



Monkey Pox: What We Need to Know

Aamir Shafi^{1*}, Ab Ahad Wani², Jawhar Ul Islam¹ and Khibrat Peerzada³

¹Registrar, Department of General Medicine, SKIMS Medical College Hospital, Bemina, Srinagar, India

²Assistant Professor, Department of General Medicine, SKIMS Medical College Hospital, Bemina, Srinagar, India

³Junior Resident, Department of General Medicine, SKIMS Medical College Hospital, Bemina, Srinagar, India

*Corresponding Author: Aamir Shafi, Registrar, Department of General Medicine, SKIMS Medical College Hospital, Bemina, Srinagar, India.

DOI: 10.31080/ASMI.2022.05.1095

Received: June 01, 2022

Published: June 15, 2022

© All rights are reserved by Aamir Shafi, et al.

Abstract

Monkey pox (MP) is a zoonotic orthopox viral infectious disease clinically resembling Small pox but with lesser mortality. First discovered in 1958 in monkeys, the first human infection was documented in 1970. Recently cases have been seen rising in west Europe and North America although in small numbers. India is yet to confirm any case of Monkey pox although many suspects are under surveillance. This review article provides a comprehensive update on how we should be prepared for this emerging viral infection.

Keywords: Monkey Pox; Zoonotic Disease; Ankara Vaccine

Abbreviations

CDC: Centre for Disease Control; PCR: Polymerase Chain Reaction; MP: Monkey Pox

Introduction

Monkey pox virus is a zoonotic orthopox virus which causes human infection similar to small pox however it has lower mortality and contagiousity as compared to small pox. It is endemic in western and central Africa with outbreaks in western hemisphere due to pet trade and international travel. It was first isolated in 1958 when monkeys shifted from Singapore to Denmark developed illness [1].

The first confirmed case was isolated from child in the republic of Congo in 1970 [2]. Eradication of small pox and subsequent lack

of vaccination provided gateway for monkey pox [3]. In addition there was a lot of under reporting because most cases occurred in rural Africa leading to patient underestimation infected with the virus [4].

Etiology

The virus belongs to family poxviridae subfamily chordopoxvirinae genus Orthopox virus species Monkeypox virus. The virus measures 200-250 nm on electron microscopy and is brick shaped with dsDNA genome [5,7].

Epidemiology

This virus was first identified in captive monkeys with African rodents as natural reservoir. Infections have occurred in squirrels, rats, mice, monkeys, dogs and humans [4,8]. Two genetically dis-

tinct clads have been identified. First one is Congobasin (Central African clade) and second one is West African clade [4]. In 2003 Gambian rats imported from Ghana infected co-inhabitant dogs in Midwest US leading to 53 human cases of Monkey Pox [9].

In May 2021 a family returned to UK from Nigeria and three members became infected with monkey pox virus [12]. As of May 2022 twenty cases of Monkey pox virus have been confirmed in England, Spain has reported 23 potential but unconfirmed cases and Portugal has confirmed 5 out of its 20 suspected cases. In the United States also one case has been confirmed [13,14]. India is yet to confirm any case of monkey pox though some suspects are under surveillance.

Risk factors

Persons living in densely forested and rural areas of central and west Africa which prepare bush meat are prone to develop monkey pox [15]. In addition caregivers for infected monkeys and lack of vaccination also predispose to infection. It is transmitted by contact with body fluids, skin lesions, respiratory droplets of infected animals and directly or indirectly through contaminated fomites. Human to human transmission occurs due to lack of herd immunity. CDC recommends isolation of infected persons in negative pressure rooms in addition to standard droplet and air-borne precautions [17].

Pathogenesis

After inoculation the virus makes its entry into the lymph nodes followed by seeding of other organs leading to a spectrum of symptoms in the form of fever, lymph node enlargement followed by appearance of lesions which start in the oropharynx and then involve skin including palms and soles.

Evaluation

Patient should be asked about history of recent travel, interaction with wild animals imported from endemic areas and providing care to infected animals. Clinical examination should focus on fever, headache, fatigue and lymphadenopathy. The lesions number from few to thousands and these evolve over a period of 2-4 weeks from macules to crusts [20]. Presence of lymphadenopathy is a characteristic finding which differentiates it from smallpox.

Diagnosis

The diagnosis is confirmed by isolation of viral DNA by PCR. Presence of lymphadenopathy is classical of monkey pox. So pa-

tients with such finding should be deemed appropriate for visualization of virus by PCR or electron microscopy. Other tests include immunohistochemical staining for viral antigen, IgM antibodies (acute infection) and IgG antibodies (past infection/vaccination) [19].

Treatment

Treatment is usually supportive. Infection can be prevented by isolating the patient, wearing of facemask and keeping the lesions covered until crust formation occurs and new skin layer is formed.

In severe cases antiviral agents like Brincidofovir, an oral DNA polymerase inhibitor is used. Another agent Tecovirimat, an intercellular viral release inhibitor is also used. Post-exposure vaccination prophylaxis by giving Ankara vaccine is recommended. If vaccine is given within 4 days of exposure disease onset can be prevented and if given within 14 days disease severity can be reduced [16,21].

Prognosis

West African clade has favorable prognosis with a case fatality rate of <1% while as central basin clade is relatively lethal with a case fatality rate of around 11%. Clinical recovery occurs fully within 4 weeks of disease onset and some patients are left with permanent scarring of the lesions [4].

Complications

The complications include bacterial super-infection, permanent skin scarring, hyperpigmentation/hypopigmentation, corneal scarring, pneumonia, sepsis, encephalitis and death.

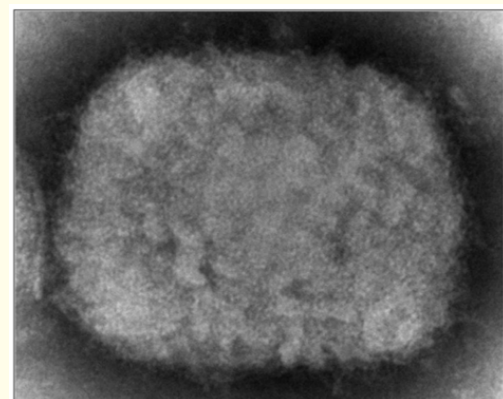


Figure 1: Poxvirus under electron microscopy.



Figure 2: Monkeypox lesions on palms.



Figure 3: Maculopapular lesions over forearm.



Figure 4: Monkeypox lesions on hands.

Conclusion

Education of patients and healthcare workers is of significant importance in endemic regions of world. Historically monkey pox virus has limited ability for human to human spread. However due to waning population of people vaccinated against small pox provides a gateway for insurgence of human monkey pox. The small pox vaccine has an efficacy of 85% in preventing monkey pox which provides a ray of hope in controlling the infection in case the need arises.

Source of Funding

Nil.

Conflict of Interest

Nil.

Acknowledgement

Dedicated to all Health care workers.

Bibliography

1. Cho CT and Wenner HA. "Monkeypox virus". *Bacteriological Reviews* 37.1 (1973): 1-18.
2. Ladnyj ID, et al. "A human infection caused by monkeypox virus in Basankusu Territory, Democratic Republic of the Congo". *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 46.5 (1972): 593-597.
3. Nguyen PY, et al. "Reemergence of Human Monkeypox and Declining Population Immunity in the Context of Urbanization, Nigeria, 2017-2020". *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 27.4 (2021).
4. Sklenovská N and Van Ranst M. "Emergence of Monkeypox as the Most Important Orthopoxvirus Infection in Humans". *Frontiers in Public Health* 6 (2018): 241.
5. Alakunle E., et al. "Monkeypox Virus in Nigeria: Infection Biology, Epidemiology, and Evolution". *Viruses* 12.11 (2020).
6. Kugelman JR., et al. "Genomic variability of monkeypox virus among humans, Democratic Republic of the Congo". *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 20.2 (2014): 232-239.
7. Walsh D. "Poxviruses: Slipping and sliding through transcription and translation". *PLoS Pathogen* 13.11 (2017): e1006634.

8. "Monkeypox". *Weekly Epidemiological Record* 86.41 (2007): 448-51.
9. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). "Multistate outbreak of monkeypox--Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin, 2003". *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 52.23 (2003): 537-540.
10. Erez N., *et al.* "Diagnosis of Imported Monkeypox, Israel, 2018". *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 25.5 (2019): 980-983.
11. Yong SEF, *et al.* "Imported Monkeypox, Singapore". *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 26.8 (2020): 1826-1830.
12. Hobson G., *et al.* "Family cluster of three cases of monkeypox imported from Nigeria to the United Kingdom, May 2021". *Euro Surveillance* 26.32 (2021).
13. Rao AK, *et al.* "Monkeypox in a Traveler Returning from Nigeria - Dallas, Texas, July 2021". *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 71.14 (2022): 509-516.
14. Costello V, *et al.* "Imported Monkeypox from International Traveler, Maryland, USA, 2021". *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 28.5 (2022): 1002-1005.
15. Rimoin AW, *et al.* "Major increase in human monkeypox incidence 30 years after smallpox vaccination". (2010).
16. Kabamba J, *et al.* "Vaccinating against monkeypox in the Democratic Republic of the Congo". *Antiviral Research* 162 (2019): 171-177.
17. Grant R, *et al.* "Modelling human-to-human transmission of monkeypox". *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 98.9 (2020): 638-640.
18. Hutson CL, *et al.* "Comparison of Monkeypox Virus Clade Kinetics and Pathology within the Prairie Dog Animal Model Using a Serial Sacrifice Study Design". *Biomed Research International* 2015 (2015): 965710.
19. McCollum AM and Damon IK. "Human monkeypox". *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 58.2 (2014): 260-267.
20. Weaver JR and Isaacs SN. "Monkeypox virus and insights into its immunomodulatory proteins". *Immunology Review* 225 (2008): 96-113.
21. Hussey HS, *et al.* "Varicella zoster virus-associated morbidity and mortality in Africa: a systematic review protocol". *BMJ Open* 6.4 (2016): e010213.