific primers targeting 2 genes: *gyr B* [299] and thermolabile hemolysin (*tlh*) [300] were listed on Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 List of real-time PCR primers to detect the stomach and midgut bacteria

Target organism	Primer name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Product Size (bp)	Ta (°C)	Reference
All bacteria	Eub338	ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG	181	55	[301]
	Eub518	ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG			
<i>V. harveyi</i>	A2	TCTAACTATCCACCGCGG	362	64	[298]
	B3	AGCAATGCCATCTTCACGTTT			
<i>V. parahaemolyticus</i>	VP-1	CGGCGTGGGTGT TTCGGTAGT	385	58	[299]
	VP-2r	TCCGCTTCGCGCTCATCAATA			
	tlh-f	ACTCAACACAAGAAGAGATCGACAA	207	60	[300]
	tlh-R	GATGAGCGGTTGATGTCCAA			

3.3.4.2 DNA extraction

Total gDNA were extracted using QIAamp DNA blood mini kit (Qiagen, Hildn, Germany) according to the instruction of the manufacturer. The GI was infected with *Vibrio* species which is gram negative species, thus the purification of total DNA from animal tissue protocol was applied to extract total gDNA in this study. Briefly, the stomach and intestine of each shrimp were separately ground into the sterile microcentrifuge tube with 180 µl ATL buffer, and then a 20 µl proteinase K was added into the ground tissue. The sample was thoroughly mixed by vortexing, and incubated at 56 °C overnight to completely lysed. After incubation, the sample was mixed by vortexing for 15 seconds then a 200 µl Al buffer was added into the sample and mixed thoroughly by vortexing. To remove unlysed tissue, the mixture was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 1 minute and the supernatant was transferred to the new microcentrifuge tube. A 200 µl ethanol was added into the sample then mixed as above. The mixture was pipetted onto the DNeasy mini spin column placed in a 2 ml collection tube, and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 1 minute. Washing step, the column was washed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 1 minute with 500 µl of AW1 and AW2 buffer, respectively. To completely dry column, the column placed in a new 2 ml collection

tube was continually centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 3 minutes. The elution step, the column was placed onto the 1.5 ml sterile microcentrifuge tube, and 50 µl AE bufer was directly pipated onto the DNeasy membrane then incubated for 2 minutes. The column was centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 2 minutes. Additionally, the step of elution was repeated to completely elution. The total gDNA solution was measured by NanoDrop 2000c UV-Vis spectrophotometers as mentioned in section 3.3.3.2, after that stored at -20 °C

3.3.4.3 PCR amplification for external standard curve preparation

A total gDNA was amplified using specific primer for gyr B gene of *V. harveyi* and for gyrB and tlh genes of *V. parahaemolyticus*. The PCR amplification was performed in 25 µl consisting of 1X Mg-free PCR buffer, 3.0 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 200 nM of each primer (Table 3.3), 0.4 U Taq DNA polymerase and 100 ng gDNA of *V. harveyi* or *V. parahaemolyticus*. The PCR cycle parameters were 4 minutes initial denaturation at 95 °C, 35 cycles of 1 minute at 95 °C, 30 seconds at 60 °C, 30 minutes at 72 °C, and 7 minutes final extension at 72 °C. The presence of a PCR product fragment was confirmed on a 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis.

3.3.4.4 PCR product purification

The PCR products were purified using illustra GFX PCR DNA and gel band purification kit (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) according to the instruction of kit. Briefly, a 500 µl capture buffer type 3 was added to the PCR product and mixed. The mixture was transferred to GFX column and then re-centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 30 seconds. The column was washed with 500 µl wash buffer type I by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 30 seconds. The column was again centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 2 minutes to dry the colum. PCR product purification was eluted from the column by elution buffer type 4 and stored at -20 °C.

3.3.4.5 PCR product ligation

The ligation reaction was performed in 10 µl of total volume containing 1X ligation buffer, 5% polyethylene glycol (PEG), 25 ng pGEM[®]-T Easy vector, 3 weiss units T4 DNA ligase (Promega, WI, USA), and 6.25 µl purified product.

The ligation reactions were incubated overnight at 4 °C to increase the efficiency of ligation reaction.

3.3.4.6 Competent *E. coli* cells preparation

A *E. coli* JM109 was inoculated in Lysogeny Broth (LB) (1% Bactotryptone, 0.5% Bactoyeast extract and 0.5% NaCl, pH 7.0) with 250 rpm agitation at 37 °C overnight used as a starter. A 1 ml of starter bacteria was inoculated into 50 ml of LB broth and continually cultured until an OD₆₀₀ reached to 0.4-0.6. The cultured cells were transferred to 50 ml centrifuge tube and also chilled on ice for 30 minutes. To collect bacterial cells, 50 ml centrifuge tubes were centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 15 minute at 4 °C. The bacterial pellets were resuspended in 30 ml of ice-cold MgCl₂/CaCl₂ solution (80 mM MgCl₂ and 20 mM CaCl₂) and then incubated on ice for 45 minutes. The cold resuspended bacterial cells were centrifuged as above to collect the bacterial pellets. The bacterial pellets were resuspended in 2 ml of ice-cold 0.1 M CaCl₂ containing 15% glycerol and a 100 µl of resuspended cells was pipetted to cold microcentrifuge tube. These competent cells were immediately used or stored at -80 °C for subsequently used.

3.3.4.7 Transformation of ligation product to *E. coli* host cells

E. coli JM109 competent cells were placed in an ice for 5 minutes. The ligation product was added, gently mixed by pipetting and incubated in an ice for 30 minutes. After incubation, the mixture was heat-shocked in 42 °C water bath for exactly 45 seconds and immediately placed in an ice for 5 minutes. The mixture was transferred into 1 ml of SOC (2% tryptone, 0.5% yeast extract, 10 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM MgSO₄ and 20 mM glucose) and cultured at 37 °C with 250 rpm agitation for 1.5 hours. The transformation cells were collected by centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 1 minute. A 900 µl of supernatant was discarded thus 100 µl of supernatant were resuspended the bacterial pellet to spread onto a selective LB agar plate containing 50 µg/ml of ampicillin, 25 µg/ml of IPTG and 20 µg/ml of X-gal. The transformation plates were incubated at 37 °C overnight.

3.3.4.8 Colony PCR selection

Due to lacZ' system, the white bacterial colonies contained inserted DNA recombinant clones, whereas the blue bacterial colonies did not contain the inserted DNA. A single colony was picked up to streak to new selective LB agar plate and also put into the mixed PCR reaction. The PCR reaction was carried out in a 25 µl reaction mixture, containing 1X Mg-free PCR buffer, 4 mM MgCl₂, 100 µM dNTPs (1 mM), 100 µM of each primer (pUC1: 5'-TTCGGCTCGTATGTTGTGT GGA-3' and pUC2: 5'-GTGGTGCAAGGCGATTAAGTTGG-3') and 1 U Taq DNA polymerase. The PCR cycle parameters were 3 minutes initial denaturation at 94 °C, 35 cycles of 30 seconds at 94 °C, 1 minute at 50 °C, 30-180 seconds depended on the length of inserted DNA (1 minute for 1 Kbp) at 72 °C, and 7 minutes final extension at 72 °C on a thermal cycler. The colony PCR products were analyzed through 1.5% agarose gel.

3.3.4.9 Recombinant plasmid DNA extraction

Plasmid DNA was extracted using illustra plasmidPrep mini spin kit (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) according to the instruction of kit. Briefly, a selected clone was inoculated into 3 ml LB broth containing 50 µg/ml of antibiotic ampicillin and cultured at 37 °C overnight with 250 rpm agitation. The culture was twice transferred to 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube and centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 1 minute. After harvesting of bacterial cells, the bacterial pellet was thoroughly resuspended in a 175 µl Lysis buffer type 7 and also in a 175 µl Lysis buffer type 8. The mixture was immediately mixed by gentle inversion until solution became clear and viscous and then 350 µl Lysis buffer type 9 was added to the mixture, and also mixed immediately. The mixture was centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 10 minutes. After centrifugation, the cleared supernatant was transferred onto the illustra plasmid mini column and centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 1 minute. To wash the column, a 400 µl wash buffer type 1 was added to the column and centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 1 minute. The column was re-centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 2 minute until it is completely dry. To elute the plasmid, the column was placed on the 1.5 ml sterile microcentrifuge tube. A 30 µl elution buffer type 4 was added onto the center of the column, and the column was incubated at room temperature for 2 minutes before centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for

2 minutes. The plasmid concentration was measured by NanoDrop 2000c UV-Vis spectrophotometers as mentioned in section 3.3.3.2, after that stored at -20 °C.

3.3.4.10 Standard curve amplification

Plasmid DNA of each gene was used as the template to calculate the copy number of each gene following equation [302].

$$\text{DNA copy (copies}/\mu\text{l)} = \frac{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ (copy/mol)} \times \text{DNA amount (g)}}{\text{DNA length (bp)} \times 660 \text{ (g/mol/bp)}}$$

A 10-fold serial dilution of a known copy number was prepared corresponding to 10^3 - 10^8 copy number/ μl for standard curve amplification. All real-time PCR reactions were carried out in a 96 well plate and each sample was amplified in duplicate using a LightCycler® 480 II system (Roche diagnostic Ltd., Rotkreuz, Switzerland). LightCycler® 480 SYBR Green I Master (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) and 0.2 μM primer concentration were used for real-time PCR amplification. The thermal profile for real-time PCR was 95 °C for 10 minutes followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 seconds, 55-64 °C (Table 3.3) for 30 seconds and 72 °C for 30 seconds. The correlation efficiency of 0.995-1.000 was considered acceptable for use as a standard curve.

3.3.4.11 Quantitative real-time PCR amplification

Total gDNA of stomach and intestine from each shrimp fed with *Artemia* (control), *Artemia-V. harveyi* were diluted to 50 ng/ μl and 5 ng/ μl for PCR detection of *V. harveyi* and all bacteria, respectively. Additionally, the gDNA of *Artemia* (control), *Artemia-V. parahaemolyticus* were also diluted to 200 ng/ μl and 5 ng/ μl for PCR detection of *V. parahaemolyticus* and all bacteria, respectively. Each diluted gDNA was used as a template in quantitative real-time PCR amplification. The reactions were performed following the condition of each standard curve, and the cycles of amplification were 50 cycles.

3.3.4.12 Data analysis

The ratio of each gene and 16s rDNA was calculated to express the relative numbers of *V. harveyi* or *V. parahaemolyticus* to all bacteria in the stomach and intestine of shrimp. The difference between treatments was analyzed using

independent sample *t*-test ($P < 0.05$) with SPSS 13.0 software for windows. Since there can be multiple copies of 16S rDNA per genome of bacteria (1-13 copies in all bacteria) [303], we assumed for calculation purpose that the average copy number of 16S rDNA was 10.25, based on the average 16S rDNA copy number of *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. harveyi* (11 for *V. parahaemolyticus* and 8-11 for *V. harveyi*) [304,305].

3.4 Histopathology of AHPNS/EMS Infected Shrimp

3.4.1 Bacteria and experimental animal

V. parahaemolyticus 3HP used in this study was isolated and identified by Centex Shrimp, Faculty of Science, Mahidol University [19]. This bacterium was isolated from hepatopancreas (HP) of shrimp that were collected from a shrimp farm that had experienced a massive mortality. Additionally, this strain showed a positive PCR result with AP2 primer set [19].

Adult *Artemia* were purchased from Sunday Market at Chatuchak, Thailand. They were maintained in a plastic tank with artificially aerated seawater at 30 ppt salinity overnight before performed experiment.

Juvenile shrimp (15-20 grams) were obtained from Shrimp Genetic Improvement Center (BIOTEC), Surat Thani province. They were acclimated for 2 weeks at the Center of Excellence for Marine and Biotechnology (CEMB), Chulalongkorn University in tanks with running aerated water at 28 ± 2 °C, 16 ppt salinity before performed experiment.

3.4.2 Bacterial preparation

Bacteria from glycerol stock was streaked onto TSA containing 2% NaCl and incubated at 28 °C. A single bacterial colony was inoculated in TSB (Oxoid) supplemented with 2% NaCl at 28 °C for 15 hours. Bacterial cells were harvested and washed twice with 2% NaCl then the bacterial pellets were resuspended in the 2% NaCl. The suspended bacteria were diluted to the optical density (OD) of 1 at 600 nm (approximately 1.0×10^8 CFUs). *Artemia* were allowed to filter feed on each bacterial suspension for 30 minutes before they were presented to the shrimp. To monitor the

number of bacteria fed shrimp, ten *Artemia* immersion was ground in 1 ml of 2% NaCl and diluted for plate count.

3.4.3 Orally challenged test for AHPNS/EMS pathogenesis

Individual shrimp was placed in 5 L plastic boxes each containing 1.5 L of 16 ppt salinity seawater. Each shrimp was fed once with 20 *Artemia* (control, *Vp*_{3HP}) and feeding was monitored for 60 minutes to ensure that the shrimp consumed all 20 *Artemia*. The bacterial concentrations of the pre-soaked *Artemia* were determined on TCBS agar. Average concentration of bacteria for one *Artemia* was found to contain approximately 2×10^6 CFUs of bacteria, and hence each shrimp received approximately 4×10^7 CFUs of bacteria/shrimp. Three shrimp from each treatment group were collected at 3, 6, 12 and 24 hours post infection and then fixed with Davidson's fixative [306]. The fixative was injected into the body of shrimp at the third of segment and into the hepatopancreas of shrimp to better fixation. The sample was fixed for 48 hours and then changed to 70% alcohol for long-term preservation.

3.4.4 Paraffin embedding

The fixed shrimp were divided into 2 parts: head and body. The body of each shrimp was dissected for intestine, whereas the head of each shrimp was further divided longitudinally into two parts: stomach and hepatopancreas. Separate histological embedding cassette was used for each sample. Paraffin embedding were performed as mentioned in section 3.3.2.1.

3.4.5 Sectioning

Sectioning of sample was performed as mentioned in section 3.3.2.1 with some modification. The thickness of each sample was 5 μ m and all samples were kept in slide boxes at room temperature until use.

3.4.6 Staining

The staining method was modified from Bell and Lightner [306] using hematoxylin and eosin dry [307]. Staining methodology is shown as Figure 3.1.

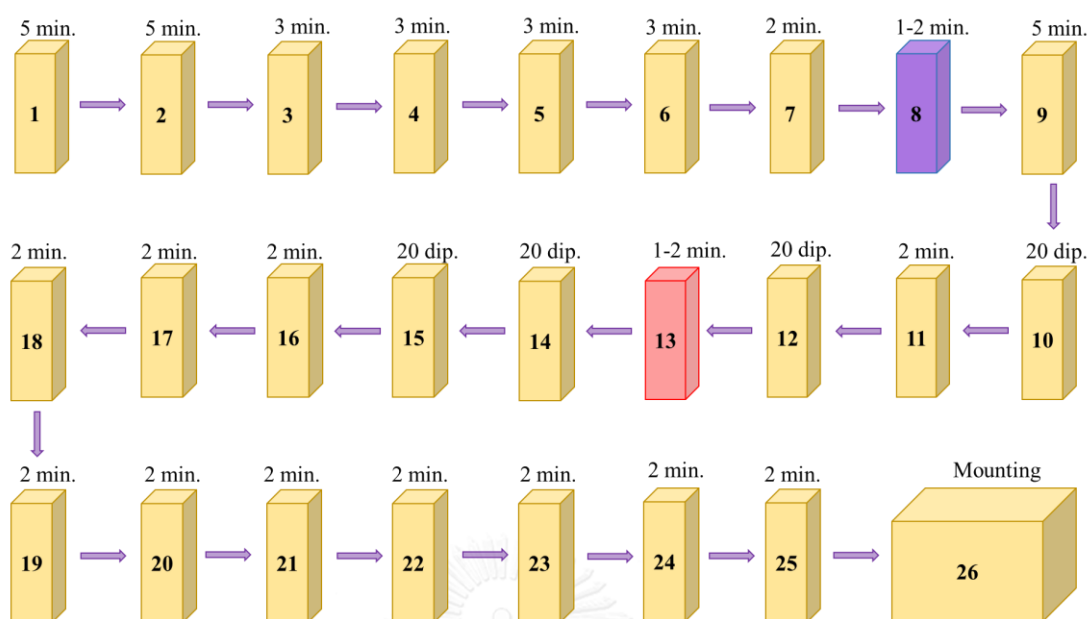


Figure 3.1 The diagram of staining using hematoxylin and eosin dry. 1. toluene I, 2. toluene II, 3. absolute ethanol I, 4. absolute ethanol II, 5. 95% ethanol, 6. 70% ethanol, 7. slowly dripping tap water, 8. PATH.1 modified hematoxylin solution (C.V. Laboratories co., ltd., Bangkok, Thailand), 9. slowly dripping tap water, 10. Bluing solution (C.V. Laboratories co., ltd.), 11. slowly dripping tap water, 12. 95% ethanol, 13. PATH.2 eosin solution (C.V. Laboratories co., ltd.), 14. 95% ethanol I, 15. 95% ethanol II, 16. absolute ethanol I, 17. absolute ethanol II, 18. absolute ethanol:toluene (1:1), 19. toluene I, 20. toluene II, 21. histosove I, 22. histosove II, 23. toluene I, 24. toluene II, 25. toluene III and 26. Mounting media

3.5 Differentially Expressed Genes (DEGs) Libraries of Control and Challenge Stomach

In this study, differential gene expression libraries was constructed with 2 techniques: suppressive subtractive hybridization (SSH) and ion torrent sequencing.

3.5.1 Construction of suppressive subtractive hybridization (SSH) stomach cDNA libraries

Base on the histopathology of AHPND/EMS results, the experiment was performed as mentioned in section 3.4.3 and shrimp were collected at 6 hours. Two groups of shrimp in this experiment control and challenged were assigned as driver and

tester for SSH, respectively. Seven shrimp from each group were collected to carry out each SSH stomach cDNA libraries. SSH cDNA libraries were performed using the PCR-select cDNA subtraction kit (Clontech, Heidelberg, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instruction.

3.5.1.1 Total RNA extraction

Total RNA were extracted using TriPure isolation reagent (Roche, IN, USA) according to the instruction of the manufacturer with some modification. Briefly, the frozen stomach was immediately placed in mortar containing liquid nitrogen and ground to a fine powder. The fine tissue was homogenized in 1 ml TriPure isolation reagent for 5 minutes at room temperature to dissociate nucleoprotein complexes, then the homogenized solution was centrifuged at 12,000xg for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatant was transferred to a new microcentrifuge tube and 200 µl chloroform were added then vigorously mixed by vortexing for at least 15 seconds and incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes. After incubation, the mixture was centrifuged at 12,000xg for 15 minutes at 4 °C. The mixture was separated into the red lower phenol-chloroform phase, the interphase, and the colorless upper aqueous phase. The colorless aqueous phase containing total RNA was carefully transferred to a new microcentrifuge tube and precipitated by an addition of 0.5 ml of isopropanol. The solution was thoroughly mixed and incubated at -20 °C for at least 30 minutes. After incubation, the sample was centrifuged at 12,000xg for 10 minutes at 4 °C, the pellet was washed with 1 ml of 75% ethanol. The RNA pellet was air-dried and dissolved with an appropriate amount of diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC)-treated H₂O for being immediately used. Alternatively, the RNA pellet was kept in absolute ethanol at -80 °C until used.

3.5.1.2 Poly(A)⁺ RNA purification

Poly(A)⁺ RNA was purified using a QuickPrep micro mRNA Purification Kit (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) according to the manufacturer's instruction with some modification. Briefly, a 500 µg/25 µl of total stomach RNA was thoroughly mixed with 200 µl extraction buffer, and then 400 µl elution buffer were added. At the same time, 500 µl elution buffer were incubated at 65 °C for elution step, and 1 ml oligo(dT)-cellulose solution was pipeted into the

microcentrifuge tube. To collect the oligo(dT)-cellulose pellet, the solution was centrifuged at 16,000xg for 1 minute then the supernatant was removed. The homogenized RNA was transferred into the microcentrifuge tube containing the oligo(dT)-cellulose pellet, gently mixed by inversion and incubated at room temperature for 3 minutes. The mixture was centrifuged at 16,000xg for 10 seconds at room temperature and the supernatant was carefully removed. The pellet was washed five times with 1 ml high salt buffer by centrifugation at 16,000xg for 10 seconds at room temperature followed by washing twice with 1 ml low salt buffer by centrifugation at 16,000xg for 10 seconds at room temperature. Eventually, a 300 μ l low salt buffer was added to the oligo(dT)-cellulose pellet and thoroughly mixed by pipetting. The slurry was transferred into a Micro Spin Column placed in a microcentrifuge tube, centrifuged at 16,000xg for 5 seconds then the flow-through solution was discarded. A 500 μ l low salt buffer was washed the MicroSpin Column twice by centrifugation at 16,000xg for 5 seconds then the column was centrifuged at 16,000xg for 10 seconds at room temperature to dry. A 200 μ l prewarmed elution buffer (65 °C) was pipetted to the top of column and centrifuged at 16,000xg for 5 seconds and the elution step was repeated to elute poly(A)⁺ RNA. A 400 μ l poly(A)⁺ RNA solution was precipitated by an addition of 10 μ l glycogen solution, 40 μ l potassium acetate solution and 1 ml absolute alcohol then the solution was incubated at -80 °C for 30 minutes. To collect the poly(A)⁺ RNA precipitation, the incubated solution was centrifuged at 12,000xg for 10 minutes at 4 °C, and the pellet was washed with 1 ml of 75% ethanol. The poly(A)⁺ RNA pellet was air-dried and dissolved with an appropriate amount of diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC)-treated H₂O for being immediately used. Alternatively, the pellet was kept in absolute ethanol at -80 °C until used.

3.5.1.3 First strand cDNA synthesis

A 2 μ g poly(A)⁺ RNA from was synthesized to the first-stand cDNA with 1 μ l of 10 μ M cDNA synthesis primer (oligo primer) and then incubated at 70 °C for 2 minutes. The reaction was immediately chilled on ice for 2 minutes and briefly spun. After that, the composition of the first strand cDNA synthesis (Table 3.4) was added, gently mixed and briefly spun. The mixture was incubated at 42 °C for 1.5 hours.

After incubation, the reaction was stopped by placing on ice, then the second strand was processed immediately.

Table 3.4 The reagent of the first strand cDNA synthesis

Reaction component	per rxn
Sterile H ₂ O	1.0 µl
5X first-strand Buffer	2.0 µl
dNTPs mix (10 mM each)	1.0 µl
DTT (20 mM)	1.0 µl
SMARTScribe reverse transcriptase (100 U/µl)	1.0 µl
Total volume	6.0 µl

3.5.1.4 Second strand cDNA synthesis

After the first strand cDNA synthesis, the second strand component (Table 3.5) was immediately added into the completed first strand cDNA tubes. The reaction was gently mixed and briefly spun and further incubated at 16 °C for 2 hours in a thermal cycler. After incubation, a 2 µl (6 U) of T4 DNA Polymerase was carefully added, gently mixed and briefly spun. The mixture was continually incubated at 16°C for 30 minutes. To terminate second-strand synthesis, a 4 µl of 20X EDTA/Glycogen and a 100 µl of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) were added, and then thoroughly mixed by vortexing. The mixture was centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature. The supernatant was carefully transferred to the new microcentrifuge tube. This step was repeated with 100 µl of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1). The double strand (ds) cDNA was preprecipitated with 40 µl of 4 M NH₄OAc and 300 µl of 100% ethanol. The cDNA pellet was collected by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 10 minutes and washed with 70% ethanol. The supernatant was carefully removed and the cDNA pellet was dried at room temperature for 10 minutes. The pellet was dissolved in 50 µl of sterile H₂O and a 6 µl of cDNA solution was collected to check the quality of ds cDNA products by agarose gel electrophoresis. A 44 µl of ds cDNA solution was continually digested in next step.

Table 3.5 The reagent of the second strand cDNA synthesis

Reaction component	per rxn
Sterile H ₂ O	48.4 µl
5X second-strand buffer	16.0 µl
dNTPs mix (10 mM each)	1.6 µl
20X second-strand enzyme cocktail	4.0 µl
Total volume	70.0 µl

3.5.1.5 *Rsa* I Digestion

The ds cDNA tester and driver were digested with *Rsa* I restriction enzyme to generate shorter, blunt-ended ds cDNA fragments which are optimal for subtraction and required for adaptor ligation. The reaction consisted of 43.5 µl ds cDNA, 1X *Rsa* I restriction buffer and 15 U *Rsa* I, then thoroughly mixed by vortexing and briefly spun. The mixture was incubated at 37 °C for 1.5 hour, and then the reaction was terminated with 2.5 µl of 20X EDTA/Glycogen. *Rsa* I-digested cDNA was isolated and precipitated as described above. The pellet was dissolved in 5.5 µl of sterile H₂O and stored at -20 °C. This *Rsa* I-digested cDNA was served as the experimental driver cDNA of each libraries, while *Rsa* I-digested cDNA was continually ligated with adapters to create the experimental tester cDNA. A 1 µl of *Rsa* I-digested cDNA and a 2.5 µl of undigested cDNA were determined by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis.

3.5.1.6 Experimental tester cDNA preparation

A 1 µl of each *Rsa* I-digested cDNA (challenge and control) was diluted into a 5 µl of sterile H₂O. To ligate each adaptor, the master mix was prepared including 1X ligation buffer, 400 U of T4 DNA ligase, and then each reaction was prepared following Table 3.6 in the new microcentrifuge tube, a 2 µl of tester 1-1 and tester 1-2, and a 2 µl of tester 2-1 and tester 2-2 were mixed to generate unsubtracted tester control 1-c and 2-c, respectively. All reactions were incubated at 16 °C overnight, added 1 µl of the EDTA/glycogen and heated at 72°C for 5 minutes to inactivate the

ligase activity. The ligation efficiency was determined by PCR using PCR primer 1, elongation factor 1 α (EF1 α) forward and reverse primer (Table 3.7).

Table 3.6 Ligation reactions of the tester cDNA of forward (tester 1-1 and 1-2) and reverse (tester 2-1 and 2-2) subtraction libraries

Component	cDNA for forward library		cDNA for reverse library	
	Tube 1	Tube 2	Tube 3	Tube 4
	Tester 1-1	Tester 1-2	Tester 2-1	Tester 2-2
	(μ l)	(μ l)	(μ l)	(μ l)
Diluted <i>Rsa</i> I-digested cDNA	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Adaptor 1 (10 μ M)	2.0	-	2.0	-
Adaptor 2R (10 μ M)	-	2.0	-	2.0
Master Mix	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
Final volume	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0

Table 3.7 Sequences of the PCR select cDNA synthesis primer, adaptors and PCR primers and control primers

Primer/Adaptor	Sequence
cDNA synthesis primer	5'- TTTTGTACAAGCTT ₃₀ N ₁ N -3'
Adaptor 1	5'- CTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCTCGAGCGGCCCGCCCGGGCAGGT -3' 3'- GGCCCGTCCA -5'
Adaptor 2R	5'-CTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCAGCGTGGTCGCGGCCGAGGT-3' 3'-GCCGGCTCCA-5'
PCR primer 1	5'- CTAATACGA CTCCATATAGGGC -3'
Nested PCR primer 1	5'- TCGAGCGGCCCGCCCGGGCAGGT -3'
Nested PCR primer 2R	5'- AGCGTGGTCGCGGCCGAGGT -3'
EF1 α F	5'- ATGGTTGTCAACTTTGCCCC -3'
EF1 α R	5'- TTGACCTCCTTGATCACACC -3'

3.5.1.7 First Hybridization

For first hybridization, each of experimental subtraction was prepared following Table 3.8 in the PCR tube. The reactions were mixed thoroughly and spun briefly, and then the reactions were initially incubated at 98 °C for 1.5 minutes following by 68 °C for 10 hours in a thermal cycler. After finished first hybridization, the second hybridization was proceed immediately.

Table 3.8 Compositions of the first hybridization reaction of each subtraction

Component	cDNA for a forward library		cDNA for a reverse library	
	Tube 1	Tube 2	Tube 3	Tube 4
	Tester 1-1*	Tester 1-2*	Tester 2-1*	Tester 2-2*
	(μ l)	(μ l)	(μ l)	(μ l)
<i>Rsa</i> I-digested Driver cDNA	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Adaptor 1-ligated Tester 1-1	1.5	-	-	-
Adaptor 2R- ligated Tester 1-2	-	1.5	-	-
Adaptor 1- ligated Tester 2-1	-	-	1.5	-
Adaptor 2R- ligated Tester 2-2	-	-	-	1.5
4x Hybridization Buffer	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Final volume	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

3.5.1.8 Second Hybridization

For second hybridization, the driver cDNA was separately prepared. A 1 μ l *Rsa* I -digested diver cDNA was mixed with 1 μ l of 4X hybridization buffer and 2 μ l of sterile H₂O, and then the mixture was incubated at 98 °C for 1.5 minute. The two samples from the first hybridization of each library and the fresh denatured driver cDNA were carefully mixed and briefly spun, then the reactions were incubated at 68 °C overnight. Finally, a 200 μ l dilution buffer was added to succesefully subtracted cDNA and mixed by pipetting. The reaction was continually incubated at 68°C for

7 minutes in a thermal cycler. The diluted subtracted cDNA was stored at -20 °C or continued to amplify by PCR.

3.5.1.9 Primary and secondary PCR amplification

A 1 µl of each diluted subtracted cDNA samples or unsubtracted cDNA control was amplified as template for the primary PCR amplification. The reaction was performed in 25 µl consisting of 1X Advantage[®] 2 PCR buffer (40 mM Tricine-KOH, 15 mM KOAc, 3.5 mM Mg(OAc)₂, 3.75 µg/ml BSA, 0.005 % Tween 20, and 0.005% Nonidet-P40), 0.2 mM dNTPs, 400 nM PCR primer I, 1X advantage[®] 2 polymerase mix (Clontech), and cDNA template. The PCR cycle parameters were 25 seconds initial denaturation at 94 °C, 35 cycles of 10 seconds at 94 °C, 30 seconds at 66 °C, 1.5 minutes at 72 °C on a thermal cycler. A 5 µl of each primary PCR product was analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis, and then 3 µl of each primary PCR product were diluted with 27 µl of sterile H₂O to amplify the secondary PCR amplification.

The secondary PCR amplification was performed in 25 µl consisting of 1X Advantage[®] 2 PCR buffer, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 200 nM nested PCR primer I, 200 nM nested PCR primer 2R, 1X advantage[®] 2 polymerase mix, and 1 µl diluted primary PCR product. The PCR cycle parameters were 15 cycles of 10 seconds at 94 °C, 30 seconds at 68 °C, 1.5 minutes at 72 °C on a thermal cycler. A 5 µl of each primary PCR product was analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis. The secondary PCR products were stored at -20 °C for further analysis.

3.5.1.10 PCR cloning

The PCR cloning was performed as mentioned in section 3.3.4.4-3.3.4.9 with some modification. Briefly, the secondary PCR products were purified using illustra GFX PCR DNA and gel band purification kit, and then the purified products were ligated to pGEM[®]-T Easy vector in total volume 20 µl. The ligation products were transformed to *E. coli* JM109. The white colonies were amplified to select the positive clone.

3.5.1.11 Colony PCR digestion

The PCR products of colony PCR were digested with *Bsu* RI (*Hea* III) restriction enzyme to select out the repeated clone. The reaction was performed in

10 μ l consisting of 1X buffer R (1 mM Tris-HCl, pH8.5, 1 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM KCl, 0.01mg/ml BSA), 1 U *Bsu*RI restriction enzyme (Fermentas), and 5 μ l colony PCR product. The mixtures were incubated at 37 °C overnight, then the digested products were analyzed by 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis. The patterns of each digestion were shown the different or similar product. All different and 2-3 similar products of clones were selected to culture for plasmid DNA extraction.

3.5.1.12 Recombinant plasmid DNA extraction

The recombinant plasmid DNA extraction was performed as mentioned in section 3.3.4.9. Additionally, the recombinant plasmid DNA was digested with *Eco*RI (Promega) to confirm size selection. The reaction were performed in 12 μ l consisting of 1X buffer H (90 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl₂, 50 mM NaCl), 0.1 mg/ml BSA, 1 U *Eco*RI restriction enzyme (Promega), and 1 μ l recombinant plasmid DNA. The reactions were thoroughly mixed and incubated at 37 °C overnight. The digested products were analyzed by 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis.

3.5.1.13 Sequencing and data analysis

The recombinant plasmids were diluted to 100 ng/ μ l in total volume 20 μ l and were submitted for sequencing at Macrogen (Korea). Vector and adaptor sequence were removed from raw sequences. The sequences, which were less than 100 bp. in length were discarded from analysis. All sequences were assembled by CAP3, a DNA sequence assembly program [308]. The contig and singleton were searched in the GenBank database using BlastX in National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) and the Uniprot Knowledgebase (UniProtKB) for functional information. Similarity with known transcripts was considered significant when the probability (E) value is $<10^{-3}$. Blast2Go program was used to identify Gene Ontology (GO) and KEGG enzymatic pathway. GO annotation was determined using the default parameters. Additionally, InterProScan and Annex were also considered functional annotation to improve the annotation result. The function was classified into 3 terms including: biological process, molecular function, and cellular component at level 2nd.

3.5.1.14 The PCR primer for validation of SSH stomach cDNA libraries

Quantitative real-time PCR primers were designed from 9 genes of each library and housekeeping gene (EF1 α) was used as an internal control (Table 3.9). The primer premier 5 program and primer 3 online program [309,310] were used to design primer. The appropriated primer was choosen based on following parameter: 1) GC content about 50-60%, 2) the length of primer: 18-22 bp., 3) melting temperature around 58-62 °C, 4) max 3' self complementary: 1, 5) max poly-x: 3 6) the length of product:100-250 bp. Each pair of forward and reverse primers had closely similar Tm values and they were checked for minimal hairpin self-dimer and hetero-dimer formation.

Table 3.9 List of quantitative real-time PCR primers for validating SSH libralies

Gene description	Primer sequence (5'-3')	PCR product size (bp)
Foreward library		
Cuticle protein AMP1B	F: CTCCGAGGGTCAGAGCAACA R: GAGGAAGGCTGGTAACCGAAC	108
Clottable protein	F: GAAAGGTAGCGTGGCTCTCG R: ACTTCGCAGGGATAGTTGGTCT	270
Salivary alkaline phosphatase	F: CACAGGAGAAAGAAGCCGATTA R: GCCCACCGTGATACCCAGT	137
Ig-like and fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein (predicted protein)	F: TACGCCGACAATGGCTACG R: TCTCCACCACACGAGTGAAGG	168
DD9A	F: TGCCTTTGCCTTCCCTCAG R: GTCGGTAACCTGCTTCGTCG	239
Pacifastin heavy chain precursor	F: CCGCCTTCTGAGTGAGGTCTA R: GTCTTCCCGATGCCTGTGTG	147
Cathepsin B	F: CAGCAAGGGCAAGAGCAACT R: CGAGCCTCCTGATACAATACCA	142
C-type lectin	F: CGCCGCTAACAGTTATGCTC R: ACCCGTTGCCTCCAGTGTG	212
Spz1	F: ATGGTAAGCAAGGAGCAGGA R: CAGCCTCTGGGAACAGACA	244
Reverse library		
GPx isotype 2	F: AACCAGTTCGGGAAGCAAGA R: CTCGTCCACCCCATTCACAT	135

Table 3.9 Cont.

Gene description	Primer sequence (5'-3')	PCR product size (bp)
Reverse library (cont.)		
Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b	F: GACGACCTCTTTCACTGGCAA R: GCTGGACTCCATTGGGTTCTAA	206
Fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein (predicted protein)	F: GGACCCTGAGTCTGACTTGAC R: GGATGTAGCTGCTGGAGAGG	217
I-connectin	F: AGCACATCTGTTGTCCCTCA R: TGGTGCTTTGAGTTATTTCCA	154
Chondroitin proteoglycan2	F: TGATGCTGACTGCCAGATTCC R: GGTTGAACACAAGCCCTTCG	182
Peroxiredoxin	F: GATCCCTCTTCTGGCTGACAA R: TCTACATCACGCCCAACTGG	159
Ferritin	F: TGGAGAAGCAGGTCAATCAG R: AGCACGCTTCAGCTTGGTAA	158
Astakine variant1	F: CAGAATGTTGTCAGTGGCTTGC R: CATTCCGTGGTAAGAGTCCGT	250
Dicer 2	F: GGACTCGATCAAACCAGTGA R: GGTCAGAGGGTATGCCATAAAG	110
EF1 α [311]	F: TCCGTCTTCCCCTTCAGGACGTC R:CTTTACAGACACGTTCTTCACGTTG	218

3.5.1.15 Sample collection

The experiment was performed as mention in section 3.4.3 and the stomach of three shrimp were collected at 6 hours. All samples were stored at -80 °C until use.

3.5.1.16 Total RNA extraction

Total RNA was extracted as mentioned in session 3.5.1.1.

3.5.1.17 The elimination of DNA from total RNA

DNA contamination in total RNA samples was removed by treating 15 μ g of total RNA with 7.5 U of RQ1 RNase-free DNase (Promega) in total volume 50 μ l at 37 °C for 30 minutes. After incubation, a 50 μ l DEPC and 100 μ l TriPure was added, thoroughly mixed by votexing, and incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes. Next step was the same as a total RNA extraction, but 0.1 volume of 3 M sodium acetate (Na₂C₂H₃O₂) was added to complete precipitation.

3.5.1.18 First strand synthesis

The first strand cDNA was synthesized from 1.5 µg of DNA-free RNA using an ImPromII™ Reverse Transcription System Kit (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instruction. DNA-free RNA was combined with 0.5 µg of oligo (dT₁₅) and DEPC-treated H₂O in a final volume of 5 µl. The reaction was incubated at 70 °C for 5 minutes and immediately chilled on an ice, and then the reverse transcription reaction mixture (1X reaction buffer, 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.8 mM dNTP Mix, 20 U Recombinant RNasin® Ribonuclease Inhibitor and 1 µl of ImProm-II™ Reverse Transcriptase) was added and gently mixed. The reaction was incubated at 25 °C for 5 minutes and 42 °C for 90 minutes. The transcriptase activity was terminated by incubating at 70 °C for 15 minutes. The first strand cDNA was stored at -20 °C until used.

3.5.1.19 External standard curve preparation and amplification

The external standard curves were prepared as mentioned in session 3.3.4.3 and 3.3.4.4. The cDNA template concentration, primer concentration and annealing temperature of each gene were shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 The conditions of real-time PCR reaction for validating SSH libraries

Gene homology	cDNA template concentration (ng)	Primer concentration (µM)	Ta (°C)
Cuticle protein AMP1B	100	0.1	58
Clottable protein	100	0.3	58
Salivary alkaline phosphatase	500	0.3	56
Ig-like and fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein (predicted protein)	500	0.1	58
DD9A	100	0.2	60
Pacifastin heavy chain precursor	500	0.2	58
Cathepsin B	100	0.3	60
MBP	500	0.2	62
Spz1	500	0.1	62
GPx isotype 2	400	0.3	56
Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b	400	0.3	58
Fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein	400	0.3	58
I-connectin	400	0.3	60

Table 3.10 Cont.

Gene homology	cDNA template concentration (ng)	Primer concentration (μ M)	Ta ($^{\circ}$ C)
Chondroitin proteoglycan2	100	0.2	60
Peroxiredoxin	200	0.3	61
Ferritin	100	0.3	60
Astakine variant1	500	0.3	61
Dicer 2	500	0.3	61
EF1 α	1.25	0.3	58

3.5.1.20 Data analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using independent sample *t*-test (two-tail) with SPSS 13.0 software for windows. Differential expression was examined statistically significant at P -value <0.05 . Data were expressed as mean \pm SEM.

3.5.2 Construction of transcriptome of differentially expressed genes of stomach cDNA libraries by ion torrent sequencing

3.5.2.1 Total RNA extraction

Total RNA extraction was performed as mentioned in section 3.5.1.1.

3.5.2.2 DNase treatment and Ion torrent sequencing

Total RNA were delivered to Genomic Research Laboratory, National Center for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology to treat DNase, purify mRNA, construct cDNA and sequence. Firstly, total RNA were treated with Dnase to remove genomic DNA using the Ambion[®] DNA-free[™] DNase Treatment and Removal Reagents (Life Technologies[™]). Secondly, mRNA were purified from DNA-free RNA using Absolutely mRNA Purification Kit (Agilent Technologies), and then cDNA libraries were constructed using Ion Total RNA-Seq Kit v.2 (Ion Torrent by Life Technologies[™]). Finally, cDNA libraries were sequenced using Ion Proton[™] Semiconductor Sequencer (Ion Torrent by Lift Technologies[™]).

3.5.2.3 *De novo* assembly and functional annotation

To assembly sequencing reads, CLC Genomics Workbench software (version 4.8.1) was used following the user manual. The raw reads with quality score limited to 0.05 and maximum number of ambiguities greater at 2 were trimmed. The adaptor sequences (primer A: CCATCTCATCCCTGCGTGTCTCCGACTCAG and primer P1: CCTCTCTATGGGCAGTCGGTGAT) were then cut from raw sequences. Finally, the raw reads length shorter than 30 bp were discarded.

The clean reads were assembled by *de novo* assembly. This assembly was performed by various de Bruijn graph assemblers to obtain the best assembly results.

3.5.2.4 Identification of different gene expression

All contigs from *de novo* assembly were analyzed for differential expression using Gene Expression Analysis modules of the CLC Genomics Workbench package (version 4.8.1). Transformation, normalization and statistical analysis had been performed. For analysis level, all parameters including *t*-test between control and challenge (original values), baggerley's test between control and challenge (original and normalized values), difference, fold change, test statistic, *p*-value, bonferroni, FDR-*p*-value correction, weighted proportion difference and weighted proportion fold change were set. The proportion-based test was used to identify the differential expressed genes between control and challenged shrimp with *p*-value < 0.05. In addition, the fold change values of transcripts were larger than 1.5 that express as differentially expressed genes.

3.5.2.5 The PCR primer for validation of stomach cDNA libraly

Relative real-time PCR primer pairs were designed as mentioned in section 3.5.1.14 The primer pairs of each gene were shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11 List of quantitative real-time PCR primers for validating transcriptome

Gene description	Primer sequence (5'-3')	PCR product size (bp)
Antilipopolysaccharide factor isoform 3	F: GCGACGAGGCTAACAGGATT R: ACCACTCCCGACCTGCTTC	179
Crustin 3	F: TGGAGTGGCGTGAGGAGTT R: TCTTCCCAGTACACTGCCAG	238
Calnexin	F: CTGTTGTCACGGAAGAGCAA R: AGCAGGTTCTACTGCCAAA	212
Prophenoloxidase-activating enzyme 2a	F: TCTTCCTGTCTCCCAACGCA R: TCAAGTTAGAGGTCTGTCCGCA	204
Masquerade-like serine proteinase-like protein 3	F: AGTCAACGTCACCACAACCA R: AACTCGCCGAAGTACTCTC	156
Serine proteinase inhibitor 6	F: TTCACTCGGAGGTGGATAGG R: CTCTGGGAAGGTGTTGGAAG	209
Single whey acidic protein domain-containing protein isoform 1	F: ATCTTCTCCATCTGCGTCGTG R: AACACAGCCAGGCACTCA	108
Alpha2 macroglobulin isoform 2	F: TGAGAATCTTGGCTCCCTTG R: TCATCATGGCGATAGCGTAG	189
Defender against apoptotic death	F: CCTTCAACTCCTTCCTGTCTGG R: GATGAAATCAGCAAAGCCTCG	140
Fibrinogen C domain-containing protein 1-B	F: GAGGGCGTGGAGGTATGGT R: GCTGGATGACTGTAGGCGACT	249
Clottable protein	F: TGTCAGCAGCAATGTCAAGGA R: TCCAGGTGGCAGTGATGTGA	131
Peroxinectin	F: CAAGCTCTCGAAGGATCAGG R: GGAGGATACGCTGAACTGGA	194
Protein toll	F: CCATCACCCATCATCGTCTTC R: GTCACGAACACCTCGTCCTT	160
Cactus protein	F: TCGGGTTTCTGTCTGGTTC R: CGTTTTTCGGCGTATCTGA	250
IMD	F: CAGCAGCTGGAAGAGTCTGG R: GAGTCTGGCCACAGTAGCATC	154
Relish	F: AGCTACAGCAGCAGCAACAA R: AAGCAGCTAGGCAGGTCAAA	226
Cytokine receptor	F: AGCTTGAGTGGCTTGTGGTT R: TTGGGTCAGTTTCTGTGTG	195
Mitogen-activated protein-binding protein-interacting protein	F: CCACGGACCCTTACCCAGA R: CCTTCCTCGCATTCCATCAG	227
Lipoprotein receptor	F: TTCCCAGCAACTTGACCTTC R: TGCTTGAATGATGTGGCTGT	164

Table 3.11 Cont.

Gene description	Primer sequence (5'-3')	PCR product size (bp)
Galectin	F: TCTGAACAAGGCCCTGGGT R: CATGATGGAAGCCTTTGTGC	149
Single VWC domain protein 3	F: TACCCTGGAAGGTGCTTTGT R: GCAACTATCAGACGGGATGG	161
EF1 α	F: TCCGTCTTCCCCTTCAGGACGTC R:CTTTACAGACACGTTCTTCACGTTG	218

3.5.2.6 Sample collection

The experiment was performed as mentioned in section 3.4.3 and the stomach of five shrimp of control and challenged group were collected at 6 hours. All samples were stored at -80 °C until use.

3.5.2.7 cDNA preparation

Total RNA was extracted as mentioned in section 3.5.1.1. Next, the contaminated genomic DNA was eliminated as mentioned in section 3.5.1.17. Finally, cDNA was synthesized as mentioned in section 3.5.1.18.

3.5.2.8 Relative real-time PCR

All real-time PCR reactions were carried out in a 96 well plate and each sample was amplified in duplicate using a LightCycler[®] 480 II system (Roche). LightCycler[®] 480 SYBR Green I Master (Roche), 0.1-0.3 μ M primer concentration (Table 3.12) and 250 ng/ μ l of each cDNA were used for real-time PCR amplification. The thermal profile for real-time PCR was 95 °C for 10 minutes followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 seconds, 58-62 °C (Table 3.12) for 30 seconds and 72 °C for 30 seconds. Additionally, the melting-curve was produced by increasing the temperature from 65 to 98 °C. Finally, all reactions were cooled down at 40 °C for 30 seconds. A no template was run on all genes.

Table 3.12 The conditions of real-time PCR reaction for validating transcriptome

Gene description	Primer concentration (μM)	Ta ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
Antilipoplysaccharide factor isoform 3	0.1	62
Crustin 3	0.3	60
Calnexin	0.2	62
Prophenoloxidase-activating enzyme 2a	0.3	62
Masquerade-like serine proteinase-like protein 3	0.3	62
Serine proteinase inhibitor 6	0.1	62
Single whey acidic protein domain-containing protein isoform 1	0.2	62
Alpha2 macroglobulin isoform 2	0.3	60
Defender against apoptotic death	0.1	58
Fibrinogen C domain-containing protein 1-B	0.1	62
Clottable protein	0.1	60
Peroxinectin	0.1	62
Protein toll	0.3	62
Cactus protein	0.3	62
IMD	0.1	60
Relish	0.1	58
Cytokine receptor	0.3	60
Mitogen-activated protein-binding protein-interacting protein	0.3	60
Lipoprotein receptor	0.3	60
Laminin receptor	0.3	60
Galectin	0.1	62
Single VWC domain protein 3	0.1	62
EF1 α	0.3	60

3.5.2.9 Data analysis

The relative quantification and the mathematical model described by Livak and Schmittgen [312] was used to determine the relative expression. The change in gene expression was measured based on a calibrator which is the EF1 α gene. Both target gene and calibrator are amplified in separate tubes so C_T values were averaged before performing the ΔC_T calculation. The data were analyzed using this equation (The C_P data from LightCycler[®] 480 II system are the same as C_T data from this equation). Data were expressed as mean \pm SEM.

$$\text{Amount of target} = 2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$$

$$\text{Where } \Delta\Delta C_T = (C_{T,\text{Target}} - C_{T,\text{Cal.}})_{\text{Time } x} - (C_{T,\text{Target}} - C_{T,\text{Cal.}})_{\text{Time } 0}$$

Time x is any time point

Time 0 is the 1x expression

$C_{T,\text{Target}}$ is C_T value of target gene

$C_{T,\text{Cal.}}$ is C_T value of caribrator

3.6 Characterization of the Full Length cDNA of C-type Lectin

A partial cDNA sequence of C-type lectin was received from *P. monodon* EST database (Contig no. SG7730). The full length cDNA of C-type lectin was successfully constructed using a SMART™ RACE cDNA Amplification Kit (Clontech).

3.6.1 3' and 5'-RACE-ready cDNA preparation

To generate 3' and 5'-RACE-ready cDNA for rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) PCR, total RNA were extracted from hepatopancreas of juvenile *P. monodon* using TriPure isolation reagent (Roche) as mentioned in section 3.5.1.1, after that poly(A)⁺ RNA was purified using a QuickPrep micro mRNA Purification Kit (GE Healthcare) as mentioned in section 3.5.1.2. A 1 µg of poly(A)⁺ RNA was combined with 3'-CDS primer A for 3' RACE-ready cDNA, while with 5'-CDS primer and BD SMART II A oligo (Table 3.13) for 5'-RACE-ready cDNA in a final volume of 5 µl, mixed thoroughly, and spun briefly. The mixture was incubated at 70°C for 2 minutes, immediately cooled on ice for 2 minutes and spun briefly. After incubation, a 5 µl synthesized reaction mixture consisting of 1X first-strand buffer, 2 mM DTT, 1 mM dNTP mix and PowerScript™ Reverse Transcriptase were added, gently mixed by pipetting, and spun briefly. The reactions were incubated at 42°C for 1.5 hours in a thermal cycler then diluted with 125 µl of TE buffer. The reactions were finally incubated at 72°C for 7 minutes. The 3' and 5'-RACE-ready cDNA was stored at -20°C.

3.6.2 Primer design

Gene-specific primer (GSP) was designed using primer premier 5 program from a partial cDNA sequence of C-type lectin. The appropriated primer was chosen based on following parameter: 1) GC content about 50-70%, 2) the length of primer: 23-28 bp., 3) melting temperature around 65-75 °C. The sense primer (RACECrF1:5'-TTGATTCCTCGGAGCAGTTGGCAGC-3') for 3'-RACE PCR and anti-sense (RACECrR1:5'-GCCAACTGCTCCGAGGAATCAAAGAC-3') for 5'-RACE PCR were combined in RACE PCR reaction.

Table 3.13 Primer sequences for the first strand cDNA synthesis for RACE-PCR

Primer	Sequence
BD SMART II™ A Oligonucleotide (12 μM)	5'- AAGCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGTACGCGGG -3'
3'-RACE CDS Primer A (3'-CDS; 12 μM)	5'- AAGCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGTAC(T) ₃₀ V N -3' (N = A, C, G or T; V = A, G or C)
5'-RACE CDS Primer (5'-CDS; 12 μM)	5'- (T) ₂₅ V N -3' (N = A, C, G or T; V = A, G or C)
10X Universal Primer A Mix (UPM)	Long : 5'- CTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCAA GCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGT -3' Short : 5'- CTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGC -3'
Nested Universal Primer A (NUP; 12 μM)	5'- AAGCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGT -3'

3.6.3 Rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) PCR

RACE-PCR was carried out in total volume 25 μl consisting of 1X advantage[®] 2 PCR buffer, 1X universal primer A mix (UPM), 200 μM GSPs, 200 μM dNTP, 1X advantage[®] 2 polymerase mix and 1.25 μl cDNA templates. The PCR cycle parameters were firstly 5 cycles of 30 seconds at 94 °C and 1 minute at 72 °C, secondly 5 cycles of 30 seconds at 94 °C, 30 seconds at 70 °C and 1 minute at 72 °C, finally 25 cycles of 30 seconds at 94 °C, 30 seconds at 68 °C and 1 minute at 72 °C and final extension at 72 °C for 7 minutes a thermal cycler. The presence of a PCR product fragment was analyzed on a 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis

3.6.4 PCR cloning

The PCR cloning was performed as mentioned in section 3.3.4.4-3.3.4.9.

3.6.5 Sequencing and data analysis

Nucleotide sequence was searched in the GenBank database using BlastX in National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) to check the corrected gene and assembled with the partial sequence to generate the completed full length cDNA of C-type lectin. The full length cDNA was translated to protein sequence by ExPASy translate tool (<http://web.expasy.org/translate/>) and the protein sequence was analyzed by SMART (<http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/>) and Protparam (<http://www.expasy.org/tools/protparam.html>) to predict protein domain, signal peptide, internal repeat, PI and molecular weight.

3.6.6 Phylogenetic analysis

The amino acid of C-type lectin (*P. monodon*) was compared to the C-type lectin of other shrimps that were retrieved from the GenBank database. Thirty-five amino acid sequences were selected to study the evolutionary relationships of C-type lectin. Sequence alignment and phylogenetic and molecular evolutionary analyses were conducted using MEGA6 [313]. The molecular evolution was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method [314]. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1,000 replicates) are shown next to the branches [315]. In addition, the evolutionary distances were computed using the Poisson correction method [316].

3.6.7 The expression of C-type lectin transcript

3.6.7.1 Sample collection for tissue distribution

Three juvenile shrimp were dissected to collect the tissue including hemocyte, hepatopancreas, midgut, hindgut, stomach, muscle, lymphoid organ, pleopod, gill and heart. All samples were stored at -80 °C until use.

3.6.7.2 Sample collection for EMS/AHPNS challenge

The experiment was performed as mention in section 3.4.3 and the hepatopancreas of three shrimp were collected at 3, 6 and 12 hours. All samples were stored at -80 °C until use.

3.6.7.3 Total RNA preparation and first strand synthesis

Total RNA extraction, elimination of DNA from total RNA and first strand synthesis were performed as mentioned in section 3.5.1.1, 3.5.1.17 and 3.5.1.18, respectively.

3.6.7.4 Specific primer design of C-type lectin

Specific primer of C-type lectin (qPmCrF:5'-TTTGATTCCTCG GAGCAGTTG-3'; qPmCrR:5'-ATAGACGCCCGTATCGTAAGC-3') were designed from full length cDNA using the primer premier 5 program. The appropriated primer was chosen based on following parameter: 1) GC content about 50-60%, 2) the length of primer: 18-22 bp., 3) melting temperature around 58-62 °C, 4) no hairpin self-dimer and hetero-dimer formation.

3.6.7.5 Real-time PCR

The external standard curves were prepared as mentioned in section 3.3.4.3-3.3.4.10. The cDNA of each sample were diluted to 50 ng/μl and 0.625 ng/μl for C-type lectin and EF1α, respectively. Quantitative real-time PCR reaction was performed in 10 μl reaction containing 2 μl of diluted cDNA, 0.3 μl of 10 μM forward and reverse primer and 5 μl of LightCycler® 480 SYBR Green I Master. The cycles of amplification were 40 cycles.

3.6.8 *In vitro* expression of the full length cDNA of C-type lectin using bacteria system

3.6.8.1 Primer design

To produce C-type lectin recombinant protein, the nucleotide coding to signal peptide site of gene was cut off. Therefore, the primer pair was designed after signal peptide and contained *Nde*I site (underline) for forward primer (5' CATATGATAGAATGCCCTACA GG 3') , whereas reverse primer (5' CCGGGATCCTCAATGATGATGATGATGCTTCGCCCGGCACATGTA 3') was designed at nucleotides before stop codon, six histidine residues encoded nucleotides and stop codon containing *Bam*HI site (underline).

3.6.8.2 Construction of recombinant plasmid in cloning and expression vector

The full length cDNA without signal peptide of C-type lectin was amplified in total volume 25 μ l consisting of 1X reaction buffer with $MgSO_4$ (200 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.8, 100 mM KCl, 100 mM $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 20 mM $MgSO_4$, 1 mg/ml nuclease-free BSA, 1% Triton[®] X-100), 200 μ M each primer, 200 μ M dNTP, 0.5 U *Pfu* DNA polymerase (Promega) and 100 ng cDNA from hepatopancreas. The PCR cycle parameters were predenaturation at 95 °C for 2 minutes followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 30 seconds, annealing at 60 °C for 30 seconds, extension at 72 °C for 45 seconds and final extension at 72 °C for 7 minutes. The presence of a PCR product fragment was analyzed on a 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis. The PCR was purified as mentioned in section 3.3.4.4. After PCR purification, the purified PCR and pET15 that is expression vector were double digested with *Nde*I and *Bam*HI restriction enzyme in total volume 30 μ l consisting 1X buffer 3 (100 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 100 μ g/ml BSA, pH 7.9) and 20 U of each restriction enzyme. The digested products were analyzed with on a 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis and the specific band was cut from the gel and purified as mention in session 3.3.4.4. The sticky-end product and vector were ligated with T4 DNA ligase and transformed into *E. coli* JM109 to generate a massive product. The plasmid containing C-type lectin gene and pET15 was transformed into *E. coli* BL21-CodonPlus (DE3). Two positive clones were selected to protein expression.

3.6.8.3 Expression of recombinant protein

A single colony of positive clone of C-type lectin was cultured in 3 ml of LB medium containing 50 μ g/ml ampicillin and 50 μ g/ml chloramphenicol at 37°C. A 0.5% of bacterial culture was transferred to 30 ml of LB medium containing 50 μ g/ml ampicillin and 50 μ g/ml chloramphenicol, and further incubated to an OD_{600} of 0.45-0.55. The culture was induced with 1.0 mM IPTG final concentration, and then collected at 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 hours at 37°C. The culture was centrifuged at 12,000xg for 1 minute. The pellet was resuspended in 1X PBS buffer and examined by 15% SDS-PAGE.

Additionally, a 50 ml of the IPTG induced-cultured cells at 37°C for 1 hour was harvested by centrifugation 5000 rpm for 15 minutes and resuspended in the lysis buffer (0.05 M Tris-HCl; pH 7.5, 0.5 M Urea, 0.05 M NaCl, 0.05 M EDTA pH 8.0 and 1 mg/ml lysozyme). The bacterial cell wall was broken using Digital Sonifier[®] sonicator Model 250 (Branson Ultrasonics Corporation, Connecticut, USA). The suspended bacteria were sonicated 2-3 times at 10% amplitude, pulsed on for 5 seconds and pulsed off for 5 seconds in a period off 5 minutes. Soluble and insoluble portions were separated by centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 30 minutes. The protein concentration of both portions was measured using Quick Start[™] Bradford Protein Assay (Bio-Rad, CA, USA). Expression of the recombinant protein was electrophoretically analyzed by 15% SDS-PAGE.

3.6.8.4 Detection of recombinant protein by western blot analysis

The recombinant protein was analyzed in 15% SDS-PAGE and transferred to a PVDF membrane (GE Healthcare) using Protein Blotting Equipment (Bio-Rad). Then, the membrane was washed with 1X Tris-buffer saline tween-20 (TBST; 25 mM Tris-HCl, 137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl and 0.05% tween-20) for 5 minutes and blocked with 15 ml of a blocking buffer (5% BSA in 1X TBST) on shaker at room temperature overnight. The membrane was washed 3 times in 1X TBST, and incubated with diluted Mouse Anti-His antibody IgG_{2a} (GE Healthcare; 1:3,000) in the 1X TSB buffer for 1 hour. The membrane was washed 3 times with 1X TBST buffer for 15 minutes, and then incubated with diluted goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L) conjugated with alkaline phosphatase (Promega, U.S.A.; 1:7,500) in the 1X TSB buffer for 1 hour. Next, the membrane was re-washed 3 times with 1X TBST buffer for 15 minutes. To detect the immunoreactional signals, the membrane was incubated in NBT/BCIP (Roche, IN, USA) until the signal was appeared. Finally, the reaction was stop in water.

3.6.8.5 Purification of recombinant protein

Recombinant protein was purified using a His GraviTrap kit (GE Healthcare). First, a single colony of bacterial clone was cultured in 5 ml of LB medium, containing 50 µg/ml ampicillin and 50 µg/ml chloramphenical at 37°C. A 0.5% of bacterial culture was transferred to 500 ml of LB medium containing 50 µg/ml ampicillin and 50 µg/ml chloramphenical and further incubated to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.45-

0.55. And then, the culture was induced with 1.0 mM IPTG final concentration and continually cultured for 3 hours. The cultured cells were transferred to 50 ml centrifuge tube, and the tube was centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 15 minutes. The pellet cells were resuspended in 20 ml binding buffer containing 20 mM imidazole (20 mM sodium phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole, pH 7.4), and sonicated until all bacterial cells were broken. After sonication, the solution was centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 10 minutes, then the solution was transferred to the Nalgene™ Oak Ridge High-Speed centrifuge tube. The solution was centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 30 minutes to separate the soluble and insoluble fraction. The pellet was collected to continue process because C-type lectin protein was expressed in the inclusion body. The pellet was resuspended with 10 ml binding buffer containing 20 mM imidazole and 8 M urea and centrifuged at 8,000 rpm to discard the pellet. The solution was collected and loaded into the His GraviTrap column for 5-10 times, washed with 10 ml binding buffer containing 20 mM imidazole, followed by 5 ml binding buffer containing 40 mM imidazole and 80 mM imidazole. To collect the recombinant protein, a 8 ml elution buffer containing 500 mM imidazole was loaded into the column. Each fraction of the washing and eluting step was analyzed by SDS-PAGE and the purified proteins were stored -20 °C.

3.6.8.6 Polyclonal antibody production in rabbit

The purified *PmCr* protein was concentrated and loaded into 15% SDS-PAGE. The specific size of protein on gel was cut to collect the specific protein and this gel was continued to purify using Model 422 Electro-Eluter (Bio-Rad). The purified protein was sent to Faculty of Associated Medical Sciences, Changmai University to produce the polyclonal antibody in the rabbit. Western blot analysis was carried out to examine specificity and sensitivity of the antibody.

3.6.9 Tissue distribution of C-type lectin protein

3.6.9.1 Sample collection

Juvenile shrimp were dissected to collect the plasma and tissue including hemocyte, hepatopancreas, midgut, hindgut, stomach, gill, and heart. All samples were stored at -20 °C until analysis. All samples excepting plasma were ground into 1X PBS and centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 30 minutes at 4 °C. The solution was

collected and measured the concentration. All samples were analyzed by 15% SDS-PAGE and western blot analysis using polyclonal anti-body rabbit anti-C-type lectin.

3.6.9.2 Detection of C-type lectin protein

All samples in section 3.6.9.1 were loaded into 15% SDS-PAGE and transferred to a PVDF membrane. Western blot analysis was performed as mentioned in section 3.6.8.4, but the first antibody was changed to rabbit anti-C-type lectin (1:500) to detect the C-type lectin protein.

3.6.9.3 Polyclonal antibody purification

Because of the non-specificity of C-type lectin, polyclonal antibody was purified using protein A IgG purification kit (Thermoscientific, IL, USA) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Briefly, a 5 ml binding buffer was loaded into the column to equilibrate the column. Next, a 5 ml polyclonal antibody was flowed through the column, then the column was washed with 15 ml of binding buffer. Finally, the antibody was eluted from the column using the IgG elution buffer. The antibody was stored at -20 °C. Additionally, the specificity of antibody was analyzed by western blot analysis.

3.6.10 Functional analysis of C-type lectin protein

3.6.10.1 Expression of recombinant protein

The expression of recombinant protein was prepared as mentioned in section 3.6.8.3.

3.6.10.2 Recombinant protein refolding

The recombinant protein pellet was resuspended with 30 ml lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 5mM EDTA, 0.5% Triton-X 100) immediately adding 0.1 mM PMSF and 1mM DTT. The cell suspension was sonicated using Digital Sonifier[®] sonicator Model 250 until bacterial cell wall broken completely. And then, MgSO₄ and DNase were added at final concentration 10 mM and 0.001 mg/ml, respectively. The solution was incubated at room temperature for 20 minutes and centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4 °C. Next, the solution was transferred into Nalgene[™] Oak Ridge High-Speed centrifuge tube and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm

for 30 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatant was transferred to new tube and stored at -20 °C, while the pellet was washed with 30 ml washing buffer (1 M urea, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5) and centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4 °C. The pellet was dissolved with refolding buffer (8 M urea, 20 mM DTT, Tris-HCl pH 7.5) and incubated at room temperature for 60 minutes. The refolding recombinant protein solution was centrifuged at 7,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4 °C, then transferred the solution into the new tube for dialysis process. The solution protein was measured the protein concentration and diluted to 1 mg/ml for dialysis.

3.6.10.3 Dialysis

The dialysis membrane 6-8 kD (Spectra/Por[®]) was used for dialysis. The protein solution was packed into the dialysis membrane and placed into the 1,000 ml beaker containing 800 ml dialysis buffer (4 M urea, 20 mM DTT, Tris-HCl pH 7.5). The beaker was placed and stirred at 4 °C for 3 hours. After 3 hours of the first dialysis, buffer with half of the urea concentration (2 M urea) was changed and continually stirred for 3 hours. New buffer with lower urea concentration was changed every 3 hours until the concentration was reduced to 0.25 M urea. Finally, the dialysis buffer without urea was replaced and stirred at 4 °C for 3 hours. The recombinant protein was purified using a His GraviTrap kit (GE Healthcare) as described in section 3.6.8.5. Each fraction of the washing and eluting steps were analyzed by 15% SDS-PAGE and the purified proteins were stored -20 °C.

3.6.10.4 Bacterial binding

A single colony of *M. luteus* and *S. aureus* was inoculated in tryptic soy broth, while a single colony *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* was inoculated in tryptic soy broth supplemented with 2% NaCl. All samples were cultured with constant agitation and optimal temperature overnight. Bacterial cells were harvested, washed 3 times with 0.85% NaCl for *M. luteus* and *S. aureus* and 2% NaCl for *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus*. Bacterial pellet was weighed around 30-40 mg and resuspended 200 µl 0.85% or 2% NaCl. A 5 µg of C-type lectin recombinant protein and 5 mM CaCl₂ were added into suspended bacteria and incubated at room temperature for 1 hour. All samples were centrifuged at 3,500 rpm for 10 minutes at 4 °C and the supernatant (no binding) was collected. The pellet was washed 3 times with 1 ml 0.85% or 2% NaCl by

centrifugation at 3,500 rpm for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The protein binding to bacteria was eluted with final concentration 0.8 M urea in Tris-HCl pH 7.5 and incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature. The protein solution was collected by centrifugation at 3,500 rpm for 10 minutes at 4 °C and precipitated with 2 volume of acetone at -20 °C for 2 hours. After incubation, the solution was centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 30 minutes at 4 °C, then the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was dried at room temperature. The pellet was resuspended with 4 M urea in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5. The supernatant (no binding) and protein binding to bacteria were analyzed by 15% SDS-PAGE and western blot analysis using C-type lectin antibody.



CHAPTER IV

RESULT

4.1 Characterization of Pathogenic and Non-pathogenic Bacteria

Four species of bacteria including *V. harveyi* 1526 [286], *V. parahaemolyticus* isolated from wounded *P. monodon*, *Vibrio* B4-24, closely related to *V. sagamiensis* based on 16S rDNA and isolated from intestines of broodstock shrimp, and *M. luteus* MI 11 [287] were tested for their pathogenicity to shrimp. The result could be divided into 2 groups. Firstly, non-pathogenic isolates including B4-24 and *M. luteus* showed the shrimps did not die within one week. Another group is pathogenic isolates, which includes *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* to show the shrimps were died within three days.

4.2 Study of the Morphological Digestive Tract of Infected and Uninfected Shrimp (*P. monodon*)

4.2.1 General features of shrimp gastrointestinal tract

The GI tract of *P. monodon* consists of three main segments: a foregut, a midgut and, a hindgut. The midgut is the longest segment of the GI tract running from the posterior end of the pyloric stomach to the hindgut, and then to the anus. It is also connected to the hepatopancreas, the anterior-dorsal digestive caecum and the posterior-dorsal digestive caecum. The foregut and the hindgut originate from stomodeal and protodeal ectoderm, respectively, while the midgut is derived from endoderm. The inner surfaces throughout the foregut and hindgut are lined by cuticle (Figure 4.1A-D, K, L), but the inner surface of the midgut is not (Figure 4.1F-J).

4.2.2 Presence of a normal flora in the gastrointestinal tract of pond-cultured *P. monodon*

SEM observations (n = 4 shrimp) showed that the inner surface of the stomach is devoid of bacterial cells (Figure 4.1A-D), and that in the stomach bacterial cells were only found in association with ingested feed (Figure 4.1E). Bacterial cells

were found singly scattered on the peritrophic matrix (PM) of the midgut (Figure 4.1F-G), and large bacterial clusters were seen embedded in the PM within the posterior segment of the GI tract (Figure 4.1J). No bacteria were attached to the brush border of the midgut lumen or were seen in the ectoperitrophic space (between the PM and the midgut epithelium). A cluster of granules inside the cytoplasm of the epithelial cell were seen protruding through the microvilli into the lumen of the midgut (Figure 4.1H-I). The hindgut was observed to have a thick folded epithelium and a thin immature PM (Figure 4.1L). The posterior part of the hindgut or the rectum was also lined with cuticle with backward projecting spines (Figure 4.1K-L). A few bacterial cells were seen within the hindgut; these were principally short-rod shaped bacteria attaching to the inner surface or in small pits scattered on the inner surface of the hindgut (Figure 4.1K-L).

Of particular interest is one shrimp specimen that had patches of unique rod-shaped bacterial population firmly attached to the fibre setae (Figure 4.2A) or to the stomach lining (Figure 4.2B). The attached bacteria exhibited peritrichous pili-like structures or fimbria (Figure 4.2C), and a few fibres were seen linked to the PM (Figure 4.2D). In addition, these bacteria had the ability to degrade the PM, as evident by the presence of numerous holes in the PM and the exposure of cytoplasmic granules of the epithelial cells under the PM (Figure 4.2E). In addition to these, another group of irregular-shaped bacteria were found attached to the PM (Figure 4.2F). In the hindgut of the same shrimp, a cluster of short-rod shaped bacteria with polar flagella and irregular-shaped and non-identifiable particles were observed adhering to the wall of the hindgut (Figure 4.2G-I).

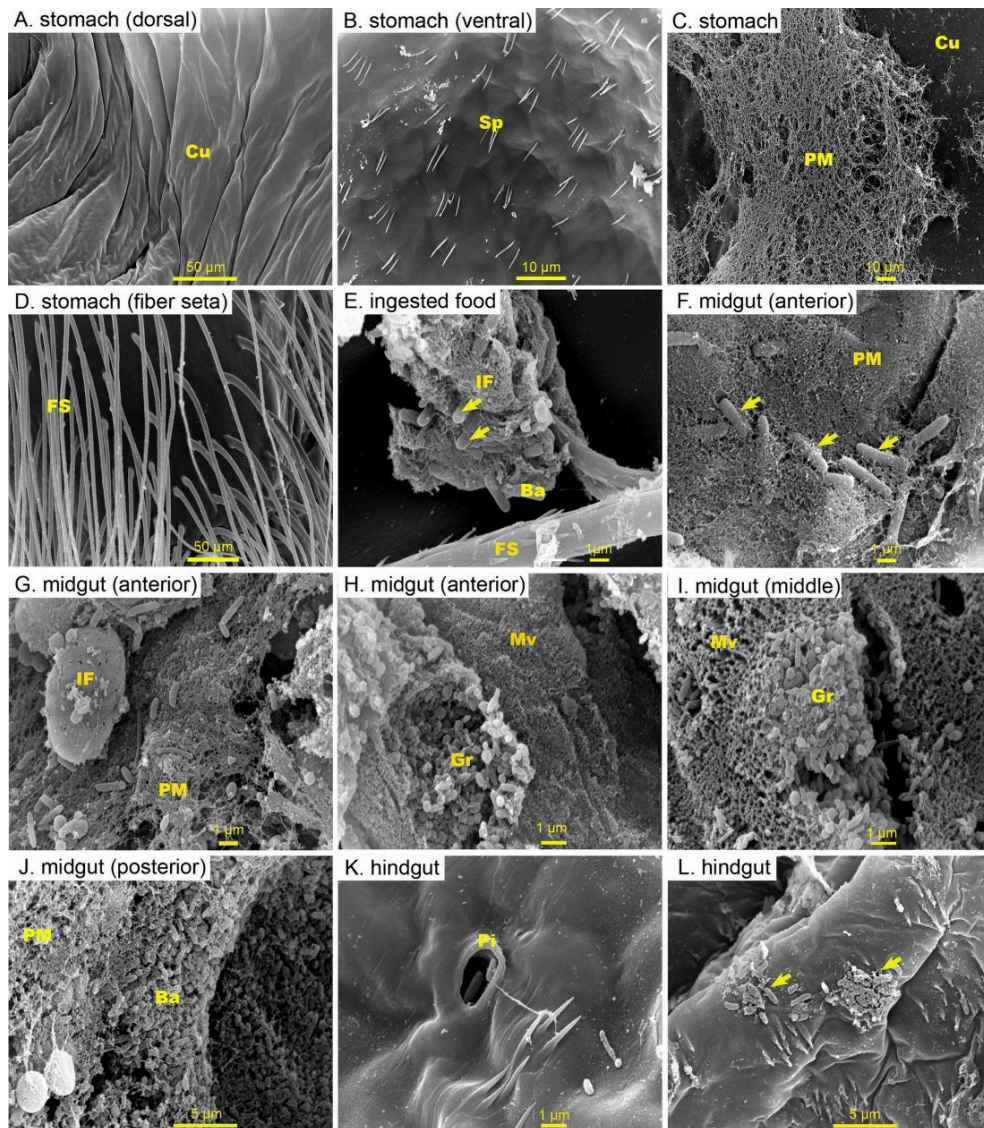


Figure 4.1 Representative scanning electron microscopy (SEM) micrographs of the inner surface of the digestive of farmed *P. monodon*. Inner surface of (A) the dorsal, (B) ventral, (C) peritrophic matrix, and (D) fiber seta of the stomach were devoid of bacteria. (E) Bacterial cells were seen in association with food inside the stomach. (F, G, H, I, J) Healthy midgut have intact microvilli, and a large number of bacteria were observed attached to the peritrophic matrix and food particle in the midgut. (F, I) Massive granules among the epithelial cells can be seen. (K, L) Only a few bacteria were seen attached to the cuticle lining of the hindgut. Abbreviation: cuticle (cu), spines (Sp), peritrophic matrix (PM), fiber seta (FS), ingested food (IF), bacteria (Ba), microvilli (Mv), granule (Gr), pit (Pi)

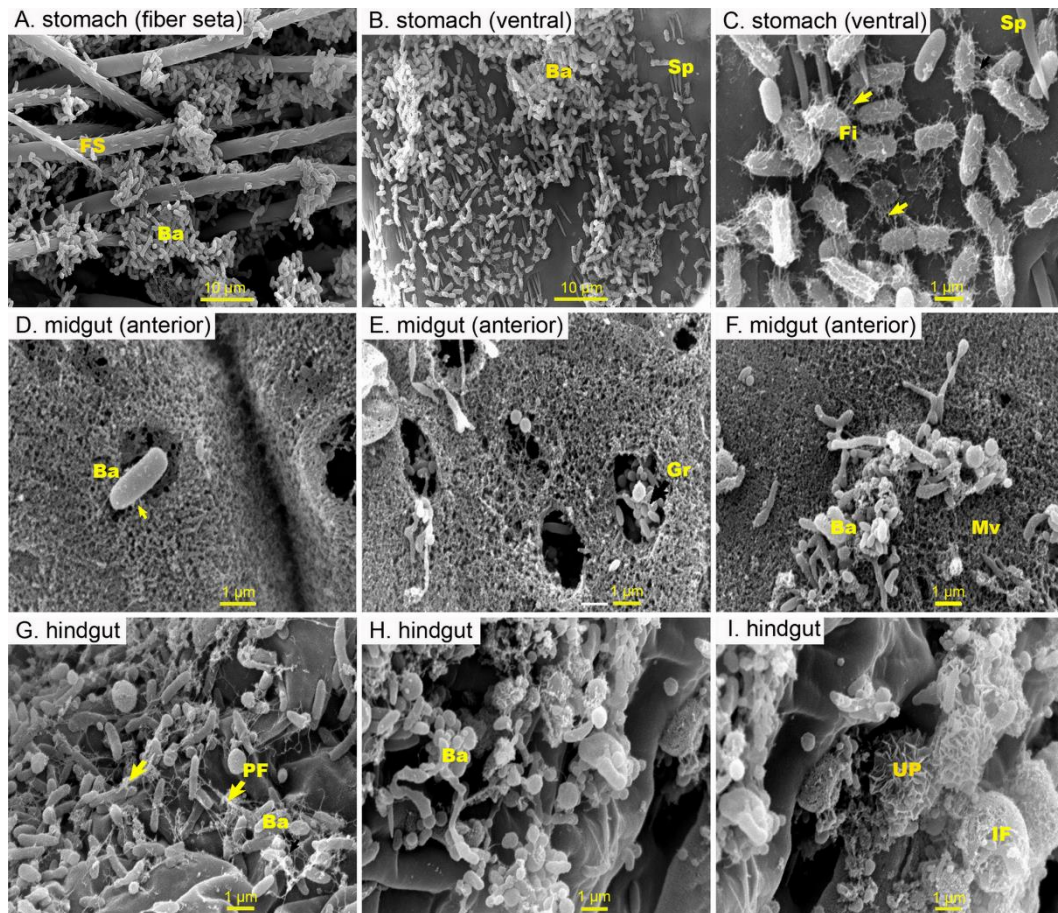


Figure 4.2 Representative SEM micrographs of the inner surface of the digestive tract of a suspected diseased *P. monodon* from a shrimp farm. A cluster of unique rod-shaped bacteria attached to (A) fibre setae or (B) to the lining of the stomach. (C) Higher magnification image of the attached bacteria in the stomach exhibiting peritrichous pili-like structures or fimbria, where (D) a few fibres linked to the peritrophic matrix (PM) can be seen (arrowhead). (E) Many holes were created in the PM and a few granules were seen inside the holes. (F) A group of irregular-shaped bacteria were found attached to the PM. (G) A cluster of short-rod shaped bacteria with polar flagella, (h) irregular-shaped, and (I) unidentified particles were seen attached to the hindgut wall. Abbreviation : fiber seta (FS), bacteria (Ba), spines (Sp), fimbria (Fi) granule (Gr), microvilli (Mv), polar flagella (PF), unknown particles (UP), ingested food (IF)

4.2.3 Colonization of pathogenic *Vibrio* and the pathological induced shrimp intestine

The progression of *Vh*- or *Vp*-induced pathological changes in the luminal surface tissues of the stomach, midgut and hindgut in infected shrimp at 1.5, 6 and 24 hours post-infection (PI) were visualized by SEM and compared. At 1.5 hours PI with *V. harveyi*, no bacteria were seen adhering to the surface of the stomach (Figure 4.3A), but numerous bacterial cells mixed with ingested food were found loosely attached to the lining of the stomach lumen (Figure 4.3B). At 6 hours PI, numerous rod-shaped bacteria of a single morphotype were found firmly attached to the stomach surface in places (Figure 4.3C) and to the upper and middle regions of the midgut (Figure 4.3D-E). The epithelial layers with colonizing bacteria exhibited signs of destruction in both the stomach and the upper midgut, whereas the areas further down the midgut to the hindgut without bacterial colonization were still intact (Figure 4.3G). Bacterial replication continued between 6 and 24 hours PI, indicating that the bacterial populations were growing *in situ*. At 24 hours PI, bacterial numbers dramatically increased within the stomach (Figure 4.3J) and persisted in the posterior part of the midgut (Figure 4.3K). Extensive, severe destruction of the epithelium in the upper midgut at 24 h PI was observed under the colonized bacterial mat as indicated by the disappearance of the epithelial layer and the exposure of the underlying basement membrane (Figure 4.3F-I). At this time point, however, most of the epithelium of the posterior midgut and hindgut remained intact (Figure 4.3H-I). The posterior part of the midgut was free of PM with some bacterial cells seen attached to the microvilli (Figure 4.3H), whilst the area between the hindgut and the midgut was covered by a very thick PM (Figure 4.3G). Scattered clusters of rod-shaped bacteria were also seen within the hindgut (Figure 4.3I), but it appears as if they were not detrimental to the host.

In shrimp fed *V. parahaemolyticus*, numerous straight-shaped bacteria (~1.8-2.2 μm in length) were seen attached to the fibre seta, to the short spines and to the inner surface of the stomach at 24 hours PI (Figure 4.4A-C). No severely damaged tissues were seen except some broken and detached spines from the stomach lining (Figure 4.4C). Attached bacteria within the stomach also produced peritrichous pili-like structures (Figure 4.4D). The posterior part of the midgut and the hindgut, however,

were extensively colonized by rod-shaped bacteria which differed morphologically from the attached bacteria within the stomach as no peritrichous pili-like fibres were observed (Figure 4.4E-F).

In the GI tract of *P. monodon* fed non-pathogenic bacteria, *i.e.* *M. luteus* and *Vibrio* B4-24, the bacteria were seen only on the hindgut lining (Figure 4.5D-E) and not on the stomach surface (Figure 4.5A, D) nor on the epithelium of the midgut (Figure 4.5E). In nearly all the shrimp that were examined, a high number of pits, measuring 2-5.5 μm in diameter, were found across the surface of the midgut (Figure 4.5F-G). Inside each pit, a massive number of cocci- and spindle-shaped granules, which normally reside in the cytoplasm of the epithelial cells, were observed in the anterior midgut (Figure 4.5H). Similar granules of larger size were observed further along the digestive tract in the posterior midgut (Figure 4.5I). Notably, the pit number varied among individual shrimp but was not correlated with the degree of infection. Among all examined shrimp, the hindgut bacteria were mostly varied in the number of bacteria observed, while the morphotypes were similar. Most of the hindgut tissues were intact (Figure 4.1H-I, 4.2G-L, 4.3I, 4.4F and 4.5D-E).

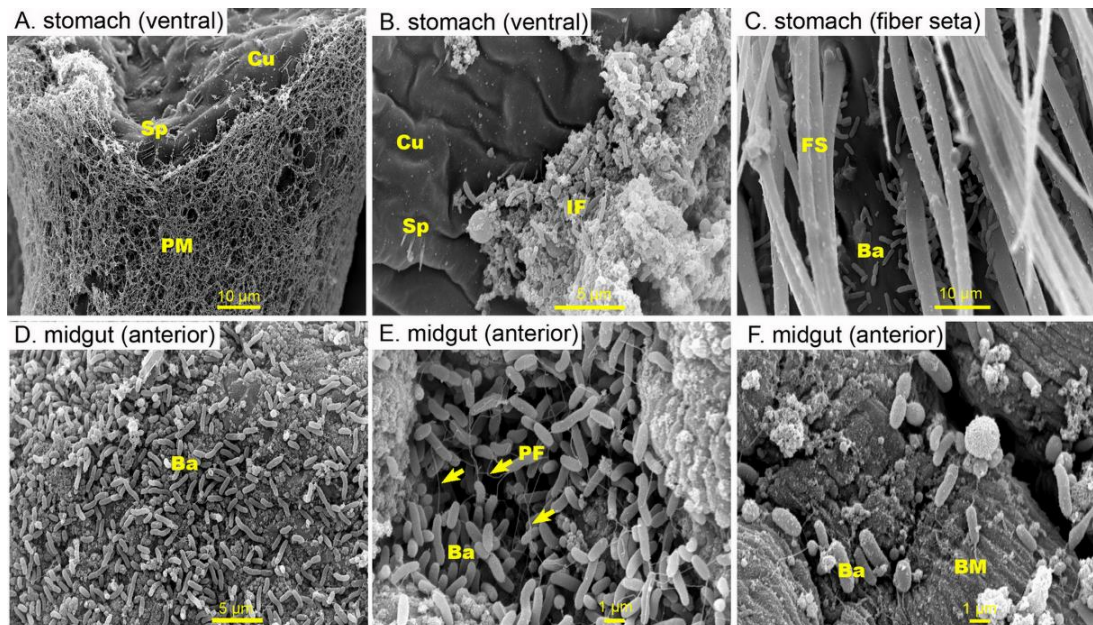


Figure 4.3 Representative SEM micrographs of the inner surface of *P. monodon* infected with *V. harveyi*. (A) At 1.5 h post-infection (PI), no bacteria adhering to the surface of the stomach linings were seen, but (B) numerous bacterial cells mixed with ingested food attaching the stomach surface were seen. (C) Numerous rod-shaped bacteria firmly attached to the stomach lining. (D) At 6 h PI, colonizing bacteria cover the epithelium of the anterior midgut. (E, yellow arrow) A higher magnification of the bacteria seen at 6 h show that they possess polar flagella that are linked with each other, and (F) heavy destruction of the epithelial layers by bacteria exposed of the basement membrane underneath.

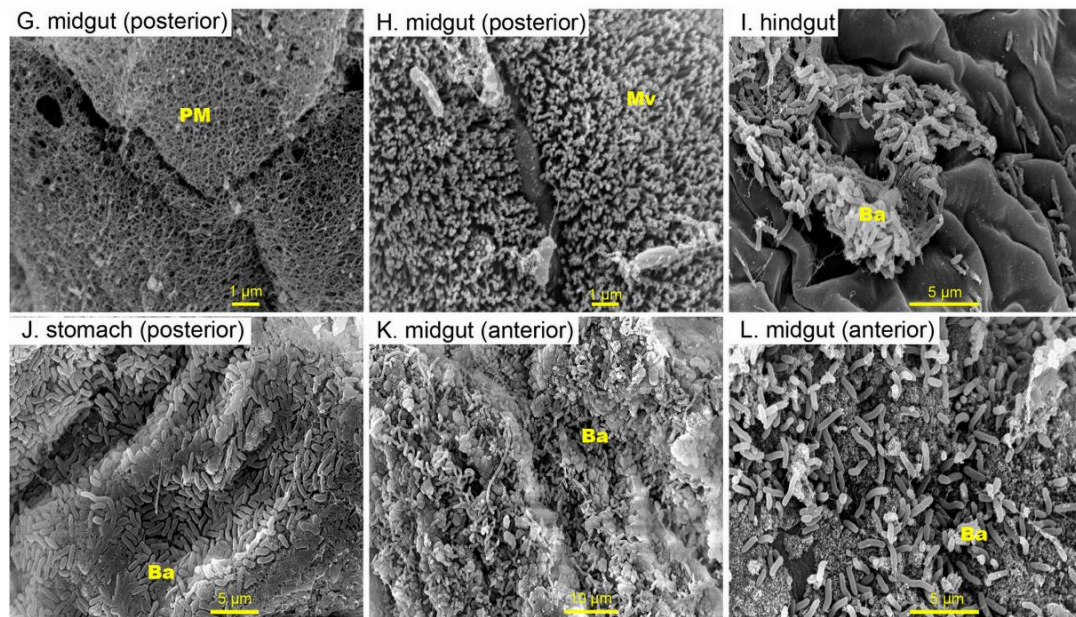


Figure 4.3 Cont. (G) The posterior portion of the midgut showing intact tissue with a thick peritrophic matrix or (H) with a few bacterial cells attached to the microvilli. (I) Scattered clusters of rod-shaped bacteria adhering to the lining of the hindgut. (J-L) At 24 h PI, the numbers of bacteria within the stomach of infected shrimp increased dramatically. Densely packed-bacteria were found covering the epithelium of the anterior midgut. Abbreviation: cuticle (Cu), spines (Sp), peritrophic matrix (PM), ingested food (IF), fiber seta (FS), polar flagella (PF), bacteria (Ba), basement membrane (BM), microvilli (Mv)

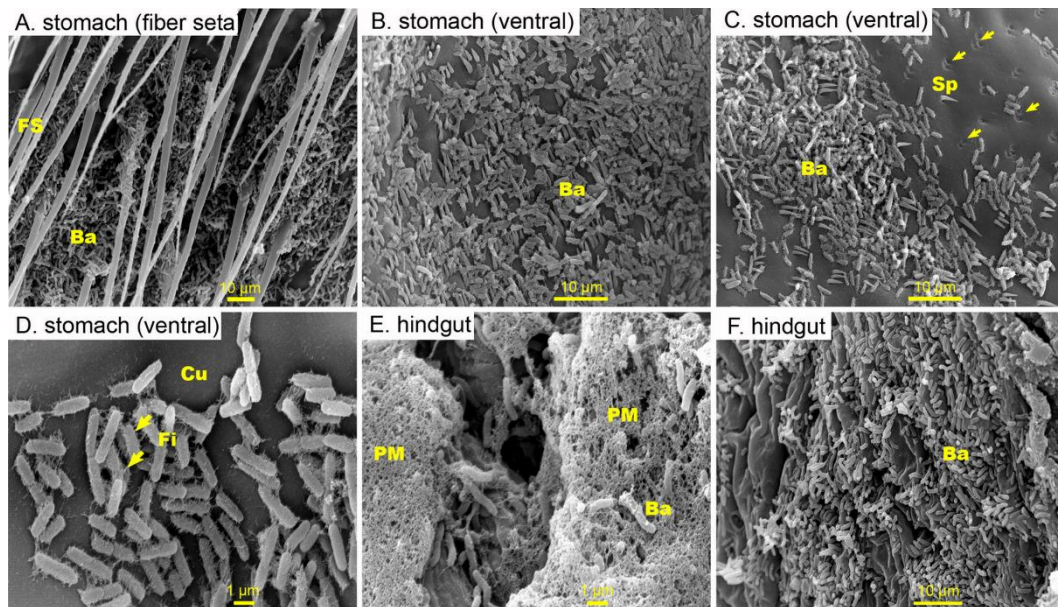


Figure 4.4 Representative SEM micrographs of the inner surface of the digestive tract of *P. monodon* infected with *V. parahaemolyticus*. (A) At 24 post-infection, numerous straight-shaped bacteria adhering to the fibre seta, to (B) short spines and (C) to the inner surface of the stomach. Some of the spines were broken and had detached from the stomach lining (arrowheads). (D-F) Attached bacteria producing peritrichous pili-like structures. Abbreviation: fiber seta (FS), spines (Sp), cuticle (Cu), fimbria (Fi), peritrophic matrix (PM)

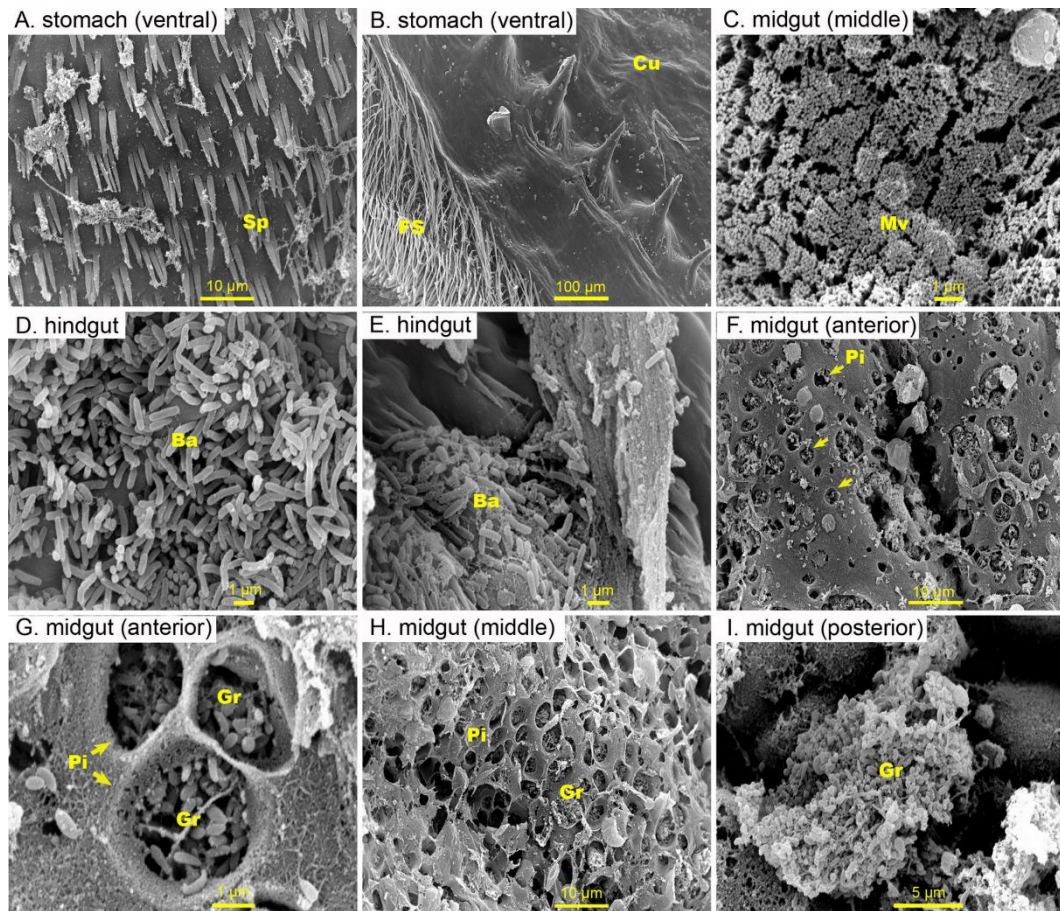


Figure 4.5 Representative SEM micrographs of the inner surface of the digestive tract from *P. monodon* receiving non-pathogenic bacteria (*M. luteus* and non-pathogenic *Vibrio* B4-24). No observed attachment of bacteria to the stomach (A - *M. luteus*, B- *Vibrio* B4-24) or to the midgut (C- *Vibrio* B4-24). The bacteria found in the hindgut were variable in number where most of the hindgut tissues were intact (D - *M. luteus*, E- *Vibrio* B4-24). A high number of pits were found across the surface of the midgut (G, H- *Vibrio* B4-24), where a large number of cocci- and spindle-shaped granules which resided in the epithelial cells were seen (I- *Vibrio* B4-24). Abbreviation: spines (Sp), fiber seta (FS), cuticle (Cu), microvilli (Mv), bacteria (Ba), pit (Pi), granule (Gr)

4.3 The Appearance of the Pathogenic Bacteria in Gastrointestinal Tract

4.3.1 Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization assay

The specificity of bacterial probe was examined. Nine bacteria (Gram positive: *Lactobacillus* sp. isolated from Betagen milk, *Streptococcus equi*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *M. luteus*; Gram negative: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Aeromonas hydrophila*, *Escherichia coli*, *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. harveyi*) from the collection in laboratory were cultured and investigated by FISH using UNIV1390, VIB572a, LGC354b, SP_VP1253 and SP_VH probes [289-293]. All probes except SP_VH could be hybridized to the specific bacteria (Figure 4.6A-E), while SP_VH did not hybridize to any bacteria (Figure 4.6F). The SP_VP1253 probe could be hybridized with *V. parahaemolyticus*, but the signal was too low to detect likely due to low quality of 5' HEX fluorophore.

Universal Gram positive and *Vibrio* bacterial probes were examined the ability of probe to hybridize in paraffin-embedded tissue. The probes could hybridize with bacteria, but the signal was not clear because of high auto-fluorescence (Figure 4.7A-D).

Therefore, cryostat process was performed. This process could reduce the auto-fluorescence in Gram positive and *Vibrio* probes (Figure 4.8C-F), but not in universal bacterial probe (Figure 4.8A-B). The bacteria could not be seen in the tissue using the universal probe (Figure 4.8A-B), but the bacteria could be seen using Gram positive and *Vibrio* probes (Figure 4.8C-F). Gram positive bacteria were seen in the lumen of the intestine (Figure 4.8C-D). The signal of *Vibrio* probe could be seen in the intestine tissue, but it was not clear if it is *Vibrio* bacteria or auto-fluorescence (Figure 4.8E-F). Additionally, the structure of the tissue from cryostat process was destroyed and dried during the process.

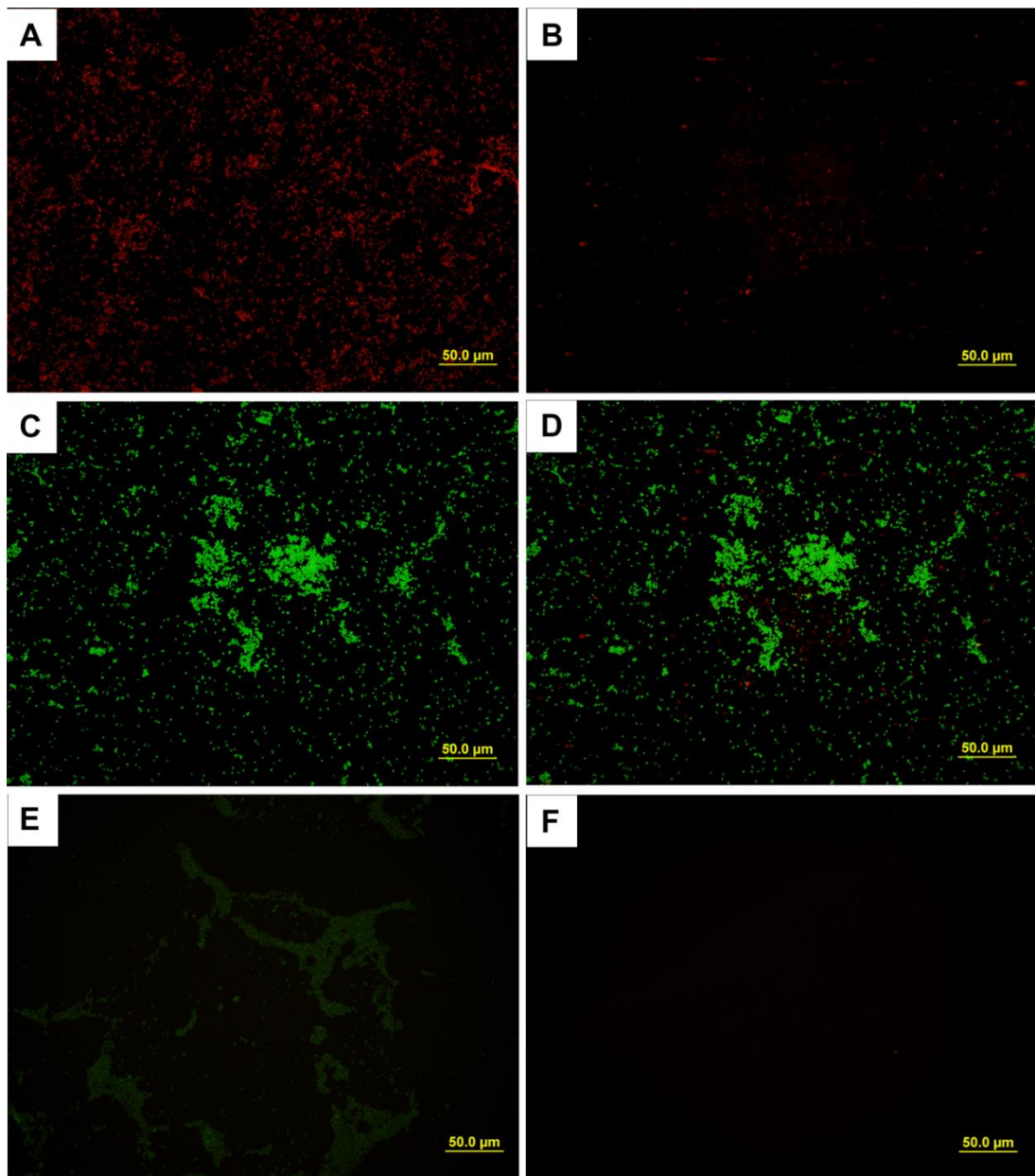


Figure 4.6 Representative fluorescent microscopy of nine bacteria using (A) UNIV1390 probe (red), (B) gram positive bacteria using LGC354b (red), (C) *Vibrio* spp. using VIB572a probe (green), (D) gram positive (red) and *Vibrio* spp. (green), (E) *V. parahaemolyticus* using SP_VP1253 probe (green) and (F) *V. harveyi* using SP_VH probe (no signal).

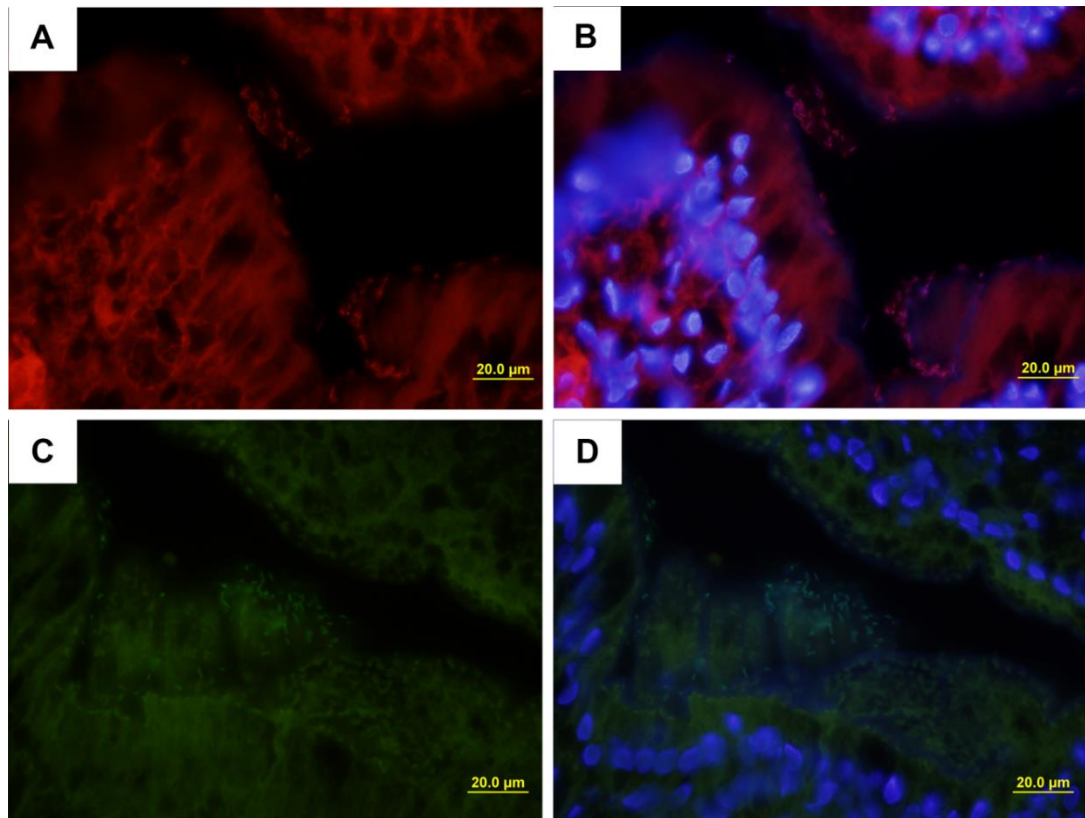


Figure 4.7 Representative the paraffin-embedded tissue hybridized with (A) gram-positive (red) and (C) *Vibrio* probes (green). (B, D) Counterstaining tissue with DAPI (blue)

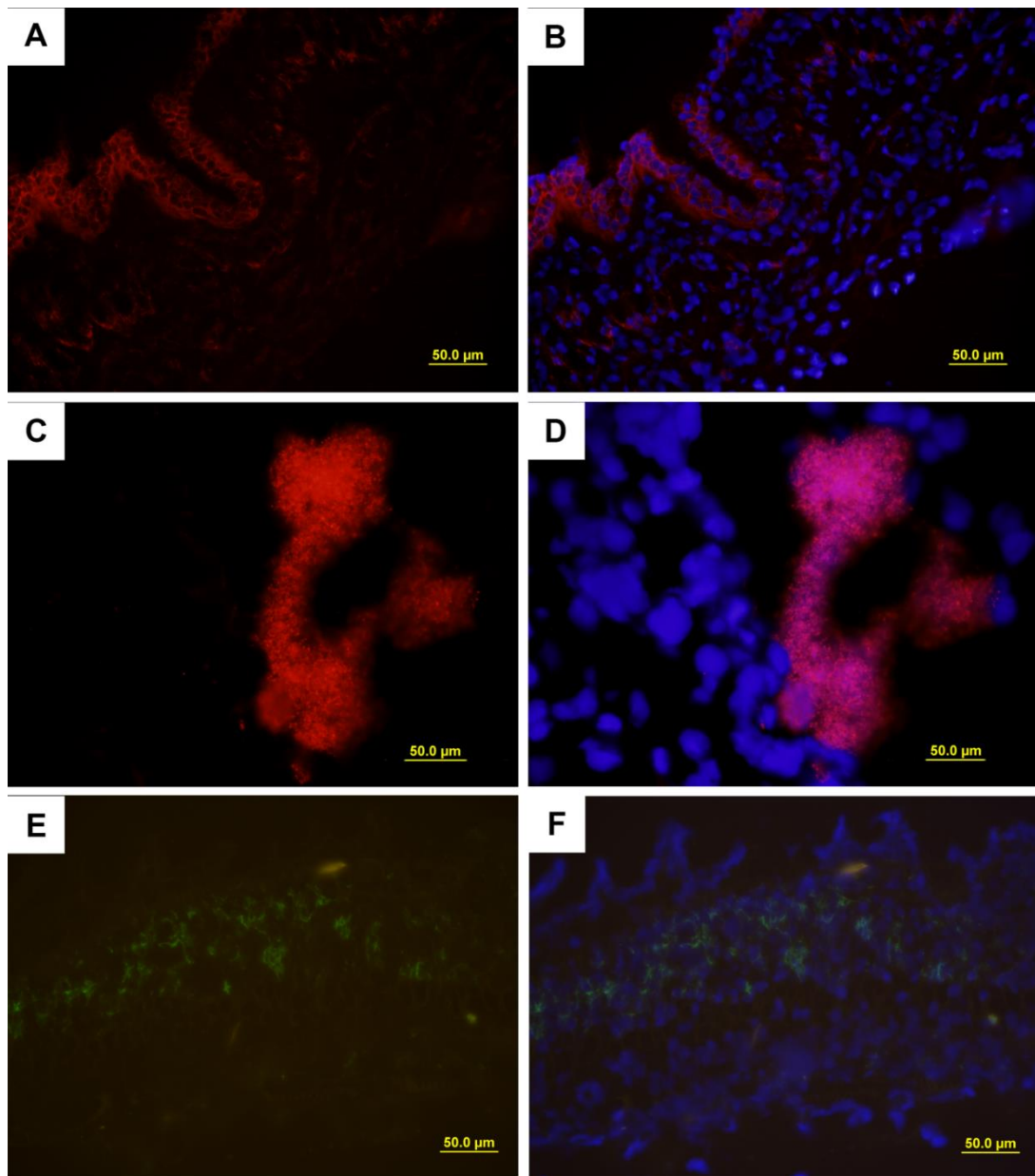


Figure 4.8 Representative the tissue from cryostat process hybridized with (A-B) universal (red), (C-D) gram positive (red) and (E-F) *Vibrio* bacterial probes (green). (B, D, F) Counterstaining tissue with DAPI (blue)

4.3.2 PCR-DGGE analysis

Although a single morphotype of proliferating bacteria was found in the shrimp fed either *V. parahaemolyticus* or *V. harveyi*, the DGGE profiles obtained from each shrimp were used to verify the bacterial community associated with each

treatment. By comparing the intestinal bacterial communities in the shrimp fed either *V. harveyi* via *Artemia*, fed an *Artemia* diet or a commercial feed diet as a control, two clusters could be seen. One discrete cluster consisted of the DGGE profile from the shrimp fed the *Artemia* diet only. The first cluster consisted of the profiles from the control and the *V. harveyi* challenged groups (2 of each). This cluster could be differentiated from the other by the presence of a strong DGGE band associated with a pure cultured *V. harveyi* isolate (Figure 4.9A).

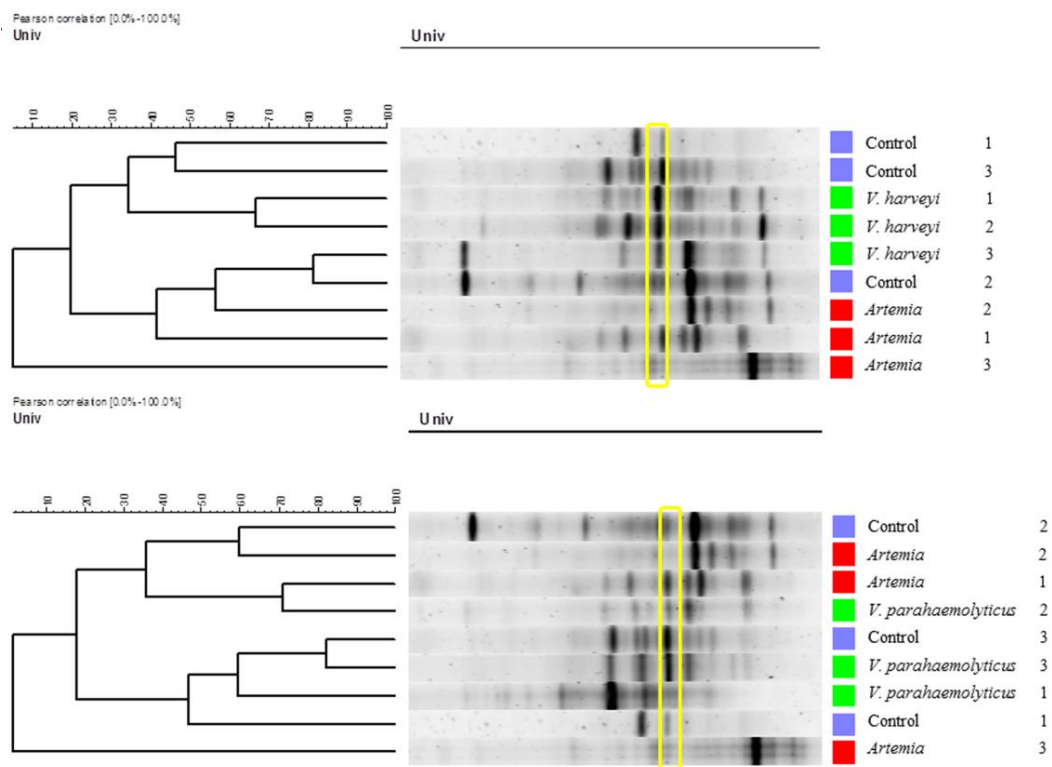


Figure 4.9 Cluster analysis of 16S rDNA PCR-DGGE profiles of individual shrimp from shrimp fed on commercial feed (blue), fed on *Artemia* (red) and fed on *V. harveyi* or *V. parahaemolyticus* containing *Artemia* (green).

4.3.3 Quantitative real-time PCR

Real-time PCR was used to confirm and quantify the presence of *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* specific genes (relative to 16S rRNA gene) in the stomach and the midgut at 24 hours post challenge (Figure 4.10 and 4.11). The ratio of *Vh_gyrB* to total bacteria in both stomach and midgut of the challenged shrimp (1437×10^{-6} and 303.5×10^{-6} , respectively) were significantly higher than that of the control group ($P < 0.05$) (2.6×10^{-6} and 3.8×10^{-6} , respectively) (Figure 4.10). The ratio of *Vp_gyrB* to total bacteria in the stomach and the midgut of challenged shrimp (2.9×10^{-6} and 2.5×10^{-6} , respectively) was higher than that of the control shrimp (1.1×10^{-6} and 1.1×10^{-6} , respectively). Similarly, the ratio of *Vp_tlh* to total bacteria significantly increased in the stomach of challenged shrimp (9.6×10^{-6}) compared to that of the control unchallenged shrimp ($P < 0.05$) (2.7×10^{-6}). The midgut of challenged shrimp also showed higher ratio of *Vp_tlh* to total bacteria (6.0×10^{-6}) than that of the unchallenged ones (3.7×10^{-6}), but the difference was not significant (Figure 4.11).

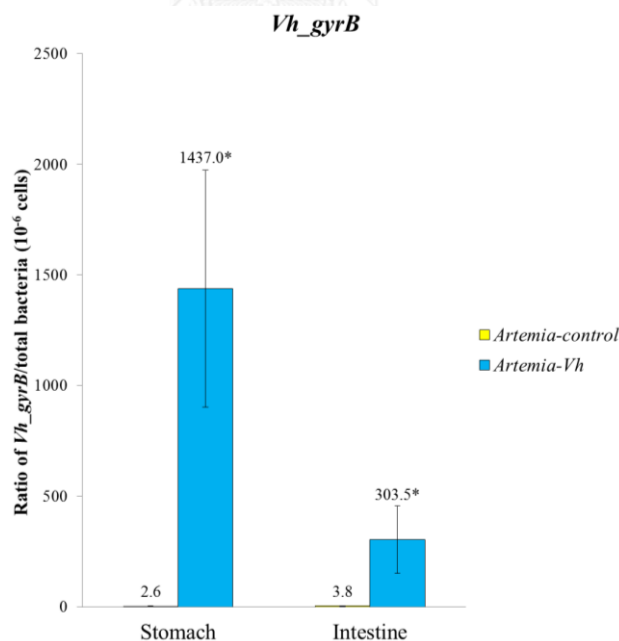


Figure 4.10 Real-time PCR presented of the ratio of the *gyrB* gene of *V. harveyi* and 16S rDNA bacteria in the GI tract of *P. monodon*. Error bars were expressed as \pm SEM. Asterisk indicates significant differences between the control and challenged group ($P < 0.05$).

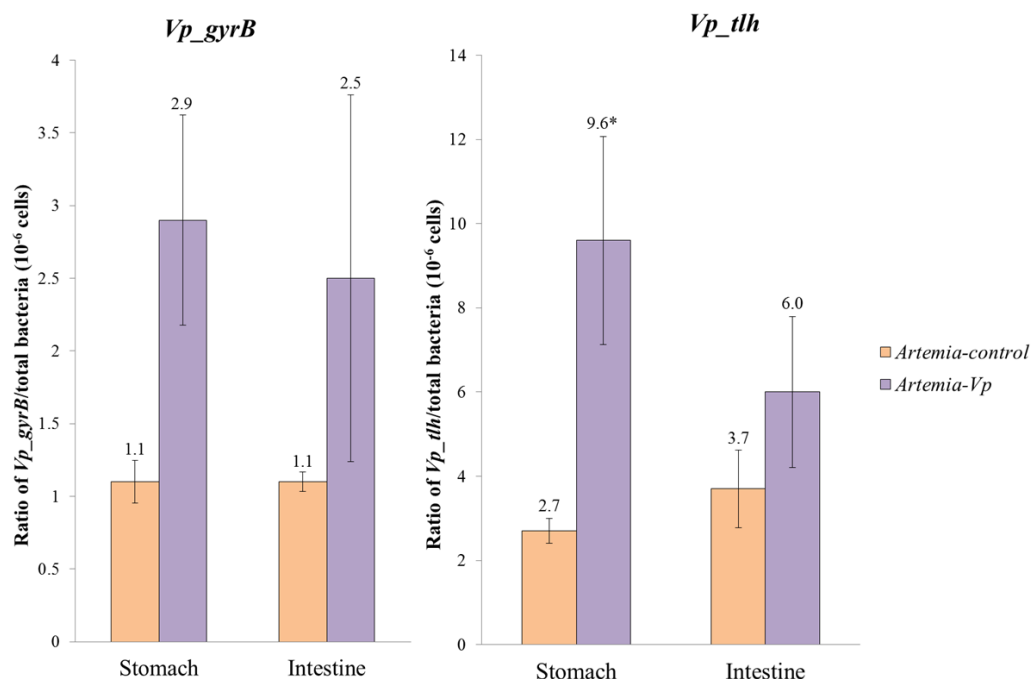


Figure 4.11 Real-time PCR presented of the ratio of the *gyrB* and *tlh* gene of *V. parahaemolyticus* and 16S rDNA bacteria in the GI tract of *P. monodon*. Error bars were expressed as \pm SEM. Asterisk indicates significant differences between the control and challenged group ($P < 0.05$).

4.4 Histopathology of Uninfected and Infected Shrimp by AHPNS/EMS Bacteria (*V. parahaemolyticu* 3HP)

The stomach of healthy shrimp is lined by endocuticle (Enc), exocuticle (Exc) and epicuticle (Epc) with brushes, spines, bristle and folds. The cuticle structure covers soft tissues including columnar cuticle epithelium and spongy connective tissue. The ingested food is found in the stomach lumen and the bacterial cells were not observed onto the spiny cuticle (Figure 4.12A-B). In addition, the hepatopancreas of shrimp consists of large compact ducts and blind ending tubes. Each tube contains a simple cylindrical epithelial layer surround by basal lamina and myoepithelial cells. The large vacuole and nucleus are observed in the hepatopancreas (Figure 4.12C-D).

The histopathology of infected shrimp by AHPNS/EMS bacteria was examined at 3, 6, 12 and 24 hours post infection. Two shrimp died during the experiment around 12-24 hours post infection. The degree of stomach infection was observed during an early stage at 3 hours to a later stage at 24 hours (Figure 4.13A-B, 4.14A-C, 4.15A-B and 4.16A-B). The attachment of bacteria were observed on the stomach cuticle at 3 hours (Figure 4.13-A-B) and more bacterial load were seen at 6 hours (Figure 4.14 A-C) and at 12 hours post infection (Figure 4.15A-B). Heavy stomach infection was observed at 12-24 hours post infection, and massive bacteria colonized and formed a biofilm so that they were permanently attached stomach cuticle (Figure 4.15A-B, 4.16A-B). Some stomach surface was destroyed, and the bacteria colonized the columnar cuticular epithelial layer (Figure 4.15 B, 4.16A-B). Additionally, the cuticle was lost and the columnar cuticular epithelial layer was infiltrated with large number of hemocyte cells (4.16A-B)

The initial stage of the hepatopancreas was found the hepatopancreatic tissue appeared normal at 3 hours post infection (Figure 4.13C-D). The hepatopancreatic tubular epithelial cells were sloughed into the hepatopancreatic lumens, and the hemocytes were infiltrated in the intertubular space between the hepatopancreatic tubes (Figure 4.14D-F and Figure 4.15C-D). In the terminal stage, massive lesions were observed and numerous bacteria colonized the hepatopancreatic lumens. Hemocytes formed capsules around the bacterial infected tissue (Figure 14.6C-D).

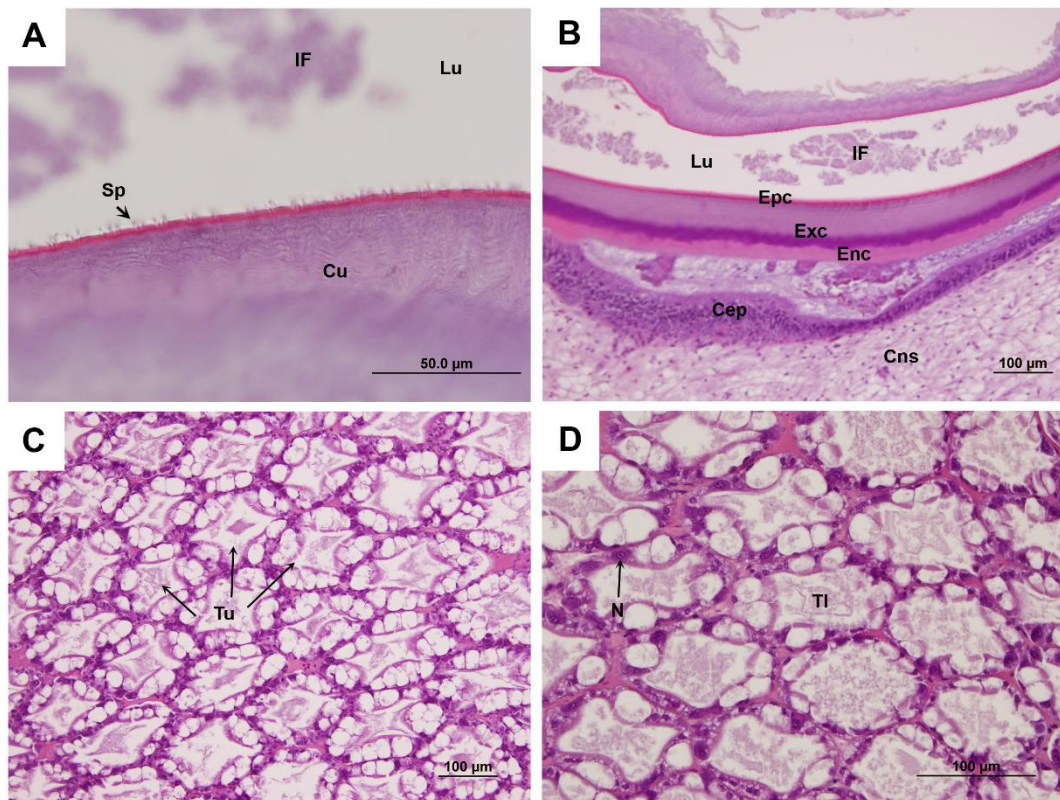


Figure 4.12 Representative light micrograph of the normal histology of stomach (A-B) and hepatopancreas (C-D) of control shrimp (*Artemia*-fed) at 24 hours post infection. Stained with H&E. Abbreviation: ingested food (IF), lumen (Lu), spine (Sp), cuticle (cu), epicuticle (Epc), exocuticle (Exc), endocuticle (Enc), columnar cuticular epithelium (Cep), spongy connective tissue (Cns), hepatopancreas tubules (Tu), tubule lumen (Tl), and nucleus (N)

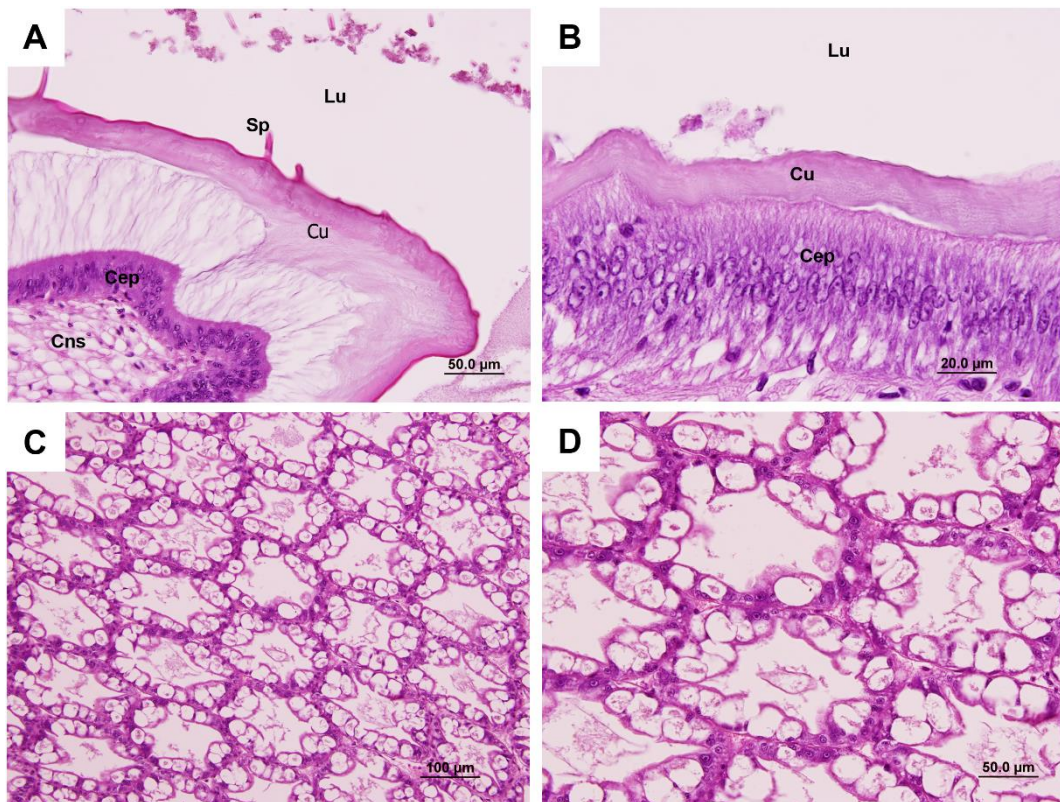


Figure 4.13 Representative light micrograph of the histopathology of stomach (A-B) and hepatopancreas (C-D) of shrimp fed *Artemia-Vp_{3HP}* at 3 hours post infection. Stained with H&E. Abbreviation: lumen (Lu), spine (Sp), cuticle (Cu), columnar cuticular epithelium (Cep) and spongy connective tissue (Cns)

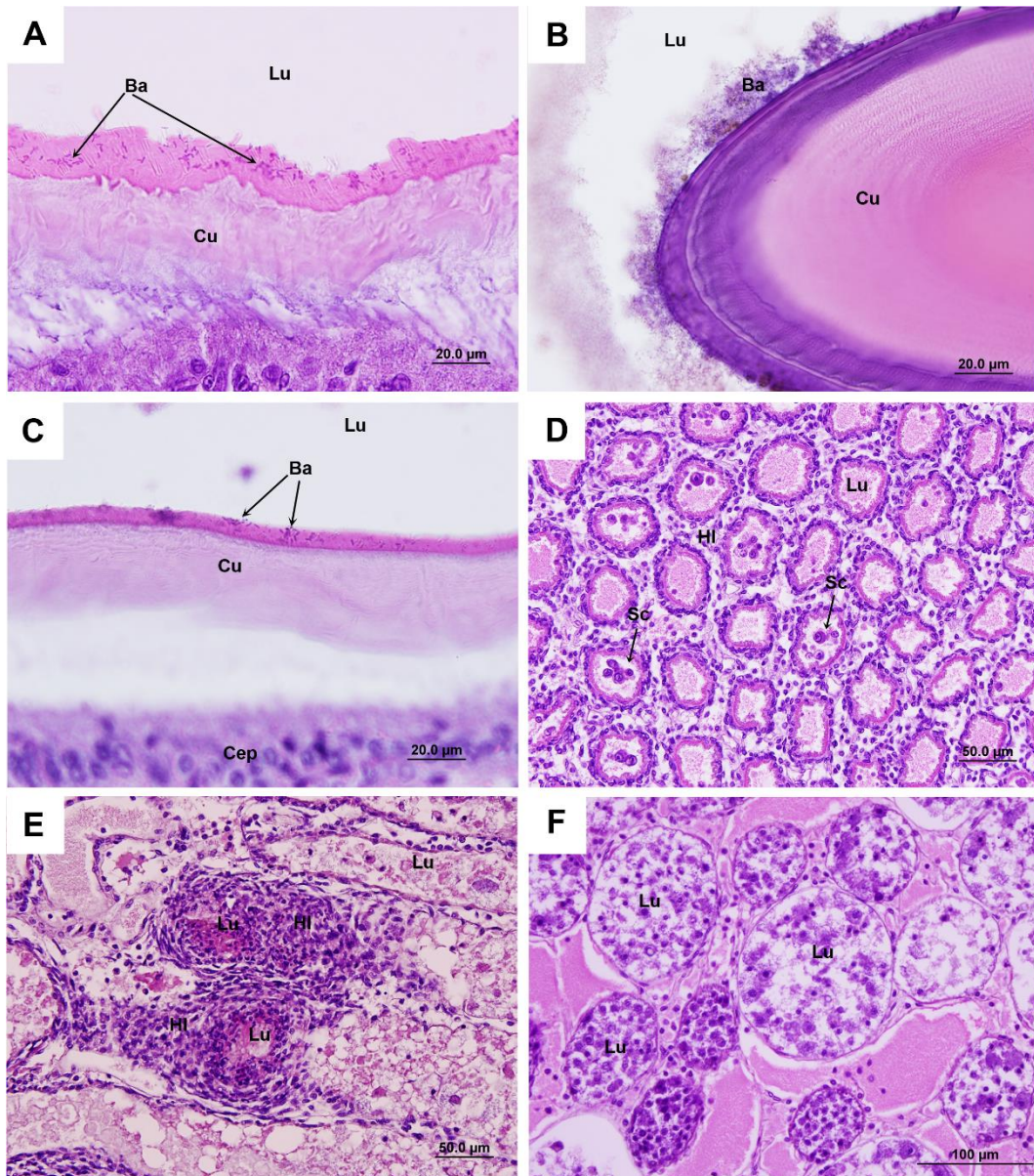


Figure 4.14 Representative light micrograph of the histopathology of stomach (A-C) and hepatopancreas (D-F) of shrimp fed *Artemia-Vp_{3HP}* at 6 hours post infection. The stomach cuticle were covered with bacteria (A-C), hemocyte infiltrated in the intertubular space between hepatopancreas tubes and sloughing of hepatopancreas tubular epithelial cells. Stained with H&E. Abbreviation: lumen (Lu), bacteria (Ba), cuticle (Cu), hemocyte infiltration (HI), columnar cuticular epithelium (Cep) and sloughing of hepatopancreas tubular epithelial cells (Sc)

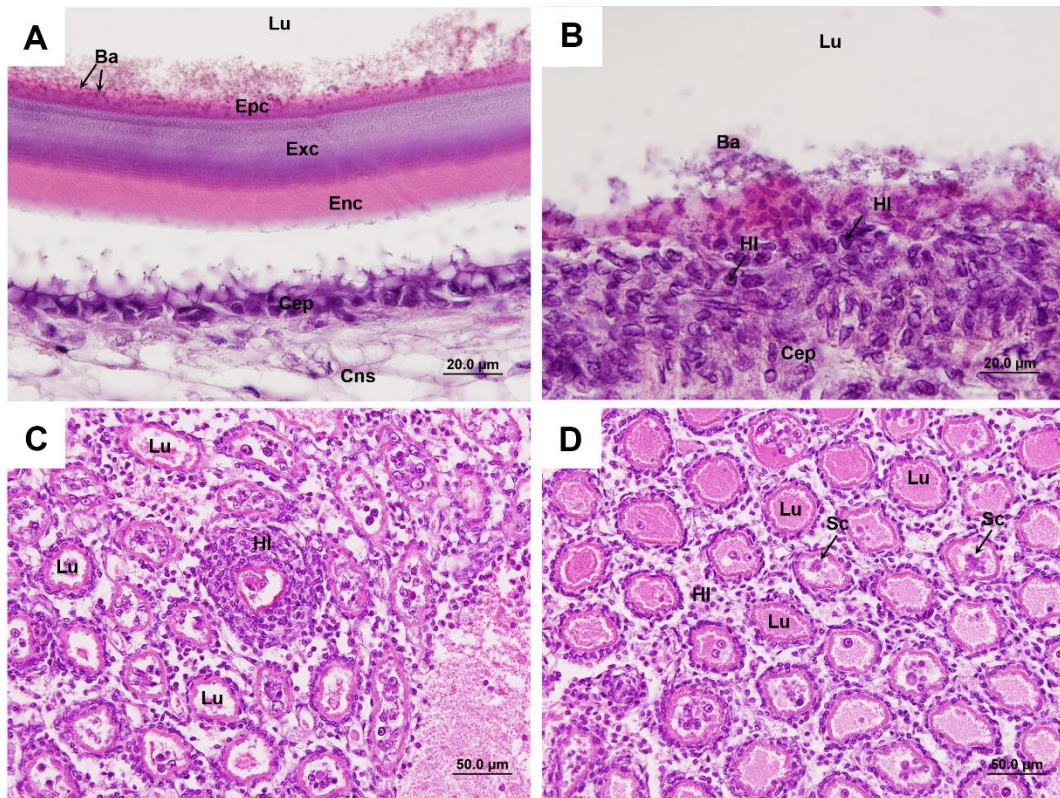


Figure 4.15 Representative light micrograph of the histopathology of stomach (A-B) and hepatopancreas (C-D) of shrimp fed *Artemia-Vp_{3HP}* at 12 hours post infection. The stomach cuticle were covered with bacteria and the epithelial membrane was separated from basal cells (A) and the bacteria destroyed the cuticle to invade the basal cells of stomach (B), hemocyte infiltrated in the intertubular space between hepatopancreas tubes and sloughing of hepatopancreas tubular epithelial cells (C-D). Stained with H&E. Abbreviation: lumen (Lu), bacteria (Ba), epicuticle (Epc), exocuticle (Exc), endocuticle (Enc), columnar cuticular epithelium (Cep), spongy connective tissue (Cns), hemocyte infiltration (HI) and sloughing of hepatopancreas tubular epithelial cells (Sc)

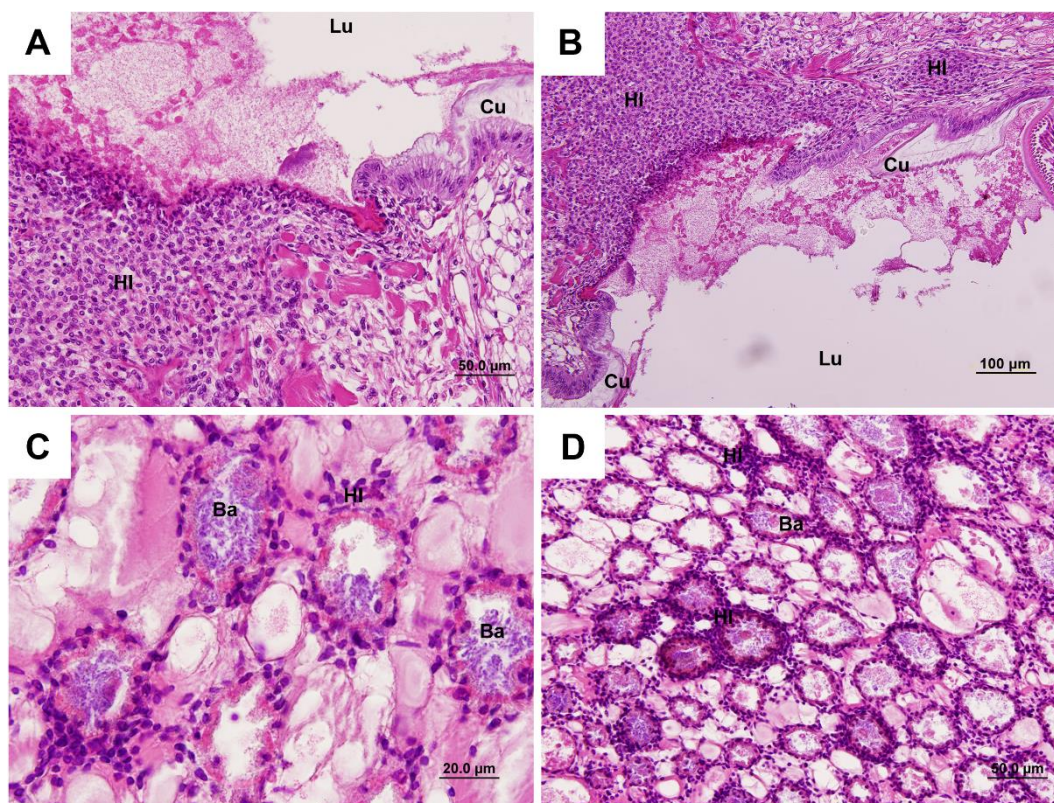


Figure 4.16 Representative light micrograph of the histopathology of stomach (A-B) and hepatopancreas (C-D) of shrimp fed *Artemia-Vp_{3HP}* at 24 hours post-infection. The massive infection in stomach resulted in that the cuticle was destroyed and hemocytes infiltrated into columnar cuticular epithelium (A-B), sloughing of hepatopancreas tubular epithelial cells are present in the hepatopancreas lumen and bacteria colonized to the hepatopancreas lumen. Stained with H&E. Abbreviation: lumen (Lu), cuticle (Cu), hemocyte infiltration (HI) and bacteria (Ba)

4.5 Identification of Differential Gene Expression Profiles in Stomach of Uninfected and Infected Shrimp (*P. monodon*) by AHPNS/EMS Bacteria

4.5.1 Suppressive subtractive hybridization (SSH) stomach cDNA libraries

A total of 306 clones of the forward SSH library was analyzed by manual NCBI blastX search, and the low-quality sequences were discarded from analysis. A total of 301 of clean sequence was classified into 127 clones of known transcripts (E -value $<10^{-3}$), 14 clones of hypothetical protein, 7 clones of unknown genes, and 153 clones of low or no homology (E -value $>10^{-3}$) identifying as novel genes (Table 4.1).

All sequences were assembled with CAP3 software [308]. There were 26 contigs from 213 clones and 93 singletons. All known transcripts are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.1 The percentage and number of clones found in the forward SSH stomach cDNA library of *P. monodon*

Transcripts	Number		
	%	Contigs	Clones
Known transcripts	41.50	12 (106 clones)	21
Hypothetical protein	4.58	2 (8 clones)	6
Novel genes	50.00	12 (99 clones)	54
Unknown genes (predicted protein)	2.29	-	7
Low-quality sequences	1.63	-	5
Total	100	26 (213 clones)	93

The relationship between the number of sequenced clones and the number of newly identified unique sequences showed that the discovery of new transcripts after 306 recombinant clones still did not reach a plateau of saturation. The discovery rate after 306 clones was at 30.21% (Figure 4.17). Therefore, new transcripts could be continually identified by further sequencing or by other technics. Highly discovered sequences revealed that the established library was highly diverse and more transcripts of genes responded to the *V. parahaemolyticus* 3HP infection.

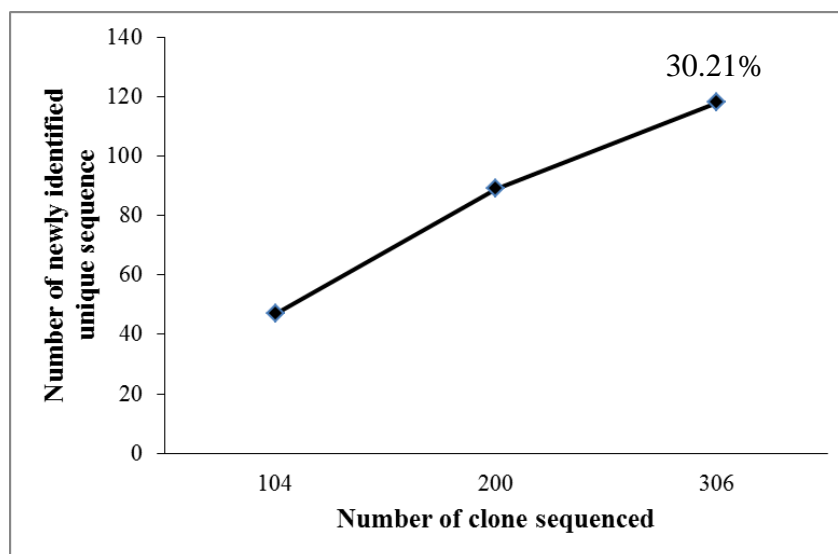


Figure 4.17 The relative number of clones sequenced and newly identified unique sequences from the forward SSH stomach cDNA library of *P. monodon*

All contigs and singletons of the forward SSH library were analyzed in accordance with Gene Ontology by Blast2GO program to define gene function. Blast2GO annotated the sequence according to three terms of gene ontology: biological process, cellular component, and molecular function.

Biological processes at level 2 were divided into 13 terms including cellular process (18%), single-organism process (16%), metabolic process (16%), biological regulation (9%), localization (9%), multicellular organismal process (7%), response to stimulus (7%), developmental process (7%), cellular component organization or biogenesis (4%), signaling (3%), immune system process (2%), growth (1%), and multi-organism process (1%) (Figure 4.18A).

Cellular components at level 2 were divided into 7 terms including cell (36%), organelle (26%), macromolecular complex (17%), membrane (12%), extracellular region (5%), membrane-enclosed lumen (2%), and cellular junction (2%) (Figure 4.18B).

Molecular functions at level 2 were divided into 5 terms including catalytic activity (36%), binding (31%), structural molecule activity (24%), transporter activity (7%) and receptor activity (2%) (Figure 4.18C).

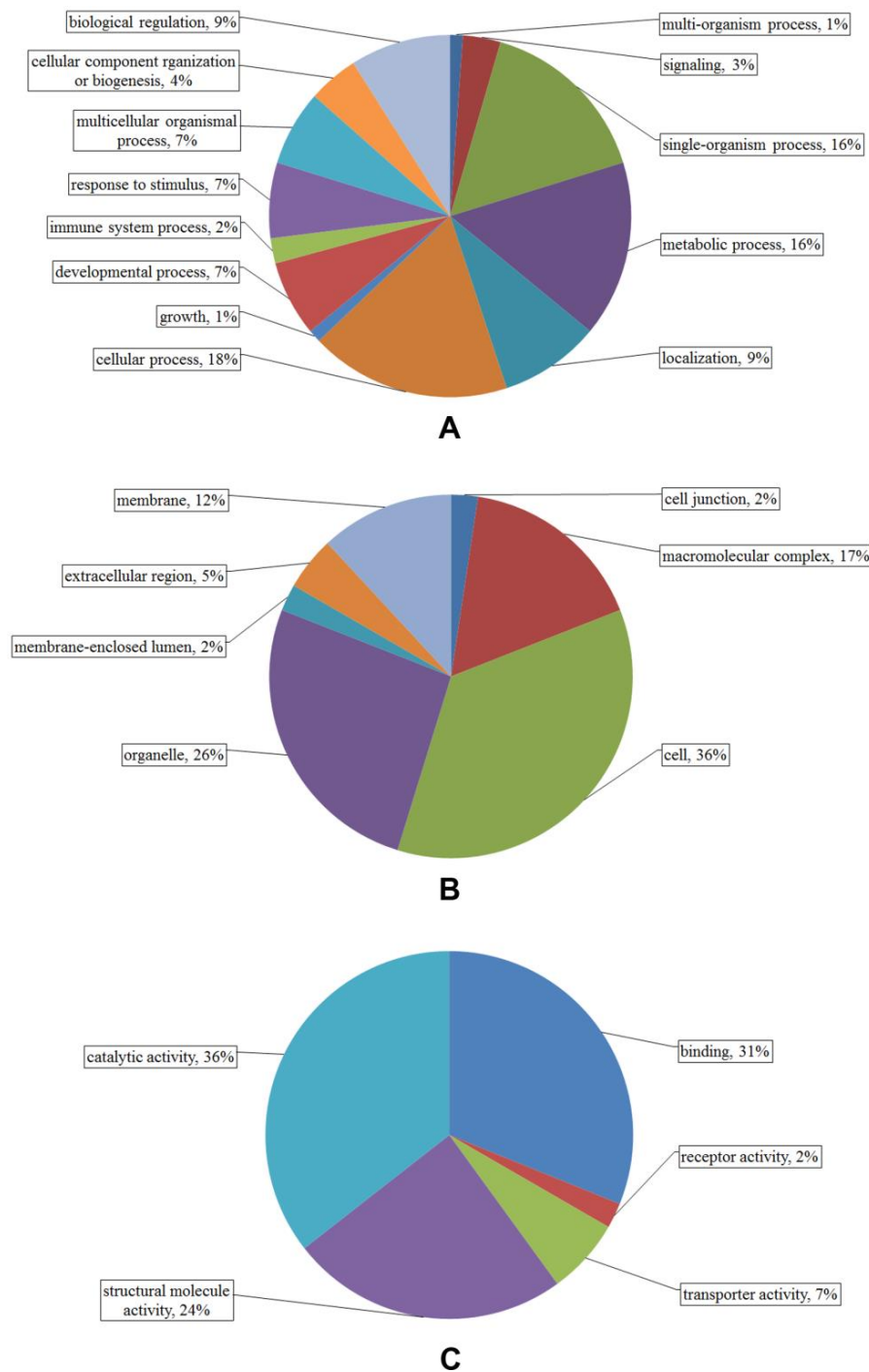


Figure 4.18 The percentage of three terms of gene ontology at level 2 in forward SSH stomach cDNA library. A-C are biological process, cellular component, and molecular function. A total 306 sequences were cut off at E-value $<10^3$ by blastX and sequences without annotation and InterPro are not included in this analysis.

Table 4.2 Identification of genes from forward SSH stomach cDNA library of *P. monodon* during EMS/AHPND pathogen infection.

Accession number	Length (bp)	Gene homology	Species homology	E-value	Similarity (%)	Function
EF213113	328	Cathepsin B	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	4.00E-38	100	Regulation of catalytic activity
	321	Allergen Pen m 2	<i>Fenneropenaeus chinensis</i>	1.00E-19	100	Kinase activity
	624	Spz1	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	4.00E-112	99	NF- κ B pathway
	382	Mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit VIb	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	3.00E-30	98	Cytochrome-c oxidase activity
	193	Ribosomal protein S9	<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>	7.00E-33	97	Translation
	939	Putative myosin regulatory light chain 2 smooth muscle	<i>Scylla paramamocain</i>	3.00E-08	97	Calcium ion binding
	394	Beta actin	<i>Scylla serrata</i>	1.00E-86	96	ATP binding
	177	Paxillin, putative	<i>Pediculus humanus corporis</i>	5.00E-30	84	Zinc ion binding
	1106	Spectrin beta chain	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	9.00E-117	83	Phospholipid binding
	657	Glutamyl-prolyl-tRNA synthetase	<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	3.00E-80	81	Prolyl-tRNA aminoacylation
	260	DD5	<i>Marsupenaeus japonicus</i>	5.00E-13	79	Structural constituent of cuticle
	551	Kinesin-like protein unc-104	<i>Harpegnathos saltator</i>	6.00E-68	78	Microtubule-based movement
	415	DD9B	<i>Marsupenaeus japonicus</i>	2.00E-43	78	Structural constituent of cuticle
	340	Cuticle protein AMP1B	<i>Homarus americanus</i>	5.00E-29	75	Structural constituent of cuticle
	722	Cytoplasmic dynein 1 light intermediate chain 2	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	2.00E-120	74	Microtubule motor activity
	426	Pacifastin heavy chain precursor	<i>Pacifastacus leniusculus</i>	2.00E-63	73	Iron ion transport
	323	Cuticle protein AMP1A	<i>Homarus americanus</i>	2.00E-26	73	Structural constituent of cuticle
	499	Pacifastin heavy chain	<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i>	2.00E-44	70	Iron ion transport
	207	Calcified cuticle protein CP14.1	<i>Callinectes sapidus</i>	2.00E-13	70	Structural constituent of cuticle
	578	DD9A	<i>Marsupenaeus japonicus</i>	2.00E-44	67	Structural constituent of cuticle
	537	Ig-like and fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein C25G4.10	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	1.00E-67	66	Cytokines and cytokine regulation

Table 4.2 Cont.

Accession number	Length (bp)	Gene homology	Species homology	E-value	Similarity (%)	Function
	435	BCS-1	<i>Amphibalanus amphitrite</i>	6.00E-15	62	Structural constituent of cuticle
	834	Clottable protein	<i>Marsipenaenus japonicus</i>	2.00E-100	59	Lipid transporter activity
	558	Chitin binding peritrophin-A domain-containing protein	<i>Artemia franciscana</i>	7.00E-10	59	Chitin metabolic process
	644	Salivary alkaline phosphatase	<i>Daphnia pulex</i>	2.00E-52	56	Alkaline phosphatase activity
	305	Cuticle protein 19.8	<i>Lepeophtheirus salmonis</i>	7.00E-19	56	Structural constituent of cuticle
	997	Paramyosin, long form	<i>Harpagathos saltator</i>	1.00E-71	55	Motor activity
	210	Cuticular protein RR-2 family member 23 precursor	<i>Nasonia vitripennis</i>	5.00E-16	54	Structural constituent of cuticle
	541	C-type lectin	<i>Marsipenaenus japonicus</i>	3.00E-32	53	Carbohydrate binding
	1610	Pacifastin heavy chain	<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i>	4.00E-98	50	Iron ion transport
	1156	Cuticle protein AM1159	<i>Cancer pagurus</i>	2.00E-11	50	Structural constituent of cuticle
	205	Histone H1	<i>Xenonorbella bocki</i>	8.00E-10	43	Nucleosome assembly
	250	Cuticle protein 16.8, partial	<i>Stegodyphus mimosarum</i>	4.00E-05	37	Structural constituent of cuticle

A total of 306 clones of the reverse SSH library was analyzed by manual NCBI blastX search and the low- quality sequences were discarded from analysis. A total of 297 clean sequences was identified into 135 clones of known transcripts (E -value $<10^{-3}$), 56 clones of hypothetical protein, 26 clones of unknown genes, and 80 clones of low or no homology (E -value $>10^{-3}$) identifying novel genes (Table 4.3). All sequences were assembled with CAP3 software. There were 41 contigs from 238 clones and 62 singletons. All known transcripts are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 3 The percentage and number of clones found in the reverse SSH stomach cDNA library of *P. monodon*

Transcripts	Number		
	%	Contigs	Clones
Known transcripts	44.12	13 (112 clones)	23
Hypothetical protein	18.30	8 (53 clones)	3
Novel genes	26.15	16 (54clones)	26
Unknown genes (predicted protein)	8.49	4 (20 clones)	6
Low-quality sequences	2.94	-	9
Total		41 (239 clones)	67

The relationship between the number of sequenced clones and the number of newly identified unique sequence indicated that the discovery of new transcripts after 306 recombinant clones still did not reach of saturation. The discovery rate was at 16.98% (Figure 4.19). Therefore, the new transcripts could be identified by further sequencing or by other technics. The highly discovered sequences revealed that the established library is highly diverse and more transcripts of genes respond to *V. parahaemolyticus* 3HP infection.

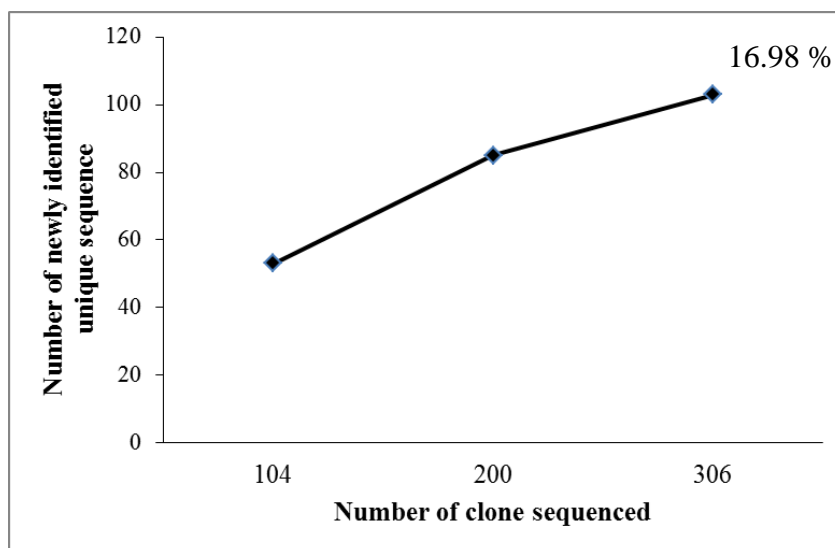


Figure 4.19 The relative number of clones sequenced and newly identified unique sequence from the reverse SSH stomach cDNA library of *P. monodon*

All contigs and singletons of the reverse SSH library were analyzed in accordance with Gene Ontology by Blast2GO program to define gene function.

Biological processes at level 2 were divided into 16 terms including metabolic process (29%), cellular process (18%), single-organism process (13%), biological adhesion (7%), biological regulation (6%), localization (5%), response to stimulus (5%), multicellular organismal process (3%), developmental process (3%), signaling (3%), cellular component organization or biogenesis (2%), locomotion (2%), immune system process (2%), multi-organism process (2%), reproduction (1%), and growth (1%) (Figure 4.20A).

Cellular components at level 2 were divided into 6 terms including extracellular region (33%), cell (24%), organelle (18%), macromolecular complex (11%), membrane (9%), and membrane-enclosed lumen (5%) (Figure 4.20B).

Molecular functions at level 2 were divided into 5 terms including binding (57%), catalytic activity (33%), structural molecule activity (24%), antioxidant activity (4%), and transporter activity (2%) (Figure 4.20C).

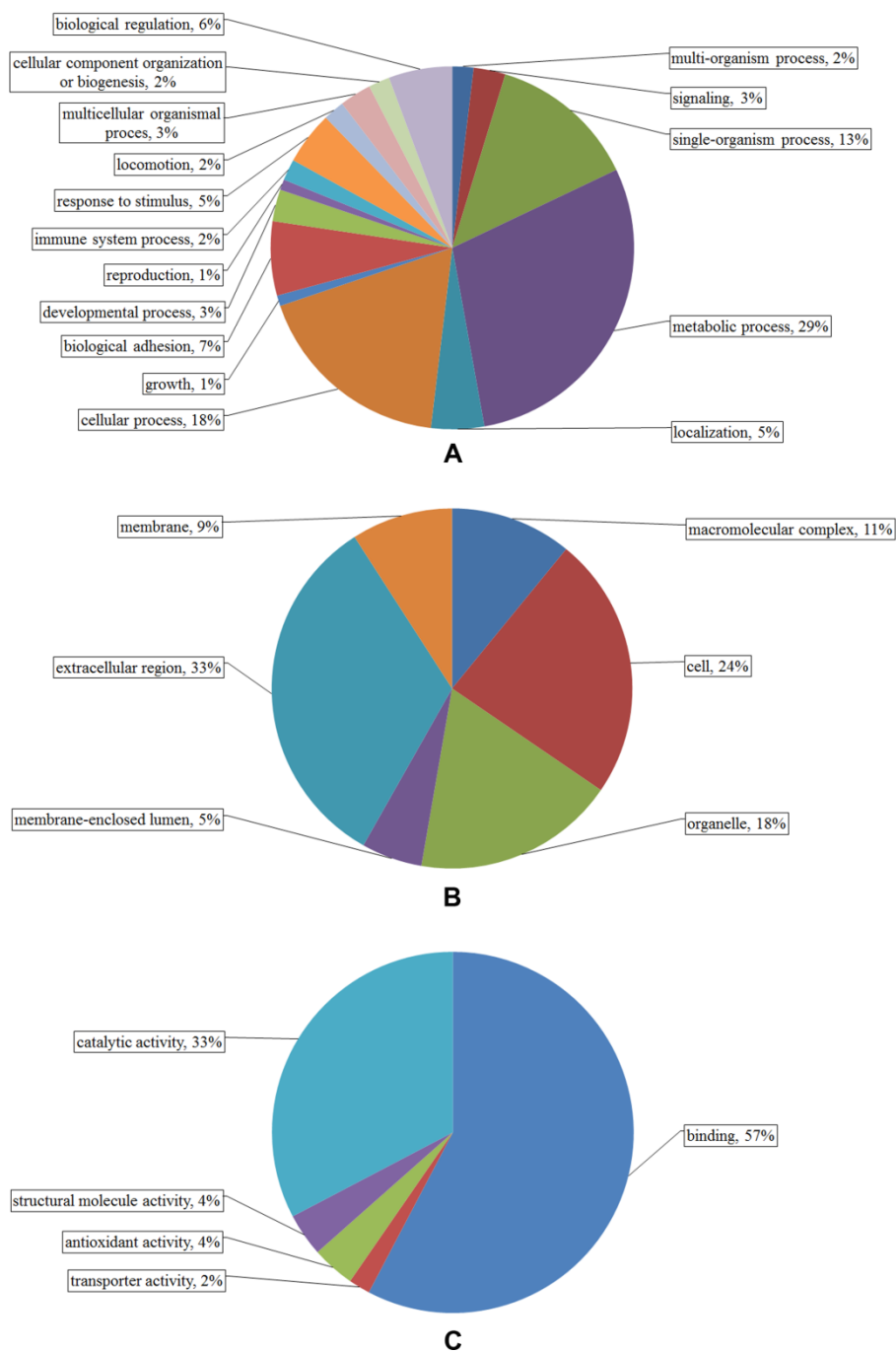


Figure 4.20 The percentage of three terms of gene ontology at level 2 in reverse SSH stomach cDNA library. A-C are biological process, cellular component, and molecular function. A total 306 sequences were cut off at E-value $<10^3$ by blastX and sequences without annotation and InterPro are not included in this analysis.

Table 4.4 Identification of genes from reverse SSH stomach cDNA library of *P. monodon* during EMS/AHPND pathogen infection.

Accession number	Length	Gene homology	Species homology	E-value	Similarity (%)	Function
	361	Activated protein kinase C receptor	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	1.00E-79	100	Kinase activity
	419	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	1.00E-87	100	Ligase activity
	185	Peroxiredoxin	<i>Fenneropenaeus indicus</i>	2.00E-34	100	Peroxiredoxin activity
	282	Ferritin	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	3.00E-59	100	Iron ion transport
	248	Astakine variant 1	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	8.00E-16	100	Cytokine directly involved in hematopoiesis
JX624789	100	Dicer 2	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	5.00E-12	100	RNA processing
FJ746694	726	Polehole-like protein (475-715)	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	5.00E-145	100	Other
FJ746694	209	Polehole-like protein (928-996)	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	2.00E-39	100	Other
AF510331	451	Ovarian peritrophin 1 precursor	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	8.00E-94	99	Chitin metabolic process
AY144581	1004	Thrombospondin	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1.00E-168	98	Calcium ion binding
EU707329	884	Cyclin A	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1.00E-79	98	Cell division
	592	Myosin light chain	<i>Marsupenaeus japonicus</i>	2.00E-88	97	Calcium ion binding
	364	Beta-actin	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	2.00E-74	96	ATP binding
JX413010	672	Thrombospondin II	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	8.00E-144	93	Calcium ion binding
	297	Ribosomal protein S10	<i>Palaemon varians</i>	4.00E-42	93	Ribosomal protein
JX413010	811	Thrombospondin II	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	7.00E-127	92	Calcium ion binding
GU451715	910	Thrombospondin protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	5.00E-97	88	Calcium ion binding
	445	40S ribosomal protein S13	<i>Danio rerio</i>	3.00E-78	86	Translation
AY144582	387	Thrombospondin	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1.00E-27	84	Calcium ion binding
	294	Cytochrome oxidase subunit II	<i>Lepidopa californica</i>	3.00E-41	82	Copper ion binding
	258	Peritrophin 3 precursor	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	8.00E-41	76	Chitin metabolic process

Table 4.4 Cont.

Accession number	Length	Gene homology	Species homology	E-value	Similarity (%)	Function
	282	Peritrophin	<i>Femeropeanaeus chinensis</i>	3.00E-40	71	Chitin metabolic process
	293	Ovarian peritrophin 2 precursor	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	3.00E-41	71	Chitin metabolic process
GU566728	454	Saposin isoform 1	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	2.00E-57	69	Sphingolipid metabolic process
	741	I-connectin	<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>	3.00E-83	67	Hydrolase activity
	493	Cell division control protein 42 homolog	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	4.00E-14	66	Cell division
	707	AAEL012429-PA	<i>Aedes aegypti</i>	2.00E-57	63	Negative regulation of vasodilation
	225	GPx isotype 2	<i>Peromereis nuntia</i>	2.00E-24	62	Peroxidase activity
	712	Lethal 35Di	<i>Anopheles darlingi</i>	2.00E-35	59	Other
	351	GJ21623	<i>Drosophila virilis</i>	7.00E-22	50	Carbohydrate metabolic process
	587	Chondroitin proteoglycan 2	<i>Stegodyphus mimosarum</i>	5.00E-23	49	Chitin metabolic process
	398	Reverse transcriptase/ribonuclease H	<i>Nuttalliella namaqua</i>	2.00E-27	47	RNA-directed DNA polymerase activity
	692	Polehole-like protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	2.00E-46	46	Other
	1044	Chondroitin proteoglycan 2	<i>Stegodyphus mimosarum</i>	3.00E-20	41	Chitin metabolic process
	543	Methionine adenosyltransferase	<i>Ptychodera flava</i>	1.00E-19	38	Catalytic activity
	849	GJ13907	<i>Drosophila virilis</i>	1.00E-07	35	Chitin metabolic process

4.5.2 Validation of stomach cDNA libraries from suppression subtractive hybridization (SSH)

Real-time PCR was performed on 18 selected genes from the forward and reverse libraries, which based on the difference of gene ontology term, immunity or some unknown genes. Gene expressions of infected stomachs of shrimp at 3, 6, 12 hours post infection from the forward library were compared with uninfected shrimp (control). Salivary alkaline phosphatase and pacifastin heavy chain precursor were also significantly increased at 6 hours post infection (Figure 4.21A, B). The expression levels of 7 genes from the forward library consisted of cuticle protein AMP1B, clottable protein, Ig-like and fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein (predicted protein), DD9A, cathepsin B, C-type lectin and Spz1 were increased in infected stomach (Figure 4.21C-I). In addition, the expression patterns at each time point were examined. At 3 hours post infection, the expression of cuticle protein AMP1B, salivary alkaline phosphatase, Ig-like and fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein and pacifastin heavy chain precursor were down-regulated slightly, while clottable protein and cathepsin B were up-regulated slightly. At 12 hours post infection, salivary alkaline phosphatase was down-regulated significantly, while the expression of cuticle protein AMP1B, clottable protein, Spz1, pacifastin heavy chain precursor and cathepsin B were continuously up-regulated (Figure 4.21).

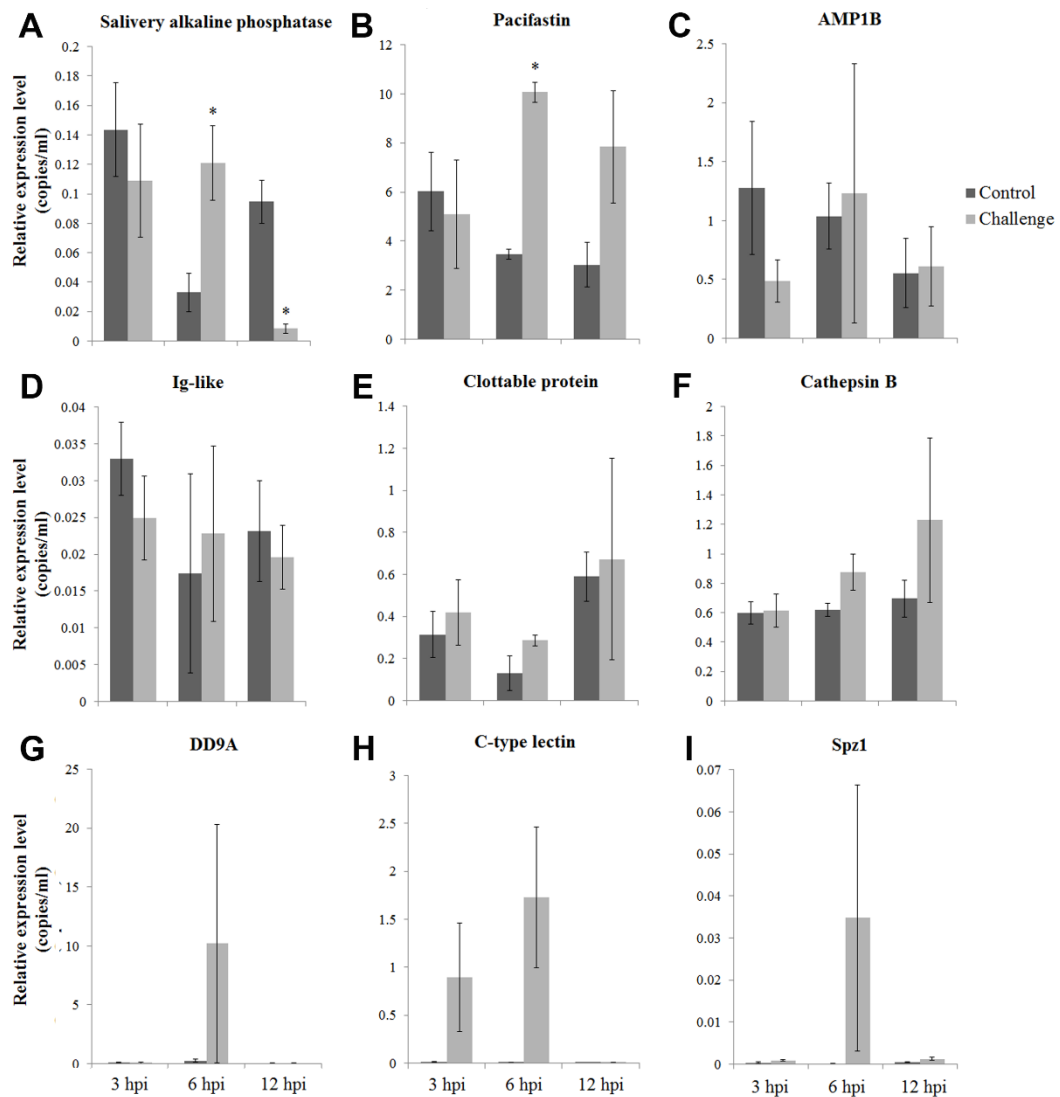


Figure 4.21 Quantitative real-time PCR of selected transcripts from the forward SSH stomach cDNA library of the *P. monodon*. Triplicate samples of each control and challenged group. Elongation 1- α factor was used as internal control. Error bars were express as \pm SEM (n=3). (A) Salivary alkaline phosphatase, (B) Pacifastin heavy chain precursor, (C) AMP1B, (D) Ig-like and fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein (predicted protein), (E) Clottable protein, (F) Cathepsin B, (G) DD9A, (H) C-type lectin and (I) Spz1

From the reverse library GPx isotype 2, ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, I-connectin, fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein (predicted protein), chondroitin proteoglycan 2, peroxiredoxin, ferritin, astakine variant 1 and dicer 2 were examined. The expression of ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, ferritin, astakine variant 1 and dicer 2 were increased significantly (Figure 4.22A-D), while GPx isotype 2, I-connectin, chondriotin pepteoglycan 2 and peroxiredoxin were down-regulated (Figure 4.28E-H). Fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein was gradually reduced in expression at 6 hours post infection (Figure 4.22I). At 3 hours post infection, the expression of chondriotin proteoglycan 2 was up-regulated significantly. Additionally, the expression of ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, I-connectin, ferritin, astakine variant 1 and dicer 2 were moderately up-regulated, while GPx isotype 2, fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein and peroxiredoxin were down-regulated slightly. At 12 hours post infection, ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b and dicer 2 transcription were significantly increased in expression. Moreover, fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein, ferritin and astakine variant 1 were increased, while GPx isotype 2, chondriotin pepteoglycan 2 and peroxiredoxin were reduced in expression (Figure 4.22).



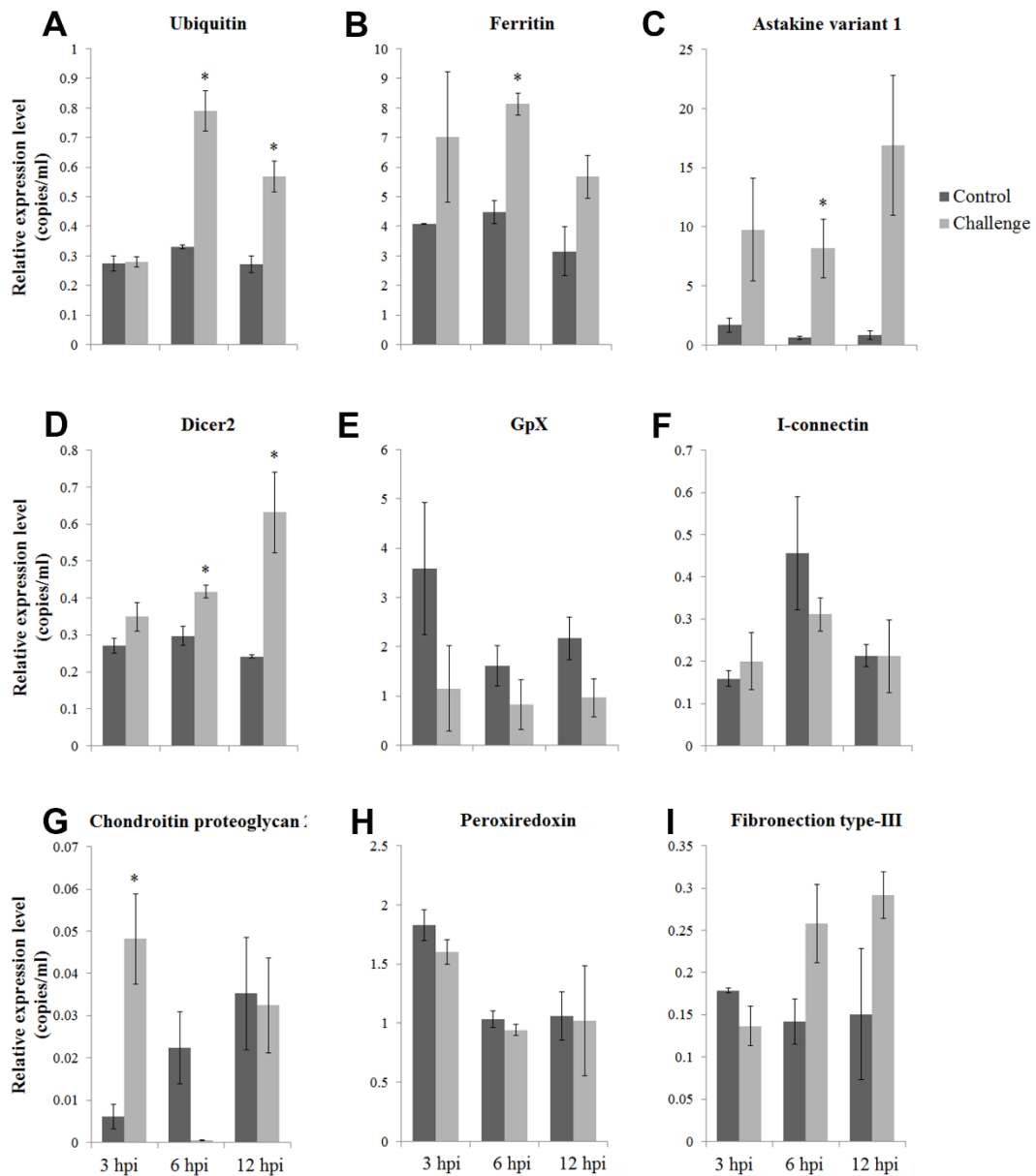


Figure 4.22 Quantitative real-time PCR of selected transcripts from the reverse SSH stomach cDNA library of the *P. monodon*. Triplicate samples of each control and challenged group. Elongation 1- α factor was used as internal control. Error bars were express as \pm SEM (n=3). (A) Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, (B) Ferritin (C) Astakine variant 1, (D) Dicer 2, (E) GPx isotype 2, (F) I-connectin (G) Chondroitin proteoglycan 2, (H) Peroxiredoxin and (I) Fibronectin type-III domain-containing protein (predicted protein)

4.5.3 A transcriptome of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) of stomach cDNA libraries by ion torrent sequencing

Four transcriptomes of stomach cDNA library were prepared from four groups ; two control and two challenged groups of *P. monodon*. Initially, the total RNA was pooled from 5 stomachs of each group. The mRNA was purified (Figure 4.23), cDNA was synthesized and sequenced using Ion Proton™ Semiconductor Sequencer.

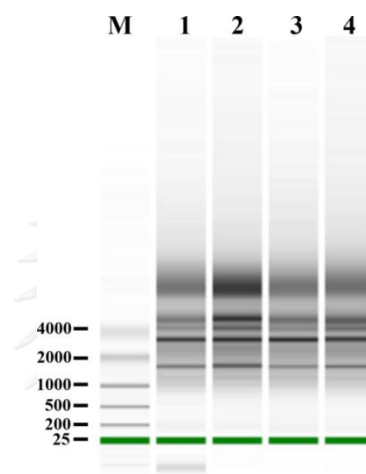


Figure 4.23 The quality of mRNA purified from 4 pooled stomach samples of *P. monodon* control (lane 1-2) and challenged (lane 3-4) groups, respectively. Lane M: DNA marker.

A total of 19,222,349 raw reads was obtained from the control 1 (8,409,850) and control 2 (10,812,499) groups, and 43,224,807 reads from the challenged 1 (23,306,782) and challenged 2 (19,918,025) groups. The average read length of control 1, control 2, challenge 1 and challenge 2 were 122.5, 117.3, 107.0 and 113.2 bp, respectively. The raw reads were further filtered to remove adaptor sequences, ambiguous reads and low quality reads, and as a result of this generating 7,589,049 (90.24%), 9,606,154 (88.84%), 21,651,269 (92.90%) and 18,419,290 (92.48%) of control 1, control 2, challenged 1 and challenged 2, respectively. The average read length after trimming was 129.0, 124.8, 110.5 and 117.3 bp of control 1, control 2, challenged 1 and challenged 2, respectively (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Summary of control and challenged transcriptome sequencing

Description	Samples				
	Control1	Control2	Treatment1	Treatment2	Total
Raw read (base)	1,029,950,375	1,268,165,451	2,492,811,657	2,255,706,674	7,046,634,157
Raw read (reads)	8,409,850	10,812,499	23,306,782	19,918,025	62,447,156
Average reads length (base)	122.5	117.3	107	113.2	
Number of reads after trimming	7,589,049	9,606,154	21,651,269	18,419,290	57,265,762
Average reads length after trimming (base)	129	124.8	110.5	117.3	-
Percentage of trimmed reads	90.24%	88.84%	92.90%	92.48%	-
Total of contigs	37,094	39,235	42,733	42,188	42,998
blastX hit	15,005	16,053	16,387	16,269	16,457
blastX no hit	22,089	23,182	26,346	25,919	26,541

All the clean reads were assembled using CLC Genomics Workbench software to generate *de novo* transcriptomes. The assembly of total reads produced 42,998 contigs (with N₅₀ of 740 bp and mean of length 657 bp), and the length of contigs ranged from 113 to 13,364 bp. There were 34,417 shared contigs in both control and challenged groups. Thirty-three contigs were found in control groups but were not found in the challenged groups, and 1,418 contigs were found in the challenged groups but were not found in the control groups (Figure 4.24).

High-quality reads were used to analyze the DEGs using CLC Genomics Workbench software. A total of 4,648 from 42,998 assembled contigs (10.81%) demonstrated significantly DEGs between control (*Artemia*-fed) and challenged (*Artemia* with *V. parahemolyticus*-fed) shrimp. Additionally, all contigs were searched against the GeneBank database using the Blast2GO program. Finally, contigs from differentially expressed analysis and blastX were merged. A total of 1,585 from 42,998 assembled contigs (3.69%) were significantly DEGs matching known transcription (E -value $<10^{-5}$). Of the 1,585 contigs that exhibited differential expression profiles, 278 contigs (271 unique genes) of known transcripts, 91 contigs (91 unique genes) of hypothetical proteins, 26 contigs (24 unique genes) of predicted proteins and 4 contigs (4 unique genes) of unknown proteins were down-regulated, and 843 contigs (738

unique genes) of known transcripts, 276 contigs (272 unique genes) of hypothetical proteins, 63 contigs (63 unique genes) of predicted proteins and 4 contigs (4 unique genes) of unknown protein were up-regulated in the challenged shrimp, as compared with the expression profiles in the control group (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Significantly differentially expressed contigs of the stomach cDNA transcriptome between shrimp *Artemia*-fed and *Artemia* with *V. parahemolyticus*-fed

Transcripts	Down-regulated at 6 hours post infection		Up-regulated at 6 hours post infection	
	Contigs	Unique genes	Contigs	Unique genes
Known transcripts	278	271	843	783
Hypothetical protein	91	91	276	272
Predicted protein	26	26	63	63
Unknown protein	4	4	4	4
Total	399	392	1,186	1,122

The species distribution of the best match result from the database using Blast2GO program for each sequence is shown in Figure 4.25. A top blast species is damp-wood termite *Zootermopsis nevadensis* (15.53%) followed by water flea *Daphnia pulex* (8.94%), red flour beetle *Tribolium castaneum* (4.25%), black tiger shrimp *P. monodon* (3.00%) and head louse *Pediculus humanus* (2.87%).

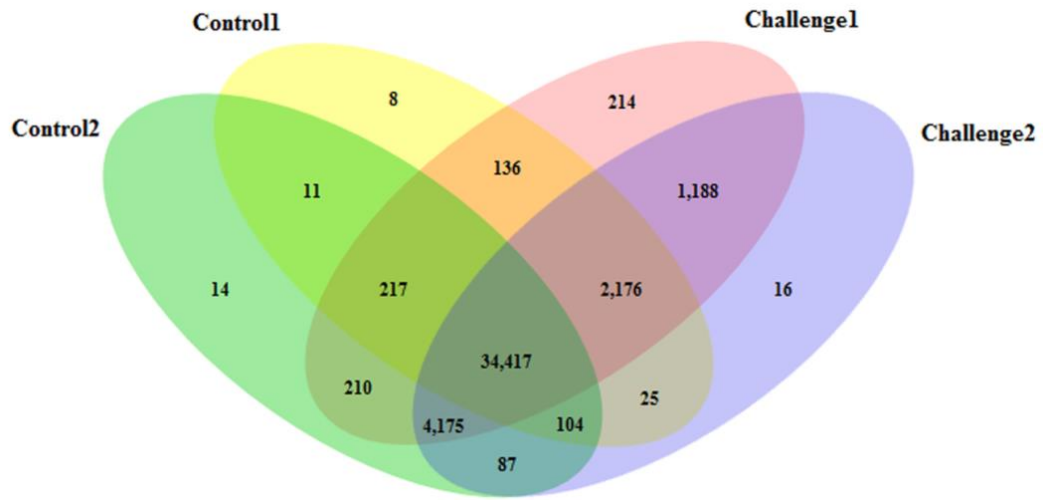


Figure 4.24 The Overlap of contigs expressed in each transcriptome.

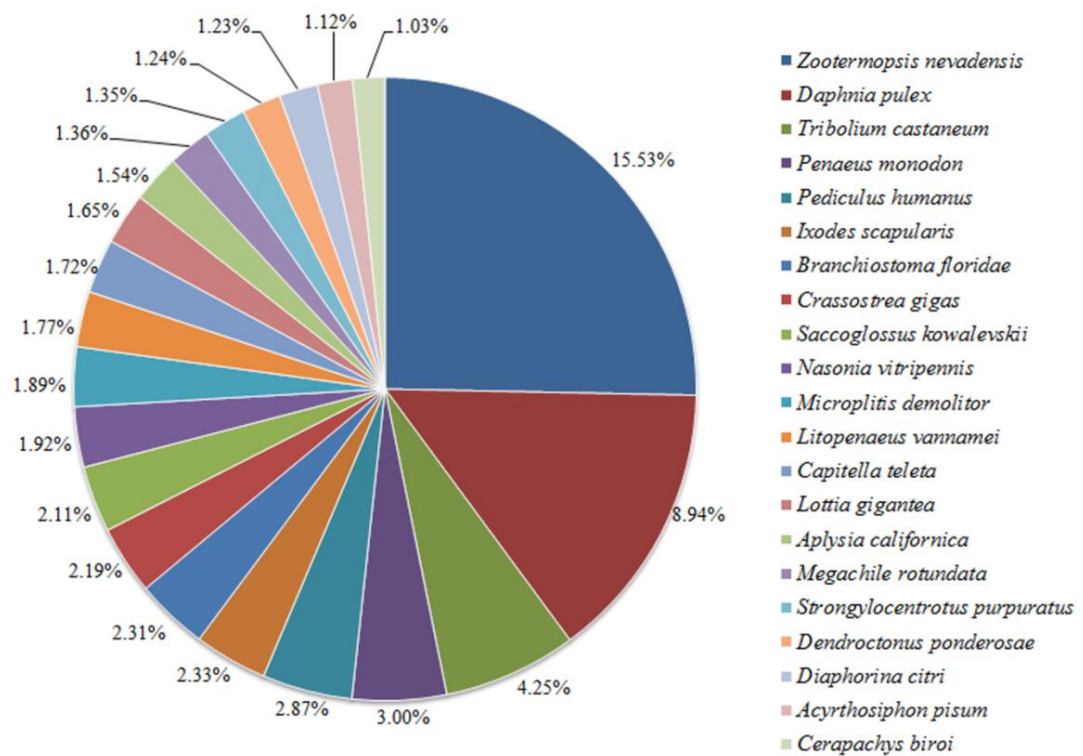


Figure 4.25 The species distribution of blastX result. Different colors represent each species. The percentage of each species more than 1% contigs are shown.

A total of 1,585 contigs of significantly DEGs and known transcription was analyzed in accordance with Gene Ontology by Blast2GO program to define gene function. The biological processes at level 2 was divided into 12 terms including metabolic process (23.79%), cellular process (23.66%), single-organism process (16.34%), localization (9.41%), cellular component organization or biogenesis (6.80%), response to stimulus (6.14%), biological regulation (5.10%), signaling (4.18%), biological adhesion (1.96%), immune system process (1.70%), developmental process (0.78%) and locomotion (0.13%).

The cellular components at level 2 were divided into 6 terms including cell (40.66%), organelle (26.26%), macromolecular complex (20.62%), extracellular region (7.98%), membrane (2.72%) and membrane-enclosed lumen (1.75%).

The molecular functions at level 2 were divided into 9 terms including binding (42.94%), catalytic activity (38.55%), transporter activity (7.63%), structural molecule activity (4.20%), molecular transducer activity (2.86%), nucleic acid binding transcription factor activity (1.91%), molecular function regulator (1.72%) and transcription factor activity, protein binding (0.19%) (Figure 4.26).

The DEGs was mapped to the referential canonical pathway in Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database using Blast2Go program. From KEEG pathway analysis, forty-five pathways were presented in significant differentially expressed contigs. A top pathway is purine metabolism (22.41%) followed by thiamine metabolism (16.81%), biosynthesis of antibiotics (6.90%), amino benzoate degradation (4.31%), oxidative phosphorylation (4.31%) and T cell receptor signaling pathway (3.45%) (Figure 4.27).

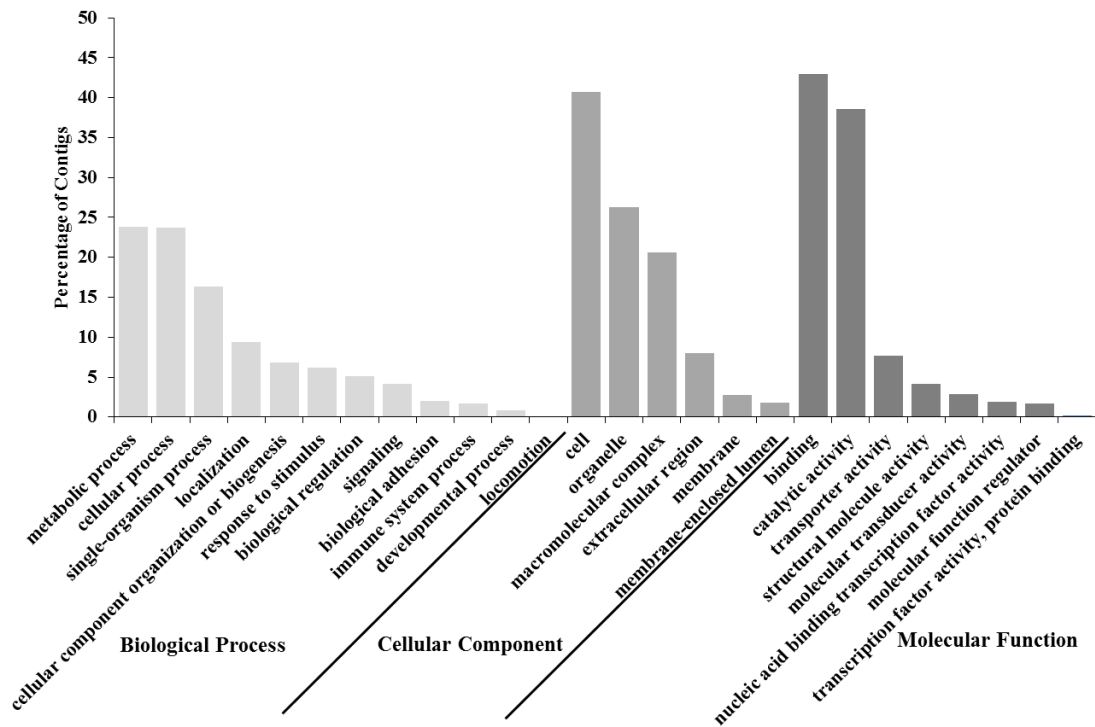


Figure 4.26 The percentage of three terms of gene ontology at level 2 in significant differentially expressed and known transcript contigs of stomach cDNA transcriptome. Total 1,585 contigs were cut off at E-value $<10^5$ by blastX and sequences without annotation are not included in this analysis.

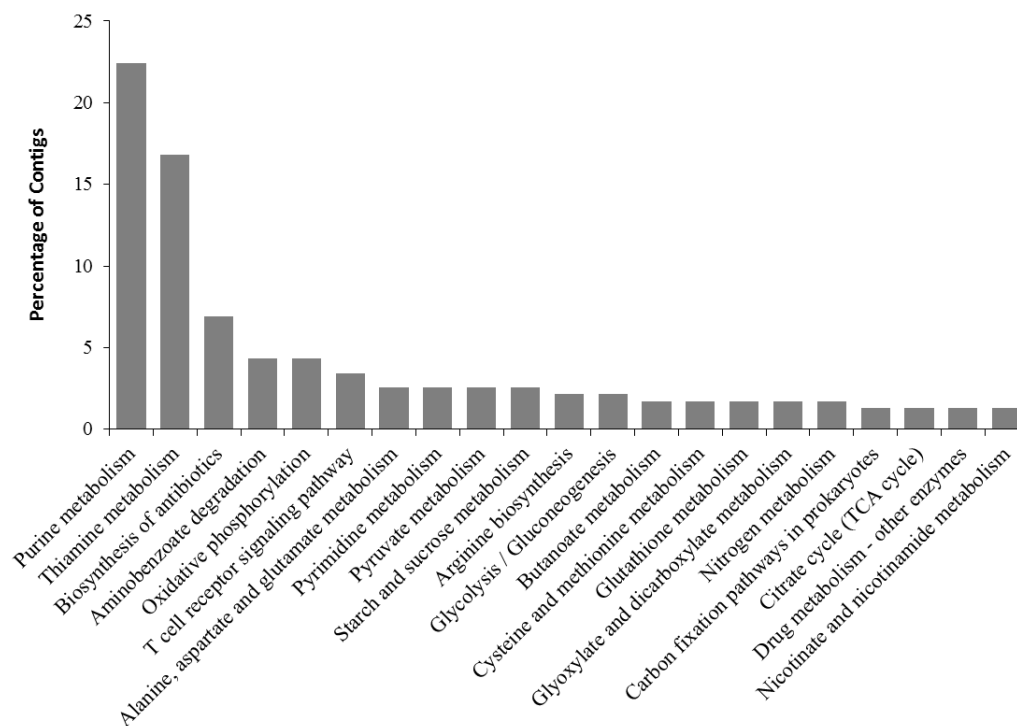


Figure 4.27 The percentage of KEGG pathway analysis of significant differentially expressed and known transcript contigs of stomach cDNA transcriptome. A total of 1,585 contigs were cut off at E-value $<10^5$ by blastX and sequences without annotation are not included in this analysis. The percentage of each species more than 1% was shown.

DEGs were manually clustered to the immune-gene system. These immune genes were divided into 11 functions including antibacterial peptides, proPO system, oxidative stress, proteinases/proteinase inhibitors, apoptosis tumor-related protein, pathogen recognition immune regulators, blood clotting system, adhesive proteins, heat shock proteins, signal transduction pathways (Toll pathway, IMD pathway, JAK/STAT pathway, MAPK pathway, other signal pathway) and other immune genes (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Differentially expressed immune-related genes from stomach cDNA transcriptome of *P. monodon* during EMS/AHPND pathogen infection.

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
Antimicrobial peptide							
Contig11603	AER45468	Anti-lipopolysaccharide factor isoform 6	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	630	7.51E-62	95	3.83
Contig6243	ACD11038	Crustin 3	<i>Fenneropenaeus chinensis</i>	529	7.88E-75	90	-2.27
Contig2269	ACZ63472	I-type lysozyme-like protein 2	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1295	4.50E-65	84	1.68
Contig27627	AFU61126	Antilipopolysaccharide factor isoform 3	<i>Fenneropenaeus chinensis</i>	561	1.85E-38	78	3.17
Contig6231	ABV25094	Crustin-like antimicrobial peptide	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	314	1.69E-10	40	-2.69
proPO system							
Contig6001	ABI78947	Serine protease-like protein isoform 1	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	503	1.29E-32	100	4.19
Contig13245	ACP19561	Clip domain serine proteinase 2	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1155	5.92E-143	99	10.35
Contig218	AIE45536	Prophenoloxidase 2-like protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1543	0.00E+00	99	-2.21
Contig14774	ADC42876	Serine proteinase inhibitor 6	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1438	1.04E-121	98	5.58
Contig13303	BAN20620	Serine/threonine-protein kinase tricomer	<i>Riptortus pedestris</i>	1212	2.92E-180	96	2.11
Contig3187	KDR14763	Serine/threonine-protein kinase mig-15	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	1388	6.75E-179	94	1.60
Contig4996	ADR74382	Prophenoloxidase-activating enzyme 2a	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	2940	3.25E-116	93	2.48
Contig1966	ADC42877	Serine proteinase inhibitor B3	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	2256	1.69E-114	92	2.26
Contig18189	ADC42879	Serine proteinase inhibitor 8	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	704	9.69E-57	87	3.21
Contig2139	ACP19563	Masquerade-like serine proteinase-like protein 3	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	2505	3.04E-152	86	-2.18
Contig40356	AFA42361	Clip domain serine proteinase 3	<i>Portunus trituberculatus</i>	382	9.94E-19	76	22.32
Contig5116	AFH40332	Prophenoloxidase activating factor	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	334	1.60E-16	76	6.17
Contig12360	AFC61248	Serine proteinase 1	<i>Portunus trituberculatus</i>	1398	9.57E-40	75	2.18

Table 4.7 Cont. (1)

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
proPO system (cont.)							
Contig22137	EZA57507	Serine/threonine-protein kinase 17B	<i>Cerapachys biroi</i>	742	3.49E-55	74	2.81
Contig2544	AGL39540	Serine proteinase inhibitor	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	1791	4.29E-46	70	9.86
Contig7691	EGZ26432	Kazal-like serine protease inhibitor domain-containing protein	<i>Phytosphthora sojae</i>	389	1.80E-07	68	2.97
Contig678	EFN63998	Serine proteinase stubble	<i>Camponotus floridanus</i>	2083	3.06E-38	58	-2.87
Contig17737	CAA57964	Putative serine proteinase inhibitor	<i>Pacifastacus leniusculus</i>	323	8.87E-12	53	2.74
Contig7496	KDQ97270	Serine/threonine-protein kinase unc-51	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	910	1.31E-13	42	1.71
Oxidative stress							
Contig1507	ABZ80828	Peroxiredoxin	<i>Panaeus monodon</i>	1374	6.07E-140	99	-1.98
Contig520	NP_006692	Thioredoxin-like protein 4A	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	570	2.32E-76	97	2.81
Contig12171	KDR14020	Kelch-like protein 26	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	418	1.28E-53	94	2.18
Contig9708	ACY66462	Thioredoxin-like protein-like protein	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	261	3.20E-25	92	-2.27
Contig2090	KDR09657	Putative oxidoreductase GLYR1-like protein, partial	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	396	9.72E-46	85	2.53
Contig988	KDR21878	TAR DNA-binding protein 43	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	4470	5.05E-111	83	1.99
Contig19859	KDR11784	Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	518	5.49E-44	82	5.16
Contig17998	ACO12647	Thioredoxin domain-containing protein 9	<i>Lepeophtheirus salmonis</i>	929	2.81E-59	74	3.59
Contig4520	EZA58046	Glutathione S-transferase theta-1	<i>Cerapachys biroi</i>	1121	1.21E-52	73	-1.60
Contig4572	ADO00931	Calnexin	<i>Panaeus monodon</i>	3048	2.55E-172	85	1.61
Proteinases/proteinase inhibitors							
Contig30939	ACF28464	Single whey acidic protein domain-containing protein isoform 1	<i>Panaeus monodon</i>	409	1.49E-25	100	-2.29
Contig10257	ACU31810	Alpha2 macroglobulin isoform 2	<i>Femmenopaeus chinensis</i>	899	8.32E-162	98	2.98

Table 4.7 Cont. (2)

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
Proteinases/proteinase inhibitors (cont.)							
Contig5228	AFW04307	Alkaline phosphatase, partial	<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i>	1296	2.16E-59	87	1.67
Contig1452	KDR16648	Hemocyte protein-glutamine gamma-glutamyltransferase, partial	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	1812	1.81E-76	79	1.54
Contig7041	AEC50080	Alpha-2-macroglobulin	<i>Pacificastacus leniusculus</i>	334	6.28E-29	76	-1.70
Contig16328	EFX85107	Salivary alkaline phosphatase	<i>Daphnia pulex</i>	960	1.95E-34	71	1.97
Contig10724	AGL61584	Caspase 4	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	315	3.76E-10	69	3.28
Contig4726	ACU31809	Alpha2 macroglobulin isoform 3	<i>Fenneropenaeus chinensis</i>	1889	1.79E-90	67	3.24
Contig515	ABP97431	Alpha 2 macroglobulin	<i>Fenneropenaeus chinensis</i>	1731	7.44E-80	66	-2.69
Contig11083	P04069	Carboxypeptidase B	<i>Astacus astacus</i>	1455	4.39E-35	60	1.91
Contig3358	XP_002905060	Protease inhibitor Epi11	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	1286	1.95E-36	51	-2.62
Contig16910	ADM45311	Caspase	<i>Eriocheir sinensis</i>	1911	1.79E-21	48	2.43
Apoptotic tumor-related protein							
Contig1767	ABU54835	Defender against apoptotic death	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	593	4.24E-58	100	-1.91
Contig65	ABO38431	Inhibitor of apoptosis protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	2865	0.00E+00	95	2.60
Contig35863	AAO61938	Translationally controlled tumor protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	455	7.30E-09	87	7.00
Contig13614	AET34917	Apoptosis inhibitor	<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i>	573	1.22E-72	87	-2.62
Contig2827	CCI71879	Gelsolin	<i>Homarus americanus</i>	1113	1.62E-134	77	-1.50
Contig14638	XP_002424620	Huntingtin-interacting protein, putative	<i>Pedicularius humanus corporis</i>	1192	1.24E-34	74	4.45
Contig12200	KDR10981	Histone deacetylase complex subunit SAP130	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	923	2.37E-34	70	2.38
Contig13595	EKC33017	BRC-A1-associated protein	<i>Cyrtosstrea gigas</i>	513	1.04E-42	68	2.39
Contig6080	EZA51743	Bcl-2-like protein	<i>Cerapachys biroi</i>	733	1.11E-21	58	3.63
Contig19079	XP_002413818	Programmed cell death protein, putative	<i>Ixodes scapularis</i>	1246	7.25E-65	58	2.94

Table 4.7 Cont. (3)

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
Apoptotic tumor-related protein (cont.)							
Contig2937	KDR14988	Autophagy-related protein 9A	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	338	3.56E-08	51	-2.26
Pathogen recognition immune regulator							
Contig9538	ACJ06432	C-type lectin 4	<i>Femmeropenaenus chinensis</i>	1048	4.98E-74	99	5.55
Contig9040	AFJ59950	L-type lectin	<i>Marsupenaenus japonicus</i>	1157	3.24E-165	95	1.69
Contig8026	NP_001165397	C-type lectin 4 precursor	<i>Bombyx mori</i>	694	1.04E-15	89	-1.58
Contig2082	AAM73796	Hemolectin-like protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	590	3.64E-62	84	1.54
Contig21561	AHA83583	C-type lectin 2	<i>Marsupenaenus japonicus</i>	405	5.11E-47	78	1.91
Contig2081	ABG75717	Hemolectin	<i>Callinectes sapidus</i>	286	9.75E-27	72	1.97
Contig9634	AFJ59945	C-type lectin 1	<i>Marsupenaenus japonicus</i>	374	1.07E-20	63	3.57
Contig1315	KDR23192	Hemocytin, partial	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	311	6.20E-21	58	2.04
Contig14941	AFJ59948	Galectin	<i>Marsupenaenus japonicus</i>	281	5.05E-07	57	3.47
Contig9291	NP_001088141	Fibrinogen C domain-containing protein 1-B	<i>Xenopus laevis</i>	1125	1.35E-19	50	2.42
Blood clotting system							
Contig34408	Q9U572	Clottable protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	482	9.53E-12	100	73.24
Contig2364	ABW77320	Clottable protein 2	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1352	3.27E-13	100	6.31
Contig66	Q9U572	Clottable protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	370	3.55E-40	82	-2.10
Contig192	ABK59925	Clottable protein	<i>Marsupenaenus japonicus</i>	737	4.63E-76	80	-1.79
Contig14294	ABI95361	Hemolymph clottable protein	<i>Litopenaenus vannameti</i>	1992	3.21E-21	63	-2.22
Adhesive protein							
Contig15413	XP_001655514	Integrin-linked protein kinase 2 (ilk-2)	<i>Aedes aegypti</i>	659	4.71E-20	96	2.06
Contig1032	ABB55269	Peroxinectin	<i>Femmeropenaenus chinensis</i>	2530	0.00E+00	95	2.56
Contig747	ACY82398	Integrin	<i>Litopenaenus vannameti</i>	2734	0.00E+00	88	1.81

Table 4.7 Cont. (4)

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
Adhesive protein (cont.)							
Contig31694	KDR07128	Nischarin	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	420	1.93E-09	62	4.04
Heat shock protein							
Contig40849	AFX84616	Heat shock protein 70 cognate	<i>Frankliniella occidentalis</i>	350	9.91E-11	97	14.00
Contig4288	CAL68989	Heat shock protein 70 kda	<i>Cyanograea praedator</i>	1523	0.00E+00	94	2.07
Contig1716	ADA79523	Heat shock protein 70	<i>Moina mongolica</i>	1588	2.76E-86	93	2.15
Contig37792	EZA51720	Hsp90 co-chaperone Cdc37	<i>Cerapachys biroi</i>	343	2.70E-40	86	7.27
Contig8219	XP_002430975	Protein tumorous imaginal discs, putative	<i>Pediculus humanus corporis</i>	883	3.03E-52	78	1.83
Contig14014	EFX90405	Copper transporting patpase, ATP7a-like protein	<i>Daphnia pulex</i>	893	1.88E-73	74	2.63
Contig26178	EDL82295	Similar to dnaj (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily B, member 14 isoform 1, isoform CRA_a	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	269	7.11E-09	68	3.08
Contig20060	AET34915	Heat shock protein 21	<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i>	1675	2.10E-23	44	38.17
Signal transduction pathway							
Toll pathway							
Contig5162	AGO81723	Flightless-I	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	1097	6.51E-96	89	-1.70
Contig12249	AGK40936	Toll-7	<i>Nilaparvata lugens</i>	744	6.23E-44	80	-3.64
Contig12355	AFO38331	Cactus protein	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	788	5.94E-59	67	3.42
Contig7118	KDR21043	Protein toll	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	913	1.49E-49	66	-3.01
IMD pathway							
Contig29295	ACL37048	IMD	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	388	5.77E-30	100	-2.70
Contig9049	AFH66691	Relish	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	3096	0.00E+00	85	2.39

Table 4.7 Cont. (5)

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
Signal transduction pathway (cont.)							
<i>JAK/STAT pathway</i>							
Contig2094	ADQ43367	HMGbb	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	1664	4.72E-84	100	1.85
Contig22409	KDR08064	HMG box transcription factor BBX	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	449	5.59E-33	87	3.50
Contig1934	AAA39332	IFN-response element binding factor 2, partial	<i>Mus musculus</i>	1211	5.22E-12	42	-1.79
Contig2730	AHH29324	Cytokine receptor	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	1998	1.92E-74	60	2.69
Contig5943	AEI83865	Kruppel-like factor	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1332	0.00E+00	100	3.04
Contig14190	KDR21282	Ankyrin repeat family A protein 2	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	864	6.48E-52	70	-2.94
Contig3739	KDR22205	Ankyrin repeat and KH domain-containing protein 1	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	682	6.90E-41	64	-2.37
<i>MAPK signal pathway</i>							
Contig1964	ACY66411	Map kinase-interacting serine/threonine	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	1879	1.13E-161	97	1.69
Contig6457	AHA93093	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	1208	1.09E-118	93	1.90
Contig6817	KDR19052	Mitogen-activated protein-binding protein-interacting protein	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	820	6.48E-43	81	3.18
Contig36524	KDR08718	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 7-interacting protein 1	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	459	1.72E-29	66	7.08
Contig1455	KDR21261	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 1	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	986	9.08E-59	58	-2.55
<i>Other signal pathway</i>							
Contig1366	AFV09848	R.AS-like protein, partial	<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>	1194	7.46E-80	100	2.79
Contig4989	KDR09308	Ras-related protein Rab-2A	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	733	3.73E-102	98	1.72
Contig2135	ADV76255	Ras homolog enriched in brain	<i>Homarus americanus</i>	1345	3.61E-89	95	1.93
Contig1295	EKC27215	Ras GTPase-activating protein-binding protein 2	<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	1029	6.59E-39	87	1.96
Contig23364	KDR21730	Ras-related protein Rab-21	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	371	1.77E-07	74	5.12

Table 4.7 Cont. (6)

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
Signal transduction pathway (cont.)							
Other signal pathway							
Contig9223	EFN84867	Casein kinase II subunit alpha	<i>Harpegnathos saltator</i>	1276	3.17E-172	91	1.76
Contig15151	AEN25586	prdm1	<i>Penomylon marinus</i>	1744	4.78E-10	73	2.03
Contig22323	KDR18212	Zinc finger CCHC domain-containing protein 9	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	333	1.55E-27	71	3.36
Contig14237	EFN80830	Zinc finger CCCH domain-containing protein 10	<i>Harpegnathos saltator</i>	506	1.29E-08	68	2.82
Contig13525	KDR14709	Zinc finger CCCH domain-containing protein 11A	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	1093	1.74E-16	54	2.92
Contig32403	XP_001843776	Zinc finger protein 58	<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	272	6.64E-07	52	3.02
Contig34610	EKC42560	Dual serine/threonine and tyrosine protein kinase	<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	449	6.63E-18	67	-1.83
Other immune genes							
Contig736	AGV55412	Arginine kinase	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	443	1.47E-57	100	-2.48
Contig528	ABH10628	Laminin receptor	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	373	4.60E-56	100	-3.17
Contig5650	ABI98679	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	1117	1.45E-82	100	2.22
Contig3862	ADK63101	Thrombospondin protein	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1272	4.77E-11	100	10.35
Contig3826	AEC48730	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2 b	<i>Eriocheir sinensis</i>	1109	2.07E-81	100	2.04
Contig10673	AGI56293	Thrombospondin II	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	828	1.03E-11	100	3.46
Contig13409	AGG20312	Peritrophin	<i>Palaemon carinicauda</i>	530	8.44E-61	97	-1.98
Contig3972	AGL08684	Dicer 2	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	1822	0.00E+00	97	2.30
Contig1124	ACY66506	Ubiquitin associated protein 2-like protein	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	952	3.28E-18	92	-1.73
Contig23087	ACV32380	Thrombospondin	<i>Fenneropenaeus merguensis</i>	489	8.01E-11	91	4.60
Contig10277	ADG22164	Chitinase 2	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	564	5.88E-32	91	-2.05
Contig21333	AAZ66371	Peritrophin	<i>Fenneropenaeus chinensis</i>	547	1.46E-18	88	-2.33

Table 4.7 Cont. (7)

No.	Accession NO.	Gene homology	Species homology	Size (bp)	E-value	Similarity (%)	Fold Change
<i>Signal transduction pathway (cont.)</i>							
<i>Other signal pathway (cont.)</i>							
contig19798	KDR20136	Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase 2	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	617	4.67E-61	84	3.36
contig8009	AEB54793	single VWC domain protein 3	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	353	2.78E-16	83	-6.52
contig10735	KDR15871	Laminin subunit beta-1	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	559	2.81E-15	80	-3.57
contig193	ABL86146	peritrophin 3 precursor	<i>Panaeus monodon</i>	570	3.51E-32	79	-3.18
contig4688	KDR15871	Laminin subunit beta-1	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	1494	0.00E+00	79	2.13
contig3339	AAF34332	peritrophin-like protein 2	<i>Panaeus semisulcatus</i>	508	1.47E-36	77	-3.04
contig4474	KDR14054	Protein ELYS	<i>Zootermopsis nevadensis</i>	1924	4.91E-27	75	2.44
contig15204	EKC32341	Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase 32	<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	452	5.58E-25	71	3.45
contig1745	ABL86146	peritrophin 3 precursor	<i>Panaeus monodon</i>	1447	9.45E-06	64	-2.26
contig21399	EFN65888	Ubiquitin conjugation factor E4 A	<i>Camponotus floridanus</i>	733	1.26E-41	57	3.14
contig12284	XP_001270082	histone H3 variant, putative	<i>Aspergillus clavatus</i>	532	6.78E-10	57	-2.36
contig7208	XP_646792	histone H3	<i>Dicystotellium discoideum</i>	511	7.07E-07	57	-3.04

4.5.4 Validation of stomach cDNA libraries from transcriptome

To validate DEGs, a relative qPCR analysis on 22 randomly selected genes from DEGs was performed using the same RNA sample prepared for RNA-seq (a type of technical validation), and using RNA from new samples (a type of biological validation), which were collected at 6 hours post infection. The qPCR results (20 from 22 genes) from both technical and biological validation were significantly correlated with the RNA-seq result with correlation coefficients of 0.83 and 0.71 (p -value<0.001), respectively (Figure 4.28). Each product was shown as a single peak of melting curve and also as a single product on agarose gel.

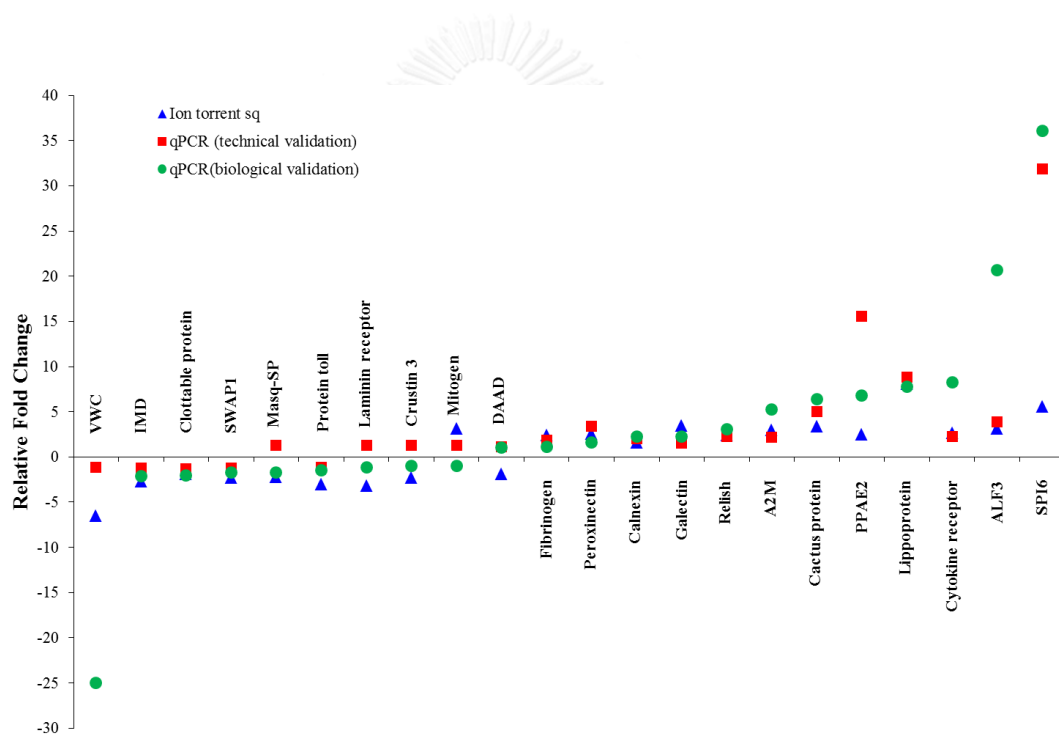


Figure 4.28 Comparison of relative fold change of selected genes from ion torrent sequencing and relative real-time PCR. VWC= single VWC domain protein 3, SWAP1= single whey acidic protein domain-containing protein isoform 1, Masq-SP= masquerade-like serine proteinase-like protein 3, DAAD= defender against apoptotic death, Mitogen= mitogen-activated protein-binding protein-interacting protein, Fibrinogen= fibrinogen C domain-containing protein 1-B, A2M= alpha2 macroglobulin isoform 2, Lipoprotein= lipoprotein receptor, PPAE2= prophenoloxidase-activating enzyme 2a, ALF3= antilipopolysaccharide factor isoform 3 (PmALF7) and SPI6= serine proteinase inhibitor 6

4.5.5 Identification of anti-lipopolysaccharide factor isoform 7 (*PmALF7*) of stomach cDNA libraries from transcriptome.

In this study, the novel ALF was discovered. It was searched against the GenBank database using BlastX showed that it is similar to ALF3 from Chinese shrimp *F. chinensis* (Table 4.7); therefore, it was called *PmALF7* because ALFs of *P. monodon* have been reported for 6 isoforms until now. The full length cDNA of *PmALF7* was obtained from the stomach transcriptome. It was significantly up-regulated in expression at 6 hours post infection form both ion torrent sequencing and relative real-time PCR (Table 4.7 and Figure 4.34). The confirmed full length cDNA of *PmALF7* was 575 bp. The predicted open reading frame (ORF) is 369 bp from 60 to 428 bp corresponding to a polypeptide of 122 amino acids. The signal peptide sequence is from 1-24 bp, and the amino acids from 54 to 75 corresponded to the putative LPS-binding domain (Figure 4.29).

```

1   GCGGGAATTCATACCACTAACCTCTAGCACCAGGACAGTAAGAGTGTAAATTTCCAAACGA
61  TGAGAGTGTCTGTGCTGACGATGGCGCTGACGGTGGCGCTGGCGGTGCGCTCTTCCTTCGC
1   M R V S V L T M A L T V A L A V A L P S

121 AGTGCAGCGCCGCGGGCTGGGGAGCGTTCATGCCCTCCATCGCGACGAGGCTAACAGGAT
21  Q C S A A G W G A F M P S I A T R L T G

181 TGTGGGAGACGGGAGAGCTGGAGTTGCTGGGACGCTACTGCACCTACAGTGTGAAGCCAA
41  L W E T G E L E L L G R Y C T Y S V K P

241 CGTTCAGCAGTGGCAGTTGTACTTTCATCGGCAGCATGTGGTGTCCCGGATGGACACCCA
61  T F Q Q W Q L Y F I G S M W C P G W T P

301 TTAGGGCGTAGCCGAAACACGAAGCAGGTCGGGAGTGGTGGGAAAATGACACAAGATT
81  I R G V A E T R S R S G V V G K M T Q D

361 TCGTCCGAAAGCTTTGAGAGCAGATCTCCTGTCTAAAGAAGAGGCCGAAACCTGGCTCA
101 F V R K A L R A D L L S K E E A E T W L

421 GTCATTGACAAGCTGTTGATGAATAAAGAGTCAAGCGAATTTTACATCATAAATTATTGAC
121 S H *

481 TTTATCTGTACATATCTTAATCAAACATTTCTGTAAAAGAAGTATTTTGAATTACATAA
541 ACTTAACGTACTGCAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA

```

Figure 4.29 The full length nucleotide (above) and predicted amino (below) sequence of *PmALF* cDNA from *P. monodon*. There are 575 bp of nucleotide sequence and deduced 122 amino acids of peptide. The predicted ORF is from 60 to 428 bp (the start and stop codon are shown in bold). The signal peptide sequence is indicated by a solid underline, the putative LPS-binding domain is shaded in yellow, polyadenylation signal is underlined and italicized.

A phylogenetic tree was constructed using the neighbour-joining method. The crustacean ALF could be categorized into three large groups. *PmALF7* was most similar to *FcALF3* from *F. chinensis*, *MjALF1* from *M. japonicus*, *PmALF6* from *P. monodon* and *FcALF2* from *F. chinensis*, and they are in the group 1. Other *PmALF* isoforms are in the group 2 (Figure 4.30).

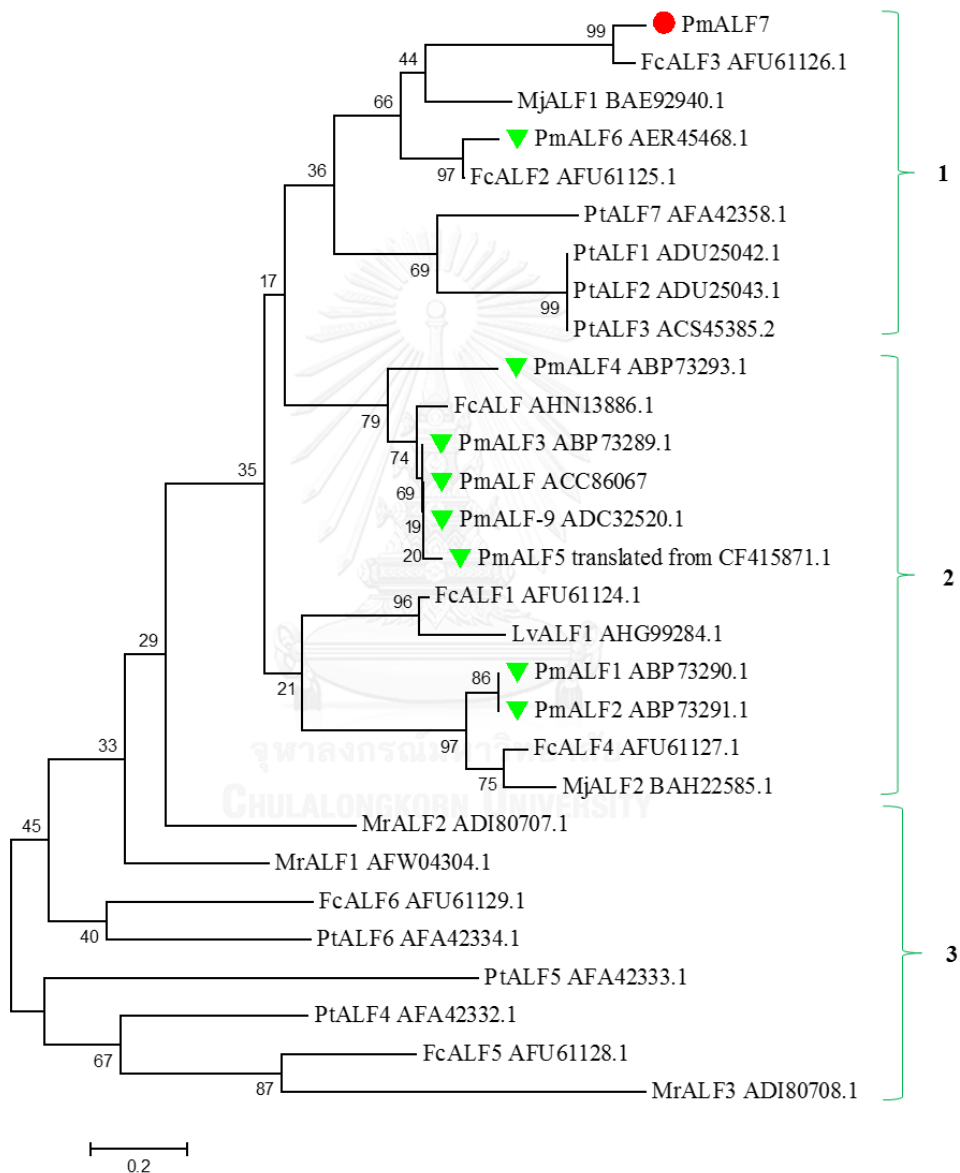


Figure 4.30 Phylogenetic analysis of crustacean ALF based on the amino acid sequence. *P. monodon* ALF ▼ and a noval ALF ●. Fc= *F. chinensis*, Mj= *M. japonicus*, Pt= *Portunus trituberculatus*, Lv= *L. vannamei*, Mr= *M. rosenbergii*.

To design the specific primer for *PmALF7*, the nucleotide sequence of *PmALF 7* was compared with other *PmALF*. The position of the forward primer was selected from 140 to 158, and the position of the reverse primer was from 316 to 334 based on the dissimilarity of the first base of 3' region of the primers. In addition, sequence comparison revealed conserved nucleotide sequence of all *PmALF* (Figure 4.31).

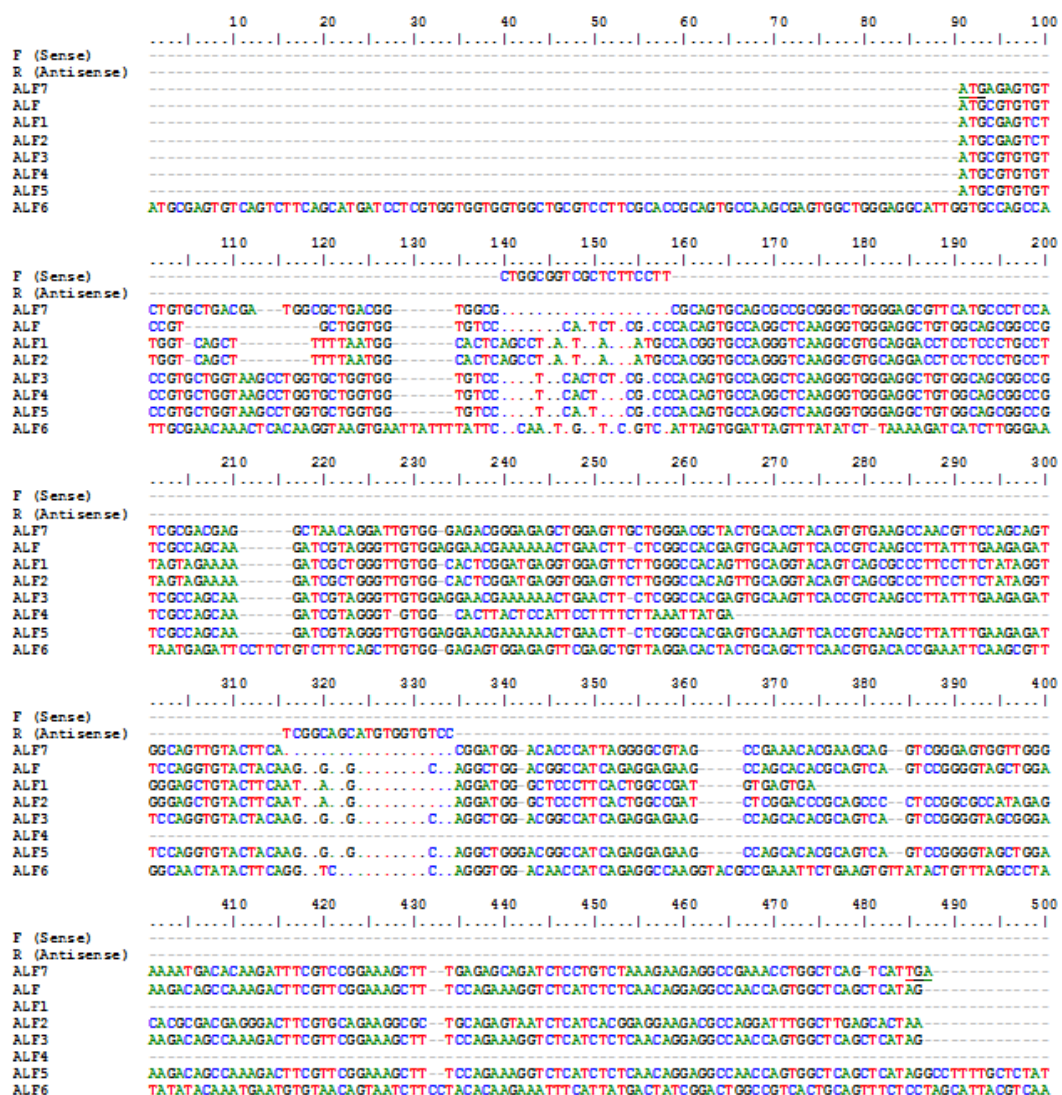


Figure 4.31 Multiple alignment of cDNA *PmALF*, seven sequences of other *ALF* and *PmALF7* primer. The different nucleotides were shown as the different color.

The relative real time PCR was performed to investigate tissue distribution of *PmALF7* in healthy shrimp. *PmALF7* transcript was highly expressed in stomach and lymphoid organ, moderately in muscle, hemocyte, hepatopancreas and low in hindgut, heart, pleopod, midgut and gill (Figure 4.32).

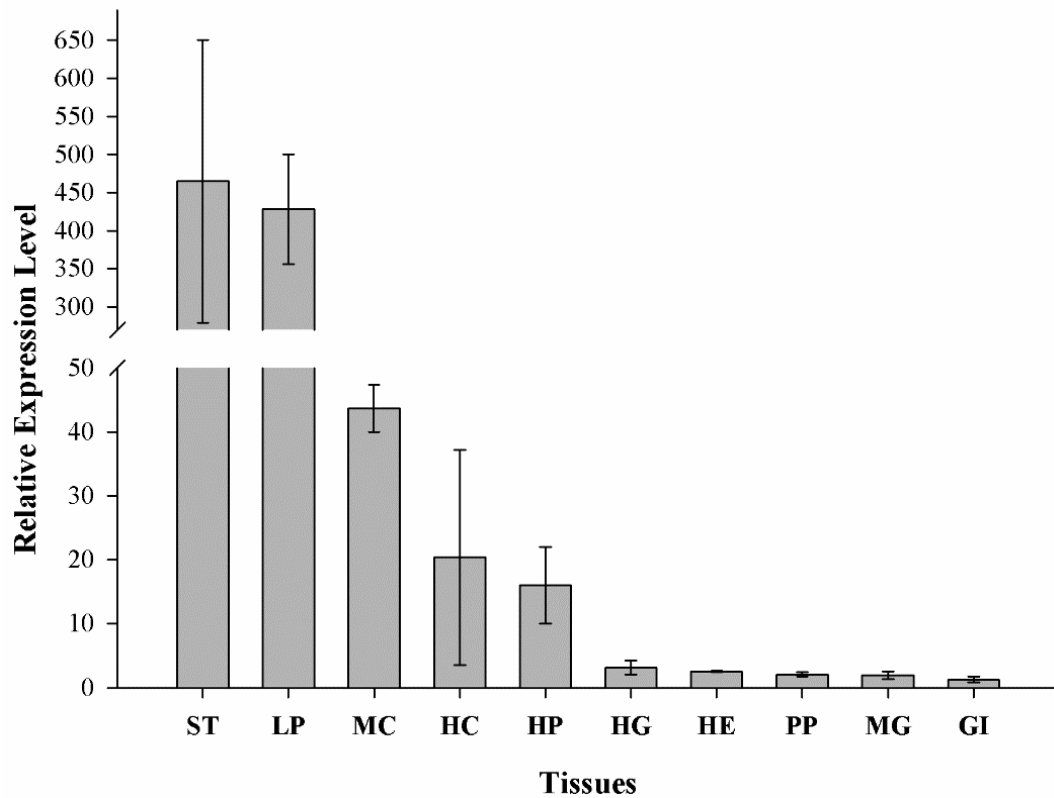


Figure 4.32 The tissue distribution of *PmALF7* transcripts. ST=stomach, LP= lymphoid organ, MC=muscle, HC=hemocyte, HP= hepatopancreas, HG=hindgut, HE=heart, PP= pleopod, MG=midgut, GI=gill. Error bars were expressed as \pm SEM.

The expression level of *PmALF7* was slightly increased to a 1.8 fold induction at 3 hours post infection in stomach. The statistically significant increase of 26.8 and 52.8 fold of *PmALF7* transcript was observed at 6 and 12 hours post infection compared to those at 3 hours post infection (Figure 4.33).

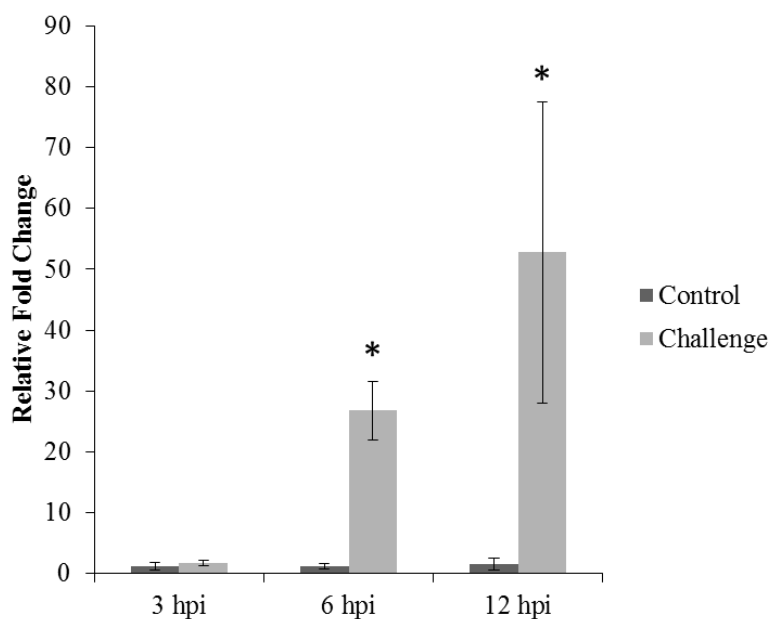


Figure 4.33 Relative fold change of *PmALF7* transcripts in stomach between control (*Artemia*-fed) and challenge (*Artemia* with *V. parahaemolyticus*-fed) at each time point. Error bars were expressed as \pm SEM (n=3). Asterisk indicates significant differences between the control and challenged group ($P < 0.05$).

4.6 Examination of the Full Length cDNA of C-type Lectin

4.6.1 Characterization of the full length cDNA of C-type lectin

The full length cDNA of *PmCr* was obtained from hepatopancreas. *PmCr* cDNA was 693 bp long with an open reading frame of 522 bp encoding a 173 amino acid containing protein. The deduced protein sequence consists of a putative 11 amino acid signal peptide and a single carbohydrate recognition domain (residues 23-171) (Figure 4.34). The mature *PmCr* protein has a theoretical molecular mass of 17.4 kDa and an isoelectric point of 4.68.


```

1   ACGCGGGGCTTGTTCAGCTGAACGTAGTTGAGATGGGGGTTCAGTGGCCGTGTTCTAGCGT
1                                     M G F S G R V L A
61  GCGTTTTGGCCTTGGCTTCGGCTGGTCTCGCTATAGAATGCCCTACAGGATTCTTCGAGG
10  C V L A L A S A G L A I E C P T G F F E
121 CAGGGGTCGGGTGCTTCGTAGTCCACAGCCAGCCTAGCACTGGCCAGACCAACTTGGACT
30  A G V G C F V V H S Q P S T G Q T N L D
181 GGGAGGGAGCAAGGATTCTCTGCCAAAAGCCTCTCGGATTCCAGCTGGACTGTTGACTTGG
50  W E G A R I L C Q S L S D S S W T V D L
241 CTGTCTTTGATTCCCTCGGAGCAGTTGGCAGCGATTTTCGGAGGCGTGGGCTACGATCGGCG
70  X V F D S S E Q L A A I S E A W A T I G
301 CCACCTACCCCTACCCCTACCCGTACATGTGGATCGGCGTGGAGCGACAGGGCGAGACGT
90  A T Y P Y P Y P Y M W I G V E R Q G E T
361 GGACGTGGCTCGATGGAAGGCCCTTGTCTCGCTTCTCGAACATGTGGCGCGTAGACTATC
110 W T W L D G R P L S R F S N M W R V D Y
421 CTGACGAAGCTTACGATACGGGCGTCTATCTCGAGGATTACAAGCTGTCCAACGGCGCCA
130 P D E A Y D T G V Y L E D Y K L S N G A
481 ACGTCTTCGGGAGGCTGTACGTCGGGAATTCGGACACCAGTGGCTGCGTTCGTTACATGT
150 N V F G R L Y V G N S G H Q W L R R Y M
541 GCCGGGCGAAGTAGGCGGAGCGAGGTGGCTGACGGAGGATGGAGCTTCGTCTTGTGGGAGT
170 C R A K *
601 GTGTTGTGTTATAAACGAAAAACACATGTTGGAAGTAACCAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA
661 AAAAAAAAAA

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Figure 4.34 The full length nucleotide (above) and predicted amino (below) sequence of *PmCr* cDNA from *P. monodon*. There are 693 bp of sequence and deduced 173 amino acids of peptide. The predicted ORF is from 57 to 578 bp (the start and stop codons are shown in bold). The signal peptide sequence is indicated by a solid underline, conserved cysteine residues that define the C-type lectin domain (23-171) are marked with ▲ and C-type lectin domain is shaded in yellow.

A phylogenetic tree was constructed using neighbour-joining method. The crustacean *PmCr* could be categorized into 3 large groups, and *PmCr* is in the group 2. The *PmCr* is closely related to C-type lectin receptor of swim crab *Portunus pelagicus* and C-type lectin-like domain (CTLD)-containing proteins of Chinese mitten crab *Eriocheir sinensis* (Figure 4.35).

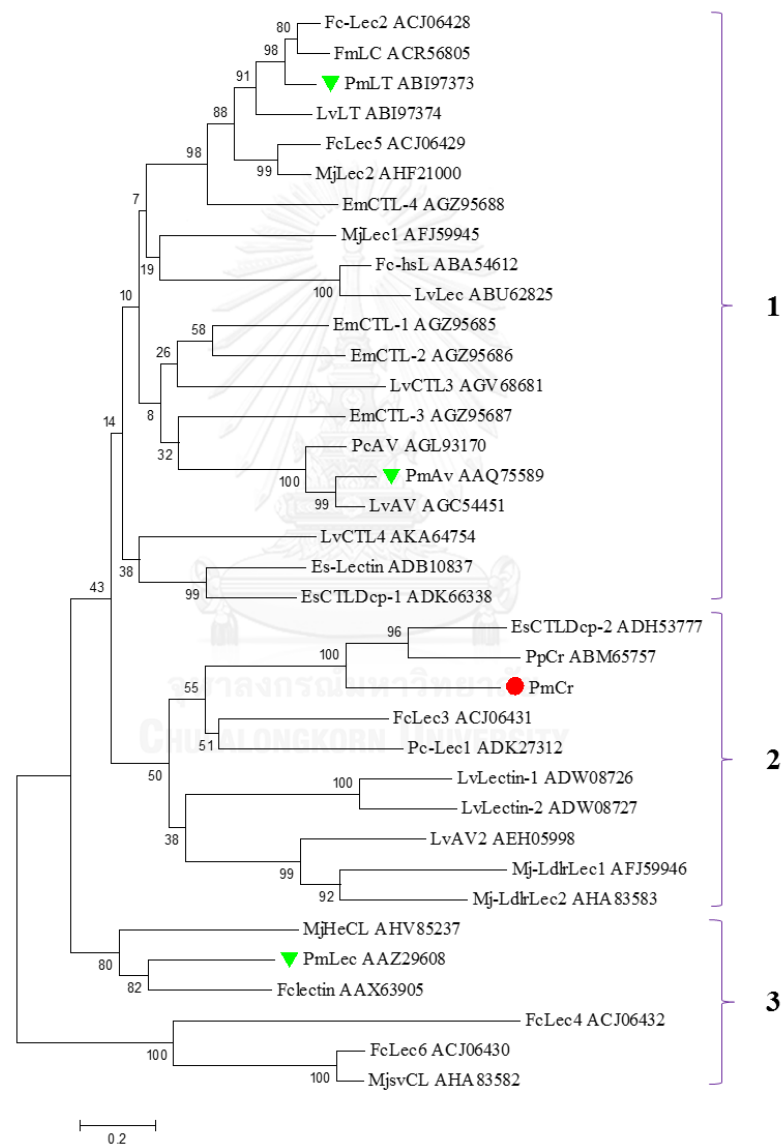


Figure 4.35 Phylogenetic analysis of crustacean C-type lectin based on the amino acid sequence. Old C-type lectins ▼ and new C-type lectin ● of *P. monodon*; Fc= *F. chinensis*, Mj= *M. japonicus*, Lv= *L. vannamei*, Pp= *P. pelagicus*, Es= *Eriocheir sinensis*

4.6.2 Transcript expression of the C-type lectin

The relative real time PCR was performed to investigate tissue distribution of *PmCr*. The *PmCr* transcript was highly expressed in hepatopancreas and lowly expressed in other organs of *P. monodon* (Figure 4.36). In addition, the expression level of *PmCr* was examined in hepatopancreas at 3, 6, 12 hours post infection. *PmCr* expression profile showed small up-regulation at 3 hours post infection of the challenged group (0.39 ± 0.07) compared to the control group (0.36 ± 0.07). There was a significant down-regulation at 6 hours post infection of the challenged group (0.42 ± 0.04) compared to the control group (0.27 ± 0.01). A 12 hours post infection, the *PmCr* expression of challenged group (0.25 ± 0.06) was lower than the control group (0.28 ± 0.03) (Figure 4.37).

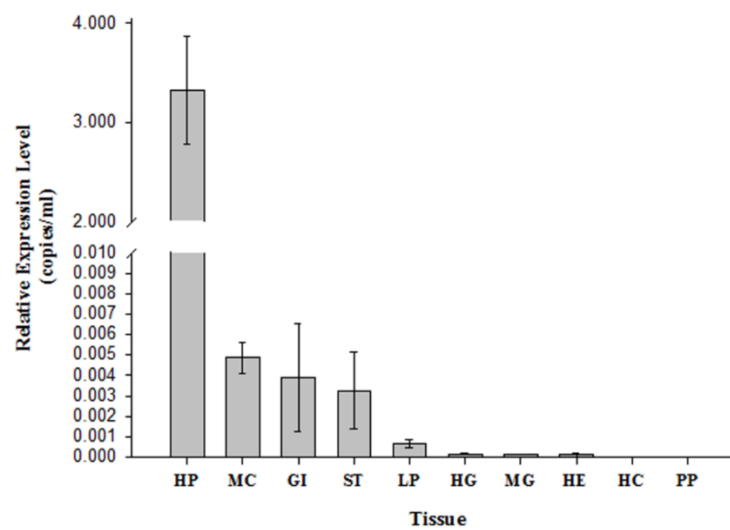


Figure 4.36 The tissue distribution of *PmCr* transcripts. HP= hepatopancreas, MC=muscle, GI=gill, ST=stomach, LP= lymphoid organ, HG=hindgut, MG=midgut, HE=heart, HC=hemocyte and PP= pleopod. Error bars were expressed as \pm SEM (n=3).

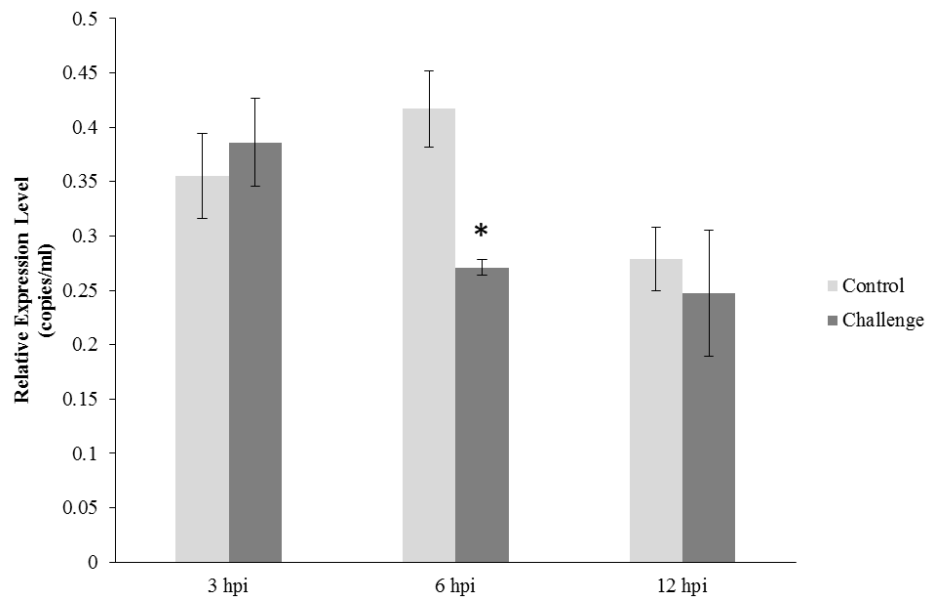


Figure 4.37 Relative expression level of *PmCr* transcripts in hepatopancreas between control (*Artemia*-fed) and challenged (*Artemia* with *V. parahaemolyticus*-fed) at each time point. Error bars were expressed as \pm SEM (n=3). Asterisk indicates significant differences between the control and challenged group ($P < 0.05$).

4.6.3 *In vitro* expression of full length cDNA of the C-type lectin protein

A recombinant clone of *PmCr* protein was examined for protein expression pattern at 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 and 14 hours post IPTG induction. A coomassie-stained gel (Figure 4.38A) and western blot analysis (Figure 4.38B) showed that the recombinant *PmCr* was overexpressed at 1 hour post IPTG induction and that it was continually expressed until 14 hours after IPTG induction. The expected size is 17.4 kDa.

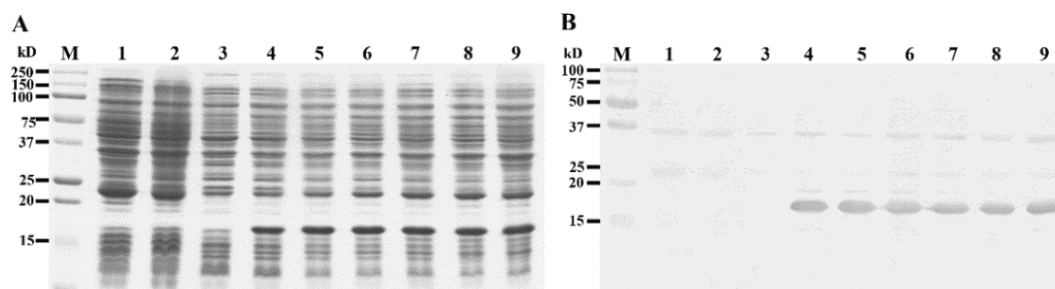


Figure 4.38 A coomassie-stained gel (A) and western blot analysis (B) of *in vitro* expression of *PmCr* at 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 and 14 hours after induction with 1 mM IPTG (lanes 3-9; A and B), *E. coli* BL21-CodonPlus (DE3)-RIPL (lanes 1; A and B) and a pET-15b vector in *E. coli* BL21-CodonPlus (DE3)-RIPL (lanes 2; A and B) were included as the control.

The recombinant *PmCr* protein was overexpressed at 3 hours post induction with 0.4 mM, 0.8 mM and 1mM IPTG cultured at 37 °C. A coomassie-stained gel showed that the recombinant *PmCr* protein was an inclusion body for 1mM IPTG induction and was slightly expressed after induction with 0.4 mM, 0.8 mM IPTG at 37 °C (Figure 4.39).

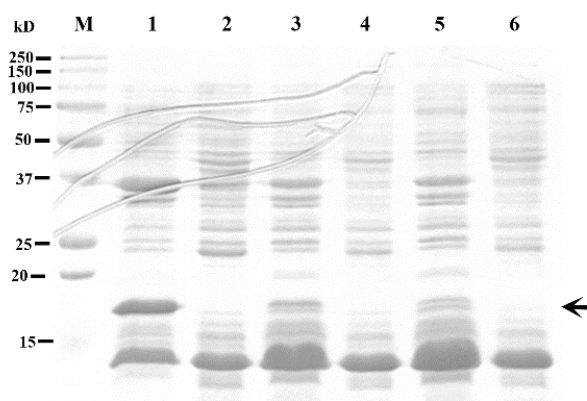


Figure 4.39 A coomassie-stained gel showing an insoluble protein fraction (lane 1, 3 and 5) and a soluble protein fraction (lane 2, 4 and 6) of recombinant *PmCr* protein (arrow) cultured at 37 °C for 3 hours post 1 mM (lane 1 and 2), 0.8 mM (lane 3 and 4) and 0.4 mM (lane 5 and 6) IPTG induction.

The inclusion body of *PmCr* was refolded by 8 M urea and purified. The washing and elution were determined by a coomassie-stained gel which showed that the recombinant *PmCr* protein was in the first washing solution and disappeared in other washing solutions (Figure 4.40A). The recombinant *PmCr* protein was in the second and third elution (Figure 4.40B). Therefore, the second and third elution of the recombinant *PmCr* protein were collected and concentrated, and then run in a 15% SDS PAGE. The specific band of recombinant *PmCr* protein was cut and purified using electro-eluter. The recombinant *PmCr* protein from upper, intermediate and lower fraction was determined by 15% SDS PAGE and this showed the specific bands of recombinant *PmCr* protein (Figure 4.41).

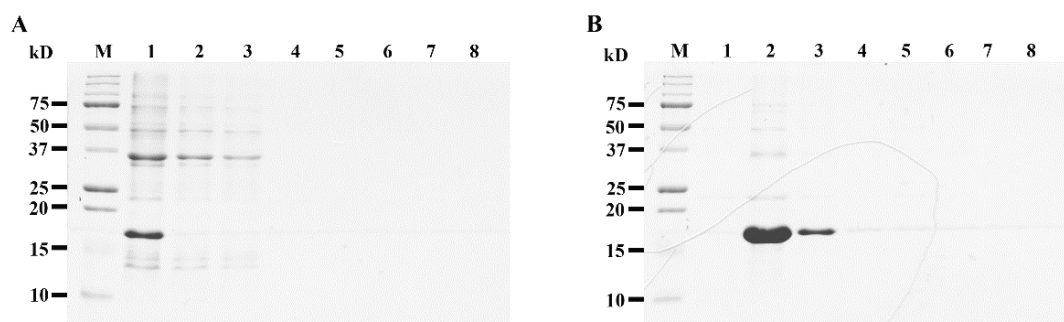


Figure 4.40 A coomassie-stained gel showing purification of recombinant *PmCr* cultured for 3 hours after 1mM IPTG induction. Washing fraction (A) and elution fraction (B)

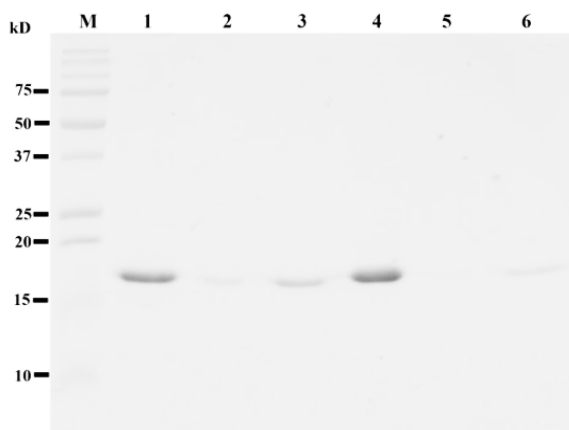


Figure 4.41 A coomassie-stained gel showing purification of recombinant *PmCr* from Model 422 Electro-Eluter. Lane 1-3: lower, upper and intermediate fraction of column 1, lane 4-6: lower, upper and intermediate fraction of column 2, respectively

4.6.4 Tissue distribution of the C-type lectin protein

The tissue distribution of this C-type lectin protein in plasma, hemocyte, gill, heart, midgut, hindgut, stomach and hepatopancreas was determined. The western blot analysis showed that the C-type lectin protein was detected in midgut, hindgut, stomach and hepatopancreas, but not in plasma, hemocyte, gill and heart (Figure 4.42).

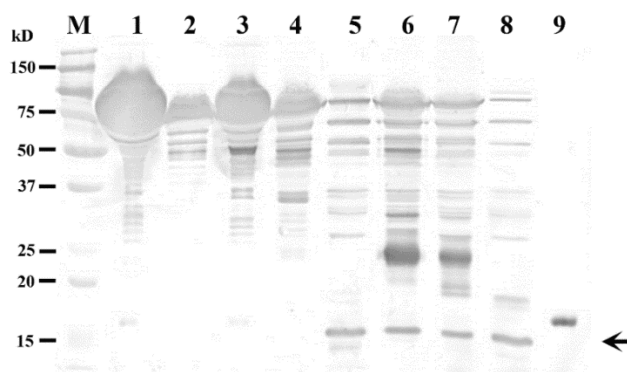


Figure 4.42 Western blot analysis of the distribution of *PmCr* protein (arrow) in normal shrimp using anti-*PmCr* (dilution 1:500). Lane M: marker, lane 1: plasma, lane 2: hemocyte, lane 3: gill, lane 4: heart, lane 5: midgut, lane 6: hindgut, lane 7: stomach, lane 8: hepatopancreas and lane 9: a recombinant protein *PmCr*

4.6.5 Bacterial binding

The binding activity of the refolded recombinant *PmCr* protein to bacteria (*M. luteus*, *S. aureus*, *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus*) was determined. The western blot analysis showed that the refolding recombinant *PmCr* protein could bind to *M. luteus* the most followed by *V. harveyi*, *S. aureus* and *V. parahaemolyticus* in decreasing order (Figure 4.43).

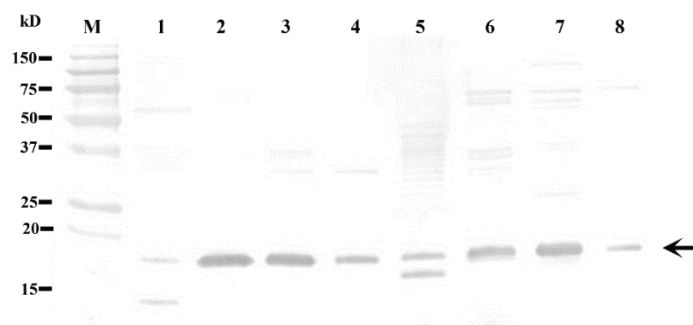


Figure 4.43 Western blot analysis of the binding of recombinant *PmCr* (arrow) to *M. luteus* (lane 1-2), *S. aureus* (lane 3-4), *V. harveyi* (lane 5-6) and *V. parahaemolyticus* (lane 6-7). Lane 1, 3, 5, 7 are remaining protein and lane 2, 4, 6, 8 are binding protein.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1 The Morphological Digestive Tract of Uninfected and Infected *P. monodon*

The present work provides a description of the interaction between two pathogens, *V. harveyi* or *V. parahaemolyticus*, and the inner surface of the GI tract of farmed *P. monodon* following infections via the oral route, with comments on their appearance, their attachment and their colonization sites based on SEM observations. In healthy shrimp, few bacteria were found attached to the inner surface of the stomach or to the midgut, but bacteria could be observed in the posterior midgut and hindgut. Some bacteria were also seen in association with ingested feed. To show that shrimp pathogens like *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* are capable of colonizing the lining of the digestive tract, a simple oral infection model of pathogenic bacteria-induced gut pathology was used in the current study. This approach of bacterial challenge better resembles an actual infection via the digestive tract in aquaculture settings, and helps to gain an understanding of key features of the pathogenesis in shrimp elicited by *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* in the digestive tract.

In *P. monodon* infected with two pathogenic *Vibrio* species, attachment and colonization of bacteria on the stomach and hindgut lining were observed. The higher number of copies of *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. harveyi* specific genes in the stomach and midgut of challenged shrimp compared to that of the control shrimp (Figure 4.11) suggest that *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. harveyi* from the challenge became established in the GI tract of shrimp. *Vibrio spp.* are a natural part of the GI microbiota of shrimp, and some species can cause opportunistic infections during adverse culture conditions. In other studies, both *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* have been found in apparently healthy farmed-raised shrimp showing no symptoms [317-322]. Low but detectable levels of *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* were found in the GI tract of control (unchallenged) shrimp in the present experiment, but their concentration was lower than that of the challenged shrimp. In addition to the higher concentration of *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus*, the higher virulence of the introduced *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* strains compared to that of the endogenous ones may explain the

observed attachment and colonization in the challenged group. Since the concentration of *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* in this experiment was determined by specific PCR of only one (*V. harveyi*) or two (*V. parahaemolyticus*) genes, other virulent factors associated with either introduced or endogenous *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* were not examined. The difference in virulence within a species of clinical *V. parahaemolyticus* have been reported in the literature. Using multilocus sequence analysis, Theethakaew et al [323] reported a distinct cluster of human pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus* isolates among other environmental *V. parahaemolyticus* isolates in the environment and suggested a high degree of genetic diversity within the species. Other *in situ* techniques such as Fluorescent *in situ* Hybridization (FISH) could provide the most definitive evidence associated *V. harveyi* or *V. parahaemolyticus* at infection sites. At present, FISH analysis of shrimp's stomach and intestinal tissues remains difficult due to auto-fluorescence [324,325].

A few bacterial cells were found to adhere to the peritrophic matrix (PM) or to the gut contents throughout the midgut, except for the posterior end of the midgut where it is connected to the hindgut (Figure 2A, B, E, E, H, I). No bacterial cells were observed between the PM and the epithelium of the midgut or the ectoperitrophic space. The absence of bacterial flora in the ectoperitrophic space of the midgut in *P. monodon* in the present study is consistent with observations reported in other marine crustaceans. Martin *et al.* [326] demonstrated that no bacteria were associated with the brush border or were in the ectoperitrophic space of the midgut of ridgeback prawn *Sicyonia ingentis*. Likewise no evidence of bacterial colonization in the midgut of mud shrimps *Calocaris macandreae* was reported [327]. Bacteria capable of attachment to the midgut area could potentially be long-term residents in the midgut due to the fact that this area is not shed during molting. Similar observations were made in an SEM and TEM study of the digestive tract of the hydrothermal vent amphipod *Ventiella sulfuris* [328]. The authors of this study speculated that long rod-shaped bacteria found between the microvillous epithelial cells could be considered as long-term residents within the bacterial community of the midgut due to its locality in the midgut and the healthy appearance of epithelia in contact with the bacteria [328].

In insects and crustaceans, the lining of the GI lumen consists of a thin but tough peritrophic matrix which is quite unlike the thick mucosa seen in mammalian guts. The PM is a semi-permeable, non-cellular structure, which surrounds the food bolus and is composed of chitin, glycoproteins and mucins, providing a chemical and physical barrier against infection by ingested pathogens [326,329,330]. The PM of the *P. monodon* specimens used in the present study are similar to those described in other penaeid shrimp, e.g. *S. ingentis*, which has very small pores that will allow only inert particles less than 20 nm to pass through the PM [326]. Although the PM can provide resistance to pathogenic bacteria, e.g. as in *Daphnia magna* [331]; can trap enteropathogenic *Aeromonas caviae* in houseflies *Musca domestica* [332]; and, can limit infection by baculovirus in the moth *Trichoplusia ni* larvae [333], some bacteria can secrete enzymes to degrade the PM resulting in large holes in the membrane allowing bacteria to subsequently colonize the epithelial layer [334]. Moreover, some pathogens such as *V. parahaemolyticus* do not need to penetrate the PM to cause damage because they can produce toxins that are able to pass through the PM of *S. ingentis* [335]. The presence of a PM is one reason why there are no bacteria associated with the brush border of the epithelium; another reason can be that the mucosal immunity within the shrimp's gut may directly and tightly control the number of microbes [336].

Although all *P. monodon* specimens that were used in this study were collected from a commercial farm and were apparently healthy, one specimen was found to have an abundance of a single morphotype rod-shaped bacterium with fimbria-like fibres extensively adhering to the cuticular lining of the stomach. The inner surfaces of the stomachs from the other four specimens of *P. monodon* that were collected at the same time were devoid of microbes. As it is in other animals, an important property of a pathogenic bacterium in shrimp is its ability to gain an appropriate attachment as this is the initial step in the infection process. It is possible that this particular specimen of *P. monodon* may have already been infected by pathogenic bacteria, since it is unusual that ingested microbes can colonize and establish within a harsh environment as the stomach.

All *P. monodon* used in this study were seen to have bacteria attaching to the surface of the hindgut or to the posterior part of the midgut wall where it connects with the start of the hindgut. These findings support those of Harris [337] who reported that the presence of bacteria in the hindguts of Crustacea are widespread, occurring throughout taxa belonging to marine Thalassinidae and Brachyura (9 genera, 16 species). There was, however, a high degree of variability between specimens in both the types and the total numbers of bacteria in the hindguts, indicating that this bacterial population may be regulated by its host. It has been suggested that molting may have a direct influence on the bacterial communities within the hindgut [338,339]. For each molting cycle of the exoskeleton, the chitinous hindgut lining is displaced and replaced with a new lining [340]. While there is no report in the literature on the effect of molting on the hindgut microbiota of shrimp, the newly molted hindgut surface was shown to be devoid of microbes in a study on desert millipedes *Orthoporus ornatus* [341]. It is not currently known how microbes recolonize in the hindgut after molting. From our observations in penaeid shrimp, however, it can be hypothesized that the bacteria attached to the posterior part of the midgut, *i.e.* immediately adjacent to the hindgut, can function as a bacterial inoculum. The presence of bacteria in the posterior midgut in our study supports this hypothesis.

The hindgut environment with its chitinous lining has been shown to be a suitable place for the colonization of bacteria. Not only it is a preference for hindgut attachment in some species of bacteria, but there also appears to be some selective pressure from the host on the types of bacteria present in the hindgut. For example, *V. cholerae* has been reported to preferentially attach to the hindgut of the blue crab *Callinectes sapidus*, but not to the midgut [342]. Selective pressure from bay ghost shrimp *Neotrypaea californiensis* was shown to limit the number of bacterial taxa present in its hindgut [343]. It is likely that hindgut bacterial community in the gut of *P. monodon* is specific for this host and that the majority of bacteria that are attached are *Vibrio* spp. The dominance of *Vibrio* spp. in the GI tract of *P. monodon* has been shown in several studies looking at the bacterial communities in both wild and cultured populations of shrimp [344-347]. Similarly, *Vibrio* spp. were shown to be dominant in the hindgut of white shrimp *L. vannamei* [345].

Adhesion of pathogenic bacteria to the inner surface of the GI tract is crucial to the subsequent establishment of an infection, however, the manner to which *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* attach the epithelial surface of their host is very different from each other. From the results, it is most likely that *V. harveyi* binds to the surface of the stomach and to the epithelial layer of the midgut, while *V. parahaemolyticus* only colonizes the surface of the stomach. In addition, *V. parahaemolyticus* colonizes as a monolayer of cells, while *V. harveyi* colonizes as a multilayered cluster of bacteria. Similar preferences for the site of adhesion have been seen in host-bacteria interactions. The ability of *V. cholerae* to colonize the hindgut surface of the blue crab *Callinectes sapidus*, but not the midgut has been shown, led authors of the study to suggest that chitin was required in the attachment of *V. cholerae* to invertebrate and zooplankton surfaces [342]. In crustaceans and other arthropods, the preferred area for bacterial establishment is the hindgut, which is covered by a chitinous cuticle that provides anchoring surfaces for bacteria and favours symbiotic interactions [343,348]. It has been suggested that in natural marine systems, most bacteria attaching to chitinous particles are *Vibrios* [349]. Living crustacean surfaces which possess chitinous components are noted for supporting bacterial attachment and growth [350].

Production of flagella or pili by intestinal bacteria can have an important role in colonization and infection. Induction of peritrichous flagella is associated with conversion of *V. parahaemolyticus* from small (av. 2-3 μm long), polarly flagellated swimmer cells to swarmer cells, which are elongated (av. 5-20 μm long) as well as peritrichously flagellated [351,352]. Interestingly, we observed lateral cell appendages were produced by the attached *V. parahaemolyticus* in the present experiment, suggesting that these cells have switched from the swimmer cell to the swarmer cell state. Many pathogenic bacteria such as pathogenic *E. coli* exhibit pili or fimbriae that facilitate their initial attachment to epithelial cells and subsequent successful colonization of their host [353,354]. Pili are virulence factors that mediate interbacterial aggregation and biofilm formation, or mediate the specific recognition of host-cell receptors [355]. It is clear that pili play similar biological roles for commensal bacteria because they also have to colonize specific niches and overcome the host's natural clearing mechanisms. Although *V. parahaemolyticus* is a leading cause of life-threatening gastroenteritis in human, it is most likely that *V. parahaemolyticus* exhibits

lower virulence and has a slower proliferation than *V. harveyi* in *P. monodon*, as indicated by the lack of infection in the midgut at 24 h PI. This might be because the microenvironment in the gut of *P. monodon* is not optimal or suitable for *V. parahaemolyticus*.

Our observations confirm that both *V. parahaemolyticus* and *V. harveyi* in the present study are shrimp pathogens and their attachment properties, that are a prerequisite for the pathogenesis, are similar to those of other pathogens. The typical infectious cycle of these pathogens in *P. monodon* includes: 1) entry of the pathogen through the oral route; 2) bind to chitin on the stomach lining or to the midgut peritrophic matrix, then multiply and cause damage to the host tissues; and, 3) exit from the host. Each step would involve adhesion, chemotaxis, production of various lytic enzymes such as haemolysis, secretion systems of the type II or type III secretion system, biofilm formation, and production of quorum sensing systems [356]. Examination of all the *P. monodon* hindguts in the current study, including the infected specimen, found numerous bacteria attached randomly across the hindgut luminal surface, both singly and in large, biofilm like microcolonies, some of which contained mats of bacterial cells. Since the morphotype of the bacteria attached in the hindgut differed from *V. harveyi* and the *V. parahaemolyticus* morphotype, and that the posterior region adjacent to the upper part of the hindgut was not infected by either of these bacteria, the attached bacteria in the hindgut could be considered to be resident and not pathogenic. All the evidence indicates that these bacteria are not pathogenic and that their presence is not detrimental to the host tissues. If these hindgut bacteria are part of the normal bacterial community in *P. monodon*, then their putative roles or beneficial effects to their host needs to be elucidated.

5.2 Histopathology of Uninfected and Infected *P. monodon* by AHPND/EMS Bacteria (*V. parahaemolyticus* 3HP)

This study investigates the infection of *V. parahaemolyticus* 3HP in stomach and hepatopancreas using oral infection via *Artemia*. Bacteria were seen attaching to stomach cuticle, and a little lesion was formed in hepatopancreas at 3 hours post infection. The necrotic symptoms were first observed at 6-24 hours post infection. The

hepatopancreas tubular epithelial cells were sloughed into the hepatopancreas lumen. The sloughing of hepatopancreatic tubule epithelial cells, non-vacuolated E-cells and a large number of hemocyte infiltration in the hepatopancreas, it is likely that AHPND infection has been previously observed [16,17,19,21,48]. The results indicated that *Artemia* can be used to successfully induce AHPND infection. Since the first stage of stomach infection was observed at 6 hour post infection; therefore, the differential gene expression profile in stomach between un-infection and infection shrimp was performed at 6 hour post infection.

5.3 Differentially Expressed Genes (DEGs) in the Stomach of Uninfected and Infected *P. monodon* by AHPNS/EMS Bacteria

5.3.1 Suppressive subtractive hybridization (SSH) stomach cDNA libraries

The DEGs profile stomach cDNA libraries at 6 hours post infection was conducted using suppressive subtractive hybridization. The study presented several responses in stomach to *V. parahaemolyticus* 3HP infection including physical barriers (cuticle and chitin), chemical response (salivary alkaline phosphatase, ubiquitin conjugating enzyme), cell proliferation (astakine) and immune defense (pacifastin heavy chain).

The efficiencies of SSH cDNA libraries were basically confirmed by RT-PCR showing the reduced expression level of EF1 α in cDNA SSH compared with cDNA without SSH. Preliminary results suggest the success of SSH cDNA libraries construction. However, the SSH analysis has a disadvantage, because this method cannot eliminate all the redundant cDNAs, if the genes are high expression level or that variation is large [357]. Consequently, both forward and reverse libraries were constructed in this study. Additionally, relative qPCR was performed to validate the result from SSH libraries.

For forward library, 48 sequences (42.1%) shared similarity to known sequences in Genbank, and 66 sequences (57.9%) did not share similarity with any sequence in the current database. These 66 sequences were classified as novel genes. High level of non-homologous sequences in forward cDNA library indicated that

several genes involved in the response to stomach infection have not been identified. Moreover, the discovery rate of new transcripts after 306 recombinant clones did not reach a plateau of saturation (30.21%) indicating that new transcripts could be continually identified by further screening. Functional analysis with gene ontology showed that several genes were structural constituents of the cuticle (Table 4.2). This result suggested that the cuticle is important to defend against pathogenic bacteria. The cuticle is the first line of defense as a physical barrier in foregut (stomach) and hindgut of insect [84]. DD9A and DD9B were isolated from the epidermis of the abdominal and tail parts of the kuruma shrimp *P. japonicus* [358]. Kulkarni et al. [27] studied protein profiling in the gut *P. monodon*, and showed that DD9B was over-expressed in gut at 4 hours post infection with WSSV. The results suggest that DD9B might be involved in defense mechanisms in stomach.

In addition, relative qPCR showed that the expression level of salivary alkaline phosphatase and pacifastin heavy chain precursor were significantly up-regulated at 6 hours post infection. The expression level of AMP1B, clottable protein, Ig-like and cathepsin B was slightly up-regulated, and DD9A, C-type lectin and Spz1 were dramatically up-regulated but not significantly. This result suggests that this forward stomach cDNA libraries could be represented by gene up-regulation. This result also indicates that salivary alkaline phosphatase and pacifastin heavy chain precursor might be parts of an important immune response in stomach of *P. monodon*. Beumer et al. [359] showed that the alkaline phosphatase derived from calf intestine (CIAP) was able to reduce *E. coli* in mice and piglet blood [360]. Additionally, they also reported that the intestinal alkaline phosphatase was able to detoxify and prevent bacterial invasion in the gut mucosal barrier [360]. Although the influence of alkaline phosphatase was mostly studied in vertebrates, its activity showed that it could prevent bacterial infection possible also in shrimp. Pacifastin family, proteinase inhibitors, was first characterized in crayfish *Pacifastacus leniusculus* including pacifastin heavy chain (105 kDa) and pacifastin light chain (44 kDa) [184,361]. In shrimp, pacifastin heavy chain was characterized in giant freshwater prawn *M. rosenbergii*. The expression level of Mr-PHC was up-regulated in both postlarval stage 45 and adult after challenge with *A. hydrophila* [362].

For reverse library, 57 sequences (57.6%) shared similarity to known sequences in Genbank, and 42 sequences (42.4%) did not share similarity with any sequences in the current database. These 42 sequences were classified as novel genes. High levels of non-homologous sequences in the forward cDNA library indicate that several genes might be involved in stomach shrimp response. Moreover, the discovery rate of new transcripts after 306 recombinant clones still did not reach a plateau of saturation (16.98%) indicating that new transcripts could be continually identified by further screening. Functional analysis with gene ontology showed several genes were related to chitin metabolic processes (Table 4.3). Chitin is a scaffold material to support epidermal cuticle and peritrophic matrix in the gut epithelium of insects and crustaceans [329,363]. Additionally, relative qPCR showed that the expression level of chondroitin proteoglycan 2 was significantly up-regulated at 3 hours post infection and rapidly down-regulated at 6 hours post infection.

In addition, relative qPCR showed that the expression level of 4 genes from the reverse stomach cDNA library was down-regulated (44.4%). The results indicate that only 44.4% of genes could be represented by a down-regulation from the reverse library. It may be from false positives of the SSH method during PCR amplification [357]. However, five genes from the reverse library including ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, ferritin, astakine variant 1 and dicer 2 showed a significant increase in expression at 6 hours post infection. These results suggest that they might be involved in shrimp immune responses in the stomach. Ubiquitin conjugating enzyme has been shown to respond to both bacterial and viral infection in shrimp. Pongsomboon et al. [364] reported that ubiquitin conjugating enzyme E2-230k and H5b were up-regulated in hemocytes after WSSV, YHV or *V. harveyi* infection at 6, 24 or 48 hours in *P. monodon* using cDNA microarray analysis. A ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2 from the Chinese white shrimp *F. chinensis* was significantly down-regulated in hepatopancreas after WSSV infection at 6-24 hours. It was also down-regulated in intestine at 2 hours post infection; however, it was significantly up-regulated at 12 hours post infection [365]. Additionally, the expression profile of ubiquitin conjugating enzyme was up-regulated after challenge with WSSV at 24 hours post infection in *P. monodon* indicating that it might be involved in ubiquitination pathway of *P. monodon* during viral infection [366]. The expression level of ferritin was up-regulated after a

pH change (9.3 and 5.6) in *L. vannamei* [367], and exposed to iron in chinese white shrimp *F. chinensis* [368] and *M. rosenbergii* [369]. The expression of ferritin was changed under stress circumstances, *i.e.* bacterial or viral challenge in many penaeid species. Astakine is directly involved in proliferation, differentiation, and survival of hematopoietic tissue cells in *P. leniusculus* [370] and in *P. monodon* [371]. Additionally, astakine was involved in viral defense in *L. vannamei* [372]. Dicer is a key component in RNA interference (RNAi) pathway. Dicer 1 was involved in viral defense and dicer 2 was involved in viral and bacterial defense in *P. monodon* [373,374].

5.3.2 Transcriptome of DEGs of stomach cDNA libraries by ion torrent sequencing

The present work presents immune response genes in stomach of *P. monodon* after challenge with *V. parahaemolyticus*_{3HP}. The immune-related genes were categorized into 11 functions via the manual literature review [375] including antimicrobial peptides, signal transduction pathways, proPO system, oxidative stress, proteinases/proteinase inhibitors, apoptotic tumor-related proteins, pathogen recognition immune regulators, blood clotting system, adhesive protein, heat shock proteins and other immune genes.

From the SSH cDNA libraries, the discovery of new transcripts still did not reach a plateau of saturation. Therefore, the transcriptome of cDNA stomach during EMS/AHPND infection was constructed using Ion torrent PGM sequencing. One thousand five hundred and fourteen unique genes (3.5%) of significantly DEGs between control and challenge group was found, and 141 unique genes (9.3%) are involved in the immune system. From this study, a novel isoform of anti-lipoplysaccharide (ALF) was found in the DEGs of the stomach. The tissue distribution in normal shrimp showed that it is highly expressed in the stomach and lymphoid organ, but low expression was found in hemocytes. The transcript was significantly induced in stomach at 6 and 12 hours post infection. The results suggest that this isoform is possibly involved in defence response in stomach of *P. monodon*. Therefore, the novel isoform was called *PmALF7*.

RNA-Seq analysis is useful to exhibit the profile DEGs during the pathogenic infection in shrimp [110,376,377]. Twenty two immune-related genes were randomly selected to confirm the RNA-Seq result. Relative qPCR was performed with two sources of samples including the same sample prepared for RNA-seq (technical validation) and the new samples collected at 6 hours post infection (biological validation). Overall, there were significant correlations between RNA-seq and technical validation or biological validation with coefficients 0.83 and 0.71 (20 from 22), p -value <0.001 , respectively. This results indicate that RNA-seq presented the level of gene expressed profiles during stomach infection. However, the direction of expression was different in several genes, *i.e.* masq-SP, laminin receptor, crustin 3 and DAAD for technical validation, *i.e.* mitogen and DAAD for biological validation. This dissimilarity might be from the different expression of replicates or the inaccuracy of RNA-seq. In addition, the expression of PPAE2 and SPI6 in technical validation was higher than RNA-seq. Those genes have several isoforms with similar nucleotide sequence; therefore, the qPCR primers of those might be able to bind to more than one isoform [165,188]. Here, the highlights of innate immune system are displayed that might be related to stomach immune response to *V. parahaemolyticus*_{3HP}.

5.3.2.1 Antimicrobial peptide

Antibacterial peptides have a broad spectrum in activity towards bacteria. The results show that 2 isoforms of ALF are participating in stomach immune response including *PmALF6* and *PmALF7* (a novel isoform). Ponprateep et al. [109] showed that *PmALF3* is the main, and *PmALF6* is an additionally AMP in hemocytes after challenge with *V. harveyi* and WSSV. From RNA-seq in this study, *PmALF6* and *PmALF7* were shown to have a significant induction at 6 h (3.83 and 3.17 fold, respectively) after challenge with *V. parahaemolyticus* (Table 4.7). The relative qPCR also showed that the transcript of *PmALF7* was highly expression in stomach and lymphoid organ of normal shrimp and significant up-regulated in stomach after challenge with *V. parahaemolyticus* at 6 and 12 h (Figure 4.38 and 4.39). From previous study, *PmALF3* showed no induction in the stomach, but was highly induced in intestine at 3, 6, 12, 24 and 48 h post infection with *V. harveyi* [336]. Therefore,

PmALF3 is likely the major ALF to protect the microbial invader in hemocytes and intestine, whereas *PmALF6* and *PmALF7* are possibly important ALFs in stomach.

In this study, crustins was down-regulated in expression at 6 h post infection. Crustin is a crustacean anti-bacterial peptide and is mainly expressed in hemocytes. In *P. monodon*, five different isoforms were reported by the group of Tassanakajon [122]. Crustin-like antimicrobial peptides (Crustin-like*Pm*) was down-regulated at the early time points after injection (6 h) and reached a peak of the expression at 24 h post injection in hemocytes. It is likely that the expression profile of crustin was down-regulated before up-regulated after infection, it is similar with our study that crustin was down-regulated at early stage of infection at 6 hours post infection.

5.3.2.2 Signal transduction

The present study shows that the transcripts of IMD was down-regulated, whereas relish was up-regulated during stomach infection indicating that IMD and Relish are possibly involved in regulation of antimicrobial peptides in the basal membrane of stomach. Immune deficiency (IMD) pathway is a main regulation of antimicrobial production in basal membrane of insect intestine [58,84,272]. The components of *Drosophila* IMD pathway consist of PGRP-LC receptor, IMD, the mitogen-activated protein 3 kinase (TAK1), TAB2, DIAP2, IKK signalosome, the dFADD adaptor, the Dredd caspase and the transcription factor Relish [58]. In shrimp, IMD proteins were characterized in *F. chinensis* and *L. vannamei* indicating that IMD likely play an important role in bacterial defense against pathogenic infection [67,378]. Silencing of *LvIMD* had an influence and a low production of ALF and *LvRelish* showing that regulation of ALF and *LvRelish* production may be through IMD pathway [67]. Moreover, silencing of *PmRelish* had an effect on penaeidin5 mRNA levels, but not on *PmALF3* or *PmCrustin1* [379].

In this study, cytokine receptor or Domeless was up-regulated in the stomach after bacterial challenge at 6 hours post infection revealing its likely relation to bacterial defense and regeneration of the epithelial membrane during an infection. The JAK/STAT pathway displays crucial roles in gut homeostasis and tissue regeneration of *Drosophila* [282]. The major components of JAK/STAT pathway in

Drosophila consist of cytokine-like molecules (Upd1, Upd2 and Upd3), cytokine receptor (Dome), the JAK kinase Hopscotch (Hop), and the transcriptional regulator Stat92E [380]. In shrimp, Stat was first characterized in *P. monodon* suggesting that it was possibly activated by WSSV [284]. Stat of *F. chinensis* was also identified and the transcripts of *FcStat* were up-regulated in hemocytes, hepatopancreas, and intestine after challenge with *V. anguillarum* [285]. *MjStat* was up-regulated in lymphoid organ of *M. japonicus* after induction with peptidoglycan and polycytidylic acid [381]. Recently, *LvJAK*, and *LvDome* were characterized indicating that they were induced by WSSV [382,383].

5.3.2.3 proPO system

In this study, several genes of prophenoloxidase (proPO)-activating system were found, *i.e.* clip domain serine proteinase, masquerade, prophenoloxidase activating factor/enzyme, serine proteinase and serine proteinase inhibitor. The proPO system is a part of innate immune defenses in invertebrates and consists of several proteins involved in this system leading to melanin production, cell adhesion, encapsulation and phagocytosis [152,155,183].

Microbial components are the stimulators of the proPO activating system, which will result in production of several biologically active factors [152,153,155,384]. After stimulation, a serine proteinase cascade triggers activation of the proform of proPPA into PPA which is the active form which cleaves proPO into active PO [156]. Regulators of the proPO system are serine proteinase inhibitor [385]. In *P. monodon*, *PmproPOs* and *PPAEs* were suggested to have crucial roles in immune defense during *V. harveyi* injection [25,164]. Serine proteinase inhibitor (SERPIN) is identified as a protease inhibitor. *PmSERPIN3*, *PmSERPIN6* and *PmSERPIN8* showed the function in innate immune system of shrimp [186-188]. The proPO system is a crucial system in humoral immunity.

5.3.2.4 Oxidative stress

The results show that thioredoxin was induced, but glutathione was reduced in expression levels during pathogenic infection at 6 h in this study. Similarly, thioredoxin was induced at 6 h after injection with *Listonella anguillarum* in Chinese

mitten crab *E. sinensis* [386]. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are known for its role in epithelial response to pathogens in the gut of *Drosophila* [58]. Glutathione (GSH) and thioredoxin a buffer systems during cellular thiol/disulfide redox state [387]. In addition, the result also showed that kelch-like protein 26 and kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 were highly induced to 2.18 and 5.18 fold during infection, respectively. They might able to respond by cell proliferation to pathogens during an infection. Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (keap1) is a crucial protein to control cell proliferation in intestine of *Drosophila* [388]. Keap1 was also induced after lansoprazole stimulation. Lansoprazole stimulation is a drug used to prevent stomach and intestinal damage [389].

5.3.2.5 Proteinases/proteinase inhibitor

This results show that two homologous of alkaline phosphatase were induced. There are 4 functions of alkaline phosphatase in intestine including intestinal absorption of lipid, regulation of duodenal bicarbonate secretion, detoxification of bacterial endotoxin (LPS) and regulation of trans-mucosal passage of bacteria [390]. The intestinal alkaline phosphatase of zebrafish was induced by purified LPS [391]. Moreover, alpha 2 macroglobulin homologues were induced during infection. Alpha 2 macroglobulin is a proteinase inhibitor that is induced by bacterial, viral and fungal infection [392-394]. In addition, alpha 2 macroglobulin prevents the escape of bacteria from blood clotting system in *P. monodon* [395] indicating its possible role in protecting bacterial infection in the stomach epithelia.

5.3.2.6 Apoptotic tumor-related protein

Moreover, two homologues capsizes were highly induced to 2.4 and 3.3 fold. It is similar to results obtained in Chinese mitten crab *E. sinensis* and white shrimp *L. vannamei*, caspase [396,397]. Therefore, alkaline phosphatase and capsizes might be involved in stomach immune response.

5.3.2.7 Pathogen recognition proteins (PRP)

In this study, lectins were found to be pathogen recognition proteins. This study displays that homologous C-type lectins, fibrinogen C domain, galectin and L-type lectin were up-regulated post -infection in stomach. This result suggests that

lectins play a crucial role in immune response in stomach of shrimp. There are 7 types of lectins that are discovered in shrimp including C-type, L-type, M-type, P-type, fibrinogen-like domain lectins, galectins, and calnexin/calreticulin [206]. C-type lectin and fibrinogen domain proteins are abundant as lectins in shrimp and they have a broad spectrum in defending against bacteria and virus [24,207,208,211,217,232,398,399]. L-type lectin was up-regulated in transcript after challenge with *V. anguillarum*, and it was found to agglutinate both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and promoted phagocytic activity in *M. japonicas* [400].

5.4 The Full Length cDNA of C-type Lectin in Hepatopancreas

C-type lectins are considered crucial pattern recognition proteins in innate immunity and they play significant roles in non self recognition [204] and clearance of invading microorganism [401]. C-type lectins function in a calcium-dependent manner and are involved in immune recognition in invertebrates [204]. This study showed that *PmCr* transcript was expressed higher in hepatopancreas than all other tissues. Previous study showed that the transcripts of C-type lectin was reported in various tissues, *i.e.* *PmAV* and *PmLT* transcripts were expressed in hepatopancreas, *PmLec* transcripts were expressed in hepatopancreas, intestine, hemocytes and stomach as well as *LvLT* transcripts were also expressed in hepatopancreas. The hepatopancreas is a major tissue for C-type lectin expression [206]. Additionally, the *PmCr* protein was found in hepatopancreas, stomach, midgut and hindgut. Therefore, *PmCr* protein might be produced in hepatopancreas and then secreted to the stomach, midgut and hindgut. The transcript of *FcLec1* from *F. chinensis* was expressed in hepatopancreas and stomach, while *FcLec1* was expressed in plasma and hepatopancreas. Additionally, the transcript of *FcLec2* was expressed in hepatopancreas and stomach, while *FcLec2* was found in hepatopancreas, stomach and intestine [206].

The transcript pattern of *PmCr* was significantly down-regulated at 6 hours post infection with *V. parahaemolyticus* and, the *PmCr* binding to *V. parahaemolyticus* was lower than *M. luteus*, *S. aureus*, *V. harveyi*. The results suggest that *PmCr* may have a little importance to *V. parahaemolyticus* infection in shrimp. However, more functions of *PmCr* have to be studied.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

The attachment and colonization of pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria to the gastrointestinal tract of *P. monodon* and the responses of *P. monodon* immunity were examined and compared using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), suppression subtractive hybridization (SSH) and RNA sequencing (RNA-seq).

1. Both pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria can pass through the gastrointestinal tract. Pathogenic bacteria, *i.e.* *V. harveyi* and *V. parahaemolyticus* can establish, proliferate, and cause tissue damage, especially to the epithelial layer of stomach. However, no tissue damage was seen in the posterior midgut or in the hindgut. This result indicated that the tissue most affected by these two pathogens is the stomach.

2. Among 18 genes were randomly selected from SSH and were examined using real-time PCR. Significant up-regulation of 5 genes *i.e.* salivary alkaline phosphatase, pacifastin heavy chain precursor, ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme H5b, ferritin, astakine variant 1 and dicer 2 homologues were found in the stomach at 6 hours post infection. This result indicated that these genes might be involved in the stomach response of *P. monodon*. Other gene responses in stomach of *P. monodon* during infection included physical barriers (cuticle and chitin), chemical response (salivary alkaline phosphatase and ubiquitin conjugating enzyme), cell proliferation (astakine) and immune defense (pacifastin heavy chain).

3. Following RNA-seq result of control and challenged shrimp, a set of 141 immune-related genes classified into 10 functions including antimicrobial peptides, signal transductions, proPO system, oxidative stress, proteinases/proteinase inhibitors, apoptotic tumor-related proteins, pathogen recognition immune regulators, blood clotting system, adhesive proteins and heat shock proteins were reported. This finding indicated that there are many mechanisms involving in stomach response during infection.

4. A novel anti-lipopolysaccharide was discovered in the DEGs called *PmALF7*, and the open reading frame is 369 bp encoding 122 amino acids. It has a high expression

in lymphoid organ and stomach. The *PmALF7* transcript is significantly up-regulated in stomach at 6 and 12 hours post infection.

5. C-type lectin (*PmCr*) from previous *P. monodon* library was characterized in hepatopancreas. The open reading frame of *PmCr* cDNA was 522 bp encoding 173 amino acids. It is dramatically expression in hepatopancreas, and the expression profile of *PmCr* showed the significant reduction at 6 hours post infection. The *PmCr* protein was detected in hepatopancreas, stomach, midgut and hindgut. Additionally, the recombinant *PmCr* protein bound to *M. luteus* the most. These results indicate that *PmCr* may be involved in immune response in hepatopancreas of *P. monodon*.

These finding indicated that *P. monodon* responds to the pathogenic infection through the physical barrier and the immune mechanism, while pathogenic bacteria can settle and release the virulent factor to combat to host immunity. These knowledge offers a new insight into the interaction between pathogenic bacteria and the immune response in the gastrointestinal tract of *P. monodon*. It might provide the new strategies for controlling and managing the pathogenic infection in gastrointestinal tract.

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