

CHAPTER 2.2.7.

INFECTION WITH TAURA SYNDROME VIRUS

1. Scope

Infection with Taura syndrome virus means infection with the pathogenic agent Taura syndrome virus (TSV), Genus *Aparavirus*, Family *Dicistroviridae*, Order *Picornavirales*.

2. Disease information

2.1. Agent factors

2.1.1. Aetiological agent

TSV was described as the cause of the disease commonly known as Taura syndrome by Hasson *et al.* (1995), Bonami *et al.* (1997) and Mari *et al.* (1998; 2002). At least four genotypes (strains) of TSV have been documented based on the gene sequence encoding VP1 the largest and presumably dominant of the three major structural proteins of the virus. Based on VP1 sequence variations, these genotypic groups are: 1) the Americas group; 2) the South-East Asian group; 3) the Belize group; and 4) the Venezuelan group (Nielsen *et al.*, 2005; Tang & Lightner, 2005; Wertheim *et al.*, 2009).

At least two distinct antigenic variants of TSV have been identified by their differential reactivity to monoclonal antibody MAb 1A1, produced using a reference isolate from the Americas (TSV USA-HI94 – GenBank AF277675) (Poulos *et al.*, 1999) as the immunogen: Type A represents those that react with MAb 1A1 (in the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay [ELISA], Western blots and immunohistochemistry (IHC) with infected tissues) and those that do not were subdivided into Type B (TSV 98 Sinaloa, Mexico) and Type C (TSV 02 Belize), based on host species and virulence. All TSV isolates of the Americas and most, if not all, South-East Asian genotypes react with MAb 1A1. In marked contrast, none of the Belize genotype group reacts with MAb 1A1 (Robles-Sikisaka *et al.*, 2002), nor does a TSV isolate from the 2005 epizootic in Venezuelan shrimp farms.

TSV particles are 32 nm in diameter, non-enveloped icosahedrons and have a buoyant density of 1.338 g ml⁻¹ in CsCl. The genome of TSV consists of a linear, positive-sense single-stranded RNA 10,205 nucleotides in length, excluding the 3' poly-A tail, and it contains two large open reading frames (ORFs). ORF 1 contains the sequence motifs for non-structural proteins, such as helicase, protease and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase. ORF 2 contains the sequences for TSV structural proteins, including the three major capsid proteins VP1, VP2 and VP3 (55, 40, and 24 kDa, respectively). The virus replicates in the cytoplasm of host cells (Bonami *et al.*, 1997; Mari *et al.*, 1998; 2002; Robles-Sikisaka *et al.*, 2001).

Other reported causes of Taura syndrome: TS in Ecuador was initially linked to fungicide contamination of shrimp farms, a contention that was supported by litigation for ~16 years after the disease was scientifically shown to have a viral aetiology (Brock *et al.*, 1995; Hasson *et al.*, 1995). Hence, several papers in the literature propose a toxic aetiology for TS (Intriago *et al.*, 1997; Jimenez, 1992; Jimenez *et al.*, 2000).

2.1.2. Survival and stability in processed or stored samples

No information available.

2.1.3. Survival and stability outside the host

No information available.

2.2. Host factors

2.2.1. Susceptible host species

Species that fulfil the criteria for listing as susceptible to infection with TSV according to Chapter 1.5 of *Aquatic Animal Health Code (Aquatic Code)* are: blue shrimp (*Penaeus stylirostris*), giant tiger prawn (*Penaeus monodon*), greasyback shrimp (*Metapenaeus ensis*), northern brown shrimp (*Penaeus aztecus*), northern white shrimp (*Penaeus setiferus*), and whiteleg shrimp (*Penaeus vannamei*).

2.2.2. Species with incomplete evidence for susceptibility

Species for which there is incomplete evidence to fulfil the criteria for listing as susceptible to infection with TSV according to Chapter 1.5 of the *Aquatic Code* are: fleshy prawn (*Penaeus chinensis*), giant river prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*), the copepod *Ergasilus manicatus*, and the barnacles *Chelonibia patula* and *Octolasmis muelleri*. Evidence is lacking for these species to either confirm that the identity of the pathogenic agent is TSV, transmission mimics natural pathways of infection, or presence of the pathogenic agent constitutes an infection.

In addition, pathogen-specific positive polymerase chain reaction (PCR) results have been reported in the following species, but no active infection has been demonstrated: blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*), the crabs *Uca vocans* and *Sesarma mederi*, gulf killifish (*Fundulus grandis*), Indo-Pacific swamp crab (*Scylla serrata*), kuruma prawn (*Penaeus japonicus*), northern pink shrimp (*Penaeus duorarum*) and southern white shrimp (*P. schmitti*).

2.2.3. Likelihood of infection by species, host life stage, population or sub-populations

Infection with TSV has been documented in all life stages (i.e. post-larvae [PL], juveniles and adults) of *P. vannamei* except eggs, zygotes and larvae (Lightner, 1996a).

2.2.4. Distribution of the pathogen in the host

Using injection and *per os* challenge experiments, Nunan *et al.* (2004) demonstrated TSV could be detected in different body parts including gills, head, whole tail, tail muscle, pleopod and tail fan (Nunan *et al.*, 2004). While there was no significant difference in the viral copy number contained in different body parts when TSV was administered via injection, there was a statistically significant difference between tail/gills, tail/head, tail/tail fan, whole tail/tail fan and pleopods/tail fan when the viral inoculum was administered *per os*. The tail samples had the lower viral copy numbers, as did the whole tail and pleopods when compared to the tail fan (Nunan *et al.*, 2004).

2.2.5. Aquatic animal reservoirs of infection

Not demonstrated unequivocally

2.2.6. Vectors

Sea birds: TSV has been demonstrated to remain infectious for up to 48 hours (after ingestion of TSV-infected shrimp carcasses) in the faeces passed by wild or captive sea gulls (*Larus atricilla*) and chickens (*Gallus gallus*, used as a laboratory surrogate for all shrimp-eating birds) thus suggesting that the virus can retain infectivity when passed through the gastro-intestinal system of any bird species. These findings implicate birds as being an important mechanical vector for the transmission of the virus within affected farms or farming regions (Garza *et al.*, 1997; Vanpatten *et al.*, 2004).

Aquatic insects: the water boatman (*Trichocorixa reticulata* [Corixidae], an aquatic insect that feeds on shrimp carcasses in shrimp farm ponds) have been demonstrated to transport TSV within their intestinal contents, but are not directly infected by the virus (Brock, 1997; Lightner, 1996a; 1996b; reviewed in Dhar *et al.*, 2004).

2.3. Disease pattern

Infection with TSV is best known as a disease of nursery- or grow-out-phase *P. vannamei* that occurs within ~14–40 days of stocking PLs into grow-out ponds or tanks, hence, shrimp with TSV infection are typically

small (~0.05 g to <5 g) juveniles. Larger shrimp may also be affected, especially if they are not exposed to the virus until they are larger juveniles or adults (Brock, 1997; Brock *et al.*, 1995; Lightner, 1996a, 1996b; Lotz, 1997).

2.3.1. Mortality, morbidity and prevalence

At the farm level, outbreaks of infection with TSV involving stocks of *P. vannamei* (the principal host species for infection with TSV) not selected for resistance, typical cumulative mortalities range from 40 to >90% in cultured populations of PL, juvenile, and subadult life stages. TSV-resistant lines of *P. vannamei* are available which show survival rates of up to 100% in laboratory challenge with all four TSV genotypes (Lightner *et al.*, 2009).

In regions where the virus is enzootic in farmed stocks, the prevalence of infection with TSV has been found in various surveys to range from 0 to 100% (Brock, 1997; Jimenez *et al.*, 2000).

2.3.2. Clinical signs, including behavioural changes

Only acute-phase clinical infection with TSV can be presumptively diagnosed from clinical signs. See Section 4.2 for a description of gross clinical signs presented by shrimp with acute-phase clinical infection with TSV.

Only shrimp with acute-phase clinical infection with TSV present behavioural changes. Typically, severely affected shrimp apparently become hypoxic and move to the pond edges or pond surface where dissolved oxygen levels are higher. Such shrimp may attract seabirds in large numbers. In many disease outbreaks, it is the large numbers of seabirds attracted to the moribund shrimp that first indicates the presence of a serious disease outbreak (which is often either infection with TSV or white spot syndrome virus) to the farm manager.

2.3.3. Gross pathology

Infection with TSV has three distinct phases, acute, transition, and chronic, which are grossly distinguishable (Hasson *et al.*, 1999a; 1999b; Lightner, 1996a; 1996b; Lightner *et al.*, 1995). Gross signs presented by juvenile, subadult and adult shrimp in the transition phase of infection with TSV are unique and provide a suspicion of infection.

Acute phase: gross signs displayed by moribund *P. vannamei* with acute-phase infection with TSV include expansion of the red chromatophores giving the affected shrimp a general, overall pale reddish colouration and making the tail fan and pleopods distinctly red; hence 'red tail' disease was one of the names given by farmers when the disease first appeared in Ecuador (Lightner *et al.*, 1995). In such shrimp, close inspection of the cuticular epithelium in thin appendages (such as the edges of the uropods or pleopods) with a ×10 hand lens reveals signs of focal epithelial necrosis. Shrimp showing these gross signs of acute infection with TSV typically have soft shells, an empty gut and are often in the late D stages of the moult cycle. Acutely affected shrimp usually die during ecdysis.

Transition (recovery) phase: although only present for a few days during outbreaks of infection with TSV, the gross signs presented by shrimp in the transition phase can provide a suspicion of infection with TSV. During the transition phase (which may be occurring while many shrimp in the affected populations are still in the acute phase and daily mortalities are high), fair to moderate numbers of shrimp in affected ponds show random, multifocal, irregularly shaped melanised cuticular lesions. These melanised spots are haemocyte accumulations indicating the sites of resolving TSV lesions in the cuticular epithelium. Such shrimp may or may not have soft cuticles and red-chromatophore expansion, and may be behaving and feeding normally (Brock, 1997; Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Lightner, 1996a).

Chronic phase: after successfully moulting, shrimp in the transition phase move into the chronic phase of infection with TSV in which persistently infected shrimp show no obvious signs of disease (Brock, 1997; Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Lightner, 1996a; 1996b; Lightner *et al.*, 1995). However, *P. vannamei* that are chronically infected with TSV may be less resistant to normal environmental stressors (i.e. sudden salinity reductions) than uninfected shrimp.

2.3.4. Modes of transmission and life cycle

Not applicable.

2.3.5. Environmental factors

Outbreaks of infection with TSV are more frequent when salinities are below 30 ppt (Jimenez *et al.*, 2000).

2.3.6. Geographical distribution

TSV is now widely distributed in the shrimp-farming regions of the Americas, South-East Asia and the Middle East (Brock, 1997; Hasson *et al.*, 1999a; Lightner, 1996a, 1996b; Lightner *et al.*, 2012; Lotz *et al.*, 2005; Nielsen *et al.*, 2005; Tang & Lightner, 2005; Tu *et al.*, 1999; Wertheim *et al.*, 2009; Vergel *et al.*, 2019; Yu & Song, 2000).

See WAHIS (<https://wahis.woah.org/#/home>) for recent information on distribution at the country level.

2.4. Biosecurity and disease control strategies

2.4.1. Vaccination

No effective vaccines for TSV are available.

2.4.2. Chemotherapy including blocking agents

No scientifically confirmed reports of effective chemotherapy treatments.

2.4.3. Immunostimulation

No scientifically confirmed reports of effective immunostimulation treatments.

2.4.4. Breeding resistant strains

After TSV emerged in Ecuador in 1992–1994, *P. stylirostris* were found that possessed resistance to infection with TSV (genotype 1, MAb 1A1 Type A). Following on from this discovery and due to the disease occurrence in Mexico in 1994 where it caused crop failures of *P. vannamei*, selected lines of TSV-resistant *P. stylirostris* became the dominant shrimp farmed in western Mexico from 1995. However, in 1998–1999, a new 'strain' of TSV (Type B; Fegan & Clifford, 2001; Lightner, 1999; 2005; Zarain-Herzberg & Ascencio, 2001) emerged and caused massive epizootics in *P. stylirostris*. The emergence of this new 'strain' of TSV was soon followed in late 1999 by the introduction of white spot syndrome virus (WSSV) into shrimp farms in western Mexico, to which *P. stylirostris* had no resistance, effectively ending any interest in the culture of *P. stylirostris* in Mexico.

TSV-resistant domesticated stocks of *P. vannamei* and *P. stylirostris* have been developed. Some domesticated lines of TSV-resistant *P. vannamei* (that are also TSV-free) are in widespread use by the shrimp-farming industries of the Americas and South-East Asia (Clifford, 1998; White *et al.*, 2002). After the appearance of infection with TSV in Central America, improved TSV resistance was reported in wild caught *P. vannamei* PLs used to stock shrimp farms in the region. Currently all genetic lines of *P. vannamei* shrimp that are being cultured in Asia and the Americas contain varying levels of tolerance/resistance to TSV.

2.4.5. Inactivation methods

No information available.

2.4.6. Disinfection of eggs and larvae

It is possible that TSV might be transmitted vertically (transovarian transmission), despite the lack of published reports documenting this route of transmission. Disinfection of eggs and larvae (Chen *et al.*, 1992) is good management practice and it is recommended for its potential to reduce TSV contamination of spawned eggs and larvae produced from them.

2.4.7. General husbandry

Some husbandry and disease control and management practices have been used successfully to reduce the risks of infection with TSV occurring during farm grow-out. These include the application of PCR assays for pre-screening of wild or pond-reared broodstock or their spawned eggs/nauplii and discarding those that test positive for the virus (Fegan & Clifford, 2001), fallowing and restocking of entire culture regions with TSV-free stocks (Dixon & Dorado, 1997), and the development of specific pathogen-free (SPF) shrimp stocks of *P. vannamei* and *P. stylirostris* (Lightner, 1996b; 2005; Wyban 1992). The adoption of the latter technology (SPF stocks) has proven to be among the most successful husbandry practice for the prevention and control of infection with TSV.

3. Specimen selection, sample collection, transportation and handling

This section draws on information in Sections 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4 to identify populations, individuals and samples that are most likely to be infected.

3.1. Selection of populations and individual specimens

Suitable specimens for testing for infection with TSV include PL, juveniles and adults. While TSV may infect all life stages, infection severity, and hence virus load, may be below detection limits in spawned eggs and in the larval stages, so these life stages may not be suitable samples for TSV detection.

3.2. Selection of organs or tissues

TSV infects tissues of ectodermal and mesodermal origin. The principal target tissue in the acute phase of infection with TSV is the cuticular epithelium. In chronic infections the lymphoid organ (LO) is the principal target tissue.

Haemolymph or excised pleopods may be collected and used when non-lethal testing of valuable broodstock is necessary.

3.3. Samples or tissues not suitable for pathogen detection

TSV is a systemic virus, and it does not replicate in enteric tissues (e.g. the hepatopancreas, the midgut, or its caeca). Hence, enteric tissues are inappropriate samples for detection of infection with TSV.

3.4. Non-lethal sampling

Haemolymph or pleopods can be collected without killing the animals and used as non-lethal sampling of genetically valuable broodstock.

If non-lethal tissue sample types differ from recommended tissues (see Section 3.2.), or from the tissue samples used in validation studies, the effect on diagnostic performance should be considered.

3.5. Preservation of samples for submission

For guidance on sample preservation methods for the intended test methods, see Chapter 2.2.0. *General information* (diseases of crustaceans).

3.5.1. Samples for bioassay

The success of bioassay depend strongly on the quality of samples (which is influenced by time since collection and time in storage). Fresh specimens should be kept on ice and preferably sent to the laboratory within 24 hours of collection. To avoid degradation of samples, use alternative storage methods only after consultation with the receiving laboratory.

3.5.2. Preservation of samples for molecular detection

Standard sample collection, preservation and processing methods for molecular techniques can be found in Section B.5.5. of Chapter 2.2.0 *General information* (diseases of crustaceans).

3.5.3. Samples for histopathology, immunohistochemistry or *in-situ* hybridisation

Standard sample collection, preservation and processing methods for histological techniques can be found in Chapter 2.2.0. *General information* (diseases of crustaceans).

3.5.4. Samples for other tests

Haemolymph could be used for PCR-based detection of TSV.

3.6. Pooling of samples

Pooling of samples from more than one individual animal for a given purpose should only be recommended where robust supporting data on diagnostic sensitivity and diagnostic specificity have been evaluated and found to be suitable. If the effect of pooling on diagnostic sensitivity has not been thoroughly evaluated, larger animals should be processed and tested individually.

4. Diagnostic methods

The methods currently available for pathogen detection that can be used in i) surveillance of apparently healthy animals, ii) presumptive diagnosis in clinically affected animals and iii) confirmatory diagnostic purposes are listed in Table 4.1. by animal life stage.

Ratings for purposes of use. For each recommended assay a qualitative rating for the purpose of use is provided. The ratings are determined based on multiple performance and operational factors relevant to application of an assay for a defined purpose. These factors include appropriate diagnostic performance characteristics, level of assay validation, availability, cost, timeliness, sample throughput and operability. For a specific purpose of use, assays are rated as:

+++ =	Methods are most suitable with desirable performance and operational characteristics.
++ =	Methods are suitable with acceptable performance and operational characteristics under most circumstances.
+ =	Methods are suitable, but performance or operational characteristics may limit application under some circumstances.
Shaded boxes =	Not appropriate for this purpose.

Validation stage. The validation stage corresponds to the assay development and validation pathway in chapter 1.1.2. The validation stage is specific to each purpose of use. Where available, information on the diagnostic performance of recommended assays is provided in Section 6.3.

WOAH Reference Laboratories welcome feedback on diagnostic performance of recommended assays, in particular PCR methods. Of particular interest are any factors affecting expected assay sensitivity (e.g. tissue components inhibiting amplification) or expected specificity (e.g. failure to detect particular genotypes, detection of homologous sequences within the host genome). These issues should be communicated to WOA Reference Laboratories so that advice can be provided to diagnostic laboratories and the standards amended if necessary.

Table 4.1. WOAH recommended diagnostic methods and their level of validation for surveillance of apparently healthy animals and investigation of clinically affected animals

Method	A. Surveillance of apparently healthy animals				B. Presumptive diagnosis of clinically affected animals				C. Confirmatory diagnosis ¹ of a suspect result from surveillance or presumptive diagnosis			
	Early life stages ²	Juveniles ²	Adults	LV	Early life stages ²	Juveniles ²	Adults	LV	Early life stages ²	Juveniles ²	Adults	LV
Wet mounts						+	+	NA				
Histopathology		+	+	NA	+	+	+	NA				
Cell culture												
Real-time RT-PCR	+++	+++	+++	1	+++	+++	+++	1	+++	+++	+++	1
Conventional RT-PCR	++	++	++	1	++	++	++	1				
Conventional RT-PCR followed by amplicon sequencing									+++	+++	+++	1
<i>In-situ</i> hybridisation					+	+	+	1	+	+	+	1
Bioassay					+	+	+	1				
LAMP												
IFAT												
ELISA												
Other antigen detection methods												
Other method												

LV = level of validation, refers to the stage of validation in the WOAHP Pathway (chapter 1.1.2); NA = not available; PCR = polymerase chain reaction; LAMP = loop-mediated isothermal amplification; IFAT = indirect fluorescent antibody test; ELISA = enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, respectively.

¹For confirmatory diagnoses, methods need to be carried out in combination (see Section 6).

²Susceptibility of early and juvenile life stages is described in Section 2.2.3.

Shading indicates the test is inappropriate or should not be used for this purpose.

4.1. Wet mounts

Direct microscopy of simple unstained wet mounts from excised pieces of the gills, appendage tips, etc., examined by phase- or reduced-light microscopy may be used to demonstrate (and make a tentative diagnosis of acute-phase infection with TSV) focal lesions of acute-phase infection with TSV in cuticular epithelial cells. Preparations presenting acute-phase infection with TSV will contain numerous spherical structures (see the histopathological methods in Section 4.2.3 above), which are pyknotic and karyorrhectic nuclei and cytoplasmic remnants of necrotic cells.

4.2. Histopathology and cytopathology

Histopathology is a useful method to detect infection with TSV in the acute and chronic phases of infection (Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Lightner, 1996a). In chronic infections with TSV, the only lesion typically presented by infected shrimp is the presence of an enlarged LO with multiple LO spheroids (LOS) (Hasson *et al.*, 1999b), which cannot be distinguished from LOS induced by chronic infections of other RNA viruses (Lightner, 1996a). When histological lesions are observed and infection with TSV is suspected, a molecular test (ISH with TSV-specific probes, or reverse-transcription [RT] PCR) must be used for confirmation of infection with TSV (see Section 6).

4.2.1. Acute phase of Taura syndrome

The acute phase of the disease is characterised by multifocal areas of necrosis in the cuticular epithelium of the general body surface, appendages, gills, hindgut, and foregut (the oesophagus, anterior and posterior chambers of the stomach). Cells of the subcuticular connective tissues and adjacent striated muscle fibres basal to affected cuticular epithelium are occasionally affected. In some severe cases of acute-phase infection with TSV, the antennal gland tubule epithelium is also destroyed. Prominent in the multifocal cuticular lesions are conspicuous foci of affected cells that display an increased eosinophilia of the cytoplasm and pyknotic or karyorrhectic nuclei. Cytoplasmic remnants of necrotic cells are often extremely abundant in these infections with TSV acute-phase lesions and these are generally presented as spherical bodies (1–20 µm in diameter) that range in staining from eosinophilic to pale basophilic. These structures, along with pyknotic and karyorrhectic nuclei, give acute-phase TS lesions a characteristic ‘peppered’ or ‘buckshot-riddled’ appearance, which is considered to be pathognomonic for the infection when there is no concurrent necrosis of the parenchymal cells of the LO tubules. The absence of necrosis of the LO in acute-phase infection with TSV distinguishes it from acute-phase infection with yellowhead virus genotype 1 in which similar patterns of necrosis to those induced by infection with TSV may occur in the cuticular epithelium and gills (Lightner, 1996a).

In TSV-infected tissues, pyknotic or karyorrhectic nuclei give a positive (for DNA) Feulgen reaction, which distinguishes them from the less basophilic to eosinophilic cytoplasmic inclusions that do not contain DNA. The absence of haemocytic infiltration or other signs of a significant host-inflammatory response distinguishes the acute phase of infection with TSV from the transitional phase of the disease (Brock, 1997; Brock *et al.*, 1995; Hasson *et al.*, 1995; 1999a; 1999b; Lightner, 1996a; Lightner *et al.*, 1995).

4.2.2. Transition (recovery) phase of infection with Taura syndrome virus

In the transitional phase of infection with TSV, typical acute-phase cuticular lesions decline in abundance and severity and are replaced by conspicuous infiltration and accumulation of haemocytes at the sites of necrosis. The masses of haemocytes may become melanised giving rise to the irregular black spots that characterise the transition phase of the disease. In H&E sections, such lesions may show erosion of the cuticle, surface colonisation and invasion of the affected cuticle and exposed surface haemocytes by *Vibrio* spp. (Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Lightner, 1996a). Sections of the LO during the transition phase of infection with TSV may appear normal with H&E staining. However, when sections of the LO are assayed for TSV by ISH with a specific cDNA probe (or by ISH with MAb 1A1 for TSV type A, genotype 1), large quantities of TSV are shown accumulating in the more peripheral parenchymal cells of the LO tubules (Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Srisuvan *et al.*, 2005).

4.2.3. Chronic phase of infection with Taura syndrome virus

Shrimp in the chronic phase of infection with TSV display no gross signs of infection, and histologically the only sign of infection is the presence of numerous prominent LOS, which may remain associated with the main body of the paired LO, or which may detach and become ectopic LOS bodies that lodge in constricted areas of the haemocoel (i.e. the heart, gills, in the subcuticular connective tissues, etc.). Such LOS are spherical accumulations of LO cells and haemocytes and may be distinguished from normal LO tissues by their spherical nature and the lack of the central vessel that is typical of normal LO tubules. When assayed by ISH with a cDNA probe for TSV (or with MAb 1A1 using ISH) some cells in the LOS give positive reactions to the virus, while no other target tissues react (Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Lightner, 1996a; 1996b).

4.3. Cell culture for virus isolation

TSV has not been grown *in vitro*, as no crustacean cell lines exist (Lightner, 1996a; Pantoja *et al.*, 2004). Although one publication incorrectly reported that TSV infected human and monkey cell lines (Audelo del Valle *et al.*, 2003), two other laboratories that repeated the study both found that TSV does not infect or replicate in primate or human cell lines that are known to have susceptibility to human picornaviruses (Luo *et al.*, 2004; Pantoja *et al.*, 2004).

4.4. Nucleic acid amplification

PCR assays should always be run with the controls specified in Section 5.5 *Use of molecular and antibody-based techniques for confirmatory testing and diagnosis* of Chapter 2.2.0 *General information (diseases of crustaceans)*. Each sample should be tested in duplicate, i.e. by testing two aliquots.

Extraction of nucleic acids

Different kits and procedures can be used for nucleic acid extraction. The quality and concentration of the extracted nucleic acid is important and can be checked using a suitable method as appropriate to the circumstances.

4.4.1. Real-time reverse-transcription (RT)-PCR

Real-time RT-PCR methods have been developed for the detection of TSV. These methods have the advantage of speed, specificity and sensitivity. The sensitivity of real time RT-PCR is approximately equal to 100 copies of the target sequence from the TSV genome (Dhar *et al.*, 2002; Tang *et al.*, 2004).

The real-time RT-PCR method described below for TSV follows the method used in Tang *et al.*, 2004.

Pathogen/ target gene	Primer/probe (5'–3')	Concentration	Cycling parameters
Method 1 (Tang <i>et al.</i> , 2004); GenBank Accession No.: AF277675			
TSV/ORF-1 Nt 1024 to 1051	Fwd: TSV1004: TTG-GGC-ACC-AAA-CGA-CAT-T- Rev: TSV1075 GGG-AGC-TTA-AAC-TGG-ACA-CAC-TGT Probe: TSV-P1 FAM-CAG-CAC-TGA-CGC-ACA-ATA-TTC-GAG-CAT- C-TAMRA,	300 nM of each primer 100 nM of probe	Reverse transcription at 50°C/30 min 40 cycles of 95°C/3 sec and 60°C/30 sec

4.4.2. Conventional RT-PCR

Tissue samples (haemolymph, pleopods, whole small shrimp etc) may be assayed for TSV using RT-PCR. The RT-PCR method outlined below for TSV follows the method used in Nunan *et al.* (1998).

Pathogen/ target gene	Primer (5'–3')	Concentration	Cycling parameters
Method 1 (Nunan <i>et al.</i> , 1998); amplicon size: 231 bp			
TSV/ORF 2	Fwd: 9992: AAG-TAG-ACA-GCC-GCG-CTT Rev: 9195R: TCA-ATG-AGA-GCT-TGG-TCC	Primers/620 nM each	Reverse transcription 60°C/30 min 40 cycles: 94°C/45 sec, 60°C/45 sec

4.4.3. Other nucleic acid amplification methods

None currently available.

4.5. Amplicon sequencing

The size of the PCR amplicon should be verified, for example by agarose gel electrophoresis. Both DNA strands of the PCR product must be sequenced and analysed in comparison with reference sequences.

4.6. *In-situ* hybridisation (ISH)

4.6.1. DNA probes for ISH applications with non-radioactive cDNA probes

Non-radioactive, DIG-labelled cDNA probes for detection of TSV may be produced in the laboratory. The ISH method provides greater diagnostic sensitivity than do more traditional methods for TSV detection and diagnosis that employ classic histological methods (Hasson *et al.*, 1999a; Lightner, 1996a; 1999; Lightner & Redman 1998; Mari *et al.*, 1998). The ISH assay of routine histological sections of acute- and transition-phase lesions in the cuticular epithelium, other tissues, and of LOS in transition and chronic phase with a specific DIG-labelled cDNA probe to TSV, provides a definitive diagnosis of infection with TSV (Hasson *et al.*, 1999a; 1999b; Lightner, 1996a; 1996b). Pathognomonic TSV-positive lesions display prominent blue to blue-black areas in the cytoplasm of affected cells when reacted with the cDNA probes. Not reacting to the probe are the prominent karyorrhectic nuclear fragments and pyknotic nuclei that contribute to the pathognomonic 'buckshot riddled' appearance of TS lesions (Lightner, 1996a; Mari *et al.*, 1998). (See Chapter 2.2.4 *Infection with infectious hypodermal and haematopoietic necrosis virus* for details of the ISH method, and Chapter 2.2.0 Section B.5.3.ii for detailed information on the use of Davidson's AFA fixative.)

False-negative ISH results may occur with Davidson's fixed tissues if tissues are left in fixative for more than 24–48 hours. The low pH of Davidson's fixative causes acid hydrolysis of the TSV single-stranded RNA genome, resulting in false-negative probe results. This hydrolysis can be prevented by avoiding fixation times over 24 hours (Hasson *et al.*, 1997; Lightner, 1996a; Lightner & Redman 1998).

4.7. Immunohistochemistry

Not suitable.

4.8. Bioassay

Confirmation of infection with TSV may be accomplished by bioassay of TSV-suspect animals with SPF juvenile *P. vannamei* serving as the indicator of the virus (Garza *et al.*, 1997; Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; 1995; Lightner, 1996a; Lotz, 1997; Overstreet *et al.*, 1997). Oral or injection protocols may be used. The oral method is relatively simple to perform and is accomplished by feeding chopped carcasses of suspect shrimp to SPF juvenile *P. vannamei* in small tanks (White *et al.*, 2002). The use of a negative control tank of indicator shrimp,

which receive only SPF (TSV-free) tissue and normal shrimp feed is required. When the carcass feeding (per os) protocol is used to bioassay for TSV, TSV-positive indicator shrimp (by gross signs and histopathology) are typically apparent within 3–4 days of initial exposure, and significant mortalities occur by 3–8 days after initial exposure. The negative control shrimp must remain negative (for at least 10–15 days) for gross or histological signs of disease and unusual mortalities (Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Lightner, 1996a; White *et al.*, 2002).

With the injection bioassay protocol, a variety of sample types may be tested for TSV. Whole shrimp are used if they were collected during an outbreak of infection with TSV. Heads only should be used if shrimp display gross transition-phase lesions (multifocal melanised spots on the cuticle) or no clinical signs of infection (chronic phase) as the virus, if present, will be concentrated in the LO (Hasson *et al.*, 1999b; Lightner, 1996a). For non-lethal testing of broodstock, haemolymph samples may be taken and used to expose the indicator shrimp by IM injection (Lightner, 1996a).

4.9. Antibody- or antigen-based detection methods

Not recommended.

4.10. Other methods

4.10.1. Dot-blot immunoassay method

- i) For the dot-blot immunoassay method, 1 µl of test antigen (purified virus, infected shrimp haemolymph or SPF shrimp haemolymph) is dotted on to the surface of MA-HA-N45 assay plates (Millipore)9F9F¹.
- ii) After air drying, the wells are blocked for 1 hour at room temperature with 200 µl of a buffer containing phosphate-buffered saline and 0.05% Tween 20 (PBST) mixed with 10% normal goat serum (Life Technologies) and 2% Hammersten casein (Amersham Life Sciences).
- iii) The wells are washed three times with PBST and then reacted with 100 µl primary antibody (MAb or mouse polyclonal antibodies) for 30 minutes at room temperature.
- iv) Alkaline-phosphatase-labelled goat anti-mouse IgG, g chain specific, secondary antibody (Zymed) diluted 1/1000 in PBST plus 10% normal goat serum is used for detection (30 minutes at room temperature).
- v) After washing three times with PBST, once with PBS and once with distilled water, the reactions are visualised by development for 15 minutes at room temperature with nitroblue tetrazolium and bromo-chloro-indoyl phosphate (Roche Diagnostics in 100 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM NaCl buffer containing 50 mM MgCl₂, pH 9.5).
- vi) Reactions are stopped with distilled water.
- vii) The reactions are graded using a scale from 0 to +4, with the highest intensity reaction being equivalent to the reaction generated using the MAb against the reference control consisting of semi-purified TSV. A negative reaction is one in which no coloured spot is visible in the well.

5. Test(s) recommended for surveillance to demonstrate disease freedom in apparently healthy populations

Real-time RT-PCR is the recommended test for surveillance to demonstrate freedom of infection with TSV in apparently healthy populations as described in Section 4.1.1.

6. Corroborative diagnostic criteria

This section only addresses the diagnostic test results for detection of infection in the absence (6.1) or presence of clinical signs (6.2) but does not evaluate whether the infectious agent is the cause of the clinical event.

1 Reference to specific commercial products as examples does not imply their endorsement by WOA. This applies to all commercial products referred to in this *Aquatic Manual*.

The case definitions for suspect and confirmed cases have been developed to support decision-making related to trade and confirmation of disease status at the country, zone or compartment level. Case definitions for disease confirmation in endemically affected areas may be less stringent. If a Competent Authority does not have the capability to undertake the necessary diagnostic tests it should seek advice from the appropriate WOA Reference Laboratory, and if necessary, refer samples to that laboratory for confirmatory testing of samples from the index case in a country, zone or compartment considered free.

6.1. Apparently healthy animals or animals of unknown health status²

Apparently healthy populations may fall under suspicion, and therefore be sampled, if there is an epidemiological link(s) to an infected population. Hydrographical proximity to, or movement of animals or animal products or equipment, etc., from a known infected population equate to an epidemiological link. In addition, apparently healthy populations are sampled, when surveys are carried out to demonstrate disease freedom.

6.1.1. Definition of suspect case in apparently healthy animals

The presence of infection with TSV shall be suspected if at least one of the following criteria is met:

- i) A positive result by real-time RT-PCR
- ii) A positive result by conventional RT-PCR

6.1.2. Definition of confirmed case in apparently healthy animals

The presence of infection with TSV is considered to be confirmed if the following criterion is met:

- i) A positive result by real-time RT-PCR and a positive result by conventional RT-PCR followed by sequencing of the amplicon

6.2. Clinically affected animals

No clinical signs are pathognomonic for a single disease; however, they may narrow the range of possible diagnoses.

6.2.1. Definition of suspect case in clinically affected animals

The presence of infection with TSV shall be suspected if at least one of the following criteria is met:

- i) Gross pathology or clinical signs associated with the disease as described in this chapter, with or without elevated mortality
- ii) Histopathological changes consistent with TSV infection
- iii) Positive result by real-time RT-PCR
- iv) Positive result by conventional RT-PCR
- v) Positive result of a bioassay

6.2.2. Definition of confirmed case in clinically affected animals

The presence of infection with TSV is considered to be confirmed if at least at least one of the following criteria is met:

- i) A positive result by real-time RT-PCR and a positive result by conventional RT-PCR followed by sequencing of the amplicon
- ii) A positive result by *in-situ* hybridisation and a positive result by real-time RT-PCR
- iii) A positive result by *in-situ* hybridisation and a positive result by conventional RT-PCR followed by amplicon sequencing

2 For example transboundary commodities.

6.3. Diagnostic sensitivity and specificity for diagnostic tests

The diagnostic performance of tests recommended for surveillance or diagnosis of infection with TSV are provided in Tables 6.3.1 and 6.3.2. (no data are currently available for either). This information can be used for the design of surveys for infection with TSV, however, it should be noted that diagnostic performance is specific to the circumstances of each diagnostic accuracy study (including the test purpose, source population, tissue sample types and host species) and diagnostic performance may vary under different conditions. Data are only presented where tests are validated to at least level 2 of the validation pathway described in Chapter 1.1.2. and the information is available within published diagnostic accuracy studies.

6.3.1. For surveillance of clinically affected animals

Test type	Test purpose	Source populations	Tissue or sample types	Species	DSe (n)	DSp (n)	Reference test	Citation

DSe: = diagnostic sensitivity, DSp = diagnostic specificity.

6.3.2. For surveillance of apparently healthy animals

Test type	Test purpose	Source populations	Tissue or sample types	Species	DSe (n)	DSp (n)	Reference test	Citation

DSe: = diagnostic sensitivity, DSp = diagnostic specificity.

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NB: There is a WOA Reference Laboratory for infection with Taura syndrome virus
(please consult the WOA Web site for the most up-to-date list:
<https://www.woah.org/en/what-we-offer/expertise-network/reference-laboratories/#ui-id-3>).
Please contact WOA Reference Laboratories for any further information on
infection with Taura syndrome virus

NB: First adopted in 2006. Most recent updates adopted in 2023.