# Orofacial Infection of Athymic Mice with Defined Mixtures of Acyclovir-Susceptible and Acyclovir-Resistant Herpes Simplex Virus Type <sup>1</sup>

M. NIXON ELLIS,\* R. WATERS, E. L. HILL, D. C. LOBE, D. W. SELLESETH, AND D. W. BARRY

Division of Virology, Burroughs Wellcome Company, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina 27709

Received 26 September 1988/Accepted 13 December 1988

Infection of athymic mice with defined populations of acyclovir-susceptible (thymidine kinase [TK]-positive) and acyclovir-resistant (TK-deficient or TK-altered) herpes simplex virus type <sup>1</sup> strains was used to simulate herpetic skin disease of the immunocompromised host. In vitro characterization of the defined virus mixtures revealed that the dye uptake method was quite sensitive in the detection of small amounts (3 to 9%) of acylovir-resistant virus. Mice infected with homogeneous virus populations exhibited a good correlation between clinical response and the in vitro drug susceptibility of the infecting virus. Animals infected with defined mixtures of viruses exhibited varied patterns of infection and responses to acyclovir treatment. However, disease severity was useful in predicting the TK phenotype of virus recovered from lesions. Pathogenic, TK-altered virus was responsible for progressive disease in animals receiving low-dose (0.25 mg/ml) prophylactic acyclovir or high-dose (1.25-mg/ml) delayed therapy. Although this mutant was recovered infrequently, it was responsible for clinically significant disease in the animals from which it was isolated.

Since the discovery of the antiherpetic activity of acyclovir (ACV) (8, 25), the drug has been used extensively for a variety of human herpetic infections (7). Resistance to ACV has been reported to occur both in vitro (3, 5, 28) and in vivo (2, 4, 26, 31). In both settings, the most frequently encountered ACV-resistant herpes simplex virus (HSV) mutant is defective in its ability to induce thymidine kinase (TK). However, the substantial reduction in virulence that accompanies the loss of this important virus-coded enzyme renders these viruses less clinically significant (11, 12, 31). Other types of ACV-resistant mutants that retain TK activity were only a theoretical possibility until in vitro systems were devised for their selection and isolation (6). One such mutant contains alterations in the viral DNA polymerase that make it insensitive to ACV triphosphate (13, 17). A second type results from mutations in the TK gene that cause the induction of <sup>a</sup> TK enzyme with altered substrate specificity (6, 15, 16). ACV-resistant viruses representing both of these classes were initially isolated in vitro, and their retention of virulence was confirmed in animal systems (6, 17). More recently, similar mutants have been recovered from two patients receiving ACV therapy (10, 22). However, despite their pathogenicity, their clinical significance remains unclear.

Primary infection with HSV or reactivation of latent HSV can be life-threatening in patients whose immune systems are compromised: organ transplant recipients, patients receiving cancer chemotherapy, and patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. The heterogeneity of HSV type <sup>1</sup> (HSV-1) clinical isolates (23) increases the possibility that established lesions in the immunocompromised host may contain both ACV-susceptible and ACV-resistant virus. Because such patients cannot depend on immune elimination of the initially few resistant viruses, ACV treatment could readily select less susceptible virus present in the lesions (1).

Several reports in the literature describe isolation of ACVresistant virus from this patient group (2, 4, 26, 32).

In view of the potential clinical significance of pathogenic mixtures of ACV-susceptible and ACV-resistant viruses, we have evaluated their behavior in athymic mice. This model has proven to be clinically relevant in examining the pathogenicity of resistant isolates (26). This paper describes infection of athymic mice with defined mixtures of TKpositive (TK<sup>+</sup>) and TK-deficient (TK<sup>D</sup>) or TK<sup>+</sup>, TK<sup>D</sup>, and  $TK$ -altered  $(TK^A)$  viruses. Patterns of infection and responses to oral ACV are compared. Viruses isolated from infected mice are evaluated for ACV susceptibility and TK phenotype. Our results provide evidence of the clinical potential of  $TK<sup>A</sup>$  virus.

(This work was presented in part previously [M. N. Ellis, E. Hill, R. Waters, D. Selleseth, D. C. Lobe, and D. W. Barry, Program Abstr. 2nd Int. Conf. Antiviral Res., Williamsburg, Va., abstr. no. 124, p. 124, 1988].)

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell cultures. Vero (African green monkey kidney) cells (Flow Laboratories, Inc., McLean, Va.) were grown in Eagle minimal essential medium supplemented with 5% fetal calf serum (M. A. Bioproducts, Walkersville, Md.), 10 mM<br>HEPES (N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic  $(N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic)$ acid) buffer (GIBCO Laboratories, Grand Island, N.Y.), sodium bicarbonate, 75 U of pencillin G, and 75  $\mu$ g of streptomycin per ml.

Viruses. The virus strains used were 3-times-plaque-purified HSV-1 clinical isolates, designated here by virus laboratory (VL) numbers 9013 and 9014. The origin of these isolates has been reported previously (26). These viruses were obtained from an immunodeficient child and represent pre- and posttherapy virus isolates. VL 9014 is  $TK^+$  and ACV susceptible, while VL 9013 is TK<sup>D</sup> and ACV resistant. A third HSV-1 strain (VL 8971) was used in these studies; originally designated SC16-S1, it is a TK<sup>A</sup> laboratory strain that has been described previously (6).

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

Antiviral susceptibility assays. Virus isolates used in this study and virus recovered from infected mice were tested for their susceptibility to drug inhibition by both the standard plaque reduction (PR) assay (26) and the dye uptake (DU) method (19) in Vero cells.

[<sup>125</sup>I]dC plaque autoradiography. Prior to inoculation of athymic mice, virus mixtures were analyzed by  $\int_0^{125}$ Iliododeoxycytidine ([<sup>125</sup>I]dC) plaque autoradiography, which has been described before (18). Similarly, viruses recovered from untreated and treated mice at various times after virus inoculation were evaluated for TK phenotype by this technique. For defined mixtures and mouse isolates, the TK phenotypes were determined by counting at least 1,000 plaques.

Mice. Female BALB/c athymic mice were used at 4 to <sup>5</sup> weeks of age. Mice were housed five to a cage.

Cutaneous infection. Groups of five mice, under light ether anesthesia, were inoculated on the snout by scarification with a 25-gauge needle, followed by rubbing for 10 <sup>s</sup> with a cotton-tipped applicator soaked in diluted virus. Appropriate virus dilutions were used for back titration in Vero cells and  $[$ <sup>125</sup>I]dC plaque autoradiography. Mean lesion scores were recorded daily with the following scale: 0, no lesions; 1, fewer than five discrete lesions; 2, five or more lesions; 3, confluent lesions; 4, ulceration or necrosis.

Administration of ACV. The sodium salt of ACV was reconstituted at specified concentrations (0.25, 0.5, or 1.25 mg/ml) in sterile distilled water and administered to athymic mice in their drinking water. For animals receiving ACV at <sup>a</sup> dose of 0.5 mg/ml in the drinking water, this would correspond to approximately 100 mg/kg per day.

ACV therapy. Prophylactic ACV therapy was initiated <sup>24</sup> h prior to virus inoculation and continued for 10 days. Delayed ACV therapy was begun <sup>96</sup> <sup>h</sup> after virus inoculation and continued for 10 days.

Virus isolation from infected mice. At various times after virus inoculation (days 6, 10, and 17), the lesions of infected mice in each group were swabbed. Viruses obtained from snout swabs were grown in Vero cells to produce working stocks. Mice in treated and untreated groups were designated according to the number of mice in a particular treatment group. Viruses recovered from infected mice were then given a virus laboratory number.

Statistical analysis. The areas under the curve of mean lesion scores were compared for statistical significance by the Kruskal-Wallis test (27).

## RESULTS

In vitro properties of cloned HSV-1 strains and defined mixtures. Viruses VL <sup>9014</sup> and VL <sup>9013</sup> were used in this experiment because previous work had shown that VL <sup>9014</sup> was ACV susceptible and  $TK^+$  while VL 9013 was ACV resistant and TK<sup>D</sup>. Although both viruses produced lesions in athymic mice, VL <sup>9014</sup> was approximately 100-fold more virulent. Mutant VL <sup>8971</sup> was selected because its resistance to ACV appears to be due to the induction of an altered TK enzyme (6). This virus remained pathogenic for athymic mice (Table 1).

Cloned viruses or virus mixtures were prepared and assayed for ACV susceptibility by the DU and PR methods. Viruses with ACV 50% effective doses (ED<sub>50</sub>s) of  $\geq 3.0$  $\mu$ g/ml as determined by the DU method are considered ACV resistant (19). However, in the PR assay, ACV-resistant viruses had  $ED_{50}$ s of  $\geq 1.0$   $\mu$ g/ml. Additionally, the nature of

TABLE 1. In vitro properties of cloned HSV-1 strains and defined virus mixtures

Strain or mixture	TK phenotype	ACV $ED_{50}^b$ ( $\mu$ g/ml)				
	(composition, $\%$ ) <sup>a</sup>	DU PR				
<b>VL 9014</b>	$TK^+ (100)$	0.5	0.5			
VL 9013	TK <sup>D</sup> (100)	8.9	3.2			
VL 8971	$TK^{A}$ (100)	18.6	13.7			
Mixture 1	$TK^+/TK^D$ (91/9)	3.7(7.4)	0.7(1.4)			
Mixture 2	$TK^+/TK^D$ (70/30)	8.1(16.2)	1.0(2.0)			
Mixture 3	TK+/TK <sup>D</sup> /TK <sup>A</sup> (76/17/7)	25.0(50.0)	0.5(0.0)			

<sup>a</sup> Percentage of each TK phenotype present in mixtures determined by [<sup>125</sup>I]dC in Vero cells (see text).

<sup>b</sup> Numbers in parentheses represent the increase (fold) in ACV  $ED_{50}$ compared with the control value as determined by each assay method.

the mixtures was confirmed by  $[$ <sup>125</sup>I]dC plaque autoradiography as shown in Table 1.

When plaque-purified viruses were tested for ACV susceptibility, there was no difference in the ACV  $ED_{50}$  values when determined by the two assay methods. However, as the amount of  $TK^D$  virus in the mixture was increased, the DU method was more sensitive to these changes in composition. An increase to 9%  $TK^D$  resulted in a 7.4-fold increase (0.5 to 3.7  $\mu$ g/ml) in ACV ED<sub>50</sub> by the DU assay, an additional  $21\%$  TK<sup>D</sup> virus resulted in another 16.2-fold increase (0.5 to 8.1  $\mu$ g/ml) in the ACV ED<sub>50</sub>. When the same mixtures were tested for ACV susceptibility by the PR method, there was a 1.4-fold increase (0.5 to 0.7  $\mu$ g/ml) and 2-fold increase (0.5 to 1.0  $\mu$ g/ml), respectively, in the ACV  $ED<sub>50</sub>$ s. This difference may reflect the greater amount of input virus used in the DU assay ( $\approx$ 500 PFU) than in the PR assay (100 to 200 PFU/ml) or may be the result of the different endpoints used in the assay.

Pathogenicity of plaque-purified viruses for athymic mice. Mice were infected on the snout with approximately  $10<sup>5</sup>$ PFU of the appropriate virus strain. Herpetic lesion scores and virus titers in snout tissue are shown in Table 2. TK<sup>+</sup> and  $TK<sup>A</sup>$  viruses showed similar abilities to produce progressive cutaneous disease in athymic mice. Lesions were most severe 6 to 8 days after virus inoculation, with an approximate 4-log increase in virus titers in snout skin between days 0 and 4. On the other hand,  $TK^D$  virus had greatly reduced ability to cause cutaneous disease, with peak lesion scores of 1.2 on day 5 and a 0.6-log increase in virus skin titer between days 0 and 4. These results confirm earlier reports (11, 12) of reduced virulence of  $TK^D$  viruses for athymic mice.

Response to ACV therapy of athymic mice infected with plaque-purified virus. Athymic mice were infected with approximately  $10^5$  PFU of the appropriate virus strain (TK<sup>+</sup>,  $TK<sup>D</sup>$ , or  $TK<sup>A</sup>$ ). The mice infected with a particular virus strain were divided into three groups of 7 to 10 mice each. One group received no treatment. A second group received prophylactic oral ACV (drinking water) at <sup>a</sup> concentration of 0.5 mg/ml, begun 24 h before infection and continued for 10 days. The final group received delayed oral ACV at 0.5 mg/ml, begun 96 h after virus inoculation and continued for <sup>10</sup> days. Clinical responses to oral ACV therapy are shown in Table 3.

Untreated mice infected with  $100\%$  TK<sup>+</sup> virus had rapidly progressive, fatal disease. Prophylactic ACV was quite effective in suppressing virus infection, but lesions did reappear and progress when therapy was terminated. Delayed ACV treatment reduced lesion scores and associated mortality, but lesion scores again progressed when treatment

#### 306 ELLIS ET AL.

HSV-1 strain		Virus titer <sup>a</sup> (log <sub>10</sub> PFU/ml) in snout skin on day	postinoculation:			Mean lesion score $\pm$ SD on day postinoculation:				
$VL$ 9014 (TK <sup>+</sup> ) VL 9013 (TK <sup>D</sup> ) VL 8971 (TK <sup>A</sup> )	3.3 4.3 3.0	4.1 4.4 4.9	5.5 4.5 5.1	6.6 4.9 6.7	5.6 4.2 5.8	$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.4 \pm 0.55$ $0.1 \pm 0.32$ $1.1 \pm 0.60$	$1.0 \pm 0.00$ $1.2 \pm 0.45$ $2.6 \pm 0.53$	$3.0 \pm 0.00$ $1.4 \pm 0.30$ $3.6 \pm 0.53$	

TABLE 2. Viral replication and lesion induction in athymic mice infected on the snout with different HSV-1 strains

"Snout skins from three animals were pooled at 1, 2, 3, 4, and 7 days after virus inoculation. Titers were determined by plaque assay in Vero cells.

was stopped. Mean lesion scores for both treated groups were significantly reduced compared with those for controls  $(P < 0.05)$ .

Mice infected with  $100\%$  TK<sup>D</sup> virus had indolent disease with slow progression of lesions. Prophylactic ACV significantly reduced lesion scores but did not prevent lesions. Delayed ACV treatment did not produce <sup>a</sup> significant reduction in lesion scores compared with untreated mice.

Untreated mice infected with 100% TK<sup>A</sup> virus exhibited a severe disease pattern similar to that in the mice infected with wild-type virus. Neither prophylactic nor delayed ACV treatment at 0.5 mg/ml had any clinical effect on athymic mice infected with this mutant.

Clinical responses of athymic mice infected with defined mixtures. Mice were infected with approximately  $10<sup>5</sup>$  PFU of defined virus mixtures. The actual amount of  $TK^+$ -TK<sup>D</sup> or  $TK^+$ -TK<sup>D</sup>-TK<sup>A</sup> in the population was determined by  $[$ <sup>125</sup>I]dC plaque autoradiography in Vero cells (see Materials and Methods).

Mice infected with a 70% TK<sup>+</sup>-30% TK<sup>D</sup> mixture were divided into three groups. The first group received no antiviral therapy. The second group received prophylactic oral ACV (0.5 mg/ml), begun <sup>24</sup> <sup>h</sup> before virus infection and continued through day 9. The last group received delayed (96 <sup>h</sup> postinoculation) ACV therapy at <sup>a</sup> concentration of 0.5 mg/ml. Only mice with lesions were used for this last group.

Untreated animals receiving the 70% TK<sup>+</sup>-30% TK<sup>D</sup> mixture had progressive disease similar to the lesion patterns observed in untreated animals receiving  $100\%$  TK<sup>+</sup> virus (Table 4). Mice responded to prophylactic oral ACV with lesion scores of less than 0.30 through day 10. These reductions in lesion scores were statistically significant ( $P \leq$ 0.05). However, mice receiving delayed treatment continued to form new lesions while on therapy; disease stabilized only after 3 days of treatment. Animals receiving either treatment

regimen had a recrudescence of disease when therapy was stopped.

We then examined the effect of <sup>a</sup> lower dose of oral ACV (0.25 mg/ml) on mice infected with a more complex mixture of virus strains (Table 4). This mixture contained approximately 76% TK<sup>+</sup>, 17% TK<sup>D</sup>, and 7% TK<sup>A</sup>. Untreated animals had severe and rapidly fatal disease, reflecting the ability of both  $TK^+$  and  $TK^A$  viruses to replicate in the skin. Prophylactic oral ACV caused <sup>a</sup> slight delay (96 h) in the appearance of lesions. Once lesions were present, however, they continued to increase in severity despite antiviral therapy at this limited dose.

This clinical outcome is quite different from the effect of prophylactic ACV on the  $TK^+$ -TK<sup>D</sup> mixture and is the result of both the lower ACV dose (0.25 verus 0.5 mg/ml), which allows some breakthrough of  $TK^+$  virus, and the relative virulence of the  $TK<sup>A</sup>$  virus. Mice receiving ACV treatment at a dose of 0.25 mg/ml begun 96 h postinoculation had delayed appearance of lesions, brief stabilization of lesion scores on days 8 through 14, and continued lesion progression after treatment was terminated on day 14. Mean lesion scores for the two low-dose treatment regimens were significantly different from those for controls ( $P < 0.05$ ).

The clinical responses of mice infected with either mixture  $(TK^+ - TK^D)$  or  $TK^+ - TK^D - TK^A$  and receiving delayed treatment with 0.5 or 0.25 mg/ml were equivalent. Withholding treatment allowed the  $TK^+$  and  $TK^A$  components of the mixtures to overgrow the  $TK^D$  virus, which replicates poorly in the skin. A small amount of  $TK^A$  virus ( $\sim$ 7%) had little effect on clinical response to delayed treatment because of the undiminished growth of wild-type viruses within the initial 96 h.

A fivefold increase in ACV dose (to 1.25 mg/ml) in the drinking water greatly enhanced the benefit of prophylactic therapy in mice infected with the  $TK^+$ -TK<sup>D</sup>-TK<sup>A</sup> mixture

TABLE 3. Effect of oral treatment with ACV on athymic mice infected with cloned HSV-1 strains

HSV-1 strain		No. of	ACV concn		Mean lesion score $\pm$ SD on day postinoculation:				Area under the
	Treatment <sup>a</sup>	mice	in drinking water $(mg/ml)$					10	curve $(\pm SD)^b$
VL 9014 (TK <sup>+</sup> )	None	7		$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.4 \pm 0.55$	$1.0 \pm 1.00$	$3.0 \pm 0.00$	$4.0 \pm 0.00$	44.2 $(\pm 1.78)^1$
	Pro		0.5	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.3 \pm 0.49$	12.8 $(\pm 4.12)^2$
	Del		0.5	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.9 \pm 0.38$	$1.4 \pm 0.98$	$1.7 \pm 1.50$	23.3 $(\pm 12.9)^2$
VL 9013 (TK <sup>D</sup> )	None	10		$0.0 \pm 0.01$	$0.1 \pm 0.33$	$1.2 \pm 0.48$	$1.4 \pm 0.32$	$1.7 \pm 0.67$	$15.5~(\pm 4.33)^1$
	Pro	10	0.5	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.4 \pm 0.52$	$0.3 \pm 0.42$	$0.3 \pm 0.52$	$0.2 \pm 0.82$	3.3 $(\pm 4.80)^2$
	Del	10	0.5	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$0.3 \pm 0.48$	$0.7 \pm 0.48$	$0.9 \pm 0.48$	$1.3 \pm 0.42$	$11.5 \ (\pm 5.90)^{1}$
VL 8971 (TK <sup>A</sup> )	None	10		$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$1.1 \pm 0.60$	$2.6 \pm 0.58$	$3.6 \pm 0.53$	$4.0 \pm 0.00$	50.4 $(\pm 1.94)^1$
	Pro	10	0.5	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$1.0 \pm 0.47$	$2.3 \pm 1.06$	$3.1 \pm 1.20$	$3.7 \pm 0.67$	50.5 $(\pm 2.74)^1$
	Del	10	0.5	$0.0 \pm 0.00$	$1.2 \pm 0.44$	$2.7 \pm 0.50$	$3.6 \pm 0.53$	$4.0 \pm 0.00$	47.6 $(\pm 8.30)^1$

<sup>a</sup> Pro, Prophylactic oral ACV therapy begun 24 h before virus inoculation and continued for 10 days; Del, delayed oral ACV therapy begun 96 h after virus inoculation and continued for 10 days.

The areas under the curve were compared by the Kruskal-Wallis test. Means with the same numerical superscript are not significantly different  $(P \ge 0.05)$ .

Mixture	No. Treat- οf	ACV concn in drinking		Area under the curve				
	ment	mice	water (mg/ml)			10	17	$(\pm SD)$
70% TK <sup>+</sup> -30% TK <sup>D</sup>	None							$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.5 \pm 0.58$ $1.1 \pm 0.64$ $1.7 \pm 1.14$ $3.2 \pm 1.04$ $3.6 \pm 1.06$ $36.9 \pm 11.92$ <sup>1</sup>
	Pro	8	0.5					$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.3 \pm 0.49$ $0.0 \pm 0.53$ $0.3 \pm 0.52$ $3.0 \pm 0.63$ $12.1 \pm 2.44$ <sup>2</sup>
	Del	8	0.5			$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.5 \pm 0.53$ $1.8 \pm 1.10$ $1.9 \pm 1.83$ $2.5 \pm 1.07$ $2.9 \pm 1.13$		30.4 $(\pm 12.09)^1$
$76\%$ TK <sup>+</sup> -17%	None	18						$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.8 \pm 0.43$ $2.6 \pm 0.70$ $3.3 \pm 0.96$ $3.7 \pm 0.97$ $3.6 \pm 1.10$ $45.6 \pm 13.19$ <sup>1</sup>
$TK^{D}$ -7% TK <sup>A</sup>	Pro	9	0.25					$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.9 \pm 1.13$ $1.7 \pm 1.04$ $2.5 \pm 1.07$ $3.9 \pm 0.35$ $34.6 \pm 9.99$ <sup>2</sup>
	Pro	9	1.25			$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.4 \pm 0.88$ $1.1 \pm 1.69$		6.8 $(\pm 11.07)^3$
	Del	9	0.25			$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.3 \pm 0.49$ $1.4 \pm 1.13$ $2.1 \pm 1.57$ $2.4 \pm 1.74$ $2.7 \pm 1.70$		30.5 $(\pm 20.33)^2$
	Del	9	1.25					$0.0 \pm 0.00$ $0.3 \pm 0.49$ $1.2 \pm 0.90$ $2.0 \pm 0.00$ $2.0 \pm 1.15$ $2.9 \pm 0.90$ $27.2 \pm 12.79$ <sup>2</sup>

TABLE 4. Effects of oral treatment with ACV on athymic mice infected with defined mixtures of HSV-1 strains'

 $a$  See Table 3, footnotes  $a$  and  $b$ .

and limited lesion scores to <1.0 through day 9. Delayed therapy with the high dose was also of considerable benefit. Our results indicated that higher doses of ACV were clearly effective in suppressing infections initiated by defined virus mixtures containing ACV-resistant HSV-1 strains.

Clinical responses of individual mice and characterization of virus recovered from infected mice. Disease patterns noted in individual mice were dependent on the infecting mixture and the component of the mixture that grew in a particular mouse (Table 5). For example, untreated mice infected with the  $TK^+$ -T $K^D$  mixture exhibited two types of disease. The first, a rapidly progressive fatal disease, as observed in mouse  $M4$ , was associated with 100% TK<sup>+</sup> and ACV-susceptible virus (ACV ED<sub>50</sub>, 0.8  $\mu$ g/ml by DU). The second was indolent disease associated with 100% TKD, ACV-resistant  $(ACV ED<sub>50</sub>, 12.0 µg/ml by DU) virus, as noted in mouse M8.$ Prophylactic treatment of mice infected with this mixture selected for TK<sup>D</sup> virus (ACV ED<sub>50</sub>, 16.0  $\mu$ g/ml), as exemplified by mouse M2 on day 10. Removal of this selective influence, however, allowed the reemergence of the more "natural" virus, and by day 17, 8 days after therapy was stopped, virus isolated from the same mouse was  $97\%$  TK<sup>+</sup> and 3% TK<sup>D</sup>, with an ACV ED<sub>50</sub> of 0.9  $\mu$ g/ml.

Delayed ACV treatment of mice infected with the TK+-  $TK<sup>D</sup>$  mixture produced variable clinical responses dependent on lesion severity at the time of treatment. For example, mouse M3 had <sup>a</sup> lesion score of 1.0 on day 4, when treatment was started. On day 6, virus recovered from this mouse was  $100\%$  TK<sup>+</sup> and ACV susceptible (ACV ED<sub>50</sub>, 0.4)  $\mu$ g/ml), and the lesion had progressed to a score of 3.0. When the same mouse was tested on days 10 and 17, the virus recovered continued to be predominantly  $TK^+$  and  $ACV$ 

TABLE 5. In vitro properties of viruses isolated from athymic mice infected with a mixture of 70% TK<sup>+</sup>-30% TK<sup>I</sup>

Isolate	Mouse	Treat-	Day postin-	ACVED <sub>50</sub> $(\mu$ g/ml)		Composition of isolate $^b$ (%)			
	no.	ment <sup>a</sup>	fection	DU	PR	TK <sup>+</sup>	TK <sup>D</sup>	TK <sup>A</sup>	
VL 10929	M4	None	8	0.8	0.2	100	0	0	
<b>VL 10937</b>	<b>M8</b>	None	17	12.0	14.0	0	100	0	
<b>VL 10934</b>	M <sub>2</sub>	Pro	10	16.0	16.0	0	100	0	
<b>VL 10939</b>	M2	Pro	17	0.9	0.3	97	3	0	
<b>VL 10930</b>	M <sub>3</sub>	Del	6	0.4	0.4	100	0	0	
<b>VL 10935</b>	M3	Del	10	1.0	0.4	99	1	0	
<b>VL 10941</b>	M3	Del	17	3.0	0.5	98	$\overline{c}$	0	

<sup>a</sup> See Table 3, footnote a.

 $<sup>b</sup>$  Determined by plaque autoradiography in Vero cells (see text).</sup>

susceptible. Therefore, in severe infections, delayed antiviral treatment did not eradicate established wild-type viruses. Mice with lesion scores of <1.0 at the time of treatment had better responses to delayed therapy (data not shown), suggesting that virus load at the time of treatment was important in determining clinical outcome.

Individual mice infected with the  $TK^+$ -TK<sup>D</sup>-TK<sup>A</sup> mixture also had varied patterns of infection and responses to oral ACV therapy. Untreated animals had severe disease associated with  $TK^+$  viruses (usually dead by day 7) or indolent disease caused by  $TK^D$  virus, as shown for mouse M3 in Table 6. In contrast, mouse M6, treated prophylactically with ACV at 0.25 mg/ml, had severe disease <sup>6</sup> days after infection, with a lesion score of 3.0. Virus recovered from this animal was ACV resistant (ACV  $ED_{50}$ , 34.4  $\mu$ g/ml by DU) and consisted of 5% TK<sup>+</sup>, 5% TK<sup>D</sup>, and 90% TK<sup>A</sup>. This animal died shortly after this mixture of viruses was isolated. Another animal (mouse M9) had a more satisfactory response to ACV, with ACV-resistant virus (ACV  $ED_{50}$ , 9.1  $\mu$ g/ml by DU) isolated on day 10. By day 16, the ACV ED<sub>50</sub> of virus recovered from this animal had decreased to 4.8  $\mu$ g/ml, and this change was associated with a shift from 60% TK<sup>+</sup>-40% TK<sup>D</sup> on day 10 to 97% TK<sup>+</sup>-3% TK<sup>D</sup> on day 16. Mice receiving <sup>a</sup> higher dose of prophylactic ACV (1.25 mg/ml) had more complete responses to treatment. Viruses obtained from these mice were 100% TK<sup>D</sup> with one exception: on day 17, the isolate from mouse M9 contained 10%

TABLE 6. In vitro properties of viruses isolated from athymic mice infected with a  $76\%$  TK<sup>+</sup>-17% TK<sup>D</sup>-7% TK<sup>A</sup> mixture<sup>a</sup>

Isolate	Mouse	Treatment and dose	Day postin-		$ACV$ $ED_{50}$ $(\mu$ g/ml)	Composition of isolate $(\% )$			
	no.	$(\mu$ g/ml)	fection	DU	PR	$TK^+$	<b>TK</b> <sup>D</sup>	TK <sup>A</sup> 0 0 90 0 $\bf{0}$ $\bf{0}$ 0 0	
<b>VL 11216</b>	M <sub>3</sub>	None	10	19.2	10.4	0	100		
<b>VL 11225</b>	M <sub>3</sub>	None	17	14.8	4.6	0	100		
<b>VL 11212</b>	M6	Pro (0.25)	6	34.4	16.7	5	5		
VL 11218	M9	Pro (0.25)	10	9.1	1.4	60	40		
<b>VL 11224</b>	M9	Pro (0.25)	16	4.8	0.1	97	3		
<b>VL 11215</b>	M10	Pro (1.25)	7	10.1	5.6	0	100		
VL 11217	M9	Pro $(1.25)$	10	38.1	13.6	0	100		
<b>VL 11223</b>	M9	Pro (1.25)	17	26.4	2.1	10	90		
<b>VL</b> 12213	M9	Del (0.25)	6	0.7	0.4	99	1	0	
<b>VL 11220</b>	M <sub>3</sub>	Del (0.25)	10	0.4	0.5	100	0	0	
<b>VL 11219</b>	M1	Del (1.25)	10	12.2	13.1	1	0	99	
<b>VL 11214</b>	M3	Del (1.25)	6	9.2	6.2	1	98	1	
<b>VL 11226</b>	M <sub>3</sub>	Del (1.25)	16	10.1	1.4	69	31	0	

 $a$  See Table 3, footnote  $a$ , and Table 5, footnote  $b$ .

 $TK^+$  and 90%  $TK^D$  virus, although it was still highly resistant (ACV  $ED_{50}$ , 26.4  $\mu$ g/ml).

In animals treated prophylactically with the lowest dose of ACV, TK<sup>A</sup> virus could emerge and cause clinical disease (as in mouse M6). At higher ACV doses, no animals had lesions attributable to  $TK<sup>A</sup>$  virus.

Low-dose, delayed ACV treatment produced responses in mice infected with the  $TK^+ - TK^+ - TK^+$  mixture similar to those observed in the previous experiments with the less complexly defined population. Animals with severe lesions at the time of treatment responded poorly and succumbed to overwhelming  $TK^+$  infection (e.g., mouse M9). Mice with less severe disease (lesion score on day 4, <1.0) had their disease stabilized during treatment. Virus recovered from these animals was predominantly  $TK^+$  and  $ACV$  susceptible, e.g., VL <sup>11220</sup> isolated from mouse M3.

Higher doses of delayed ACV therapy (1.25 mg/ml) caused striking differences in the viruses recovered from individual mice. For example, mouse Ml had <sup>a</sup> lesion score of 2.0 when therapy was started on day 4. His lesions continued to progress while on therapy, and on day 10 his lesion score was 3.0. The virus recovered on day <sup>10</sup> was ACV resistant (ACV ED<sub>50</sub>, 12.2  $\mu$ g/ml by DU) and was 1% TK<sup>+</sup> and 99%  $TK<sup>A</sup>$  by  $[125]$ dC plaque autoradiography. A second mouse, M3, had insignificant disease when treatment was started. Lesions progressed to a score of 1.0 on day 5, when they began to stabilize. Virus recovered from lesions on day 6 was ACV resistant (ACV ED<sub>50</sub>, 9.2  $\mu$ g/ml by DU) and 1%  $TK^+$  and 98%  $TK^D$ . When therapy was stopped (day 14), lesions again progressed. On day 16, virus isolated from the lesions of mouse M3 was still ACV resistant (ACV  $ED_{50}$ , 10.1  $\mu$ g/ml by DU), but the amount of TK<sup>+</sup> virus had increased from <sup>1</sup> to 69%.

In summary, disease patterns and clinical outcome varied somewhat even within mice of the same group. Although mice in the two separate experiments were infected in similar manners with the defined mixtures, individual patterns of disease were largely dependent on the TK phenotype of the virus that predominated in individual mice. TK<sup>+</sup> virus and  $TK<sup>A</sup>$  virus were associated with progressive disease or "breakthrough" lesions in low-dose-treated mice and in animals receiving delayed treatment for severe lesions. In contrast, TK<sup>D</sup> virus caused indolent, chronic lesions in untreated mice and in prophylactically treated animals. Lesions were quickly recolonized by  $TK^+$  virus after treatment was stopped.

## DISCUSSION

The recent reports of pathogenic, ACV-resistant mutants isolated from normal and immunocompromised patients (10, 22) have caused renewed concern about clinical resistance to ACV. This issue has resurfaced because of the current acquired immunodeficiency syndrome epidemic and the subset of these patients who are receiving ACV for HSV infections (21).

Numerous reports have appeared recently that evaluate methods for the detection of ACV-resistant virus. These methods include an enzyme assay which determines the uptake of labeled drug in HSV-infected cells (28), plaque autoradiography with labeled substrates (8, 30), and various drug susceptibility assays with different endpoints of viral growth. Our data indicate that assays that require higher concentrations of virus as well as increased culture time (>48 h) may be more sensitive for detecting small amounts of resistant virus.

Harmenburg et al. (14) reported that the enzymatic method can detect approximately 6.2% TK<sup>D</sup> virus after 24 h of incubation; with increasing incubation times, it can detect<br>even smaller amounts of TK<sup>D</sup> virus. Our results with the DU assay indicate that it can usually detect between <sup>3</sup> and 9% of ACV-resistant virus and, when coupled with [125I]dC plaque autoradiography, is a very precise method for the detection and identification of ACV-resistant mutants. For our purposes, the absolute numerical value of the  $ED_{50}$  is less important than the detection and definition of small numbers of less-sensitive viruses.

Cutaneous HSV infection of athymic mice is <sup>a</sup> reasonable model of severe virus infection in the immunocompromised host. Defects in T-cell-mediated immunity of humans appear to increase the risk of HSV infection (20, 24, 33), and in athymic mice, HSV infection is almost uniformly fatal, while mice with intact immune responses appear to recover completely. In addition, these mice are quite susceptible to infection with a range of ACV-resistant mutants, whereas  $ACV$ -resistant  $TK<sup>D</sup>$  viruses replicate poorly in normal mice (26).

Infections of athymic mice with plaque-purified virus strains confirmed earlier reports of decreased pathogenicity of the TK<sup>D</sup> virus. Wild-type  $(TK^+)$  and TK<sup>A</sup> viruses grew equally well in snout skin. The titer of virus in snout skin reached <sup>a</sup> maximum approximately <sup>3</sup> days before the most severe herpetic skin lesions were seen.

When mice infected with plaque-purified viruses were treated with orally administered ACV, the clinical responses correlated quite well with in vitro data for the respective virus strains. Mice infected with ACV-susceptible virus generally had excellent clinical responses to prophylactic therapy and good responses to delayed treatment. Mice infected with TK<sup>D</sup> virus had less complete responses, but their cutaneous disease, even untreated, was much less severe. ACV treatment of mice infected with virulent TK<sup>A</sup> viruses was of no benefit at the dose used (0.5 mg/ml). These findings confirm the potential for clinically significant illness as a result of infection with pathogenic ACV-resistant TK<sup>A</sup> HSV strains in immunocompromised patients.

Our results with viruses recovered from individual mice infected with defined mixtures emphasize the difficulty associated with the characterization of heterogeneous clinical isolates. It was not always possible to predict the types of viruses that would be recovered from individual mice infected with the same mixture. As noted in a previous report (11), virus mixtures recovered from infected mice tended to be more heterogeneous and generally more resistant than virus mixtures prepared in vitro. Clearly, the selective conditions differ in vivo and in vitro. For instance, it has been reported (9) that nucleosides are metabolized quite differently in cells from different species, which can lead to quite different levels of the active molecules. Also, it is possible that more subtle changes in the viruses, somehow associated with changes in other genes, may create additional disadvantages in vivo. However, observation of the disease pattern in infected mice enables a reasonable prediction of the TK phenotype that predominates in individual mice.

TK<sup>D</sup> viruses were found in chronic, indolent ulcers of surviving, untreated mice that had been infected with predominantly TK<sup>+</sup> virus. These TK<sup>D</sup> mutants were also found in prophylactically treated mice late in the course of therapy. Our observations are similar to reports of  $TK<sup>D</sup>$  virus patterns of infection in marrow transplant patients (2, 4). Interestingly, when therapy was stopped,  $TK^+$  virus rapidly reestablished itself in the lesion. This suggests that in some non-life-threatening clinical situations, it might be possible to stop treatment, allow regrowth of  $TK^+$  virus, and then restart therapy.

In agreement with earlier reports, delayed therapy (96 h or longer) for severe herpetic disease was of little clinical benefit (9), and established lesions harboring wild-type virus were slow to respond to low doses of oral ACV. However, a fivefold increase in ACV dose enhanced the response to delayed therapy.

Pathogenic TK<sup>A</sup> virus was responsible for progressive disease in mice receiving low-dose (0.25-mg/ml) prophylactic ACV or high-dose (1.25-mg/ml) delayed ACV treatment. Although this mutant was recovered from only a few mice, it caused severe disease and death in the animals from which it was isolated. At present, there are no clinical reports of progressive herpetic disease in patients harboring similar mutants, and some studies indicate that these viruses may respond to other nucleoside analogs (10).

There are a number of significant differences between cutaneous disease in athymic mice and HSV disease in immunocompromised patients. For example, in athymic mice virus is introduced as a primary infection that, because of a lack of T-cell-dependent immunity, progresses to the central nervous system and kills the animals. In immunocompromised humans, HSV is usually <sup>a</sup> recurrent infection, with little central nervous system involvement. Recovery from infection generally depends on reestablishment of normal T cell function (24). Additionally, most immunocompromised patients receive parenteral ACV, which yields levels in plasma considerably higher than can be achieved in athymic mice receiving oral ACV therapy (26). Despite these differences, the athymic mouse is a useful model for studying the interactions of different components of a viral population, and this model may predict the selection, pattern of infection, and clinical outcome of HSV infections in immunocompromised patients.

## LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Ambinder, R. F., W. H. Burns, P. S. Lietman, and R. Saral. 1984. Prophylaxis: a strategy to minimise antiviral resistance. Lancet i:1154-1155.
- 2. Burns, W. H., R. Saral, G. W. Santos, 0. L. Laskin, P. S. Lietman, C. McLaren, and D. W. Barry. 1982. Isolation and characterisation of resistant herpes simplex virus after acyclovir therapy. Lancet i:421-423.
- 3. Coen, D. M., and P. A. Schaffer. 1980. Two distinct loci confer resistance to acycloguanosine in herpes simplex virus type 1. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 77:2265-2269.
- 4. Crumpacker, C. S., L. E. Schnipper, S. I. Marlowe, P. N. Kowalsky, B. J. Hershey, and M. J. Levin. 1982. Resistance to antiviral drugs of herpes simplex virus isolated from a patient treated with acyclovir. N. Engl. J. Med. 306:343-346.
- 5. Crumpacker, C. S., L. E. Schnipper, J. A. Zaia, and M. J. Levin. 1979. Growth inhibition by acycloguanosine of herpesviruses isolated from human infections. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 15:642-645.
- 6. Darby, G., H. J. Field, and S. A. Salisbury. 1981. Altered substrate specificity of herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase confers acyclovir-resistance. Nature (London) 289:81-83.
- 7. Dorsky, D. I., and C. S. Crumpacker. 1987. Drugs five years later: acyclovir. Ann. Intern. Med. 107:859-874.
- 8. Elion, G. B., P. A. Furman, J. A. Fyfe, P. de Miranda, L. Beauchamp, and H. J. Schaeffer. 1977. Selectivity of action of an antitherpetic agent, 9-(2-hydroxyethoxymethyl)guanine. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5716-5720.
- 9. Ellis, M. N., and D. W. Barry. 1984. Oral acyclovir therapy of genital herpes simplex virus type 2 infections in guinea pigs. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 27:167-176.
- 10. Ellis, M. N., P. M. Keller, J. A. Fyfe, J. L. Martin, J. F. Rooney, S. E. Straus, S. Nusinoff Lehrman, and D. W. Barry. 1987. Clinical isolate of herpes simplex virus type 2 that induces a thymidine kinase with altered substrate specificity. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 31:1117-1125.
- 11. Field, H. J. 1982. Development of clinical resistance to acyclovir in herpes simplex virus-infected mice receiving oral therapy. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 21:744-752.
- 12. Field, H. J., and G. Darby. 1980. Pathogenicity in mice of strains of herpes simplex virus which are resistant to acyclovir in vitro and in vivo. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 17:209-216.
- 13. Furman, P. A., D. M. Coen, M. H. St. Clair, and P. A. Schaffer. 1981. Acyclovir-resistant mutants of herpes simplex virus type <sup>1</sup> express altered DNA polymerase or reduced acyclovir-phosphorylating activities. J. Virol. 40:936-941.
- 14. Harmenberg, J., V. Sundquist, H. Gadler, B. Leven, G. Brännström, and B. Wahren. 1986. Comparative methods for detection of thymidine kinase-deficient herpes simplex virus type <sup>1</sup> strains. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 30:570-573.
- 15. Larder, B. A., Y.-C. Cheng, and G. Darby. 1983. Characterization of abnormal thymidine kinases induced by drug-resistant strains of herpes simplex virus type 1. J. Gen. Virol. 64:523-532.
- 16. Larder, B. A., and G. Darby. 1982. Properties of a novel thymidine kinase induced by an acyclovir-resistant herpes simplex virus type <sup>1</sup> mutant. J. Virol. 42:649-658.
- 17. Larder, B. A., D. Derse, Y.-C. Cheng, and G. Darby. 1983. Properties of purified enzymes induced by pathogenic drugresistant mutants of herpes simplex virus: evidence for virus variants expressing normal DNA polymerase and altered thymidine kinase. J. Biol. Chem. 258:2027-2033.
- 18. Martin, J. L., M. N. Ellis, P. M. Keller, K. K. Biron, S. N. Lehrman, D. W. Barry, and P. A. Furman. 1985. Plaque autoradiography assay for the detection and quantitation of thymidine kinase-deficient and thymidine kinase-altered mutants of herpes simplex virus in clinical isolates. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 28:181-187.
- 19. McLaren, C., M. N. Ellis, and G. A. Hunter. 1983. A colorimetric assay for the measurement of the sensitivity of herpes simplex viruses to antiviral agents. Antiviral Res. 3:223-234.
- 20. Nahmias, A. J., S. L. Shore, S. Kohl, S. E. Starr, and R. B. Ashman. 1976. Immunology of herpes simplex virus infection: relevance to herpes simplex virus vaccines and cervical cancer. Cancer Res. 36:836-844.
- 21. Norris, S. A., H. A. Kessler, and K. H. Fife. 1988. Severe, progressive herpetic whitlow caused by an acyclovir-resistant virus in a patient with AIDS. J. Infect. Dis. 157:209-210.
- 22. Parker, A. C., J. I. 0. Craig, P. Collins, N. Oliver, and I. Smith. 1987. Acyclovir-resistant herpes simplex virus infection due to altered DNA polymerase. Lancet ii:1461.
- 23. Parris, D. S., and J. E. Harrington. 1982. Herpes simplex virus variants resistant to high concentrations of acyclovir exist in clinical isolates. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 22:71-77.
- 24. Rand, K. H., L. E. Rasmussen, R. B. Pollard, A. Arvin, and T. C. Merigan. 1976. Cellular immunity and herpesvirus infections in cardiac-transplant patients. N. EngI. J. Med. 296: 1372-1377.
- 25. Schaeffer, H. J., L. Beauchamp, P. de Miranda, G. B. Elion, D. J. Bauer, and P. Collins. 1978. 9-(2-Hydroxyethoxymethyl) guanine activity against viruses of the herpes group. Nature (London) 272:583-585.
- 26. Sibrack, C. D., L. T. Gutman, C. M. Wilfert, C. McLaren, M. H. St. Clair, P. M. Keller, and D. W. Barry. 1982. Pathogenicity of acyclovir-resistant herpes simplex type <sup>1</sup> from an immunodeficient child. J. Infect. Dis. 146:673-682.
- 27. Siegel, S. 1956. Nonparametric statistics for the behavioral sciences, p. 184-193. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- 28. Smith, K. O., W. L. Kennell, R. H. Poirer, and F. T. Lynd. 1980. In vitro and in vivo resistance of herpes simplex virus to 9-(2-hydroxyethoxymethyl)guanine (acycloguanosine). Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 17:144-150.
- 29. Summers, W. C., and W. P. Summers. 1977. [<sup>125</sup>I]deoxycytidine used in a rapid, sensitive, and specific assay for herpes simplex virus type <sup>1</sup> thymidine kinase. J. Virol. 24:314-318.
- 30. Tenser, R. B., J. C. Jones, S. J. Ressel, and F. A. Fralish. 1983. Thymidine plaque autoradiography of thymidine kinase-positive and thymidine kinase-negative herpesviruses. J. Clin. Microbiol. 17:122-127.
- 31. Tenser, R. B., R. L. Miller, and F. Rapp. 1979. Trigeminal ganglion infection by thymidine kinase-negative mutants of herpes simplex virus. Science 205:915-917.
- 32. Wade, J. C., C. McLaren, and J. D. Myers. 1983. Frequency and significance of acyclovir-resistant herpes simplex virus isolated from marrow transplant patients receiving multiple courses of treatment with acyclovir. J. Infect. Dis. 148:1077-1082.
- 33. Weinstein, L., and A. C. Dalton. 1968. Host determinants of response to antimicrobial agents. N. Engl. J. Med. 279:467-473, 524-531, 580-588.