



**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DA  
BAHIA**

FACULDADE DE MEDICINA DA BAHIA

PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM  
CIÊNCIAS DA SAÚDE



**Dispersão, prevalência e dinâmica da transmissão do vírus Zika,  
de 1947 a 2018**

**Gilmara de Souza Sampaio**

**Tese de Doutorado**

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## **Dispersão, prevalência e dinâmica da transmissão do vírus Zika, de 1947 a 2018**

Gilmara de Souza Sampaio Almeida

Professor-orientador: Eduardo M. Netto

Tese apresentada ao Colegiado do  
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-  
GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIAS DA  
SAÚDE, da Faculdade de Medicina  
da Universidade Federal da Bahia,  
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a obtenção do grau de Doutor em  
Ciências da Saúde.

Salvador (Bahia), 2019

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Porque desde a antiguidade não se ouviu, nem com ouvidos se percebeu, nem com os olhos se viu um Deus além de ti que trabalha para aquele que nele espera. Isaías 64:4.

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## SUMÁRIO

<b>I. RESUMO</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>II. OBJETIVOS</b>	<b>12</b>
II.I. Principal	12
II.II. Secundários	12
<b>III. INTRODUÇÃO</b>	<b>13</b>
III.I. O vírus Zika, sua descoberta e emergência	13
III.II. Transmissão	13
III.III. Manifestações clínicas e complicações neurológicas	14
<b>IV. ARTIGOS</b>	<b>17</b>
MANUSCRITO I: “ <i>Expansão do Zika Vírus da África à América, 1947-2018: revisão de literatura</i> ”. <i>Epidemiologia e Serviços de Saúde</i>	17
MANUSCRITO II: “ <i>High Zika Virus Seroprevalence in Salvador, Northeastern Brazil limits the potential for further outbreaks</i> ” <i>mBio</i> . 2017 Nov-Dec; 8(6): e01390-17	65
MANUSCRITO III: “ <i>Rapid decline of Zika Virus NS1 antigen-specific antibody responses, Northeastern Brazil</i> ”. <i>Emerging Infectious Diseases</i>	80
<b>V. DISCUSSÃO</b>	<b>87</b>
<b>VI. CONCLUSÕES</b>	<b>91</b>
<b>VII. PROPOSTAS DE ESTUDO</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>VIII. SUMMARY</b>	<b>93</b>
<b>IX. REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS</b>	<b>95</b>
<b>X. ANEXOS</b>	<b>107</b>
X.I. Parecer da Revista Epidemiologia e Serviços de Saúde	107
X.II. Normas de publicação e carta ao Editor	108

## I. RESUMO

**Introdução:** O vírus Zika é um flavivírus pertencente à família Flaviviridae, transmitido por mosquitos Aedes. Sua circulação ficou restrita aos continentes africano e asiático por seis décadas, onde causou pequenos surtos com apresentações clínicas leves, semelhantes à dengue. Depois de migrar para o Pacífico e para as Américas, a infecção pelo vírus Zika tornou-se notável e causou grandes epidemias com manifestações clínicas florescentes, o que exigiu uma melhor compreensão das mudanças ocorridas durante o tempo. **Objetivo:** descrever a dinâmica de ocorrência do vírus Zika durante os anos de 1947 a 2018 e analisar sua prevalência na região metropolitana de Salvador/Bahia durante e até após dois anos da fase epidêmica. **Métodos.** Esta tese é dividida em três capítulos, o primeiro apresenta uma revisão de literatura com foco nas evidências de transmissão e dispersão do vírus Zika no período de 1947 a 2018; o segundo capítulo é uma análise da prevalência entre várias populações na região metropolitana de Salvador/Bahia/Brasil e uma análise retrospectiva em soros criopreservados de uma população infectada pelo HIV dentro desta região. O terceiro capítulo apresenta os resultados de uma nova sorologia para o vírus Zika de três subpopulações, vista no capítulo anterior, realizadas 1,5 a 2 anos após a epidemia. **Resultados.** Desde sua primeira identificação, em 1947, na região da floresta da Zika, em Uganda, o vírus migrou para o continente asiático, onde causou manifestações clínicas brandas semelhantes às da dengue. Sessenta anos depois, ao chegar às ilhas do Pacífico, o vírus Zika tornou-se mais agressivo e se espalhou rapidamente entre as populações locais, que atingiram altas taxas de prevalência, como o Mali (52%) e ilhas Yap (73%). Além disso, notou-se que o vírus Zika causava consequências clínicas devastadoras, provavelmente devido a mutações genéticas ocorridas entre 2000 e 2005. Em seguida, em 2013, o Zika chegou às Américas, incluindo a região metropolitana de Salvador, onde foi registrada uma prevalência de 63% entre a população examinada. Apesar de não existirem grandes fatores de risco para a contaminação pela doença, foi verificada uma maior prevalência entre as pessoas de estratos socioeconômicos inferiores. Dois anos após o pico da epidemia, os mesmos indivíduos foram reavaliados. Foi verificada queda significativa nos níveis de anticorpos, com até um terço desses indivíduos apresentando sorologia negativa, sem soroconversão.

**Conclusão:** A expansão do vírus Zika teve duas fases. A primeira apresentou expansão lenta, sem agressividade clínica, e a segunda teve rápida expansão, com graves consequências clínicas, como a microcefalia, provavelmente resultado de mutações do vírus. Após o auge da epidemia algumas regiões, incluindo a região metropolitana de Salvador, atingiram alta prevalência na população e tiveram o ciclo de transmissão bloqueado. Os níveis de anticorpos

registrados nesta área diminuíram significativamente após dois anos e as consequências dessa redução ainda são desconhecidas.

Palavras-chave: ZIKA; VÍRUS ZIKA; FLAVIVÍRUS, EPIDEMIA, NS1

## **II. OBJETIVOS**

### **II.I. Principal**

Estudar a dinâmica da transmissão do vírus Zika de 1947 a 2018

### **II.II. Secundários**

1. Descrever as expansões temporal e geográfica do vírus Zika em países e territórios, desde o seu isolamento até meados de 2018;
2. Determinar a prevalência de infecções prévias pelo vírus Zika em subpopulações de Salvador e região metropolitana segundo características sociodemográficas;
3. Determinar a variação dos níveis de anticorpos ao longo do tempo na população estudada.

### III. INTRODUÇÃO

#### III.I. O vírus Zika, sua descoberta e emergência

O vírus Zika (ZIKV) é um arbovírus pertencente à família *Flaviviridae* e ao gênero *Flavivirus* (Dick et al., 1952). Seu nome teve origem na floresta de Zika, em Uganda, onde o vírus foi isolado pela primeira vez, em 1947 por pesquisadores do Virus Research Institute durante um estudo sobre febre amarela em macacos Rhesus (Dick, Kitchen e Haddow, 1952). O ZIKV faz parte do grupo IV da classificação de Baltimore, na qual o material genético é formado por apenas uma única fita de RNA senso positivo, similar ao RNA mensageiro humano, transcrito e traduzido pelos ribossomos em proteínas virais que serão utilizadas para a montagem de novos vírus (Baltimore, 1971). O ZIKV tem estrutura em formato esférico com diâmetro de cerca de 50 nm e seu RNA codifica três proteínas estruturais (E, C e prM) e sete não estruturais (NS1, NS2A, NS2B, NS3, NS4A, NS4B e NS5) (Lindenbach; Rice, 2003). As proteínas não-estruturais possuem função enzimática ou regulatória, atuam sob a resposta imune e durante os processos intracelulares da replicação viral (Lindenbach, Rice, 2003; Faye et al., 2014; Mlakar et al., 2016).

O ZIKV divide-se em duas linhagens, a africana e a asiática, que foram distinguidas através da análise da sequência genômica de RNA e de regiões homólogas contidas na proteína NS5 (Balm et al., 2012; Enfissi et al., 2016). Foram identificadas duas linhagens africanas, a que circulava na porção oriental do continente africano continha variações genéticas do protótipo MR766, que foi isolado pela primeira vez em 1947, enquanto a que circulou na porção ocidental surgiu após duas ondas de migração do vírus para essa região (Saiz et al., 2016).

O ciclo natural do ZIKV ocorre em florestas tropicais e acomete primatas não-humanos, especialmente macacos e espécies silvestres de mosquitos do gênero *Aedes* (*Ae. africanus*, *Ae. dalzielii*, *Ae. taylori* e *Ae. frucife*), entretanto infecções humanas ocasionais podem manter seu ciclo de transmissão também no ambiente peridomiciliar (Faye, 2014; Petersen et al., 2016; Faria et al. 2016).

#### III.II. Transmissão

A transmissão do ZIKV pode ocorrer de diversas formas, mas a principal via ocorre através da picada de vetores artrópodes (Kuno et al 1998; Cook; Holmes, 2006; Lanciotti, 2008), especialmente por mosquitos do gênero *Aedes*. O ZIKV foi primeiramente isolado em

exemplares do *Aedes (Stegomyia) africanus*, na África (Haddow et al, 1974) e do *Aedes (Stegomyia) aegypti*, na Ásia (Marchette; Garcia; Rudnick, 1969). A presença do vírus foi confirmada também em *Ae. albopictus*, *Ae. vittatus*, *Ae. neoafricanus*, *Ae. furcifer*, *Ae. dalzieli*, *Ae. luteocephalus*, *Ae. taylori*, *Ae. opok*, *Ae. jamoti*, *Ae. flavicollis*, *Ae. grahami*, *Ae. taeniarostris*, *Ae. tarsalis*, *Ae. fowleri*, *Ae. metallicus* e *Ae. minutus* (Faye et al., 2014; Haddow et al., 2012; Chan et al., 2016). O vírus foi encontrado também em vetores de outros gêneros, incluindo o Anófeles (Faye et al., 2014; Haddow et al., 2012), o que demonstra que o vírus está bem adaptado a uma grande variedade de vetores que desempenham um papel importante durante os ciclos silvestre e urbano do vírus. No Brasil, assim como na Ásia e no restante da América, o *Aedes aegypti* é o vetor mais comum (Marcondes; Ximenes, 2016).

Foi considerada possível a transmissão do ZIKV por via sexual devido à sua identificação em fluidos vaginais de macacos Rhesus (Dudley, 2016), sêmen humano (Deckard et al., 2016; Atkinson et al., 2016; Turmel et al., 2016) e muco cervical (Prisant et al., 2016). Casos foram descritos nas Américas (Foy et al., 2011; McCarthy, 2016), Europa (D'Ortenzio et al., 2016; Venturi et al., 2016; Frank et al., 2016) e Oceania (Harrower et al. 2016). Foi relatado o contágio via sexo vaginal e anal (Deckard et al., 2016), o que tornaria possível a transmissão entre homens, de homens para mulheres e de mulheres para homens (Fréour et al., 2016; Davidson et al., 2016). Também foi sugerido que o ZIKV pode ser transmitido por via transplacentária ou no parto (Besnard et al., 2014). Durante o surto ocorrido no Brasil em 2015 foram estudadas as manifestações clínicas e os dados laboratoriais de mulheres que, assim como seus filhos recém-nascidos, foram infectadas pelo ZIKV. Exames identificaram a presença do vírus no líquido amniótico de mulheres cujos fetos desenvolveram microcefalia, o que sugeriu a capacidade de transmissão vertical do vírus (Calvet et al., 2016). Um outro estudo realizado em camundongos fêmeas infectadas pelo ZIKV demonstraram que seus filhotes apresentaram atraso no desenvolvimento corporal, em especial das células neurais, o que evidencia a afinidade do vírus pelos tecidos nervosos (Tang et al., 2016).

### III.III. Manifestações clínicas e complicações neurológicas

A infecção causada pelo ZIKV apresenta sintomas inespecíficos, como febre, exantema, cefaleia, anorexia, conjuntivite e dores articular e lombar (MacNamara, 1954; Olson, 1981; Duffy et al., 2009; Heang, 2010; Cao- Lormeau et al., 2014; Musso; Nilles;

Cao-Lormeau, 2014). Uma parcela menor, cerca de 20% dos infectados, apresenta sintomas e as manifestações clínicas, quando presentes, são autolimitadas e brandas (Duffy et al., 2009; Hayes, 2009), com duração aproximada de até 7 dias (Tappe et al., 2015). A baixa gravidade dos sintomas e o fato de o vírus ter permanecido por décadas confinado em parte do território africano não despertou relevante interesse da comunidade científica em busca de vacinas e tratamentos contra o ZIKV (Fauci; Morens, 2016). Os sintomas apresentados até então se assemelhavam aos apresentados por Dengue, Chikungunya e outras arboviroses, o que dificultava o correto diagnóstico quanto à etiologia (Zalunca et al., 2016). Os surtos ocorridos na Polinésia Francesa e nas Américas notificaram casos de complicações graves, como a Síndrome de Guillain-Barré (SGB) e a microcefalia (Roth et al., 2014; Cao-Lormeau et al., 2016; Kucharski et al., 2016).

A Síndrome de Guillain-Barré é uma desordem neurológica que provoca um déficit no sistema sensorio-motor e é frequentemente precedida por infecção ou estimulação imune que induz uma resposta autoimune que atinge os nervos periféricos e a espinha dorsal (Sejvar et al., 2016). Já a microcefalia é uma condição neurológica na qual a cabeça e o cérebro do feto ou do recém-nascido apresentam um diâmetro consideravelmente inferior à média. Sua ocorrência resulta em comprometimento do desenvolvimento cerebral em seus estágios iniciais, tendo como possíveis causas variações genéticas, agentes teratogênicos ou outras infecções congênicas. É considerado portador de microcefalia o bebê que apresente uma circunferência occipitofrontal com pelo menos dois desvios-padrão abaixo da média (Ashwal et al., 2009).

Malformações congênicas foram descritas por médicos brasileiros que identificaram uma alteração significativa no padrão epidemiológico de ocorrência de microcefalia no nordeste do país, em agosto de 2015 (Fantinato et al., 2016; Zanluca et al., 2016). Até então não havia notificações de casos de microcefalia associados à infecção pelo vírus em nenhum outro país, entretanto após o alerta emitido pelo Ministério da Saúde do Brasil (SVS-MS, 2015) as autoridades sanitárias francesas informaram sobre a detecção de casos de malformações congênicas e de Síndrome de Guillain-Barré (Oehler et al., 2015) concomitantes à circulação do ZIKV (ECDC, 2015). Estudos posteriores comprovaram a relação de causalidade entre a infecção por ZIKV e a ocorrência de microcefalia e da SGB (Besnard et al., 2016; Cauchemez et al., 2016a; Cao-Lormeau et al., 2016). Diversas outras manifestações foram relatadas entre neonatos expostos ao ZIKV durante a gestação (Schuler-Faccini et al., 2015; França et al., 2016) incluindo desproporção craniofacial, disfunção do tronco encefálico,

anomalias cerebrais, problemas de deglutição, espasticidade, convulsões, irritabilidade, contraturas de membros, anormalidades auditivas e oculares. Também foi verificada a existência de calcificações corticais, subcorticais, malformações corticais, padrão simplificado de giro, alterações migratórias, hipoplasia do tronco cerebral, cerebelo e ventriculomegalia. Embora a microcefalia tenha sido o fator inicial para o reconhecimento da síndrome, algumas das manifestações neurológicas ocorreram mesmo na ausência de microcefalia e só se tornaram evidentes após o nascimento (Rasmussen et al., 2016; Baptista, Quaghebeur, Alarcon; Martines et al., 2016; de Barros., 2016). Esse achado foi percebido no início da epidemia em decorrência da definição de caso, recomendada pelo Ministério da Saúde, para notificação de microcefalia em crianças com 37 semanas ou mais de gestação, quando a medida do perímetro cefálico fosse inferior a 33 cm ao nascer (SVS-MS, 2015). As anormalidades relatadas nestes recém-nascidos sugerem que uma síndrome congênita é atribuível à infecção pelo ZIKV durante a gestação, a síndrome congênita do Zika (SCZ). Existe consenso de que o ZIKV é a causa de microcefalia e de outras complicações neurológicas que constituem a SCZ (Martines et al., 2016; de Araújo et al. 2016; Russell et al., 2016; Paho, 2016; Miranda-Filho et al., 2016; Calvet et al., 2016; van der Linden et al., 2016).

Os custos da epidemia do vírus Zika têm sido elevados nos países atingidos. Estudo desenvolvido pelo Programa das Nações Unidas para o Desenvolvimento, em parceria com a Cruz Vermelha Internacional, estimou que a epidemia do vírus Zika custou entre US\$ 7 bilhões e US\$ 18 bilhões à economia dos países da América Latina e do Caribe entre 2015 e 2017. O Brasil arcou com a maior parcela desse custo (até US\$ 4,5 bilhões). Ainda, o custo vitalício estimado para atendimento e suporte a uma criança com microcefalia no Brasil foi estimado em US\$ 890 mil. O prejuízo econômico por ausências ao trabalho e pela queda da produtividade decorrentes do Zika, principalmente relacionado à SGB, foi estimado em US\$ 918 milhões (UNDP, 2017).



#### IV. ARTIGOS

MANUSCRITO I: “*Expansão do Zika Virus da África à América, 1947-2018: revisão de literatura*”. *Epidemiologia e Serviços de Saúde*  
[Parecer recebido em 26/02/2019 vide ANEXO 1]

Revisão narrativa

Expansão do vírus Zika da África à América, 1947-2018: revisão da literatura\*

Expansion of the Zika virus from Africa to America, 1947-2018: a literature review

Expansión del virus Zika de África a América, 1947-2018: una revisión de literatura

Expansão do vírus Zika: da África à América

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## **Resumo**

**Objetivo:** Descrever as expansões temporal e geográfica do vírus Zika em países e territórios, desde o seu isolamento até 2018. **Métodos:** Revisão não sistemática de literatura do período compreendido entre 1947 e 2018 utilizando a base MEDLINE e estimativas da Organização Mundial de Saúde. **Resultados:** Desde seu isolamento em 1947, o vírus Zika se expandiu pela África, Ásia e Pacífico até chegar à América em 2013, causando manifestações clínicas graves. Até 2000, a maior soroprevalência foi registrada no Mali (52%) e após esse período em Yap (73%). Mutações genéticas, a ausência de imunidade e a alta susceptibilidade dos vetores podem ter influenciado sua transmissibilidade e ajudam a explicar a magnitude de sua expansão. **Conclusão:** A expansão do vírus Zika nas Américas foi a mais ampla já registrada, possivelmente resultado de características populacionais e geográficas dos locais por onde o vírus circulou.

**Palavras-chave:** Zika Vírus; Flavivirus; Epidemiologia; Epidemias; Anormalidades Congênitas; Literatura de Revisão como Assunto.

## **Abstract**

**Objective:** To describe the temporal and geographical expansions of the Zika virus in countries and territories, from the time it was first isolated until 2018. **Methods:** Narrative review of literature from the period between 1947 and 2018 using the MEDLINE database and World Health Organization estimates. **Results:** Since its isolation in 1947 the Zika Virus has spread through Africa, Asia and the Pacific until it reaches America in 2013, causing serious clinical manifestations. Until 2000, the highest seroprevalence was recorded in Mali (52%) and after that period in Yap (73%). Genetic mutations, absence of immunity and high susceptibility of the vectors may have influenced its transmissibility and helps to explain the magnitude of its expansion. **Conclusion:** The spread of the Zika virus in the Americas was the most widely recorded, possibly as a result of population and geographical characteristics of the sites where the virus circulated.

**Keywords:** Zika Virus, Flavivirus; Epidemiology; Epidemics; Congenital Abnormalities; Review Literature as Topic.

## **Resumen**

**Objetivo:** Describir las expansiones temporal y geográfica del virus Zika en países y territorios, desde su aislamiento hasta 2018. **Métodos:** Revisión narrativa de literatura del período comprendido entre 1947 y 2018 utilizando la base MEDLINE y estimaciones de la Organización Mundial de la Salud. **Resultados:** Desde su aislamiento en 1947 el virus Zika se expandió por África, Asia y el Pacífico hasta llegar a América en 2013, causando manifestaciones clínicas graves. Hasta 2000 la mayor seroprevalencia se registró en Mali (52%) y después de ese período en Yap (73%). Las mutaciones genéticas, la ausencia de inmunidad y la alta susceptibilidad de los vectores pueden haber influenciado su

transmisibilidad y ayudan a explicar la magnitud de su expansión. **Conclusión:** La expansión del virus Zika en las Américas fue la más amplia ya registrada, posiblemente resultado de características poblacionales y geográficas de los lugares por donde el virus circuló.

**Palabras-clave:** Virus Zika; Flavivirus; Epidemiología; Epidemias; Anomalías Congénitas; Literatura de Revisión como Asunto.

## **Introdução**

Desde sua descoberta em 1947, o vírus Zika foi responsável por casos esporádicos de infecções brandas, que não ensejavam maiores preocupações, limitados aos continentes africano e asiático.<sup>1</sup> Este cenário mudou a partir de 2007, ano em que ocorreram importantes alterações no padrão epidemiológico do vírus, que passou a ser considerado um patógeno capaz de causar grandes epidemias após ser responsável por dois grandes surtos em ilhas do Pacífico<sup>2-4</sup> e na Polinésia Francesa<sup>4-6</sup>. Sua expansão continuou e em pouco tempo foi considerado um problema de saúde pública ao ser associado a numerosos casos de microcefalia ocorridos no Brasil.<sup>7,8</sup>

A preocupação quanto à gravidade das consequências da infecção pelo vírus fez o Ministério da Saúde declarar no dia 11 de novembro de 2015 situação de Emergência de Saúde Pública de Importância Nacional<sup>9</sup> e, a partir desta comunicação, a Organização Pan-Americana da Saúde (OPAS) emitiu um alerta sobre o aumento no número de casos de microcefalia no nordeste do Brasil.<sup>10</sup> Dias depois, a despeito das poucas evidências, em 28 de novembro de 2015, o Ministério da Saúde confirmou a relação existente entre o vírus Zika e o surto de microcefalia.<sup>11</sup> Na sequência, a Organização Mundial de Saúde (OMS) e a OPAS emitiram um alerta em 1º de dezembro de 2015, no qual trataram da possível associação entre o vírus Zika e o aumento de casos de anomalias congênitas e Síndrome de Guillain-Barré.<sup>12</sup>

Em 1º de fevereiro de 2016, a OMS então declarou Emergência de Saúde Pública de Importância Internacional.<sup>13</sup> As ações de autoridades sanitárias e de pesquisadores permitiram que rapidamente houvesse a comprovação da relação causal entre a infecção por Zika e a ocorrência de microcefalia e outras alterações do sistema nervoso central, posição endossada pela OMS em uma reunião do comitê de emergência ocorrida em junho de 2016<sup>14</sup> (Figura 1B).

O vírus teve confirmado seu potencial de ocasionar amplo espectro de manifestações clínicas, que vão desde sintomas inespecíficos facilmente confundidos com outras viroses, até manifestações neurológicas e malformações congênitas.<sup>7,8,15-19</sup> Até o final de 2016, 2.366 anormalidades congênitas associadas ao vírus foram confirmadas no país.<sup>20</sup> Assim, o surgimento do vírus Zika nas Américas e seu potencial de expansão requerem melhor compreensão do seu perfil epidemiológico a fim de facilitar o entendimento das mudanças detectadas na infecção ao longo do tempo.

Esta revisão objetivou descrever as expansões temporal e geográfica do vírus Zika em países e territórios, desde o seu isolamento até 2018.

## **Métodos**

Trata-se de uma revisão narrativa sobre a expansão do vírus Zika ao longo dos anos em países e territórios de diversos continentes. Foi realizada busca na base MEDLINE (via PubMed) utilizando as palavras-chave extraídas dos Descritores em Ciências da Saúde (DeCS): "zika", "zika virus", "flavivirus", "arbovirus". Foram elegíveis artigos que apresentassem evidências microbiológicas de infecção causada pelo vírus Zika em humanos e não-humanos publicados entre 1947 e 2018 em qualquer região do mundo e que contivessem informações completas sobre a realização do estudo: período, local, amostra, tipo de teste

utilizado para o diagnóstico e resultado. Foram excluídos artigos que não apresentaram resultados de testes laboratoriais positivos para o vírus em humanos ou que não realizaram isolamento viral em não-humanos. Não foi estabelecida restrição quanto ao idioma ou à gratuidade da publicação.

Adicionalmente, foram utilizadas estimativas do site oficial da Organização Pan-Americana de Saúde/Organização Mundial de Saúde (OPAS/OMS) de casos confirmados de Zika ou síndrome congênita associada à infecção ocorridas até janeiro de 2018 em países ou territórios das Américas.<sup>21</sup> Para demonstrar a magnitude da infecção em diferentes locais, foi calculada a soroprevalência da infecção pelo vírus Zika nas amostras examinadas somando-se os resultados de testes positivos e dividindo o valor encontrado pela quantidade total de amostras em cada estudo.

## **A expansão global do vírus Zika**

### **Décadas de 1940 e 1950**

Acredita-se que o vírus Zika tenha emergido por volta de 1920,<sup>1</sup> embora seu isolamento apenas tenha ocorrido em 1947 por pesquisadores do *Virus Research Institute*, que conduziam um estudo sobre febre amarela em macacos Rhesus.<sup>22</sup> Seu nome teve origem na floresta de Zika, em Entebbe, Uganda, onde ficava sediado o instituto. Apesar do referido estudo ter foco em febre amarela e dengue, os pesquisadores conseguiram evidências de que se tratava de um novo vírus.<sup>22</sup> Menos de um ano após sua descoberta, o vírus Zika foi identificado em mosquitos *Aedes (Stegomyia) africanus*,<sup>22-24</sup> embora ainda não se soubesse se este era um vetor para o vírus.<sup>24</sup> O vírus se disseminou a partir de sua linhagem original, denominada de africana, por parte do continente africano.<sup>1</sup> Houve duas introduções na África

Ocidental, ocorridas em momentos distintos, originando desta forma duas linhagens africanas<sup>14</sup>.

Em 1948, ocorreu seu isolamento em vetores *Aedes (Stegomyia) africanus*,<sup>22,23</sup> enquanto as primeiras infecções humanas pelo vírus foram registradas a partir de 1952 no continente africano, confirmadas por meio da presença em soro de anticorpos neutralizantes contra o vírus Zika.<sup>25,26</sup> Durante a década de 1950, estudos identificaram a presença destes anticorpos em residentes do norte da África,<sup>27</sup> nas Áfricas Ocidental,<sup>28,25</sup> Oriental<sup>22,26,29,30</sup> e Central,<sup>31</sup> além da Ásia Meridional<sup>32</sup> e do sudeste asiático<sup>27,32-34</sup> (Figura 2 e Figura 3A). Neste período, a identificação dos anticorpos era a única maneira de demonstrar a infecção pelo vírus Zika, cujos resultados poderiam apresentar vieses devido à possível resposta imune à vacina contra a febre amarela.<sup>24</sup>

Nos três casos humanos identificados em 1954, foi observada a presença de icterícia, indicando que o vírus também pode ser viscerotrópico.<sup>28</sup> Outra característica descrita foi a afinidade do vírus por tecidos nervosos, verificada em camundongos que desenvolveram doenças neurológicas após serem infectados.<sup>35</sup> Em 1956, foi constatado que o *Aedes aegypti* era um vetor para o vírus.<sup>36</sup>

### **Décadas de 1960 a 1990**

A terceira linhagem do Zika, a asiática, teve origem a partir da cepa isolada na Malásia por volta de 1966,<sup>37</sup> onde também foi registrada a primeira infecção pelo vírus causada pelo *Aedes aegypti*.<sup>38</sup> Neste período, evidências sorológicas e virológicas indicavam a circulação do vírus Zika por quase toda a África, nas regiões Norte,<sup>39,40</sup> Central,<sup>40-43</sup> Ocidental<sup>40,44-48</sup> e Oriental<sup>39,49,50</sup> (Figura 2 e Figura 3B). Em comum, a maior parte destes países se localiza na região tropical, cujo clima é propício ao desenvolvimento de vetores. A



circulação concomitante dos vírus da febre amarela e do Zika foi constatada em uma região da Etiópia, em 1968.<sup>49</sup> Estudos indicam que anticorpos contra o vírus Zika podem atenuar a infecção pelo vírus da febre amarela, mas não interferem na transmissão.<sup>51,52</sup>

### **Década de 2000**

Por mais de meio século o vírus Zika ficou confinado nos continentes africano e asiático até emergir nas ilhas do Pacífico no final dos anos 2000.<sup>3</sup> Entre abril e julho de 2007, ocorreu a primeira grande epidemia causada pelo vírus em Yap, na Micronésia (Figura 2). Este surto apresentou uma alta incidência de infecção pelo vírus Zika, em torno de 73% (intervalo de confiança de 95%: 68-77),<sup>3</sup> maior que as documentadas até então, no Mali (52%) e na Malásia (50%; Tabela 1). Apesar de acometer a maior parte da população, poucos indivíduos, cerca de 20% do total de casos, foram sintomáticos e relataram principalmente [exantema](#), conjuntivite e dores nas articulações.<sup>2,3</sup> As amostras de soro dos residentes de Yap foram testadas por meio do ensaio enzimático ELISA, teste de neutralização de redução de placa e da reação de transcriptase reversa seguida de reação em cadeia de polimerase (RT-PCR). Análises filogenéticas mostraram que uma cepa de linhagem asiática do vírus Zika foi a responsável por este surto.<sup>2</sup>

Até o final da década de 2000 o vírus Zika foi isolado em vetores das espécies *Ae. Aegypti*, *Ae. africanus*, *Ae. apicoargenteus*, *Ae. luteocephalus*, *Ae. vitattus*, *Ae. Furcifer* e *Ae. Hensilii*,<sup>36,38,48,51,53</sup> sendo esta última a espécie mais frequente durante o surto de Yap.<sup>3</sup> Por muito tempo se acreditou que o único meio de transmissão do vírus Zika era a picada de mosquitos do gênero *Aedes*,<sup>2,23,29,38,53</sup> entretanto, em 2008 dois pesquisadores americanos que estiveram no Senegal se infectaram pelo vírus Zika, um deles transmitiu o vírus à sua esposa,

possivelmente por via sexual.<sup>54</sup> Outros estudos corroboraram esta hipótese ao indicarem a possibilidade da transmissão por via sexual.<sup>55,56</sup>

### **Década de 2010**

A década de 2010 foi marcada por descobertas importantes, como a possibilidade de transmissão vertical do vírus Zika e de manifestações clínicas cuja associação à infecção eram inéditas, como anormalidades congênitas<sup>17,57,58</sup> e a Síndrome de Guillain-Barré.<sup>5,15,16</sup>

Neste período o vírus provocou uma nova epidemia, que atingiu parcela considerável da população da Polinésia Francesa a partir de 2013, com um total aproximado de 30.000 pessoas infectadas,<sup>5,6,59</sup> com 42 pacientes acometidos pela Síndrome de Guillain-Barré.<sup>15,16</sup> Esta epidemia foi consequência de uma nova cepa surgida no mesmo ano, geneticamente relacionada às cepas isoladas na Ilha Yap em 2007 e no Camboja em 2010.<sup>4,6</sup> É provável que sua magnitude seja resultado de uma população com níveis ainda baixos de imunidade, à alta densidade de vetores<sup>59</sup> e a mutações genéticas nas quais aminoácidos importantes foram modificados, o que aumentou a transmissibilidade do vírus pelo vetor *Aedes aegypti*.<sup>60</sup>

O vírus continuou sua expansão por outras ilhas do Oceano Pacífico<sup>4,5,59,61-64</sup> e pelo sudeste asiático<sup>65-72</sup> até ser identificado nas Américas em maio de 2015.<sup>73-75</sup> Os marcos durante a expansão do vírus estão evidenciados na Figura 1A e sua dispersão geográfica na Figura 3, separada por períodos, para demonstrar a rapidez e abrangência de sua expansão.

A soroprevalência da infecção pelo vírus Zika historicamente apresentou valores baixos nas populações examinadas, com exceções pontuais: nas décadas de 1950 e 1960 no Mali, Malásia e Burkina Faso, em 2007 em Yap, em 2011-2013 na Polinésia Francesa e em 2015-2016 no Brasil (Tabela 1). Os testes de soroprevalência utilizados nos diversos estudos aqui reunidos diferem quanto à metodologia utilizada para o diagnóstico laboratorial e,

portanto, apresentam diferentes níveis de sensibilidade e especificidade.<sup>76,77</sup> Esta diferença compromete a comparabilidade dos resultados obtidos por métodos distintos.

O teste mais utilizado foi a RT-PCR, empregado em 31 estudos, seguido por Teste de Hemaglutinação (HI), presente em 24 estudos, ensaio de Imunoabsorção Enzimática (ELISA), em 17 estudos, Teste de Neutralização (NT), em 13 e Teste de Fixação de Complemento (FC) em quatro. Alguns estudos utilizaram mais de um método de diagnóstico. A reação cruzada entre os anticorpos do vírus Zika e de outros flavivírus também pode ter comprometido a correta estimativa da prevalência da infecção pelo vírus.<sup>78,79</sup>

### **O vírus Zika nas Américas**

Os primeiros estudos genéticos da cepa causadora da epidemia do vírus Zika no continente americano sugerem que esta tenha se originado de uma única linhagem genotípica asiática, introduzida no Brasil entre o fim de 2013 e o início de 2014, proveniente da Polinésia Francesa.<sup>6,80-83</sup> Quatro hipóteses foram levantadas a respeito da introdução do vírus no país. Num primeiro momento, acreditou-se que teria ocorrido em 2014 durante a Copa do Mundo,<sup>74</sup> apesar de não haverem países do Pacífico entre as seleções participantes. Uma segunda possibilidade foi a de que a introdução ocorreu por ocasião do Campeonato Mundial de Canoagem em agosto de 2014, no Rio de Janeiro, da qual participaram equipes de quatro países do Pacífico com casos registrados de vírus Zika: Polinésia Francesa, Nova Caledônia, Ilhas Cook e Ilha de Páscoa.<sup>84</sup> A hipótese da entrada do vírus pelo Rio de Janeiro não ajuda a explicar os porquês de a região Nordeste concentrar uma quantidade tão superior de casos. A terceira hipótese sustentou que a introdução do vírus se deu um ano antes, entre julho e agosto de 2013, período em que ocorreu a Copa das Confederações.<sup>81</sup> Segundo a quarta hipótese, o vírus teria circulado pela Oceania e pela Ilha de Páscoa, se disseminado para a América

Central e Caribe e então chegou ao Brasil no final de 2013.<sup>85</sup> Os casos estudados tinham como único ancestral uma cepa do Haiti, o que indica que o vírus Zika tenha chegado ao Brasil por meio de imigrantes ou militares brasileiros que regressaram daquele país. No entanto, estudos recentes indicam uma rota contrária, do Brasil para a América Central: o vírus teria sido introduzido na América Central por Honduras, entre os meses de julho e setembro de 2014.<sup>86</sup> A análise filogeográfica estimou que o vírus tenha chegado ao país a partir do Brasil e, posteriormente, se disseminado para Guatemala, Nicarágua e sul do México até o início de 2015. Um outro estudo corrobora a hipótese de que a introdução na América do Sul precedeu a da América Central e que teria possivelmente ocorrido na primeira metade de 2013.<sup>60</sup>

Em outubro de 2014, alguns municípios do estado do Rio Grande do Norte, Paraíba e Maranhão notificaram casos suspeitos de doença viral, com presença de exantema, febre baixa, prurido e dor articular, que não se enquadravam nas definições de caso suspeito de outras doenças exantemáticas, a exemplo do sarampo e da dengue. Após os registros nestes três estados, outros seis notificaram casos de síndrome exantemática ocorridas entre outubro de 2014 e março de 2015.<sup>75</sup> A circulação intensa e concomitante de outros flavivírus, aliada à apresentação clínica semelhante, à baixa especificidade dos testes diagnósticos ELISA para a dengue<sup>76</sup> e ao fato da presença do vírus no país ainda ser ignorada, não indicavam o vírus Zika como principal suspeito.

Em março de 2015, amostras provenientes do Rio Grande do Norte e da Bahia apresentaram resultados positivos para o vírus, confirmados por meio de RT-PCR.<sup>73,74</sup> Sua disseminação foi além das fronteiras do Brasil e, até o final de 2015, 10 países das Américas Central e Sul já haviam registrado casos autóctones,<sup>87</sup> número que aumentou rapidamente para 48 ao final do ano seguinte<sup>88,89</sup> (Figura 2 e Figura 3D). Apenas Canadá e Bermudas, ambos localizados na América do Norte, e Chile e Uruguai na América do Sul não apresentaram

casos autóctones. A Figura 4 demonstra a expansão geográfica e temporal do vírus Zika nas Américas desde seu primeiro registro no continente até o ano de 2017.

O Brasil foi o país que apresentou o maior número de infecções causadas pelo Zika, com um total de 137.288 casos confirmados entre 2015 e janeiro de 2018, seguido por Porto Rico e México, com 40.562 e 11.805 confirmações, respectivamente.<sup>21</sup> Houve uma redução de mais de 95% no número total de casos em comparação ao registrado no ano anterior, de forma que, em 18 de novembro de 2016, a OMS deixou de considerar o vírus Zika como uma Emergência de Saúde Pública de Importância Internacional<sup>90</sup> e, em maio de 2017, foi a vez do Ministério da Saúde declarar o fim da emergência.<sup>91</sup>

No primeiro semestre de 2015 foi observada mudança no padrão de ocorrência da Síndrome de Guillain-Barré em dois estados da região Nordeste, Pernambuco e Bahia. No primeiro, o número de casos triplicou em comparação ao ano anterior, com pico no mês de abril. Na Bahia, o número de ocorrências também aumentou, registrando pico entre os meses de junho e julho.<sup>92,93</sup> Neste mesmo período, foi identificado que quatro pacientes submetidos a transplantes de órgãos sólidos foram infectados pelo vírus Zika, diagnosticados por meio de RT-PCR entre junho de 2015 e janeiro de 2016.<sup>94</sup> Pouco depois foi notada mudança no padrão epidemiológico de ocorrência microcefalia, em outubro deste mesmo ano o Ministério da Saúde foi informado pelas autoridades sanitárias pernambucanas sobre um aumento significativo no número de casos.<sup>95</sup> No final de novembro de 2015, o Instituto Evandro Chagas enviou o resultado de exames realizados em um bebê com microcefalia. Foi identificada a presença do vírus em sangue e tecidos, o que fez o Ministério da Saúde confirmar a relação existente entre o vírus Zika e a microcefalia.<sup>11</sup>

Até o final de 2016, 22 países já haviam registrado casos da síndrome congênita associada à infecção pelo vírus, num total de 2.525 notificações, das quais 2.289 (90%)

ocorridas no Brasil.<sup>96</sup> Até dezembro de 2017 os 27 estados brasileiros registraram juntos 3.071 casos de microcefalia, destes, 2.004 (65%) ocorridos na região Nordeste.<sup>97</sup> Este valor reduziu de forma significativa para 123 novos casos de janeiro a maio de 2018 e totalizou 3.194 registros possivelmente associados à infecção por Zika desde o início de sua contabilização em 2015.<sup>98</sup> O vírus, causador desta pandemia, havia se tornado potencial ameaça à saúde pública devido à sua associação a complicações neurológicas e malformações congênitas, amplamente documentadas.<sup>7,8,12,18,19</sup>

As epidemias provocadas pelo vírus trouxeram à tona um amplo espectro de manifestações clínicas, contudo ainda não é possível saber a magnitude das complicações relacionadas à infecção pelo vírus, que pode ser mais vasta do que as apresentadas até o momento. Pouco se sabe se questões como a gravidade da apresentação clínica da infecção pelo vírus Zika ou carga viral influenciam no espectro clínico apresentado em diferentes lugares e populações.<sup>99</sup>

Um estudo descritivo<sup>100</sup> avaliou 1950 casos confirmados de microcefalia, dos quais 1.373 ocorridos na região Nordeste, a partir de dados secundários obtidos pelo Sistema de Informação de Agravos de Notificação (SINAN) referentes ao período compreendido entre 1º de janeiro de 2015 a 12 de novembro de 2016. Os resultados mostraram que houve duas ondas de infecção pelo vírus: na primeira, ocorrida em 2015, houve um pico mensal de ocorrência de microcefalia estimado em 50 casos por 10.000 nascidos vivos, a maior parte (70% do total) ocorrida na região Nordeste; na segunda, a ocorrência foi bem menor, com picos mensais estimados variando de 3 a 15 casos por cada 10.000 nascidos vivos. Foi verificado que o número de casos de microcefalia relacionados à infecção após os surtos apresentou variação temporal de acordo com a região do país, entretanto as razões para essas diferenças ainda carecem de esclarecimentos.

Uma possível explicação é o fato de que durante a segunda onda de infecção já existiam fundadas suspeitas da relação entre a infecção pelo vírus Zika e a ocorrência da microcefalia, o que levou o governo a criar campanhas com o propósito de informar a população. Gestantes passaram a adotar medidas preventivas para evitar contato com o vetor, a exemplo do uso de repelentes, telas de proteção nas casas e até mesmo o adiamento de gravidez desejada.<sup>100</sup>

Também pouco se sabe se variações genéticas entre as linhagens do vírus interferem na sua patogenicidade.<sup>101</sup> Um estudo experimental que utilizou trofoblastos derivados de células tronco embrionárias humanas mostrou que existem diferenças entre as linhagens africana e asiática do vírus quanto ao seu comportamento na placenta. Foi verificada a ocorrência de lise celular, processo na qual a célula é destruída ou dissolvida pela ruptura da membrana plasmática, apenas nas infecções pelo vírus da linhagem africana, no entanto não foram identificadas diferenças quanto às taxas de replicação viral entre as infecções causadas pelas duas cepas. Essa característica ajuda a inferir que uma infecção por uma cepa africana no início da gravidez provavelmente resultaria em aborto em vez de malformações congênitas.<sup>102</sup>

O potencial patogênico do vírus Zika possivelmente depende de variações genéticas individuais, evidenciado em um trabalho experimental que comparou três pares de gêmeos dizigóticos em que apenas um deles foi diagnosticado com a Síndrome Congênita do vírus Zika. Foi verificado que após infectar os tecidos neurais, o vírus causou retardo no crescimento das células dos gêmeos com a síndrome e aumentou a replicação viral. Os resultados das análises de transcriptoma mostraram uma diferença significativa no nível de uma proteína inibidora de mTOR, DDIT4L, entre os com a síndrome e gêmeos sem o diagnóstico. Os resultados encontrados sugerem que existe relação entre a disposição genética

individual e o aumento da sinalização de mTOR e, como as vias de sinalização da mTOR são críticas para a depuração viral mediada por autofagia, as infecções por vírus Zika são intensificadas nessas pessoas.<sup>103</sup>

## **Discussão**

Os fatores que levaram à ampla e rápida emergência, disseminação e aparente aumento da patogenicidade do vírus no Pacífico e nas Américas ainda não foram totalmente compreendidos. É possível que haja vários mecanismos atuantes, entre os quais mutações virais que aumentariam a transmissão de humanos para mosquitos, modulando a resposta imune do hospedeiro.<sup>104–107</sup> Outro fator carente de explicação é a ausência de grandes epidemias na África e na Ásia. Foi hipotetizado que isso poderia refletir níveis mais altos de imunidade conferida por proteção cruzada contra outros flavivírus relacionados ao vírus Zika<sup>104</sup> ou que tenham ocorrido e sido associadas à dengue devido à semelhança clínica de ambas as viroses e à reatividade cruzada de seus anticorpos.<sup>37,108</sup> Outro estudo corrobora a hipótese do porquê de não terem ocorrido grandes surtos na África ao sugerir que os *Aedes aegypti* de origem africana sejam menos susceptíveis às cepas do vírus Zika que as não-africanas. Ao mesmo tempo, tal característica não ajudou a esclarecer a razão da não existência de grandes surtos na Ásia, ao contrário das Américas, cujas populações tinham níveis semelhantes de susceptibilidade.<sup>109</sup>

A intensidade da disseminação, a viremia e os sintomas clínicos causados pelo vírus Zika nas Américas, incluindo a microcefalia, pode ter sido intensificada pela imunidade contra o vírus da dengue existente em regiões endêmicas.<sup>110</sup> Contudo, um estudo de coorte pediátrica conduzido na Nicarágua entre janeiro de 2016 e fevereiro de 2017 acompanhou 3.700 crianças de 2 a 14 anos e concluiu que pode ocorrer o contrário, uma redução nos sintomas do Zika



devido à imunização prévia pelo vírus.<sup>111</sup> Esta última hipótese é corroborada por uma pesquisa que demonstrou que a infecção por dengue fez com que as células T CD8<sup>+</sup> garantissem proteção cruzada contra o vírus Zika durante a gravidez em experimento realizado em camundongos.<sup>112</sup> Outro fator que pode ter intensificado a disseminação foi uma simples alteração genética na poliproteína do vírus Zika ocorrida antes do surto de 2013, que foi suficiente para aumentar de forma permanente sua infectabilidade em células neurais humanas.<sup>105</sup> Este fato ajudaria a explicar o porquê de os casos de microcefalia terem sido tão numerosos na América quando comparados a outros continentes.

Outros aspectos a serem considerados são relacionados à susceptibilidade do *Aedes aegypti* e do *Aedes albopictus*, bem como a das cepas do vírus Zika, devido a diferenças genéticas que influenciam os níveis de resposta dos vetores à infecção e à consequente transmissibilidade do vírus.<sup>113–120</sup> A cepa americana é mais facilmente transmitida que a cepa asiática, da qual deriva, hipótese confirmada por meio da análise de saliva do vetor, nas quais apenas a amostra que continha a cepa americana mantinha o vírus viável passados três dias da infecção, além de apresentar uma taxa de infecção superior em *Aedes aegypti*.<sup>121</sup>

A região Nordeste do país registrou o maior número de casos de Zika e de microcefalia. Alguns dos motivos apontados foram apresentados por um estudo que realizou uma análise ecológica: a concomitância da circulação do vírus Chikungunya, presente na região, poderia elevar o risco de transmissão de outras doenças infecciosas.<sup>122</sup> Outro estudo encontrou uma prevalência mais alta da infecção por Zika em estratos sociais mais pobres.<sup>123</sup> O fato de as primeiras notificações da infecção pelo vírus terem ocorrido na região Nordeste do país, aliado aos massivos alertas midiáticos que se sucederam, ajudaram na adoção de medidas que possivelmente contiveram o aumento da disseminação por outras regiões. O

mesmo raciocínio se aplicaria ao Brasil, que registrou as primeiras infecções, e aos demais países da América Latina, que não apresentaram casos numerosos.

A epidemia ocorrida no Brasil apresentou acentuado declínio nos registros de infecções a partir de 2017. A cessação teve como possível causa a alta soroprevalência da população, o que teria conferido imunidade contra o vírus Zika.<sup>123,124</sup> Um estudo conduzido na Bahia, estado do nordeste do Brasil, avaliou 633 indivíduos que tiveram suas amostras de soro coletadas entre os anos de 2015 e 2016. Os resultados das análises mostraram um rápido aumento na soroprevalência da infecção pelo vírus Zika na população, que atingiu 63% até 2016.<sup>123</sup> É possível que as características populacionais e geográficas tenham influenciado diretamente a velocidade da propagação, tendo como possíveis razões as variações na densidade de vetores, imunidade e mudanças nos hábitos de rotina, além da alta mobilidade populacional.<sup>100,120,123</sup>

O surto nas Américas cessou, entretanto um trabalho que utilizou um modelo espacial estocástico indicou a possibilidade de que haja novas epidemias com intervalos de cerca de 10 anos, tempo que seria necessário para que houvesse a renovação de parcela da população, de forma que esta se tornasse novamente susceptível.<sup>124</sup>

Em conclusão, a expansão do vírus Zika verificada na última década foi a mais rápida e ampla já registrada e teve como possíveis fatores agravantes mutações genéticas que potencializaram sua transmissibilidade, aliadas às favoráveis características populacionais e geográficas das regiões por onde o vírus circulou. Houve expectativa de que ocorressem numerosos casos de microcefalia na maior parte dos países das Américas,<sup>99</sup> o que não aconteceu. De forma semelhante, permanecem não totalmente esclarecidos as razões de o Brasil ter registrado uma quantidade tão superior de casos em comparação a outros países da América Latina, assim como as razões de a região Nordeste ter concentrado a maior parcela

das infecções registradas no país, o que aumenta assim as várias questões sem respostas acerca da dispersão do vírus e da sua patogenicidade. Outra limitação da nossa revisão se deve às diferentes metodologias adotadas nos estudos incluídos, que podem dificultar a obtenção de valores precisos de soroprevalência. A reatividade cruzada causada por anticorpos contra outros flavivírus foi um empecilho que limitou a acurácia dos resultados.<sup>76</sup>

Mais pesquisas serão necessárias para suprir as lacunas de conhecimento sobre a patogênese do vírus Zika e avaliar os riscos locais por meio de pesquisas de soroprevalência para identificar regiões vulneráveis à infecção, de forma a antever o potencial de futuras epidemias. Como benefício, as autoridades sanitárias poderiam ter seus esforços melhor direcionados, de modo a contribuir com o desenvolvimento de medidas efetivas de controle. Adicionalmente, deve-se estimular o desenvolvimento de vacinas, de modo a interromper a cadeia de transmissão e evitar futuros surtos e epidemias.

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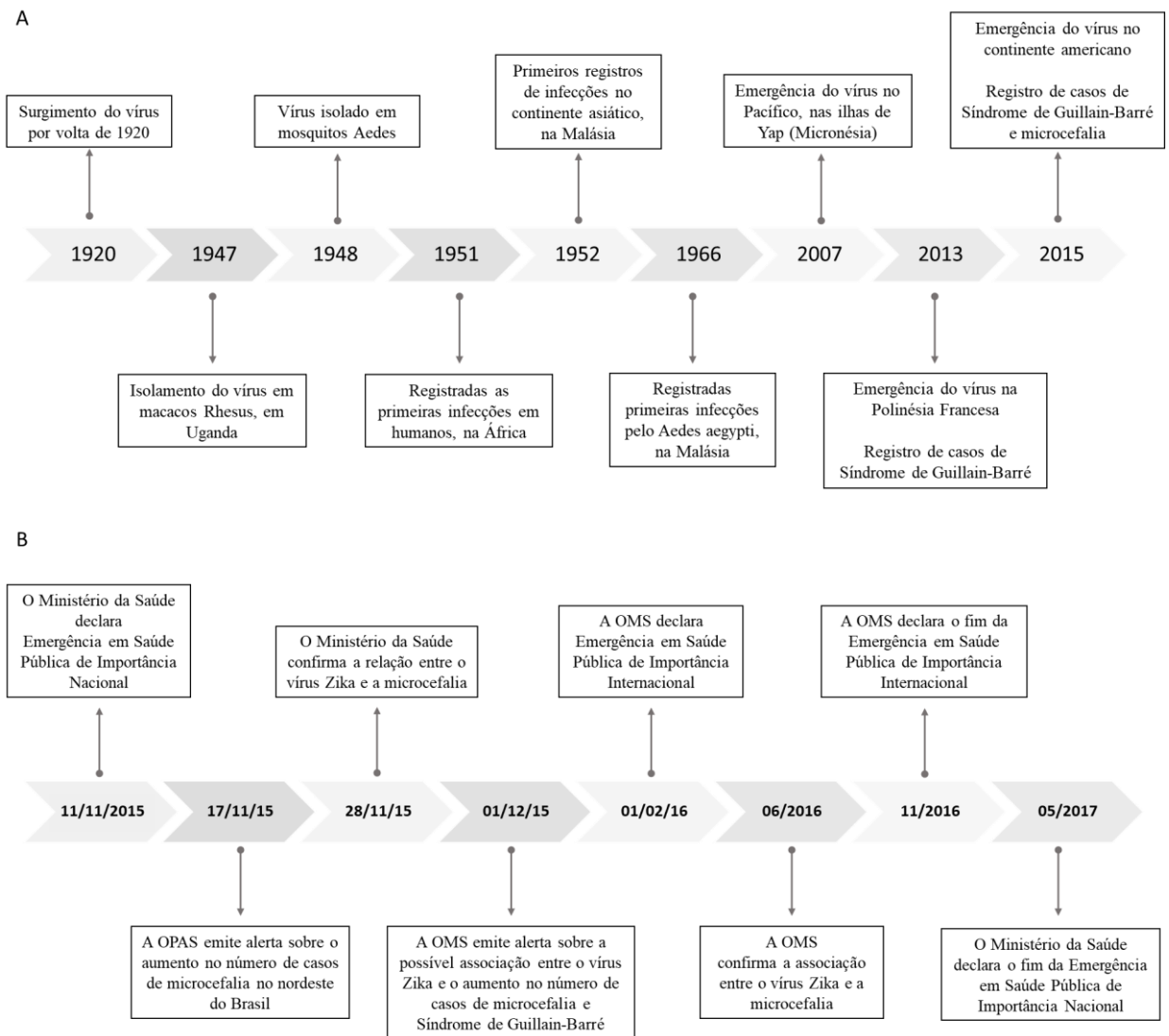
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**Figura 1.** Cronologia da expansão do vírus Zika e das medidas adotadas pelas autoridades de saúde: A) marcos durante a expansão do vírus até 2015; B) medidas adotadas pelas autoridades de saúde (Ministério da Saúde, OPAS e OMS) a partir do aumento do número de casos de microcefalia e Síndrome de Guillain-Barré no Brasil.



**Figura 2.** Países ou territórios que registraram a circulação do vírus Zika entre os anos de 1947 a 2018, separados por continente e década de ocorrência

Continente/região/ano	País ou território	Tipo de teste utilizado
<b>Década de 1940</b>		
<b>África</b>		
1947	Uganda <sup>22</sup>	IV
1948	Uganda <sup>23</sup>	IV
<b>Década de 1950</b>		
<b>África</b>		

Continentes/região/ano	País ou território	Tipo de teste utilizado
1951	Nigéria <sup>25</sup>	TPR
1952	Uganda <sup>26</sup>	NT
1952	Tanzânia <sup>26</sup>	NT
1953	Nigéria <sup>28</sup>	NT
1954	Chade <sup>31</sup>	NT
1954	Congo <sup>31</sup>	NT
1954	Egito <sup>27</sup>	NT
1955	Nigéria <sup>25</sup>	TPR
1957	Moçambique <sup>30</sup>	NT
1958	Uganda <sup>29</sup>	IV
<b>Ásia</b>		
1952	Índia <sup>32</sup>	NT
1953	Malásia <sup>27</sup>	NT
1954	Vietnã <sup>33</sup>	NT
1958	Filipinas <sup>34</sup>	NT
<b>Década de 1960</b>		
<b>África</b>		
1960	Angola <sup>41</sup>	HI
1961–1962	Rep. Centro Africana <sup>42</sup>	HI
1961–1964	Etiópia <sup>49</sup>	HI
1962	Senegal <sup>44</sup>	HI
1963–1964	Rep. Centro Africana <sup>125</sup>	HI
1963–1964	Burkina Faso <sup>40</sup>	HI
1963–1965	Costa do Marfim <sup>126</sup>	HI
1963–1965	Guiné-Bissau <sup>45</sup>	HI
1964–1966	Togo <sup>40</sup>	HI
1964–1966	Camarões <sup>43</sup>	HI
1964–1967	Mali <sup>40</sup>	HI
1965	Níger <sup>40</sup>	HI
1967	Libéria <sup>40</sup>	HI
1967	Benin <sup>40</sup>	HI
1967	Gabão <sup>40</sup>	HI
1966–1967	Uganda <sup>39</sup>	HI
1966–1967	Quênia <sup>50</sup>	HI
1966–1967	Somália <sup>39</sup>	HI
1966–1967	Marrocos <sup>40</sup>	HI
1967–1969	Uganda <sup>39</sup>	HI
1968	Quênia <sup>127</sup>	HI
1969	Nigéria <sup>128</sup>	NT

Continente/região/ano	País ou território	Tipo de teste utilizado
<b>Ásia</b>		
1969	Malásia <sup>38</sup>	IV
1969–1983	Indonésia <sup>129,130</sup>	HI
1969–1983	Paquistão <sup>131</sup>	FC
<b>Década de 1970</b>		
<b>África</b>		
1972	Serra Leoa <sup>132</sup>	HI
1970-1972	Nigéria <sup>53,128,133,134</sup>	NT, FC, HI
1971–1972	Angola <sup>135</sup>	HI
1972 e 1975	Senegal <sup>46</sup>	HI
1976	Sudão <sup>136</sup>	NT, HI
1979	República Centro Africana <sup>137</sup>	HI
<b>Ásia</b>		
1970-1979	Indonésia <sup>129,130</sup>	HI
1970-1979	Paquistão <sup>131</sup>	FC
<b>Década de 1980</b>		
<b>África</b>		
1980	Nigéria <sup>138</sup>	HI
1984	Uganda <sup>139</sup>	HI
1988	Senegal <sup>47</sup>	ELISA
<b>Ásia</b>		
1980-1983	Indonésia <sup>129,130</sup>	HI
1980-1983	Paquistão <sup>131</sup>	FC
<b>Década de 1990</b>		
<b>África</b>		
1990-1991	Senegal <sup>47</sup>	ELISA
1991-1992	Djibouti <sup>140</sup>	ELISA
1999	Costa do Marfim <sup>48</sup>	ELISA
<b>Ásia</b>		
1996–1997	Malásia <sup>141</sup>	NT
<b>Década de 2000</b>		
<b>Oceania</b>		
2007	Yap, Micronésia <sup>3</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
<b>África</b>		
2008	Senegal <sup>54</sup>	NT, FC, HI
<b>Década de 2010</b>		
<b>Oceania</b>		
2013–2014	Ilha de Páscoa <sup>62</sup>	RT-PCR

<b>Continentes/região/ano</b>	<b>País ou território</b>	<b>Tipo de teste utilizado</b>
2013–2014	Ilhas Cook <sup>63</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
2013–2014	Nova Caledônia <sup>64</sup>	RT-PCR
2011–2014	Polinésia Francesa <sup>4,5,59</sup>	ELISA
2015	Fiji <sup>61</sup>	RT-PCR
2015	Samoa <sup>61</sup>	RT-PCR
<b>África</b>		
2010	Camarões <sup>142</sup>	FC, HI
2014	Zâmbia <sup>143,144</sup>	ELISA
2015	Cabo Verde <sup>145</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
<b>Ásia</b>		
2010–2015	Camboja <sup>65</sup>	PCR
2010–2015	Indonésia <sup>66,67</sup>	RT-PCR, PCR
2010–2015	Malásia <sup>68</sup>	ELISA, PCR
2010–2015	Filipinas <sup>69</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
2010–2015	Maldivas <sup>70</sup>	RT-PCR
2012–2014	Tailândia <sup>71,72</sup>	RT-PCR
<b>América do Norte</b>		
2015-2017	México <sup>21,146</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
2016-2017	Estados Unidos <sup>21,147</sup>	NT, ELISA, RT-PCR
<b>América Central e Caribe</b>		
2014-2016	Haiti <sup>21,148</sup>	RT-PCR
2015-2016	Guiana <sup>21</sup>	
2015-2016	Martinica <sup>21,149</sup>	RT-PCR
2015-2017	Barbados <sup>21,150</sup>	RT-PCR
2015-2017	Curaçao <sup>21</sup>	
2015-2017	El Salvador <sup>21</sup>	
2015-2017	Guatemala <sup>21</sup>	
2015-2017	Panamá <sup>21,151</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
2015-2017	Guiana Francesa <sup>21</sup>	
2015-2017	Honduras <sup>21</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
2015-2017	Porto Rico <sup>21,152</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
2015-2017	Suriname <sup>21,153</sup>	RT-PCR
2016	Antígua e Barbuda <sup>21</sup>	
2016	Dominica <sup>21,154</sup>	RT-PCR
2016	Guiné-Bissau <sup>21</sup>	
2016	Montserrat <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Anguila <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Aruba <sup>21</sup>	

Continentes/região/ano	País ou território	Tipo de teste utilizado
2016	Bahamas <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Belize <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Bonaire, Santo Eustáquio e Saba <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Costa Rica <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Cuba <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Granada <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Guadalupe <sup>21,155</sup>	RT-PCR
2016-2017	Ilhas Cayman <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Ilhas Virgens (US) <sup>21</sup>	
2016	Ilhas Virgens (UK) <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Jamaica <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Nicarágua <sup>21,156</sup>	RT-PCR
2016-2017	República Dominicana <sup>21,157</sup>	ELISA, RT-PCR
2016-2017	San Martin <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	San Martin (parte holandesa) <sup>21</sup>	
2016	Santa Lúcia <sup>21</sup>	
2016	São Bartolomeu <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	São Cristóvão e Nevis <sup>21</sup>	
2016	São Vicente e Granadinas <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Trindade e Tobago <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Ilhas Turcas e Caicos <sup>21</sup>	
<b>América do Sul</b>		
2015-2017	Brasil <sup>21,73-75</sup>	RT-PCR
2015-2017	Colômbia <sup>21,158</sup>	RT-PCR
2015-2017	Venezuela <sup>52,106</sup>	RT-PCR
2016-2017	Argentina <sup>21</sup>	
2016	Bolívia <sup>21,159</sup>	NT, ELISA
2016-2017	Equador <sup>21,160</sup>	RT-PCR
2015-2017	Paraguai <sup>21</sup>	
2016-2017	Peru <sup>21,161</sup>	RT-PCR

Notas:

NT - Teste de neutralização viral para detecção de anticorpos.

ELISA - ensaio imunoenzimático.

TC - Teste de fixação de complemento.

HI - Teste de inibição da hemaglutinação.

TPR - Teste de proteção intracerebral em ratos.

IV - Isolamento viral.

RT-PCR - Reação de transcriptase reversa seguida de reação em cadeia de polimerase.

PCR - Reação em cadeia de polimerase.

**Tabela 1.** Soroprevalência do vírus Zika em humanos de acordo com o país atingido e o período da infecção, 1947-2016

Período	País/referência	Tipo de teste utilizado	Nº de casos	Nº total	Soroprevalência (%)
		MPT, NT,			
1947-1984 <sup>a</sup>	Uganda <sup>23,26,39,127,139</sup>	HI	56	798	7
1947-1952	Tanzânia <sup>26</sup>	MPT	6	36	17
1951-1975 <sup>b</sup>	Nigéria <sup>25,28,40,53,128,132,138</sup>	NT,MPT,HI	1.090	3.018	36
1952	Índia <sup>27</sup>	NT	33	196	17
1953	Filipinas <sup>34</sup>	NT	19	53	36
1953, 1954	Malásia <sup>27,33</sup>	NT	90	179	50
1954	Tailândia <sup>33</sup>	NT	8	50	16
1954	Vietnã <sup>33</sup>	NT	2	50	4
1954	Egito <sup>27</sup>	NT	1	180	1
1957	Moçambique <sup>30</sup>	NT	10	149	7
1960-1972 <sup>c</sup>	Angola <sup>41,135</sup>	HI	202	5.082	4
1961-1979 <sup>d</sup>	República Centro Africana <sup>42,125</sup>	HI	186	1.177	16
1961-1964	Etiópia <sup>49</sup>	HI	48	1.316	4
1962-1990 <sup>e</sup>	Senegal <sup>44,46,47</sup>	HI, ELISA	203	1.292	16
1963,1964	Burkina Faso <sup>40</sup>	HI	1.005	1.896	53
1963-1999 <sup>f</sup>	Costa do Marfim <sup>48,126</sup>	HI, ELISA	393	906	43
1964,1965	Guiné Bissau <sup>45</sup>	HI	122	1.054	12
1964-1966	Togo <sup>40</sup>	HI	401	1.294	31
1964-2010 <sup>g</sup>	Camarões <sup>43,142</sup>	HI, FC	626	3.714	17
1964-1967	Mali <sup>40</sup>	HI	1.232	2.369	52
1965	Níger <sup>40</sup>	HI	55	308	18
1966	Somália <sup>39</sup>	HI	3	242	1
1966-1968	Quênia <sup>50,127</sup>	HI	509	3.134	16
1967	Benin <sup>40</sup>	HI	108	244	44
1967	Gabão <sup>40</sup>	HI	50	717	7
1972	Serra Leoa <sup>132</sup>	HI	62	899	7
1983	Paquistão <sup>131</sup>	FC	1	43	2
1983	Indonésia <sup>129,130</sup>	HI	9	71	13
2007	Yap <sup>3</sup>	ELISA	414	557	74
2011-2013 <sup>h</sup>	Polinésia Francesa <sup>59</sup>	ELISA	319	1.069	30
2014	Zâmbia <sup>144</sup>	ELISA	217	3.625	6
2015-2016	Brasil <sup>123</sup>	ELISA, PRNT	401	633	63

Notas:

<sup>a</sup> 1947-1952, 1966, 1967, 1984

<sup>b</sup> 1951-1952, 1955, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1969-1971, 1971-1975, 1972

<sup>c</sup> 1960,1971,1972

<sup>d</sup> 1961,1962,1963,1964,1979

<sup>e</sup> 1962,1988,1990

<sup>f</sup> 1963-1965,1999

<sup>g</sup> 1964-1966,2010

<sup>h</sup> 2011-2013,2014

NT - Teste de neutralização viral para detecção de anticorpos.

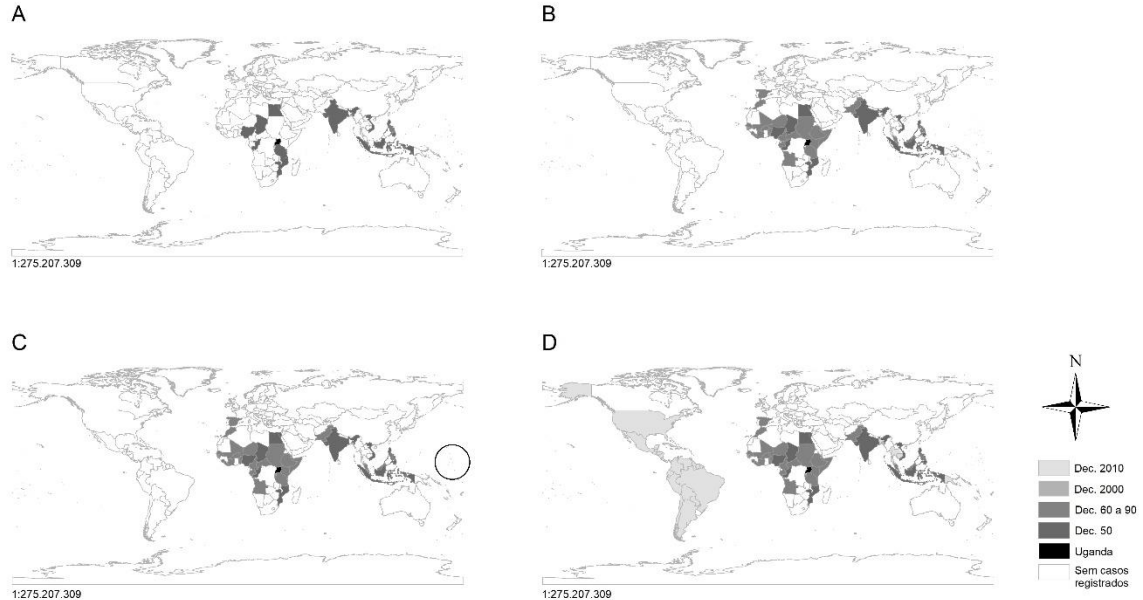
ELISA, ensaio imunoenzimático.

FC - Teste de fixação de complemento.

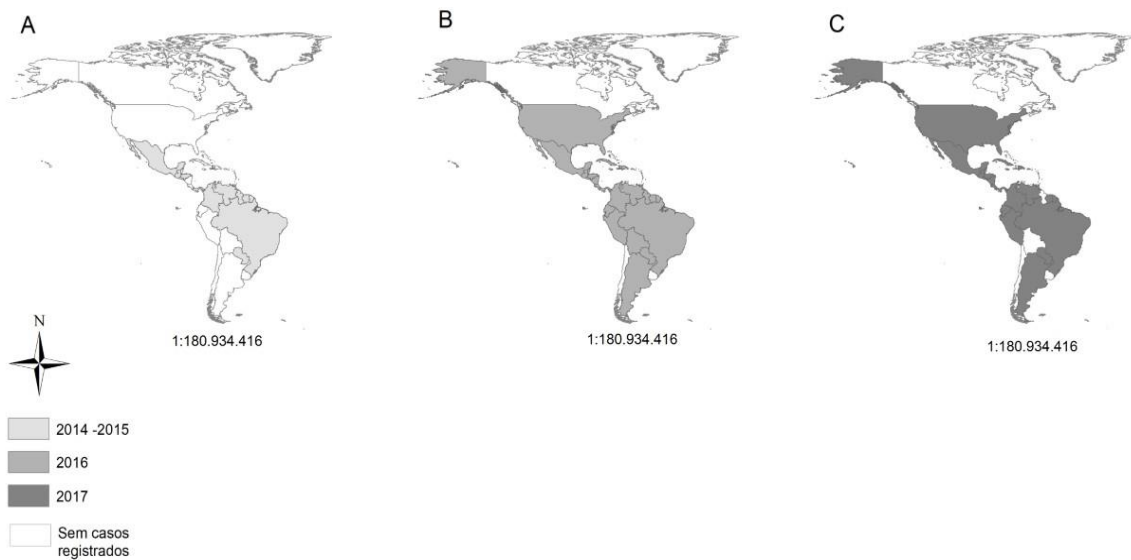
HI - Teste de inibição da hemaglutinação.

TPR - Teste de proteção intracerebral em ratos.

**Figura 3.** Expansão geográfica e temporal do vírus Zika. A) países ou territórios que registraram a circulação do vírus até a década de 50; B) países ou territórios que registraram a circulação do vírus durante as décadas de 60, 70, 80 e 90; C) países ou territórios com registro de circulação do vírus na década de 2000, no círculo destacado encontram-se ilhas do pacífico e; D) todos os países e territórios que registraram a presença do vírus entre 2010 e janeiro de 2018



**Figura 4.** Expansão geográfica e temporal do vírus Zika nas Américas entre os anos de 2015 e 2017: A) países ou territórios que registraram a circulação do vírus entre os anos de 2014 e 2015; B) países ou territórios que registraram a circulação do vírus durante o ano de 2016; C) países ou territórios com registro de circulação do vírus em 2017





MANUSCRITO II: *“High Zika Virus Seroprevalence in Salvador, Northeastern Brazil limits the potential for further outbreaks”* *mBio*. 2017 Nov-Dec; 8(6): e01390-17



## High Zika Virus Seroprevalence in Salvador, Northeastern Brazil Limits the Potential for Further Outbreaks

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**ABSTRACT** During 2015 to 2016, Brazil reported more Zika virus (ZIKV) cases than any other country, yet population exposure remains unknown. Serological studies of ZIKV are hampered by cross-reactive immune responses against heterologous viruses. We conducted serosurveys for ZIKV, dengue virus (DENV), and Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) in 633 individuals prospectively sampled during 2015 to 2016, including microcephaly and non-microcephaly pregnancies, HIV-infected patients, tuberculosis patients, and university staff in Salvador in northeastern Brazil using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISAs) and plaque reduction neutralization tests. Sera sampled retrospectively during 2013 to 2015 from 277 HIV-infected patients were used to assess the spread of ZIKV over time. Individuals were georeferenced, and sociodemographic indicators were compared between ZIKV-positive and -negative areas and areas with and without microcephaly cases. Epidemiological key parameters were modeled in a Bayesian framework. ZIKV seroprevalence increased rapidly during 2015 to 2016, reaching 63.3% by 2016 (95% confidence interval [CI], 59.4 to 66.8%), comparable to the seroprevalence of DENV (75.7%; CI, 69.4 to 81.1%) and higher than that of CHIKV (7.4%; CI, 5.6 to 9.8%). Of 19 microcephaly pregnancies, 94.7% showed ZIKV IgG antibodies, compared to 69.3% of 257 non-microcephaly pregnancies ( $P = 0.017$ ). Analyses of sociodemographic data revealed a higher ZIKV burden in low socioeconomic status (SES) areas. High seroprevalence, combined with case data dynamics allowed estimates of the basic reproduction number  $R_0$  of 2.1 (CI, 1.8 to 2.5) at the onset of the outbreak and an effective reproductive number  $R_{eff}$  of  $<1$  in subsequent years. Our data corroborate ZIKV-associated congenital disease and an association of low SES and ZIKV infection and suggest that population immunity caused cessation of the outbreak. Similar studies from other areas will be required to determine the fate of the American ZIKV outbreak.

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**IMPORTANCE** The ongoing American Zika virus (ZIKV) outbreak involves millions of cases and has a major impact on maternal and child health. Knowledge of infection rates is crucial to project future epidemic patterns and determine the absolute risk of microcephaly upon maternal ZIKV infection during pregnancy. For unknown reasons, the vast majority of ZIKV-associated microcephaly cases are concentrated in northeastern Brazil. We analyzed different subpopulations from Salvador, a Brazilian metropolis representing one of the most affected areas during the American ZIKV outbreak. We demonstrate rapid spread of ZIKV in Salvador, Brazil, and infection rates exceeding 60%. We provide evidence for the link between ZIKV and microcephaly, report that ZIKV predominantly affects geographic areas with low socioeconomic status, and show that population immunity likely caused cessation of the outbreak. Our results enable stakeholders to identify target populations for vaccination and for trials on vaccine efficacy and allow refocusing of research efforts and intervention strategies.

**KEYWORDS** Zika virus, microcephaly, risk factors, serology, socioeconomic status

During 2016, the Zika virus (ZIKV) outbreak in Latin America and the Caribbean was declared a public health emergency of international concern (1). Autochthonous circulation of ZIKV is now reported across vast areas of Latin America (2, 3).

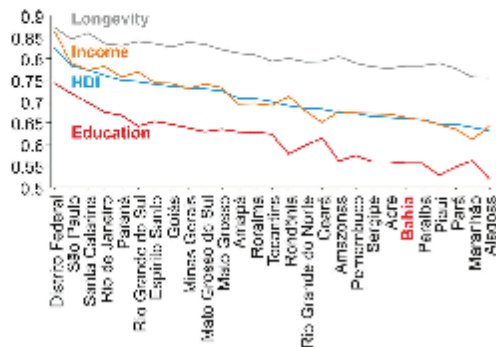
Many countries in the Americas have reported high rates of clinically suspected ZIKV infections (2), but the proportion of laboratory-confirmed cases remains low. Case identification is hindered by the clinical similarities between ZIKV and endemic dengue virus (DENV) as well as Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) disease (4). Among the challenges in laboratory testing is the low and short-lived presence of ZIKV in body fluids (5). Furthermore, detection of ZIKV-specific antibodies in tropical regions is ambiguous due to cross-reactive antibodies elicited by previous infections with antigenically related viruses, including the widespread DENV (4), limiting accurate diagnostic testing even when using highly specific neutralization tests (6). In addition, asymptomatic courses in an estimated 80% of ZIKV-infected individuals (7) make clinical cases an insensitive measure of population-level exposure. Uncertainty about the ZIKV infection rate and proportion of the population exposed has key implications for modeling the trajectory of the American ZIKV outbreak (8, 9) and studies describing the etiology and frequency of ZIKV-associated congenital disease (10, 11).

For unknown reasons, northeastern Brazil has reported the vast majority of cases of ZIKV-associated microcephaly (12). Among the possible effect modifiers is the low socioeconomic status (SES) of the northeastern states of Brazil, exemplified by an approximately 5- to 10-fold lower monthly household income compared to more-affluent regions of Brazil (13). As shown in Fig. 1, the northeastern state of Bahia is one of the most underdeveloped Brazilian states according to the human development index (HDI) provided by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Bahia was among the most ZIKV-affected regions in 2015 (14). However, the potential cofactors for ZIKV-associated microcephaly and whether these cofactors may be associated with low SES remain unclear.

Here, we investigate specimens sampled before, during, and after the current ZIKV outbreak to reconstruct the temporal spread of ZIKV in Salvador, the capital of Bahia, Brazil. We determine the infection rate of ZIKV in different subpopulations, explore its etiologic role in congenital disease, and use a mathematical modeling approach to project the trajectory of the ZIKV epidemic. Finally, we use a geographic information system-based approach to identify location-specific differences of ZIKV exposure and explore their associations with low SES.

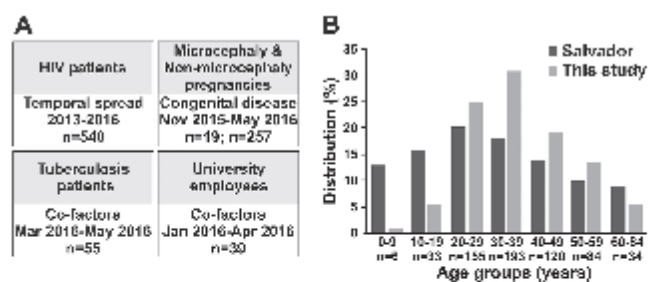
## RESULTS

This study comprised 910 individuals from Salvador, Brazil, representing four different subpopulations. To assess the role of ZIKV in congenital disease, we collected specimens from parturients from 25 November 2015 to 2 May 2016. These specimens



**FIG 1** Ranking of Brazilian states according to the United Nations Development Programme. Longevity (gray), income (orange) and education (red) indexes, and the human development index (blue) as the geometric mean of the three aforementioned indexes. Data retrieved from Atlas Brazil, 2013 (<http://www.atlasbrasil.org.br/2013/>). The northeastern state Bahia is shown in bold and red.

included samples from 16 mothers of neonates with microcephaly and three neonates with microcephaly for whom the mothers' sera could not be obtained, as well as 255 mothers of neonates without microcephaly, including two neonates for whom the mothers' sera could not be obtained. To investigate the temporal spread of ZIKV and to assess specificity of the serological tests, samples from 540 HIV-infected patients were used. These specimens included stored samples collected between 12 January 2013 to 30 August 2015 and samples from patients who attended HIV outpatient departments between 25 November 2015 to 28 May 2016. Finally, 55 tuberculosis patients and 39 university employees were sampled from 12 January 2016 to 28 May 2016 to investigate the impact of SES on ZIKV exposure (Fig. 2A). All adult age groups composing the general population of Salvador, Brazil, were represented in our study (Fig. 2B), and the subpopulations included in this study comprised individuals whose households were widely spread across urban Salvador (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). The main assay used for serological testing was a commercially available enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) relying on the recombinant NS1 antigen of ZIKV (15, 16), because this assay was the only test certified for serological diagnostics of ZIKV by the responsible Brazilian authority ANVISA (Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária) and thus available to us during this study (17). Confirmatory testing con-



**FIG 2** Serosurveys and distribution of specimens per age category. (A) Main research question, time span of sampling, and specimens per subpopulation. (B) Distribution of specimens per age category. Only specimens sampled for all subpopulations in 2015 to 2016 were included due to low Zika virus prevalence in the preceding years. The numbers (n) of study participants for which age information was available are given below the age categories. Age data for Salvador were retrieved from the 2010 census (<https://cidades.ibge.gov.br/brasil/ba/salvador/panorama>).

**TABLE 1** Serological test results<sup>a</sup>

Subpopulation <sup>b</sup>	Median age (yr) (IQR) <sup>c</sup>	Total no. of individuals tested for ZIKV by ELISA	ZIKV IgM		ZIKV IgG		ZIKV PRNT		CHIKV IgG		DENV IgG <sup>d</sup>	
			n	%	n	%	n/total no.	%	n/total no.	%	n/total no.	%
HIV patients												
2013	36.7 (16.4)	96	0	0	7	7.3			7/96	7.3	52/84	61.9
2014	38.8 (17.8)	89	0	0	2	2.3			6/89	6.7	57/82	69.5
2015	36.6 (17.4)	92	2	2.2	16	17.4			1/92	1.1	46/68	67.6
Total retrospective		277										
HIV patients 2016	44.7 (15.4)	263	2	0.8	139	52.9	31/61	50.8	22/263	8.4	88/110	80.4
MC pregnancies 2015–2016	28.5 (10.8)	19	1	5.3	18	94.7	14/15	93.3	3/19	15.8	0/1	0
Non-MC pregnancies 2015–2016	28.9 (10.9)	257	1	0.4	178	69.3	114/171	66.6	15/257	5.8	52/69	75.4
Tuberculosis patients 2016	45.1 (22.2)	55	2	3.6	47	85.5	14/20	70	4/55	7.3	8/8	100
University employees 2016	33.8 (12.3)	39	2	5.1	19	48.7	14/32	43.8	3/39	7.7	8/18	44.4
Total 2015–2016		633	8	1.3	401	63.3	187/299	62.5	47/633	7.4	156/206	75.7
Total study		910										

<sup>a</sup>The number of specimens (n) and percentage of specimens positive for antibodies against Zika (ZIKV), Chikungunya (CHIKV), or dengue (DENV) virus in ELISA or plaque-reduction neutralization test (PRNT) are shown.

<sup>b</sup>MC, microcephaly.

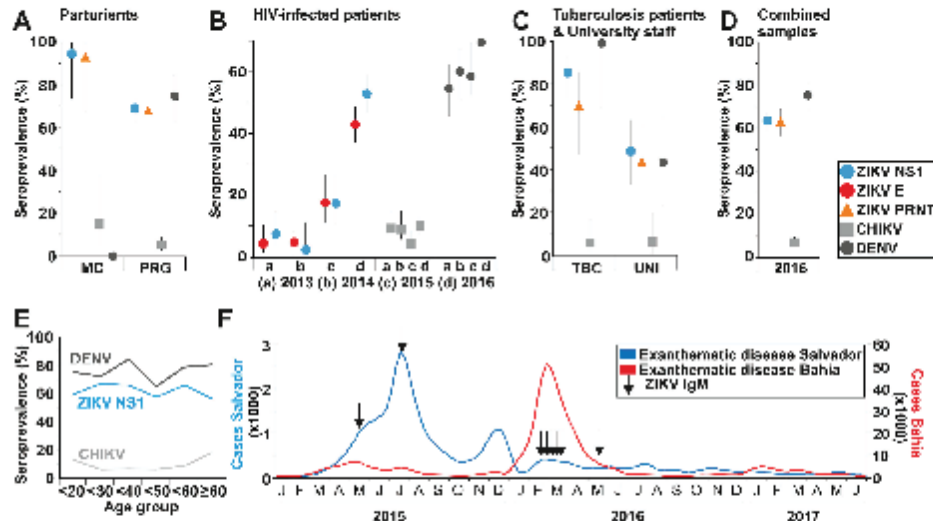
<sup>c</sup>Interquartile range (IQR) shown in parentheses in the table.

<sup>d</sup>Including only ZIKV-negative specimens due to cross-reactivity of the DENV ELISA with ZIKV antibodies.

ducted in about half of the sera used in this study included plaque reduction neutralization tests (PRNT) and an in-house ELISA relying on a recombinant envelope (E) antigen of ZIKV (56), designed to be robust against unspecific reactivity by targeted mutation of cross-reactive residues and preincubation of sera with heterologous antigens of the four DENV serotypes.

**ZIKV infection in parturients.** A case-control study conducted in the neighboring northeastern metropolis Recife, Brazil, suggested an etiologic role of ZIKV in congenital disease (18). Consistent with these data, 18 of 19 parturients whose neonates were born with microcephaly (termed microcephaly pregnancies) from Salvador, Brazil, showed IgG antibodies against ZIKV (94.7%; 95% confidence interval [CI], 73.5 to 99.9%), compared to 69.3% of 257 non-microcephaly pregnancies using an NS1-based ELISA (CI, 63.3 to 74.5%; Table 1 and Fig. 3A). The higher ZIKV seroprevalence in microcephaly pregnancies compared to non-microcephaly pregnancies was statistically significant ( $P = 0.017$  by Fisher's exact test; relative risk = 1.4 [CI, 1.2 to 1.6]) and similar to ZIKV infection in 80.0% of microcephaly pregnancies compared to 63.9% of controls in Recife (18). Data from PRNT and the NS1 antigen ELISA were highly consistent (Table 1 and Fig. 3A). Unfortunately, lack of adequate sera taken close to birth prevented determination of ZIKV-specific IgM in all newborns with microcephaly.

**Temporal spread of ZIKV.** Phylogenetic reconstructions have suggested that ZIKV was introduced into the Americas during mid-late 2013 (14, 19). To assess whether the projected time of introduction can be confirmed by population-level antibody responses, we tested specimens from HIV-infected patients collected between 2013 and 2016. Retrospective specimens were available from routine attendance of HIV-infected patients for viral load measurements and resistance genotyping within the Brazilian HIV treatment program. Unfortunately, DENV-specific antibodies can cause false-positive ZIKV test results even when using highly specific PRNTs (20). Comparison of titer magnitudes between DENV and ZIKV PRNTs may support virological diagnostics of ZIKV exposure in paired sera from cases of acute febrile illness. However, ZIKV and DENV PRNT titers can range from 1:10 to about 1:100,000 in secondary flavivirus infections (20). DENV PRNTs are thus not an optimal solution to distinguish ZIKV from DENV exposure in a population-based sample from an area that is hyperendemic for DENV.



**FIG 3** ZIKV seroprevalence and reported cases. (A) ZIKV, CHIKV, and DENV seroprevalence in parturients. Non-microcephaly pregnancies (PRG) ( $n = 257$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 69$  for DENV IgG); microcephaly pregnancies (MC) ( $n = 19$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 0$  for DENV IgG). (B) ZIKV, CHIKV, and DENV seroprevalence in HIV-positive patients from 2013 ( $n = 96$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 52$  for DENV IgG), 2014 ( $n = 89$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 57$  for DENV IgG), 2015 ( $n = 92$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 46$  for DENV IgG), and 2016 ( $n = 263$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 110$  for DENV IgG). (C) ZIKV, CHIKV, and DENV seroprevalence in tuberculosis patients (TBC) ( $n = 55$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 8$  for DENV IgG) and university employees (UNI) ( $n = 39$  for ZIKV IgG and CHIKV IgG and  $n = 20$  for DENV IgG). (D) ZIKV, CHIKV, and DENV seroprevalence in all 633 samples from 2016. The bars in panels A to D depict 95% confidence intervals. (E) Seroprevalence per age group for ZIKV IgG, CHIKV, and DENV in 633 samples from 2016. (F) Reported Brazilian cases of acute exanthematic disease in Salvador and Bahia until epidemiological week 22 in 2017. The months are indicated by capital first letter.

Therefore, the sera from HIV-infected patients collected over 4 years were tested for ZIKV-specific IgG using an NS1 antigen ELISA and in parallel an E-antigen competitive ELISA. Both ELISAs yielded highly congruent results (Fig. 3B). ZIKV IgG seroprevalence increased from 4.2 to 7.3% in 2013 to 2014 (CI, 1.3 to 9.1%) to 17.4% in 2015 (CI, 10.9 to 26.5%) and to 43.0 to 52.9% in 2016 (CI, 37.1 to 58.8%; Fig. 3B and Table S1). The significant increase in seroprevalence ( $\chi^2 = 127.7$  and  $P < 0.001$  with the NS1 antigen ELISA and  $\chi^2 = 90.6$  and  $P < 0.001$  with the E-antigen competitive ELISA) corroborated the fast ZIKV spread in Salvador, Brazil, during 2015 to 2016 and suggested the reliability of both ELISAs in an area that is hyperendemic for DENV, as illustrated by 61.9 to 80.4% of sera reactive for DENV during 2013 to 2016 (Fig. 3B and Table 1). The significantly lower numbers of ZIKV IgG detections in 2013 to 2014 may correspond to the initial phase of ZIKV introduction into Salvador.

**Patterns of ZIKV spread in Salvador, Brazil.** In northeastern Brazil, low socioeconomic conditions are major determinants of developing tuberculosis (21). To obtain preliminary evidence for ZIKV infection rates in different social strata within Salvador, Brazil, we therefore analyzed 55 low-SES patients treated for active tuberculosis (did not graduate from college, most patients without complete secondary schooling) and 39 healthy university employees (most with college education, all completed secondary schooling). As shown in Fig. 3C, significantly more tuberculosis patients (85.5%; CI, 73.6 to 92.7%) than university employees (48.7%; CI, 33.9 to 63.8%) showed ZIKV-specific antibodies ( $\chi^2 = 14.7$ ;  $P = 0.0001$ ) using the NS1 antigen ELISA. When only PRNT results were considered, the difference in seroprevalence between these two groups was similar to that of the NS1-based analysis and statistically significant, albeit at a lower significance level ( $\chi^2 = 4.48$ ;  $P = 0.044$ ). Similar to a study demonstrating higher DENV exposure in low-SES strata of the neighboring northeastern metropolis Recife prior to

the introduction of ZIKV (22), DENV seroprevalence was significantly higher in tuberculosis patients at 100% (CI, 70.7 to 100%) than in university employees at 44.4% (CI, 24.5 to 66.3%;  $\chi^2 = 7.22$ ;  $P = 0.007$ ). This suggested more common exposure to arboviruses in low-SES strata in Salvador and validity of the comparison of ZIKV exposure in these subpopulations as proxy variables for different SESs.

Combining all study groups, ZIKV seroprevalence in Salvador, Brazil, in 2016 was 63.3% (CI, 59.4 to 66.8%) according to an NS1 antigen ELISA and 62.5% (CI, 56.9 to 67.8%) according to PRNT. Seroprevalence estimates according to the NS1 antigen ELISA and PRNT were thus near-identical (Fig. 3D and Table 1), even though NS1 antigen ELISA and PRNT results varied in 14.7% of individual specimens (Table 2). Despite its recent introduction, the seroprevalence of ZIKV thus almost reached that of the endemic DENV at 75.7% (CI, 69.4 to 81.1%), although DENV seroprevalence was still significantly higher ( $\chi^2 = 10.1$ ;  $P = 0.001$ ; Fig. S1 and Table 1). The high DENV seroprevalence in Salvador, Brazil, corresponded to a previous study reporting around 80 to 90% population-level DENV seroprevalence in northeastern Brazil before the introduction of ZIKV (22). No significant differences in ZIKV seroprevalence between male and female study participants were observed within subpopulations (Table S2). Finally, all age groups in this study showed similar ZIKV antibody detection rates ( $\chi^2 = 6.6$ ;  $P = 0.4$ ; Fig. 3E and Table S3), suggesting widespread rapid transmission with no age-related variation in exposure. These data suggested rapid spread of ZIKV within Salvador and were consistent with the age distribution observed during the 2007 Yap ZIKV outbreak (4).

**Differential spread of ZIKV and CHIKV.** The emergence of CHIKV in the Americas parallels that of ZIKV spatiotemporally with the introduction and transcontinental spread in 2013 to 2014, and both viruses use *Aedes* mosquitoes as vectors (23–25). However, CHIKV seroprevalence remained consistently low in HIV patients during 2013 to 2016 at 1.1 to 8.4% ( $\chi^2 = 5.9$ ;  $P = 0.12$ ; Fig. 3B, light gray), reaching an overall seroprevalence of 7.4% across all study groups in 2016 (CI, 5.6 to 9.8%; Fig. 3D and Table 1). Our CHIKV seroprevalence estimate was consistent with that of an independent study from Salvador, Brazil (26). Our data thus suggested an accelerated dissemination of ZIKV compared to CHIKV in Salvador, Brazil.

**Low rate of acute ZIKV infections in 2016.** Cases of acute exanthematic disease, the lead symptom of ZIKV infection in adults, reported in the Bahia state within the Brazilian surveillance system SINAN were retrieved and compared to our observations. Of the 67,454 cases reported in Bahia during 2015, 35,261 originated from Salvador (52.3%) (Fig. 3F, blue line). The first year of the ZIKV outbreak in Bahia was thus concentrated in Salvador. In contrast, in 2016, 59,054 ZIKV cases were reported all over Bahia (Fig. 3F, red line) of which only 928 cases originated from Salvador (1.6%). To see whether the decline of notified cases from Salvador in 2016 could be confirmed by laboratory tests, we tested all specimens for ZIKV RNA and ZIKV IgM. None of the specimens tested positive for ZIKV RNA. In agreement with the high ZIKV seroprevalence from 2015 onwards, IgM-based incidence was detected only in 2015 (2.2%; CI, 0.1 to 8.0%) and 2016 (1.3%; CI, 0.6 to 2.5%) (Fig. 3F, arrows). Until mid-2017, the number of reported cases remained consistently low from both Salvador and the state of Bahia. This suggests that the outbreak ceased due to the lack of acute cases.

**Modelling the trajectory of the epidemic in Salvador, Brazil.** To test whether population immunity would limit future cases in Salvador, Brazil, we fitted a mathematical model of ZIKV transmission jointly to the independent case notification data from Salvador and the seroprevalence results from our study. Our results showed that the observed data are consistent with a single-year continuous epidemic that began early in 2015 and declined toward the end of 2015 (Fig. 4A and B).

The estimated basic reproduction number ( $R_0$ ) for ZIKV was 2.1 (CI, 1.8 to 2.5) at the onset of the outbreak with, on average, 2.0% (CI, 1.8 to 2.2%) of ZIKV infections reported in the national surveillance system. Projecting the model forward into 2016 suggested a continued decline in transmission despite the return of peak arbovirus



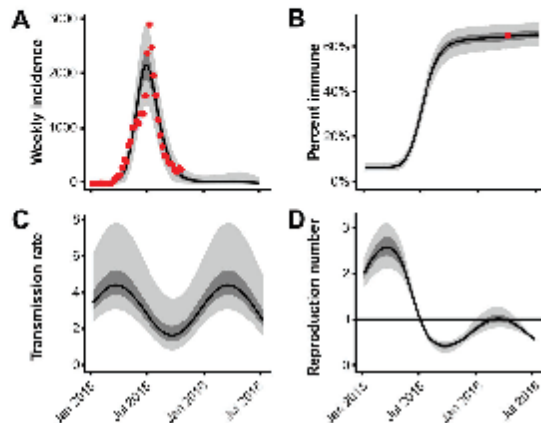
**TABLE 2.** ZIKV NS1-based ELISA performance in prospectively collected specimens<sup>a</sup>

Subpopulation	No. of specimens within subpopulations	No. of specimens tested by PRNT (%)	No. of specimens with the following PRNT result		ELISA result	% specimens with divergent ELISA/PRNT results	Sensitivity (95% CI)	Specificity (95% CI)	PPV (95% CI)	NPV (95% CI)
			+	-						
MC pregnancies	19	15 (78.4)	14	0	+	0	1 (0.76–1)	1 (0.25–1)	1 (0.76–1)	1 (0.25–1)
Non-MC pregnancies	257	171 (66.5)	0	1	+	0	0.92* (0.85–0.96)	0.63* (0.49–0.75)	0.83* (0.76–0.89)	0.80* (0.65–0.90)
HIV patients	263	61 (23.2)	9	36	+	5.3	0.83* (0.66–0.95)	0.80* (0.63–0.92)	0.81* (0.65–0.93)	0.83* (0.64–0.94)
			5	2.4	-	8.2	1* (0.76–1)	1* (0.54–1)	1* (0.76–1)	1* (0.54–1)
Tuberculosis patients	55	20 (36.4)	14	0	+	0	0.86* (0.57–0.98)	0.94* (0.73–0.99)	0.92* (0.64–0.99)	0.89* (0.67–0.99)
University employees	39	32 (82.1)	12	1	+	3.1	0.91* (0.86–0.95)	0.75* (0.66–0.83)	0.86* (0.80–0.91)	0.84* (0.75–0.90)
			2	1.7	-	6.3				
Total specimens	633	299 (47.2)	171	28	+	9.4				
			16	8.4	-	5.4				

<sup>a</sup>The positive (+) and negative (-) ELISA and plaque reduction neutralization test (PRNT) results are shown. The sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV), and negative predictive value (NPV), and adjusted Wald confidence intervals (95% CI) are shown; values with an *P* value of <0.0001 are indicated by an asterisk; MC, microcephaly.

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**FIG 4** Transmission model and projected trajectory of the Zika epidemic in Salvador, Brazil. (A) Model fit to ZIKV incidence in Salvador. The red circles show the reported ZIKV cases. The black line shows the median model estimate. The shaded regions depict the interquartile range and 95% CI. (B) ZIKV seroprevalence over time in the study population ( $n = 633$ ). The black line shows the median model estimate. The shaded regions depict the interquartile range (IQR) and 95% CI. The red circle shows the observed proportion of seropositive individuals. (C) Estimated seasonal variation in ZIKV transmission. (D) Estimated change in effective reproduction number over time.

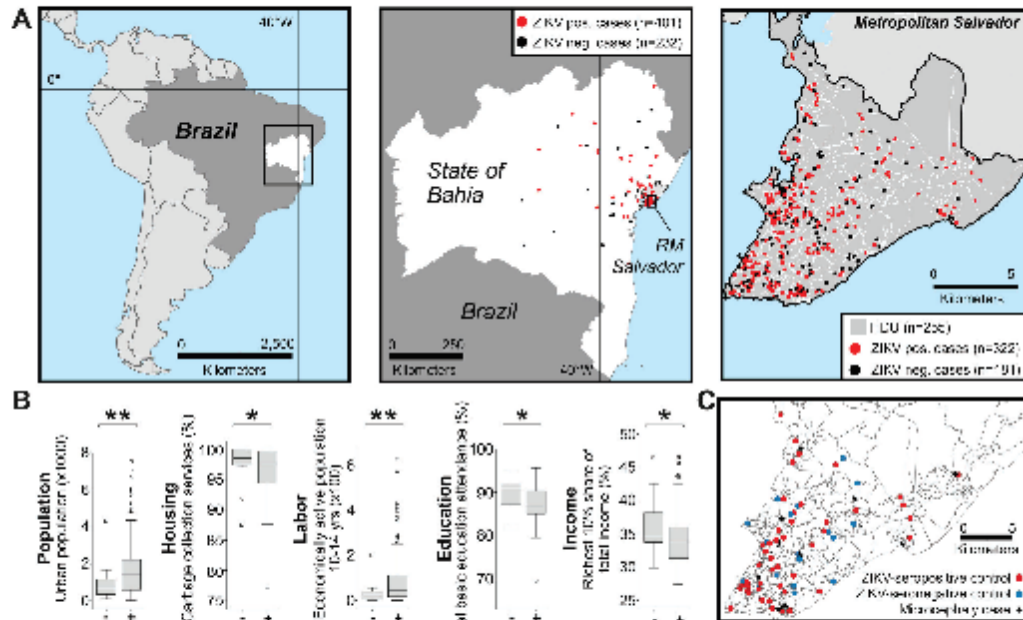
season. Due to the lack of susceptible individuals, the effective reproductive number ( $R_{eff}$ ) was not predicted to exceed one in subsequent years, a condition required for another ZIKV epidemic wave (Fig. 4C and D).

**Impact of SES.** To further investigate the impact of low SES on ZIKV infection rates, the home addresses of study participants were georeferenced onto 147 spatial units classified into human development units (HDUs) according to sociodemographic characteristics (Fig. 5A and Fig. S1). HDUs showing ZIKV-positive cases represented significantly lower SES in 65 (32.2%) of 201 indicators (Table S4). The latter included all 56 available population indicators, as well as less regular garbage recollection, a higher proportion of child and youth labor, inferior schooling, and lower income in ZIKV-positive HDUs (Fig. 5B shows the most significant indicators per category). No significant differences were observed regarding the occurrence of microcephaly in HDUs. Logistic regression analyses were conducted to identify which SES-associated indicators were most associated with ZIKV-positive HDUs. However, the high degree of multicollinearity between sociodemographic indicators prevented model convergence.

Finally, a nested case-control approach was conducted to investigate whether low-SES-associated indicators influenced the occurrence of microcephaly independently of ZIKV infection. To that end, six pregnant women matched for age (within 2 years) for each of 12 microcephaly cases living in HDUs within metropolitan Salvador, Brazil, were chosen, and the sociodemographic indicators of the respective HDUs were attributed to cases and controls (Fig. 5C). Only the ZIKV serostatus differed significantly between cases and controls ( $\chi^2 = 4.1$ ;  $P = 0.043$ ), in contrast to the sociodemographic indicators.

## DISCUSSION

Here we present the results of what is, to the best of our knowledge, the first arboviral seroprevalence survey in Latin America since the beginning of the Zika epidemic. We demonstrate a high ZIKV infection rate of about 63% in Salvador, the third-largest Brazilian city with about 2.7 million inhabitants in northeastern Brazil. This rate was comparable to the 66 to 73% seroprevalence found on Yap, Micronesia, and French Polynesia, although these ZIKV outbreaks occurred in 10- to 300-fold smaller



**FIG 5** Association of socioeconomic status and ZIKV exposure. (A) Maps showing Brazil, the state of Bahia, metropolitan Salvador, and sample distribution onto human development units (HDUs). (B) Sociodemographic indicators differing significantly between ZIKV-positive and ZIKV-negative HDUs. Boxplots show medians, interquartile range (box length), outliers (circles), and extreme values (squares). Values that are significantly different are indicated by bars and asterisks as follows: \*,  $P \leq 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ . (C) Distribution of samples used for nested case-control study. ZIKV-positive and -negative cases and microcephaly pregnancies (stars;  $n = 11$ ) are shown. One additional case was outside the area shown in the map. Seven other cases were insufficiently georeferenced. Due to geographic proximity of home addresses of some controls, not all 72 controls are visible.

island populations (10, 27). The similar seroprevalence rates suggest effective ZIKV spread irrespective of different geographic settings.

The reasons for the differential spread of ZIKV and CHIKV in Salvador, Brazil, remain unclear. Hypothetically, the faster spread of ZIKV might be associated with viral properties affecting transmission. However, a putative replicative advantage of ZIKV over CHIKV in Brazilian *Aedes* mosquitoes is not warranted by vector competence studies (28, 29). Similarly, increased availability of ZIKV to mosquito vectors during feeding on viremic humans is unlikely, since viral loads can be considerably higher in CHIKV infections than in ZIKV infections (5). An alternative explanation may include amplification of CHIKV in sylvatic cycles prior to its putative introduction into urban cycles in Salvador, Brazil. However, whether CHIKV may enter a sylvatic cycle in the Americas remains to be determined (30). Finally, whereas sexual transmission of ZIKV may have contributed to its initial spread, the predominant route of transmission likely remains vector-borne, opposing a relatively faster spread of ZIKV due to sexual transmission (31). So far, the most plausible explanation may include differences in the geospatial introduction of CHIKV and ZIKV within northeastern Brazil. Indeed, the main foci of CHIKV infections in the Brazilian state of Bahia were initially centered in the hinterland, whereas ZIKV may have been directly introduced to the densely populated Atlantic coast, including Salvador, facilitating efficient spread in relatively larger, more connected human populations (32, 33).

Our modeling estimates of the basic reproduction number  $R_0$  were lower than in estimates for Pacific island populations (34) but consistent with recent estimates from several independent studies (8, 31, 35). Moreover, our data and modeling projections

suggest that ZIKV was able to reach the critical population immunity threshold within a single year and that community protective immunity could restrict ZIKV spread in this area until susceptible individuals are replaced by birth or migration. This finding is consistent with the near-complete lack of reported cases from Salvador, Brazil, since 2016 and with previous model-based projections that predicted the cessation of the current Latin American outbreak within the next few years (8). The limitation of ZIKV spread due to community protective immunity is probably analogous to CHIKV, because both viruses show limited antigenic variability. Consistent with our data, CHIKV infection rates exceeding 60% have been associated with the cessation of outbreak activity (36). In Africa and probably in Asia as well, CHIKV can emerge cyclically from nonhuman primate reservoirs upon replenishment of sufficient numbers of susceptible individuals (36). Whether ZIKV can establish a sylvatic transmission cycle in Latin America thus requires urgent investigation (37).

The high rate of ZIKV-positive mothers of microcephaly cases in our study substantiates the recent case-control study from Recife, Brazil (18) in identifying ZIKV as the cause of the surge in microcephaly cases in northeastern Brazil. Additionally, our data enable more precise risk estimates of congenital ZIKV disease. In the absence of serological data, the risk of fetal microcephaly upon maternal ZIKV infection in the first trimester has previously been modeled across a seroprevalence interval spanning 10 to 80% (10). According to that study (10), the 63% seroprevalence rate found in this study implies a risk of fetal microcephaly in Bahia of about 1% during the first trimester. This risk is analogous to the 0.95% risk modeled for French Polynesia assuming a similar ZIKV infection rate of 66% (27) and similar to the 1.7% prevalence of microcephaly found in ZIKV-infected mothers in a cohort study in French Guiana (38).

Finally, our results suggest an impact of low SES on the probability of ZIKV infection. Whether the increased ZIKV infection rate correlates with increased risk of microcephaly remains to be determined, but it is in line with anecdotal evidence from the Brazilian Ministry of Health (39). Our data correspond to a previous study demonstrating higher DENV infection rates in lower social strata from northeastern Brazil (22). However, other etiologic factors associated with low SES remain to be determined in large prospective epidemiological studies, including detailed assessments of individual-level determinants of SES, exhaustive assessments of infectious and noninfectious causes of congenital malformations, clinical symptoms other than microcephaly, and differences in access to abortion practice between different social strata in Latin America, which may cause a relatively higher incidence of neonates with malformations in lower social strata because higher social strata may have a relatively easier access to antenatal care, including imaging techniques allowing premature identification of malformations leading to abortion practices (40–42). Of note, our data may imply that individuals and areas with a relatively higher SES may represent a potential reservoir for focal reemergence of ZIKV in Salvador, Brazil. However, whether high-SES strata may represent a sufficient community size to allow ZIKV resurgence in Salvador remains to be determined.

The strengths of our study include the large sample from different subpopulations that can identify key variations in transmission rates, the longitudinal analysis of patients before, during, and after the Zika outbreak, the multidisciplinary approach allowing insights into geospatial and sociodemographic factors affecting ZIKV exposure, and the comparison of seroprevalence of multiple arboviruses using a range of laboratory tests. A principal limitation of this study is the availability-based sample of individuals which may not be representative of the general population. However, the age distribution of individuals across the pooled samples was comparable to that of the general population, and infection rates in pregnant women were comparable to the overall seroprevalence from the combined subpopulations. Finally, seroprevalence results were comparable to (i) the independent case data from Salvador, Brazil, (ii) previous ZIKV seroprevalence surveys in other areas, and (iii) the seroprevalence results for DENV and CHIKV in other settings, suggesting that our study is robust despite our nonsystematic sampling design. Importantly, our seroprevalence data enabled an estimate of  $R_0$  that was highly consistent with estimates from other studies not

containing serological information from the current American outbreak (8, 31, 35). The similarities between those modeling approaches and our data were thus supportive of the appropriateness of our data set. However, a principal challenge to our study arises from the high levels of cross-reactivity of antibodies elicited by different flaviviruses in serological tests, limiting the ability to obtain unequivocal serological results (43). Previous studies assessing the specificity of the NS1-based ELISA we used in our study yielded conflicting results (15, 44). However, the majority of studies aiming at test validation investigated patients with acute febrile illness and included only a few or no sera from individuals living in areas where DENV is endemic, limiting the ability to extrapolate results from those studies to our study population. Recent studies investigating asymptomatic blood donors from Martinique and Cameroon suggested applicability of the NS1-based ELISA, despite a high DENV burden in these areas (45, 46). Furthermore, our NS1-based ELISA results were largely congruent with PRNT-based analyses conducted within subpopulations. Of note, recent data suggest that PRNT specificity in late convalescent-phase sera may be high enough to retain its utility as a tool for population-level ZIKV serosurveillance (47). In sum, our seroprevalence data for samples collected during four consecutive years, before and during the dissemination of ZIKV in Salvador, Brazil, using two different ZIKV antigens for ELISA, and confirmation of ELISA results by PRNT strongly suggest that our data are valid despite the limitations of any serological investigation of ZIKV-specific antibody responses in areas in which other flaviviruses are hyperendemic. Of note, applicability of the NS1-based ELISA in our population-based study does not translate into a recommendation of its usage for patient diagnostics, which may require further validation and innovative tools that are not yet broadly available, such as a recently published monoclonal antibody-based competitive ELISA (48).

In summary, our data demonstrate high ZIKV infection rates in a Brazilian setting and suggest that the ZIKV outbreak ceased due to community protective immunity. Prevention of congenital ZIKV disease may need to incorporate responses to low SES-associated cofactors in addition to pathogen-oriented measures. Further studies of outbreak settings are urgently needed outside northeastern Brazil to determine whether such explosive and underrecognized ZIKV epidemics have also occurred. Ideally, these studies should include sera from neonates with congenital disease and their mothers sampled early during pregnancy, as well as specimens from adults suffering from severe ZIKV disease to identify whether determinants of severe ZIKV disease are shared among congenital and adult infections.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Ethical clearance, sampling sites, and sample storage.** Sampling and testing were approved by the Federal University of Bahia (UFBA) research ethics board Cimério de Oliveira under protocol 1.408.499. HIV patients were sampled at the UFBA teaching hospital. Tuberculosis patients were sampled at the José Silveira Foundation-Brazilian Institute for Investigation of Tuberculosis. Pregnant women were sampled at the time of delivery at the UFBA maternity hospital Cimério de Oliveira. All patients attended during the study period accepted participation in the protocol. Microcephaly was diagnosed when the measurement of the cephalic circumference was 2 standard deviations below that of the corresponding gestational age, based on intergrowth charts from the World Health Organization in addition to clinical and imaging data as recommended (49).

**Laboratory analyses.** All samples were analyzed for viral RNA using real-time reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) assays for ZIKV (5). Serological testing was performed by using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISAs) for ZIKV IgM/IgG (Euroimmun, Lübeck, Germany) (NS1 antigen), DENV IgG (Euroimmun) (full virus lysates), and CHIKV IgG (Euroimmun) (recombinant structural protein) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, sera diluted 1:101 in sample buffer were added to the wells and allowed to react for 60 min at 37°C. Before IgM detection, sera were preincubated with sample buffer containing IgG/rheumatoid factor absorbent (Euroimmun) to remove class IgG antibodies. Bound antibodies were detected by applying goat anti-human IgM peroxidase conjugate or rabbit anti-human IgG peroxidase conjugate for 30 min at room temperature. The competitive ELISA using a mutant E protein of ZIKV was conducted according to reference 50 for DENV and is described in detail elsewhere (56). Briefly, the quadruple mutant E protein from ZIKV (strain H/PF/2013, E-protein amino acid residues 1 to 406, GenBank accession no. KJ776791) bearing the point mutations T76A, Q77G, W101R, and L107R was expressed in *Drosophila* S2 cells. Serum samples (diluted 1:100 in 100  $\mu$ l blocking solution) were preincubated with 2  $\mu$ g/sample of mutant DENV E proteins (mixture of the four DENV serotypes [50] for 1 h to remove DENV antibodies and/or cross-reacting antibodies). Following the preincubations, samples

were transferred to 96-well plates coated overnight with ZIKV mutant E protein (150 ng/well), and the assay was completed following standard ELISA procedures.

Due to 100% cross-reactivity of ZIKV-specific IgG antibodies with the DENV ELISA antigen (43), only clearly ZIKV-negative specimens were used for assessments of DENV seroprevalence (Fig. S2). Plaque reduction neutralization tests (PRNTs) for ZIKV (51) were used for confirmation in 199 ELISA-positive specimens and 100 ELISA-negative specimens from 2016 for which sufficient serum volumes were available (Table 2). All sera were heat inactivated (56°C, 30 min) prior to neutralization testing. Two microliters of serum was diluted in 1% Dulbecco modified Eagle medium (DMEM) at 1:25, 1:250, 1:2,500, and 1:25,000 and incubated at 37°C for 60 minutes with 50 plaque-forming units (PFU) of ZIKV outbreak strain H/PF/2013 resuspended from subgenomic cDNA fragments transfected into BHK cells as described previously (52). A second incubation was done at 37°C for 60 min in 12-well plates, followed by an agarose-DMEM (containing 2% fetal calf serum and 0.6% final agarose concentration) overlay. Cells were incubated for 4 days before formaldehyde fixation, staining with crystal violet, and plaque counting. Serum titers reducing ZIKV PFU by  $\geq 50\%$  compared to controls in any dilution were considered positive. NS1 ELISA ratios of sera tested by PRNT did not differ significantly from those not tested by PRNT ( $P = 0.20$  by  $t$  test).

**Georeference and demographic data.** The home addresses of study participants were georeferenced onto spatial units (human development units [HDUs]) according to census data from the Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, dividing the metropolitan region of Salvador, Brazil, into socioeconomically homogenous areas, taking into account a minimum of 400 permanent households at a first classification step, and socioeconomic homogeneity at a second step, provided within the Brazilian Human development atlas (<http://www.atlasbrasil.org.br/2013/pt/consulta/>) from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). HDUs are described by seven different categories: population, demography, housing, labor, education, income, and vulnerability. Maps were generated using ArcGIS 10.3 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA).

**Statistical analyses.** Statistical analyses included  $\chi^2$  and Fisher's exact tests for comparisons of seroprevalence rates (EpiInfo V7.2; <http://www.cdc.gov/epiinfo/>), two-tailed Mann-Whitney U tests for comparisons of sociodemographic indicators and logistic regression with stepwise backward elimination of variables for multivariate analyses (SPSS V23; IBM, Ehningen, Germany), done on one variable per HDU category, selected according to highest  $P$  values in bivariate comparisons. Diagnostic test parameters were calculated using OpenEpi (<http://www.openepi.com/>).

**Transmission dynamic modelling.** ZIKV outbreak dynamics were analyzed using a susceptible-exposed-infectious-recovered (SEIR) model. The vector population was not explicitly taken into account, but variation in mosquito numbers was modeled through annual seasonal forces acting on the transmission rate. The model was implemented in a Bayesian framework using the `libBi` library via the `RBi` and `RBi.helpers` packages (53–55). The model was jointly fitted to reported ZIKV incidence data from Salvador, Brazil, from the beginning of January 2015 to the end of October 2015 and the proportion of individuals (401/633) who were seropositive to ZIKV in 2016. Incidence was fitted using a Poisson likelihood with overdispersion and approximated with a truncated Gaussian distribution, and seroprevalence was fitted using a binomial likelihood. Informative prior probability distributions were used for the delay between infection and infectiousness (the sum of the mosquito-to-human generation time and the intrinsic incubation period) centered around 17.8 days, and the infectious period in humans centered around 4.7 days, respectively (8), and for the peak of seasonality in mid-May based on dengue transmission dynamics in Salvador, Brazil. Uniform prior probability distributions were used for the amplitude of seasonality, proportion of cases reported, and basic reproduction number,  $R_0$ . Regularizing prior probability distributions were used for the initial numbers of infected and overdispersion of reporting. All model parameters were estimated using Markov chain Monte Carlo. Full prior and posterior probability distributions are shown in Fig. S3.

**Data availability.** A document containing the code necessary to reproduce the modeling results is provided in Data Set S1.

## SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material for this article may be found at <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01390-17>.

**FIG S1**, PDF file, 19.5 MB.

**FIG S2**, PDF file, 1.4 MB.

**FIG S3**, PDF file, 0.04 MB.

**TABLE S1**, DOCX file, 0.01 MB.

**TABLE S2**, DOCX file, 0.02 MB.

**TABLE S3**, DOCX file, 0.02 MB.

**TABLE S4**, DOCX file, 0.05 MB.

**DATA SET S1**, PDF file, 0.6 MB.

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MANUSCRITO III: “*Rapid decline of Zika Virus NS1 antigen-specific antibody responses, Northeastern Brazil*”. Submetido à *Emerging Infectious Diseases*  
[Normas de Publicação e Carta ao Editor vide Anexo 2]



**Rapid decline of Zika virus NS1 antigen-specific antibody responses, northeastern  
Brazil**

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**Abstract**

The long-term antibody kinetics of individuals infected with Zika virus (ZIKV) are unknown. We conducted a prospective cohort study to monitor the ZIKV NS1 antigen-specific IgG responses of infected individuals, which revealed about 60% population-level exposure. On the follow-up 34.9% became negative after 1.5-2 years. This suggest that usage of the only commercially available serological test in Brazil may miss a considerable proportion of past

ZIKV infections.

Keywords: Zika Virus; Flavivirus; Serology; Antigens.

Running Title

Rapid decline of ZIKV-specific antibody responses

To the Editor: Zika virus (ZIKV) is a flavivirus transmitted primarily by mosquitoes (1), although sexual (2) and vertical transmission may occur (3). Antibodies against ZIKV confer protection against re-infection (4). Following a transient viremia, laboratory diagnosis relies on ZIKV-specific antibodies, but sensitivity and specificity of diagnostic tests are major challenges in flavivirus-endemic areas such as Brazil (5). Beyond patient diagnostics, seroprevalence studies are important to understand pathogen spread during outbreaks. In northeastern Brazil, seroprevalence studies have shown a high exposure of inhabitants to ZIKV (6). The long-term antibody kinetics of individuals infected with ZIKV are largely unknown, which impacts both patient diagnostics and sero-epidemiological studies.

We conducted a prospective observational cohort study to monitor the IgG responses over time of individuals infected with ZIKV in the metropolitan region of Salvador, Brazil. The cohort was initiated by a cross-sectional study conducted between February and May 2016 that revealed about 60% population-level exposure to ZIKV. The high seroprevalence was consistent with ceased outbreak activity in that region due to community protective immunity (6). The follow-up assessment of the cohort was performed after 1.5-2 years (median 654.0, IQR 546-685 days), between August 2017 and February 2018, through new interviews and blood collection after IRB approval number 2.326.141. Brazil has acquired millions of ZIKV NS1 protein-based indirect ELISA tests (Euroimmun, Lübeck, Germany) for serological testing in public health laboratories (7). We used the NS1-based ELISA to analyze the longitudinally collected sera according to the manufacturer's instructions (6).

Follow-up serum samples were obtained from 145 individuals, representing three sub-populations: 29 patients on treatment for active pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) in 2016, all cured in 2018; 93 immunologically stable HIV/Aids-infected patients under antiretroviral therapy; and 23 healthy individuals, including health professionals and students. Eighty-six (59.3%; 95% CI: 50.2-67.1%, Fisher exact mid-P) of those individuals were tested positive for ZIKV in 2016. Among them, 30 (34.9%; 95% CI: 25.4-45.4%) individuals were tested negative for ZIKV in 2017/2018, using the same test. Among those 59 initially negative individuals, only 1 individual from the TB subpopulation seroconverted 2 years later (1.7%), which is consistent with near-complete lack of ZIKV activity in Northeastern Brazil after the large initial outbreak (6).

As shown in the Figure, the median ELISA ratio for NS1-positive individuals decreased significantly from 2.6 to 1.8 over the 2 year-interval (manufacturer's threshold for positive results, 1.1.; Wilcoxon, -7.9;  $p < 0.001$ ). Among the initially seronegative individuals the overall median was not different between both time points (Wilcoxon, -0.91;  $p = 0.36$ ).

Although there is lack of information on the humoral immune responses to ZIKV, immune responses are probably similar to those triggered by yellow fever vaccination (YFV 17D, a genetically related flavivirus), which provides lifelong immunity (8). In YF vaccinees from Latin America, Caldas et al. (9) reported about 9% of seronegative individuals five years after vaccination using a plaque-reduction neutralization test. For comparison, we observed that in 34.9% of our sample, the ELISA ratio decreased below the cut-off, turning individuals seronegative. The relatively higher decrease in ZIKV NS1-specific antibody levels was consistent with apparently lower magnitude of NS1-specific, compared to envelope-specific ZIKV antibodies during acute infection and convalescence (5).

Since Brazil has acquired only serological tests based on the NS1 protein, and other tests are

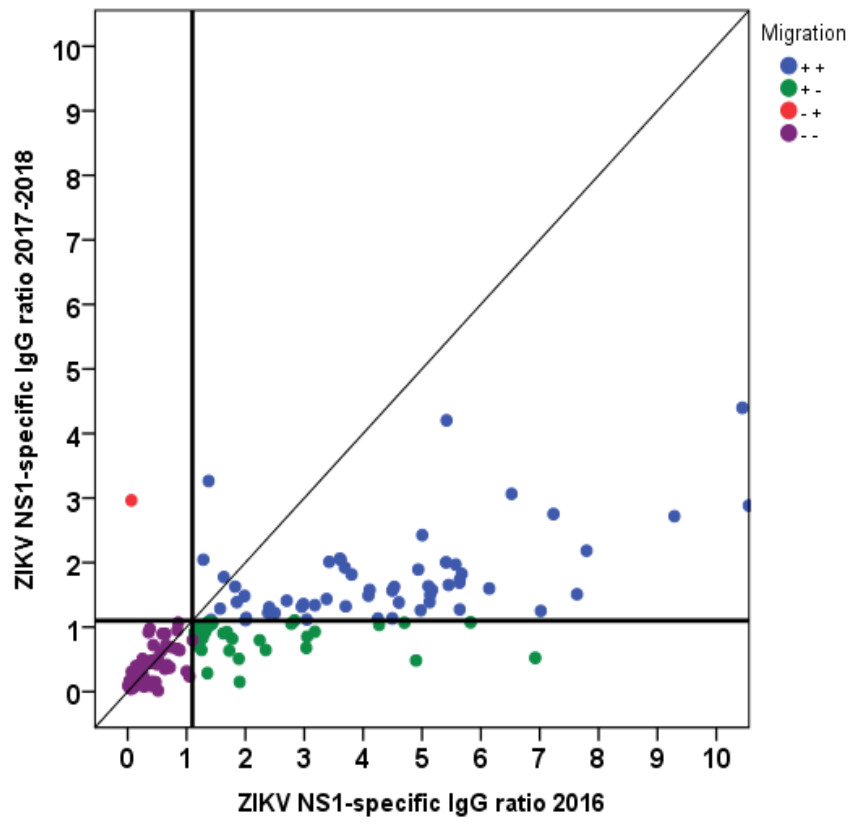
not validated for diagnostic use in Brazil, it is possible that future seroprevalence studies will underestimate ZIKV infections. Public health authorities may in consequence receive biased information for the distribution of future vaccines. The combination of NS1-specific antibodies with other antigens and tests may thus increase the reliability of future seroprevalence studies (5). Finally, the relevance of an adequate determination of the flaviviral serostatus is illustrated by recent data revealing efficacy of a dengue vaccine only in individuals previously infected with dengue virus (DENV), whereas DENV-seronegative individuals showed increased risk of severe disease (10). Since Brazil is one of the two countries that have licensed that dengue vaccine in subnational programmes, adequate determination of the ZIKV serostatus and its potential interplay with DENV vaccination may be crucial.

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**Figure** - Comparison between the ZIKV NS1-specific IgG ratios during the epidemic (2016) and the re-collection (2017-2018). Heavy lines (horizontal and vertical) are the Ratio limits (1.1). Diagonal line divides the results among individuals who had an increase in the ratio of the second serology compared to the first one (below) and the individuals whose value of the ratio decreased (above).



## V. DISCUSSÃO

Os resultados deste trabalho foram divididos em três capítulos: o primeiro procurou demonstrar a expansão do ZIKV ao longo do tempo desde seu isolamento na primeira metade do século passado até sua emergência nas Américas em 2013, de forma a tornar a abrangência do vírus em escala mundial; o segundo artigo apresenta aspectos sobre a dinâmica da transmissão em populações da região metropolitana de Salvador, capital da Bahia, estado da federação com maior número de casos registrados e aborda a prevalência da infecção em diversas populações; o terceiro capítulo relata o seguimento das subpopulações estudadas anteriormente no estudo anterior (segundo capítulo) clínica e epidemiologicamente.

O ZIKV ficou confinado durante mais de meio século em porções dos continentes africano e asiático e suas manifestações clínicas eram caracterizadas por quadros de infecção leve (Faye et al., 2014). Desde o surgimento dos surtos de Yap e da Micronésia em 2007 e na Polinésia Francesa em 2013 foi verificada uma mudança no padrão epidemiológico do vírus, que passou a se dispersar com maior rapidez e a causar malformações congênitas graves (Duffy et al., 2009; Lanciotti et al., 2014; Cao-Lormeau et al., 2014; Musso, Nilles, Cao-Lormeau, 2014). Segundo análises filogenéticas a cepa presente nas Américas se originou a partir da cepa da linhagem asiática, introduzida no fim de 2013 (Cao-Lormeau et al., 2014; Yun et al., 2016; Faria et al., 2016; Naccache et al., 2016; Metsky et al., 2017). A mais atual hipótese para explicar a introdução do vírus no Brasil indica que a cepa chegou ao Brasil a partir do Pacífico em 2013 (Pettersson et al., 2018). Esta introdução foi obscurecida pela co-circulação de outros flavivírus que apresentavam semelhança nas manifestações clínicas e uma baixa sensibilidade e especificidade dos testes diagnósticos ELISA (Bozza et al., 2019).

Entre os possíveis fatores que levaram à rápida emergência, disseminação e patogenicidade do vírus nas epidemias ocorridas nas ilhas do Pacífico e nas Américas estão mutações genéticas que podem ter aumentado a transmissibilidade do vírus (Pettersson et al., 2018, Chouin-Carneiro et al., 2016; Hall-Mendelin et al., 2016; Pompon et al., 2017; Azar et al., 2017). Outros fatores que podem ter influenciado na velocidade de propagação são as características populacionais e geográficas, como a imunidade populacional e a densidade de vetores (Chouin-Carneiro et al., 2016; Oliveira et al., 2017; Rodrigues; Paixão 2017; Netto et al., 2017). A ausência de grandes epidemias na África e na Ásia pode ser resultado de populações com imunidade cruzada conferida por anticorpos contra viroses relacionadas e com circulação concomitante ao ZIKV, como dengue e febre amarela (Pettersson et al., 2016) ou

que até mesmo tenham ocorrido e sido associadas erroneamente a outros vírus (Haddow et al., 2012; Lanciotti et al., 2016).

A epidemia nas Américas levou a dezenas de milhares de casos confirmados no Brasil (PAHO, 2017), incluindo registros de distúrbios neurológicos graves, como a Síndrome de Guillain-Barré e a Síndrome Congênita do Zika Vírus. A relação causal entre a infecção pelo vírus e a microcefalia foi confirmada em novembro de 2015 pelo Ministério da Saúde (MS, 2015). Foram descobertas diferenças entre as linhagens africana e asiática que demonstraram que as infecções causadas pela cepa da linhagem asiática tendem a causar malformações congênitas, enquanto a cepa africana provavelmente causaria abortos (Sheridan et al., 2018, Neal et al., 2014). Pode-se especular que o fenótipo das cepas asiáticas do ZIKV (menor taxa de infecção e produção de vírus e baixa indução de morte celular precoce) pode contribuir para a capacidade de causar infecções persistentes no Sistema Nervoso Central de fetos, enquanto as cepas de linhagem africana poderiam causar um quadro mais agudo de infecções (Simonin et al., 2017; Sheridan et al., 2018; Pompom et al., 2017). O potencial patogênico, entretanto, não depende unicamente das características das cepas, mas também de características individuais (Caires-Junior et al., 2018). Durante a condução do estudo as evidências da associação da microcefalia e o ZIKV ficaram evidentes, demonstradas a partir de uma alta taxa de soroprevalência (94,7%) em mães infectadas cujos bebês apresentaram a comorbidade, dado corroborado por outros autores (Besnard et al., 2016; Cauchemez et al., 2016a; Cao-Lormeau et al., 2016). Este estudo estimou através da taxa de prevalência encontrada que o risco de ocorrência de microcefalia no primeiro trimestre foi de 1%, virtualmente idêntico ao valor calculado para a Polinésia Francesa, de 0,95% (Cauchemez et al., 2016).

As cepas do ZIKV apresentam características diferentes quanto à transmissão vetorial e às taxas de prevalência e transmissão, que podem ser maiores na linhagem africana em *Aedes aegypti* quando comparadas à asiática, o que sugere a ocorrência de adaptação viral semelhante à ocorrida na proteína do envelope do vírus Chikungunya, o que afetou sua especificidade e potencial epidêmico (Azar et al., 2017).

De forma similar ao ocorrido com o ZIKV, o CHIKV também apresentou taxa de infecção superior a 60% da população, com consequente cessação do surto (Petersen; Powers, 2016). A partir de 2017 o número de infecções registradas no país declinou (SVS- MS, 2017), possivelmente como resultado da imunidade conferida pela epidemia do ano anterior, aliada às



campanhas conduzidas pelas autoridades para conscientizar a população quanto às medidas protetivas contra os vetores.

A região metropolitana de Salvador foi uma das metrópoles mais atingidas pela infecção por ZIKV, apresentando uma taxa de infecção de 63% na capital, valor semelhante ao encontrado em Yap e Micronésia, entre 66 a 73% (Johansson et al., 2016; Cauchemez et al., 2016). A semelhança entre as taxas de infecção demonstra a capacidade de disseminação do vírus, a despeito das diferentes condições sociais e demográficas entre os locais estudados. Quanto à disseminação, não ficaram claros os motivos pelos quais a infecção pelo ZIKV foi tão mais rápida que a verificada pelo CHIKV. Foi hipotetizado que isso seria consequência de propriedades que afetam a transmissibilidade do vírus (Chouin-Carneiro et al., 2016; Veja-Rúa et al., 2015). No estado da Bahia o CHIKV teve seus principais focos nas cidades do interior, cuja densidade populacional é menor e ajuda a explicar a disseminação mais lenta do CHIKV em comparação à do ZIKV, que teve foco na capital e adjacências, mais densamente povoadas, o que favoreceu uma dispersão mais rápida (Rodrigues et al., 2016; Zinszer et al., 2017).

O estudo levantou dados relevantes sobre a infecção do ZIKV verificada pelo estudo no período compreendido entre janeiro de 2015 e julho de 2016: a evolução no número de infecções por ZIKV passou a se elevar de forma vertiginosa por volta no mês de março e atingiu o ápice em julho de 2015, seguido de uma queda acentuada nos meses subsequentes; a taxa de imunização cresceu à medida que o número de pessoas infectadas aumentou e, como era previsível, este percentual se manteve em ascensão após o fim do surto; os valores mais altos da taxa de transmissão coincidiram no mesmo período dos anos de 2015 e 2016, possivelmente devido à sazonalidade característica das infecções por flavivírus causada pelas condições mais favoráveis ao desenvolvimento dos vetores; o número de reprodução apresentou valores superiores a 1, indicativo de que o número de pessoas infectadas segue trajetória ascendente, até julho de 2015, ápice do surto. Neste período o valor se torna inferior a 1, o que indica redução no número total de infecções. Um estudo elaborou projeções que sugerem que a população atingiu imunidade capaz de conter a propagação do ZIKV por um período de cerca de 10 anos, tempo necessário para que houvesse substituição de parcela significativa da população por conta de nascimentos e migrações que a tornem novamente susceptível (Ferguson et al., 2016)

A reatividade cruzada causada por anticorpos contra outros flavivírus foi um empecilho que limitou a acurácia dos resultados (Felix et al., 2017), ainda assim os soros eram

suficientemente específicos na fase de convalescência tardia, o que mantém sua utilidade como ferramenta de vigilância do ZIKV na população (Collins et al., 2017). Os dados coletados ao longo de quatro anos de estudo, antes e durante os surtos de ZIKV, obtidos por dois diferentes antígenos no ELISA confirmados por PRNT conferem robustez aos dados levantados. O estudo demonstrou altas taxas de infecção no Brasil e sugeriu que isto levou a população a desenvolver imunidade que provocou a cessação do surto.

Nós (Netto et al) demonstramos a rápida disseminação do vírus na região metropolitana de Salvador, uma das áreas mais afetadas pelo surto americano de ZIKV, que apresentou taxas de infecção superiores a 60%. Dois anos após a primeira avaliação, apenas 65% dos indivíduos com sorologia positiva permaneciam positivos, de acordo com os resultados do teste NS1 do ZIKV (Balmaseda et al., 2017), o mesmo utilizado no estudo de 2016. Houve apenas um caso de soroconversão, o que é consistente com a quase cessação do surto do ZIKV no nordeste do país após o primeiro surto, em 2015 (Netto et al., 2017). As respostas imunohumorais do ZIKV são provavelmente semelhantes às provocadas pela vacinação contra a febre amarela, que fornece imunidade vitalícia (Wieten et al., 2016).

O Brasil dispõe apenas de testes sorológicos baseados na proteína NS1, o que pode levar estudos de soroprevalência a subestimarem as infecções por ZIKV e induzir as autoridades competentes a distribuírem as vacinas de forma equivocada. Dados recentes revelaram que a vacina contra a dengue apenas é eficaz em indivíduos previamente infectados, ao passo que os soronegativos dengue tiveram risco aumentado de doença grave (Sridhar et al., 2018). Como esta vacina foi licenciada para uso no Brasil, é crucial a correta determinação do status sorológico do ZIKV por causa de potencial interação entre seus anticorpos e a vacina contra DENV. Uma pessoa que tenha sido infectada apenas pelo ZIKV cujos exames apresentem resultado positivo para DENV por conta de reação cruzada poderia desenvolver grave quadro de infecção por dengue.

## **VI. CONCLUSÕES**

1. A expansão do Zika vírus nas Américas foi a mais ampla e rápida já ocorrida e pode ter como causas principais as mutações no vírus, a ausência de imunidade e possivelmente à uma alta susceptibilidade dos vetores envolvidos.
2. O pico do surto se deu no final de 2015 apresentando uma alta prevalência em diversas populações em Salvador o que promoveu um bloqueio da transmissão por imunidade herdada.
3. Após 2 anos do surto os indivíduos previamente investigados apresentavam uma queda significativa dos níveis de anticorpo total.

## **VII. PROPOSTAS DE ESTUDO**

O Brasil é um país endêmico para infecções por flavivírus como o Zika, a Dengue e a Febre amarela. Compreender a dinâmica de transmissão do ZIKV, incluindo o estudo da imunidade, e o tempo desta, é de grande importância para o desenvolvimento de políticas de saúde pública. O estudo proposto pode impactar no entendimento da resposta imune humoral de longo prazo e podem ter relevância não apenas no campo do ZIKV, mas também na investigação de outras doenças imunes e infecciosas. Assim, o objetivo do estudo seria avaliar o nível de anticorpos neutralizantes contra o ZIKV em adultos anos após a infecção pelo ZIKV em uma coorte que acompanhará por um período entre 4 e 5 anos pós infecção (2020/2021) a fim de determinar o tempo decorrido até o declínio da resposta do sistema imunológico. Desta forma, será possível conhecer o potencial de infecção do vírus para causar surtos futuros e também determinar de forma mais adequada futuras estratégias de vacinação.

## VIII. SUMMARY

**Introduction:** The Zika virus is a flavivirus belonging to the family Flaviviridae, transmitted by *Aedes* mosquitoes. Its circulation was restricted to the African and Asian continents for six decades, where it caused small outbreaks with mild clinical presentations, similar to dengue. After migrating to the Pacific and the Americas, Zika virus infection became remarkable and caused major epidemics with burgeoning clinical manifestations, which required a better understanding of the changes that occurred over time. **Objective:** To describe the dynamics of the Zika virus from 1947 to 2018 and to analyze its prevalence in the metropolitan region of Salvador/Bahia during and up to two years after the epidemic phase. **Methods:** This thesis is divided into three chapters, the first presents a literature review focusing on the evidence of transmission and dispersion of the Zika virus from 1947 to 2018; the second chapter is an analysis of prevalence among various populations in the metropolitan region of Salvador/Bahia/Brazil and a retrospective analysis of cryopreserved sera from an HIV-infected population within this region. The third chapter presents the results of a new serology for the Zika virus from three subpopulations, seen in the previous chapter, carried out 1,5 to 2 years after the epidemic. **Results:** Since its first identification in 1947 in the Zika forest region, in Uganda, the virus has migrated to the Asian continent where it has caused mild clinical manifestations similar to dengue. Sixty years later, it reached the Pacific islands, the Zika virus became more aggressive and rapidly spread among local populations, which reached high prevalence rates, such as Mali (52%) and Yap Islands (73%). In addition, it was noted that the Zika virus caused devastating clinical consequences, probably due to genetic mutations occurred between 2000 and 2005. Later, in 2013, Zika reached the Americas, including the metropolitan region of Salvador, where a prevalence of 63% was recorded in the examined population. Although there were no major risk factors for the infection of the disease, a higher prevalence was observed among people from lower socioeconomic strata. Two years after the epidemic peak, the same individuals were reassessed. A significant decrease in antibody levels was observed, with up to one third of these individuals presenting negative serology, without seroconversion.

**Conclusion:** The expansion of the Zika virus had two phases. The first presented slow expansion, without clinical severity, and the second had rapid expansion, with serious clinical consequences, such as microcephaly, probably as a result of virus mutations. After the peak of

the epidemic, some regions, including the metropolitan region of Salvador, reached a high prevalence in the population and had the transmission cycle blocked. The levels of antibodies recorded in this area declined significantly after two years and the consequences of this reduction are still unknown.

Keywords: ZIKA; VÍRUS ZIKA; FLAVIVÍRUS, EPIDEMIC, NS1

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## X. ANEXOS

### X.I. Parecer da Revista Epidemiologia e Serviços de Saúde

08/03/2019

Email – Mara Sampaio – Outlook

#### [RESS] Epidemiologia e Serviços de Saúde - Decisão editorial - Revisões Requeridas

Editora Associada <noreply.ojs@scielo.org>

Ter, 26/02/2019 15:07

Para: Sra Gilmara de Souza Sampaio <gilmaras.sampaio@hotmail.com>

Cc: Carlos Roberto Brites <crbrites@gmail.com>; Jan Felix Drexler <felix.drexler@charite.de>;

Andres Moreira-Soto <andres.moreira-soto@charite.de>; Fernanda Miranda <fernanda20lima@gmail.com>;

Eduardo Martins Netto <nettoeduardom@hotmail.com>

1 anexos (883 KB)

avaliador A.pdf;

Prezada Gilmara de Souza Sampaio,

O Núcleo Editorial da Revista Epidemiologia e Serviços de Saúde (RESS) informa que, após a avaliação dos pareceres elaborados por revisores ad hoc, o manuscrito intitulado "Expansão do Zika Vírus: da África à América. Uma revisão de literatura." foi considerado aceitável para publicação, com necessidade de reformulação. Reiteramos que, conforme o fluxo editorial da RESS, os manuscritos somente serão considerados aceitos para publicação após aprovação final pelo Comitê Editorial da RESS.

Abaixo desta mensagem encontram-se os pareceres.

Anexado ao sistema há duas versões do manuscrito com comentários, feitos pelos revisores C e D, assim como segue anexado neste e-mail o manuscrito com comentários do revisor A.

Todos os comentários e sugestões dos revisores devem ser considerados e respondidos, item por item, em carta aos editores. Para as sugestões que forem atendidas, deverá ser realçada a alteração realizada no manuscrito, utilizando a ferramenta "Controlar alterações" (na aba "Revisão" do Word). As sugestões que não forem consideradas deverão ser justificadas com fundamentação científica.

Solicita-se que a versão reformulada, juntamente com a carta, seja enviada no prazo máximo de 10 dias (08/03/2019).

Reiteramos que a versão reformulada será novamente avaliada pelo Núcleo Editorial, considerando as instruções aos autores da RESS e os itens solicitados na revisão técnica. Nesta etapa, poderá haver mais de uma rodada de revisão. Os manuscritos somente serão considerados aceitos para publicação após aprovação final pelo Comitê Editorial da RESS.

Agradecemos sua colaboração com nossa revista.

Atenciosamente,

Tais Galvao

Núcleo Editorial

Epidemiologia e Serviços de Saúde

A revista do Sistema Único de Saúde do Brasil

## X.II. Normas de publicação e carta ao Editor



Emerging Infectious Disease journal ISSN: 1080-6059

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### Manuscript Preparation and Submission

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#### Editorial Policy

For information about editorial policy, visit <http://wwwnc.cdc.gov/eid/pages/editorial-policy.htm> (<http://wwwnc.cdc.gov/eid/pages/editorial-policy.htm>).

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For word processing, use Microsoft Word. The font should be 12 pt. Times New Roman; the document should be double-spaced and left justified. Use 1 space rather than 2 spaces after a period. Use continuous line numbering in your manuscript. See the Typeface section for additional information.

#### Parts of a Manuscript

Each manuscript should contain each of the following elements, in the following order.

##### Title Page

Give complete information about each author (i.e., full name, graduate degree(s), affiliation, and the name of the institution in which the work was done. Clearly identify the corresponding author and provide that author's mailing address (include phone number, fax number, and email address). Include separate word counts for abstract and text.

The following are examples of footnotes that should be included, when necessary, at the beginning of an article (linked to author[s] name[s]):

<sup>1</sup>These authors contributed equally to this article.

<sup>1</sup>These first authors contributed equally to this article.

<sup>1</sup>These senior authors contributed equally to this article.

<sup>1</sup>These authors were co-principal investigators.

<sup>1</sup>Current affiliate: University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, USA.

<sup>1</sup>Deceased.

*(Note: the affiliation for deceased authors should be included in the affiliation list.)*

<sup>1</sup>Members of the team/group are listed at the end of this article/in the Technical Appendix.

<sup>1</sup>Preliminary results from this study were presented at the XXX conference; July 17-20, 2012, Atlanta, Georgia, USA.

##### Article Summary Line

For perspectives, synopses, policy reviews, and research studies, include a clear, brief 1-sentence summary of the article's conclusions; the summary will appear on the print table of contents. This sentence should highlight the bottom-line public health implications of the article and should be pithy, readable, and designed to entice someone to read the full article.

## Running Title

A running title that will appear on the top of each right-hand print page and along top of the online browser window. The running title should be no more than 50 characters long, including spaces. Some common abbreviations (*E. coli*) and acronyms (MRSA, MDR TB, XDR TB) are allowed in running titles, but less familiar terms should be written out within the character limit.

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Include appropriate keywords (no limit); use terms listed in the [National Library of Medicine Medical Subject Headings \(https://www.nlm.nih.gov/mesh/meshhome.html\)](https://www.nlm.nih.gov/mesh/meshhome.html) index ([www.nlm.nih.gov/mesh/meshhome.html](https://www.nlm.nih.gov/mesh/meshhome.html)) (<https://www.nlm.nih.gov/mesh/meshhome.html>). Do not use formatting (boldface or italics) in keywords (note that they are only used for indexing and are not visible to readers).

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Give complete information about each author (i.e., full name, affiliation, and the name of the institution where the work was done). Provide, at minimum, first and last names of each author. Middle names or initials and academic degrees are optional, although academic degrees will not appear in the published article. (Note: use periods, but no spaces, between initials.)

Use the following format:

Dana C. Crawford, Shanta M. Zimmer, Craig A. Morin, Nancy E. Messonnier, Ruth Lynfield, Qian Yi, Cynthia Shephard, Michelle Wong, Mark J. Rieder, Robert J. Livingston, Deborah A. Nickerson, Cynthia G. Whitney, and Jairam Lingappa

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Incorrect: National Immunization Program, Coordinating Center for Infectious Diseases, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia, USA

Correct: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia, USA

Incorrect: Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA

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Author's full initials and last name will appear after their respective institutions.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia, USA (J. Doe, A-E. Smith); and University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA (J. Doe, B. Jones)

Use heading of "Author affiliations:" (>1 affiliation) or "Author affiliation" (1 only). No possessive (i.e., not Authors').

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[Back to top](#)

## Abstract

An abstract is a brief, comprehensive summary of the contents of the article; it allows readers to survey the contents of an article quickly, and like a title, it enables abstracting and information services to index and retrieve articles. An abstract should briefly summarize the research question and any relevant background information, methods, results, and conclusions. Avoid vague or promising phrases such as "...implications of these findings are discussed;" instead, state public health implications of the results.

Do not use structured abstracts (i.e., subheadings). Do not cite references in the abstract. Abstracts for perspectives, synopses, policy reviews, and research studies should not exceed 150 words. Abstracts for dispatches and research letters should not exceed 50 words. Authors may submit an abstract in their native language as well as in English. Letters commenting on articles, book reviews, and conference summaries do not have abstracts.

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Keep formatting simple. Use 12-point Times New Roman font with ragged right margins (left justified). Double space everything, including the title page, abstract, references, tables, and figure legends. Indent paragraphs; leave no extra space between paragraphs. After a period, leave only 1 space before beginning the next sentence. Italicize (rather than underline) scientific names when needed.

## Acknowledgments

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For all article types, excluding letters, media reviews, and conference summaries, include a short (2-3 sentences) biographical sketch of only the first author or of both authors if only 2 authors. Include current position and affiliations (city but not state and country if same as in author affiliation list) and primary research interests.

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#### Books

Knopf SA. Tuberculosis. In: Stedman TL, editor. *Twentieth century practice: an international encyclopedia of modern medical science by leading authorities of Europe and America*. Vol. XX. Tuberculosis, yellow fever, and miscellaneous. General index. New York: William Wood and Co.; 1900. p. 3–396.

Meslin FX, Fishbein DB, Matter HC. Rationale and prospects for rabies elimination in developing countries. In: Rupprecht CE, Dietzschold B, Koprowski H, editors. *Lyssaviruses*. New York: Springer-Verlag, 1994:1–26.

Winkler WG. Fox rabies. In: Baer GM, editor. *The natural history of rabies*. 1st ed. New York: Academic Press, 1975:3–22.

Tomes N. *The gospel of germs: men, women, and the microbe in the American life*. Cambridge (MA): Harvard University Press; 1998.

Mahy B. *The dictionary of virology*, 4th ed. London: Academic Press; 2009.

Steele JH, Fernandez PJ. History of rabies and global aspects. In: Baer GM. *The natural history of rabies*, 2nd ed. New York; CRC Press; 1991.

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World Health Organization. Outbreak encephalitis 2005: cases of Japanese encephalitis in Gorakhpur, Uttar Pradesh, India. 2005 Oct 21 [cited 2006 Jul 11].  
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11/11

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The study received no funding. We declare that there are no conflict of interests from the authors.

We also declare that all authors have approved the version for publication and assume responsibility for all aspects of the work, including the guarantee of its accuracy and completeness.

Best Regards.

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