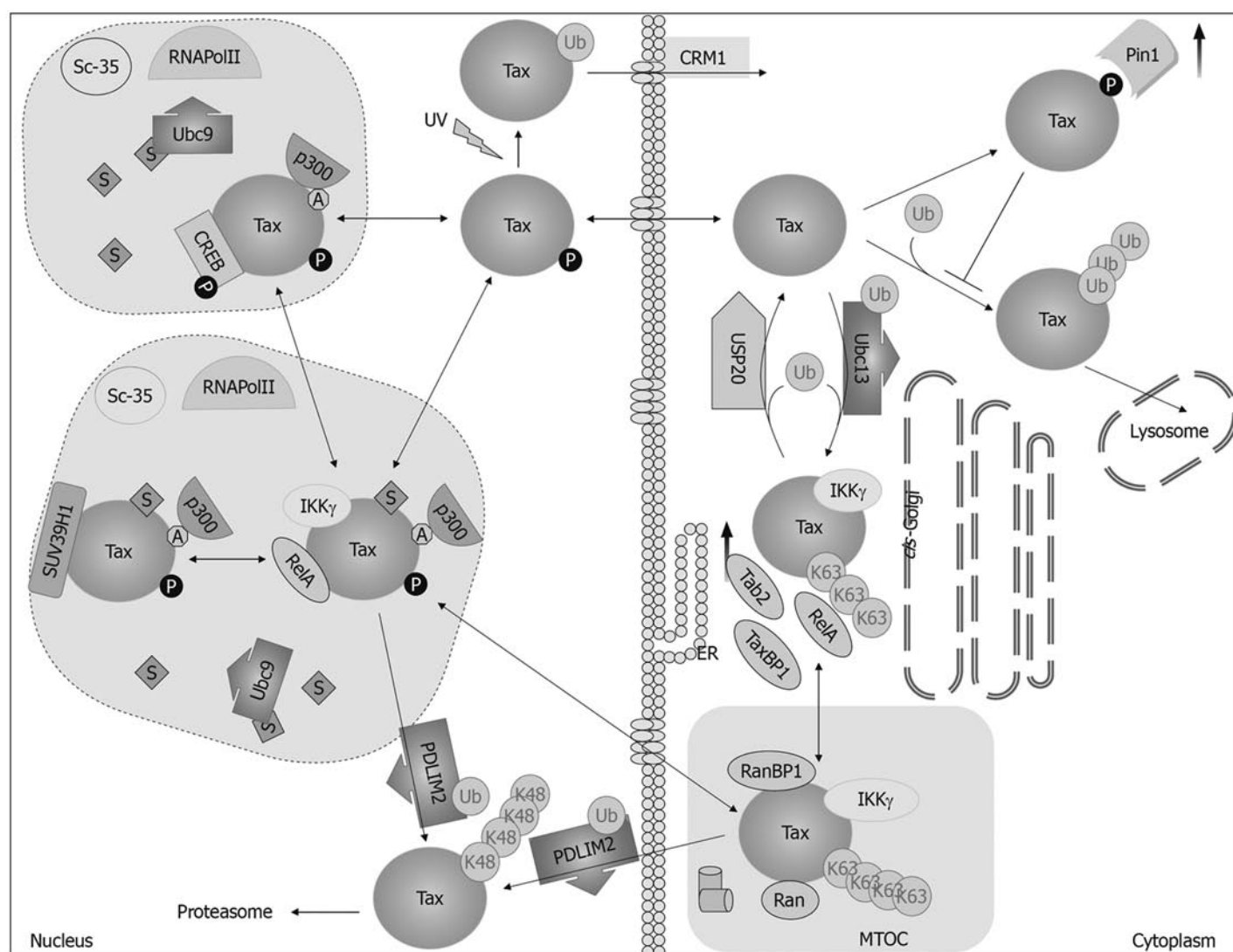


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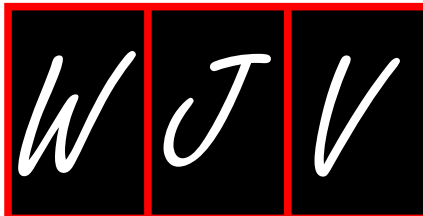
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History of polio vaccination

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Abstract

Poliomyelitis is an acute paralytic disease caused by three poliovirus (PV) serotypes. Less than 1% of PV infections result in acute flaccid paralysis. The disease was controlled using the formalin-inactivated Salk polio vaccine (IPV) and the Sabin oral polio vaccine (OPV). Global poliomyelitis eradication was proposed in 1988 by the World Health Organization to its member states. The strategic plan established the activities required for polio eradication, certification for regions, OPV cessation phase and post-OPV phase. OPV is the vaccine of choice for the poliomyelitis eradication program because it induces both a systemic and mucosal immune response. The major risks of OPV vaccination are the appearance of Vaccine-Associated Paralytic Poliomyelitis cases (VAPP) and the emergence of Vaccine Derived Polioviruses strains. The supplementary immunization with monovalent strains of OPV type 1 or type 3 or with a new bivalent oral polio vaccine bOPV (containing type 1 and type 3 PV) has been introduced in those regions where the virus has been difficult to control. Most countries have switched the schedule of vaccination by using IPV instead of OPV because it poses no risk of vaccine-related disease. Until 2008, poliomyelitis was controlled in Romania, an Eastern European country, predominantly using OPV. The alternative vaccination

schedule (IPV/OPV) was implemented starting in September 2008, while beginning in 2009, the vaccination was IPV only. The risk of VAPP will disappear worldwide with the cessation of use of OPV. The immunization for polio must be maintained for at least 5 to 10 years using IPV.

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Key words: Poliomyelitis; Formalin-inactivated polio vaccine; Oral polio vaccine

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INTRODUCTION

Poliovirus (PV), an enterovirus belonging to the Picornaviridae family is the etiological agent of poliomyelitis, an acute paralytic disease. This disease results from lower motor neuron damage and is characterized by asymmetric persisting weakness (flaccid paralysis). The transmission of this virus during ancient times was suggested after the studies on Egyptian mummies, which showed a shortening of a lower limb in a child. In 1789, in the second edition of *A Treatise on Diseases of Children*, Michael Underwood described the disease as "debility of the lower extremities in children"^[1]. He did not record any reference to outbreaks of this disease.

Badham^[2] described an acute paralysis suggestive of poliomyelitis in four children in 1835. In 1840, Heine^[3] published a monograph where poliomyelitis was recognized and defined as infantile spinal paralysis. Duchenne in 1855, then Charcot *et al*^[4] in 1870, located the atrophy in the anterior horns of the spinal grey matter. This find-

ing gave rise to the pathological term “poliomyelitis” from the Greek *polios* for “gray” and *myelos* for “spinal cord”. In 1875, Erb introduced the term “acute anterior poliomyelitis”. Medin first reported the epidemic form of this disease in 1890, after an epidemic of 44 cases in Stockholm in the summer of 1887. He recognized a systemic phase of the disease which often failed to progress to neurological paresis and developed the classification of that. Wickman introduced, in 1907, the eponym “Heine-Medin disease” to honor Medin’s contributions. Putnam *et al*^[5] recorded the earliest descriptions of epidemic poliomyelitis using basic epidemiological methods in 1893, by Caverly^[6] in 1894 in the United States and by Wickman in 1905 in Sweden. By the epidemiological studies conducted between 1910 and 1912 during epidemics in the United States, Frost found a widespread exposure to poliomyelitis but a low incidence of clinical disease to those susceptible to infection. During the epidemic in the north eastern United States in 1916, the role of asymptomatic persons in the spreading of infection was recorded by the Public Health Service. This epidemic caused widespread panic; over 27 000 persons were reported to have been paralyzed, with 6000 deaths.

The polio outbreaks gradually became more severe, more frequent and widespread throughout Europe and the United States at the beginning of the 20th century. The epidemiology of PV was gradually understood. The model of polio spread was irregular and many patients had no direct contact with a known source. In 1905, Wickman first recognized that poliomyelitis was an infectious disease. Landsteiner and Popper demonstrated in 1909 that the etiological agent of poliomyelitis was a filterable virus. They transmitted the disease to a Cynocephalus monkey by intraperitoneal injection of neural tissue from a human fatal case. In 1910, Flexner supposed that the PV was strictly neurotropic. He thought that PV entered the human body via respiration^[7], a hypothesis that was later disproved. Howe and Bodian considered the possibility of the oral alimentary route of polio infection during the 1930^[8]. In the late 1930s, Armstrong produced experimental poliomyelitis in mice. It was an advantage for the study of PV and for the development of a neutralization test in order to measure the antibodies. The assumption that there is more than one type of PV was launched by Burnet and Macnamara in 1931 and confirmed by Paul and Trask by observation in monkey experiments. The three distinct types were identified by a prototype strain, Brunhilde (type I), Lansing (type II) and Leon (type III)^[9]. The concept of poliomyelitis as an enteric infection had begun in 1932, when Paul and Trask found the virus in feces and recovered virus over a period of weeks from patients and healthy contacts. In 1936, Sabin and Olitsky reported that PV could be successfully grown *in vitro* in human embryonic neuronal tissue fragments cultivated in glass vessels. By sewage water testing in New York during periods when paralytic polio was prevalent, a ratio of 100 subclinical infections for every paralytic case was estimated^[10]. In the 1950s, it

was established that PV could be isolated from flies collected during epidemics. By the studies in the laboratory with flies emerging from maggots, no evidence of virus multiplication was recorded^[11]. In 1949, Enders, Weller and Robbins successfully cultured the Lansing strain in nonneuronal tissue culture, leading to the capacity to produce the virus safely and in sufficient quantity, thus opening the way for production of viral vaccines. The serological studies about serum antibodies against PVs in underdeveloped countries showed that once exposed and infected, even asymptomatic persons were immunized for life. In developed countries, children living in crowded areas acquired infection at an earlier age than children from higher socioeconomic levels. By 1952, serological studies established that the antibodies against PV were present in the patient shortly after the onset of the disease and increased during convalescence. In 1952, a field trial conducted by Hammon showed that passive immunization by γ globulin administration assured protection against disease for only about 2 to 5 wk. Summer transmission of infection was associated with increased quantities of PV in sewage water. Two phases of disease, the gastrointestinal infection followed by viremia, and CNS invasion were confirmed by laboratory studies.

DEVELOPMENT OF PV VACCINES

In 1935, Brodie tried an inactivated vaccine with 10% formalin suspension of PV taken from infected monkey spinal cord; he tried it first on 20 monkeys, then on 3000 Californian children. The results were poor and additional human studies were never performed. In the same year, Kollmer tried a live attenuated virus consisting of a 4% suspension of PV from infected monkey spinal cord, treated with sodium ricinoleate. He used it on monkeys and then on several thousand children. The acute paralysis occurred in about 1/1000 vaccines shortly after administration and some cases were fatal.

The discovery that the various antigenic strains of PVs could be grouped into three distinct viral types and the propagation of the PV *in vitro* led to the development of the vaccines against poliomyelitis: the formalin-inactivated vaccine (IPV) by Jonas Salk (1953) and the live-attenuated vaccines (OPV) by Albert Sabin (1956)^[12].

IPV

The first inactivated polio vaccine (IPV) was produced by Salk using virus grown on monkey kidney cells and inactivated with formalin. In 1954, the inactivated vaccine was tested in a placebo-controlled trial, which enrolled 1.6 million children in Canada, Finland and the United States^[13]. In April 1955, Salk’s vaccine was adopted throughout the United States. The incidence of paralytic poliomyelitis in the United States decreased from 13.9 cases per 100 000 in 1954 to 0.8 cases per 100 000 in 1961^[14]. Some disadvantages of the Salk vaccine in that time were the decrease of the titres of the circulating an-

tibody within a few years of vaccination, the further circulation of wild PV and its implications in outbreaks, and the large number of monkeys (about 1500) needed to be sacrificed to produce every 1 million inactivated doses. The strains of virus used in the vaccine were Mahoney (type 1), MEF-I (type 2) and Saukett (type 3). Shortly after the licensing of Salk vaccine, the failure of inactivation of vaccine virus at Cutter Laboratories, Berkeley, was followed by 260 cases of poliomyelitis with PV type 1 and 10 deaths. The supposition was that the virus was resistant to inactivation by formaldehyde because it contained more foreign proteins than optimal or that the virus may have clumped. A second filtration step was introduced in the production process in order to remove aggregates that may have developed during treatment and safety tests were improved. The use of the highly virulent Mahoney strain in vaccine production has been controversial and after the Cutter incident, even more so. In Sweden, the Brunenders strain for type 1 was preferred. In 1980, concentration and purification of polio antigens were introduced into the manufacture of IPV and the immunogenicity of the vaccine was increased. The original IPV contained 20, 2 and 4 D antigen units of PV types 1, 2 and 3. Van Wezel introduced a technology to produce enhanced potency IPV. He decided to concentrate and purify the virus before treatment with formalin. Since this procedure has been introduced, no failure in the inactivation process has been recorded. By the introduction of a new culture technique using cells on microcarrier beads in suspensions cultured in large stainless steel tanks, a more potent IPV containing 40, 8 and 32 D antigen units of types 1, 2 and 3 was produced^[15,16]. Trials with this enhanced IPV (eIPV) showed greater than 90% seropositivity against all 3 PV types after one dose and 100% seropositivity after two doses^[17]. An enhanced-potency IPV was licensed in the United States in 1987, with a good response to types 1 and 3 for either a 4 or 8 wk interval between doses and after 8 wk to type 2. The recommended schedule of vaccination in different countries contains 4 IPV doses in the primary series received at 2, 4, 6 and 15-18 mo of age^[18] and a booster dose at age 4-6 years. For an optimum booster response, a minimum interval of at least 6 mo is needed between dose 4 and 5. In IPV vaccines, pharyngeal infection by PV is inhibited and intestinal excretion is reduced.

OPV

The development of the attenuated PV vaccine starts with passages of PV strains in rats and mice followed by passages in the cell culture. The reduction of the virulence of the PV strains was recorded in 1946 by Theiler, who passaged the Lansing strain in rats and mice more than 50 times and by Enders, Weller and Robins, who passaged the same strain in cell culture.

Candidate strains of attenuated PV suitable for immunizing humans were developed independently in the United States by Koprowski (Wistar Institute, Philadel-

phia), Cox (Lederle Laboratories) and Sabin (the Children's Hospital Research Foundation).

In 1950, Koprowski began experiments with a rodent-adapted type 2 PV that had been fed to a small group in California. He, Cox and their associates had fed millions throughout the world with the three types of viruses^[19]. The isolation of PV with the properties of the Cox strain from the brain tissue of the dead father of a vaccinated child was followed by the withdrawal of this strain^[20].

In 1960, Sabin described, in an article published in *JAMA*, *Live, orally given poliovirus vaccine*^[21], the results obtained with his newly developed trivalent oral vaccine to 26 033 children from a city of 100 000 people in South America. Because the strains developed by Sabin provided good antibody levels and were less neurotropic for monkeys, they were selected and licensed between 1961 and 1963 in the United States for widespread application. The first nationwide polio vaccination campaign was in Cuba, in 1962^[22]. During a meeting in 1956 between Sabin and Chumakov, Sabin provided his experimental results and his strains of polio vaccine to Chumakov, who began to produce it for use in his country. A few million children from Estonia and Lithuania (part of the Soviet Union at that time) received this vaccine by 1959 and it was a success story that contributed to the recommendation for license of the three monovalent strains developed by Sabin^[23].

Sabin's OPV consists of three live attenuated Sabin poliovirus strains, obtained by sequential *in vitro* and *in vivo* passages of the wild strains. The virulent strains P1/Mahoney/41, P2/P712/56 and P3/Leon/37 served as a source for the attenuated Sabin strains: P1/Lsc,2ab, P2/P712,Ch,2ab and P3/Leon,12ab.

At the beginning, the trivalent OPV contained the three PV types in equal proportions but lower seroconversion rates to types 1 and 3 were recorded. By using a balanced formulation of trivalent OPV which contained 10^6 , 10^5 and $10^{5.5}$ TCID₅₀ (50% tissue culture infective dose) of Sabin types 1, 2 and 3, the neutralizing antibodies against all three PV types were detected in almost all persons. Increasing the amount of type 3 virus in the trivalent vaccine improved the immunogenicity^[24] and the Expanded Program on Immunization Global Advisory Group recommended a formulation of trivalent OPV which contained 10^6 , 10^5 , $10^{5.8}$ TCID₅₀ of Sabin types 1, 2 and 3 per dose^[25]. The OPV vaccine was easier to administrate and had a herd effect, inducing long-lasting protective systemic, humoral and cellular immunity as well as local mucosal resistance to PV infection. In 1972, Sabin donated his vaccine strains of PV to the World Health Organization (WHO), increasing the availability of this vaccine to developing countries. From 1977 to 1995, the percentage of all children in the world who received the required three doses of OPV in the first years of life increased from 5% to 80%.

The major risks of OPV vaccination are the appearance of Vaccine-Associated Paralytic Poliomyelitis cases (VAPP) and the emergence of Vaccine Derived Polio-

viruses strains (VDPV), the OPV strains having more than 1% nucleotide divergence from the original vaccine strains in the VP1 coding region of the genome. The appearance of VAPP cases is due to the reversion to neurovirulence of the vaccine strains. During replication in intestine, the OPV strains can undergo genetic variation by point mutations at an average frequency of 10^{-4} due to RNA polymerase or through natural recombination. The incidence of VAPP for immunocompetent children receiving their first dose of OPV was estimated at one case per 750 000 doses and one case per 6.9 million subsequent doses^[26]. Type 3 was the most common isolate associated with paralysis in vaccine recipients and type 2 was associated with paralysis mostly among contacts of cases. The VDPV strains could be circulant (cVDPV, which can spread in populations with low level of vaccine coverage), could emerge after replication in immunodeficient persons exposed to OPV (iVDPV), or could be ambiguous VDPV (aVDPV, when they are isolated from immunocompetent persons or the environmental source has not been identified). One dose of OPV produces immunity against all three PV serotypes in approximately 50% of recipients; three doses produce immunity in more than 95% of recipients.

MIXED IPV AND OPV

To eliminate the risk of VAPP among OPV vaccine recipients, the sequential schedule IPV/OPV was used in the world. However, the preimmunization of infants with two doses of IPV at 2 and 4 mo followed by two doses of OPV delivered at 18 mo and at 4 to 6 years did not eliminate the risk of VAPP among contacts of vaccines.

POLIO VACCINATION IN ROMANIA

In Romania, an Eastern European country, between 1927 and 1960 the evolution of poliomyelitis was sporadic and epidemic. The incidence of paralytic poliomyelitis in Romania decreased from 10 cases per 100 000 in 1949 to 0.1 cases per 100 000 by the mid 1980s by using inactivated PV vaccine in 1957 and oral PV vaccine in 1961. Polio vaccination started in 1957, with Lepine vaccine manufactured by the Pasteur Institute of Paris, but did not include the whole infant population (or even the entire contingent of children born in that year) and was followed in 1959 by IPV produced in USSR, with which all babies were vaccinated (two doses at a 2 mo interval). The success of the use of OPV, which determined the elimination of polio epidemics in many countries, led to the decision to use this new type of polio vaccine in Romania. First, the vaccine was bought from USSR and the entire Romanian population under the age of 30 years received this vaccine between 1961 and 1962. Cantacuzino Institute of Bucharest began the production of OPV in 1962, first using the vaccine seed virus received from the Poliomyelitis Research Institute in Moscow and later (since 1967),

the vaccine seed virus was received directly from Sabin. Between 1961 and 1963, infants received a first dose of IPV and then OPV. Beginning in 1964, the trivalent oral vaccine stabilized with magnesium chloride prepared by the Cantacuzino Institute was used for widespread immunization in Romania. The administration of oral polio vaccine took place in annual national campaigns from 1961-1978. A few years after OPV was widely used, the incidence of paralytic poliomyelitis declined dramatically but VAPP cases began to appear. In 1974, the WHO approved the Cantacuzino Institute as an OPV production facility. Since 1970, Romania has participated for over 15 years with 11 other states on a WHO collaborative study on the risk of VAPP cases and the risk was the highest in this country. The health authorities from Romania decided in 1978 to stop the use of existing vaccine stocks (prepared with WHO seed viruses received in 1974) and to use a new WHO-B virus seed (Behring). This seed virus was to be available in summer 1978 but due to problems with preparation and especially control of seed, WHO-B viruses were distributed by the WHO only beginning at the end of 1979. Due to this problem, between July 1978 and March 1980, vaccination was only with monovalent OPV type 1 with a single dose administered to children aged 6 wk. During this period, no case of paralytic poliomyelitis was recorded in Romania. The vaccination was resumed with existing vaccine stocks in April-June. The effects of this 2-year disruption were epidemics which occurred during 1980-1982, caused by wild PV type 1 (161 cases) and type 2 (15 cases). The epidemic disappeared in the third quarter of 1982. The spreading of the wild PVs was stopped by an immunization campaign with trivalent OPV (TOPV). The poliomyelitis epidemic in Romania from 1980-1982 allowed an important conclusion: the interruption of TOPV vaccination for 2 years was sufficient to build a contingent of children highly susceptible to infection with PV, allowing re-implantation of wild PVs and their active movements, followed by the emergence of a polio epidemic. In 1983, vaccination campaigns were introduced in spring and fall. The vaccination schedule was designed so that each child should receive 4 doses TOPV in the first 10 years of life; first dose between 2 and 7 mo, second dose between 4 and 9 mo, third dose between 10-15 mo and a booster at 9 years of life. The vaccination coverage with three doses of TOPV at age 2 years was more than 90%. From 1983 to May 1990, no cases of paralytic poliomyelitis caused by wild PV were recorded. The latest outbreak of wild type 1 PV occurred between November 1990 and April 1992. The outbreak involved children from a gypsy community who were unvaccinated or inadequately vaccinated. Four of 13 wild PV cases were infected with HIV^[27]. All cases of paralytic polio that occurred in Romania from 1984-1992 occurred in children younger than 5 years, which demonstrated that immunity to the three serotypes of PV was almost 100% for children older than 5 and adults.

The oral PV vaccine administered in Romania until September 1990 was produced by the Cantacuzino Insti-

tute. Because of a high rate of vaccine associated paralytic poliomyelitis reported from 1970-1984, beginning in November 1990, an oral vaccine approved by the WHO was imported and replaced the Romanian produced vaccine^[28]. However, a case-control study demonstrated that the cause of elevated risk of vaccine associated paralytic poliomyelitis in Romania was not the PV vaccine manufacturer but the administration of multiple intramuscular injections of antibiotics within 30 d of receipt of OPV, which increased the risk of paralysis by a factor of 2 to 10 fold^[29]. A decrease of the risk of VAPP was obtained by a reduction of parenteral treatment in recipients of OPV and by the change of the administration schedule of oral polio vaccine from 2 campaigns of two rounds, to throughout the year vaccination since April 1995. From 1992-1994, a project of the Ministry of Health supported by the Marcel Merieux Foundation demonstrated the feasibility, safety and high immunogenicity of sequential use of enhanced-potency IPV followed by OPV in 1 of the 41 counties in Romania^[30]. Until 2008, poliomyelitis was controlled in Romania by predominantly using OPV administered at 2, 4, 6, 12 mo and a booster at 9 years of life; the alternative vaccination schedule (IPV/OPV) was implemented starting in September 2008 and at the beginning of 2009, vaccination with IPV only was decided^[31]. The reported vaccination coverage with 4 doses of TOPV in the first 14 mo of life has been more than 90% since 1980. The risk of VAPP decreased from less than 2 VAPP cases per year in 1995-2006, to 0 VAPP cases since 2007^[32]. In 2002, 1 mo after Certification of European region as polio free, a type 1 PV strain, aVDPV recombinant Sabin1/Sabin2/Sabin1 was isolated from a VAPP case not vaccinated against poliomyelitis and from 8 healthy contacts considered to be at risk^[33]. In 2008, we studied the circulation and the biodiversity of enteroviruses in a group of children from a minority population with low anti-polio vaccination coverage from the same area where in 2002 a VDPV strain was isolated. Evidence of inter-human circulation of Sabin strains was found^[34] but no VDPV strain was isolated. The surveillance of at risk populations from at risk areas and maintenance of complete vaccine coverage in the population are important objectives in the framework of global polio eradication.

CONCLUSION

With the development and use of vaccines, the complete eradication of poliomyelitis became an objective. In 1988, the WHO proposed the worldwide poliomyelitis eradication to its member states. The Global Polio Eradication Initiative (GPEI) Strategic Plan established the activities required for polio eradication, certification for regions, OPV cessation phase and post-OPV phase. At the beginning, this plan was based on maintaining of a high vaccination coverage (> 80%) among children, the application of supplementary vaccine doses during national vaccination days (NVD), mopping up vaccination and implementing effective PV infection surveil-

lance systems and containment activities. The presence of susceptible subgroups with gaps in immunization favors the introduction of wild PV strains in a vaccinated population. The OPV strains have become the main instrument for the wild-type PV eradication program because it induces both a systemic and mucosal immune response. Most countries have switched the schedule of vaccination against polio by using IPV instead of OPV. The advantage of using IPV is that it poses no risk of vaccine-related disease. The disadvantages for the global introduction of IPV are its cost, the intramuscular administration, its inability to produce optimal intestinal immunity and the biocontainment required for its production. In 2011, 23 years after the decision of the WHO to globally eradicate poliomyelitis, the wild PV (type 1 and 3) is still endemic in only four countries: Afghanistan, India, Nigeria and Pakistan. The type 2 wild PV strain has been eradicated globally since 1999, while a type 2 circulating vaccine-derived PV (cVDPV) has persisted in northern Nigeria since 2006^[35]. A plan for the cessation of routine OPV immunization against type 2 PVs must be devised^[36]. In those regions where the virus has been difficult to control, supplementary immunization with monovalent strains of OPV type 1^[37] or type 3^[38], or with new bivalent oral polio vaccine bOPV (containing type 1 and type 3 PV) has been introduced^[39]. In 2008, the GPEI plan was updated in order to overcome barriers to interruption of wild PV transmission. The objectives for 2010-2012 are: interrupting wild PV transmission in Asia and Africa; enhancing PV surveillance and outbreak response; and strengthening immunization systems. In 2010, an outbreak of wild PV type 1 cases genetically related to wild PV circulating in 2009 in India was recorded in Tajikistan, part of the WHO European Region certified polio-free in 2002^[40]. This episode demonstrated that if a region is polio free, the risk of wild PV importation from endemic regions remains present until polio is globally eradicated. Because most VDPV strains implicated in poliomyelitis outbreaks worldwide are recombinants between OPV strains and non polio enterovirus strains of Human enterovirus species C^[41], increasing the surveillance of co-circulation and evolution of polio and non-polio enteroviruses must be achieved. The risk of VAPP will disappear with the cessation of use of OPV. Some research programs are initiated by WHO for obtaining an affordable IPV by reduction of the necessary antigen dose by intradermal administration^[42,43], by using adjuvants^[44] and by introduction of Sabin strains as seed^[45,46]. In the first 5 to 10 years after global cessation of OPV administration, the maintenance of immunity to polio by IPV use must be assured^[47].

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Human T-lymphotropic virus proteins and post-translational modification pathways

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Abstract

Cell life from the cell cycle to the signaling transduction and response to stimuli is finely tuned by protein post-translational modifications (PTMs). PTMs alter the conformation, the stability, the localization, and hence the pattern of interactions of the targeted protein. Cell pathways involve the activation of enzymes, like kinases, ligases and transferases, that, once activated, act on many proteins simultaneously, altering the state of the cell and triggering the processes they are involved in. Viruses enter a balanced system and hijack the cell, exploiting the potential of PTMs either to activate viral encoded proteins or to alter cellular pathways, with the ultimate consequence to perpetuate through their replication. Human T-lymphotropic virus type 1 (HTLV-1) is known to be highly oncogenic and associates with adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma, HTLV-1-associated myelopathy/tropical spastic paraparesis and other inflammatory pathological conditions. HTLV-1 protein activity is controlled by PTMs and, in turn, viral activity is associated with the modulation of cellular pathways based on PTMs. More knowledge is acquired about the PTMs involved in the activation of its proteins, like Tax, Rex, p12, p13, p30, HTLV-I basic leucine zipper factor

and Gag. However, more has to be understood at the biochemical level in order to counteract the associated fatal outcomes. This review will focus on known PTMs that directly modify HTLV-1 components and on enzymes whose activity is modulated by viral proteins.

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Key words: Human T-Lymphotropic virus; Tax; Rev; p12; p13; Gag; Post-translational modification

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INTRODUCTION

Infection by human T-lymphotropic virus type 1 (HTLV-1) can cause a fatal hematopoietic malignancy (adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma, ATLL) and a debilitating neurological disorder (HTLV-1-associated myelopathy/tropical spastic paraparesis, HAM/TSP).

Post-translational modifications (PTMs), like phosphorylation^[1,2], ubiquitination^[2,3], SUMOylation^[4] and others^[5], determine the fate of many cellular proteins altering their conformation (charge or hindrance), subcellular localization^[6,7], and cell-cycle-related function^[8]. PTMs control also gene and viral expression. Such epigenetic control is governed by PTMs on histones, devoted to the organization of chromatin together with the ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complexes. In particular, LTR silencing is a mechanism used by cells to repress viral transcription. Histone deacetylation and methylation enforce the promoter silencing condensing the chromatin^[9].

Recently, Matsuoka and collaborators^[10] found that 68 % of fresh ATLL cell lines contained methylated HTLV-1 LTR and 14 % had fully methylated LTR, suggesting a correlation between the development of leukemia, the reduction of Tax expression and genetic (*tax* gene mutations) and epigenetic (LTR histone deacetylation and methylation) modifications. This evidence is coherent with the over-expression of methyltransferase SUV39H1, which silences HTLV-1 LTR, in transformed and latently infected cell lines^[11].

In HTLV-1 infected cells the proviral LTR binds Tax, cyclic AMP response element binding protein (CREB), CREB-2, activating transcription factor (ATF)-1, ATF-2, c-Fos, c-Jun (transcription factors), CREB-binding protein (CBP), the histone acetyl transferase (HAT) p300 (both co-activators) and histone deacetylases (HDACs)^[12]. The presence of HATs at the viral LTR coincides with histone (H3 and H4) acetylations at three regions within the proviral genome^[12]. Viral transcription is subsequent to p300/Tax binding and following p300-dependent histone acetylation on their N-terminal tails^[13,14]. Unexpectedly, the use of a HDAC inhibitor, the depsipeptide, in a murine ATLL model inhibits the tumor growth^[15]. Also the chromatin remodeler Brahma-related gene 1 is required for Tax transactivation and acts with the PBAF complex for the nucleosome remodeling^[16], where the subunit Baf53, suppressor of transcription, may be phosphorylated and hence displaced from the LTR, activating the transcription (as proposed by Kashanchi F. and collaborators^[17]).

In addition to the epigenetic control of viral transcription, PTMs regulate viral protein functions by modifying their subcellular localization, stability, and network of interactions^[18-20]. Furthermore, viral proteins recruit and alter the function of enzymes responsible for PTMs, like for example ubiquitin ligases and kinases^[21-23], altering cellular pathways controlled by PTMs. Gathering all HTLV-1-related reports in a review become more important now, in the light of the growing interest of the scientific community in the field (15th International Conference on Human Retrovirology, HTLV and Related Viruses, Leuven, Belgium, 2011^[17]).

HTLV-1 encodes structural and enzymatic viral gene products, the positive regulatory proteins Tax and Rex along with viral accessory proteins such as p12, p13 and p30^[24-27]. In addition the virus encodes the HTLV-I basic leucine zipper factor (HBZ) protein within the minus strand^[28,29]. These proteins are subjected to PTMs, as any component of the cellular environment, with crosstalk between different PTMs in the same protein^[2]. Here, a compendium of the known viral protein PTMs, relevant to the viral function, is presented together with the set of known PTMs directly activated or inhibited by HTLV-1 components. Effects not obviously attributable to single viral proteins are described first.

HTLV-1 INFECTION PROMOTES PTMS

Cerebrospinal fluid in HAM/TSP

The only documented PTM difference in the cerebrospi-

nal fluid between asymptomatic carriers and HAM/TSP patients is enhanced Tau-protein phosphorylation (Tau is an abundant CNS molecule involved in stabilizing microtubules) and an increase in axonal ubiquitination^[30]. Valenzuela and collaborators recently found that cyclin-dependent kinase (Cdk)5 prevents Tau hyper-phosphorylation caused by HTLV-1-infected cell secretions^[31], but further studies are needed to understand the relevance of those modifications.

Heat shock protein 90, Akt signaling and Lyn

Heat shock protein 90 (Hsp-90), a molecular chaperone, is overexpressed in HTLV-1-infected cells and primary ATLL cells^[32] and is hypothesized to be involved in the stabilization of viral proteins. Interestingly, Hsp-90 inhibition, in ATLL cells, induces cell death and promotes de-phosphorylation and inactivation of Akt with subsequent GSK3 activation, which phosphorylates β -catenin for ubiquitination^[33]. In turn, ubiquitinated β -catenin is targeted for degradation, probably by β -transducin repeat-containing protein (β -TrCP)^[34]. Otherwise, β -catenin enters to the nucleus and forms with T-cell transcription factor an active complex on target genes, such as *c-Myc* and *c-Jun*^[35], inducing cell proliferation (Figure 1A).

Collectively these results suggest an involvement of Hsp-90 overexpression in maintaining activation of Akt signaling, hence promoting cell survival^[35]. Interestingly, within the setting of B-cell lymphocytic leukemia (BCLL), Hsp-90 stabilizes and activates constitutively Lyn^[36], a member of the Src family kinases (SFK) downstream the T cell receptor (TCR) pathway and upstream Akt pathway. Active Lyn appears to determine the activation of Janus family tyrosine kinase 3 (Jak-3) and signal transducer and activator of transcription 5 (Stat-5)^[37], important during HTLV-1 infection (see relevant section below). The disruption of the complex containing activated Lyn and Hsp-90 revealed to be a potential pharmacological target for BCLL therapy^[36]. This notion could be transposed in the setting of ATLL, considered that Lyn replaces Lck in HTLV-1 infected T cells^[37]. It will be of great interest for therapy, to corroborate experimentally the hypothesis that Hsp-90 and Lyn synergically cooperate at the onset of ATLL to promote T cell activation and proliferation.

TCR signaling

TCR pathway promotes T cell proliferation. Upon TCR engagement, Lck and Fyn phosphorylate immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motifs, which act as docking sites for Syk-family kinases, primarily ZAP-70 in T cells. Activated ZAP-70 can in turn phosphorylate the linker for activation of T cells (LAT), thus triggering a number of cascades, culminating in T-cell activation^[38].

The signal transduction is not efficient in HTLV-1-infected cells for the progressive decrease in CD3 expression^[39]. While CD3 is reduced, the TCR pathway is not inactivated. Recently, authors provided evidences that, in HTLV-1-infected cells, a switch occurs between Lck and Lyn expression, effector typically expressed in B cells^[37,40]. Furthermore, FynB and Syk, poorly represented in T

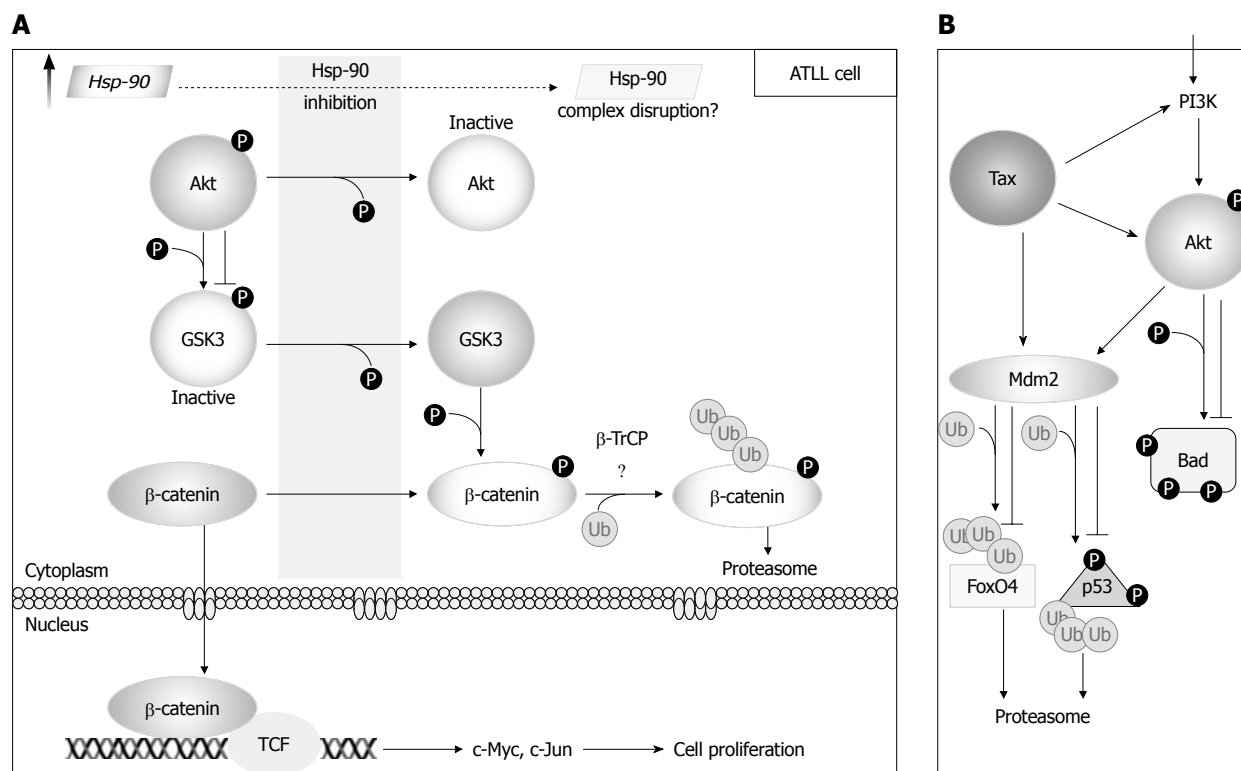


Figure 1 Diagrams representing Akt signaling alterations in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells under treatment with heat shock protein 90 inhibitors (panel A) and Tax contribution on Akt signaling (panel B). A: In adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATLL) cells, geldanamycin-derivates inhibition of heat shock protein 90 (Hsp-90) promotes Akt inactivation and hence GSK3 activation for β-catenin degradation, and cell death; B: Activation of Jak/Stat or T cell receptor signaling or Tax expression promote phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K) activation, Akt activation and Mdm2 activation with subsequent inactivation of Bad and degradation of forkhead box O4 (FoxO4) and p53. Question marks represent hypothesis; P: Phosphorylation; Ub: Ubiquitin; thick head arrows represent activation, thin head arrows represent enzymatic reactions; dashed arrow, inhibition; protein overexpression in infected cells is represented by bold arrow.

cells, are overexpressed, where ZAP-70 is absent^[41]. It is still unclear why the T cell is prompted to express effectors present in B cells, namely Lyn, FynB and Syk, but, intriguingly, it suggests a possible parallelism between ATLL and BCLL.

Downstream ZAP-70/Syk and LAT, activated Ras triggers many Ser/Thr kinases, including ERK, JNK and MAPKp38^[42], members of the mitogen-activated protein kinase family (MAPK). MAPK are activated in response to DNA damage^[43] and decide the fate of the cell, promoting either repair of the damage or, if the damage is too severe to be repaired, apoptosis. Yamaoka and collaborators recently showed that protein geranylgeranylation is responsible for ATLL cells viability^[44]. This contribution of the geranylgeranylation to the ATLL cell survival could be correlated with PTM geranylgeranylation of Ras, a necessary step for its translocation to the plasma membrane, where it is functionally active^[45]. In Tax-expressing cells, Tax modulates and increases the phosphorylation (activation) of Ras and ERK kinases, thus facilitating cell proliferation^[46]. In this context, Tax protects from apoptosis cooperating with Ras in activating ERK signaling^[47]. Furthermore, Tax physically interacts, through its PDZ binding motif, and blocks the function of Erbin, negative regulator of the Ras-Raf-ERK pathway, enhancing the cell proliferation and the protection from apoptosis^[48].

Collectively, these results indicate that during HTLV-1

infection TCR response to stimuli is hampered and, at the same time, downstream effectors not belonging to T cells are upregulated, promoting constitutive activation of T cells. Interestingly, p12, p13, p30 and Tax possess putative SH3 binding motifs, whose possible interaction with SFK is not fully explored. Further studies on viral TCR perturbation could guarantee access to new therapeutic approaches.

Jak/Stat

Jak/Stat activation appears to be associated with the replication of primary ATLL cells^[49]. In particular, it has been previously shown in patients that more than 65% of T cells possess constitutive DNA-binding activity of one or more Stat proteins and this activity seems to persist over time^[49].

Interleukin (IL)-2 stimuli rapidly induce tyrosine phosphorylation of intracellular substrates, including its receptor IL-2Rβ, Jak-1 and -3 and Stat elements^[50]. HTLV-1-immortalized cell lines often exhibit constitutive Jak/Stat phosphorylation and activation^[51], differently from HTLV-2-infected cells^[52]. In T cells immortalized with a molecular clone of HTLV-1, the Jak/Stat signaling during IL-2 stimulation seems to promote HTLV-1 transmission^[53].

Interestingly, in a rabbit HTLV-1-infected cell line, bearing truncated forms of p13 and p30 (RH/K34, see

relevant section below), the Jak kinase Tyk2 and Stat3 are constitutively phosphorylated and activated^[54]. Surprisingly, in other cell lines, HTLV-1-infected 293T and HeLa cells, phosphorylation and activation of Tyk2 and of Stat2 are reduced, for the reduction of the IFN α signal transduction^[55]. In human T cells, inhibition of Jak2/Jak3 does not seem to block the proliferation of HTLV-1-transformed and IL-2-independent cells, Hut102B2 and MT-2^[56], since the Jak/Stat pathway seems functionally redundant for proliferation. In contrast with that finding, Waldmann and collaborators recently demonstrated that CP-690,550, a specific inhibitor of Jak3, suppresses proliferation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from ATLL and HAM/TSP patients, promoting the drug as an effective therapeutic agent in patients whose cells require Jak3/Stat5 stimulation by γ c cytokines (IL-2, IL-9, and IL-15) to proliferate^[57].

In turn, the suppressor of cytokine signaling (SOCS), inhibitor of Jak/Stat signaling, is upregulated in HTLV-1⁺ CD4⁺ T cells from HAM/TSP and asymptomatic carriers, and correlates with viral replication^[58]. In particular, SOCS-1 inhibits IFN expression and IFN-stimulated gene expression^[58]. SOCS adaptors are bound to cullin-2 and -5 through elongin C and elongin B proteins to constitute ubiquitin ligase complexes^[59]. At the 15th International Conference, Harhaj E. W. and collaborators showed that, in the presence of Tax, the expression and the stability of SOCS-1 are highly increased^[17]. The independence from cytokines in infected cells could be associated to the inhibition of the upstream effectors through a mechanism requiring ubiquitination that should be further investigated.

Cell cycle

The cell cycle is controlled by a cyclic series of activation and repression through phosphorylation cascades and is profoundly altered during HTLV-1 infection^[60]. HTLV-1-infected, as well as ATLL and HAM/TSP cells, exhibit overexpression of the Cdk inhibitor p21/Waf1^[61]. p21/Waf1 interacts specifically with the Cdk2/cyclin A complex and reduces the phosphorylation level of the retinoblastoma protein (Rb), a tumor suppressor, and prevents the release of E2F-1, transcription factor required for G1 and S phases^[62].

p27/Kip1 is an other Cdk inhibitor and blocks the Cdk2/cyclin E complex. p27/Kip1 upregulation arrests the cell cycle in G1 upon serum starvation^[63]. Interestingly, HTLV-1-transformed cells exhibit a higher level of the p27/Kip1 than the HTLV-1-immortalized cells^[63].

Additionally, Aurora kinases are overexpressed in HTLV-1 positive cells. Aurora kinases play an important role in cell cycle control, since their inhibition arrests mitosis and serves to induce apoptosis^[64]. Aurora A is overexpressed in HTLV-1-infected and ATLL cells. siRNA knockdown experiments and chemical inhibition of Aurora A has been reported to lead to growth suppression in HTLV-1-infected cell^[65]. The ubiquitin ligase CHFR regulates the turnover of Aurora A, and in infected cells

CHFR level is reduced by methylation and subsequent silencing of its promoter^[65]. Aurora B is overexpressed in HTLV-1-infected cells and its specific inhibition induces apoptosis only in HTLV-1-infected cells compared to non-infected, through overexpression of p21/Waf1 and p53^[66].

The overexpression of Cdk inhibitors is concurrent with the upregulation of Aurora kinases, with the p30-related delay of entry into S phase and the Tax-related delay of S-G2-M transition (Figure 2). The contrasting results on the cell cycle alterations attributed to HTLV-1 are far from being understood and evaluated for therapy purposes.

HTLV-1 P40, THE TRANS ACTIVATOR OF TRANSCRIPTION TAX

Several pathways are activated or repressed after HTLV-1 infection and single viral proteins act to mediate with specific PTMs and interactions these downstream effects. The most important is the transactivator of transcription, Tax. In Figure 3 is represented a model for Tax localization depending on its PTMs.

Tax is a pleiotropic protein with a predominately nuclear subcellular localization that performs multiple functions *via* protein-protein interaction. Several Tax PTMs were described, including ubiquitination^[67], SUMOylation^[67], phosphorylation^[68-70] and acetylation^[71]. Probably, different Tax species coexist at any time during the cell cycle and in different locations, depending on the cell type (see for example its ubiquitination state in^[72]).

Recently, Kfoury *et al*^[67] showed by live confocal microscopy, that Tax molecules shuttle from SUMO-enriched nuclear bodies to ubiquitin-enriched perinuclear centrosomal aggregates close to *cis*-Golgi (Figure 3). Those molecules are likely PTM Tax variants, considered that the SUMOylation and ubiquitination-defective Tax K4-8R mutant is not recruited to these subcellular compartments^[67].

Biochemical coupling of the transcription factor nuclear factor κ B (NF- κ B) to antigen and co-stimulatory receptors (CD3 and CD28, respectively) is required for the temporal control of T-cell proliferation and is modulated by viral proteins^[38]. Tax activates NF- κ B by interacting and constitutively stimulating the activity of the I- κ B kinase (IKK)^[73], which usually is transiently activated through the TCR/CD3 and CD28 engagement. Tax SUMOylation sends the IKK γ (known as NEMO) to the centrosome^[67] and is involved in the formation of Tax-related SUMO-enriched nuclear bodies and in the recruitment therein of RelA (known as p65), resulting in transcriptional activation^[74,75]. On the contrary, ubiquitin addition appears to modify Tax in a proteasome-independent manner from an active to a less-active transcriptional form^[76], even though Tax ubiquitination is critical for the relocalization of IKK complexes to perinuclear hot spots coinciding with Golgi^[77]. Counterintuitively, Nasr *et al*^[74] have shown that Tax ubiquitination and SUMOylation are dispens-

Furthermore, it was demonstrated that Tax is mainly K63 poly-ubiquitinated and that this ubiquitination depends on the interaction with the ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme Ubc13, which proved critical for interaction with IKK γ and canonical and non canonical NF- κ B activation^[83] (Figure 3). Also the NEMO-related protein Optineurin has been shown to interact with ubiquitinated Tax in HTVL-1-infected cells and to promote with Tax1BP1 the NF- κ B activation^[84]. Interestingly, the Tax mutant M22 is deficient in NF- κ B activation, is less ubiquitinated and does not interact with Ubc13^[72,83]. Consistently with this results, the ubiquitin-specific peptidase USP20 inhibits Tax transactivation activity, promoting its de-ubiquitination^[85] (Figure 3).

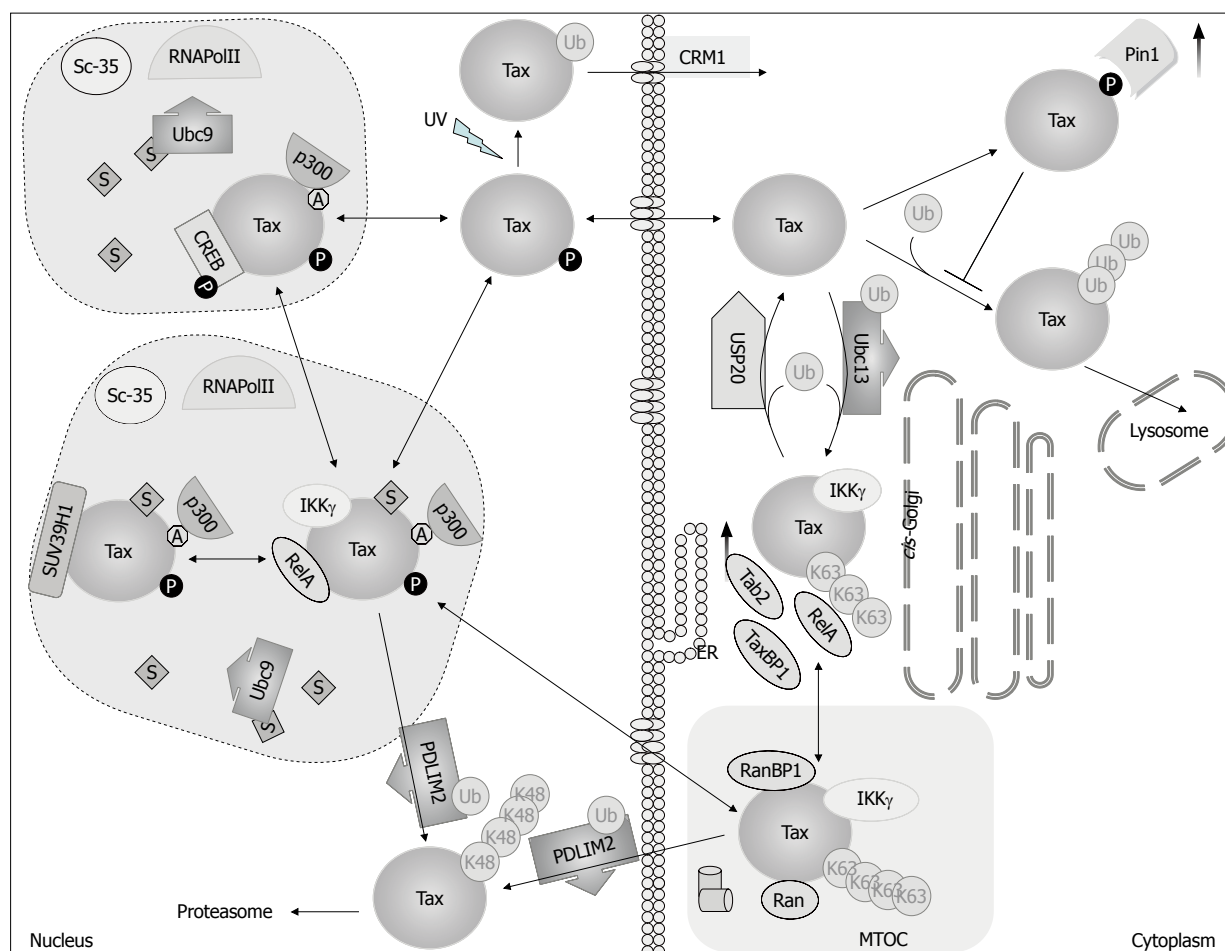


Figure 3 Diagram representing Tax localization and function controlled by post-translational modifications. After translation, Tax could be phosphorylated at Ser-160 and hence stabilized by Pin1, preventing its polyubiquitination with subsequent lysosomal degradation (top right). Tax is K-63 polyubiquitinated by Ubc13, promoting its relocation to a region between endoplasmic reticulum and cis-Golgi, where it interacts with I- κ B kinase (IKK) γ , the overexpressed Tab2 and RelA. UPS20 can de-ubiquitinate Tax (centre). From cis-Golgi, Tax shuttles to microtubule-organizing center (MTOC), where it interacts with IKK γ , RanBP1 and Ran. From MTOC, Tax shuttles to Tax-related nuclear bodies containing Sc-35 and RNAPolIII. There, it is acetylated by p300 and SUMOylated, probably by Ubc9 (left). In nuclear bodies, Tax interacts with p300, IKK γ , RelA and the methyltransferase SUV39H1. Furthermore, Tax interacts also with phosphorylated cyclic AMP response element binding protein. PDLIM2 has proven to cause K48 polyubiquitination of Tax, promoting its nuclear proteosomal degradation after translocation from nuclear bodies and MTOC (bottom left). Tax displays its nuclear functions when Ser-300 19 or Ser-301 are phosphorylated. Finally, after UV treatment, mono-ubiquitinated Tax is exported to the cytoplasm through CRM1 (top). Arrows represent relocation or modification; P: Phosphorylation; S: SUMO1; A: Acetylation; Ub: Ubiquitin; K48 or K63: Chains of ubiquitin; UV: Ultraviolet light exposure; protein overexpression in infected cells is represented by bold arrows.

Additionally, UV irradiation has been demonstrated to induce Tax mono-ubiquitination at the SUMOylatable Lys-280 and Lys-284 residues, which promotes Tax dissociation from nuclear bodies and Tax nuclear export through the CRM1 pathway^[86] (Figure 3).

Tax phosphorylation

Interestingly, Ser160-phosphorylated Tax is stabilized by the interaction with Pin1, a prolyl isomerase, which inhibits Tax ubiquitination and its subsequent lysosomal degradation^[87,88]. Ser-160 phosphorylation happens during the mitosis, but the kinase involved is presently unknown. Remarkably, Pin1 stabilizes other phosphorylated proteins: c-Jun and c-Fos, enhancing the activator protein 1 (AP-1) transcriptional activity; β -catenin, enhancing cell proliferation; RelA, enhancing the NF- κ B activity; and cyclin D1, whose transcription is promoted by the three mentioned transcription factors. In turn, Pin1-stabilized

cyclin D1 is retained in the nucleus and promotes G1-S transition^[89]. Pin1 overexpression disrupts the tight coupling of centrosome duplication with DNA synthesis, which leads to centrosome amplification, chromosome instability (aneuploidy) and oncogenesis both *in vitro* and *in vivo*^[90]. The overexpression of Pin1 in Tax-expressing HTLV-1-transformed cells^[88] is consistent with previous characterizations showing that Pin1 expression is tightly regulated and correlates with oncogenesis^[89]. Finally, Tax with CREB physically associates the promoter of cyclin D1 *in vivo*, upregulates the gene and promotes G1-S transition^[91]. On the other hand, Tax delays the S-G2-M transitions, favoring the degradation of cyclin A, cyclin B1 and securin. Cyclin B1 is targeted for ubiquitination by Tax-activated cdc20-associated anaphase promoting complex (cdc20-APC), an E3 ubiquitin ligase that controls metaphase to anaphase transition and, bound to Tax, becomes active before the cellular entry into mi-

tosis^[92] (Figure 2). The authors proposed that aneuploidy and chromosomal instability are direct consequences of Tax activation of cdc20-APC. Thus, we can hypothesize that Pin1 and Tax work in a synergistic manner to promote tumorigenesis, path not explored for therapeutic purposes yet.

Tax is known to be phosphorylated since 1988^[93]. Research attributed the serine residues were the target of this PTM^[94] and useful studies on serine point mutations were performed providing evidence to support this idea^[95,96]. Disappointingly, specific Tax phosphorylation patterns are associated with the particular cell line employed^[97]. At the present, important phosphorylation sites of Tax are known but still some open question remains. Phosphorylation on Tax Ser-300/301 (or on Ser-304 where present) is essential for the transcriptional activation^[68]. Phosphorylation on Ser-160 stabilizes Tax during the mitosis and enhances the activation of NF- κ B^[87]. The kinases involved are unknown and could represent a genuine target for Tax-oriented therapy. Only the pleiotropic and constitutively active CK2 (formerly known as casein kinase 2) is proven to phosphorylate Tax *in vitro*, modulating the functions associated with its C-terminus^[70], which is extremely important for the binding, with subsequent inhibition, of class I PDZ-containing proteins, some of them tumor suppressors with scaffold function^[98,99].

Furthermore, advanced and highly sensitive techniques, such as tandem mass spectrometry, struggle to detect Ser-300/301 phosphorylation or are entirely unable to detect Ser-160 phosphorylation, important for Tax function^[69]. The coverage of N- and C-terminal tagged Tax is incomplete for technical limitations and, surprisingly, threonine phosphorylation predominates. The phosphorylated residues within Tax described to date are Thr-48, Thr-184, Thr-215, Ser-300 or 301 and Ser-336^[69]. Interestingly, in functional studies, the authors showed that a phosphomimetic point mutation on the Thr-48, always found phosphorylated, reduced Tax activity on CREB and NF- κ B promoters, as if Tax function was always switched off. Mutation of the predominantly phosphorylated residue Thr-215 to the phosphomimetic aspartate led to a severe reduction of Tax activity^[69], suggesting again the predominant presence of inactive Tax. Lastly, discordance between peptide identification (Thr-84 peptide) and Tax sequence in Durkin's report generates ambiguity and makes it difficult to draw neat conclusions. Point mutations do not seem to clearly delineate a conclusive definition of the roles of phosphorylated Tax residues.

Due to the complexity of the Tax phosphorylation pattern, the study of multiple point mutations (all-but-one) and mutant expression in lymphocytes could contribute to the comprehension of the actual relevance of each phosphorylation for Tax function. Also the identification of kinases involved in Tax phosphorylation could suggest new therapeutical strategies.

Tax acetylation and SUMOylation

Tax acetylation on Lys-346 is dependent on Tax localiza-

tion in Tax-related nuclear bodies and on its interaction with the transcriptional co-activator p300^[71] and subsequent activation of HTLV-1 promoter^[13]. The prerequisite of nuclear Tax localization is phosphorylation on Ser300/301 (or on Ser-304 where present^[68]). Its localization on Tax-related SUMO-enriched nuclear bodies is followed by SUMOylation (for the presence of the residues Lys-280 and Lys-284^[71]) that, in turn, improves Tax acetylation. When SUMOylated Tax is acetylated by p300, its activity on integrated NF- κ B promoter is enhanced^[71]. In SUMO-enriched nuclear bodies, Tax colocalizes with Ubc9, an E2-SUMO conjugating enzyme with a major nuclear localization and, when ubiquitinated, promotes SUMOylation and de-ubiquitination of IKK γ ^[67]. One appealing highlighted hypothesis is that Tax is SUMOylated in those Ubc9-enriched bodies.

Tax-2B PTMs

A recent review described the known HTLV-1/2B Tax differences in NF- κ B activation and localization, and showed how PTMs affect the two homologue proteins that share 85 % of sequence similarity^[99]. HTLV-2B Tax is SUMOylated at lower levels than HTLV-1 Tax and ubiquitinated^[100]. Intriguingly, Mahieux R. and collaborators showed at the 15th International Conference that ubiquitinated HTLV-2 Tax is barely detectable but still active on NF- κ B pathway, promoting IKK γ and RelA nuclear relocation^[17].

Tax and NF- κ B PTMs

The NF- κ B pathway is correlated with the oncogenic potential of Tax. IKK activation is involved in both the canonical and non-canonical NF- κ B pathways, and one of the main differences between HTLV-1 Tax and the less oncogenic HTLV-2 Tax is the ability to process p100, component of the non-canonical pathway^[99]. In HTLV-1-infected T cells, p100 is actively processed, resulting in Tax-mediated p52 overproduction and NF- κ B2 activation. Tax acts on p100 indirectly recruiting the IKK complex and directly binding p100, IKK α , IKK γ and the β -TrCP^[59]. β -TrCP is an F-box adaptor protein, a component of the ubiquitin ligase SCF (Skp-1, Cullin-1, F-box protein), it determines the substrate specificity for ubiquitination^[59] and is involved in Tax-mediated p100 processing. NIK-phosphorylated IKK α and Tax-activated IKK γ phosphorylate p100^[101]. Tax increases the interaction between the adaptor β -TrCP and IKK α -phosphorylated p100, favoring p100 Cullin-1-mediated poly-ubiquitination and degradation to the active form p52^[102]. Interestingly, β -TrCP is probably associated with the degradation of β -catenin^[34], a protein stabilized by Pin1^[89], and I- κ B α ^[103].

In Tax-expressing cells, IKK β is persistently phosphorylated, promoting I- κ B α degradation and NF- κ B activation^[104], and subsequently mono-ubiquitinated by the ubiquitin ligase Ro52, in cooperation with the ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme UbcH5B^[105,106]. Mono-ubiquitination redirects IKK β to the autophagosome^[106]. Moreover, Tax

interacts physically with the hypo-phosphorylated NF- κ B inhibitor I- κ B α , promoting its direct binding to HsN3 proteasome for degradation^[107].

It is unclear whether the interaction between the TAK-1 and Tax promotes the phosphorylation and activation of IKK β ^[108] or not^[109]. Tax activates TAK-1 in HTLV-1-transformed T cells. Tax induces also TAB2 overexpression, a TAK-1 activator^[109]. Interestingly, both HTLV-1 and -2B Tax interacts with TAB2 in perinuclear compartments close to *cis*-Golgi^[110] (Figure 3). TAK-1 activity seems to be involved in JNK and MAPKp38 activation, the former to activate the ATF-2, the latter to inhibit TAK-1 in a negative loop^[109]. Furthermore, during IL-2 deprivation, the viral induction promotes phosphorylation and activation of MAPKp38, in turn activating its downstream CREB and sustaining HTLV transcription in HTLV-1-infected cell^[111].

Another candidate for IKK activation is the Tax interactor, MAPK kinase kinase 1 (MAP3K1, known also as MEKK1), a kinase that activates JNK and MAPKp38. MAP3K1 is part of the IKK complex, interacts with Tax and seems to activate IKK itself^[104].

There are no doubts that NF- κ B pathway is required for the activation and proliferation of infected cells, even though evidences suggest an inhibitory effect of HBZ on the canonical pathway^[112]. The activation of the non-canonical pathway should be further explored, considered it is one of the main differences between Tax-1 and its homologue proteins, Tax-2B^[99].

Tax and Akt PTMs

A growing list of ubiquitin ligases recruited by Tax has been described. An example is Mdm2 ubiquitin ligase. The forkhead box O4 (FoxO4), a transcription factor and tumor suppressor situated downstream Akt signaling, is degraded after activation, for Tax-mediated interaction with Mdm2 and subsequent poly-ubiquitination^[113].

Mdm2 is also implicated in the degradation of the phosphorylated and hence inactivated p53 tumor suppressor^[114,115]. p53 is hyper-phosphorylated in HTLV-1-transformed cells and cannot interact with the transcription factor IID. Tax promotes p53 phosphorylation and inactivation, but it is unclear whether through RelA engagement^[116] or through Tax/p53 competition for binding with CBP^[117,118]. Also HTLV-2B Tax, but not HTLV-2A Tax, is able to neutralize p53 activity^[119] (Figure 1B).

p53 inhibition and cell survival in HTLV-1-transformed cells are linked to the Tax activation of Akt^[39] and phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K)^[120]. Active Akt promotes phosphorylation and inactivation of Bcl-2-associated death promoter protein (Bad), a pro-apoptotic protein^[39]. Consistently, PI3K/Akt activation induces resistance to IL-2 deprivation in HTLV-1-infected cells, promoting a progressive resistance to apoptosis^[121].

Tax and promoter silencing

Tax/CREB complex recruits the co-activators CBP and p300, promoting the histone acetylation and disassembly

of the nucleosomes from the HTLV-1 promoter, facilitating DNA accessibility for the transcriptional machinery. The process is transcription- and ATP- independent, but needs acetyl-CoA and available histone-chaperone Nap1^[122,123].

On the other hand, Tax and active HDAC1 form an inhibitory complex on the promoter of Src homology-2 containing protein tyrosine phosphatase 1 (SHP-1), an important negative regulator of the TCR signaling for its ability to antagonize Src kinases^[124] and IL-2 signaling^[125]. Remarkably, SHP-1 is inactivated in HTLV-1-immortalized (IL-2-independent) cell lines^[125] but not in ATLL cells where Tax is not detectable^[126]. Not surprisingly, also the TCR effector ZAP-70 is down regulated by Tax expression^[41].

Moreover, Tax forms complexes also with both HDAC1 and HDAC3, promoting a negative feedback loop in which Tax transcription is down-regulated through histone deacetylation on the HTLV-1 LTR region^[127]. Watanabe T. and collaborators proposed an other negative feedback and demonstrated that Tax induces the histone methyltransferase SUV39H1 expression^[11]. Tax tethers the enzyme to the Tax-related nuclear bodies where it represses Tax, in a dose-dependent manner, silencing the HTLV-1 LTR promoter^[11].

Unexpectedly, the use of a HDAC inhibitor, the depsipeptide, in a murine ATLL model inhibits the tumor growth^[15], instead of promoting it, probably for the intervention of the adaptive immunity on the desilenced cells.

Furthermore, HTLV-1 transcription increases after CD2 cross-linking and T cell activation^[128]. The CD2 signaling promotes CREB phosphorylation probably with the involvement of both protein tyrosine kinases and protein kinase A (PKA)^[129], thereby resulting in promoting transcription. In agreement with this mechanism, it seems that Tax promotes CREB phosphorylation and interacts with phosphorylated CREB^[130]. Remarkably, CREB-2 cannot be phosphorylated by PKA and is still able to interact with Tax to promote HTLV-1 transcription^[131].

Tax hampers DNA damage response

In response to DNA damage, Chk2 protein kinase is phosphorylated and activated, and produces cell cycle arrest. Chk2 and DNA-dependent protein kinase form a complex with Tax in nuclear bodies^[132]. Tax induces constitutive activation of this complex and hampers the response to new damage, suggesting a saturation of the DNA repair pathway caused by Tax^[132]. Tax oncogenic protein exploits and manipulates many cellular pathways involving PTMs. The picture is far from complete, due to the diverse Tax performances (and variants) among different cell lines and cell cycle steps.

HTLV-1 REX PHOSPHORYLATION AND TCR PATHWAY

The phosphoprotein Rex is found predominantly in the cell nucleolus and is involved in splicing and nuclear ex-

port of viral mRNA. Rex recognizes a specific response element on the incompletely spliced mRNAs, stabilizing them and inhibiting their splicing, and utilizes the CRM1 pathway for nuclear export^[133], the same used by mono-ubiquitinated Tax^[86].

The major targets of Rex phosphorylation in HTLV-1-infected cells are serines and at a lesser extent threonines^[134]. Rex phosphorylation at Ser-70 seems involved in the regulation of Rex function in response to extracellular stimuli, through protein kinase C activation^[134]. Decreased Rex phosphorylation correlates with the reduction of unspliced viral mRNA^[134].

Recently, Kesic *et al*^[135] completely mapped the phosphorylation sites of Rex and found seven phosphorylation sites. Phosphorylations on Ser-97 and Thr-174 were demonstrated to be critical for Rex-1 function^[135]. The authors mapped also HTLV-2 Rex and found that phosphorylations on Thr-164, Ser-151 and Ser-153 are functional^[136]. In particular, Ser-151 phosphorylation correlates with Rex nuclear/nucleolar localization^[136] and with an active Rex protein^[137].

For unknown reasons, Rex expression promotes the expression of the Src kinase FynB, usually absent in T cells, thus altering the TCR pathway^[41]. This switch to a SFK expressed preferentially in B cells suggests a putative activation of a B cell receptor (BCR) cascade within a T cell, raising new questions and requiring further studies.

HTLV-1 P12, TCR SIGNALING AND PTMS

Endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-localized p12 enhances p300 expression in T cells in a calcium-dependent, but calcineurin-independent manner^[138], thereby negating the p30-mediated repression of LTR transcription (see below^[139]).

p12 does not seem contribute to the Jak/Stat phosphorylation and activation in HTLV-1-immortalized cells^[140], but promotes the phosphorylation of Stat-5 in p12-transduced PBMCs^[141]. However, p12 acts downstream of TCR signaling. On one hand, p12 increases cytoplasmic calcium levels inducing the nuclear factor of activated T cells (NFAT) activation in a LAT-independent manner^[142]. On the other hand, p12 inhibits the phosphorylation of LAT, Vav, and phospholipase C-γ1 upon engagement of CD3, leading to decreased TCR-induced activation of NFAT^[143].

To complicate the picture, two forms of 8 and 12 kDa coexist and can be palmitoylated, as shown at the 15th International Conference by Franchini G. and collaborators. Notably, palmitoylation increases the hydrophobicity of proteins and targets them to lipid rafts^[17]. Post-translational removal of the ER retention/retrieval signal located at the amino terminus of p12 yields the p8 protein, which traffics to the cell surface, promoting T cell anergy and clustering, structuring the virological synapse, ultimately increasing the virus spreading^[144].

HTLV-1 P13 INTERACTS WITH SFKS

Signal transduction is based on activation of normally

inactive kinases that, under external (or internal) stimuli, phosphorylate their substrates often promoting a cascade^[145]. The TCR signaling uses the SFKs to transduce the signal^[146]. SFKs localize in their inactive state on the inner leaflet of the plasma membrane, promptly transduce the TCR signal following recognition of immunocomplexes on antigen-presenting cells, and ultimately lead to T-cell proliferation and immune response^[38].

Interestingly, p13, a mitochondrial and nuclear protein^[147], binds the SH3 domain of SFKs^[146]. p13/SFK forms a stable heterodimer that translocates to mitochondria by virtue of a p13 N-terminal mitochondrial localization signal^[146]. As a result, the activity of SFKs is dramatically enhanced with a concomitant increase in mitochondrial tyrosine phosphorylation^[146]. Contrasting reports exist as to whether p13 is able to target the inner mitochondrial membrane and to perturb the mitochondrial membrane potential^[146,148].

Further investigations are needed to understand the significance of the potential SFK activation within HTLV-1-infected T cells, considered their importance in the pathogenesis of diseases such as chronic myeloid leukemia and BCLL^[149].

These results appear in contrast with the recent findings that p13, in spite of its mitochondrial localization when expressed alone, in the presence of Tax is partially mono-ubiquitinated, stabilized, and re-routed to the Tax-related nuclear bodies^[147]. p13 directly binds Tax, decreases Tax binding to the CBP/p300 transcriptional co-activators and, by reducing Tax transcriptional activity in a dose-dependent manner, thereby suppresses viral gene expression^[147].

Interestingly, a truncated form of p13 (and hence a truncated p30), lacking of the C-terminal SH3-binding motif, is encoded by the rabbit HTLV-1-infected cell line RH/K34, a renowned cell line for its ability to induce a lethal leukemic-like disease in animal^[150]. In contrast with the cell line RH/K30, that produce a low-grade leukemia with acute rejection, a different pattern of tyrosine phosphorylation is noticeable within RH/K34 cells^[151]. Remarkably, Vav, a downstream TCR effector, is constitutively phosphorylated and activated only in the RH/K34 cell line. Clearly, while the SH3-binding motif of p13 is not contributing to the constitutive activation of TCR signaling^[151], other viral proteins are involved through unidentified mechanisms.

Further functional studies on infected cells and during viral protein co-expression are required to delineate the complex interplay between the viral proteins and the cell, although the presence of putative SH3-binding motifs in p12, p30 and Tax suggests a focused molecular study on their putative physical interaction with SFKs.

HTLV-1 P30 ALTERS CELL CYCLE AND REPRESSES TAX FUNCTION

p30 is a viral accessory protein that localizes with p300 in the nucleus. p30 competes with Tax for the same p300

N-terminal region of binding, eventually repressing Tax transcriptional activity in a dose-dependent manner^[139]. Increased availability of ectopically expressed HAT-active p300 reverses the effect of p30. The authors proposed that the intrinsic HAT activity of p300 is utilized to acetylate and potentially modulates the transcriptional regulatory function of p30, but further studies are needed^[139].

p30 delays the entry into S phase, decreasing the phosphorylation levels of Rb, while its homologue, HTLV-2 p28, does not. In order to do so, p30 interacts with Cyclin E and with Cdk2 and prevents their activation^[152] (Figure 2). p30 also seems to alter the pattern of phosphorylation of the Cdc25C phosphatase, Chk1 checkpoint kinase and Polo-like kinase-1, thereby activating the cell cycle checkpoint at the G2-M phase transition^[153] (Figure 2). These data, taken together, suggest a Tax-counteracting effect of p30 on the cell cycle control (as described above), but do not allow a clear characterization of p30 function.

HBZ UTILIZES UBIQUITIN PATHWAYS

HBZ has been shown to negatively regulate basal and Tax-dependent LTR transcription through its ability to interact with specific basic-leucine zipper proteins and to inhibit CREB binding to the LTR^[154]. Furthermore, HBZ, like p30, inhibits Tax transcriptional activity competing with Tax for p300 binding^[155].

Interestingly, HBZ acts also indirectly on Tax canonical NF- κ B transcription, inducing the overexpression of PDLIM2 ubiquitin ligase and interacting with RelA^[112]. The authors found that PDLIM2 targets specifically RelA for degradation and that HBZ binds RelA diminishing its DNA binding capacity^[112]. Also Tax stability is affected by PDLIM2 as described above. PDLIM2 down regulation in primary ATLL cells^[17] suggest a balanced interplay between HBZ and other viral proteins in which HBZ activity is restricted.

Remarkably, HBZ promotes c-Jun degradation without the requirement for ubiquitination^[156], counteracting its stabilization promoted by Pin1 (described above). HBZ appears to function as a tethering factor between the 26S proteasome and c-Jun, thus repressing the AP-1 pathway. Incidentally, HBZ promotes also the cell cycle, activating the E2F1 pathway (reviewed in^[157]).

HTLV-1 GAG AND UBIQUITINATION

Cells employ PTMs to organize trafficking activities and, in particular, ubiquitination plays a critical role in non-proteolytic functions such as DNA repair, exocytosis and endocytosis^[158]. During the exocytosis, membrane scission requires the endosomal-sorting complex-required for transport (ESCRT) machinery and enveloped viruses exploit this system for virion budding^[159]. Recently, evidences that arrestin-related trafficking proteins (ARTs, adaptors between WWP1, WWP2 and Itch ubiquitin ligases and ESCRT machinery) are recruited to the site of

viral budding, suggest the involvement of ART-mediated ubiquitination in viral egress^[160]. Early work by Derse and collaborators demonstrated that the HTLV-1 Gag matrix domain is involved in virion budding^[161]. Gag matrix domain interacts through a late domain (PPxY motif: proline-proline-any amino acid-tyrosine) with WWP1 ubiquitin ligase (known also as NEDD4.1) and is ubiquitinated on the Lys-74 to function. Late domains are short peptide sequences encoded by enveloped viruses to promote the final separation of the nascent virus from the infected cell. Gag interacts with WWP1 at the plasma membrane where it is ubiquitinated and transferred to the late endosomes. There, it interacts with Tsg101, a component of the ESCRT machinery^[162]. An ubiquitination-defective Gag mutant produces a substantial decrease in the virion release^[161].

Furthermore, Gag binds also the tumor suppressor hDlg, mediating the cell-to-cell contact^[163], one of the common mechanisms of spreading for HTLV-1.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The obligatory parasitic nature of viruses requires them to enter and hijack the cellular machinery with the contribution of viral encoded proteins, and to exploit the cellular resources for viral replication whilst blocking, inhibiting or balancing the host defenses.

HTLV-1 is capable of altering many cellular pathways and this phenomenon has been studied in immortalized cell lines and in *ex vivo* samples. Single or groups of viral proteins have been investigated *in vitro* or in cell culture under ectopic expression conditions. All the results are far from delineating the picture, but have highlighted a plethora of useful information about the regulation of cellular pathway through PTMs. HTLV-1 infection generates deregulation of many cellular proteins. Hsp-90 overexpression seems to favour Akt signaling and β -catenin-dependent cell proliferation. TCR signaling is hampered for the downregulation of CD3 and infected T cells seem to borrow components of the BCR pathway, making possible a conceptual parallelism between ATLL and BCLL. The downstream Ras-Raf-ERK pathway is turned on, suggesting the activation of MAP kinase and JNK as well. Jak/Stat pathway is constitutively activated in ATLL cells but is an unsuitable target for therapeutic treatments being redundant for proliferation.

Cell cycle is strictly controlled by PTMs and after infection is promoted by upregulation of Aurora kinases. It suffers major alterations for counteracting functions of upregulated cell proteins, Tax, HBZ and p30: while a G1 phase progression is promoted by Tax, Pin1 and HBZ mRNA, G2/M transition is blocked by Tax. Upregulated Kip1 and Waf1 inhibit G1/S/G2 transition but are taken by Akt activation. It seems that Tax acts, upstream and downstream, on Akt activation, promoting FoxO4 and p53 degradation and Bad inactivation, with the ultimate effect of altering cell cycle, response to DNA damage and apoptosis.

Tax function on gene transcription is hampered by p13, p30 and HBZ, but its activities on other cellular pathways, such as TCR, are far from being understood. Most likely, different Tax PTMs redirect Tax localization and function to specific compartments, where Tax is as essential as for transcription. For instance, the indirectly determined Tax phosphorylation on Ser-160 appears to stabilize the protein only during the mitosis, and the negative crosstalk between ubiquitination and SUMOylation on Lys-280 and Lys-284 seems to enable Tax shuttling between the cytoplasm and the nucleus. Centrosomes, ER and Golgi apparatus appears to be active site of recruitment for Tax and its cellular partners. Akt pathway, NF- κ B pathway and DNA damage response require physical interaction between cell proteins and Tax. And also TCR signaling is probably affected directly by Tax for its putative SH3-binding motifs, as suggested by unpublished data (Pagano MA, personal communication) that show constitutive tyrosine phosphorylation in Tax-expressing cells. Like Tax-1, Tax2B undergoes to several PTMs, some of which have no discernible effects ascribed to date.

Other accessory proteins are essential to sustain the infection and the viral replication, and are subjected to modifications that could explain differences in localization and in function. Rex-1 and Rex-2 differ for phosphorylation residues and seems to work under phosphorylation. p12 induces NFAT activation while inhibiting the TCR pathway downstream Syk kinases, and its post-translational truncated form p8 localizes in the plasma membrane affecting TCR signaling and forming the virological synapse for viral spreading, p13 binds and constitutively activates SFKs, TCR effectors, suggesting an analogy with other leukemias involving overactivation of SFKs. Furthermore, a C-terminal truncated form of p13 and p30 in HTLV-1-infected cell promotes Vav hyperphosphorylation and a fatal disease in rabbit. At last, HBZ functions and Gag contribution in viral budding involve the recruitment of ubiquitin ligases.

Many HTLV-1 proteins affect and are modulated by cellular pathways implicated in phosphorylation, ubiquitination and other PTMs. One of the problems associated to the study of PTMs is that the proportion of modified residues in a specific protein could account for functional differences associated to the system (*in vivo*, *ex vivo*, *in culture* or *in vitro*), or associated to the described model (animal model, cell line). The application of the existing knowledge in several systems might solve partially the problem of recognizing relevant PTMs.

This data collection, not exhaustive of the clinical and molecular work done on HTLV-1, consents to appreciate the extensive interplay of the viral proteins with the host cellular machinery. The molecular mechanisms related to the virus replication are partially controlled by PTMs, that in turn are to some extent controlled by viral proteins. In ATLL, Akt pathway, downstream both Jak/Stat and TCR signaling, has revealed important in cell proliferation, survival and apoptosis abolition, together with Ras pathway. Both represent a possible target for pharmacological

treatments. Jak/Stat instead has proven to be a pharmacological target only in specific leukemic settings. TCR signaling seems promising as a suitable pharmacological target. In ATLL, it is not responsive to external stimuli and is highly altered by the expression of a battery of enzymes proper of B cells, suggesting a parallelism between ATLL and BCLL. Hsp-90 could be involved in the overactivation of TCR signaling and, in particular, should be tested its putative involvement in SFK activation in ATLL. Furthermore, the identification of putative SH3-binding motifs in p12, p30 and Tax, and of an actual SH3-binding motif in p13 suggests the need to study the interplay between HTLV-1 proteins and SFKs, downstream TCR, as a prerequisite for the suitability of such kinases as pharmacological target.

Our knowledge is presently incomplete at least partly for the paucity of time-course studies on infected synchronized cells, which would extend the comprehension of the dynamic nature of PTMs. Further studies are needed that involve co-expression of viral proteins (or, alternatively, siRNA synchronous knockdown of more viral proteins within infected cells) to consider the balance between different and often opposite functions. More sophisticated lymphocyte models, with inducible expression of different HTLV-1 proteins, will provide new tools for the dissection of this fatal oncovirus. More insights and efforts are therefore needed to delineate novel mechanistic insights on viral exploitation of PTM pathways, which should provide a foundation for new treatment strategies to specifically target ATLL.

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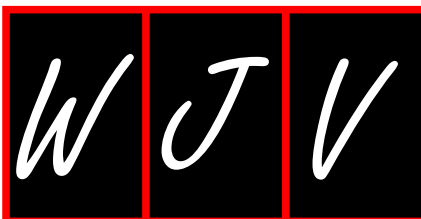
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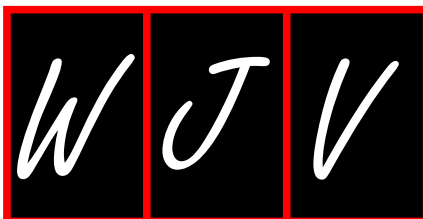
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In press

- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

Organization as author

- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMID: 2516377 DOI: 10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

Both personal authors and an organization as author

- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI: 10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

No author given

- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI: 10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

Volume with supplement

- 7 **Geraud G**, Spierings EL, Keywood C. Tolerability and safety of frovatriptan with short- and long-term use for treatment of migraine and in comparison with sumatriptan. *Headache* 2002; **42** Suppl 2: S93-99 [PMID: 12028325 DOI: 10.1046/j.1526-4610.42.s2.7.x]

Issue with no volume

- 8 **Banit DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; **(401)**: 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI: 10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

No volume or issue

- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRSA Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

Books

Personal author(s)

- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

Chapter in a book (list all authors)

- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

Author(s) and editor(s)

- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorfheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wiczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

Conference proceedings

- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

Conference paper

- 14 **Christensen S**, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA, Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

Electronic journal (list all authors)

- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

Statistical data

Write as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SE.

Statistical expression

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