Short Communication

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Further observations on coronavirus infection of primate CNS

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Previously we demonstrated that intracerebral (IC) inoculation of a murine coronavirus, MHV-JHM, into two species of primates can result in acute encephalomyelitis (Murray et al., 1992a). Infectious virus isolated from acutely infected animals, designated JHM-OMp1, was inoculated IC into a second group of monkeys. In this report we describe observations on the acutely infected animals and those surviving the acute infection that were sacrificed at later times post-infection. Results from dual in situ hybridization/immunohistochemistry screening of tissues show that astrocytes are target cells in white matter lesions during acute infection. In animals sacrificed 150 days post-infection, areas of demyelinated gliotic lesions, prominent in the spinal cord, were seen throughout the neuraxis. No virus products were detected in these late-infection lesions.

Keywords: brain disease; demyelinating disease; virus disease; astrocytes

Coronavirus infection in rodents is widely used as a model for studying virus induced CNS demyelination. Speculation on the role of coronaviruses and other viruses in human demyelinating diseases such as multiple sclerosis (MS) has existed for many years. However, coronaviruses have never been shown to cause CNS disease in human. In 1980 there was a report of coronavirus isolation from MS patient autopsy brains (Burks et al., 1980) but subsequent analysis of these isolates showed that they were more closely related to the prototypic murine hepatitis viruses (MHV) than to identified human coronaviruses (Gerdes et al., 1981; Weiss, 1983). Therefore it was assumed that these putative humans CNS coronaviruses were contaminants originating from the culture systems used for their isolation. More recently, the idea that human CNS tissue is susceptible to infection by 'murine' coronaviruses waa re-introduced. Results from our laboratory showing detection of coronavirus products in MS autopsy brain tissue by in situ nucleic acid hybridization and monoclonal antibody staining suggested that murine-like viruses are capable of infecting the human CNS (Murray et al., 1992b). In addition, we reported that MHV strain JHM and one of the putative human CNS coronavirus isolates could replicate, disseminate and produce acute CNS disease in two species of primates following IC inoculation (Murray et al., 1992a).

To expand our knowledge of murine coronavirus pathogenesis in primates we inoculated a primate CNS passaged isolate, designated JHM-OMp1, and performed additional studies on acutely infected CNS tissue and on tissue isolated at later times postinfection. Owl monkeys were chosen for this study because this is the species that was used to obtain the passaged isolate. Isolation, propagation, titering of JHM-OMp1 and preparation of the IC inoculum has previously been described (Murray et al., 1992a); the titer of the inoculum was approximately 10⁵ TCID₅₀/ml. Five outbred adult Owl Monkeys (OM) were inoculated IC with 0.5 ml through a burr hole into the right subcortical white matter. Two animals were sham inoculated with a suspension prepared from uninfected DBT cells. The monkeys were observed daily for any clinical signs of infection. Blood was drawn from each animal on 7, 14, 21, 35, 60 and 90 days post-infection (dpi) for infectious virus and neutralizing antibody assays. Two virus inoculated animals, K191 and K063, were sacrificed 10 and 12 dpi, respectively, due to severe neurological impairment; these were designated acutely infected animals. Two of the remaining three virus inoculated animals, K189 and K171, and one of the sham inoculated control animals were re-inoculated IC with JHM-OMp1 after 90 days. All remaining animals were sacrificed 150 dpi (60 days post second inoculation). At the time of sacrifice brain and spinal cord tissue plus cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) samples were taken for infectious virus assays. A portion of each animal's brain and spinal cord was snap-frozen while the remaining tissue was fixed in formalin and paraffin embedded. RNA was extracted from frozen tissues for later Northern blot and reverse transcriptionpolymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) analysis. Sections cut from formalin-fixed tissues were analyzed by in situ hybridization, immunostaining with JHM-specific monoclonal antibody, and hematoxylin and eosin and luxol-fast blue staining. Detailed descriptions of the aforementioned methods have been previously described (Vafai et al., 1988; Murray et al., 1992a,b).

Table 1 shows results of neutralizing antibody and infectious virus assays detection of viral RNA/ antigen and summaries of pathology for each animal. The results for animals K191 and K063 have previously been reported and discussed (Murray et al., 1992a) and are presented in this table for comparison to those obtained with the animals sacrificed at 150 dpi (K189, K171 and K072). There were two main differences between the two animals sacrificed during acute disease and those sacrificed at 150 dpi. First, infectious virus could be isolated from the acutely infected animals but not from those sacrificed at later times. Second, the pathology observed was different between the two sets of animals. The pathology observed in the acutely infected animals has been described previously (Murray et al., 1992a) while that observed for the animals sacrificed at 150 dpi was as follows. All three animals had foci of perivascular demyelination in the neuraxis with prominent areas of multilevel demyelination in the dorsolateral spinal cord. Figure 1a shows an area of decreased luxolfast blue indicating demyelination in a section of spinal cord obtained from animal K189. These areas of spinal cord demyelination were accompanied by gliosis characterized by reactive astrocytes as shown by staining with a glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP)-specific monoclonal antibody (Figure 1b). Immunostaining for macrophages and monocytes was negative in these areas (data not shown). Bielschowsky silver staining (Lowe and Cox, 1990) of these spinal cord lesions showed that axons within the demyelinated areas were intact (Figure 1c and d) indicating that demyelination was not secondary to Wallerian degeneration caused by the cerebral inoculation. It should be noted that there was no difference in pathology between animal K072, the animal that received one IC inoculation, and the two animals, K189 and K171, that received two IC inoculations.

We have previously shown that viral RNA and antigen could be detected in the CNS of acutely infected animals (Murray et al., 1992a). However, in the animals surviving acute infection and sacrificed at later times, K072, K171 and K189, viral RNA could not be detected in areas of demyelination by in situ hybridization. In addition, JHM-specific products could not be amplified by RT-PCR using RNA extracted from these tissues. RT-PCR was performed on RNA extracted from frozen tissue as previously described (Murray et al., 1992a). Viral antigen could not be detected by immunostaining of these areas with JHM-specific monoclonal antibody. This lack of recoverable infectious virus

Table 1

		Infectious virus assays ^d				RNA/Antigen ^e				
Animal ^a	Sacrificed ^b	Ab^c	Brain	CŠF	Blood	Northern	ISH	PCR	MAb	$H\mathcal{E}E/LFB^f$
K191	10	_	+	_	_	+	+	+	+	Severe encephalomyelitis
K063	12	_	+	_	+	+	+	+	+	Severe encephalomyelitis
K189*	150	1:20	_	_	_	ND	_	_	_	Demyelination in brain and spinal cord; mild meningitis
K171*	150	1:10	_	_	_	ND	_	_	_	Demyelination in brain and spinal cord; mild meningitis
K072	150	_	_	_	_	ND	_	_	_	Demyelination in brain and spinal cord; mild meningitis

^a Virus infected animals. Results for sham inoculated animals are not shown

^bDays post-infection. Animals K191 and K063 were sacrificed after neurological dysfunction was observed

^c Neutralizing antibody titers. Values represent the highest titer measured from all time points

d Brain and CSF samples were assayed at time of sacrifice. Assays on blood samples were done for all time points described in the

^e Detection of RNA and virus nucleocapsid protein: Northern, Northern analysis; ISH, *In situ* hybridization; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; MAb, Immunostaining with monoclonal antibody J.3.1

fPathology determined by observation of hematoxylin and eosin and luxol-fast blue stained tissue sections

^{*}These two animals received a second IC inoculation of JHM-OMp1 at 90 days post-infection

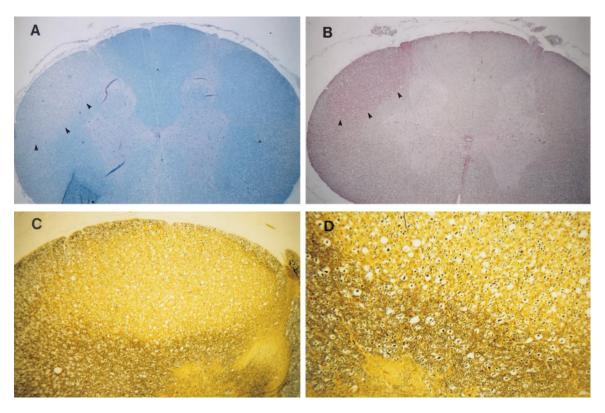


Figure 1 Histopathology, immunostaining and in situ hybridization of primate CNS tissues. (a) Decreased Luxol-fast blue staining for myelin in dorsolateral column of spinal cord obtained from animal sacrificied 150 dayspost-infection. Lesion is outlined by arrowheads (Mag.25 \times). (b) Extensive astrocyte proliferation (darkened region outlined by small arrowheads) as shown by anti-GFAP immunostain. This section was adjacent to that shown in (a) and is lightly counterstained with hematoxylin (Mag.25 \times). (c) Bielschowsky silver staining of spinal cord showing area of demyelination (Mag.100 \times). (d) Higher magnification of silver stained tissue shown in (c) demonstrating intact axons in the demyelinated (lighter staining) and un-affected (darker staining) areas (Mag.250 \times).

during the chronic phase of disease has been observed in mice that were inoculated with MHV strains (Stohlman and Weiner, 1981; Lavi *et al.*, 1984).

In our previous report we described the infection of primate CNS with JHM that was passaged on mouse cells in culture (Murray et al., 1992a). We showed by in situ hybridization that in acutely infected animals cerebellar purkinje cells and cortical neurons contained coronavirus RNA. Infected white matter cells containing viral RNA were not specifically identified in this original study. In the current study, tissue from the two acutely infected animals, K191 and K063, was used for further identification of infected white matter cell types. This was accomplished using a dual in situ hybridization-immunostaining method. Utilizing this combination of nucleic acid and antigen detection we found that JHM-OMp1 could be detected in astrocytes during the acute white matter infection. A monoclonal antibody specific for GFAP (clone GA5, Boehringer Mannheim) was used for immunostaining of astrocytes. A commercially available kit, Super Sensitive biotin-streptavidin kit (BioGenex), was used according to the manufacturers instructions to stain the primary antibody with chromophore. Antibody labeled tissue sections were washed with deionized water, treated with 0.1 M HCl at room temperature for 20 min and then incubated with proteinase K (2 μ g/ml in 10 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.4, 2 mM CaCl₂) at 37°C for 10 min. The tissue sections were then processed for in situ hybridization using a radiolabeled MHVspecific cDNA probe. Hybridization was as previously described (Vafai et al., 1988; Murray et al., 1992b). Figure 2 shows positive GFAP staining of astrocytes (red colored) in tissue obtained from an infected animal with co-localization of silver grains over some of these cells thus indicating that viral RNA can be detected in astrocytes. From these results, it appears that oligodendrocytes were not the primary target cell for JHM-OMp1.

These results show that astrocytes are a primary target cell for JHM-OMp1 infection in Owl monkeys during acute infection. This is similar to MHV-infection in the rodent CNS where astrocytes are one of numerous cell types that support virus replication (Perlman and Ries, 1987; Massa *et al.*, 1986). In our studies of acutely infected primates, inflammatory and demyelinating areas containing

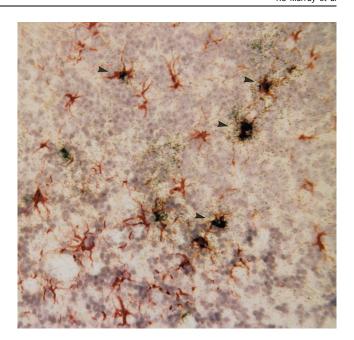


Figure 2 Dual in situ hybridization and α -GFAP staining immunostaining showing silver grain development over α -GFAP positive stained cells (red) indicating virus infection of astrocytes (Mag.400 ×). Arrowheads show a number of astrocytes positive for viral RNA.

viral RNA or antigen were always accompanied by reactive astrocytes. Infected astrocytes were not detected in the spinal cords from the two acutely infected animals but it is possible that these two animals were sacrificed before active infection had spread to the spinal cord. Therefore, an assumption can be made that the astrogliosis and demyelination observed in the spinal cord lesions in the animals sacrificed at later times were the result of virus infection of astrocytes or other cell types. Due to the later time of sacrifice we did not observe viral products or an inflammatory infiltrate in late areas of demyelination. Presumably, demyelination is

attributable to direct viral efects and/or autoimmune mechanisms and not Wallerian degeneration as shown in Figure 1d. There is support for both mechanisms operating in rodent systems (Lampert et al., 1973; Weiner, 1973; Wang et al., 1990; Fleming et al., 1993; Watanabe et al., 1983). The adoptive transfer of lymphocytes isolated from JHM infected rats, restimulated with myelin basic protein (MBP), induces in the recipients lesions resembling those of experimental allergic encephalomyelitis (Watanabe et al., 1983). However, these T cells are not simultaneously reactive against coronavirus and MBP thus ruling out 'molecular mimicry' as a unifying mechanism. This study does strongly imply that a concomitant immune mediated demyelination is precipitated by a coronavirus infection and suggests that a similar mechanism could be operating in human demyelinating diseases. Recently, it was shown that MHV infection of murine astrocytes in vivo leads to the production of inflammatory cytokines and nitric oxide synthase by the affected astrocytes (Sun et al., 1995). These factors are thought to produce demyelination through cytotoxic effects and recruitment of effector immune cells. Further studies on the mechanisms of virus spread in the primate CNS and the possible relationship between coronavirus infection, cytokine induction, MHC expression and demyelination are needed before attributing a definite role of these viruses in the primate CNS disorders.

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