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**Immune Evasion by Rabies Viruses Through the Maintenance of Blood-Brain Barrier Integrity**

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Running Title: The BBB prevents rabies virus clearance

Keywords: blood brain barrier, rabies virus, immune evasion, CNS immunity

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**ABSTRACT**

The attenuated rabies virus (RV) strain Challenge Virus Standard (CVS)-F3 and a highly pathogenic strain associated with the silver-haired bats (SHBRV) can both be cleared from the central nervous system (CNS) tissues by appropriate anti-viral immune mechanisms if the effectors are provided access across the blood-brain barrier (BBB). In the case of SHBRV infection anti-viral immunity develops normally in the periphery but fails to open the BBB, generally resulting in a lethal outcome. To determine whether or not an absence in the CNS targeted immune response is associated with the infection with other pathogenic RV strains we have assessed the development of immunity, BBB permeability and immune cell infiltration into the CNS tissues of mice infected with a variety of RV strains including the dog variants responsible for the majority of human rabies cases. We demonstrate that the lethal outcomes of infection with a variety of known pathogenic RV strains are indeed associated with the inability to deliver immune effectors across the BBB. Survival from infection with certain of these viruses is improved in mice prone to CNS inflammation. The results suggest that competition between the activity of the immune effectors reaching CNS tissues and the inherent pathological attributes of the virus dictates the outcome and that intervention to deliver RV-specific immune effectors into CNS tissues may have general therapeutic value in rabies.

45     **INTRODUCTION**

46             Rabies has been known for centuries as a deadly neurological disease of both humans  
47 and animals. The causative agent belongs to a group of antigenically related viruses named  
48 after the disease, the rabies viruses (RV). RV strains varying in their genotypes and  
49 pathogenicity can be found associated with diverse reservoir species in different geographic  
50 locations (Kissi et al., 1995). Each RV strain is associated with a particular natural host  
51 species, usually canines and other small carnivores, such as raccoons and skunks as well as  
52 bats (Baer et al., 1990). RV strains associated with dogs are the major cause of human rabies  
53 worldwide due to prevalence of the virus in developing countries, while an RV strain  
54 associated with silver-haired bat (SHBRV) is responsible for most of the endogenous human  
55 rabies cases in the United States and Canada (Messenger et al., 2003).

56             While rabies is generally fatal once the early clinical signs of the disease appear,  
57 prompt treatment measures that include wound cleansing and passive administration of RV-  
58 neutralizing antibodies together with active immunization can prevent development of the  
59 disease in an individual exposed to the virus (Fu, 1997). This approach, called post-exposure  
60 prophylaxis (PEP), fails to protect an infected individual once neurological signs are apparent  
61 (CDC MMWR, 1999). Since neurological signs are indicative of virus replication in the  
62 central nervous system (CNS) tissues, it is generally considered to be impossible to clear the  
63 virus and save a RV infected individual once RV has spread to the brain from its peripheral  
64 site of entry. However, this is not always the case. In a well-documented recent example, a  
65 rabies patient who developed evidence of antiviral immunity recovered despite developing  
66 severe neurological signs (Willoughby et al., 2005). There is also historical evidence of  
67 individuals surviving likely infections with the virus (Gremliza, 1953; Hattwick et al, 1972) as

68 well as laboratory evidence that RV can be cleared from the CNS tissues if appropriate  
69 immune mechanisms develop (Jackson et al., 1989). We have recently elucidated several of  
70 the processes required to clear the attenuated RV strain Challenge Virus Standard (CVS)-F3  
71 from the CNS (Phares et al., 2006). These include the development of an innate immune  
72 response in the CNS tissues and adaptive RV-specific immunity in the peripheral lymphoid  
73 organs as well as the infiltration of immune effectors across the blood-brain barrier (BBB)  
74 (Phares et al., 2006). The latter is associated with increased BBB permeability to fluid phase  
75 markers primarily in the cerebellum of the infected mice (Phares et al., 2006). We have  
76 determined that the BBB remains intact and immune cells do not enter the CNS tissues in  
77 animals infected with SHBRV (Roy et al., 2007). Consequently, the virus is not cleared and  
78 SHBRV-infected animals die of rabies (Roy et al., 2007). Increasing BBB permeability in  
79 SHBRV infected animals through the induction of an autoimmune CNS inflammatory  
80 response facilitates immune cell entry into the infected CNS tissues and promotes virus  
81 clearance thereby preventing the lethal outcome of the infection (Roy and Hooper, 2007).  
82 White blood cells and virus specific antibodies was also found to accumulate in the CSF in a  
83 patient who survived clinical rabies (Willoughby et al., 2005).

84 Unlike classical rabies, which results from the bite of an infected dog an incident  
85 causing infection with SHBRV often goes unnoticed (Jackson and Fenton, 2001; CDC  
86 MMWR, 1999, 2007), leading to speculation that these variants may have unique attributes,  
87 possibly including the capacity to evade immune clearance. Alternatively, all pathogenic RV  
88 strains may interfere with antiviral immune mechanisms at some stage of the infection, an  
89 attribute that would explain the failure of PEP later in the disease. To distinguish between

90 these alternatives we have assessed BBB function and immune cell invasion into the CNS  
91 tissues of mice infected with a variety of RV strains.

92 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

93 *Animals and virus.*

94 129/SvEv mice were obtained from the in-house breeding colony at Thomas Jefferson  
95 University and PLSJLF1/J (PLSJL) mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories (Bar  
96 harbor, ME). Eight to 10 -week old mice ( $n \geq 10$  per group) were infected via intra-dermal  
97 (ID) route in the ear as previously described (Roy et al., 2007). The inoculation dose used and  
98 a brief description of each RV strain studied are presented in Table 1. The doses for the  
99 pathogenic RV strains were approximately  $10 \times LD_{50}$  (ID) in mouse. Cell culture adapted  
100 strains that are not lethal for immunocompetent animals were administered at  $10^5$  focus  
101 forming units, an amount that is known to cause CNS infection for CVS-F3 (Phares et al.,  
102 2006). All procedures were carried out according to the protocols approved by the  
103 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Thomas Jefferson University.

104

105 *Tissue collection.*

106 Mice were anesthetized and the thoracic cavity was surgically opened. Cardiac blood  
107 was collected and mice were transcardially perfused with 15 mL of PBS supplemented with  
108 1U/mL Heparin followed by 15 mL of PBS. Brains were collected and the cerebral cortex and  
109 the cerebellum were separated. Tissues were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at –  
110  $80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until further use.

111

112 *RT-PCR.*

113 As an indicator of virus replication, RV nucleoprotein-specific mRNA levels were  
114 measured in the CNS tissues from infected mice by the reverse transcriptase–polymerase

115 chain reaction (RT-PCR) technique. Briefly, total RNA was isolated from the snap frozen  
116 brain tissues of RV-infected and uninfected control mice using the Qiagen RNeasy Kit  
117 (Valencia, CA) as previously described (Phares et al., 2006). cDNAs were synthesized from  
118 mRNA by reverse transcription using oligo (dT) as primer. Approximately 100 ng of cDNA  
119 was subjected to PCR amplification using primers specific for a segment of nucleoprotein  
120 gene that is largely conserved among all of the virus strains used in the current study. The  
121 gene for the house-keeping ribosomal protein L-13 was quantified in each sample to ensure  
122 that the quantities of cDNA used for PCR are almost equal in all samples. The nucleotide  
123 sequences of the primers used for PCR are: forward primer for RV nucleoprotein gene, 5'-TA  
124 CAATGGATGCCGACAAGA -3'; reverse primer for RV nucleoprotein gene, 5'-AAAGGG  
125 GCTGTCTCGAAAAT-3'; forward primer for L-13, 5'-TTCCACAAGGATTGGCAGCA-3';  
126 and reverse primer for L-13, 5'-TGCTCGGATTGCCAAAGAGT-3'. Equal amounts of the  
127 PCR products were subjected to gel electrophoresis using 1% agarose gel and bands of  
128 amplified DNA were visualized under UV light and photographed using a gel-documentation  
129 system (Bio-Rad).

130

### 131 ***Quantitative Real Time-PCR***

132 The levels of mRNAs specific for TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, CD4, CD19 and  $\kappa$ -light chain genes  
133 were measured in cDNA samples by quantitative real-time PCR (QRT-PCR) as previously  
134 described, using TaqMan PCR reagents (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), gene-specific  
135 primers and probes, synthetic gene standards, and a Bio-Rad iCycler iQ Real Time Detection  
136 System (Hercules, CA) (Phares et al., 2006). In each sample, the mRNA copy numbers of a  
137 particular gene were normalized to the mRNA copy number of the housekeeping gene L13.



138 Levels of gene expression in a test sample are presented as the fold increase over that detected  
139 in uninfected controls using the formula: n-fold increase = [mRNA copy numbers of a  
140 particular gene in a RV-infected sample/ mRNA copy numbers of L13 in that sample] /  
141 average of [mRNA copy numbers of that particular gene in an uninfected mouse sample /  
142 mRNA copy numbers of L13 in that sample]. The sequences of the primers and probes used  
143 for quantitative PCR have been previously detailed (Phares et al., 2006).

144

#### 145 ***Measurement of serum antibody titers.***

146 Levels of RV-specific total immunoglobulin-gamma (IgG) in sera from uninfected and  
147 RV-infected mice were measured by Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) as  
148 described previously (Roy et al., 2007). Briefly, serially diluted sera samples were incubated  
149 at room temperature in 96-well plates (Nalge Nunc International, Rochester, NY) coated with  
150 UV-inactivated Evelyn-Rokitnicki-Abelseth (ERA) or CVS-F3 (5µg/ml). Captured antibodies  
151 were detected using peroxidase-conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Sigma). 3, 3', 5, 5' –  
152 Tetramethylbenzidine dihydrochloride substrate (Sigma) supplemented with hydrogen  
153 peroxide was used for color development. The reaction was terminated by the addition of 2M-  
154 H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> to the wells and the absorbance was measured at 450 nm in a microplate  
155 spectrophotometer (Biotek, Winooski, VT). Antibody titer is calculated as the inverse of the  
156 dilution of a serum sample corresponding to the half of the maximum absorbance detected in  
157 that sample.

158

#### 159 ***Assessment of BBB permeability.***

160 The extent of BBB permeability was assessed by measuring the amount of a low  
161 molecular weight fluorescent marker (Na-fluorescein, molecular weight 376) that leaks from

162 the circulation into the CNS tissues as previously described (Phares et al., 2006). Briefly,  
163 100µl of 10% solution of Na-fluorescein was injected intra-peritoneally and after 10 minutes  
164 mice were anesthetized and transcardially perfused as described above. Snap frozen brains  
165 were homogenized in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and centrifuged. Proteins from the  
166 supernatants of the tissue homogenate as well as from serum samples were precipitated with  
167 15% TCA. Fluorescence in the clarified supernatant was measured at excitation and emission  
168 wavelengths of 485nm and 530nm respectively, using a CytoFluor™ II fluorimeter (PerSeptive  
169 Biosystems, Framingham, MA). The amount of Na-fluorescein in the CNS tissue of each  
170 animal was normalized to the level of Na-fluorescein detected in the animal's serum using the  
171 formula: Na-fluorescein uptake = [amount of Na-fluorescein detected in the CNS tissue of a  
172 mouse/ weight of the tissue]/ amount of Na-fluorescein detected per µL of serum of that  
173 mouse. Na-fluorescein uptake into the tissues of each infected animal was divided by the  
174 average uptake detected in similar tissues from uninfected control mice and the results are  
175 expressed as fold increase.

176

#### 177 ***Statistical analyses.***

178 Results are expressed as the mean ± the standard error of the mean. The statistical  
179 significance of the differences in gene expression and in serum antibody levels between  
180 control and infected groups was assessed using the Mann-Whitney test while the *t*-test was  
181 used to test the significance of differences in virus nucleoprotein mRNA levels.

182     **RESULTS**

183

184     *The outcomes of infection with different RV strains differ.*

185             Ten different RV strains ERA, PM, CVS-F3, DRV-4, Thai-DRV, CVS-N2c, CosRV,  
186     SkunkRV, SHBRV and HEP were used in the current study (see Table 1). Groups of  
187     129/SvEv mice were infected via the ID route with each of the RV strains and 8 days  
188     following infection, RT-PCR was used to detect the presence of viral nucleoprotein mRNA in  
189     the CNS tissues. Viral nucleoprotein message was found in the cortices and the cerebella of  
190     all infected mice, with the exception of those that had received the HEP strain (Fig 1). We  
191     were unable to detect nucleoprotein message for HEP by RT-PCR in any part of the CNS  
192     tissues (olfactory bulbs, cerebral cortex, cerebellum, brain stem and spinal cord) following  
193     either ID or intra-nasal administration of HEP (data not shown). However, HEP nucleoprotein  
194     mRNA can be detected in cell culture by RT-PCR using the same set of RV specific primers  
195     used in this study.

196             Similar groups of infected 129/SvEv mice were monitored for mortality. Mice infected  
197     with Thai-DRV, CVS-N2c and SHBRV died around 8-12 days postinfection whereas mice  
198     infected with DRV-4, CosRV and SkunkRV died within 12-17 days after infection (Fig 2).  
199     Despite the fact that the relatively less pathogenic RV strains, namely ERA, PM and CVS-F3,  
200     reached the CNS, mice infected with these strains of RV survived the infection (Fig 2). Mice  
201     receiving the HEP RV strain survived without any sign of disease over a 30-day observation  
202     period.

203

204

205 ***Innate immunity is induced in the CNS by all neuroinvasive RV strains.***

206           When RV reaches the CNS tissues it induces the expression of pro-inflammatory  
207 cytokines of the innate immune response (Phares et al., 2006; Marquette et al., 1996). A  
208 difference in the capacity of different RV strains to induce a CNS innate immunity has been  
209 suggested to be associated with the pathogenicity of that virus (Wang et al., 2005). Infection  
210 with all of the RV strains that reached the CNS of the 129/SvEv mice upregulates the  
211 expression of genes specific for the pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 (Fig 3).  
212 Moreover, the expression of these genes is elevated to more or less equivalent extents  
213 irrespective of the pathogenicity of the RV strain. Enhanced TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 expression was  
214 not seen in the CNS of mice receiving HEP RV, providing support for the likelihood that this  
215 particular RV strain is not neuroinvasive.

216

217

218 ***All RV infections induce strong RV-antigen specific antibody response.***

219           As shown in Fig 4, regardless of the pathogenicity of the infecting virus, all RV  
220 infected animals including those receiving HEP, developed an RV-specific IgG response. The  
221 serum antibody titers raised by infection with the different viruses were approximately the  
222 same with the exception of mice infected with the ERA strain where substantially higher  
223 serum antibody titers were seen. Notably, although no evidence of either virus replication or  
224 induction of pro-inflammatory genes in the CNS of HEP infected mice was detected, serum  
225 RV-specific antibody titers in these mice were equivalent to those of mice infected with other  
226 RV strains.

227

228 *Virus is cleared and animals survive only where anti-RV adaptive immune effectors reach*  
229 *the CNS.*

230 Clearance of RV from the CNS requires the invasion of the CNS tissues by immune  
231 cells, a process that primarily occurs in the cerebellum and, for CVS-F3, involves the activity  
232 of CD4 T-cells and B cells (Phares et al., 2006 and 2007). In the absence of the accumulation  
233 of these immune effectors in CNS tissues, RV infection is lethal (Roy et al., 2007). Eight days  
234 following infection, the expression of the mRNAs specific for CD4, CD19 (phenotypic  
235 markers for T- and B-cells, respectively) and  $\kappa$ -light chain (an indicator of antibody  
236 production by B-cells) is greatly elevated in the cerebella of mice infected with the less  
237 pathogenic ERA, PM and CVS-F3 strains of RV (Fig 5). On the other hand, no significant  
238 increase in the expression levels of these genes is seen in the cerebella of mice infected with  
239 the pathogenic RV strains DRV-4, Thai-DRV, CVS-N2c, CosRV, SHBRV and SkunkRV  
240 (Fig 5).

241 As immune-cell infiltration into the CNS tissues of CVS-F3 infected mice is  
242 accompanied by an increase in BBB permeability to the fluid phase marker Na-fluorescein,  
243 we next assessed BBB integrity during infection with the different RV strains. The results  
244 paralleled the difference in immune cell invasion of CNS tissues between less pathogenic and  
245 pathogenic strains of RV. BBB permeability in the cerebellum was indeed significantly  
246 enhanced in animals infected with ERA, PM and CVS-F3 strains, but not in animals infected  
247 with DRV-4, Thai-DRV, CVS-N2c, CosRV, SHBRV and SkunkRV strains (Fig 6).

248

249

250

251 *PLSJL mice are more resistant to the death from infection with different pathogenic RV*  
252 *strains.*

253 We have previously shown that PLSJL mice are somewhat more resistant to lethal  
254 infection with SHBRV than 129/SvEv mice (Roy and Hooper, 2007). To test if PLSJL mice  
255 are less susceptible to lethal infection with other pathogenic RV strains, groups of 129/SvEv  
256 and PLSJL mice were infected with different RV strains and monitored for clinical signs of  
257 rabies and mortality for a period of 30 days post infection. Between 8 to 15 days after  
258 infection, 129/SvEv mice infected with all RV strains, except HEP, showed prominent  
259 neurological signs of rabies (Table 2). Those infected with the pathogenic DRV-4, Thai-DRV,  
260 CVS-N2c, CosRV, SHBRV and SkunkRV strains died within 2-5 days of the appearance of  
261 clinical signs, whereas 129/SvEv mice infected with the less pathogenic ERA, PM and CVS-  
262 F3 strains survived. ERA infected 129/SvEv mice had persistent neurological signs for over  
263 10-15 days after first appearance, but nevertheless survived the infection. On the other hand,  
264 almost all of the PLSJL mice infected with ERA, PM and CVS-F3 as well as DRV-4, CosRV  
265 and SkunkRV survived the infection without any sign of disease (Table 2). Only one mouse in  
266 each of the CosRV and Skunk RV infected groups developed neurological signs and both died  
267 of rabies. However, the majority of Thai-DRV, CVS-N2c and SHBRV infected PLSJL mice  
268 died of rabies after developing neurological signs similar to those appearing in 129/SvEv mice  
269 infected with the same RV strains. The PLSJL mice that survived infection with these viruses  
270 did not develop any signs of clinical rabies (Table 2). As an initial probe into why PLSJL  
271 mice may survive infections with RV strains that are lethal for 129/SvEv mice we used  
272 quantitative RT-PCR to assess the amounts of virus nucleoprotein message in the CNS of  
273 mice infected with two RV strains, CosRV, which is pathogenic in 129/SvEv mice but non-

274 pathogenic in PLSJL mice, and CVS-N2c, which is pathogenic in both 129/SvEv and PLSJL  
275 mice. At 8 days of infection, the levels of nucleoprotein mRNA of the more pathogenic CVS-  
276 N2c strain were several thousands fold higher in the CNS of both 129/SvEv and PLSJL mice  
277 than those of the CosRV strain (Fig 7). However, the nucleoprotein mRNA levels of both  
278 viruses were significantly lower in PLSJL mice (Fig 7). Significantly, the only group of mice  
279 that survive, PLSJL mice infected with CosRV, exhibits the lowest viral nucleoprotein mRNA  
280 levels.

281

282

283

284 **DISCUSSION**

285 We have previously shown that while RV-specific immunity develops in the periphery  
286 of mice infected with either the attenuated variant CVS-F3 or the highly pathogenic SHBRV,  
287 immune effectors are not delivered across the BBB into the CNS tissues of the latter (Roy et  
288 al., 2007). These findings led us to speculate that the mechanisms providing RV-specific  
289 immune effectors access to CNS tissues fail during infection with SHBRV and possibly other  
290 neurotropic viruses (Roy et al., 2007). In this study we have tested the hypothesis with respect  
291 to pathogenic RV by comparing the development of peripheral and CNS immunity in mice  
292 infected with a variety of RV strains that differ in pathogenicity. The data clearly show that a  
293 reduction in the capacity to deliver immune effectors across the BBB into CNS tissues is  
294 common to infection with different pathogenic RV isolates. In our survey of infection with  
295 diverse RV variants we identified only a single strain, HEP, that does not appear to spread to  
296 the CNS of 129/SvEv mice. We failed to detect viral message or evidence of innate immunity  
297 to the virus in CNS tissues from mice infected with HEP, which is considered to be poorly  
298 neuroinvasive due to the presence of glutamine at position 333 in its glycoprotein  
299 (Dietzschold et al, 1983; Takayama-Ito et al., 2006). Nevertheless, the administration of HEP  
300 stimulated a strong RV-specific antibody response. In contrast, all of the other RV strains  
301 tested were neuroinvasive as nucleoprotein mRNAs were detectable in the CNS tissues, as  
302 were elevations in markers of innate immunity. DRV-4, Thai-DRV, CVS-N2c, CosRV and  
303 Skunk RV were lethal for 129/SvEv mice, while similar mice infected with CVS-F3, ERA  
304 and PM strains survived. Unlike CVS-F3-infected mice where neurological disease was not  
305 seen prior to recovery, 129/SvEv mice infected with ERA and PM exhibited overt  
306 neurological signs resembling those of mice lethally infected with DRV-4. On the basis of



307 these observations we can classify RV into three broad groups: 1/ attenuated viruses that are  
308 poorly neuroinvasive (HEP) and a CNS-targeted immune response and changes in BBB  
309 permeability are not required for clearance; 2/ attenuated neuroinvasive viruses that reach the  
310 CNS (ERA, PM, CVS-F3) but are cleared by immune effectors that cross the BBB; and 3/  
311 neuroinvasive, lethal RV where there is no evidence of BBB permeability changes and  
312 negligible invasion of immune effectors into CNS tissues (DRV-4, SHBRV, Thai-DRV,  
313 CVS-N2c, CosRV, Skunk RV).

314         Adoptive transfer of lymphocytes from 129/SvEv mice lethally infected with SHBRV  
315 can clear CVS-F3 from immunodeficient recipients while neither these cells nor similar cells  
316 from CVS-F3 - infected donors can clear SHBRV (Roy et al., 2007). We have interpreted  
317 these experiments as indicating that some aspect of the SHBRV infection restricts immune  
318 effectors from invading CNS tissues (Roy et al., 2007). PLSJL mice, which exhibit a stronger  
319 CNS inflammatory response, were found to have an elevated capacity to clear SHBRV (Roy  
320 and Hooper, 2007). To provide additional insight into whether or not some aspect of the host  
321 response is likely to be a contributing factor in RV infection we compared the outcome of  
322 infection with various RV strains in PLSJL and 129/SvEv mice. As previously shown for  
323 SHBRV (Roy and Hooper, 2007), DRV-4, CosRV and Skunk RV proved to be less  
324 pathogenic in PLSJL mice. In contrast, CVS-N2c and Thai-DRV are highly lethal for both  
325 PLSJL and 129/SvEv mice. The capacity of the virus to replicate and spread likely contributes  
326 to the outcome. At 8 days post infection high levels of CVS-N2c nucleoprotein mRNAs are  
327 present in the CNS of both infected 129/SvEv and PLSJL mice but only moderate levels of  
328 CosRV nucleoprotein mRNA in the lethally infected 129/SvEv CNS. These are somewhat  
329 reduced in the CNS of PLSJL mice that clear the infection, possibly as a consequence of the

330 initiation of immune-mediated virus clearance. Taken together these results indicate that both  
331 host and viral attributes contribute to the lethality of RV infection. In the absence of an  
332 effective CNS immune response RV infection is invariably lethal, as is the case for both CVS-  
333 N2c and CosRV in 129/SvEv mice. On the other hand, PLSJL mice can survive infection with  
334 CosRV but not with the more rapidly replicating CVS-N2c. Conceivably, enhancing the  
335 extent of CNS inflammation may have utility in the treatment of RV such as CVS-N2c or  
336 Thai-DRV, as has been shown for SHBRV (Roy and Hooper, 2007), but we expect that there  
337 is level of infection at which an immune response would no longer be therapeutic.

338 Human rabies is almost always lethal when neurological signs are apparent in the  
339 infected host. Since neurological signs are indicative of virus replication inside the CNS  
340 tissues, it has generally been considered that once RV has reached the brain it is impossible to  
341 clear the virus and the only hope that an individual has of surviving a RV infection is to  
342 prevent spread of the virus to the CNS. Thus people who have suffered a probable exposure to  
343 a RV are treated by passive administration of pre-formed (exogenous) RV-neutralizing  
344 antibodies and by boosting the development of their own (endogenous) RV-specific immunity  
345 by vaccination. These treatments, together known as PEP, are thought to act by preventing the  
346 spread of RV to the CNS, as they are largely ineffective when given to people who have  
347 already manifested neurological signs of rabies (CDC MMWR, 1999). However, this is not  
348 always the case. In 2004 a patient survived clinical rabies despite developing neurological  
349 signs evidently through the natural development of RV-specific immunity (Willoughby et al.,  
350 2005). The appearance of white blood cells, virus specific antibodies and other serum proteins  
351 in the cerebrospinal fluid of this individual indicated that the BBB had been breached and that  
352 immune effectors likely had access to infected CNS tissues (Willoughby et al., 2005). Our

353 data comparing 129/SvEv and PLSJL mice suggest that host factors, in particular the capacity  
354 to deliver immune effectors across the BBB, play a large role in the ability to survive RV  
355 infection. This concept is supported by studies of rabies patients where significant serum RV-  
356 specific antibody titers are often present (Kasempimolporn et al., 1991), but immune-  
357 mediated changes in the CNS tissues are rare (Murphy, 1977).

358 Human rabies associated with dog and other small carnivores is still a major public  
359 health problem in most parts of the world, dog rabies alone killing an estimated 50,000 –  
360 60,000 people annually (Dressen, 1997; Jackson, 2005). In the United States, around 30,000  
361 people receive anti-rabies treatment after being exposed to potentially rabid raccoons and  
362 skunks (CDC MMWR, 1999). While there is little objective proof, PEP is generally  
363 considered to be effective unless its administration is delayed, as is often the case for lethal  
364 infections with SHBRV where exposure to the virus may not be obvious (Messenger et al.,  
365 2002). Proper administration of PEP has been known to fail to protect individuals bitten by  
366 rabid dogs on the face or other areas that are highly innervated, such as the fingertips (Wilde,  
367 2007). In such cases the virus may have reached peripheral nerves quickly after the exposure  
368 (Wilde, 2007). Our data would suggest that at some time after the virus has reached the CNS  
369 neither PEP nor natural RV-specific immunity can protect an individual because immune  
370 effectors are unable to enter the infected CNS tissues. However, we expect that there is a  
371 window of time where immune mechanisms can clear RV from the CNS before the infection  
372 shuts down the ability to deliver immune effectors into the CNS tissues. In the current study,  
373 we found that the RV strains ERA and PM can be cleared from the brain after development of  
374 prominent neurological signs of rabies. Our RT-PCR analysis of the CNS tissues confirmed  
375 extensive virus replication in the brain during infection with these RV strains. This suggests

376 that rabies is not invariably lethal if the virus can be cleared before neural damage, either  
377 caused by the virus or immunopathology, becomes too extensive. Thus, the predominant  
378 direct pathogenic attributes of a RV are likely related to its capacity to replicate and spread  
379 through CNS tissues (Dietzschold et al., 1985) as well as alter neuronal structure and function  
380 (Scott et al., 2008). We expect that these are in turn dependent upon the loss of the ability to  
381 support immune cell invasion across the BBB and limit virus spread. The caveat here is that  
382 the early development of CNS immunity is likely to be protective while the late development  
383 may be detrimental due to immunopathology consequential to more extensive virus spread.  
384 Notably, clear evidence of immunopathology was not seen with any of the RV studied here  
385 with the possible exception of ERA where an exaggerated immune response was evident in  
386 129/SvEv mice and one out of 15 animals died while the rest survived with neurological  
387 abnormalities.

388         The concept that there is generally an inverse relationship between the pathogenicity  
389 of a RV and the capacity of the host to mediate an RV-specific CNS immune response is  
390 supported by the fact that there is little evidence of immune cell infiltration into the infected  
391 brain tissues of most individuals that succumb to rabies (Murphy, 1977). In a few human  
392 rabies cases CNS inflammation has been reported where immunopathology may have  
393 contributed to the death (Suja et al., 2004). While this has not been examined in humans, all  
394 of the RV strains studied in animal models induce strong innate, pro-inflammatory responses  
395 in the CNS as they reach these tissues (Marquette et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2006; Phares et al.,  
396 2006; Fig. 3). Moreover, all RV are evidently highly immunogenic with infection inducing  
397 RV-specific antibodies in the sera of infected mice (Smith et al., 1982; Wiktor et al., 1977) as  
398 well as humans (Kasempimolporn et al., 1991). In addition, RV can evidently be cleared by

399 immune mechanisms without the immunopathology associated with CNS immune responses  
400 to many neurotropic viruses (Miller et al., 1990; Morimoto et al., 1996). Taken together these  
401 observations suggest that circumventing the inability of immune effectors to cross the BBB  
402 may have therapeutic benefits in people who have developed early signs of rabies. We have  
403 previously shown in mouse models that enhancing BBB permeability by the induction of  
404 autoimmune CNS inflammation can lead to the clearance of pathogenic RV strains from the  
405 brain via naturally developed anti-viral immunity. PLSJL mice, possibly due to an elevated  
406 capacity to mediate CNS inflammation, are less likely to die from rabies (Roy and Hooper,  
407 2007). These observations not only provide insight into how a rational treatment for rabies  
408 may be developed but also how conventional PEP may actually work. It has been well  
409 established that passive administration of rabies immunoglobulins (RIG) without active  
410 immunization fails to protect RV-infected experimental animals (Hanlon et al., 2002). We  
411 speculate that active immunization accelerates the development of RV-specific adaptive  
412 immune cells capable of providing immune effectors access to infected neural tissues, a CD4  
413 T cell-dependent process (Phares et al., 2007), prior to the loss of the capacity to mediate this  
414 process at the BBB. Tailoring a next generation vaccine to target a mechanism that induces  
415 functional changes in BBB integrity in a manner that is not susceptible to inhibition may  
416 provide a means to survive rabies; if immunopathology can be limited and virus-mediated  
417 neuropathology is not extensive or can be reversed.

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530 Table 1. Different strains of RV used for infection.

RV Strains	Species of origin	Passage in the laboratory	Amounts of virus in the inoculum (f.f.u) <sup>a</sup>	References
CVS-F3 (challenge virus standard, escape mutant)	Dog	Cell culture	$1 \times 10^5$	Dietzschold et al., 1983
ERA (Evelyn Rokitnicki Abelseth)	Dog	Cell culture	$1 \times 10^5$	Abelseth, 1964
PM (Pittman Moore)	Dog	Cell culture	$1 \times 10^5$	Rupprecht et al., 1992
HEP (high egg passage – flurry)	Dog	Cell culture	$1 \times 10^5$	Takayama-Ito et al., 2006
SHBRV (silver haired bat-associated rabies virus)	Bat	Neonatal mouse brain	$1 \times 10^4$	Dietzschold et al., 2000
DRV-4 (dog rabies virus)	Dog	Neonatal mouse brain	$1 \times 10^3$	Dietzschold et al., 2000
Thai-DRV (Thai- dog rabies virus)	Dog	Neonatal mouse brain	$1 \times 10^5$	Dietzschold et al., 2000
CVS-N2c (challenge virus standard)	Dog	Neonatal mouse brain <sup>b</sup>	$1 \times 10^5$	Morimoto et al., 1999
CosRV (Coyote rabies virus)	Coyote	Neonatal mouse brain	$1 \times 10^4$	Dietzschold et al., 2000
Skunk RV	Skunk	Neonatal mouse brain	$1 \times 10^4$	Rupprecht et al., 1987

531

532 <sup>a</sup> The number of foci developed in 20 hours of *in-vitro* cultured monolayer of baby hamster  
533 kidney (BHK) cells was counted as a measure of live virus particles in the inoculum.

534 <sup>b</sup> CVS-N2c was cloned in cell culture from parental CVS-24 strain, and then continued to  
535 passage in neonatal mouse brain.

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538

Table 2. Survival of mice following infection with different RV strains <sup>a</sup>.

Virus Strains	129/SvEv			PLSJL		
	Mortality <sup>b</sup>	Clinical signs	% Survival	Mortality	Clinical signs	% Survival
<b>CVS-F3</b>	0/20	Piloerection, weight loss	100	0/10	None	100
<b>ERA</b>	1/15	Piloerection, weight loss, hunched back, ataxia <sup>c</sup>	93	0/20		100
<b>PM</b>	0/15		100	0/10		100
<b>DRV-4</b>	10/10		0	0/10		100
<b>SHBRV</b>	20/20	Piloerection, weight loss, sudden onsets of severe agitation, vellication, ataxia, apnea	0	12/20	<b>Dying:</b> piloerection, weight loss, hunched back, apnea, vellication	40
<b>Thai-DRV</b>	15/15		0	15/17	<b>Surviving:</b> no clinical sign	11
<b>CVS-N2c</b>	20/20		0	18/20		10
<b>CosRV</b>	10/10	<b>Dying:</b> weight loss, ataxia, piloerection <b>Surviving:</b> none	0	1/20	<b>Dying:</b> piloerection, weight loss, ataxia <b>Surviving:</b> none	95
<b>Skunk RV</b>	9/10		10	1/10		90
<b>HEP</b>	0/15	None	100	0/10	None	100

540

541 <sup>a</sup> Two strains of mice were infected with different RV strains as described in the Materials  
542 and Methods and observed for clinical signs and mortality for a period of 30 days.

543 <sup>b</sup> Number of mice that died over total number of mice used to monitor survival following an  
544 infection.

545 <sup>c</sup> Clinical signs in 129/SvEv mice infected with ERA and PM begin to show 8-10 days post  
546 infection and stay for 8-10 more days. Mice infected with DRV-4 show similar signs but die  
547 within 3-4 days of the first appearance of clinical rabies.

548 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

549 **Figure 1. Detection of nucleoprotein message in the CNS of mice infected with different**  
550 **RV strains.** RV nucleoprotein mRNA expression was detected in the CNS tissues (cerebral  
551 cortex and cerebellum) of mice infected with different RV strains 8 days previously, by RT-  
552 PCR as described in Materials and Methods. Results of 4 randomly chosen mice (numbered 1,  
553 2, 3, 4) from each group of 10 mice are shown.

554

555 **Figure 2. Survival of mice following infection with different strains of RV.** Groups of 10  
556 129/SvEv mice were infected with various RV strains listed in Table 1, via intra dermal  
557 injection as described in Materials and Methods. Mice were monitored for morbidity and  
558 mortality for 30 days. First 20 days observation is shown in the graph, there were no more  
559 deaths in any of the groups between 20 to 30 days post infection.

560

561 **Figure 3. Innate immune response in the cerebellar tissues following infection with**  
562 **different RV strains.** Mice were infected with different RV strains as described in Materials  
563 and Methods. Eight days after infection, cerebellar tissues were collected and levels of  
564 mRNAs specific for TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 genes were measured using QRT-PCR as described in  
565 Materials and Methods. The levels of mRNA in each sample were normalized to the level of  
566 L13 gene expression in those samples and are expressed as the fold-increase over the  
567 expression levels detected in samples from uninfected control animals. Statistically significant  
568 differences in gene expression between infected and uninfected mice were calculated using  
569 Mann-Whitney test and are denoted by the symbol \* ( $p < 0.01$ ,  $n=10$  in each group).

570

571 **Figure 4. Serum anti-RV antibody titers of the mice infected with different RV strains.**  
572 Sera were collected from the uninfected and infected mice (n=10 per group) described in the  
573 legend of Fig 3 and the amounts of RV-specific IgG molecules were measured using ELISA  
574 as described in Materials and Methods. Antibody titer in the Y-axis is the inverse of the  
575 dilution of a serum sample corresponding to the half of the maximum absorbance detected in  
576 that sample. Statistically significant (*t*-test comparison with non-immune sera) levels of RV-  
577 specific antibody titers are seen in the sera of all infected mice.

578

579 **Figure 5. Accumulation of immune cells in the cerebellar tissues following infection with**  
580 **different RV strains.** Levels of mRNAs specific for CD4,  $\kappa$ -light chain ( $\kappa$ -LC) and CD19  
581 genes were quantified using QRT-PCR in the total RNA isolated from the cerebellum of  
582 uninfected and infected mice described in the legend of Fig 3 and normalized to L13 gene  
583 expression in those samples as described in Materials and Methods. Levels of gene expression  
584 are represented as the fold-increase in mRNA copy numbers over normalized copies in  
585 samples from uninfected control animals as described in Materials and Methods. Statistically  
586 significant differences in gene expression between infected and uninfected mice were  
587 calculated using Mann-Whitney test and are denoted by the symbol \*\*  $p < 0.01$  (n=10).

588

589 **Figure 6. BBB permeability changes in the cerebellum of the mice infected with different**  
590 **RV strains.** BBB permeability was assessed by measuring the leakage of Na-fluorescein from  
591 the circulation into the cerebellum 8 days after RV infection and are expressed as the fold-  
592 increase in Na-fluorescein uptake by the CNS tissues of RV infected mice over that of  
593 uninfected mice, as described in Materials and Methods. The dotted line represents the BBB

594 permeability in uninfected mice. Statistical significance of the differences in permeability  
595 between infected and uninfected mice was calculated using Mann-Whitney test and are  
596 denoted by the symbol \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$  (n=10).

597

598 **Figure 7. Nucleoprotein message levels in the cerebellar tissues of 129/SvEv and PLSJL**  
599 **mice infected with CosRV and CVS-N2c RV strains.** Eight days post infection QRT-PCR  
600 was used to quantify the levels of mRNAs specific for RV-nucleoprotein in total RNA  
601 isolated from the cerebellar tissues of mice infected with CosRV and CVS-N2c RV strains  
602 (n=5 per group). Levels normalized to L13 gene expression in the samples, as described in  
603 Materials and Methods, are presented. Significantly higher levels of nucleoprotein mRNA in  
604 CVS-N2c by comparison with CosRV infected mice are denoted by \* ( $p < 0.05$ , *t*-test).  
605 Significantly lower levels of nucleoprotein mRNA in PLSJL mice by comparison with  
606 129/SvEv mice are denoted by # ( $p < 0.05$ , *t*-test).

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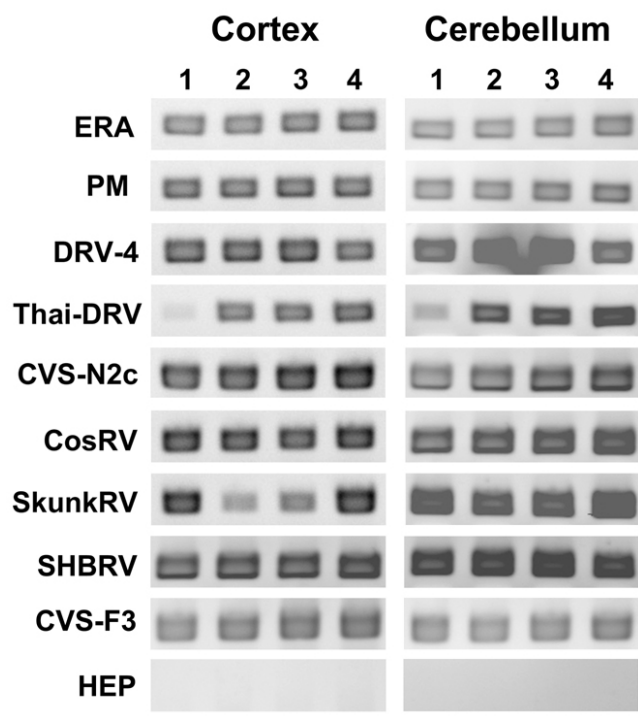
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**FIGURE 1.**



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634 **FIGURE 2.**

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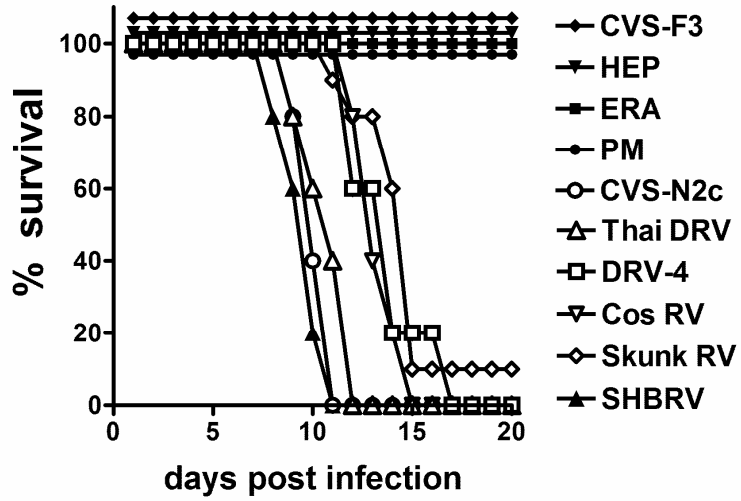
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657 **FIGURE 3.**

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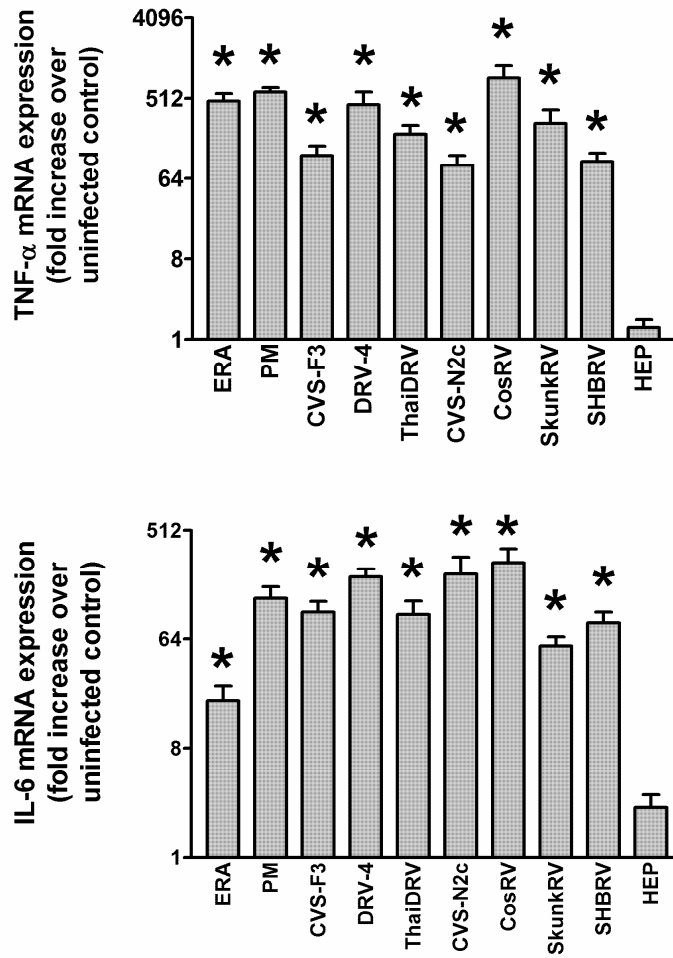
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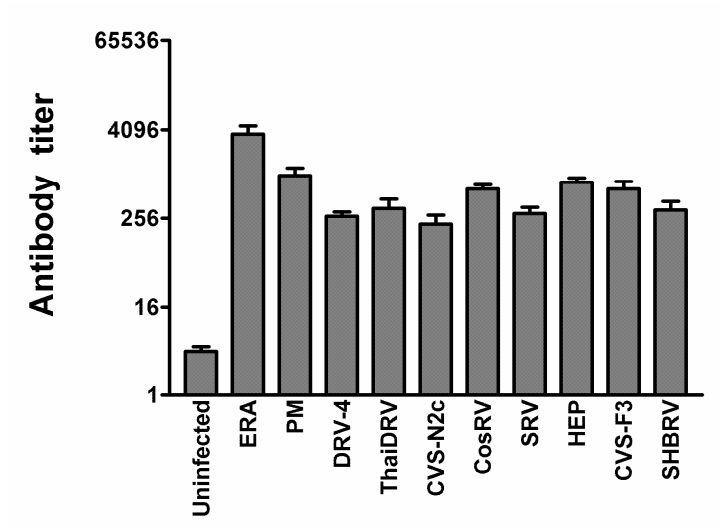
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**FIGURE 4.**



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703 **FIGURE 5.**

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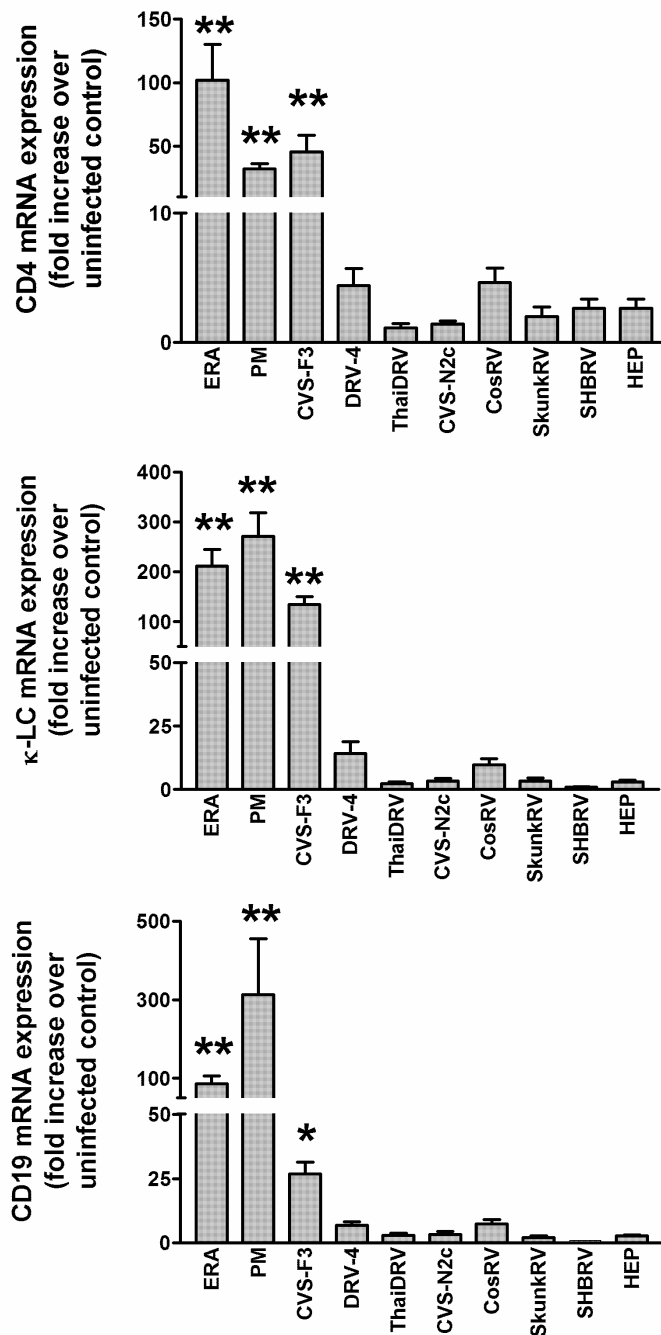
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726 **FIGURE 6.**

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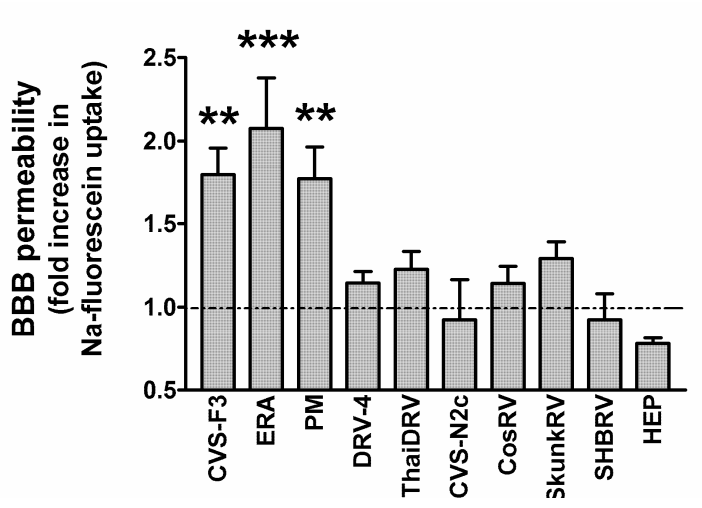
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749 **FIGURE 7.**

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