First detection of infectious spleen and kidney necrosis virus (ISKNV) associated with massive mortalities in farmed tilapia in Africa

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Abstract
In late 2018, unusual patterns of very high mortality (>50% production) were reported in intensive tilapia cage culture systems across Lake Volta in Ghana. Samples of fish and fry were collected and analysed from two affected farms between October 2018 and February 2019. Affected fish showed darkening, erratic swimming and abdominal distension with associated ascites. Histopathological observations of tissues taken from moribund fish at different farms revealed lesions indicative of viral infection. These included haematopoietic cell nuclear and cytoplasmic pleomorphism with marginalization of chromatin and fine granulation. Transmission electron microscopy showed cells containing conspicuous virions with typical iridovirus morphology, that is enveloped, with icosahedral and/or polyhedral geometries and with a diameter c.160 nm. PCR confirmation and DNA sequencing identified the virions as infectious spleen and kidney necrosis virus (ISKNV). Samples of fry and older animals were all strongly positive for the presence of the virus by qPCR. All samples tested negative for TiLV and nodavirus by qPCR. All samples collected from farms prior to the mortality event were negative for ISKNV. Follow-up testing of fish and fry sampled from 5 additional sites in July 2019 showed all farms had fish that were PCR-positive for ISKNV, whether there was active disease on the farm or not, demonstrating the disease was endemic to farms all over Lake Volta by that point. The results suggest that ISKNV was the cause of disease on the investigated farms and likely had a primary role in the mortality events. A common observation of coinfections with Streptococcus agalactiae and other tilapia bacterial pathogens further suggests that these may interact to cause severe pathology, particularly in larger fish. Results demonstrate that there are a range of potential threats to the sustainability of tilapia aquaculture that need to be guarded against.
1 | INTRODUCTION

The farming of Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) is one of the most important sectors in aquaculture worldwide with total global production estimated at 4,500,000 tonnes in 2018 (FAO, 2020). In Africa, production is still dominated by Egypt with more than 1,000,000 tonnes produced in 2018 (FAO, 2020). However, tilapia culture has become increasingly important in several other African countries, where it boosts the local economy and constitutes an affordable source of animal protein for human consumption.

In Ghana, Nile tilapia production in 2017 had reached 53,000 tonnes, from only 2,000 tonnes per year in 2006 (FAO, 2020) with more than 90% of the production derived from high stocking density floating cage systems in Lake Volta. However, as production systems have intensified in the area, the industry has been increasingly affected by a range of disease issues (Jansen et al., 2018; Verner-Jeffreys et al., 2018).

Verner-Jeffreys et al. (2018) conducted the first comprehensive disease investigation in tilapia farmed in Lake Volta, Ghana. *Streptococcus agalactiae* multilocus sequence type 261 was shown to be a major cause of mortality for farmed Nile tilapia, and a range of other bacterial and parasitic pathogens including *Aeromonas* spp., *Streptococcus iniae*, *Flavobacterium columnare* and a *Myxobolus* sp. were also detected.

Jansen et al. (2018) conducted follow-up studies, including a broad-ranging epidemiological investigation and suggested that mortalities caused by bacteria in Lake Volta were not a major concern for the local economy as farmers had managed to sustain losses by increasing production of fingerlings, treatment with antibiotics and use of autogenous vaccines.

Historically, bacterial infections were the major threat for the health of farmed tilapia (Plumb & Hanson, 2011). However, in recent years a number of viral diseases have emerged worldwide with devastating effects for the industry (Machimbirike et al., 2019). Tilapia lake virus (TLV) is considered the main viral challenge to farmed Nile tilapia, and a range of other bacterial and parasitic pathogens including *Aeromonas* spp., *Streptococcus iniae*, *Flavobacterium columnare* and a *Myxobolus* sp. were also detected.

By the end of 2018, most tilapia farmers in Lake Volta had reported mortalities that they were not able to contain by increased production of fingerlings or treating with antibiotics (File S1, https://goo.gl/cPmpSE). Mortality events continued into and throughout 2019. We report the results of a comprehensive disease investigation, conducted at seven affected farms from two different regions of Lake Volta, to gain insights into the causes of these mortalities.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Sampling

Farm 1, a medium-size (approximately 600–800 tonnes per annum production) cage culture operation on upper Lake Volta, was visited on 18/10/18. Samples from 10 fish (average weight 200 g) were taken for bacteriology. In addition, five sets of samples containing liver and brain from fish from different cages were collected for molecular diagnostics as detailed in Table 1.

Farm 2, a large cage culture operation (>2,000 tonnes per annum), was visited for sampling on 28/11/18, 17/12/18 and 20/02/19. For the first two visits, moribund fish between 40 and 646 g collected from cages on the main lake were sampled: the first visit for bacteriology and virology on the second visit for virology only. For the third visit, responding to reports that they were now experiencing very heavy mortalities in their fry production units (>70%), samples of moribund fry and juveniles from both nursery cages on the main lake and from their onshore hatchery supplied with water pumped from the main lake were analysed for virology. From this farm, material was also taken for histological and molecular diagnostic investigations during the visits as detailed in Table 1 and File S2. During the visits, semi-structured interviews were carried out with farm managers and/or workers. Interview questions were primarily constructed to ascertain trends in mortality levels since September 2018, any observed clinical signs in this time and whether there were any differences in impact associated with fish life stage and/or growth rate.
system. Additionally, relevant information on potential risk factors, mitigation measures and biosecurity practices, as well as any further farmer concerns, was discussed.

A further 5 farms in the Akosombo, Atimpoku and Dasasi regions were visited and sampled for virology, bacteriology, histology and molecular diagnostic investigation from 9 to 10/07/2019. These included fry, on-growing and broodstock fish from farms of varying capacity and with either no reported disease, fish that had survived recent mortality events on farms or fish with ongoing clinical signs or mortalities.

All moribund fish from the visited farms were humanely euthanized with a lethal overdose of tricaine methanesulfonate 1,000 mg/g (Pharmaq, Hampshire, UK) followed by brain destruction prior to the necropsy.

2.2 | Bacteriology

Samples for bacteriology were collected from the brain, liver, kidney and spleen with sterile cotton swabs and inoculated onto tryptic soya agar (TSA), Columbia blood agar (CBA), Tryptone yeast extract salts agar (TYES) (Southern Group Laboratory, Corby, UK) and cystine heart agar with 2% bovine haemoglobin (CHAH) (Becton Dickinson, Oxford, UK).

All inoculated agar plates were incubated at 28°C for 24–72 hr. Colonies assessed as significant based on occurrence and dominance were subcultured to purity on similar media. Pure relevant isolates were initially identified by morphology and Gram staining. The partial 16S rRNA genes of the Gram-negative isolates identified were PCR-amplified and sequenced using a previously described method (Klindworth et al., 2013). Gram-positive cocci-forming chains were screened using a *Streptococcus agalactiae*-specific capsular typing multiplex PCR (Shoemaker et al., 2017). The Gram-negative isolates confirmed as *Aeromonas* spp. based on partial 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis were further characterized based on partial gyrB sequencing analysis for identification at the species level (Yáñez et al., 2013).

2.3 | Histopathology and electron microscopy

Tissues were fixed in neutral buffered formalin (NBF) for a minimum of 24 hr before being placed in glycerol diluted 50:50 with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) for transportation to the Centre for Environment and Fisheries (Cefas) Laboratory in Weymouth UK. On receipt, tissues were rinsed in 70% alcohol and placed again in NBF for a final period of fixation prior to processing using standard protocols in a vacuum infiltration processor. Tissue
| Sampling date and farm | No. of fish and size | Farm observations and \(^a\) clinical signs | Bacteriology | Histopathology | Virology results \(^d\) |
|-----------------------|----------------------|------------------------------------------------|--------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 18/10/2018 \(^a\) Farm 1 | \(n = 5; 100−300 \text{ g}\) | Wide-scale ongoing mortalities in on-growing fish in cages. | *Aeromonas veronii*; *Aeromonas jandaei*; *Plesiomonas shigelloides*; *Chryseobacterium* sp; *Acinetobacter johnsonii* | Not done | \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 5/5 \quad +ve\) |
| 28/11/2018 \(^a\) Farm 2 | \(n = 14; 74−401 \text{ g}\) | Wide-scale ongoing mortalities in on-growing fish in cages (Figure 2). Onshore fry production unit: no unusual mortalities. | *Aeromonas veronii*; *Aeromonas jandaei*; *Streptococcus agalactiae* capsular type Ib biotype 2 (non-haemolytic); *Edwardsiella tarda* | Evidence of Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacterial and viral\(^c\) infection (including in same fish) | \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{TiLV} \quad 14/14 \quad -ve\) \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{NODA} \quad 14/14 \quad -ve\) \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 12/14 \quad +ve\) \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 14/14 \quad +ve\) \([(2.48 \times 10^{1}−3.3 \times 10^{6})]\) |
| 17/12/2018 \(^a\) Farm 2 | \(n = 7; 40−646 \text{ g}\) | Much lower mortalities in on-growing fish in cages than previous sampling visit. Onshore fry production unit: no unusual mortalities. | Not done | Evidence of bacterial infection but not of viral infection | \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{TiLV} \quad \text{not done}\) \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{NODA} \quad \text{not done}\) \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 1/7 \quad +ve\) megalocytivirus, sequence = ISKNV | \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 6/7 \quad +ve\) \([(1 \times 10^{0}−24 \times 10^{0})]\) |
| 20/02/2019 \(^a\) Farm 2 | \(n = 14; 6−9 \text{ cm}^{-1}\) | Limited mortalities in on-growing fish in cages. Very severe mortalities in onshore fry production unit. | Not done | Very severe virus-associated pathology (in tissue samples from all fish). | \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{TiLV} \quad \text{not done}\) \(\text{qPCR} \quad \text{NODA} \quad \text{not done}\) \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 7/7 \quad +ve\) \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 13/13 \quad +ve\) \([(5.1 \times 10^{5}−1.51 \times 10^{7})]\) |
| 09/07/2019 Farm 3 | Grp 1, \(n = 3; 60−80 \text{ g}\) Grp 2, \(n = 3; 20−40 \text{ g}\) Grp 3, \(n = 5; 1−2 \text{ g fry}\) Grp 4, \(n = 5 \text{ pools of } \leq 0.2 \text{ g fry}\) | No mortality events reported at site. Grp 1—on-growing in lake, Grps 2–4 in ponds. | Grps 1 and 2—no significant colonies Grps 3–5—not done | Evidence of metacercaria, bacterial gill epitheliocystis and myxosporidiosis in Grps 1 and 2—No evidence of viral infection. | \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 1/2−3 \quad +ve\) (nested only) \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 2−3/3 \quad +ve\) (nested only) \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 3/5−10 \quad +ve\) (nested only) \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 4−3/10 \quad +ve\) (nested only) | \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 2/5 \quad +ve\) (nested only and in one of duplicates only) |
| 09/07/2019 Farm 4 | \(n = 5 \text{ pools of } \leq 0.2 \text{ g fry}\) | Reported recent mortality event now recovering. No clinical signs | Not done | Myxosporidian cysts in cranial sub-epithelial and connective tissue | \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 2/5 \quad +ve\) (nested only and in one of duplicates only) |
| 10/07/2019 Farm 5 | \(n = 5 \times 3 \text{ fish organ pools; } \sim 40 \text{ g}\) | On-growing fish on lake, recent mortality event in adjacent cage cleared previous month, no clinical signs in sampled fish | No significant colonies | Not done | \(\text{cPCR} \quad \text{RSIV/ISKNV} \quad 5/5 \quad +ve\) (nested only, one of which weak in 1st round) |

\(^{a}\) Farm
\(^{b}\) Grp
\(^{c}\) cPCR
\(^{d}\) qPCR

(Continues)
sections were cut at a thickness of 3–4 µm on a Finesse® microtome, mounted on glass slides and stained with haematoxylin and eosin using an automated staining protocol. Stained sections were examined for general histopathology by light microscopy (Nikon Eclipse E800). Digital images and measurements were obtained using the Lucia™ Screen Measurement software system (Nikon, UK).

For electron microscopy, small samples of tissues fixed in NBF as above were rinsed three changes of 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer, followed by post-fixation in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in the same buffer for 1 hr prior to a second post-fixation for 1 hr in 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer. Subsequently, fixed tissues were dehydrated in an ascending acetone series and embedded in epoxy resin 812 (Pre-Mix Kit 812, Agar Scientific, UK) and polymerized at 60°C overnight. Semi-thin (1 µm) survey sections were stained with 1% Toluidine blue and examined by light microscope to identify areas of interest. Ultrathin sections (70–90 nm) of the targeted areas were placed on uncoated copper grids and stained with uranyl acetate and Reynold’s lead citrate (Reynolds 1963). Grids were examined using a JEOL JEM 1400 transmission electron microscope and digital images captured using a Gatan Erlangshen ES500W camera and Gatan Digital Micrograph™ software.

2.4 Molecular diagnosis (viral and bacterial detection)

The samples collected for molecular diagnosis were washed twice in 750 µl of sterile 1× PBS to remove RNA later® and homogenized. Total nucleic acids were extracted using nanomagnetic beads, that is Genesig Easy DNA/RNA Extraction Kit (Primerdesign, Southampton, UK) and stored until further use.

2.4.1 Multiplex PCR for detection of Streptococcus spp

Nucleic acids extracted were used as a template on a multiplex PCR to confirm the presence of Streptococcus spp. that had been previously reported as fish pathogens (Zhou et al., 2011). The primers used were Streptococcus agalactiae (Delannoy et al., 2013), Streptococcus uberis (Luo et al., 2017) and Streptococcus dysgalactiae (Abdel Salam et al., 2013). Amplifications were performed in a G-Storm Thermal Cycler using the GoTaq G2 Master Mix (Promega UK), 10 µM of each primer and the PCR parameters 95°C for 5 min; 30 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 62°C for 30 s and 73°C for 60 s; and a final extension at 73°C for 8 min.

2.4.2 qPCR for detection of TiLV and Nodavirus

Nucleic acids were used for the detection of tilapia lake virus and nodavirus by quantitative PCR using the commercial kits: Path-TiLV-EASY
and Path-Betanodavirus-EASY (Primerdesign, Southampton, UK) in
the platform Genesig q16® (Primerdesign, Southampton, UK) as per
the protocols suggested by the manufacturer.

2.4.3 | Conventional PCR for detection of megalocytiviruses

The generic PCR protocol for notifiable aquatic megalocytiviruses
(red seabream iridoviral disease/infection spleen and kidney necro-
sis virus (Kurita et al., 1998; World Organisation for Animal Health
OIE, 2018)) was initially used, to screen the samples of fish collected
from visit 2 at Farm 2. For this, genomic DNA was extracted as fol-
lows: the RNA later® was removed and the tissue samples weighed.
Depending on the weight of the tissue available, the samples were
diluted in RTL buffer (Qiagen) to provide either a 1:10 w/v or a 1:5
w/v and homogenized per fish, that is all the organs of each fish into
an individual pool using Matrix A and the FastPrep apparatus (MP
Biomedicals). Following homogenization, the samples were diluted
further with RTL buffer to give a 1:60 w/v homogenate and total
nucleic acid was extracted from 300 μl of the clarified sample using
the RNA Tissue Mini Kit without DNase (Qiagen) and eluted in a 60
μl volume.

RT was performed at 37°C for 1 hr in a 20 μl volume consisting of
1 × M-MLV RT reaction buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8.3, 75 mM KCl,
10 mM DTT, 3 mM MgCl2) containing 1 mM dNTP, 100 pmol random
primers, 20 U M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega, Southampton,
UK) and 4μl of the nucleic acid extracted above.

PCR was performed in duplicate in a 50 μl reaction vol-
ume with 2.5 μl of cDNA of total nucleic acid, 25 mM dNTPs,
1x GoTaq® buffer (2.5 mM MgCl2 solution), 5 pmol of each
primer (C1105 5′-GGTTTCACTGACATCTCCGCG-3′ and C1106
5′-AGGTCGCTGCGCATGCCAATC-3′) and 1.25 units of GoTaq®
DNA polymerase (Promega). The cycling conditions were as follows:
40 temperature cycles (1 min at 95°C, 1 min at 55°C and 1 min at
72°C) after an initial denaturing step (5 min at 95°C) followed by a
final extension step of 10 min at 72°C.

Amplified products were electrophoresed in a 2% (w/v) agarose/
TAE (40 mM Tris-acetate, pH 7.2, 1 mM EDTA) gel containing 1.0 μg/ml
ethidium bromide at 120 v for 30 min and viewed under UV light.

PCR products were excised from the gel, and the DNA was
extracted and purified by ethanol precipitation. Both strands of
the PCR product were sequenced using the ABI PRISM Big Dye
Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit and the same primers used
for the amplification. The forward and reverse sequences were
aligned and a consensus sequence generated using the CLC soft-
ware (Qiagen). Generated consensus sequences were compared
with sequences from GenBank using BLASTN (Altschul et al., 1997)
and aligned using the MUSCLE application of the MEGA software
version 6 (Tamura et al., 2013).

In addition, the OIE-recommended PCR protocol for notifiable
aquatic megalocytiviruses (World Organisation for Animal Health
OIE, 2018) developed by Kurita et al. (1998) was used to screen total
nucleic acids extracted from the rest of the samples fixed for viral
molecular analyses.

In analyses from farms where clinical disease was not
observed, a second round PCR using the nested prim-
ers C1073 5′-AATGCCGTGACCTACTTTGC-3′ and C1074
5′-GATCTTAAACCCGCGACCG-3′ (15) was employed.

2.4.4 | qPCR for detection and quantification of megalocytiviruses

The amount of virus present in the samples was also investigated
by qPCR. For this, the homogenized tissues were subjected to total
nucleic acids extraction (~20 mg of each organ) using the Genesig
Easy DNA/RNA Extraction Kit (Primerdesign) as described earlier.
The extracted nucleic acids were tested using the commercial kit
Path-ISKNV-EASY (Primerdesign, Southampton, UK) in the platform
Genesig q16® (Primerdesign) as per the manufacturer’s instructions.
This detects both red sea bream iridovirus and ISKNV variants. In all
cases, fish were individually analysed either by pooling liver, spleen
and brain or by screening individual tissues.
2.4.5 | Retrospective analyses of archived samples by qPCR

A total of 16 samples of archived tissue homogenates from 5 different farms (that included Farms 1 and 2) were retrospectively screened for ISKNV by qPCR with the commercial kit Path-ISKNV-EASY as described before. From these, 7 had been collected during 2017 and the rest in March 2018 (File S2). All the samples had been previously confirmed as negative for TiLV and nodavirus using the commercial kits Path-TiLV-EASY and Path-Betanodavirus-EASY.

2.5 | Virus isolation

Frozen spleen and kidney tissue or whole fry of fish showing clinical signs taken from 2 farm sites on Lake Volta on 10 July 2019 were homogenized with sand and pestle and mortar in 1:10 w/v cell culture transport medium (L-15 plus 1% antibiotic-antimycotic solution, Gibco). Homogenate was clarified by centrifugation for 10 min at 3,000 g, inoculated at 1:100 and 1:1,000 final dilutions onto GF, BF-2 and E-11 cells in 24-well cell culture plates (Gibco) and incubated at 25°C. After 7 days, cells were blind passaged and incubated for a further 7 days. Cells were observed for cytopathic effect (CPE) by light microscopy with phase contrast (IX83 Inverted Microscope, Olympus, UK).

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Farm visits

On the first visit to Farm 2 on the 27/11/18, farm staff reported very high and ongoing mortalities (Figure 2) in fish bigger than 20 g, including broodstock, but no significant losses in fingerlings. Losses reportedly peaked at about 670 crates (equating to approximately 40 tonnes per day) shortly after this visit on the 2/12/2018 (Figure 2). Losses were so severe that accurate estimation was not possible, with more than 50 additional labourers recruited locally just to remove dead and moribund fish during the peak period. By the second visit to Farm 2, losses of on-growing fish had reportedly declined back to the background 10–20 crates per day more typically observed, that is less than 1–2 tonnes per day (Figure 2).

During the first two visits to the farms, but particularly to Farm 2, diseased fish were observed swimming away from the school with erratic swimming, that is on one side, in circles, lethargic, with no equilibrium, upside down, etc. (File S3).

Externally, the fish displayed a range of clinical signs, including skin nodules, frayed fins, loss of eyes, opaque eyes, loss of scales, exophthalmia, anorexia, decolouration or darkened skin, excess of mucous, skin haemorrhages and distended abdomen (Figure 3). At necropsy, fish from both the first visits to Farms 1 and 2 presented with marked ascites, and enlarged and haemorrhagic organs including the spleen, heart, brain and gills, but most notably liver and kidney. The gastrointestinal track was empty of solids but contained transparent fluid similar to that also seen in the peritoneal cavity.

In contrast to the earlier visits, when Farm 2 was visited on 20/02/19, there were very high and ongoing mortalities in the fry production systems (>70%). This was both in their onshore hatchery (supplied with water pumped from the main lake) where eggs were hatched and held until the fry were approximately 20 g, and in the nursery cages on the main lake to which fry had been transferred. As with the larger fish sampled, affected fry showed erratic swimming behaviour, skin haemorrhages and severe ascites as the main clinical signs (Figure 3).

3.2 | Megalocytivirus and bacterial infections in Farm 2 during period of high mortalities

Four out of the ten fish examined histologically showed mild tissue necrosis in the spleen and renal haematopoietic tissue with the

![FIGURE 3](image-url)  
External lesions and clinical signs in diseased Nile tilapia in Lake Volta. (a) On-growing fish with emaciation slight ascites (arrow), endophthalmia (left arrowhead) and skin purulent abscess (right arrowhead). (b) Broodstock with microphthalmia (left arrowhead), skin haemorrhages (middle arrowhead) and skin ulcers (right arrowhead). (c) Juvenile with exophthalmia (left arrowhead), ascites (arrow) and loss of scales, excess of mucus and haemorrhages (right arrowhead). (d) Ventral view of juvenile fish presenting severe ascites black arrow and skin haemorrhages (arrowhead). Bar = 1 cm.
presence of large numbers of cells showing relative eosinophilia cytoplasmic and nuclear pleomorphism with margination of chromatin in some affected nuclei suggestive of a viral infection diffused throughout the tissue (Figure 4).

The ultrastructure of affected cells revealed the presence of conspicuous viral particles. Some cells showed the presence of numerous diffusely spread virions within the hypertrophied nucleus of affected cells, which also showed degradation of the nuclear membrane (Figure 5). Virions were approximately 160 nm in diameter (Figure 5d). Virion morphology showing icosahedral symmetry with an external double membrane, and internal core was consistent with that of viruses from the genus *Megalocytivirus*. In other cases, the nucleus of affected cells appeared condensed and densely stained in histological and resin sections. TEM showed that in these cases the nucleus was tightly packed with virions in various stages of maturation and with some evidence of formation of ‘arrays’ (Figure 5). In two of these cases, a concomitant Gram-positive bacterial infection was also present in the gill and liver. Incidental findings of gill parasites, myxozoan cysts and monogeneans, both present in low numbers and low-grade epitheliocystis, were observed. The brain of a single fish harboured small cysts containing necrotic debris. Gram and Ziehl-Neelsen staining did not demonstrate the presence of bacteria. Other tissues appeared normal. For the set of samples collected at the height of the mortalities from Farm 2 on 28/11/18, *Aeromonas jandaei*, *Aeromonas veronii* (from skin), *Streptococcus agalactiae* capsular type 1b biotype 2 (non-haemolytic) and *Edwardsiella tarda* (from liver and kidney) were recovered.

### 3.3 | PCR and sequence confirmation of *Megalocytivirus* infection

Within the 7 individuals collected from Farm 2 on the second visit that were analysed with the protocol proposed by Rimmer et al. (2012), a single fish (Fish 1) was clearly positive by PCR for RSIV/ISKN and a second very weak product of the correct size was also seen in tissues from Fish 6 (File S4) The consensus sequence generated from the PCR product from Fish 1 was confirmed as ISKNV sharing 100% nucleotide identity with ISKNV Accession No. AF371960.1. In the phylogenetic analysis, the sequence was assigned to the same lineage as the bulk of the ISKNV sequences (Figure 6).

The samples collected from Farm 1 and Farm 2 at the height of the mortalities were found to be strongly positive when they were retrospectively tested using the (Kurita et al., 1998; World Organisation for Animal Health OIE, 2018) current OIE-recommended PCR method.
3.4 | qPCR results for megalocytivirus from on-growing tilapia samples

The qPCR results confirmed that all the fish sampled from Farm 1 in the Akuse region were positive for megalocytivirus. Also, as expected, the samples collected from the first Farm 2 visit during the peak of mortality (28/11/18) were also positive and presented the highest viral titres in grow-out fish with some containing over $3 \times 10^6$ copies per sample reaction. In contrast, the samples collected from grow-out fish during the second visit to Farm 2 had much lower viral copy numbers.

All the archived samples collected in 2017 and March 2018 were negative for ISKNV, when tested by qPCR (File S2).

3.5 | Fry samples had characteristic megalocytivirus pathology and high copy numbers of virus

All the fry samples collected from Farm 2 on 20/02/19, when there were reportedly very high (>90%) losses in that part of their system, were positive for ISKNV by qPCR, and these presented the highest titres in the study with some containing up to $1.5 \times 10^7$ copies per sample reaction (Table 1). All fry showed moderate to marked histological and pathological features of infection with megalocytivirus. Splenic tissues were necrotic and associated with the presence of megalocytes characterized by light sometimes granular cytoplasmic basophilia and hypertrophied nuclei. Kidney also showed the presence of megalocytes but usually with only mild cellular necrosis. The lamina propria in the intestine of a single fish was packed with megalocytes (Figure 4), although necrosis appeared to be absent and the epithelial layer remained intact.

Gills showed only minimal focal necrosis, usually affecting the underlying connective tissues. In some fish, the choroidal rete was affected with mild necrosis and variable numbers of megalocytes and most fish showed mild myositis with few megalocytes in the skeletal muscle. However, a single fish showed extensive inflammation and myofibrillar necrosis (Figure 4). Connective tissues of the head and in particular around the pharyngeal teeth were often infiltrated with megalocytes. Brain and spinal cord appeared normal. Liver samples were not examined as they were used for virus quantification.

3.6 | Other pathological observations

Megalocytivirus-like pathology was not observed in any of the samples taken from the second visit to Farm 2, two weeks after the peak of mortalities had passed. As with the samples taken at the first visit, there was evidence of bacterial infection in some individuals, particularly Fish 5, had marked bacterial infection of the spleen, liver and brain (meningitis). All the samples were positive for the presence of *Streptococcus agalactiae* and negative for *Streptococcus uberis* and *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* by PCR (File S5).

A range of different potential bacterial species, including *Aeromonas jandaei* and *Plesiomonas shigelloides*, were recovered from fish from Farm 1 (Table 1), but not as pure growths or high quantities, suggesting they had a limited role in observed disease in these animals.

All the samples from Farm 1 and Farm 2 tested for TiLV and from Farm 2 for nodavirus by qPCR were all negative (Table 1 and File S4).

The results for all the individual fish tested are shown in File S2.
3.7 | Follow-up testing in July 2019

A further 5 farms sampled in July 2019 were tested using nested conventional PCR (15). Fish on Farms 6 (fry) and 7 (lake on-growers) were experiencing ongoing mortality and showing typical clinical signs described above at time of sampling. All samples were strongly positive in a single round assay, and virus was isolated in cell culture from both farms. For samples from Farms 4 (fry) and 5 (lake on-growers) which both were recovering from recent mortality events, but had no remaining observable clinical disease, between 40% and 100% of samples tested positive, but these were in second round only of nested assay and in some cases only in one of duplicate reactions indicating low levels of virus. From farm 3 (all age groups) for which no mortality events had been reported, between 30% and 100% of samples were positive but all in the second round only. On sequencing, representatives from all positive farms showed identical sequence (data not shown).

3.8 | Virus isolation

Fish material from Farms 6 and 7 was inoculated onto BF-2, E-11 and GF cell lines. Cytopathic effects (CPEs) were observed in BF-2 and E-11 cells but not GFs on first inoculation (Figure 7). On passage (P1) in the same cell types, CPE was only observed for BF-2 cells and intensity of CPE was diminished. Isolated virus from clarified harvested cell culture supernatant from the P1 BF-2 cells was confirmed positive for ISKNV by PCR with sequence identical to that obtained by PCR direct from tissue homogenate (data not shown).
4 | DISCUSSION

The results suggest ISKNV had a significant role in the high mortalities experienced by the two farms that were investigated. Fish sampled from the second farm at the height of the disease outbreak showed severe clinical and pathological signs typically associated with infection by the virus (including visualization of distinctive megalocytes with characteristic virions). Both, these fish and those sampled earlier from Farm 2, had extremely high copy numbers of RSIV/ISKNV Megalocytivirus-like virions, and ISKNV was confirmed by gene sequencing. Further investigations later in 2019 of five further farms from different areas of lake Volta showed by then the disease was widely established (endemic) in farms across the lake, with both symptomatic and asymptomatic fish positive by PCR for the virus. Farmers emphasized how the disease had a devastating effect on the industry during discussions on this latter visit. They reported how the disease continued to have an impact on the broodstock and grow-out fish at a lower rate; however, the mass mortalities were now predominantly observed in juvenile fish (1–5 g in weight). Survival rates to the grow-out stage, at that time, were estimated to be as low as 5%–20%. Juvenile mortalities were reported to be episodic in nature, occurring a few days after the sex reversal process or translocation to lake cages, and lasting up to 3–4 weeks. These stress triggered mortality outbreaks may be indicative of either widespread persistence of virus in the environment or a latent ISKNV stage.

To improve survival rates, some farmers had trialled reductions in juvenile stocking densities. Large reductions in stocking density were only associated with small increases in survival, therefore, this practice was not considered a viable solution. Instead, farmers resorted to a substantial increase in the level of juvenile production and stocking rates, trading off higher overall mortality with some guarantee of a small but not inconsequential harvest. The economic impact of ISKNV has been significant. The higher production costs and reduced harvests resulted in most farms having to either temporarily or permanently halt production. As larger farms can be the primary employers of some villagers, the disease also had a direct impact on the livelihoods of local community members. It was also reported that tilapia market price had more than doubled due to the production shortages and that the feed sales of Raanan Fish Feeds (the major feed to supplier to Lake Volta farms) had reduced by 70% (https://thefishsite.com/articles/ghanaian-fish-farmers-seek-help-from-big-business), both potential indicators of the virus having an impact on a much larger scale.

The results would be consistent with a recent introduction of the virus onto one or more farms below the dam immediately prior to October 2018. The disease likely then extended upstream of the dam to other farms, resulting in the unusual, widespread and significant mortalities observed. Firstly, there were no observations of typical ISKNV-associated pathology in any previous disease investigations, on the affected or other farms. Secondly, the limited PCR screening in this study of archived samples of diseased tilapia recovered from before the major mortality event including both farms were all negative. Moreover, (Verner-Jeffreys et al., 2018) also screened for the presence of RSIV/ISKNV by PCR in 2016, including samples from the affected farms, without detecting the virus, or associated pathology.

Iridoviruses are large icosahedral cytoplasmic double-stranded DNA viruses, which can infect a wide range of hosts, including invertebrates and poikilothermic vertebrates. The family Iridoviridae includes five genera: Iridovirus, Chloriridovirus, Ranavirus, Lymphocystivirus and Megalocytivirus (Jancovich et al., 2012). Fish pathogenic iridoviruses are representatives of Ranavirus, Lymphocystivirus and Megalocytivirus genera (Subramaniam et al., 2012; Whittington et al., 2010). Infectious spleen and kidney necrosis virus (ISKNV) is a member of the genus Megalocytivirus (Jun Kurita & Nakajima, 2012) and causes disease in a range of freshwater and marine fish species (Subramaniam et al., 2012; Whittington et al., 2010). ISKNV is closely related to red sea bream iridovirus, and both viruses are listed by the OIE as notifiable pathogens (World Organisation for Animal Health OIE, 2018). Although tilapia is not listed as a susceptible species by the OIE at present (World Organisation for Animal Health OIE, 2018), recent reports from the United States (Subramaniam et al., 2016) and Thailand (Suebsing et al., 2016) suggest that it is a susceptible species likely to suffer significant mortality. The change in the known host range of virus needs to be communicated to the international community to prevent future transboundary spread through movement of infected tilapia.

It was interesting to note that many of the ISKNV-positive fish were actually co-infected with Streptococcus agalactiae and other bacterial pathogens, presenting severe bacteremia/ meningitis, as well as ISKNV-associated pathology. The high mortalities on the farms in the larger on-growing fish may well have been exacerbated by these coinfections.

Although the mortalities were initially confined to on-growing fish in cage culture systems, the later observations of very high mortalities on the affected farms, without detecting the virus, or associated pathology.
ISKNV-associated mortalities in fry, associated clinical signs and high viral copy numbers show the virus likely affects all life stages. As fry are often reared in onshore facilities below the dam and then translocated to on-growing cages on the main lake, this may have been one of the routes that disease was rapidly spread after it first emerged. Anecdotally, at the time of writing, farmers on the sites visited report that mortalities in on-growing facilities have declined, while fry production continues to be badly affected. It is possible that surviving fry have been exposed to the virus and then protected against subsequent exposure. This suggests that immunization of fry, or use of previously exposed individuals, could represent a practical disease management strategy. Vaccination as a control strategy may be used to control red sea bream iridovirus (Nakajima et al., 1999; Shimmoto et al., 2010), and there are also encouraging reports of its potential effectiveness for protection against ISKNV in mandarin fish (Dong et al., 2010). As some of these reports showed efficacy using inactivated whole cell vaccines (Dong et al., 2013), rapid development and testing of vaccines based on the direct use of the strain(s) of ISKNV circulating in Lake Volta farms (e.g. autogenous vaccines) should be possible.

Outbreaks of disease that cause significant morbidity and/or mortalities in an aquaculture operation are always a major concern. This is exacerbated when this appears to represent the incursion of a new agent into a system, or region (country or zone in a country) which has not previously been affected. A stark example of this is the epidemic of infectious salmon anaemia virus (ISAV) which reduced production by three quarters and resulted in severe economic and social crisis in the developing Chilean Atlantic salmon industry between 2007 and 2010 (Godoy et al., 2008; Mardones et al., 2014; Vike et al., 2009).

The Ghanaian authorities have for some time been concerned that the tilapia industry on Lake Volta may be affected by such disease incursions. Partly for this reason, and to safeguard the genetic integrity of Lake Volta Nile tilapia strains, they have tried to limit the culture to locally reared Nile tilapia stocks. However, genetic testing by the Ghanaian Fisheries Commission (Ziddah et al., Unpublished Observations) showed that fish on some of the farms on Lake Volta were likely of imported GIFT strain origin (Ponzoni et al., 2011) or hybrids of GIFT and indigenous strains.

If farmers have been illegally sourcing broodstock from Asia and other areas that would be an ideal method of translocating pathogens from one region to another. It should be noted though that ISKNV has also been detected in internationally traded freshwater ornamental species, theoretically posing another possible introduction route (Jung-Schroers et al., 2016).

It is very possible that this is not the first time a disease introduction has taken place in Lake Volta Ghana. The study by Verner-Jeffreys et al. (2018) showed that outbreaks of *S. agalactiae* investigated in 2016 were all caused by genetically indistinguishable isolates of ST 261, with closest genetic identity to Asian isolates. Discussions with affected farmers at the time suggested that *S. agalactiae*-associated mortalities were a relatively recent phenomenon, although the disease is now clearly endemic to all the areas in the Volta area. Other studies have shown that *S. agalactiae* ST261 has likely been translocated around the world in association with farmed tilapia (Kawasaki et al., 2018). As a single large epidemiological unit, it will be difficult to control transmission of virus between farms on Lake Volta. It is important to try to prevent spread from Lake Volta to surrounding watersheds and the wider African continent by control over movement of live fish and equipment. The development of biosecure offline hatcheries with borehole water or UV treatment of water, to facilitate production of juveniles which survive to a size they can be vaccinated, will likely be key to vaccine control. Additionally, recent technological advances in rapid selective breeding (Houston et al., 2020; Robledo et al., 2018) should be employed to develop ISKNV disease-resistant populations, or strains of tilapia to enable the industry to recover.

Although most attention to date has focussed on the emergence and spread of TiLV within the tilapia industry worldwide, these results also demonstrate that there is a range of other potential threats to the sustainability of tilapia aquaculture.

There is a clear need to strengthen domestic capability to rapidly diagnose and control emerging disease threats caused by ISKNV and other pathogens. Further work is also needed to map the distribution of the virus and its impact, including potential effects on wild fish species, and to implement practical control strategies.

5 | CONCLUSION

This is the first report of infectious spleen and kidney necrosis virus (ISKNV) in farmed tilapia in Africa. ISKNV was found in co-infection with *Streptococcus agalactiae* and other bacterial pathogens in Lake Volta, Ghana. The correlations seen between the mortality events, histopathology and viral loads in the tissues suggest that ISKNV was a major cause of mortalities during the outbreaks. In general, the results support continued efforts to improve the biosecurity of the industry in Ghana.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

The authors confirm that the ethical policies of the journal, as noted on the journal’s author guidelines page, have been adhered to. All the fish reported on in this study were sampled from affected farms by Ghana Fisheries Commission officers and private veterinarians, as part of an active disease outbreak investigation.
DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in BioRxiv https://doi.org/10.1101/680538

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Data sharing
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**SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

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