

General properties of viruses





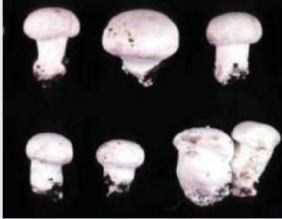
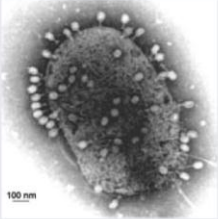

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Introduction

The viruses are too small to be seen with a light microscope. Their small size allows them to pass through filters that are used to retain back bacteria in contaminated fluids. Hence, they were first described as filterable agents. Viruses, like other microorganisms (e.g., bacteria, fungi, and parasites), are the infectious agents that are associated with disease in humans.

The viruses unlike other infectious agents are **obligate intracellular parasites**, i.e., **they absolutely require living host cells in order to multiply**. In addition, viruses replicate by assembly of the individual components rather than by binary fission.

Viruses infect:

- **Humans**

Smallpox ¹
- **Other vertebrates**

Foot and mouth disease ²
- **Invertebrates**

Leatherjackets infected with *Tipula* iridescent virus
- **Plants**

Delayed emergence of potato caused by tobacco rattle virus infection ³
- **Fungi**

Mushroom virus X ⁴
- **Bacteria**

Escherichia coli cell with phage T4 attached ⁵
- **Damaged potato (spraing) caused by tobacco rattle virus infection**


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The viruses show the following features:

1. They are filterable agents.
2. They are obligate intracellular parasites.
3. They contain a single type of nucleic acid, i.e., either DNA or RNA, but not both.
4. The virion of the virus particle consists of a nucleic acid genome packaged into a protein coat (capsid), which itself is sometimes enclosed by an envelope of lipid, proteins, and carbohydrates known as envelope.
5. They multiply inside the living cells by using the synthesizing machinery of the host cell.

6. They replicate by the assembly of the individual components and do not replicate by division, such as binary fission.
7. They have a few or no enzymes for their own metabolism. They always use host cell machinery to produce their components, such as viral messenger RNA (mRNA), protein, and identical copies of the genome.

The differences between bacteria and viruses are summarized in **Table -1**. The viruses affect a wide range of hosts. There are viruses that infect invertebrates, vertebrates, plants, protists, fungi, and even bacteria. In medical microbiology, we are concerned mainly with viruses that infect either humans or bacteria. The viruses that infect bacteria are known as bacteriophages or phages.

Table -1 Comparison of bacteria, rickettsiae, chlamydiae, and viruses

Character	Typical bacteria	Rickettsiae	Chlamydiae	Viruses
Intracellular parasite	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Cellular organization	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Plasma membrane	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Replication by binary fission	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Growth on inanimate media	Yes	No	No	No
Pass through bacteriological filters	No	No	Yes	Yes
Possess both DNA and RNA	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
ATP-generating metabolism	Yes	Yes	No	No
Ribosome	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Sensitive to antibiotics	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Sensitive to interferon	No	No	Yes	Yes

Morphology of Viruses

The extracellular, infectious viral particle is called the virion:

- ❖ It is a complete, fully developed infectious viral particle composed of nucleic acid surrounded by a protein coat. The latter protects it from the environment and is a vehicle of transmission from one host to another. The viruses are classified on the basis of differences in structure of these coats.
- ❖ The virion may be **enveloped** by being surrounded by a membrane or may be **nonenveloped**, without being surrounded by a membrane.
- ❖ The virion may also contain essential or accessory enzymes or other proteins.

Size

The clinically important viruses vary widely in their size (Fig. 50-1). They range from as small as 20-nm viruses (picornaviruses) to as large as 300-nm viruses (poxvirus). Passing the viruses through collodion membrane filter with different pore sizes was the earliest method of determining the size of the virus. Subsequently, ultracentrifugation method was used to determine the size of the viruses by calculating from the rate of sedimentation of virus in the ultracentrifuge. Electron microscopy is the most recent method for determining the size as well as the shape of the virus.

Structure and Symmetry of Virus

Viral structure

The virion consists of a nucleic acid core, the genome, surrounded by a protein coat,

the capsid (Fig. 50-2). The capsid together with the enclosed nucleic acid is known as the nucleocapsid. Some viruses are surrounded by envelopes.

The capsid

The nucleic acid of a virus is surrounded by a protein coat called the **capsid**. Each capsid is composed of a large number of protein subunits (polypeptides) called capsomeres, which form morphological units. The polypeptide molecules composing the capsomeres are of a single type in some viruses, while in other viruses several types may be present. The arrangement of capsomeres is characteristic of a particular type of virus.

Functions of capsid

- ❖ Symmetrically arranged polypeptide molecules of capsid form an impenetrable shell around the nucleic acid core.
- ❖ The capsid facilitates entry of viral genome into the host cells by adsorbing readily to cell surfaces.
- ❖ The capsid of the virus protects its nucleic acid from the activity of nuclease enzymes in biological fluids and thereby facilitates attachment of virus to target cells in the host.

The structure of the viral capsid is best demonstrated by X-ray crystallography or electron microscopy. On the basis of capsid structure, the viruses can be classified into different morphological types as follows:

Helical viruses: The helical viruses appear rod-like and may be rigid or flexible. The viral genome is found within hollow cylindrical capsid that has a helical structure. The examples of helical viruses include rabies virus, Ebola hemorrhagic virus, etc.

Polyhedral viruses: The polyhedral viruses appear as many-sided viruses. The viruses consist of capsids in the shape of an icosahedron. It is a regular polyhedron with 20 triangular faces. The capsomere of each face forms an equilateral triangle. Adenovirus is an example of polyhedral virus in the shape of icosahedron.

Enveloped viruses: The helical and polyhedral viruses when covered by envelope are called as enveloped helical or enveloped polyhedral viruses, respectively. Influenza virus is an example of enveloped helical virus, and herpes simplex virus is an example of enveloped polyhedral virus.

Complex viruses: Some viruses, such as viruses of bacteria (e.g., bacteriophages), have complicated structures and are called complex viruses. The detailed structure and function of bacteriophages are described in Chapter 54.

The envelope

In some viruses, the capsid is covered by an envelope, such viruses are called enveloped viruses. **All of the negative-stranded RNA viruses are enveloped.** The viruses that lack envelope are called **nonenveloped or naked viruses**. Properties of the enveloped and naked viruses are summarized in Tables 50-2 and 50-3, respectively. The virion envelope usually consists of lipids, proteins, and glycoproteins. It has a membrane structure similar to cellular membrane of the host cell. The viral envelope does not contain any cellular proteins, even though viruses are released from the host cell by an extrusion process that coats the virus with a layer of host cell plasma membrane that becomes the viral envelope. In most cases, the envelope contains proteins that are determined and encoded by viral nucleic acid. The lipid component of

the envelope is usually of host cell origin. Depending on the virus, the envelopes of the viruses may or may not be covered by spikes. The spikes are glycoprotein-like projections on the outer surface of the envelope. Most spikes act as **viral attachment protein (VAP)**.

■ The VAP that binds to red blood cells is called hemagglutinin. The ability of certain viruses, such as influenza virus to agglutinate red blood cells is due to the presence of these hemagglutinins. The process is called hemagglutination and it forms the basis of hemagglutination inhibition test used in the viral serology.

■ The VAPs in some viruses perform different functions, such as neuraminidase activity of influenza virus, fusion glycoprotein of paramyxovirus and C3b receptor associated with herpes simplex virus. The structural components of envelope remain biologically active only in aqueous solutions and are readily destroyed by drying or on treatment with acids, detergents, and solvents, such as ether, leading to inactivation of virus. They are rapidly killed in stomach due to sensitivity of enveloped components to gastric acidity. Therefore, most of the enveloped viruses are usually transmitted through body fluids, such as blood, respiratory droplets, tissue exudates, etc.

Viral symmetry

Three types of symmetry are observed depending on the arrangement of the capsid around the nucleic acid core (genome). These are

- (a) icosahedral (cubical)
- (b) helical
- (c) complex symmetry.

Icosahedral symmetry: Two types of capsomeres constitute the icosahedral capsule. They are the pentagonal capsomeres or the vertices (pentons) and hexagonal capsomeres making up the facets (hexons) (Fig. 50-3). There are always 12 pentons, but the number of hexons varies with the virus group. Each penton has fivefold symmetry (pentamer or pentagon) in the shape of an equilateral triangle. This pentamer symmetry is found in simple viruses, such as the picornaviruses and parvoviruses. In picornaviruses, each pentamer is made up of five protomers, each of which is composed of three subunits of four different proteins. The hexamer symmetry is usually found in large capsid virions, such as herpesviruses and adenoviruses. Hexons are made up of certain structurally distinct capsomeres between the pentons at the vertices. The presence of hexon extends the icosahedral and is called an icosadeltahedral. The adenovirus nucleocapsid has 12 pentons and 240 hexons, whereas the herpesvirus nucleocapsid has 12 pentons and 150 hexons surrounded by an envelope.

Table 50-2

Component	Properties	Biological functions
Membrane	Environmentally labile; disrupted by acid, detergents, drying, and heat	Must stay wet
Lipids	Modifies cell membrane during replication	Cannot survive in the gastrointestinal tract
Proteins	Released by budding and cell lysis	Spreads in large droplets, secretions, organ transplants, and blood transfusion
Glycoprotein		Does not need to kill the

		cell to spread
		May need antibody-and cell-mediated immune response for protection and control
		Elicits hypersensitivity and inflammation to cause immunopathogenesis

Table 50-3

component	Properties	Biological functions
protein	Environmentally stable to temperature, acid, proteases, detergents, and drying	Can be spread easily through fomites, from hand to hand, by dust, and by small droplets
	Is released from cell by lysis	Can dry out and retain infectivity
		Can survive the adverse conditions of the gut
		Can be resistant to detergents and poor sewage treatment
		Antibody may be sufficient for immunoprotection

Figure

Helical symmetry: The nucleic acid and the capsomeres are wound together to form a spherical or spiral tube. The viruses with helical structure usually appear as rods and their capsomeres self-assemble on the RNA genome into rods extending to the length of the genome. These capsomeres cover and protect the RNA. The tubular nucleocapsid structure may be rigid as in tobacco mosaic virus, but may be pliable and may be coiled on itself in case of some other animal viruses. Helical nucleocapsids are usually demonstrated within the envelope of most negative-stranded RNA viruses.

Complex symmetry: Some viruses may not exhibit either icosahedral or helical symmetry but instead may exhibit a complex symmetry. For example, poxvirus shows a complex symmetry.

Shape

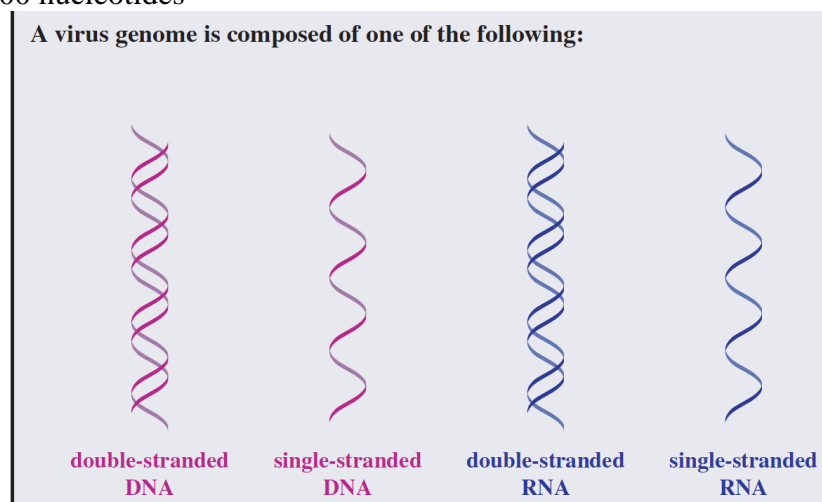
Most of the enveloped viruses are round or pleomorphic with exception of poxvirus and rhabdovirus. Rhabdovirus is a bullet-shaped virus, whereas poxvirus is brick shaped.

Viral Nucleic Acid, Proteins, and Lipids

Viral nucleic acid

The genome of the virus consists of either DNA or RNA but never both (Fig. 50-4). The DNA can be single stranded or double stranded. Depending on the virus, the DNA can be linear or circular. The RNA can be either positive sense (–) like mRNA or negative sense (–), double stranded (–/–), or ambiguous (containing – and – regions of RNA attached to it). In some RNA viruses, such as the influenza virus, the

RNA genome is in several separate segments, each segment encoding an individual gene. The total amount of nucleic acid may vary from a few thousand nucleotides to as many as 250,000 nucleotides



Viral proteins and lipids

Viruses contain proteins, which constitute capsids. The viral protein protects the nucleic acid as well as determines the antigenic specificity of the virus. In addition, the enveloped viruses contain lipids, which are derived from the host cell membrane.

Susceptibility to Physical and Chemical Agents

Disinfectants

The viruses are usually more resistant than bacteria to chemical disinfectants. Most viruses are relatively resistant to phenol. The oxidizing agents, such as hydrogen peroxide, potassium permanganate, hypochlorite, and organic iodine compounds, are most active antiviral disinfectants. Formaldehyde and γ -propiolactone are also active virucidal agents, which are commonly used for preparation of killed viral vaccines. The chlorination of drinking water is useful for killing most of the common viruses with the exception of hepatitis A and polioviruses. These two viruses are relatively resistant to chlorination.

Temperature

Most of the viruses with few exceptions are highly heat labile. They are inactivated within seconds at 56°C, within minutes at 37°C, and within days at 4°C.

- The viruses such as influenza, measles, and mumps are very labile and may survive outside the host only for a few hours.
- Other viruses, such as polio and hepatitis A, are relatively much stable and may survive for many days, weeks, or even months in the environment
- Viruses, such as hepatitis B, show resistance to heating at 60°C for 60 minutes; slow viruses, such as scrapie virus, are resistant to autoclaving at 121°C for 15 minutes. The viruses are stable at low temperature. They can be stored by freezing at -35°C or -70°C. Lyophilization or freeze-drying is useful for long-term storage of the viruses. The poliovirus is an exception, as it does not withstand freeze-drying.

pH

The viruses usually remain viable in a pH range of 5–9, but are sensitive to extremes of acidity and alkalinity. Rhinoviruses are very susceptible to acidic pH, while enteroviruses are highly resistant.

Lipid solvents

Ether, chloroform, and detergents are active against enveloped viruses but are not

active against nonenveloped, naked viruses.

Radiations

The viruses are readily inactivated by sunlight, ultraviolet (UV) radiations, and ionizing radiations.

Replication of Viruses

The replication of viruses in the host cell depends upon the synthesis mechanism of the host cell for manufacture of different viral components. The genetic information for viral multiplication is present in the viral nucleic acid. Multiplication of viruses follows the basic pattern of bacteriophage multiplication, but has several important differences (Box 50-1). The multiplication of viruses, both DNA- and RNA-containing viruses, is divided into six phases as follows: (i) attachment, (ii) penetration, (iii) uncoating, (iv) biosynthesis, (v) maturation, and (vi) release (Fig. 50-5).

Attachment

Attachment or adsorption is the first event in the infection of the cell by a virus. The viruses have attachment sites that attach to the complementary receptor sites on the host cell surface. These receptor proteins in the virus are distributed on surface of the virus. These receptor proteins vary from one virus to another (Table 50-4). For example, in influenza virus these receptor proteins are the spikes present on the surface of the envelope, whereas in adenovirus these receptor proteins are small fibers present at the corner of the icosahedron. The attachment sites of the virus bind specifically to the complementary receptors on the surface of the host (Table 50-5). These receptor sites on the cell vary depending on the nature of the virus:

- Rabies virus binds specifically to the acetylcholine receptors found on neural cells
- HIV-1 binds specifically to the CD4, a 60-kDa glycoprotein on the surface of mature T lymphocytes.
- Influenza virus binds specifically to sialic acid residue of glycoprotein receptor sites on the surface of respiratory epithelium. Susceptibility of the host to virus infection, therefore, depends upon the presence or absence of receptors on the cell surface.

Steps in viral replication

1. Recognition of the target cell.
2. Attachment of the virus particle to the cell surface.
3. Penetration into the host cells.
4. Uncoating of the virus of its outer layers and capsid.
5. Biosynthesis
 - Transcription of mRNA from viral nucleic acid.
 - Translation of mRNA into “early proteins.”
 - Replication of viral nucleic acid.
 - Synthesis of late proteins.
6. Assembly of virus in the nucleus or cytoplasm.
7. Budding of enveloped viruses.

8. Release of virus.

DNA Viruses

These belong to the following families (Table 50-6):

Adenoviridae: The members of the family Adenoviridae are medium-sized viruses measuring 20–90 nm in size. These viruses are nonenveloped, icosahedral viruses with 252 capsomeres. They are so named because they were first isolated from adenoids. These viruses are mostly associated with acute respiratory diseases.

Poxviridae: These are large-sized, brick-shaped viruses measuring 300 × 240 × 100 nm in size. They have a complex structure with a core containing a single linear molecule of double-stranded DNA genome. The pox (pox : pus-filled lesions) viruses are associated with skin lesions. The viral components are synthesized and assembled in the cytoplasm of infected host cells.

Herpesviridae: These are medium-sized icosahedral nucleocapsid viruses (100 nm) containing 162 capsomeres. They are enveloped viruses containing linear, double-stranded DNA. They are named after spreading (herpetic) appearance of coldsores. The viruses multiply in the nucleus of the host cells.

Papovaviridae: These are small (40–55 nm) viruses containing double-stranded DNA with 72 capsomeres. They are nonenveloped viruses. They replicate in the nucleus of host cell along with host cell chromosome. This may cause host cells to proliferate, resulting in a tumor. Papovaviruses are acronyms to papillomas (warts), polyomas (tumors), and vacuolation (cytoplasmic vacuolation produced by some of these viruses).

Hepadnaviridae: Hepadnaviridae (hepa : liver; dna : DNA core) are so named because they cause hepatitis and contain DNA as genome. These viruses differ from other DNA viruses by synthesizing their DNA by copying RNA using reverse transcriptase. Human hepatitis B virus, an important virus associated with human disease, is included in this family.

RNA Viruses

These belong to the following families (Table 50-7):

Togaviridae: These viruses include arboviruses and alphaviruses. Most of these viruses multiply in arthropods as well as in vertebrates. Togaviridae (toga: envelope) are enveloped viruses containing single-stranded RNA genome. These viruses are small spherical viruses measuring 40–70 nm in size.

Rhabdoviridae: Rhabdoviruses (rhabdo: rod) are bullet-shaped viruses. They are enveloped, measure 130–300 × 20 nm in size, and contain a single-stranded RNA.

Reoviridae: They are icosahedral, nonenveloped viruses measuring 60–80 nm in size. They contain double-layered capsid enclosing 10–12 segments of double-stranded RNA. Their name is derived from the first letters of respiratory, enteric, and orphan. When first discovered, the viruses were not associated with any diseases, hence were called orphan viruses. These viruses are now known to cause respiratory and intestinal infections.

Retroviridae: Retroviruses (re: reverse, tr: transcriptase) viruses are so named because characteristically they possess the enzyme, reverse transcriptase RNA-dependent DNA polymerase. They are icosahedral, enveloped viruses measuring 100 nm in size. Many of these viruses are associated with tumors in infected hosts. One of the genera, Lentivirus includes the subspecies HIV-1 and HIV-2, the causative agents of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS).

Picornaviridae: Picornaviruses (pico: small) are the smallest viruses, measuring 20–30 nm in size. They are nonenveloped, icosahedral viruses with single-stranded RNA genome. These include three genera (Enterovirus, Rhinovirus, and Hepatovirus) of medical importance.

Orthomyxoviridae: These are medium-sized (80–120 nm) viruses. They are spherical and elongated, enveloped viruses consisting of single-stranded but segmented (eight segments) RNA genome. Influenza virus is the only virus of medical importance belonging to this group.

Paramyxoviridae: These are pleomorphic, enveloped viruses measuring 150 nm in size. They contain nonsegmented, single-stranded, linear RNA. Three genera have been described: Paramyxovirus, Morbillivirus, and Pneumovirus.

Bunyaviridae: These are enveloped, spherical viruses measuring 90–100 nm in size. The genera of medical importance include Bunyavirus, Hantavirus, Uukuvirus, Phlebovirus, and Nairovirus.

Arenaviridae: They are spherical, pleomorphic viruses with variable sizes (50–300 nm). They contain electron-dense, chromosome-like particles giving a sandy appearance; hence they are named arenaviruses (arena: sand).

Calciviridae: These are naked nonenveloped viruses. They are small and spherical, and measure 35–39 nm in size. They show 32 cup-shaped depressions arranged in symmetry.

Filoviridae: They are long filamentous, enveloped viruses with variable sizes. They contain single-stranded RNA genome. The Marburg and Ebola virus are the viruses of medical importance.

Prions

Prions are infectious particles, which can transmit a disease. These prions are composed chiefly of a protein without any detectable nucleic acid. Unlike conventional viruses, the prions apparently have no virion structure or genomes and evoke no immune response in the infected host. These are extremely resistant to inactivation by heat, disinfectants, and radiation.

The prions are causative agents of slow viral infections, such as subacute spongiform encephalopathy. After a long incubation period of years, they produce a progressive disease that causes damage to the central nervous system, leading to subacute spongiform encephalopathy. The detailed description of prions and slow virus diseases is provided in Chapter 69.