1 **Title:** Transcriptomics Reveals Tumorigenesis and Pathogen Response in Scombrid Puffy Snout

2 Syndrome

3 **Authors:** Savanah L. Leidholt[1], Kalia Bistolas,[1] Manoj Pastey[1], Mark Dasenko[2], Emily Miller[3], Kyle S.

4 Van Houtan[3,4], Andre Boustany[3,4], Tatiana Galivn[1], Rebecca Vega Thurber[1]

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Affiliations:

1 Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR, USA

2 OSU Center for Quantitative Life Sciences, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR, USA

3 Monterey Bay Aquarium, 886 Cannery Row, Monterey, California, 93940, USA.

4 Nicholas School of the Environment, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, 27708, USA.

Corresponding Author Information: Email: sleidholt1994@gmail.com Mailing Address: 2820 SW

Campus Way, Corvallis, OR 97331; Phone: (541) 737-4441

Abstract: Scombrids represent some of the most economically important fisheries globally. However,

increased interest in creating aquaculture systems for these fish has also increased the risk for disease

emergence. One such disease, Puffy Snout Syndrome (PSS), causes collagenous tissue growths on the

face in numerous scombrid taxa. PSS has mainly been documented in captive-held fish populations and

can lead to high mortality rates. Despite this, little is known about the causative agent(s) of PSS and the

immune response they elicit. Therefore, we leveraged transcriptomic data of PSS symptomatic-captive,

asymptomatic-captive, and healthy-wild Pacific Mackerel (*Scomber japonicus*) to evaluate the

physiological characteristics of PSS infections and identify a potential mechanism of disease. Captive

symptomatic and asymptomatic mackerel showed distinct gene expression patterns from their wild

counterparts. Genes involved in tumorigenesis, immune response, and tissue remodeling were

overexpressed in captive-held fish. WNT9 was the most overexpressed gene in captive groups, and the

WNT signaling pathway itself showed a ~3 fold increase in KEGG pathway enrichment analysis in

captive animals. When captive fish were compared, asymptomatic fish showed lower expression of inflammation genes, but high expression of tumor suppressor genes compared to symptomatic-captive fish. Together, these host pathophysiological data and our past visual identification of RNA virus-like particles in afflicted tissues suggest that viral-mediated oncogenesis may be driving PSS in captive mackerel.

Introduction:

The Scombridae fishes (tunas, bonitos, mackerel) comprise one of the largest global finfish economies, which generated $40.8 billion USD in 2018 alone [1] . In recent years, efforts to improve the efficiency of tuna ranching and farming have increased. This has involved keeping tunas captive for extended periods of time, potentially years, at high densities. Tunas and mackerels are typically hardy species in aquaculture with negligible economic loss from diseases [2–4]. However, high fish-stock densities, low-quality food sources, and increasing temperatures in mariculture operations have contributed to large-scale disease outbreaks [4,5]. Mass mortality outbreaks in tuna aquaculture are often associated with the parasitic blood fluke (*Cordicola* spp.). Mortalities have ranged from 50-80% of an enclosure [6]. Incidences of mass mortality events from bacterial and viral diseases are less common than parasitic pathogens, but significant die-offs occur in scombrid aquaculture, most often associated with juvenile fish. One prolonged disease outbreak in Spring 2004 in an Atlantic bluefin tuna, *Thunnus thynnus* operation resulted in 2500 fish deaths over a six-month period [3]. During the outbreak, 45 fish were sampled and 100% tested positive for a new isolate of *Photobacterium damselae [3]*. This outbreak was directly correlated with a sharp increase in water temperatures and compounded by the long-term feeding of low-quality bait feed [7]. There are also reports of mycobacterium infections in Atlantic bluefin tunas [8] and, more recently, in Atlantic mackerel, *Scomber scombrus [9]*. Other bacterial outbreaks reported in hatchery-reared Atlantic bluefin tuna larvae were caused by *Vibrio* and *Tenacibaculum* sp. [10]. Both nervous necrosis (NNV) and red seabream iridovirus (RSIV) have had high mortality rates in larval and juvenile Pacific Bluefin Tunas, but viral epizootics have yet to be

described in adults [11–13]. However, one study described that juvenile Pacific Bluefin tuna were highly

susceptible to RSIV when experimentally challenged via oral viral entry, with nearly 90% mortality in the

infected group [14]. RSIV is also correlated with periods of elevated water temperature [11].

Puffy Snout Syndrome (PSS) is a common disease of captive scombrids characterized by an

overgrowth of collagenous tissue on the fish face, which inhibits foraging. However, it remains unknown

if this syndrome is caused by pathogen (bacteria, virus, parasite, etc), environmental challenge, or a

genetic predisposition. This syndrome has been reported in several species of scombrid fish including:

yellowfin tuna (*T. albacares*), Atlantic and Pacific bluefin tuna (*T. thynnus)*, blackfin tuna (*T. atlanticus)*,

skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis)*, kawakaw (*Euthynnus affinis*), Pacific bonito (*Sarda chiliensis*),

Pacific mackerel (*S. japonicas)*, and Atlantic mackerel (*S. scombrus)* [15–21]. Outside of the scombrid

fish family, the disease has been seen in northern anchovies (*Engraulis mordax*), Pacific sardines

(*Sardinops sagax)*, rainbow trout (*Onchornycus mykiss)*, California yellowtail (*Seriola dorsalis*), and

barracuda (*Sphyraena sp.*) [21,22].

In tunas and mackerel, the first signs of PSS are a darkening and wrinkling of the skin, though

this phenotype is more pronounced in tunas. As the disease progresses, a gelatinous substance overgrows

the dorsal area of the head, often occluding the eyes. Work using Masson trichrome staining found that

normal facial tissue was composed primarily of striated muscle fiber; however, in PSS-afflicted fish, this

tissue began to break down and become replaced by collagen [21]. Further, mucus-producing goblet cells,

important for creating a healthy slime coat on the fish, were noticeably decreased or malformed in PSS-

affected tunas [21]. Severe degradation at the cellular level renders mitochondria as one of the only

recognizable structures in severe PSS tissues [22]. A seminal survey of 11 facilities that reared or held

tunas, mackerels, or both, found that of the total 22 rearing units, PSS developed in 68% of these units

[21]. Typically, fish with severe PSS are unable to feed and, as a result, are either euthanized or starve to

death. Further, PSS has only been observed in captive fish, though this may be due to survivorship bias.

None of the facilities surveyed reported seeing PSS in wild-caught fish, with PSS eventually developing

in the first six months of captivity [21].

Despite its unique disease characteristics, density-dependent prevalence, and wide host range,

PSS remains understudied but highly important, as severe PSS has mortality rates ranging from 20-100%

of an enclosure [15–17,21]. Further, PSS appears to be species-specific as reports describe other fish taxa,

such as Mahi Mahi (*Coryphaena hippurus*), in the same enclosures with PSS-afflicted scombrids, but

without PSS signs [21]. Only 9 published reports exist on the topic, and only two are peer-reviewed and

attempt to identify etiological agents [21,22]. To understand the etiological agents potentially responsible

for PSS, our recent work used electron microscopy techniques and identified viral-like particles (VLPs)

within PSS-afflicted tissues of the Pacific mackerel (*S. japonicus*) [22]. These VLPs shared morphology

with many small RNA viruses being amorphous in shape and ~100 nm in diameter. Along with VLPs, a

high abundance of deformed mitochondria were identified in these same PSS-afflicted tissues. The VLPs

and disease prevalence in increased fish stock densities [21] strongly suggest that PSS onset or severity is

associated with a viral infectious agent. Interestingly, the number of malformed mitochondria within both

asymptomatic-captive animals (without visible signs of disease) and symptomatic-captive animals (with

visible signs of disease) was the same suggesting that some tissue level signs of PSS may begin to occur

even in visually healthy fish.

As a next step to identify the underlying mechanisms of PSS, we leveraged high throughput

sequencing methods to further characterize this disease at the physiological and genomic levels. Our aims

were to 1) analyze comparative host gene expression dynamics in PSS of apparently healthy mackerel,

asymptomatic-captive, and symptomatic-captive mackerel; 2) identify expression pathways indicative of

specific diseases (i.e. viral, bacterial, cancerous). Here we present the results of differential gene

expression analysis for *S. japonicus* afflicted with PSS and, for the first time, evidence of tumorigenesis

in this species.

Methods and Materials:

Sample Collection:

Sample collection and euthanasia of captive-held and wild-caught mackerel were performed as

described previously [22]. Briefly, captive-held Pacific mackerel were obtained from the Monterey Bay

Aquarium (MBA) during a routine deaccession and euthanized with an overdose of MS-222 (i.e. tricaine

mesylate). Wild-caught fish were captured and euthanized on site from the coast of Monterey Bay,

California, USA. All fish were placed in separate bags and placed on ice or in -20☐ until facial necropsy.

Epithelial and muscle tissue were taken from behind the nares and anterior to the eyes. A total of 3

symptomatic-captive, 3 asymptomatic-captive, and 3 wild-caught control (i.e., wild control mackerel)

were used for this analysis. These samples were a subset of fish used in Miller et. al. 2021.

RNA Extraction:

Frozen mackerel samples were stored in a -80☐ freezer and held in liquid nitrogen before RNA

extraction to ensure RNA stability within tissues. To reduce the possibility of cross-contamination, all

surfaces were sterilized with 95% ethanol, followed by bleach. Gloves were exchanged between each

sample to avoid cross-contamination. Following aseptic protocols, approximately 0.5 mg of tissue was

removed with a sterile scalpel and forceps, homogenized in liquid nitrogen using an autoclaved mortar

and pestle, and extracted using the E.Z.N.A DNA/RNA Isolation kit from Omega Bio-tek per

manufacturer instructions [23]. RNA and DNA were eluted in 50 μl of nuclease-free water and stored at -

80 ☐ until library preparation.

Meta-transcriptome Library Preparation:

RNAseq library preparation and sequencing were performed at the Center for Quantitative Life

Sciences at Oregon State University. Briefly, ribosomal RNA was removed from the total RNA

extractions using an Illumina mouse/rat/human Ribo-Zero kit for host rRNA removal and then a second

Ribo-Zero kit for bacterial rRNA removal. After rRNA removal, a stranded RNA-seq library was

prepared using the Takara PrepX DNA library prep. Then samples were sequenced on one lane of a

2x150bp PE Illumina HiSeq 3000 run.

Sequence Alignment and Expression Analysis:

Illumina HiSeq libraries ranged from 28,745,252 to 49,799,840 paired-end reads. The sequence

data was first quality-filtered by removing reads with a Phred score lower than 30 to demonstrate 99.99%

of sequencing base call accuracy. Adapters and poly(A) tails were removed from the reads and

normalized to 30x coverage using the BBtools suite [24]. Library read counts after each quality control

step can be found in Supplementary Table 1. The resulting 593,829,134 reads were then merged using

BBmerge [25], and the resulting files were used to construct a *de novo* transcriptome of *Scomber*

japonicus. Trinity was used to build the transcriptome using default settings (v3.9.1; [26]). GC content of

the *de novo* transcriptome was 41%. TransDecoder (v5.5;[27]) was used to identify candidate coding

regions within the *de novo* transcriptome. These coding regions were annotated using a BLASTx database

search against the KEGG protein database (v108.0;[28]). Quality-controlled transcripts of individual

libraries (i.e. samples) were mapped to the *de novo* assembled transcriptome using the Salmon Estimation

Method packaged with Trinity (v.1.13.0;[29]). Compared to two additional reference-guided assemblies

(*S. colias* genome and *S. scombrus* transcriptome), the *de novo* transcriptome recruited the most reads

among libraries and was therefore used in this study. All three assemblies' metrics and recruitment

statistics can be found in Supplemental Material 1. Individual read libraries are available at NCBI under

BioProject PRJNA967399.

After removing outliers, DESeq2 (v.3.16;[30]) was employed with R statistical programming

software (v.4.1.2;[31]) to test for differential expression between pairs of treatment groups to determine

whether each model coefficient differed significantly from zero. Sequences with adjusted p-values less

than 0.05 and an absolute value of log2 fold-change greater than 2 were defined as differentially

expressed genes (DEGs). A permanova was then used through the VEGAN (v2.7; [32]) package in R

statistical programming software to detect differences amongst the three groups over 999 iterations. The

KEGG mapper reconstruct tool (v5.0; [33]) was used to group genes into global overview pathways.

ShinyGo (v0.77; [34]) was used to perform KEGG pathway enrichment analysis using the closest related

species *Danio reiro* for the reference as has been done previously with other non-model teleost species

[35–37]. ShinyGo v0.77 was set to remove duplicate IDs with all other parameters as default.

Results:

In this study, we used comparative transcriptomics to evaluate physiological variation in Pacific mackerel

(S. japonicus), including wild fish and captive fish with visible signs (symptomatic) and without visible

signs (asymptomatic) of Puffy Snout Syndrome (PSS, Fig 1A). Wild-caught mackerel were assumed to

be healthy in all cases as there were no visible signs of disease externally or internally. DEG analysis,

plotted in principal component space and tested using a Permanova with 999 iterations (p-value =0.008),

revealed that captive-status accounted for the most variability within gene expression amongst our groups,

explaining 25% of the variance (Fig 1B).

Fig 1. Transcriptomic data shows distinct differences between captive and wild mackerel.

A) Adapted from Miller et al. 2021. From left to right images of healthy wild fish, asymptomatic captive fish, and PSS symptomatic captive fish. B) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of all transcripts showing the top 2 axes which explain the most variance. A permanova was performed on the PCA and found that variances among groups were significantly different (p-value = 0.008). C) Differentially expressed genes in a heatmap showed clear differentiation by fish captive status as seen in the hierarchical clustering. D) Raw counts of the top differentially expressed gene, *Wnt-9B* in each group. Black boxes

and symbols represent healthy wild mackerel, green represents symptomatic captive mackerel, and pink

represents asymptomatic captive mackerel.

Gene Expression and KEGG Enrichment Analysis Identified Three Overarching Gene Groups

A total of 1,115 DEGs were identified between all pairwise comparisons as containing large

coding sequences and characterized in the KEGG database (Fig 1C). Initially, DeSeq2 identified a total of

2,155 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between asymptomatic-captive and wild-control groups.

However, of these, 806 were classified as coding sequences by TransDecoder with open reading frames

(ORFs) larger than 100 amino acids, but only 567 of these genes were characterized by the KEGG

database. Between symptomatic-captive and wild-control groups, 4,183 DEGs were found of which 793

contained ORFs larger than 100 amino acids and 526 were characterized within the KEGG database.

Lastly, Deseq2 identified 85 DEGs between asymptomatic-captive and symptomatic-captive mackerel

with 35 of these containing long ORFs and 22 of these characterized within KEGG (Supplemental table

2). Though a large portion of sequences were removed with this approach, this method allowed for

conservative downstream analysis and annotation of DEGs. To determine which genes might be

diagnostic of PSS, we also identified DEGs that were highly expressed in the symptomatic fish cohort.

Wingless-related integration site 9 (*wnt9*) was identified as the most highly differentially expressed gene

within symptomatic-captive-held *S. japonicus* (p-value $= 1.31^{-35}$) (Fig 1D). Surprisingly, this gene was

also the 2nd most expressed gene in asymptomatic-captive tissue compared to wild healthy mackerel (p-

value $= 1.38^{-30}$).

Once annotated, genes for each pairwise comparisons were used for KEGG enrichment analysis

among the fish cohorts using ShinyGO to identify differences and commonalities between wild fish and

each of the captive fish health states as well as between the asymptomatic and symptomatic fish. Between

asymptomatic-captive and wild-control groups, 79% of genes matched to reference pathways. Similarly,

79% of genes matched to reference pathways between symptomatic-captive and wild-control, and 68% of

genes matched to reference pathways between asymptomatic and symptomatic captive (Fig 2). All genes

mapping to pathways can be found in supplementary table 3. Significantly enriched pathways and DEGs

were broadly categorized into three groups including: 1) tumor-related, 2) immune-related, and 3)

pathophysiological response to tissue degradation genes and pathways. However, some of the enriched

pathways and individual differentially expressed genes can be broadly characterized into more than one of

these defined groups.

Fig 2. KEGG pathway enrichment analysis (FDR p. adjust < 0.05).

Enriched pathways between asymptomatic-captive (pink) and healthy-wild groups shown in the left

panel. Enriched pathways between symptomatic-captive (green) and healthy-wild groups based on DEGs.

Stars represent pathways that are related to tumorigenesis or suppression, crosses represent pathways of

the immune system, and diamonds show pathways relating to pathophysiology. Some pathways fit into

multiple of these categories.

Captive fish share more similar transcriptomic profiles compared to wild-control fish

Tumorigenesis genes and pathways were similarly enriched in captive fish compared to wild fish

regardless of disease status. Pathways enriched between the asymptomatic-captive and the wild-control

group that promote tumorigenesis were the mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway (*MAPK*) with 2.73

fold enrichment, wingless integration site pathway (*WNT*) with 3.19 fold enrichment, calcium signaling

pathway with 3.09 fold enrichment, and melanogenesis pathway with 3.53 fold enrichment (Fig 2).

Tumor protein 53 (*TP53*), a tumor suppressor pathway, was also enriched between these groups by 5.89

fold (Fig 2). Tumorigenesis pathways enriched between symptomatic-captive and wild-control groups

were *MAPK* (2.93 fold enriched), *WNT* (3.24 fold enriched), and calcium signaling pathway (3.31 fold

enriched) (Fig 2). No tumor suppressor pathways were enriched between symptomatic-captive and wild-

control groups.

Other pathways indirectly related to tumorigenesis and enriched in both captive groups were

amino acid biogenesis and metabolism, nucleic acid metabolism, and sugar metabolism. Genes identified

as prognostic markers to human cancers and overexpressed in captive fish tissue include: *WNT9*, *WNT7a*,

WNT3, cyclin E (*CCNE2*), low-density lipoprotein (*LDL*), latent transforming growth factor beta binding

protein 1 (*LTBP1*), retinoblastoma protein 1 (*RB1*), and baculoviral IAP repeat-containing protein 5

(*BIRC5*) (Fig 3A).

Fig 3. Heatmaps of three groups of differentially regulated genes

Selected A) tumor-related; B) immune response; C) and pathophysiological marker genes. Black boxes and symbols represent healthy wild mackerel, green represents symptomatic captive mackerel, and pink represents asymptomatic captive mackerel. Smaller heatmaps to the right of each main graph are the log2 fold-change values for the symptomatic and asymptomatic groups, respectively.

The Innate immune system pathways also showed high enrichment in captive fish compared to wild-control fish (Fig 2) and were linked with pathways such as: inflammation, viral immune response, and cancer formation. Immune pathways enriched in captive fish were interestingly affiliated with pathogen infection such as elevation of pattern recognition receptors (PRRs). PRR pathways enriched between asymptomatic-captive fish and wild-control fish include nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-like (NOD-like) receptor pathway (3.54 fold), retinoic acid-inducible gene (RIG-1) receptor pathway (6.63 fold), and the cytosolic DNA sensing pathway (7.6 fold) (Fig 2). Similarly, PRR pathways

were enriched between symptomatic-captive fish and wild-control fish include the NOD-like receptor

pathway (3.54 fold), RIG-1 receptor pathway (6.16 fold), and the toll-like receptor (TLR) signaling

pathway (4.85 fold) (Fig 2).

Innate immune system genes showed high overexpression in captive fish compared to wild-

control fish (Fig 2). The PRR NLR family pyrin domain containing 3 transcript version 1 (*NLRP3_1*) and

toll-like receptor 8 (*TLR8)* show ~2 and 3 fold increase in captive fish respectively. Tripartite motif-

containing (*TRIM*) proteins, *TRIM16*, *TRIM25*, and *TRIM39* were overexpressed in captive fish compared

to wild by ~2, 4, and 4 fold respectively. General inflammation response genes overexpressed in captive

fish included: interleukin 11 (*il-11a*) with ~5 fold increase, interleukin 12b (*il-12b*) with ~4.5 fold

increase, ubiquitin-specific protease 25 (USP25) with ~6 fold increase, and mucin 5 (*Muc5a*) with ~2-6

fold increase (Fig 3B).

Enriched pathways and genes associated with tissue and cellular repair in response to degradation

were prominent in captive groups. The extracellular matrix receptor (ECM) pathway, focal adhesion

pathway, and fanconi anemia pathway were enriched by 6.96, 4.86, and 6.82 fold in asymptomatic-

captive fish compared to wild-control fish (Fig 2). Symptomatic-captive fish were enriched in the latter

two pathways by 3 and 7.91 fold compared to wild-control fish (Fig 2).

Genes related to tissue and cellular regeneration were overexpressed between 1.5-7 fold increase

within captive-held mackerel (Fig 3C). The most abundant of these genes induces collagen production

(*Col5A2, Col10a1, Col6a*). Genes associated with bone development and maintenance (fibroblast growth

factor receptor 3; *FGFR3*), fibrosis (Ectonucleoside Triphosphate Diphosphohydrolase 2; *ENTPD2*), and

vascular repair (Bradykinin Receptor 2; *BDKRB2*) were also overexpressed in captive-held mackerel.

Myozenin 2 (*MYOZ2),* a gene responsible for skeletal muscle formation and growth is significantly

underexpressed in both of our captive groups compared to the wild by ~ 3.5 fold. Tissue overgrowth can

also be associated with tumorigenesis (collagen genes and FGF3) or a general response to inflammation

Von Willebrand Factor (*VWF*) (Fig 3C).

Tumor suppressor and inflammation genes were differentially expressed between asymptomatic and

symptomatic captive fish groups

Since the initial aim of the project was to explore mechanisms of disease in PSS fish, and because

we found that captive fish had more differences to wild than expected, we then compared DEGs only

between the two captive fish cohorts, symptomatic and asymptomatic. Extracellular matrix (ECM)

signaling was the only pathway significantly enriched between captive groups with a 78 fold enrichment

in asymptomatic fish (Fig 4A). An investigation into the DEGs between captive groups showed high

expression of inflammation related genes in symptomatic fish: platelet and endothelial cell adhesion

molecule 1 (*PECAM1*) with 3 fold overexpression, *NLRP3_2* with 5-fold overexpression, and arginine

vasopressin receptor 1 (*AVPR1B*) with 2.5 fold overexpression (Fig 4B). Genes responsible for tumor

suppression were significantly underexpressed in symptomatic-captive fish compared to asymptomatic-

captive fish. Tumor suppressor genes of note are Deleted in malignant brain tumor 1 (*DMBT1*) and sterile

α motif and HD domain-containing protein 1 (*SAMHD1*). These genes were under-expressed in

symptomatic fish by 7.74 and 7.72 fold, respectively (Fig 4B).

Fig 4. Transcriptional differences between captive symptomatic and asymptomatic fish.

A) KEGG enrichment analysis of DEGs between captive groups (FDR p. adjust < 0.05) B) Heatmap

showing DEGs between captive groups. Smaller heatmap to the right represents the log-fold change

(LFC) of each gene between asymptomatic and symptomatic captive mackerel. Pink boxes represent

asymptomatic captive mackerel, and green boxes represent symptomatic captive mackerel.

Discussion

This work characterized Puffy Snout Syndrome (PSS) at the transcriptomic level, showing

evidence of facial tumorigenesis through the overexpression of pan-cancer markers within the damaged

tissues and potential avenues for infection. However, PSS remains an enigmatic syndrome with multiple

focal areas for future study. Fish have both innate and adaptive immune responses to pathogens, yet tend

to rely more heavily on the innate system, with key innate immune genes activated when presented with

stress or microbial challenge. In this study, transcriptomics offered insight into variations in PSS

physiology by identifying quantitative differences in gene expression amongst healthy, asymptomatic,

and symptomatic fish. Here, we found that expression of tumorigenesis, immune response, and

pathophysiology genes were dramatically divergent in captive fish compared to their wild counterparts.

Transcriptional differences between the two captive groups showed DEGs related to poor survival

prognosis in cancers and increased inflammation; these shifts likely play intricate roles in PSS related

tumorigenesis, tumor suppression and gross pathology.

Captive fish tissues are highly enriched in genes involved in tumorigenesis.

In this study our transcriptomic data suggested that the primary presentation of PSS is the result

of cell proliferation dysregulation and differentiation, likely leading to the observed collagenous growths

and progression through hyperplasia and dysplasia in facial tissues. This process is often characteristic of

cancers. The association of PSS with cancer formation is reflected by the numerous pathways found to be

enriched in tumor related processes, such as *MAPK* and *WNT*. The mitogen-activated protein kinase

(*MAPK*) pathway is pivotal to the regulation for gene expression, cellular growth and cell survival with

malfunctions in this pathway resulting in uncontrolled cellular growth and division, often leading to

melanomas [38]). MAPK can be stimulated by the gene WNT3a which is also overexpressed in captive

fish. Similarly, the wingless integration site pathway (*WNT*) is involved in early cell development, cell

differentiation/migration, and tissue homeostasis in adult vertebrates [39]. As mentioned previously, the

gene *Wnt9b* was one of the top differentially expressed genes in captive animals representing the largest

shift in gene expression. *Wnt9b* is the starting component of the canonical *WNT* pathway whose genes are

often diagnostic for many human and non-human animal cancers [40–42]. In *Wnt9b* gene KO mice, facial

defects have been observed [43,44]. It has been shown that WNT3, WNT9b and R-spondin (RSPO)

integrate with other WNT signaling regulators to generate fine-tuned WNT/β-catenin signaling during

facial morphogenesis [45]. This cooperation likely regulates cell proliferation through Fibroblast growth

factor (FGF) signaling in the facial processes [45]. This suggests that overgrowth of collagenous tissue on

the fish face in PSS may be because of overexpression of MAPK and WNT pathways.The overproduction

of cell growth, survival, and proliferation led by *MAPK* and the *WNT* pathways in the tumor

microenvironment is a metabolically costly endeavor. Tumors often show enrichment in biosynthetic

activities such as amino acid and sugar metabolism to support the cell 's overproduction of DNA

replication, cell division, and tissue growth [46]. Our results are consistent with this observation,

including pathways enriched in amino acid biosynthesis, nucleotide biosynthesis, and sugar metabolism

in captive fish.

In aquaria held fish, tumor suppressor pathways were under-expressed in symptomatic fish

compared to asymptomatic, suggesting that it is a hallmark of the PSS phenotype.. The tumor protein p53

pathway (P53) regulates the genes involved in DNA repair, apoptosis, cell cycle, and differentiation and

has long been known as a tumor suppressor pathway [47,48]. Dysregulation in the P53 pathway can elicit

cancer formation through pathway inhibition from oncoproteins or by gene mutations. These P53 gene

pathways were underexpressed in captive symptomatic fish [49]. Similarly, retinoblastoma protein (*Rb1)*

was significantly overexpressed in both captive fish groups. *Rb1* is a tumor suppressor gene that regulates

mitosis and gene expression by binding chromatin and limiting gene expression of proteins involved in

moving cells from the G1 to the S stage [50]. However, phosphorylation of *Rb1* by the cyclin-mediated

pathway alters its ability to bind these genes [51]. CCNA2 encodes cyclin-A2, which regulates this

transition, and is also highly expressed ~1.5 fold (S1 table) suggesting that tumor suppression activity of

Rb1 may be inhibited upstream by the overexpression of cyclins.

Pathophysiology and cellular repair in response to degradation or to tumor formation in PSS

Captive fish exhibited enriched pathways and genes consistent with tissue repair and with tumor

formation. The extracellular matrix receptor (ECM) pathway's functional role is in tissue and organ

structure maintenance and morphogenesis and was enriched in captive animals (Fig 2). The ECM is

composed of a complex network of macromolecules that surround cells and tissues to provide structural

support and aids in intracellular signaling [52,53]. The ECM pathway can be transcriptionally enriched in

human cancers and is hypothesized to cloak cancerous cells from the immune system [54]. For example,

the focal adhesion pathway (within the ECM pathway) is responsible for linking the actin skeleton to the

ECM and serves a role in cell proliferation, growth, and migration. Voorhees, 2015 reported an initial

fibrogenesis network formation in early onset PSS which was confirmed using Masson trichrome staining

where PSS afflicted individuals showed a decrease in muscle content and increase in collagen within PSS

tissues. This is consistent with findings in human melanomas where tenascin and fibronectin genes alter

the collagen formation within the ECM, resulting in more rigid tumor formation [55]. A total of four

different collagen types were found to be overexpressed in our PSS captive animals. Collagens have been

described as a double edge sword of the tumor microenvironment where they not only drive immune

invasion but also promote oncogenesis by releasing biochemical signals among cancer cells [56].

We also identified substantial evidence of tissue remodeling and wound healing in PSS animals

based on the elevation of genes involved in vasodilation (*BDKRB2*), platelet binding (*VWF*), and bone

regeneration (*FGFR3*). The observed altered gene expression profiles may explain some of the observed

gross and cellular morphology of PSS, such as presence of increased tissue growth on the head and

general increase in tissue inflammation. Further this alteration of tissue remodeling and wound healing is

consistent with the Miller et al., 2021 findings where visually asymptomatic fish showed internal signs of

extensive tissue degradation and higher percentages of malformed mitochondria along with their

symptomatic counterparts in comparison to wild fish.

Infection and stress may explain variation in the expression of immunity genes in captive fish.

We hypothesize that altered immune-specific transcriptomic profiles in captive fish may result

from prolonged physiological stress in captivity or an underlying pathogenic infection such as a virus or

bacteria that captivity may exacerbate. Shifts in essential immune pathway gene expression are often

indicative of animals responding to pathogens. In this study, we also found extensive changes in immune

gene expression profiles. Three types of pattern recognition receptor (PRR) pathways such as Toll-like

receptors (TLRs), nucleotide oligomerization domain (NOD)-like receptors (NLRs), retinoic acid-inducible gene-I (RIG-I)-like receptors (RLRs), were enriched in captive fish compared to wild (Fig 2). Some TLRs (TLR1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 10) are expressed on the surface of immune cells, mainly recognizing the membrane components of pathogenic microorganisms, such as lipids, lipoproteins, and proteins [57,58]; others (TLR3, 7, 8, 9) are expressed in the cytosol, which mainly recognize the nucleic acids of microorganisms [58]. NLRs are intracellular PRRs, which play a key role in sensing molecules associated with intracellular infection and stress. RLRs are a type of intracellular PRRs which can sense viral RNA molecules and play essential roles in innate antiviral immunity [59]. The DNA sensing pathways target DNA viruses or bacteria specifically in the cell cytosol.

Several DEGs we identified to be altered in captive fish are known to be responsible for host defense against viruses in teleosts. For example, tripartite motif 16 (*TRIM16*) is part of the fish-specific TRIM proteins and has been associated with viral infections in fish through negatively regulating interferon production [60–63]. Higher expression of TRIM16 is associated with higher viral loads and poor survival outcomes of fish [61]. Critically, TRIM25 has been one of the most commonly detected proteins in transcriptomic studies of virus infected fish or fish tissues in numerous species [64–67]. TRIM25 activates retinoic acid inducible (RIG-I) gene signaling by ligating polyubiquitin chains on the N terminal CARD [68]. This in turn induces downstream signaling by the RIG-I pathways. TRIM39 also referred to as bloodthirsty related trim 39 (*btr39*) is found to regulate the cell cycle during iridovirus and nodavirus infection in grouper (Epinephelus spp.) [69]. However, it exhibits less specificity and is induced upon both virus and bacterial challenge [69]. Further, toll-like receptor 8 (*TLR8*) in fish primarily functions to identify single-stranded RNA molecules and is presumed as a sensor for single-stranded RNA viral infection [70].

The inflammasome is a complex formed by the innate immune system in response to pathogen challenge, traumas, or chemical damage and have emerged as important regulators of cancer development and control [71]. The inflammasome induces host inflammation through activation of numerous cytokines. In teleosts, only NACHT-leucine-rich-repeat protein-1 (NALP1) and NLR family pyrin

domain containing 3 (NLRP3) are capable of forming a complete inflammasome complex [72,73].

NLRP3 formation has been triggered in fish by bacterial LPS [72,74], cellular oxidative stress [75], and

exposure to toxic metals [76]. Mitochondrial damage and dysfunction also have been observed in direct

relation to the signaling pathways for NLRP3 induction [77,78]. We previously identified mitochondrial

malformation in captive held animals. This alteration to NLRP3 may be directly or indirectly responsible

for the mitochondrial damage that is consistent with our electron microscopy imaging results. In Miller et

al. 2021 we showed PSS symptomatic fish had severe degradation and malformation of mitochondria in

PSS afflicted tissues. Unlike the TRIM family proteins, however, it remains unclear whether the

inflammasome complex is responding to pathogen challenge or environmental conditions in PSS affected

mackerel. Further, inflammation is the hallmark of cancer development in animals [79], with the

inflammasome playing a major role in the progression of the tumor environment. The role of the NLRP3

inflammasome in cancer promotion is often mediated by IL-1β, which is produced by various cells in the

tumor, including tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) and cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs) [80].

The products of the inflammasome NLRP3 -the pro-inflammatory cytokines- have been found to have

opposing roles in different cancer types. Primarily in colorectal associated cancers NLRP3 has been

identified as a tumor suppressor [81], however, the cytokines produced by NLRP3 are pro-tumorigenic in

inflammatory induced gastric and skin cancers [82,83].

Asymptomatic-captive fish likely represent an intermediate stage of the PSS disease

Comparison of the two captive groups revealed that symptomatic-captive fish showed higher

expression of inflammation related genes and exhibit lower expression of tumor suppressor genes relative

to asymptomatic fish (Fig 4b). These tumor suppressors are critical for regulating cell growth and

proliferation and thus are often repressed at the transcriptional level in malignant tumors. This

observation suggests that the asymptomatic captive fish with tumor suppressor gene expression may not

exhibit initial signs of PSS because they can still transcriptionally maintain cell homeostasis.

For example, sterile α motif and HD domain-containing protein 1 (*SAMHD1*) is a tumor

suppressor which was underexpressed in symptomatic fish compared to asymptomatic (Fig 4B).

SAMHD1 functions as a tumor suppressor by negatively regulating the innate immune

response/inflammation, repairing DNA damage, and aiding in completing DNA replication by resolving

stalled replication forks [84–86]. *SAMHD1* is underexpressed in several cancer types in humans and mice

[59,84,87] though the mechanisms for each cancer are not yet fully understood.

Similarly, Deleted in malignant brain tumors 1 (*DMBT1*), is considered a tumor suppressor gene

because it is a component of the mucosal immune system responsible for binding pathogens [88–90].

DMBT1 represses cell proliferation, cell migration, and the invasion of cancer cells. *DMBT1* exhibited the

lowest expression in wild-caught mackerel and symptomatic fish (S2 Table). In humans, this gene was

underexpressed in skin and among other cancers [91–96], but overexpressed in other tumors [97–99]. Our

results for *DMBT1* gene underexpression are consistent with other skin cancer transcriptomics and further

support the hypothesis that asymptomatic-captive fish are at an intermediate disease state.

Conclusion

We used RNA sequencing on three groups of pacific mackerel (wild, asymptomatic, and

symptomatic) to pair with our previously published work on electron microscopy (EM) imaging of Puffy

Snout Syndrome (PSS) [22]. Previous microscopy showed no evidence of bacterial infection, but instead

identified small viral particles and large numbers of deformed mitochondria in afflicted fish with PSS.

Aquaria fish with collagenous growth on the head were considered diseased (symptomatic with PSS).

Conversely, wild fish were assumed to be healthy in all cases and those in aquaria presenting altered

transcriptional profiles but without signs of disease were considered "asymptomatic". The most

significant observed changes in gene expression were detected between wild-caught fish and captive fish

with genes involved in tumorigenesis pathways being the most elevated gene category in captive fish.

Based on this combined transcriptomic evidence and visual disease phenotype, we propose that PSS is a

condition which causes the formation of facial tumors in captive fish via alteration of the cell cycle and

cell differentiation. Why these changes occur in captivity is currently unknown.

However, we also found significant shifts in tumor suppressor and inflammation/immune

response genes between the two captive groups. We predict that PSS may be induced by an infectious

oncogenic virus that induces tumorigenesis, a non-infectious physiological cancer, or by infectious cancer

cells (transmissible cancer) not previously described in wild fish. Nonpathogenic transmissible cancers

are extremely rare in wildlife, with few exceptions such as in marine molluscs, terrestrial canines, and

rodents, and we can likely exclude this option. Given the visual observations from electron microscopy

and increased expression of tumorigenesis genes and those involved in the innate immune response, a

viral infection-inducing tumorigenesis may be the most probable candidate. However, although we cannot

rule out the other hypotheses of physiological or transmissible cancers, we aim to further characterize the

presence and abundance of viral-specific genes and genomes to pursue the oncogenic virus hypothesis in

the future.

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Supplemental Figures and Tables:

S1_Figure1: Mapping rate of individual reads to the *S. colias* genome.

S. scombrus transcriptome, and the *S. japonicus De Novo* transcriptome. DN = *De Novo*, RG = Reference

Genome, RT= Reference Transcriptome. To quantify transcripts, the salmon estimation method was used

for the De Novo transcriptome and reference transcriptome. HiSat2 was used to map individual reads

from each sample back to the reference genome.

S2_Table1: Read totals after each cleaning and normalization step.

R1 represents the forward read pairs and R2 the reverse read pairs.

S3_Table2: Differentially expressed genes confirmed as coding sequences.

The first column describes the pairwise comparison. Only sequences that were found to be differentially

expressed between a comparison, containing an open reading frame longer than 100 bp, and identified

within the KEGG protein database were kept for downstream analysis.

S4_Table3: Total gene descriptions of annotated DEGs between all pairwise comparisons of fish groups

S5_Table4: KEGG Enrichment gene mapping ids between asymptomatic and wild DGEs

S6_Table5: Assembly information of the *De Novo* Pacific Mackerel transcriptome.

General assembly statistics are in the right-most column.

Samples	Raw Read Totals			Adapter Removal 1			Adapter Removal 2			QC Phred 30			PolyA Tail Removal			Normilzation @ 30		
	Duplicate	Unique	Total	Duplicate	Unique	Total	Duplicate	Unique	Total	Duplicate	Unique	Total	Duplicate	Unique	Total	Duplicate	Unique	Total
MBA-SF-03_R1	8360164	38404707	46764871	7152686	34573750	41726436	7156543	34564307	41720850	10231787	29123982	39355769	10227822	29056712	39284534	6267066	7125268	13392334
MBA-SF-03_R2	12982405	33782466	46764871	11750629	29975807	41726436	11755599	29965251	41720850	18334391	21021378	39355769	18325016	20959518	39284534	9617986	3774348	13392334
MBA-SF-10_R1	6346944	43452896	49799840	5529860	26810923	32340783	5530842	26808515	32339357	7276707	22050125	29326832	7270962	21995021	29265983	5136459	6910384	12046843
MBA-SF-10_R2	13356199	36443641	49799840	9817625	22523158	32340783	9819991	22519366	32339357	14894292	14432540	29326832	14884748	14381235	29265983	9052037	2994806	12046843
MBA-SF-11_R1	7447013	27278799	34725812	8414269	31628023	40042292	8417197	31623787	40040984	10749140	27201207	37950347	10739227	27183031	37922258	6594493	5098173	11692666
MBA-SF-11_R2	10707052	24018760	34725812	12015609	28026683	40042292	12017956	28023028	40040984	17347826	20602521	37950347	17338913	20583345	37922258	8949422	2743244	11692666
MBA-SF-07_R1	6865542	30905326	37770868	7905694	33963600	41869294	7909000	33958788	41867788	10088353	29087070	39175423	10076734	29072832	39149566	6087065	4657799	10744862
MBA-SF-07_R2	11419437	26351431	37770868	11767026	30102268	41869294	11767372	30100416	41867788	16420889	22754534	39175423	16416474	22733092	39149566	8263252	2481612	10744862
MBA-SF-08_R1	10576915	38304010	48880925	5498657	41156009	46654666	5500736	41151844	46652580	8476065	34246713	42722778	8473448	34217083	42690531	4833483	8191452	13024935
MBA-SF-08_R2	14404102	34476823	48880925	12434178	34220488	46654666	12426799	34225787	46652580	19785708	22937070	42722778	19780323	22910208	42690531	9310953	3713982	13024935
MBA-SF-09_R1	9138629	37527577	46666206	6358501	24314827	30673328	6360078	24311954	30672032	8233105	20315485	28548590	8229024	20303561	28532585	4977404	4334833	9312237
MBA-SF-09_R2	13085018	33581188	46666206	9618602	21054726	30673328	9618939	21053093	30672032	13986466	14562124	28548590	13983258	14549327	28532585	7082138	2230099	9312237
MBA-WT-01_R1	6022403	36453616	42476019	4591287	28642545	33233832	4591413	28638842	33230255	7117676	24460458	31578134	7112342	24410151	31522493	4653011	7683023	12336034
MBA-WT-01_R2	9708594	32767425	42476019	7903018	25330814	33233832	7903625	25326630	33230255	13692544	17885590	31578134	13687695	17834798	31522493	8143099	4192935	12336034
MBA-WT-02_R1	8181458	20563794	28745252	5874877	14881066	20755943	5870704	14882987	20753691	7036712	12078843	19115555	7033544	12010327	19043871	5407129	4688477	10095606
MBA-WT-02_R2	10935112	17810140	28745252	8305010	12450933	20755943	8305967	12447724	20753691	11286403	7829152	19115555	11282621	7761250	19043871	7872489	2223117	10095606
MBA-WT-04_R1	9957661	31271583	41229244	7398159	23296559	30694718	7393715	23296755	30690470	9461042	19680097	29141139	9456992	19645312	29102304	6460112	5419375	11879487
MBA-WT-04_R2	12924480	28304764	41229244	10039946	20654772	30694718	10035645	20654825	30690470	14314464	14824735	29141139	14314564	14787840	29102304	8818760	3060727	11879487

		DESeq2	TransDecoder	KEGG
1	Asymt_Wild	2,155	806	567
2	Sympt_Wild	4,183	793	526
3	Asympt_Sympt	85	35	22