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Epstein-Barr Virus and Its Interaction with the Host

Key Words

Neoplasia
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Immune system
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Summary

Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) as a member of the herpesvirus family persists lifelong in the human body and causes diseases associated with virus replication (infectious mononucleosis, oral hairy leukoplakia) as well as neoplastic conditions such as nasopharyngeal carcinoma, B-cell lymphoma, Hodgkin's disease associated with viral latency. This complex biology relates to a highly regulated control of the persisting virus. Still, EBV is lytically produced in certain compartments of the human body. Epithelial cells were found to be of key importance for this. Various routes (cell fusion, IgA receptor-mediated uptake) were described for EBV to enter epithelial cells in the absence of CR2 receptor. Viral entry into cells, however, via CR2 receptor fusion or IgA mediated was not found to be sufficient for viral production. The molecular mechanisms for the lack of viral production in most target cells are primarily the presence of silencer activities and the early elimination of cells entering the lytic cycle. Only terminally differentiated epithelial cells are capable of supporting an efficient lytic cycle of EBV replication. EBV-mediated suppression of apoptosis as well as down-regulation of cellular antiviral gene products, such as HLA molecules, which mediate recognition by the immune system, are important contributing factors to the development of these neoplasias where viral genes, possibly via interaction with anti-oncogenes, such as p53, in context with genetic and environmental factors play a key role. Novel diagnostic tools and a vaccine have been developed which could help to control EBV-related diseases.

When Dennis Burkitt approached Epstein in 1961 for help in search for a common principle involved in the generation of clinically very divergent neoplasias, a new field in virology started. Several achievements and discoveries, sometimes favored by luck, identified the first virus related to human neoplasia. Epstein's and Pulvertaft's groups succeeded for the first time in growing lymphoid cell lines out of lymphoma tissue [Epstein and Barr, 1964a; Pulvertaft, 1964]; Epstein's group detected herpesvirus-like particles in such cells [Epstein and Barr, 1964b], Werner and Gertrude Henle identified this virus as a new species of the herpesvirus family [Henle and Henle, 1966] and V. Diehl, when working with the Henles, found, when following up the seroconversion of a lab technician, that this new virus, now named after its first observers Epstein-Barr, was the cause of infectious mononucleosis (IM) [Henle et al., 1968]. Pope et al. [1967] were able to demonstrate that virus from IM patients can readily immortalize peripheral B lymphocytes. The newly developed technique of nucleic acid hybridization resolved the puzzle, that many cell lines did not produce any virus or early or late antigens related to viral replication. However, Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) DNA could be regularly demonstrated in DNA from cell lines and tumor biopsies. When sera from patients with nasopharyngeal carcinomas (NPC) were used as control to Burkitt lymphoma and other sera, the regular and dramatically elevated antibody levels to EBV-related antigens suggested a causative involvement of EBV also in this malignancy [Old et al., 1968], where epithelial cells are the proliferative cell type. Is the presence of EBV an epiphenomenon introduced into the tumor tissue by infiltrating lymphocytes, or is it really in the epithelial tumor cells? A refinement of nucleic acid hybridization technique allowing the detection of specific nucleic acid in tissue sections

was developed to answer this question [Wolf et al., 1973]. The linkage of EBV with IM as primary disease and B-cell lymphomas and NPC [Wolf et al., 1973] raised many questions to the molecular biologists, e.g.:

- What does EBV do to the human host?
- How does EBV enter the body and its host cells?
- Why does the presence of efficiently infectable target cells not kill all such cells and produce fatal disease and still ensure spreading of the virus by life-long shedding of EBV?
- How does the immune system control EBV-infected cells?
- How does EBV immortalize and transform its host cells?
- What are the mechanisms permitting persistence of EBV?
- How can we control serious EBV-related diseases?

The number of diseases related to EBV has grown during the years. Whereas the primary infection has a tendency to milder symptoms in younger children, the typical picture is IM with the characteristic features fever, high leukocyte counts (from 20,000 up to 80,000) and sore throat. There is a tendency to more chronic courses lasting several months, in particular for older patients. The reason for rare fatal cases where virus replication has been detected in the liver is unclear [Deutsch et al., 1986].

A clear genetic factor is involved in Duncan syndrome where a locus of the X chromosome determines a fatal outcome of EBV infection [Purtilo et al., 1975; Skare et al., 1987]. 75% of males die from fatal IM, the remainder die from a variety of EBV-related conditions, mostly of B-cell lymphomas; 70% die by 10 years of age, 100% are dead by 40 years.

Whereas so far consequences of primary EBV infection were discussed, oral hairy leukoplakia is a secondary disease related to EBV replication [Greenspan et al., 1985] which occurs in discrete areas of the tongue, due to activation of EBV in maturing epithelial cells

Table 1. Cell proliferation-related conditions

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- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | B-cell lymphoma
– Polyclonal
– Monoclonal: Burkitt's lymphoma |
| 2 | T-cell lymphoma
– AILD angioimmunoblastic lymphadenopathy with dysproteinemia [Weiss et al., 1992]
– Lethal midline granuloma [Harabuchi et al., 1990] |
| 3 | Hodgkin's lymphoma (nodular sclerosing) [Weiss et al., 1987, 1989] |
| 4 | Nasopharyngeal carcinoma |
-

in the absence of an intact cellular immune system [Becker et al., 1991].

More than lytic infection, induction of cellular proliferation is a characteristic feature of EBV. Besides Burkitt's lymphoma, where EBV is present in about 25% of worldwide sporadic cases, it is present in more than 90% of endemic cases in Africa. Because chromosomal translocations involving the *myc* oncogene are invariably present regardless of the EBV status [Taub et al., 1982; Erikson et al., 1982], EBV is seen by many as a favoring rather than in the strict sense causative factor. Considerable speculation has been published to this point [Lenoir and Bornkam, 1987], but the apparently high load of EBV in children, who later develop Burkitt's lymphoma (BL) in Africa [de The et al., 1978] might suggest that EBV gives some additional growth advantage to already immortalized cells or even may be involved in disturbing the chromosomal rearrangement, which through the activity of *myc* alters the immunologic features of the cells and makes them less recognizable by immune mechanisms. The latter function would explain why cells of the BL type have not been established by infection in vitro of EBV-negative peripheral or stem cells, where in vitro class switch in the immunoglobins is usually

not observed. Furthermore, in vitro the right selective pressure by specific T cells is not exerted.

For other neoplastic diseases with EBV association, even less is known on the mechanisms of development (table 1).

For NPC exclusive epidemiological studies suggest a genetic component, possibly related to the HLA family and environmental factors involving ingredients of certain medicinal herbs, volatile nitrosamines from preserved food and low vitamin C content in the diet [Zeng et al., 1988, 1993; Poirier et al., 1988; Lu et al., 1990; Bouvier et al., 1991; Hubert et al., 1993].

How Does EBV Enter Its Host and Its Host Cells?

A usually pleasant event, kissing, is the best established route of infection, although transplantation and blood transfusion are also very efficient in virus transmission, other routes including sexual intercourse are possible, due to demonstration of EBV in vaginal fluid, but are not definitely proven [Sixbey et al., 1986].

For the cellular level we know less about pleasure, but infection of lymphocytes via the cellular receptor CD21 (CR2) for complement C3d ends in an immortalizing liaison [Frade et al., 1985; Nemerow et al., 1987].

Is CD21 mandatory for infection? If not, how can epithelial cells or T cells be infected? EBV-infected B cells entering a lytic cycle for viral replication have been shown to efficiently fuse to a wide variety of cells [Bayliss et al., Wolf, 1980, 1981]. Therefore, the entry problem of EBV into cells does not seem to be a limiting factor. Recently, an IgA-mediated entry via a polymeric IgA receptor on polarized epithelial cells has been described as an additional entry mechanism [Sixbey and Y.

Table 2. Overview of various subsets of latent EBV gene products

Type of latency	Promoter usage	Expressed gene products	Tissue or cell
Lat I	Fp	EBNA1 EBER	Burkitt's lymphoma biopsy and fresh cell lines
Lat II	Fp (LRS)	EBNA1 LMP1, LMP2B LMP2A EBER BARFO transcripts	nasopharyngeal carcinoma
Lat III	Wp < 24 h Cp	EBNA1-6 LMP1, LMP2B LMP2A EBER	lymphoblastoid cell lines passaged Burkitt's lymphoma cell lines
Lat IV	Wp	LMP2A	peripheral blood B lymphocytes

1992]. As EBV-specific IgA antibodies are transiently present upon primary infection, this could in rare events lead to epithelial cell infection. The high IgA antibody levels in NPC patients, however, are a consequence rather than a cause of NPC.

Why Does the Presence of Efficiently Infectable Target Cells Not Kill All Such Cells and Produce Fatal Disease and Still Ensure Spreading of the Virus by Lifelong Shedding of EBV?

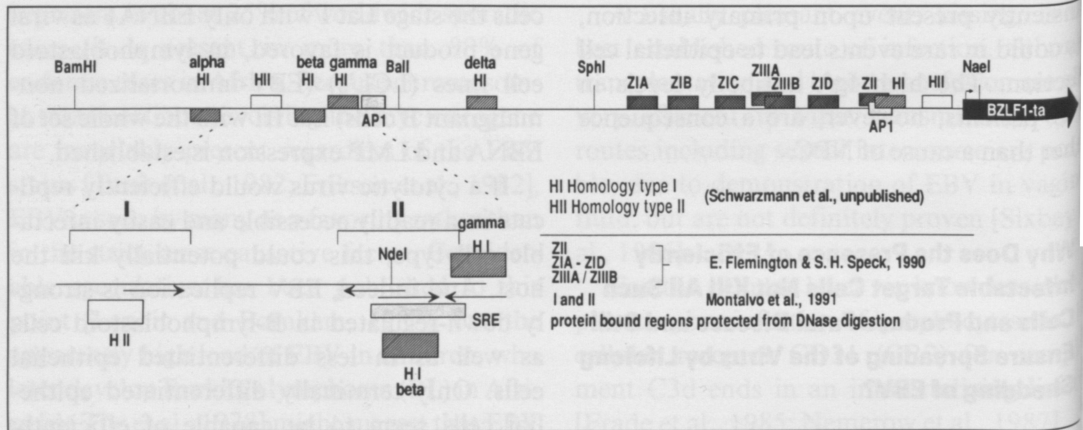
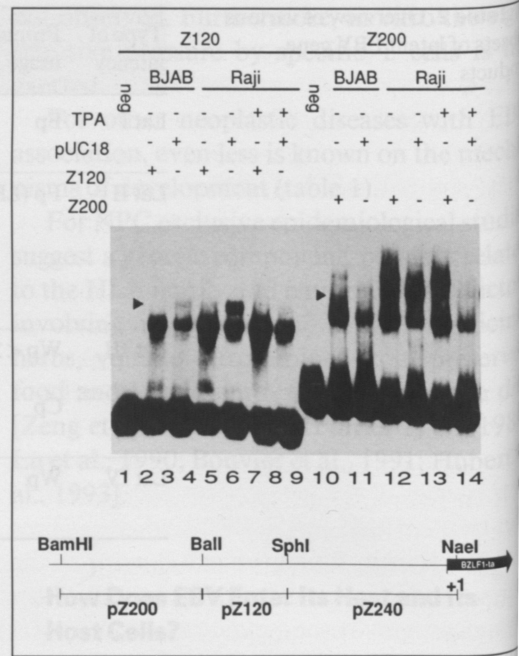
After entry, the virus apparently undergoes limited replication of its DNA [Yates and Juan, 1991]. It persists usually as multiple copies of closed circular DNA. For persistence during cell division the expression of EBNA1 is mandatory. It binds to the BamC origin of plasmid replication (oriP). Furthermore, nuclear matrix attachment regions have been identified [Janklevich et al., 1992]. dependent on the cell type, various subsets of latent EBV gene products are expressed. Ta-

ble 2 gives an overview. Whereas in BL tumor cells the stage Lat I with only EBNA1 as viral gene product is favored, in lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCL's) (EBV-immortalized non-malignant B cells) Lat III with the whole set of EBNA and LMP expression is established.

If a cytolytic virus would efficiently replicate in a readily accessible and easily infectable cell type, this could potentially kill the host. And indeed, EBV replication is strongly down-regulated in B-lymphoblastoid cells as well as in less differentiated epithelial cells. Only terminally differentiated epithelial cells seem to be capable of efficiently supporting the EBV lytic cycle. This can be seen in biopsies from parotid glands [Wilmes and Wolf, 1981; Wolf et al., 1984] and oral hairy leukoplakia [Becker et al., 1991] and is supported by experimental evidence [Marchall et al., 1991]. The mechanisms for this virus host cell interaction are subject of detailed studies.

Transcription of BZLF1, a major immediate early gene of EBV, is negatively controlled by more than one silencer region up-

Fig. 1. a Band shift experiment with subcloned fragments (*Bam*HI/*Ball* = Z200 and *Ball*/*Sph*I = Z120) of the distal BZLF1 promoter. The DNA fragments were incubated with nuclear protein extracts and the resulting protein-DNA complexes analyzed on a native polyacrylamide gel. Competitor DNA was added to identify specific and unspecific binding of proteins. Protein extract from EBV-negative BJAB cells (BL), EBV-positive latently infected Raji- and TPA-treated (EBV replication induced) Raji cells (BL). Specific (Z120, Z200) and unspecific (pUC18) competitor DNA was added as indicated. The arrow indicates a specific protein-DNA complex with both promoter fragments (lanes 3, 5, 10, 12) that does not form in TPA-treated lymphoid cells, where lytic replication of the virus is induced. **b** Drawing of negative and positive regulatory elements in the promoter of BZLF1.



stream of the promoter (fig. 1b). Two types of silencer elements have been identified so far in this region by testing the regulative modules in functional assays [Flemington and Speck, 1990; Montalvo et al., 1991]. A consensus binding site for a negative regulative cellular factor, YY1, has been described [Shi et al., 1991]. We have now found another kind of reg-

ulatory element (HI element, consensus sequence: 5'-(CATN)ACAGAT/GGA-3') in the distal promoter region, which does not directly confer negative regulation of a heterologous promoter but does interfere with flanking positive regulatory sequence motifs [Schwarzmann et al., unpubl.]. Further, we could demonstrate that in this region of the promoter the prote-

binding pattern changes with the ability of EBV to switch to the lytic cycle (fig. 1a).

Even if the transactivator Zta (also termed BZLF1, ZEBRA, Z, EB1) is translated from the BZLF1 reading frame, it is not sufficient in all cells to induce a full lytic cycle. While it does so in BL-type cells and fully differentiated epithelial cells, it is inactive in LCL's. Whereas Zta alone induces lytic proteins in BL cells, it is not able to induce important lytic gene products in LCL's, among them the lytic transactivator Rta (also termed BRLF1, R) [Bogedain et al., unpubl.] (fig. 2, 3). Rta is assumed to be crucial for the onset of the lytic cycle in lymphoid cells (LCL) [Zalani et al., 1992].

For the BSLF2/BMLF1 regulatory upstream region, a silencing function was detected in latently infected B-lymphocytes which was shown to be inefficient in EBV-negative lymphoid and epithelial cells [Marshall et al., 1990]. Using teratocarcinoma cells as an in vitro differentiation model, the down-regulation of EBV promoter activity was demonstrated for unstimulated immature cells, whereas specific transcriptional responses became obvious during proceed-

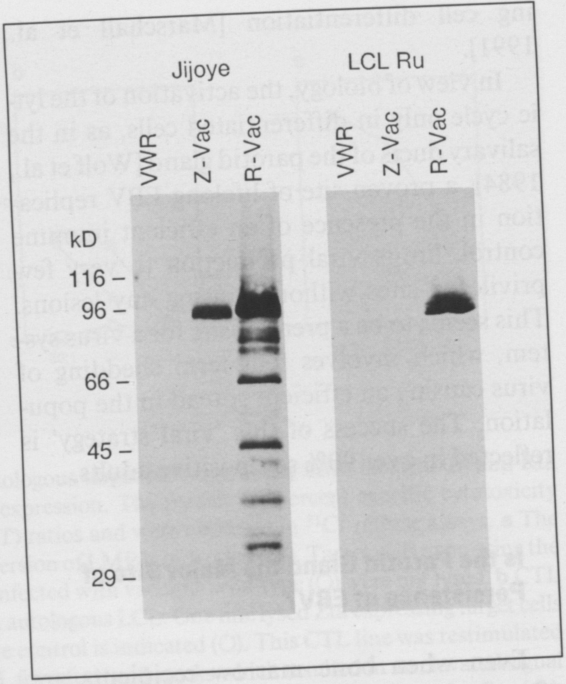
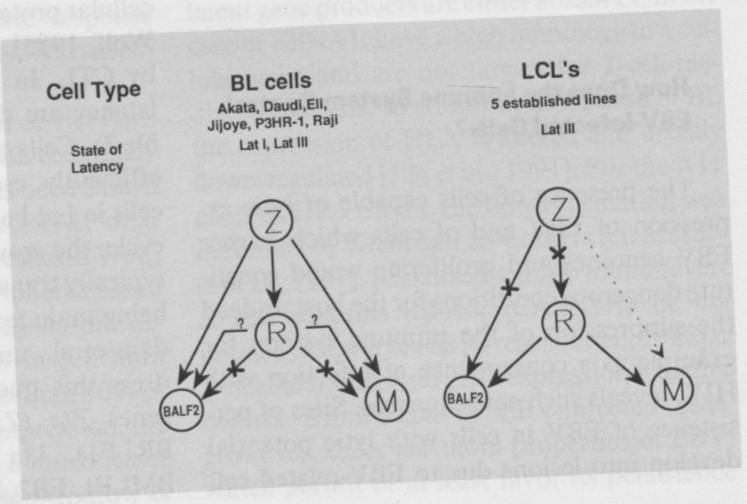


Fig. 2. Western blot analysis of each one BL cell line (e.g. Jijoye) and LCL. The cell lines were infected with vaccinia wild-type (strain WR, VWR), recombinant vaccinia viruses Z-Vac and R-Vac for expression of Zta and Rta, respectively, as given in the figure. Blots were screened for expression of Rta using a polyclonal rabbit antiserum. Rta has a size of 96/92 kD and is induced by Zta in the BL line, but not in the LCL.

Fig. 3. Schematic illustration indicating gene regulation events of the early phase of the lytic cycle in BL cells and LCLs observed following expression of the transactivators Zta and Rta with recombinant vaccinia viruses. The arrows give the activities exerted by the transactivators in Zta (Z) and Rta (R) on the gene products of the reading frames BSLF2/BMLF1 (M) and BALF2 (p138) of the early group.



ing cell differentiation [Marschall et al., 1991].

In view of biology, the activation of the lytic cycle only in differentiated cells, as in the salivary ducts of the parotid gland [Wolf et al., 1984], a proven site of lifelong EBV replication in the presence of an efficient immune control, limits viral production to very few privileged sites without causing any lesions. This seems to be a prerequisite for a virus system, which involves long-term shedding of virus causing an efficient spread in the population. The success of this 'viral strategy' is reflected in over 90% seropositive adults.

Is the Parotid Gland the Major Site of Persistence of EBV?

Even when bone marrow recipients are treated by radiation, oral shedding of virus continues for several months, but eventually declines [Gratama et al., 1988, 1992]. Therefore, one has to assume a dynamic process with the salivary gland being a major site of EBV production and persistence, which needs to be occasionally replenished with virus from lymphoid cells of LCL or possibly memory cell type with their very restricted replication-supporting potential.

How Does the Immune System Control EBV-Infected Cells?

The presence of cells capable of lytic expression of EBV and of cells which harbor EBV genomes and proliferate would constitute dangerous conditions for the host. Indeed the suppression of the immune system, for example as a consequence of infection with HIV, reveals such consequences. Sites of persistence of EBV in cells with lytic potential develop into lesions due to EBV-related cell

lysis (oral hairy leukoplakia) [Greenspan et al., 1985]. LCL-like peripheral blood lymphocytes develop into polyclonal lymphomas which are likely targets for the control through the immune system. Because most EBV positives have no antibodies to the group of early antigens, typically consisting of a group of replication-related enzymes, elimination of cells entering a lytic cycle likely occurs at an earlier phase of the viral life cycle, so early antigens are not synthesized and therefore are not available antigens. Because latently infected cells are not eliminated from the body altogether, these cells seem to follow a common strategy to escape immune control. From the panel of latent antigens (table 2), several of them were identified as targets for cytotoxic T lymphocytes. The long (spliced) version of LMP, which is preferentially expressed in nonmalignant LCL-like cells, is recognized by cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL) [Markert et al., unpubl. data] (fig. 4a). This is in contrast to malignant BL cells, which express the nonimmunogenic (fig. 4a) truncated form [Modrow and Wolf, 1986]. In addition EBNA2, 3a, 3b, and 3c were identified as CTL targets [Murray et al., 1990; Burrows et al., 1990; Gavioli et al., 1992]. However, EBNA1, possibly because of its homology to cellular proteins [Heller et al., 1982; Seibl and Wolf, 1985], was found not to be recognized by CTL. In BL cells several stages of viral latency are defined [Rowe et al., 1987] (table 2). Cells persisting in stage Lat I show efficiently escape immune recognition. Cells in Lat I are able to directly enter the lytic cycle, the group of immediate early proteins, typically transactivators, meet well criteria for being main targets for T-cell response [Bogedain et al., unpubl. data] (fig. 4b, c). To address this question, the lytic transactivator genes Zta (Z, BZLF1, ZEBRA), Rta (BRLF1), I'ta (B'LF4), and M (BSLF1, BMLF1, EB2, MS-EA) have been cloned

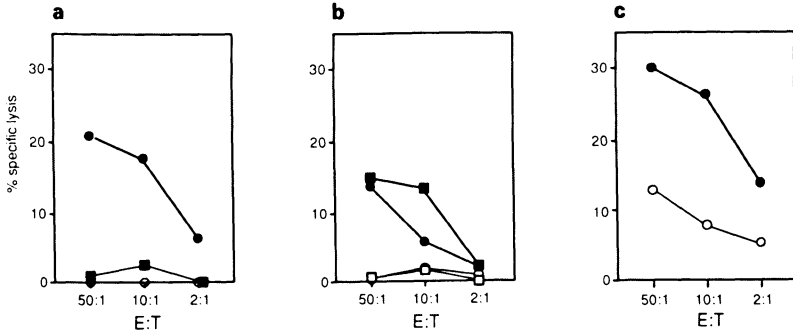


Fig. 4. CTL response against autologous target cells expressing LMP (a), Zta (b) and Rta (c) by recombinant vaccinia virus expression. The results are percent specific cytotoxicity observed at three effector:target (E:T) ratios and were obtained in ^{51}Cr -release assays. **a** The response obtained against the long version of LMP is indicated (●). Target cells expressing the truncated version of LMP (■) and infected with vaccinia wild-type (○) were not lysed. **b** CTL lines were stimulated for weeks with autologous LCL. One line lysed Zta expressing target cells (●). The vaccinia wild-type negative control is indicated (○). This CTL line was restimulated with Z-Vac-infected autologous LCL for a further 2 weeks which resulted in an elevated signal (■). □ = Vaccinia wild-type negative control. **c** CTL response against cells expressing Rta (●). ○ = Vaccinia wild-type negative control.

vaccinia virus and used to infect EBV genome-positive B cells to serve as targets for syngeneic T cells, which have been expanded with IL-2 in the presence of induced and irradiated B cells. A clear cytotoxic response could be seen for the immediate early transactivators Zta and Rta (fig. 4b, c).

The incomplete elimination of carrier lymphocytes of the LCL type and of BL cells likely has more complex reasons. It has been shown that BL cells either do not produce LMP or at most in a truncated form [Modrow and Wolf, 1986]; in addition, certain peripheral blood cells have been identified, which do not express LMP. Furthermore, even in cell lines known to express LMP, only less than 10% of cells show a high level of LMP expression, the rest expresses LMP at most to a much lesser extent [Modrow and Wolf, 1986; Modrow et

al., 1987]. It has been shown by several groups that absence of LMP would allow such cells to escape specific killing [Jilg et al., 1988, 1989; Thorley-Lawson and Israelsohn, 1987]. Other latent gene products are either absent or, in the case of EBNA1, have a high homology to a cellular gene and are not targets for T-cell-mediated cell lysis. In addition, in the case of BL the expression of HLA is altered and usually down-regulated [Jilg et al., 1991]. For the A11 allele of HLA class I, the down-regulation was described by Klein and co-workers [cf. Masucci et al., 1987]. Rickinson's group found several cell adhesins (LFA3, ICAM1) to be expressed at lower levels [Gregory et al., 1988].

Cellular and viral gene expression together control elimination of EBV-infected cells. However, there are more properties of EBV, which permit or at least favor its persistence

Table 3. Properties of EBV: mechanisms important during establishment of persistence

- 1 EBNA1 is not immunogenic (related to host protein) [Seibl and Wolf, 1985; Heller et al., 1982]
- 2 LMP1 absent or truncated in BL cells [Modrow and Wolf, 1986]
- 3 Burkitt's lymphoma cells (not a direct effect of EBV): down-regulation of:
 - HLA class II [Masucci et al., 1987]
 - HLA class I [Jilg et al., 1991]
 - LFA3, ICAM1 [Gregory et al. 1988]
- 4 BCRF1 gene product has homology to IL-10: block of IL-2 and IFN- γ [Hsu et al., 1990] Enhancement of CTL and NK cells [Stewart and Rooney, 1992]
- 5 EBER transcripts inhibit IFN-induced 'ds-RNA activatable phosphokinase' (p68) [Clarke et al., 1990]
- 6 EBNA2 blocks induction of IFN
- 7 a) LMP1 induces cellular bcl2: suppression of apoptosis [Henderson et al., 1991]
b) BHRF1 homology to bcl2: suppression of apoptosis? [Reed et al., 1989; Lee and Yates, 1992]
- 8 Virus production in privileged sites [Sixbey et al., 1986; Wolf et al., 1984; Greenspan et al., 1985; Becker et al., 1991]

in the host. These additional mechanisms (table 3) might be particularly important during the establishment of infection where unspecific defense mechanisms of the host, such as interferons [Clarke et al., 1990], could otherwise result in fast and complete clearance of infecting EBV from the receiving organism already at the primary target organ, the tonsils [Wilmes and Wolf, 1987]. Some similar 'viral strategies' have been suspected for other viruses. The abundant virus-associated transcripts of adenoviruses for example may as well block interferon, permitting adenoviruses to persist in adenoids and elsewhere in the human body.

How Does EBV Immortalize and Transform Its Host Cells?

Little is known about the immortalizing activity of EBV. LMP has been shown to change growth behavior of rodent cells [Walton et al., 1985]. Experiments with human cells did induce reduced serum dependence when transfected into type I BL cells [Henderson et al., 1991]. In BL this gene is usually not expressed. The same is true for EBNA1 which has interesting transactivating properties including activation of bcl2 [Henderson et al., 1991], which blocks apoptosis, and CD23, the low-affinity IgE receptor. It will have to be tested whether strong viral transactivators such as BZLF1 in analogy to adenovirus E1A could play a much more important role than presently appreciated. The observation that BZLF1 might be transcribed and translated in NPC biopsies by Patton et al. [1990] might point in that direction.

Even though there is quite a way to go before we have a coherent picture of even the most prominent activities of EBV, we have to do our best to control the most important EBV-related diseases.

Of special interest is IM, the second most frequent disease of young adults (numbers available only for the US and Denmark) [Evans and Niedermann, 1989].

Increasing attention is directed to cases of virus activation in transplant recipients where as many as 23% of apparent cases of rejection crisis may be caused by CMV and EBV rather than by tissue incompatibility. Although the numbers may be relatively low, the fatal outcome of EBV infection in patients with X-linked immunodeficiency is an urgent problem when EBV infection needs to be excluded or controlled. Of course, the control of EBV-related malignancies, such as NPC, is a long-term goal. It will also and finally clarify the causal relationship of EBV with these neoplasias.

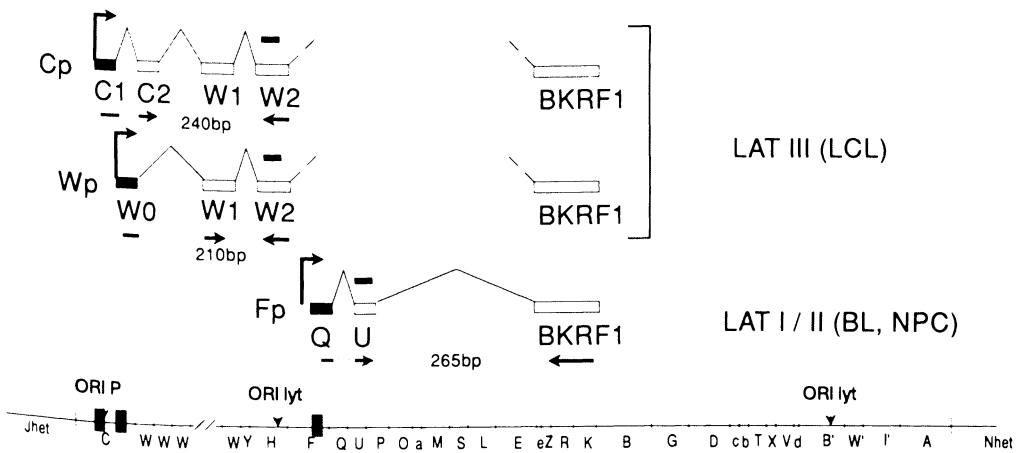


Fig. 5. Drawing of the different promoters used for expression of latent EBNA genes. Detection of these transcripts is possible by RNA-PCR with 5'-upstream primers that are specific for the first exons C1, W0 and F/Q [Kerr et al., 1992]. All three promoters splice to the same coding exon for EBNA1 in the *Bam*HK fragment up to 100 kbp downstream. Promoters Cp and Wp are giving rise to all latent EBNA transcripts (LAT III) whereas the Fp promoter only enables EBNA1 transcription (LAT I).

In definable high risk groups a vaccine may be highly desirable. For other conditions, precise early diagnosis followed by specific therapy will be the way to go. For transplant recipients this becomes quite evident. Considerable evidence suggests that even antiviral therapy at optimal doses might not be good enough to control a virus-induced rejection crisis; additional substitution with specific immunoglobulins has been described as a successful procedure. Whether a similar procedure would help persons susceptible to XLP is yet unclear.

Early diagnosis alone has been proven to be very successful in areas with extremely high levels of NPC. Rather than detecting 2 and 25% of cases in stages 1 or 2, serological controls using detection of IgA antibodies to early antigen has pushed these numbers to 40 and 45%, respectively [Zeng et al., 1988,

1993]. In combination with conventional radiation therapy, early detection dramatically decreases the death toll of NPC patients. More efficient test systems based on recombinant proteins facilitate this approach and allow better diagnosis of acute infection [Wolf et al., 1985; Gorgievski-Hrisoho et al., 1990]. For lymphomas, clonality and type of proliferating cells are of major importance, whereas clonality of virus can be tested via Southern blots using restriction enzymes, which cut once in the terminal repeats and hybridize with appropriate probes [Raab-Traub and Flynn, 1986]. A definition of cell types might be very useful. The restricted transcription pattern and promoter usage of the EBNA gene family is of particular interest in this context (fig. 5). For Hodgkin's lymphomas, in situ hybridization with EBER

probes are used increasingly often [Pallesen et al., 1991].

A vaccine is also in sight now. After extensive work with virus-derived antigens in an experimental infection system [Shope et al., 1973; Werner et al., 1975; Wolf et al., 1975] by Epstein, conducted by Morgan and co-workers [cf. Epstein et al., 1985], the first human vaccine trial gave very encouraging results [Gu et al., 1993]. The study was performed in China, where only 10–20% of 1-year-old, but 90% of 3-year-old infants are positive for EBV due to natural routes of infection. This is an excellent condition for evaluation of efficacy for induction of immunity by a vaccine. Two candidate vaccines for human use have been developed by our group: one is based on purified major membrane protein gp 350/250 (BLLF1 MA) secreted from transfected Chinese hamster ovary cells [Motz et al., 1987]. After the sequence encoding the membrane anchor of MA has

been genetically removed. The viral gene was stably integrated into the Chinese hamster ovary cells via a transfer vector with dihydrofolate reductase as a selective marker. The other vaccine uses recombinant vaccinia virus (strain Tien Tan), which expresses under the 11k vaccinia promoter the same viral membrane antigen, in this case including the membrane anchor. Other vector systems used included yeast with discouraging results, vaccinia virus, baculovirus and other vaccinia-based constructs not approved for human use. The latter life vaccine is already under evaluation for efficacy in China. 60% of vaccinated children have been protected after the first months from EBV infection, all control children were infected with EBV through natural routes, as detected by appearance of antibodies to EA and VCA. Further studies using the purified antigen will follow to identify the least harmful but most effective vaccine.

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