



FINAL REPORT

Aquatic Animal Health and Biosecurity Subprogram: Identification of differentially expressed innate immune genes in the New Zealand pāua (*Haliotis iris*) and the Australian hybrid abalone (*H. laevigata* X *H. rubra*) upon immersion challenge with the abalone herpesvirus-1 (HaHV-1)

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Abbreviations

AAHL	Australian Animal Health Laboratory
AVG	Abalone viral ganglioneuritis
CSIRO	Commonwealth Science and Industrial Research Organisation
HaHV-1	Haliotid herpesvirus-1 (Abalone herpesvirus-1) (AbHV-1)
IRF-1	Interferon regulatory factor – 1
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
Poly I:C	Polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid
RL-7	Ribosomal protein-7
RNA	Ribonucleic acid

Executive Summary

This project was carried out by scientists from AAHL CSIRO (Dr Serge Corbeil) and from LaTrobe University (Drs Karla Helbig and Subir Sarker). After discovering the existence of an abalone species (Pāua - *Haliotis iris*) resistant to AVG our research team based in Geelong and Melbourne undertook (2018) to expose the AVG resistant pāua and the AVG susceptible greenlip x blacklip hybrid abalone to HaHV-1 (the etiological agent of AVG) and look for differential gene expression between species. Cutting edge sequencing technology and bio-informatic analysis allowed us to investigate the gene expression of the animals at the molecular level. This approach led to pinpoint abalone genes that are likely to play a role in the protection against AVG in pāua. Furthermore, the identification of these genes may facilitate (if applicable) the use of a gene silencing technology such as the CRISPR system in vitro and in vivo to improve immune response to AVG. A breeding program strategy could also eventually be implemented to increase resistance to AVG in susceptible abalone species.

Background

Haliotid herpesvirus-1 (HaHV-1) (previously known as abalone herpesvirus; AbHV-1) first observed in 2005/6 in land-based abalone farms, spread through wild abalone populations along the coast of the State of Victoria causing the disease known as abalone viral ganglioneuritis (AVG). This resulted in high mortalities in wild abalone and considerable financial losses for the fisheries and abalone farms. All Australian abalone species tested to date have been shown to be susceptible to HaHV-1 infection and AVG (Corbeil et al., 2016). In addition, *Haliotis diversicolor* Reeve 1846 and *H. diversicolor* supertexta cultivated in Asia also suffered significant mortalities due to AVG (Wang et al., 2004; Chang et al., 2005). Since its emergence in Australia, much research on HaHV-1 has been done on its biology and interaction with its host (Corbeil et al., 2012a, 2012b; Crane et al., 2013). In addition, concerns were raised in relation to an eventual introduction of Haliotid herpesvirus-1 into New Zealand waters where the pāua (*Haliotis iris*) constitutes an important fishery. To evaluate the susceptibility of the pāua to AVG a study was therefore carried out at AAHL and showed for the first time that an abalone species was highly resistant to HaHV-1 infection as well as the disease (Corbeil et al., 2017). However, the underlying mechanism of protection remained unknown. In order to learn more about this protective mechanism(s) we decided to investigate, at the molecular level, the immune response of the animals when challenged with the virus.

Aims/objectives

The project aims to identify whether differential innate immune gene expression exists between two species of abalone, the AVG resistant pāua and the AVG susceptible hybrid abalone after being exposed to the etiological agent HaHV-1.

Methodology

AVG resistant pāua and AVG susceptible hybrid abalone were exposed to HaHV-1 via immersion. At various time points after virus challenge abalone were harvested and total RNA was extracted from different organs. A RNA library was constructed for each species followed by a transcriptome assembly. Subsequently, the transcriptome expression patterns were used to determine differentially expressed genes across treatments.

Results/key findings

Immune genes:

Both the immune genes, IRF-1 and viperin were upregulated in haemocytes of hybrid abalone and pāua at 48 hrs post- challenge with HaHV-1 in comparison with the negative control group. In addition, the expression of these immune genes were higher in the pāua. No upregulation was visualised at 24 hrs post-challenge. Also, viperin was upregulated in the gills of the pāua at 72 hours post-viral challenge.

Additionally, in the haemocytes from abalone stimulated with the RNA viral mimic (poly-I:C), there was a clear distinction between levels of mRNA expression of both IRF-1 and viperin between the hybrid abalone and the pāua, with the hybrid species displaying a stronger upregulation 48 hrs post-injection.

Following viral mimic stimulation of the two abalone species, a total of 689 and 361 transcripts were found to be upregulated in the haemocytes of the hybrid and the pāua species respectively, with 149 and 70 transcripts downregulated respectively. Interestingly, there was very little overlap between the gene sets regulated between these two species following viral mimic stimulation, indicating that their initial response to a virus is likely to be significantly different.

Many of the upregulated genes within the hybrid abalone following viral mimic stimulation are currently uncharacterised, and as such it is difficult to describe a trend in gene signature for that species. However, in respect to the pāua, many of the early upregulated genes belong to extracellular matrix protein families, including multiple sub-species of collagen and matrillin.

Transcriptional profile of pāua versus hybrid abalone to HaHV-1:

At 48 hours following HaHV-1 challenge of the abalone species, only 6 out of 493 up-regulated transcripts and only 1 out of 185 down-regulated transcripts were common in haemocytes between the two species. Analysis of the gills at 72 hours following challenge of HaHV-1 in both abalone species displayed a similar trend as the haemocytes, with minimal overlap of either the upregulated or downregulated transcripts.

As seen with viral mimic stimulation, there was significant upregulation of transcripts known to be involved in remodelling the extracellular matrix in the pāua haemocytes (48 hrs post HaHV-1 challenge); this was not seen in the haemocytes of the hybrid abalone transcriptional response to the virus. However, the hybrid abalone did show evidence of upregulation of genes involved in remodelling the extracellular matrix in the gills at 72 hours, which was not seen in the pāua, perhaps demonstrating either a lag in response time of the hybrid abalone to HaHV-1, or a tissue differential expression.

Implications for relevant stakeholders

Industry: In the eventuality that specific gene(s) are identified as likely candidates involved in resistance against AVG, breeding programs would benefit taking into consideration the importance of the genes as markers to be targeted. Accordingly, associated regulatory DNA sequences (e.g. promoters, repressors etc.) should be identified during genome sequencing of wild abalone (Adam Miller FRDC project # 2018-057) and compared with the pāua genome sequences.

Keywords

Halitid herpesvirus-1 (HaHV-1), abalone viral ganglioneuritis (AVG), pāua, *Haliotis iris*, hybrid abalone (*H. laevigata* x *H. rubra*), gene expression, disease resistance, mRNA sequencing, genomic analysis.

Introduction

AVG has occurred in Victorian abalone for several years beginning from 2005/6. Later on several genetic variants of the causative agent, halitid herpesvirus (HaHV-1) (previously called abalone herpesvirus AbHV-1) were discovered in Tasmanian processing plants, however, no disease outbreak was observed in the wild abalone population. All Australian abalone species tested to date have been shown to be susceptible to HaHV-1 infection and to the disease it causes (Corbeil et al., 2016). In addition, a recent study conducted at AAHL revealed that the New Zealand pāua (*H. iris*) is highly resistant to AVG when challenged with the virus via intra-muscular injection and immersion (Corbeil et al., 2017). This led us to develop a research project in collaboration with an expert in innate immunity (Dr Karla Helbig, La Trobe University) to attempt to identify immune genes possibly involved in the resistance. Identifying the mechanisms of protection would provide a knowledge-base that could lead to the development of hybrid abalone possessing resistance traits and/or to the development of immunotherapeutic molecules that could protect Australian abalone species. This project aims to address this knowledge gap and is relevant to all jurisdictions with abalone fisheries.

Objectives

- 1- Define the time-line of an anti-viral response in the pāua and Australian hybrid abalone for the first time, utilising real-time PCR, and a set of known anti-viral effector genes.
- 2- Through mRNA sequencing and genomic analysis, identify early genes expressed in pāua and Australian hybrid abalone upon HaHV-1 immersion challenge.
- 3- Establish an immune signature in the early response of the host to the virus that differs between the pāua and Australian hybrid abalone, to determine key immune players in HaHV-1 resistance.

Methods

This project sought to first examine a timeline pattern of potential anti-viral gene expression following viral infection of abalone for the first time, to inform potential time points for Next Generation Sequence (NGS) analysis. Transcriptional profiling by NGS was performed initially by utilising viral mimic treatment, (polyI:C (dsRNA)) of both abalone species to assess the anti-viral transcriptome response of abalone haemocytes without the opportunity for immune system interference by viral antagonists. The second set of transcriptional profiling assessed the immune response of both abalone species to HaHV-1 in two tissue types; haemocytes at 48 hours and gills at 72 hours post-challenge to assess potential differences at the tissue level between the two abalone species in response to HaHV-1.

Challenge trial

Pāua (*H. iris*) and blacklip (*H. rubra*) x greenlip (*H. laevisgata*) abalone hybrids were used as experimental animals and trials were conducted in aquaria in the secure bio-containment facility at AAHL CSIRO. The infectious water containing Haliotid herpesvirus-1 (HaHV-1 Vic isolate) (used for immersion challenge experiments) was produced by injecting, intramuscularly in the foot, a set of thirty naïve hybrid abalone with 100 µL of the virus stock solution. Inoculated animals were held in one tank containing 20 L aerated sea water. After 4 days infectious water was harvested to provide the immersion challenge dose. Additionally, both species of abalone were also injected intramuscularly with 50µl of a dsRNA viral analogue (total of 0.25µg poly I:C), to determine the early innate immune response profile of both species in the absence of viral antagonism. Challenged abalone were kept individually in 2L size tanks.

Samples Harvesting

At time points 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours after immersion challenge (4 pāua/hybrid abalone per time point) haemocytes, gills and nerve tissues were sampled for total RNA extraction, qPCR testing and analysis of viral load. Control infected abalone were also utilised, and samples were stabilised in RNA later and frozen at -20°C until tested.

Total RNA extraction

A Qiagen RNEasy Mini kit (cat # 74104) was used to extract total RNA from all samples according to the manufacturer's instruction (approximately 20mg of tissue was utilised where possible). The extracted RNA was eluted in 60µl of RNA later solution. RNA was quantified using a NanoDrop 1000 version 3.8.1 (Thermoscientific) and stored at -20°C until used. Not all samples after processing were of sufficient quality and quantity to obtain genomic information.

cDNA synthesis and gene amplification using the SYBR Green assay

The SuperScript™ III First Strand SYBR Green One-Step qRT-PCR Kit (Life Technologies, cat number:18080400) was used to synthesize cDNAs from extracted total RNA following the manufacturer's instruction. The expression of the house keeping-gene, ribosomal protein 7 (RL-7), as well as the well-characterised inducible anti-viral genes, interferon regulatory factor 1 (IRF-1) and virus inhibitory protein (viperin) was measured using the following primers: RL-7 Fwd 5'-CCAAAYGGRRGGCTGGAGAA-3' Rev 5'- CTCCTYAGCAGAGCATTGAT -3', IRF-1 Fwd 5'-GTCGRCWSAAACAGGACAA-3' Rev 5'-GGCCCACAGTTCAAARATACA-3', Viperin Fwd 5'-ATGMGGTTCTGGATTGTC-3' Rev 5'-TCTCGTCAAAYCCACTGAAGTC-3'.

The assay was carried out in a 25 µl reaction mixture containing: 12.5µl of 2x SYBR Green Reaction Mix, 2.5 uL of each primer (18uM) and 5.5 µl of nuclease-free water plus 2uL of cDNA.

The optimized thermal cycling conditions were as follows:

2 min at 50 °C then 10 min at 95 °C followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 sec, 55 °C for 60 sec, and 72 °C for 60 sec, followed by a melting curve analysis of 95 °C for 15 sec, 60 °C for 60 sec, 95 °C for 30 sec and 60 °C for 15 sec. Finally, an ABI Prism® 7700 Sequence Detection System and software Sequence Detector version 1.9 (PE Applied Biosystems) was used for the analysis and storage of data.

Next Generation RNA-seq library preparation

RNA extraction from abalone tissues often results in both low RNA quality, and low RNA yield. RNA was assessed using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer, and an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, USA), and in conjunction with the results from the initial gene amplification experiments described above, experimental sets of samples were chosen for sequence library preparation utilising the Illumina TruSeq RNA sample preparation v2 kit (Table 1). Note that the samples belonging to the haemocyte 48 hrs control group could not be used due to low RNA quality. Therefore, throughout all analyses we used the samples from the haemocyte 24 hrs control group as comparative reference values.

The protocol for RNA-seq library preparation was adapted from the Illumina TruSeq[®] RNA sample preparation v2 Kit. Twelve strand-specific Illumina[®] RNA-seq libraries were generated (three libraries, for each group of control; three replicates for dsRNA at the 24 h stimulation; and six replicates for each group of dsRNA and dsDNA at the 48 hrs stimulation) using 0.5 µg of total RNA. Total RNA was heated at 65°C for 5 min to denature any secondary structure and facilitate binding of the poly(A) RNA to the oligo-dT beads. Purification of poly(A) RNA was performed using Illumina TruSeq[®] RNA sample preparation v2 Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). Purified poly(A) RNA was then fragmented and primed using 19.5 µL of Elute, Prime and Fragment Mix containing random hexamers (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) for 8 min at 94°C.

Synthesis of first-strand cDNA was performed immediately by incubating fragmented and primed mRNA with first strand master mix (Illumina, USA) and SuperScript[®] II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen[™]) at a ratio of 9:1. The reaction mixtures were run in a thermal cycler at 25°C for 10 min, at 42°C for 50 min, and 70°C for 15 min. Second-strand cDNA synthesis was initiated immediately, by adding 25 µL of second-strand master mix (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) to each well, when the thermal cycle reached 4°C. After gentle and thorough mixing, the plate was incubated in a pre-heated thermal cycle at 16°C for 1 hr. The double-stranded cDNA (ds cDNA) was subsequently purified by using AMPure XP beads (Invitrogen[™], USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and eluted in 50 µL of the resuspension buffer (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

Blunt-end repair of ds cDNA was performed in a 100 µL reaction containing 10 µL diluted End Repair Control to 1/100 in resuspension buffer and 40 µL of End Repair Mix to each well (Illumina, USA). Reactions were incubated on a pre-heated thermal cycler at 30°C for 30 min and the ds cDNA was cleaned up using AMPure XP beads (Invitrogen[™], USA) according to the protocol described in Illumina TruSeq[®] RNA sample preparation v2 Kit and eluted in 15 µL of the resuspension buffer (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

To facilitate Illumina[®] adaptor ligation, a single "A" nucleotide was added to the 3' ends of the blunt-end-repaired cDNA samples. Fifteen microliters of purified phosphorylated blunt-end-repaired cDNA was included in a final 30 µL reaction mixture containing 2.5 µL diluted A-tailing control to 1/100 in resuspension buffer and 12.5 µL of A-tailing mix to each well (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The reaction mixtures were run in a thermal cycler at 37°C for 30 min followed by 70°C for 5 min.

Illumina[®] RNA-seq adaptor ligations were performed in a reaction volume of 37.5 µL containing 30 µL of phosphorylated blunt-ended cDNA in addition to 2.5 µL diluted ligation control, 2.5 µL ligation mix, and 2.5 of custom indexed adaptors to each well (see Table S1 in Supplementary Material for barcode index sequences). Reaction mixtures were incubated for 30°C for 10 min followed by inactivation of the ligation with 5 µL of stop ligation buffer into each well (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). Adaptor-ligated cDNA was purified using AMPure XP beads (Invitrogen[™], USA) according to the protocol described in Illumina TruSeq[®] RNA sample preparation v2 Kit and eluted in resuspension buffer in a final volume of 20 µL.

PCR amplification of selectively enriched DNA fragments (50 µL) was performed using 20 µL of adaptor-ligated cDNA, 5 µL of Illumina[®] PCR primer cocktail and 25 µL of Illumina[®] PCR master mix to each well (Illumina[®] Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). PCR amplification reactions were performed with the following temperature cycling profile: 98°C initial denaturation for 30 s; 15 cycles of 98°C for 10 s, 60°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 30 s; and 72°C final extension step for 5 min. PCR products were purified to remove PCR-

Table 1: Treatment samples assessed for transcriptome analysis.

ID	species	Treatment	Time_post_challenge (Hour)	Tissue	Rep
1_111	Päua	HaHV-1	72	Gills	1
2_113	Päua	HaHV-1	72	Gills	2
3_115	Päua	HaHV-1	72	Gills	3
5_107	Päua	Control	72	Gills	2
6_109	Päua	Control	72	Gills	3
7_127	Hybrid	HaHV-1	72	Gills	1
8_129	Hybrid	HaHV-1	72	Gills	2
9_133	Hybrid	HaHV-1	72	Gills	3
10_119	Hybrid	Control	72	Gills	1
11_121	Hybrid	Control	72	Gills	2
12_123	Hybrid	Control	72	Gills	3
13_91	Hybrid	HaHV-1	48	Haemocytes	1
14_92	Hybrid	HaHV-1	48	Haemocytes	2
15_94	Hybrid	HaHV-1	48	Haemocytes	3
16_65	Hybrid	Control	24	Haemocytes	1
17_67	Hybrid	Control	24	Haemocytes	2
18_68	Hybrid	Control	24	Haemocytes	3
19_87	Päua	HaHV-1	48	Haemocytes	1
20_88	Päua	HaHV-1	48	Haemocytes	2
21_89	Päua	HaHV-1	48	Haemocytes	3
22_70	Päua	Control	24	Haemocytes	1
23_71	Päua	Control	24	Haemocytes	2
24_72	Päua	Control	24	Haemocytes	3
25_81	Päua	Poly_I_C	48	Haemocytes	1
26_82	Päua	Poly_I_C	48	Haemocytes	2
27_83	Päua	Poly_I_C	48	Haemocytes	3
28_84	Hybrid	Poly_I_C	48	Haemocytes	1
29_85	Hybrid	Poly_I_C	48	Haemocytes	2
30_86	Hybrid	Poly_I_C	48	Haemocytes	3
4_103	Päua	Control	72	Gills	1

generated adaptor-dimers using AMPure XP beads (Invitrogen™, USA) according to the protocol described in Illumina TruSeq® RNA sample preparation v2 Kit with final elution in 30 µL of resuspension buffer.

All RNA-seq libraries were quantified and assessed using an Agilent Tape Station (Agilent Technologies) by the Australian Genomic Research Facility (AGRF, Melbourne) and confirmed insert sizes of 100–125 bp for all individual libraries. Individual RNA-seq libraries were standardized and pooled in equimolar quantities. The quantity and quality of the final pooled library was assessed as described above prior to sequencing by the facility. Cluster generation and sequencing of the pooled RNA-seq libraries were sequenced as paired-end using Illumina® HiSeq HT chemistry according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Transcriptome Analysis

Raw fastq files were trimmed to increase the quality of reads (Quality limit = 0.05) as well as mapping performance. Reads with ambiguous nucleotides were also removed from data (ambiguous limit = 2). To increase mapping performance, 25 nucleotides were removed from 5' terminal of all reads due to sequence reading fluctuations. Trimming and quality analysis were performed using CLC Genomics Workbench version 12 (QIGEN).

Recently published draft genome of *Haliotis rufescens* (Red Abalone) (Masonbrink et al., 2019) was used as reference for mapping and expression analysis. To this end, genome assembly and annotation were downloaded from AbaloneDB (<https://abalone.dbgenome.org/downloads>) of Iowa State University. The assembled draft genome has high quality with 8,371 scaffolds, total length of 1.498 Gb, N50 of 1.895 Mb, and 57,785 annotated genes (Masonbrink et al., 2019).

The following parameters were used for mapping: Mismatch cost (penalty) = 1, Insertion cost = 2, Deletion cost = 2, Length fraction = 0.6, and Similarity fraction = 0.6. Mapping was performed using CLC Genomics Workbench and expression was measured as total gene reads, unique gene reads and RPKM. Total gene reads were used for statistical analysis.

Differential expression analysis was performed based on Generalized Linear Model (GLM), similar to edgeR package, (Robinson et al., 2010). The p-values were corrected with FDR statistics. The use of the GLM allows us to fit curves to expression values without assuming that the error on the values is normally distributed. Here, we assume that the read counts follow a Negative Binomial distribution. Fold changes which are calculated from the GLM, which corrects for differences in library size between the samples.

Results and Discussion

OBJECTIVE 1:

Define the time-line of an anti-viral response in the pāua and Australian hybrid abalone for the first time, utilising real-time PCR, and a set of known anti-viral effector genes.

Abalone Viral Ganglioneuritis (AVG) resistant pāua and AVG susceptible greenlip x blacklip hybrid abalone were successfully challenged with both the Haliotid herpesvirus (HaHV-1), as well as with a RNA viral mimic (poly I:C). Animals were harvested at three different time points after immersion challenge.

Hemolymph, gills and nerve/muscles were harvested from each animal and total RNA was extracted from all samples, followed by cDNA synthesis from each sample.

Real-time PCR has not previously been performed on abalone RNA samples, and as such new protocols needed to be developed. Prior to running the real-time sampling of immune genes on the experimental abalone, we first needed to establish a set of primers that would be useable in assays to test the level of a variety of selected genes, in conjunction with a selected baseline control. We sourced full abalone genomes for both the pāua and the hybrid abalone, however, conservation of selected target genes between both abalone species was only found for 2 control genes, RS18, and RL7, as well as the immune genes, IRF-1 and viperin. Redundant primer sequences were generated to ensure that the mRNA from these genes would be targeted in both abalone species, and the primer sets were tested for their ability to specifically detect a single product using real-time syber green based PCR. Subsequent melt-curve analysis revealed that we could utilise RL-7 as a base line control gene for multiple species of abalone, and that detection of both viperin and IRF-1 in the abalone was also possible using this method.

Real-time PCR was next performed on all samples to assess the strength of an anti-viral response in a time course related manner, and in varying tissues. The only tissues displaying acceptable RNA quality and quantity were those taken from haemocytes and gills, and as such, were the only tissues analysed by real-time PCR. As can be seen below (Fig 1), both the immune genes, IRF-1 and viperin were upregulated in haemocytes at 48 hrs post challenge with HaHV-1, with no upregulation visualised at 24 hrs post challenge. Due to RNA quality/quantity, we could only assess levels of these two immune genes at 72 hours post HaHV-1 challenge, with viperin being upregulated in the pāua only at 72 hours. Additionally, in the haemocytes from abalone stimulated with the RNA viral mimic, there was a clear distinction between levels of mRNA expression of both IRF-1 and viperin between the two animals, with the hybrid species displaying a stronger upregulation at 48 hrs post-injection.

Due to the small amounts of RNA from these animals, real-time PCR experiments were not performed multiple times, and as such, statistics were not performed. This set of analyses was to assess the correct time point, and potential tissues to carry forward into whole transcriptome profiling of these animals. Following the data analysis, and RNA quality/quantity requirements, the following groupings and comparisons were chosen for further analysis (Table 2).

Table 2: Whole Transcriptome analysis groupings

	Sample comparison (sample Ids)	Sample set (IDs)	What question will this answer?
1	Haemocytes Pāua + poly I:C, 48hrs (81-83) vs Haemocytes Hybrid + poly I:C, 48hrs (84-86)	70-72 65, 67,68	This will tell us the normal anti-viral response of each animal, and if it differs between species
2	Haemocytes Pāua + HaHV-1, 48hrs (87-89) vs Haemocytes Hybrid + HaHV-1, 48hrs (91, 92,94)	70-72 65, 67,68	Is there a difference at the haemocyte gene expression level between HaHV-1 infection of each animal at this time point
3	Gills Pāua + HaHV-1, 72hrs (111,113,115) vs Gills Hybrid + HaHV-1, 72hrs (127,129,133)	103,107,109 119,121,123	Is there a difference at the gill gene expression level between HaHV-1 infection of each animal at this time point

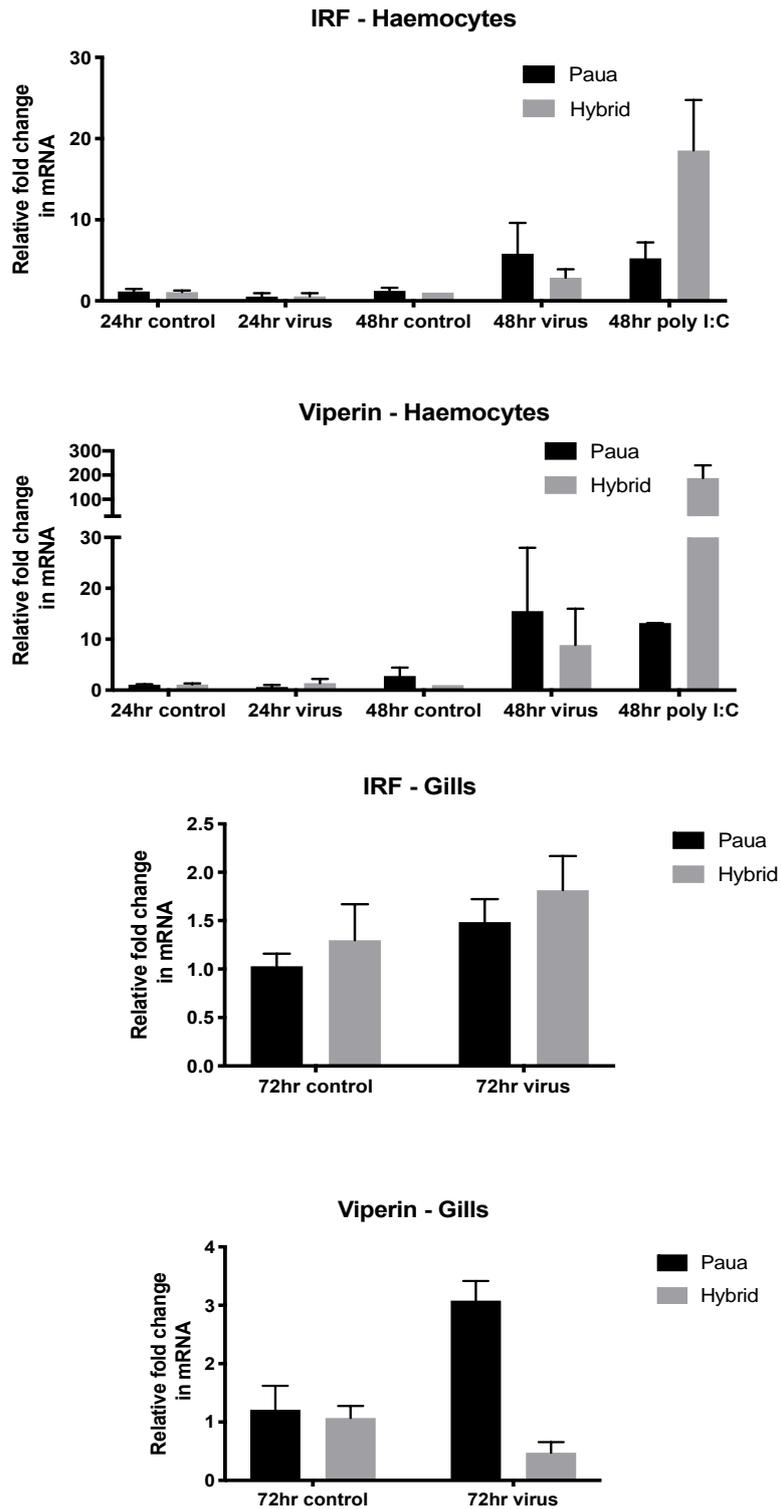


Figure 1: Real-time PCR analysis of IRF-1/viperin across abalone species, tissue type and time point.

OBJECTIVES 2 and 3

Through mRNA sequencing and genomic analysis, identify early genes expressed in pāua and Australian hybrid abalone upon HaHV-1 immersion challenge and establish an immune signature in the early response of the host to the virus that differs between the pāua and Australian hybrid abalone, to determine key immune players in HaHV-1 resistance.

Both objectives two and three were assessed utilising whole genome transcriptome analysis of pāua and hybrid abalone species either treated with poly I:C (RNA viral mimic) or challenged with HaHV-1. Treatment of both abalone species with poly I:C was performed to initially assess the transcriptome response of abalone haemocytes to a viral mimic, without the opportunity for immune system interference by viral antagonists. The second set of transcriptional profiling assessed the immune response of both abalone species to HaHV-1 in two tissue type; haemocytes at 48 hours and gills at 72 hours post-challenge.

Mapping Statistics

The depth of sequencing (number of reads per sample) and mapping is presented in Appendix 1. The mapping performance was greater than 84% in all samples and demonstrated high mapping performance against the employed assembled genome for Red Abalone (*Haliotis rufescens*). This assembled abalone genome is the most recent, and following assessment of all available abalone genomes, was also the most completed. Additionally, all samples were shown to cluster according to tissue type and abalone species, as can be seen in the principal component analysis plot below (Figure 2). Given the extreme distance separation between the two abalone species during mock treatment from both tissue types, it was assumed that their basal transcriptome differed significantly.

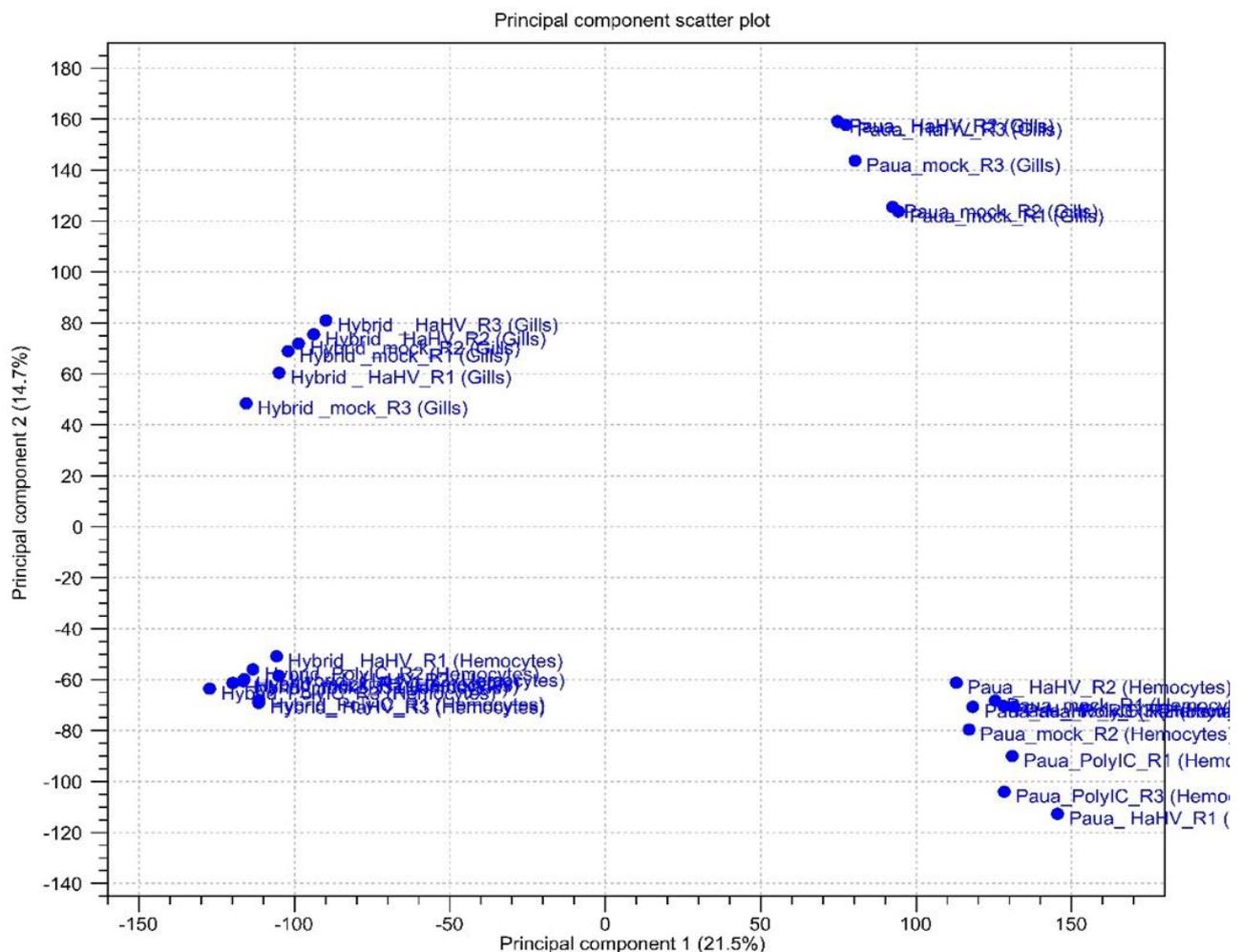


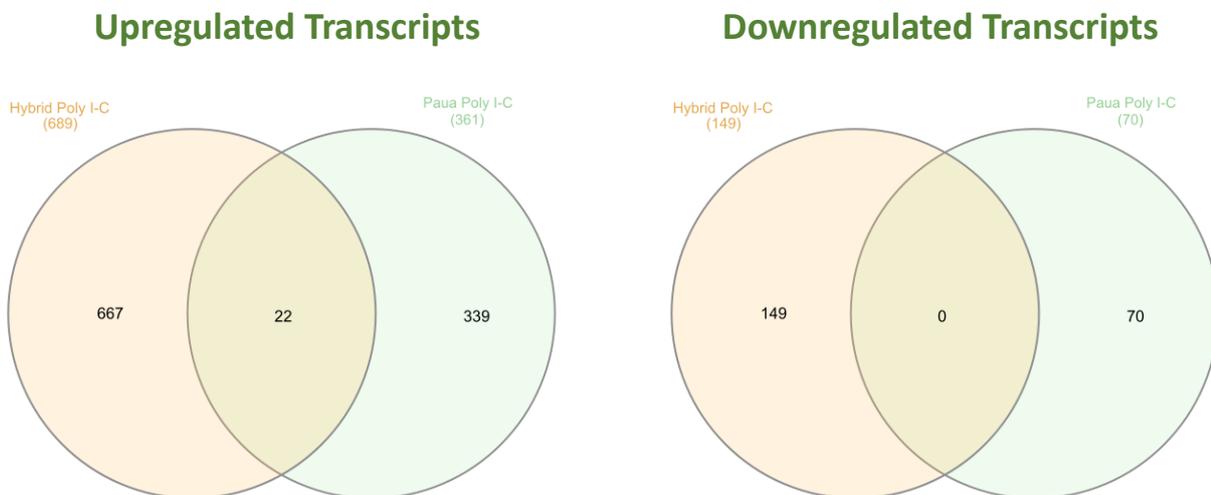
Figure 2: Principal component scatter plot

Transcriptional profile of pāua versus hybrid abalone to poly I:C

When a host cell is infected with a virus, a number of internal sentinel receptors can detect the foreign nucleic acid, and this detection initiates an anti-viral response pathway, which ultimately upregulates a suite of anti-viral genes, some of which may code for secreted proteins. This overall response aims to protect the infected host cell, as well as neighbouring uninfected bystander cells. In order to examine this response pathway in the abalone for the first time and determine if it is similar between two abalone species, we intramuscularly injected a synthetic viral mimic (Poly I:C), which would initiate an anti-viral response from the animal tissues.

Following viral mimic stimulation of the two abalone species, a total of 689 and 361 transcripts were found to be upregulated in the haemocytes of the hybrid and the pāua abalone species respectively, with 149 and 70 transcripts downregulated respectively ($< \text{ or } > 2.0$ fold, FDR $p < 0.05$). Interestingly, there was very little overlap between the gene sets regulated between these two species following viral mimic stimulation, indicating that their initial response to a virus is likely to be significantly different (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Differentially regulated transcripts following poly I:C stimulation



The top 25 upregulated genes can be seen in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2. Many of the upregulated genes within the hybrid abalone are currently uncharacterised, and as such it is difficult to describe a trend in gene signature. However, in respect to the pāua abalone, many of the early upregulated genes belong to extracellular matrix protein families, including multiple sub-species of collagen and matrilin (Table 3.2). It has been well documented in mammals that there is an intricate connection between a successful innate response to pathogens and extracellular matrix (Tomlin and Piccinini, 2018), and it is known that there is a transcriptional upregulation of extracellular matrix remodelling proteins during successful responses to pathogenic organisms in the oyster (McDowell et al., 2014). This extracellular matrix response was completely absent in the hybrid abalone at this time point, and in this tissue.

Table 3.1 Top 25 upregulated genes in the hybrid abalone following poly I:C stimulation

Reference Gene ID	Fold change	Gene Name
Halref02648	1974	uncharacterised protein
Halref39013	1376	uncharacterised protein
Halref55116	1375	TBC1 domain family member 5-like isoform
Halref17265	741	uncharacterised protein
Halref46715	474	uncharacterised protein
Halref16764	358	cytochrome P450 3A2
Halref31254	311	uncharacterised protein
Halref15035	274	extensin-1-like
Halref37879	159	PREDICTED: sodium- and chloride-dependent GABA transporter 2-like
Halref08021	137	PREDICTED: ras-like protein family member 12
Halref06826	127	uncharacterised protein
Halref42064	117	uncharacterised protein
Halref39303	116	uncharacterised protein
Halref45527	115	sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporter 1-like
Halref09174	115	uncharacterised protein
Halref57523	112	uncharacterised protein
Halref24459	110	uncharacterised protein
Halref18757	107	uncharacterised protein
Halref33338	100	Protein of unknown function
Halref04919	97	Protein of unknown function
Halref03892	97	PREDICTED: fibropellin-1-like isoform X1
Halref32789	93	uncharacterised protein
Halref08264	93	uncharacterised protein
Halref53481	89	Ice nucleation protein InaA-like
Halref29144	84	uncharacterised protein

Table 3.2 Top 25 upregulated genes in the pāua following poly I:C stimulation

Reference Gene ID	Fold change	Gene Name
Halref30138	2148	uncharacterised protein
Halref23359	1909	uncharacterised protein
Halref23362	991	zinc finger HIT domain-containing protein 3 isoform 3
Halref30140	686	collagen alpha-1(XXII) chain isoform X8
Halref23361	444	coiled-coil domain-containing protein 151 isoform 1
Halref29612	442	collagen alpha-1(XII) chain isoform X3
Halref30136	190	collagen alpha-1(XIV) chain isoform X2
Halref23355	140	serine protease 56 isoform 2 precursor
Halref53373	102	collagen, type XXI, alpha 1
Halref23354	97	uncharacterised protein
Halref23353	88	collagen alpha-1(XXII) chain isoform X8
Halref30958	86	uncharacterised protein
Halref38774	85	matrilin-3 alternative transcript
Halref35468	84	charged multivesicular body protein 1a isoform X1
Halref02468	80	uncharacterised protein
Halref02563	79	collagen alpha-1(XXII) chain isoform X8
Halref27759	78	Chain A, SIGNAL-REGULATORY PROTEIN BETA 1
Halref13300	77	uncharacterised protein
Halref00342	65	chorionic somatomammotropin
Halref13637	60	stereocilin precursor
Halref45029	60	heat shock cognate 71 kDa protein
Halref55316	59	Chain A, Human Orexin receptor type 2
Halref23365	58	uncharacterised protein
Halref34873	53	collagen, type XXI, alpha 1
Halref13169	51	inhibitor of apoptosis protein-1

Transcriptional profile of pāua versus hybrid abalone to HaHV-1

Following HaHV-1 challenge of the abalone species, both the haemocytes (48hrs post-challenge) and gills (72 hours post-challenge) were analysed for their transcriptional profiles.

Analysis of the haemocytes revealed that a total of 299 and 194 transcripts were found to be upregulated in hybrid and the pāua species respectively, with only 6 transcripts being common. A total of 104 and 81 transcripts were found to be downregulated in the hybrid and pāua respectively following viral challenge, with only 1 common transcript (< or > 2.0 fold, FDR $p < 0.05$; Figure 4).

Analysis of the gills at 72 hours post-challenge of HaHV-1 in both abalone species displayed a similar trend as the haemocytes, with minimal overlap of either the upregulated or downregulated transcripts. There was a much greater transcriptional response in the gills compared to the haemocytes, which most likely represents both the diversity of cell types present in this tissue, as well as the later time point of RNA extraction. However, in contrast to the haemocytes, the pāua was seen to upregulate and downregulate a substantially greater number of genes (2610 and 2463 transcripts respectively; < or > 2.0 fold, FDR $p < 0.05$; Figure 5), in comparison to the hybrid abalone gills samples which displayed 432 upregulated and 619 downregulated transcripts respectively (Figure 5). This significant difference in transcriptional response, may however be due to the tissue viral burden at this time point, with the hybrid abalone potentially beginning to shut down (hybrid abalone began to show significant signs of disease at 72 hours post-challenge).

Figure 4: Differentially regulated transcripts in haemocytes 72h following HaHV-1 challenge

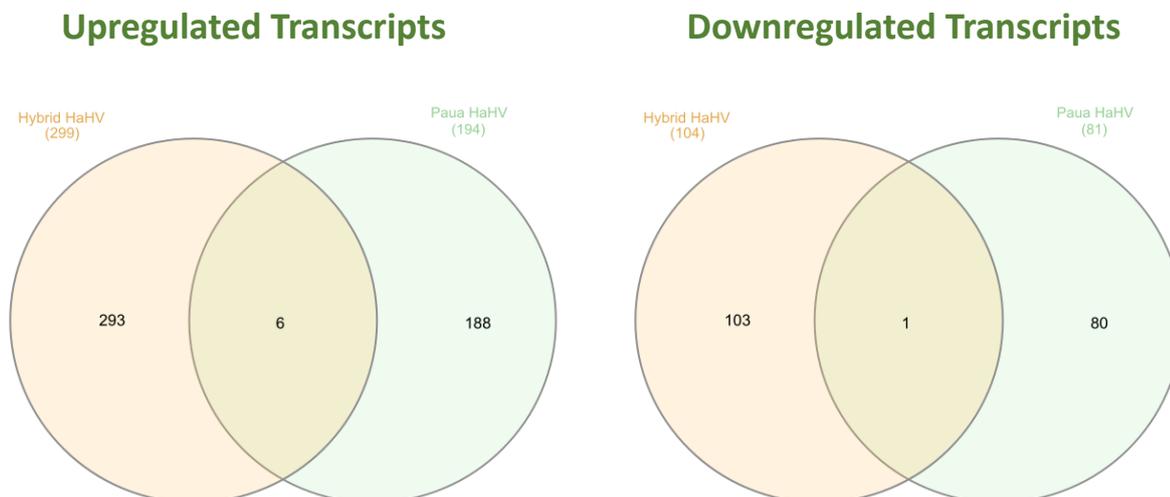
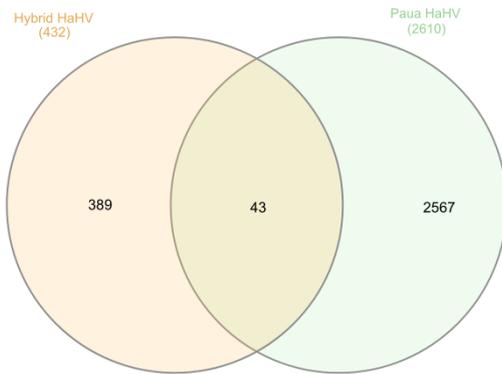
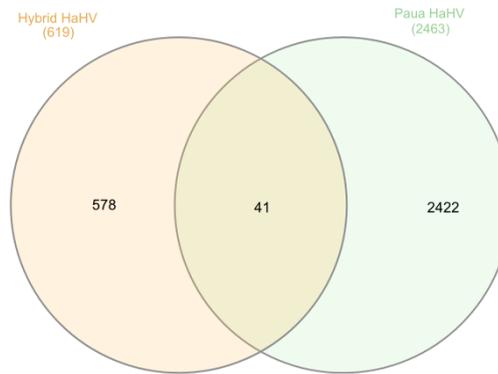


Figure 5: Differentially regulated transcripts in the gills 72h following HaHV-1 challenge

Upregulated Transcripts



Downregulated Transcripts



The top differentially upregulated genes can be seen in the below tables for both the hybrid and pāua abalone, in both the haemocytes at 48 hours, and the gills at 72 hours post viral challenge. Once again, there was a dominant upregulation of transcripts known to be involved in remodelling the extracellular matrix in the pāua abalone (Haemocytes, 48 hrs post HaHV-1 challenge, Table 4.2); including collagen, zonadhesin, adhesive plaque matrix protein-like, CUL3, and Plasminogen. Additionally, there were also numerous incidences of the upregulation of mariner transposases in the upregulated transcripts, which are functional enzymes involved in the ability of genetic material to reposition itself. These features were absent in the hybrid abalone transcriptional response to HaHV-1. Once again, the majority of the upregulated hybrid abalone transcripts were for uncharacterised protein products (Table 4.1).

The transcriptional response to HaHV-1 in the gills at 72 hours post-challenge (Table 4.3 and Table 4.4), was markedly different between the two species once again, as well as significantly different from the haemocytes within each abalone species. The hybrid abalone highest upregulated transcripts in response to HaHV-1 were related to matrix remodelling and were not upregulated at all in the pāua gills at this time point. There were no other obvious gene transcript patterns present in the highest upregulated transcripts from these tissues.

Table 4.1 Top 25 upregulated genes in the hybrid abalone following HaHV-1 challenge (Haemocytes)

Reference Gene ID	Fold change	Gene Name
Halref16719	1480	D-arabinono-1,4-lactone oxidase-like
Halref18098	1464	uncharacterised protein
Halref49370	844	eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit C-like
Halref22185	640	major vault protein-like
Halref06516	565	P2X purinoceptor 7-like
Halref12150	553	uncharacterised protein
Halref02027	538	transmembrane protein 62-like
Halref03129	484	uncharacterised protein
Halref09589	479	calcium-dependent protein kinase 31-like
Halref48739	449	diacylglycerol kinase delta-like isoform X3
Halref26225	429	Oxysterol-binding protein-related protein 9
Halref37059	400	calmodulin-like protein 5
Halref36334	376	Toll-like receptor f
Halref32437	310	uncharacterised protein
Halref34297	257	uncharacterised protein
Halref34645	176	uncharacterised protein
Halref42933	152	uncharacterised protein
Halref43588	136	uncharacterised protein
Halref15090	135	uncharacterised protein
Halref54101	134	uncharacterised protein
Halref37153	112	glycosyltransferase
Halref37160	106	probable beta-D-xylosidase 7
Halref40535	92	uncharacterised protein
Halref26575	90	plasminogen-like
Halref49973	87	uncharacterised protein

Table 4.2 Top 25 upregulated genes in the p ua abalone following HaHV-1 infection (Haemocytes)

Reference Gene ID	Fold change	Gene Name
Halref06172	828	Coagulation factor V
Halref39746	685	zonadhesin
Halref50451	182	ADP-ribosylation factor 3 isoform X2
Halref39902	144	TatD DNase domain containing 2
Halref44337	110	cation-dependent mannose-6-phosphate receptor-like
Halref27999	73	FAT tumor suppressor homolog 4
Halref04517	38	Similar to sorting nexin 13
Halref37356	30	adhesive plaque matrix protein-like
Halref40201	28	transcription intermediary factor 1
Halref09084	27	collagen alpha-2(IV) chain-like
Halref04569	27	glucuronosyltransferase I
Halref29326	23	P-selectin glycoprotein ligand 1-like isoform X2
Halref01981	22	neuropeptide Y receptor type 2
Halref53931	18	BTB/POZ domain-containing protein KCTD7 isoform 2
Halref23971	18	maltase-glucoamylase, intestinal-like
Halref43045	16	putative golgin subfamily A member 6-like protein 19
Halref14358	16	CUL3 protein
Halref23969	15	mariner transposase
Halref00342	14	core-binding factor, beta subunit
Halref55509	14	Chain A, Plasminogen
Halref29453	13	UDP-GlcNAc:betaGal beta-1,3-N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase
Halref47122	13	mariner transposase
Halref44984	12	calcium-independent phospholipase A2-gamma-like
Halref24923	12	CD40 antigen (TNF receptor superfamily member 5)
Halref20691	12	EGF-like-domain, multiple 4
Halref29774	12	ribonuclease H1 isoform 2
Halref03350	11	EGR1

Table 4.3 Top 25 upregulated genes in the hybrid abalone following HaHV-1 challenge (Gills)

Reference Gene ID	Fold change	Gene name
Halref41591	8042	adhesive plaque matrix protein-like
Halref41590	3231	adhesive plaque matrix protein-like
Halref13851	2386	high affinity cationic amino acid transporter 1-like
Halref05976	2235	protein CNPPD1
Halref18098	2143	uncharacterised protein
Halref03404	2033	uncharacterised protein
Halref51737	1818	uncharacterised protein
Halref18099	1450	uncharacterised protein
Halref24942	1144	cilia- and flagella-associated protein 44-like
Halref00160	969	PREDICTED: DNA-directed RNA polymerase II subunit RPB3-like
Halref24071	957	cytochrome P450 27C1-like isoform X2
Halref44381	952	uncharacterised protein
Halref30152	751	uncharacterised protein
Halref14342	708	cilia- and flagella-associated protein 44-like isoform X1
Halref40078	651	Paraneoplastic antigen Ma2-like
Halref10861	580	uncharacterised protein
Halref18100	569	uncharacterised protein
Halref24490	522	DNA-directed RNA polymerase II subunit RPB3-like
Halref03738	516	PREDICTED: periaxin-like
Halref45650	515	dishevelled
Halref46391	492	Glycine, alanine and asparagine-rich protein; Flags: Precursor
Halref11836	460	Perlwapin
Halref00600	440	sodium-coupled monocarboxylate transporter 1-like
Halref37927	434	uncharacterised protein
Halref16651	422	Paraneoplastic antigen-like protein 5

Table 4.4 Top 25 upregulated genes in the pāua abalone following HaHV-1 challenge (Gills)

Reference Gene ID	Fold change	Gene name
Halref41372	1725	uncharacterised protein
Halref32094	946	uncharacterised protein
Halref16908	829	uncharacterised protein
Halref28983	803	uncharacterised protein
Halref17210	643	putative aminopeptidase W07G4.4 isoform X1
Halref07654	613	histone deacetylase complex subunit SAP30L-like
Halref03282	593	histone deacetylase complex subunit SAP30L-like
Halref41375	510	uncharacterised protein
Halref56392	434	fibrillin-1-like isoform X1
Halref23030	395	deoxyribonuclease-1
Halref04504	356	uncharacterised protein
Halref35570	349	multiple epidermal growth factor-like domains protein 10
Halref45952	344	uncharacterised protein
Halref43339	339	receptor-type tyrosine-protein phosphatase kappa-like
Halref28462	297	arylsulfatase B-like
Halref46733	297	arylsulfatase B-like
Halref16240	285	uncharacterised protein
Halref35141	280	uncharacterised protein
Halref45455	279	ras-related and estrogen-regulated growth inhibitor-like
Halref00758	261	TATA element modulatory factor-like isoform X2
Halref09818	252	tRNA (guanine-N(7)-)-methyltransferase non-catalytic subunit
Halref56215	243	PREDICTED: poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 14-like
Halref36816	221	uncharacterised protein
Halref47417	218	mucin-5AC-like
Halref28554	218	PREDICTED: fibroblast growth factor receptor 2-like

Conclusion

The principal aim of this project was to identify differential gene expression in AVG resistant pāua (*H.iris*) and susceptible hybrid abalone upon HaHV-1 challenge using RNA sequencing and gene analysis. Preliminary testing using the immune genes viperin and IRF-1 as targets allowed us to identify favourable tissues and time points after challenge to perform RNA sequencing on genes expressed in both species.

The transcriptome profiling of the two abalone species was performed against both a dsRNA viral mimic to assess what a normal response to a viral infection would look like in the absence of viral antagonism in each abalone species, as well as following HaHV-1 viral challenge. The overarching result of the RNA sequencing was that the early anti-viral response of the two abalone species is very different to both a synthetic viral mimic as well as HaHV-1. There was less than 5% transcript overlap in most cases, indicating a very different anti-viral immune response pathway in each animal. However, it cannot be excluded that the hybrid abalone may have a more delayed immune response time, and that this may account for some of the transcriptional response difference between species; however, this would be unlikely to completely account for the noticeable differences observed. Additionally, it should also be noted that molecular phylogenetic studies demonstrate that the Australian abalone species fall within an alternate clade to *H.iris*, and that this may also account for some of the transcript profile differences observed. However, the early host response to viral infection in multiple different animals is known to contain core sets of anti-viral genes, and it remains to be determined if this would be the case in shellfish.

The pāua abalone appears to have a strong transcriptional response linked to matrix remodelling in the haemocytes following both stimulation with a viral mimic, as well as following challenge with HaHV-1 which is in line with results from a recent study published by Neave et al. (2019). This response appears to be absent in the haemocytes of the hybrid abalone, however there was some indication that a matrix-remodelling response may be occurring in the gill transcriptome at a later time point, potentially adding weight to the hypothesis that the hybrid abalone may have a more delayed anti-viral response. It should however also be noted that many differentially regulated transcripts could not be identified in both species of abalone, and this is most likely due to the novel nature of the abalone genomes, and the lack of information and research surrounding analysis of gene function in most marine organisms.

Collectively the work from this project has optimised real-time PCR in an abalone species, and across abalone species for the first time. It has demonstrated that two abalone species can have a very divergent transcriptional response to a viral pathogen; and that the HaHV-1 resistant pāua abalone has a heightened transcriptional response that demonstrates an upregulation of genes involved in remodelling of matrix, which appears to be absent in the hybrid abalone at similar time points.

Implications and further development

AVG remains a serious concern to all State jurisdictions with significant commercial investments in abalone fisheries and aquaculture. Data obtained from this project will be submitted to peer-reviewed journals for publication and will provide the basic knowledge on the mechanisms of resistance to AVG.

The knowledge gained from this study gives us insight for the first time into the anti-viral transcriptome response of a HaHV-1 resistant abalone species, and allows us to begin to determine which pathways and/or genes may be involved in a successful host abalone response to viral infection.

Future work could focus on determining the genes responsible for specific protection against AVG. In order to demonstrate which genes have a major functionality in the protective mechanisms, the silencing (or knock down of expression) of each one individually, and/or many in combination, would confirm the presumptive role of these genes highlighted in this current genomic study. The RNAi technology, widely used in various species including abalone, has proven effective in silencing/knocking down gene expression and demonstrating their function in animal and plant species. The application of such technology could provide the information on selected genes in the pāua with regards to AVG resistance. Multiple avenues could then

be taken to attempt to facilitate a similar response in the Australian hybrid abalone, including (1) determining the ability of Australian hybrid abalone to upregulate these genes in response to certain stimuli to develop a ‘vaccine like’ strategy; (2) developing a high through-put screening system to screen Australian hybrid abalone for a ‘HaHV-1 resistant-like profile, and initiate breeding programs based on this knowledge or (3) exploring gene knock-in using CRISPR/cas technology; which has been performed successfully in fish, but is a long-term prospect.

Recommendations

Numerous further studies could be implemented from the data presented within this report including:

1. The early up-regulation of the matrix remodelling gene and collagen genes in the pāua upon poly-I:C injection as well as viral challenge and the absence or delayed up-regulation in the hybrid abalone is suggestive of their involvement in the protection against AVG. In order to confirm this hypothesis it would be beneficial to perform further studies using cutting edge technologies such as gene editing or RNA interference to eliminate or reduce the function of these genes in vivo and proceed to a live challenge of pāua ‘deprived’ of these genes. If the importance of the matrix remodelling and collagen genes was confirmed, such families of genes could be targeted in a breeding program for AVG resistance.
2. There is now published genomes for both the hybrid and pāua abalone; and this project has generated de novo transcriptomes for both genomes for the first time. Both genomes should be screened for the presence of presumed essential and known viral pattern recognition receptors, and potential known signalling adaptor proteins, to ensure that the hybrid and pāua abalone species have a similar complement of known anti-viral signalling molecules. Major differences may point to potential targets for breeding programs, as well genetic engineering opportunities of the hybrid abalone.
3. The pāua abalone response to a synthetic viral mimic is now known, and a similar response in the hybrid abalone could now be therapeutically sought as a priming protective strategy to protect Australian abalone against HaHV-1; as has been employed in the oyster against OsHV-1 successfully.

Further development

Future work currently underway will also investigate the main biological pathways upregulated in both abalone species in response to viral mimics as well as challenge with HaHV-1; this may shed further information on the essential pathways required for a successful abalone response to immune challenge.

Extension and Adoption

This project has generated de novo transcriptomes for the greenlip x blacklip abalone and pāua genomes for the first time and this data will be made available to the scientific community through deposition of the sequences at a relevant genome databank.

Presentation of results at conferences;

Sarker S, Ebrahimie E, Corbeil S, Helbig K. The abalone viral ganglioneuritis resistant pāua (*Haliotis iris*) displays a highly divergent tissue transcriptome profile in respect to the susceptible Australian *Haliotis rubra* x *H. laevigata* hybrid abalone. Australasian Virology Society Meeting (accepted paper) Queenstown, NZ 2-5 Dec 2019.

Serge Corbeil, Subir Sarker, Karla Helbig. Evaluate and compare the gene expression in AVG resistant paua and AVG susceptible hybrid abalone (greenlip x blacklip) upon immersion challenge with HaHV-1. AAGA workshop in Hobart 01 August 2019

Serge Corbeil, Subir Sarker, Karla Helbig. Evaluate and compare the gene expression in AVG resistant paua and AVG susceptible hybrid abalone (greenlip x blacklip) upon immersion challenge with HaHV-1. 5th FRDC Australasian Conference on Aquatic Animal Health & Biosecurity. Cairns, Qld Australia 8-12 July 2019.

Corbeil S. Identification of differentially expressed innate immune genes in the NZ paua (*Haliotis iris*) and the Australian hybrid abalone (*H. laevigata* X *H. rubra*) upon immersion challenge with Haliotid herpesvirus-1 (HaHV-1). AAGA workshop, Queenscliff, Vic 09-08-2018.

Project coverage

See above

Project materials developed

Scientific manuscripts will be submitted to international peer-reviewed journals for publication.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Mapping statistics

Summary of mapping statistics of samples against *Haliotis rufescens* (Red Abalone) assembled genome

Sample name	Read count	Mapped %
3_115_CDNJBANXX_ACAGTGA	37099450	94.08
9_133_CDNJBANXX_ATGTCAG	37567944	88.86
1_111_CDNJBANXX_CGATGTA	44735402	94.37
11_121_CDNJBANXX_GTCCGCA	30459562	87.99
10_119_CDNJBANXX_CCGTCCC	37337018	88.62
16_65_CDNJBANXX_GATCAGA	34722436	89.88
25_81_CDNJBANXX_AGTCAAC	36842424	84.03
5_107_4_103_CDNJBANXX_CAGATCA	73731820	94.72
8_129_CDNJBANXX_AGTTCCG	34487692	88.36
21_89_CDNJBANXX_ACAGTGA	38731788	90.86
26_82_CDNJBANXX_AGTTCCG	32270370	86.96
15_94_CDNJBANXX_ACTTGAA	32685336	87.67
20_88_CDNJBANXX_TGACCAA	33608030	93.02
27_83_CDNJBANXX_ATGTCAG	32377538	86.26
7_127_CDNJBANXX_AGTCAAC	40568432	89.4
14_92_CDNJBANXX_TTAGGCA	31964720	85.92
13_91_CDNJBANXX_ATCACGA	32921898	88.53
22_70_CDNJBANXX_GCCAATA	31074858	91.74
28_84_CDNJBANXX_CCGTCCC	31327706	84.64
19_87_CDNJBANXX_CGATGTA	35039654	86.13
6_109_CDNJBANXX_CTTGTAA	39296678	94.08
12_123_CDNJBANXX_GTGAAAC	31726652	87.23
2_113_CDNJBANXX_TGACCAA	37476378	93.71
17_67_CDNJBANXX_TAGCTTA	38212292	90.4
24_72_CDNJBANXX_CTTGTAA	34334588	91.42
5_107_4_103_CDNJBANXX_CAGATCA	35000000	94.71
18_68_CDNJBANXX_GGCTACA	39081516	87.87
29_85_merged	29723100	89.57
30_86_CDNJBANXX_GTGAAAC	31311324	87.01
23_71_CDNJBANXX_CAGATCA	35892576	89.72
4_103_CDPFRANXX_CAGATCA	36960314	94.66

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Intellectual Property

No intellectual property has been identified.

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