

Applied Virology

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Preface

The chief aim of "Applied Virology" is to discuss the practical applications of recent developments in basic virology, not only to virology but to other disciplines as well, and to demonstrate the impact of virus diseases on the environment, economy, and the health of man, animals, and plants. The chapters in this volume, written by well-known experts, provide a large body of practical information on the modern strategy used to produce virus vaccines, on antiviral chemical compounds, on simple, rapid, and specific diagnostic techniques, and on epidemiology in relation to the prevention and control of virus diseases. "Applied Virology" reflects the current tendency to produce safe and efficacious vaccines by genetic engineering technologies and considers their laboratory study and field applications. Noninfectious, synthesized peptides used as safe virus vaccines are reviewed with special attention to their immunogenicity, multispecificity, and usefulness in case of epidemics. A distinct but equally essential step for the study of epidemics and the control of diseases in relation to the variation among viruses is the rapid, sensitive, and reliable diagnosis of virus diseases. The applications of advanced technologies for this purpose are also discussed.

It is our hope that "Applied Virology" will be of use to all concerned with virus diseases, e.g., hospitals, veterinary clinics, infectious disease control centers, plant protection institutes, departments of agriculture and public health, and those who endeavor to improve the quality of life and environment by using advanced diagnostic and disease control technologies. It will be an aid to all virologists, and will fill the needs of those working in developing countries, in which virus diseases continue to be an unresolved health, economic, and environmental problem.

Virus diseases remain a worldwide problem, contributing to human disability and mortality and causing severe economic losses by affecting livestock and crops in all countries. Even with the preventive measures taken in the United States, losses due to viral diseases exceed billions of dollars annually. These costs are substantially higher in Africa, Asia, the Middle East,

and South and Central America, where virus diseases hamper the development of several countries.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to the contributors for the effort and care with which they have prepared their chapters, to the Faculty of Medicine of University of Montreal and the Faculty of Medicine of Kuwait University for the help provided, and the staff of Academic Press for their part in the production of this volume.

Edouard Kurstak

Introduction

Biblical writings, ancient scripts, and archeological findings testify to the length of time virus diseases have scourged humanity. For example, examination of the 3000-year-old mummy Pharaoh Ramses V reveals pockmarks suggesting that he may have contracted smallpox, whereas Rhases, a Persian physician who lived about 1000 years ago, described how smallpox spread from Africa, where it was endemic, to Europe and the Middle East during the first millenium AD (Becker, 1983). A commemorative carving in stone, dating from the eighteenth Egyptian dynasty (1580–1350 BC), shows a young man with a withered and shortened leg typical of poliomyelitis virus paralysis (Melnick, 1984).

Virus diseases continue to contribute significantly to human morbidity or mortality and to cause severe economic loss by affecting livestock and crops, particularly in developing countries. For example, an estimated 200 million persons are chronically infected with hepatitis B virus, one million children are estimated to die annually from measles, five million persons are killed by acute gastroenteritis (mainly rotaviruses) annually, and the list goes on and on (Kurstak and Marusyk, 1984). The economic losses can be staggering (exceeding one trillion dollars in the United States alone). Those due to animal or plant viruses are equally enormous, and the diseases caused are a major factor in chronic malnutrition in many parts of the world. Reduction of crops by 75–90% by plant viruses occurs frequently, causing disruption of the fragile nutritional balance for large populations. Plant pathologists are at a disadvantage in protecting crops from virus infections since immunization is not possible. The main traditional strategies used to protect crops are cultivation measures such as starting with virus-free material, removal of vectors or diseased material, and restriction of epidemics through, e.g., crop rotation and plant or culture spacing. Chemotherapy has hitherto been impossible or impractical in this area, but new advances in this field may be most exciting in the area of plant virology.

Virology, as a science, has passed through a relatively long descriptive

phase, a shorter but explosive expansion phase over the last two decades in which advanced techniques in biochemistry, immunology, molecular biology, genetics, etc., provided deeper insights in the molecular structure, functioning, and reproduction of viruses, to a new phase: applied virology. Applied virology is a direct result of several breakthroughs in molecular biology, immunology, and diagnostic procedures. Wildy (1984) distinguished virologists, i.e., those who want to learn more about viruses ("second-phase virologists"), from "viropractors" ("third-phase virologists") whose purpose is to exploit viruses as tools. The latter are becoming very important in disparate areas such as genetic engineering, development of vaccines and diagnostic procedures, and insect control, and this group may, as Wildy (1984) pointed out, be growing faster than that of "pur sang" virologists.

Parallel with the development of virology, attempts have been made to combat virus diseases. A milestone in this respect was the large-scale production of poliovirus in cell cultures and its use, after formaldehyde inactivation, as a vaccine in the early 1950s by J. Salk. The subsequent discovery that the virus thus produced was sometimes contaminated with the undesirable SV40 virus (latent in cells), which can transform cells *in vitro*, necessitated the application of more rigorous control measures. Though inactivated viruses are efficient vaccines in cases in which viremia are an essential part of the disease, attenuated live viruses have been preferred to provide local immunity. Live vaccines have been established primarily by adaptation of the virus in question to an unnatural host. The attenuated virus may contain a large number of mutations, e.g., 35 for poliovirus type 1 vaccine (Nomato *et al.*, 1981). The attenuated virus may revert to the virulent strain again (e.g., 1 per 3×10^6 doses of live polio vaccine; CDC, 1982). Though in developed countries this vaccine has been widely used, it is less used in developing countries since it interferes with other enteric infections.

Attenuated live-virus vaccines are widely preferred, but they also carry significant risks. They may revert back to wild type or revert to novel strains with an unpredictable host range. Moreover a live-virus vaccine may be attenuated for one host but not for another, as exemplified with several attenuated live rabies vaccines. Emergence of novel strains is occurring at a higher rate than generally assumed and could potentially be very hazardous. Too often it is assumed that viruses have a certain constant host range and that each virus exhibits a distinct and unique antigenicity. Canine parvovirus for example demonstrates the fallacy of these "laws." In the Spring of 1978 articles appeared in both the lay and scientific press concerning the rapid spread of canine parvovirus, simultaneously in different regions, which caused a fulminant enteritis of high morbidity and mortality (up to 80%) in

dogs of all ages and myocarditis in young puppies. This virus not only caused a syndrome resembling the panleukopenia-enteritis syndrome in felines and mink (Kurstak and Tijssen, 1981), but the virus proved to be very closely related to the mink parvovirus (Tratschin *et al.*, 1982). This sudden host reversion of the virus from mink to dogs raises important questions with respect to the cause of this reversion, the possible reversion to man, and measures which can be taken to decrease the chances of such reversions. It should be stressed that the mink parvovirus is serologically undistinguishable from the feline panleukopenia parvovirus and that the mink parvovirus (mink enteritis virus) had an equally sudden outbreak in 1947 and spread from Canada rapidly around the world. The possibility that the canine parvovirus derives from the mink parvovirus must, therefore, be considered seriously. Adaptation could be a result of attempts to achieve attenuation of wild-type mink parvovirus. Retrospective analysis of sera revealed that the appearance of antibodies to this adapted virus in canine sera coincided with the disease, except in Belgium where some sera collected in 1976 and 1977 contained antibody (Schwers *et al.*, 1979). It is, however, difficult to understand how the virus could be present for two years without being detected since it is very pathogenic.

New horizons for the production of safe vaccines have been opened by new genetic engineering technologies. Genetic engineering techniques may be used to produce stable deletion mutants instead of point mutation strains which lose thereby a certain biological function but are still able to replicate in certain cells (Jones and Shenk, 1979). There is, nevertheless, a tendency to shift from whole-virus vaccines to vaccines of subunits or synthetic polypeptides. Despite an early view that the feasibility of the development of synthetic vaccines would be rather limited (Arnon, 1980), this approach has gained support in recent years. Current DNA technology also provides the tools to produce hybrid vaccines (e.g., recombinants of hepatitis B and vaccinia genes). Bacterial plasmids may be used as cloning vehicles for DNA and RNA viruses. Though these methods are still primarily used for the analysis of individual genes and the determination of their nucleotide sequences, cloning will have important applications with respect to the use of a single or a few viral gene(s) for the production of vaccines.

Another exciting avenue is the production of antiidiotypic antibodies using hybridoma techniques. Monoclonal antibodies with an antiidiotypic structure mimicking the crucial epitope on the virus seem to have great potential for immunization and protection of the individual from a virus without vaccination with the virus, one of its products, or synthetic epitopes of the virus (Kennedy *et al.*, 1984; Koprowski *et al.*, 1984).

In addition to the development of genetic engineering systems and

hybridoma techniques to develop vaccines and the synthesis of small peptides (epitopes) on a large scale, novel delivery systems and immunoenhancers are being developed.

These new technologies will not only have a tremendous impact on the knowledge, development, and quality of new viral reagents and vaccines but will also decrease very significantly the cost of the control of virus diseases. For example, it can be expected that vaccines which now cost more than \$100, and therefore cannot be applied to control epidemics or endemics satisfactorily, can be produced for, e.g., 1% of the original cost, and are more effective than the original products. The worldwide excitement about these prospects hardly needs to be stressed.

It can also be seen that the comprehensive knowledge available on virus replication allows rational approaches to the design of antiviral drugs. Developments in this area will have important consequences, e.g., for the prophylaxis of viral diseases in plants. The number of antiviral drugs which have become available is still rather limited despite extensive efforts. The main problem is to find compounds which selectively inhibit the virus without having toxic effects on cells. Hitherto, research on antiviral drugs has been concentrated on a relatively few viruses (herpes, influenza), but it is expected that this number will increase rapidly due to recent advances in the understanding of virus replication and the development of sophisticated techniques. Though different stages of virus reproduction may be blocked, the stage of viral nucleic acid synthesis is most commonly chosen since the differences between viral enzymes and cellular enzymes may be exploited.

Breakthroughs in methodologies to diagnose virus diseases have been particularly prominent in the last few years and are expected to have a major impact on applied virology. The most important advances are due to the development of the hybridoma technique and the replacement of radiomarkers on antibodies or antigens by enzymes. Traditionally, radioimmunoassays have been used on a large scale, but important disadvantages hampered their transfer to less sophisticated laboratories or to developing countries. For example, expensive counters are needed and the radioactive reagents have generally short shelf lives. Moreover, the hazards of radioactive labels and the sophistication of the procedures and equipment restrict their use to well-equipped central laboratories in which large numbers of routine assays are performed. The enzyme immunoassays which found their inception in virology in 1969 (Kurstak *et al.*, 1969) are equally sensitive, are simple, and are performed with relatively very stable reagents. The costs are low so that these techniques are applicable anywhere. The rapid development of very specific reagents by the hybridoma technique will accelerate even more the already explosive expansion of this field.

The transfer of these new biotechnologies within developed countries and

to developing countries presents an enormous challenge and requires, in addition to suitable support, adjustments in education and infrastructure in order to prevent the establishment of heavy dependence on profit-oriented large companies or countries.

The new era of applied virology allows us to benefit from decades of fundamental and molecular research in biochemistry, immunology, and genetics of viruses. Without a doubt, applied virology has enormously increased the potential for the control of virus diseases. The establishment of adequate programs and the designation of necessary resources at national and international levels are required to achieve these goals.

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