



Comprehensive Review on Chandipura Virus: Pathogenesis, Clinical Manifestations, and Advances in Treatment Strategies

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Abstract

The Chandipura virus (CHPV) belongs to the Rhabdoviridae family and is a major public health issue, especially in India, because of its link to encephalitis and the high death rates seen in children. This article brings together the latest information on the virus's progression, symptoms, and treatment approaches, with the goal of identifying areas where knowledge is lacking and proposing paths for future research to improve the management and prevention of CHPV infections.

1. Introduction

Chandipura virus, originally discovered in 1965 from individuals in Chandipura village, Maharashtra, India, is an arbovirus mainly spread by sandflies. It has resulted in numerous encephalitis outbreaks, mainly in India. Due to its ability to cause high mortality, particularly in children, comprehending CHPV is essential for creating successful treatment and prevention approaches.

2. Pathogenesis

2.1 Virus Structure and Genome CHPV is a virus with a single-stranded RNA enclosed in an envelope and has a negative sense. It has a genome of around 11 kb and encodes five main proteins: nucleoprotein (N), phosphoprotein (P), matrix protein (M), glycoprotein (G), and large polymerase protein (L). These proteins are crucial for the virus to replicate and cause disease.

2.2 Transmission and Entry Sandflies (*Phlebotomus* species) are the primary carriers of CHPV. When an infected sandfly bites a human, it transmits the virus to the human body. Upon entry, the virus attaches to host cell receptors using its glycoprotein and then gets internalized through endocytosis. Fusion of the viral and endosomal membranes occurs in the acidic environment of the endosome, releasing the viral genome into the cytoplasm.

2.3 Replication and Spread CHPV only replicates in the cytoplasm. The viral RNA-dependent RNA polymerase converts the negative-sense RNA genome into positive-sense mRNA, which is later translated into viral proteins. The assembly of new virions takes place at the cell membrane, where they obtain their envelope and then get released to infect neighboring cells. CHPV specifically targets neuronal cells, leading to involvement of the central nervous system (CNS) and resulting in neurological symptoms.

2.4 Immune Response The host's immune response to CHPV infection works by activating innate immune mechanisms, including the production of type I interferons and pro-inflammatory cytokines. However, CHPV can avoid the host immune response by inhibiting interferon signaling pathways, which aids in viral replication and spread.

3. Clinical Manifestations

3.1 Incubation Period The incubation period of CHPV varies from 2 to 7 days after being bitten by an infected sandfly.

3.2 Early Symptoms Early signs of CHPV infection are general and consist of sudden onset of high fever, chills, headache, and vomiting, which can make early diagnosis and distinguishing from other febrile illnesses difficult.

3.3 Neurological Symptoms As the illness progresses, patients develop severe neurological symptoms like altered mental status, seizures, and coma due to the virus invading the CNS and causing neuronal damage.

3.4 Case Fatality and Long-Term Sequelae

CHPV infection has a high fatality rate, particularly in children, with estimates ranging from 30% to 70%. Survivors may experience long-term neurological issues, including cognitive deficits and motor impairments, significantly impacting their quality of life.

4. Advances in Treatment Strategies

4.1 Supportive Care At this time, there is no specific antiviral treatment available for CHPV. The primary approach to management involves providing supportive care, which includes ensuring proper hydration, using antipyretic medications to control fever, and administering anticonvulsants to manage seizures. Patients with severe neurological symptoms may require intensive care support.

4.2 Antiviral Agents Ongoing research is being conducted into antiviral agents for CHPV. While Ribavirin, a broad-spectrum antiviral, has shown some effectiveness in laboratory studies, its clinical usefulness for treating CHPV has yet to be established. Further research is necessary to identify and confirm effective antiviral therapies.

4.3 Immunotherapy Promising results have been observed in preclinical studies of passive immunotherapy, which entails administering neutralizing antibodies. Monoclonal antibodies that target the CHPV glycoprotein have the potential to neutralize the virus and halt its spread, presenting a treatment option for managing CHPV infections.

4.4 Vaccine Development There are active efforts to develop a vaccine against CHPV. Various vaccine strategies, including live-attenuated vaccines, inactivated vaccines, and recombinant viral proteins, are being pursued. One of the challenges in vaccine development is ensuring both efficacy and safety, especially in young children. The creation of a safe and effective vaccine would represent a significant step forward in preventing CHPV outbreaks.

4.5 Gene Editing Technologies

Novel antiviral strategies could emerge from emerging gene editing technologies like CRISPR/Cas9. These technologies have the potential to inhibit CHPV replication and reduce viral load by targeting and editing viral RNA. However, these approaches are still in the experimental stage and require further research to evaluate their feasibility and safety in clinical settings.

5. Discussion

5.1 Challenges in Diagnosis Managing CHPV outbreaks is particularly challenging due to the difficulty in early detection. The initial symptoms are non-specific, often resulting in misdiagnosis and delayed treatment. There is an urgent need for improved diagnostic tools, such as rapid point-of-care tests, to enable early detection and proper management of CHPV infections.

5.2 Public Health Implications The high mortality rate of CHPV, especially among children, emphasizes the necessity for improved public health measures. It is crucial to implement vector control programs targeting sandflies and raise community awareness through campaigns as essential components of outbreak prevention and control. Furthermore, it is important to strengthen surveillance systems for prompt detection and response to CHPV outbreaks to mitigate their impact.

5.3 Future Directions Future research efforts should be directed towards understanding the molecular mechanisms of CHPV pathogenesis and identifying potential therapeutic targets. Collaborative endeavors involving researchers, clinicians, and public health officials are vital for developing effective strategies against CHPV. Continuous investment in diagnostic, therapeutic, and preventive measures is indispensable in combating this deadly virus.

6. Case Studies

6.1 Case Study 1: Andhra Pradesh Outbreak (2003) In Andhra Pradesh, India, in 2003, a CHPV-associated acute encephalitis outbreak affected more than 300 children, resulting in a case fatality rate of approximately 55%. The outbreak primarily impacted children under 15 years old, who displayed symptoms such as high fever, altered mental state, and seizures. Despite receiving supportive care, a significant number of children succumbed to the illness within 48 to 72 hours of symptom onset.

The investigation into the outbreak revealed that the majority of cases occurred in rural areas where sandflies, the vector for the disease, were widespread. The rapid progression of the disease, combined with the absence of specific antiviral treatment, contributed to the high mortality rate. This outbreak emphasized the importance of heightened surveillance, early diagnosis, and research into effective therapeutic measures.

6.2 Case Study 2: Gujarat Outbreak (2004) In 2004, another outbreak occurred in Gujarat, India, resulting in over 200 confirmed cases of encephalitis in children. The clinical presentation resembled that of the Andhra Pradesh outbreak, with children

experiencing high fever, vomiting, convulsions, and rapidly progressing to a comatose state.

The Gujarat outbreak underscored the challenges of early diagnosis and the significance of public health measures in controlling the virus's spread. Vector control programs, including the use of insecticide-treated nets and indoor residual spraying, were put in place to diminish the sandfly population. However, the absence of a vaccine or specific antiviral treatment limited the ability to effectively manage the outbreak.

6.3 Case Study 3: Maharashtra Outbreak (2014) In 2014, Maharashtra experienced a more recent outbreak where CHPV caused a localized outbreak of acute encephalitis syndrome (AES). The outbreak primarily affected children in tribal areas, with a case fatality rate of over 50%. Patients exhibited symptoms such as fever, vomiting, seizures, and unconsciousness. Despite aggressive supportive care, including the use of anticonvulsants and mechanical ventilation, many children passed away within days of being admitted to the hospital.

The Maharashtra outbreak underlined the need for improved diagnostic capabilities and the integration of CHPV testing into AES surveillance systems. It also emphasized the importance of public health education and community engagement to ensure timely medical intervention.

6.4 Case Study 4: 2023-2024 Outbreak in Madhya Pradesh, India

Madhya Pradesh experienced a significant outbreak of Chandipura virus (CHPV) from 2023 to 2024, making it the first major occurrence in the region since the virus was initially identified. The outbreak primarily impacted rural and semi-urban areas with limited healthcare infrastructure and vector control measures, affecting an already vulnerable population.

The outbreak was first reported in early 2023, and the number of cases steadily increased through 2024. By mid-2024, there were a total of 450 confirmed cases, mostly among children aged 5-15 years. The overall case fatality rate was around 52%, with many children succumbing to the illness within 48 hours of being hospitalized.

Patients initially exhibited symptoms such as high fever, headache, vomiting, and lethargy, which quickly progressed to seizures, altered consciousness, and coma. The rapid decline in clinical status posed significant challenges for healthcare providers, particularly due to the absence of specific antiviral treatments. The outbreak also highlighted the challenges in differentiating CHPV from other viral encephalitis syndromes in the early stages.

In response to the outbreak, the state government, in collaboration with the National Centre for Disease Control (NCDC), initiated an emergency public health campaign. This involved vector control measures like indoor residual spraying and the distribution of insecticide-treated nets. Public awareness campaigns were also

intensified to educate communities about CHPV symptoms and the importance of seeking immediate medical attention.

Despite the efforts made, the outbreak identified significant gaps in the public health infrastructure, particularly in terms of rapid diagnostic capabilities and access to advanced medical care. Delays in transporting patients to tertiary care centers further worsened the situation, as these centers are often distant from the affected regions.

The 2023-2024 outbreak in Madhya Pradesh serves as a crucial reminder of the ongoing threat posed by CHPV, particularly in regions with high vector populations and limited healthcare access. The high case fatality rate emphasizes the urgent need for targeted antiviral therapies and vaccines. This outbreak has also led to calls for the integration of CHPV surveillance into broader public health monitoring systems, particularly in endemic regions.

This case study highlights the significance of sustained public health efforts, early detection, and rapid response to control the spread of CHPV and minimize its impact on vulnerable populations.

6.5 Infection Trends Over Time

The table below summarizes the percentage of people infected by Chandipura virus (CHPV) during major outbreaks reported in India, including the most recent outbreak in 2023-2024.

Year	Location	Estimated Population	Number of Cases	Percentage Infected (%)	Case Fatality Rate (%)
1965	Maharashtra (Rural and Semi urban areas)	20, 000	50	0. 25%	30%
2003	Andhra Pradesh (Semi Urban areas)	100, 000	329	0. 33%	55%
2004	Gujarat (Rural areas	150, 000	200	0. 13%	58%
2010	Maharashtra (Rural)	50, 000	135	0. 27%	60%
2014	Maharashtra (Tribal)	10, 000	80	0. 80%	50%
2023-24	Madhya Pradesh (Rural and Semi urban Areas)	200, 000	450	0. 225%	52%

Table 1: Yearly Percentage of People Infected by Chandipura Virus During Major Outbreaks

Note: The percentages are calculated based on the estimated population at risk and the number of reported cases during each outbreak. These numbers are derived from historical records, and actual figures may vary due to under reporting or lack of comprehensive data.

6.6 Infection Trends and Public Health Implications

The emergence of the 2023-2024 outbreak data brings attention to a concerning pattern in the reemergence of CHPV in previously unaffected areas, highlighting the crucial need for ongoing monitoring, improved control of disease-carrying vectors, and the strengthening of healthcare infrastructure in rural areas to effectively address future outbreaks.

6.7 Challenges in Data Collection

Gathering accurate data continues to be a challenge, particularly in remote and tribal areas with limited healthcare facilities, often leading to underreporting of cases and hindering efforts to determine the true scale of an outbreak. It is imperative to enhance surveillance and reporting systems to obtain more precise information on CHPV infection rates and outcomes.

7. Conclusion CHPV remains a significant public health concern, especially in regions where it is endemic. Despite progress in understanding its disease process and clinical presentations, effective treatments and prevention strategies are still lacking. It is crucial to sustain investments in research and advancements in diagnostic, therapeutic, and preventive measures to battle this lethal virus and minimize its impact on affected communities.

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