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**Using the H-index to assess disease priorities for salmon aquaculture**

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**Abstract**

Atlantic salmon's (*Salmo salar*) annual aquaculture production exceeds 2M tonnes globally, and for the UK forms the largest single food export. However, aquaculture production is negatively affected by a range of different diseases and parasites. Effort to control pathogens should be focused on those which are most "important" to aquaculture. It is difficult to specify what makes a pathogen important; this is particularly true in the aquatic sector where data capture systems are less developed than for human or terrestrial animal diseases. Mortality levels might be one indicator, but these can cause a range of different problems such as persistent

26 endemic losses, occasional large epidemics or control/treatment costs. Economic  
27 and multi-criteria decision methods can incorporate this range of impacts, however  
28 these have not been consistently applied to aquaculture and the quantity and quality  
29 of data required is large, so their potential for comparing aquatic pathogens is  
30 currently limited. A method that has been developed and applied to both human and  
31 terrestrial animal diseases is the analysis of published scientific literature using the  
32 H-index method. We applied this method to salmon pathogens using Web of  
33 Science searches for 23 pathogens. The top 3 H-indices were obtained for: sea lice,  
34 furunculosis, and infectious salmon anaemia; post 2000, Amoebic Gill Disease  
35 (AGD) replaced furunculosis. The number of publications per year describing  
36 bacterial disease declined significantly, while those for viruses and sea lice  
37 increased significantly. This reflects effective bacterial control by vaccination, while  
38 problems related to viruses and sea lice have increased. H-indices by country  
39 reflected different national concerns (e.g. AGD ranked top for Australia). Averaged  
40 national H-indices for salmon diseases tend to increase with log of salmon  
41 production; countries with H-Indices significantly below the trend line have suffered  
42 particularly large disease losses. The H-index method, supported by other literature  
43 analyses, is consistent with the nature and history of salmon diseases and so  
44 provides a useful quantitative measure for comparing different diseases in the  
45 absence of other measures.

46 Key words: Atlantic salmon, pathogens, aquaculture, H-index

47

48 Highlights:

49 Ranking pathogens of salmon aquaculture is difficult

50 We use publication trends and H-index to rank pathogens

51 Sea lice, infectious salmon anaemia, furunculosis have highest H-indices

52 Bacterial publications in decline, reflects vaccination

53 Virus and sea lice publications increasing reflecting emerging problems

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## 56        **1. Introduction**

57    Aquaculture is an increasingly important source of protein and now accounts for  
58    approximately 50% of fish used for human consumption (FAO 2014). In cooler  
59    temperate marine waters the Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) is the principle farmed  
60    species. Salmon farming began in the 1960s in Norway and soon after was  
61    established in other countries such as Chile, Canada and the Faeroe Islands. Global  
62    production now exceeds 2M tonnes (FAO 2014). However, production has been  
63    impacted by diseases and parasites, for example large outbreaks of infectious  
64    salmon anaemia in Chile (Mardones et al. 2011) and on-going high costs of sea lice  
65    control around the world (Costello 2009a).

66    To effectively target disease control, or implement risk reduction programmes, it is  
67    necessary to identify which diseases are “important”. A range of such methods are  
68    used for targeting diseases in humans and terrestrial animals (Brooks et al. 2015).  
69    Assessment is complicated because diseases have different types of impact upon  
70    production e.g. causing mortalities, reduced productivity, treatment costs, or loss of  
71    employment. In aquatic animals, assessment is particularly difficult given a lack of  
72    data and the need to assess a range of impacts in different circumstances and in  
73    different countries. Selection can be made using expert opinion (Murray 2015), but  
74    an objective selection based on impact would be more meaningful and defensible  
75    (Brooks et al. 2015).

76    The most obvious disease impact is mortality, but its economic consequences are  
77    different depending on whether death occurs early or late in the production cycle, as  
78    losses of full grown fish are more costly than those of young smolts (Kilburn et al.  
79    2012). Mortalities can occur as occasional large epidemic shocks or near constant  
80    endemic losses; these can be budgeted for within normal production costs. Sea lice  
81    may cause only limited mortality in well-run fish farms (Soares et al. 2011) but their  
82    treatment imposes large costs on salmonid farmers (Costello 2009a) and lice may  
83    have impacts on third parties, as elevated burdens can be found on wild fish up to 30  
84    km from farms (Middlemas et al. 2012). Other diseases, such as infectious salmon  
85    anaemia (ISA) only impact farmed fish, but costs under area control strategies  
86    applied to ISA can fall on neighbours (Murray et al. 2010). The uncertainties caused  
87    by epidemics include serious social costs such as short-term loss of jobs and an

88 uncertain investment climate that prevents creation of new employment. Diseases  
89 can also cause loss of potential production by limiting scope for aquaculture e.g. in  
90 Australia, amoebic gill disease (AGD) limits marine salmon farming to areas with  
91 good access to freshwater used to treat the pathogen.

92 Impacts are therefore multifactorial and analysis tools such as multi-criteria-decision-  
93 analysis, MCDA (Del Rio Vilas et al. 2013, Brooks et al. 2015), or different impacts  
94 turned into an economic cost and compared between diseases, can be useful.  
95 These approaches allow diseases to be ranked, for example such as has been  
96 undertaken for exotic pig diseases in Australia (Brooks et al. 2014). Both  
97 approaches need good characterisation of different impacts to allow multiple  
98 diseases to be compared in a consistent manner; for aquatic animal diseases data  
99 may be absent and systematic assessment methods are consequently less  
100 consistently applied. Economic estimates for individual disease impacts are often  
101 made e.g. for ISA (Hastings et al. 1999, Mardones et al. 2011), sea lice (Costello  
102 2009a), or piscirickettsia (Rozas and Enriquez 2014). However most costings are  
103 based on expert opinion or limited calculations and relatively few use systematic and  
104 transparent methods e.g. pancreas disease (Aunsmo et al. 2010) or bacterial kidney  
105 disease (Hall et al. 2014). Fofana and Baulcomb (2012) have applied an economic  
106 model to assess the costs of three different diseases and this approach may be an  
107 area of progress in the near future. However, even if systematic approaches are  
108 available, lack of data limits the ability to make detailed economic assessment in  
109 many cases. Some costs, such as to welfare, are very difficult to assess, and  
110 although methods such as contingency valuation do exist these have severe  
111 limitations in practice (Venkatachalam 2004). Opinions on significance of impacts  
112 vary depending on different stakeholder's concerns (Brooks et al. 2014). It is  
113 therefore very difficult, using existing methods, to compare the economic impact of  
114 different salmonid diseases in a consistent way.

115 The scientific literature is, by its very nature, well documented. Academic  
116 publications provide a measure of the effort, and therefore importance, that scientists  
117 and their funders attach to different diseases, and continuity in publications on a  
118 topic suggests an ongoing issue. An approach that has been utilised for comparing  
119 the significance of different diseases is to use scientific publications as a proxy for  
120 interest and hence effectively an assessment of the importance of pathogens.

121 Specifically, citation histories can be generated and linked to years of publication,  
122 subject areas, countries and so forth. A particularly good summary measure of  
123 citation is the Hirsch or H-index method for each particular disease (McIntyre et al.  
124 2011, 2014a). In this case, the H-index is the integer at which the number of papers  
125 equals the number of citations arising as a result of those papers.

126

127 The H-index approach has been applied to diseases of humans and domestic  
128 animals (McIntyre et al. 2014a). It is an objective measure that has been shown to  
129 be related to a combination of morbidity and mortality effects (via Disability-Adjusted  
130 Life Years) that result from these diseases (McIntyre et al. 2011, 2014a, Cox et  
131 al.2016). Although certain diseases may attract disproportionate interest, or lack of  
132 interest (such as neglected diseases in lower income countries (Hunter 2009)), the  
133 literature is a good descriptor of the effort placed in preventing or controlling  
134 particular diseases. While the scientific literature and H-index method are not  
135 immune to biases, they can be used for objective comparison of interest in diseases.  
136 The use of the H-index method has considerable potential to facilitate the  
137 development of measures that allow policy and industry assessment of generalised  
138 disease control strategies to be focused on those diseases that have the highest H-  
139 indices, rather than focussed on a subjective selection of diseases of interest. Within  
140 this study, the H-index method was used to objectively assess and compare the  
141 interest in aquaculture diseases in salmon producing countries, as a measure to help  
142 identify disease priorities.

143 Countries are affected by different diseases to differing extents, for example  
144 Australian salmon farms are heavily affected by AGD but, at least until recently, this  
145 has been a lesser problem in most other countries. Conversely, Australia lacks  
146 many of the diseases that cause serious problems in other countries. For the major  
147 salmon pathogens, the potential effects of changes in the focus of scientific research  
148 with time were also examined.

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153 **2. Methods**

154

155 2.1. H-index literature search protocol

156 2.1.1. Information sources

157 H-index searches were undertaken in May 2015 using Web of Science (WoS) (WOS,  
158 2014) and the methods described by McIntyre et al. (2014a). Previous work has  
159 established that results of H-index searches for pathogens undertaken using  
160 different bibliographic sources (e.g. WoS, SCOPUS, Google Scholar) are not  
161 identical but are highly correlated (McIntyre et al. 2011).

162

163 2.1.2. Eligibility criteria

164 Searches were restricted to the years 1990 to 2014, inclusive. The effects of time  
165 were examined for nine salmon pathogens by calculating H-indices based on  
166 searches spanning both 1990-2014 and 2000-2014, inclusive. English is used in  
167 WoS, however searches also include foreign-language publication title translations.  
168 All literature in the WoS database has been published.

169

170 2.1.3. Searches

171 Searches were undertaken using search phrases specified in quotation marks (“”),  
172 and the ‘topic’ (TS – examining the full paper) or ‘title’ (TI) search field and with no  
173 lemmatization. Phrases were compiled including pathogen scientific name,  
174 alternative names, synonyms and alternative spellings according to NCBI Taxonomy  
175 (NCBI, 2014). H-index scores for clinical diseases used clinical terms as well as  
176 pathogen phrases for the main pathogens of disease. Virus searches also included  
177 synonyms and acronyms from the NCBI Taxonomy database (NCBI, 2014) and  
178 International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (ICTV, 2014), and the term ‘virus’,  
179 and excluded other entities (viral or non-viral) which shared acronyms. The Boolean  
180 operators ‘AND’, ‘OR’, and ‘NOT’ linked multiple search phrases. The full search  
181 terms were generated within the Enhanced Infectious Disease Database (EID2)  
182 (McIntyre et al. 2014b, Wardeh et al. 2015). All searches were carried out on the  
183 same day (6<sup>th</sup> May 2015) to avoid biases in time to publication.

184

185

186 2.1.4. Search phrases

187 The literature searches took the format of:

188 TS = ((Host) AND (Pathogen OR Disease))

189 Or TI = ((Host) AND (Pathogen OR Disease))

190 Analysis was also broken down by country using queries of the format:

191 TI = ((Host) AND (Pathogen OR Disease)) AND CU = (Country)

192 where TI was a Title search and TS was a topic search (a general search of the full  
193 paper).

194

195 2.2. Hosts

196 The host considered in analyses was the Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*). Search  
197 phrases used both English and Linnaean names. The unqualified term “salmon” is  
198 sometimes used to refer to Atlantic salmon and so searches allowed “salmon”, while  
199 explicitly excluding other species of salmon. Also, “infectious salmon” was excluded  
200 to avoid papers on infectious salmon anaemia in other host species. The host  
201 search term was thus:

202 ("Salmo salar" OR "Atlantic salmon" OR ( salmon NOT (“coho salmon” OR “Chinook  
203 salmon” or “pink salmon” OR “chum salmon” OR “Sockeye salmon” OR “Masu  
204 salmon” OR “king salmon” OR “Pacific salmon” OR “infectious salmon” )))

205

206 2.3. Diseases and pathogens

207 Compiling the list of diseases and pathogens of importance to salmon farming is  
208 complicated as many are known by a variety of names. The Scottish government  
209 maintains a list of diseases of interest to Scottish aquaculture  
210 (<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/marine/Fish-Shellfish/aquaculture/diseases>),  
211 which was used as a basic source of diseases perceived to be of significance to  
212 salmon farming. This list consisted of 22 diseases of finfish, however one of these  
213 was spring viraemia of carp, which was not of relevance. Another listed condition  
214 was cataracts, which does not relate to a specific pathogen and so was excluded;  
215 *Diplostomum spathaceum*, a specific pathogen causing cataracts was, however,  
216 included. This left 20 diseases for analyses. To ensure more global coverage, a

217 further three salmonid diseases were added: heart and skeletal muscle inflammation  
218 (HSMI) is a disease of increasing concern in Norway, Epizootic haematopoietic  
219 necrosis (EHN) is a disease of trout that is notifiable to the OIE, and salmon  
220 rickettsia syndrome (SRS) is an important disease in Chile that also occurs in the  
221 UK. The initial list of pathogens was extensive; those with the highest H-index  
222 scores were selected for more detailed analyses later. The incorporation of an initial  
223 long-list that included relatively obscure salmon pathogens ensured that a final list of  
224 key pathogens with high H-indices was not dependent on this initial list.

225

226 Multiple pathogens may be associated with disease conditions, and publications can  
227 use different names for the same pathogen owing to taxonomic revision, or to  
228 disagreement. Sometimes, no pathogen has yet been associated with a particular  
229 disease. Situations when multiple, or zero, pathogens are named in association with  
230 particular diseases are described in Table 1.

231

## 232 2.4 Analysis of Data

### 233 2.4.1. Comparison of title and text search methods

234 The TI and TS searches generated different H-index scores. These sets of scores  
235 were compared by calculating a regression coefficient and  $r^2$  value, and computing  
236 confidence intervals. Specific diseases for which H-indices lay outside the  
237 confidence range were identified and used to characterise the outcomes of the TI  
238 and TS searches.

239

240 Nine key diseases with the highest H-index scores ( $>10$ ) were selected for further  
241 analysis.

242

### 243 2.4.2. Variation in H-index scores between countries

244 Search phrases for the salmon pathogens with the highest H-indices were broken  
245 down by country to examine national differences in interest in the nine key diseases  
246 with the highest world-wide H-index scores. Eight countries were incorporated in this  
247 analysis including: Norway, Chile, Scotland, Canada, Denmark (The Faeroe Islands),  
248 Australia, USA and Ireland. These countries accounted for 99.5% of world salmon  
249 production in 2012 (FAO 2014). Mean national H-indices were calculated and

250 plotted against national production data for 2012. A regression with 95% confidence  
251 intervals was used to identify countries in which averaged H-indices deviated  
252 significantly from the normal.

253

#### 254 2.4.3 Changes in disease publications with time

255 Diseases emerged and declined with time. For those with the top nine H-index  
256 scores calculated using publications from 1990-2014, H-indices were recalculated  
257 using only publications from the 2000-2014 period, to identify pathogens whose  
258 scores changed.

259

260 A more detailed analysis of change in the pathogens' profiles with time was carried  
261 out by plotting the annual number of publications, as identified by the TI search, for  
262 each of the nine key diseases. A regression analysis was used to identify statistically  
263 significant trends with time. All statistical analyses were undertaken in R (Crawley  
264 2013).

265

### 266 **3. Results**

#### 267 3.1. Comparison of title and text search methods

268 The H-indices for salmon calculated using full text (TS) searches ranged from 61 for  
269 typical frunculosis to 0 for Red Mark Syndrome and for the title only (TI) searches  
270 they ranged from 39 for sea lice to 0 for several conditions (Table 2). H-index scores  
271 calculated for TI were much lower than for TS.

272

273 If the H-index scores calculated using TI and TS searches were plotted against each  
274 other (Fig. 1), there was a good degree of agreement between values (  $r^2$  of 0.77),  
275 suggesting that both searches provide similar results in terms of the rankings of  
276 specific pathogens. The TI search was a more specific indicator of papers  
277 describing salmon-pathogen interactions, and therefore these were used for the  
278 remaining analyses.

279

280 The H-index method was used to identify key diseases or parasites for salmon: sea  
281 lice, furunculosis, ISA, IPN, PD, AGD, *G. salaris*, *Vibrio* and BKD (Table 2). All these

282 diseases had, for Atlantic salmon, H-index scores in excess of 10 for searches by  
283 paper title (TI). Further analyses in this paper focuses on these diseases/parasites.

284

285

### 286 3.2. Variation in H-index scores between countries

287 The results suggest that the focus of research on diseases is dependent on country  
288 (Table 3): Scotland, Canada, Chile and the USA all had their highest H-indices for  
289 sea lice, while for Norway the highest was for furunculosis, with ISA a close second.  
290 For Denmark the highest H-indices was for *G. salaris*, for Australia it was AGD and  
291 for Ireland it was PD. Norway also had a substantial H-index score for *G. salaris* and  
292 both Norway and Scotland for IPN. Canada had its highest national H-indices for  
293 ISA and BKD; the latter possibly due to the widespread BKD reservoir in wild Pacific  
294 salmon spilling over into farmed Atlantic salmon.

295

296 The calculation of national H-index scores for diseases (Table 2) allowed  
297 examination of the presence of disease being associated with a non-zero H-index  
298 score at the country level. Australia is free of all the diseases listed in Table 2,  
299 except AGD and vibriosis (Munday et al.1992). PD has not been reported in  
300 Australia, Canada, Chile, Denmark or the USA (OIE 2015), while Gs is absent from  
301 Scotland, Ireland and non-European countries (OIE 2015). Ireland is additionally  
302 free of BKD and ISA (apart from a single event of ISAV detection in trout). Of 21  
303 zero H-index scores (Table 2), seven are associated with the presence of disease  
304 (odds 1:2) and for the 51 non-zero H-indices, disease is present in 45 countries  
305 (odds 15:2). A Fisher's exact test gave an odds ratio of 0.070 with a 95% confidence  
306 range of 0.016 to 0.270 ( $p = 7.1 \times 10^{-6}$ ), confirming that overall, a national focus of  
307 research is associated with the presence of disease.

308

309 If the mean was taken of national H-index scores for the main nine  
310 diseases/pathogens, the result was correlated with the logarithm of salmon industry  
311 production; the regression line had an  $r^2=0.340$  or  $r^2=0.713$  if Chile was excluded  
312 (Fig 2). There is thus a general relationship between salmon production and mean  
313 H-index score, with exceptions for Denmark and Chile.

314

315

### 316 3.3. Changes in disease publications with time

317 The incidences of diseases of significance are likely to change with time. When H-  
318 indices were re-calculated to exclude references published before 2000, then two of  
319 the bacterial diseases (BKD new H-index score = 5 and vibriosis new H-index score  
320 = 8) dropped out of the top nine diseases. The list of highest-ranking pathogens  
321 became: sea lice = 34, ISA = 26, AGD = 22, IPN = 22, furunculosis = 18, PD = 17, *G.*  
322 *salaris* = 12, HSMI = 10 and CMS = 9. This revised list was dominated by viruses (5  
323 of the top 9 H-indices), but the H-indices for sea lice and AGD were higher than  
324 those for most other conditions.

325

326 To assess changes in publication rates with time in more detail for the nine key  
327 diseases, the numbers of papers identified using TI searches by year were examined  
328 (Fig 3). The analysis showed statistically significant declines in publication rates for  
329 two of the three bacterial diseases (vibriosis and furunculosis, Fig. 3a) and significant  
330 increases in publication rates for all three viral diseases (IPN, ISA and PD, Fig 3b).  
331 There was a significant increase in publications concerning sea lice, while the other  
332 parasitic conditions (AGD and Gs) showed peaks in publications in the middle of the  
333 2000-2010 decade, and did not have significant trends over the whole period (Fig.  
334 3c).

335

336

## 337 4. Discussion

338

### 339 4.1. Optimising search methods: TS versus TI

340 For the analysis of the H-index score, we used H-indices calculated from the results  
341 of papers searched by their titles only, TI, as opposed to more general searches  
342 using the entire contents of the paper, TS, to identify publications containing  
343 pathogen and host search terms.

344

345 The TS search identified more papers in which salmon was mentioned in a general  
346 way, as opposed to being the host in specific host-pathogen interactions. The  
347 bacterial diseases furunculosis and vibriosis were above the 95% confidence range  
348 of the regression line of H-indices obtained using TI and TS searches and BKD lay  
349 on this upper confidence limit (Fig. 1). This may be because these pathogens affect

350 a broad range of hosts and many papers identified under TS searches describe  
351 infections occurring in non-salmonids or in terms of their general mechanisms of  
352 infection. In these cases, terms relating to salmon are not likely to appear in the title  
353 but, since they are key diseases of salmon, they are likely to be discussed within the  
354 text. The TS search thus over-estimates the significance of these bacterial diseases  
355 as specific conditions of salmon. Similarly VHS, IHN and ERM which are serious  
356 diseases of trout, lie above the regression line, perhaps as the focus of most papers  
357 is on trout (mention of salmon may occur in the discussion or as keywords) (Fig 1).

358

359 Conversely, the diseases below the regression line's 95% confidence range were  
360 PD, AGD, HSMI and CMS, with IPN on the lower confidence bound (Fig. 1). These  
361 are likely to be closely linked with the species affected and so appear in the paper's  
362 title. CMS and HSMI are restricted to salmon and although AGD and IPN affect  
363 other species, they are only of major concern when infecting salmon. Therefore the  
364 TI searches identified a relatively high proportion of the papers that TS searches  
365 identified, and as these pathogens are of most concern to salmon, this is desirable.

366

367 ISA lies almost exactly on the regression line, however ISA publications could be  
368 underestimated in a title search, as authors may not explicitly specify salmon as the  
369 host for infectious salmon anaemia (Mardones et al. 2011, Murray et al. 2010). This  
370 may mean that the H-index score of ISA in salmon calculated using a TI search is an  
371 under-estimate of its significance. However the position on the regression line  
372 means TI and TS searches would give this pathogen similar rank, so use of TS  
373 would not correct any bias in publications.

374

375 In the citation index there are several papers associated with the key words of  
376 "Atlantic Salmon" but whose content makes no or negligible reference to these  
377 species. For example Metzger et al. (2010) is a paper on *R. salmoniarum* in  
378 Chinook salmon; this paper contains no mention of Atlantic Salmon, except within  
379 the titles of two papers listed in its bibliography, however "Atlantic Salmon" is listed  
380 as a "keyword plus" in Web of Science. These papers are detected using a TS  
381 search, but excluded by a TI search; the TI search is thus more appropriate.

382

383 In conclusion, the use of title searches (TI) is more specific than full text searches  
384 (TS), which may include papers on pathogens that are not relevant to salmon. The  
385 narrow TI search focuses on papers that concern the pathogen's interaction with  
386 salmon, rather than general papers on the pathogen, ensuring that publications are  
387 relevant. The TI search excludes some relevant papers, but as the aim is to use the  
388 H-index method as a tool for comparison rather than to calculate it for its own sake,  
389 this is not relevant except where the exclusion is biased.

390

#### 391 4.2. Key Diseases identified from the H-index analysis

392 The highest H-index scores were used to identify a list of key diseases or parasites  
393 of salmon: sea lice, furunculosis, ISA, IPN, PD, AGD, *G. salaris*, Vibrio and BKD. All  
394 had TI H-indices of >10. This is a taxonomically diverse range of pathogens  
395 including viral diseases (ISA, IPN and PD), bacterial diseases (furunculosis, vibriosis  
396 and BKD) and parasites (AGD, *G. salaris* and sea lice).

397

##### 398 4.2.1. Variation between countries and relationship to salmon production

399 H-indices for most countries relate to the national level of salmon production; they do  
400 not relate to a countries' population or gross national product (GNP) (regressions of  
401 H-index scores against these variables gave insignificant results). This indicates that  
402 the H-index method is identifying relevant research related to national salmon  
403 production activity rather than just to a nation's economic or scientific resources, and  
404 it can therefore justly be used as an indicator of the scale of different disease  
405 problems.

406

407 There are two notable exceptions, Chile and Denmark, for which H-indices lay below  
408 the lower 95% confidence limit of the regression (Fig. 2). Chile is a developing  
409 country with fewer resources to pay for research (Hunter 2009), however investment  
410 in Chilean aquaculture science has increased substantially in recent years, leading  
411 to increased activity. The annual number of Chilean publications on salmon (TI =  
412 Salmon AND cu = Chile) shows a significant increase with time and in recent years  
413 the numbers of publications have approached those of Scotland (Fig. 4). The  
414 salmon production of Denmark actually occurs in the self-governing Faeroes. The  
415 small population of these islands (50,000) limits resources for research and  
416 collaboration may consequently occur with Norway or Scotland as much as Denmark

417 proper. Therefore the H-index scores for Denmark are smaller than expected given  
418 the level of production. It is perhaps worth noting that both the Faeroes and Chile  
419 have experienced major collapses in their salmon production with falls of,  
420 respectively, 40 thousand tonnes (kt) to 13 kt (2004-6) and 388 kt to 120 kt (2008-  
421 10) (FAO 2012); both drops of approximately 70% and both associated with ISA  
422 epidemics.

423

424 Non-zero H-indices are statistically significantly associated with the presence of  
425 disease in a country, suggesting that H-index scores are more related to a country's  
426 Atlantic salmon production than to, for example, its population or GNP, and further  
427 endorsing the use of this method to characterise national pathogen problems.

428

429

#### 430 4.2.2. Changes in disease publications with time

431

432 Diseases emerge and decline as aquaculture and disease control methods develop,  
433 and so publication patterns and H-index scores would also be expected to change  
434 with time.

435

##### 436 4.2.2.1 *Bacterial diseases*

437 There has been a major decline in numbers of publications describing the key  
438 bacterial diseases furunculosis and vibriosis, although not BKD (Fig. 4a).  
439 Historically, control of bacterial diseases has been a major concern since the early  
440 20<sup>th</sup> Century (Mackie 1935). The decline follows the introduction of effective  
441 vaccines for these diseases (Håstein et al. 2005) and is also reflected in a major  
442 drop in antibiotic use (Alderman and Hasting 1998). Effective vaccines do not yet  
443 exist for BKD and this pathogen is controlled in salmon in Scotland using movement  
444 restrictions (Murray et al. 2012).

445

446 The rickettsial disease SRS is a relatively minor issue in most salmon farming  
447 countries and so does not rank by H-index as a key disease (H-index = 8), but it is  
448 an extremely serious problem in Chile, with direct losses estimated at over \$100M  
449 (Rozas and Henriquez 2014). The H-index score for SRS publications from Chile is 3  
450 (not shown), which would make it the second highest for that country. Chile cannot

451 rely on research occurring in the northern countries to control this disease and has  
452 continued to use more antibiotics than other salmon producers. Increasing Chilean  
453 research (Fig. 4) into SRS would be expected to provide nationally-specific answers.

454

#### 455 4.2.2.2 *Viral diseases*

456 Research output on the key viral diseases, ISA, IPN and PD, has increased over the  
457 last 25 years (Fig 3b) although with some oscillation, such as peaks of PD  
458 publications in 1995-8 and again in recent years. In Scotland, PD was a major issue  
459 in the 1990s, and re-emerged to a new peak of losses in 2006-7 (Kilburn et al. 2012).  
460 It is currently of considerable interest in Norway, owing to large-scale regional control  
461 policies (Tavornpanich et al. 2012). Infectious salmon anaemia has had peaks of  
462 publication in the late 1990s with its emergence in Norway, in 2000 following a major  
463 outbreak in Scotland, after 2007 with subsequent worldwide spread including  
464 recurrence in Scotland (Murray et al. 2010), and a very large outbreak in Chile  
465 (Mardones et al 2011). All these events have contributed to research interest and  
466 hence publications that increase with disease episodes. Publications on IPN have  
467 also increased over the 1990-2014 period as the pathogen has become widespread  
468 (Murray 2006) and caused substantial mortality in salmon smolts (Kilburn et al.  
469 2012), although vaccines are now reducing impacts.

470

#### 471 4.2.2.3 *Parasites*

472 The rise of published sea lice research has been spectacular (Fig 3c), with numbers  
473 of publications comparable to the sum of those for all viral diseases. However year-  
474 on-year changes have been extremely variable; this is in spite of the large numbers  
475 that would be expected to dampen stochastic variation with a normal distribution.  
476 Inter-annual variation reflects the nature of the sea lice research community, which  
477 hold dedicated international sea lice conferences at which much of their work is  
478 presented. This differs substantially from viral or bacterial research, which is  
479 presented at a range of general virology (or bacteriology), fish pathology,  
480 aquaculture or epidemiology conferences. As a result of dedicated conferences, the  
481 sea lice topic has focussed years of publication, with 2000 being exceptional  
482 because the conference journals for both a 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> international conference were  
483 published in that same year. Other peaks, such as 2002, 2009 and 2011 also reflect  
484 publication of conference special issues of journals. The spikes in publication

485 therefore reflect the sociology of scientists rather than the epidemiology of lice.  
486 However, the trend mirrors a clearly increasing lice problem associated with  
487 increasing aquaculture density and reducing efficacy of medicines. Sea lice are  
488 currently the most serious limitation to expansion of salmon production almost  
489 wherever salmon are farmed (Jones and Beamish 2011), with the exception of  
490 Australia. Sea lice are also the subject of a growing controversy concerning their  
491 impact on wild salmonids (Costello 2009b).

492

493 Publications on Amoebic Gill Disease and *Gyrodactylus salaris* both peaked around  
494 2005 and research has since declined (Fig 3c). However AGD publication rate  
495 increased significantly over the period of 1990-2014, partly because there were no  
496 publications before 1998; there was no significant trend overall from 1998-2014. The  
497 recent emergence of AGD in Norway and Scotland may be expected to increase  
498 scientific interest in the disease. Although *G. salaris* remains a serious concern, its  
499 spread appears to have been contained, and at great economic and ecological cost,  
500 the pathogen has been eradicated from some infected river systems (Mo et al.  
501 2008). This may be the reason the publication rate has declined.

502

#### 503 4.2.2.4 Fungal diseases

504 No fungal diseases are amongst the high H-indices pathogens for salmon, which  
505 corroborates the low ranking results found in human and domestic animals (McIntyre  
506 et al., 2014a). The fungal and oomycetes diseases, which are most important in  
507 freshwater (van den Berg et al. 2013), have historically been controlled using  
508 malachite green and formaldehyde. However these substances are toxic; malachite  
509 green has been banned worldwide and formaldehyde may well soon be banned in  
510 the EU. In the absence of these control substances, fungal problems could increase  
511 in significance and this would require scientific work to investigate both the  
512 epidemiology of outbreaks and the development of new medicines and treatment  
513 practices. Losses of 10% in hatcheries are already commonplace with a £5M cost in  
514 Scotland alone (van den Berg et al. 2013). Emerging fungal problems may be a  
515 threat to future food security. Searches of data on existing publications or  
516 assessments of impacts cannot identify future problems unless they have at least  
517 partially emerged (Cox et al.2016).

518

### 519 4.3 Limitations of the H-index

520 The calculated H-indices relate to salmon production and disease presence at the  
521 national level. They reflect our understanding of the importance and history of  
522 different diseases. The H-index method is a useful indicator for ranking salmon  
523 diseases, however, it has limitations. For example, it is conservative, may be biased  
524 against countries with limited resources, and there is limited independent data to  
525 validate its use in prioritisation.

526

527 The H-index method is conservative in that diseases of historic importance may  
528 continue to have high scores, although they are no longer of significance in terms of  
529 their impact. Conversely, emerging diseases take a few years to establish a score.  
530 Research itself can be conservative, with work building on increasing details of the  
531 properties of pathogens beyond specific applications to applied problems. The TI  
532 search helps reduce this bias because papers on general properties of pathogens  
533 are less likely to be selected. Historical change has been analysed using H-indices  
534 calculated on publications for different time periods and also by analysis of  
535 publication rates for key diseases. These identify expected trends of a reduction in  
536 impact of bacterial diseases and an increase in impact for viral diseases and sea  
537 lice.

538

539 H-indices relate overall to national salmon production, but exceptions occur for areas  
540 that lack the resources to invest (Hunter 2009). This may have been particularly  
541 important for Chile which, as a developing country, has had less financial resources.  
542 This may lead to lower scores for diseases that are of more concern to Chile than  
543 other countries, notably SRS, reflecting an under-investment in relevant science.  
544 Recent increases in Chilean scientific publication, however, indicate that this  
545 problem of resources may be being addressed.

546

547 The most serious limitation with the use of the H-index method is the lack of  
548 measures to assess its validity as a rank of disease priority (Brooks et al. 2015).  
549 This is not the case with diseases of humans or terrestrial animals for which  
550 extensive work on assessing impacts to allow ranking (del Rio Vilas et al. 2013,  
551 Brooks et al. 2015) and measures such as DALY have allowed the H-index to be

552 validated in these contexts (McIntyre et al. 2011). There is a need for such analytical  
553 methods to be developed more extensively for aquaculture and for data to be more  
554 widely available and internationally comparable. Here validation of the use of the H-  
555 index method for ranking salmon diseases and parasites is limited to consistency  
556 with expectation for relative impact, trends in publication rates with time, and an  
557 assessment of presence/absence with non-zero H-indices. This is, however, also  
558 the reason that this method is useful; there is no alternative measure that can be  
559 widely applied in a consistent manner between diseases and countries for diseases  
560 of aquatic animals.

561 Funding of activity on disease control requires that these diseases be prioritised  
562 (Brooks et al. 2015). For example analyses of activities that risk spreading disease  
563 may require a list of pathogens for which risks are calculated (Murray 2015).  
564 Assessment of the general susceptibility and vulnerability of the system to  
565 emergence of diseases requires a list of key pathogens to be identified, before  
566 scenarios with specific properties can be investigated, since effectiveness of controls  
567 depends on pathogen transmission properties (Werkman et al. 2011). Research  
568 budgets need to be targeted to diseases that are of national importance. The H-  
569 index method is a useful guide for targeting priorities for action on current disease  
570 problems, but novel emerging diseases require assessment based on basic  
571 epidemiological principles of aquatic disease transmission (Murray and Peeler 2005)  
572 to identify likely future priorities.

573

574 Acknowledgements: This work was funded by the Scottish Government under

575 AQ0050 and BBSRC Tools and Resources Development Fund (award

576 BB/K003798/1)

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709 Figure 1 H-index scores for diseases or pathogens calculated using searches of  
710 paper titles (TI) versus using full text in papers (TS) ( $r^2 = 0.72$ ). Diseases at or  
711 beyond the 95% confidence range for the regression line with a TI H-index score  $> 0$   
712 are identified on the figure (see Table 1 for more detail), as are the diseases lice and  
713 ISA, as they are further discussed.

714

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716

717 Figure 2. Mean H-index scores for the top nine salmon pathogens (see Table 2) by  
718 country versus natural logarithm of salmon production for 2012. The solid line  
719 illustrates a log regression of H-indices averaged for the different pathogens against  
720 national production, calculated excluding Chile ( $2.72 \times \ln(\text{production}) - 5.28$  with  
721 95% confidence intervals;  $r^2 = 0.721$ ).

722

723

724

725 Figure 3. Number of publications describing diseases or pathogens of the Atlantic  
726 salmon (*Salmo salar*) by year for title (TI) searches. Publication rates for papers  
727 alluding to bacterial diseases (3a) showed significant declines for vibriosis ( $-0.147 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) and furunculosis ( $-0.318 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ). Viral diseases (3b) showed  
728 significant increases: ISA  $0.21 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ; IPN  $0.20 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ; PD  $0.19 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.015$ . Publications increased significantly for sea lice ( $0.70 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.0005$  and  
729 AGD ( $0.028 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) but for *G. salaris* they had peaked and showed no significant  
730 changes (3c).  
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734  
735 Figure 4. Number of publications from 2000-2014 by year describing salmon,  
736 published in Chile or Scotland ); this demonstrates stable numbers in Scotland and a  
737 rapid increase in publication rates in Chile.

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743 Table 1. Diseases and pathogens included in analyses, incorporating synonyms for  
744 both disease and pathogen

745 **AGD:** (“Amoebic Gill Disease” OR “*Neoparamoeba perurans*” OR “*Paramoeba*  
746 *perurans*” OR “*Paramoeba pemaquidensis*”)

747 **BKD:** (“Bacterial Kidney Disease” OR “*Renibacterium salmoninarum*”)

748 **CMS:** (“Cardiomyopathy syndrome” OR “*Piscine myocarditis virus*”)

749 **D. spath.:** (“*Diplostomum spathaceum*”)

750 **EHN:** (“Epizootic haematopoietic necrosis” OR “Epizootic hematopoietic necrosis”)

751 **ERM:** (“Enteric redmouth” OR “*Yersinia ruckeri*”)

752 **Epitheliocystis:** (Epitheliocystis OR “*Candidatus Piscichlamydia salmonis*” OR  
753 *Candidatus Clavochlamydia salmonicola*)

754 **Furunculosis:** ((*Furunculosis* NOT *atypical*) OR (“*Aeromonas salmonicida*” NOT  
755 *atypical*))

756 **G.salaris:** (*Gyrodactylosis* OR “*Gyrodactylus salaris*”)

757 **HSMI:** (“Heart and skeletal muscle inflammation” OR “Piscine reovirus”)

758 **IHN:** (“Infectious haematopoietic necrosis” OR “Infectious hematopoietic necrosis”)

759 **ISA:** (“*infectious salmon anaemia*” OR “*infectious salmon anemia*”)

760 **IPN:** (“Infectious pancreatic necrosis”)

761 **PD:** (“Pancreas disease” OR “sleeping disease” or “salmonid alphavirus”)

762 **PKD:** (“Proliferative Kidney Disease” OR “*Tetracapsuloides bryosalmonae*”)

763 **RMS;** (“Red mark syndrome”)

764 **Red vent:** (“red vent” OR “*Anisakis simplex*”)

765 **Saprolegnia:** (*Saprolegnia*)

766 **Sarcocystis:** (*sarcocystis*)

767 **Sea lice:** (“sea lice” OR “*Lepeophtheirus salmonis*” OR “*Caligus elongatus*” OR  
768 “*Caligus rogercresseyi*” OR “*Caligus clemensi*”)

769 **SRS:** (*Piscirickettsiosis* OR “Salmon rickettsial syndrome” OR “*Piscirickettsia*  
770 *salmonis*”)

771 **Vibriosis:** (“Vibriosis” OR “*Listonella anguillarum*” OR “*Listonella anguillara*” OR  
772 “*Achromobacter ichthyodermis*” OR “*Pseudomonas ichthyodermis*” OR “*Vibrio*”)

773 ichthyodermis” OR “Vibrio piscium” OR “Vibrio anguillarum” OR “Vibrio  
774 salmonicida”)

775 **VHS:** (“Viral haemorrhagic septicaemia” OR “Viral hemorrhagic septicemia”)

776

777

778 Table 2. H-index scores for diseases or pathogens, calculated using title (TI = **bold**)  
779 or full text (TS = normal text), including synonyms or shortened names. For further  
780 details of diseases and pathogens see Table 1.

Disease or pathogen	Synonym/short name	TI	TS
<b>Amoebic Gill Disease</b>	AGD	<b>23</b>	28
<b>Bacterial Kidney Disease</b>	BKD	<b>12</b>	29
<b>CardioMyopathy Syndrome</b>	CMS	<b>9</b>	13
<i>Diplostomum spathaceum</i>	D. spath	<b>0</b>	9
<b>Epizootic haematopoietic necrosis</b>	EHN	<b>0</b>	5
<b>Enteric Redmouth</b>	ERM	<b>5</b>	19
<b>Epitheliocystis</b>	Epitheliocystis	<b>5</b>	15
<b>Furunculosis</b>	Furunc	<b>32</b>	67
<i>Gyrodactylus salaris</i>	G.salaris	<b>22</b>	36
<b>Heart and Skeletal Muscle Inflammation</b>	HSMI	<b>10</b>	12
<b>Infectious haematopoietic necrosis</b>	IHN	<b>8</b>	33
<b>Infectious Salmon Anaemia</b>	ISA	<b>28</b>	43
<b>Infectious Pancreatic Necrosis</b>	IPN	<b>24</b>	35
<b>Pancreas Disease</b>	PD	<b>22</b>	29
<b>Proliferative Kidney Disease</b>	PKD	<b>3</b>	20
<b>Red Mark Syndrome</b>	RMS	<b>0</b>	0
<b>Red vent</b>	Red Vent	<b>3</b>	12
<b>Saprolegnia</b>	Saprolegnia	<b>4</b>	12
<b>Sarcocystis</b>	Sarcocystis	<b>0</b>	1
<b>Sea lice</b>	Sea lice	<b>41</b>	54
<b>Salmon rickettsial syndrome</b>	SRS	<b>8</b>	22
<b>Vibriosis</b>	Vibriosis	<b>17</b>	53
<b>Viral haemorrhagic septicaemia</b>	VHS	<b>2</b>	28

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782

783 Table 3. H-index scores calculated using paper titles (TI) for the top nine diseases  
784 and pathogens of Atlantic salmon, using bibliometric searches excluding any  
785 restriction to a specific country (All) or including publications for individual countries  
786 (Scotland-Scot, Norway including Faeroe Islands-Nor, Chile, Canada-Can, Denmark-  
787 Den, Australia-Aus, USA, Ireland-Ire).

788

<b>Synonym/short name for disease/pathogen</b>	<b>All</b>	<b>Scot</b>	<b>Nor</b>	<b>Chile</b>	<b>Can</b>	<b>Den</b>	<b>Aus</b>	<b>USA</b>	<b>Ire</b>
<b>BKD</b>	<b>12</b>	3	2	0	7	0	0	2	0
<b>Vibriosis</b>	<b>17</b>	2	14	1	0	0	2	2	0
<b><i>G. salaris</i></b>	<b>22</b>	3	19	0	0	6	0	1	0
<b>AGD</b>	<b>23</b>	1	3	1	5	0	22	1	2
<b>PD</b>	<b>22</b>	11	12	0	0	2	0	0	18
<b>IPN</b>	<b>24</b>	16	16	0	1	1	0	1	1
<b>ISA</b>	<b>28</b>	9	25	3	14	4	0	5	1
<b>Furunc</b>	<b>32</b>	13	28	0	10	3	0	9	6
<b>Sea lice</b>	<b>41</b>	30	25	6	24	1	2	16	11

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