

# CHRONIC VIRUS INFECTIONS: HEPATITIS C VIRUS, HERPESVIRUSES, AND HUMAN IMMUNODEFICIENCY VIRUS: PATHOGENESIS, IMMUNITY AND TREATMENT

Unit 5

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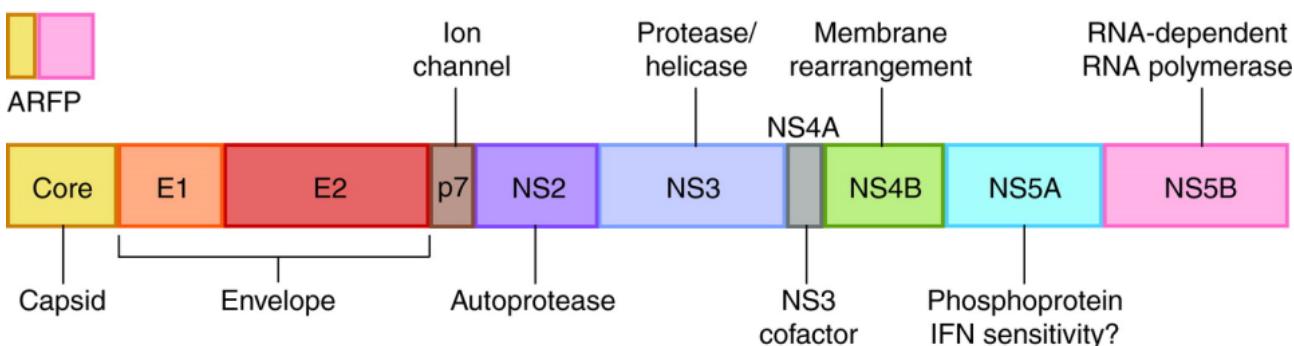
St. Jude Children's Research Hospital

## HEPATITIS C VIRUS

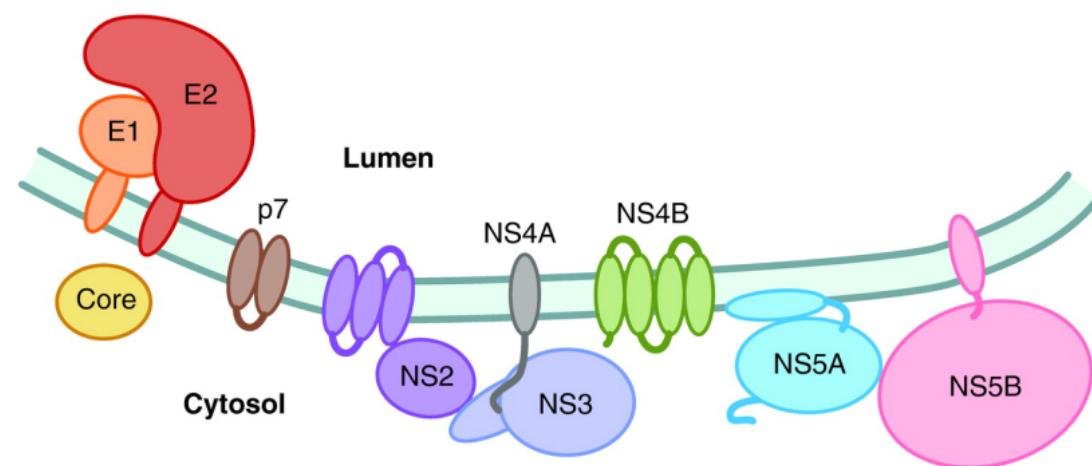
- Enveloped, positive strand RNA virus, *Flaviviridae*
- Isolated in 1989, treatments first emerged in early 1990s
- ~120 million-200 million infections worldwide, number one indication for liver transplant in the U.S.
- $10^{12}$  viral particles produced/day,  $\frac{1}{2}$  life 3 hours in circulation
- Six major genotypes, 3 dominate in the U.S. (1, 2, 3)
  - 30-50% genetic variation among genotypes
  - 1-5% variation among viruses within a single patient
- Replicates via negative-stranded RNA in membranous web in cytoplasm

# HCV STRUCTURE

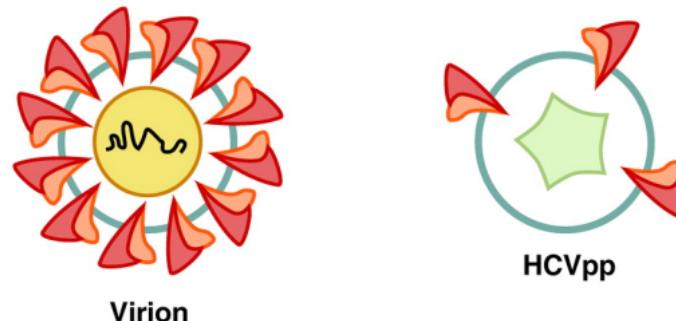
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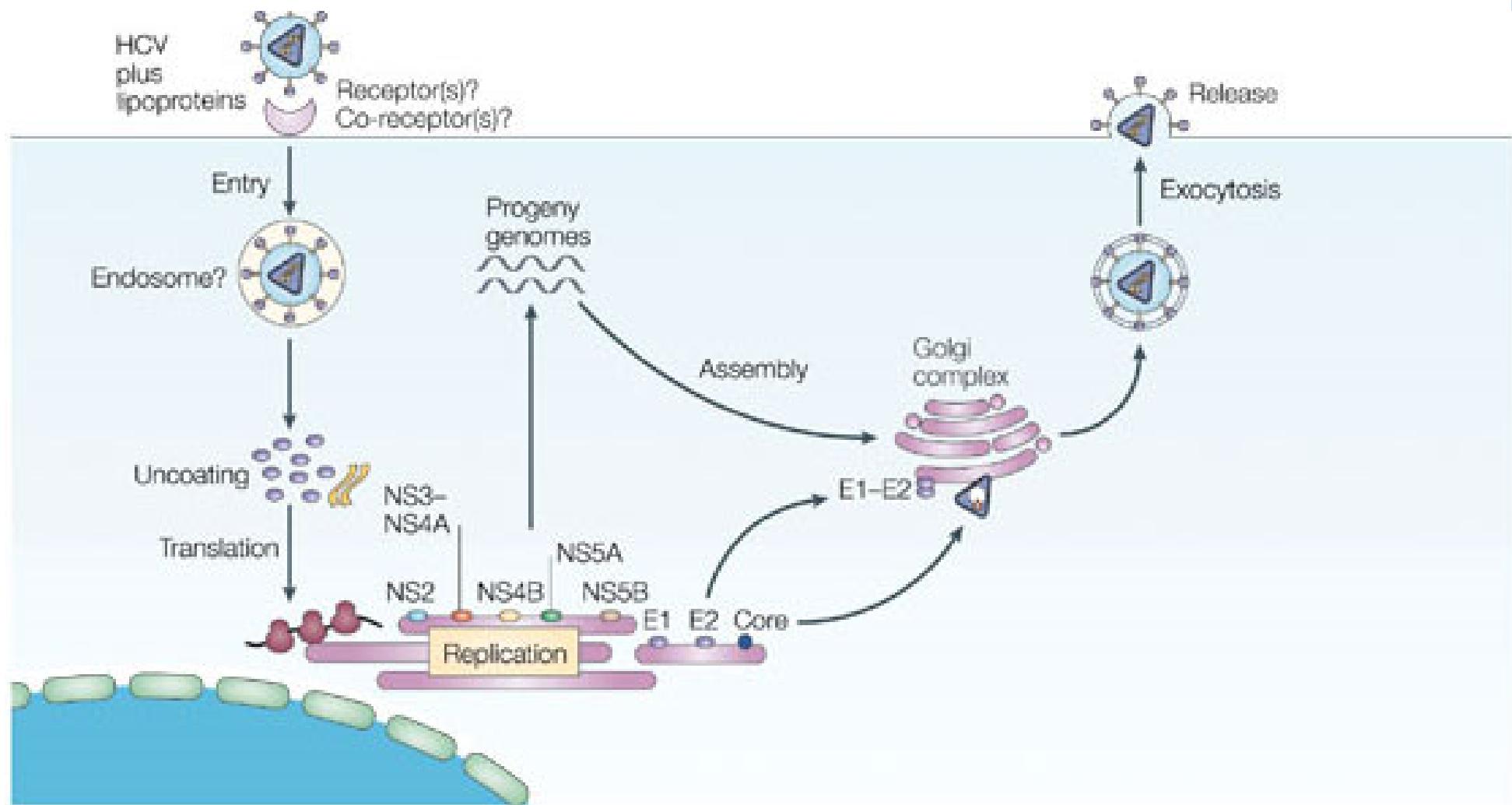


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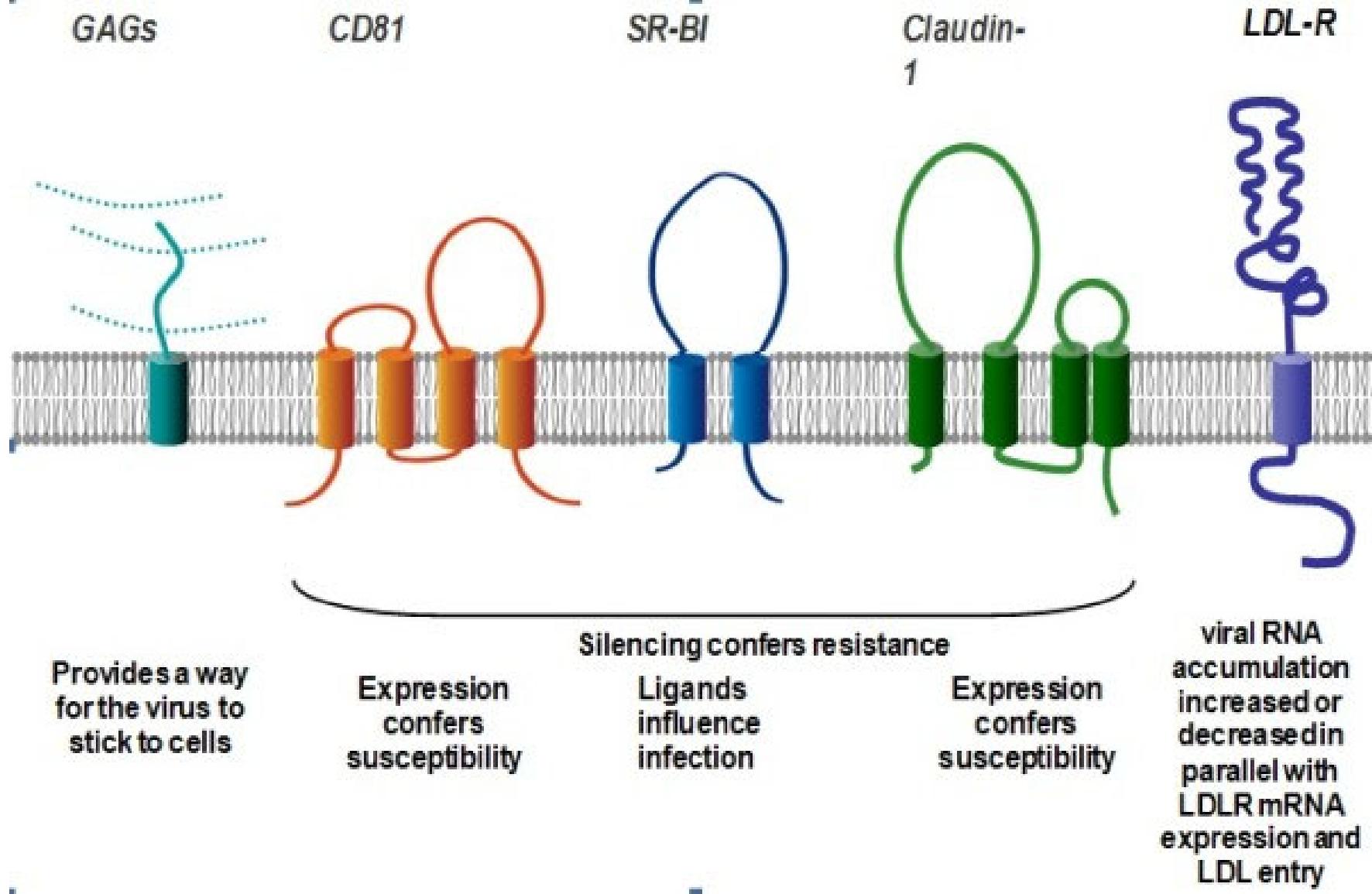


Dustin LB, Rice CM. 2007.  
Annu. Rev. Immunol. 25:71–99

# HCV LIFE CYCLE



# RECEPTORS FOR VIRAL ENTRY

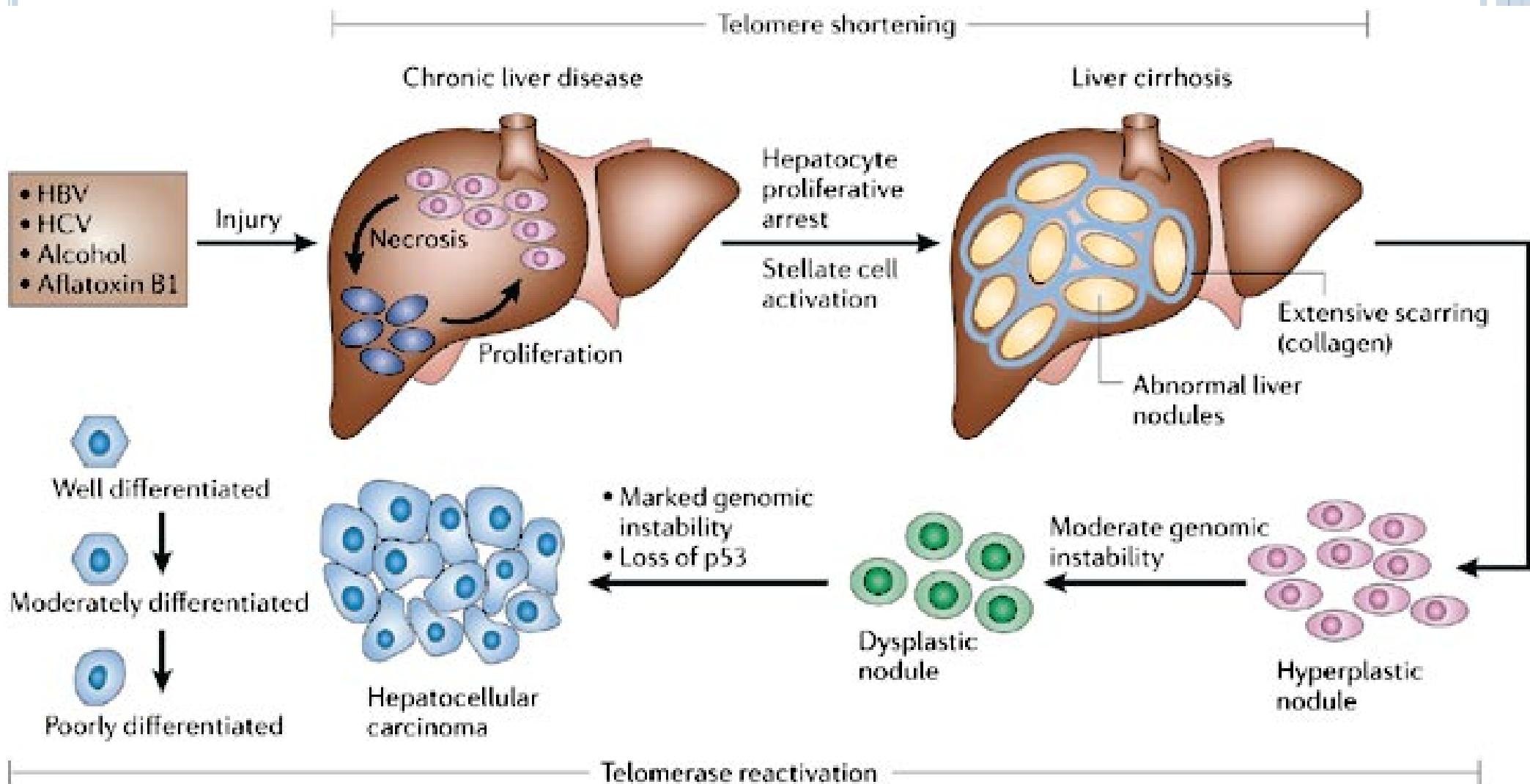


**HCV receptors for cell entry.**

Ashfaq et al. Virology Journal 2011 8:161 doi:10.1186/1743-422X-8-161

# HCV LIFE CYCLE 2

- HCV-associated disease results from viral persistence leading to long term inflammation and cell turnover



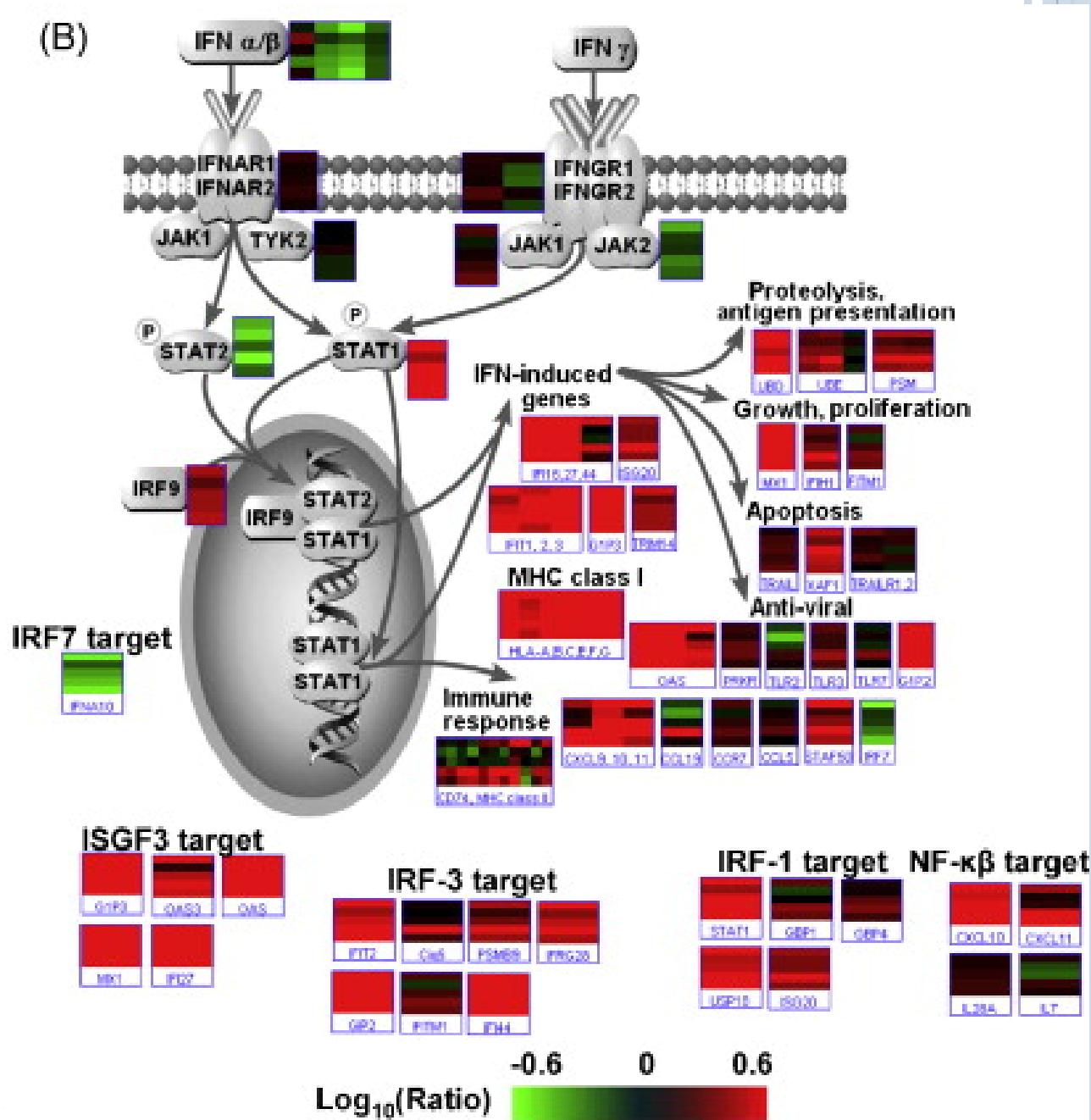
# WHAT ARMS OF THE IMMUNE RESPONSE ARE USEFUL AGAINST HCV?

- Innate immunity
  - Antiviral effectors such as IFN that act on host cells, regulating key components of cell biology to limit viral growth and spread
- Antibody-mediated clearance
  - In principle, antibodies should be able to remove virus as it spreads from cell to cell
  - In practice, the correlation of antibody with HCV clearance and outcome is controversial or lacking
  - Patients with high levels of *neutralizing* antibodies nevertheless maintain chronic infection, indicating that neutralizing antibodies are not *sterilizing*
- Cell-mediated clearance
  - Infected cells can be killed before releasing progeny virions
  - Thought to be the primary means of long term control in HCV infection



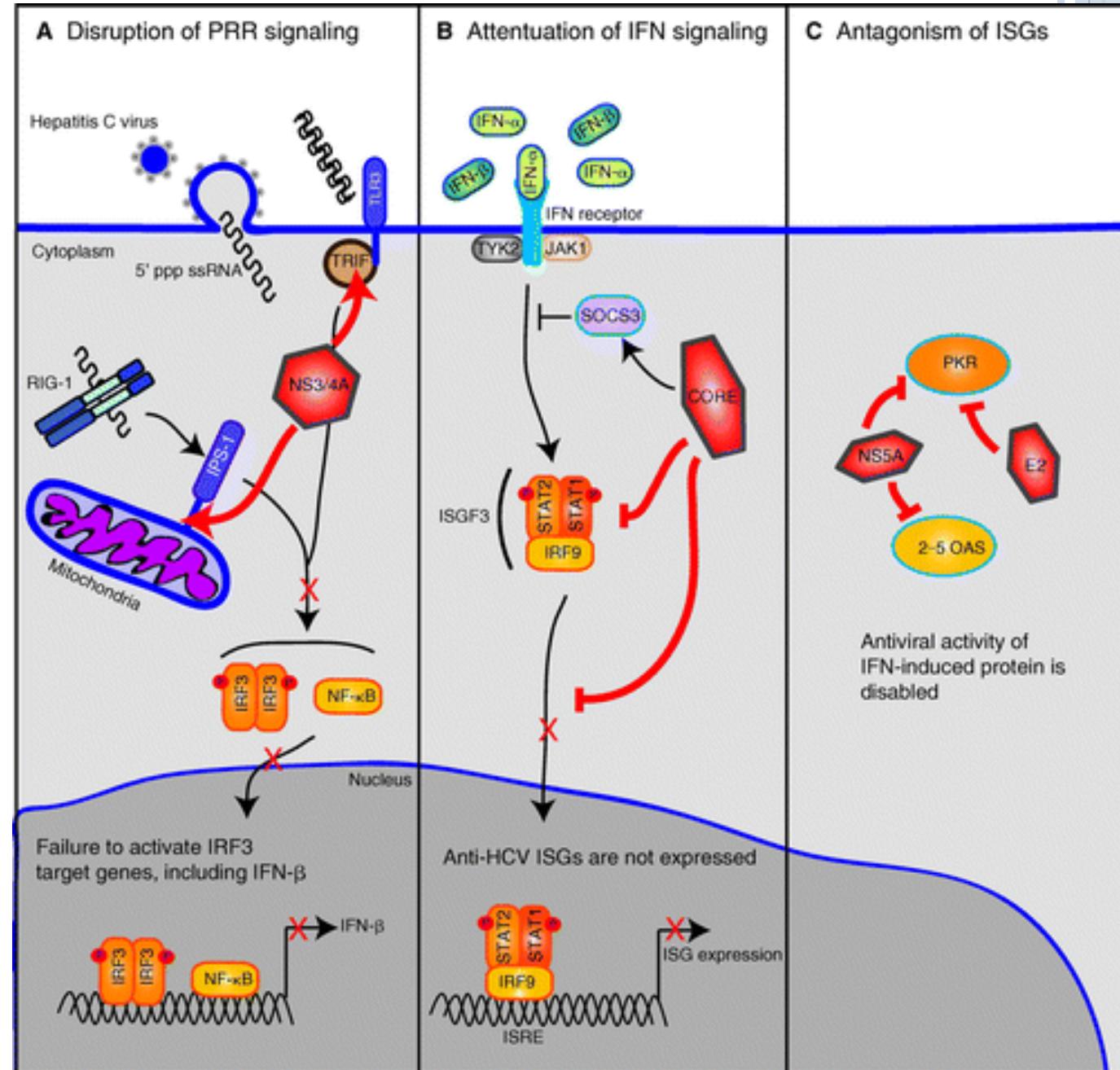
# INDUCTION OF INNATE IMMUNITY IN PATIENTS

- IFN-induced genes interfere with viral replication directly:
  - Reducing protein synthesis by inhibiting initiation factors (PKR, ISG56)
  - Targeting of viral RNA (OAS, RNaseL)
- Innate responses can enhance or initiate adaptive responses
  - MHC I expression
  - Chemokine secretion and recruitment of responder cells



# INNATE RECOGNITION OF HCV

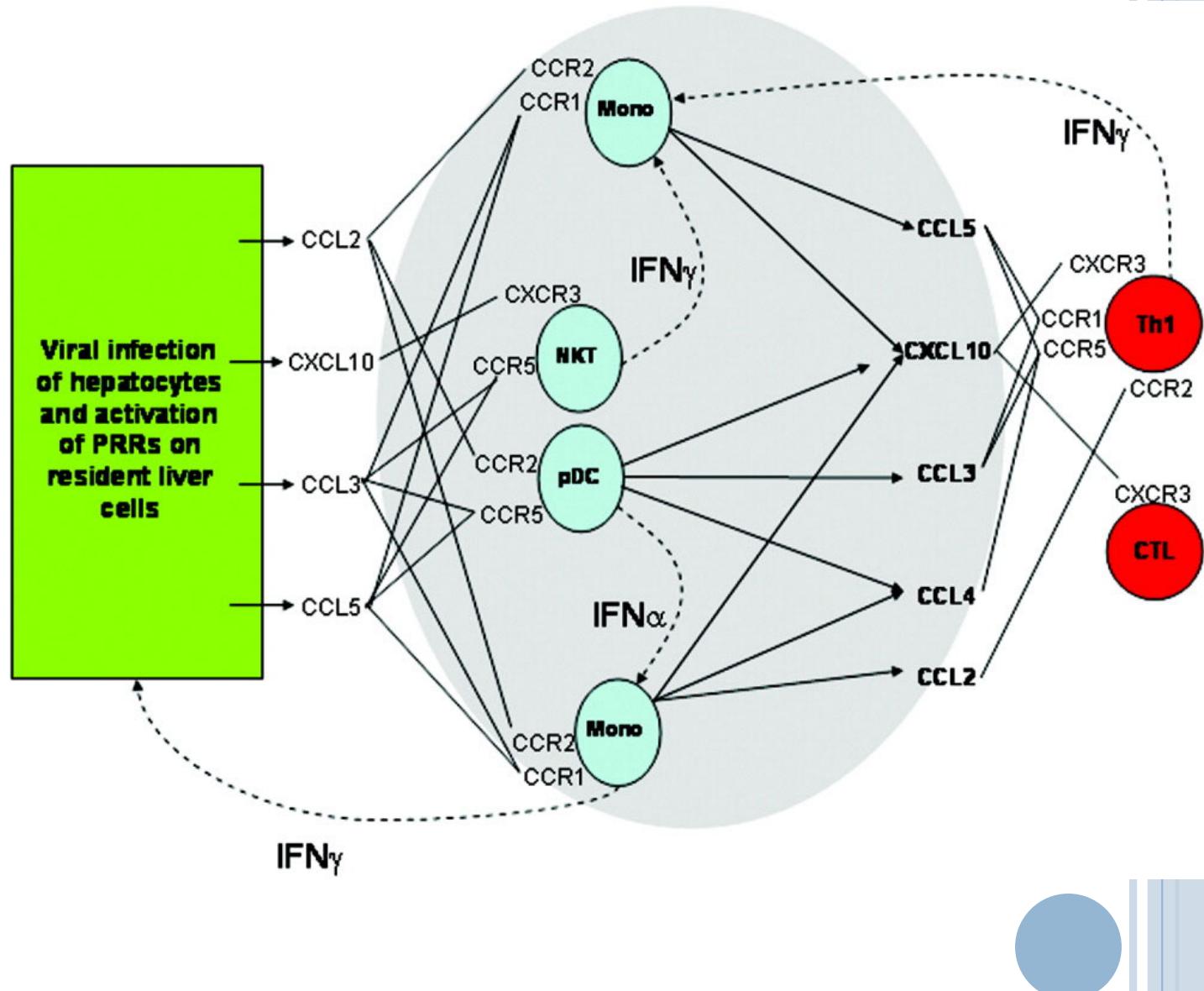
- The generation of dsRNA structures in HCV replication leads to recognition by multiple innate pathways
- HCV subverts these pathways by sequestering or cleaving key components of innate recognition
- The effects are both qualitative and quantitative on the ensuing innate response



Stacy M. Horner, Michael Gale. Journal of Interferon & Cytokine Research. September 2009, 29(9): 489-498

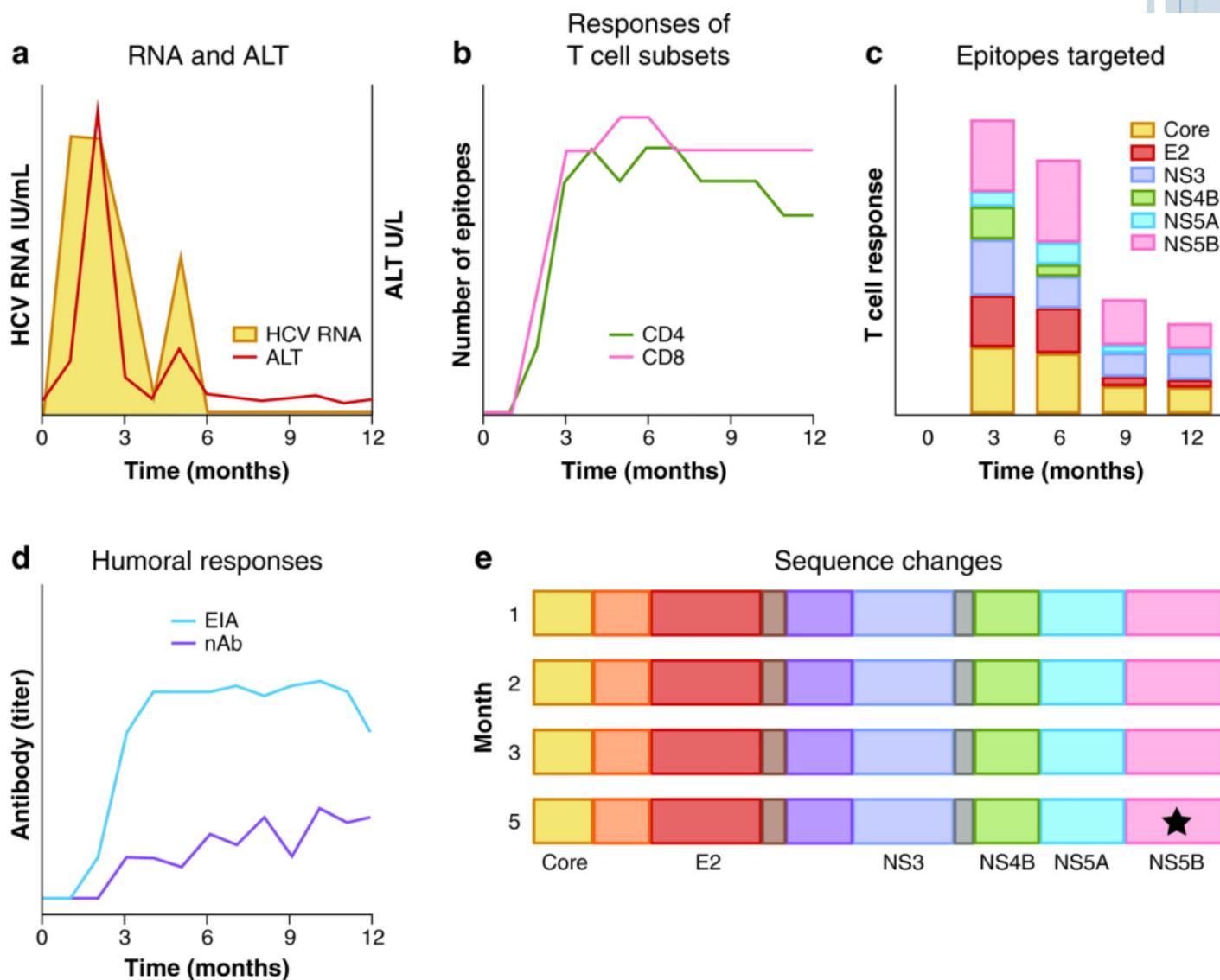
# INNATE ACTIVATION OF ADAPTIVE RESPONSES

- The innate response results in the recruitment and “biasing” of key innate and adaptive cell types, including NK cells, NKT cells, antigen-presenting cells (monocytes/macrophages) and ultimately CD4 T cells that will orchestrate the adaptive response



# SUCCESSFUL HCV CONTROL (SUSTAINED VIROLOGICAL RESPONSE) IS MEDIATED BY ROBUST ADAPTIVE IMMUNITY

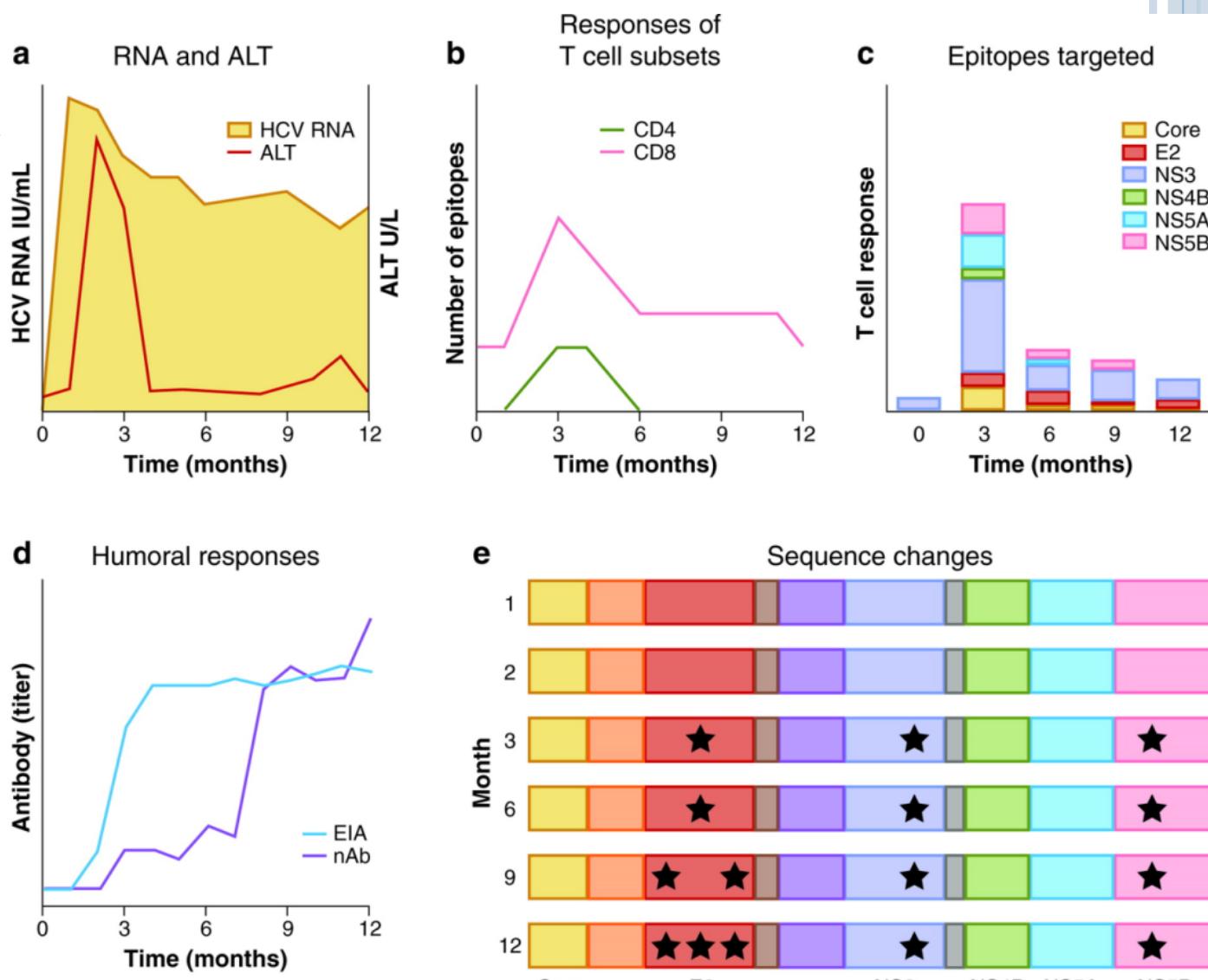
- Broad-based immunological repertoires (targeting multiple epitopes with diverse populations) control acute and prevent the development of chronic infections—particularly CD4 and CD8 cells (the role of antibody is controversial)



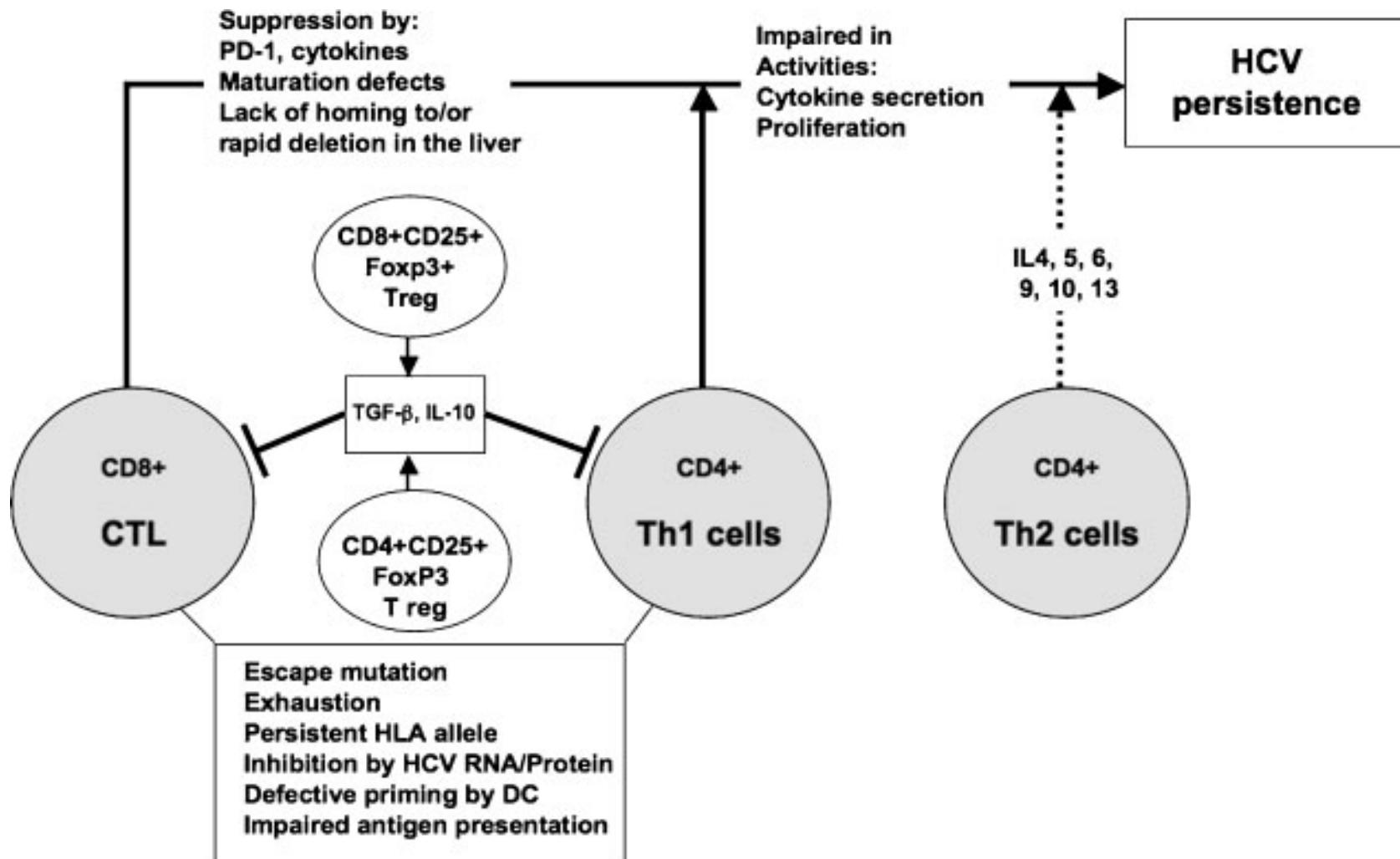
**AR** Dustin LB, Rice CM. 2007.  
Annu. Rev. Immunol. 25:71–99

# CHRONIC HCV INFECTIONS RESULT FROM POOR T CELL CONTROL, EPITOPE ESCAPE AND LIMITED REPERTOIRES

- Limited TCR diversity, restricted epitope targets and dysfunctional T cell regulation result in weak T cell responses that are unable to avoid immunological escape

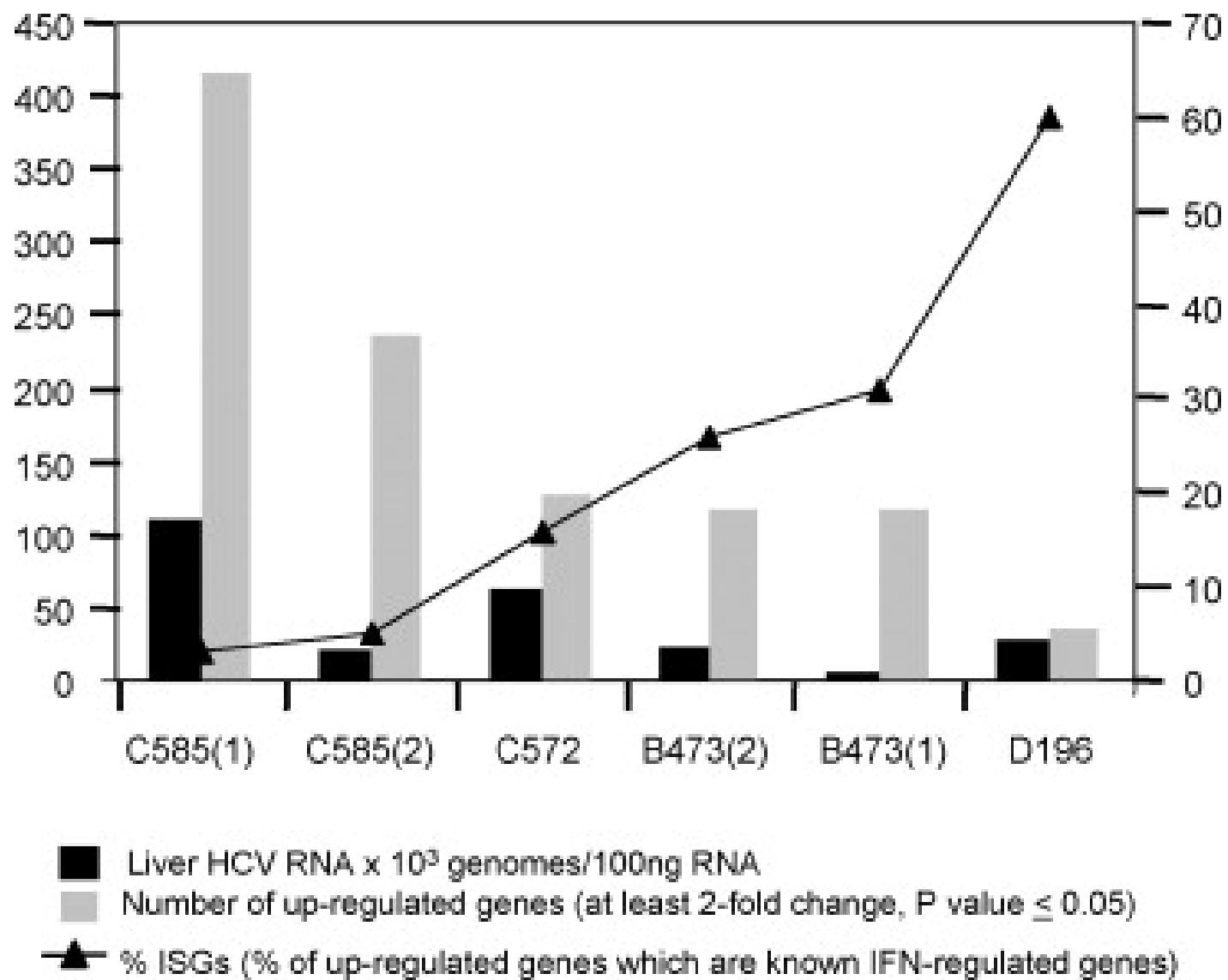


# CHRONIC INFECTIONS AND IMMUNOSUPPRESSION



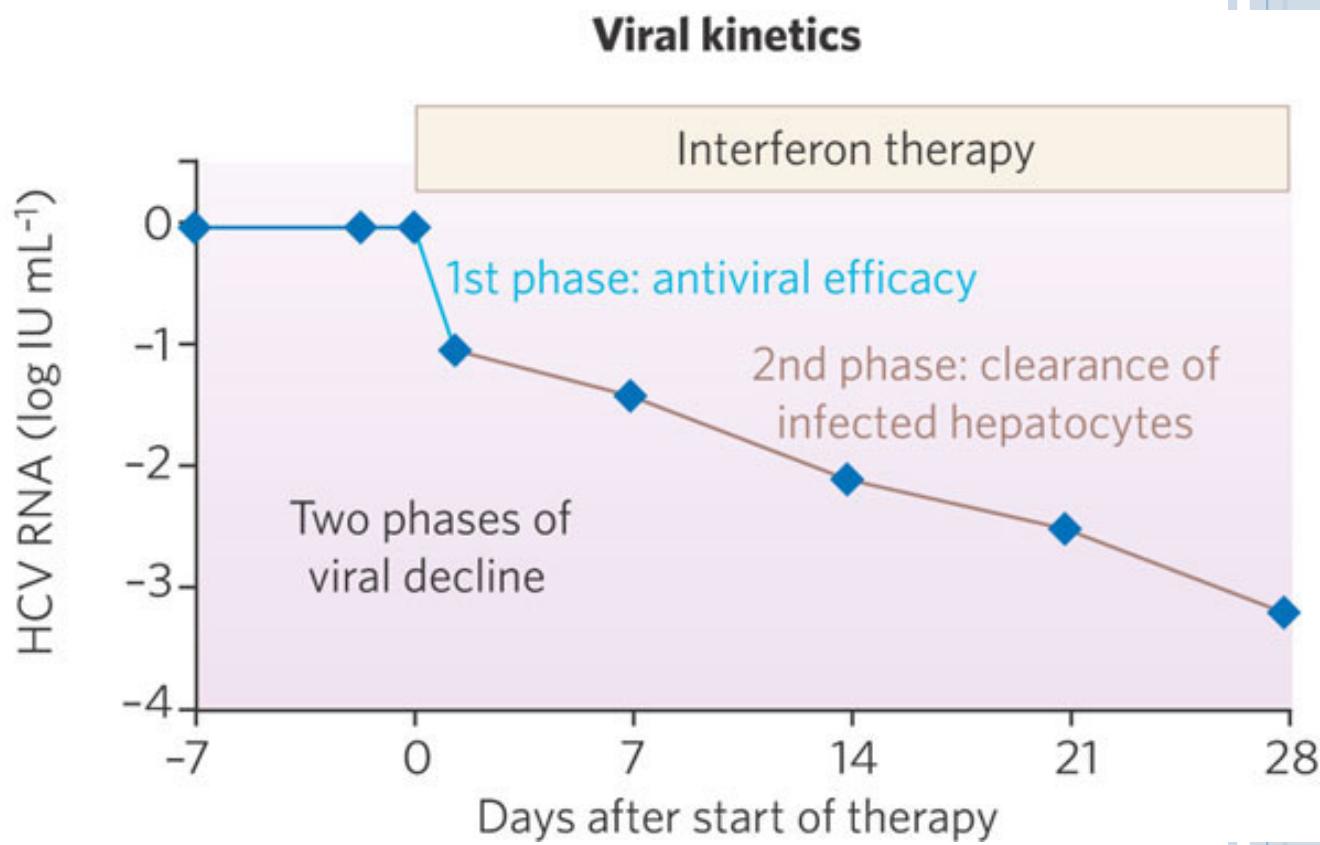
- Th2 biasing or immune senescence result in the downregulation of aggressive immunological control by CTL, providing the opportunity for viral escape and establishment of chronic infection

# CONTROL OF ACUTE INFECTION CORRELATES WITH INTERFERON-INDUCED GENES



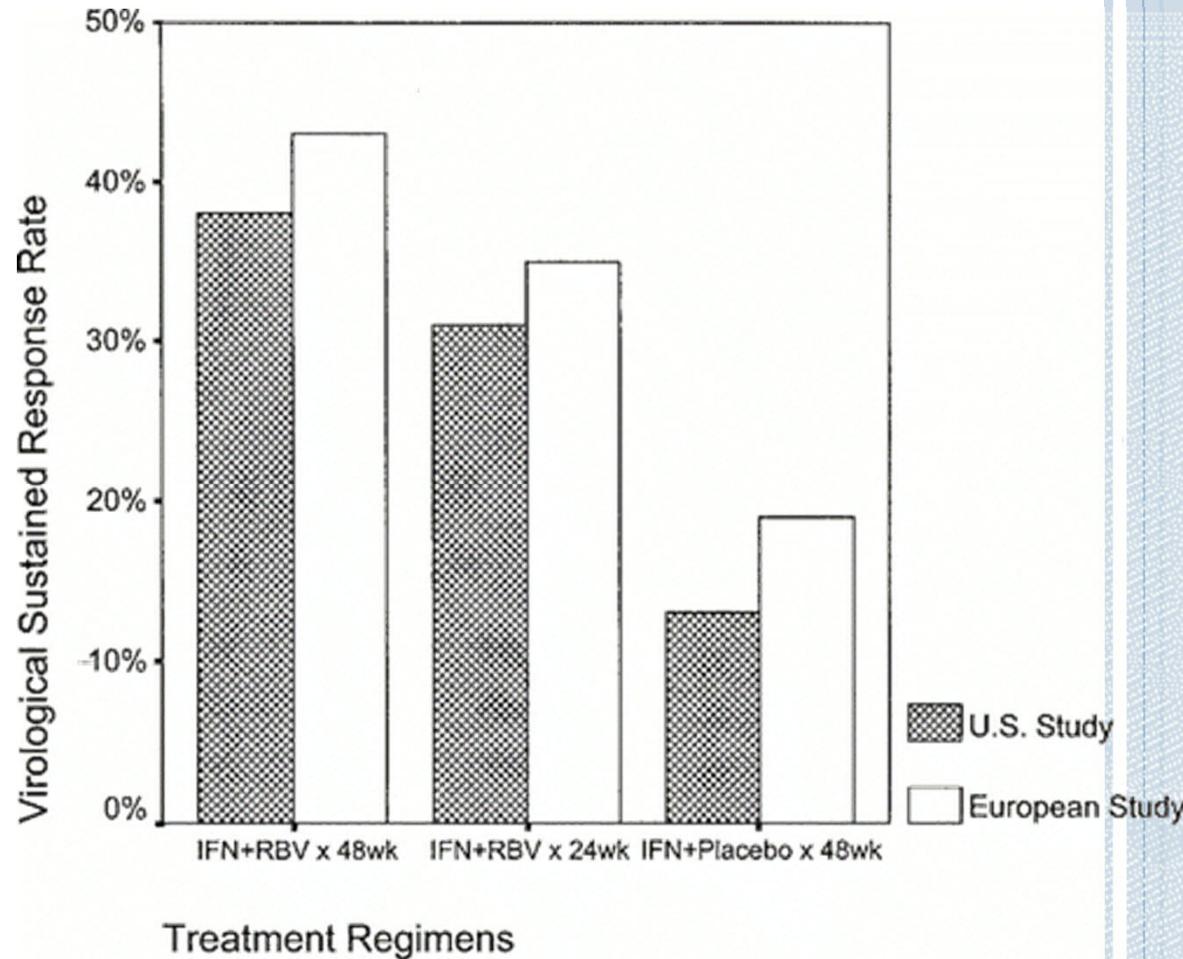
# TREATMENT: TYPE I INTERFERON

- First therapy introduced for HCV
- Full mechanism of action unclear—presumably enhances the “normal” interferon response pathways
- Genotype of virus, low baseline levels of HCV RNA and stage of infection are the strongest correlates of efficacy
- Suggestions that immunomodulation may play a role and that high dose-interferon may overcome some of the “regulatory” negative feedback loops active in the infected host
- Overall, the specific mechanism has not been clearly demonstrated biologically



# COMBINATION THERAPY IS SIGNIFICANTLY MORE EFFECTIVE

- Interferon alone only yields a 20-25% response rate following a 12-18 month course
- Combination therapy with the “broad based” antiviral ribavirin results in 40% of individuals with SVR (30% genotype 1, 65% genotype 2 or 3)



## HOW DOES RIBAVIRIN WORK AGAINST HCV?

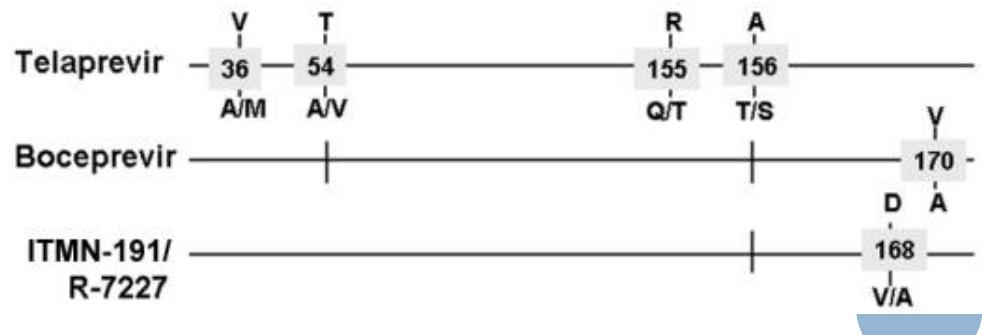
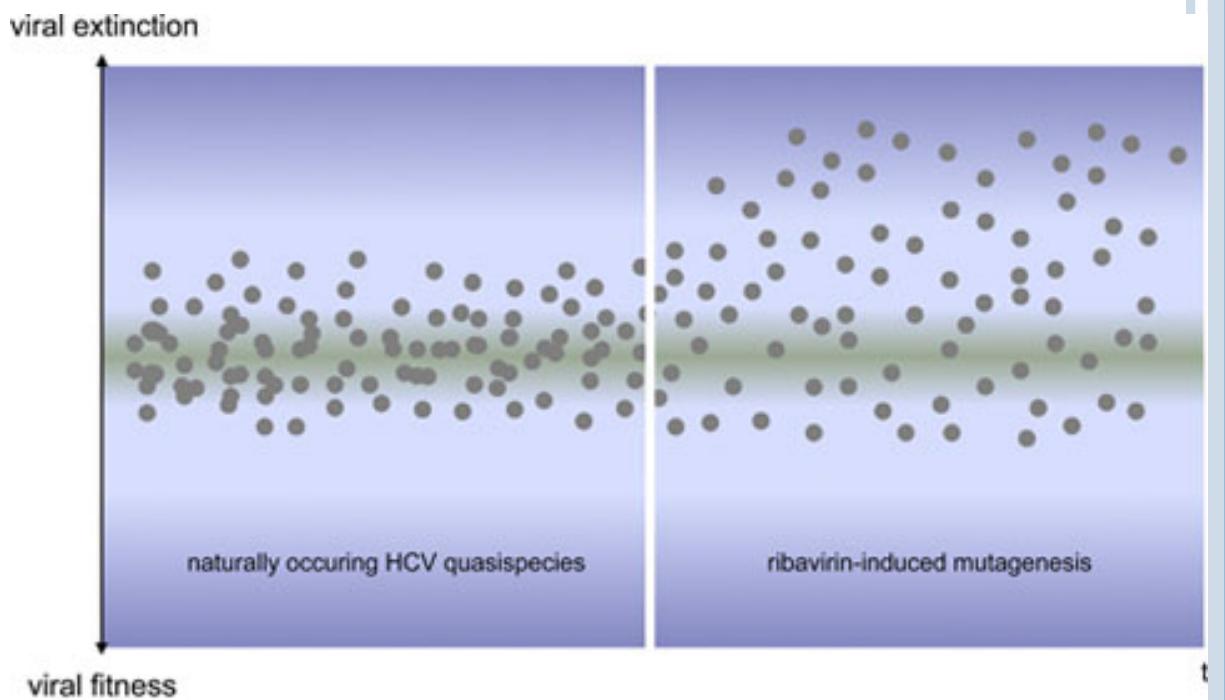
- Ribavirin was initially designed as a nucleoside analog and developed as an anti-influenza drug, but failed to receive FDA approval or show significant efficacy in humans
- It has been used to treat hemorrhagic fevers, RSV and is again under consideration as combination therapy for influenza
- Proposed Mechanisms:
  - 1) Immunomodulatory properties
  - 2) Inhibition of the inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase (IMPDH)
  - 3) Direct inhibition of the HCV-encoded NS5B RNA polymerase
  - 4) Induction of lethal mutagenesis
  - 5) Modulation of interferon-stimulated gene (ISG) expression



# WHAT DATA WOULD HELP RESOLVE RIBAVIRIN'S MECHANISM?

Interferon reduces viral production-- given the proposed mechanisms, how should ribavirin work?

- 1) Immunomodulatory properties—**Should act independently of interferon**
- 2) Inhibition of the inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase (IMPDH)—**Should reduce viral production, be guanosine dependent**
- 3) Direct inhibition of the HCV-encoded NS5B RNA polymerase—**Should reduce viral production, put pressure on polymerase to mutate**
- 4) Induction of lethal mutagenesis—**Viral production maintained, infected cell number maintained (clearance by decay), new cells infected at a lower rate**
- 5) Modulation of interferon-stimulated gene (ISG) expression—**Direct antiviral effects like interferon, should shift ISG expression from negative feedback pathways and be synergistic with poor interferon responders.**



## DETERMINING AN ANTIVRAL TREATMENT'S MODE OF ACTION

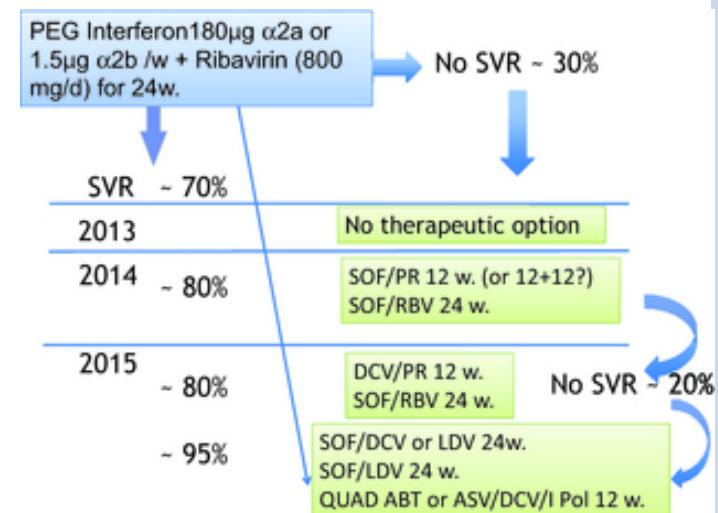
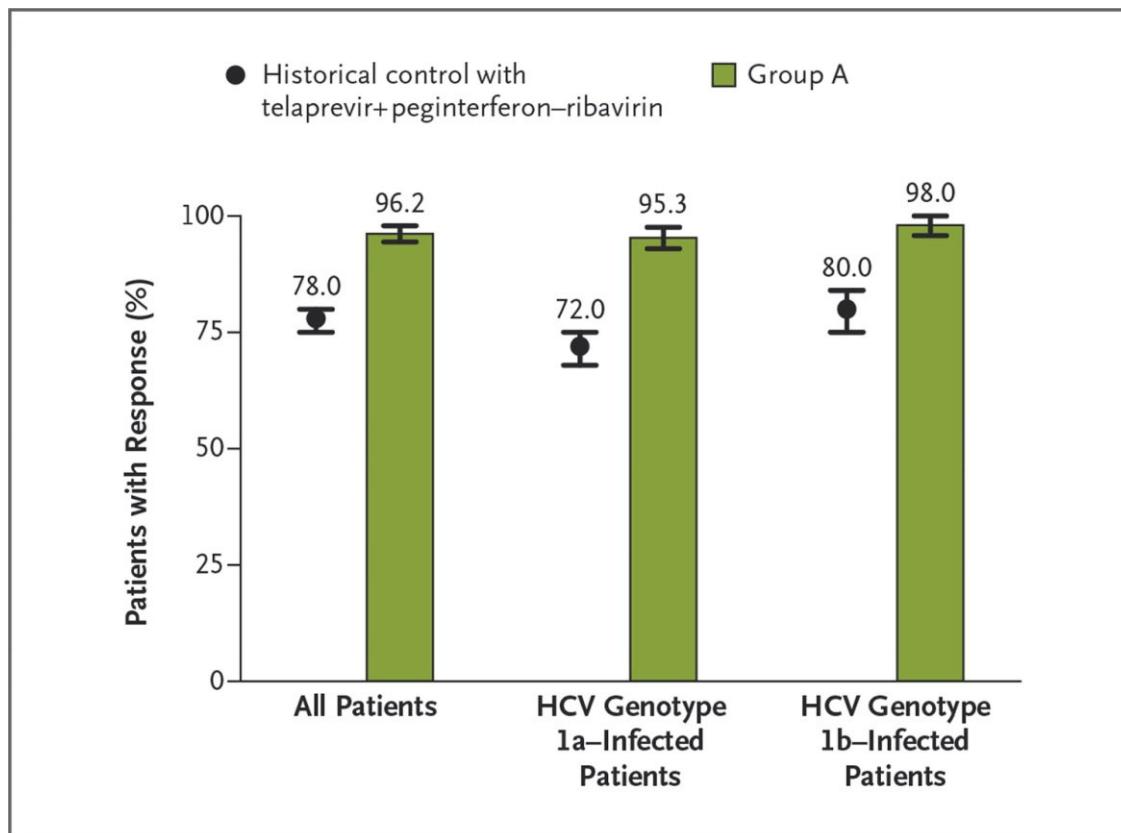
- Biological *in vitro* experiments with HCV have been difficult to perform as a result of the limited nature of developed culture systems
- Alternative drugs that perform a single “ribavirin function” do not recapitulate ribavirin efficacy, suggesting that multiple pathways may be acting together
- Biological mechanisms can often seem plausible, but can be difficult to prove conclusively that they play an important role (particularly when the drug is “reverse engineered” to the pathogen)
- Mathematical modeling from real infection data provides a compelling argument for the viral life cycle stage(s) that might be affected

# NEW DRUG TREATMENTS FOR HCV

**Viral targets**

NS3	NS5A	NS5B	Cyclophilin A
The NS3/4A serine protease	Multifunctional phosphoprotein, component of the HCV-RNA replication complex	RNA-dependent RNA polymerase	Host protein interacting with NS5A and the NS5B
<b>Boceprevir</b> <b>Telaprevir</b> ABT-450/r, ACH-1625 Asunaprevir, TMC-435 (Simeprevir), BI-201335 Danoprevir/r, GS-9451 MK-5172	Daclatasvir GS-5885 ABT-267 PPI-668 MK	<u>Nucleos(t)ide analogue</u> GS-7977 (Sofosbuvir), Mericitabine, IDX-184 <u>Non-nucleoside analogue</u> BI-207127, ABT-333 ABT-072, BMS-791325 Tegobuvir, Setrobuvir VX-222, Filibuvir	Alisporivir  SCY-635

## Rates of Sustained Virologic Response among All Patients and According to HCV Genotype in the Historical Control Group and in Group A.



FELD JJ ET AL. N ENGL J MED 2014;370:1594-1603.

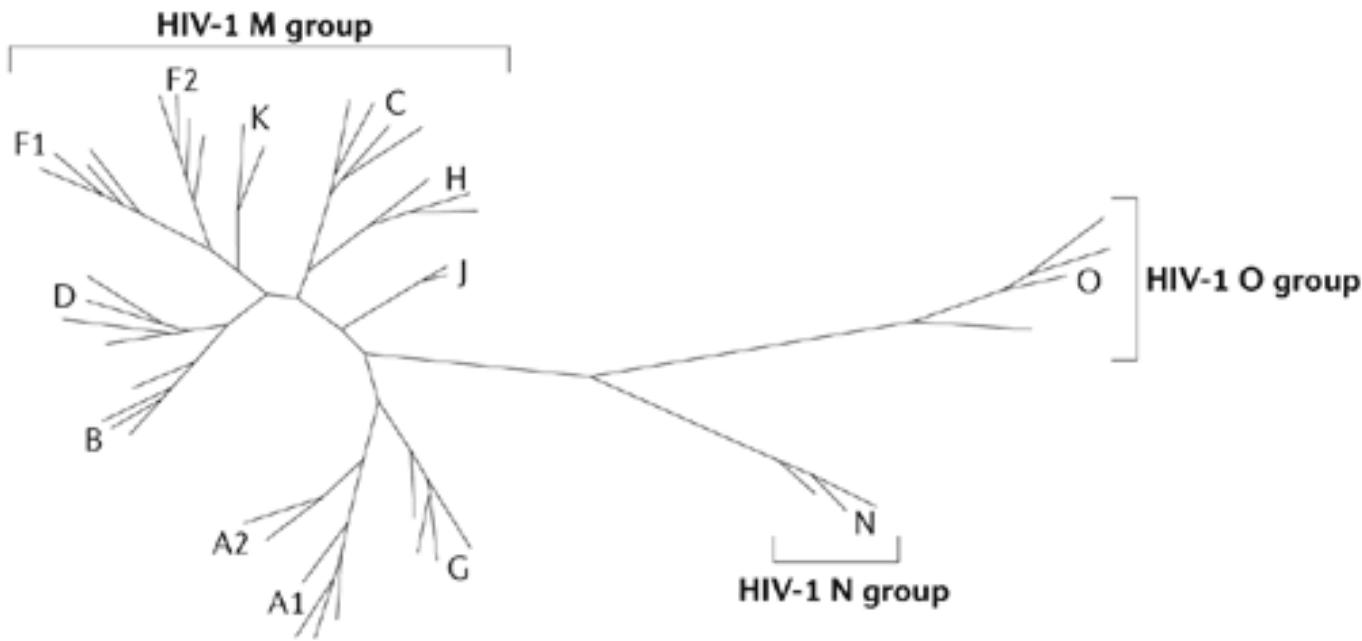


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# PREVALENCE OF HIV INFECTION



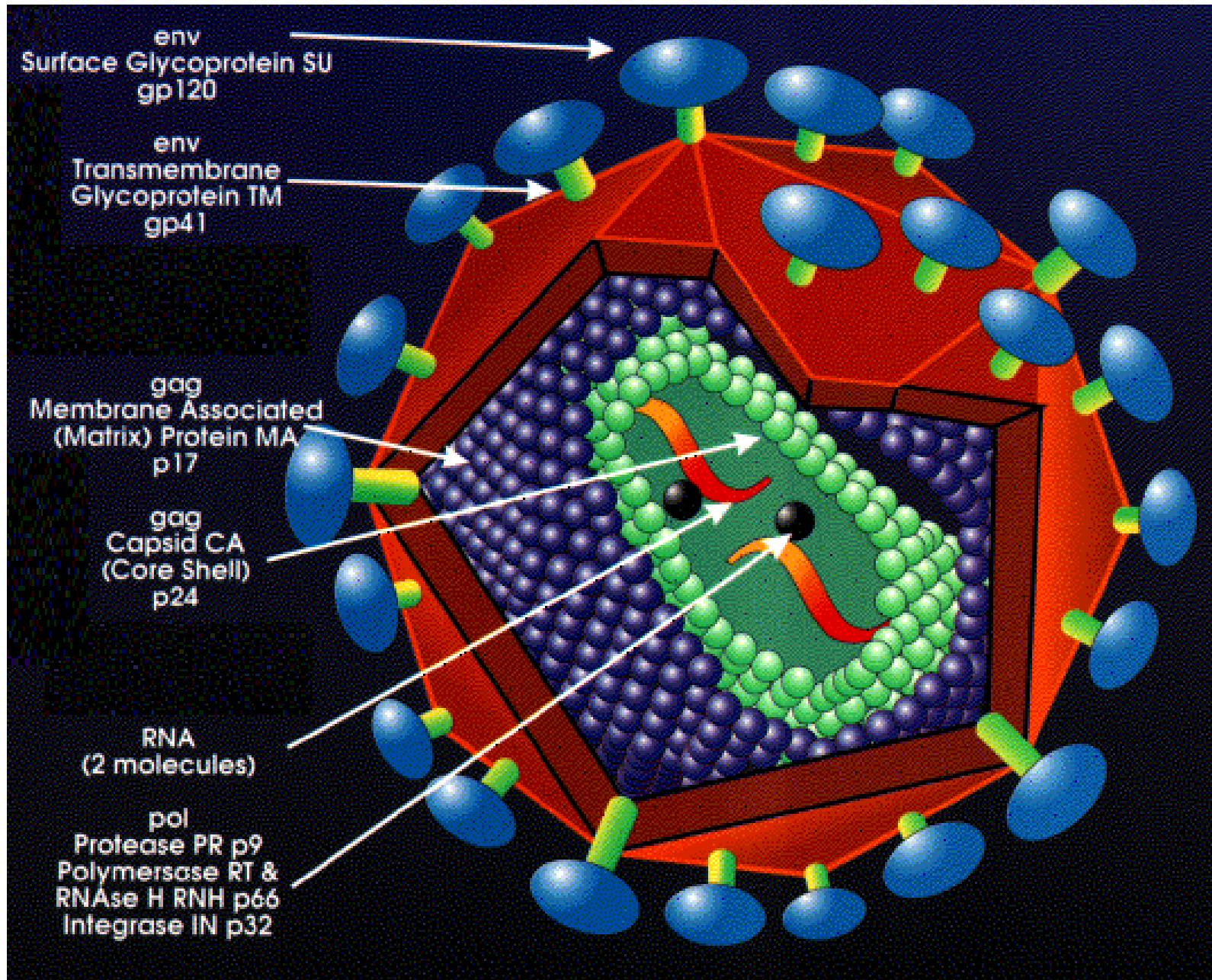
# GENETIC DIVERSITY OF HIV-1



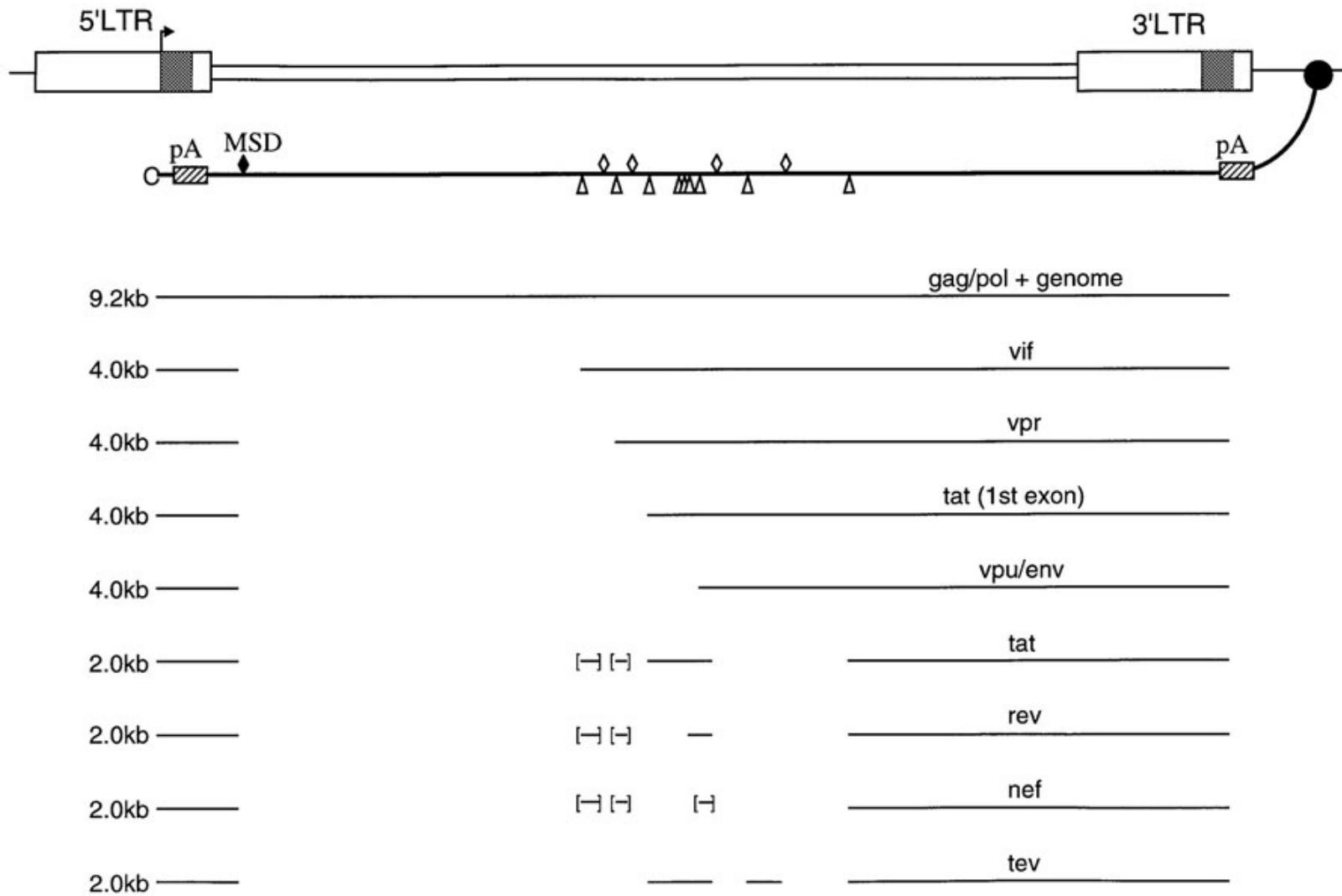
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- Within HIV-1, a large sequence diversity exists with viral clades being geographically isolated
- Several studies have suggested that the clades have different biological characteristics, including disease pathogenicity and transmissibility

# VIRION STRUCTURE

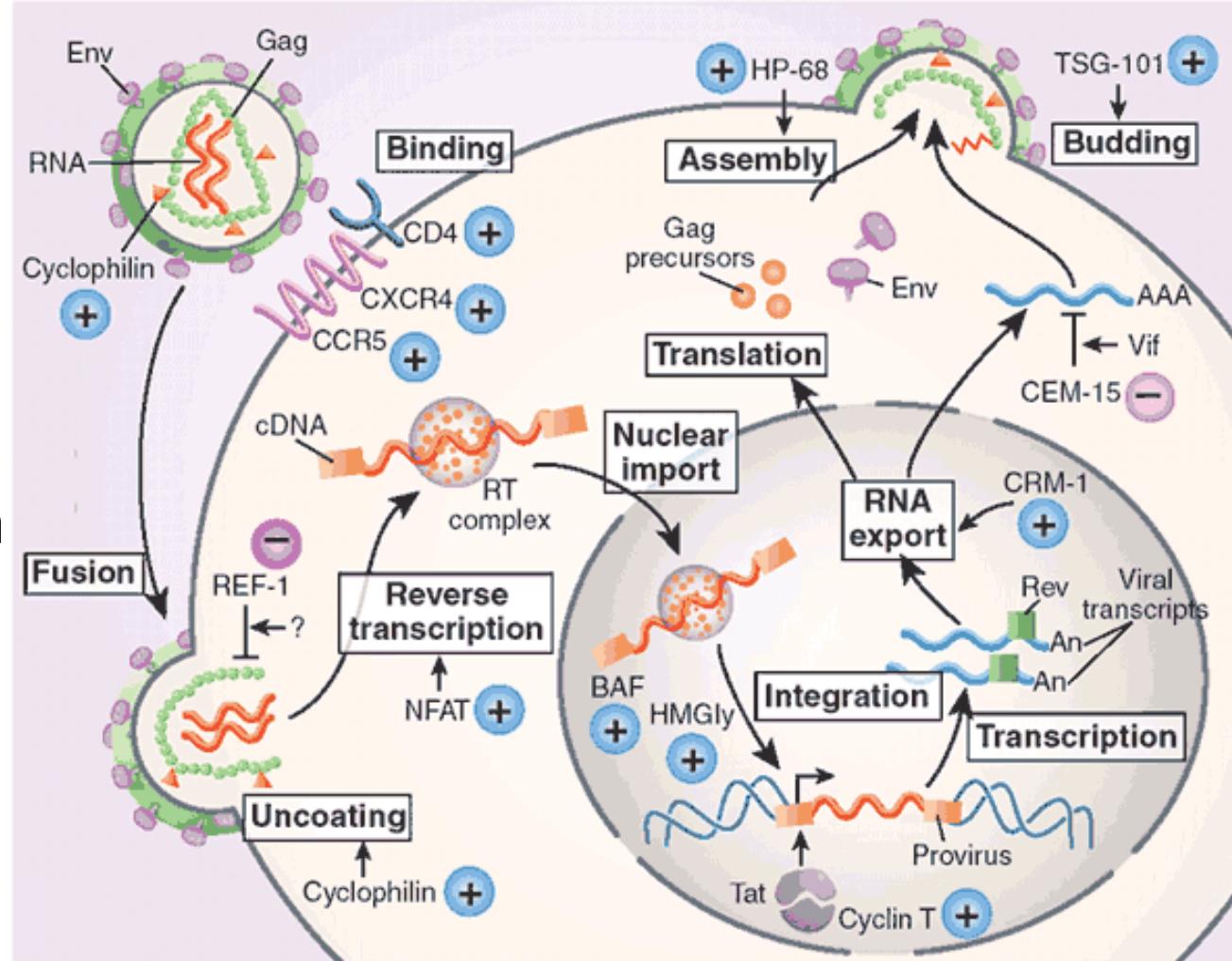


# SINGLE STRANDED GENOME, MULTIPLE MESSAGES FROM ALTERNATIVE SPLICING



# VIRAL LIFE CYCLE

- As a retrovirus, HIV replicates by making a DNA copy of itself that is inserted into the host genome
- Thus, an infected cell can become a stable reservoir for the long term production of viral particles

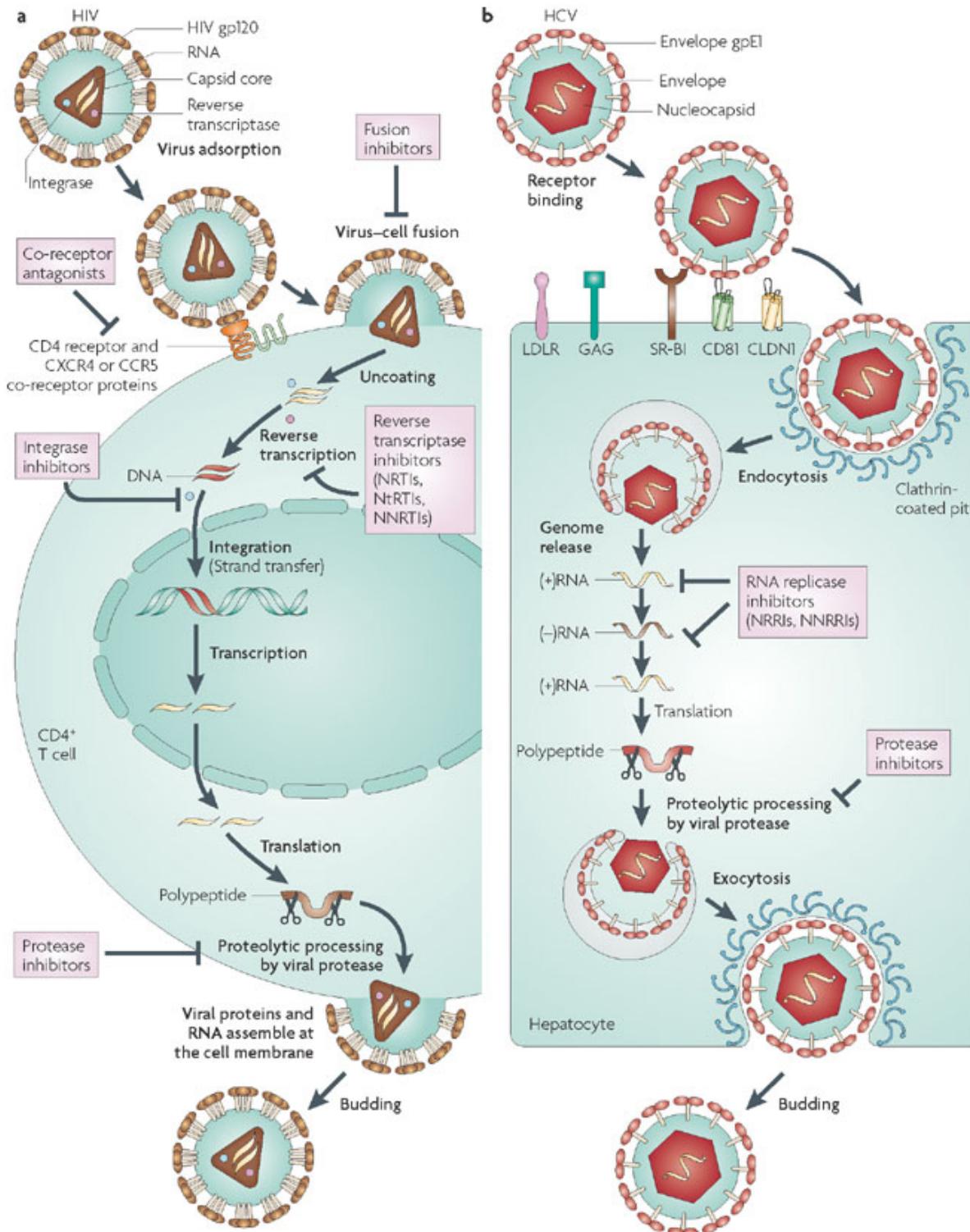


# COMPARISON OF HIV AND HCV

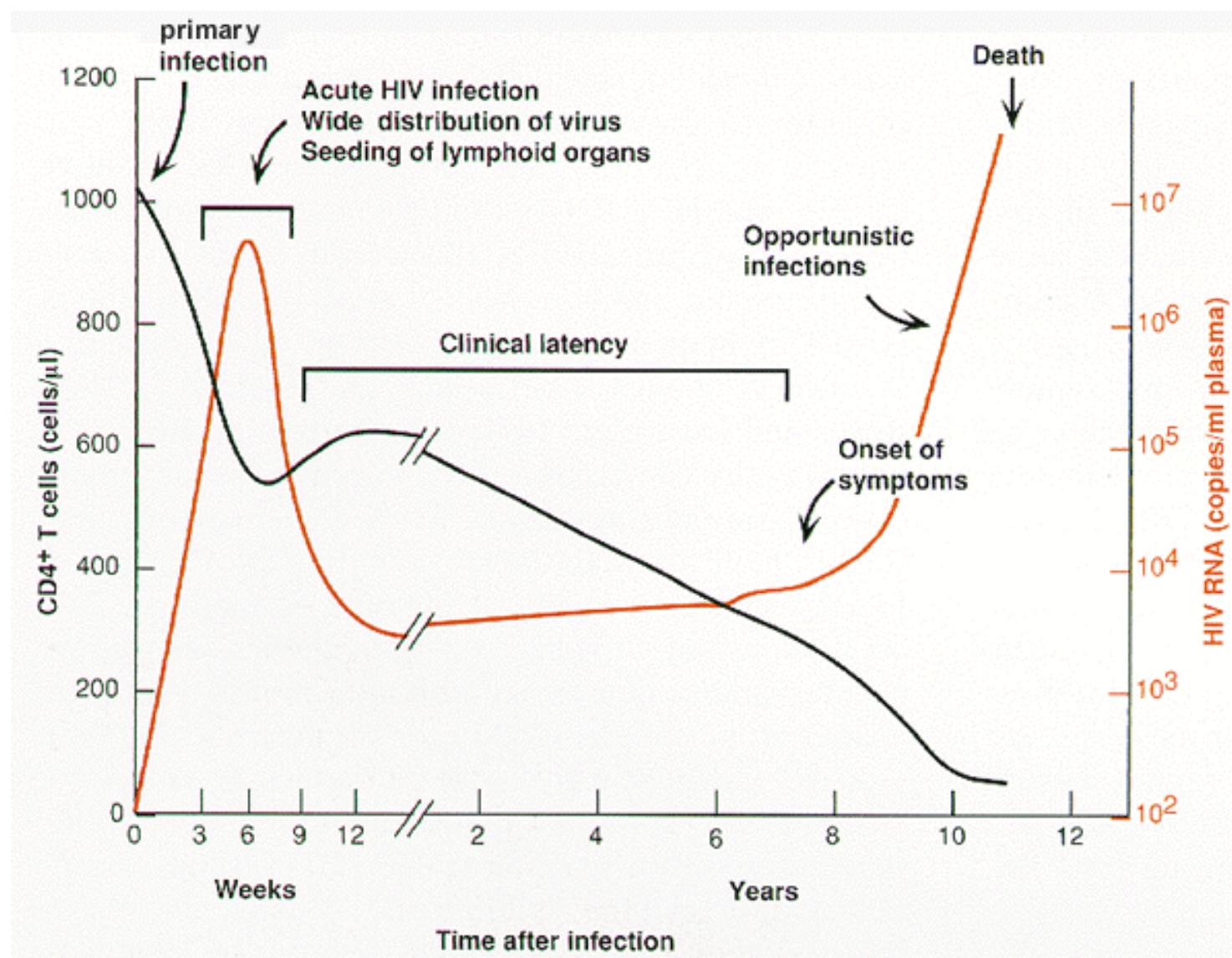
HIV and HCV both produce chronic infections, but are biologically very different viruses

HIV has a DNA intermediate that become heritably integrated

HCV is a purely RNA virus

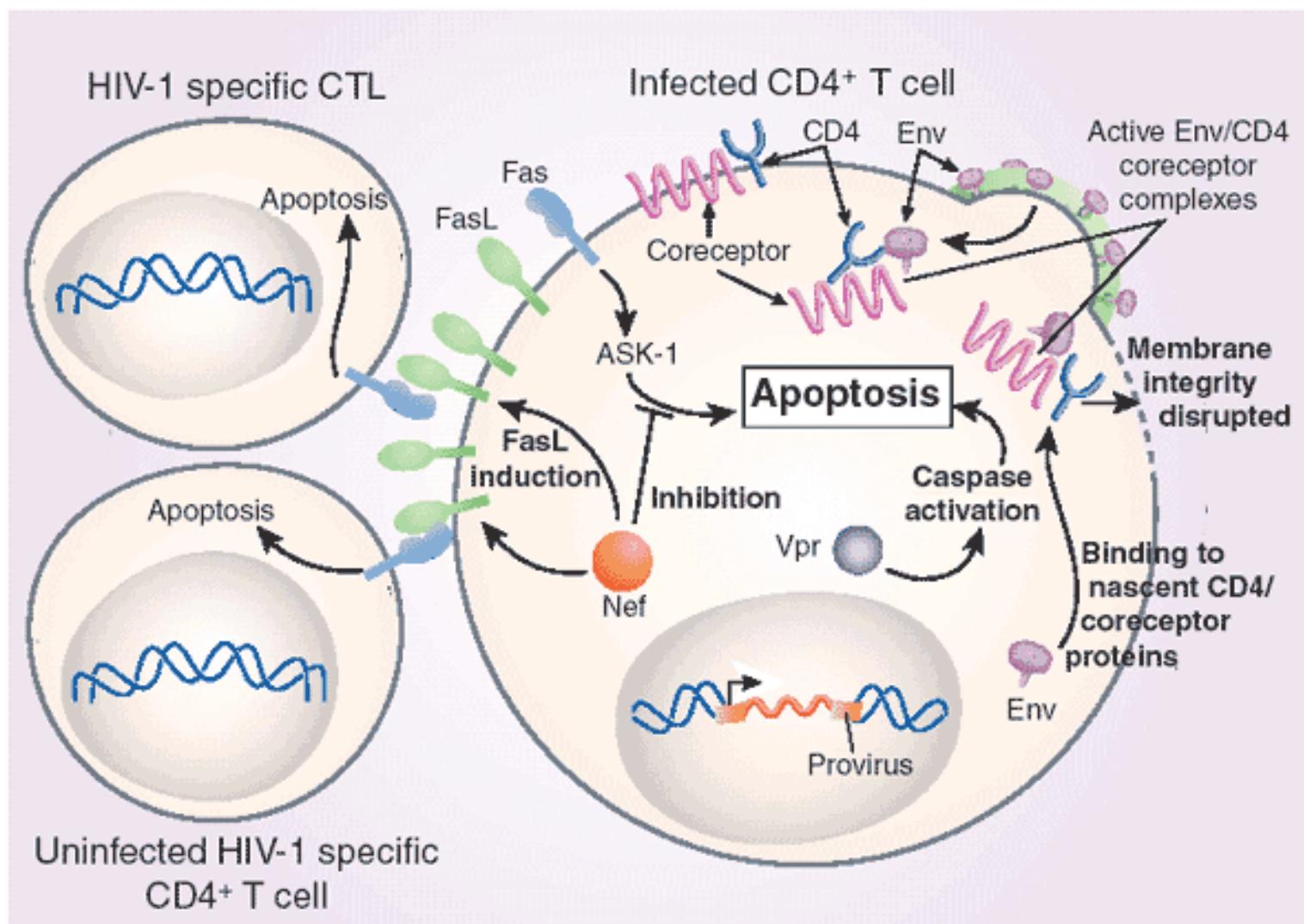


# CLINICAL COURSE OF INFECTION



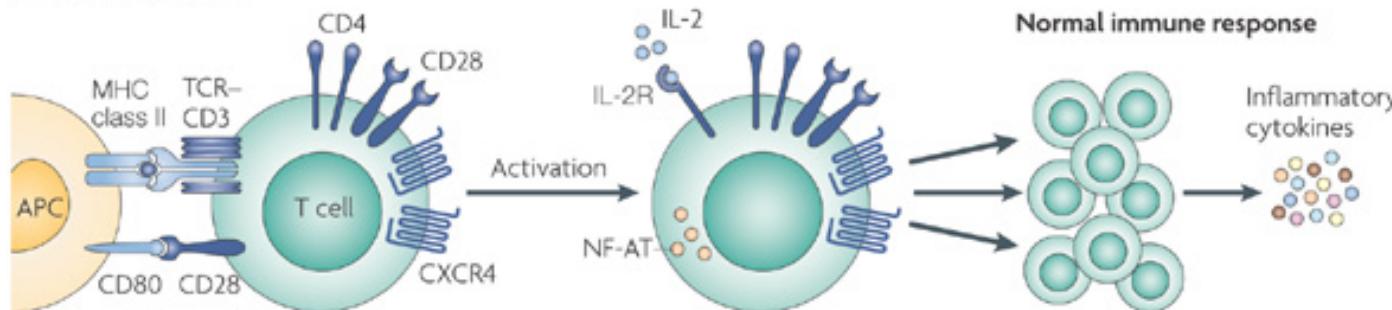
# MECHANISMS OF CYTOPATHICITY

- Viral envelope fusogenicity (ER compromised)
- Vpr activates caspases
- Nef contributes indirectly to apoptosis via FasL

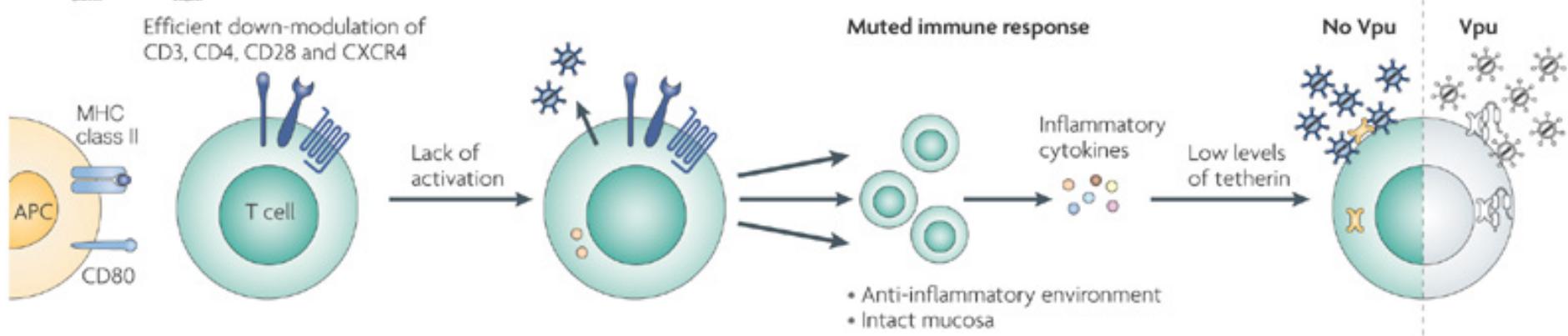


# MECHANISMS OF IMMUNE DYSREGULATION

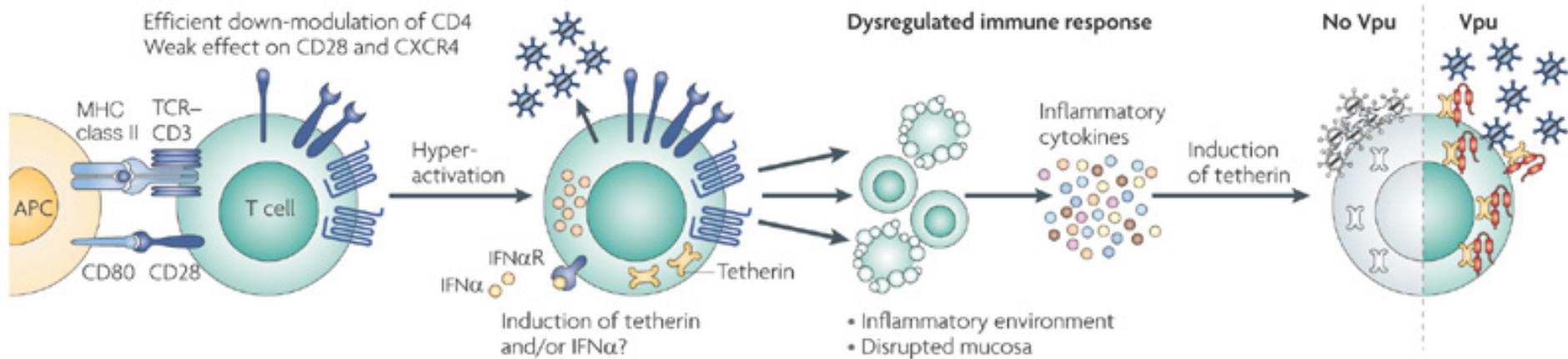
## a Uninfected T cell



## b SIV<sub>SMM</sub>- or SIV<sub>AGM</sub>-infected T cell



## c HIV-1-infected T cell



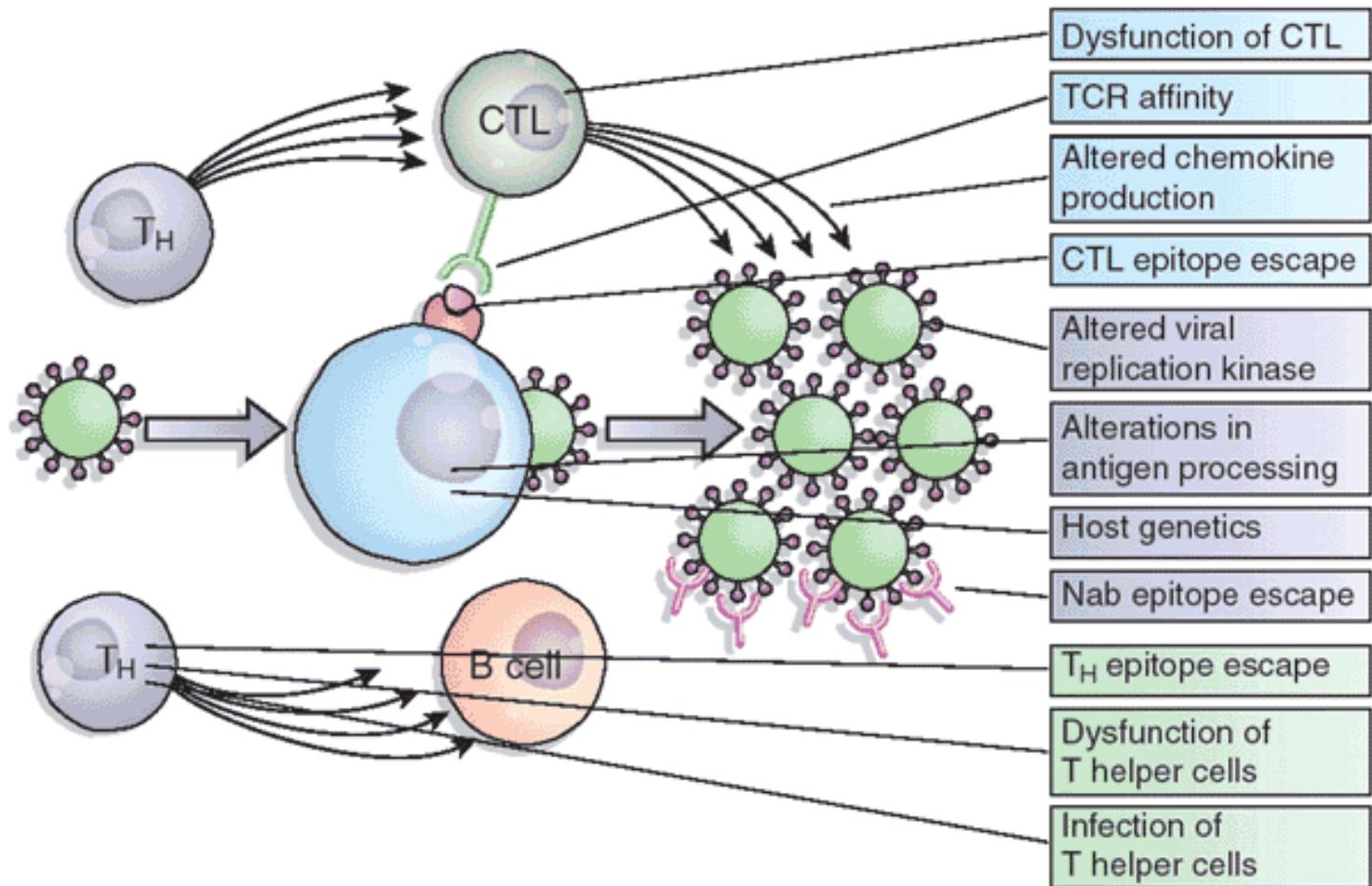
# WHAT MAKES HIV LETHAL?

Infections		Malignancies
Parasites	<i>Toxoplasma</i> spp. <i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp. <i>Leishmania</i> spp. <i>Microsporidium</i> spp.	Kaposi's sarcoma - HHV8 Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, including EBV-positive Burkitt's lymphoma Primary lymphoma of the brain
Intracellular bacteria	<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i> <i>Mycobacterium avium intracellulare</i> <i>Salmonella</i> spp.	
Fungi	<i>Pneumocystis carinii</i> <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> <i>Candida</i> spp. <i>Histoplasma capsulatum</i> <i>Coccidioides immitis</i>	
Viruses	<i>Herpes simplex</i> <i>Cytomegalovirus</i> <i>Varicella zoster</i>	

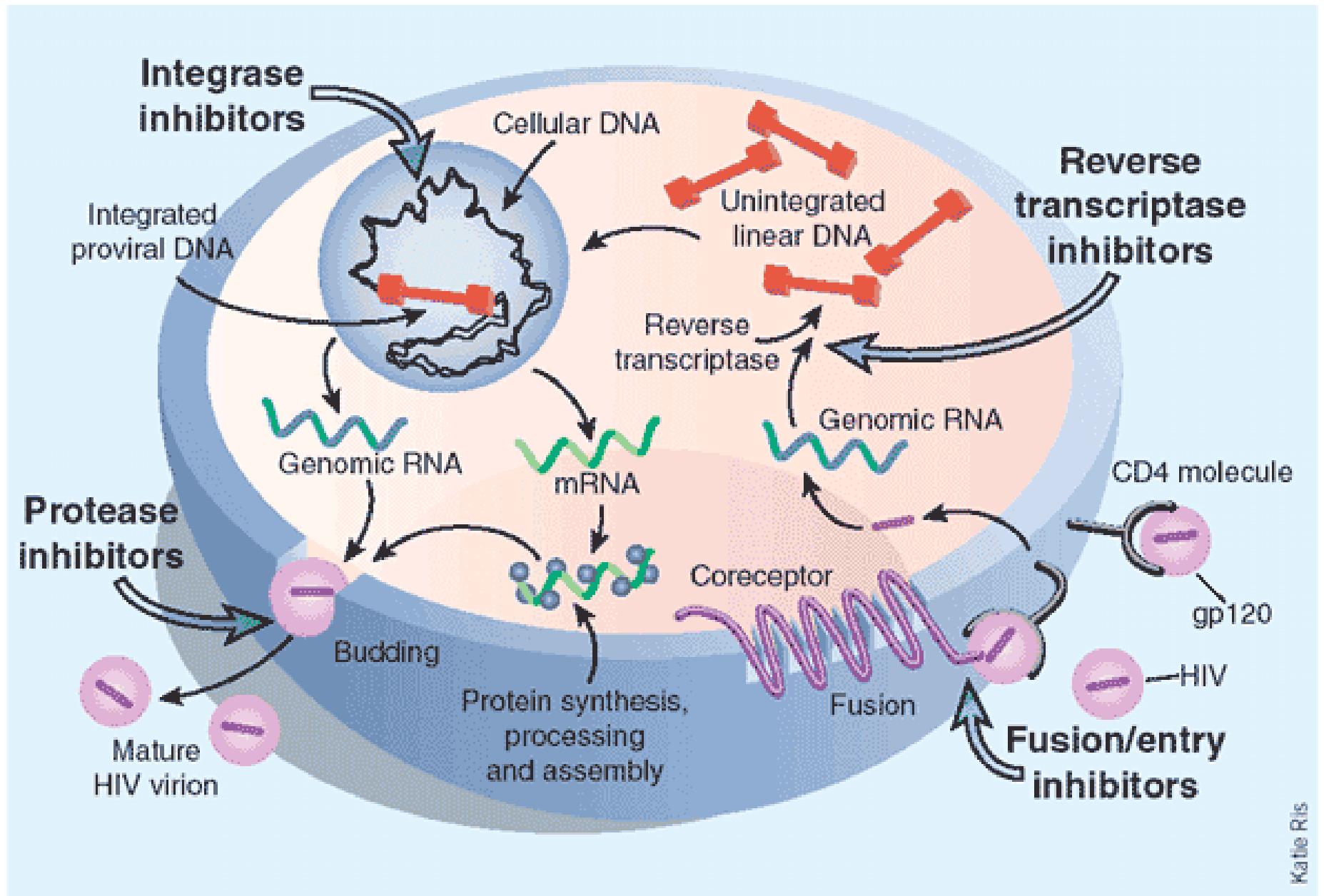
Figure 11-30 Immunobiology, 6/e. (© Garland Science 2005)

# WHY IS HIV UNLIKE ANY OTHER CHRONIC INFECTION?

- A combination of “traditional” immune evasion mechanisms (CTL escape, antigen masking) and non-traditional (attacking immune function and cell compartments directly

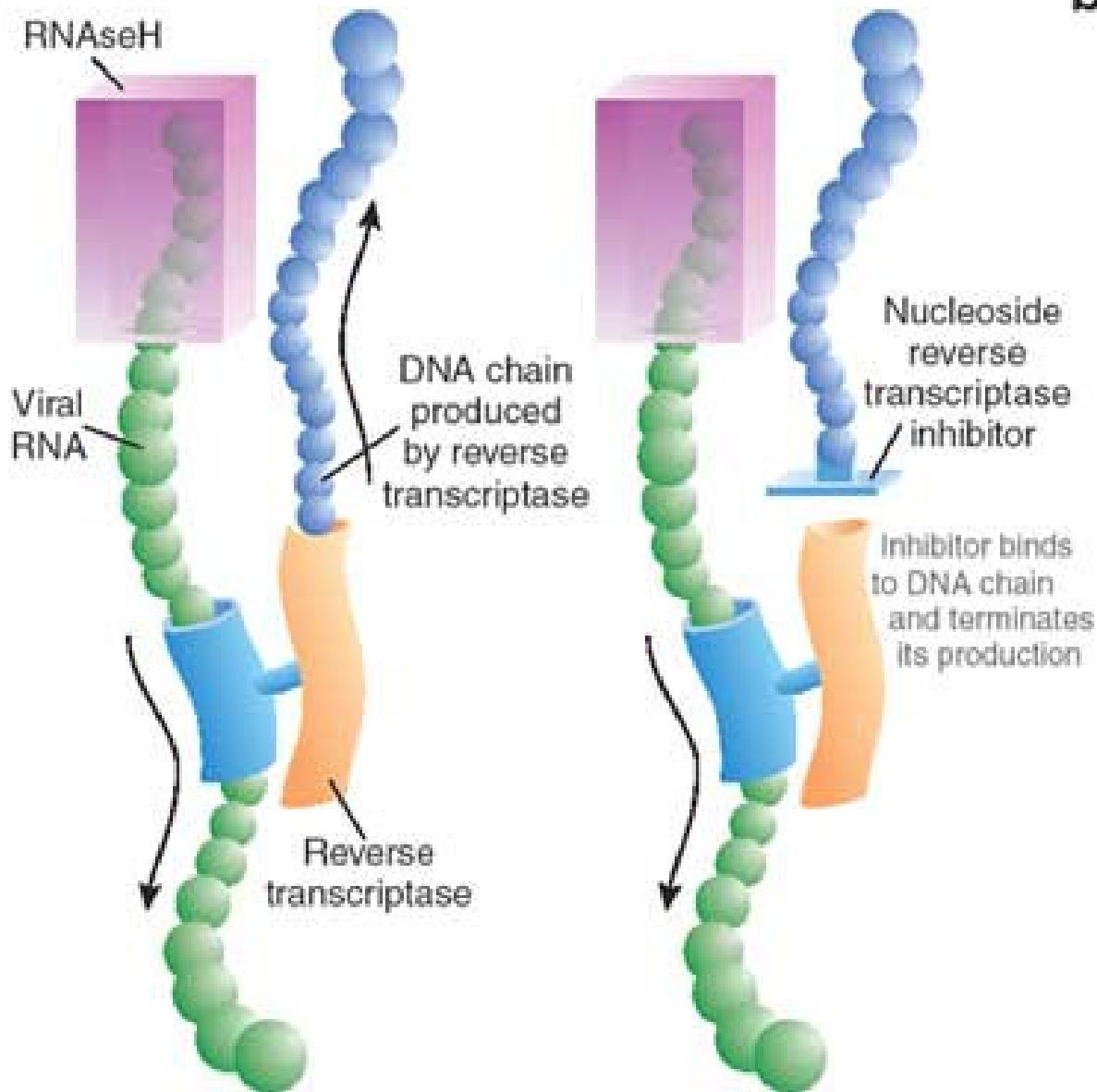


# CAN INFECTION BE EFFECTIVELY CONTROLLED?

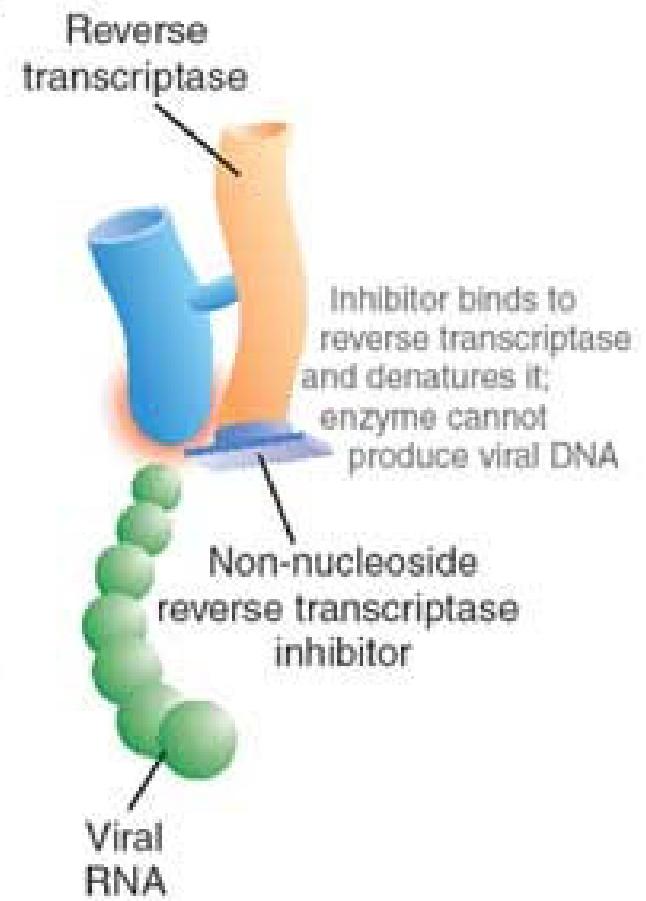


# MECHANISMS OF RT INHIBITORS

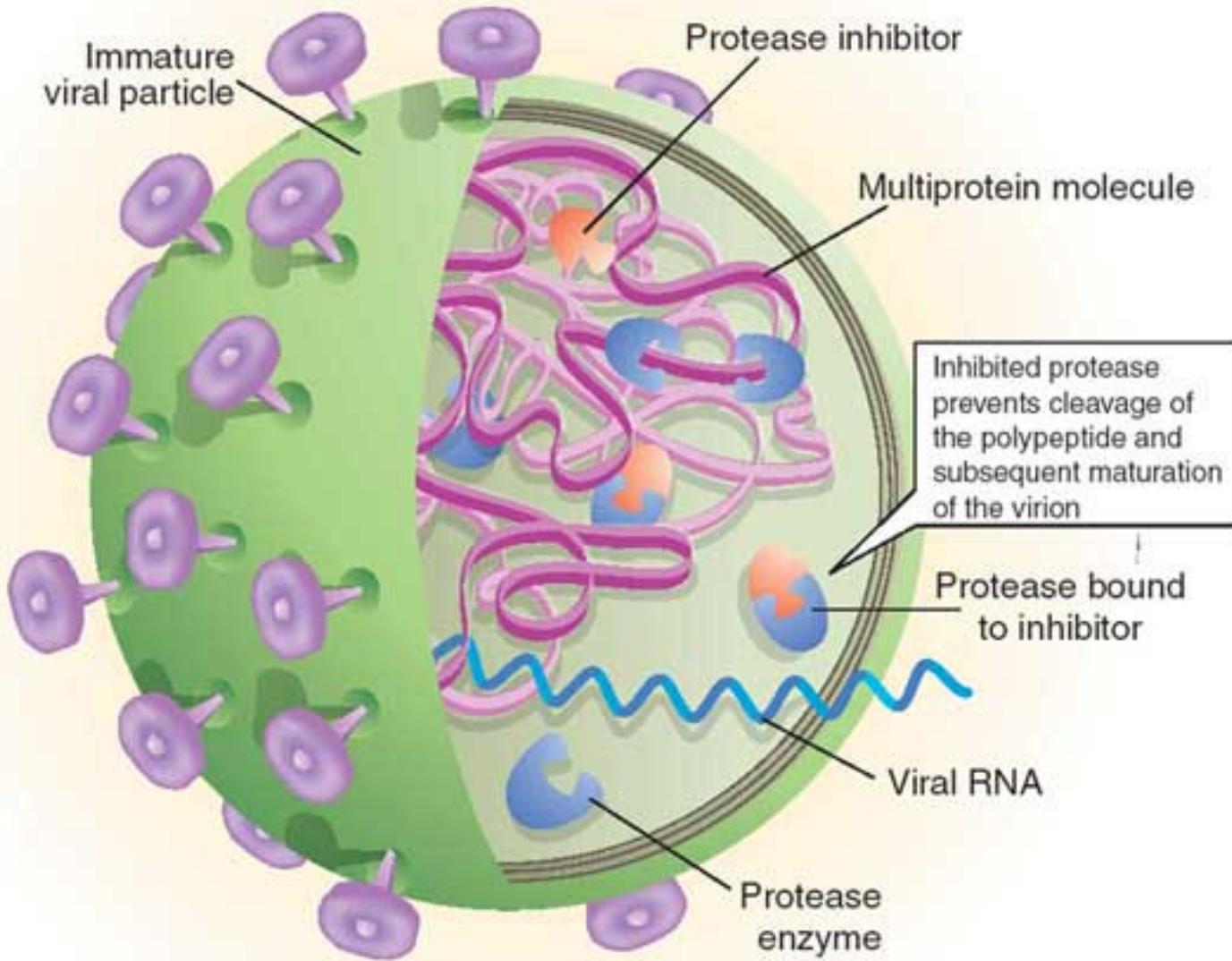
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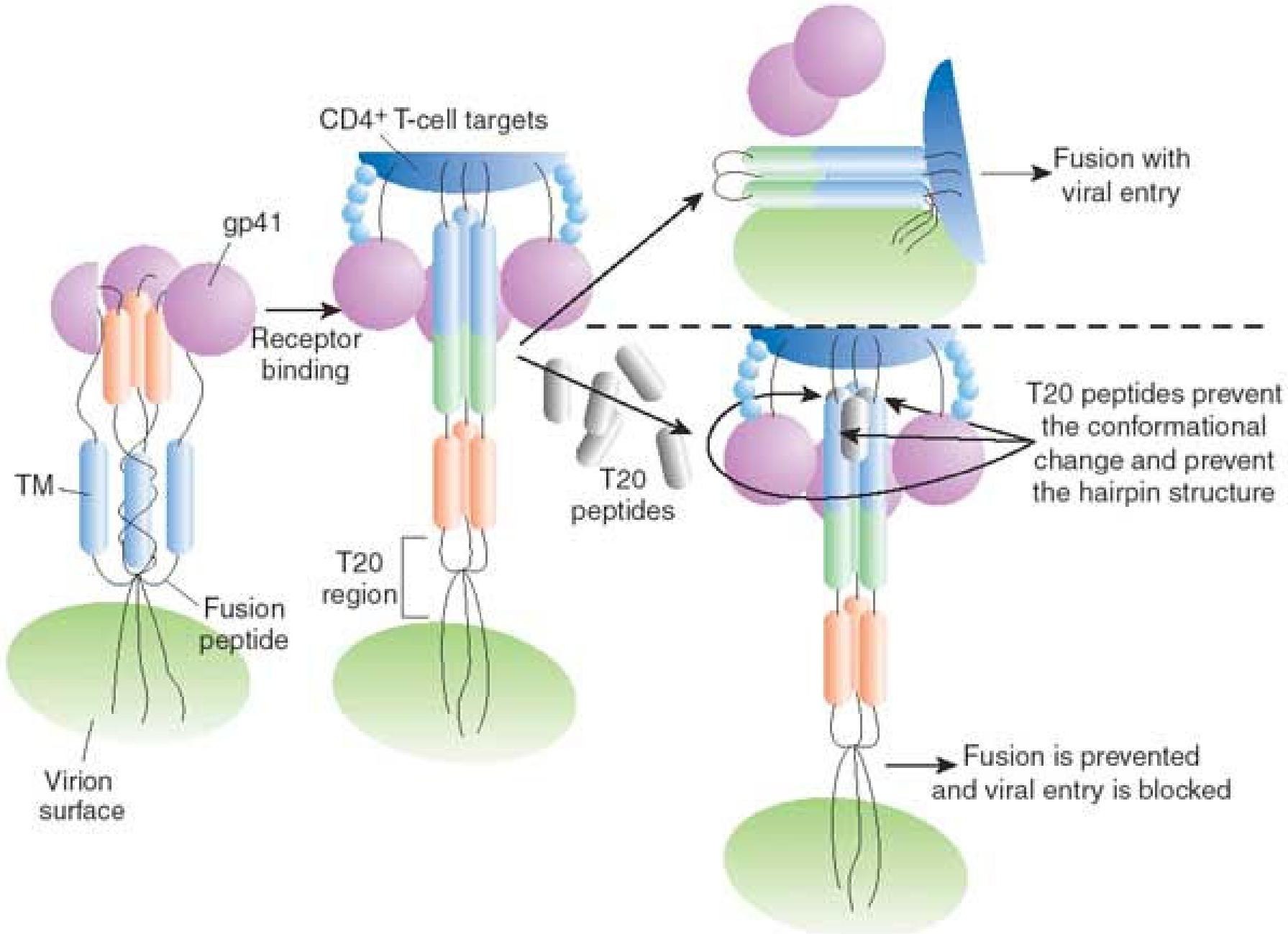
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# MECHANISM OF PROTEASE INHIBITORS



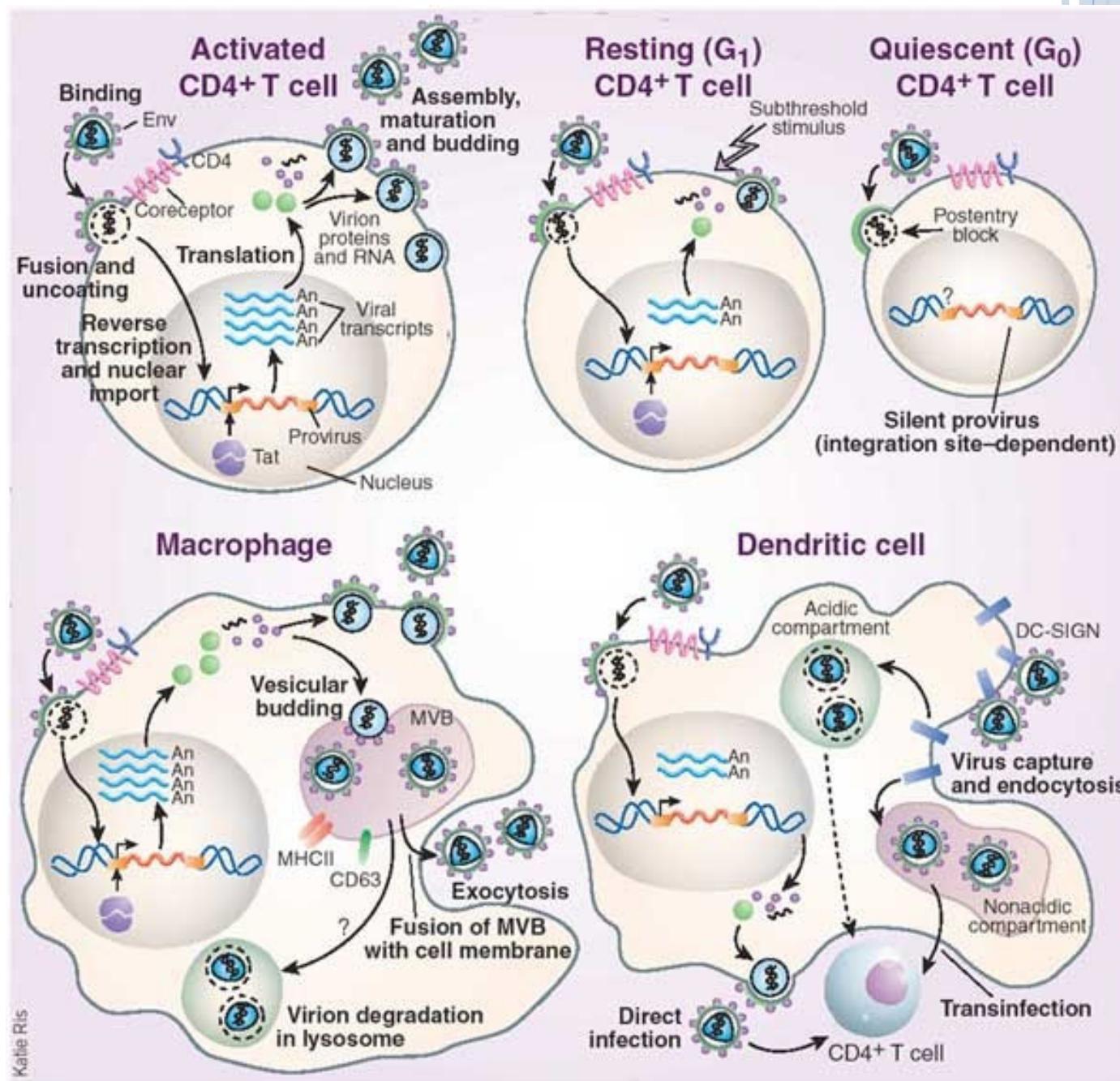
# FUSION INHIBITORS



# LATENT RESERVOIRS OF VIRUS

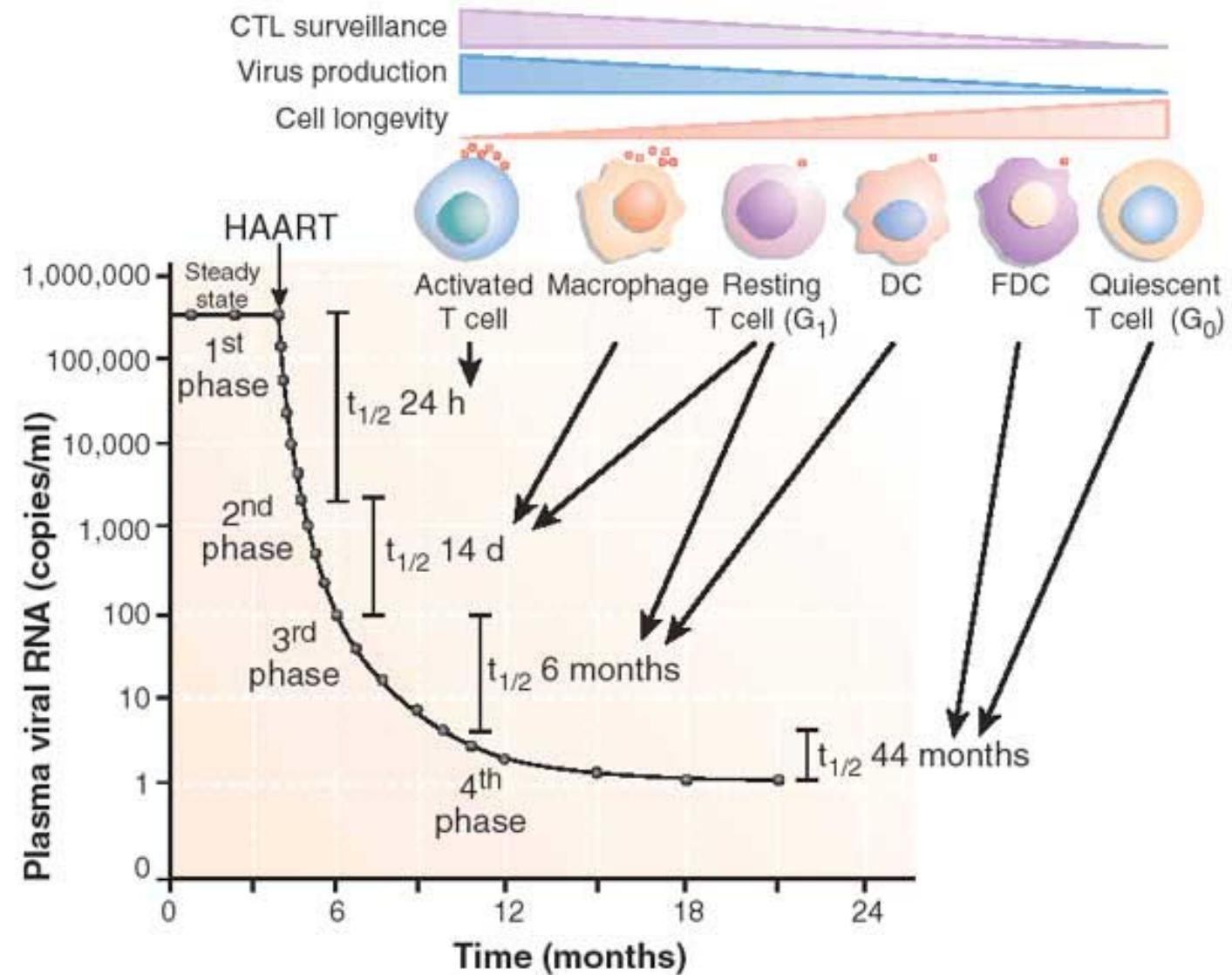
- Multiple cell types can serve as latent reservoirs

- “Quiescence” of infected cells constrains the possibility total viral elimination

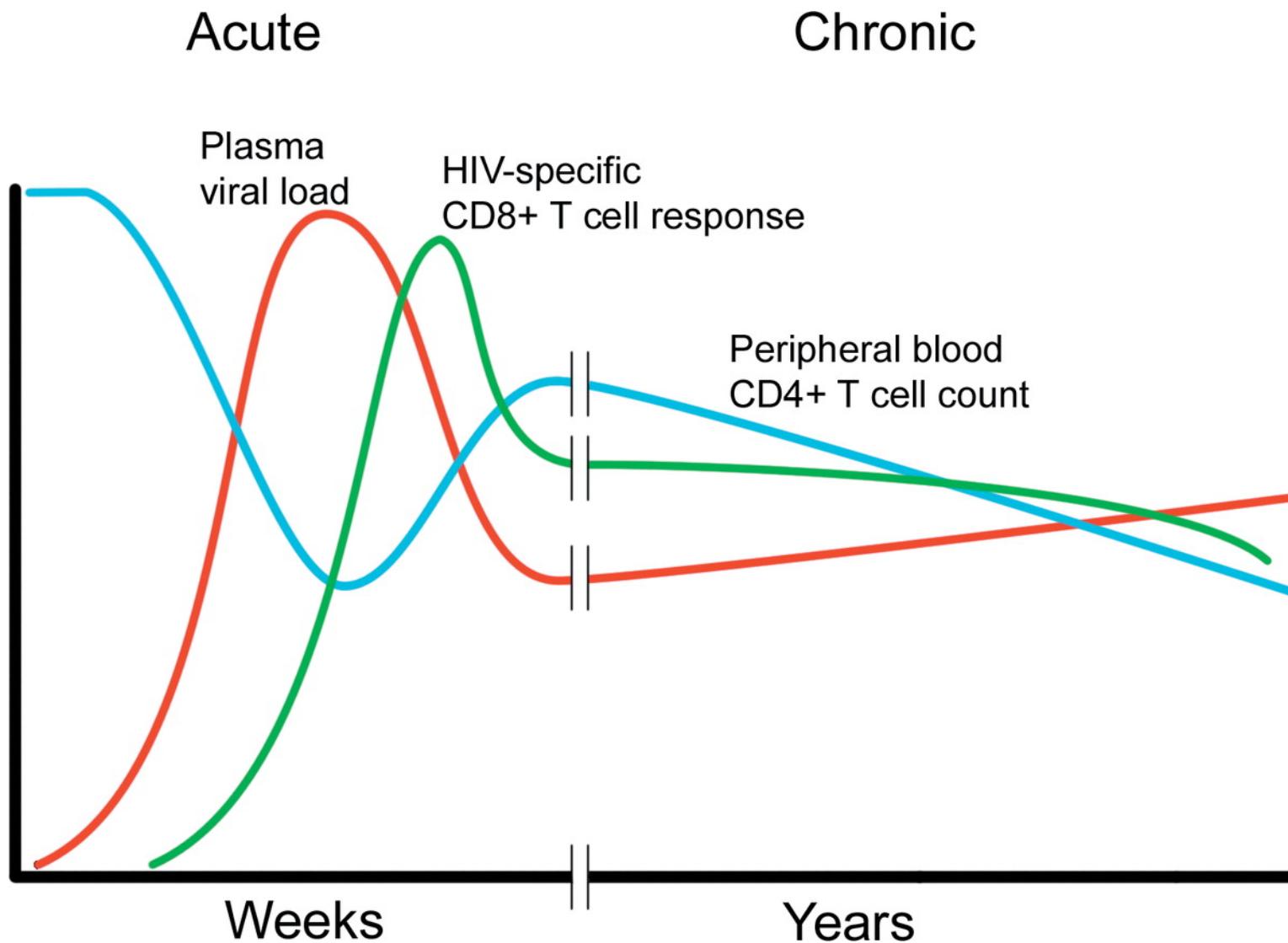


# CONTRIBUTION OF INDIVIDUAL RESERVOIRS

- Steady-state virus levels result from the relative contributions and turnover of each reservoir compartment
- After viral inhibition by HAART, plasma viral RNA decays in four distinct phases allowing a dissection of each reservoir's individual contribution

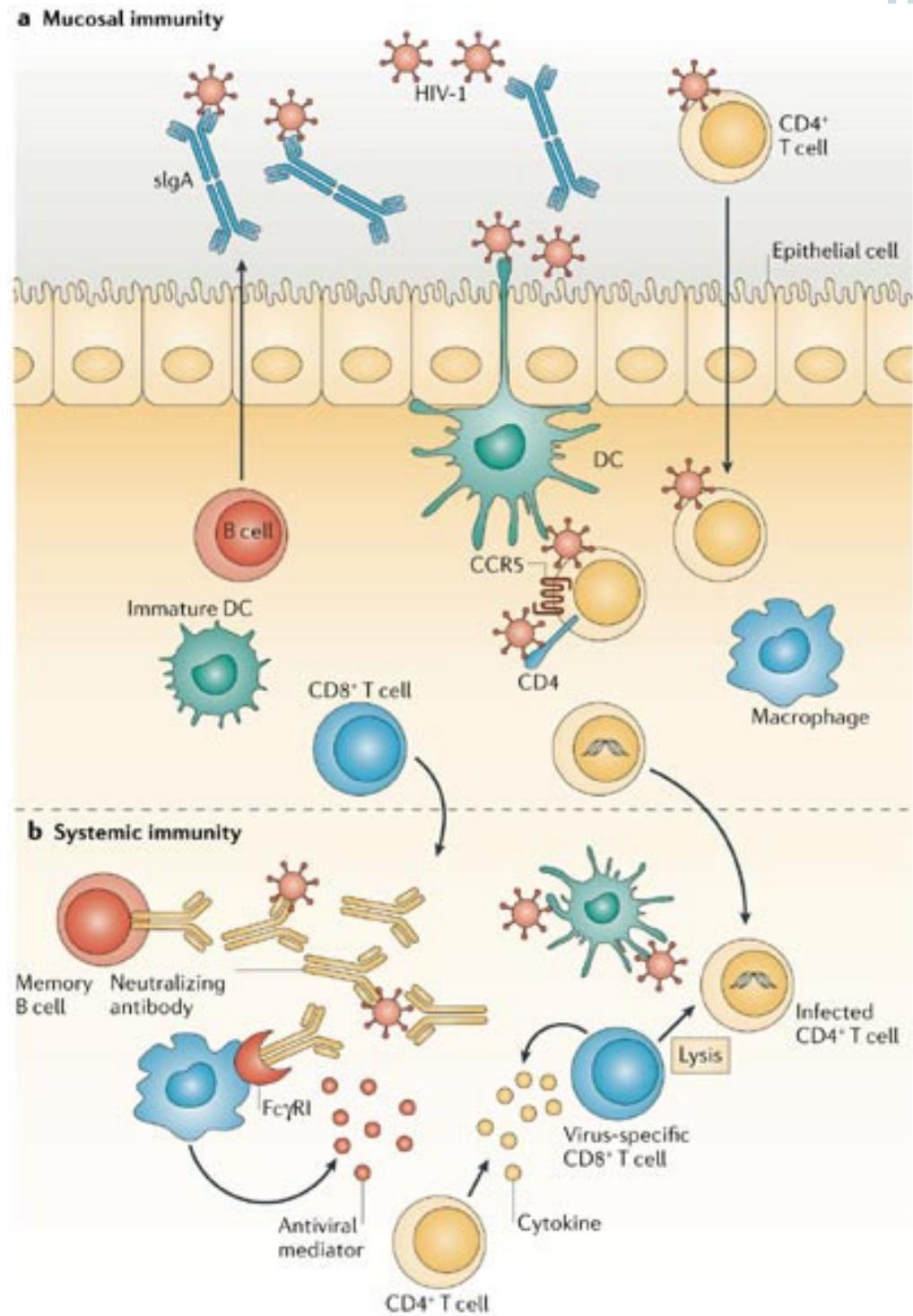


# CAN THE IMMUNE SYSTEM BE USED TO PREVENT OR CLEAR INFECTION?



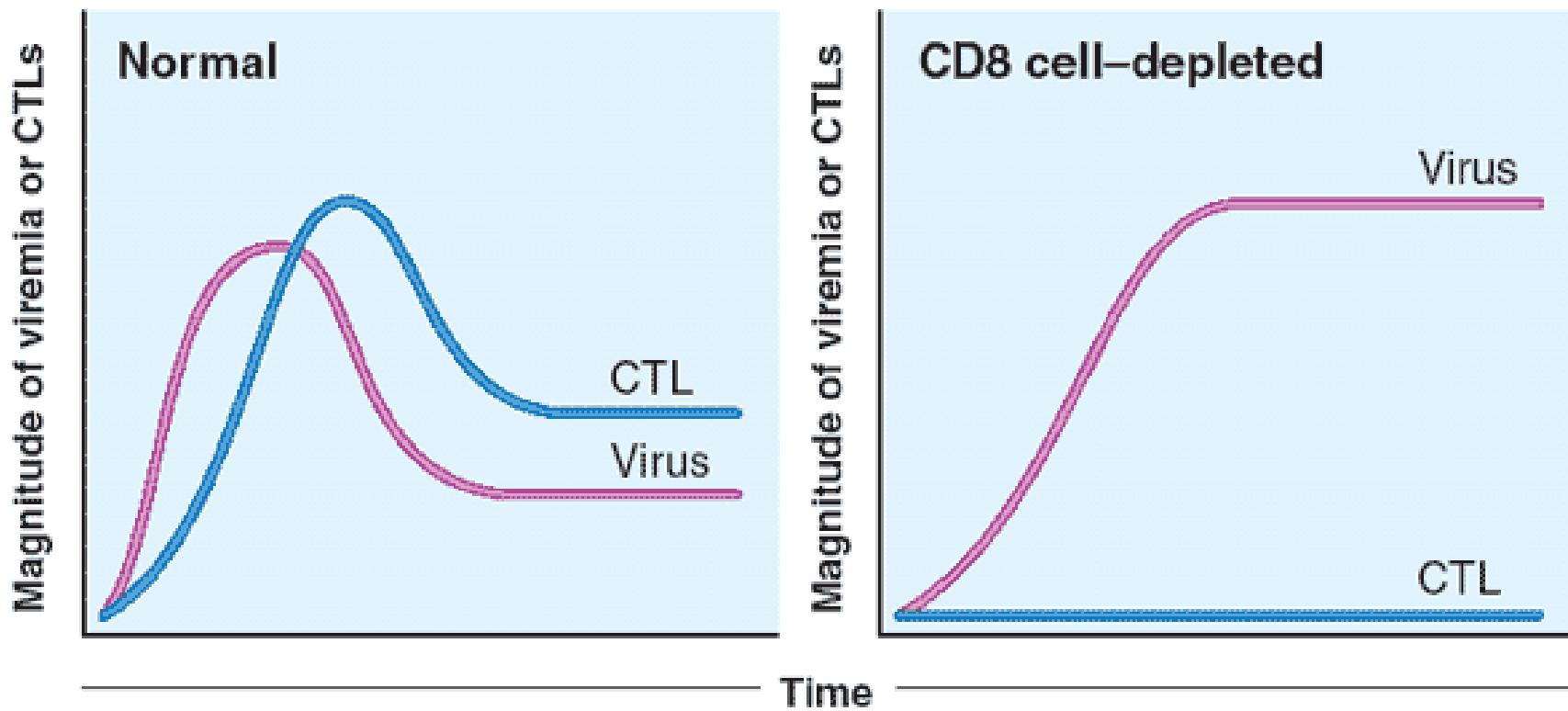
# MECHANISMS OF IMMUNE PROTECTION

- “Standard” immunological protection mechanisms, including antibody, clearance by phagocytic cells and Fc receptors, and cytotoxic killing of infected cells all function to limit infection and control long-term viral loads
- The loss of effective immune control is what leads to the development of AIDS, therefore the immune response in principle is an effective tool for viral control and clearance



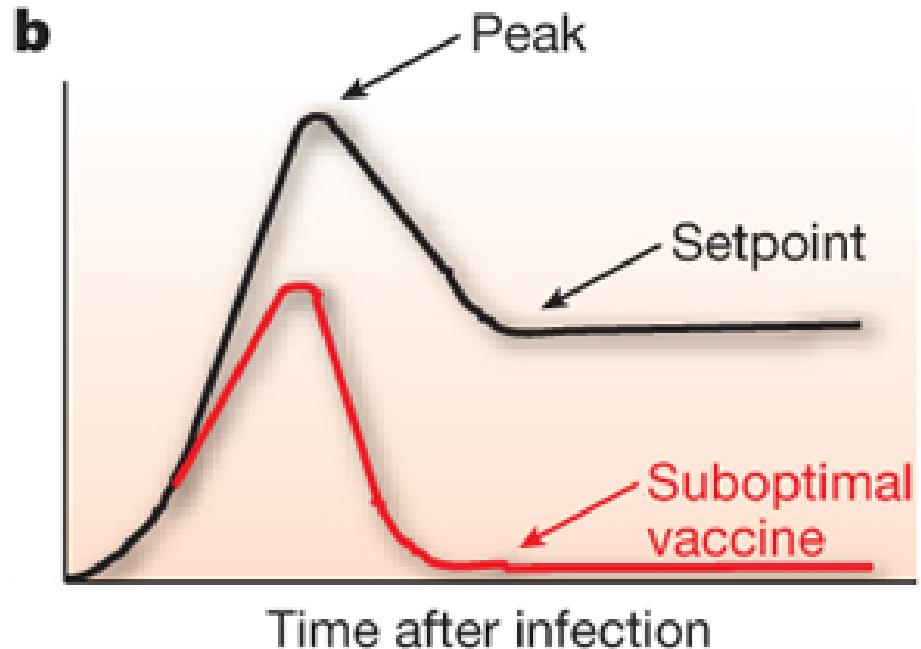
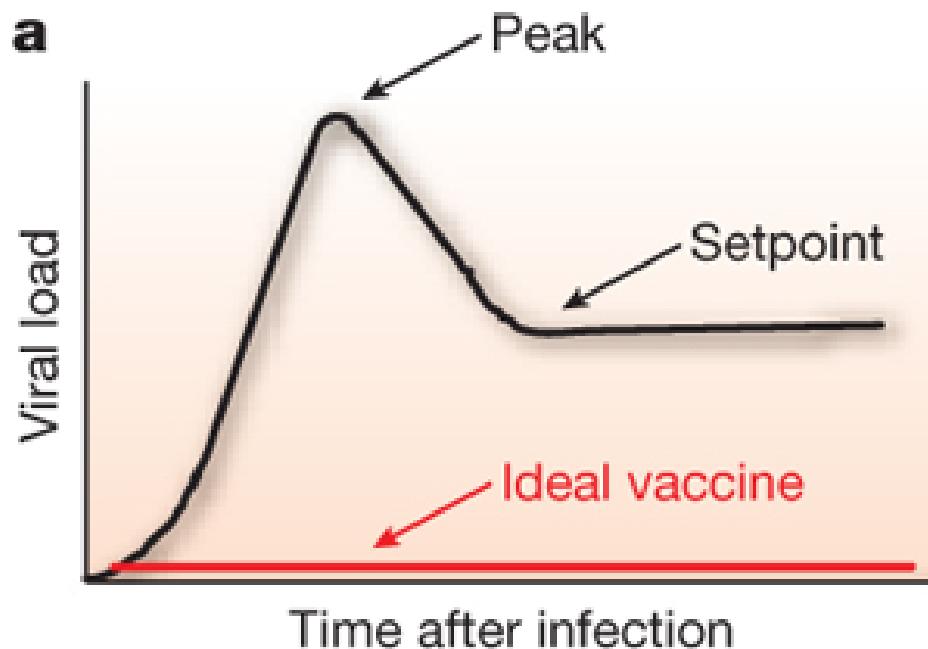
# CD8 T CELLS PROVIDE SIGNIFICANT VIRAL CONTROL DURING THE CHRONIC PHASE OF INFECTION

- CD8 depletion in SIV-infected animals leads to rapid increase in viral titers and pathogenesis of disease



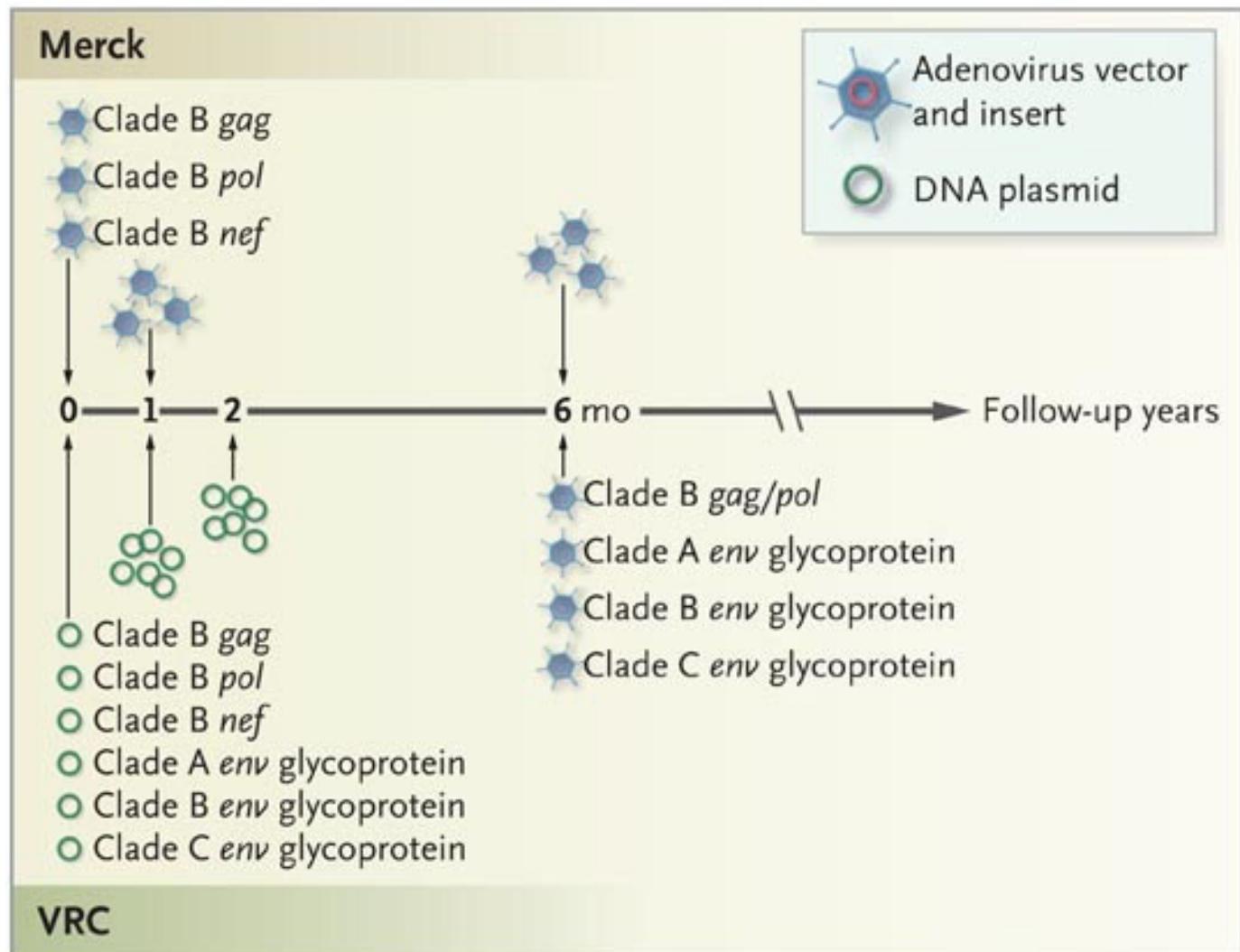
# VACCINE EXPECTATIONS

- Since viral load “set point” is a key predictor of disease progression and pathogenesis, even a suboptimal vaccine could be of use in highly endemic areas to protect against disease and spread (we’ll talk more about this when we get to malaria)



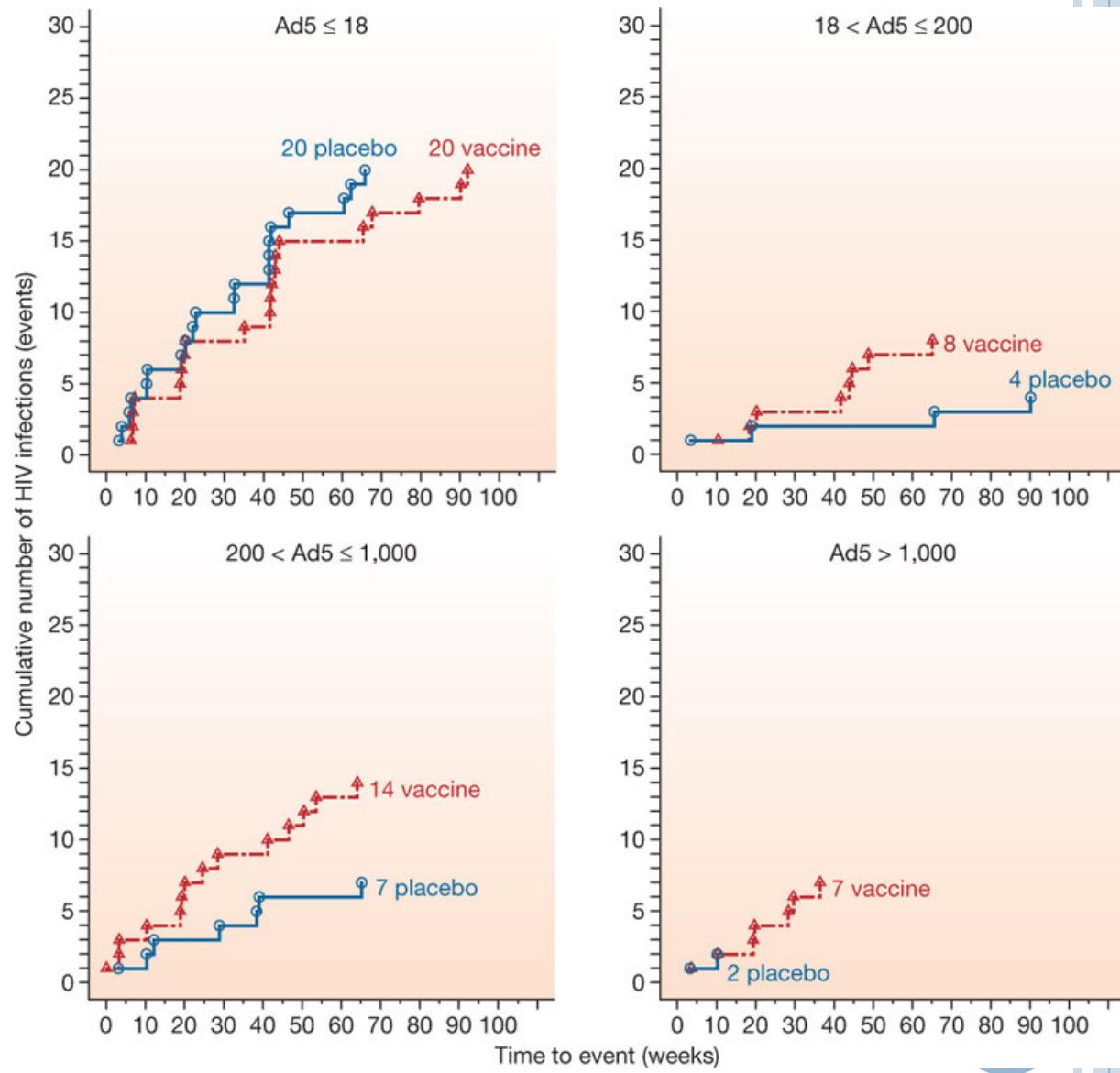
# THE MERCK VACCINE

- Use of a viral vector has been shown experimentally to boost cellular responses, by delivering more antigen with the proper innate/PAMF signals



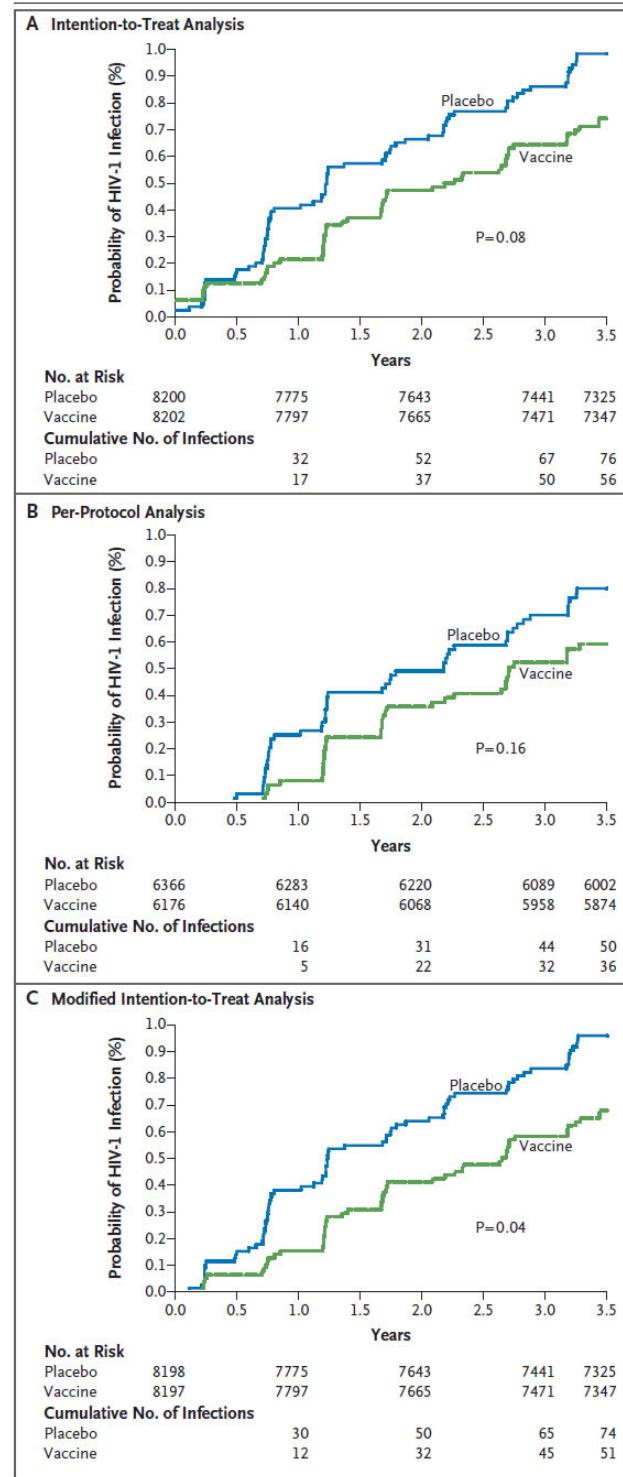
# MERCK VACCINE FAILURE

- Not only did the Merck Vaccine fail to protect, there appeared to be an enhancement of infection in vaccinees who had relatively higher pre-existing antibody titers to the viral vector
- This failure led to the cancellation of other vaccine trials based on a similar approach
- HVTN-505 just halted in April 2013—also Ad5 based (41 vacc inf, 30 placebo)

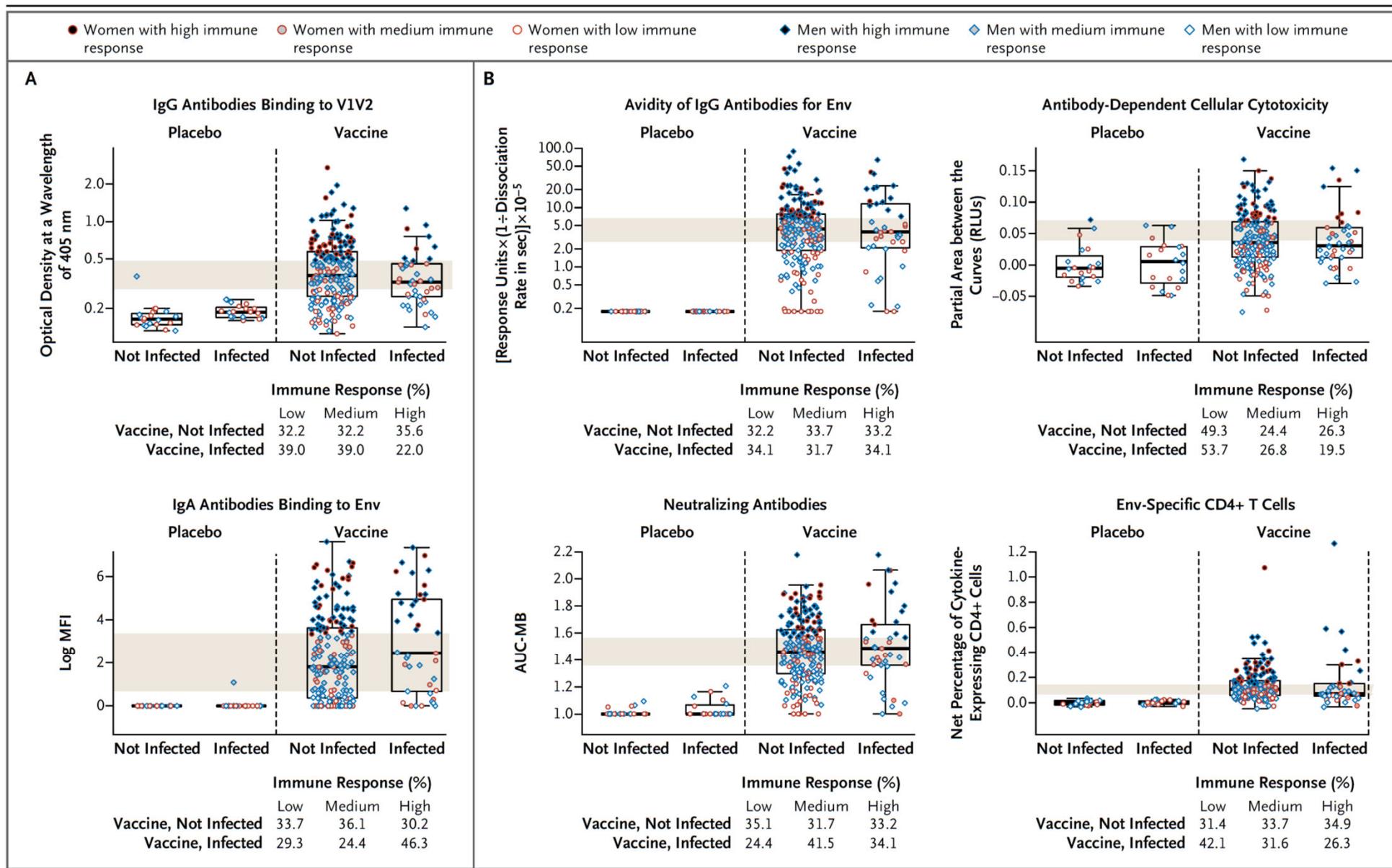


# A PROTECTIVE VACCINE? RV144 TRIAL

- ALVAC/AIDSVAX Prime boost-boost vaccine (canarypox followed by protein boost, gp120 based)
- 16,402 vaccinees
- Vaccine efficacy was 31.2%
- No mitigation of viral load in those that did become infected



# IMMUNE CORRELATES OF HIV RISK



## POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

- HIV is a unique pathogen in that it targets the immune system directly—playing “offense”—killing or dysregulating the cells that specifically target it and “defense”, employing more conventional immune escape mechanisms
- Despite this, the immune response, both antibody and CTLs, provide an important level of control over the virus for an extended period of time, keeping the reservoir relatively stable
- Vaccines could in principle employ similar strategies, but drugs are still the most effective treatment tool



# HUMAN HERPESVIRUSES

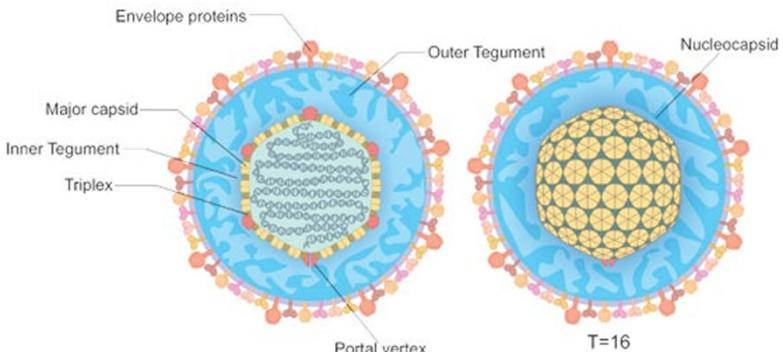
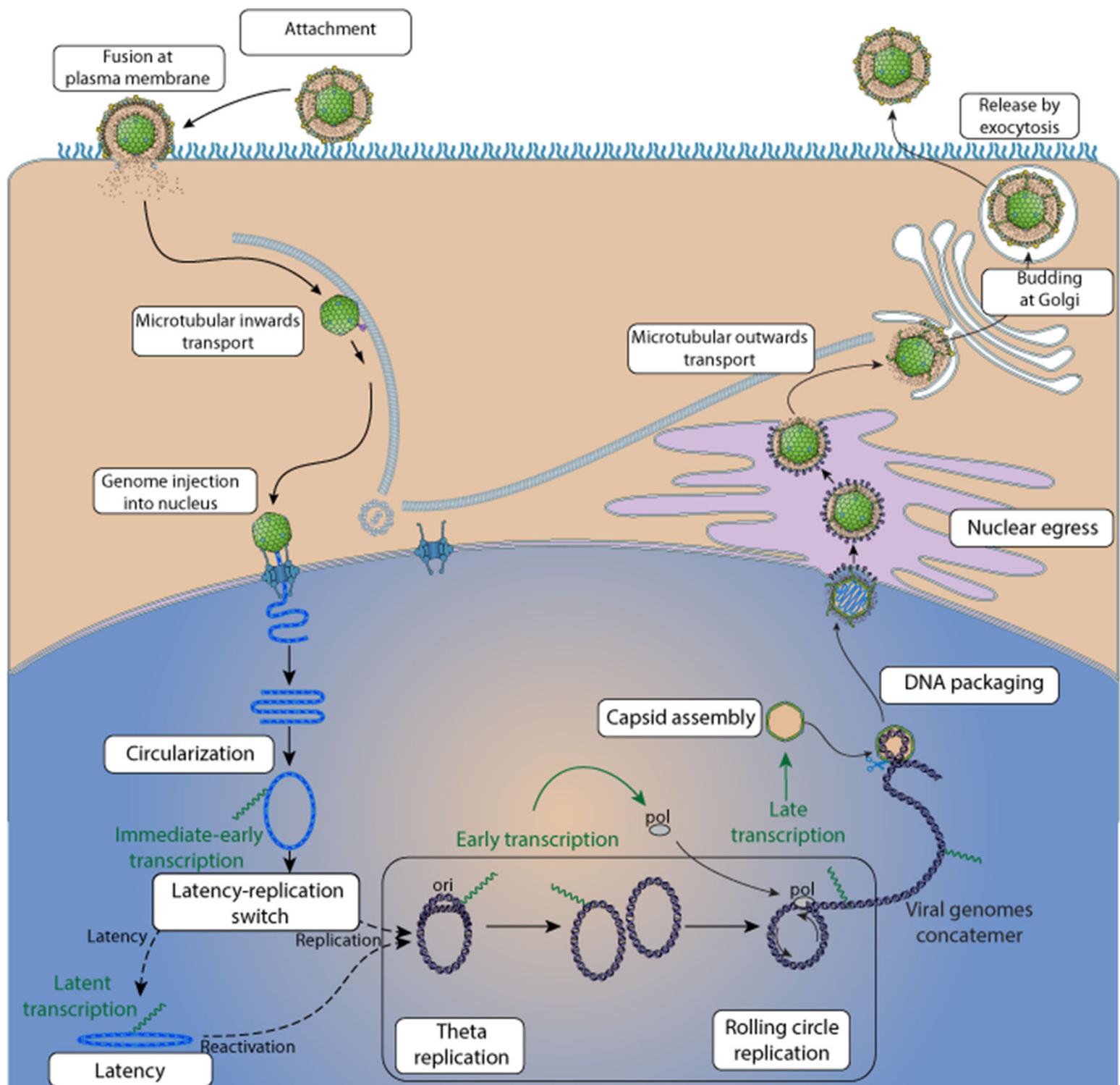


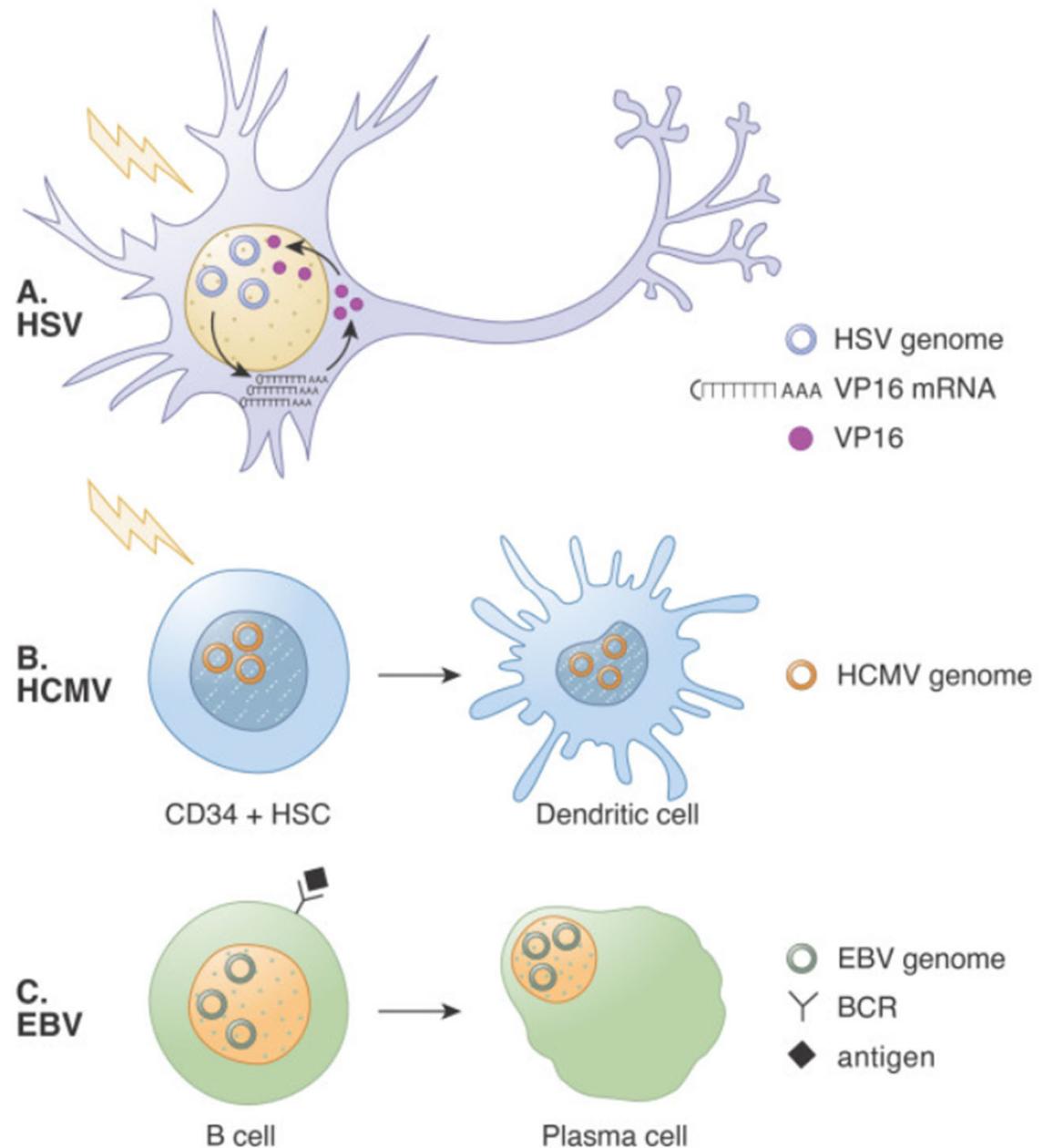
Figure 1. The structure of herpesviruses

Trivial name and acronym	Formal name	Type	Oral affection	Other pathology	Primary target cells	Main sites of latency
Herpes simplex virus-1 (HSV-1)	Human herpesvirus 1	Alpha	Cold sores (herpes ulcers)	Genital ulcers, related skin lesions, keratitis, encephalitis, meningitis	Mucoepithelia	Sensory and cranial nerve ganglia
Herpes simplex virus-2 (HSV-2)	Human herpesvirus 2	Alpha	Cold sores (herpes ulcers)	Genital ulcers, as HSV-1 but more rare	Mucoepithelia	Sensory and cranial nerve ganglia
Varicella zoster virus (VZV)	Human herpesvirus 3	Alpha	Possible oral manifestation of chicken pox and herpes zoster	Chicken pox, herpes zoster	Mucoepithelia	Sensory and cranial nerve ganglia
Epstein-Barr virus (EBV)	Human herpesvirus 4	Gamma	Hairy leukoplakia, periodontitis, nasopharyngeal carcinoma	Mononucleosis, lymphoma	Epithelial and B-cells	Memory B-cells
Cytomegalovirus (CMV)	Human herpesvirus 5	Beta	Periodontitis?	Mononucleosis	Monocytes, lymphocytes and epithelia	Monocytes, lymphocytes
Roseola virus (HHV-6)	Human herpesvirus 6A and 6B	Beta		Roseola in infants	T-cells	Various leukocytes
Roseola virus (HHV-7)	Human herpesvirus 7	Beta		Roseola in infants	T-cells	T-cells, epithelia
Kaposi's sarcoma-associated virus (HHV-8)	Human herpesvirus 8	Gamma		Kaposi's sarcoma	Probably lymphocytes and epithelia	B-cells



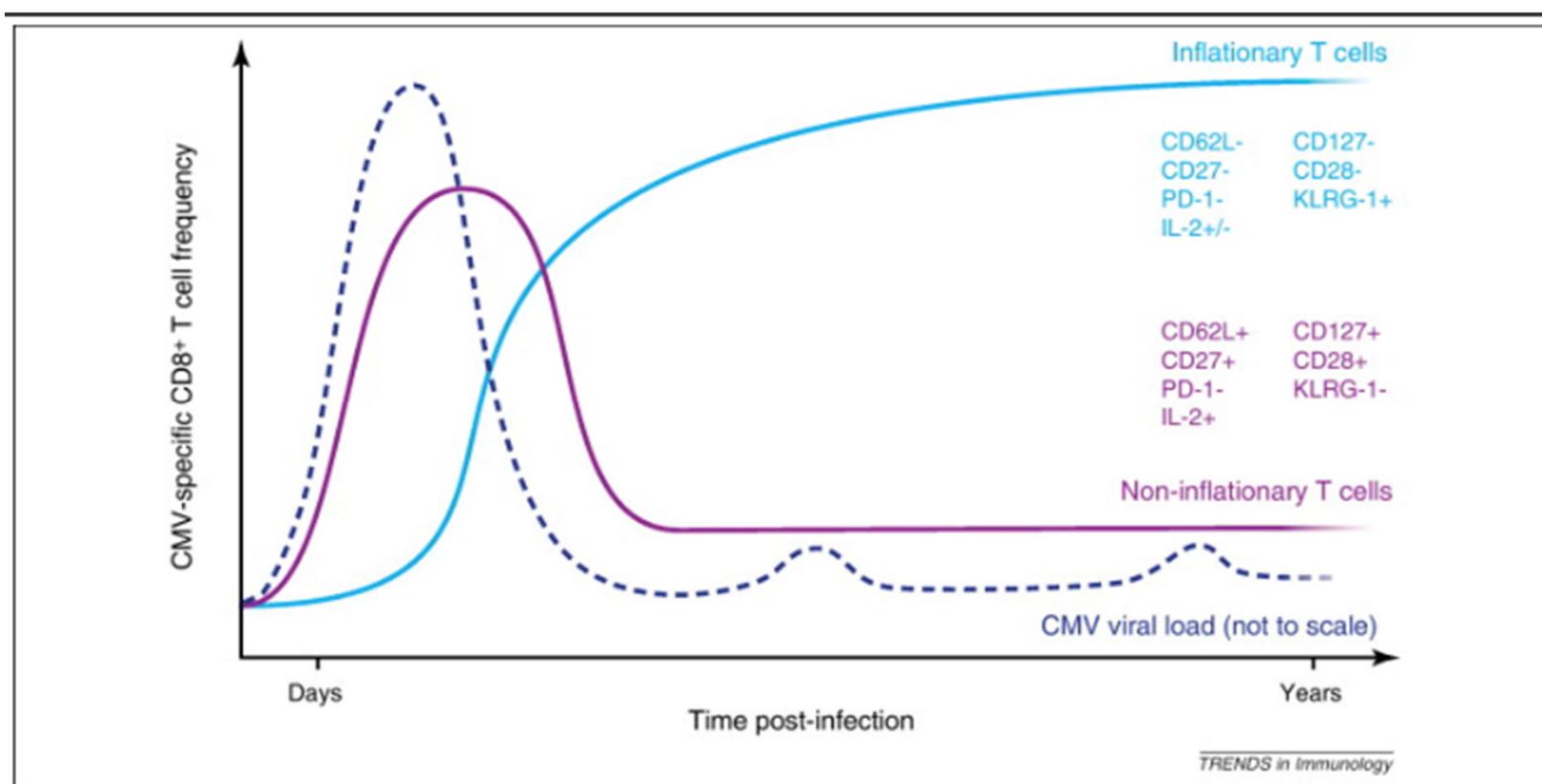
# DIVERSE MECHANISMS OF LATENCY

- HSV is truly latent, and goes through cycles of lytic and latent replication
- HCMV is often referred to as “smoldering”—not a distinct lifecycle but a low level of minimal (nearly undetectable) production



# ONGOING IMMUNE CONTROL REQUIRED FOR HHV SUPPRESSION

- The “smoldering” nature of CMV infection provides a persistent source of antigen but doesn’t drive exhaustion
- In humans, >10% of T cells can be commonly CMV specific in >65 year olds



# HHV CONTROL IS DRIVEN BY TRADITIONAL TYPE I IMMUNITY

- Requirements for IFNg, IL-12, and type I immunity
- Generation of CD4 and CD8 T cells that monitor infected cells—CD4 deficiency reactivates many HHVs

