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World Journal of Virology (*World J Virol*, *WJV*, online ISSN 2220-3249, DOI: 10.5501) is a peer-reviewed open access academic journal that aims to guide clinical practice and improve diagnostic and therapeutic skills of clinicians.

WJV covers topics concerning arboviral infections, bronchiolitis, central nervous system viral diseases, DNA virus infections, encephalitis, eye infections, fatigue syndrome, hepatitis, meningitis, opportunistic infections, pneumonia, RNA virus infections, sexually transmitted diseases, skin diseases, slow virus diseases, tumor virus infections, viremia, zoonoses, and virology-related traditional medicine, and integrated Chinese and Western medicine. Priority publication will be given to articles concerning diagnosis and treatment of viral diseases. The following aspects are covered: Clinical diagnosis, laboratory diagnosis, differential diagnosis, imaging tests, pathological diagnosis, molecular biological diagnosis, immunological diagnosis, genetic diagnosis, functional diagnostics, and physical diagnosis; and comprehensive therapy, drug therapy, surgical therapy, interventional treatment, minimally invasive therapy, and robot-assisted therapy.

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Infected cell protein 0 functional domains and their coordination in herpes simplex virus replication

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Abstract

Herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1) is a ubiquitous human pathogen that establishes latent infection in ganglia neurons. Its unique life cycle requires a balanced "conquer and compromise" strategy to deal with the host anti-viral defenses. One of HSV-1 α (immediate early) gene products, infected cell protein 0 (ICP0), is a

multifunctional protein that interacts with and modulates a wide range of cellular defensive pathways. These pathways may locate in different cell compartments, which then migrate or exchange factors upon stimulation, for the purpose of a concerted and effective defense. ICP0 is able to simultaneously attack multiple host pathways by either degrading key restrictive factors or modifying repressive complexes. This is a viral protein that contains an E3 ubiquitin ligase, translocates among different cell compartments and interacts with major defensive complexes. The multiple functional domains of ICP0 can work independently and at the same time coordinate with each other. Dissecting the functional domains of ICP0 and delineating the coordination of these domains will help us understand HSV-1 pathogenicity as well as host defense mechanisms. This article focuses on describing individual ICP0 domains, their biochemical properties and their implication in HSV-1 infection. By putting individual domain functions back into the picture of host anti-viral defense network, this review seeks to elaborate the complex interactions between HSV-1 and its host.

Key words: Subcellular translocation; Herpes simplex virus 1; Infected cell protein 0; E3 ubiquitin ligase; Protein modification; ND10 nuclear bodies; Chromatin repression

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Core tip: Due to the genomic limitation, viruses often use multifunctional proteins to ensure viral replication. Coordination of the multiple viral functions is critical for a successful viral infection. Infected cell protein 0 (ICP0) is notoriously multi-functional in terms of simultaneously targeting many host machineries located in different cellular compartments. Understanding the molecular basis of ICP0 multifunctionality is important for not only the elucidation of herpes simplex virus pathogenicity but also the delineation of host defense mechanisms.

Gu H. Infected cell protein 0 functional domains and their coordination in herpes simplex virus replication. *World J Virol* 2016; 5(1): 1-13 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2220-3249/full/v5/i1/1.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5501/wjv.v5.i1.1>

INTRODUCTION

Herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1) is a ubiquitous virus that infects over 70% of the world adult population. It causes a wide range of clinical manifestations, including cold sores, genital ulceration, keratitis, and herpes encephalitis. Once infected, HSV-1 establishes a lifelong latency in human trigeminal ganglia. Its sporadic reactivation nourishes a wide spread of the virus. It is one of the most prevalent opportunistic pathogens that can cause severe diseases in newborns or immunocompromised patients. Infected cell protein 0 (ICP0), an α (immediate early, IE) gene product of HSV-1, is a key regulator that activates viral gene expression in both lytic and latent infections^[1]. This multifunctional protein plays a critical role in viral counteractions against the host anti-viral defenses.

In early studies, viral proteins expressed in HSV-1 infection were classified into two groups: Virion proteins and infected cell proteins (ICPs)^[2]. Both groups were numbered in the order of their descending molecular weight, with number "1" representing the largest protein on high resolution polyacrylamide gels^[2]. ICP0 was named outside of the natural numbers for two reasons. First, the protein level of ICP0 was significantly lower than other ICPs. ICP0 was not detected in the initial efforts of numbering the ICPs^[2]. It was only discovered after a cycloheximide treatment, which augmented mRNA accumulation and boosted a sudden protein production following the cycloheximide withdrawal^[3]. The second reason why ICP0 was named differently was its anomalous mobility in denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The relative position of ICP0 vs other ICPs was not consistent on gels with different acrylamide concentrations, which made it impossible to give ICP0 a fixed position in the descending order of molecular weight.

Later on ICP0 was found to be extensively post-translationally modified^[4-8] and to undergo quick turnover at early infection^[9,10]. The complex biochemical properties of ICP0 likely contribute to the aforementioned low abundance and abnormal mobility. Three decades of studies have showed that ICP0 is an important viral multifunctional protein to counteract against host anti-viral defenses. It is essential for low multiplicity infection in cultured cells and for latency reactivation in animal models. However, the complexity of how ICP0 carries out those biological functions is not well understood. Understanding the biochemical foundations of ICP0 at different infection phases will help to elucidate the

molecular basis of ICP0 functionality. Individual functions of ICP0 as E3 ubiquitin ligase or chromatin remodeler have been discussed elsewhere^[11-16]. This review will focus on dissecting ICP0 biochemical properties and seek to understand the profound coordination in the multiple functions of ICP0.

THE TIMELINE OF REVEALING ICP0 ACTIVITIES, A BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Initially, ICP0 was found to transactivate HSV-1 promoters when co-transfected in mammalian cells, similar to many other IE viral proteins such as ICP4 of HSV^[17,18], T antigen of SV40^[19], and E1A of adenovirus^[20]. However, it was quickly realized that the mechanism of ICP0 transactivation was quite different from that of other viral gene activators. For example, ICP4 is essential for viral replication. Deletion of ICP4 led to abnormal viral expression and defective DNA replication^[21,22]. In the case of ICP0, gene deletion did not affect viral expression or DNA replication at high multiplicity of infection (MOI) but it had great impact on the viral yield when MOI was lower than 0.1^[23]. In experimental animals, deletion of ICP0 mildly reduced the efficiency of latency establishment but completely abolished the latency reactivation^[24], whereas ICP4 or ICP27 deletion rendered the mutant virus neither able to replicate in the eyes nor to establish latent infection^[24]. Moreover, many viral IE proteins contain a DNA binding domain and they work in mechanisms similar to cognate transcription activators such as GAL4, but ICP0 did not bind to the DNAs it activated^[25,26]. Extensive functional analysis showed that ICP0 can transactivate a wide range of cellular promoters or promoters from other DNA or RNA viruses, with no requirement of a specific *cis*-sequence^[27-29]. Therefore, ICP0 is defined as a promiscuous transactivator.

The unique functionality of ICP0 energized a great amount of interests in the virology field. In early 1990s, a series of mutagenesis analyses identified a cysteine-rich region required for the ICP0 transactivation activity^[30-32], which was later determined as a C3HC4 zinc binding really interesting new gene (*RING*) finger motif^[33-35]. Conserved RING finger sequences were found in a large family of E3 ubiquitin ligases^[36,37]. Later on, ICP0 was also proven to be an E3 ubiquitin ligase^[38,39]. The discovery that various ICP0 substrates imposed restrictions on viral expression in the absence of ICP0^[40-45] eventually led to a conclusion that one major function of ICP0 is to target host defensive molecules for ubiquitin-mediated proteasomal degradation. By degrading the restrictive host factors, ICP0 alleviates host defense and promotes viral gene expression.

Starting in the late 1990s, several labs made the efforts to identify ICP0 interacting proteins. From pull-down assays, yeast-2-hybrid screenings and coimmuno-

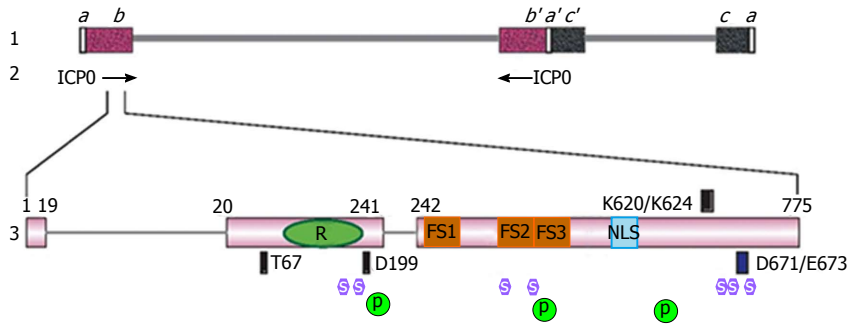


Figure 1 Schematic diagram of infected cell protein 0 gene structure and functional domains. Line 1: Genome structure of HSV-1; Line 2: Locations of the two inverted copies of ICP0 gene in the HSV-1 genome; Line 3: ICP0 gene structure and domain properties. The amino acid numbers are labeled above the illustration of ICP0 gene. RING finger domain, Proline-rich ND10-FSs and nuclear localization signal are represented by a green oval with "R", brown squares with "FS" and a blue rectangle with "NLS", respectively. The binding sites for RNF8 (T67), Cyclin D3 (D199), USP7 (K620/K624), and CoREST (D671/E673) are represented by the dark blue boxes above or beneath the ICP0 gene. The positions of the seven SLs are represented by lavender hexagons with "S" in the center. The positions of the three phosphorylation clusters are represented by dark green circles with "P" in the center. ICP0: Infected cell protein 0; HSV-1: Herpes simplex virus 1; RING: Really interesting new gene; ND10: Nuclear domains 10; NLS: Nuclear localization signal; USP7: Ubiquitin-specific protease 7; SLs: SIM-like sequences.

precipitations, a wide range of cellular proteins were found to interact with ICP0^[46-49]. Therefore ICP0 carries out viral counteractions by degrading restrictive factors and modulating repressive complexes, and consequently ICP0 enhances viral expression and replication. To better understand the coordination of ICP0 functional domains in counteracting host defenses, this review summarizes the current knowledge of ICP0 domains and ICP0 binding partners, and discusses their implications in HSV-1 infection.

ICP0 GENE STRUCTURE

The gene that encodes for ICP0 protein, also called $\alpha 0$ gene, is located within the inverted sequences *ab* and *b'a'* that flank the unique long (*UL*) region^[50] (Figure 1). Therefore, the ICP0 gene is one of the few HSV-1 genes that are diploid in the genome. The ICP0 gene is also among the few HSV-1 genes that contain introns^[51]. There are two introns of 765 and 136 nucleotides, respectively, intervening the three exons that encode for ICP0 amino acids 1-19, 20-241 and 242-775^[51]. It is quite curious why the ICP0 gene would evolve to bear introns because these introns do not seem to have significant functions in viral replication and alternative splicing of ICP0 has not been observed in infected cells. In one report, the ICP0 cDNA virus had a slight delay of gene expression depending on the cell-type used^[52], whereas in another report differences between wild type virus and ICP0 cDNA viruses were not observed^[53]. In animal models, recombinant viruses containing ICP0 deleted of introns showed no obvious defects in latency establishment and reactivation^[54].

There is an in-frame stop codon located inside intron 2, which predicts a truncated form of ICP0 (ICP0R) if alternative splicing occurs. Overexpression of ICP0R inhibited the transactivation activity of the co-transfected wild type ICP0^[55,56], suggesting ICP0R can work as a dominant negative to repress ICP0 activity. Although a band at the size of ICP0R was detected at low level

in some cell lines^[57], it remains unclear whether this is a product from alternative splicing or a product of proteolytic cleavage of ICP0. The function of ICP0R in the infection context is unknown.

One important fact about the ICP0 gene is that the coding strand of ICP0 is anti-sense to the latency-associated transcript (LAT), the only transcript that is abundantly expressed in latently infected ganglia neurons^[58,59]. The concept of LAT functioning as the anti-sense RNA to ICP0 mRNA has been explored and microRNAs identified in the LAT region have been shown to regulate ICP0 expression. Likely these actions fine-tune the basal level expression in latency maintenance and reactivation^[60-62].

ICP0 PROTEIN: DOMAINS AND FUNCTIONS

RING finger domain and E3 ubiquitin ligase activity

The three exons of ICP0 gene encodes for a 775-amino acid protein. It contains many functional domains and interacts with multiple binding partners (Table 1). The most important functional domain of ICP0 is the aforementioned C3HC4 zinc containing RING finger, which is located within exon 2 and spans through residues 116-156^[63] (Figure 1). The promiscuous transactivator ability of ICP0 relies on a functional RING finger domain. Deletions or mutations of the consensus cysteine or histidine in the RING finger domain completely abolish the transactivation activity^[63,64]. Recombinant viruses containing such deletions or mutations replicate at a rate similar to that of the ICP0-null virus^[53,63,65]. This region is highly conserved among α -herpesviruses^[34,63]. The structure of ICP0 RING finger has been solved by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR)^[35].

The RING finger domain of ICP0, like many RING superfamily members^[36,66,67], works as an E3 ubiquitin ligase. Mediated by the E2 conjugating enzyme UbcH5a^[68,69], ICP0 uses this domain to ubiquitinate its

Table 1 Infected cell protein 0 functional domains

Domain	Location	Function in HSV-1 replication	Section	Ref.
ICP0 cis-elements				
RING finger	aa 116-156	E3 ubiquitin ligase, degrading PML, Sp100, <i>etc.</i>	RING finger domain and E3 ubiquitin ligase activity	[63-65]
Proline-rich region	aa 241-553	Containing redundant ND10-fusion segments	Proline-rich region and ND10-fusion	[105]
NLS	aa 500-506	Nuclear localization	Nuclear localization domain and ICP0 nuclear/cytoplasmic translocation	[90]
Dimerization domain	aa 617-711	ICP0 self-dimerization, <i>in vivo</i> functions unclear	Dimerization	[115-117]
ND10-retention domain	aa 669-775	Retaining ICP0 at ND10	ND10-retention	[53]
SLSs			SUMO interaction motif and ICP0 substrate recognition	[113]
SLS-4	aa 361-367	Binding to SUMO-1/2/3, stimulating <i>in vitro</i> polyubiquitination		
SLS-5, SLS-7	aa 651-655, 681-685	Binding to SUMO-1, cooperating with SLS-4		
ICP0 binding partners				
RNF8	T67	Degrading RNF8 to regulate DNA damage responses	RNF8	[42,43]
Cyclin D3	D199	Involved in nuclear-to-cytoplasmic translocation of ICP0	Cyclin D3	[46,133-135]
BMAL1	aa 20-241	Activating viral transcription <i>via</i> BMAL1/CLOCK	BMAL1	[48,140]
EF-1δ	aa 543-768	Inhibiting translation <i>in vitro</i> , <i>in vivo</i> functions unclear	EF-1δ interaction	[96]
USP7	K620/K624	USP7 degradation, Cell-dependent ICP0 stabilization,	USP7 interaction	[47,85,88,123]
CoREST	D671/E673	Dislodging HDAC from REST/CoREST/HDAC repressor	CoREST interaction	[49,124]
WDR11	N/A	Regulating virion assembly and egress	WD repeat protein 11	[143]

ICP0: Infected cell protein 0; HSV-1: Herpes simplex virus 1; RING: Really interesting new gene; ND10: Nuclear domains 10; PML: Promyelocytic leukemia; Sp100: Speckled 100 kDa; NLS: Nuclear localization signal; SLS: SIM-like sequence; BMAL1: Brain and muscle ARNT-like protein 1; EF-1δ: Elongation factor 1δ; USP7: Ubiquitin-specific protease 7; SUMO: Small ubiquitin-like modifier; CLOCK: Circadian locomotor output cycles kaput.

substrate proteins and targets them for proteasomal degradation. The first two ICP0 substrates, promyelocytic leukemia (PML) and Sp100 (speckled 100 kDa) were identified by Chelbi-Alix and de Thé^[40]. PML and Sp100 are the major organizer proteins for the dynamic nuclear bodies called nuclear domains 10 (ND10s) or PML nuclear bodies (for reviews, see references^[70,71]). ND10s are nuclear structures that are composed of over 150 constituents^[72]. They are involved in many cellular functions including gene regulation^[73,74], cell cycle arrest^[75], apoptosis^[76], DNA repair^[77] and anti-viral defense^[78]. Degradation of PML and Sp100 by ICP0 leads to the dispersal of ND10 bodies^[79]. In ICP0-null virus infection, depletion of PML and Sp100 was shown to compensate for the loss of ICP0 and to increase viral replication^[41,80]. In PML^{-/-} mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEF), interferon (IFN) caused minimal effects on low multiplicity HSV-1 infection, whereas IFN treatment of PML^{+/+} MEF reduced viral growth at least 1000 folds^[81], suggesting that PML can mediate the IFN inhibition on viral replication. Taken together, PML is an important factor in host defense pathways and ICP0 targets PML, and maybe also Sp100, to alleviate anti-viral repressions.

Additional ICP0 substrates identified up to date include DNA-dependent protein kinase K (DNAPK)^[82], centromeric proteins C and A (CENP-C and CENP-A)^[83,84], ubiquitin-specific protease 7 (USP7)^[85], RNF8^[43], the

111-kDa isoform of poly (ADP-Ribose) glycohydrolase^[86], interferon inducible protein 16 (IFI16)^[44], and tripartite motif (TRIM) protein TRIM27^[87]. Among these substrates, siRNA knock-down of RNF8 or IFI16 promoted the replication of ICP0-null virus^[43,45], suggesting the involvement of these two proteins in host anti-viral defenses. However, depletion of TRIM27 reduced the viral yield in the absence of ICP0^[87], and overexpression of USP7 accelerated gene expression in wild type HSV-1 infection^[88]. These results indicate that not all ICP0 substrates place simple direct repressions on viral gene expression. Some of the substrate proteins may be degraded to regulate a more complicated cell network in order to benefit the overall viral outcome, especially the balanced actions in latent infection.

The E3 ubiquitin ligase activity of ICP0 RING finger is highly regulated by multiple factors, including its subcellular location, its phosphorylation status, and its other functional domains. For example, a failure of ICP0 to completely merge with ND10 bodies blocked substrate access and abolished PML degradation^[53], and two amino acid substitutions in the C-terminal CoREST binding site (D671A/E673A) also negatively affected PML degradation^[89]. The regulatory mechanisms of ICP0 E3 are not completely understood. Some of the known regulations will be discussed more in detail as we describe other important ICP0 properties in this review.

Nuclear localization domain and ICP0 nuclear/cytoplasmic translocation

ICP0 contains a nuclear localization signal (NLS) mapped to the short stretch of basic amino acids VRPRKRR located at residues 500-506^[90] (Figure 1). This arginine-rich NLS is sufficient and necessary for the nuclear localization of transiently transfected ICP0^[90]. However, in infected cells, ICP0 is not an exclusively nuclear protein. Its subcellular distribution is regulated by many other factors in addition to the NLS.

First of all, ICP0 undergoes localization changes during the infection process. Early in infection, newly synthesized ICP0 is immediately transported into the nucleus in the presence of the NLS. Once inside the nucleus, ICP0 is immediately localized to the dynamic nuclear structure ND10^[91]. This leads to the aforementioned degradation of ND10 organizers, PML and Sp100^[40], and the subsequent disruption of ND10 nuclear bodies^[79]. The dynamic interaction between ICP0 and ND10 is critical for the efficient access of ICP0 to its substrates, PML and Sp100, and their subsequent degradation^[53], which will be discussed in depth in section "Proline-rich region and ND10-fusion".

After the dispersal of ND10 bodies, ICP0 diffuses throughout the nucleus. Once its nuclear functions are completed, ICP0 is translocated into the cytoplasm^[92,93]. Many important ICP0 functions are carried out in the nucleus, where ICP0 degrades PML and interacts with REST/CoREST chromatin repressor (see section "CoREST interaction") early in infection. Pre-transfection of irrelevant DNA before infection can prolong ICP0 nuclear localization and delay the cytoplasmic translocation, especially in cell lines that poorly express transgenes^[93]. These results suggest that ICP0 is kept within the nucleus until its nuclear functions are completed^[93].

It is not yet clear how the NLS containing ICP0 protein is translocated into the cytoplasm at late infection. Either the NLS is modified late in infection so that newly translated ICP0 cannot enter the nucleus, or a nuclear export signal (NES) is unmasked late in infection so that nuclear ICP0 is exported. So far, a functional NES has not been identified.

Multiple viral factors have been found to participate in regulating the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic translocation of ICP0. For example, deletion of ICP4 caused ICP0 to lose its nuclear localization. Even at early infection, ICP0 expressed in the ICP4-null virus infected cell was solely found in the cytoplasm^[94]. On the other hand, deletion of ICP27 retained ICP0 within nucleus throughout the infection and overexpression of ICP27 facilitated ICP0 export into the cytoplasm^[94]. Since ICP27 is highly expressed in ICP4-null virus infected cells, ICP27 is likely the factor promoting ICP0 export. Another viral protein, VP22, has also been reported to play a role in the ICP0 cytoplasmic translocation. Deletion or mutation in VP22 restricted a series of viral proteins, including ICP0, inside the nucleus^[95]. Whether or not VP22 affects a general nuclear export pathway and therefore indirectly delays

ICP0 translocation remains unclear.

Functions of cytoplasmic ICP0 are not understood either. Kawaguchi *et al*^[96] reported an interaction between ICP0 and translation elongation factor 1 δ (EF-1 δ) (also see in section "EF1 δ interaction") and showed that ICP0 inhibited *in vitro* translation *via* this interaction. However, regulation of cellular translation by ICP0 is yet to be seen *in vivo*. Paladino *et al*^[97] showed that ICP0 lacking NLS stayed in the cytoplasm and blocked IRF3 activation in infected cells. It remains unknown whether ICP0 directly interacts with IRF3 or secondary mediators are involved in this inhibition. Small amount of ICP0 has also been found in the tegument of purified virions^[98,99]. Although the function of virion-associated ICP0 is not clear, it has been reported that ICP27 dependent cytoplasmic translocation of ICP0 is required for the incorporation of ICP0 into virions^[100]. Delboy *et al*^[101,102] also showed that an active ubiquitination was important for ICP0 to be incorporated into virions. Both RING finger mutation and proteasome inhibition precluded ICP0 from associating with virions. Since defective ubiquitination sequesters ICP0 within the ND10 bodies and prevents the cytoplasmic translocation of ICP0^[89,92], Nicola's results are consistent with the observation that cytoplasmic localization of ICP0 in late infection is a prerequisite for the incorporation of ICP0 into virions. Since up to 49 cellular proteins have also been found in purified virions^[99], the selection mechanism of low copy tegument proteins and their biological significance are not clear.

Proline-rich region and ND10-fusion

In the center of ICP0 protein, there is a long stretch of proline-rich region spanning residues 241 to 553. Initial deletion mapping found that serial deletions from the carboxyl-end of this region resulted in a progressive loss of the ICP0 transactivator activity^[55], indicating the importance of this region in ICP0 functions. Multiple repeats of the PxxP motif in this region can interact with the Src homology 3 (SH3) domain in Cbl-interacting protein 85 kDa (CIN85), and a few other Src kinase family members^[103,104]. Recently, Zheng *et al*^[105] demonstrated that the proline-rich sequences were important to direct the fusion of ICP0 with ND10 nuclear bodies. As discussed above, ICP0 is localized to ND10 at early infection. This colocalization process is composed of three sequential dynamic steps: ND10-adhesion, ND10-fusion and ND10-retention^[53]. Among these steps, a successful ICP0-ND10 fusion is essential for the ICP0 E3 ligase to access and degrade its substrate PML^[53]. The proline-rich region of ICP0 is critical for the ND10-fusion step^[105]. Zheng *et al*^[105] showed that three proline-rich segments located at residues 242-291, 343-391, and 393-441, termed ND10-FS1, ND10-FS2 and ND10-FS3, respectively (Figure 1), redundantly facilitated the ND10-fusion of ICP0. Deletion of one or two ND10-FSs did not substantially affect the fusion process. However when all three ND10-FSs were deleted, ICP0 was blocked from entering the ND10 bodies^[105]. Since most

of the cellular PML is located at ND10, the ICP0-ND10 fusion ensures a quick access of ICP0 to large amount of substrate and leads to an effective PML degradation. This likely increases the efficiency of ICP0 destroying the host restrictive factor PML and therefore enhances gene expression. The redundancy in proline-rich segments indicates the importance of ND10-fusion process in HSV-1 infection. Whether the redundant ND10-FSs synergistically improve the speed of ND10 fusion is a very important question waiting to be answered. It is also unknown whether ND10-FSs work *via* interacting with a SH3 domain or other proline-interacting motifs.

Small ubiquitin-like modifier interaction motif and ICP0 substrate recognition

Small ubiquitin-like modifier (SUMO) is a unique type of post-translational modification found on a variety of proteins. Protein SUMOylation functions in almost every aspect of a cell's life, including cell cycle, genome integrity, subcellular transport, and host immune defenses (for reviews, see references^[15,106-108]). The SUMO moiety is recognized by hydrophobic sequences called the SUMO-interaction motif (SIM)^[109,110]. RING-type E3 ubiquitin ligases that contain a SIM and specifically recognize SUMOylated substrates are classified as SUMO-targeted ubiquitin ligases (STUBL)^[111,112]. Boutell *et al*^[113] identified seven putative SIM-like sequences (SLSs) scattering throughout the ICP0 open reading frame (Figure 1). In yeast-2-hybrid assays, mutations in SLS-4 abolished the interaction between ICP0 and SUMO-2/3, whereas mutations in SLS-5 and SLS-7 did not affect such binding. SLS-4 was also found to be necessary for the *in vitro* ubiquitination of a SUMO-2 chain, indicating that ICP0 can work as a STUBL to preferentially recognize SUMOylated proteins for ubiquitination^[113]. However, a recombinant virus containing mutant SLS-4 did not affect the degradation of endogenous PML in infected cells, while PML with all SUMOylation sites mutated were still degraded by ICP0^[113], suggesting a more complex regulation on ICP0 substrate recognition in addition to the SUMO-SIM interaction. Moreover, although mutations in SLS-5 and SLS-7 did not interfere with the binding between ICP0 and SUMO-2/3, a recombinant virus carrying triple mutations in SLS-4/5/7 greatly demolished the ability of ICP0 to degrade PML^[114]. This suggests there may be differences in the SLS affinities and multiple SLSs may work synergistically in PML degradation.

The C-terminus of ICP0 and a diverse array of functions

The C-terminus of ICP0, broadly defined for the region from downstream of NLS to the carboxyl-end, may be the most active but also the least understood region of ICP0. At least five major functions or interactions have been described in this region.

Dimerization: First, ICP0 is a protein known to aggregate and dimerize *in vitro* and *in vivo*^[115-117]. In chromatography purification, ICP0 was fractionated at a much

bigger molecular weight^[117]. When wild type and mutant ICP0 were co-transfected into the same cell, the wild type ICP0 was able to correct the subcellular distribution of a mislocated mutant ICP0. The dimerization domain has been mapped to C-terminal residues 617-711^[115]. The biological function of ICP0 dimerization is not yet clear.

ND10-retention: The second function of ICP0 C-terminus is related to the ND10 localization property of ICP0. Initial data showed that ICP0 lacking the C-terminus was evenly dispersed throughout the nucleus, compared to the full-length ICP0 that was colocalized to the ND10 bodies^[117]. This led to an assumption that the C-terminus of ICP0 is responsible for ND10 localization^[117,118]. However, recent results from Gu *et al*^[53] showed that the C-terminus of ICP0 was not involved in the recruitment of ICP0 to ND10. In the absence of C-terminus, ICP0 did not aggregate at ND10 but had the ability to degrade PML. When a double mutant of both C-terminal truncation and RING finger mutation was introduced, ICP0 was found to localize at ND10. These results suggest that the C-truncated ICP0 undergoes adhesion and fusion steps to enter ND10, but it cycles in and out of ND10 in a more accelerated mode. Only when the inactive RING blocks the enzymatic reaction into a transition state, can the ICP0-ND10 colocalization be observed in a steady-state immunofluorescence staining. Therefore the C-terminus of ICP0 is responsible for the retention, but not the recruitment, of ICP0 to ND10.

USP7 interaction: The C-terminus of ICP0 also interacts with various proteins, such as USP7^[47], CoREST^[49] and EF-1 δ ^[96], which are from proteasome pathway, chromatin repressor complex and translational machinery, respectively.

USP7 is the first ICP0 interacting protein identified *via* a GST pull-down/protein sequencing assay^[47,119]. This is a deubiquitinase that regulates the ubiquitination status of many important cell check point proteins, such as p53^[120], RE1-silencing transcription factor (REST)^[121], and phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN)^[122]. The minimum sequences required for the strong binding between the two are amino acids 615-633 of ICP0 and amino acids 535-889 of USP7^[123]. The crystal structure of USP7 C-terminal ubiquitin-like domains bound with ICP0 peptide has been solved. Salt bridges between K620/K624 of ICP0 and D762/D764 of USP7 are critical for the interaction, while the peripheral residues form a binding pocket to support the strong ICP0-USP7 interaction^[123]. Consistent structural data have also been obtained from NMR assays^[124].

Initial *in vitro* ubiquitination assays showed that ICP0-USP7 interaction inhibited ICP0 autoubiquitination but promoted USP7 polyubiquitination^[8,85]. Consistent with these observations, the ICP0-USP7 interaction was found essential for the degradation of USP7 by ICP0 in infected cells^[85,88]. However, regarding to ICP0 autoubiquitination,

different groups have reported contradictory results^[85,88]. Boutell *et al*^[85] used HSV-1 (strain 17+) and reported that wild type ICP0 stayed at a steady level after cycloheximide treatment, whereas an R623L/K624I mutant virus, of which ICP0 was incapable of binding to USP7 and was quickly degraded in the presence of cycloheximide. On the other hand, Roizman and colleagues demonstrated that wild type ICP0 of HSV-1 (strain F) underwent rapid degradation at early infection and was only stabilized late in infection^[9,10]. Furthermore, they found that a K620I mutant virus that abolished ICP0-USP7 interaction had enhanced, not reduced, viral gene expression but showed defects in plaque formation^[88]. Therefore, ICP0-USP7 interaction may have profound biological significances, depending upon the virus strains and cell lines. Since both ICP0 and USP7 have a wide range of different substrates that are involved in critical cellular pathways, the interaction between ICP0 and USP7 may be more important in fine-tuning the ubiquitin status of these check point proteins than simply regulating ICP0 self-stability. A complex balance of these proteins may in return affect ICP0 stability in a cell type dependent manner.

CoREST interaction: CoREST binding to ICP0 was discovered by co-immunoprecipitation^[125]. CoREST is the corepressor partner for REST^[126]. REST/CoREST are the key components of a chromatin regulatory complex that determines neural cell fate during development^[127]. The CoREST binding of ICP0 is mapped to the amino acids D671/E673^[89]. Gu *et al*^[125] showed that ICP0-CoREST interaction depended on the presence of viral kinases Us3 and UL13, and a prolonged infection resulted in less binding, suggesting that ICP0-CoREST interaction is a regulated transient process. This interaction was found essential for the dissociation of HDAC1 from REST/CoREST complex in HSV-1 infection^[89,125]. A recombinant virus carrying a dominant negative CoREST incapable of HDAC1-binding showed a higher viral productivity in the absence of ICP0, which means the disruption of HDAC1-CoREST interaction is beneficial for viral replication^[49]. Furthermore, on the molecular level, a recombinant virus containing D671A/E673A mutations had less acetylated histone H3 compared with the wild type virus or a mutant virus that kept the effective ICP0-CoREST interaction^[128]. In contrast to these results, Everett showed that depletion of CoREST did not improve the yield of ICP0-null virus^[129]. The seemingly contradictory results are reconciled from the fact that lysine-specific demethylase-1 (LSD1), another important component in the REST/CoREST complex, is required in HSV-1 replication^[130]. Therefore the stoichiometry of REST/CoREST/LSD1/HDAC components^[127] may play a role in determining the interaction to different viral proteins at different infection phases.

EF1δ interaction: Interaction between ICP0 and EF-1δ was identified through a yeast-2-hybrid screening^[96]. The binding has been mapped to the C-terminal residues

543-768 and found to inhibit *in vitro* translation^[96]. However, *in vivo* function of this interaction is not clear.

For all these different C-terminal functions it is not clear how these seemingly unrelated activities coordinate in this region. Are there different subsets of ICP0 distributed in distinct subcellular compartments? Or some of the components from different pathways converge at certain cellular hubs, such as ND10? Answers to these questions will be the key to understanding the complex functions of ICP0 in both lytic and latent infections.

Other ICP0 interaction partners

Cyclin D3: Cyclin D3 is identified as an ICP0-interacting protein by a yeast-2-hybrid screening^[46]. D-type cyclins form complexes with cyclin-dependent kinases to regulate G1 to S phase transition^[131,132], which can be manipulated by many DNA viruses for the purpose of promoting DNA synthesis in infected cells^[133]. ICP0 interacts with Cyclin D3 through its amino acid D199 located in exon 2, downstream to the RING finger domain (Figure 1). The D199-Cyclin D3 interaction is important in the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic translocation of ICP0. Mutation in cyclin D3 binding site or treatment by CDK4 inhibitor during the infection prevented ICP0 from translocating to the cytoplasm^[134,135], whereas insertion of cyclin D3 gene into the HSV-1 genome to overexpress cyclin D3 led to an accelerated cytoplasmic translocation^[135,136]. The regulation of the cell cycle during HSV-1 infection is a profound event involving multiple factors. For example, HSV-1 ICP22 and UL13 are found to participate in G2/M transition^[137], and CDK inhibitor roscovitine inhibits HSV-1 gene transcription without affecting PML degradation^[138,139]. Moreover, the D199 dependent nuclear-to-cytoplasmic translocation of ICP0 is a process that depends on viral DNA replication and the expression of a late protein(s)^[92]. Therefore different cell cycle regulatory pathways are interwoven with ICP0 phosphorylation, translocation and possibly other infection events. The concerted efforts from both viral and cellular sides determine the ultimate productivity of an HSV-1 infection.

Brain and muscle ARNT-like protein 1: Brain and muscle ARNT-like protein 1 (BMAL1) interacting with ICP0 is also identified by a yeast-2-hybrid screening^[48]. The interaction site to BMAL1 is located in the exon 2 of ICP0^[48]. BMAL1 and circadian locomotor output cycles kaput (CLOCK), a histone acetyltransferase, forms a heterodimer to regulate mammalian circadian oscillation^[140]. During HSV-1 infection, CLOCK is stabilized and recruited to ND10, which acts as a transcription activator to stimulate viral transcription and replication^[141].

RNF8: The identification of ICP0-RNF8 interaction was based on the observation that RNF8 was degraded by ICP0 in HSV-1 infection^[42,43]. RNF8 is an RING type E3 ubiquitin ligase that plays a key role in histone ubiquitination and chromatin remodeling upon DNA double-

stranded break (DBS) damage^[142,143]. ICP0-RNF8 binding is mapped to the phosphorylated amino acid T67 of ICP0, and amino acid R42 of RNF8^[43]. A recombinant virus carrying the T67A mutation did not degrade RNF8 but had no problems in degrading DNAPK or USP7, which means ICP0-RNF8 interaction is likely important for a specific RNF8 substrate recognition^[43]. Interestingly, knock-down of RNF8 only mildly delayed *ICP27* gene transcription and had no effects on viral DNA replication, suggesting that the involvement of ICP0-RNF8 interaction in responding to DBS DNA damage is, again, a complex action.

WD repeat protein 11: WD repeat protein 11 (WDR11) is a newly reported ICP0 interacting protein identified by co-immunoprecipitation^[144]. Taylor *et al*^[144] showed that the trans-Golgi network localized WDR11 pulled down several viral proteins including gB, VP16 and VP5 in addition to ICP0, suggesting its possible role in virion assembly and egress.

POST-TRANSLATIONAL PROCESSING OF ICP0

Modification

ICP0 protein contains 775 amino acids, but the apparent molecular weight of ICP0 is about 110 kDa^[3], suggesting the presence of post-translational modifications for ICP0. First of all, ICP0 is highly phosphorylated. On two-dimensional gel electrophoreses, ICP0 phosphorylation status changes along with the progression of infection^[6]. The phosphorylation sites on ICP0 has been mapped to three phosphor-clusters by tandem mass spectrometry. Cluster 1 is at residues 222-250, cluster 2 is at residues 356-386, and cluster 3 is at residues 505-528^[145] (Figure 1). Davido and colleagues showed that serine/threonine mutations in these clusters demolished the transactivation activity of ICP0 and reduced the viral replication in mice^[145,146]. Viral protein UL13 was found important for ICP0 phosphorylation^[147]. However, how ICP0 phosphorylation coordinates with ICP0 localizations or ICP0 protein-protein interactions to affect the infection is not yet known.

Other modifications of ICP0 are understudied. ICP0 is believed to be nucleotidylated because it can be radiolabeled in infected cells cultured with [α -³²P]GTP or [2-³H]ATP containing medium^[5]. ICP0 may also be ubiquitinated because it is found to autoubiquitinate itself in *in vitro* polyubiquitination assays^[8].

Proteolytic cleavage and rapid turnover

At least in the infection of HSV-1 (strain F), ICP0 undergoes a rapid degradation at early infection in both proteasome dependent and proteasome independent manners. The protein is then stabilized at late infection^[9]. The proteasome independent cleavage occurs in the central region of ICP0 and the rapid turnover depends on the *cis* presence of an active RING finger as well as the

phosphorylation status of ICP0^[9,10].

CONCLUSION

Like all herpesvirus family members, HSV-1 establishes latent infection. The peculiar life cycle of HSV-1 necessitates a close interaction and a delicate balance between the virus and its host. ICP0 of HSV-1, a unique multifunctional protein, plays a key regulatory role to enhance gene expression in lytic infection and to reactivate virion production from latent infection. This protein is tightly regulated on transcriptional, post-transcriptional and post-translational levels. Through its intrinsic functional domains and its ability to interact with a wide range of binding partners, ICP0 can target many cellular protein for proteasomal degradation and regulate various cell pathways *via* protein-protein interactions.

To achieve its multiple functions, ICP0 undergoes modification and subcellular translocation. Early in infection, ICP0 is immediately imported into the nucleus upon synthesis. Once inside the nucleus, it is recruited to adhere at and then fuse with ND10 to co-mingle with ND10 components. The ND10-fusion process ensures ICP0 to quickly access large amounts of PML and Sp100 for degradation and to extensively interact with many of the regulatory factors located within ND10. This early step in HSV-1 infection is vital for the outcome of a productive infection, not only by destroying and dispersing the repressive factors but also by capturing favorable factors that help establishing replication compartment. Upon viral DNA entering the nucleus, host cell attempt to silence the foreign intrusion by: (1) forming ND10 bodies near viral DNA^[148]; (2) recruiting chromatin repressors^[149]; and (3) stimulating IFN responses^[45]. In a way, HSV-1 deploys ICP0 to approach ND10 is a "smart" move because ND10 serves as a molecular hub for many cellular pathways and it is able to recruit component factors upon specific stimulations^[78]. Therefore, adopting factors recruited to ND10 during infection while destroying and repelling restrictive components is an effective strategy to boost viral replication. In fact, various cellular check point proteins such as USP7, CoREST, Cyclin D3, BMAL1 and CLOCK are all recruited to ND10 upon infection and they are found in HSV-1 replication compartments^[47,135,141,149]. In fact, HSV-1 replication compartments are established at the sites where ND10 loci have been located before their dispersal^[149]. ICP0 interacting with the molecular hub ND10 is a major adaptation to coordinate the multi-tasking of ICP0 functions. Likely the sequential steps of ICP0-ND10 interaction, ND10-adhesion, ND10-fusion, ND10-retention^[53], play important roles in achieving the "destroy and then take over" strategy.

Once the replication compartments are set up in the infected cells, ICP0 may have additional functions in a diffused pattern in nucleus and then in the cytoplasm. Whether the trafficking of ICP0 is regulated by post-translational modification or proteolytic processing is currently unknown. Solving the road map of ICP0 being in the right place at the right time will be a continuous

interest in the near future for herpes virology field.

ICP0 is required for latency reactivation^[24]. The subtle balance of ICP0 level in latent infection may be achieved by microRNA regulation. The rapid turnover of ICP0 on the protein level may also be essential for the maintenance and reactivation of latent infection. After all, one good way to achieve massive spreading is to keep the sporadic but not severe recurrent infections.

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Basic Study

Modelling the prevalence of hepatitis C virus amongst blood donors in Libya: An investigation of providing a preventive strategy

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Institutional animal care and use committee statement: We declare that no animals or human volunteers were used in the study.

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Abstract

AIM: To determine hepatitis C virus (HCV) seroprevalence among the Libyan population using blood donors and applying the autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model to predict future trends and formulate plans to minimize the burden of HCV infection.

METHODS: HCV positive cases were collected from 1008214 healthy blood donors over a 6-year period from 2008 to 2013. Data were used to construct the ARIMA model to forecast HCV seroprevalence among blood donors. The validity of the model was assessed using the mean absolute percentage error between the observed and fitted seroprevalence. The fitted ARIMA model

was used to forecast the incidence of HCV beyond the observed period for the year 2014 and further to 2055.

RESULTS: The overall prevalence of HCV among blood donors was 1.8%, varying over the study period from 1.7% to 2.5%, though no significant variation was found within each calendar year. The ARIMA model showed a non-significant auto-correlation of the residuals, and the prevalence was steady within the last 3 years as expressed by the goodness-of-fit test. The forecast incidence showed an increase in HCV seropositivity in 2014, ranging from 500 to 700 per 10000 population, with an overall prevalence of 2.3%-2.7%. This may be extended to 2055 with minimal periodical variation within each 6-year period.

CONCLUSION: The applied model was found to be valuable in evaluating the seroprevalence of HCV among blood donors, and highlighted the growing burden of such infection on the Libyan health care system. The model may help in formulating national policies to prevent increases in HCV infection and plan future strategies that target the consequences of the infection.

Key words: Autoregressive integrated moving average model; Libya; Hepatitis C virus; Blood donors

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Core tip: Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection has major consequences and an overwhelming impact particularly among developing countries, hence prediction of its prevalence is important for future planning to mitigate its impact. This is an innovative study highlighting the importance of using a modified mathematical model to forecast and predict the future prevalence and consequence of HCV infection using data collected from blood donors. The results will allow strategists in health care services to plan immediate and long-term policies.

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) has been known to be one of the leading causes of chronic viral hepatitis with devastating consequences such as cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma which are the major reasons for liver transplantation^[1]. The geo-epidemiology of HCV infection varies greatly and is dynamic over time^[2]. Indeed, 3% of the world's population are chronically infected with HCV and over 3 million new infection occur each year^[3]. Africa

and Asia represent the largest reservoir of chronic HCV infection^[4,5], though prevalence varies from one country to another and among regions within each country^[2,3]. The prevalence of HCV infection are highest in Africa, ranging from 1% to 26%, and Egypt, Senegal, and Cameroon have the highest rates worldwide^[6].

Hepatitis C is well documented in Libya and different studies have shown the prevalence of HCV infection and genotypes among Libyans^[7-9]. Recently a comprehensive study in over 1% of the Libyan population has shown that the prevalence of HCV infection is 1.2%, varying from 0.6% to 2.2% according to the region within the country^[10]. The prevalence indicated an alarming increase in HCV among the younger generation, particularly within new emerging risk groups in Libyan society such as intravenous drug users (IVDUs)^[10,11]. As age increases and disease progresses among infected individuals, there will be an increase in expected complications. This will place an increasing burden on the Libyan health care system which is still developing. Hence, studies should be directed to formulate policies to combat the effects of infection.

Early identification of epidemics of infectious diseases and prediction of their outcomes are an important step toward implementing effective intervention measurements and reducing mortality and morbidity^[12]. Such goals are a challenge in health care surveillance studies. Mathematical dynamic modeling has contributed greatly in exploring such challenges. Surveillance data however, are usually necessary for these modeling purposes^[13].

Different statistical models including linear regression and correlation coefficients have been used for prediction of viral hepatitis. Autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) or Box-Jenkins has potential application in studies of disease dynamics^[14]. Helfinstein was the first to show that the ARIMA model can be used successfully for forecasting and predicting the different relationships between viral infections and associated diseases^[15]. Different studies applied such modeling to detect spikes, steps, and trends for hepatitis E, hepatitis B and hepatitis C infection^[16,17]. A considerable effort has been undertaken to forecast the epidemiology of hepatitis C, and different models were used to estimate the burden and complications of the infection^[18]. Recently, Corson *et al*^[19] used a mathematical model to project the future of HCV among IVDUs and its impact on the future development of HCV-related morbidity and mortality.

Blood donors are generally considered to be a healthier cohort of any community and viral hepatitis seropositivity among them may mirror the seroprevalence in the general population^[20]. In Libya, a study conducted between 1991 and 2001 indicated that the prevalence of HCV infection ranged from 1.2% to 1.6% among blood donors, similar to the prevalence among the general population reported in 2014 of 1.2%, though it was much higher (20.5%) among hospital personnel^[7,10]. Therefore, modeling and forecasting using HCV data from blood donors may provide an opportunity for planning

Table 1 Number of blood donors included in the study, Tripoli, Libya, 2008-2013

Study period	No. of volunteers	No. HCV seropositive
2008	35859	937
2009	65330	1713
2010	254177	3958
2011	173873	3060
2012	260139	4480
2013	218836	3749
Total	1008214	17897

2011-2013 were post-revolution years where many Libyan were injured during the Libyan conflict (2011)^[35]. HCV: Hepatitis C virus.

and intervention to control HCV infection. In this study, we aimed to forecast the prevalence of HCV trends among blood donors by analyzing HCV dynamics and highlighting the need for further intervention strategies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical consideration

The study was reviewed by the Board of the Faculty of Medicine, Tripoli, Libya, who declared that the utilization and analysis of microbial epidemiological data did not require oversight by the Libyan National Ethics Committee. Hence, no ethical approval was needed for this study.

Study population

A total of 1008214 healthy individuals, aged 18 to 50 years, were recruited from three different main blood banks in Tripoli over 6 years from 2008-2013 (Table 1). These included Tripoli Central Hospital, Karda Teaching Hospital, and Tripoli Reference Laboratory. Each person was subjected to screening for known risk factors associated with blood donation according to the national and international standards applicable in all three hospitals. Those who failed to meet the criteria for blood donation were excluded from the study, such as those who had previous blood transfusion, jaundice, a history of illicit drug-taking, and other potential risk factors.

Laboratory diagnosis

The laboratory analysis was carried out using ELISA (Vitros EciQ, Orthodiagnostic-Switzerland), and samples were considered to be confirmed positive according to the manufacturer's instructions. HCV infection was defined as the presence of anti-HCV antibodies in the serum as detected by ELISA.

Modeling

The ARIMA model was developed to forecast the incidence of HCV infection among blood donors in Libya. This was applied using data for 72 mo between January 2008 and December 2013 to then forecast the incidence of HCV infection from January to December 2014 and predict the prevalence of HCV infection from 2008 to 2055 under nonexclusive expectation. The model was constructed

Table 2 Seroprevalence of hepatitis C virus among blood donors, Tripoli, Libya, 2008-2013

Yr	Prevalence (%)	OR	95%CI		Minimum	Maximum
			Lower	Upper		
2008	2.6	1.4	2.3	2.8	2.0	3.2
2009	2.6	1.4	1.7	3.4	1.1	4.1
2010	1.5	0.8	1.3	1.6	0.9	2.1
2011	1.7	0.7	1.3	2.0	0.8	2.8
2012	1.7	1.1	0.8	2.6	0.6	2.9
2013	1.7	1.1	0.9	2.5	0.7	2.7
Total	1.8	1.1	1.4	2.5	1.0	3.0

using the Box-Jenkins method. The identification and selection steps for ARIMA were carried *via* autocorrelation and partial autocorrelation functions. The model parameters were determined by the maximum likelihood method. Goodness-of-fit among ARIMA models was compared using diagnostic checks such as residual analysis and other relevant information. The accuracy of the model was finally subjected to critical estimation and rigorous checking to fulfill the required criteria for the model. The details of the ARIMA model were recently described by Yu *et al.*^[21] in 2013 and used to analyze the epidemiology of HIV infection among the Korean population.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel, Minitab version 15 (State College, PA, United States), and SPSS version 16 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States). A *P*-value < 0.05 indicated a significant difference between HCV and HBV prevalence. The Excel 2007 forecast function was used to predict the number of infected people. The following equation was used to calculate the expected number of infected persons each year, $1-Y = 613.2X + 836.5$, where *Y* = number of expected infected persons with HCV, and *X* = the serial number for the year calculated from 2008; for example for 2009 and 2010 the serial numbers were 2 and 3, respectively.

RESULTS

A total of 1008214 volunteer blood donors were screened for HCV over a 6-year period from 2008 till 2013. Of these, 17897 were found to be positive for anti-HCV antibodies, with an overall prevalence of 1.8%. There was no apparent monthly difference in HCV infection among individuals screened during the same year. Based on year-to-year analysis, a substantial variation in the seroprevalence of HCV was observed as shown in Table 2. The highest prevalence of HCV infection was reported in 2008 and 2009 as (2.6%) though it was 1.5% in 2010 and 1.7% in 2011-2013. In 2008, 35869 individuals were reviewed, of whom 937 (2.6%) were positive for anti-HCV antibodies. During 2009 the number of screened people doubled, and 1713 (2.6%) were positive for anti-HCV antibodies. In 2010, the number screened was 254177, a 7-fold increase compared with 2008, and 3958 (1.5%) were positive for HCV antibodies. In

2011, 3060 (1.7%) were HCV-positive. Although 260139 people were screened during 2012, the largest number over the 5-year period, the prevalence was the same (1.7%) as to that in 2011 and 2013, when a combined total of 218836 persons were screened (Table 1).

ARIMA modeling was applied to the data for identification, estimation, and then forecasting of HCV infection. The first stage was construction of an estimation model followed by forecasting and model evaluation. The data collected from 2008-2013 was used to construct the ARIMA model as depicted by Box *et al.*^[14]. Figure 1 shows the sample autocorrelation and partial autocorrelation functions [autocorrelation function (ACF) and partial ACF (PACF)] for the case structure which allowed identification of an appropriate ARIMA form to model the stationary series. A small variation was noted but it was not statistically different from zero which confirms the adequacy of the ARIMA model. The model forecast a steady increase for the following 6 years.

The sample ACF and PACF in Figure 2 showed a good fit which allowed us to determine the appropriate ARIMA model for HCV seroprevalence among blood donors. The adequacy of the model was evident as the residuals of autocorrelation had little variation with no significant difference ($P > 0.05$).

The plot of observed vs fitted values indicated that the model provided an excellent fit of the data as shown in Figure 3. The ARIMA model was used to forecast HCV prevalence for 72 mo over the 6-year period from January 2008 to December 2013 (Figure 3). Detailed analysis of observed vs forecast values of HCV prevalence over the study period showed a steady increase, with a maximum value at 1.8% to 2.01%, and an increasing tendency beyond the observed period in the short-term forecast (January-December 2014), reaching a maximum of 700 per 10000 population (2.3% to 2.7%). This was then used as a basis for estimating the prevalence of HCV infection among the Libyan population up to 2055, based on 6-year periods (Figure 4). According to our model, the prevalence of HCV infection will decrease and thus all sequelae of the infection will continue to decrease steadily in the future.

DISCUSSION

HCV infection has been known to be an important cause of chronic liver diseases though accurate representative epidemiological data are difficult to obtain, particularly in developing countries, as this infection has been considered to be endemic^[2]. Statistical analysis of surveillance data on the prevalence of various infections was shown to be helpful in establishing a hypotheses to highlight and anticipate the dynamics of HCV infection and subsequently implement appropriate preventive measures and allocation of required resources^[22]. The ARIMA model is one of the most widely used forecasting techniques due to its structured modeling base and acceptable forecasting performance^[23].

In this study, we developed a calibrated ARIMA model for HCV infection with the aim of taking full advantage

of available epidemiological information from registered blood donors in Libyan blood banks. The overall prevalence of HCV among the blood donors was found to be 1.8%, ranging from 2.5% in 2008 to 1.7% in 2013. This is consistent with a recent comprehensive study published by our group who reported that the prevalence of HCV among the Libyan population varied from 0.6% to 2.2%^[10]. Comparing such results with regional published data, the prevalence of HCV infection was found to be similar to that in neighboring countries, with 1.6% in Tunis and 1.8% in Algeria, though it was higher in Egypt (22%)^[24,25]. However, this was higher than the prevalence among developed countries such as the United States and Germany ($< 1.5\%$)^[26,27]. Hence, further studies are needed to elucidate the different factors associated with the higher prevalence of HCV among Libyan blood donors.

In our study, the applied model showed accuracy for the prevalence and dynamics of HCV infection among blood donors over a 6-year period and the forecast after that. This is in agreement with other studies who also declared that this model provides a better forecast than traditional methods for case notification of an infectious disease^[28]. Although the prevalence of HCV was steady over the last 3 years (1.7% for 2011-2013), we predicted an increase for the year after. This was consistent with other studies from China and Latin America which showed that the prevalence of HCV was steady or increasing and that the number of infected individuals will increase^[29,30]. This suggested that other risk factors are set to play a major role in continued new infection. Further studies are needed to clarify such an assumption.

Despite the increase in rates of HCV seropositivity in this study, we did not predict the burden of HCV infection over the next decades, nor did we calculate the estimated number of individual morbidities associated with HCV infection. However, different studies have shown that the prevalence of HCV-related cirrhosis is expected to increase by 24% within a decade, though decompensated cirrhosis cases and hepatocellular carcinoma will increase by 50% within the same period^[31-33]. Hence, further studies are needed to elucidate such consequent complications of HCV infection among Libyan populations.

Modeling studies have projected a dismal future for HCV infection and related disease burden. In general, these models make forecasts based on current conditions of low rates of screening and treatment, and thus do not include a widespread program of identifying and treating the large proportion of undiagnosed HCV-infected individuals^[34]. According to the results of our model, the incidence of the more serious outcomes of HCV infection will continue to rise, at least until 2055, unless modified. In our projections of HCV infection to 2055, we did not take into account the effective HCV prevention programs and the possible impact of the use of antiviral medications. Both these developments could have a considerable impact on our future projections, and thus the prevalence of HCV infection projected to 2055 may be less than that estimated by our model. Furthermore,

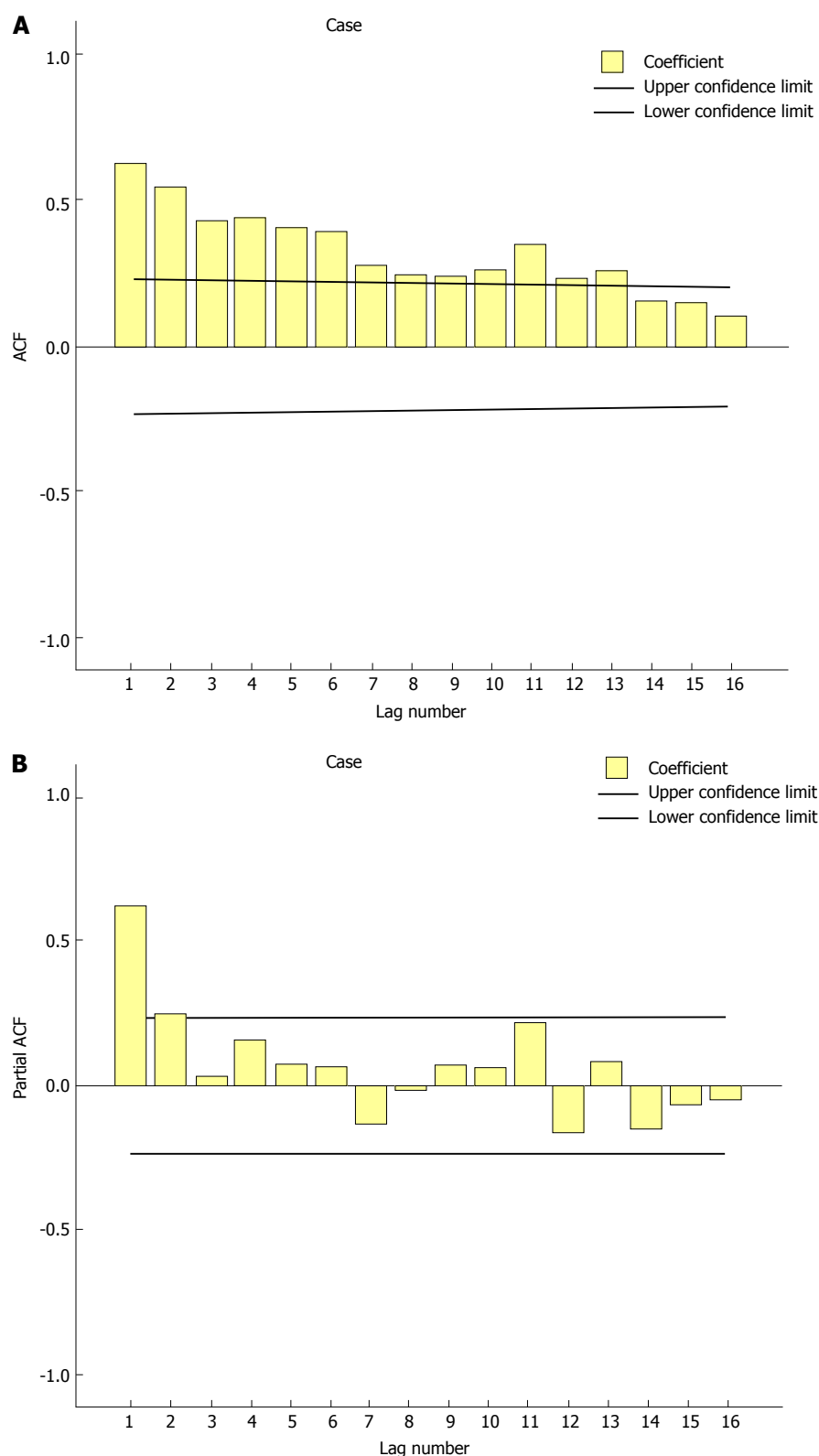


Figure 1 Correlogram and partial correlogram for a case structure control used for autoregressive integrated moving average model. A: ACF; B: Partial ACF. ACF: Autocorrelation function.

socioeconomic conditions in the country should be taken in consideration, particularly among developing countries; Libya is experiencing a major challenge regarding its geographical, political and social-ethnic identity^[35,36]. Thus, future planning regarding infectious disease should

be prioritized^[37,38].

Monitoring HCV seropositivity among blood donors could be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the national efforts and guidelines to provide safe blood donation and good blood bank services^[39]. In many

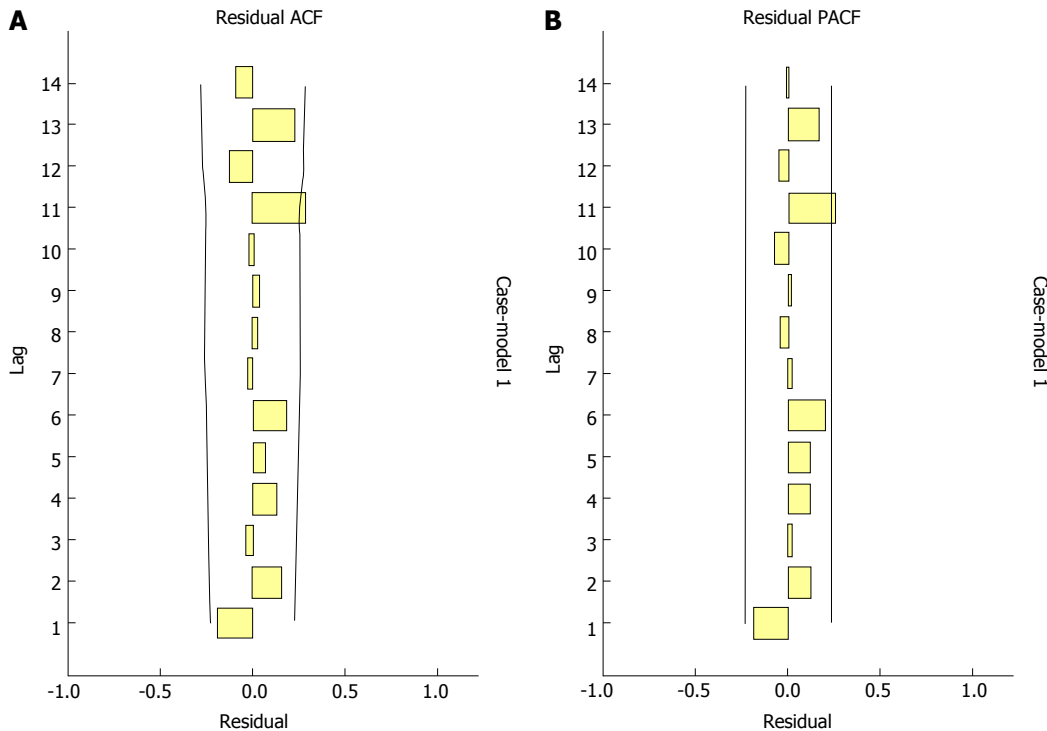


Figure 2 Residual plots for the final autoregressive integrated moving average (2, 1, 7) model of hepatitis C virus seroprevalence among volunteer blood donors in Libya, 2008-2013. A: ACF; B: Partial ACF. Lines indicate 95%CI. ACF: Autocorrelation function.

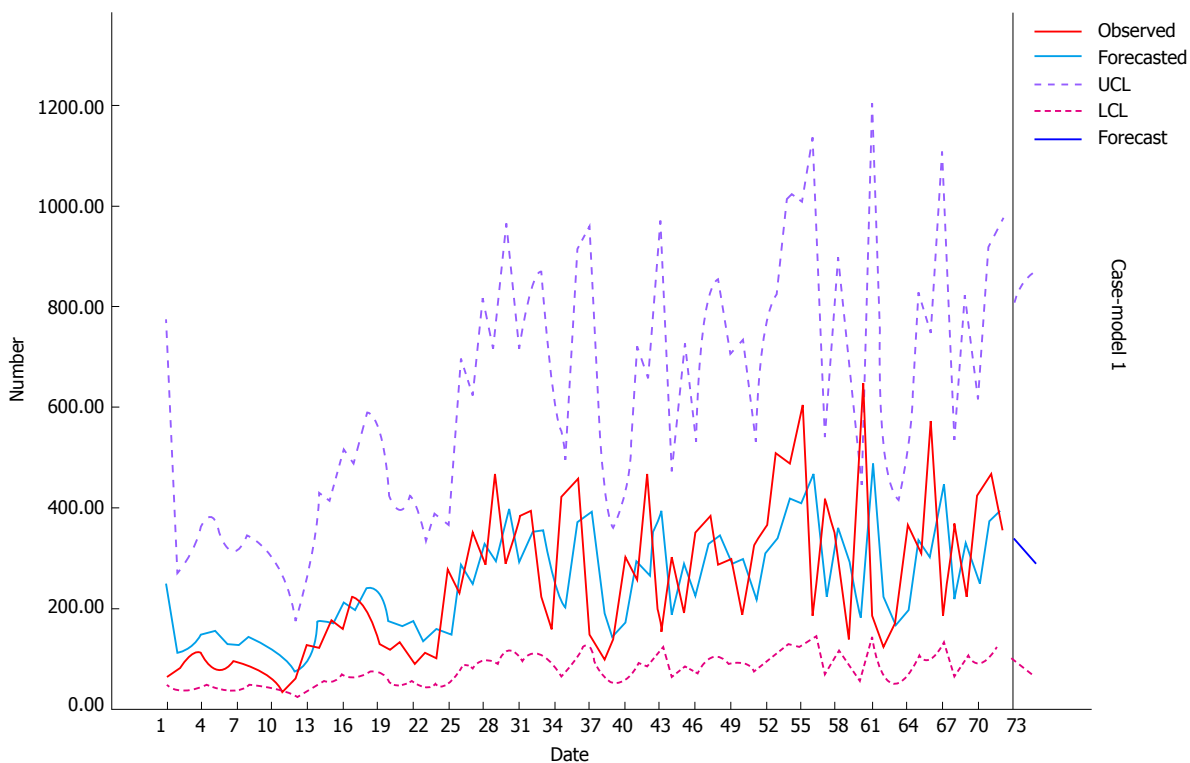


Figure 3 Number of observed and forecast hepatitis C virus seropositive volunteers among blood donors in Libya, 2008-2013. Date: Period of observation (months: 2008-2013); Number: Estimated number of HCV seropositive/month. UCL: Upper confidence limit; LCL: Lower confidence limit; HCV: Hepatitis C virus.

countries, HCV transmission rates decreased markedly with the introduction of blood screening^[40]. Despite such a decline, mathematical models still predict a continuing rise in the prevalence of HCV infection within

blood banks^[41]. This was evident in our study where the increase in HCV seroprevalence may be attributed to the lack of quality assurance within the blood donation system. In Arab countries, blood transfusion is still a

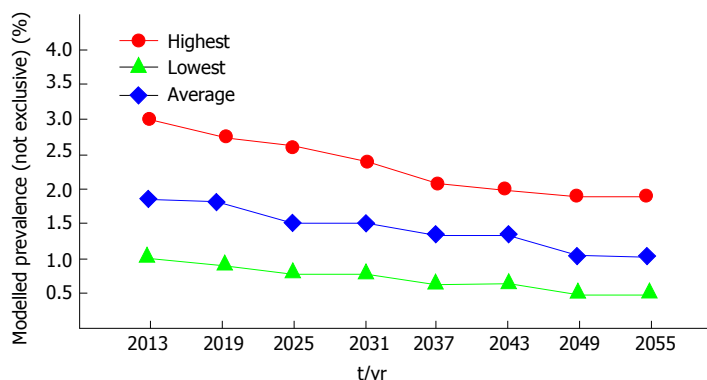


Figure 4 Modeled prevalence (not exclusive¹) of hepatitis C virus infection by 6-year period, Libya, 2008-2055. ¹Estimates assume stable risk populations and HCV infection risks and do not adjust for treatment. HCV: Hepatitis C virus.

problem due to lack of an organized infrastructure and altruistic volunteers. The main sources of blood donation are usually relatives and friends who attend because of social pressure and in an emergency where questions regarding risk behaviors are rarely asked^[2].

Many difficulties surround the determination of HCV prevalence using blood donors, since high risk groups including IVDUs are often excluded from blood donation, leading to underestimation of the true prevalence of HCV infection^[42]. Nevertheless, our data do not necessarily represent the true HCV prevalence among the general population and thus are in need of further updating. The applicability and effectiveness of this monitoring system in its practical application as conducted here is able to detect the epidemic situation of HCV infection in Libya. However, such an infection is dynamic and evolves over time. Therefore, the model should be periodically reassessed and updated to maintain long-term sustainability and precision. This study highlights the need for preventive initiatives and strategies to be adapted by health care policy-makers to reduce HCV infection.

In conclusion, there is an important need for monitoring and predicting the prevalence of HCV infection to reduce the substantial consequences particularly in developing countries. The model applied was verified and could be used to monitor and predict the epidemiology of HCV infection. A better understanding of the epidemiology of HCV infection will allow health authorities to revise and plan new strategies within the health care system.

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COMMENTS

Background

Viral hepatitis, particularly hepatitis C virus (HCV) is known to be a serious

problem particularly among developing countries. Hence, using a simple and reliable method for predicting the future course and consequences of this infection are a priority for researchers and health care planners. Reliable data regarding the prevalence of HCV infection among blood donors are available in all blood banks and this could be used to achieve such objectives.

Research frontiers

Studies on the prevalence of HCV infection utilizing blood bank data could be used as a basis for future planning. However, such studies are rare and few researchers have focused on using such data as a model for future planning.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This is a novel study which applied a mathematical model utilizing basic data from blood banks regarding the pathogen HCV. This is a rare study which modeled data to predict the prevalence of HCV infection among the general population over the next 50 years (2008-2055).

Applications

The practical approach of this study allows strategists and health care professionals to plan appropriate intervention and prevention methods not only to minimize the spread of HCV infection but also to reduce the associated consequences and complications, such as hepatocellular carcinoma and cirrhosis, and may be used further for other infections such as hepatitis B virus and human immunodeficiency virus.

Terminology

The ARIMA model is an autoregressive integrated moving average or Box-jenkins mathematical model which has a potential application in studying disease dynamics. The model can be used successfully for forecasting and predicting the relationships among viral infections and associated diseases.

Peer-review

This is a well conducted epidemiologic study carried out in a developing country.

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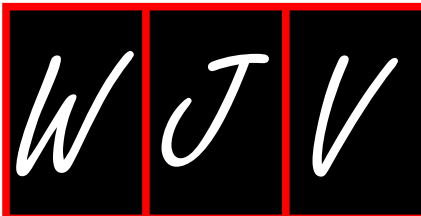
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Basic Study

Pathogenicity of a currently circulating Chinese variant pseudorabies virus in pigs

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Abstract

AIM: To test the pathogenicity of pseudorabies virus (PRV) variant HN1201 and compare its pathogenicity with a classical PRV Fa strain.

METHODS: The pathogenicity of the newly-emerging PRV variant HN1201 was evaluated by different inoculating routes, virus loads, and ages of pigs. The classical PRV Fa strain was then used to compare with HN1201 to determine pathogenicity. Clinical symptoms after virus infection were recorded daily and average daily body weight was used to measure the growth performance of pigs. At necropsy, gross pathology and histopathology were used to evaluate the severity of tissue damage caused by virus infection.

RESULTS: The results showed that the efficient infection method of RPV HN1201 was *via* intranasal inoculation

at 10^7 TCID₅₀, and that the virus has high pathogenicity to 35- to 127-d old pigs. Compared with Fa strain, pigs infected with HN1201 showed more severe clinical symptoms and pathological lesions. Immunochemistry results revealed HN1201 had more abundant antigen distribution in extensive organs.

CONCLUSION: All of the above results suggest that PRV variant HN1201 was more pathogenic to pigs than the classical Fa strain.

Key words: Pseudorabies virus; Pathogenicity; Virus variant; Gross pathology; Histopathology

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Core tip: Pseudorabies virus (PRV) variant HN1201 has pathogenicity in 35 to 127-d old pigs *via* intranasal inoculation at 10^7 TCID₅₀. Intranasal inoculation is more efficient than intramuscular inoculation for PRV challenge. PRV variant HN1201 showed higher pathogenic ability, as shown by the more severe clinical symptoms, pathological lesions, and abundant antigen distribution in extensive organs than the classical PRV Fa strain.

Yang QY, Sun Z, Tan FF, Guo LH, Wang YZ, Wang J, Wang ZY, Wang LL, Li XD, Xiao Y, Tian KG. Pathogenicity of a currently circulating Chinese variant pseudorabies virus in pigs. *World J Virol* 2016; 5(1): 23-30 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2220-3249/full/v5/i1/23.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5501/wjv.v5.i1.23>

INTRODUCTION

Pseudorabies virus (PRV), also known as Aujeszky's disease virus or Suid herpesvirus type 1 (SuHV-1), is the causative agent of pseudorabies (PR). Belonging to the family *Herpesviridae*, subfamily *Alphaherpesvirinae*, and genus *Varicellovirus*, the virus causes substantial economic losses in the pig industry worldwide^[1-3]. The PRV genome is a double-stranded linear DNA which is about 143 kb in size and has about 70 ORFs^[4,5]. This pathogen can infect numerous mammals, including carnivores, ruminants, and rodents, yet pigs are the only natural host for PRV as the reservoir of the virus^[6,7]. PRV infection is characterized by neurologic symptoms and death in newborn piglets, respiratory disorders in elder pigs, and reproductive failure like stillbirths and abortions in sows. Like other alphaherpesviruses, PRV can establish a lifelong latent infection in the peripheral nervous system of infected pigs. Latently infected pigs can be recognized as a source of reinfection when the latent viral genome reactivates spontaneously and the infectious virus is developed^[8].

Attenuated live or killed PRV vaccines have played

a critical role in the control and eradication of PR. Bartha-K61, a vaccine imported from Hungary, have been widely used in China since the 1970s, and was reported to provide complete protection from field virus infection^[2]. Nevertheless, since October 2011, severe PRV outbreaks have occurred on pig farms and spread rapidly to the northern parts of China^[9,10]. Most of the infected farms had used Bartha-K61 vaccine according to the manufacturer's instructions, and the serum samples obtained from the infected pigs had a considerable positive rate of gE Ab detected by ELISA (IDEXX Laboratories, Westbrook, United States)^[10,11]. The affected pigs presented with multiple clinical signs, including high fever (usually $\geq 40.5^\circ\text{C}$), depression, anorexia, respiratory distress, shivering, and systemic neurological symptoms^[11,12]. Pathologic examination of viscera samples collected from dead pigs from different provinces displayed consolidation, edema, and hemorrhage in the lungs, as well as necrosis in the kidneys, indicating that newly-emerging PRV variants may have higher pathogenicity than the classical strains^[13]. The PRV infection in vaccinated pig herds indicates that the traditional Bartha-K61 vaccine could not provide complete protection to the current prevalent PRV variants in China^[11,14]. Accordingly, it is imperative to study the pathogenicity of the currently circulating PRV variant strains and develop newly effective vaccines to tackle the problem.

In this study, we first established a PRV variant HN1201 infection model in pigs according to different inoculation routes, virus loads, and pig ages. The characterized PRV variant HN1201 was then compared with the virulent classical PRV strain Fa to determine pathogenicity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Viruses and cells

The PRV variant HN1201 was previously isolated from the brain of infected pigs in Henan province^[12]. Briefly, the infected pig brain sample was homogenized and the supernatant of homogenization was subjected to 0.22 μm filtration. The filtrated supernatant was inoculated on a PK-15 cell monolayer until the appearance of CPE after 3 d. The virus was harvested after two cycles of freeze-thaw and store at -80°C until use. The classical PRV Fa was purchased from the Institute of China Veterinary Medicine Inspection^[15]. Permissive PK-15 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium supplemented with 5% fetal bovine sera.

Experiment design and animals

To establish a PRV HN1201 infection model in pigs, in the first animal experiment, twenty 60-d old pigs, five 35-d old pigs, and five 127-d old pigs were used to evaluate the pathogenicity of the virus by different inoculating routes, virus loads, and ages of pigs. Twenty 60-d old pigs were randomly allocated into the first four groups

Table 1 Outcome of infections with pseudorabies virus HN1201 strain in pigs

Group	Pig age (d)	Pig No.	Virus titer	Route	Euthanized
1	60	5	10 ⁷	im	3/5
2	60	5	10 ⁷	in	5/5
3	60	5	10 ⁶	in	2/5
4	60	5	10 ⁵	in	1/5
5	35	5	10 ⁷	in	5/5
6	127	5	10 ⁷	in	5/5

im: Intramuscular; in: Intranasal.

(Table 1). Pigs in group 1 and group 2 were inoculated with 10⁷ TCID₅₀ PRV HN1201 strain *via* intramuscular (im) and intranasal (in) routes, respectively. Pigs in group 3 and 4 were inoculated *via* the intranasal route with 10⁶ TCID₅₀ and 10⁵ TCID₅₀ of PRV HN1201 strain, respectively. To test the susceptibility of pigs to the virus at different ages, five 35-d old pigs in group 5 and five 127-d old pigs in group 6 were inoculated *via* the intranasal route with 10⁷ TCID₅₀ PRV HN1201 (Table 1).

In the second animal study, ten 56-d old pigs were randomly divided into two groups with five pigs in each group. Pigs in group I were inoculated with 10⁷ TCID₅₀ PRV HN1201 *via* the intranasal route and group II were inoculated with classical PRV Fa strain with the same dose and route.

All pigs used in the above two animal trials were free of PRV and excluded by using gB- and gE-ELISA Kits (HerdChek PRV, IDEXX, United States) and PCR method. All pigs were also free of porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus, classical swine fever virus, and porcine circovirus 2. Experimental pigs in different groups were insulated in separate rooms throughout the study. After virus inoculation, rectal temperature and clinical signs were recorded on a daily basis. At 14 d post-inoculation (dpi), all surviving pigs were humanely euthanized and necropsied, and different organ samples were collected. The collected samples were subjected to pathological examination and gently inflated with 10% neutral-buffered formalin for immunohistochemistry examination. All animal trials in this study were approved by the Animal Care and Ethics Committee of the China National Research Center for Veterinary Medicine.

Histopathology and immunohistochemistry

Representative samples were cut from the fixed tissues and processed into paraffin blocks. Sections approximately 3–4 µm thick were cut into slides. Duplicates of the same sections were used for hematoxylin and eosin (H and E) staining and immunohistochemistry staining separately, as previously described^[16]. The H and E staining was operated automatically by Leica fully automatic dyeing machine according to standard procedures. Immunohistochemistry staining was performed as below. The prepared paraffin sections were mounted on APES-treated slides and incubated overnight at 37 °C. The slides were de-waxed *via* routine method

by Leica automatic dyeing machine. The samples were blocked with 3% peroxide-methanol for 20 min at room temperature for endogenous peroxidase ablation and rinsed by phosphate buffer solution (PBS) twice. The following steps were carried out in a moisture chamber: (1) Samples were incubated with blocking buffer containing normal horse serum (Beijing Zhongshan Jinqiao, China) with 1:20 dilution with PBS at 37 °C for 20 min; (2) The horse serum was discarded and samples were incubated in PRV monoclonal antibody 3B5 solution (Beijing Tian Tech Biotechnology, China) with 1:800 dilution in PBS (pH 7.3) at 37 °C for half an hour and then 4 °C overnight; (3) After rinsing with PBS three times, HRP goat anti-mouse IgG (BTI, United States) with 1:100 dilution in PBS (pH 7.3) was added, and the slides were incubated for 1 h at 37 °C; (4) After rinsing with PBS three times, the slides were incubated with AEC and kept at room temperature without light for 5–10 min; (5) After rinsing with PBS three times, the slides were stained with hematoxylin (freshly prepared) 1:10 dilution for 10 s; (6) The unbound hematoxylin was washed away by running water, and the slides were placed into water for 2 min; and (7) The slides were allowed to dry naturally and then mounted with water-soluble tablet seal before visualization by 200 × microscope photographs. The results were determined by negative (-) and positive (+), with positive signals interpreted as low (+), moderate (++), and intense (+++), according to the intensity of staining.

Animal care and use

The animal protocol was designed to minimize pain or discomfort to the animals. The animals were acclimatized to laboratory conditions (23 °C, 12 h light/12 h dark, 50% humidity, and *ad libitum* access to food and water) for two weeks prior to experimentation. All animals were euthanized by barbiturate overdose (intravenous injection, 150 mg/kg pentobarbital sodium) for tissue collection. All procedures involving animals were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the National Research Center for Veterinary Medicine (IACUC protocol number: 2015010402).

Statistical analysis

Differences of body temperature and body weight between two infected groups in the second animal trial were determined by using *t*-test in GraphPad Prism 5.0 Software (San Diego, CA). Differences were considered statistically significant when *P* < 0.05.

RESULTS

Experimental infection of PRV HN1201

For routes of infection, all pigs in group 1 and group 2 inoculated with 10⁷ TCID₅₀ PRV HN1201 strain *via* intramuscular and intranasal routes, respectively, showed PRV-specific clinical symptoms such as fever (40.0 °C–41.5 °C), respiratory distress, excessive

Table 2 Clinical manifestations of pseudorabies virus HN1201 and Fa infection

Groups	Respiratory symptom					Neurological symptom			
	Vomit	Respiratory distress	Cough	Sneeze	Salivation	Circling	Posterior paralysis	Muscle tremors	Lay recumbent and paddle
I (HN1201)	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-
	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
II (Fa strain)	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+

Each row represents one pig in the corresponding group.

salvation, and neurological signs including convulsion and ataxia. All pigs in group 2 were euthanized due to moribund conditions from 5 to 7 dpi. Compared with group 2, three pigs in group 1 were euthanized from 5 to 7 dpi and the other two pigs survived until the end of the study (terminated at 14 dpi, Table 1).

All pigs in group 3 ($10^{6.0}$ TCID₅₀) showed severe respiratory symptoms and neurological signs, as described above, with two being euthanized 6 dpi. Compared to pigs in group 3, respiratory symptoms such as coughing and shivering were more often observed in group 4 ($10^{5.0}$ TCID₅₀). There was one pig out of the five in group 4 that showed neurological signs, and was euthanized by the end of study (terminated at 14 dpi).

Young piglets are more susceptible to PRV infection than elder pigs^[6]. To determine the pathogenicity of PRV HN1201 in pigs of different ages, 35, 60, and 127-d old pigs were inoculated with 10^7 TCID₅₀ of virus. After virus inoculation, pigs of different ages showed the clinical symptoms as described above. All pigs in group 5 (35-d old pigs) were euthanized from day 4 to day 6 and all pigs in group 6 (127-d old pigs) were euthanized from day 5 to day 8 due to the moribund conditions. Therefore, unlike the classical PRV strains, this PRV variant strain showed high pathogenicity in pigs of different ages.

Comparison of pathogenicity between PRV variant HN1201 and classical Fa strain

Since the above results showed PRV variant HN1201 has high pathogenicity in pigs of different ages, a classical PRV Fa strain was used to compare pathogenicity. To exclude the bias of pathogenicity of two PRV strains due to the age of experimental pigs, ten 56-d-old healthy pigs were randomly assigned to two groups, with five pigs in each group. Pigs in groups I and II were inoculated with PRV HN1201 and Fa strain, respectively, *via* intranasal method at 10^7 TCID₅₀.

As expected, all pigs in group I displayed high fever, anorexia, depression, respiratory symptoms, and neurological signs as described in the first animal study. In contrast, four pigs in group II had no respiratory or neurological symptoms, aside from sneezing (Table 2),

while only one pig showed the same clinical signs as pigs in group I. Gross pathology examination at necropsy showed that PRV HN1201 infection led to severe pulmonary consolidation and necrosis in the lung (Figure 1A), encephalic hemorrhage in the brain (Figure 1B), and hemorrhage and necrosis in the tonsil (Figure 1C). By contrast, pigs infected with PRV Fa showed only slight hemorrhage in the lung tissue (Figure 1D) and had no obvious changes in the brain or tonsil (Figure 1E and F). No other obvious pathologic change was found after two virus infection in heart, liver, spleen, and kidney tissues. There was no significant difference in rectal temperature between the two groups in the first 5 d of study (Figure 2A). Pigs in group I had significant body weight losses compared to pigs in group II at 6 dpi (Figure 2B). At 5 dpi, two pigs were euthanized in group I and one pig was euthanized in group II. At 6 dpi, another three pigs were euthanized in group I and all remaining pigs in group II survived to the end of the study.

Organ samples of pig tonsil, lung, cerebellum, lymph nodes, kidney, and liver were collected for histological examination and immunohistochemistry staining. Typical PRV infection is characterized by necrosis in multiple organs. As shown in Figure 3, necrosis, congestion, or hemorrhage in all above organs of PRV HN1201-infected pigs were observed after H&E staining (Figures 3A-G), with neuronal intra-nuclear inclusions also being observed in the brain. Compared to the HN1201 infection, PRV Fa-infected pigs only showed neuronal degeneration, necrosis in the brain, Purkinje cell degeneration, and necrosis in the cerebellum (Figure 3H and I). In accordance with histopathology results, immunohistochemistry staining showed significant strong positive signals in all of the above organs obtained from pigs infected with HN1201 virus, whereas only brain and cerebellum samples of one PRV Fa-infected pig revealed positive results (Table 3).

DISCUSSION

Since late 2011, outbreaks of PR-like diseases have occurred on numerous Bartha-K61-vaccinated pig farms and gradually spread in China, causing huge economic

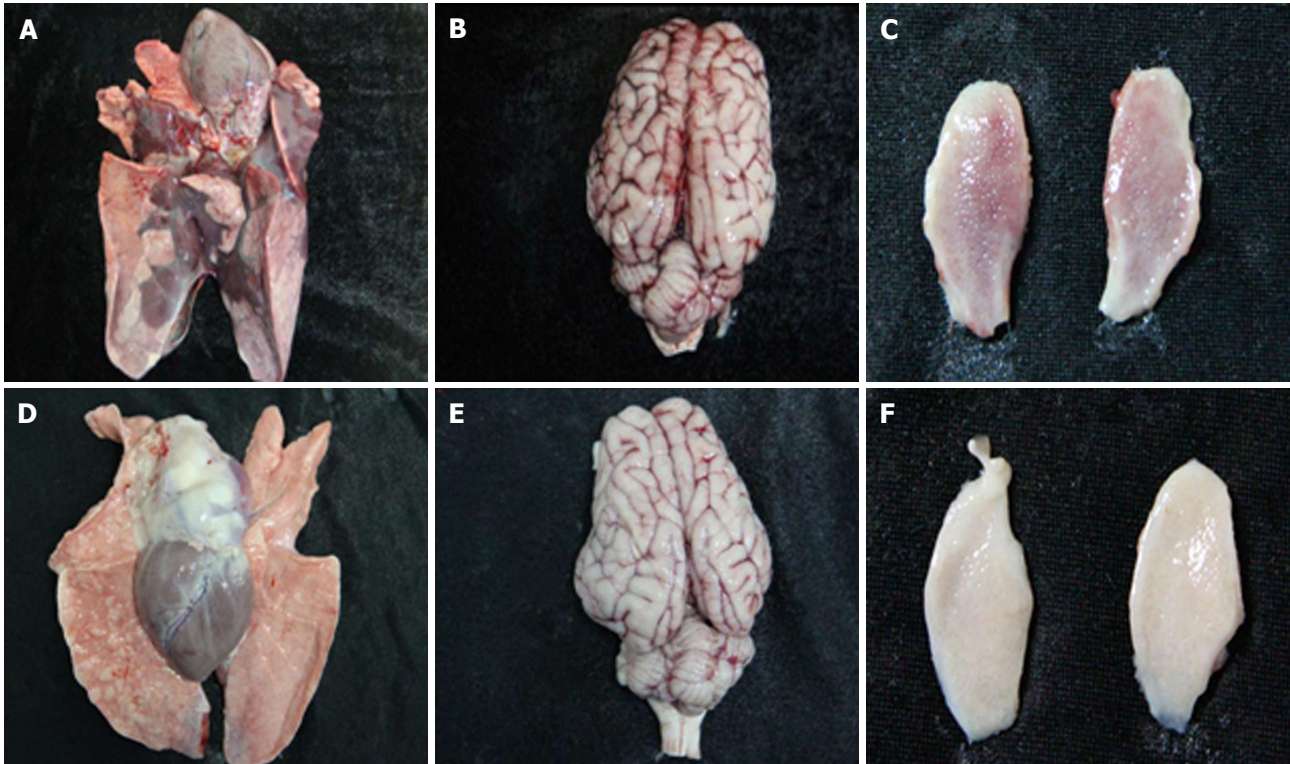


Figure 1 Gross pathology examination at necropsy. Lung, brain, and tonsil samples after PRV HN1201 (A-C) or Fa strain infection (D-F). PRV: Pseudorabies virus.

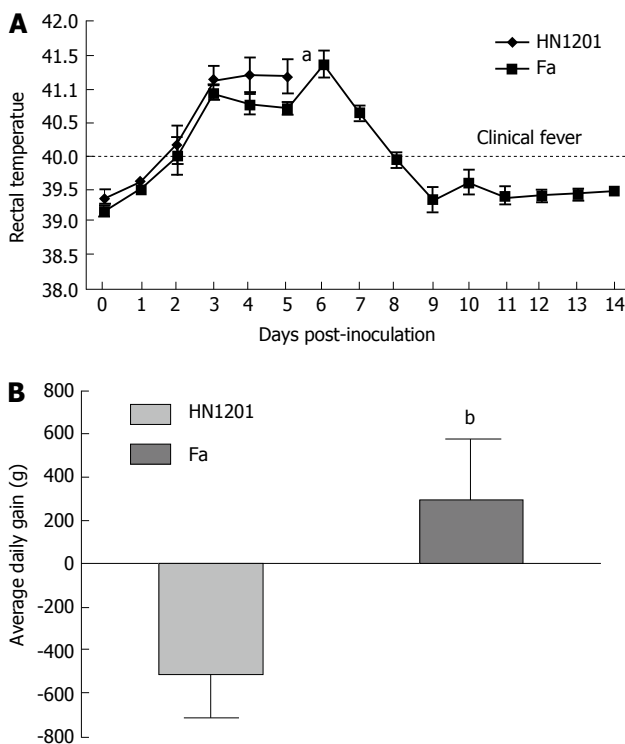


Figure 2 Rectal temperature (A) and average daily (B) body weight gain (6 d post-inoculation) of pigs after pseudorabies virus HN1201 or Fa infection. ^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.001$.

losses to the Chinese swine industry^[10,13]. Recent studies have shown that PRV variants contributed to the recent outbreaks of PR, and the traditional Bartha-K61 vaccine

could not provide complete protection against the emerging PRV strains^[11,14]. Similar to classical PR, the disease is characterized by the sudden death of new born piglets, respiratory and neurological symptoms in growing pigs, and stillbirth or the birth of weak piglets from sows. However, the pathogenicity of the new emerging PRV variant was never delineated and compared with classical PRV strains. Therefore, it is necessary to determine the pathogenicity of the current PRV variants before any control measures are implemented to control the disease.

PRV is tropic for both the respiratory and nervous systems of swine. Viral particles enter sensory nerve endings, thereby innervating the infected mucosal epithelium. Morbidity and mortality associated with PRV infection varies with host age, the animal's overall health status, and infectious dose^[2]. In this study, we first tested the pathogenicity of PRV variant HN1201 by different routes of virus infection, virus loads for inoculation, and pig ages. Our results showed that intranasal infection is more effective than intramuscular infection when 10^7 TCID₅₀ viruses were used for inoculation. Pigs infected with PRV 1201 by the intranasal route showed more severe clinical symptoms and higher mortality rates than those with intramuscular routes, and virus loads were positively correlated with mortality rates. The pathogenicity of some other PRV variant strains have been studied recently^[17]. In a study by Luo *et al.*^[17] (2014), pigs infected with the 10^6 TCID₅₀ PRV TJ strain by the intranasal route showed higher mortality than those with a lower dose or were infected by the

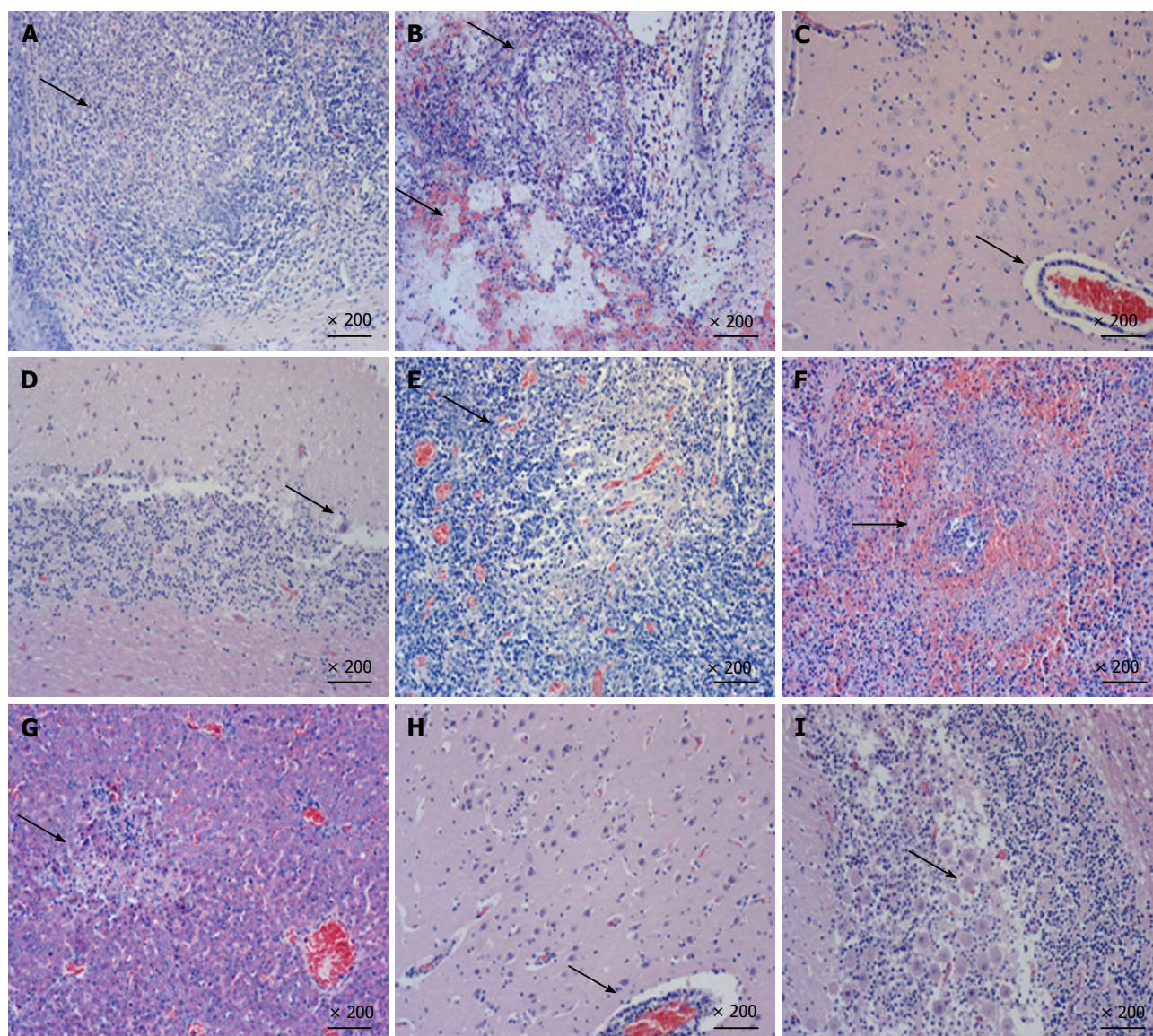


Figure 3 Hematoxylin and eosin staining of multiple tissues of pigs inoculated with HN1201 (A-G) and Fa strain (H and I). A: Tonsil - tonsillar lymphoid tissue necrosis and formation of large necrotic foci; B: Lung - vascular congestion and hemorrhage (lower arrow), with bronchial epithelial necrosis and necrotic cells within the lumen (upper arrow); C: Brain - lymphocyte infiltration around the small blood vessels in the brain cortex, non-suppurative encephalitis; D: Cerebellum - Purkinje cell degeneration and necrosis; E: Hilar lymph nodes - vascular dilatation and congestion, and lymphatic tissue necrosis; F: Spleen - white pulp structure disappeared and white necrotic marrow lymphocytes formed large necrotic foci; G: Liver - necrotic foci formation; H: Brain - coalescing non-suppurative encephalitis with neuronal degeneration and perivascular cuffing; I: Cerebellum - Purkinje cell degeneration and necrosis.

intramuscular route, which is consistent with our results. Bama miniature pigs injected intramuscularly with $10^{7.0}$ TCID₅₀ PRV strain HeN1, another virulent PRV variant, the animals exhibited only transient fever for 3-5 d, and no other clinical symptoms or postmortem changes were observed^[10]. Differences in pathogenicity and mortality caused by different PRV viruses could be explained by the virus load for inoculation, viral strain, and breed of pigs, although these three viruses also share a more than 99.0% similarity in their whole genome sequences. Besides routes of inoculation and virus load, PRV HN1201 could infect pigs from 35 to 127 d old with PRV-specific clinical symptoms, indicating that the PRV HN1201 strain is highly pathogenic to pigs.

To compare the pathogenicity of newly-emerging PRV

variants with the classical PRV strain, PRV HN1201 and Fa strains were used to infect pigs. Our results showed that HN1201-infected pigs showed more severe clinical signs and higher mortality rates than Fa-infected pigs (5/5 vs 1/5). Pigs in the PRV HN1201-infected group displayed high fever, anorexia, depression, respiratory symptoms, and neurological signs. In comparison, four pigs in the PRV Fa-infected group had no respiratory or neurological symptoms, aside from sneezing. Meanwhile, pigs infected with HN1201 had steady body weight loss as compared with pigs infected with the Fa strain (Figure 2B). Retarded growth was more often observed in young piglets after PRV infection. However, the loss of body weight of 56-d old pigs after PRV infection was seldom observed, which proves the high virulence of

Table 3 Virus antigen distribution and intensity in different organs of pseudorabies virus HN1201 or Fa strain by immunohistochemistry staining

Groups	Tonsil	Lung	Lymph nodes			Brain	Cerebellum	Spleen	Liver
			Mandibular	Superficial inguinal	Mesenteric				
HN1201	3+	3+	3+	2+	2+	2+	1+	2+	2+
	3+	2+	2+	2+	2+	2+	1+	3+	-
	3+	3+	3+	2+	2+	1+	2+	3+	+
	3+	3+	++	3+	2+	1+	2+	2+	2+
	3+	3+	3+	2+	3+	2+	2+	3+	3+
Fa strain	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	-	-	-	2+	2+	-	-
	-	-	-	-	-	2+	2+	-	-
	-	-	-	-	-	2+	2+	-	-
	-	-	-	-	-	2+	2+	-	-

The positive staining signals were interpreted as negative (-), low (1+), moderate (2+), or intense (3+), according to the intensity of staining. Each row represents one pig in the corresponding group.

PRV HN1201.

Gross pathological examination at necropsy revealed more severe damage to the lung, tonsil, brain, cerebellum, and lymph nodes in pigs infected with HN1201 strain than in the Fa strain group. In line with pathological results, histopathology examination showed remarkably obvious necrosis in multiple tissues, such as the tonsil, lung, brain, spleen, and liver in HN1201-infected pigs; in contrast, necrosis caused by PRV Fa infection was only limited to the brain and cerebellum. Immunohistochemistry results also showed that PRV HN1201 infection lead to more extensive virus antigen distribution in different organs with more intense staining, while Fa infection only had one cerebellum sample from one pig that showed positive. Previous studies reported that inoculation of PRV through the nasal cavity resulted in virally-induced neuropathological lesions^[2]. The kinetics and locations of lesion appearance were consistent with a transneuronal spread of PRV from the nasal epithelium to synaptically-connected higher-order structures in the nervous system. The intense PRV antigen location and severe lesions of the brain, tonsil, and lung coincided with the typical respiratory and neurological symptoms, and may be due to intranasal infection. Therefore, the above results further suggest the higher pathogenicity of PRV HN1201 when compared to the classical Fa strain.

In conclusion, PRV HN1201 infection is more effective through the intranasal route than the intramuscular inoculation route, and the virus is highly pathogenic to different ages of pig. Compared with classical PRV Fa strain, HN1201 causes more severe clinical symptoms and pathological lesions, with extensive antigen distribution in different organs.

COMMENTS

Background

Highly virulent pseudorabies virus (PRV) variants are circulating in most Chinese pig farms, causing huge economic losses. The pathogenicity of these PRV variants have not been previously compared with classical PRV strains.

Research frontiers

The authors aimed to test the pathogenicity of a newly-emerging PRV variant

in pigs of different inoculation routes, virus loads, and ages. Differences in pathogenicity between the newly-emerging PRV variant and the classical PRV strain were also compared.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This study demonstrates that the currently-circulating PRV HN1201 variant has higher pathogenicity in pigs than the classical PRV Fa strain via the manifestation of more severe clinical symptoms and pathological lesions, with extensive antigen distribution in different organs.

Applications

The authors proved the PRV variant to be more pathogenic in pigs as compared to the classical Fa strain, which may partially explain the inefficacy of current commercial PRV vaccines. Thus, a better understanding of the differences of pathogenicity between variant and classical PRV may facilitate the development of more effective vaccines.

Terminology

Pathogenicity of pseudorabies virus is the potential capacity of PRV to cause PR-like syndrome in pigs. Pathogenicity of viruses may change due to virus mutation and/or recombination. Study into the pathogenesis of currently-circulating field viruses may provide first-hand data for disease control.

Peer-review

This manuscript reports the analysis of the pathogenicity of a new PRV variant that the commonly-used vaccine cannot protect against, and is therefore causing massive economic losses in China. The pathogenicity of this variant and the classical PRV Fa strain is also compared. The experiment design and results were clear and convincing. It will be interesting to see if the authors can further explore the mechanisms of the enhanced pathogenicity of the PRV variant behind these phenomena.

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Observational Study

Neuropathology of JC virus infection in progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy in remission

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Author contributions: SantaCruz KS is a neuropathologist who reviewed all histopathology and determined the diagnosis, captured the histological images and helped to write the MS; Roy G was a resident in training who reviewed the medical chart and drafted and edited the MS; Spigel J performed the autopsy, contributed and edited clinical data and reviewed the MS; Bearer EL is an experimental neuropathologist who reviewed the pathology, edited the MS, added the references, selected the images, prepared the figures and replied to reviewers' comments.

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Informed consent statement: Consent for post-mortem examination was obtained from the family.

Conflict-of-interest statement: The authors have no conflict of interest to report.

Data sharing statement: All blocks and slides from this report are available upon request to the corresponding author according to the policies of the pathology department at UNM.

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the neuropathology of the brain in a rare case of remission following diagnosis of progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (PML).

METHODS: Consent from the family for an autopsy was obtained, clinical records and radiograms were retrieved. A complete autopsy was performed, with brain examination after fixation and coronal sectioning at 1 cm intervals. Fourteen regions were collected for paraffin embedding and staining for microscopic analysis. Histologic sections were stained with Luxol blue, hematoxylin/eosin, and immunostained for myelin basic protein, neurofilament, SV40 T antigen and p53. The biopsy material was also retrieved and sections were stained with hematoxylin/eosin and immunostained for SV40 and p53. Sections were examined by American Board of Pathology certified pathologists and images captured digitally.

RESULTS: Review of the clinical records was notable for

a history of ulcerative colitis resulting in total colectomy in 1977 and a liver transplant in 1998 followed by immune-suppressive therapy. Neurological symptoms presented immediately, therefore a biopsy was obtained which was diagnosed as PML. Immunotherapy was adjusted and clinical improvement was noted. No subsequent progression was reported. Review of the biopsy demonstrated atypical astrocytes and enlarged hyperchromatic oligodendroglial cells consistent with JC virus infection. Strong SV40 and p53 staining was found in glial cells and regions of dense macrophage infiltration were present. On gross examination of the post-mortem brain, a lesion in the same site as the original biopsy in the cerebellum was identified but no other lesions in the brain were found. Microscopic analysis of this cerebellar lesion revealed a loss of myelin and axons, and evidence of axonal damage. This single burned-out lesion was equivocally positive for SV40 antigen with little p53 staining. Examination of thirteen other brain regions found no other occult sites.

CONCLUSION: Our study reveals residual damage, rare macrophages or other inflammation and minimal evidence of persistent virus. This case demonstrates the possibility of complete remission of PML.

Key words: Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy; Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy; JC virus; Remission; Demyelinating

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Core tip: Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy after organ transplant is rapidly fatal in most cases, with an average time to death of 6.4 mo. We report a case with no clinical progression over 14 years despite ongoing immunosuppressive therapy. At initial diagnosis the biopsy demonstrated classic histopathological features of JC virus. At autopsy, microscopic analysis of the cerebellar lesion revealed a residual loss of myelin and evidence of axonal damage without evidence of viral activity. These results suggest that JC virus can be kept in check even in a setting of immunosuppression, and argue for more investigation into the microbiome of the brain.

SantaCruz KS, Roy G, Spigel J, Bearer EL. Neuropathology of JC virus infection in progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy in remission. *World J Virol* 2016; 5(1): 31-37 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2220-3249/full/v5/i1/31.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5501/wjv.v5.i1.31>

INTRODUCTION

Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (PML) is a demyelinating disease of the central nervous system caused by reactivation of latent JC virus in immunocompromised individuals. Oligodendroglial cells are pre-

ferentially infected with consequent loss of myelin and coalescing demyelination plaques, sometimes leading to mild-to-moderate axonal loss associated with axonal spheroids. Long-term survival in patients with PML is increasingly common in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected people treated with highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART)^[1-8]. In contrast, prolonged survival in patients with immunosuppression following solid organ transplant is unusual^[9,10]. Here we present an unusual case in which there was a 14-year clinical remission after biopsy-proven PML, despite continued immuno-suppression after liver transplant.

PML had been universally fatal, usually within 6 mo, until the late 1990's. Although no specific treatment has proven particularly effective, enhancing natural immunity by reducing the effects of HIV virus or by altering immunosuppressant therapy has been shown to improve survival^[11]. One explanation for prolonged survival is improved cellular immune responses against JC virus (JCV) in long term survivors vs those with poor outcomes^[12]. Detectable cytotoxic T lymphocytes specific for JCV -T or VP-1 have been shown to be a prognostic indicator of long-term survival in HIV patients^[12]. Although long-term survival in immunosuppressed transplant patients has been described^[13,14] these cases are unusual^[9] and detailed neuropathologic descriptions of residual demyelinating plaques in patients in complete remission are few, possibly because they are very rare or not frequently examined post-mortem^[15]. This study therefore fills an important gap in our knowledge of pathological processes that appear in long-term survival.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Consent for the autopsy from the family was obtained as approved by Presbyterian Hospital. According to Internal Review Board of University of New Mexico Health Sciences Center neither post-mortem material nor case reports require IRB approvals. Clinical records were retrieved, and the clinical history together with results of all brain imaging studies that had been performed at UNM (12/2006 and 4/2008) reviewed. The original imaging studies were not available, and, in the absence of neurological symptomatology, imaging and CSF sampling were not performed during the final hospitalization, nor was post-mortem brain imaging done.

A complete autopsy was performed with subsequent examination of the brain after fixation. Gross examination of the brain included coronal sectioning of the neocortex at 1 cm intervals, and sectioning of the cerebellum and brainstem at 0.5 cm intervals. The surface of each slice was examined. Thirteen brain regions were selected, slabs 1.5 cm × 1.5 cm × 0.1 cm dissected and these were submitted for paraffin embedding. Histologic sections were stained with Luxol blue, hematoxylin/eosin, and for myelin basic protein (Dako, polyclonal rabbit anti-human), neurofilament (Dako, Clone 2F11), SV40 T antigen (Calbiochem, Ab-2, PAb 416) or p53 (Dako,

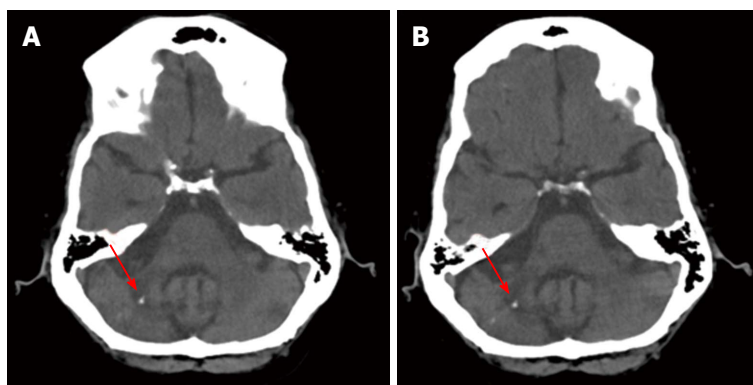


Figure 1 Computed tomography scans show no progression. A: Axial slice from the CT scan of 2006 showing the cerebellar lesion (red arrow), a small calcification, and atherosclerosis of cerebral vasculature; B: Axial slice of the same coordinates as in (A) from the CT scan of 2008 showing the cerebellar lesion (red arrow), as well as the calcification. Note the radiolucency of the cerebellar peduncle and the loss of tissue density in the cerebellum. This location corresponds to that of the 1999 biopsy and the histologic sections examined at autopsy. CT: Computed tomography.

Clone DO7) by immunohistochemistry at TriCore Reference Laboratories, Albuquerque, NM. The SV40 T-antigen (Ab-2) antibody is a mouse monoclonal antibody with specific determinants unique to the SV40 large T antigen and non-reactive with the small T antigen. The antigenic epitope is between Ile83 and Lys128 of the SV40 large T antigen, a region highly homologous to the JC virus large T antigen. For each immunostain, positive and negative controls were run in parallel. The paraffin block containing the biopsy was retrieved together with its slides from archives, new sections were made and also stained for SV40 and p53. Sections were examined on an Olympus BX40 microscope using 4 ×, 10 ×, 20 × and 40 × objectives, and digital images captured on an Olympus DP26 camera using cellSens Standard software. Images were prepared for figures using Adobe Photoshop to resize, create multi-image panels, adjust levels and add lettering.

RESULTS

Case history

A 76-year-old woman with a history of ulcerative colitis had a total colectomy in 1977 and subsequently developed sclerosing cholangitis. She received an orthotopic liver transplant in 1998. In 1999 neurological symptoms occurred, primarily consisting of ataxia in a setting of immunosuppressive therapy for the liver transplant. She was found to have a white matter lesion involving cerebellar white matter with no other sites of involvement. Brain biopsy performed in March 1999 showed classic changes of PML. The dosage of immunosuppressive therapy with Tacrolimus and Sirolimus was subsequently adjusted to minimize progression of further neurological disease and her mild cerebellar symptoms stabilized.

Her medical history was also significant for right hip fracture in 2003, status post hip replacement complicated by infection and requiring long term antibiotic therapy, chronic renal insufficiency, due to congenital hypoplastic kidney, end stage renal disease on dialysis since 2008,

cardiovascular disease with episodes of atrial fibrillation and rapid ventricular response, hypothyroidism, gout and recurrent infections.

She had multiple hospital admissions from February 2012 to March 2013 due to gastroenteritis with subsequent workup for stool pathogens that was negative. She developed pancreatic insufficiency with findings on ultrasound examination that showed an atrophic right kidney, small liver and pancreatic cysts. Due to recurrence of the gastrointestinal illness, and to ultrasound findings, there was concern for an intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasm of the pancreas with associated pancreatic insufficiency. Computed tomography scan of the abdomen showed diffuse dilatation of the pancreatic duct, as well as a liver abscess. She died six days following abdominal imaging studies on March 25, 2013.

Mortality was due to complications related to remote liver transplantation for primary sclerosing cholangitis. An intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasm of the pancreatic duct was identified at autopsy with associated chronic atrophic pancreatitis. Post mortem examination determined the immediate cause of death to be due to infection from the liver abscess, cardiac arrhythmia and cardiomegaly.

Neurologic and Radiographic studies: The patient was seen by a neurologist at UNM on 3/2003, 2/2005, 12/2006, 6/2007, 4/2008, 7/2009, 4/2010 and 9/2011. During this period symptoms were stable on the reduced immunosuppressant protocol.

Imaging from 4/4/2008 was read as unchanged compared to the computed tomography (CT) done 12/12/2006 (Figure 1). Both images show diffuse cerebral as well as cerebellar atrophy. A region of greater volume loss and accompanying low attenuation appeared in the right cerebellar hemisphere and middle cerebellar peduncle. Small foci of calcification were noted. These were not significantly changed between the 2006 and 2008 images. No new areas of abnormal attenuation were identified within the brain. Vertebral and internal carotid artery calcifications were also noted.

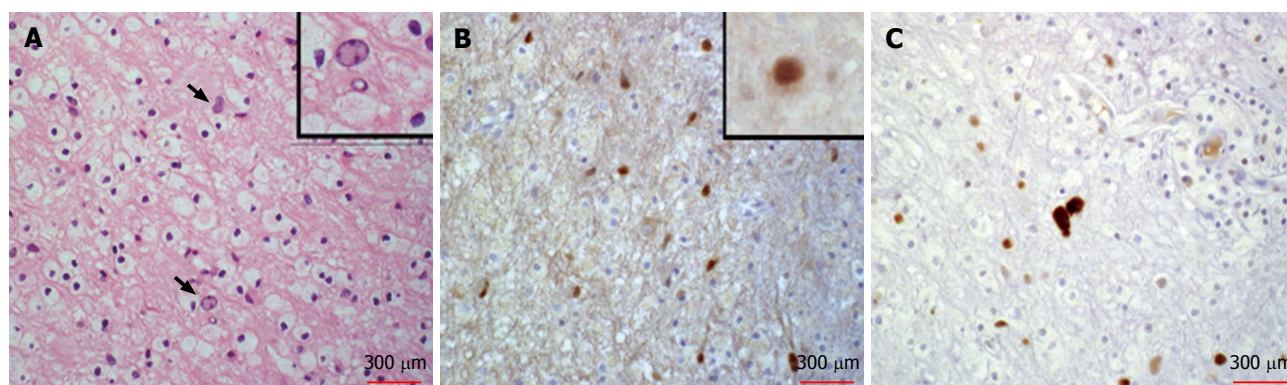


Figure 2 Histopathology of the original diagnostic biopsy. A: Histopathology of the cerebellar biopsy specimen from 1999 stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Atypical glia is indicated by arrows. Inset shows higher magnification of one example. Numerous macrophages surround the atypical cells and fill the parenchyma; B: Immunohistochemical staining for SV40 T antigen of another section from the biopsy shows numerous scattered strongly positive brown stain in nuclei of atypical glial cells, consistent with oligodendroglial infection by JC virus. Inset shows a higher magnification of another example of a positive glial cell; C: Immunohistochemistry for p53 detected strongly positive atypical glia and scattered weaker staining of macrophages consistent with inflammatory reaction to viral infection (A-C).

Pathological examination

Histopathologic review of the hematoxylin and eosin stained slides from the cerebellar stereotactic biopsy specimen of 1999 showed the classic features of PML, including demyelination with abundant macrophages, no lymphocytes or granulocytes and relative preservation of axons. Occasional enlarged oligodendroglial cells with dense chromatin and atypical astrocytes were also present (Figure 2). To detect virus, SV40 T antigen immunostaining was used. JC virus is a papovavirus in the polyoma family. SV40 monoclonal antibody was raised against a short peptide from the large T antigen of Simian Virus 40, another member of this virus family. This antibody also recognizes the large T antigen from both JC and BK viruses. It does not recognize small T antigens. SV40 immunostaining highlighted nuclei of infected oligodendroglial cells and occasional bland-appearing astrocytes, but did not highlight atypical astrocytes in the biopsy. Staining for p53 was performed to detect secondary viral effects on glia as support for the diagnosis^[16]. The p53 antibody stained the nuclei of atypical glial cells. Thus these atypical astrocytes were likely reactive rather than infected. This review of the biopsy confirmed the previous diagnosis of PML.

At autopsy, gross examination of the brain surface and of coronal sections at 1 cm intervals revealed no ventricular enlargement, and no periventricular, or other white matter abnormalities. The brain was thoroughly examined by coronal sectioning from forebrain to brain stem and no areas of softening or discoloration were found. PML frequently extends initially to periventricular regions, yet no cerebral lesions were found in this case. Sagittal sectioning of the cerebellum revealed a 1.0 cm × 0.8 cm × 0.5 cm focus of tissue softening just lateral to the vermis on the left, in the region of the original biopsy. This is the area of the lesion identified in the 2006 and 2008 CT brain scans. This area of softening included cerebellar white matter and the dentate nucleus.

On histologic examination of the post-mortem brain sections from the original lesion in the cerebellar white

matter were remarkable for white matter rarefaction, as evidenced by loss of myelin that was nearly proportional to axonal loss (Figure 3). Thus repair of the damage had not occurred. However, continuing damage was not detected. The heavy macrophage infiltration observed in the 1999 biopsy was absent, and macrophages were not apparent. Classical features of PML, such as enlarged oligodendroglial cells, were also mainly absent, atypical astrocytes were rare and only weak nuclear SV40 or p53 immunostaining was noted (Figure 3). We considered weak staining of the cytoplasm of glial cells to be non-specific since this low level of background staining was present in normal tissue within the section and also present in the negative control where no virus was present. A few rare cells displayed slightly more intense staining, which are shown in insets (Figure 3). Due to these rare cells, we cannot rule out residual viral antigens or continued low level of expression from latent virus in this burnt-out lesion.

There was minimal involvement of overlying cerebellar folia and minimal depletion of cerebellar granular cells, as determined by lack of detectable pathologic processes (Figure 3). Thirteen additional histologic sections from throughout the brain were dissected and processed according to the standard neuropathological brain examination procedure. Random sections of periventricular white matter, adjacent to the lateral ventricles and the aqueduct, where infection is most likely to spread, revealed no diagnostically significant abnormality. Sections from the pons were also stained for SV40 and p53 and no staining was detected.

Remarkably, fourteen years after diagnosis the lesion appeared confined to a single focus in the cerebellum, as in the original presentation. No additional foci throughout the brain, which are normally common in this multifocal disease, were found.

DISCUSSION

PML is a demyelinating disease of the brain caused by

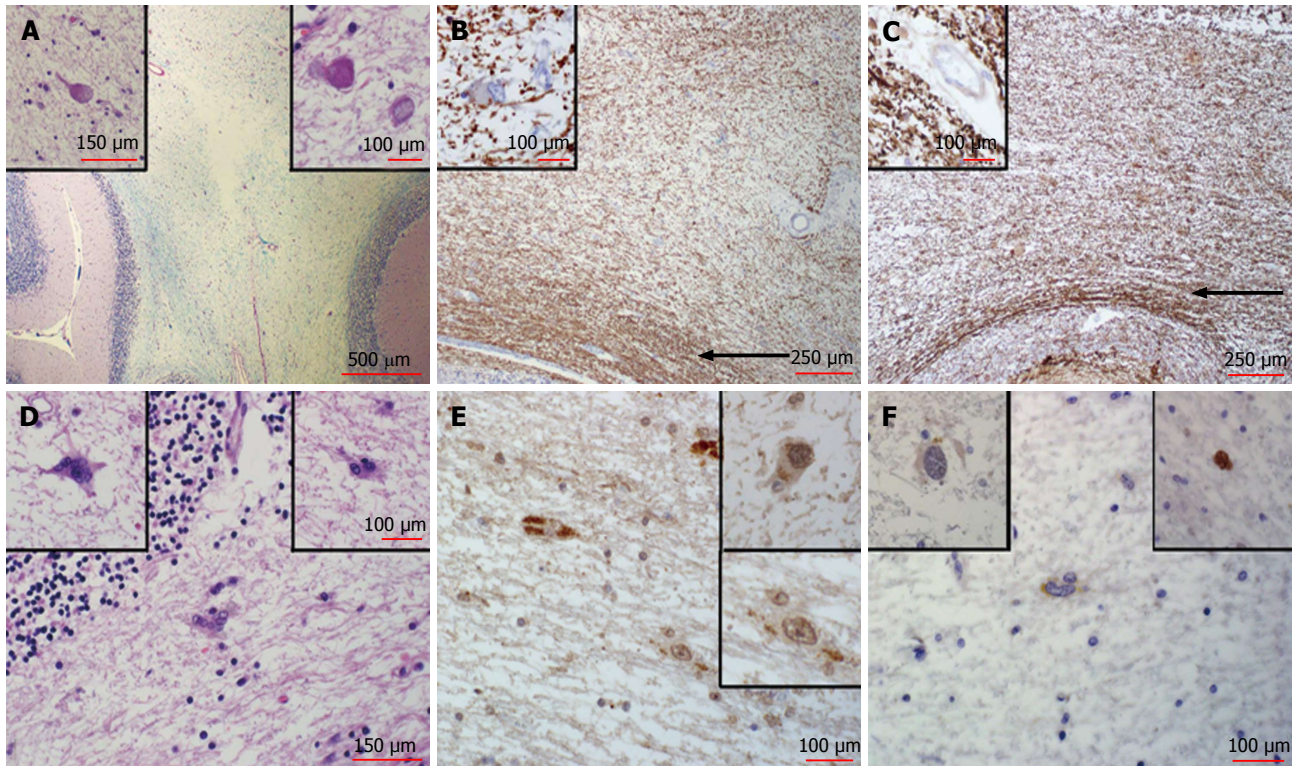


Figure 3 Post-mortem histologic analysis. A: The cerebellar lesion examined by histology shows a severe loss of myelinated fibers in the white matter, as stained by Luxol blue/Periodic Acid-Schiff. Note central pale area in the image. Also note that the surface folia, stained pink at the lower corners of the image, display no involvement. Inset (left) shows a higher magnification of an axonal spheroid from the region of the lesion, indicative of residual axonal damage, stained by H and E. Inset (right) shows another axonal spheroid from the same region at higher magnification also stained by H and E. Note that the pale lesion lacks evidence of active viral infection, with no macrophage infiltration or other inflammatory processes; B: Myelin basic protein immuno-staining reveals a severe loss of myelinated fibers stained brown in the cerebellar lesion. Note relative sparing of subcortical U-fibers (arrow). Inset (left) Higher magnification of a cell in the lesion stained for myelin basic protein that shows ragged myelin distribution. This demyelination appears to be quiescent; C: Section of the lesion in the cerebellum stained for neurofilament protein shows a loss of axons nearly proportional to the loss of myelin. Note relative sparing of subcortical U-fibers (arrow). Inset (left) shows higher magnification of neurofilament staining in the area of the lesion. Axons apparently lost in the acute phase in 1999 have not regenerated; D: Examples of rare atypical astrocytes found at the periphery of the lesion in H and E stained sections. Insets at higher magnification; E: SV40 immunostaining for T antigen shows some non-specific granular pattern within the cytoplasm of a few glial cells in the region of the lesion, some faint nuclear staining and scattered acellular granular deposits. This staining suggests latent infection with low levels of residual antigen. Insets show examples at higher magnification; F: The p53 immunostain shows that atypical astrocytes are mostly negative. Inset (left) another example of an atypical astrocyte that does not stain at the same magnification, and inset (right) a rare example of a p53 positive atypical glial cell. Macrophages were very rare and p53 staining was not observed. H and E: Hematoxylin and eosin.

the polyomavirus, JCV in immunosuppressed individuals. Although long-term survival has been reported in PML, the histological appearance of a demyelinating plaque in complete remission has not been well described. Here we show that demyelination in the original lesion was not repaired despite 14 years of remission, while evidence of continuing acute infection was absent.

The lack of defined viral particles, absence of progressive lesions, and inflammatory processes suggests that the virus had either been cleared or was latent. Since polyomaviruses persist in cells in a latent form, either episomally or when integrated into cellular DNA^[17,18], surviving glia in the lesion could harbor latent virus and continue to express viral antigens at low levels without producing sufficient infective particles to spread the virus.

The risk of PML is present throughout the post transplantation period with a higher case fatality and incidence than reported in HIV patients on HAART or multiple sclerosis patients treated with natalizumab^[9]. There is no

cure for PML, but prolonged survival rates are becoming increasingly common; although in one series, patients with cerebellar lesions tended to have a worse clinical outcome^[6]. Magnetic resonance imaging brain findings typically show leukomalacia with ventricular enlargement secondary to destruction of the white matter at the site of previous PML lesions, and focal areas of subcortical atrophy with preservation of the cortical ribbon^[6,8].

Although this case illustrates the classic histological features of PML at initial presentation together with neurological symptoms, imaging findings in the cerebellum and JCV confirmed biopsy, the patient's neurological symptoms were non-progressive despite continued immunosuppression. At autopsy, only residual damage in the location of the original lesion was observed, and histopathologic features of active infection in this region were absent, presumably indicating an effective cellular immune response against the virus. Serological workup of HIV cases has suggested a role for CD8⁺ cytotoxic T-lymphocytes against JCV^[12], although in this current

case no significant lymphocytic presence was detected in either the cerebellar biopsy or the post-mortem brain. Recent reports suggest findings of mutated JCV in CSF may correlate with slower or halted disease progression in HIV but no correlation was found in transplant recipients despite similarly mutated virus^[2,19,20].

One of the earliest histopathological descriptions of patients with long term survival with PML revealed classical findings of progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy, but with numerous eosinophils^[21]. Viral particles were found in oligodendrocyte nuclei and cytoplasm with electron microscopy. Other cases of long term survival in non-HIV-infected patients are so rare as to be reportable, and include immunosuppressed patients for leukemia-lymphoma treatment^[6,7,22] as well as solid organ transplant such as kidney^[14] and liver^[13]. The current case is unusual in that the neurological status was stable and at autopsy, gross evidence of multifocal pathology was absent, and histologic evidence of active viral infection was absent. Despite detection of low levels of viral antigen in the cerebellar region by immunostaining at autopsy this patient was clinically stable for fourteen years. No progression was detected symptomatically, neurologically, or radiographically. No evidence of progressive demyelination or spread of pathology beyond the original lesion was found in post-mortem evaluation of the brain.

A multicenter, retrospective cohort study of cases of PML was performed among transplant recipients at Mayo Clinic, Johns Hopkins University, Washington University, and Amsterdam Academic Medical Center^[9]. The incidence of PML was calculated at 1.24 per 1000 post transplantation person-years. In this study of 69 cases of PML associated with solid organ and bone marrow transplantation, median survival following symptom onset was 6.4 mo for solid organ vs 19.5 mo for bone marrow recipients; with survival beyond one year of only 55.7%^[9]. Anti-retroviral treatment for HIV improves the immune system and is beneficial for those with progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy^[1]; however the only effective treatment for iatrogenically immunosuppressed patients appears withdrawal or re-configuration of life-saving immunosuppressive therapy and consequent enhancement of their natural immunity.

The mechanisms for reactivation of latent JCV in brain are poorly understood but thought to be related to immune competence. Viral and/or host genotypes may also play a role, since variation in human leukocyte antigens correlates with antibody response^[23]. Other viruses latent in brain include herpes simplex virus (HSV). While HSV DNA is found in a large percentage of normal brains, little evidence exists as to whether HSV reactivates in brain^[24]. Attempts to correlate HSV reactivation in the brain with the risk of neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's are on-going^[25,26]. How either HSV or JCV are kept in check in the immune-competent infected person remains a mystery.

Our study reveals residual damage, rare macrophages, a few reactive astrocytes and minimal evidence

of persistent viral antigen expression with no evidence of viral replication and infective particle production. This case demonstrates the possibility of complete remission of PML with long-term survival in a patient after solid organ transplant who was maintained on immunosuppressive therapy.

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COMMENTS

Background

JC virus (JCV) causes progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (PML), especially in immun-compromised patients. After solid organ transplant is typically rapidly progressive and fatal.

Research frontiers

Here the authors present a case of PML in a patient who received a solid organ transplant that did not progress for over 14 years despite on-going immune-suppression. The diagnosis was validated by pathological analysis of brain biopsy.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Rare insight into the histopathology of quiescent JCV infection and residual damage, not repaired after 14 years, are presented. This is the first reported histopathology of a JCV-induced lesion in remission.

Applications

This report demonstrates that PML progression may be halted but the original lesion does not repair.

Terminology

JCV is a polyoma genetically similar to SV40. "JC" stands for John Cunningham, the first patient in which the virus was discovered. It is very common in the general population but only causes overt disease in immune compromised hosts. PML thought to be caused by JCV, is a rare and usually fatal disease of the white matter in the brain.

Peer-review

JCV is a human polyomavirus that infects greater than 60% of the human population during childhood, and establishes a latent infection in healthy individuals. Replication of the neurotropic strain of JCV in glial cells causes the fatal demyelinating disease of the central nervous system, PML, which is seen in patients with underlying immunocompromised conditions. PML has also been described in patients with autoimmune diseases treated with immunomodulatory therapies. PML is a mortal disease and there is no specific therapy. Long-term survivors have been reported with no sign of viral reactivation and replication. There is little known about neuropathologic description of long-term survivors. In this manuscript, authors provided an interesting case report of a long-term PML survivor with immunohistological evaluation. These observations are interesting for the readers of the Journal.

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