

An Overview On: Bacterial Fish Zoonoses

Asmaa Ibrahim Abdelaziz Zin Eldin¹, Marwa B. Salman², Doha A. Salah Eldin³ and Nourhan Eissa^{4*}

(1)Department of Microbiology and Immunology, National Research Centre (NRC), Cairo, Egypt.

(2)Department of zoonotic diseases. National Research Centre (NRC), Cairo, Egypt.

(3)Department of Hydrobiology, National Research Centre (NRC), Cairo, Egypt.

(4)Department of Animal Hygiene and Zoonoses, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, University of Sadat City, Egypt.

*Corresponding author: Vet_noura@yahoo.com Received: 1/9/2023 Accepted: 20/9/2023

ABSTRACT

The word "zoonosis" describes a disease that people can catch from domestic or wild animals. Zoonoses demand particular care due to the extensive traffic in live aquatic animals and their products, as well as the global expansion of aquaculture. Due to the variety of transmission channels and the fact that many zoonotic diseases do not cause sickness in aquatic organisms, pathogen interactions between aquatic species and humans are complex. The following groupings can be used to classify zoonotic diseases: a) skin conditions brought on by contact with aquatic creatures or their byproducts b) Zoonotic diseases that can be contracted by eating or touching fish. C) Foodborne diseases caused on by ingesting raw or undercooked aquatic products. From a microbiological perspective, fish and related foods are a group that should be avoided. It is not advisable for people with weakened immune systems to handle fish or maintain fish aquariums. When handling fish or cleaning fish tanks, they should put on thick, waterproof gloves. As a result, it is essential to conduct ongoing epidemiological surveillance of zoonotic bacteria identified in fish and their impacts on public health.

Keywords: *Aeromonas* Spp.; Contact; *C. Perfringens*; Fish zoonoses and Foodborne

INTRODUCTION

Zoonosis (plural zoonoses for plural) is an infectious disease that can be spread from one species of animal to another through a variety of different routes, such as direct contact through ingestion, respiration, skin-to-mucous membrane contact, penetration through abrasions or wounds, and even vectors (Han *et al.*, 2016; Rahman

et al., 2020). The widespread consensus is that aquatic animals don't typically have many significant zoonotic infections (Shamsi, 2019). Due to a lack of awareness, understanding, and clinical symptoms as well as a lack of surveillance and monitoring of zoonotic agents in aquatic species, the number of annual reported cases is low and underestimated when compared to other

zoonotic illnesses in diverse animal species or humans. However, for individuals who receive a diagnosis, the effects could be fatal (Zorriehzahra and Talebi, 2021). But there are mainly just two ways for human diseases to manifest themselves. Consuming raw or undercooked fish and drinking water or other liquids contaminated with infected fish faeces or mucus are the first two causes. The infectious agent is touched in the second scenario through open wounds or skin abrasions. 15% of zoonotic infections that originate in fish are spread in several ways, compared to 46% that are transmitted orally. According to Raissy (2017), the rates of skin contact when handling fish and drinking water contaminated with harmful organisms are 24 and 19%, respectively. Since many instances are not recorded or diagnosed, data on the prevalence and incidence of topically acquired zoonotic illnesses from fish are limited, but they should be taken into account as a severe threat to public health (Aggarwal and Ramachandran, 2020). The current review endeavour was motivated by the lack of knowledge regarding the occurrence and prevalence of zoonotic factors. The different hosts, geographic distribution, and impacts of seasonality on infection prevalence all require further study. It is also vital to have a better grasp of the morphological identification of pathogens in order to enhance our knowledge of the food industry, biosecurity, and medical practises, as well as to better understand the prevalence of diseases in their environments.

1. Epidemiology:

1.1. Source and route of transmission of zoonotic bacterial fish diseases

The diversity of transmission methods and the fact that many zoonotic diseases do not sicken aquatic organisms make it difficult for pathogens to interact with humans and aquatic species. Therefore,

even healthy-looking fish have the potential to transmit illnesses to carriers who are otherwise unaffected. Additionally, commensal bacteria that often cause little harm to aquatic organisms may eventually cause zoonotic diseases that affect people. Another issue with pathogen detection in fish is that many clinical indications of sickness in aquatic species are different from those that manifest in ill humans (Lowry and Smith, 2007).

Humans can contract zoonotic illnesses through consuming tainted seafood or water, getting stung or bitten, suffering spine or pincer injuries, or coming into contact with open wounds on the handler. People who frequently interact with fish, its byproducts, or its environment (such as fishermen or those who work in the fish processing industry) are at higher risk. Someone may be more vulnerable if their immune systems are weak. Iwamoto *et al.* (2010) discovered a consistent link between seasonality (i.e., higher *Vibrio* levels in warmer water) and dietary choices, such as live and fresh seafood, and human seafood-related illnesses.

1.2. Humans at risk:

Aquaculture experts, fish culturists, processors, handlers, as well as commercial and recreational fisherman and fisherwomen, are the groups most at risk of topically acquiring zoonotic diseases from fish. They frequently come into touch with fish, and the warm, humid environment inside is ideal for bacterial growth. According to Haenen *et al.* (2013), immunocompromised people are more prone to infection from invasion through open skin wounds.

1.3. Environmental risk factors:

At sampling sites, the presence and concentrations of naturally occurring bacteria were primarily influenced by the ambient temperature and salinity, and they

changed seasonally and geographically as a result. About 80% of the change in bacterial counts and 12% of the variation in species composition could be attributed to temperature and salinity alone. In a number of settings, changes in the species composition of aquatic bacteria have been linked to elements like nitrogen, phosphorus, dissolved oxygen, and chlorophyll a (Jeffries *et al.*, 2016). In general, dissolved oxygen content and bacterial concentrations were closely associated (Morii and Kasama, 1995).

When fish are kept at temperatures between 20 °C and 30 °C, certain of pathogenic bacteria may survive and become contact-zoonotic, or hazardous to people when they come into close contact with infected fish or fish water, especially if they have damaged skin or compromised immune systems (Haenen *et al.*, 2013). Although this risk exists in open fish cultures, it may be even greater in contaminated warm water recirculation aquaculture systems, including aquaponics systems. Contaminated water is recirculated in these systems, and bacteria could grow, posing a risk to those who work in fish culture (El-Sayed, 2006).

1.4. Pathogen–Host Association

From one species of fish to another, there might be significant differences in susceptibility and clinical indications of infection brought on by a pathogen. Divergences in the fish's immune systems are a crucial factor in these changes. The varied histological responses of cod and Atlantic salmon to atypical furunculosis serve as an illustration of this. The cod response is characterized by widespread granuloma development, whereas the salmon response is characterized by bleeding and localized cellular necrosis (Magnadottir *et al.*, 2002). For example, cod exhibits a minimal or no antibody response to a variety of bacterial infections, in

contrast to Atlantic salmon (Lund *et al.*, 2008).

2. Public health importance

Fish pathogenic bacteria frequently cause serious illnesses in highly farmed fish populations in fish farms. Fish illnesses caused by bacteria are routinely treated with antibiotics put in medicated feed. Antibiotic resistance became a problem against the majority of fish pathogens in infected fish farms. In order to combat diseases, modern fish farming increasingly relies on vaccination protocols and improved management (Bowden *et al.*, 2003). For instance, both pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria have been detected in several fish parts in Ethiopia. The harmful zoonotic bacteria *Edwardsiella tarda* has been found in fish that appeared to be in good health in Lake Ziway and Lake Tana. Eating undercooked fish meals and handling fish by hand enhance the risk of infection for the general public (Nuru, 2007). With the exception of a few published studies, Ethiopian research on these themes is scarce and poor, despite the fact that bacterial diseases are the primary cause of high mortality rates, monetary losses, and bacterial zoonoses around the world. As far as the researchers are aware, no research has ever been done on Lake Hayiq (Lugo) (Tsfaye *et al.*, 2018). Wendwesen *et al.* (2017) discovered a prevalence of 65% in frozen raw fillet obtained from Lakes Abaya and Chamo despite the fact that there has been little research on the occurrence of *S. aureus* in fish and fish products in Ethiopia. This may also demonstrate that *S. aureus* can endure subfreezing conditions, posing safety issues for the general populace (Sorsa *et al.*, 2019). Children, the elderly, and people with compromised immune systems should avoid eating fresh fish that has been infected with *A. hydrophila*, according to several authors (Kebede and Habtamu,

2016). It may grow at cold temperatures and is the cause of food- and water-borne illnesses that can affect people in different ways, ranging from mild gastroenteritis to fatal septicemia (Niamah, 2012).

Additionally, a number of fish-related bacterial zoonotic outbreaks have been reported in the last ten years, two listeriosis outbreaks as a result of smoked fish consumption (Lassen *et al.*, 2016), two botulism outbreaks occurred after eating fish in Norway and Germany (Eriksen *et al.*, 2004), 2015 epidemic of severe *Streptococcus agalactiae* sequence type 283 infections in Singapore associated with the consumption of raw freshwater fish (Kalimuddin *et al.*, 2017) and the large outbreak in the Netherlands related to consumption of smoked salmon contaminated with *Salmonella thompson* (Friesema *et al.*, 2014).

3. Economic impact

Both marine and freshwater farmed fish, such as tilapia, catfish, carp, trout, salmon, bass, perch, sturgeon, and eels, are severely harmed by bacterial infections. An estimated \$120 million in economic losses per year were attributed to three bacterial fish infections in China between 1990 and 1992: *Aeromonas hydrophila*, *Yersinia ruckeri*, and *Vibrio fluvialis*. The global economic impact of bacterial infections on the productivity of aquaculture could be in the range of hundreds of millions to billions of dollars yearly given that the estimated value of aquaculture production in 2009 was \$105.3 billion (Qi, 2002).

The main cause of major fish deaths and economic losses worldwide is bacterial infections (Eissa *et al.*, 2010). There are several bacteria that can infect and kill both fish and people, according to Austin *et al.* (2005). The bacterium *Edwardsiella tarda* (*E. tarda*) is the cause of fish gangrene, an emphysematous putrefactive disease that occasionally affects humans and fish and

causes large economic losses for fish in many countries (Gauthier, 2015).

4. Zoonotic bacterial pathogens of fish

4.1. Zoonotic fish bacterial pathogens transmitted through contact:

4.1.1. Streptococcaceae

A family of Gram-positive zoonotic bacteria where the systemic streptococcosis is a serious economic hazard in whole the world (Iregui *et al.*, 2016). These pathogens are considered emergent zoonotic agents when humans meet fish. In farmed fish species, meningoencephalitis and deaths have been declared (Novotny *et al.*, 2004). There are two routes for zoonotic illness to spread from fish to humans: direct contact with sick or dead fish, or even indirect interaction with polluted water. The primary species that cause fish streptococcosis, according to Pradeep *et al.* (2016), are *S. iniae*, *S. difficile*, *S. shiloi*, *S. dysgalactiae*, *S. diffcilis*, and *S. agalactiae*. Frogs, people, and freshwater and marine fish have all been identified to harbour GBS ST283 strains (Zadoks *et al.*, 2020). Different fish species exhibit various clinical symptoms. However, exophthalmia, eye opacity, loss of orientation, stomach distention, anorexia, irregular swimming, darkening and hemorrhagic skin, and ultimately death, are the most typical signs. In addition, the bacteria are now responsible for significant rates of illness and mortality in both freshwater and saltwater fish (Leal *et al.*, 2019).

The bacteria are found in the organs and tissues that fish need for their immune systems, such as the gills, spleen, kidneys, tissues, and liver. Studies on the pathogenicity of the pathogen (Iregui *et al.*, 2016) revealed that *S. agalactiae* primarily entered the tilapia gastrointestinal tract through the mucosa and intestinal layers. After touching infected fish, humans may

suffer cellulite, meningitis, endocarditis, severe systemic infections, lymphadenitis, septicemia, suppurating ulcers, arthritis, and in rare circumstances, fatality (Haenen *et al.*, 2013).

4.1.2. Erysipelotrichaceae

A Gram-positive microorganism linked to fish zoonoses. It has a connection to marine mammals and can lead to acute sepsis or skin conditions (Boylan, 2011). The most significant member, *E. rhusiopathiae* (*E. insidiosa*), is responsible for sickness in both people and animals with a tendency to the arterial walls, connective tissues, and skin. Myositis, cellulitis and necrotizing dermatitis are examples of clinical presentations (Balootaki *et al.*, 2017). *E. piscisarius*, a newly discovered species of ornamental fish, has recently been discovered in fish (Pomaranski *et al.*, 2020). In hot seasons, this soil saprophyte can readily cause erysipeloid in fish salesmen and handlers (Novotny *et al.*, 2004). By touching live or dead fish, or fish mucus harbouring the germs, people can become infected with bacteria (Boylan, 2011). It should be mentioned that fish do not get sick from *E. rhusiopathiae*. However, because it can survive for a long time on the fish's exterior mucus, it can spread to people and result in erysipeloid illness (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018). Endocarditis, septicemia, and skin infections, particularly on the hands, can all be brought on by *E. rhusiopathiae*. Fishermen and veterinarians are among individuals who have a greater risk of developing an erysipelothrix infection. The first instance of human endocarditis disease was caused by this bacteria and was linked to operations carried out off the coast of Norway in 2017 (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018).

4.1.3. Mycobacteriaceae

The *Mycobacteriaceae* family, which encompasses different diseases that affect people, animals, reptiles, and fish, is made up of gram-positive, acid-fast, aerobic, non-motile bacilli known as *Mycobacterium* spp. (Delghandi *et al.*, 2020b). According to Hashish *et al.* (2018), mycotuberculosis, a frequent disease of marine, freshwater, and brackish water fish, is a significant factor in the decline of both farmed and wild fish. More than 150 different fish species have been reported to have Non-tuberculosis *Mycobacterium* (NTM) infections, and this zoonotic form of the disease raises worries for the general public's health (Gcebe *et al.*, 2018). The majority of fish species are susceptible to vertical and lateral spread of *Mycobacterium* spp. (Puk and Guz, 2020). Due to the diversity of the host species and the diversity of bacterial species, clinical indications of infected fish can include lethargy, coloration, stomach distention, exophthalmia, skin lesions, and even mortality (Delghandi *et al.*, 2020a). Exophthalmia, skin rashes, and sometimes even death are other symptoms. The illness can be found in a variety of fish organs, including the eyes, gills, liver, kidneys, and spleen, as a result of the infection's ability to spread through the circulatory and lymphatic systems (Chinabut, 1999). Nodules in internal organs and enlarged liver, kidney, and spleen are other indications that a fish is afflicted (Delghandi *et al.*, 2020a). Boylan (2011) maintained that sick and asymptomatic fish are long-term carriers or dispersers of the bacteria, but Bhambri *et al.* (2009) contended that contact with polluted aquatic life and water frequently results in human infections. There are 120 species of *Mycobacterium* that have been identified, including *M. avescens*, *M. chelonae*, *M. fortuitum*, *M. gordonae*, and *M. Both*, short-term and long-term problems may result from their infections (Delghandi *et al.*, 2020a). People regularly encounter these

mycobacteria, which can cause severe necrotic lesions, granulomatous skin lesions, and deep tissue infections in tendons and bones. Even yet, people with compromised immune systems are nonetheless susceptible to rare extra- and systemic respiratory illnesses. According to Delghandi *et al.* (2020a), sporadic disorders include osteomyelitis, arthritis, and bronchitis. In those with compromised immune systems, mycobacteriosis can result in systemic illness and even death (Boylan, 2011). Marine and decorative fish are both present in freshwater. The four most common *Mycobacterium* species determine when outbreaks start. These four species are *M. marinum*, *M. fortuitum*, *M. gordonae*, and *M. chelonae*, with *M. marinum* being the most prominent. In Trinidad and Tobago, ornamental fish utilised for trade were found to have piscine mycobacteriosis (Phillips Savage *et al.*, 2022).

4.2. Zoonotic bacteria due to fish ingestion (foodborne zoonoses):

4.2.1. Vibrionaceae

Aquaculture workers and consumers of aquatic goods are at danger from zoonotic transmission of a Gram-negative bacterium that causes vibriosis in both people and animals (Austin, 2010). The increasing employment of antibiotics in cultured systems has led to an increase in antibiotic resistance against the bacterium, making vibriosis a potentially serious disease for fish (Helmi *et al.*, 2020). Many *Vibrio* species can spread disease to humans through infected fish and skin sores, and they can survive in both freshwater and brackish water. *V. metschnikovi*, *V. vulnificus*, *V. cholerae*, *V. damsela*, *V. hollisae*, *V. alginolyticus*, and *V. parahaemolyticus* are some of the species that can infect individuals (Boylan, 2011).

The most common *Vibrio* species found in marine fish are *V. cholera*, *V.*

parahaemolyticus, and *V. vulnificus* (Huzmi *et al.*, 2019). Important species like *V. alginolyticus*, *V. anguillarum*, *V. campbellii*, *V. harvey*, and *V. parahaemolyticus* have been identified in infected fish. Lethargy, skin lesions, exophthalmia, and mortality are just a few of the non-specific clinical indications that fish with a *Vibrio* infection may display. Additional signs and symptoms include a bloated spleen, tail rot, intestinal inflammation, abdominal dropsy, scale shedding, epidermal haemorrhage, and pop-eye, according to Huzmi *et al.* (2019). Hernandez- Cabanyero and Amaro (2020) claim that the transmission of zoonotic *Vibrio* species from fish to humans might result in issues including lesions, septicemia, erythema, and tissue necrosis. Seafood-related *V. parahaemolyticus* infections can occur as ready-to-eat seafood items like raw fish slices gain popularity. Humans may get acute septicemia after consuming raw shellfish, whereas subsequent septicemia happens when wounds are exposed to seawater (You *et al.*, 2021).

4.2.2. Pseudomonadaceae

Pseudomonas is an opportunistic Gram-negative bacillus that can cause food poisoning (Yagoub, 2009). Because it is a part of the natural microbiota, it is problematic for fish under stress (Algammal *et al.*, 2020). However, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *P. putida*, *P. anguilliseptica*, and *P. fluorescens* are *Pseudomonas* septicemic agents in fish. According to Guzman *et al.* (1986), *P. septicemia* has been found in brackish, marine, and freshwater settings. Some of the pathogen's clinical signs include unusual skin-surface bleeding, exophthalmia, hazy eyes, ulceration, detached scales, darkening of the skin, abdominal distention, ascites, and blocked gills.

The bulk of symptoms, according to Ismail *et al.* (2017), are triggered by bacterial extracellular toxins and enzymes. The spread of bacteria that are resistant to antibiotics, particularly *Pseudomonas*, a critical public health concern, is significantly facilitated by close human-fish interaction (Fernandes *et al.*, 2018).

4.2.3. Staphylococcus aureus

The presence of germs is recognized as an infection before or after harvest because *Staphylococcus aureus* infections, particularly methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) infections, are becoming more prevalent in fish. Therefore, Staphylococcus is a target since it is thought to be crucial for fish food (Vaiyapuri *et al.*, 2019). People handling food who have *S. aureus* on their skin or mucous membranes can contaminate fish, according to research by Obaidat *et al.* (2015). On the other hand, consuming fish and its byproducts exposes individuals to *S. aureus* enterotoxins, which can result in gastroenteritis (Novotny *et al.*, 2004). The health of the general people is threatened by the heat-resistant *S. aureus* enterotoxins (Obaidat *et al.*, 2015). *S. xylosus* has just been identified as the primary fish pathogen, despite the fact that the majority of research on *S. aureus* infections in humans has focused on fish consumption. The freshly identified bacterium can impair fish immunity, cause exophthalmos, and cause fish mortality. In many countries, raw fish is consumed, which increases the risk of disease transmission to humans (Oh *et al.*, 2019). Toxic shock syndrome (TSS), which acts as a super antigen to activate polyclonal T lymphocytes in peripheral circulation and reach the bloodstream, is a condition that may result from the bacterial TSST-1 toxin in *S. aureus* skin infections (Pomputius *et al.*, 2023).

4.2.4. Listeria monocytogenes

Listeria monocytogenes was the type of bacteria that was most abundant in fish and fisheries products in 2016, according to the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA). This pathogen has been confirmed to exist in fish products, according to Gawade *et al.* (2010). It is a Gram-positive bacterium that can survive in both fresh and salty environments and can resist a variety of temperatures, including those found in a refrigerator. This bacterium, which was initially discovered to infect people through food, is now a public health concern since it has been associated to septicemia, meningitis, gastroenteritis, pneumonia, and abortion. Because *Listeria monocytogenes* is an indigenous flora of surface water and can be found on fish skin, mucus/mucosa, intestines, stomachs, and gills of contaminated fish, contact with the fish skin and faecal contents is the source of sickness transmission (Jami *et al.*, 2014). High risk groups for human listeriosis include pregnant women, the elderly, and people with immune system or chronic medical conditions (Lassen *et al.*, 2016).

4.2.5. Clostridium species

Serious food-related illnesses brought on by the anaerobic rod-shaped spore-forming bacteria *Clostridium perfringens* and *Clostridium botulinum* can be contracted by eating both fresh and tinned fish. The bacteria are widespread in soils, aquatic sediments, and uncultivated anaerobic habitats, according to Sabry *et al.* (2016). Humans get gastroenteritis as a result of enterotoxins (CPE), specifically kinds A, C, and D produced by *Clostridium perfringens* from the cpe gene (Sabry *et al.*, 2016). According to Uzal *et al.* (2014), the chemicals could possibly damage organs like the brain by entering the bloodstream through the gut. On the other hand, according to Espelund and Klaveness (2014), *Clostridium botulinum* spores can persist for many years in freshwater and

marine sediments as well as in the stomachs of healthy fish. By preventing synaptic vesicles at neuromuscular junctions from releasing acetylcholine, botulinum toxins (types A–H) produced by the bacteria, according to Barash and Arnon (2014), cause flaccid paralysis. The letters A, B, E, and F are toxic to people. Fish intestines can occasionally produce botulinum neurotoxin. The botulinum toxins have a low thermal stability and require high temperatures to become inactivated. According to Rasetti-Escargueil *et al.* (2019), the symptoms of botulism danger typically appear early and include dysphagia, diarrhoea, vomiting, bloating, lightheadedness, and constipation.

4.2.6. Campylobacter

Campylobacter is a characteristic zoonotic bacterium that can be found in the digestive tract of many animals, according to Facciola *et al.* (2017). Instead of fish products that humans eat, unclean water and a food handler's hands are the main sources of campylobacteriosis in humans. This genus contains important enteropathogens including *Campylobacter jejuni* and *C. coli*. By employing bacterial motility, intestinal cell adhesion and invasion, altering intracellular signaling, inducing cell death, evading the host immune system, and getting iron for their growth and survival, the bacteria that cause campylobacteriosis appear as enteritis (Epps *et al.*, 2013).

4.2.7. Plesiomonas shigelloides

It has been discovered as a water-borne pathogen in freshwater fish (Nakajima *et al.*, 1991).

4.2.8. Legionella pneumophila

The agent that causes legionnaires' disease/pneumonia, *Legionella pneumophila*, was discovered in a patient who worked at a fish market. It can spread by aerosols and water (Novotny *et al.*, 2004).

4.2.9. Yersinia ruckeri

Salmonids, eels, goldfish, sole, sturgeon, trout, carps, and turbot are all reservoirs for yersiniosis, also known as red mouth disease. Blood stains in the eye and exophthalmos are typical presentations of the illness. The bacterium is present in fish populations all over Europe, North and South America, Australia, and New Zealand, according to Carson *et al.* (2019).

4.3. Zoonotic bacterial pathogens of fish transmitted by more than one route (contact and ingestion):

4.3.1. Hafniaceae

Gram-negative, moveable, rod-shaped bacteria belong to the Order Enterbacteriales. The three genera that make up this family, according to Adeolu *et al.* (2016), are *Hafnia*, *Edwardsiella*, and *Obesumbacterium*. *Edwardsiella* are particularly harmful to aquatic creatures since they can lead to edwardsiellosis, a systemic disease that affects fish, according to Miniero Davies *et al.* (2018). In case of high ambient temperatures associated with higher levels of organic debris, the bacteria become more toxic to fish. Up until the year 1980, *Edwardsiella* only had one species, *E. tarda*. Recently, however (Bujan *et al.*, 2018), two additional species, *E. piscicida* and *E. anguillarum* (*E. tarda*), have been added to the list of recognized species. According to Kerie *et al.* (2019), *E. tarda* is believed to be the primary cause of infections in humans while other species, such as *E. hoshnae*, are pathogenic to fish. Compared to *E. piscicida*, *E. tarda* has proven to be less harmful in aquaculture, according to the updated classification (Leung *et al.*, 2019). Currently, the *Edwardsiella* infection can spread to more than 20 different fish species in Asia and Europe. As behavioural markers, fish with the illness may display erratic swimming, lateral movement, and swirling in the water

column. Human gastroenteritis is brought on by the opportunistic bacterium *E. tarda*, but it can also lead to other types of edwardsiellosis outside of the digestive tract, including liver and wound infections, cholecystitis, peritonitis, meningitis, myonecrosis, osteomyelitis, sepsis, and bacteremia (Kerie *et al.*, 2019). *E. tarda* infections in humans are uncommon (5%), although they can be lethal in some cases. The problems caused by *E. tarda* are more likely to affect those with compromised immune systems or underlying conditions such as diabetes and hepatobiliary disease (Wimalasena *et al.*, 2018). People can contract edwardsiellosis by swimming in contaminated water, eating raw fish, coming into contact with fish, or having a compromised immune system. Bacterial adherence to cells, the usage of hemolysin, and secretion systems are other methods by which bacteria invade and infect human cells. *Edwardsiella* grows in phagocytes before invading neighbouring cells. Due to their major contribution to the emergence of antibiotic resistance, the bacteria should receive increased focus in the coming decades (Leung *et al.*, 2019).

4.3.2. Enterobacteriaceae

The *Enterobacteriaceae* family of fish microorganisms may be harmful to humans. According to Oliviera *et al.* (2017), a number of human illnesses are caused by members of this family of organisms. *Salmonella*, *Klebsiella*, and *Escherichia coli* are members of this family of bacteria, which is frequently referred to as the zoonotic agents of fish (Boylan, 2011). These Gram-negative bacteria have been discovered in fish digestive systems and aquatic settings, according to Oliviera *et al.* (2017). Open wounds, contact with fish, or scrapes that result in infection and inflammation at the bacterium's entry point as well as systemic illnesses are the most frequent sources of these bacteria in people.

However, some members of this bacterial family have been linked to human disorders through dietary sources, such as eating imported dried fish that has been linked to *S. typhimurium* infections (Bonyadian *et al.*, 2014). The presence of *E. coli* strains in many fish species indicates that fish are a new vector for this bacterium in water sources (Hansen *et al.*, 2008). Fish can carry different *E. coli* strains to other water sources and keep them as flora, according to Guillen and Wrast (2010). *E. coli* is frequently isolated from fish's digestive tract despite not being a typical member of the fish's microbiome. In polluted conditions, *E. coli* has also been seen penetrating into the gill, kidney, muscle, and bladder of fish (Ziarati *et al.*, 2022). These illnesses are influenced by the seasons, fish interactions, contaminated habitats, and an individual's immune system. One of the agents responsible for zoonotic infections spread by fish or other aquatic animals is *Escherichia coli*. However, non-pathogenic strains frequently only succeed in doing so when they pass the intestinal barrier and reach other organs such as the urinary tract or peritoneum (Haile and Getahun, 2018). Non-pathogenic strains can still create toxins in fish that can cause diarrhoea or food poisoning. Several *E. coli* strains that have been discovered from different countries are zoonotic agents, according to reports (Cardozo *et al.*, 2018).

Through fish, aquaculture products, and water, *Salmonella enterica* subspecies enterica is effective in the development of intestinal illnesses. *Salmonella* is an uncommon fish bacterium that is impacted by the aquatic environment and water quality. When fish have bacteria in their stomachs or on the surface of their skin, they can develop into asymptomatic hosts for those germs. Fish and water samples from the following species have been reported to have *Salmonella* isolates: *S. eastbourne*, *S.*

give, *S. colindale*, *S. bredeney*, *S. poona*, *S. schwarzengrund*, and *S. llandoff*. Eating infected fish can cause human salmonellosis, with *S. typhimurium* and *S. enteritidis* being the most common infections. Their pathogenicity is determined by a variety of factors, including secretory systems, proteins, intra-phagocyte proliferation, intestinal lumen transfer, and tissue viability (Ziarati *et al.*, 2022). According to Traoré *et al.* (2015), *Salmonella*'s capacity to survive in fish digestion and manifest itself in faeces are significant contributors to the spread of bacteria and environmental pollution. When seafood is contaminated with salmonella, it can cause bacteremia, fever, gastroenteritis, and stomachaches. Salmonella can also spread from smoked fish to human skin, gills, and intestines (Bibi *et al.*, 2015). Sepsis, stomach ache, diarrhoea, and vomiting are a few of the clinical effects of salmonella infection (Lehane and Rawlin, 2000). In untreated water samples from dunes, seas, dams, prawns, and freshwater fish, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *K. oxytoca* have been identified (Gopi *et al.*, 2016). In cases of farmed fish in India with clinical hemorrhagic problems close to the tail as well as vacuolation and necrosis of hepatocytes, *K. pneumoniae* has been isolated and identified. There are worries over the spread of *Klebsiella* spp. (*Klebsiella pneumoniae* complex) to humans due to their zoonotic nature and multi-drug resistance (Das *et al.*, 2018). It was discovered that the infectious process was caused by poor food processor hygiene when *Klebsiella* was isolated from the skin lesions of a carp, an ornamental fish (Oliveira *et al.*, 2014). The direct consequences of the endotoxin and abnormal immune reactions have an impact on the symptoms of fish that have been infected with *Klebsiella* as well (Diana and Manjulatha, 2012).

4.3.3. Aeromonadaceae

Another Gram-negative pathogen infects fish, and until environmental stress and weakening, infections are asymptomatic. Fish can be infected by both *Aeromonas* and *Vibrio*, however *Aeromonas* is more common in freshwater fish, but *Vibrio* species can also be found in brackish, estuarine, and marine waters. Both bacteria have the potential to be harmful to human health (Boylan, 2011). According to Abd-El-Malek (2017), fish are a crucial part in *Aeromonas* transfer to humans. *A. hydrophila* is the most prevalent pathogen among the species identified to have zoonotic potential, followed by *A. jandaei*, *A. salmonidae*, *A. sorbia*, *A. caviae*, and *A. veroni* (Noga, 2010). In recent decade, several fish infections, like *A. jandaei* and *A. veroni*, can make fish exhibit the same symptoms as *A. hydrophila*. As a secondary infection, *A. hydrophila* also causes opportunistic illness in vulnerable fish. Organs include the gills, liver, stomach, kidney, and spleen have had histopathological alterations (AlYahya *et al.* 2018). Petechiae on the skin and fins, skin ulcers, arrhythmias, anorexia, exophthalmia, and abdominal enlargement are a few clinical signs of fish with *Aeromonas* infection (Agnew and Barnes, 2007). Additionally, although it is uncommon in humans, the *Aeromonas* species can infect people through their stomachs or by ingesting them. Muscle necrosis, cellulitis, and septicemia are a few clinical impacts on the people (Volpe *et al.*, 2019). Edoema to swelling at the site of infection are among the disease's clinical symptoms in humans (Boylan, 2011). In addition, sepsis, bacteremia, urinary tract infections, lung infections, gastroenteritis, and diarrhoea can all be brought on by *Aeromonas* in people. According to Odeyemi and Ahmad (2017), the multi-antibiotic resistance of *Aeromonas* is a sign of a developing general health issue in both people and aquatic animals.

5. Diagnosis

Fish samples are immediately transported after aseptic collection to laboratories for diagnostic purposes (Lowry and Smith, 2007). The majority of bacterial infections may be cultured mainly from a fish's caudal kidney (Ho *et al.*, 2006). Checking the shape of bacterial colonies produced on an agar plate is important, as well as testing the bacterial motility, staining affinity, biochemical reactions, and occasionally immunological characteristics. All tests are run on colonies of 24 to 48 hours old (Zrnčić and Radosavljević, 2017). One straightforward test for general medical bacteriology is the Gram staining where the majority of fish pathogens are Gram negative (Midtlyng *et al.*, 2000). The O-F test is used to identify whether a bacteria is metabolizing glucose and, if so, whether it does so by fermentation (anaerobic settings) or oxidation (aerobic conditions). Furthermore, the chemical O/129 is used in vibriostat testing because it prevents the majority of the bacteria in the genus *Vibrio* from growing (Zrnčić and Radosavljević, 2017). Flowcharts with descriptions of the biochemical tests are used to determine the bacterial species with certainty. There are a number of commercially available diagnostic kits, such as the BBL™ and Crystal™ Identification Systems (an identification method using fluorogenic and chromogenic reagents) or the Analytical Profile Index (API) system (is a manual microorganism identification to species level based on substantial databases) (Plumb and Hanson, 2010).

Serodiagnosis allowed for quick diagnosis to be made from infected fish tissues even on the fish farm before the present focus in molecular approaches. When utilized in the fluorescent antibody test, whole cell assay, antibody-coated latex particles (sometimes known as a latex test), Geck test or the immuno-India ink approach

and ELISA assay (Saeed and Plumb, 1987). Polyclonal antisera were effective at detecting the presence of pathogens but the chance of misidentification became increased than the specific monoclonal antibodies (Goerlich *et al.*, 1984). In addition, according to Austin and Austin (2016), the diagnosis of diseases in aquatic animals can also be done with the help of nucleic acid amplification using multiplex PCR, quantitative or real-time PCR, reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR), PCR (single or nested test), terminal-restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP), PCR-RFLP, multiplex PCR, real-time recombinase polymerase amplification. All of these approaches had incredibly high levels of sensitivity, detecting cell counts that were far lower than those connected to the emergence of clinical illness. In order to amplify a specific region of DNA, short oligonucleotide primers are created that will hybridize to both ends of the target region on opposing DNA strands (Midtlyng *et al.*, 2000 and Puaah *et al.*, 2018).

6. Prevention and Control Measures

Like other subspecialties of veterinary medicine, aquatic medicine emphasizes the idea that prevention is preferable to treatment. To prevent the introduction and spread of a pathogen in an animal population, it is essential to develop a workable biosecurity plan for aquaculture operations and communicate biosecurity concepts to clients (Lowry and Smith, 2007). Controlling fish illness is difficult because environmental factors have an impact on how effectively farmed fish are produced. Environmental variables have a significant impact on fish health, and the majority of fish diseases are brought on by the deterioration of the aquatic environment.

Therefore, multidisciplinary approaches involving the characteristics of potentially fish pathogenic microorganisms, aspects of fish biology, as well as a better

understanding of the environmental factors, will enable the application of appropriate measures to prevent and control the diseases limiting fish production (Toranzo *et al.*, 2005). Because aquatic animal zoonotic infections are underreported, risk estimates are difficult. To reduce the risk of topically acquired infection, those with open cuts, scrapes, or sores on their skin should avoid direct contact with potentially contaminated fresh or salt water (Haenen *et al.*, 2013). People with compromised immune systems should avoid handling fish or caring for fish aquariums. They should put on heavy, waterproof gloves when handling or processing fish or cleaning indoor aquariums or fish tanks. Everyone should thoroughly wash their hands with soap and water after handling or touching fish. It is also essential to guarantee that fish tanks and swimming pools are appropriately and frequently chlorinated in order to get rid of any dangerous microorganisms (Evans *et al.*, 2009). Veterinarians can provide patients with a variety of recommendations on how to reduce the possibility of zoonotic diseases spreading to populations of established aquatic animals. To separate new fish from existing populations, use tanks or a quarantine area. According to Jahnck and Schwar (2002), this contributes in limiting the spread of zoonotic illnesses among fish populations. Normally, new fish should be quarantined for 30 to 45 days in order to observe their behaviour, gauge how they respond to food, and look for any clinical signs. While persistent infections with pathogens like *Mycobacterium* spp. may not always be apparent, the bulk of active pathogens are typically present at this time in newly acquired fish. In order to prevent contamination of existing fish populations, the quarantine area or facility should be regarded as a separate area and furnished with nets, feed, water supply, and tank-

cleaning equipment intended for use only there (Lowry and Smith, 2007).

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

Zoonotic agents have grown to be a serious worry for the fishing and worldwide health industries as a result of rising seafood demand and consumption. There is currently a lack of information regarding the biodiversity, ecology, occurrence, and distribution of pathogens produced from fish. The motivation behind the current review project was the dearth of understanding on the presence and prevalence of zoonotic variables. More research is needed on the various hosts, geographic distribution, and effects of seasonality on infection prevalence. In order to improve our appreciation of the occurrence of diseases in their habitats as well as our awareness of the food business, biosecurity, and medical practices, a stronger understanding of the morphology of pathogens is also required. Innovative molecular diagnostic methods must be created in order to find zoonotic illnesses, particularly those that originate from fish. This will make it simple and affordable to monitor zoonotic infections in marine, freshwater, and ornamental species of fish. Since fish is a vital food of low cost, it has become simpler for people to catch aquatic diseases due to the presence of some probable zoonotic viruses. Because of this, it is essential for public health to teach people about control and preventative measures, which should be viewed as a fundamental component of human civilizations.

REFERENCES

- Abd-El-Malek, A. M. (2017). Incidence and virulence characteristics of *Aeromonas* spp. in fish. *Veterinary world*, 10(1), 34.
- Adeolu, M., Alnajjar, S., Naushad, S., & S. Gupta, R. (2016). Genome-based

- phylogeny and taxonomy of the 'Enterobacteriales': proposal for Enterobacterales ord. nov. divided into the families Enterobacteriaceae, Erwiniaceae fam. nov., Pectobacteriaceae fam. nov., Yersiniaceae fam. nov., Hafniaceae fam. nov., Morganellaceae fam. nov., and Budviciaceae fam. nov. *International journal of systematic and evolutionary microbiology*, 66(12), 5575-5599.
- Aggarwal, D., & Ramachandran, A. (2020). One health approach to address zoonotic diseases. *Indian journal of community medicine: official publication of Indian Association of Preventive & Social Medicine*, 45(Suppl 1), S6.
- Agnew, W., & Barnes, A. C. (2007). Streptococcus iniae: an aquatic pathogen of global veterinary significance and a challenging candidate for reliable vaccination. *Veterinary microbiology*, 122(1-2), 1-15.
- Algammal, A. M., Mabrok, M., Sivaramasamy, E., Youssef, F. M., Atwa, M. H., El-Kholy, A. W., ... & Hozzein, W. N. (2020). Emerging MDR-Pseudomonas aeruginosa in fish commonly harbor opr L and tox A virulence genes and bla TEM, bla CTX-M, and tet A antibiotic-resistance genes. *Scientific reports*, 10(1), 15961.
- AlYahya, S. A., Ameen, F., Al-Niaeem, K. S., Al-Sa'adi, B. A., Hadi, S., & Mostafa, A. A. (2018). Histopathological studies of experimental Aeromonas hydrophila infection in blue tilapia, Oreochromis aureus. *Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences*, 25(1), 182-185.
- Austin, B. (2010). Vibrios as causal agents of zoonoses. *Veterinary microbiology*, 140(3-4), 310-317.
- Austin B, Austin DA (2016) Bacterial fish pathogens, disease of farmed and wild fish, 6th edn. *Springer, Dordrecht*.
- Austin, B., Austin, D., Sutherland, R., Thompson, F., & Swings, J. (2005). Pathogenicity of vibrios to rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss, Walbaum) and Artemia nauplii. *Environmental microbiology*, 7(9), 1488-1495.
- Balootaki, P. A., Amin, M., Haghparasti, F., & Rokhbakhsh-Zamin, F. (2017). Isolation and detection of Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae and its distribution in humans and animals by phenotypical and molecular methods in Ahvaz-Iran in 2015. *Iranian Journal of Medical Sciences*, 42(4), 377.
- Barash, J. R., & Arnon, S. S. (2014). A novel strain of Clostridium botulinum that produces type B and type H botulinum toxins. *The Journal of infectious diseases*, 209(2), 183-191.
- Bhambri, S., Bhambri, A., & Del Rosso, J. Q. (2009). Atypical mycobacterial cutaneous infections. *Dermatologic clinics*, 27(1), 63-73.
- Bibi, F., Qaisrani, S. N., Ahmad, A. N., Akhtar, M., Khan, B. N., & Ali, Z. (2015). Occurrence of Salmonella in freshwater fishes: A review. *Journal of Animal and Plant Sciences*, 25(3), 303-310.
- Bonyadian, M., Fardizad, H., Akbarian, A., & Karimi Ghahfarokh, E. (2014). Pool water and Rainbow trout contamination to some enteric bacteria in Chaharmahal va Bakhtiari province. *Iranian Veterinary Journal*, 10(3), 94-99.

- Bowden, T., Bricknell, L., Ellis, A. E. (2003). Fish vaccination, an overview. *Report* (2003):5–20
- Boylan, S. (2011). Zoonoses associated with fish. *Veterinary Clinics: Exotic Animal Practice*, 14(3), 427-438.
- Buján, N., Toranzo, A. E., & Magariños, B. (2018). *Edwardsiella piscicida*: a significant bacterial pathogen of cultured fish. *Diseases of aquatic organisms*, 131(1), 59-71.
- Cardozo, M. V., Borges, C. A., Beraldo, L. G., Maluta, R. P., Pollo, A. S., Borzi, M. M., ... & Ávila, F. A. D. (2018). Shigatoxigenic and atypical enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* in fish for human consumption. *brazilian journal of microbiology*, 49, 936-941.
- Carson, J., Wilson, T., Douglas, M., & Barnes, A. (2019). Australian and New Zealand Standard Diagnostic Procedures (ANZSDP) for Yersiniosis in fish.
- Chinabut, S. (1999). Fish disease and disorders: Viral, bacterial, and fungal infections. *CAB International*, 319-340.
- Das, A., Acharya, S., Behera, B. K., Paria, P., Bhowmick, S., Parida, P. K., & Das, B. K. (2018). Isolation, identification and characterization of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* from infected farmed Indian Major Carp *Labeo rohita* (Hamilton 1822) in West Bengal, India. *Aquaculture*, 482, 111-116.
- Delghandi, M. R., El-Matbouli, M., & Menanteau-Ledouble, S. (2020a). Mycobacteriosis and infections with non-tuberculous mycobacteria in aquatic organisms: A review. *Microorganisms*, 8(9), 1368.
- Delghandi, M. R., Waldner, K., El-Matbouli, M., & Menanteau-Ledouble, S. (2020b). Identification Mycobacterium spp. in the natural water of two Austrian rivers. *Microorganisms*, 8(9), 1305.
- Diana, T. C., & Manjulatha, C. (2012). Incidence and identification of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in mucosal buccal polyp of *Nemipterus japonicus* of Visakhapatnam Coast, India. *Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science*, 7(6), 454.
- Eissa, N. M. E., El-Ghiet, E. A., Shaheen, A. A., & Abbass, A. (2010). Characterization of *Pseudomonas* species isolated from tilapia “*Oreochromis niloticus*” in Qaroun and Wadi-El-Rayan lakes, Egypt. *Global Veterinaria*, 5(2), 116-121.
- El-Sayed, A. F. M. (Ed.). (2006). Tilapia culture. *CABI publishing*.
- Epps, S. V., Harvey, R. B., Hume, M. E., Phillips, T. D., Anderson, R. C., & Nisbet, D. J. (2013). Foodborne *Campylobacter*: infections, metabolism, pathogenesis and reservoirs. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 10(12), 6292-6304.
- Eriksen, T., Brantsaeter, A. B., Kiehl, W., & Steffens, I. (2004). Botulism infection after eating fish in Norway and Germany: two outbreak reports. *Weekly releases (1997–2007)*, 8(3), 2366.
- Espelund, M., & Klaveness, D. (2014). Botulism outbreaks in natural environments—an update. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 5, 287.
- Evans, J., Klesius, P., Haenen, O., & Shoemaker, C. (2009). Overview of zoonotic infections from fish and shellfish. *European Association of Fish Pathologists*, 14-19.
- Facciola, A., Riso, R., Avventuroso, E., Visalli, G., Delia, S. A., & Laganà, P. (2017). *Campylobacter*: from

- microbiology to prevention. *Journal of preventive medicine and hygiene*, 58(2), E79.
- Fernandes, M. R., Sellera, F. P., Moura, Q., Carvalho, M. P., Rosato, P. N., Cerdeira, L., & Lincopan, N. (2018). Zoonanthropotic transmission of drug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, Brazil. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 24(6), 1160.
- Friesema, I., De Jong, A., Hofhuis, A., Heck, M., Van den Kerkhof, H., De Jonge, R., ... & Van Pelt, W. (2014). Large outbreak of *Salmonella* Thompson related to smoked salmon in the Netherlands, August to December 2012. *Eurosurveillance*, 19(39), 20918.
- Gauthier, D. T. (2015). Bacterial zoonoses of fishes: a review and appraisal of evidence for linkages between fish and human infections. *The Veterinary Journal*, 203(1), 27-35.
- Gawade, L., Barbudde, S. B., & Bhosle, S. (2010). Isolation and confirmation of *Listeria* species from seafood off Goa region by polymerase chain reaction. *Indian journal of microbiology*, 50, 385-389.
- Gcebe, N., Michel, A. L., & Hlokwe, T. M. (2018). Non-tuberculous *Mycobacterium* species causing mycobacteriosis in farmed aquatic animals of South Africa. *BMC microbiology*, 18(1), 1-11.
- Goerlich, R., Schlüsener, H. J., Lehmann, J., & Greuel, E. (1984). The application of monoclonal antibodies to diagnosis of *Aeromonas salmonicida* infections in fishes. *Bulletin of the European Association of Fish Pathologists*, 4, 66.
- Gopi, M., Kumar, T. T. A., & Prakash, S. (2016). Opportunistic pathogen *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated from Maldives' clown fish *Amphiprion nigripes* with hemorrhages at Agatti Island, Lakshadweep archipelago. *Int J Fisheries Aquatic Studies*, 4(3), 464-467.
- Guillen, G., & Wrast, J. (2010). Fishes as sources of *E. coli* bacteria in warm water streams. *Final Report of Project managed by the Texas Water Resources Institute*, 81.
- Guzman, E., Shotts, E. B., & Gratzek, J. B. (1986). Review of bacterial diseases of aquarium fish. In *International Association for Aquatic Animal Medicine (IAAAM) Conference*.
- Haenen, O. L., Evans, J. J., & Berthe, F. (2013). Bacterial infections from aquatic species: potential for and prevention of contact zoonoses. *Revue scientifique et technique (International Office of Epizootics)*, 32(2), 497-507.
- Haile, A. B., & Getahun, T. K. (2018). Isolation and identification of *Escherichia coli* and *Edwardsiella tarda* from fish harvested for human consumption from Zeway Lake, Ethiopia. *African Journal of Microbiology Research*, 12(20), 476-480.
- Han, B. A., Kramer, A. M., & Drake, J. M. (2016). Global patterns of zoonotic disease in mammals. *Trends in parasitology*, 32(7), 565-577.
- Hansen, D. L., Clark, J. J., Ishii, S., Sadowsky, M. J., & Hicks, R. E. (2008). Sources and sinks of *Escherichia coli* in benthic and pelagic fish. *Journal of Great Lakes Research*, 34(2), 228-234.
- Hashish, E., Merwad, A., Elgaml, S., Amer, A., Kamal, H., Elsadek, A., ... & Sitohy, M. (2018). *Mycobacterium marinum* infection in fish and man: epidemiology, pathophysiology and

- management; a review. *Veterinary Quarterly*, 38(1), 35-46.
- Helmi, A. M., Mukti, A. T., Soegianto, A., & Effendi, M. H. (2020). A review of vibriosis in fisheries: public health importance. *Sys Rev Pharm*, 11(8), 51-58.
- Hernández-Cabanyero, C., & Amaro, C. (2020). Phylogeny and life cycle of the zoonotic pathogen *Vibrio vulnificus*. *Environmental Microbiology*, 22(10), 4133-4148.
- Ho, M. H., Ho, C. K., & Chong, L. Y. (2006). Atypical mycobacterial cutaneous infections in Hong Kong: 10-year retrospective study. *Hong Kong medical journal*, 12(1), 21.
- Huzmi, H., Ina-Salwany, M. Y., Natrah, F. M. I., Syukri, F., & Karim, M. (2019). Strategies of controlling vibriosis in fish. *Asian Journal of Applied Sciences*, 7(5).
- Iregui, C. A., Comas, J., Vásquez, G. M., & Verjan, N. (2016). Experimental early pathogenesis of *S treptococcus agalactiae* infection in red tilapia *O reochromis* spp. *Journal of fish diseases*, 39(2), 205-215.
- Ismail, M., & El Lamei, M. (2017). Studies on *Pseudomonas* septicemia in some tilapia in Ismailia. *Suez Canal Veterinary Medical Journal. SCVMJ*, 22(1), 107-117.
- Iwamoto, M., Ayers, T., Mahon, B. E., & Swerdlow, D. L. (2010). Epidemiology of seafood-associated infections in the United States. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 23(2), 399-411.
- Jahncke, M. L., & Schwarz, M. H. (2002). Public, animal, and environmental aquaculture health issues in industrialized countries. *Public, animal, and environmental aquaculture health issues*, 67-102.
- Jami, M., Ghanbari, M., Zunabovic, M., Domig, K. J., & Kneifel, W. (2014). *Listeria monocytogenes* in aquatic food products—a review. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, 13(5), 798-813.
- Jeffries, T. C., Schmitz Fontes, M. L., Harrison, D. P., Van-Dongen-Vogels, V., Eyre, B. D., Ralph, P. J., & Seymour, J. R. (2016). Bacterioplankton dynamics within a large anthropogenically impacted urban estuary. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 6, 1438.
- Kalimuddin, S., Chen, S. L., Lim, C. T., Koh, T. H., Tan, T. Y., Kam, M., ... & Singapore Group B Streptococcus Consortium. (2017). 2015 epidemic of severe *Streptococcus agalactiae* sequence type 283 infections in Singapore associated with the consumption of raw freshwater fish: a detailed analysis of clinical, epidemiological, and bacterial sequencing data. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 64(suppl_2), S145-S152.
- Kebede, B., & Habtamu, T. (2016). Isolation and Identification of *Edwardsiella tarda* from Lake Zeway and Langano, Southern Oromia, Ethiopia. *Fisheries and Aquaculture Journal*, 7(4), 1-6.
- Kerie, Y., Nuru, A., & Abayneh, T. (2019). *Edwardsiella* Species Infection in Fish Population and Its Status in Ethiopia. *Fisheries and Aquaculture Journal*, 10(2), 1-7.
- Lassen, S. G., Ethelberg, S., Björkman, J. T., Jensen, T., Sørensen, G., Jensen, A. K., ... & Mølbak, K. (2016). Two listeria outbreaks caused by smoked fish consumption—using whole-genome sequencing for outbreak investigations. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*, 22(7), 620-624.

- Leal, C. A., Queiroz, G. A., Pereira, F. L., Tavares, G. C., & Figueiredo, H. C. (2019). Streptococcus agalactiae sequence type 283 in farmed fish, Brazil. *Emerging infectious diseases*, 25(4), 776.
- Lehane, L., & Rawlln, G. T. (2000). Topically acquired bacterial zoonoses from fish: a review. *Medical Journal of Australia*, 173(5), 256-259.
- Leung, K. Y., Wang, Q., Yang, Z., & Siame, B. A. (2019). Edwardsiella piscicida: a versatile emerging pathogen of fish. *Virulence*, 10(1), 555-567.
- Lowry, T., & Smith, S. A. (2007). Aquatic zoonoses associated with food, bait, ornamental, and tropical fish. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 231(6), 876-880.
- Lund, V., Arnesen, J. A., Mikkelsen, H., Gravningen, K., Brown, L., & Schrøder, M. B. (2008). Atypical furunculosis vaccines for Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua); vaccine efficacy and antibody responses. *Vaccine*, 26(52), 6791-6799.
- Magnadóttir, B., Bambir, S. H., Gudmundsdóttir, B. K., Pilström, L., & Helgason, S. (2002). Atypical Aeromonas salmonicida infection in naturally and experimentally infected cod, Gadus morhua L. *Journal of Fish Diseases*, 25(10), 583-597.
- Midtlyng, P. J., Bleie, H., Helgason, S., Jansson, E., Larsen, J. L., Olesen, N. J., ... & Vennerstrøm, P. (2000). *Nordic manual for the surveillance and diagnosis of infectious diseases in farmed salmonids*. Nordic Council of Ministers.
- Miniero Davies, Y., Xavier de Oliveira, M. G., Paulo Vieira Cunha, M., Soares Franco, L., Pulecio Santos, S. L., Zanolli Moreno, L., ... & Knöbl, T. (2018). Edwardsiella tarda outbreak affecting fishes and aquatic birds in Brazil. *Veterinary Quarterly*, 38(1), 99-105.
- Morii, H., & Kasama, K. (1995). Changes in the activity of two histidine decarboxylases from Photobacterium phosphoreum during growth under different oxygen tensions. *Fisheries science*, 61(5), 845-851.
- Nakajima, H., Inoue, M., & Mori, T. (1991). Isolation of Yersinia, Campylobacter, Plesiomonas and Aeromonas from environmental water and fresh water fishes. [*Nihon Koshu Eisei Zasshi*] *Japanese Journal of Public Health*, 38(10), 815-820.
- Niamah, A. K. (2012). Detected of aero gene in Aeromonas hydrophila isolates from shrimp and peeled shrimp samples in local markets. *The Journal of Microbiology, Biotechnology and Food Sciences*, 2(2), 634.
- Nielsen, J. J., Blomberg, B., Gäini, S., & Lundemoen, S. (2018). Aortic valve endocarditis with Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae: A rare zoonosis. *Infectious Disease Reports*, 10(3), 7770.
- Noga, E. (2010). Diagnoses made by bacterial culture of kidney or affected organs. In *Fish disease, diagnosis and treatment* (pp. 185-190). Iowa State University Press, Ames (IA).
- Novotny, L., Dvorska, L., Lorencova, A., Beran, V., & Pavlik, I. (2004). Fish: a potential source of bacterial pathogens for human beings. *Veterinarni Medicina*, 49(9), 343-358.

- Nuru, A. (2007). Study on bacterial pathogens of fish in Southern Gulf of Lake Tana with special references to *Aeromonas hydrophila* and *Edwardsiella tarda*. *Debere Zeit, Ethiopia: Addis Ababa University. FVM pp*, 10-30.
- Obaidat, M. M., Salman, A. E. B., & Lafi, S. Q. (2015). Prevalence of *Staphylococcus aureus* in imported fish and correlations between antibiotic resistance and enterotoxigenicity. *Journal of food protection*, 78(11), 1999-2005.
- Odeyemi, O. A., & Ahmad, A. (2017). Antibiotic resistance profiling and phenotyping of *Aeromonas* species isolated from aquatic sources. *Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences*, 24(1), 65-70.
- Oh, W. T., Jun, J. W., Giri, S. S., Yun, S., Kim, H. J., Kim, S. G., ... & Park, S. C. (2019). *Staphylococcus xylosum* infection in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) as a primary pathogenic cause of eye protrusion and mortality. *Microorganisms*, 7(9), 330.
- Oliveira, R. V., Peixoto, P. G., Ribeiro, D. D. C., Araujo, M. C., do Santos, C. T. B., Hayashi, C., ... & Pelli, A. (2014). *Klebsiella pneumoniae* as a main cause of infection in Nishikigoi *Cyprinus carpio* (carp) by inadequate handling. *Brazilian Journal of Veterinary Pathology*, 7(2), 86-88.
- Oliveira, R. V., Oliveira, M. C., & Pelli, A. (2017). Disease infection by Enterobacteriaceae family in fishes: a review. *J Microbiol Exp*, 4(5), 00128.
- Phillips Savage, A. C. N., Blake, L., Suepaul, R., McHugh, O. S., Rodgers, R., Thomas, C., ... & Soto, E. (2022). Piscine mycobacteriosis in the ornamental fish trade in Trinidad and Tobago. *Journal of Fish Diseases*, 45(4), 547-560.
- Plumb, J. A., & Hanson, L. A. (2010). *Health maintenance and principal microbial diseases of cultured fishes*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Pomaranski, E. K., Griffin, M. J., Camus, A. C., Armwood, A. R., Shelley, J., Waldbieser, G. C., ... & Soto, E. (2020). Description of *Erysipelothrix piscisicarius* sp. nov., an emergent fish pathogen, and assessment of virulence using a tiger barb (*Puntigrus tetrazona*) infection model. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology*, 70(2), 857-867.
- Pomputius, W. F., Kilgore, S. H., & Schlievert, P. M. (2023). Probable enterotoxin-associated toxic shock syndrome caused by *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *BMC pediatrics*, 23(1), 1-6.
- Pradeep, P. J., Suebsing, R., Sirthammajak, S., Kampeera, J., Jitrakorn, S., Saksmerprome, V., ... & Withyachumanarnkul, B. (2016). Evidence of vertical transmission and tissue tropism of Streptococcosis from naturally infected red tilapia (*Oreochromis* spp.). *Aquaculture Reports*, 3, 58-66.
- Puah, S. M., Khor, W. C., Kee, B. P., Tan, J. A. M. A., Puthuchery, S. D., & Chua, K. H. (2018). Development of a species-specific PCR-RFLP targeting rpoD gene fragment for discrimination of *Aeromonas* species. *Journal of medical microbiology*, 67(9), 1271-1278.
- Puk, K., & Guz, L. (2020). Occurrence of *Mycobacterium* spp. in ornamental fish. *Annals of Agricultural and Environmental Medicine*, 27(4), 535-539.

- Qi, W. (2002). Social and economic impacts of aquatic animal health problems in aquaculture in China. *FAO fisheries technical paper*, 55-61.
- Rahman, M. T., Sobur, M. A., Islam, M. S., Ievy, S., Hossain, M. J., El Zowalaty, M. E., ... & Ashour, H. M. (2020). Zoonotic diseases: etiology, impact, and control. *Microorganisms* 8 (9): 1405.
- Raissy, M. (2017). Bacterial zoonotic disease from fish: a review. *Journal of Food Microbiology*, 4(2), 15-27.
- Rasetti-Escargueil, C., Lemichez, E., & Popoff, M. R. (2019). Public health risk associated with botulism as foodborne zoonoses. *Toxins*, 12(1), 17.
- Sabry, M., Abd El-Moein, K., Hamza, E., & Kader, F. A. (2016). Occurrence of *Clostridium perfringens* types A, E, and C in fresh fish and its public health significance. *Journal of food protection*, 79(6), 994-1000.
- Saeed, M. O., & Plumb, J. A. (1987). Serological detection of Edwardsiella ictaluri Hawke lipopolysaccharide antibody in serum of channel catfish, *Ictalurus punctatus* Rafinesque. *Journal of Fish Diseases*, 10(3), 205-209.
- Shamsi, S. (2019). Seafood-borne parasitic diseases: A “one-health” approach is needed. *Fishes*, 4(1), 9.
- Sorsa, M., Mamo, G., & Abera, L. (2019). Major fish-borne bacterial and parasitic zoonoses in Ethiopia: A review. *Int. J. Fauna Biol. Stud*, 6, 50-58.
- Toranzo, A. E., Magarinos, B., & Romalde, J. L. (2005). A Review of the Main Bacterial Agriculture, 246.
- Traoré, O., Nyholm, O., Siitonen, A., Bonkougou, I. J. O., Traoré, A. S., Barro, N., & Haukka, K. (2015). Prevalence and diversity of *Salmonella enterica* in water, fish and lettuce in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. *BMC microbiology*, 15, 1-7.
- Tsfaye, S., Kasye, M., Chane, M., Bogale, B., & Abebeagre, Z. (2018). Preliminary Survey of Gram-negative bacterial pathogens from commonly caught fish species (*Oreochromis niloticus*, *Cyprinus carpio* and *Clarias gariepinus*) in Lake Hayiq, Ethiopia. *Fish Aqua J*, 9(238), 2.
- Uzal, F. A., Freedman, J. C., Shrestha, A., Theoret, J. R., Garcia, J., Awad, M. M., ... & McClane, B. A. (2014). Towards an understanding of the role of *Clostridium perfringens* toxins in human and animal disease. *Future microbiology*, 9(3), 361-377.
- Vaiyapuri, M., Joseph, T. C., Rao, B. M., Lalitha, K. V., & Prasad, M. M. (2019). Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in seafood: prevalence, laboratory detection, clonal nature, and control in seafood chain. *Journal of food science*, 84(12), 3341-3351.
- Volpe, E., Mandrioli, L., Errani, F., Serratore, P., Zavatta, E., Rigillo, A., & Ciulli, S. (2019). Evidence of fish and human pathogens associated with doctor fish (*Garra rufa*, Heckel, 1843) used for cosmetic treatment. *Journal of fish diseases*, 42(12), 1637-1644.
- Wendwesen, T., Dagmar, N., Yitbarek, G., & Matusala, M. (2017). Microbiological quality of frozen raw and undercooked Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) fillets and food safety practices of fish handlers in Arba Minch town, SNNPR, Ethiopia. *Journal of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Health*, 9(3), 55-62.

- Wimalasena, S. H. M. P., Pathirana, H. N. K. S., De Silva, B. C. J., Hossain, S., Sugaya, E., Nakai, T., & Heo, G. J. (2018). Antibiotic resistance and virulence-associated gene profiles of *Edwardsiella tarda* isolated from cultured fish in Japan. *Turkish Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, 19(2), 141-147.
- Yagoub, S. O. (2009). Isolation of Enterobacteriaceae and *Pseudomonas* spp. from raw fish sold in fish market in Khartoum state. *Journal of bacteriology Research*, 1(7), 085-088.
- You, H. J., Lee, J. H., Oh, M., Hong, S. Y., Kim, D., Noh, J., ... & Kim, B. S. (2021). Tackling *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in ready-to-eat raw fish flesh slices using lytic phage VPT02 isolated from market oyster. *Food Research International*, 150, 110779.
- Zadoks, R. N., Barkham, T., Crestani, C., Nguyen, N. P., Sirmanapong, W., & Chen, S. L. (2020, October). Population growth, climate change and intensification of the aquaculture industry as drivers of invasive disease emergence in humans in Southeast Asia. In *The 6th World One Health Congress* (Vol. 30).
- Ziarati, M., Zorriehzakra, M. J., Hassantabar, F., Mehrabi, Z., Dhawan, M., Sharun, K., ... & Shamsi, S. (2022). Zoonotic diseases of fish and their prevention and control. *Veterinary Quarterly*, 42(1), 95-118.
- Zorriehzakra, M. J., & Talebi, M. (2021). Introduction of bacterial and viral zoonotic diseases of humans and aquatic animals. In *4th Congress of Hyrcania Medical Laboratory, Ministry of Health and Medical Education of Iran, Golestan University of Medical Sciences*.
- Zrnčić, S., & Radosavljević, V. (2017). West Balkans regional aquatic animal disease diagnostic manual. *West Balkans regional aquatic animal disease diagnostic manual*.