Monkeypox is a zoonotic infection caused by monkeypox virus (MPXV), belonging to the Orthopoxvirus genus of the Poxviridae family. Monkeypox outbreaks have historically been described mainly in central and west Africa (1). Cases outside Africa are rare and, until 2022, consisted mostly of imported cases, patients’ household contacts, and, in some cases, nosocomial infections (2,3). One outbreak in 2003 outside Africa was linked to importing exotic pets (4).

In May 2022, a multinational monkeypox outbreak surfaced; cases were reported from Europe, the Americas, Israel, and Australia. Compared with those in previous outbreaks, these reported patients show a different clinical manifestation of localized rashes and mucosal lesions predominantly in the genital area. Common systemic symptoms included fever and lymphadenopathy. The cases clustered in men who have sex with men (5).

We report a monkeypox case detected in Sweden during the multinational outbreak, focusing on the clinical symptoms, microbial diagnostic findings, and viral kinetics in different sample types over time. Moreover, we report a fast and robust bioinformatics analysis of sequencing data for characterizing cases. We obtained consent from the patient for our study.

The Study
The patient, a previously healthy man with no history of smallpox vaccination, first noticed an inguinal swelling (day 0). The next day, he observed a small skin change on his foreskin, progressing over the next days to a deeper, well-circumscribed lesion with local lymphadenopathy. Fever developed on day 5 and 6, peaking at 39°C. One week after symptom onset, the patient sought care at an outpatient clinic. By then, the fever had subsided. No new lesions appeared. He reported a history of receiving oral sex from several male partners within the 3 weeks before symptom onset. At a follow-up visit on day 11, the lesion had increased in size to 2 cm in diameter. Microbiologic analyses for herpes simplex virus, syphilis, and Haemophilus ducreyi returned negative results; because of reports of monkeypox cases in Europe manifesting as unusual genital skin lesions, we initiated analysis for MPXV at the Public Health Agency of Sweden. We performed real-time PCRs for orthopoxvirus DNA and MPXV DNA on the genital lesion swab; results were positive and confirmed by Sanger sequencing of an orthopoxvirus PCR product.

The genital lesion slowly healed but with increasing local lymphadenopathy; on day 25, the patient had a ruptured local lymph node with discharge. At a follow-up visit on day 53, the patient was feeling
well but still had enlarged lymph nodes. The original genital lesion had diminished to 5 mm in diameter and bled slightly when touched. The wound from the ruptured lymph node had healed.

We took repeated samples from the patient during the 10-week follow-up period from the genital lesion, the ruptured local lymph node, urine, semen, blood and the respiratory tract. We detected MPXV DNA in most samples (Figure 1; Appendix Table 1, https://wwwnc.cdc.gov/EID/article/28/10/22-1107-App1.pdf). Although tests of all genital samples were initially positive, all showed a rapid decline in viral DNA content. Of note, MPXV DNA was detected in swabs from the ruptured lymph node 40 days after symptom onset, in semen and saliva after 54 days, and in saliva after 76 days (Figure 1; Appendix Table 1).

We performed electron microscopy on skin lesion material and observed viral particles characteristic for orthopoxviruses (Appendix Figure). The particles were 220–450-nm long and 140–260-nm wide. We extracted DNA from the first genital-
lesion sample and subjected it to metagenomics sequencing using both short-read and long-read technologies. We reconstructed the viral genome from metagenomics data using a long-read first assembly approach. In brief, reads were cleaned from human sequences using Kraken 2 (https://github.com/DerrickWood/kraken2), followed by assembly of the nanopore reads using FLYE (http://github.com/fenderglass/FLYE), resulting in a single contig representing MPXV. The contig was polished using medaka (https://github.com/nanoporetech/medaka) for the long reads and then nEdit (https://github.com/bcgsc/ntedit) for the short reads, which produced a nearly complete genome sequence. We compared this genome sequence by whole-genome alignment and tree construction using publicly available sequences (Appendix). The analysis suggested that the case virus belongs to the West Africa clade. Furthermore, the case is closely related with sequences reported from the current outbreak; genome alignment using ViralMSA (https://github.com/niemads/ViralMSA) showed a single-nucleotide polymorphism distance of 4 nt (Figure 2).

Conclusions
As of August 2022, the multinational monkeypox outbreak is still unfolding; new cases are being reported in an increasing number of countries. Many aspects of monkeypox infection in the ongoing outbreak differ from previous endemic and imported monkeypox cases, including clinical manifestations and route of transmission (6,7). The new aspects of the infection have implications for clinical case management and behavioral recommendations for the patient, infection control measures, and public health. More knowledge is urgently needed to control the outbreak at an early stage and prevent virus transmission in previously non-monkeypox-endemic regions.

This report highlights several aspects of monkeypox as an emerging infectious disease. First, the case manifested as a single genital lesion accompanied by enlarged local lymph nodes, leading to lymph node rupture. The appearance of localized genital lesions was consistent with recent reports from other countries in Europe (8) and clearly demonstrated an alternative clinical manifestation of the strain of MPXV associated with the 2022 multinational outbreak, causing localized lesions rather than the classic generalized rash or vesicles spread over the body. Lymph node rupture is an unusual manifestation.

Second, we presented viral kinetics in different sample materials over time and show that, despite the localized lesion in this patient, viral DNA could also be found in urine, blood, and the respiratory tract. So far, this type of data has been published for few cases (9) within the current multinational outbreak, connected to sexual transmission of MPXV, but this finding is consistent with previous reports from classical monkeypox imported from Africa (2). The persistent detection of MPXV DNA in samples from semen and the respiratory tract in this case could have implications for transmissibility. Prolonged infectivity of bodily fluids such as semen has been described for viral infections like Zika and Ebola (10). However, knowledge gaps include whether a positive PCR result indicates the presence of live virus.

Third, phylogenetic analysis revealed that the virus belongs to the Western Africa clade of monkeypox, which has been associated with lower mortality rates than the Central Africa clade (7,11). Consistent with this classification, the case-patient described had noncritical illness. Furthermore, the sequence showed high degree of similarity to recently published MPXV sequences from Portugal and other countries (12,13).

Within the context of the emerging outbreak of monkeypox, we present comprehensive clinical and microbiologic data with long follow-up times revealing persistent PCR positivity. Previous reports have provided PCR data from single timepoints or short follow-up periods of ≤8 days (9,14). Moreover, we present a strategy for adequate sequencing, highlighting a fast but accurate bioinformatics analysis, combining long reads and short reads, that achieves a near-complete genome assembly (Appendix). This analysis will enable other researchers to reliably classify viruses’ phylogenetic relationships, which will lead to rapid and accurate epidemiologic case tracing and phylogenetic network analyses at a relatively low cost.

About the Author
Dr. Pettke is a medical doctor working with diagnostics of high-consequence pathogens at the Public Health Agency of Sweden. She has a strong passion and interest for emerging viruses and global health.

References
Ten-Week Follow-Up of Monkeypox Case-Patient


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EID Podcast Sentinel Surveillance Shows Novel Hendra Virus in Horses in Australia

Australia hosts over one million horses. Their grazing behavior, large respiratory tidal volume, and highly vascularized upper respiratory epithelium may contribute to their vulnerability for Hendra virus spillover from flying foxes. A novel Hendra virus variant in a horse evaded detection by routine diagnostic testing for Hendra virus because of genomic divergence. This finding indicates a need for increased surveillance in horses and screening of flying foxes for this novel variant.

In this EID podcast, Dr. Edward Annand, an equine veterinarian epidemiologist and a research associate at the University of Sydney School of Veterinary Science in Australia, discusses the detection of a novel Hendra virus variant from a horse in Australia.

Visit our website to listen: https://go.usa.gov/xuamj
Ten-Week Follow-Up of Monkeypox Case-Patient, Sweden, 2022

Appendix

Methods

Swab and Sample Collection

Dry swabs were rolled in lesions or other sampling sites and stored at 4-8 degrees Celsius until analysis. Semen and urine were collected in sterile plastic containers without additives. Analyses were performed within 24 hours after sampling.

Total Nucleic Acid Extraction

Total nucleic acid was extracted using QIAamp DNA Blood Mini Kit (QIAGEN, https://www.qiagen.com) largely following manufacturer’s instructions. A 10-minute heating step at 56 degrees was added for virus inactivation before transfer of the sample on the column. The DNA concentration of the samples was measured on a Qubit Fluorometer following the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit protocol (Invitrogen, https://www.fishersci.com).

PCR Testing

Realtime PCR was performed using TaqMan Fast Advanced Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, https://www.thermofisher.com). Primers and probes are listed in Appendix Table 2. Positive and negative controls as well as inhibition and extraction controls are part of the quality control for each PCR. The method has been developed in-house at the Public Health Agency of Sweden (Solna, Sweden).

Metagenomics Sequencing

Ion Torrent sequencing was performed; briefly, Ion Xpress Plus Fragment Library Kit for AB Library Builder System (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to generate barcoded Ion fragment DNA libraries from totally 200 ng DNA. The libraries were amplified for 8 cycles according to manufacturer’s protocol and then size-selected between 150–330 bp on a Pippin HT
using a 2% agarose gel cassettes (HTC2010, Sage Science, https://sagescience.com). The size-selected libraries were purified and quantified by an in-house real-time PCR assay (1). Twenty-five µl of 50 pM of libraries were used for template preparation and Ion 540 chip loading on an Ion Chef system and then sequenced on an Ion GeneStudio S5 Prime system (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

For Nanopore sequencing, 330 ng DNA was treated with RNase A (Sigma Aldrich, https://www.sigmaaldrich.com), purified using AMPure XP reagent (Beckman Coulter, https://www.beckman.com) and used for library preparation (SQK-RAD004 kit, Oxford Nanopore Technologies https://nanoporetech.com). Libraries was loaded on a R9.4.1 flow cell (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) and then sequenced using MinION MK1B and Guppy 5.1.15 in HAC basecalling mode.

**Bioinformatics Recovery of Consensus Sequence from Metagenome**

Sequencing data was filtered to remove human sequences using Kraken 2 version 2.1.2 using a database built on the RefSeq version of GRCh38.p13 of the human genome (2). Following removal of human sequences, Nanopore reads were assembled using Flye version 2.9 (running with nanopore high-quality settings) (3). The draft assembly was then polished using medaka version 1.6.0 (using medaka consensus with model r941_min_hac_g507) (4). Polished assembly was corrected for platform-specific errors using ntedit version 1.3.5 (using a 40-mer bloom filter) with the read dataset from IonTorrent (5).

**Phylogeny**

Phylogeny was built using ViralMSA for alignment toward the reference sequence (NC_003310.1), followed by iqtree using the HKY+G model, and 1,000 rapid bootstraps with bnni, reducing the risk of overestimating branch support (6,7). Additionally, cowpox (X94355.2) and horsepox (DQ792504.1) were added as outgroups for rooting the phylogeny.

The resulting consensus-tree was rerooted using gotree with cowpox and horsepox as outgroups (8). The following tree was pruned of the sequence KC257459.1 due to a long branch on the resulting tree.

Monkeypox outbreak genomes come from the sources listed (9–13), enabled by data from GenBank, INSA, and CDC.
References


5. nanoporetech/medaka: Sequence correction provided by ONT. 2022 [cited 2022 Aug 23]. https://github.com/nanoporetech/medaka


### Appendix Table 1. Overview of samples collected from a patient for orthopoxvirus and monkeypox virus, Sweden, 2022*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days after symptom onset</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>OPXV-PCR</th>
<th>MPXV-PCR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Result</td>
<td>Ct value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Swab from genital lesion</td>
<td>Pos‡</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>EDTA-blood†</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Swab from nasopharynx</td>
<td>Neg§</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sputum</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urine</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saliva</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Serum</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swab from nasopharynx</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saliva/sputum</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Swab from genital lesion</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>EDTA-blood</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swab from nasopharynx</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sputum</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saliva</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swab from genital lesion</td>
<td>Pos</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swab from ruptured lymph node</td>
<td>Not analyzed</td>
<td>Unavailable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>EDTA-blood</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swab from nasopharynx</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urine</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swab from genital lesion</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swab from ruptured lymph node</td>
<td>Not analyzed</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semen</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Detection level for both viruses by real-time PCR is 40 Ct. Ct, cycle threshold; MPXV, monkeypox virus; Neg, negative; OPXV, orthopoxvirus; Pos, positive.
†Ethylendiamintetraacetate–blood
‡Positive result.
§Negative result.
¶Half the replicates tested positive.
Appendix Table 2. Primers and probes used in PCR testing of orthopoxvirus and monkeypox virus, Sweden, 2022*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Sequence 5′ to 3′</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OPXV_Probe</td>
<td>TTTTCCAACCTAAATAGAACTTCATCGTTGYGT-T FAM-TAMRA</td>
<td>Modified from (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPXV_Forward</td>
<td>GCCAGAGATATCATAGCCGCT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPXV_Reverse</td>
<td>ACAAAGTTTGAACAAATAGAAAAATGTTG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPXV_B21R_Probe</td>
<td>CCGTAATCCACTCTCT-FAM-MGB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPXV_B21R_Forward</td>
<td>GTCTACAGAGTCCAAATCCTCCT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPXV_B21R_Reverse</td>
<td>TGTGGAGGAAATAATCATCAGTT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*MPXV, monkeypox virus; OPXV, orthopox virus.

Appendix Figure. Four electron-microscope images showing orthopoxvirus-like particles found in genital-lesion samples collected 12 days after symptom onset from patient with monkeypox, Sweden, 2022.