- 1 Acquired equine polyneuropathy of Nordic horses a conspicuous inclusion body
- 2 Schwannopathy
- 3 S. Hanche-Olsen<sup>a,\*</sup>, K. Matiasek<sup>b#</sup>, J. Molín<sup>b</sup>, M. Rosati<sup>b</sup>, C. Hahn<sup>c</sup>, K. Hultin Jäderlund<sup>a</sup>, G.
- 4 Gröndahl<sup>d</sup>
- 5 <sup>a</sup>Department of Companion Animal Clinical Sciences, Norwegian University of Life Sciences,
- 6 Ullevålsvn 72, 0454 Oslo, Norway. E-mail address: <u>siv.hanche-olsen@nmbu.no</u>,
- 7 <u>karinhultin.jaderlund@nmbu.no</u> <sup>b</sup>Section of Clinical & Comparative Neuropathology, Centre
- 8 for Clinical Veterinary Medicine, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München, Veterinärstr 13,
- 9 80539 Munich, Germany. E-mail address: <u>kaspar.matiasek@neuropathologie.de</u>,
- 10 *jmolin@unizar.es*, *marco.rosati@neuropathologie.de*. <sup>c</sup>Neuromuscular Disease Laboratory,
- 11 Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies, The University of Edinburgh, Easter Bush,
- 12 Midlothian EH259RG, UK. E-mail address: <u>caroline.hahn@ed.ac.uk.</u> <sup>d</sup>Department of Animal
- 13 Health and Microbial Strategies, National Veterinary Institute, 75189 Uppsala, Sweden. E-
- 14 *mail address: <u>gittan.grondahl@sva.se.</u>*
- <sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author for the general part, clinics and epidemiology. Tel.:+4767232388
- <sup>#</sup>*Corresponding author for nerve pathology. Tel.:* +498921803313
- 17

## 18 Abstract

Acquired equine polyneuropathy (AEP), formerly also known as Scandinavian knuckling 19 20 syndrome, is one of the most prevalent polyneuropathies in equids in Norway and Sweden, with more than 400 cases registered since first observations in 1995. Despite geographical 21 clustering and an association to forage feeding, its aetiology remains unknown. Clinically 22 23 AEP is characterized by knuckling due to dysfunction of metatarsophalangeal extensor muscles. This neuropathological study aimed to gain further insights in the pathobiology of 24 AEP and its underlying aetiopathogenesis. We thereby confirmed that all affected horses 25 suffered from similar large fiber neuropathy, exhibiting conspicuous Schwann cell inclusions 26 in most samples, suggestive of a primary disruption of Schwann cell metabolism leading to 27 28 inclusion body schwannopathy with secondary inflammatory changes. The degree of nerve pathology was not predictive of clinical outcome. 29

30

*Keywords:* Knuckling; schwannopathy; demyelination; inclusion body; inflammatory; nerve
fiber teasing.

33 Abbreviation: Acquired equine polyneuropathy: AEP

#### 34 1. Introduction

The first case clusters of a unique neuromuscular syndrome in horses characterized by knuckling in the <u>metatarsophalangeal</u> joints were observed in Norway in 1995 (1) and Sweden in 1998 (2). Since then, more than 400 cases have been identified throughout Norway, Sweden and Finland, making this disease the most prevalent polyneuropathy in equids in this part of the world (3-7). The syndrome was associated <u>withto</u> peripheral nerve lesions, but the cause has not yet <u>been</u> identified. The disease was <u>initiallysometimes</u> referred to as "Scandinavian knuckling syndrome" in the beginning, but is <u>nowlately</u> known as acquired

42 equine polyneuropathy (AEP).

AEP affecteds horses and ponies are of a wide spectrum of breeds, uses and comprise, all 43 sexes and ages, except for foals. Clinically, the disease is characterized by digital extensor 44 45 dysfunction, primarily affecting the pelvic limbs resulting in knuckling in the metatarsophalangeal joints (1, 3, 4) (Fig. 1). In mild cases, knuckling occursis presented only 46 rarely unless provoked by e.g. tight circling or sudden stop from trot. Apart from these 47 manipulations of movement, digital extensor dysfunction may be exacerbated with sudden 48 distress, which requires careful handling during clinical examination of more severe cases (4). 49 50 Horses with AEP do not appear ataxic. The horses are otherwise alert, responsive with normal appetite and clinical variables are within normal limits. There have been no significant 51 52 abnormalities on laboratory analysis of blood or cerebrospinal fluid when examined (1, 2).

The clinical disease course is highly variable. In the most severe and acute cases, horses
suddenly knuckle and <u>standrest</u> on the dorsal <u>metatarsophalangeal region</u> without being able
to correct the abnormal limb position for seconds to minute(s). Such cases are often unable to
get up from recumbency, even with assistance. In less severe and more prolonged disease
courses, horses knuckle intermittently for months before they either improve slowly, or
suddenly deteriorate and become recumbent. Horses that remain able to rise and stand with or

without support mostly recover completely with long convalescence. Intermittent knuckling
has, ve however, been observed for up to 17 months after onset, with a median duration of
clinical signs of 4.4 months (4). Case fatality rates vary inbetween outbreaks and range from
29% to 53% (1, 4, 8).

Typically, AEP affects more than one, but not all horses in a stable and has a seasonal pattern with most cases appearing during winter and springtime, indicating an environmental trigger (1, 4, 5). A <u>specificcertain</u> aetiology has not been associated to AEP despite extensive studies, but almost all cases have been fed wrapped forage, indicating an alimentary risk factor of unclear nature (1, 4). However, analysis of the hygienic, botanical, chemical and microbiological composition <u>of wrapped forage</u> have so far failed to identify a disease causing agent (unpublished data) (4).

70 Despite the high disease prevalence the relative large number of cases, the sparse availability of fresh material for peripheral nerve studies has hitherto limited the possibilities to clarify the 71 pathobiology of AEP from the tissue perspective. Post-mortem examination of the nervous 72 system of 22 horses diagnosed with AEP in Norway (1) and a number of horses in Sweden 73 (unpublished) indicated a polyneuropathy, but obtained tissues did not allow for further 74 75 classification. The only in depth investigation reported was from inone single horse from Finland and it revealed schwannopathic features and nerve--fibre -invasive inflammation (3). 76 77 Whether these lesions are characteristic of AEP remains yet unknown, in particular becauseas 78 this horse also was ataxic (3), which is unusual for the majority of AEP cases (1, 4). Hence, it 79 was the aim of this study to clarify peripheral nerve and muscle changes of an extended series of AEP horses presenting with classical clinical signs, in order to approach the underlying 80 81 pathological mechanisms and aetiological triggers.

### 82 2. Material & Methods

### 83 2.1 Included horses

Horses were recruited from outbreaks of AEP reported to the Equine Clinic, Norwegian 84 University of Life Sciences (NMBU) or National Veterinary Institute, Sweden, between 2005 85 and 2014. In accordance with former published diagnostic algorithms (1, 4), inclusion criteria 86 were a clinical history of repeated bilateral pelvic limb knuckling without overt signs of a 87 central nervous system disease involvement of the nervous system of the head or other 88 abnormal clinical signs. Exclusion criteria included: 1) primary musculoskeletal disorders 89 affecting the metatarsophalangeal joint, 2) neuromuscular junction disorders, 3) spinal ataxia 90 or indication of any other central nervous system (CNS) involvement or 4) primary muscle 91 92 disease and other causes of non-neurologic pelvic limb weaknessparesis. All horse owners 93 consented for the results to be included in this study. 94 Based on neurological examination by authors (SHO, GG,)12 cases), and videos and/or

95 veterinary records from the neurological evaluation performed by local veterinarians with or

96 <u>without videos (four cases)</u>, the clinical severity of each case was graded at least two times; at

97 onset and at time of sampling, some cases also in between. Severity were graded I-IV

98 according to a semiquantitative grading system established earlier (1) (Table 1, video 1 and

99 2). Biopsies and autopsies were performed for diagnostic reasons.

100 2.2 Sampling

In the cases that were euthanized on humane grounds due to deterioration or an uncertain prognosis, samples were taken at autopsy. Fascicular nerve specimens were taken from one or more of the following sites: recurrent laryngeal nerve, median nerve, lateral digital palmar nerve, femoral nerve, sciatic nerve, tibial nerve, common and superficial peroneal nerve and lateral digital plantar nerve (supplementary item ). If possible, nerves were collected from both sides of the body, particularly in the case of the recurrent laryngeal nerves-. <u>Specimens</u>
 from spinal nerve roots were resected after extensive laminectomy.

Biopsies from appendicular muscles including triceps, extensor carpi radialis, quadriceps (vastus lateralis), tibialis cranialis and/or extensor digitalis longus and gluteal muscles were harvested, and specimens were immediately shipped overnight to the laboratories for processing. Cases that were recovering had at least one skeletal muscle biopsy taken.

## 112 2.3 Histological processing

# 113 2.3.1 Nerve processing

All nerve samples underwent the routine biopsy protocol established at the Neuropathology
Laboratory, Ludwig-Maximilians University of Munich (LMU), Germany. It includes: 1)
paraffin embedding for assessment of epineurial, interstitial and vascular abnormalities, 2)
semithin sections, 3) nerve fibre teasing (NFT) for assessment of myelinated nerve fibre
characteristics and 4) transmission electron microscopy (TEM) for identification of
subcellular changes and unmyelinated fibre pathologies.

120 Paraffin embedding was preceded by whole-trunk immersion in 10% neutral buffered formalin for at least 24 hours, after which the fascicles were trimmed and underwent an 121 ascending ethanol series and immersion in liquid paraffin using an automatic tissue processor 122 (Hypercenter<sup>®</sup>, Shandon Inc.). Sections were cut at 3 µm and subsequently stained by 123 haematoxylin-eosin (HE), Goldner's trichrome stain (GTS), and picrosirius red-alcian blue 124 staining (PICRAB) (9). Upon paraffin embedding, transverse sections of the spinal cord 125 126 samples were performed and stained with HE and trichrome to evaluate neural versus interstitial and vascular changes. 127

For semithin histology, NFT and TEM, large fascicles were gently separated and immersed in
2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1M Soerensen's phosphate buffer for 1-2 hours. Thereafter they

were incubated in washing buffer. A series of fascicular full trunk samples of 2 mm length 130 131 were obtained using a razor blade on the proximal and distal edges of the specimens. These pieces were subjected for transverse and longitudinal sectioning. They were post-fixed in 2% 132 133 osmium tetroxide, dehydrated by an ascending ethanol series and embedded in epoxy resin. Semithin sections were processed at  $0.5 \,\mu m$  thickness and stained by p-phenylene diamine 134 and modified Richardson's stain, using azure II methylene blue and safranin-O (10). On 135 136 semithin scout sections, candidate areas were identified for TEM, trimmed, sectioned at 50 nm, mounted on copper grids and contrasted with lead citrate and uranyl-acetate. Ultrathin 137 sections were stored in an exsiccator until ultrastructural examination. Trimmed fascicles also 138 139 were impregnated in 2% osmium tetroxide, washed in phosphate buffer before undergoing NFT after immersion in glycerol with and without haematoxylin counterstaining (10). 140

The neuromorphological investigation employed standard algorithms for peripheral nerve 141 diagnostics (11) and analyzed samples from neurological horses in comparison to age- and 142 143 breed-group matched non-neurologic controls (74 horses; 46 female/28 male, 6 weeks to 28 144 years) available through the archive of the Neuropathology Laboratory, LMU, Germany. Checklist for myelinated nerve fibre evaluation included abnormalities of Schwann cell 145 nucleus and perikaryon, the presence of Schwann cell inclusions, the thickness and integrity 146 of compacted and uncompacted myelin, the width and content of the nodal gap, the axonal 147 diameters, the density, distribution and morphology of the axonal cytoskeleton and 148 149 axoplasmic organellae, the frequency and spatial distribution of the axon-Schwann cell network (ASN), the appearance of the inner and outer endoneurial sheath and the presence of 150 151 nodal gap cells, fibre-adhesive and fibre-invasive immune cells. The appearance of unmyelinated nerve fibres, including C-fibre axons and their ensheathing Remak cells and 152 basilar laminae as well as the presence of collagen pockets and empty Schwann cell subunits 153 154 were evaluated at ultrastructural level. All histological investigations were carried out at a

Zeiss Axiophot® equipped with a CCD camera with magnifications ranging from x125 to
x1000. TEM was performed at a Zeiss EM10®, at 80kV, with a magnification of x1500 to
x100.000.

158 2.3.2 Immunohistology of nerves

Upon histological evaluation, immunohistochemical labelling techniques were employed forassessment of endoneurial immune cell infiltrates and endoplasmic reticulum stress.

161 The following markers were applied for immune cell phenotyping: T-cell marker CD3

162 (monoclonal mouse, clone F7.2.38, 1:200, Dakocytomation, Glostrup, Denmark), B-cell

163 marker CD79a (monoclonal mouse, clone HM57, 1:500, Dakocytomation, Glostrup,

164 Denmark), lysozyme (polyclonal rabbit, 1:200, Linaris, Freiburg, Germany) and MAC387

165 (polyclonal rabbit antibody, 1:1000, Linaris, Freiburg, Germany) labelling histiocytes and

166 macrophages. Detection of humoral factors was performed using antibodies directed at horse

167 IgG (polyclonal rabbit, Linaris, 1:100, Freiburg, Germany). These markers were applied on

deparaffinised sections and on selected teased fibres after fixation with 4% paraformaldehyde

and treatment with 20M sucrose. Endoplasmic reticulum (ER) dysfunction was evaluated via

the ER chaperone and signaling regulator GRP78/BiP.

Immunohistochemical procedures on sections employed antigen retrieval with microwave treatment in citrate buffer (20 min, pH 6.0, 800 W), overnight incubation with the primary antibodies at 4°C, avidin-biotin enhancer (ABC kit, Linaris, Freiburg, Germany) and a diaminobenzidine hydrochloride detection kit. Whole mount immunohistochemistry of teased fibres was conducted as single and double labelling study. Following microwave treatment, incubation with each primary antibody was carried out for 5 days at 37°C in a humid

177 chamber. Immersion with the second primary antibody was preceded by LinBloc® (Linaris,

Freiburg, Germany) treatment. Histogreen® (Linaris, Freiburg, Germany) was used as secondchromagen.

## 180 *2.3.3 Muscle processing*

Between one and four biopsies from different muscles were examined for individual horse (supplementary item 1). Samples were immersed in liquid nitrogen and processed to frozen and formalin fixed slides stained with HE, periodic acid Schiff (PAS) with and without diastase pretreatment and Masson`s trichrome techniques. In two cases modified Gomori trichrome and fibre typing with adenosine triphosphatase (ATPase) and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH) tetrazolium reductase staining was also performed.

## 187 2.4 Data analysis

Nerve lesion scores (0-3) were obtained for myelinated fibre loss, actual demyelinating and axonal pathologies, Schwann cell changes and inflammatory features\_(12). Lesion occurrence and scores were compared in between acute ( $\leq$ 4 weeks disease history) and chronic ( $\geq$ 8 weeks disease history) cases using chi square /Fisher's exact test and Mann Whitney test. The interdependence between nerve lesions and clinical grades was evaluated via Kendall-Tau test. P values  $\leq$  0.05 were accepted indicating significance.

## 194 **3. Results**

# 195 *3.1 Demographics and management*

196 Sixteen horses from Norway and Sweden were included in the study. Case horses were aged

between 1 and 25 years (mean 10), represented all sexes and 9 different breeds (Table 2).

- 198 Stabling included both small units with less than 10 horses and large stables with up to 80
- 199 horses. Prevalence of AEP at farm level varied and ranged from 1 affected out of 50 horses to
- 200 10 out of 14. All cases had been fed wrapped forage preceding the disease. Two cases (No. 1
- and 7) had been stabled in farms together with AEP cases earlier, but at that point without any

clinical signs of AEP. Horse No. 1 was <u>stabled together with exposed to a single AEP horse a</u>
year before and was then, in the present study, <u>part of affected by</u> a large outbreak involving
10 out of 14 stablemates. Horse No. 7 was stabled at a farm with several AEP affected horses
four years prior to inclusion in the study, and at that time found <u>to be</u> neurologically
<u>normalunaffected</u> by one of the authors (SHO). The horse thereafter changed stables and had
no history of neurological deficits during the four years <u>that followed to come</u>. She was then
the only horse diagnosed with AEP at the farm.

209 *3.2 Clinical course* 

210 The included horses represented all four severity grades at onset of disease, see Table 2 and Fig. 2 for details. The severity of clinical signs at onset of the disease was grade I in four 211 212 horses, grade II in six horses, grade III in four horses and grade IV in two horses (Table 2, 213 Fig. 2). Owners had elected euthanasia in 14 out of 16 case horses. The duration of the disease before sampling (observation time) was four weeks or less and classified as acute in six 214 horses, six and seven weeks respectively in two horses, and more than eight weeks, classified 215 as chronic. in eight horses, four of which more than a year (Table 2). Based on this, six horses 216 (No. 1-6) with clinical disease history of ≤4 weeks were classified as acute and eight horses 217 (No. 7-14) with  $\geq 8$  weeks duration, as chronic. The two surviving horses with six and seven 218 weeks observation time (No. 15, 16) had only muscle biopsies taken and were not included in 219 220 the statistical analysis.

In five horses neurological deterioration (n=3 grade III to grade IV, n=2 grade I to grade IV)
occurred over 10 days to 4 months (Fig. 2). In three horses with grade I (n=2) or grade III
(n=I) neurological deficits remained constant whereas in the remaining eight horses remission
in clinical signs was observed. In six of the eight horses, recovery was incomplete (initial
grade II, grade I at time of euthanasia). A neurological deterioration was seen in five horses
during an observational time of ten days to four months. Three of these horses progressed

from grade III to IV, and two deteriorated from grade I on first examination, to grade IV at 227 time of euthanasia (Fig. 2). Neurological deficits remained constant during the observation 228 period of seven days to two months in three horses (3/16), presenting with grade I (n=2) or 229 230 grade III (n=1). Remission of clinical signs was seen in 8/16 horses. Recovery was incomplete in six horses which had showed grade II compromise at initial presentation, and grade I at 231 time of euthanasia (observational time of four months to two years). Two surviving ponies 232 improved from grade IV to grade I and grade III, respectively, within the 6-7 weeks that 233 passed from clinical onset to biopsy. They made a complete recovery from clinical signs of 234 AEP within six months following sampling, and remained free during the following years. 235

236 *3.3 Pathology* 

237 *3.3.1 Tissue availability* 

In total, 105 nerve samples were collected from 14 horses that were subject to euthanasia. The 238 239 samples originated from of up to 15 different nerve-sites from both sides of the body. From 240 five horses, spinal nerve roots were resected. The samples contained one isolated dorsal root ganglion (DRG) (1/5), DRG plus postganglionic dorsal root and subganglionic ventral root 241 242 (3/5) or not further specified fragments of non-ganglionic nerve roots (1/5). In depth evaluation of muscles and/or nerves was performed in all 14 euthanized horses (Table 2), in 243 the two surviving case horses tissue diagnostics was limited to muscle biopsies. In addition, 244 full autopsy was performed in four horses, according to respective consent of the owners. 245

246 *3.3.2. Nerve pathology* 

All 14 AEP cases showed significant and rather uniform peripheral nerve changes extending
throughout all sampling sites, with minor random variations (Table 3). At stage of sampling,
all nerves exhibited mild to moderate loss of myelinated nerve fibres (MF), with or without

large-fiber predominance (7 of each) (Fig. 3). Total MF drop-out appeared mildly more
advanced in acute versus chronic cases (p=0.03, Table 3).

In all but one horse (Table 2 No. 7, a chronic case), the nerves showed axonopathic MF 252 features. Axonal atrophy with subsequent internodal myelin sheath crenation, inner and out-253 folded myelin loops and concentric myelin sheath adjustment was most prevalent, affecting 254 255 13/14 horses. More conspicuously, axonal swelling was noted due to abnormal axoplasmic aggregation of mitochondrial, multivesicular and dense bodies plus proliferation of axon-256 Schwann cell network in three acute (No. 2, 3, 6) and one chronic case (No. 9). Finally, four 257 acute (all but No. 1 and 4) and five chronic cases (No. 8, 10-12, 14) presented with various 258 stages of Wallerian degeneration. Amongst axonal changes, acute cases showed higher 259 260 degrees of axonal atrophy (P<0.02; Table 3) if compared to chronic presentations. No significant differences were seen regarding occurrence and stage of Wallerian degeneration. 261 262 There was however an weak interdependence between Wallerian degeneration and severity 263 degree of clinical signs in the acute cases ( $\underline{P=0,02}$ ,  $r=0.\underline{8022}$ ), with more pronounced Wallerian degeneration seen in the most severe cases. 264

Myelin sheath changes were evident throughout acute and chronic cases (Table 3, Fig. 3), including the single case lacking axonal pathologies (No. 7). With exception of horse No. 12, demyelinating features affected large fibre types only. These comprised interspersed or clustered demyelinated and hypomyelinated segments in all horses as well as paranodal demyelination with stepped remyelination and formation of pseudo- or hemi-nodes in two acute (No. 2, 6) and three chronic cases (No. 7, 9, 14) and dysmorphic paranodes in four acute (No. 1, 2, 5, 6) and two chronic cases (No. 12, 14).

Myelin sheath destruction was associated with fibre-adherent (12/14) (No. 1-11, 14) and even
fibre-invasive (9/14) (No. 1-3, 5-7, 10, 11, 14) mononuclear round cells in a majority of cases
(Table 3, Fig. 4). The degree of fibre-directed infiltrates in acute cases was statistically linked

to the severity degree of clinical signs (P=0.04; r=0.83), with more infiltrates seen in the most
severe cases. All but one horse (13/14, exception No. 5) further presented with a diffuse
lymphohistiocytic infiltration of the endoneurium that mainly expressed T-cell marker CD3
and lysozyme followed by a few CD79a-positive B-lymphocytes. Investigation of teased
whole mount fibres was consistent with very mild immunopositivity for IgG within the
myelin spiral.

Dyscompaction of myelin was noted in one acute (No. 3) and four chronic AEP cases (No. 7,
8, 12, 13) in terms of tomacula (No. 8, 12, 13), adaxonal and interlamellar ballooning (No. 3,
7).

Severe hypertrophy of nearly all Schwann cell perikarya was observed in 12/14 AEP horses 284 (all but No. 13 and 14), with higher scores for the acute cases (P=0.04, Table 3). All six acute 285 286 and five chronic cases presented with highly conspicuous amorphic perinuclear Schwann cell inclusions (Fig. 5). The inclusions stained osmiophobic, pale-azurophilic and GRP78/BiP-287 positive, on immunohistochemistry. On electron microscopy, they resembled flocculent 288 electron dense material suggestive of non-filamentous protein accumulation. The content 289 appeared not to be bound by a membrane, but was rather indistinctively separated from the 290 cytosol. Apparently independent of the clinical stage, all but two cases (No. 1 and 13) showed 291 hyperplastic Schwann cells and supernumerary Schwann cell processes ("onion bulbs") 292 centered on demyelinated incompletely remyelinated fibres. 293

294 Insights from 2-15 sampling sites in 7/14 horses (No. 1, 4, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14) ruled out

significant proximodistal gradients and asymmetric nerve affection with regards to axonal

changes. This contrasts to proximal predominance of inflammatory features in one acute

297 (No.3) and two chronic cases (No. 7, 11). Furthermore, in two horses with bilateral peroneal

298 nerve sampling, Schwann cell inclusions were seen in one side only. Another single acute

case (No. 5) with four sites investigated, presented with the -peroneal nerve being mostseverely affected by all type of changes.

All three DRG (3/5) showed patchy increase of satellite cells and some Nageotte bodies in

302 DRG. Lymphoplasmocytic aggregates were occasionally seen in all five animals. In three

303 <u>samples out of four containing distinctive dorsal and ventral roots, the inflammatory changes</u>
 304 were more prominent in the dorsal roots.

305 *3.3.3. Muscle pathology* 

306 A total of 24 muscle biopsies were sampled from 7 cases (supplementary item 1, Table 2, No. 2, 3, 6, 7, 11, 15, 16). All samples showed similar changes, namelyhad occasional fibres with 307 euchromatic peripheral nuclei, and degrees of very mild to moderate multifocal myofibre 308 atrophy with mild small group atrophy and occasional anguloid fibres. Intramuscular axons 309 were rarely observed and appeared normal. Overtly angular fibres were rare, however in four 310 311 of the cases the changes may be significant enough to be due to mild denervation. Two cases showed marked atrophy of both fibre types. One of these had been recumbent for a significant 312 amount of time and additionally showed occasional single fibre necrosis of hypertrophic 313 fibres. In no samples was there evidence of arteritis, cellular infiltrate or apparent replacement 314 of fibres with adipose or fibrous tissue. 315

316

### 317 4. Discussion

Although the total number of AEP affected horses is not very high, it is the most prevalent polyneuropathy in horses in a geographically restricted area. AEP is a highly prevalent emerging, but geographically restricted, polyneuropathy in horses that <u>It presents</u> uniformly presents with knuckling in the <u>metatarsophalangeal</u> joints due to extensor <u>weaknessparesis</u> or flexor-extensor incoordination. This study identified a high level of pathomorphological homogeneity amongst the multiple investigated nerves, biopsy sites and individuals

throughout the affected farms in Scandinavia. Very much like our first observation in nerves 324 from a Finnish AEP affected horse, the cases from Norway and Sweden presented 325 predominantly with a hitherto undetermined inclusion body schwannopathy and recurrent 326 327 inflammatory demyelination. According to the lack of respective neurological and veterinary reportsliterature and our own laboratory files, comprising several thousand clinical cases since 328 329 the 1980's, a similar bimodal neuropathy has not been recognized previously. In equids, the 330 closest reported equivalent to AEP is a knuckling neuropathy described in three young horses from Japan (13, 14). Most of the resemblance herein refers to the clinical presentation, 331 demyelinating-remyelinating features and some Wallerian degeneration seen predominantly 332 333 in large myelinated fibers (13, 14). However, there is no reference in the Japanese case studies to Schwann cell changes and inflammatory features similar to what we see in AEP. In contrast 334 to AEP, moreover, Japanese cases also demonstrated denervation of limb muscles. In Nordic 335 336 horses affected by AEP, evidence of denervation was only subtle and inconsistent. Even the surviving horse that presented with disability grade III on sampling, showed disuse atrophy 337 338 and paresis of the muscle due to demyelination rather than denervation. Hence, the dropout of 339 large myelinated fibres in AEP nerves is supposed to result from a decay of Ia/Ib afferents rather than motor axons. Credence to this hypothesis is lent by the relative preservation of 340 341 spinal ventral roots if compared to dorsal roots in a smaller series of cases (not shown).

Similar to the fibre dropout, schwannopathic features mainly were restricted to those cells
enveloping large myelinated fibres. In contrast to the earlier case with aggregates seen in the
rough endoplasmic reticulum (rER) (3), large cytoplasmic Schwann cell inclusions were not
membrane bound at time of sampling. On the other hand, they consistently stained
immunopositive for BiP/GRP78, indicating that the inclusions indeed may result from
defective posttranslational protein processing, irrespective of rER membrane preservation.
BiP/GRP78 belongs to the group of peptide-binding molecular chaperones that interact with

protein-folding intermediates to prevent protein aggregation by keeping it in a folding-349 350 competent state (15). Chaperones guarantee that only properly assembled and folded proteins are able to leave the rER, while unfolded or misfolded proteins will accumulate, awaiting 351 352 proteosomal degradation. Several circumstances such as macromolecular crowding, oxidative stress, exposure to toxins, and aging may impair protein folding and/or affect rescue 353 354 mechanisms such as ubiquitination/proteosomal activity and autophagy (16). Consequently, 355 the triggers of AEP appears either to directly interfere with protein folding and rescue mechanisms or incite one of the named prerequisite disturbances. Even though a toxic 356 principle is very likely, there is no poison known to us that is likely to reproduce exactly these 357 358 changes. Misfolding of proteins and pathological aggregation in experimental settings also are known to enhance the immunogenicity of proteins explaining the autoimmune side effects of 359 certain drugs and nanoparticles (17). Sporadic inclusion body myositis (sIBM) is a natural 360 361 example of how misfolding and dysfunctional proteosomal pathways may lead to cellular autoimmune responses (16). Sporadic inclusion body myositis is the most common human 362 myopathy presenting over the age of 40 years. Respective muscle fibre inclusions also stain 363 positive for peptide-binding chaperones, disulfide isomerases and lectin chaperones, all of 364 which individually document unfolding and/or misfolding of peptide chains and 365 366 glycoproteins. Sporadic inclusion body myositis is an acquired immune-mediated myopathy, 367 but the susceptibility to sIBM and progression of disease appear to segregate with certain HLA haplotypes (18, 19). The employed immune effector cascades recruit cytotoxic T cells 368 and autoantibodies. That autoimmunity does not tell the whole story has been nicely 369 370 demonstrated by the general failure of immunosuppressive treatment in sIBM (20). Even though the comparison is tempting, AEP epidemiology does not indicate an MHC haplotype 371 372 association (4). It also is not restricted to a certain age segment but affects all breeds, ages and sexes non-selectively. Moreover, in contrast to sIBM, there is no exact match between the 373 extent of histopathological damage and clinical disability. This renders an unseen factor 374

375 likely, one that interferes with <u>nerve fibresensory</u> function at the level of impulse conduction 376 or neurotransmission. Hence, even if myelination is maintained, affected Schwann cells may be partially dysfunctional. Factors may e.g. interfere with transmembranous transport and 377 detoxification at paranodes and Schmidt-Lanterman clefts (21). Alternatively, nerve 378 conduction may be impaired at the level of nodal axolemma or within the dorsal root ganglia 379 380 (DRG). Preliminary DRG investigations indeed revealed occasional degeneration of sensory 381 neurons in single AEP cases. Moreover, in the context of autoimmunity, humoral factors that not necessarily lead to cell-mediated myelinotoxicity require consideration. Such soluble 382 factors are involved in cases of Guillain-Barré syndrome (GBS) in people (22). Axonal 383 384 conduction block can be caused by antibodies neutralizing transient voltage-gated Na<sup>+</sup> channels clustered at the node of Ranvier (23). Immunmodulatory treatment may remove 385 antibodies or other factors inferring with Na<sup>+</sup> channel function improving nerve function 386 387 ahead of possible structural restoration (22). Weak immunopositivity for intralesional immunoglobulins and the lack of correlation between the nerve fiber damage and the clinical 388 impairment, render humoral immune mechanisms in AEP possible. Clarification as to whether 389 these comprise anti-ganglioside antibodies as in GBS (24) awaits the availability of species 390 specific serological tests for neural autoantibodies. 391

Peripheral nerve lesions in AEP cases are far more widespread than the clinical picture would 392 393 suggest. This for example is evident in the recurrent laryngeal nerve, the longest peripheral 394 nerve in equids, where the observed pathological lesions would be expected to compromise 395 laryngeal function causing stridor. However, this has neither been observed clinically by 396 roaring -nor has endoscopy performed in some AEP affected horses shown any laryngeal paresis. A slap-test (25) has been performed in most cases examined by the authors, but only 397 398 rarely have a decreased leftsided reflex been noted (4). Mild symmetrical laryngeal 399 hemiplegia could however go unnoticed if the horse is not exercised.

400 Investigation of nerve samples biopsies allows for a specific AEP diagnosis and exclusion of relevant differential diagnoses, but it does not reflect the extent of dysfunction nor the clinical 401 outcome. A more stringent evaluation of the neurophysiological impact of AEP pathology 402 403 would require electrodiagnostics. In humans and small animals, electrophysiological investigations, rather than nerve biopsy, provide important determinants for peripheral nerve 404 diagnosis as in the clinical work-up of GBS (22, 26). In horses, nerve conduction studies 405 406 requireimplicate general anesthesia or deep sedation, both of which relaxes the horse to a 407 point where knuckling is easily induced may worsen the clinical signs in AEP and thus were declined by the owners. Diagnosis of mild and early AEP can therefore be challenging since it 408 purely depends on observation of knuckling, which may happen intermittently and easily be 409 missed by the owner and veterinarian. Thereby, estimation of disease duration can be 410 underestimated, unless the animals were in daily use at disease onset, as in the present study. 411

Neuropathies in humans are generally classified as acute if the time from onset to peak of 412 413 signs is less than four weeks (22, 26, 27), while a clinical course over more than eight weeks is considered chronic (28, 29). Although not fully comparable since euthanasia ended the 414 clinical course, we concluded that the six horses that were euthanized within four weeks were 415 clinically in the acute phase of the disease. At odds with the short clinical disease-history 416 however, histopathology featured chronic changes mainly such as onion bulbs. This 417 corresponds to the acute onset seen in up to 16% of human patients diagnosed with chronic 418 inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy (30, 31) and sporadically described in animals 419 (32). As lesions progress and maybe converge, secondary features such as loss of fibres, 420 421 secondary type of Wallerian degeneration, may mask the primary mode of lesion. The lag between induction and clinical manifestation of AEP further compromises the retrospective 422 423 analysis of exposure to environmental factors such as feed, toxins and infectious pathogens.

The acute cases comprised the clinically most severely affected horses; five out of six were 424 425 grade III or IV at the time of euthanasia. In the chronic group, only one horse was grade IV, the remaining seven were all grade I at the point of sampling. Interestingly, the significant 426 427 difference between the two groups, with more extensive myelinated fiber loss and compound axonal pathologies in the acute group remained true also for the only grade I horse in the 428 acute group and the grade IV case in the chronic group. The intercorrelation between fibre-429 430 directed infiltrates as well as Wallerian degeneration and clinical impairment in the acute group may very well be biased because of few horses included and only one mildly affected 431 horse in this group. There was no correlation when comparing severity grades and infiltrates 432 433 in all cases, disregarding disease duration. As much as the clinical examination focuses on disability, the grade of clinical compromise does not necessarily predict the disease course or 434 outcome, as demonstrated by the various severity degrees and disease duration in the included 435 436 cases. Indeed, with dedicated owners and cooperative patients many horses will overcome the disease, independent of the grade on admission or the maximal score of disability during the 437 438 observational period (4, 33). As long as the animals rise and are able to stand with or without 439 assistance every 24 hours (see supportive online material), full recovery may be possible. As nicely demonstrated in case No. 16, a show jumper pony, even horses with grade IV clinical 440 441 signs may return to full performance levels. A transient and/or low exposure to AEP triggers 442 may result in transient and mild clinical signs. The timeline of prodromal disease 443 development however is unclear and peripheral nerves in horses that have fully recovered from AEP have yet to be investigated. 444

In conclusion, histopathological findings in AEP affected horses are strikingly similar despite
variation in clinical severity and duration of disease at sampling, and comprise a re- and
demyelinating, predominantly large fibre, neuropathy with conspicuous Schwann cell

448 inclusions. In contrast, muscle biopsies present with surprisingly mild changes. The aetiology

remains unclear but an environmental toxin resembles the most likely pathogen.

450

- 452 Acknowledgments
- 453 We are grateful for horse owners and local veterinarians for their cooperation. Special thanks
- 454 to to Dr Ebba Nilsson, Dr Karin Bernodt and Dr Erika Karlstam, National Veterinary
- 455 Institute, and Dr Anders Linder, Eurofins Food/Agro, for autopsies and sampling in Sweden.
- 456 The staff at the Department of Pathology, NMBU, is likewise thanked for autopsies
- 457 performed in Norway. This study was funded by the Swedish-Norwegian Foundation for
- 458 Equine Research, Grants no. V07-47001 and H14-47014 and Research Council of Norway
- 459 Grant no. 248341 with contributions from the Norwegian Equine Center and the Agricultural
- 460 Agreement Research Fund.
- 461

462		Reference List
463 464 465	1.	Hanche-Olsen S, Teige J, Skaar I, Ihler CF. Polyneuropathy associated with forage sources in Norwegian horses. J Vet Intern Med. 2008;22(1):178-84.
466 467	2.	Gustafsson K, Ronéus M. (Outbreaks of neurologic disorders in horses). Sven Vet Tidning. 2000;52(5):253-9.
468 469 470	3.	Hahn CN, Matiasek K, Syrja P, Jokinen TS, MacIntyre N, Tulamo RM. Polyneuropathy of Finnish horses characterised by inflammatory demyelination and intracisternal Schwann cell inclusions. Equine Vet J. 2008;40(3):231-6.
471 472 473	4.	Gröndahl G, Hanche-Olsen S, Bröjer J, Ihler CF, Jäderlund KH, Egenvall A. Acquired equine polyneuropathy in Norway and Sweden: a clinical and epidemiological study. Equine Vet J Suppl. 2012(43):36-44.
474 475 476	5.	Wolff C, Egenvall A, Hanche-Olsen S, Gröndahl G. Spatial and temporal distribution of incidence of acquired equine polyneuropathy in Norway and Sweden, 1995-2012. BMC Vet Res. 2014;10:265.

477 478	6.	Telama H, Alho J, Virtala A-M, Tulamo R-M. Acquired equine polyneuropathy- a review and an account of Finnish outbreaks. Suomen Eläinlääkärilehti. 2011;117(5):301-8.
479 480	7.	Hanche-Olsen S. Acquired equine polyneuropathy - clinical, pathological and epidemiological aspects [Philosophiae Doctor]. Oslo, Norway: Norwegian University of Life Sciences; 2017.
481 482 483	8.	Fjordbakk CT, Strand E, Hanche-Olsen S. Surgical and conservative management of bilateral dynamic laryngeal collapse associated with poll flexion in harness race horses. Vet Surg. 2008;37(6):501-7.
484 485 486 487	9.	Kaemmer D, Bozkurt A, Otto J, Junge K, Klink C, Weis J, et al. Evaluation of tissue components in the peripheral nervous system using Sirius red staining and immunohistochemistry: a comparative study (human, pig, rat). J Neurosci Methods. 2010;190(1):112-6.
488 489 490	10.	Wieczorek LA. Nerve teasing as a diagnostic aid in detection of peripheral neuropathies: methodology and interpretation [Dissertation]. Munich: Ludwig-Maximilians-University; 2002.
491 492 493 494	11.	Gross S, Fischer A, Rosati M, Matiasek L, Corlazzoli D, Cappello R, et al. Nodo- paranodopathy, internodopathy and cleftopathy: Target-based reclassification of Guillain- Barre-like immune-mediated polyradiculoneuropathies in dogs and cats. Neuromuscul Disord. 2016;26(12):825-36.
495 496	12.	Pamphlett R, Sjarif A. Is quantitation necessary for assessment of sural nerve biopsies? Muscle Nerve. 2003;27(5):562-9.
497 498	13.	Furuoka H, Mizushima M, Miyazawa K, Matsui T. Idiopathic peripheral neuropathy in a horse with knuckling. Acta Neuropathol. 1994;88(4):389-93.
499 500 501	14.	Furuoka H, Okamoto R, Kitayama S, Asou S, Matsui T, Miyahara K. Idiopathic peripheral neuropathy in the horse with knuckling: muscle and nerve lesions in additional cases. Acta Neuropathol. 1998;96(4):431-7.
502 503 504	15.	Chambers JE, Marciniak SJ. Cellular mechanisms of endoplasmic reticulum stress signaling in health and disease. 2. Protein misfolding and ER stress. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol. 2014;307(8):C657-70.
505 506	16.	Vattemi G, Engel WK, McFerrin J, Askanas V. Endoplasmic reticulum stress and unfolded protein response in inclusion body myositis muscle. Am J Pathol. 2004;164(1):1-7.
507 508	17.	Ratanji KD, Derrick JP, Dearman RJ, Kimber I. Immunogenicity of therapeutic proteins: influence of aggregation. J Immunotoxicol. 2014;11(2):99-109.
509 510	18.	Mastaglia FL. Sporadic inclusion body myositis: variability in prevalence and phenotype and influence of the MHC. Acta Myol. 2009;28(2):66-71.
511 512 513	19.	Needham M, James I, Corbett A, Day T, Christiansen F, Phillips B, et al. Sporadic inclusion body myositis: phenotypic variability and influence of HLA-DR3 in a cohort of 57 Australian cases. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2008;79(9):1056-60.
514 515	20.	Gang Q, Bettencourt C, Machado P, Hanna MG, Houlden H. Sporadic inclusion body myositis: the genetic contributions to the pathogenesis. Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2014;9:88.
516 517	21.	Scherer SS, Deschênes SM, Xu YT, Grinspan JB, Fischbeck KH, Paul DL. Connexin32 is a myelin-related protein in the PNS and CNS. J Neurosci. 1995;15(12):8281-94.

518 519	22.	Vucic S, Kiernan MC, Cornblath DR. Guillain-Barre syndrome: an update. J Clin Neurosci. 2009;16(6):733-41.
520 521	23.	Weber F, Rüdel R, Aulkemeyer P, Brinkmeier H. Anti-GM1 antibodies can block neuronal voltage-gated sodium channels. Muscle Nerve. 2000;23(9):1414-20.
522 523 524	24.	Dilley A, Gregson NA, Hadden RD, Smith KJ. Effects on axonal conduction of anti- ganglioside sera and sera from patients with Guillain-Barre syndrome. J Neuroimmunol. 2003;139(1-2):133-40.
525 526	25.	Greet TR, Jeffcott LB, Whitwell KE, Cook WR. The slap test for laryngeal adductory function in horses with suspected cervical spinal cord damage. Equine Vet J. 1980;12(3):127-31.
527 528	26.	Asbury AK, Cornblath DR. Assessment of current diagnostic criteria for Guillain-Barre syndrome. Ann Neurol. 1990;27 Suppl:S21-4.
529 530	27.	Van der Meché FG, Van Doorn PA, Meulstee J, Jennekens FG. Diagnostic and classification criteria for the Guillain-Barre syndrome. Eur Neurol. 2001;45(3):133-9.
531 532 533	28.	Research criteria for diagnosis of chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy (CIDP). Report from an Ad Hoc Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology AIDS Task Force. Neurology. 1991;41(5):617-8.
534 535 536	29.	Barohn RJ, Kissel JT, Warmolts JR, Mendell JR. Chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyradiculoneuropathy. Clinical characteristics, course, and recommendations for diagnostic criteria. Arch Neurol. 1989;46(8):878-84.
537 538 539	30.	McCombe PA, Pollard JD, McLeod JG. Chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyradiculoneuropathy. A clinical and electrophysiological study of 92 cases. Brain. 1987;110 (Pt 6):1617-30.
540 541 542	31.	Trojaborg W. Acute and chronic neuropathies: new aspects of Guillain-Barre syndrome and chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy, an overview and an update. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol. 1998;107(5):303-16.
543 544 545	32.	Molin J, Márquez M, Raurell X, Matiasek K, Ferrer I, Pumarola M. Acute clinical onset chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyneuropathy in a dog. Muscle Nerve. 2011;44(3):441-4.
546 547	33.	Hanche-Olsen S, Kielland C, Ihler CF, Hultin Jaderlund K. Long-term follow-up of Norwegian horses affected with acquired equine polyneuropathy. Equine Vet J. 2017.