

Textbook of Medical Virology

Edited by

Erik Lycke

and

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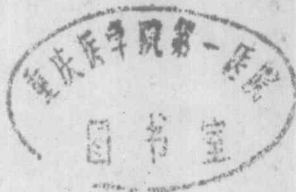
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Preface

Virus infections have influenced the life of man throughout history, but knowledge about viruses and the diseases they cause is of relatively recent origin. The expansion of virological knowledge has been markedly determined by the availability of methods for growing viruses under laboratory conditions and for the biochemical characterization of virus particles and molecular events in infected cells. Thus advents such as the introduction of cell culture techniques, the development of techniques for polypeptide analyses and detailed nucleic acid characterization have been of major importance.

It has become increasingly possible to describe pathogenic events in molecular terms although a great deal still remains to be discovered. The comprehensive knowledge available about virus replication now allows a rational approach to the design of antiviral drugs. It can be foreseen that a number of antiviral compounds will be introduced during the forthcoming decade. These drugs will be an important supplement to the currently used immunoprophylactic measures which have already provided some of the major advances in biomedicine. Vaccines also will be used more extensively in the future and new products will be developed.

This book encompasses the whole field of medical virology. The first part of the book describes the structure and chemical composition of virus particles and the biological and immunological activity of individual virus components. The next section analyses the interaction between viruses and cells. The capacity of viruses to enter cells, the modes of replication of DNA and RNA viruses and the mechanism of release of viruses are discussed separately. Before the subsequent section of the book which presents the pathogenesis of virus infections, the effect of viruses on cellular functions and the genetics of viruses are reviewed. The pathogenesis of virus infections include chapters on acute, congenital, persistent, 'slow' and tumorigenic infections and on defence mechanisms against virus infections. Hereafter, separate chapters discuss laboratory diagnosis of virus infections, their epidemiology, and prevention by use of immune prophylaxis and antiviral drugs. The last section of the book concentrates on special virology, focusing in separate chapters on the major virus groups and summarizing the information on viral syndromes in a concluding chapter.

It is our hope that this book will enable the reader to comprehend the disease process in virus infections in man and to understand the methods currently available for diagnosis and prevention.

Gothenburg and Stockholm
June 1982

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Viruses – a unique kind of infectious agent

Erik Lycke and Erling Norrby

Our first awareness of the infectious agents which later became known as virus (L. poison) dates back to the turn of the century. It had been observed that there were infectious diseases which were caused by agents lacking the capacity to replicate on artificial substrates and that these agents were smaller than all previously known infectious agents. Unicellular organisms, arranged according to decreasing size and complexity, include protozoas, fungi, bacteria, mycoplasmas, rickettsia and chlamydia. These groups of cellular microorganisms differ distinctly from viruses with regard to many basic properties.

Viruses can only replicate in living cells. As a consequence two separate phases can be distinguished in the life-cycle of a virus. During one of these phases the virus occurs outside cells in the form of a virus particle. This particle is a passive transport vehicle which provides opportunities for a spread of infection both from cell-to-cell within the multicellular organism and between individuals. During the other phase the virus resides inside the infected cell where replication may occur. This replication includes a synthesis of new virus-genetic material and new virus-specific proteins. Other building materials for virus particles as well as the necessary energy and main machinery for the assembly of a virus are provided by the infected cell. Certain unicellular organisms, e.g. rickettsia and chlamydia, replicate in cells but in contrast to the replication of viruses this occurs through a growth and division of the organisms. Furthermore, both rickettsia and chlamydia like other cellular organisms contain both DNA and RNA whereas the genetic material of a virus is represented by either one of these nucleic acids. As a consequence a virus displays a relatively more advanced form of cellular parasitism. Concerning certain intracellular functions of a virus there are similarities with functions carried by some extrachromosomal genetic elements in cells, i.e. episomes and plasmids. However, as distinct from these kinds of cellular genetic material, a virus has an independent extracellular form of transmission.

Viruses occur not only in mammals but also in insects, plants and prokaryotes, e.g. bacteria. From a practical point of view one therefore refers to animal, insect, plant and bacterial viruses. The latter viruses are usually called bacteriophages (Gk. *phagein* = to eat). Certain viruses have a capacity to replicate in completely different hosts, for example both in mammalian cells and in insect cells. Bacteriophages, however, are limited to replication in prokaryotic cells only.

Replication of an animal virus in cells can lead to their destruction. If the replication of a virus in a particular organ is widespread this may lead to such extensive destruction that symptoms of disease appear. Thus, viruses may cause

2 Viruses – a unique kind of infectious agent

acute degenerative diseases. Such diseases are common. In industrial societies children in the pre-school age usually have 5–7 virus infections per year. About half of all absenteeism from work and school is considered to be caused by virus diseases. Most often these diseases are of a rather trivial nature such as the uncomplicated common cold.

Every year new variants of known viruses and often completely new viruses are discovered. In the case of some of these newly discovered agents methods for laboratory cultivation are not available and frequently it is not known whether the agent has the capacity to cause disease. In spite of our increasing knowledge of the complex capacity of virus infections to influence cellular and organ functions we still do not have an overall view of the total medical importance of virus infections.

The possibilities of specific treatment of virus diseases are still rather limited but developments concerning preventive treatment, i.e. immune prophylaxis have been a major advance in modern medicine. Smallpox has disappeared from our world. Poliomyelitis has become a very rare disease in many industrial countries. Yellow fever has been brought under control. Vaccines against measles, mumps and rubella provide an opportunity for effective control of these infections and in the foreseeable future there could be effective vaccination against other childhood diseases and against the two major forms of virus-induced hepatitis. In principle it is possible today to produce vaccines against all cultivatable viruses.

During the last few decades it has been found that many viruses can give not only acute infections but also have the capacity to remain in the body and give chronic diseases or dormant infections. A special property of certain viruses is their ability to change the growth characteristics of normal cells into those of tumour cells. The importance of this phenomenon for the emergence of tumours in man and animals is currently subject to intensive studies. It should be emphasized that a majority of all virus infections contracted by man or animals are not apparent, i.e. they do not produce any symptoms. From a biological viewpoint there obviously is no reason for a virus to cause severe disease. Concerning the possible spread of infection it is an advantage if the infected individual does not contract incapacitating disease.

Viruses have been the focus of attention not only because of their importance as disease-causing agents but also because they are interesting subjects for general biological study. Viruses represent the most simplified self-replicating and genetically active elements. The possible evolutionary origin of viruses has been extensively debated. In the absence of hard facts these discussions are usually more speculative than informative. Viruses have been referred to as the 'selfish' gene which during its evolution has acquired capacity to a restricted cell-independent existence and an ability to transfer its genetic information to another cell. It does not seem unlikely that the evolution of viruses has been advantageous also for the evolution of cells and cellular organisms. Genetic material which is important for cells can be transported by use of virus-genetic material as a vehicle within and between genomes of cells. Studies of viruses therefore provide opportunities for an analysis of the basic cellular mechanisms of life.

Our knowledge about viruses has increased dramatically during the last three decades. This is due to the development of practical methods for the cultivation of viruses in cell cultures in the laboratory and to the development of new methods for biochemical characterization of virus products. The total chemical composition of certain viruses is now known and much detailed information concerning the interaction between viruses and cells has been obtained. A continued rapid accumulation of knowledge concerning both the theoretical and the applied aspects

of virology can be predicted. Today we stand on the threshold to an age in which the practical application of antiviral substances in medicine will be seen. Diagnostic knowledge of viral diseases will therefore become of increasing importance and the study of virology will be essential for both practising and trainee medical doctors and other personnel engaged in biomedicine.

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Principal aspects of virus particle structure

The composition of a conventional virus can schematically be described as follows. Centrally the particle contains nucleic acid of varying quantity. This nucleic acid is either RNA or DNA, but never both kinds simultaneously. The nucleic acid is surrounded by a protein shell, called capsid (from L. caps = box). In the case of many viruses the nucleoprotein complex represents the whole virus particle. The virus particle is referred to as the virion. In more complex viruses further (one or more) enclosing structures occur. This component is structurally similar to cellular membranes and is referred to as the envelope. An envelope is composed of proteins specific to the virus and lipids and carbohydrates which are taken

The morphology of virus particles.

Classification of viruses

Erling Norrby

The survival of organic life is dependent on its capacity to replicate genetic material. The most simplified natural form of a viral infectious agent therefore would comprise a limited amount of nucleic acid with capacity to direct its own replication. This form of infectious agent exists in plants but has not been identified so far in other host organisms. It is called *viroid*. Viroids are composed of a circular form of single-stranded RNA with a molecular weight of about 100 000. It is not known how this nucleic acid can be replicated nor has it been clarified how this kind of agent can cause disease in the plants on which it forms a parasite.

Infectious nucleic acid

All known animal, insect and bacterial viruses have an extracellular transport form which includes nucleic acid and a protein shell in which this nucleic acid is enclosed. In some cases the particles also include additional structures. Isolated virus nucleic acid, DNA or RNA, may cause infection and initiate a synthesis of complete virus particles. The nucleic acid is infectious, however, only in cases when the complete virus particle does not contain any enzyme(s) needed to initiate replication (see Chapter 3). Free isolated *infectious nucleic acid* is an ineffective contagious entity. One single break in the nucleic acid molecule induced by physical or chemical factors will lead to the loss of its infectious capacity. It is therefore of importance to their survival that viral infectious agents have their nucleic acid packed into a protective protein shell during the transport between cells.

Principal aspects of virus particle structure

The composition of a conventional virus can schematically be described as follows. Centrally the particle contains nucleic acid of varying quantity. This nucleic acid is either RNA or DNA, but never both kinds simultaneously. The nucleic acid is surrounded by a protein shell, called *capsid* (from L. *capsa* = box). In the case of many viruses the nucleoprotein complex represents the whole virus particle. The virus particle is referred to as the *virion*. In more complex viruses further (one or more) enclosing structure(s) occur. This component is structurally similar to cellular membranes and is referred to as the *envelope*. An envelope is composed of proteins specific to the virus and lipids and carbohydrates which are taken

preformed from the infected cell. Even the more complex virus particles do not contain organelle structures equivalent to, for example, mitochondria and lysosomes of cells. If strict definitions were applied, a virus should not be called a microorganism. However, for practical reasons, viruses are included in the group of microorganisms.

Virions thus have a relatively simple composition and, as a consequence, they are small. The largest virions have dimensions of $320 \times 270 \times 120$ nm, a size corresponding to that of certain forms of the smallest bacteria (mycoplasmas), whereas the diameter of the smallest virions is about 20 nm. The difference in volume is 5000-fold. In spite of this variation in dimensions, viruses have common features which motivate their classification as one common category of infectious agent. The limited size of virions allowed a distinction to be made between bacteria and viruses as cellular infectious agents in early studies. Virions were found to be capable of passing through filters which retained bacteria and they were therefore classed as being ultrafiltrable. Furthermore, bacteria were characterized by light microscopy whereas virus particles, because of their limited size, could not be detected. Information about the morphology and dimensions of virions could be clarified firstly through electron-microscopic analysis. Originally it was possible to get only a rough impression of the size and form of virus particles. In 1956 the negative contrast technique for electron microscopy was introduced. Instead of being stained with electron-dense substances, the particles were suspended in a contrast solution. With this technique new possibilities for detailed characterization of virus morphology became available.

Live or dead materia?

During the 1930s it was shown that purified virions of a plant virus could be crystallized. The fact that virus particles were giant molecules with a capacity to crystallize caused extensive discussion about whether a virus should be considered as live or dead materia. The extracellular virus particle which lacks energy-providing systems and has no capacity, or only a limited capacity, for independent metabolism obviously must be considered as a lifeless unit. Since it also lacks capacity for active movement, the transport of virions in time and space from cell to cell is a chance event. If a virion comes into contact with a susceptible cell, however, a sequence of events is initiated which fulfils all definitions of life, i.e. the reproduction of genetic material which is incorporated into new transport particles. The question about live or dead material becomes more complicated when we are dealing with defective viruses which have a capacity to replicate only in cells which concomitantly are infected with another virus (see Chapter 12).

Only certain non-enveloped virions can be crystallized. The availability of viral crystals has facilitated three-dimensional analyses by aid of x-ray diffraction. Through these studies it has been possible to shed light upon the interaction between virus nucleic acid and capsid protein.

Structural proteins – symmetry arrangements

A single-stranded nucleic acid can direct the synthesis of a protein which has a size corresponding to about $\frac{1}{4}$ of its molecular weight. This fact caused Watson and

Crick, well known for their description of the double helix nature of DNA, to postulate two important principles for the structuring of virus particles. The first principle was that the virus capsid must be built up of repetitive units; the second, that the structure of the capsid should be symmetrical. By use of the two above-mentioned methods of analyses – electron microscopy and x-ray crystallography – and chemical analyses, the correctness of these postulates has been verified. The number and character of the chemical units, *structural proteins*, which are the building stones in viruses, have been described for the majority of animal viruses.

Nature generally utilizes symmetrical building principles in the construction of more comprehensive three-dimensional structures. Hereby, information can be spared since the design of the individual building stones can decide their mutual

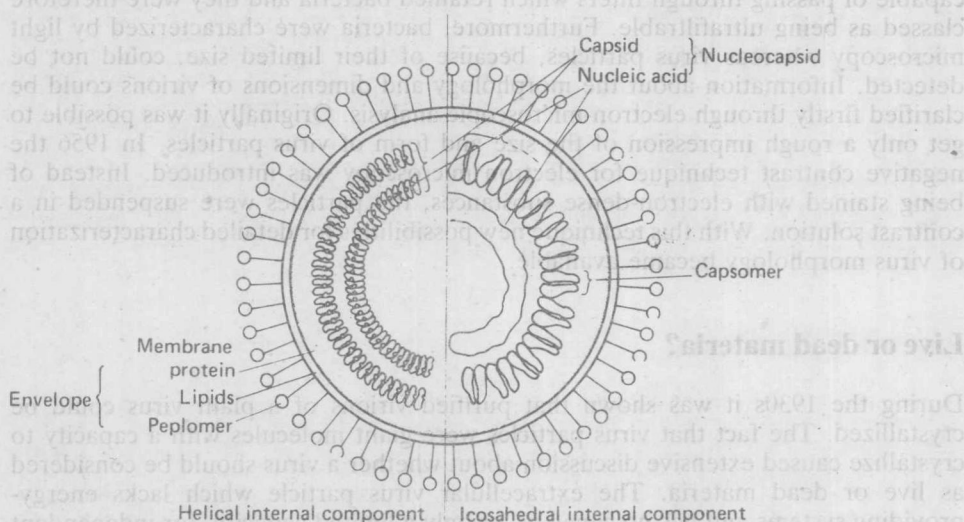


Figure 2.1. Schematic description of the structure of a virus with a helical (left part of the picture) or icosahedral (right part of the picture) internal component (nucleocapsid). The particle in the figure is surrounded by an envelope but many viruses lack this structure. A capsid represents the outermost protective structure in such non-enveloped viruses

relationships and therefore allow a spontaneous assembly via crystallization-like processes. It is characteristic of nature that it alternates unique design and symmetrical arrangements on different levels of the organized biological hierarchy in both plants and animals.

The principle of symmetrical constructions is well illustrated by the design of virus particles. Two different forms of symmetry, *helical* and *icosahedral* have been used for the construction of virus capsids (Figure 2.1).

Helical symmetry

Helical (screw-formed) capsid symmetry is used in the construction of rod-shaped plant virions and bacteriophages and the internal structure of some enveloped animal viruses. Among the rod-shaped viruses tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) has