National Library / Bibliothèque nationale
of Canada du Canada

NAME OF AUTHOR/NOM DE L'AUTEUR _____ Gary Allan Lund

TITLE OF THESIS/TITRE DE LA THÈSE _____ Studies of the Structure and Replication of Mengo Virus.

UNIVERSITY/UNIVERSITÉ _____ University of Alberta

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED/
GRADE POUR LEQUEL CETTE THÈSE FUT PRÉSENTÉE _____ Ph. D.

YEAR THIS DEGREE CONFERRED/ANNÉE D'OBTENTION DE CE GRADE _____ 1978

NAME OF SUPERVISOR/NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE _____ Dr. D. G. Scraba

DATED/DATÉ _____ Sept 5, 1978 _____ SIGNED/SIGNÉ _____ Gary A. Lund

PERMANENT ADDRESS/RÉSIDENCE FIXE _____ Box 74

Bruce, Alberta

T0B 0R0

NL-91 (3-74)

NOTICE

AVIS

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

STUDIES OF THE STRUCTURE AND REPLICATION

OF MENGO VIRUS

by

Ⓒ   GARRY A. LUND

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF BIOCHEMISTRY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1978

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and
recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
for acceptance, a thesis entitled STUDIES OF THE STRUCTURE
AND REPLICATION OF MENGO VIRUS submitted by GARRY A. LUND
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Philosophy.

....
Supervisor

....

....

....

....

....
External Examiner

Dated   September 1, 1978

To my parents

for their constant

encouragement and support.

...susceptibility to lactoperoxidase-catalyzed iodination
and their reactivities in immunological tests with specific
antisera. When intact virions were subjected to iodination
for a brief period of time (1 min), radioactive iodine was
incorporated predominantly into the α polypeptides and to
a lesser extent into β polypeptides. Only with longer
incubation times (15 min or more) did label appear in the
γ and δ polypeptides; and this coincided with a progressive
loosening and ultimate collapse of the viral capsid. Anti-
sera specific for each of the capsid polypeptide species
were produced in rabbits using isolated proteins as antigens.
Reaction of virions with these antisera in plaque-,
neutralization and hemagglutination-inhibition tests showed
that only the anti-α serum was capable of blocking virus-
cell interactions. Complement-fixation and immunodiffusion
tests confirmed the observations that the α polypeptides
occupy most of the external surface of the virus particle
and that the β polypeptides are partially exposed. The γ
and δ polypeptides apparently occupy internal locations in
the capsid of the Mengo virion.

Isolation of the Mengo virus stable non-capsid poly-
peptides has been achieved. Capsid polypeptides were

removed from infected-cell lysates using ultracentrifugation and affinity chromatography techniques. Chromatography on SDS-hydroxylap███████████ columns resolved the denatured non-capsid po█████████ ██ three main peaks. Components of the two █████████████████ining polypeptides F plus G and E plus I, respectively, were separated by chromatography on G-100 Sephadex columns in the presence of 0.1% SDS.

Chromatography on Bio-Gel A-5m columns resolved the undenatured non-capsid polypeptides into two peaks. Selected fractions containing isolated E and F polypeptides were assayed for potential protease and polymerase activities. A preliminary assay using the precursor polypeptides A, B, C and D as substrates failed to detect any protease activity associated with the F polypeptide. Assay mixtures containing polypeptide E demonstrated an RNA polymerase activity which was dependent upon exogenous viral RNA template and oligo(rU) primer. This activity was not stimulated by the addition of viral capsid polypeptides. Cosedimentation of the isolated polypeptide E and viral RNA in sucrose density gradients demonstrated that this polypeptide had an affinity for the viral RNA. Polypeptide E was also capable of binding to poly(A) segments covalently bound to sepharose beads.

The association of a small polypeptide called VPg with purified Mengo virus RNA has been demonstrated. Analysis on 0.1% SDS - 10% polyacrylamide gels revealed that VPg

migrated between capsid polypeptide 6 and the bromophenol blue marker and that it was sensitive to treatment with proteinase K.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

x

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

(Continued)

(Continued)

(Continued)

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

nm — nanometers

SDS — sodium dodecyl sulfate

mRNA — messenger RNA

EMC virus — encephalomyocarditis virus

ME virus — Maus-Elberfeld virus

FMDV — foot and mouth disease virus

Å — Angstrom units

M.W. — molecular weight

TPCK — tolylsulfonyl-phenylalanyl-chloromethyl ketone

TLCK — tolylsulfonyl-lysyl-chloromethyl ketone

cRNA — complementary RNA

RI-RNA — replicative intermediate RNA

RF-RNA — replicative form RNA

pfu — plaque-forming units

moi — multiplicity of infection

μCi — microcurie

mg — milligram

g — gram

ml — milliliter

mm — millimeter

PN — plaque neutralization

PNE — plaque neutralization enhancement

HI — hemagglutination inhibition

CF — complement fixation

p.i. — post infection

xviii

vRNA — viral RNA

HEPES — N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic acid

uM — micromolar

cpm — counts per minute

rpm — revolutions per minute

g — centrifugal force, relative to gravity

VP — viral protein

NCVP — non-capsid viral protein

NP-40 — Nonidet P-40

IgG — immunoglobulin G

DTT — dithiothreitol

TCA — trichloroacetic acid

BSA — bovine serum albumin

EDTA — ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid

TRIS — tris(hydroxymethyl)amino methane

RBBR — Remazol Brilliant Blue R

mA — milliampere

PBS — phosphate buffered saline

BME — Eagle's basal medium

All temperatures are in degrees Celsius.

I. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Picornavirus Classification

The word picornavirus (from pico - small and rna - designating a ribonucleate genome) was developed in 1963 by the International Enterovirus Study Group to describe small (15 to 30 nm in diameter), icosahedral, non-enveloped RNA-containing viruses of animal origin. There are also plant, insect and bacterial viruses which conform to this description but the term has been formally applied only to those viruses of animals.

The picornaviruses have been classified according to their differences in pH stability and buoyant densities in cesium salt gradients (Andrewes and Pereira, 1972; Newman et al., 1973; Scraba and Colter, 1974).

A recent classification scheme (Melnick et al., 1974) includes two genera, Enterovirus and Rhinovirus, which comprise the family Picornaviridae. This scheme is shown in Table 1. The caliciviruses had previously been included in the picornavirus classification scheme. However, their larger size and distinctive morphology (Zwillenberg and Bücki, 1966; Almeida et al., 1968; Wawrzkiewica et al., 1968) are atypical of picornaviruses. As well, it has been shown that calicivirus capsids have only one major structural polypeptide species (Bachrach and Hess, 1973; Burroughs and Brown, 1974) while all the picornavirus capsids are composed

1

TABLE 1

Picornavirus Classification Scheme

VERTEBRATE PICORNAVIRUSES

Genus Enterovirus

A. Enteroviruses: Polio (3 Serotypes)
Coxsackie A (23)
Coxsackie B (6)
Echo (31)
Enteroviruses of mice, swine, cattle

Sedimentation coefficient ~155 S
Buoyant density (CsCl) ~1.34 g/ml
Virions stable pH 3-10
Empty capsids produced *in vivo*

B. Cardioviruses: EMC
ME
Mengo] Serologically
Columbia-SK] related
MM

Sedimentation coefficient ~155 S
Buoyant density ~1.34 g/ml
Virions labile 5<pH<7 in the presence
of 0.1 M Cl⁻ or Br⁻
No empty capsids produced *in vivo*

Genus Rhinovirus

A. Human Rhinovirus (>113)

Sedimentation coefficient ~155 S
Buoyant density ~1.40 g/ml
Virions labile pH <5

B. Foot-and-Mouth Disease Virus (7)

Sedimentation coefficient ~145 S
Buoyant density ~1.43 g/ml
Virions labile pH<6.5

C. Equine Rhinovirus (2)

Sedimentation coefficient ~150 S
Buoyant density ~1.45 g/ml
Virions labile pH<5

The various picornavirus subgroups also have distinctive
pathological properties. These are discussed in detail by
Andrewes and Pereira (1972). Echo is an abbreviation for
"enteric cytopathic human orphan".

of four major polypeptide species (Rueckert, 1971; Penner et
al., 1974).

Properties of the Virion

The picornavirion is an isometric particle composed of
one molecule of single-stranded RNA (30% by weight) enclosed
in a protein capsid (70% by weight). Carbohydrate (other
than the ribose moiety of the RNA) or lipid has not been
detected in the virion (Rueckert, 1971; Burness et al.,
1973; Drzenek and Bilello, 1974; Mak and Rueckert, 1975).
The physical and hydrodynamic properties of Mengo virions
can be extended to picornaviruses in general. In the
electron microscope, negatively stained Mengo virions have
an anhydrous diameter of 27 nm. In solution, the virion
behaves as a spheroid with a diameter of approximately 30 nm
containing about 0.25 gram of water per gram of dry virion.
The sedimentation coefficient ($S^o_{20,w}$) of 151 S, diffusion
coefficient ($D^o_{20,w}$) of 1.47×10^{-7} cm^2/sec, and partial
specific volume ($\bar{v}$) of 0.70 ml/g give a particle weight for
the Mengo virion of $8.3 \pm 0.7 \times 10^6$ when substituted into
the Svedberg equation (Scraba et al., 1967).

Virion RNA

Infectious RNA has been isolated from a number of different picornaviruses, including several serotypes of rhinovirus (Nair and Lonberg-Holm, 1971; Fiola and Saltzman, 1969; Dimmock, 1966), Mengo virus (Colter et al., 1957), polio virus (Alexander et al., 1958), Coxsackie virus (Mattern, 1962), EMC virus (Huppert and Sanders, 1958), ME virus (Franklin et al., 1959) and FMDV (Bachrach et al., 1964). The fact that the infectious RNA was single-stranded was demonstrated by Hausen and Schäfer (1962).

RNAs from several picornaviruses have been translated in cell-free systems; among them poliovirus (Rekosh et al., 1970), EMC virus (Dobos et al., 1971), FMDV (Chatterjee, 1976) and Mengo virus (Abreu and Lucas-Lenard, 1976). Comparison of the translation of EMC, ME and Mengo virus RNAs in cell-free systems from animal cells indicated that in vitro translation of picornavirus RNA starts at a single initiation site and that the in vitro products from the three viruses are very similar to each other and to the in vivo precursor and coat proteins (Eggen and Shatkin, 1972; Oberg and Shatkin, 1972). This is in contrast to other studies on the in vitro translation of poliovirus RNA which seem to demonstrate two different initiation sites on the viral RNA genome (Celma and Ehrenfeld, 1975). However, it still remains to be proven that two initiation sites are utilized in vivo. It is generally accepted that only one

initiation site is present on picornaviral RNA. The number
of termination sites present on the viral RNA is somewhat
uncertain. The existence of a weak internal termination
site which gives rise to an overproduction of capsid
protein late in the infectious cycle has been proposed
(Lucas-Lenard, 1974; Paucha et al., 1974).

Early estimates of the molecular weight of picorna-
virus RNA ranged from 1.2×10^6 for poliovirus (Cooper,
1969) to 3.0×10^6 for EMC virus (Burness et al., 1963).
More recent studies have shown that the molecular weight of
the RNA is between $2.4 - 2.8 \times 10^6$; 2.6×10^6 for poliovirus
(Tannock et al., 1970), 2.8×10^6 for FMDV (Wild and Brown,
1970), 2.4×10^6 for type 2 rhinovirus (Nair and Lonberg-
Holm, 1971), 2.5×10^6 for type 14 rhinovirus (Nair and
Lonberg-Holm, 1971) and 2.44×10^6 for Mengo virus (Ziola
and Scraba, 1974).

Most picornavirus RNAs contain essentially equimolar
amounts of adenylate, cytidylate, guanylate and uridylate
residues (Newman et al., 1973). The only exception to this
appears to be the human rhinoviruses which have a high
adenylate content (Brown et al., 1970; McGregor and Mayor,
1971). No evidence has been found for the presence of
methylated bases in the RNA (Grado et al., 1968). The
nucleotides of picornavirus RNA are not, however, equally
distributed along the length of the RNA genome. It has been
shown that a polyadenylic acid sequence is present at the 3'
end of such picornavirus RNA genomes as poliovirus (Armstrong

et al., 1972; Yoga and Wimmer, 1973; Spector and Baltimore,
1974), EMC virus (Hruby and Roberts, 1976; Goldstein et al.,
1976), Columbia S-K virus (Johnston and Bose, 1972), Mengo
virus (Miller and Plagemann, 1972; Spector and Baltimore,
1975a) and rhinovirus (Nair and Owens, 1974). There is some
controversy as to the exact length of the poly(A) sequence,
with estimates ranging from 15 to 17 nucleotides (Miller and
Plagemann, 1972) to 50 to 125 nucleotides (Spector and
Baltimore, 1975b). It has recently been demonstrated that
the reason for this difference may be an overestimation of
the length of the poly(A) segment in certain instances
(Burness et al., 1975). Based on these observations, a
size range of 16 to 75 nucleotides is probably a more ac-
curate figure for the size of the poly(A) segment of
picornavirus capsid RNA in general.

The poly(A) tract appears to be required for infectiv-
ity of purified viral RNA (Goldstein et al., 1976; Spector
and Baltimore, 1974). The presence of the poly(A) segments
has been correlated to messenger function (Johnston and Bose
1972; Hruby and Roberts, 1977), as well as to a possible
involvement in encapsidation of the RNA (Spector and
Baltimore, 1975a). The genomic poly(A) segment seems to
be genetically coded (Dorsch-Häsler et al., 1975), in con-
trast to considerable evidence which suggests that the
poly(A) of cellular mRNA is synthesized by post-transcrip-
tional addition, presumably involving terminal adenylate
transferases (Braurerman, 1974).

In addition to poly(A), the RNAs of Mengo, EMC and FMD viruses contain a tract of poly(C) 100 to 200 nucleotides long (Brown et al., 1976; Peres-Bercoff and Gander, 1977; Porter et al., 1974). In FMDV, the poly(C) tract is located 400 nucleotide residues in from the 5' end of the RNA (Harris et al., 1976) and is near the 5' end of both Mengo and EMC RNAs (Chumakov and Agol, 1976; Peres-Bercoff and Gander, 1977). The poly(C) tract may have some role in replication of the viral RNA since partially purified EMC RNA polymerase will synthesise poly(G) using exogenous poly(C) as a template (Rosenberg et al., 1972). This activity is similar to one reported for the replicase of phage Q β, the discovery of which lead to the suggestion that the poly(C) tract may be a recognition site for the replicase (Küppers and Sumper, 1975). However, the RNAs of entero- and rhinovirus subgroups seem not to contain extensive poly(C) tracts (Brown et al., 1975). Since the mechanism of replication of all picornaviruses appears similar, this proposed recognition function seems unlikely.

It has recently been shown that a small protein called VPg, of molecular weight about 4,000, is covalently attached to the 5' terminus of the virion RNA of EMC, polio and FMD viruses (Hruby and Roberts, 1978; Lee et al., 1976; Sanger et al., 1977). The protein is also present on the 5' end of the nascent strands of the polio replicative intermediate structure and attached to the poly(U) of polio minus strands (Nomoto et al., 1977). Poliovirus mRNA, however, does not

contain VPg (Nomoto et al., 1976). Also absent is the "capping group" (Lee et al., 1976), a structure which has been found at the 5* end of most eukaryotic mRNAs. The 5* terminal nucleotide sequences of poliovirus mRNA and genome RNA are identical (Pettersson et al., 1977). Since available evidence suggests that poliovirus mRNA is not encapsidated into progeny virus (Levintow, 1975), the above information suggests that VPg may have some regulatory role in deciding which RNA molecules become encapsidated during morphogenesis of the virion. It has also been suggested that VPg may play a role in initiation of poliovirus RNA synthesis, possibly by acting as a primer (Flanegan et al., 1977; Nomoto et al., 1977).

Virion Proteins

Early ultracentrifugal studies on the total extracted protein from poliovirus (Maizel, 1963), ME virus (Rueckert, 1965) and EMC virus (Burness and Walter, 1967) indicated the presence of a single, relatively homogeneous polypeptide species of molecular weight 26,000 to 30,000. Subsequent studies employing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis demonstrated that the protein of poliovirus (Maizel, 1963) and of ME-, EMC- and Mengo-viruses (Rueckert, 1965; Rueckert and Duesberg, 1966) was composed of several different polypeptide species. With the advent of polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis in the presence of SDS (Maizel, 1964;
Shapiro et al., 1967; Weber and Osborn, 1969; Dunker and
Rueckert, 1969, it became possible to simultaneously
determine the number, molecular weight and relative amounts
of each polypeptide chain in the whole virion. Such studies
have shown that the picornavirus protein capsid is composed
of four major polypeptide species, designated VP1 or α, VP2
or β, VP3 or γ and VP4 or ϵ, of average molecular weights
34,000, 30,000, 25,000 and 5,000 to 8,000 respectively.
Furthermore, there appears to be 60 copies of each in a
complete capsid (Rueckert, 1976). Also present in 1 to 2
copies per virion is the uncleaved precursor of δ and β,
called VP0 or ϵ.

The amino acid composition of whole protein from several
picornaviruses has been tabulated (Rueckert, 1971). Notable
features common to the proteins are a low content of sulfur-
containing residues (2 - 3 moles %), a high content of apolar
residues (50 moles %), a high content of proline (6 - 8 moles
%) and a relatively large amount of residues which do not
form α-helices (35 - 40 moles %). These last two points are
reflected by the low α-helical content of Mengo capsid
proteins in situ (5 - 10%), as measured by optical rotatory
dispersion and circular dichroism techniques (Scraba et al.,
1967; Kay et al., 1970).

Individual capsid polypeptides have been purified from
a number of picornaviruses and their amino- and carboxyl-
terminal amino acid residues determined. With one exception,
the amino-terminal residues of the three larger polypeptide

species of the reported picornaviruses are gly, asx and ser or thr for α (VP1), β (VP2) and ν (VP3) respectively (Rueckert, 1976). It has been shown that the N-terminal of the δ or VP4 polypeptide of Mengo virus is blocked (Ziola and Scraba, 1976). Similarly, only three free N-termini could be detected in intact poliovirus (Burrell and Cooper; 1973), and these were identical to the three reported for Mengo virus. Thus it seems evident that a blocked N-terminal of δ (VP4) could be a common structural feature of picornaviruses.

Morphology of the Virion

Analysis of the picornaviral capsid structural organization was first made possible by the development of techniques for purification and crystallization of poliovirus (Schaffer and Schwerdt, 1955, 1959). Finch and Klug (1959) concluded from X-ray diffraction patterns of these crystals that the poliovirus capsid possesses 5:3:2 symmetry. By extrapolating from their data, they suggested that the virion was composed of 60 identical asymmetric structure units, each with a diameter of 60 to 65 $\overset{\text{o}}{\text{A}}$ and a mass of 80,000 daltons (the latter value calculated using the then accepted but incorrect molecular masses of 2 x 10^6 daltons for the RNA and 6.7 x 10^6 daltons for the virion).

Subsequently, data on turnip yellow mosaic virus revealed that its capsid was composed of 180 polypeptide

chains and not the 60 chains deduced from X-ray diffraction patterns which were virtually identical to those obtained for poliovirus (Klug et al., 1957). In addition, electron microscopy revealed that the 180 polypeptide chains were arranged into 32 morphological units (capsomers) rather than 60 (Klug et al., 1966; Finch and Klug, 1966). This illustrated that 5:3:2 symmetry and repeat periods in X-ray diffraction patterns are insufficient evidence to conclude that a virion is composed of 60 subunits and, as a result, cast doubt on the poliovirus model.

Attempts to elucidate the capsid structure employing negative staining in the electron microscope added further confusion. The picornaviruses have unusually compact capsids which are essentially impermeable to the electron-dense salts used as negative stains. Thus very little surface detail is evident in electron micrographs, and microscopists have variously suggested 32- (Mayor, 1964), 42- (Agrawal, 1966) and 60- (Horne and Nagington, 1959) capsomer structures.

The key to resolving the capsid architecture came from an examination, not of intact virus, but of its dissociation products. Cardioviruses, when incubated in physiological saline at pH 5 to 6.5, dissociate into RNA, homogeneous 13 to 14 S subunits (molecular weight approximately 425,000) and an insoluble precipitate of ϵ and ξ chains (Rueckert et al., 1969; Dunker and Rueckert, 1971; McGregor et al., 1975; Mak et al., 1970). The 13 - 14 S subunits contain equimolar amounts of ι, β and γ and, by treatment with 2M urea, can be

dissociated further into 5 S particles of molecular weight 86,000. These 5 S particles also contain equimolar amounts of α, β and γ. On this basis, Dunker and Rueckert (1971) proposed that the 5 S particle was the basic structure unit and that five of these were clustered to form the 13 - 14 S pentamer subunit, one of which is centered at each of the 12 vertices of the icosahedral particle. Similar studies with Mengo virus yielded identical results and in addition electron microscopy showed that the dimensions of the 5 S and 13 - 14 S subunits were consistent with the proposal that the 5 S subunit is the fundamental structure unit of the capsid and that the 13 - 14 S subunit was a pentameric cluster of 5 S subunits (Mak et al., 1974). The observed 68 Å diameter of the 5 S subunit is in close agreement with the value originally predicted by Finch and Klug (1959).

Virus Replication: Attachment and Uncoating

The initial step of viral infection involves the attachment of virus particles to specific receptors in the plasma membrane of susceptible cells. The receptors for a given virus are limited in number (10^4 to 10^5 per cell) and thus can be saturated with excess virus (Crowell, 1966; Lonberg-Holm and Korant, 1972; Lonberg-Holm and Philipson, 1974). The presence on membrane surfaces of specific "receptor families" has been demonstrated for a number of enteroviruses

and human rhinoviruses (Lonberg-Holm et al., 1976). A
picornavirus belonging to one family can block attachment of
other viruses of that same family (e.g. poliovirus type 1
can block attachment of poliovirus type 2). It cannot,
however, block attachment of viruses specific for other
receptor families. Receptors for poliovirus and coxsackie-
virus B have characteristic sensitivities to inactivation
by proteolytic enzymes (Zajac and Crowell, 1965). However,
these receptors were not inactivated by neuraminidase, while
receptors for EMC virus were inactivated by similar treatment
(Angel and Burness, 1977).

The initial attachment of virus to cell receptors is
reversible, and infectious virus can be removed from cells
by washing with physiological saline. This loose attachment
is subsequently converted to an irreversible virus-receptor
complex, the conversion in some cases being temperature
dependent (Lonberg-Holm and Philipson, 1974). Infectious
virus can be recovered from such complexes by treatment
with SDS (Maizel, 1962). Lonberg-Holm and Philipson (1974)
suggest that the transition from a weak to strong interaction
may be accomplished by the diffusion of additional receptors
in the plane of the membrane to the initial site of virus-
attachment. At low temperatures the fluidity of the membrane
lipids would be decreased, and this would restrict the
mobility of the receptors and hinder the establishment of
the irreversible complex. Receptors for Mengo virus (Mak et
al., 1970), poliovirus (Bachtold et al., 1957) and FMDV (Brown

et al., 1962), whose attachment is essentially temperature-independent, may already be clustered on the cell surface; whereas receptors for rhinovirus, whose attachment is temperature-dependent (Lonberg-Holm and Korant, 1972) may be distributed throughout the membrane.

Interaction of picornaviruses with susceptible cells produces a rapid loss of infectivity of the virus, a process called eclipse. A large proportion of poliovirus attached to cells in the cold could be subsequently eluted by raising the temperature (Fenwick and Cooper, 1962; Joklik and Darnell, 1961). The eluted particles, which are unable to reattach to cells, contain infective RNA which is resistant to ribonuclease (Joklik and Darnell, 1961; Mandel, 1967). These "A-particles" sediment at approximately 90% of the rate of infectious virions (Fenwick and Cooper, 1962). Coxsackieviruses B3 and A13 also undergo these specific alterations and it has been demonstrated that the eluted particles lack the polypeptide VP4 (Crowell and Philipson, 1971; Cords et al., 1975). The loss of infectivity of poliovirions has also been equated with a loss of the polypeptide VP4 (Breindl, 1971). Virions which have been treated in vitro with acid, alkali, heat, UV radiation or 2M urea also produce particles which lack VP4 and are unable to attach to cells (Lonberg-Holm and Yin, 1973; Breindl, 1971a,b; Katagiri et al., 1971; Roizman et al., 1959). The artificially produced particles are immunologically similar to the eluted A-particles, both

of which are said to possess "C" or "H" antigenicity. The intact virus particle is said to have "D" or "N" antigenicity (Mayer et al., 1957; Hummeler et al., 1962). The antigenic shift accompanying the formation of empty particles occurs whether or not the RNA is released from the virion (Breindl, 1971a,b; Katagiri et al., 1968, 1971).

These observations led some workers to postulate that the capsid polypeptide VP4 was responsible for attachment of virus to cell receptors (Breindl, 1971a; Philipson et al., 1973). An alternate hypothesis put forward by Butterworth et al. (1975) explains the inability of eluted virus to reattach as a conformational rearrangement of the capsid polypeptides, the loss of VP4 being incidental. The hypothesis is supported by the observation that human rhinovirus type 2 can be resolved into two conformationally isomeric populations by isoelectric focussing (Korant et al., 1975; Butterworth et al., 1975). Virions isoelectric at pH 6.4 had a full complement of RNA and polypeptides, and were fully infectious, while the population isoelectric at pH 4.5 was noninfectious even though it had a full complement of RNA and polypeptides (including VP4). Isoelectric focussing data on poliovirus also supports the hypothesis of Butterworth (Mandel, 1971). Virions isoelectric at pH 7.0 and at pH 4.5 were detected. Treatments which inhibited infectivity (heat, adsorption-elution from cells, neutralization by specific antibodies) irreversibly stabilized the capsid in the conformation with isoelectric point pH 4.5.

These treatments were also shown to change the antigenicity of the virion from D to C. Poliovirus can be stabilized in its native conformation by the methylthiopyrimidine S-7 (Lonberg-Holm et al., 1975) and by glutathione (Fenwick and Cooper, 1962), as measured by increased heat stability. Human rhinovirus type 2 is similarly stabilized against pH and heat inactivation by SDS. These agents also inhibit infection of cells and cell-mediated eclipse, suggesting that conformational rearrangement of the viral capsid is required for the infection of cells by virions.

The observation that isolated cellular membranes can cause eclipse of virus (Chan and Black, 1970; Roesing et al. 1975; De Sena and Mandel, 1976) suggests that modification of the adsorbed virion is attributable to a component of the plasma membrane, perhaps the receptor. The process by which the RNA genome enters the cell subsequent to the initial capsid modification remains obscure. Lonberg-Holm and Whiteley (1976) proposed that eclipse of loosely attached poliovirus results in elution of the A-particle and that eclipse of tightly bound virus results in intercalation of the lipophilic A-particle (Lonberg-Holm et al., 1976) into the cell membrane, followed by uncoating of the RNA. Alternatively, De Sena and Mandel (1977) proposed that the A-particles of poliovirus progress through a series of modification steps, ultimately leading to uncoating. The RNA present in A-particles becomes sensitive to ribonuclease following treatment with chymotrypsin or detergents (De Sena

and Mandel, 1976) and these·authors suggested that similar factors may play a role in the processing of A-particles through a series of unstable intermediates to a final state of uncoating.

Little morphological evidence concerning penetration and uncoating of picornaviruses is present. Engulfment of the virions into a vacuole has been proposed (Dales, 1973) but micrographs seeming to show a direct penetration of the plasma membrane have also been published (Dunnebacke et al., 1969).

Alterations of Cellular Metabolism

Picornavirus infection of cells produces a characteristic early inhibition of cellular protein, RNA and DNA synthesis. The rate and extent of inhibition depends on strain of virus and cells and multiplicity of infection used (McCormack and Penman, 1967). In most systems analyzed, shutoff of host cell protein synthesis is complete by 3 to 4 hours after infection. Shutoff is paralleled by a gradual disaggregation of the heterogeneous host cell polyribosomes (average sedimentation rate = 200 S) and the formation of larger virus-specific polyribosomes, sedimenting more homogeneously at approximately 350 S (Baltimore, 1969). The host cell mRNAs have a relatively long half-life (Greenberg, 1972) and it has been shown that the viral

inhibition of host protein synthesis is not due to extensive

degradation of the cellular mRNAs, although very small

changes in size (which are difficult to detect) may be

adequate to inactivate these messengers (Colby et al.,

1974). This implies that inhibition occurs at the level of

initiation and it has been suggested that a virus-specified

protein selectively interferes with attachment of cellular

mRNA to ribosomes (Penman and Summers, 1965; Willems and

Penman, 1966; Baltimore, 1969). Poliovirus mutants unable

to shut off host protein synthesis map in the region of

the genome which codes for structural proteins (Steiner-

Pryor and Cooper, 1973). This evidence led to the proposal

that a structural protein is involved in shutoff, perhaps

by acting as a new initiation factor (Cooper et al., 1973;

Wright and Cooper, 1974). However, deletion mutants which

do not produce capsid proteins behave normally with respect

to the inhibition of host protein synthesis (Cole and

Baltimore, 1973).

An alternative model to account for shutoff has been

proposed by Ehrenfeld and Hunt (1971). In vitro studies

showed that viral double-stranded RNA could inhibit globin

synthesis in rabbit reticulocyte cell-free systems, this

may have been accomplished by the sequestration of initia-

tion factor eIF-3 (Kaempfer and Kaufman, 1973). Also,

addition of double-stranded RNA to cultured cells produced

an in vivo inhibition of protein synthesis (Cordell-Stewart

and Taylor, 1973). However, it was later shown that both

viral and cellular protein synthesis are inhibited by double-
stranded RNA in vitro (Robertson and Mathews, 1973; Celma
and Ehrenfeld, 1974). In addition, shutoff occurs early
in infection when little, if any, double-stranded RNA is
present and can also occur if viral RNA replication is
absent (Baltimore, 1969).

Leibowitz and Penman (1971) proposed that shutoff is
due to viral RNA being more efficient than cellular mRNA
in initiating translation. In vitro studies show that
uninfected and EMC virus-infected mouse cell extracts are
equally active in translating mRNAs of either viral or
cellular origin, but that only the viral message is trans-
lated when viral and cellular mRNA are simultaneously added
to the infected cell extract (Lawrence and Thach, 1974;
Thach et al., 1975). Also, a hypertonic medium selectively
blocked initiation of cellular protein synthesis in infected
cells early in the infectious cycle, while viral protein
synthesis continued unimpaired (Saborio et al., 1974; Nuss
et al., 1975). This model does not account for the fact
that inhibition of cellular protein synthesis occurs before
the synthesis of significant levels of viral RNA (Baltimore,
1969; Nuss et al., 1975). Nuss et al. (1975) suggested,
therefore, that a virus-specified product alters a cellular
factor, thereby affecting the rate of initiation complex
formation for all messengers. Viral RNA with a high af-
finity for initiation would still be translated, but
cellular mRNAs with a low affinity for initiation would

not be translated. *In vitro* systems, because of their low
rate of initiation, would not be able to detect this
phenomenon.

Inhibition of cellular RNA synthesis also occurs
early after picornavirus infection (Baltimore, 1969) but the
mechanism remains obscure. It would appear to be mediated
by a virus-specified protein, since irradiation of the
infecting virus (Franklin and Baltimore, 1962) or inhibitors
of protein synthesis (Baltimore et al., 1963) prevent shutoff
of cellular RNA synthesis. Recently, Schwartz et al., (1974)
and Miller and Penhoet (1972) showed that nuclei isolated
from Mengo- or EMC-virus-infected cells demonstrated an
inhibition of RNA polymerase II activity appearing before
inhibition of polymerases I and III, suggesting two separate
mechanisms. However, when extracts were made from the
nuclei these differences were no longer observed and poly-
merase activity was fully recovered.

Inhibition of DNA synthesis in infected cells appears
to be a consequence of protein synthesis inhibition. This
is supported by the observation that inhibitors of protein
synthesis in uninfected cells mimic the shutoff of DNA
synthesis produced in infected cells (Hand et al., 1971;
Hand and Tamm, 1972).

Biosynthesis of Viral Polypeptides

Early studies of the replication of poliovirus revealed the presence of about 14 different virus-specified polypeptides in cytoplasmic extracts of infected HeLa cells (Summers et al., 1965). Of the 14 polypeptides, 4 were shown to correspond to the virus capsid proteins (designated VP1 to 4) while the remaining ones were non-capsid polypeptides (designated NCVP1 to 10). Summation of the molecular weights of the 14 viral polypeptides gave a value approximately twice that of the theoretical coding capacity of the poliovirus genome. This puzzle was resolved when it was recognized that the higher molecular-weight polypeptides were cleaved after translation to yield the smaller stable capsid and non-capsid polypeptides (Summers and Maizel, 1968; Jacobson and Baltimore, 1968).

This process has also been shown to take place in cells infected with enteroviruses (Holland and Kiehn, 1968), cardioviruses (Butterworth et al., 1971; Dubos and Martin, 1972; Lucas-Lenard, 1974; Paucha et al., 1974), human rhinoviruses 1A and 2 (McLean and Rueckert, 1973; Butterworth, 1973) and FMDV (Vande Woude et al., 1972; La Porte and Lenoir, 1972; Black, 1975). It was proposed by Jacobson and Baltimore (1968) that the entire viral genome was translated into one giant polypeptide (called "polyprotein") and that all the viral proteins were produced by subsequent cleavages.

Polyprotein is not normally observed in labeled cell extracts. One exception is coxsackie virus-infected cells in which a polypeptide of MW 200,000 has been detected after a short pulse label early in infection (Kiehn and Holland, 1970). Polyprotein can be detected if proteolytic cleavages in infected cells are inhibited by incorporation of amino acid analogues (Jacobson et al., 1970; Paucha et al., 1974), by addition of protease inhibitors such as TPCK or TLCK (Korant, 1972; Summers et al., 1972), or by zinc ions (Butterworth and Korant, 1974). Some temperature-sensitive mutants of poliovirus also accumulate high molecular weight precursors at the restrictive temperature (Garfinkle and Tershak, 1971). In the absence of inhibitors the largest polypeptide normally found in infected cell extracts has a molecular weight of 100,000 to 130,000 (Jacobson et al., 1970; Butterworth and Rueckert, 1972a), indicating that cleavages occur on nascent polypeptide chains.

Studies on the in vitro translation of picornavirus RNA revealed only one initiation site at or near the 5' end (Öberg and Shatkin, 1972; Boime and Leder, 1972; Smith, 1973), a result which is compatible with the idea of polyprotein being equivalent to the uninterrupted translation of the entire genome. Also revealed was the presence of a short "lead-in" polypeptide which was rapidly cleaved from the 5' end of the capsid precursor following initiation of translation. This polypeptide was then rapidly degraded (Smith, 1973). The presence of a unique initiation site

made possible the genetic mapping of the polypeptides using
pactamycin, a drug which specifically inhibits initiation
of protein synthesis (Taber et al., 1971; Summers and
Maizel, 1971). Using this technique, it has been shown
that the pattern of post-translational cleavages leading
to the generation of the stable end products is very similar
for EMC virus (Butterworth and Rueckert, 1972b), Mengo virus
(Lucas-Lenard, 1974; Paucha et al., 1974), poliovirus
(Butterworth, 1973), rhinovirus 1A (Butterworth 1973;
McLean and Rueckert, 1973) and FMDV (Sanger et al., 1977).
The models of polypeptide synthesis and processing for
Mengo virus and poliovirus are presented in Figure 1.

In Mengo virus-infected cells, three large poly-
peptides designated A, F and C and two smaller polypeptides
designated G and H are produced by primary cleavages of the
nascent polyprotein. Polypeptide A, translated from the 5'
region of the genome, is the precursor for the virion capsid
proteins and is processed by a series of secondary cleavages
to give ε, ι and γ. The cleavage of ε to δ and β is termed
a morphogenetic cleavage and occurs during encapsidation of
the viral RNA (Jacobson and Baltimore, 1968b). Polypeptide
C, translated from the 3' region of the viral RNA, also
undergoes secondary cleavages to yield D and then E, which
is stable. Polypeptide F, produced during the primary
cleavages, is also stable.

The nature of the enzyme(s) involved in these cleavages
is unknown. The primary cleavages, which can be inhibited

MENGO
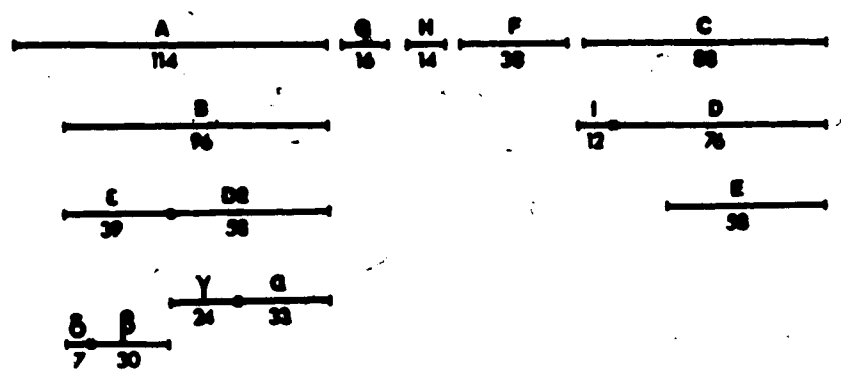
POLIO
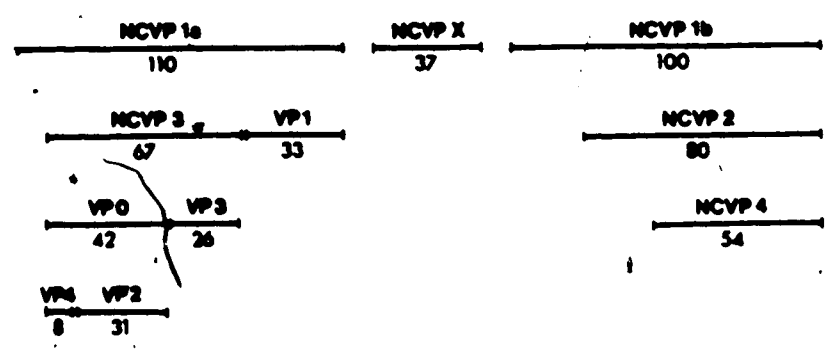
Figure 1. Cleavage schemes for Mengo and Polio virus-specific polypeptides. Numbers below the lines refer to molecular weight, in thousands, of each polypeptide.

by TPCK or TLCK, appear to be mediated by cellular proteases.
Korant (1972) showed that poliovirus polyprotein, isolated
from monkey-kidney cells infected in the presence of TPCK,
could be cleaved by uninfected cell extracts into products
identical to those produced by in vivo primary cleavages.
Conformation of the polyprotein also appeared to be
important since α-chymotrypsin could cleave native poly-
protein into products similar to those produced with
infected cell extracts but cleaved denatured polyprotein
into small fragments. Korant (1973) also demonstrated
that the secondary cleavages of capsid precursors are
probably mediated by a viral specific enzyme. Partially
purified polypeptide 1a of poliovirus (analogous to poly-
peptide A of Mengo) could be cleaved by extracts of infected
cells to yield the capsid proteins. Uninfected cell extracts
did not contain this activ

Another distinct viral-coded protease appears to be
present in infected cells. EMC RNA translated in an in
vitro cell-free system from uninfected cells, yields as one
of its products a polypeptide slightly longer than poly-
peptide A (Lawrence and Thach, 1975). This polypeptide
was identical to A except for an extra 12,500 daltons of
protein at the amino terminal end. Infected cell extracts
did not produce this larger version of A, but an additional
small protein of MW 12,500 was present. The activity
responsible for this cleavage copurified with the viral
capsid protein γ. Since the γ sequence is contained in A,

this process may be autocatalytic.

Replication of Viral RNA

In addition to its role as messenger, infecting picornaviral RNA acts as a template for RNA replication. Kinetic analysis shows that replication of viral RNA begins within half an hour of the initiation of infection and proceeds exponentially until approximately 3 to 4 hours post-infection when the rate of synthesis becomes linear (Baltimore, 1969; Darnell et al., 1967). The rate remains linear for about 1 hour and then declines gradually until replication ceases at 7 to 8 hours (Baltimore et al., 1966; Darnell et al., 1967). Once formed, a new RNA molecule becomes available for replication, translation or ultimately, encapsidation. The control processes which decide the fate of a newly synthesized RNA molecule remain to be clarified. It has been proposed that encapsidation of newly synthesized viral RNA, which would limit the availability of replicative template, is responsible for the alteration of RNA synthesis kinetics from the exponential to the linear form (Baltimore, 1969).

Replication of the viral RNA takes place exclusively in the cytoplasm on smooth membranes which make up a structure referred to as the replication complex (Caliguiri and Tamm, 1969; Caliguiri et al., 1973). This complex, sediment-

ing at 250 S, contains all of the viral RNA polymerase
activity and replicating structures, referred to as replica-
tive intermediates (RI). RI consists of a single strand of
template RNA hydrogen-bonded to the growing 3' ends of
progeny molecules whose completed 5' ends are free (Thach
et al., 1974; Bishop and Levintow, 1971; Levintow, 1974).
The RI itself sediments at 20 - 70 S in sucrose gradients,
indicating heterogeneity in size. Evidence that the RI is
a functional intermediate in the synthesis of viral RNA was
obtained by in vitro pulse-chase experiments which showed
flow of radioactive label from RI structures into single
stranded progeny molecules (Girard, 1969; McDonnell and
Levintow, 1970).

The infecting viral RNA initially acts as a template
for the simultaneous formation of six to seven strands of
complementary RNA (cRNA; Baltimore, 1968), each one being
synthesized by a separate polymerase molecule, in the RI
structure. The cRNA then serves as a template for the
synthesis of viral plus strand RNA molecules, also in an
RI structure. Most of the RIs extracted from infected
cells contain a complete single-stranded template of cRNA.
From 5 to 10 times as much vRNA is produced than cRNA
(Baltimore, 1969). Genetic evidence suggests that different
polymerases may be involved in the synthesis of cRNA and
viral (plus) RNA. Temperature sensitive mutants of polio-
virus synthesize either no RNA or only cRNA, and these
mutations map in slightly different places within the

genome (Cooper, 1970).

In addition to the 250 S replicative complex which makes mostly viral RNA, a minor fraction sedimenting at 70 S has also been identified (Caliguiri, 1974). This smaller complex produces mostly cRNA, suggesting that it is the primary site for cRNA synthesis. Thus, there may be different cellular locations for the two replication complexes.

Also present in infected cells is a fully hydrogen-bonded double-stranded RNA called the replicative form (RF). It accumulates only late in infection (Baltimore and Girard, 1966) and this fact, along with pulse-chase experiments (Baltimore, 1968; Girard, 1969) suggests that it is a byproduct of the RI (Bishop and Levintow, 1971).

Data which showed that picornavirus RNA synthesis does not occur in the nucleus (Franklin and Baltimore, 1962) together with the observation that these viruses replicate in the presence of Actinomycin D (Reich et al., 1962) implied the presence of a virus-induced RNA dependent RNA polymerase (replicase). The first evidence for such a replicase was obtained with Mengo virus-infected cells (Baltimore and Franklin, 1962, 1963) and poliovirus-infected cells (Baltimore et al., 1963b). When isolated from cytoplasmic extracts, the replicase activity was found to be associated with a replication complex which included protein, nucleic acid and smooth cytoplasmic membranes. Activity of the replication complex in vitro was limited

to completion of previously initiated viral RNA strands
(Girard, 1969; Dietzschold and Ahl, 1970). Dissociation
of the replicase from membranes with detergents resulted
in a rapid, irreversible loss of activity (Girard et al.,
1967; Plagemann and Swim, 1968). The instability of the
replicase has made definitive studies of its composition
and enzymatic properties very difficult; nevertheless some
progress has been made. A partially purified replicase
complex from EMC virus-infected cells was shown to contain
five polypeptides, one of which has a molecular weight
identical to the viral non-structural protein E (Rosenberg
et al., 1972). This replicase was able to polymerize
guanylate residues using GTP and a polycytidylate template.
Analysis of the replicase extracted from poliovirus-infected
cells showed the presence of predominantly one virus-
specific polypeptide which co-migrated with the poliovirus
equivalent of E (i.e. NCVP4; Lundquist et al., 1974).
Recent studies with Mengo virus (Roesch and Arlinghaus,
1975), EMC virus (Traub et al., 1976) and FMDV (Polatnick
et al., 1967) have also indicated a role for polypeptide
E in the replicase activity. A primer-dependent RNA poly-
merase able to copy a poly(A) template has recently been
isolated from poliovirus-infected cells (Flanegan and
Baltimore, 1977). The identity of the viral-specific poly-
peptide(s) responsible for this activity was, however, not
established.

Together, these observations suggest that the picorna-

virus replicase is composed of a viral polypeptide (poly-
peptide E) in association with yet to be characterized
cellular polypeptides.

Virion Assembly

Assembly of the picornavirion occurs in a series of
steps in which individual polypeptides aggregate in equi-
molar proportions into structures of increasing size, which
combine with RNA and ultimately form a complete virion.
Caliguiri and Compans (1973) suggested that assembly
occurs on the smooth cytoplasmic membranes, in conjunction
with viral RNA replication.

Much of the assembly process has been clarified by
an examination of sub-viral particles isolated from infected
cells. Early studies on poliovirus assembly demonstrated
the presence of a 5 S particle composed of one molecule
each of the polypeptides VP0, VP1 and VP3 (Phillips et al.,
1968). It was proposed that five of these 5 S particles
aggregated to form the 14 S structure also isolated from
infected cells (Phillips. and Fennel, 1973; Phillips, 1971).
In 1974, Maizel et al. examined the "empty capsids" extracted
from poliovirus-infected cells and showed that they were
composed of equimolar amounts of VP0, VP1 and VP3.
Jacobson and Baltimore (1968b) subsequently demonstrated
that the 73 S empty capsids accumulated in poliovirus-

infected HeLa cells to which 3mM guanidine hydrochloride had been added. Removal of guanidine resulted in a flow of radioactive label from empty capsids into mature polio-virions, suggesting that this structure, which they termed the "procapsid", was an assembly intermediate. Also found in poliovirus-infected cells was an entity, sedimenting at 125 S, called the "provirion" (Fernandez-Tomas and Baltimore, 1973). The provirion was identical to the 73 S procapsid except that it also contained a 35 S single-stranded viral RNA molecule. This data implies that during the assembly of poliovirus, RNA is inserted into a 73 S procapsid before the final proteolytic (morphogenetic) cleavage of VP0 to VP2 + VP4 which produces the mature virion. With the demonstration that 14 S particles could assemble into 73 S procapsids _in vitro_ (Phillips, 1969, 1971), and the observation that this process was stimulated by addition of a rough cytoplasmic membrane fraction from infected cells (Perlin and Phillips, 1973), it appeared that the complete scheme for poliovirus morphogenesis had been resolved. This assembly sequence (Phillips, 1972; Casjens and King, 1975) is shown below.

$$\text{NCVP1a} \longrightarrow (\text{VP0,1,3}) \longrightarrow (\text{VP0,1,3})_5 \longrightarrow [(\text{VP0,1,3})_5]_{12}$$

$$\text{5 S} \qquad \text{14 S} \qquad \text{73 S procapsid}$$

$$\downarrow \text{RNA}$$

$$\text{RNA} \cdot (\text{VP1,2,3,4})_{60} \xleftarrow{\text{VP2,4 \quad VP0}} \text{RNA} \cdot (\text{VP0,1,3})_{5\ 12}$$

$$\text{155 S mature virion} \qquad\qquad \text{125 S provirion}$$
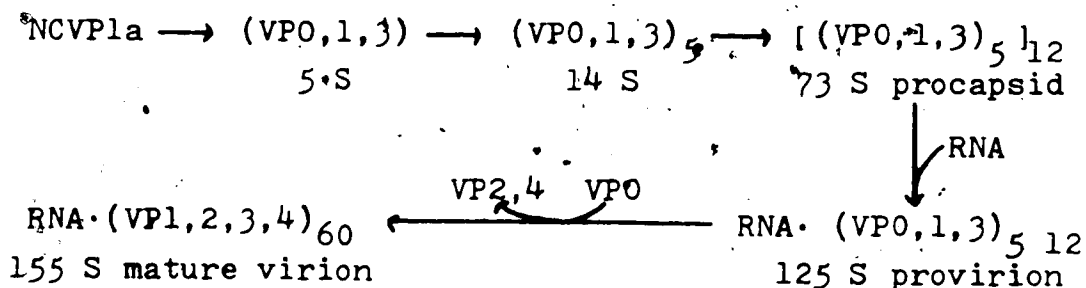
However, some doubt exists as to the role of the 73 S pro-
capsid in virion assembly. Poliovirus-infected M10 cells
accumulated 14 S rather than 73 S particles in the presence
of guanidine (Ghendon et al., 1972). Removal of the inhibitor
resulted in a direct flow of radioactive label from the 14 S
particles into mature 155 S virions without the appearance
of 73 S procapsids. Thus, the procapsid may be a product
of abortive assembly or a storage form of excess 14 S
particles rather than an obligatory intermediate in
assembly. Also, a direct kinetic precursor-product
relationship between the 5 S and 14 S particles of poliovirus
has yet to be demonstrated.

Stages in the assembly of cardioviruses appear to be
somewhat different from those of poliovirus. McGregor et
al. (1975) have shown that EMC virus-infected HeLa cells
contain two capsid precursor particles sedimenting at 13 S
and 14 S. Kinetic analysis showed that the 13 S particle
(a pentamer of the capsid precursor polypeptide A) was
converted into the 14 S particle (a pentamer of ϵ, α and
γ polypeptides), demonstrating that in apparent contrast to
poliovirus assembly, the precursor polypeptides aggregate
before proteolytic cleavages occur. The model proposed by
McGregor et al. (1975) for EMC virus assembly is shown below.

$$(A) \longrightarrow (A)_5 \longrightarrow (\epsilon\alpha\gamma)_5 \xrightarrow[\epsilon \quad \delta+\beta]{RNA} RNA \cdot (\delta\beta\gamma\alpha)_{60-n}(\epsilon\alpha\gamma)_n$$

$$13\ S \qquad 14\ S \qquad\qquad\qquad 150\ S\ virion$$
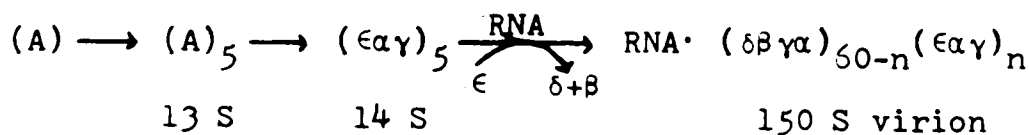
Cardiovirus-infected cells do not produce stable 73 S empty capsids. Also, in vitro treatments which produce empty capsids from purified enteroviruses do not form empty capsids from cardioviruses (Rueckert, 1976; Scraba and Colter, 1974).

More recently, however, additional subviral particles have been detected in cardiovirus-infected cells. A particle composed of five B polypeptide chains has been identified in cells infected with EMC or rhinoviruses (McGregor and Rueckert, 1977) and a 50 S particle composed of ϵ, α and γ polypeptide chains has been identified in Mengo virus-infected cells (Lee et al., 1978).

Using this information as background, experiments described in this thesis were undertaken to characterize more fully the structure of the intact Mengo virion and its RNA. The disposition of the capsid polypeptides with respect to the external surface of the intact Mengo capsid have been examined by immunological and iodination techniques and the results compared to the data obtained with other picornaviruses. The non-capsid polypeptides E and F have been isolated and partially characterized in an attempt to assign enzymatic activities to these polypeptides.

II. ROUTINE MATERIALS AND METHODS

Tissue Culture Media

Sterilization procedures. All media were sterilized by filtration through nitrocellulose filters with a pore size of 0.22 microns (Millipore Corporation, Bedford, Ma.).

Growth medium. Eagle's basal medium (BME diploid) with Earle's salts and glutamine (catalogue number G-13) was obtained in powdered form from the Grand Island Biological Company, Grand Island, New York. The medium was dissolved in distilled, deionized water and sodium bicarbonate was added to a final concentration of 0.12% before filtration. Before use this medium was supplemented with:

(1) Horse serum (Flow Laboratories, Rockville, Md.) to a final concentration of 5% for growth of cells or 1% for production of virus;

(2) Penicillin G (Glaxco-Allenburys Ltd., Toronto, Ont.) and streptomycin sulfate (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.) to final concentrations of 100 IU and 50 μg/ml respectively.

This medium was used for growth of cells in roller bottles, Blake bottles and tissue culture flasks.

Spinner medium. This medium, used for growth of cells in spinners, was identical to Eagle's basal medium except for the omission of calcium from the starting powder (minimum essential Eagle's medium F-14, containing spinner

salts - Grand Island Biological Co.).

Amino acid deficient medium. Composition of the medium was similar to Eagle's basal medium (diploid) except that it contained twice the normal amount of calcium chloride (400 mg/l) and no amino acids other than glutamine. Sodium bicarbonate was added to a final concentration of 0.06% before filtration. Sterile medium was supplemented with 1% horse serum and antibiotics as described above.

Virus diluent. Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) of Dulbecco and Vogt (1954) was supplemented with 0.2% bovine serum albumin fraction V (Gallard-Schlesinger Chemical Manufacturing Corp., Carle Place, N.Y.), 0.002% phenol red (J.T. Baker Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, N.J.) and penicillin and streptomycin sulfate at 200 IU and 100 μg/ml respectively.

Overlay diluent. This solution contained three times the normal concentration of Hank's salts, six times normal concentrations of both Basal Eagle's amino acids (Baltimore Biological Laboratory, division of Becton Dickinson and Company, Cockeysville, Md.) and MEM vitamin solution (Gibco), five times the usual concentrations of penicillin and strepto-mycin (i.e. 500 IU and 250 μg/ml respectively), 0.78% sodium bicarbonate and 30% inactivated (56° for 45 min.), calf serum.

Agar overlay. This was prepared by mixing 1 volume of overlay diluent with 2 volumes of a 1.6% solution of Noble agar (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich.) in distilled water at 45°.

Cultured L Cells

Earle's L-929 strain of mouse fibroblasts (Sanford et al., 1948) were used for growth and plaque assay of Mengo virus. They were originally obtained from the American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, Md. Cells were maintained in monolayer culture in 1-liter Blake bottles (Kimble Products, Owens-Illinois Co., Toledo, Ohio). When the cultures had reached confluence the growth media was removed and the monolayers rinsed with a solution of 0.25% trypsin (Difco) in buffer containing 10 mM phosphate pH 7.4, 142.8 mM sodium chloride and 2.8 mM potassium chloride and incubated at room temperature until the cells began to detach (1 to 2 minutes). Cells from one bottle were resuspended in BME-5% H.S. and used to maintain the Blake bottle stock. The remaining cells were resuspended in spinner medium and transferred to 1- or 2-liter spinner flasks (Bellco Biological Glassware, Vineland, N.J.) at a concentration of 2 x 10^5 cells per milliliter. Cells were kept in suspension by means of a magnetic stirring device while growing at 37°. L cell monolayers were also grown in large cylindrical bottles (490 mm x 110 mm in diameter - Bellco Biological Glassware), coated with fetal calf serum (Flow Laboratories) prior to seeding in order to facilitate the attachment of cells. The roller bottles were either seeded directly with cells from Blake bottles (one Blake bottle of cells per roller bottle) or by cells harvested from spinner

cultures. In both cases approximately 10^8 cells in a volume
of 100 ml fresh growth medium were added per roller bottle.
The bottles were rotated at 0.5 rpm overnight after which
the speed was increased to 1 rpm. Monolayers reached
confluence after 48 hours of growth at 37º.

Virus

The M plaque-type variant of Mengo encephalomyo-
carditis virus, originally isolated by Ellem and Colter
(1961) was used throughout these studies.

Virus growth in roller bottles. Growth medium was
poured off confluent monolayers and was replaced by 20 ml
of growth medium (supplemented with 1% horse serum) con-
taining the virus inoculum (about 10^8 pfu per milliliter
giving a moi of about 10). The bottles were rotated at
1 rpm for 20 to 24 hours by which time most cells had
lysed; any remaining cells were dislodged from the glass
by shaking, and the infected lysates were pooled.

Virus purification. The procedure used for virus
purification has been described by Ziola and Scraba (1975)
and involved methanol precipitation, treatment with α-
chymotrypsin, differential centrifugation, sedimentation
through sucrose and equilibrium centrifugation in Cs_2SO_4.

Preparation of radioactively labelled virus. Confluent
monolayers of L cells in roller bottles were infected with

Mengo virus in the amino acid deficient medium described previously. Ninety minutes to 2 hours post infection, a mixture of ^{3}H- or ^{14}C-labeled amino acids (New England Nuclear, Montreal, Que., catalogue numbers NET-250 and NEC-445 respectively) were added to a final concentration of 2 μCi per milliliter and 0.2 μCi per milliliter respectively. The cells were rotated for an additional 20 to 24 hours before virus was harvested and purified.

Plaque assay of infectious virus. The procedure used was that described by Campbell and Colter (1965).

III. SURFACE STRUCTURE OF THE MENGO VIRION

Introduction

The arrangement of the polypeptides within the picorna-virus capsid and the individual roles of each polypeptide have only recently begun to be examined and understood. It has been proposed that VP4 serves as a carrier of D (native) antigenicity on the surface of polio virions (Breindl, 1971b) and that it is the viral component which recognizes cellular receptors during attachment (Breindl, 1971a). Data obtained with eluted coxsackievirus B3 was also interpreted as indicating that VP4 was located on the surface of the native virion (Crowell and Philipson, 1971). Although this model was accepted by the Study Group on Picornaviridae (1975), recent work has challenged this interpretation. Talbot et al. (1973) showed by complement fixation that VP4 was not located on the surface of the native FMD virion. In addition, Lonberg-Holm and Butterworth (1976) and Beneke et al. (1977) have shown that iodination of native polio virions with ^{125}I labeled the VP1 polypeptide predominantly, with no labeling of VP4. Iodination of native bovine enterovirus particles labeled only VP1 (Carthew and Martin, 1974) while reaction with pyridoxal phosphate followed by reduction with ^{3}H sodium borohydride labeled VP1, VP2 and VP3 (Carthew, 1976). In no instance was any labeling of VP4 observed, indicating that none of its tyrosine, hystidine or lysine

residue are exposed on the external surface of the virus
particle.

The identity of the asymmetric structure unit ($\alpha\beta\gamma$)
and its disposition in the Mengo virus capsid (60 copies;
T=1 icosahedral lattice) have been determined (Mak et al.
1974), but the detailed spatial relationships among the
α, β, γ and δ polypeptides remain to be described. Results
detailed in this chapter show that the surface of the intact
Mengo virion is occupied primarily by the α polypeptides,
and to a lesser extent by β. Both enzymatic iodination
and immunological tests demonstrated this polypeptide dis-
tribution, and the immunological data indicates that the
α polypeptides are primarily responsible for attachment of
the virion to susceptible cells.

Materials and Methods

Lactoperoxidase-catalyzed iodination of intact and disrupted virions

These experiments were performed by B.R. Ziola. They
are included in this thesis because the results are com-
plementary to the immunological data.

Solid-state bovine lactoperoxidase was prepared by
coupling the enzyme (Sigma Chemical Co.) to CNBr-activated
Sepharose 4B (Pharmacia) by the procedure of David and
Reisfield (1974). The preparation, having a final enzyme

concentration of 0.5 mg/ml of settled beads, was stored at 4° in PBS (Dulbecco and Vogt, 1954) containing 2×10^{-5} M Merthiolate. Aliquots of the enzyme preparation were washed twice with PBS prior to use.

Iodination of intact virions was accomplished by the addition, in sequence, of: 75 μl of PBS (or 75 μl PBS containing 4×10^{-5} M "carrier" NaI), 10 μl of solid-state lactoperoxidase suspension, 10 μl of ^{125}I (150 μCi; Amersham) and 6 μl of 0.15% H_2O_2 in PBS to 100 μg of purified virions in 200 μl of PBS. Reactions were allowed to proceed at room temperature for 1, 15 or 30 minutes; additional aliquots of H_2O_2 being added at 7.5 minute intervals for the latter two incubation times. During the reaction period, the mixtures were continuously agitated in order to keep the solid-state enzyme in suspension. Reactions were terminated by the addition of 50 μl of 0.5 M NaI and 0.2 M NaN3 in PBS, followed by low speed centrifugation to remove the lactoperoxidase-sepharose beads. Iodinated virus was separated from free ^{125}I by centrifugation through a solution of 15% sucrose in PBS using a Spinco Type 50 rotor (45,000 rpm, 4 hours, 4°). The pelleted virus was resuspended in 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.4) containing 2% SDS, and aliquots containing 50 μg of protein were made 5% in β-mercapto-ethanol, heated at 100° for 5 minutes and loaded onto 10% polyacrylamide -0.1% SDS gels prepared as described by Ziola and Scraba (1974).

Disrupted virions were prepared by heating 50 μg of

purified virus in 100 μl of 0.2% SDS in PBS at 100° for 7 minutes. The constituent polypeptides were iodinated as above following dilution to 200 μl with PBS. The iodinated polypeptides were separated from free ^{125}I by chromatography on a Sephadex G-25 (fine) column which was equilibrated with PBS containing 0.1% SDS. The polypeptide-containing fractions were dialyzed against 0.1% SDS in distilled water, then lyophilized. The iodinated polypeptides were resuspended in buffer, heated, and subjected to SDS-gel electrophoresis as described above.

Antisera

Antiserum specific for the 13.4 S viral capsid sub-units [(αβγ)$_5$] (Mak et al., 1974) was prepared by injecting rabbits with the subunits purified as described by Mak et al., 1971. The inoculation schedule consisted of an intra-muscular injection of 500 μg of capsid subunits in Freund's complete adjuvant followed by an intravenous injection of 500 μg of subunits in PBS five weeks later. Blood was col-lected before the immunization procedure (for production of control serum) and two weeks after the intravenous injection.

Antiserum specific for an α + β polypeptide mixture was also prepared. The antigen was purified by heat-disrupting vir▓▓▓ the presence of 2% SDS and 5% β-mercapto-ethanol follow▓▓▓ the separation of these two species from the other capsid polypeptides by electrophoresis in SDS-polyacrylamide gels. Remazol brilliant blue (RBBR)-myoglobin

and RBBR-lysozyme (Griffith, 1972) were used as markers to locate the region of the gels containing the α and β polypeptides. These gel segments were excised and emulsified mechanically in a 1:1 mixture of 0.1%·SDS in 0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.4) and Freund's complete adjuvant. A rabbit was innoculated intramuscularly and subcutaneously every 14 days with a total of approximately 400 μg of antigen. Blood was collected before immunization (for production of control serum) and one week following the sixth pair of injections.

Antisera specific for the individual α, β, γ and δ viral capsid polypeptides were prepared using the purified polypeptides (Ziola and Scraba, 1975, 1976) as antigens. Fractions from a SDS-hydroxylapatite column containing the individual polypeptides were dialyzed against 0.1% SDS in 0.01 M·sodium phosphate (pH 7.4), and assayed for purity by analytical electrophoresis on SDS-polyacrylamide gels. The immunization schedule consisted of intravenous injection into rabbits of 100 μg aliquots of each polypeptide preparation. Concurrently, 100 μg aliquots of each polypeptide (20 μg in the case of δ) were emulsified with an equal volume of Freund's complete adjuvant and injected intramuscularly. The intramuscular injections were repeated six times at two-week intervals. Blood was collected before immunization (for control serum production) and one week after the last intramuscular injection.

In all cases, the blood was allowed to clot at room

temperature for one hour and then stored overnight at 4°. The clot was collected by centrifugation at 1000 g for 10 minutes and the serum supernatents removed. Serum was divided into 5-ml portions and stored at -20° in the presence of 0.01% sodium azide.

Immunodiffusion

The procedure used was a microadaptation of the double diffusion method of Ouchterlony (1948). A plexiglass template (1.5 x 1.5 inches with wells 3 mm in diameter containing stainless steel ball bearings) was supported on a 2 x 2 inches glass slide by short pieces of nylon fishing line. Melted agarose (1% in PBS or 0.1 $\underline{M}$ sodium phosphate, pH 7.2) was poured between the templates and slides and allowed to solidify. The ball bearings were then removed, the wells filled with the appropriate dilutions of antigen and antisera, and the slides incubated for 2 to 3 days at room temperature in humidified chambers. Following incubation, the templates were removed and the slides soaked overnight in PBS. The slides were stained with 0.25% Coomassie brilliant blue R (Sigma Chemical Co.) in 9% acetic acid-45% methanol and destained in 7.5% acetic acid-5% methanol.

Complement-fixation (CF) tests

A standardized diagnostic complement fixation procedure was used throughout these studies (Casey, 1965). Hemolysin and guinea pig complement were obtained from Flow Laboratories

(Inglewood, Ca.). Sheep blood was collected in an equal volume of Alsever's solution, and the red blood cells allowed to stabilize at 4° for 3 to 5 days before using. The antigens employed in the assays were freshly purified intact virions in 0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.4) or virions which had been disrupted by heating at 56° for 10 minutes in 0.14 M sodium chloride, 0.02 M sodium phosphate (pH 6.2). The concentrations of the viral protein antigens were adjusted to approximately 230 μg/ml prior to making serial dilutions. The sera were diluted 10-fold with Veronal buffer and the endogenous complement activity inactivated by heating at 56° for 30 minutes. Serial dilutions of the inactivated sera were then made and used in the assays. Complement-serum controls indicated that the anti-β, -γ and -δ sera were anticomplementary at dilutions less than 1/80 to 1/160. This activity was removed by pretreatment with guinea pig complement (Schmidt, 1969).

Plaque-neutralization (PN) tests

A standard virus suspension was prepared by diluting purified virus to a concentration of 1200 PFU/ml, using virus diluent. Twofold serial dilutions of sera were made using virus diluent and 0.2 ml samples mixed with 0.2 ml aliquots of standard virus suspension. The mixtures were incubated at 37° for 1 hour and then assayed for their ability to form plaques in L cell monolayers (Campbell and Colter, 1965).

Plaque-neutralization enhancement (PNE) tests

In certain cases, viral infectivity is not neutralized
by formation of a simple virus-antibody complex. In such
instances, heterologous anti-globulin must be added to
produce "neutralization enhancement" (Wadell, 1972). To
test for such a phenomenon in this system, plaque neutraliza-
tion mixtures were set up and incubated for 1 hour as
described above. A further 0.2 ml of virus diluent con-
taining a 200-fold dilution of goat anti-rabbit IgG serum
(27.9 mg of antibody protein per milliliter of antiserum;
Miles-Yeda Laboratories) was then added to each test serum
dilution and these were then incubated at 37° for an addi-
tional hour. Aliquots were then assayed for plaque-forming
ability as described above.

Hemagglutination-inhibition (HI) tests

The microtechnique of HI titration described by Sever
(1962) was employed. The buffer used for making dilutions was
0.05 $\underline{M}$ H_3BO_3, C.12 $\underline{M}$ KCl, pH 8.0. Sera were kaolin-adsorbed
(Spence, 1968) prior to making the twofold serial dilutions.
A virus suspension containing 4 hemagglutination units was
added to the serial dilutions of sera and incubated at room
temperature for 2 hours. A 0.5% (v/v) suspension of human
type O erythrocytes in borate buffer (made from a standard-
ized 20% suspension of erythrocytes in Alsever's solution)
was added to the dilutions and incubated for an additional
hour before reading the results.

Results.

Iodination of Mengo Virions

Iodination of intact Mengo virions with ¹²⁵I results in the incorporation of label primarily into the α poly-peptides (Figure 2A). The β polypeptides are labeled to a lesser extent, and only trace amounts of label are found in the γ and δ polypeptides. These labeling conditions (i.e., 1-minute labeling without carrier NaI) produce minimal capsid alterations so the labeling pattern observed probably reflects the native capsid conformation. Lactoperoxidase-catalyzed iodination labels the aromatic ring of tyrosine residues almost exclusively (Phillips and Morris, 1970). Mengo virus α, β, γ and δ polypeptides contain 11, 30, 11 and 3 tyrosine residues, respectively (Ziola and Scraba, 1975). Using these two observations, it is possible to calculate the relative accessibility of the tyrosine residues of each poly-peptide to radioiodination (Table 2). If a random distribu-tion of tyrosine residues in each polypeptide is assumed, it can be estimated that the α polypeptides occupy approximately 75% of the external surface of the virion and the β poly-peptides, 25%. The tyrosine residues of the γ and δ poly-peptides are apparently not exposed on the exterior of the virus capsid.

Addition of 1×10^{-5} M carrier NaI to the 1-minute enzyme-catalyzed reaction resulted in an increased labeling of the β polypeptides relative to the α polypeptides (approx-
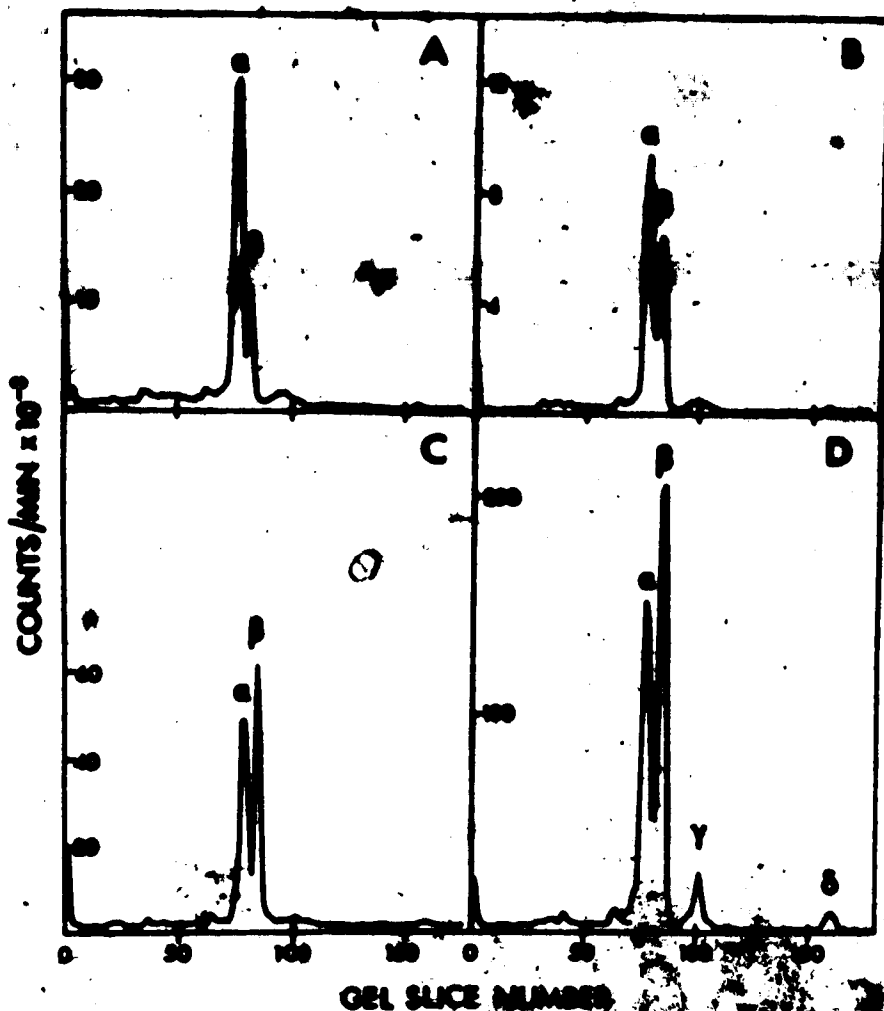
Figure 2. The polypeptide of Mengo virions labeled in vitro
by lactoperoxidase-catalyzed iodination. The procedure and
conditions for 125I iodination are described in Materials and
Methods. The recovered virions (50-μg aliquots) were dis-
rupted by boiling in a solution containing 2% SDS and 5% β-
mercaptoethanol, then layered onto 0.6 x 20 cm gels of 10%
polyacrylamide-0.1% SDS and electrophoresed for 18 hr at a
current of 6 mA per gel (Ziola and Scraba, 1974). Following
electrophoresis, the gels were stained with Coomassie bril-
liant blue R (Weber and Osborn, 1969). Each gel was cut
between the α and β polypeptide bands before being fractioned
into 1 mm slices. The radioactivity in the gel slices was
determined by counting in an LKB Wallac gamma counter. These
experiments were all done on the same day, with the same
batch of virus in order to standardize conditions and permit
comparisons. Panel A: Iodination for 1 min; no carrier NaI
present; panel B: Iodination for 1 min; 1 x 10-5 M NaI
present; panel C: Iodination for 5 min; no carrier NaI
present; panel D: Iodination for 5 min; 1 x 10-5 NaI
present.

TABLE 2

LACTOPEROXIDASE-CATALYZED IODINATION OF INTACT AND
DISRUPTED SINDBIS VIRIONS

Incubation Conditions	^{125}I Incorporation per tyrosine residue for polypeptide [a]			
	α	β	γ	δ
1 min, minus carrier KaI	1.00	0.32	trace	trace
1 min, plus carrier KaI	1.00	0.57	trace	trace
15 min, minus carrier KaI	1.00	0.97	trace	trace
15 min, plus carrier KaI	1.00	1.13	0.18	0.33
Disrupted virus, 1 min, plus carrier KaI	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.36
Theoretical relative ^{125}I incorporation [b]	1.00	0.91	1.00	0.27

[a] Amino acid composition analyses have shown that the α, β, γ and δ polypeptides contain 11, 10, 11 and 3 tyrosine residues respectively (Biela and Burche, 1973). For each incubation condition, the actual radioactive counts have been normalized to a value of 1.00 per tyrosine residue for the α polypeptide. The values shown for the other polypeptides are counts/min/tyrosine residue relative to α.

[b] These are the expected relative iodination values for the capsid polypeptides from disrupted virions. Since α, β, γ and δ are present in equimolar proportions in the capsid (Biela and Burche, 1974, 1975), the theoretical relative ^{125}I incorporation was calculated directly from the number of tyrosine residues in each polypeptide.

imately 60% that of α, Figure 2B, Table 2). The increased labeling is probably due to a conformational rearrangement of the capsid polypeptides induced by the incorporation of iodine atoms which resulted in additional tyrosine residues becoming accessible.

The iodination-induced conformational rearrangement was also demonstrated using a longer incubation time. After a 15 minute reaction period, in the absence of carrier NaI, the β polypeptides were labeled to nearly the same extent as the α polypeptide (Figure 2C, Table 2). Upon addition of carrier NaI, the labeling of the γ and δ polypeptides also began to occur (Figure 2D, Table 2). In spite of the conformational rearrangements, the virions were still largely intact since they could be recovered following sedimentation through 15% sucrose. However, iodination for 30 minutes (with or without carrier NaI present) produced a degradation of the virus capsid such that intact virions could not be recovered following sedimentation through 15% sucrose. This phenomenon has also been observed in the case of bovine enterovirus (Carthew and Martin, 1974).

Iodination of virus disrupted by heating in SDS resulted in a labeling of all four capsid polypeptides in the relative amounts expected from their tyrosine contents (Table 2). Thus, the observed differences in labeling of intact virions probably reflects the exposure of tyrosine residues of the individual capsid polypeptides to the external environment rather than an intrinsic difficulty in

iodination of individual tyrosine residues.

Immunodiffusion

The results of the two diffusion tests using whole and disrupted Mengo virions as antigens are shown in Figures 3A and B respectively. They demonstrate that all the specific antisera have activity against disrupted virions, but that only the anti-α, anti-β and anti-$\alpha\beta$ sera react with native virions. Thus, the antigenic determinants of the α and β polypeptides are located on the external surface of the virion, while those of the γ and δ polypeptides are not.

CF tests

The serum and antigen titers obtained using the specific sera are shown in Table 3. Table 3A shows that, with the exception of the anti-δ serum, all sera tested had complement-fixing titers of approximately the same order of magnitude. This suggests that the differing sera reactivities measured by the other immunological techniques (see below) were not due to widely varying antibody titers or to an absence of specific antibodies.

Results shown in Table 3B indicate that the surface of the intact Mengo virion is occupied primarily by the α and β polypeptides. Disruption of the viral capsid produced a significant increase in the antigen titers for the β and δ polypeptides. Thus, while at least one part of each of the β polypeptides is exposed to the external environment in the
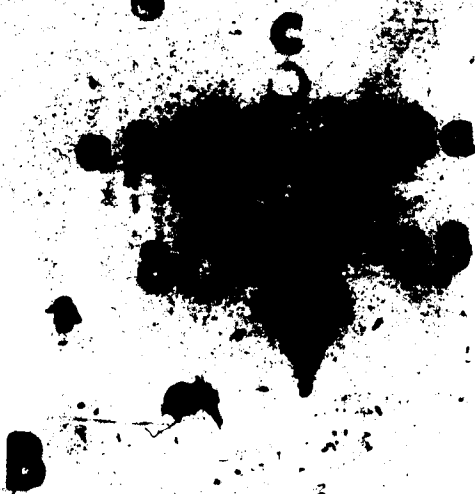
Figure 3. Immunodiffusion analyses of whole and dissociated Mengo virions. Panel A: The center well contained intact virions in 0.1 M sodium phosphate, pH 7.2. Specific antisera (in the outer wells) were dialyzed against this buffer before being applied. "C" indicates control (preimmunization) rabbit serum. Panel B: The buffer used in this case was PBS, pH 6.2. After extensive dialysis at room temperature against this buffer, the Mengo virion capsids had largely dissociated into $(\alpha\beta\gamma)_5$ subunits, as assayed by electron microscopy. The dissociated virus suspension was added to the center well, and specific antisera (also dialyzed against PBS) to the outer wells. "C" indicates control serum.

TABLE 3

COMPLEMENT-FIXATION TESTS

(A) SERUM TITERS[a] VS. DISRUPTED VIRUS

Serum	Titer
Anti-αβγ	1280
Anti-αβ	640
Anti-α	1280
Anti-β	1280
Anti-γ	320
Anti-δ	<20
Control[c]	<20

(B) ANTIGEN TITERS[b] VS. INTACT AND DISRUPTED VIRUS

Serum	Intact Virus	Disrupted Virus
Anti-α	8	16
Anti-β	32	256
Anti-γ	<4	16
Anti-δ	<4	<4
Control[c]	<4	<4

[a] Reciprocal of the highest dilution of serum producing 50% hemolysis

[b] Reciprocal of the highest dilution of antigen producing 50% hemolysis at maximum serum titer

[c] Control titers are those of pre-immunization rabbit serum

intact virion, a second part of each must remain buried in the interior of the capsid and thus be inaccessible to specific antibodies. The antigenic determinants of the γ polypeptides appear not to be exposed to the external environment since anti-γ serum produces a positive CF result only when the virus is disrupted. The fact that the antigen titer for the anti-α serum remains about the same whether the virion is intact or disrupted suggests that most of the α determinants are exposed on the surface of the native virion.

No conclusions about the location of the δ polypeptide could be drawn from these studies, since no CF titer was observed for the anti-δ serum. Attempts to demonstrate CF activity at antigen dilutions less than 1:4 were not successful because of the anti-complementarity of the concentrated virus in the antigen controls (which was not alleviated by pretreatment with guinea pig complement). The anti-δ serum did, however, exhibit activity in the immuno-diffusion test using disrupted virus. This difference is probably explained by the high sensitivity of the immuno-diffusion test compared to the CF test (Schmidt, 1969).

PN, PNE and HI tests

Data obtained from plaque-neutralization, plaque-neutralization enhancement and hemagglutination-inhibition experiments indicate that only antibodies specific for the α polypeptides were able to block the attachment of virus

to susceptible cells (Table 4). Antibodies specific for
the β polypeptide were not able to do so, even though they
were able to produce positive results in the immunodiffusion
and CF tests.

The very high relative titers obtained with the anti-
αβγ serum are probably due to the fact that the antigen used
to produce this serum was in an undenatured form, while all
the other sera were produced using SDS-denatured polypeptide
antigens. The low titers of the anti-αβ and anti-α sera
were probably not due to the respective omission of γ and
βγ polypeptides from the immunizing antigen mixture since
the addition of anti-β and/or anti-γ serum to the anti-α
serum (or, similarly, the addition of anti-γ serum to the
anti-αβ serum) did not produce an increase in the PN, PNE
or HI titers. Also, the similarities in CF titer for the
anti-α , -β and - γ sera indicate that the inability of the
β and/or γ polypeptides to produce neutralizing antibodies
was not due to their denaturation by SDS, since the α poly-
peptide was in a similar state. Thus, the PN, PNE and HI
tests demonstrate that the α polypeptides alone are
responsible for the initial attachment of Mengo virions to
receptors on L cells and human erythrocytes.

Discussion

Results of the solid state lactoperoxidase-catalyzed

TABLE 4

Plaque-Neutralization (PN), Plaque-
Neutralization Enhancement (PNE) and
Hemagglutination-Inhibition (HI) Titers of
Antisera against Mengo Capsid Polypeptides

Serum	PN ti-ter[a]	PNE titer[a]	HI ti-ter[b]
Anti-αβγ	204,800	N.T.[c]	2560
Anti-αβ	12,800	N.T.	160
Anti-α	800	3200	40
Anti-β	100	200	<10
Anti-γ	100	200	<10
Anti-δ	100	200	<10
Control (preim-munization) se-rum	100	100	<10

[a] Expressed as the reciprocal of the highest dilu-
tion of serum resulting in a 50% inhibition of virus
plaque formation.

[b] Expressed as the reciprocal of the highest dilu-
tion of serum that blocked hemagglutination by 4
HAU of virus. Human type O cells (as 1.5% suspen-
sions in borate buffer) were used.

[c] N.T., not tested.

iodination ⬤ intact Mengo virions has demonstrated that the
surface characteristics of the virion are contributed mainly
by the α and - to a lesser extent - the β polypeptides.
This finding is in general agreement with that reported
for several other picornaviruses. Iodination of rhino-
virus type 2 resulted in incorporation of ^{125}I primarily
into VP2 polypeptides, with small amounts of radioactivity
being found in the VPL and VP3 polypeptides (Lonberg-
Holm and Butterworth, 1976). Similar experiments with FMDV
(Talbot et al., 1973; Sanger et al., 1976), bovine entero-
virus (Carthew and Martin, 1974) and poliovirus (Lonberg-
Holm and Butterworth, 1976) all demonstrated almost
exclusive iodination of VP1. In no instance was ^{125}I
incorporated into the VP4 polypeptides of an intact pico-
rnavirus. The lack of labeling was not due to a lack of
tyrosine residues in this polypeptide species since VP4/
VP0 in empty capsid structures did incorporate label (Carthew
and Martin, 1974; Lonberg-Holm and Butterworth, 1976).
Empty capsids are not produced in vivo by Mengo virus, nor
can they be formed in vitro, but each of the δ polypeptides
does contain three tyrosine residues (Ziola and Scraba,
1975), and these are readily iodinated when the capsid
structure is disrupted (Figure 2D). Thus a general feature
of the picornavirus capsid appears to be that one of the
three largest polypeptide species contributes most of the
external surface characteristics, with one or both of the
others making minor contributions.

Some degree of caution is necessary, however, when interpreting the results of iodination experiments. Unless the correct labeling period and reaction conditions are chosen, extensive iodination can cause extensive conformational changes and even degradation of the capsid structure (Carthew and Martin, 1974; Table 2). Thus polypeptides which normally do not have tyrosine residues exposed to the external environment may appear to be part of the external capsid structure. In addition, the assumption that the tyrosine residues are randomly distributed along a polypeptide chain may not be correct, and a polypeptide which is partially exposed on the exterior of the capsid may not be detected if all of its tyrosine residues are buried in the interior.

Reactions of intact Mengo virions with antisera specific for individual polypeptides have confirmed the iodination results. Immunodiffusion and complement fixation experiments showed that only the α and β polypeptides are exposed on the external surface of the capsid (Figure 3A, Table 3B). The γ and δ polypeptides appear to occupy internal locations, and their antigenic determinants are only exposed to the external environment when the capsid is disrupted (Figure 3B, Table 3B). Thus, neither the tyrosine residues nor the antigenic determinants of the γ and δ polypeptide species are located on the external surface of the virion.

Rowlands et al. (1971) showed by studies on the

immunogenicity of trypsin-treated FMDV that VP1 was responsible for the stimulation of neutralizing antibodies to the virus.

Results of the HI, PN and PNE tests reported here demonstrated that the analogous α polypeptides are responsible for the attachment of Mengo virions to susceptible cells (Table 4). Antisera specific for the β, γ or δ polypeptides did not contain neutralizing activity. This is especially interesting in the case of β, which was shown by CF and immunodiffusion tests to be at least partially exposed on the exterior of the intact capsid. Apparently, binding of anti-β antibodies to the surface of the Mengo virion does not inhibit its attachment to cellular receptors.

It has been demonstrated that the ability of polio- and rhinovirions to attach to cells is dependent on the native or D conformation of the virus capsid. Alteration of the conformation to the C form results in a loss of infectivity. The location of the site(s) responsible for attachment to cells and for binding of neutralizing anti- bodies in the D form has been the subject of some contro- versy. Breindl (1971a,b) proposed that the VP4 polypeptides expressed these activities, since the D to C conformational change was accompanied by the loss of VP4 (Crowell and Philipson, 1971; Korant et al., 1972). An alternative model has been proposed in which the D and C forms reflect different polypeptide conformations on the surface of the virion, with the attachment of virions to cells being

dependent on the presence of the entire intact D surface
conformation (Noble and Lonberg-Holm, 1973; Korant et al.,
1975; Butterworth et al., 1975). Enzymatic iodination
studies of empty capsids (C conformation) provided data
which is consistent with the hypothesis. Naturally-occurring
empty capsids of bovine enterovirus showed increased labeling
of VP0 and VP3; in contrast to the native virion which was
labeled in VP1 only (Carthew and Martin, 1974). Artificially
produced empty capsids of poliovirus incorporated an increased
amount of ^{125}I into the VP2 polypeptides, while intact virus
was labeled primarily in the VP1 polypeptides (Lonberg-Holm
and Butterworth, 1976; Beneke et al., 1977). In no case was
VP4 in an intact virion labeled by surface-active reagents.
The presence of two isoelectric forms of picornaviruses
(Mandel, 1971; Chlumecka et al., 1973; Korant et al., 1975)
is also consistent with the second model.

The inability of cardioviruses to form stable empty
capsids has prevented the extension of the experiments
described above to the Mengo virion. However, the data
presented in this chapter is still compatible with the
second model, with the qualification that only one poly-
peptide, α, possesses the immunogenic and cell attachment
sites. The same would appear to be true for FMDV (Cavanagh
et al., 1977).

IV.   ISOLATION AND PARTIAL CHARACTERIZATION OF MENGOVIRUS-SPECIFIC POLYPEPTIDES E, F AND VPg

Introduction

The discovery of an RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RNA replicase) activity in picornavirus-infected cells (Baltimore and Franklin, 1962; Baltimore et al., 1963b; Dalgarno and Martin, 1965) has prompted much research in an effort to identify and characterize the viral polypeptide(s) responsible for this activity. Results of such studies have suggested that NCVP4 (E) (Rosenberg et al., 1972; Lundquist et al., 1974; Loesch and Arlinghaus, 1975; Traub et al., 1976; Polatnick et al., 1967), NCVP1 (A) (Röder and Koschel, 1975) or NCVP2 (D) (Korant, 1975) plays some role in RNA replicase activity. However, in only two instances has a template-dependent replicase activity been demonstrated (Traub et al., 1976; Flanegan and Baltimore, 1977).

The covalent linkage of a small protein (termed VPg) of molecular weight about 4,000 to the 5'-end of virion RNA has been reported for EMC, polio and FMD viruses (Hruby and Roberts, 1978; Lee et al., 1976; Sanger et al., 1977). It has been suggested that VPg may play some role in initiation of viral RNA synthesis (Flanegan et al., 1977; Nomoto et al., 1977).

Comparatively little work has been done to examine the proteolytic processes by which the stable capsid and noncapsid

proteins are generated in infected cells. Korant [illegible]
that the initial cleavages are probably mediated by [illegible]
[illegible] (1972) and that the secondary ones are more likely
mediated [illegible] viral-specific enzyme [illegible]. The identity of
the [illegible] not [illegible]
established, although Shih and Scraba (1976) and Pelham
(1978) have suggested that P is a possible candidate for the
viral protease.

This chapter is a report of the isolation of the Mengo
virus noncapsid polypeptides E and F from infected cell
lysates. This was accomplished by chromatographic procedures
using denaturing and non-denaturing conditions. Partial
characterization of the polypeptides isolated using the non-
denaturing conditions is also reported. Results indicate
that the Mengo virus polypeptide E possesses RNA polymerase
activity that is dependent upon exogenous viral RNA template
and primer.

Evidence is also presented that a VPg protein is at-
tached to the RNA of Mengo virus.

Materials and Methods

Preparation of infected cell extracts

Confluent monolayers of L cells in roller bottles were
infected at a m.o.i. of 100 pfu/cell with M-Mengo virus sus-
pended in a 5.0 ml of virus diluent. The bottles were

... for 1 hr to allow virus attachment. They were

... with warm (37°) PBS and overlayed with ...

... horse serum. At 3.5 hr ...

... medium was replaced with amino acid-...

... (Sigma), and the monolayers incubated for one hr to

deplete the intracellular pools of amino acids. At 4.5 hr

post-infection, the cells were pulse-labeled by removing

the amino acid-deficient medium, rinsing the monolayers

once with warm (37°) PBS and incubating with 10 ml of amino

acid-deficient medium containing 1% horse serum, 25 mM

HEPES and 5 μCi/ml ^{14}C-amino acids (NEC 445, New England

Nuclear) for 0.5 hr. At 5.0 hr post-infection the labeling

medium was removed, the monolayers washed once with warm

(37°) PBS and then incubated for 1 hr with BME containing

1% horse serum and 10^{-6} M pactamycin (a gift from the Drug

Development Branch, Division of Cancer Treatment, National

Cancer Institute, U.S.A.). At 6.0 hr post-infection the

medium was removed and the monolayers washed three times

with 25 ml cold (4°) PBS. Cells were collected from roller

bottles by scraping into a fourth aliquot of cold PBS and

pelleting by low speed centrifugation. The washed cells

were lysed with either PBS (minus Ca^{+2} and Mg^{+2} salts) con-

taining 1% NP-40 (Shell Oil of Canada, Ltd.) or 0.05 M TRIS

base, 0.05 M sodium phosphate (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M

KCl and 1% NP-40 ("lysis buffer"; 1 - 2 ml per roller bottle

of cells). Nuclei were removed by low speed centrifugation

(1000 g for 10 min) and the lysate clarified by centrifugation in a SW.50.1 rotor at 37,000 rpm at 4° for 1 hr. The supernatant from this step, denoted S_{37}, was subsequently subjected to affinity chromatography as outlined below.

Affinity chromatography of cell lysates

Antiserum directed against the capsid proteins of Mengo virus was prepared in rabbits using heat-disrupted (56° for 10 min) virions as antigen. Immunization was initiated by injection of 250 μg protein intravenously plus 250 μg intramuscularly, the intramuscular injection aliquot being suspended in an equal volume of Freund's complete adjuvant and PBS. Fourteen days after the first injections, an additional 250 μg of disrupted virus antigen was injected intravenously, followed at 4 day intervals by additional intravenous injections. Blood was collected one week after the fourth intravenous injection, and serum prepared by allowing it to clot at room temperature for 1 hr and then stand overnight at 4° before centrifuging (1000 g for 10 min). The IgG fraction was purified from serum by ammonium sulfate precipitation followed by chromatography on DE-52 cellulose (Whatman Biochemicals Ltd.) and lyophylization of the fractions containing anti-Mengo IgG's.

IgG from 20 ml of immune serum was resuspended in 15 ml of 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) and mixed overnight at 4° with 1 g of Affi-Gel 10 (Bio-Rad Laboratories), a N-hydroxysuccinimide ester of agarose to which the IgG couples

through its free amino groups (Cuatrecasas and Parikh, 1972).
Following coupling, the gel-immobilized antibody was washed
with PBS and poured into a column with dimensions (diameter
x length) of 0.8 x 25 cm. The column was washed with 0.1 M
TRIS-HCl containing 3.0 M NaSCN and 1% NP-40 ("elution
buffer") and then equilibrated with the appropriate lysis
buffer.

S$_{37}$ infected cell lysates (2 - 3 ml) were loaded onto
the column at 4° and washed through at a flow rate of 0.5 -
1.0 ml/hr. The protein peak, as monitored by radioactivity,
was pooled and used in the procedures detailed below. The
column was recycled by washing with elution buffer followed
by equilibration with lysis buffer.

SDS-hydroxylapatite chromatography

When used in this procedure, the infected-cell lysate
was made in PBS (minus Ca^{+2} and Mg^{+2} salts) containing 1%
NP-40, and the affinity column was equilibrated with the same
buffer.

A 1 ml aliquot of the noncapsid polypeptide peak from
the affinity column was made 2% SDS, and 5% β-mercaptoethanol,
then heated at 100° for 5 min. The solution was then diluted
10-fold with 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 6.2), and loaded
onto a 0.8 x 15 cm column of DNA grade hydroxylapatite (Bio-
Rad Laboratories) equilibrated with 0.01 M sodium phosphate
(pH 6.2) containing 0.1% SDS and 1 mM dithiothreitol ("column
buffer"). After washing with 3 to 4 bed volumes of column

buffer, the polypeptides were eluted at a flow rate of 4 ml/ hr with a linear gradient derived from 0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 6.2) and 0.6 M sodium phosphate (pH 6.2), both buffers containing 0.1% SDS and 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT). Aliquots of fractions were spotted on filter discs which were dried and counted using a toluene-based fluor. Conductivity measurements of selected fractions were converted to molarity of phosphate by using a standard curve. Selected peaks from the column were pooled as indicated in Figure 9, dialyzed against 0.1% SDS in distilled water and lyophilized. Aliquots were resuspended in 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) containing 2% SDS and 5% β-mercaptoethanol, heated at 100° for 5 min and subjected to electrophoretic analysis on 10% polyacrylamide-0.1% SDS gels as described by Ziola and Seraba (1974).

SDS-Sephadex gel filtration chromatography

Lyophylized pools 2 and 3 from the SDS-hydroxylapatite column were each suspended in 0.3 ml distilled water, and SDS and β-mercaptoethanol added to 2% and 5% final concentrations, respectively. The resuspended material was heated at 100° for 5 min and then loaded onto separate 1.5 cm x 80 cm columns of G-100 superfine Sephadex (Pharmacia) equilibrated with 0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) containing 0.1% SDS and 1 mM DTT. The columns were operated at a flow rate of 4 ml/ hr, and fractions of 1.0 ml were collected and monitored for radioactivity as described above. Aliquots were removed from

each of the pooled regions indicated in Figures 13 and 14, dialyzed against 0.1% SDS in distilled water; and lyophilized. The SDS-protein residues were resuspended in 0.01 M sodium phosphate, (pH 7.2) and the final SDS and β-mercaptoethanol concentrations adjusted to 2% and 5% respectively: Following heating at 100° for 5 min, the polypeptide composition of each peak in Figures 13 and 14 was determined by electrophoresis in 10% polyacrylamide-0.1% SDS gels.

Bio-Gel A-5m filtration chromatography

Infected-cell lysates produced for this procedure were either suspended in PBS (minus Ca^{+2} and Mg^{+2} salts) containing NP-40, or 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M KCl and 1% NP-40, or 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M sodium phosphate, 0.05 M KCl and 1% NP-40. The affinity chromatography column was equilibrated with the same buffer in which the cell lysate was made. A 1.5 x 50 cm column of Bio-Gel A-5 m, 200 - 400 mesh (Bio-Rad Laboratories) was also equilibrated with the same buffer in which the cell lysate was made. A 1.0 ml aliquot of the non-capsid polypeptide peak from the affinity column was chromatographed at 4° on the Bio-Gel column using a flow rate of 6.0 ml/hr. One ml fractions were collected and monitored for radioactivity.

Aliquots from selected areas of the peaks were made 2% SDS and 5% β-mercaptoethanol, heated at 100° for 5 min and then dialyzed against 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) con-

taining 2% SDS and 5% β-mercaptoethanol. The dialyzed aliquots were subjected to electrophoretic analysis in 10% polyacrylamide-0.1% SDS gels.

Assay of polymerase activity

In a standard reaction mixture, 100 μl of enzyme preparation was added to 100 μl of assay mixture, the final concentration of reagents being: 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0), 0.05 M KCl, 0.005 M DTT, 0.5 mM GTP, 0.5 mM CTP, 0.5 mM ATP, 20 μCi ^{3}H-UTP/ml, 0.01 M MgCl$_2$, 2 μg actinomycin D/ml, 1.0 mM phosphoenolpyruvic acid (PEP), and 20 μg pyruvate kinase/ml. In those assays in which they were included, the final concentrations of Mengo viral RNA and oligo(dT)$_{11-19}$ were 20 μg/ml and 10 μg/ml, respectively. The reaction mixture was incubated at 37°, and at appropriate intervals an aliquot of 40 μl was removed and spotted onto filter paper which had been soaked with a solution containing 0.1 M sodium EDTA and 25 mM sodium pyrophosphate (pH 7.0), then dried. The filter paper discs were washed for 30 min with cold (0°) 10% trichloroacetic acid (TCA), twice for 10 min with cold 5% TCA and finally with 95% ethanol. The discs were allowed to dry and the TCA-insoluble radioactivity measured using a toluene-based fluor.

The unlabeled nucleotides were obtained from Terochem Laboratories Limited, DTT was from Bio Rad, ^{3}H-UTP (NET-380) was from New England Nuclear, actinomycin D was from Mann Research, PEP and pyruvate kinase were from Sigma, and

oligo(rU)$_{11-19}$ was from Collaborative Research. Mengo viral
RNA was prepared from freshly purified Mengo virions as
described by Scraba et al., (1967). Sedimentation velocity
runs of the viral RNA were carried out in a Spinco model E
ultracentrifuge before use in the assay in order to ensure
that the viral RNA was intact (35 S) and homogeneous.

Poly(A) Sepharose column chromatography

    Infected cell extracts were prepared as outlined above,
the only difference being that the lysis buffer in this case
was 0.05 M TRIS (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M KCl and 1%
NP-40. A column of poly(A) sepharose (Pharmacia) of dimen-
sions 0.8 × ?? cm was prepared and washed with 0.1 M TRIS-
HCl (pH 8.0) containing 90% formamide. The column was then
equilibrated with the lysis buffer. A one-ml aliquot of
the S$_{37}$ infected-cell lysate was loaded onto the column,
which was then washed with lysis buffer (4°) at a flow rate
of 6 ml/hr. After collecting 20 1-ml fractions, the buffer
was changed to 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 1.0 M
KCl and 1% NP-40 and an additional 20 fractions were col-
lected. The fractions were monitored for radioactivity,
and aliquots of the radioactive peaks were made 2% SDS and
5% β-mercaptoethanol, heated at 100° for 5 min and then
dialyzed against 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) containing
?% SDS and 5% β-mercaptoethanol. The polypeptide components
of each peak were analysed by electrophoresis in 10%
polyacrylamide-0.1% SDS gels.

Isolation of VPx

Purified ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled Mengo virions were dis-
rupted by heating at 100° for 5 min in a buffer consisting
of 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 6.5) containing 2% SDS and
2% mercaptoethanol. The RNA and polypeptides were separa-
ted by SDS-hydroxylapatite chromatography as described by
Ziola and Scraba (1975). The RNA peak, as detected by
absorbance at 260 nm, was pooled and dialyzed extensively
against 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) to remove the SDS.
RNA was precipitated by the addition of 2½ volumes of cold
95% ethanol and storage overnight at -20°. It was then col-
lected by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm for 30 min in a
JA-20 rotor (Beckman) at 4°. The RNA pellet was resuspended
in 400 μl of 0.01 M TRIS-HCl (pH 7.0) and divided into two
equal aliquots. RNase A (P-L Biochemicals); RNase T1 (P-L
Biochemicals) and bovine serum albumin (Sigma) were added
to each sample at final concentrations of 50 ug/ml, 100
units/ml and 400 ug/ml, respectively. Both samples were
incubated in polypropylene tubes at 37° for 1½ hr.
Proteinase K (MDH Chemicals) was then added to one sample
to a final concentration of 200 ug/ml, and both samples
were incubated for an additional 1½ hr at 37°. Following
incubation, the samples were precipitated by the addition
of 5 volumes of acetone. The precipitated products were
then analyzed by electrophoresis in 10% polyacrylamide-
0.1% SDS gels.

Results

Separation of Mengo virus non-capsid proteins from capsid proteins

A representative SDS polyacrylamide gel pattern of an infected cell lysate (labeled with ^{14}C amino acids) before the 37,000 rpm centrifugation step is shown in Figure 4. This pattern is identical to that observed previously for Mengo virus (Paucha et al., 1974) and is very similar to those produced by other picornaviruses (Summers and Maizel, 1968; Butterworth et al., 1971). Pactamycin (10^{-6} M) was added at 5 h p.i. to prevent any further initiation of viral RNA translation (MacDonald and Goldberg, 1970; Taber et al., 1971; Paucha et al., 1974), and all pre-existing precursor polypeptides were cleaved to stable end-products during the subsequent 1 hr chase period (Figure 4). This procedure was used because the capsid precursors were not totally removed from the lysate during the subsequent affinity chromatography step.

Centrifugation of the lysate at 37,000 rpm for 1 hr removed those cellular structures whose sedimentation co-efficient was greater than 60 S (ribosomes, polysomes, mitochondria). Also found in the pellet was a majority of the viral capsid proteins (Figure 5). The supernatant from this step contained primarily the stable non-capsid poly-peptides, but varying residual amounts of the capsid polypeptides were also present (Figure 6).
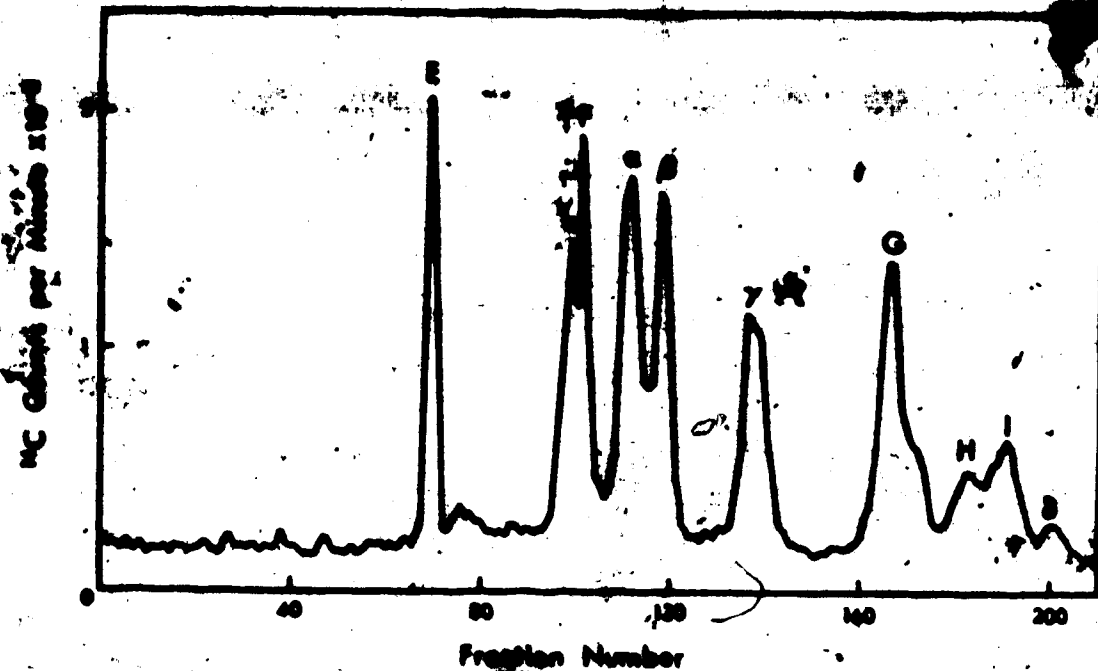
Figure 4. Electrophoresis in 0.1% polyacrylamide
gels of an L cell lysate at the initial stage of purifica-
tion (i.e. before the 37,000 rpm centrifugation step).
Infected cells were pulse-labeled with 14C-amino acids for
30 min at 4.5 hr post-infection, and then incubated for
1 hr in the presence of unlabeled amino acids and 10⁻⁶ M
pactamycin. Following electrophoresis at 8 mA/gel for
20 hr, the gels were frozen on dry ice and sliced into
1 mm fractions using a brass template. The slices were
incubated overnight at 50° with 0.3 ml of 5.7% water in
NCS tissue solubilizer (Amersham). Radioactivity was
measured following the addition of 5 ml of toluene-based
fluor to each gel slice.
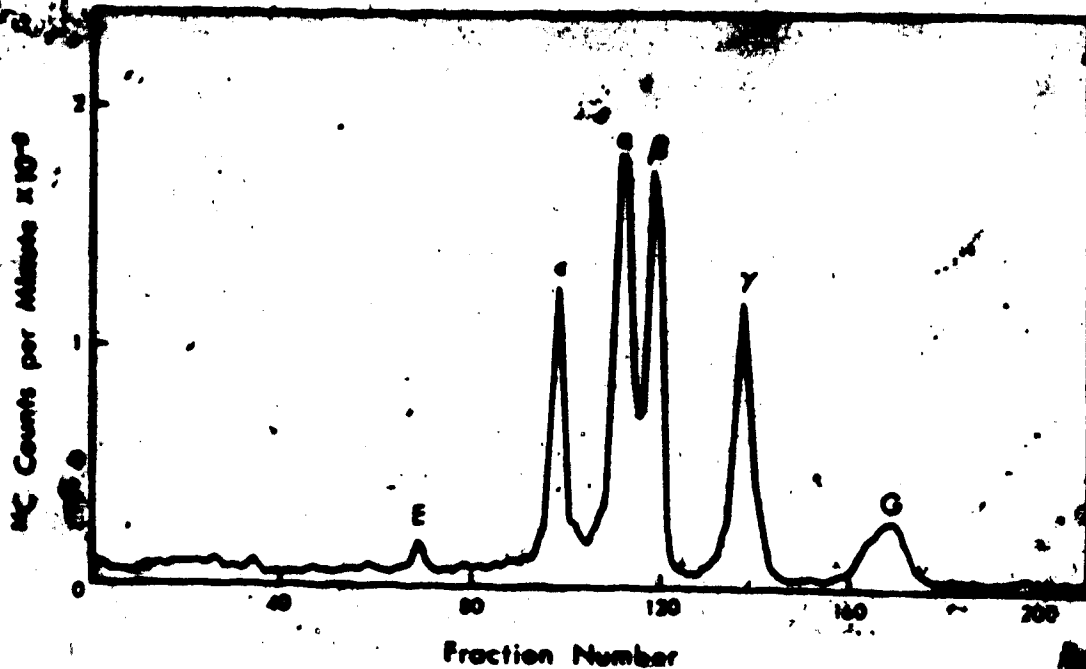
Figure 5. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the pellet obtained from the 37,000 rpm
centrifugation step. Lysates of infected cells (labeled
with ^{14}C-amino acids) were centrifuged at 37,000 rpm for
1 hr in a SW 50.1 rotor at 4°. The pellet was resuspended
in 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) containing 2% SDS and
5% β-mercaptoethanol and heated at 100° for 5 min before
being loaded onto the gels. Electrophoresis was at 8 mA/
gel for 20 hr; subsequently 1 mm gel slices were obtained
and assayed for radioactivity.
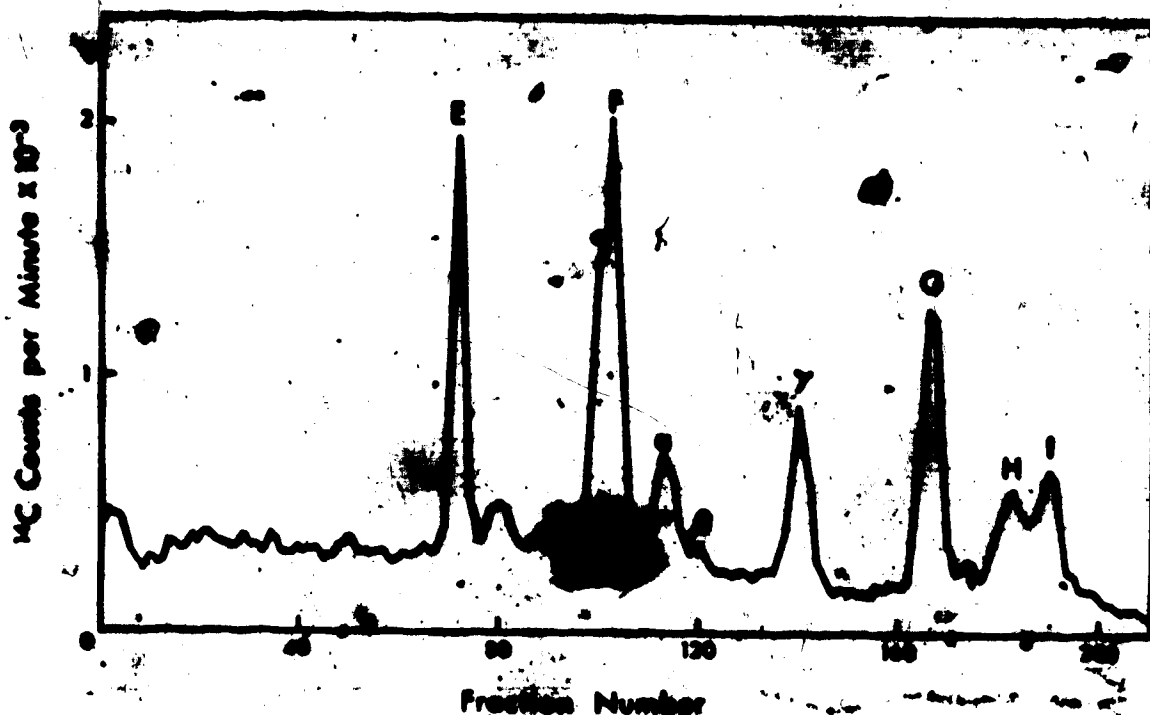
Figure 6. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the supernatant obtained from the 37,000
rpm centrifugation step ("S$_{37}$"). Following centrifugation
of the lysate, an aliquot of the supernatant was analyzed
by electrophoresis as described in the legend for Figure 4.

The remaining viral capsid polypeptides were removed
from the lysate by passage through an affinity column con-
sisting of viral capsid protein-specific IgG coupled to
agarose beads (Figure 7). The peak containing the non-
capsid polypeptides was pooled as indicated in Figure 9
(Pool 1) and used for subsequent procedures. The column
was recycled by removing bound capsid polypeptides using
a buffer containing 3.0 M NaSCN. Such an affinity column
was stable for several weeks at 4° and could be used
repeatedly for this adsorption procedure. An SDS-poly-
acrylamide gel profile of the material found in peak 1 of
the affinity column is shown in Figure 8. It is evident
that the capsid polypeptides have been completely removed,
leaving only the non-capsid and unlabeled host L cell
polypeptides in the lysate.

Separation of viral noncapsid polypeptides using denaturing conditions

The elution profile obtained when the affinity column-
adsorbed lysate was subjected to chromatography on hydroxy-
lapatite in the presence of SDS is shown in Figure 9. The
size of the first major peak, eluting between 0.3 and 0.35 M
sodium phosphate, varied considerably from preparation to
preparation. Analysis of this peak by SDS-polyacrylamide
gel electrophoresis revealed that there was no
peptide species present; counts were observed throughout the
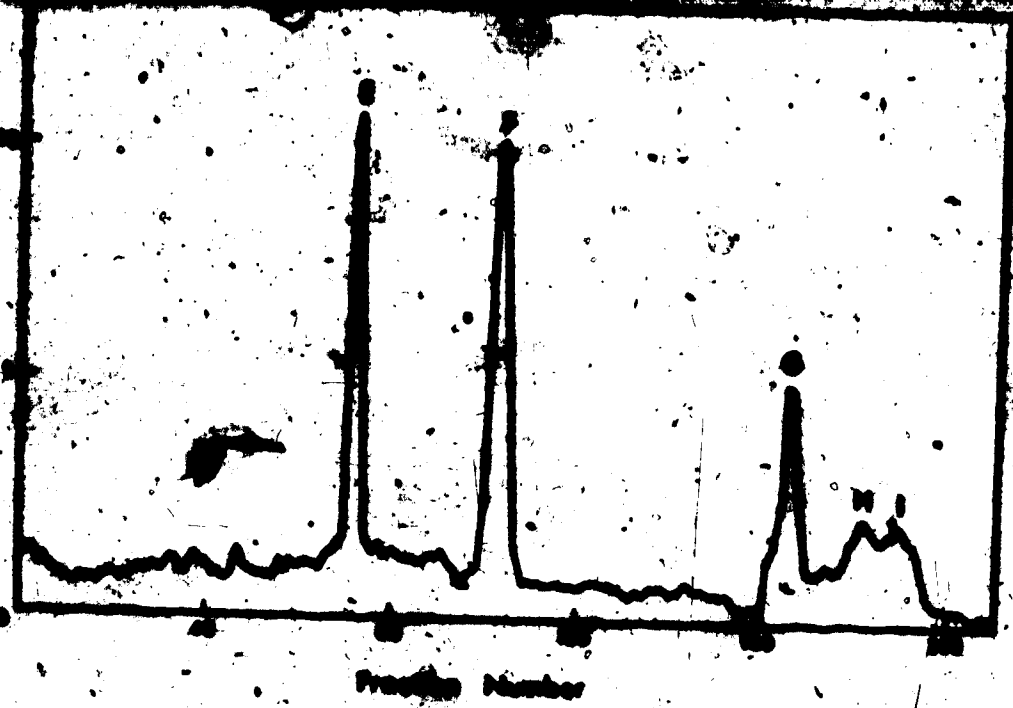gel and no major amounts of the noncapsid polypeptides were

Figure 8. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the noncapsid polypeptides present in
Pool I from the affinity chromatography column (Figure 7).
Conditions for electrophoresis, hybridization and radio-
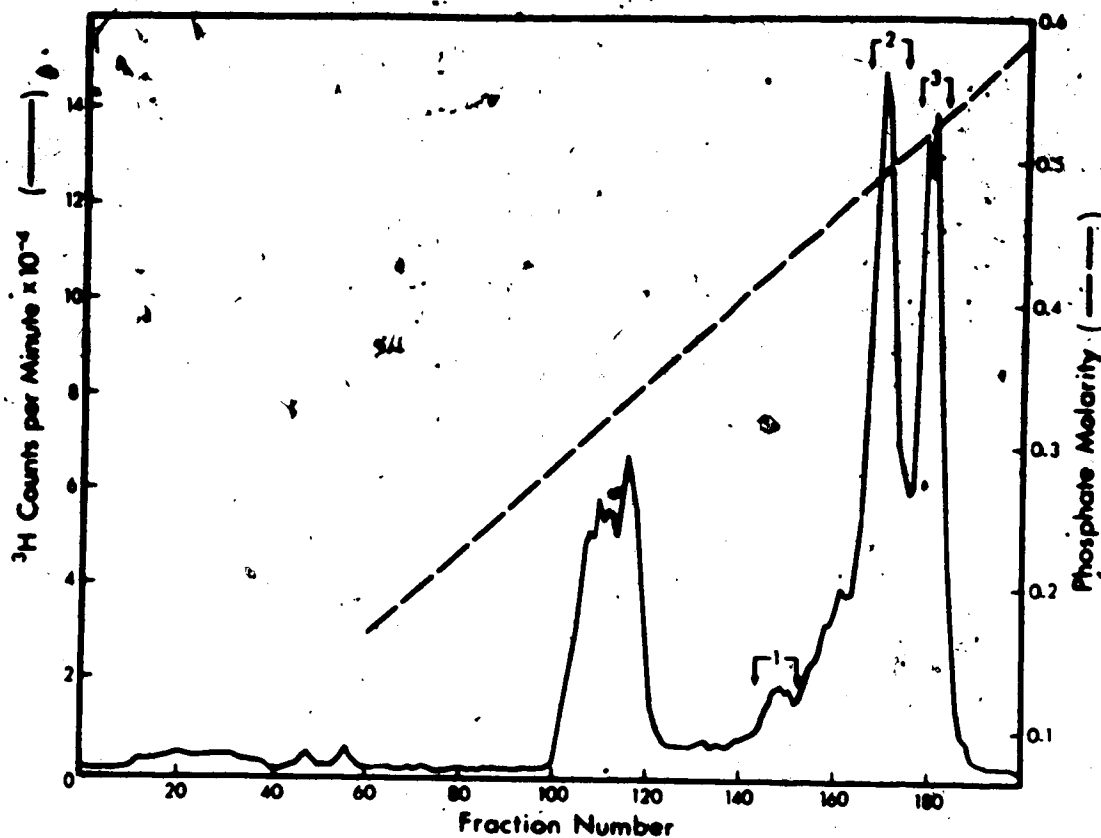activity counting were identical to those described in
the legend of Figure 4.

Figure 9.   SDS-hydroxylapatite chromatography of ^{3}H-amino acid-labeled noncapsid polypeptides from Pool 1 of the affinity chromatography column (Figure 7).   The polypeptides were eluted from the column by a 140 ml phosphate gradient (pH 6.2) constructed from 70 ml of 0.1 $\underline{M}$ sodium phosphate and 70 ml of 0.6 $\underline{M}$ sodium phosphate; both buffers containing 0.1% SDS and 1 $\underline{mM}$ DTT.   The numbers 1 to 3 identify the sets of fractions (1.0 ml) which were pooled for subsequent analysis.

present (not shown). The presence of this peak may indicate
that some degradation of the non-capsid polypeptides has
occurred during the purification procedures. SDS-poly-
acrylamide gel analysis of pools 1, 2 and 3 from Figure 9
is shown in Figures 10, 11 and 12, respectively. Pool 1
contained noncapsid polypeptide H plus a species migrating
slightly faster than polypeptide F. This second species
may represent a smaller, degraded form of F but positive
identification has not been made. Pool 2 contained the
viral noncapsid polypeptides F and G plus several host
polypeptides (detected by staining with Coomassie Blue).
Pool 3 was composed of the noncapsid polypeptides E and I
and several host polypeptides.

Chromatography of the F plus G polypeptide mixture
on Sephadex produced the elution pattern shown in Figure
13. A similar pattern was observed when the E plus I poly-
peptide mixture was chromatographed on Sephadex (Figure 14).
Analysis by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis revealed
that peak 1 in Figure 13 contained polypeptide F plus about
5 host cell polypeptides while peak 2 contained pure poly-
peptide G (Figure 15). Similarly, Figure 16 shows that
peak 1 from Figure 14 contained polypeptide E plus about
4 host cell polypeptides. Peak 2 contained pure I.

Thus, using this two-column procedure, relatively
pure preparations of E, F, G and I have been obtained.
Although it was not attempted in this study, polypeptide
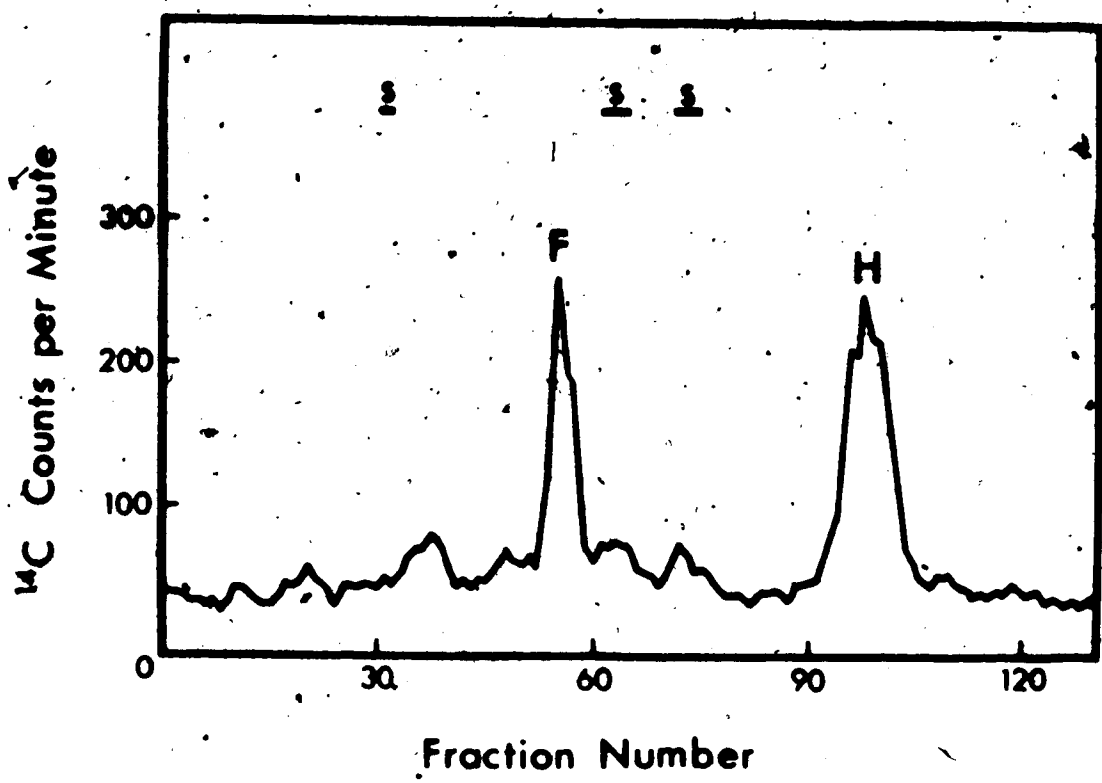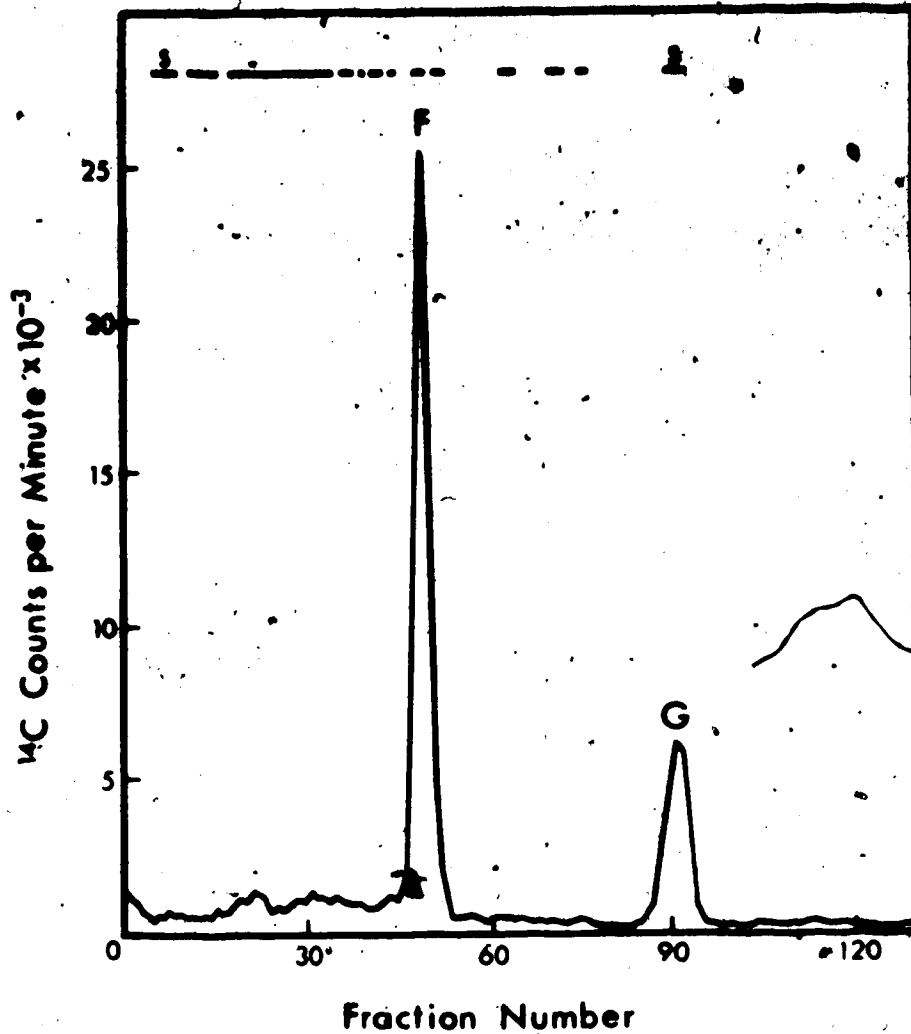H could probably be separated from the other main polypeptide

Figure 10. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the noncapsid polypeptides found in
Pool 1 from the SDS-hydroxylapatite column (Figure 9).
The Pool 1 region was dialyzed against 0.1% SDS in distilled
water, and lyophilized. Aliquots were suspended in 0.01 $\underline{M}$
sodium phosphate (pH 7.2), and SDS and β-mercaptoethanol
were added to 2% and 5% final concentrations. The sample
was heated at 100° for 5 min before being subjected to
electrophoresis. The bars above the profile (labeled "s")
indicate the position of Coomassie Blue-stained bands.
Electrophoresis was at 6 mA/gel for 12 hr. Conditions for
fractionation of the gels and radioactivity counting were
the same as those described in the legend to Figure 4.

Figure 11. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the noncapsid polypeptides found in Pool
2 from the SDS-hydroxylapatite column (Figure 9). The
sample was prepared and electrophoresed as described in
Figure 10. Bars above the profile labeled "s" indicate the
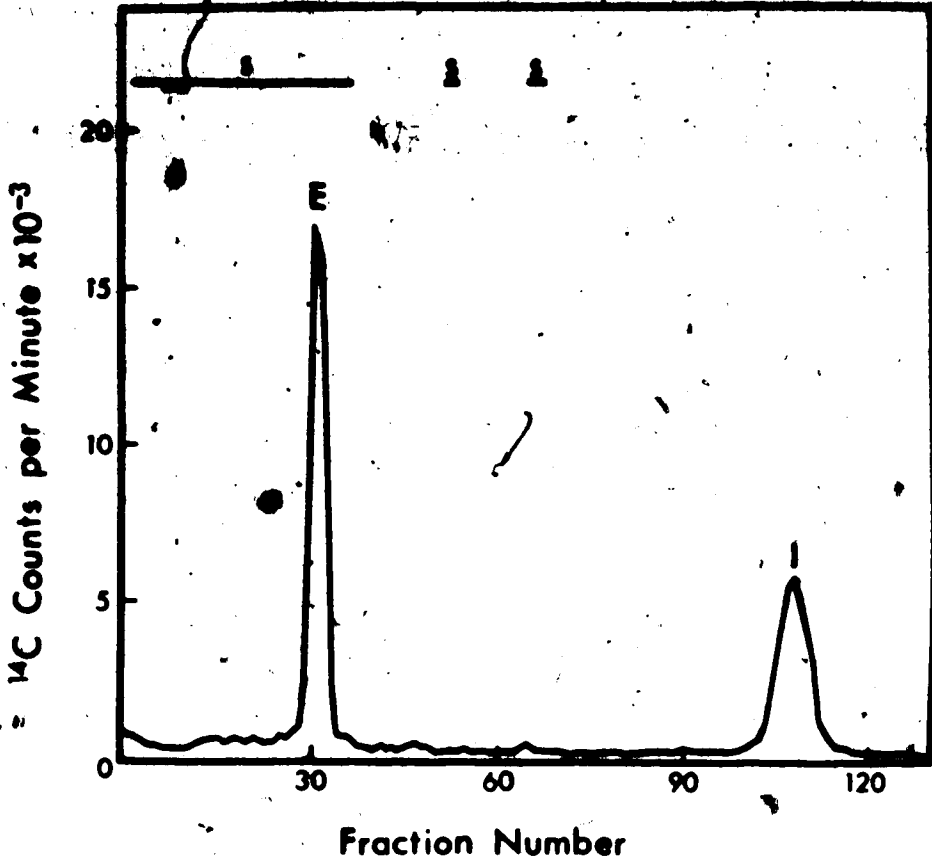position of Coomassie Blue-stained bands.

Figure 12. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the noncapsid polypeptides found in Pool
3 from the SDS-hydroxylapatite column (Figure 9). The
sample was prepared and electrophoresed as described in
Figure 10. Bars above the profile labeled "s" indicate the
position of Coomassie Blue-stained bands.
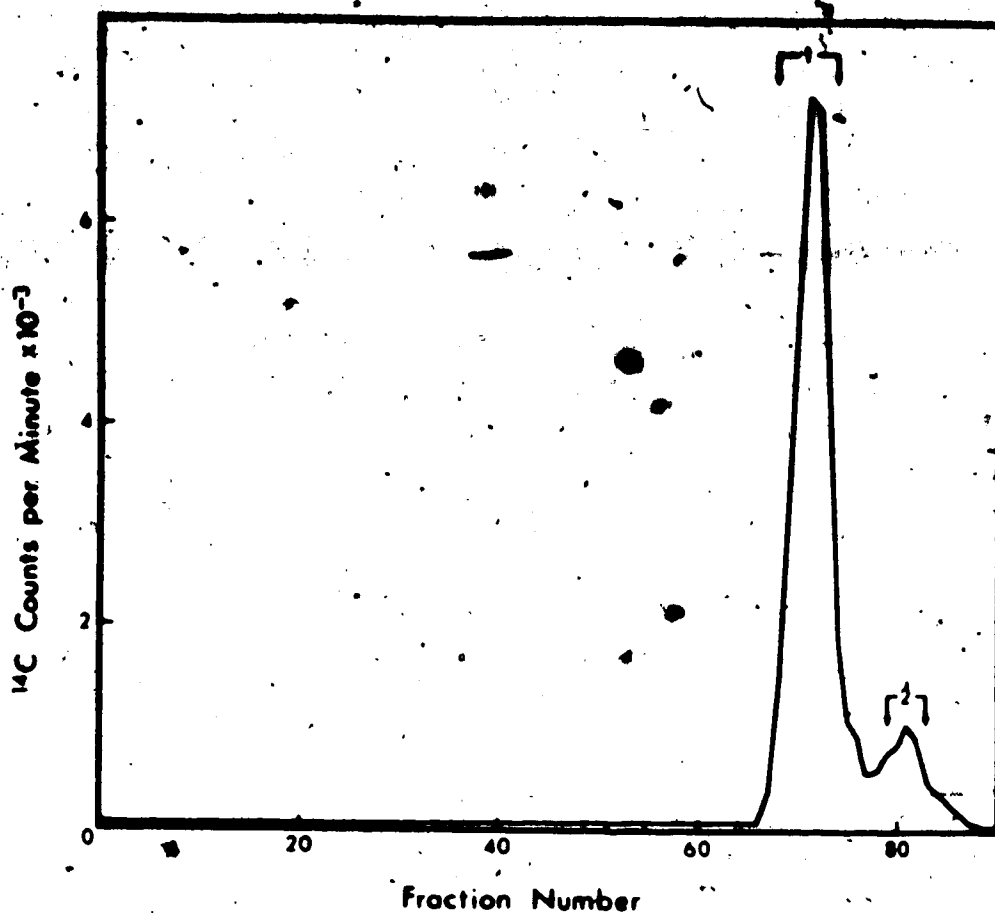
Figure 13. SDS-Sephadex G-100 chromatography of the non-capsid polypeptides from Pool 2 of the SDS-hydroxylapatite column (Figure 9). The dialyzed, lyophilized pooled fractions were resuspended in 0.3 ml distilled water, and the concentrations of SDS and β-mercaptoethanol adjusted to 2% and 5%, respectively. The sample was heated at 100° for 5 min and then chromatographed on the G-100 superfine Sephadex column. The column was eluted with 0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) containing 0.1% SDS at a flow rate of 6.0 ml/hr, and 0.5 ml fractions were collected. An aliquot of each fraction was assayed for radioactivity. The numbers 1 and 2 refer to the sets of fractions which were pooled.
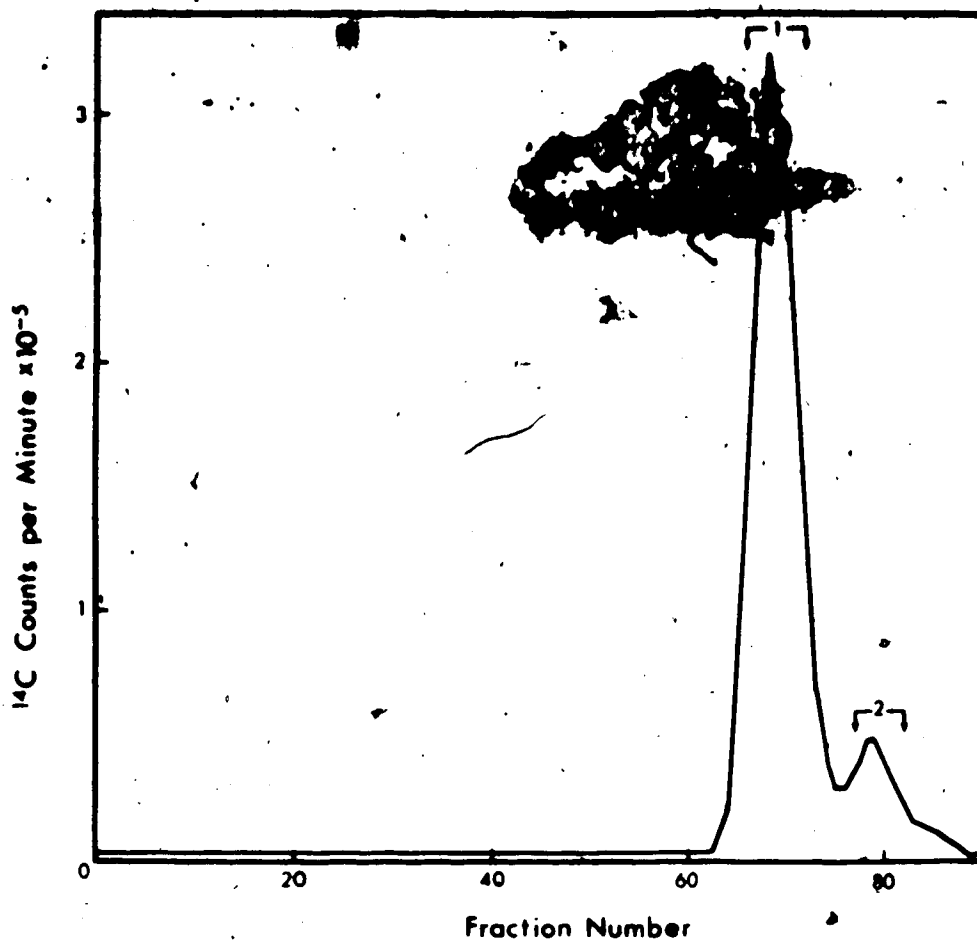
Figure 14. SDS-Sephadex G-100 chromatography of the non-capsid polypeptides from Pool 3 of the SDS-hydroxylapatite column (Figure 9). The material was prepared and chromatographed as described in Figure 13. The numbers 1 and 2 refer to the sets of fractions which were pooled.
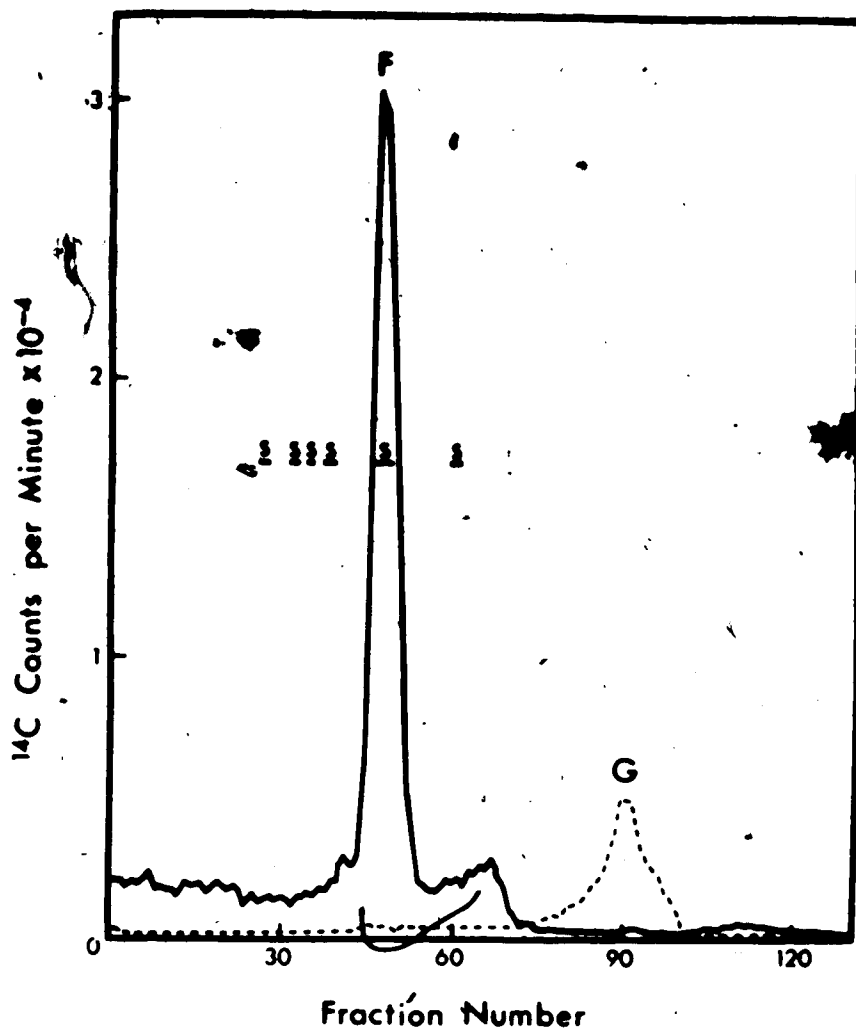
Figure 15. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the noncapsid polypeptides following
fractionation by G-100 Sephadex chromatography (Figure 13).
Aliquots of Pools 1 and 2 (Figure 13) were dialyzed against
0.1% SDS in water, lyophilized and prepared for electro-
phoresis as described in Figure 10. Material present in
Pool 1 is represented by the solid line, while the dashed
line represents material found in Pool 2. The conditions
for electrophoresis, fractionation of gels and radioactivity
determination were the same as those described in Figure 10.
The bars labeled "s" indicate the position of Coomassie
Blue-stained bands in the gel containing polypeptide F. No
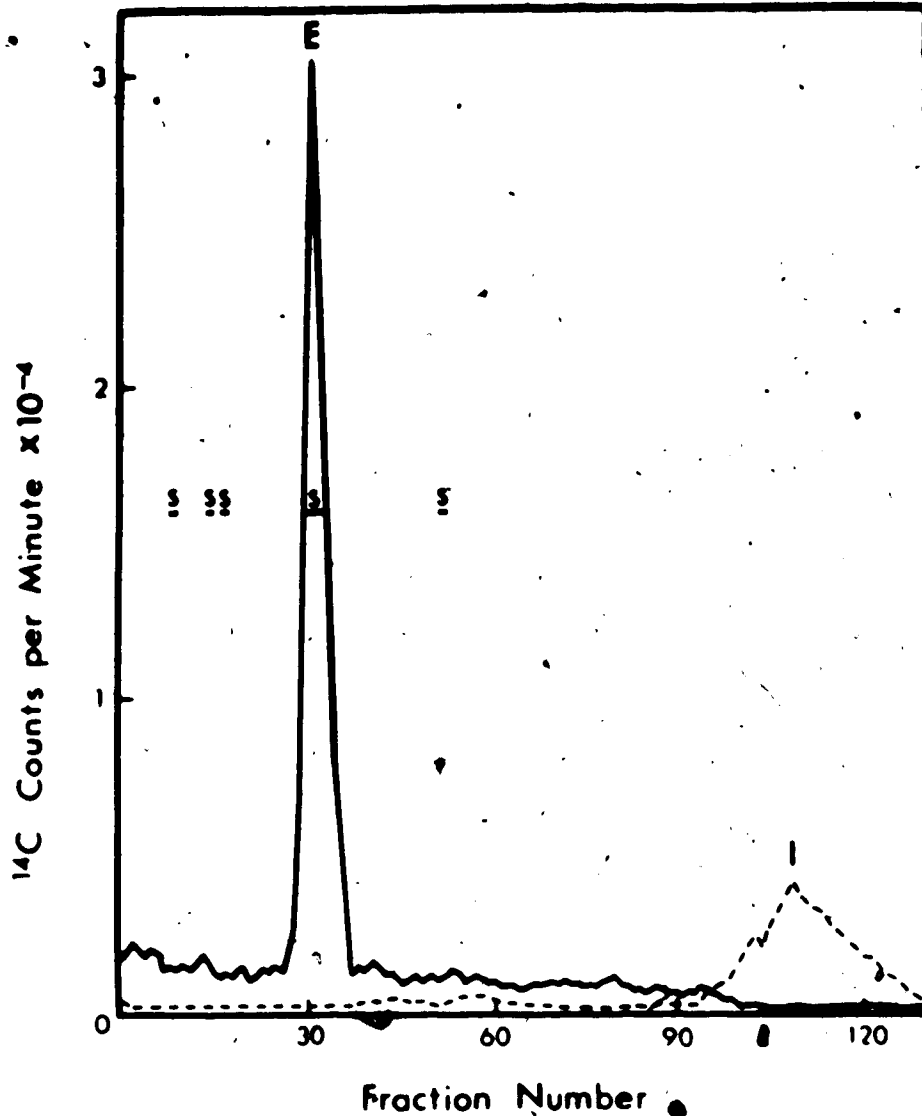such bands were observed in the gel containing polypeptide
G.

Figure 16. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-acrylamide gels of the noncapsid polypeptides following fractionation by G-100 Sephadex chromatography (Figure 14). Samples were prepared as in Figure 15. Material present in Pool 1 is represented by the solid line while the dashed line represents material found in Pool 2. The conditions for electrophoresis, fractionation of gels and radioactivity determination were as described in Figure 10. The bars labeled "s" indicate the position of Coomassie Blue-stained bands in the gel containing polypeptide E. No such bands were observed in the gel containing polypeptide I.

present in Pool 1 by chromatography on Sephadex. Preliminary
experiments have indicated that these polypeptide prepara-
tions are suitable for use as antigens to raise specific
antibodies in rabbits. SDS-complexed polypeptides have
frequently been used to produce specific antiserum (Johnson
et al., 1972; Pederson and Eddy, 1974; Croft et al., 1974;
Stumph et al., 1974; Lund et al., 1977). The host cell
polypeptides present in the E and F pools should pose no
difficulty since L cell proteins are poor antigens in
rabbits (Eva, Paucha, personal communication).

Separation of undenatured viral noncapsid polypeptides

Chromatography on Bio-Gel A-5m of the material from
the affinity column (Pool 1, Figure 7), employing PBS (minus
Ca^{+2} and Mg^{+2} salts) containing 1% NP-40 as the lysis and
column buffer, produced the profile shown in Figure 17.
Analysis by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of the
pools indicated on the graph showed that the leading edge
of peak 1 (Pool 1) contained F as the only noncapsid viral
polypeptide (Figure 18). Also present were 5 host poly-
peptides with similar molecular weights. Pool 2 also con-
tained polypeptide F, but large amounts of polypeptides G,
H and I were also present (Figure 19). Pool 3, the trailing
edge of the first peak, contained primarily polypeptide F
but there was some indication of small amounts of higher
molecular weight labeled contaminants (Figure 20). Ap-
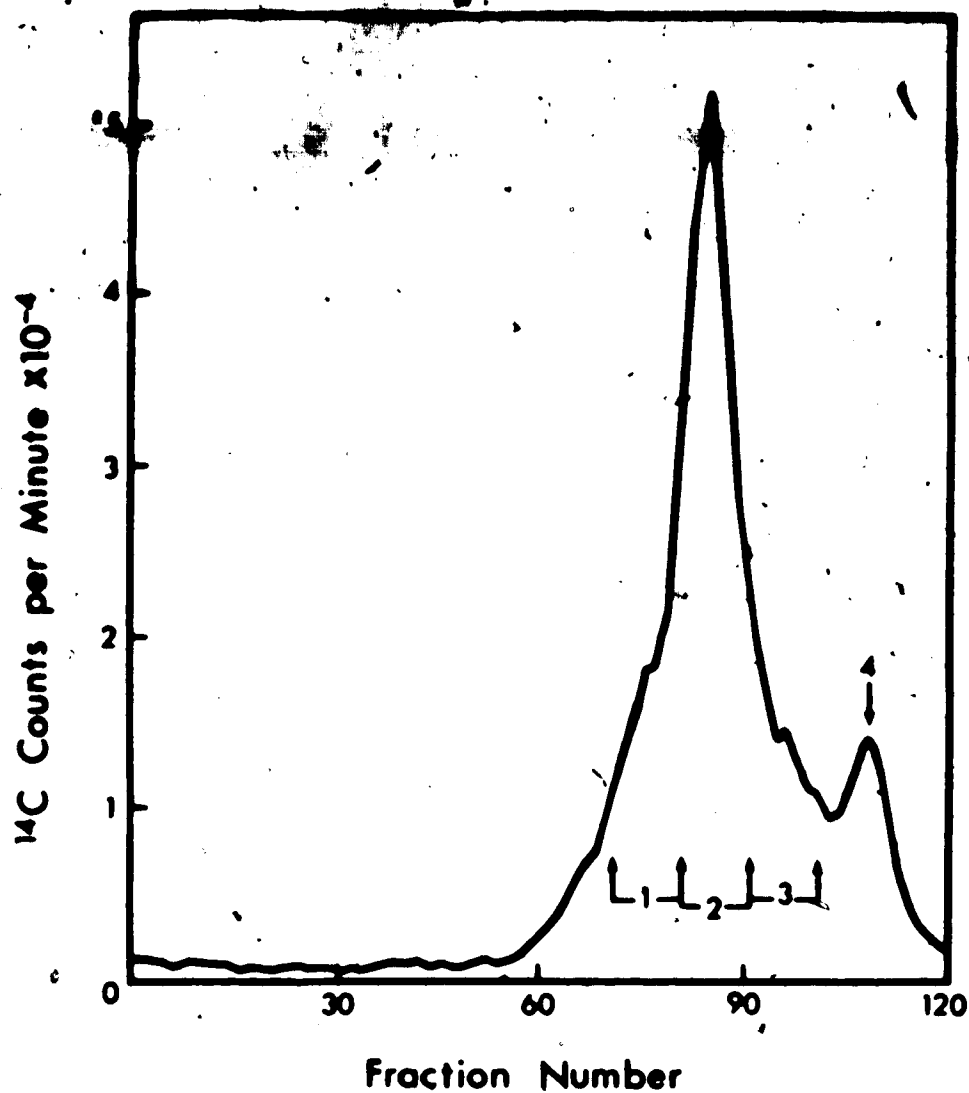proximately 5 host polypeptides were also present. Pool 4

Figure 17. Chromatography of ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled non-capsid polypeptides from Pool 1 of the affinity chromatography column (Figure 7) on Bio-Gel A-5m. Column and lysis buffer were PBS (minus Ca^{+2} and Mg^{+2} salts) containing 1% NP-40. The numbers 1 to 4 refer to the sets of fractions which were pooled. The Bio-Gel column was eluted at a flow rate of 6.0 ml/hr. Fractions of 1 ml were collected, and an aliquot of each assayed for radioactivity.
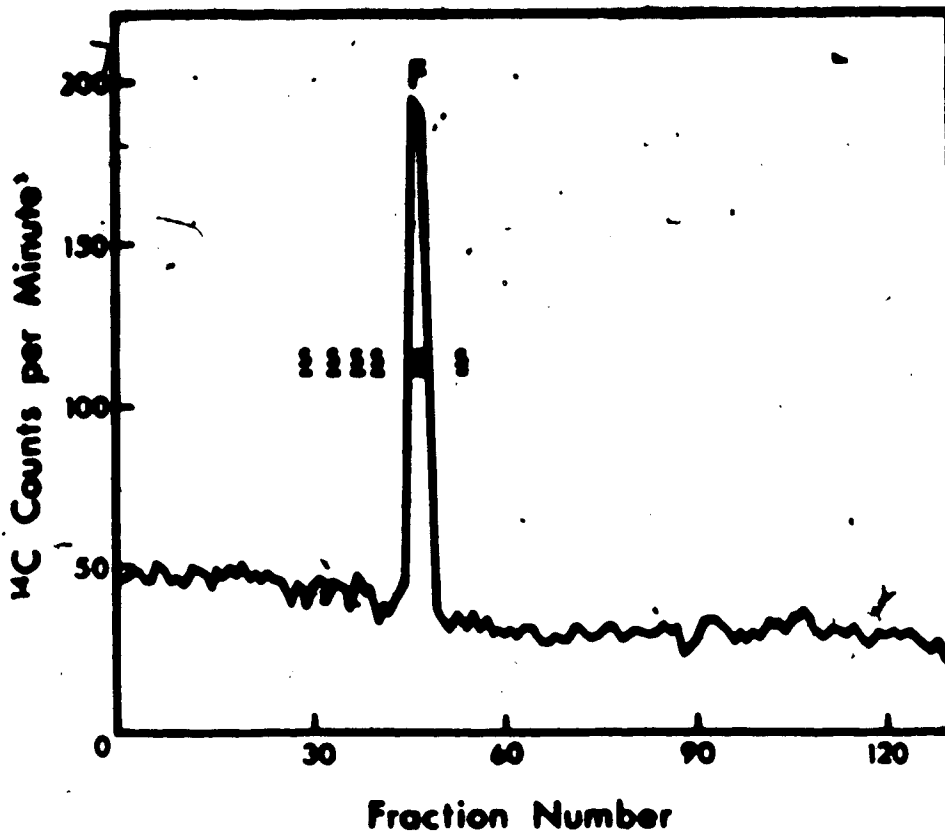
Figure 18. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the polypeptides found in Pool 1 from
the Bio-Gel A-5m column (Figure 17). An aliquot of the
pool was made 2% SDS and 5% β-mercaptoethanol, heated at
100° for 5 min and then dialyzed against 0.01 $\underline{M}$ sodium
phosphate (pH 7.2) containing 2% SDS and 5% β-mercapto-
ethanol. The dialyzed material was subsequently loaded
onto the gel, and electrophoresis and analysis carried
out as described in Figure 10. The bars labeled "s"
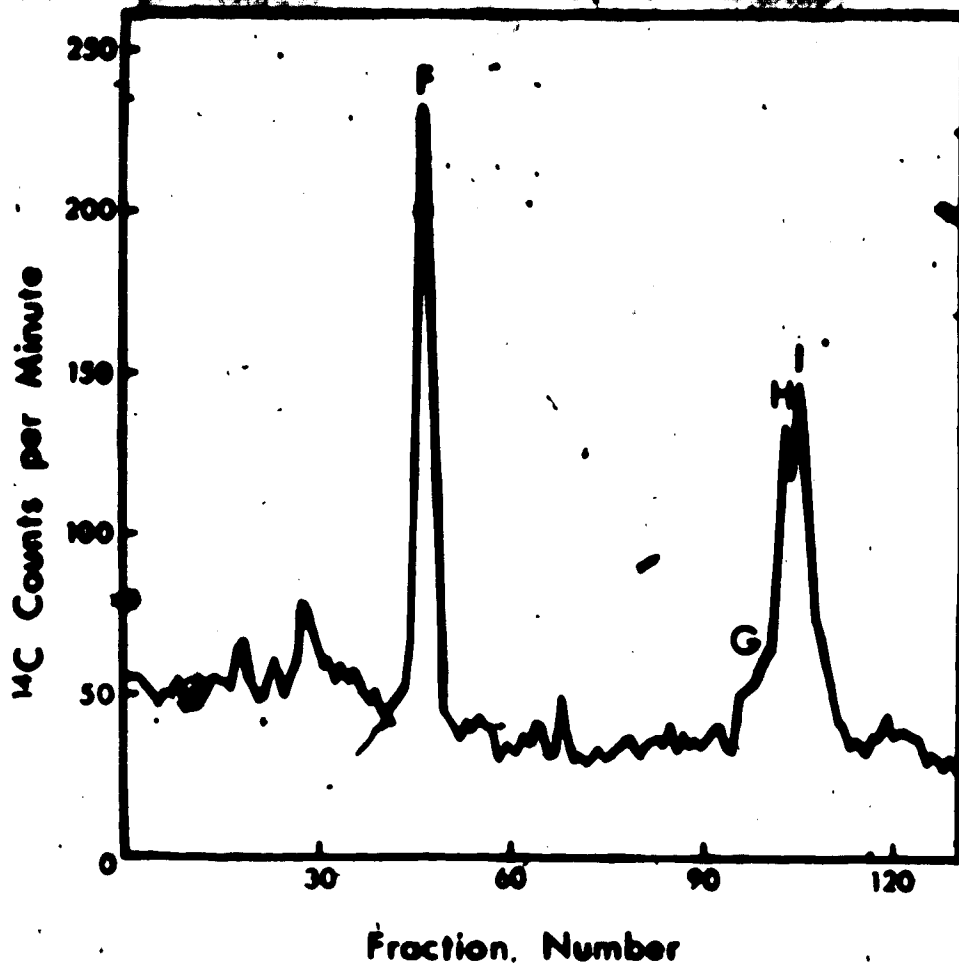indicate the positions of Coomassie Blue-stained bands.

Figure 19. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the polypeptides found in Pool 2 from
the Bio-Gel A-5m column (Figure 17). The sample was
prepared for analysis as in Figure 18. Conditions for
electrophoresis, fractionation of gels and radioactivity
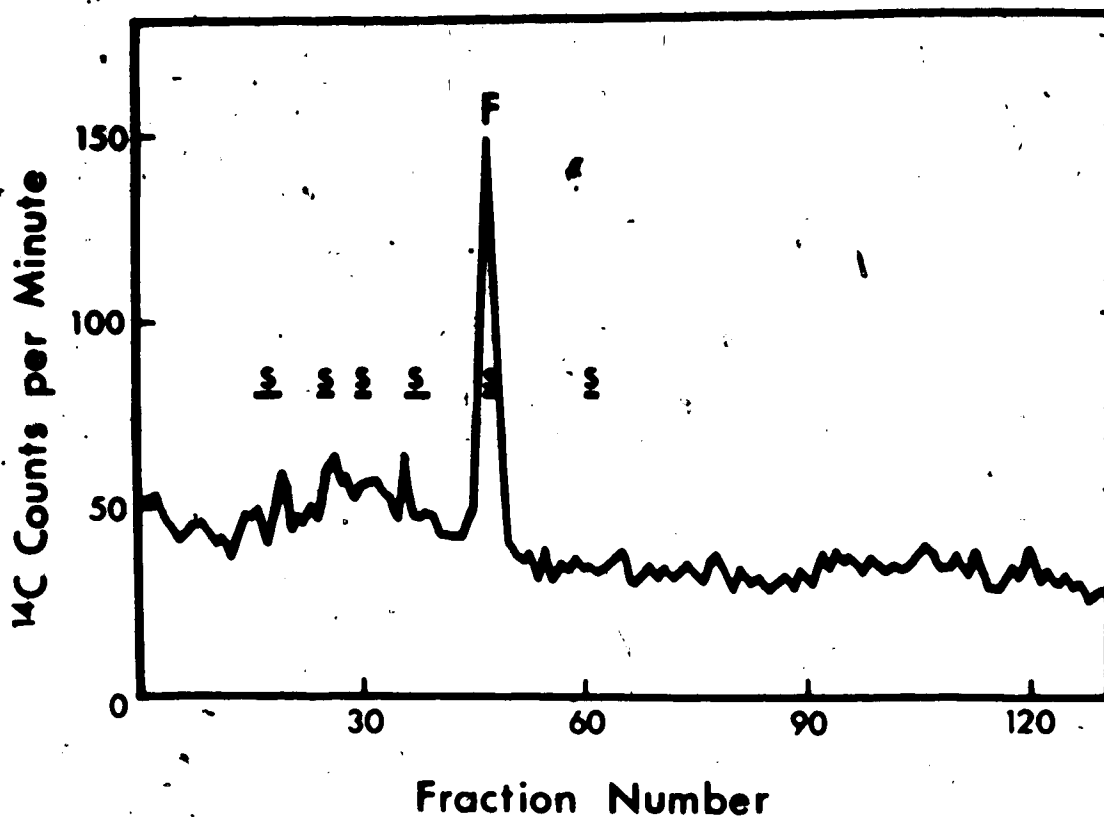measurement were identical to those described in Figure 10.

Figure 20. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-acrylamide gels of the polypeptides found in Pool 3 from the Bio-Gel A-5m column (Figure 17). The sample was prepared for analysis as in Figure 18. The bars labeled "s" identify the Coomassie Blue-stained bands. The conditions for electrophoresis, fractionation of gels and measurement of radioactivity were identical to those described in Figure 10.

from the Bio-Gel column contained E as the sole viral poly-
peptide plus 4 - 5 host polypeptides (Figure 21). This
procedure appeared to be suitable for the purification of
E for the purpose of assaying for a potential polymerase
activity. However, it was subsequently determined that
the viral polymerase activity found in the extracts was very
unstable when PBS buffer was used for the purification pro-
cedure (not shown). Activity was lost early during the
purification scheme. When 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) con-
taining 0.05 M KCl and 1% NP-40 was used for lysis and
column buffer, good recovery of activity was observed (not
shown) but the resolution of the E-containing peak from the
leading peak was poor (Figure 22). A compromise between
these two situations was achieved by employing 0.05 M TRIS +
0.05 M sodium phosphate (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M KCl and
1% NP-40 as the lysis and column buffer. The resolution of
the two peaks was good (Figure 23) and the activity was not
lost during the early stages of purification (see below).

The elution profiles observed in these Bio-Gel columns
were somewhat puzzling. Normally, one would expect that the
largest polypeptide species would elute from the column
first, followed in order of decreasing molecular weight,
by the smaller ones. The fact that the F, G, H and I poly-
peptides passed through the column before E suggests that
some sort of complex may have formed among these first
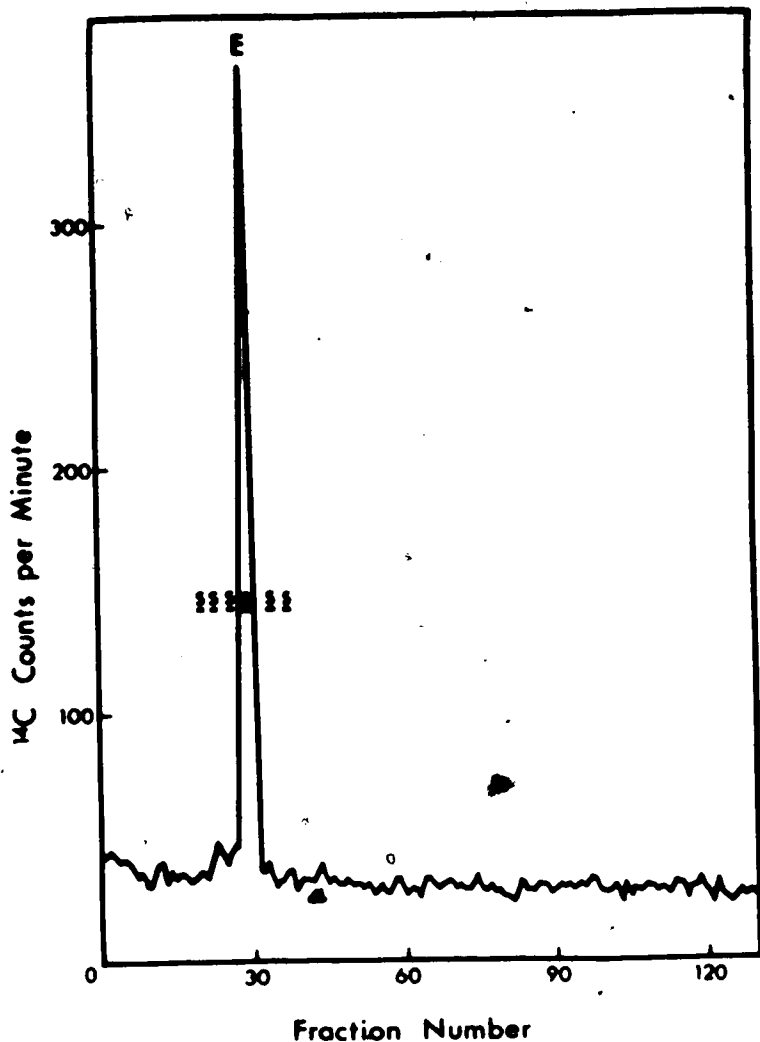four polypeptides. Analysis on glycerol gradients of

Figure 21. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the polypeptides found in Pool 4 from
the Bio-Gel A-5m column (Figure 17). The sample was
prepared for analysis as in Figure 18. The bars labeled
"s" identify the Coomassie Blue-staining bands. Conditions
for electrophoresis, fractionation of gels and·measurement
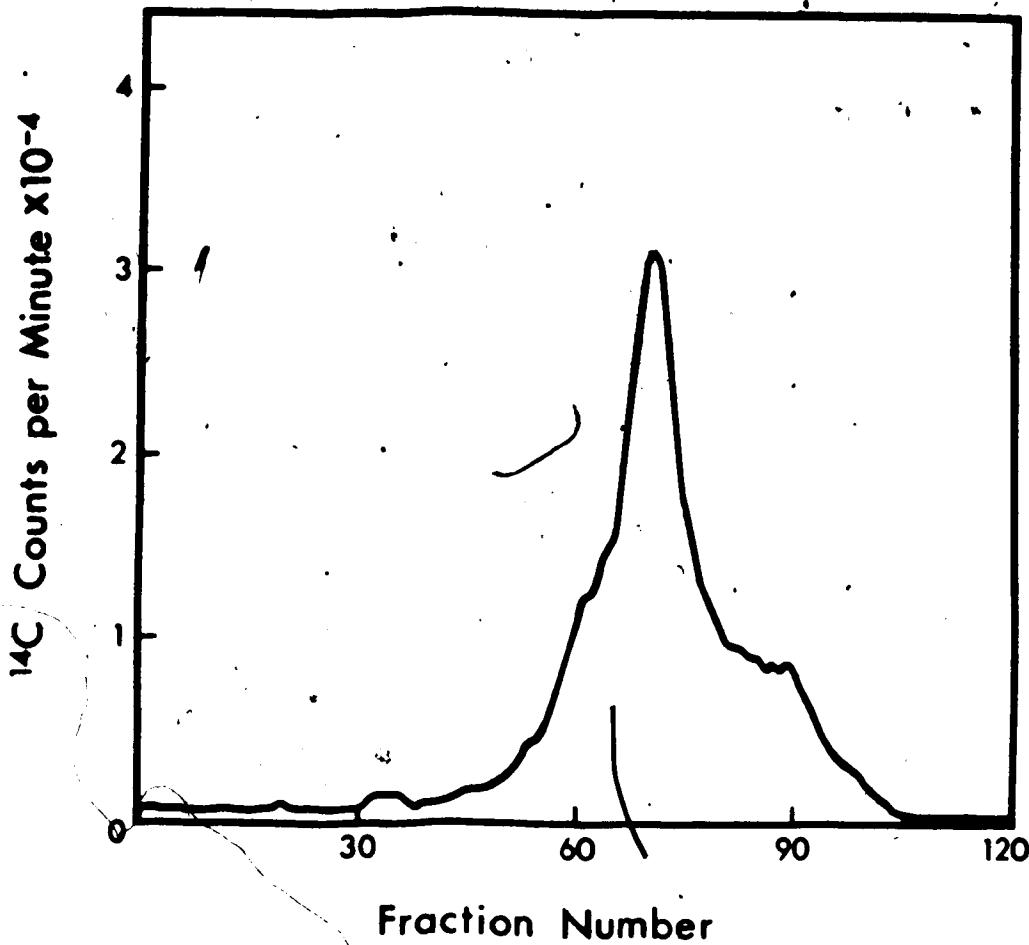of radioactivity were as described in Figure 10.

Figure 22. Chromatography of ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled poly-peptides from Pool 1 of the affinity chromatography column (Figure 7) on Bio-Gel A-5m. The lysis and column buffer was 0.05 $\underline{M}$ TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 $\underline{M}$ KCl and 1% NP-40. Elution and radioactivity assay conditions were as described in Figure 17.
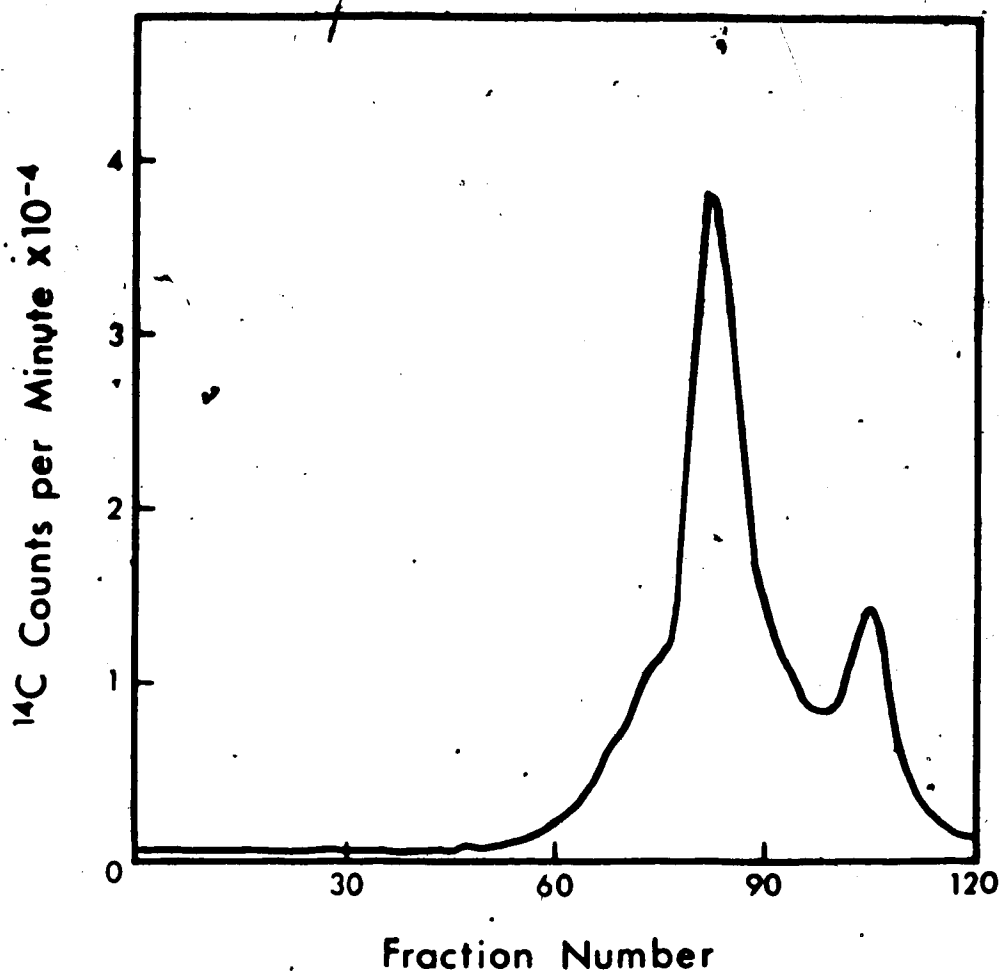
Figure 23. Chromatography of ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled poly-
peptides from Pool 1 of the affinity chromatography column
(Figure 7) on Bio-Gel A-5m. The lysis and column buffer
was 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M sodium
phosphate, 0.05 M KCl and 1% NP-40. Fractions were pooled
in a pattern analogous to that illustrated in Figure 17.
Elution and radioactivity assay conditions were as
described in Figure 17.

pools 2 and 4 from Figure 17 did not, however, provide any
evidence for such an association (Figure 24). The main
radioactivity peak associated with F, G, H and I sedimented
between the 4.6S BSA marker and the E polypeptide peak.

Characterization of the Polymerase

Assays of polymerase activity found in the crude
lysate (before the 37,000 rpm centrifugation step) showed
that incorporation of radioactive UTP into a TCA-insoluble
form was dependent upon the concentration of magnesium
salts used in the assay (Figure 25). Thus, a magnesium
concentration of 10 mM was used in all subsequent assays.
Assay of the two peak fractions from Figure 23 (equivalent
to pools 2 and 4 in Figure 17) revealed a polymerase activ-
ity associated with the E polypeptide, the activity being
dependent upon the addition of exogenous viral RNA and a
primer of oligo(rU) (Figure 26).

No such activity was found when the polypeptides from
pool 2 were assayed (Figure 26), nor was this activity found
in unfractionated extracts of uninfected cells (not shown).
However, the recovery and stability of activity associated
with polypeptide E varied significantly from preparation to
preparation. The maximum recovery of activity detected
was 5 - 10% of initial values, the dilution of polypeptide
E during isolation being taken into account. Because of
these factors, the recovery of polymerase activity was as-
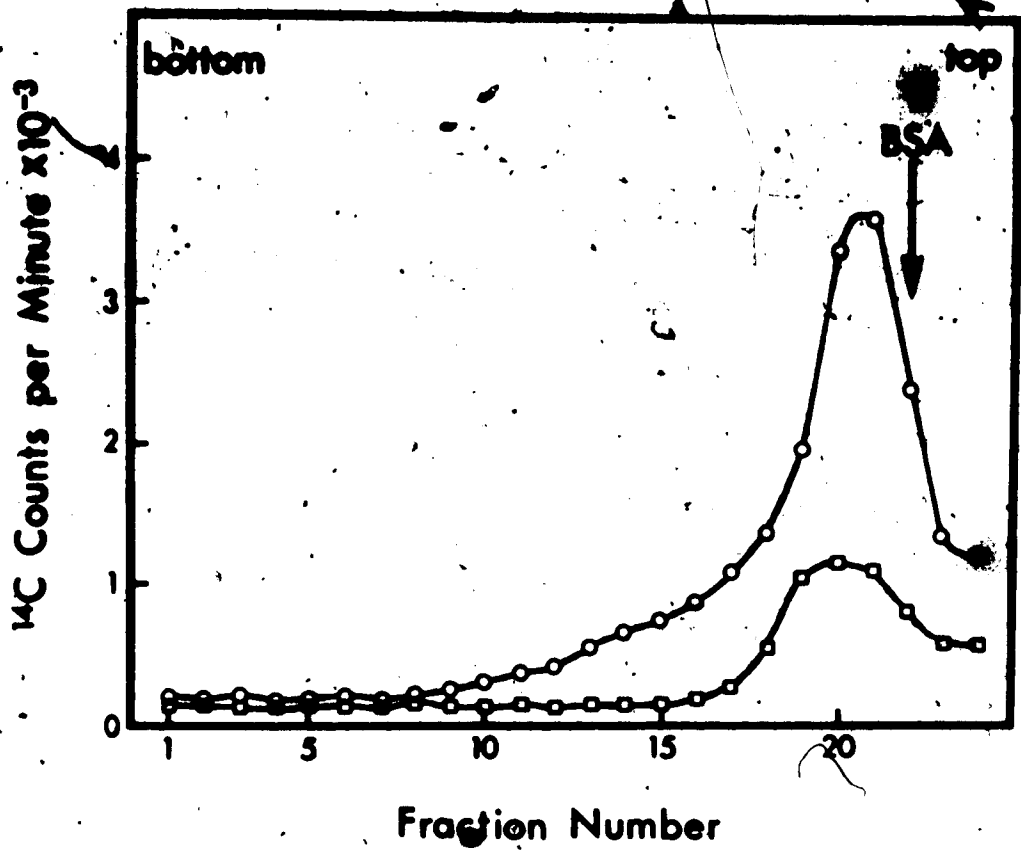sayed following each step of the purification procedure

Figure 24. Glycerol gradient centrifugation of the ^{14}C-
amino acid-labeled polypeptides from Pools 2 (o) and 4 (□)
of the Bio-Gel A-5m column (Figure 17). Polypeptide samples
(0.5 ml) were layered onto 12 ml 5% to 20% glycerol
gradients in 0.05 $\underline{M}$ TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 $\underline{M}$ KCl
and centrifuged at 35,000 rpm for 19 hr in an SW 41 rotor
at 4°. Fractions of 0.5 ml were collected and 100 μl
aliquots assayed for radioactivity by standard procedures.
The arrow indicates the position to which the 4.6 S BSA
marker sedimented in a parallel gradient run under identical
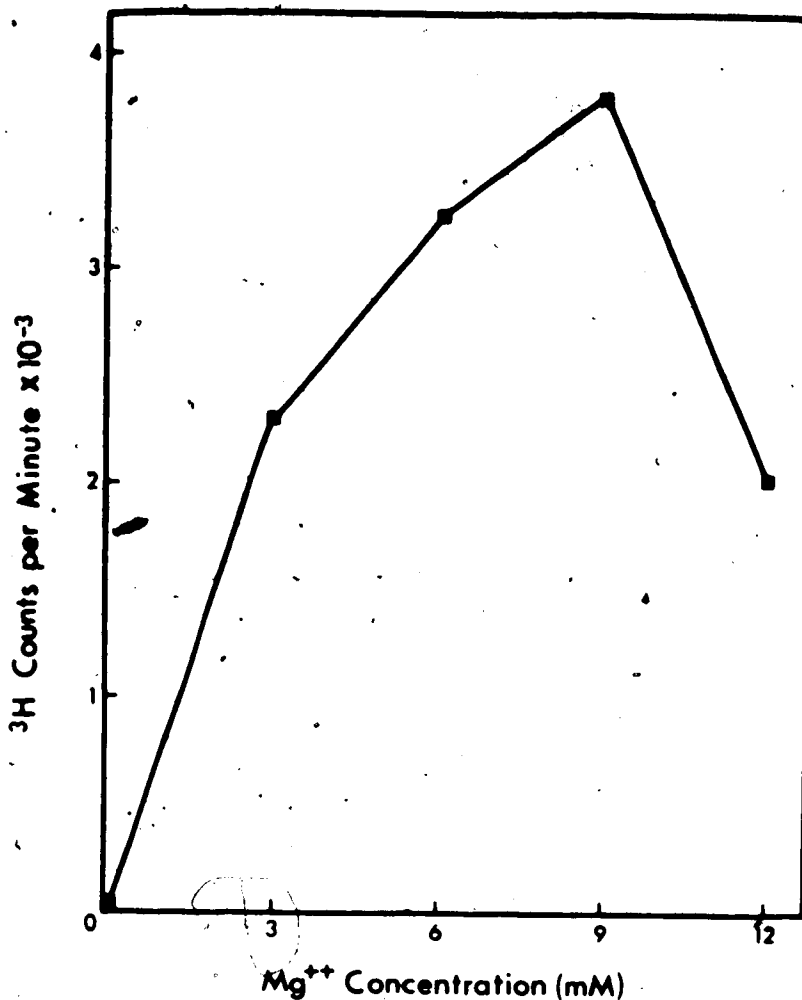conditions.

Figure 25. Effect of magnesium concentration on the polymerase activity present in an L cell lysate at the initial stage of purification (i.e. before the 37,000 rpm centrifugation step). A 100 μl aliquot of cell lysate in 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M KCl and 1% NP-40 was added to 100 μl of assay mixture, the final concentrations of reagents being: 0.05 M TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0), 0.05 M KCl, 0.005 M DTT, 0.5 mM GTP, 0.5 mM CTP, 0.5 mM ATP, 20 μCi ^{3}H-UTP/ml, 2 μg actinomycin D/ml, 1.0 mM PEP and 20 μg pyruvate kinase/ml. Magnesium concentrations of 0, 3, 6, 9 and 12 mM were used. The mixture was incubated at 37° and aliquots of 40 μl removed at 0 min and 5 min after addition of the lysate. The aliquots were spotted onto filter papers which had been soaked with a solution containing 0.1 M sodium EDTA and 25 mM sodium pyrophosphate (pH 7.0), then dried. The discs were washed for 30 min with 0° 10% TCA, twice for 10 min with 0° 5% TCA and finally with 95% ethanol. The discs were dried and the TCA-insoluble radioactivity measured using a toluene based fluor. Background levels of radioactivity as measured by the 0 min controls were subtracted from the corresponding 5 min sample to arrive at the values plotted above.
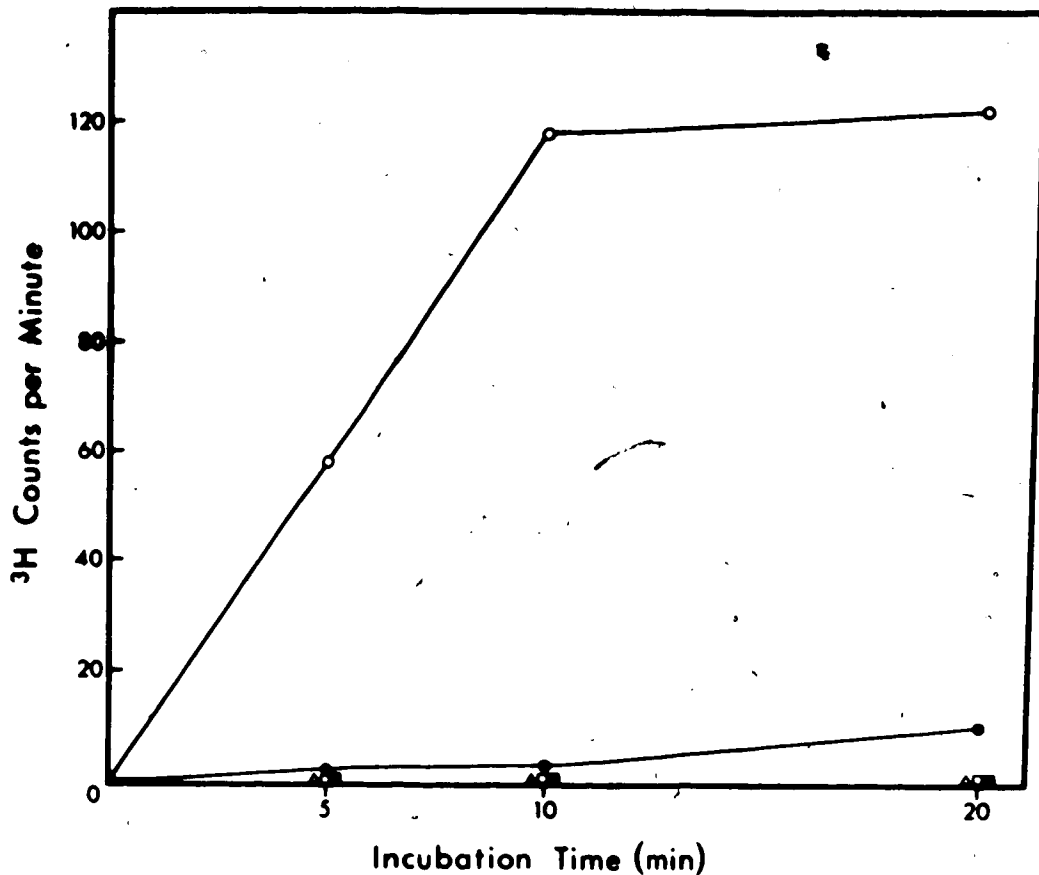
Figure 26. Template and primer requirements for polymerase
activity of the isolated noncapsid polypeptides (from
Figure 23). The assay conditions used were identical to
those described in Figure 25 with the following exceptions:
the magnesium concentration used was 10 $\underline{mM}$ throughout;
incubation was extended to 20 min and additional samples
taken at 10 and 20 min; where used, the final concentra-
tions of viral RNA and oligo(rU) were 20 μg/ml and 10 μg/ml,
respectively. Samples were processed for monitoring of
TCA-insoluble incorporation of label as described in Figure
25. □ Assay of polypeptide E (equivalent to Pool 4 in
Figure 17) ● Assay of polypeptide E including viral RNA
△ Assay of polypeptide E including oligo(rU) ⊙ Assay of
polypeptide E including viral RNA and oligo(rU) ■ Assay
of polypeptides F, G, H and I (equivalent to Pool 2 in
(Figure 17) including viral RNA and oligo(rU).

(Figure 27). After lysis of infected cells, a high level of activity was detected (Figure 27: "Before 37,000 rpm centrifugation"). Polymerase activity in the supernatent from the 37,000 rpm centrifugation step (S_{37}) was greatly reduced, but incorporation of label was stimulated by the addition of viral RNA template and oligo(rU) primer (Figure 27: "S_{37} + RNA + oligo(rU)"). Passage of the S_{37} through the affinity column resulted in an almost total loss of activity (Figure 27: "Pool 1 Affinity column") but addition of viral RNA and oligo(rU) again stimulated polymerization of nucleoside triphosphates (Figure 27: "Pool 1 Affinity column + RNA + oligo(rU)"). However, this stimulation was not as great as that observed in the preceding step. From these observations it appeared that the progressive removal of capsid polypeptides might be at least partially responsible for the ever decreasing levels of polymerase activity recovered. However, attempts to stimulate polymerase activity by the addition of either heat-disrupted purified virus or purified 13.4 S particles to the assay mixture were unsuccessful (Figure 28). Aliquots of protein contained in the fractions eluted from the affinity column by 3.0 M NaSCN (Figure 7) also did not stimulate polymerase activity, nor did addition of uninfected cell lysates to the E preparation. This suggested that the loss of possible host cell-provided cofactors was not responsible for the diminished activity.

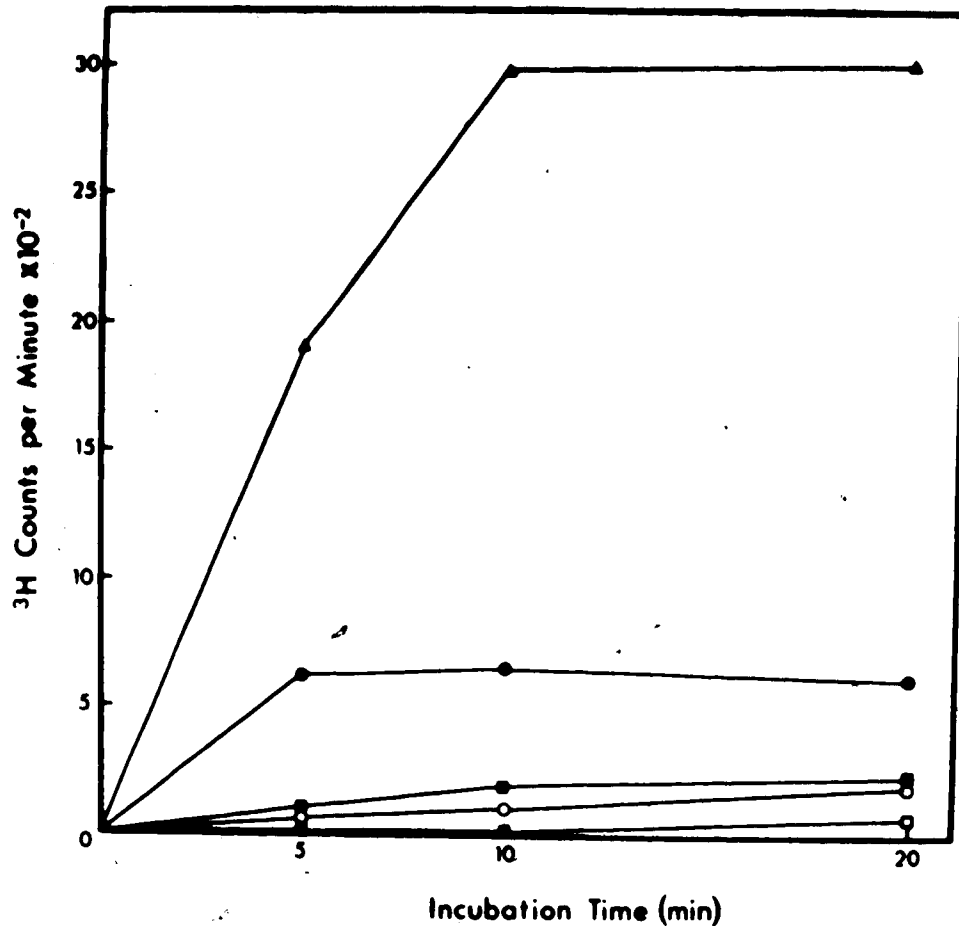Co-sedimentation of purified Mengo virion RNA and

Figure 27. Assay of polymerase activity found in cell
lysates during varying stages of purification. Assay con-
ditions and processing of samples were identical to those
described in Figure 26. △ Assay of the lysate before the
37,000 rpm centrifugation step ○ Assay of the S_{37} lysate
● Assay of the S_{37} lysate including viral RNA and oligo(rU)
□ Assay of Pool 1 from the affinity chromatography column
■ Assay of Pool 1 from the affinity chromatography column
including viral RNA and oligo(rU). Passage of the S_{37} lysate
through the affinity chromatography column resulted in a two-
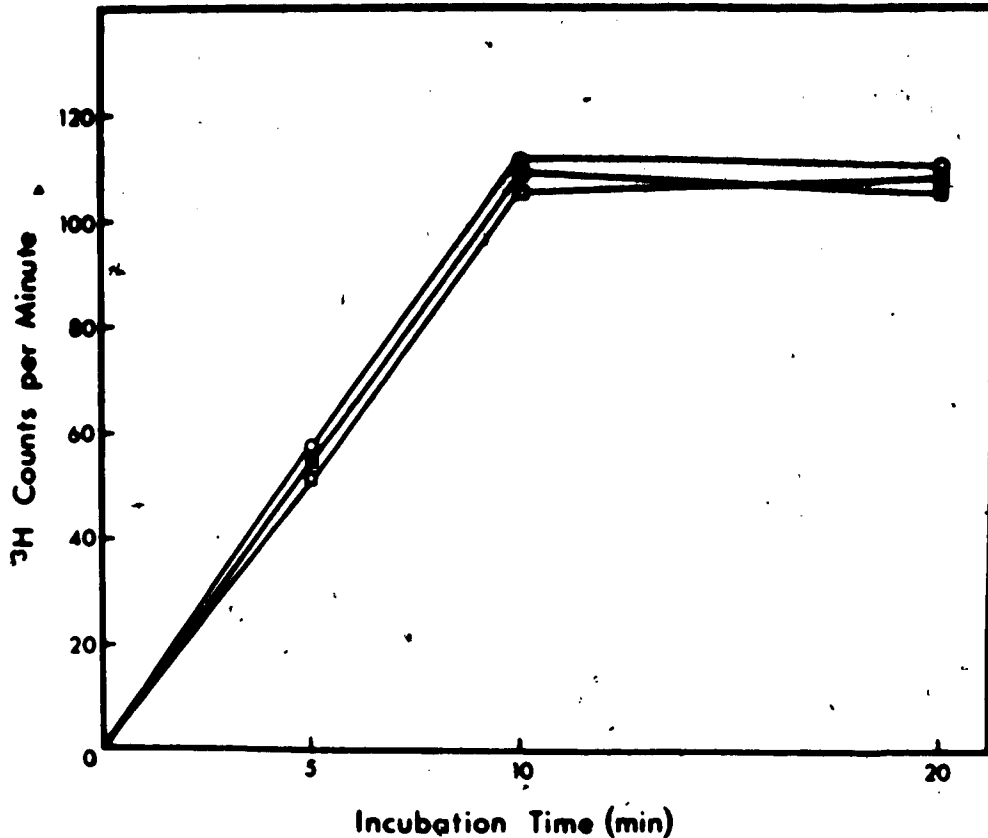fold dilution of the polypeptide species present.

Figure 28. Effect of capsid polypeptides on the polymerase
activity detected in Pool 1 from the affinity chromato-
graphy column (Figure 7). Assay conditions and processing
of samples were identical to those described in Figure 26,
with the exception that viral RNA and oligo(rU) were
included in all three assays. ■ Assay of Pool 1 from the
affinity chromatography column □ Assay of Pool 1 from the
affinity chromatography column including heat disrupted
virus (56° for 10 min) O Assay of Pool 1 from the affinity
chromatography column including 13.4 S particles purified
according to the procedure of Mak et al., 1971.

polypeptide E on a linear sucrose gradient indicated that
E had some affinity for the RNA (Figure 29). The labeled
polypeptide co-migrated with the viral RNA whereas poly-
peptides F, G, H and I showed no such affinity for the RNA
(Figure 30). Polypeptide E by itself on a sucrose gradient
remained near the top following centrifugation.

Chromatography of a S_{37} infected-cell lysate on
poly(A) sepharose resulted in the adsorption of a peak of
radioactivity which could be eluted with buffer containing
1.0 $\underline{M}$ KCl (Figure 31). Analysis on SDS-polyacrylamide gels
of this adsorbed peak showed the presence predominantly of
polypeptide E (Figure 32). The material passing straight
through the column were polypeptides F, H and I (Figure 33).
These results suggest that the affinity of polypeptide E
for viral RNA could possibly be due to the presence of the
poly(A) sequence on the 3'-end of the RNA.

An attempt was made to demonstrate proteolytic activity
associated with polypeptide F. Substrate for this was
prepared by pulse-labeling infected cells at 6 hr p.i. with
^{3}H-amino acids for 5 minutes. The cells were harvested
and a lysate made with 0.05 $\underline{M}$ TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing
0.05 $\underline{M}$ KCl and 1% NP-40. The lysate was centrifuged at low
speed to remove nuclei, and then centrifuged at 37,000 rpm
for 1 hr in a SW 50.1 rotor.

The labeled precursor polypeptides were pelleted while
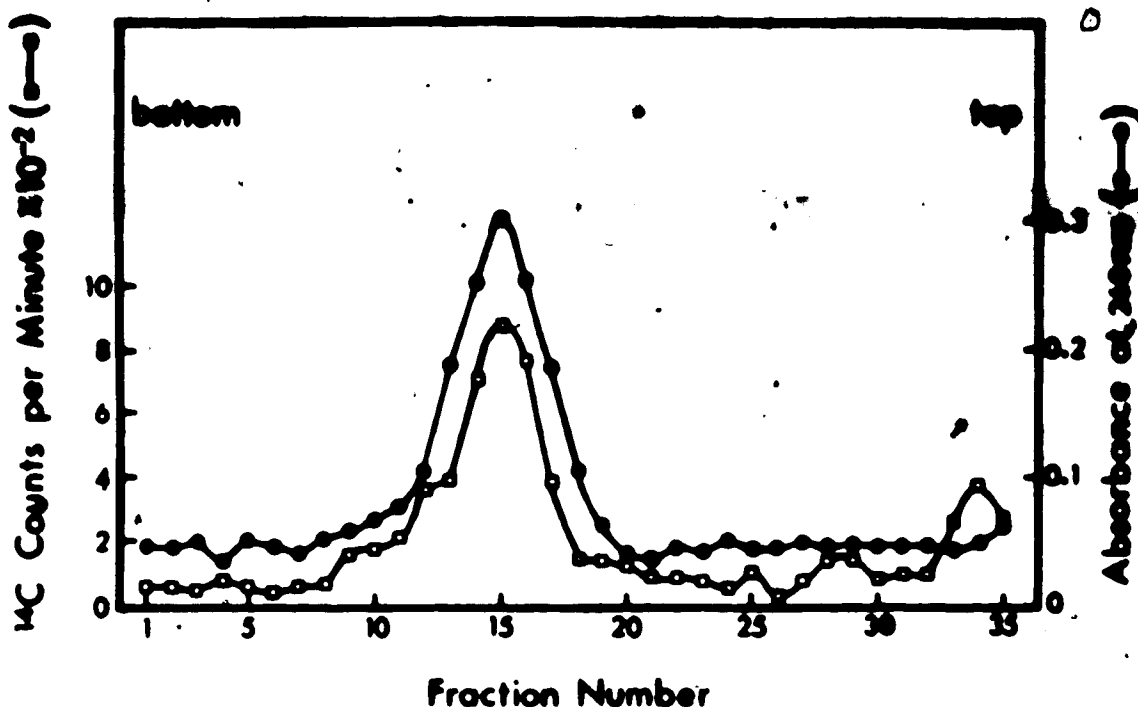the unlabeled noncapsid polypeptides remained in the super-

Figure 29. Sucrose density gradient co-sedimentation of
purified Mengo virion RNA (●) and ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled
polypeptide E (□). Viral RNA was prepared according to
the procedure of Scraba et al., (1967). Polypeptide E was
isolated by Bio-Gel A-5m chromatography as in Figure 23.
Viral RNA and polypeptide E (100 μl of each in 0.05 M TRIS-
NCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M KCl and 1% NP-40) were mixed
and incubated on ice for 1 hr. The mixture was then layered
onto a 4.8 ml 10% to 30% sucrose gradient in 0.05 M TRIS-HCl
(pH 8.0) containing 0.05 M KCl and 1% NP-40. The gradient
was centrifuged at 35,000 rpm for 5 hr in a SW 50.1 rotor
at 4°. Fractions of 5 drops were collected and diluted to
a volume of 1.0 ml with distilled water. The absorbance
of each diluted fraction at 260 nm was measured. Aliquots
of 100 μl were then removed and assayed for radioactivity
by standard techniques.

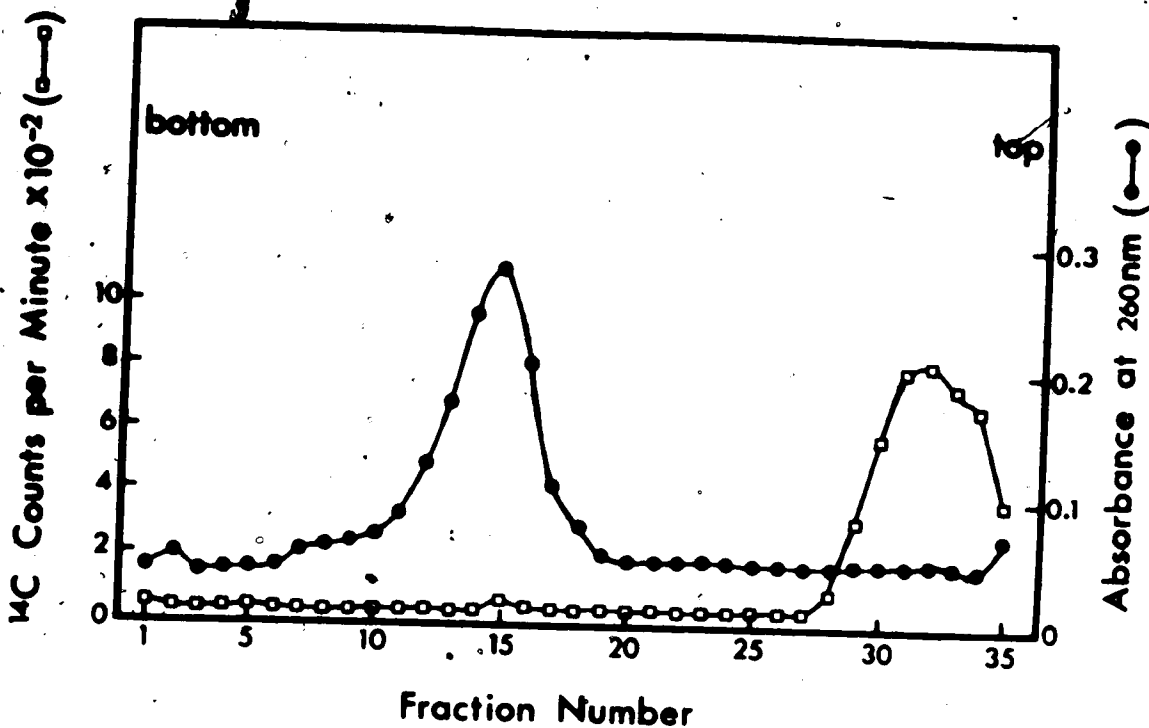Figure 30. Sucrose density gradient co-sedimentation of purified Mengo virion RNA (●) and a ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled mixture of polypeptides F, G, H and I (□). Viral RNA was prepared according to the procedure of Scraba et al., (1967). The F, G, H and I polypeptide mixture was isolated by Bio-Gel A-5m chromatography as in Figure 23. Centrifugation and assay conditions were identical to those described in Figure 29.
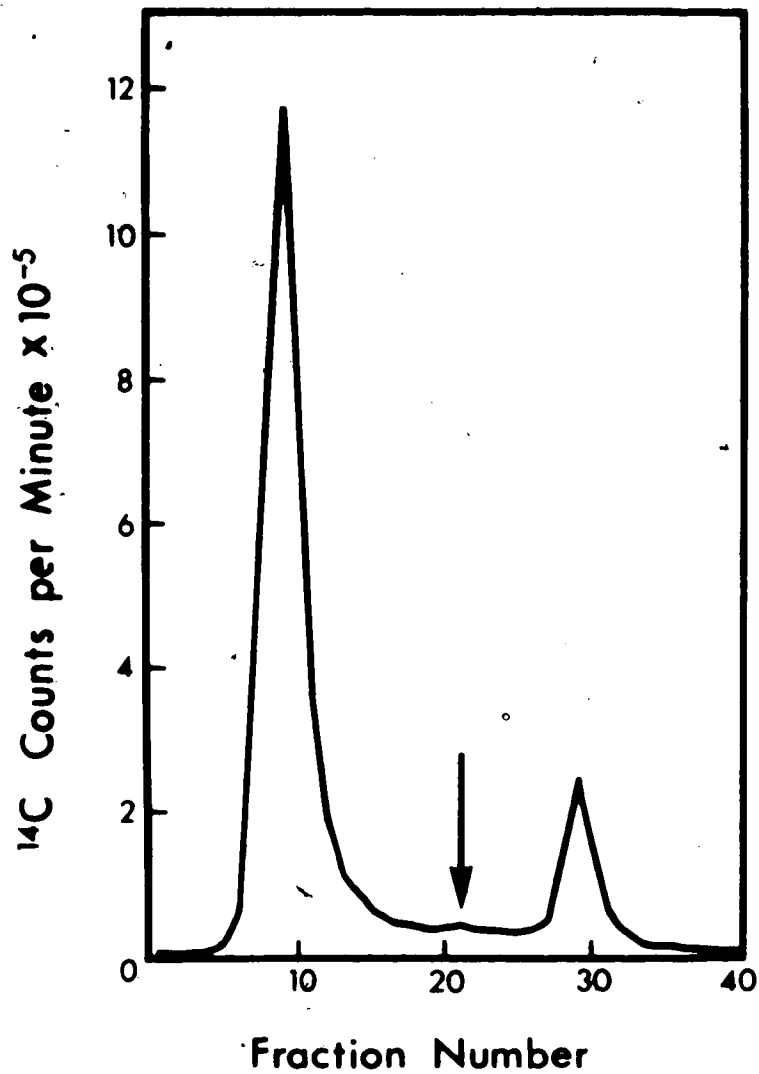
Figure 31. Chromatography on poly(A) sepharose of ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled noncapsid polypeptides present in a S_{37} lysate. The lysis and column buffer was 0.05 $\underline{M}$ TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 0.05 $\underline{M}$ KCl and 1% NP-40. Elution and radioactivity assay conditions were as described in Figure 17. The arrow indicates the point at which buffer containing 1.0 $\underline{M}$ KCl was added to the column.

Figure 32. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled polypeptides
present in fraction number 29 from the poly(A) sepharose
column. The sample was prepared for electrophoretic
analysis as described in Figure 18. Electrophoresis and
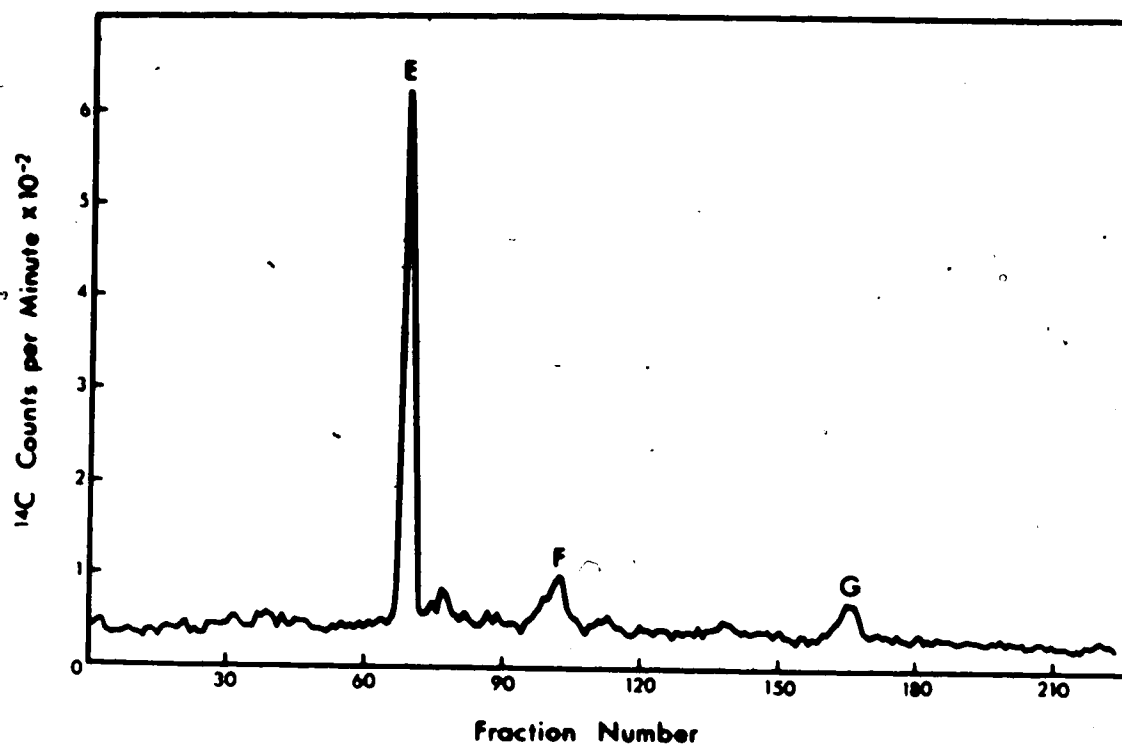analysis were carried out as described in Figure 10.

Figure 33. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of the ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled polypeptides
present in fraction number 9 from the poly(A) sepharose
column. The sample was prepared for electrophoretic
analysis as described in Figure 18. Electrophoresis and
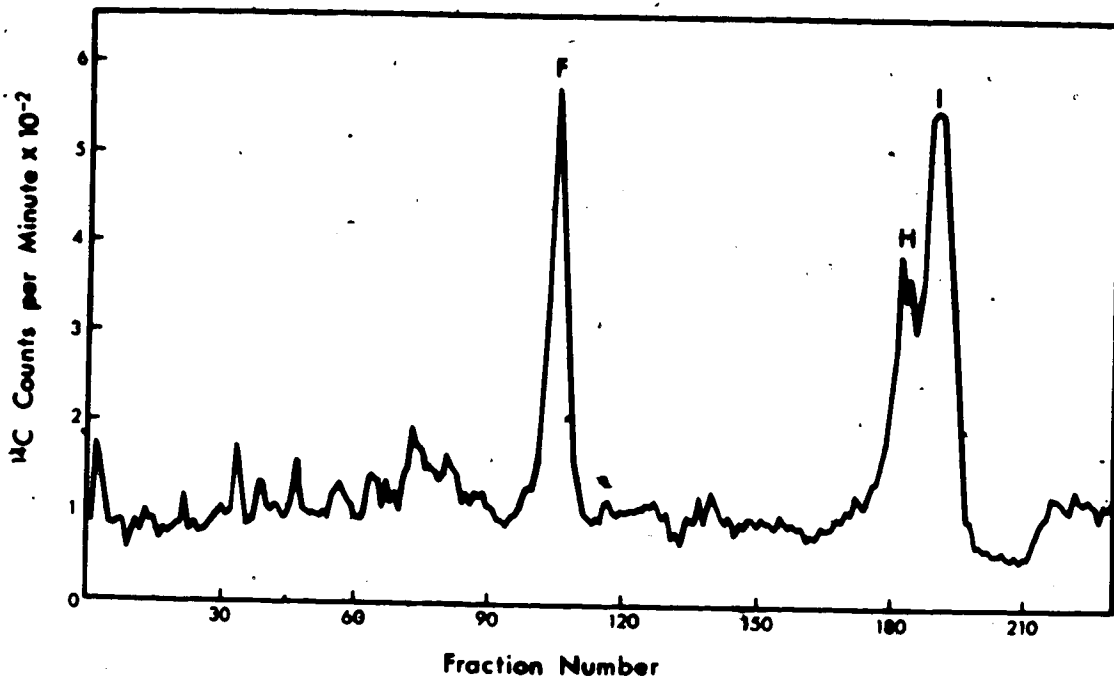analysis were carried out as described in Figure 10.

natent (as in Figure 6). An SDS-polyacrylamide gel profile
of the pelleted material is shown in Figure 34. It consisted
primarily of the precursor polypeptides A, B, C and D. An
aliquot of such a preparation was mixed with a sample of
polypeptide F (derived from pool 1 Figure 17; see Figure
18) and incubated at 37° for 1 hr. The SDS-polyacrylamide
gel of the assay mixture did not differ significantly from
the control (Figure 35). It would seem that either F has
no protease activity vis à vis these precursors, or the con-
ditions of assay were not conducive to detecting the activity.

Isolation of VPg

Chromatography of radioactively-labeled virus capsid
polypeptides on hydroxylapatite revealed that a small but
reproducible peak of label was associated with the viral
RNA peak, even after the vigorous dissociation conditions
employed (heating at 100° for 5 min with 2% SDS and 5% β-
mercaptoethanol). This is shown in Figure 36. Radioactivity
was also associated with the viral RNA when it was prepared
from purified labeled virus using the phenol extraction pro-
cedure of Scraba et al., (1967). Reports of a small protein
being associated with other picornaviral RNA's (Lee et al.,
1976; Sanger et al., 1977; Hruby and Roberts, 1978) sug-
gested that this label was due to a similar polypeptide
being associated with Mengo virus RNA. Analysis of the
nuclease-treated RNA on 10% polyacrylamide-0.1% SDS gels
revealed a small peak of radioactivity migrating between

Figure 34. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-7.5% poly-
acrylamide gels of the ^{3}H-amino acid-labeled precursor poly-
peptides used as substrate in the protease assay. Infected
cells were pulse-labeled for 5 min with ^{3}H-amino acids at 6
hr p.i. A lysate was made with 0.05 $\underline{M}$ TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0)
containing 0.05 $\underline{M}$ KCl and 1% NP-40 and the nuclei removed
by centrifugation at 1000 g for 10 min. The precursor poly-
peptides were pelleted by centrifugation at 37,000 rpm for
1 hr in a SW 50.1 rotor. Aliquots of the pellet were
prepared for electrophoresis as described in Figure 18.
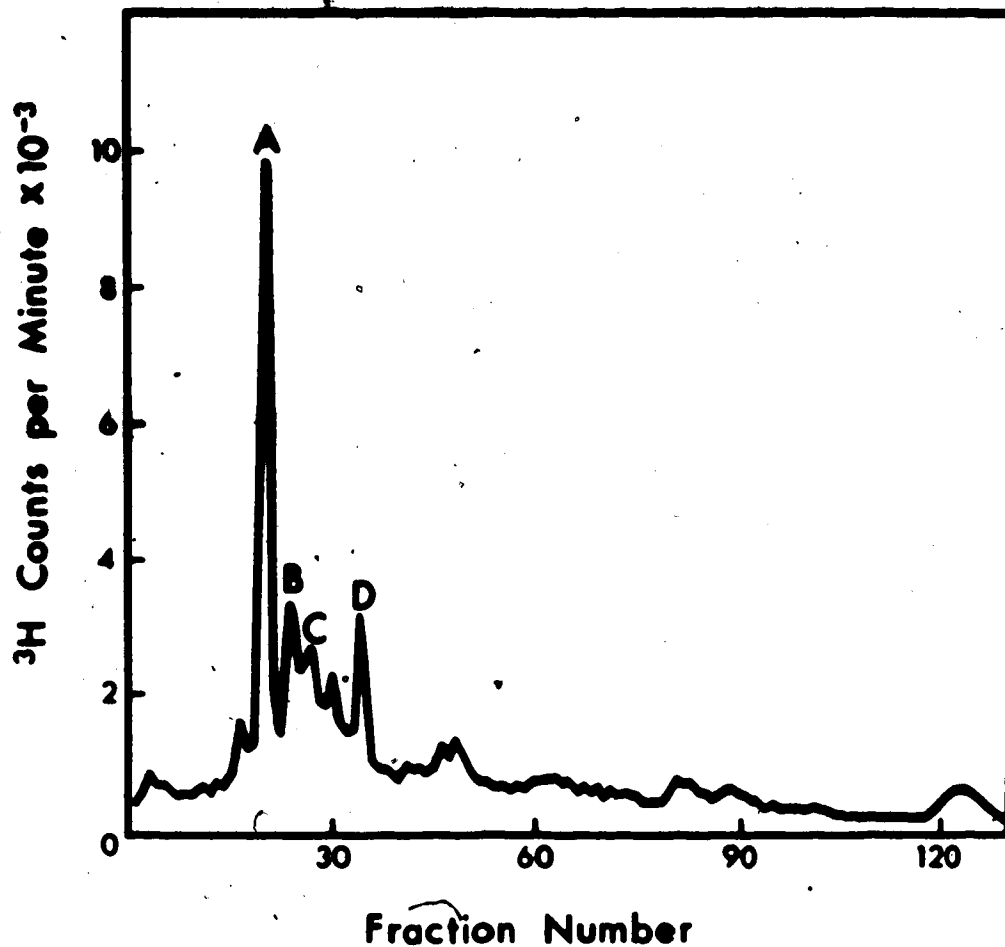Conditions for electrophoresis and analysis were the same
as those described in Figure 10.

Figure 35. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-7.5% poly-
acrylamide gels of the ^{3}H-amino acid-labeled polypeptides
present in the incubated protease assay mixture. The
precursor polypeptide substrates were prepared as outlined
in Figure 34. A 50 µl aliquot of polypeptide F (derived
from Pool 1 Figure 17; see Figure 18) was mixed with an
equal volume of substrate and incubated at 37° for 1 hr.
The sample was then prepared for electrophoresis as outlined
in Figure 18. Conditions for electrophoresis and analysis
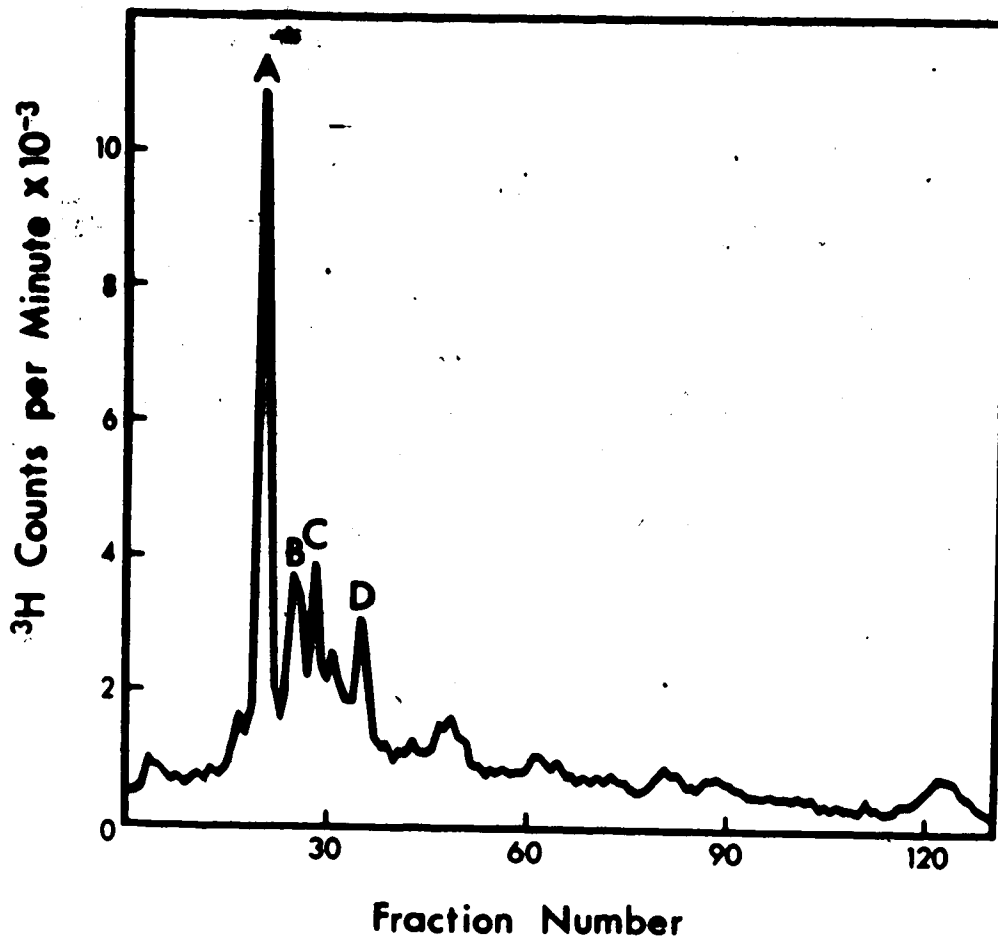were identical to those described in Figure 10.
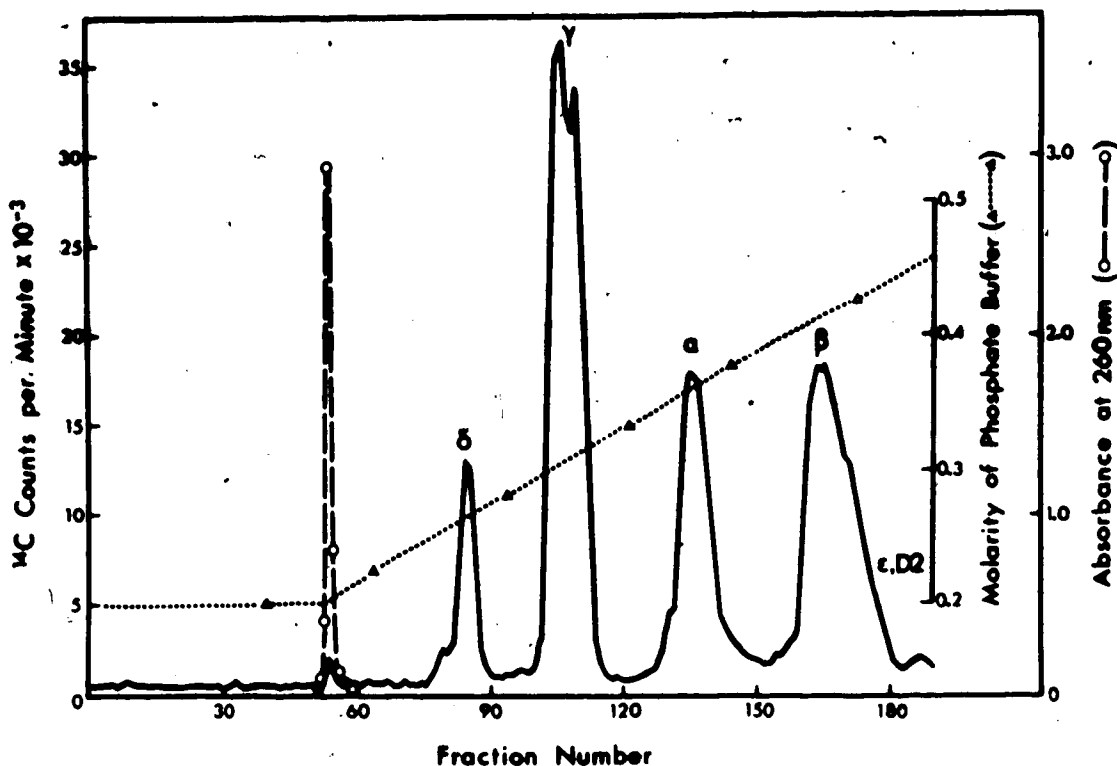
Figure 36. SDS-hydroxylapatite chromatography of ^{14}C-amino
acid-labeled virus capsid polypeptides. Purified ^{14}C-amino
acid-labeled Mengo virions were disrupted by heating at 100°
for 5 min in a buffer consisting of 0.01 M sodium phosphate
(pH 6.4) containing 2% SDS and 5% β-mercaptoethanol. The
RNA and polypeptides were resolved as described by Ziola
and Scraba (1975). The RNA peak (0), as detected by absorb-
ance at 260 nm, was pooled (fractions 55-57) and dialyzed
against 0.01 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.2) to remove the SDS.
Radioactivity was assayed by standard procedures. Phosphate
molarity was determined from conductivity measurements with
the use of a standard curve.

the δ marker polypeptide and the bromophenol blue marker
(Figure 3�ᵧ). The size of this peak was diminished by 50
to 60% when the RNA was also incubated with proteinase K
(Figure 38), indicating that the labeled material was a
protein.

Discussion

As an initial step towards characterizing the functions
of Mengo noncapsid proteins, the stable species E, F, G, H
and I have been isolated from virus-infected cells. The
two larger polypeptides, E and F, were isolated using
both denaturing and non-denaturing methods while the smaller
polypeptides, G, H and I, have been obtained by the use of
denaturing methods.

Previous studies of the picornavirus RNA polymerase
(RNA replicase) have involved sequential purification by
monitoring the enzymatic activity. Such studies have sug-
gested that polypeptide E (NCVP 4) plays some role in the
replicase activity, but the various "purified" replicases
were contaminated to varying extents with other viral-
specific polypeptides (Lundquist et al., 1974; Loesch and
Arlinghaus, 1975; Traub et al., 1976). This chapter has
described an alternative approach in studying the replicase:
i.e.: isolation of the polypeptide which has been indicated
to be responsible for the RNA replicase activity (E) fol-
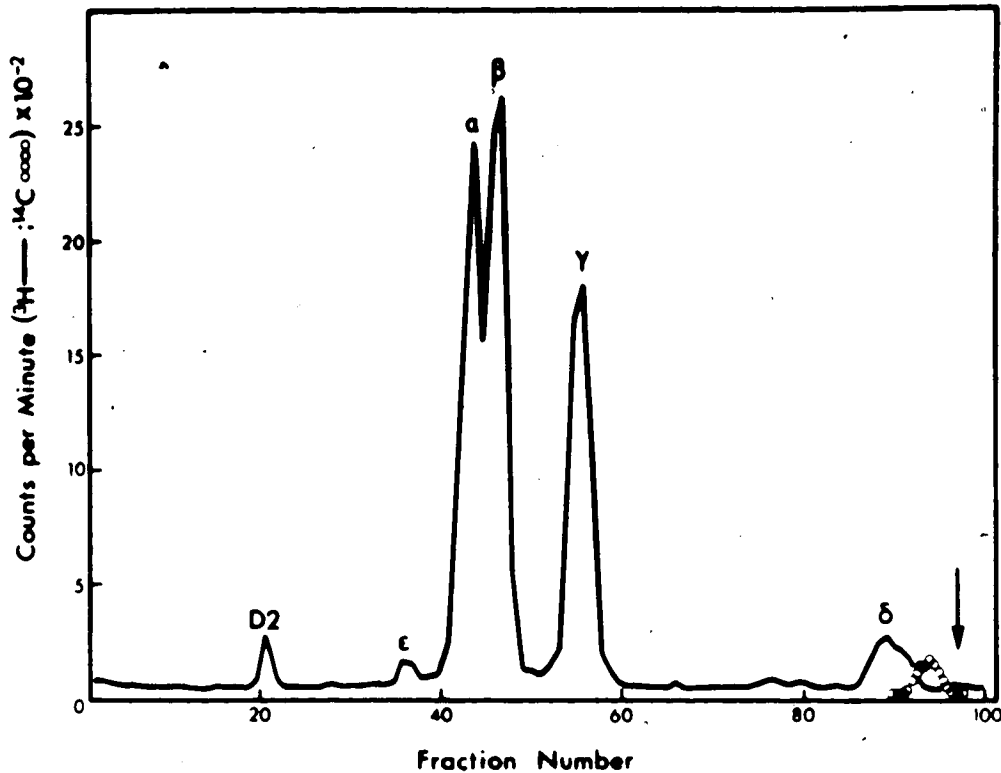
Figure 37. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-
acrylamide gels of ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled VPg. RNA obtained
from a SDS-hydroxylapatite column (Figure 36) was precipitated
with 2½ volumes of cold 95% ethanol. The pellet was collected
by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm for 30 min in a JA-20 rotor.
The RNA was resuspended in 400 μl of 0.01 M TRIS-HCl (pH 7.0).
RNase A, RNase T1 and BSA were added to 200 μl of the RNA at
final concentrations of 50 μg/ml, 100 units/ml and 400 μg/ml,
respectively. The sample was incubated at 37° for 3 hr and
then precipitated by the addition of 5 volumes of acetone.
The precipitate was electrophoresed as described in Figure 10.
The open circles show the profile obtained when the gel was
fractionated and assayed for radioactivity as described in
Figure 4.
The marker capsid polypeptides (indicated by the solid line)
were electrophoresed at the same time in a separate gel.
arrow indicates the position to which the bromophenol blue
marker migrated in both gels.
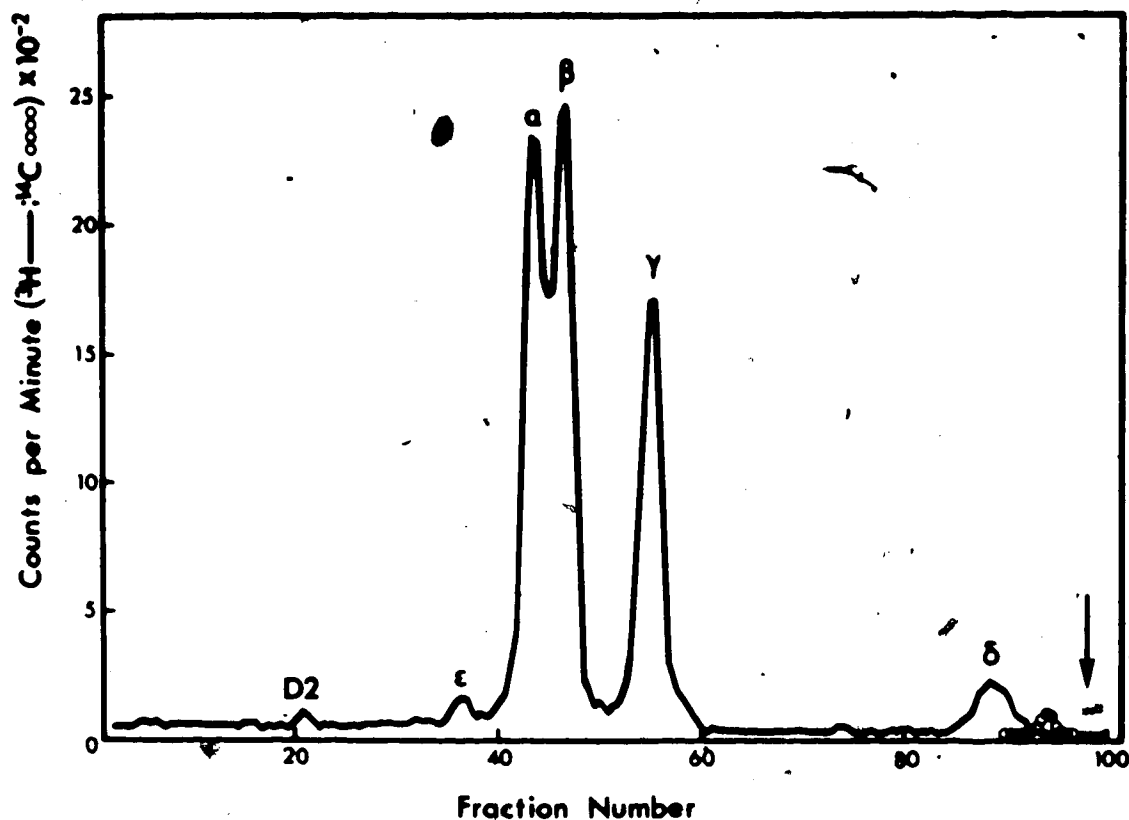
Figure 38. Electrophoretic analysis on 0.1% SDS-10% poly-acrylamide gels of ^{14}C-amino acid-labeled VPg which was proteinase K treated. VPg was obtained and treated in an identical manner to that described in Figure 37 with the following exception: proteinase K was added at 1½ hr to the incubation mixture to a final concentration of 200 μg/ml. The sample was then incubated for an additional 1½ hr. The incubation products were assayed electrophoretically as described in Figure 37. The open circles show the profile obtained when the gel was fractionated and assayed for radioactivity as described in Figure 4. The marker capsid polypeptides (indicated by the solid line) were parallelly electrophoresed on a separate gel. The arrow indicates the position to which the bromophenol blue marker migrated in both gels.

lowed by an attempt to assay for that activity. Polypeptide
E isolated using nondenaturing conditions (Figure 17) was
free from contamination by other viral polypeptides and
contained only 5 - 6 host cell-specified polypeptides
(Figure 21). Associated with the E polypeptides was an RNA
polymerase activity which was dependent on exogenous viral
RNA and oligo(rU) primer (Figure 26). The activity, however,
was quite unstable and this fact plus the observed varying
recoveries of activity suggest that other as yet uncharac-
terized components are also necessary for a fully functional
viral replicase activity. Studies on poliovirus replicase
have indicated that the precapsid structure (Yin, 1977) or
capsid polypeptides (Ghendon, 1973) play some integral role
in the replicase activity. Results reported in this chapter
showed that replicase activity was diminished as the capsid
polypeptides were progressively removed from the noncapsid
polypeptides (Figure 27). However, addition of capsid
polypeptides to isolated polypeptide E did not stimulate
its observed activity (Figure 28) so the relationship, if
any, between these observations and the poliovirus data is
unclear.

Another possible explanation for the decreasing
recovery of activity is based on a model proposed by Nomoto
et al. (1977). These authors suggest that a polymerase
core structure combines with a free molecule of VPg (the
polypeptide which is also found covalently attached to the
5'-end of the viral RNA) to produce a functional replicase.

The VPg molecule supposedly functions as a primer for RNA
replication, during which time it becomes attached to the
5'-end of the RNA. It has been shown in this chapter that
Mengo virus RNA also contains a VPg-like polypeptide, and
it is conceivable that this polypeptide was lost during the
purification procedure outlined for the undenatured E
preparation. VPg appears to be relatively hydrophobic when
isolated from viral RNA (Hruby and Roberts, 1978), and a
large portion of it may have aggregated and been lost during
the 37,000 rpm centrifugation step. Affinity chromatography
(Figure 7) presumably would have removed any VPg still
present in solution (the disrupted virus antigen used to
produce antibodies for this column also contained the viral
RNA and its covalently-linked VPg). The recovery of a
portion of the replicase activity using the primer oligo(rU)
is consistent with this possibility. Presumably, however,
oligo(rU) is a comparatively poor primer with respect to
VPg.

Ziola and Scraba (1976) have suggested that F is a
possible candidate for a virus-specified protease. Recent
results have shown that when EMC virus RNA is translated in
a reticulocyte cell-free system in vitro, an active proteo-
lytic activity, which can cleave pre-A (an uncleaved
precursor of A and G) and polypeptide C, is produced (Pelham,
1978). This activity has been attributed either to the non-
capsid polypeptides I and/or F. A preliminary assay experiment
with isolated polypeptide F related in this chapter was

unsuccessful in demonstrating any associated proteolytic
activity. It would seem that further experiments, employing
a wider variety of assay conditions, are necessary in order
to ascertain whether or not F possesses proteolytic activity.
In addition, a possible role of F in binding the replicase
to membranes, as reported by Butterworth at al., (1976),
should be investigated.

A report of a protease activity associated with a
polypeptide of molecular mass 14,000 daltons, produced by
granulosis virus (Tweeten et al., 1978) suggests that poly-
peptides G, H and/or I should also be obtained in undenatured
form and assayed for proteolytic activity. Denatured
preparations of G, H and I, prepared as reported in this
chapter, should be suitable for use as antigens to produce
specific antisera which can be used to isolate them from
the other viral polypeptides.

V. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abrev, S.L. and Lucas-Lenard, J. (1976) J. Virol 18, 182.

Agrawal, H.O. (1966) Arch. ges. Virusforsch. 19, 365.

Alexander, H.E., Koch, G., Mountain, I.M., Sprunt, K., and Van Damme, O. (1958) Virol. 5, 172.

Almeida, J.D., Waterson, A.P., Prydie, J. and Fletcher, E.W.L. (1968) Arch. ges. Virusforsch. 25, 105.

Armstrong, J.A., Edmonds, M., Nakazato, H., Phillips, B.S. and Vaugham, M.H. (1972) Science 176, 526.

Andrewes, C. and Pereira, H.G. In Viruses of Vertebrates. 3rd ed., p. 3. Balliere Tindall, London (1972).

Bachrach, H.L. and Hess, W.R. (1973) BBRC 55, 141.

Bachrach, H.L., Moore, D.M., McKercher, P.D. and Polatnick, J. (1975) J. Immunology 115, 1636.

Bachrach, H.L., Trautman, R. and Breese, S.S. (1964) Am. J. Vet. Res. 25, 333.

Bachtold, J.G., Bubel, H.C. and Gebhardt, L.P. (1957) Virol. 4, 582.

Baltimore, D. (1968) J. Mol. Biol. 32, 359.

Baltimore, D. In Biochemistry of Viruses, p. 101. H.B. Levy, ed. Marcel Dekker, New York (1969).

Baltimore, D., Eggers, H.J., Franklin, R.M. and Tamm, I. (1963) PNAS 49, 843.

Baltimore, D. and Franklin, R.M. (1962) BBRC 9, 388.

Baltimore, D. and Franklin, R.M. (1963) J. Biol. Chem. 238, 3395.

Baltimore, D., Franklin, R.M. and Callender, J. (1963) BBA 76, 425.

Baltimore, D. and Girard, M. (1966) PNAS 56, 741.

Baltimore, D., Girard, M. and Darnell, J.E. (1966) Virol. 29, 179.

Beneke, T.W., Habermehl, K.-O., Diefenthal, W. and Buchholz, M. (1977) J. Gen. Virol. 34, 387.

Bishop, J.M. and Levintow, L. (1971) Progr. Med. Virol. 13, 1.

Black, D.N. (1975) J. Gen. Virol. 26, 109.

Boime, I. and Leder, P. (1972) Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 153, 706.

Brawerman, G. (1974) Ann. Rev. Biochem. 43, 621.

Breindl, M. (1971a) J. Gen. Virol. 11, 147.

Breindl, M. (1971b) Virol. 46, 962.

Brown, F., Cartwright, B. and Stewart, D.L. (1962) BBA 55, 768.

Brown, F., Newman, J.F.E. and Stott, E.J. (1970) J. Gen. Virol. 8, 145.

Brown, F., Newman, J.F.E., Stott, J., Porter, A., Frisby, D., Newton, C., Carey, N. and Fellner, P. (1974) Nature (London) 251, 342.

Burness, A.T.H., Pardoe, I.V. and Fox, S.M. (1973) J. Gen. Virol. 18, 33.

Burness, A.T.H., Vizoso, A.D. and Clothier, F.W. (1963) Nature 197, 1177.

Burness, A.T.H., Pardoe, I.V. and Goldstein, N.O. (1975) BBRC 67, 1048.

Burness, A.T.H. and Walter, D.S. (1967) Nature 215, 1350.

Burrell, C.J. and Cooper, P.D. (1973) J. Gen. Virol. 21, 443.

Burroughs, J.N. and Brown, F. (1974) J. Gen. Virol. 22, 281.

Butterworth, B.E., Korant, B.D., Lockart, R.Z., Lonberg-Holm, K.K. and Yin, F.H. (1975) 3rd Internat. Congress Virology p. 160.

Butterworth, B.E., Hall, L., Stoltzfus, C.M. and Rueckert, R.R. (1971) PNAS 68, 3083.

Butterworth, B.E. (1973) Virol. 56, 439.

Butterworth, B.E. and Korant, B.D. (1974) J. Virol. 14, 282.

Butterworth, B.E. and Rueckert, R.R. (1972a) Virol. 50, 535.

Butterworth, B.E. and Rueckert, R.R. (1972b) J. Virol. 9, 823.

Butterworth, B.E., Shimshick, E.J. and Yin, F.H. (1976) J. Virol. 19, 457.

Caliguiri, L.A. (1974) Virol. 58, 526.

Caliguiri, L.A. and Compans, R.W. (1973) J. Gen. Virol. 21, 99.

Caliguiri, L.A., Tamm, I. and Mosser, A.G. In Advances in the Biosciences, Vol. II, Workshop in Virus-Cell Interactions, p. 65. Pergamon (1973).

Caliguiri, L.A. and Tamm, I. (1969) Science 166, 885.

Campbell, J.B. and Colter J.S. (1965) Virol. 25, 608.

Carthew, P. and Martin, S.J. (1974) J. Gen. Virol. 24, 525.

Carthew, P. (1976) J. Gen. Virol. 32, 17.

Casey, H.L. (1965) Laboratory branch complement fixation method. In Standard Diagnostic Complement Fixation Method and Adaptation to Microtest, Part 1. Public Health Monogr. No. 74. Publication No. 1228, Washington, D.C.

Casjens, S. and King, J. (1975) Ann. Rev. Biochem. 44, 555.

Cavanagh, D., Sanger, D.V., Rowlands, D.J. and Brown, F. (1977) J. Gen. Virol. 35, 149.

Celma, M.L. and Ehrenfeld, E. (1975) J. Mol. Biol. 98, 761.

Celma, M.L. and Ehrenfeld, E. (1974) PNAS 71, 2440.

Chan, V.F. and Black, F.L. (1970) J. Virol. 5, 309.

Chatterjee, N.K., Polatnick, J. and Bachrach, H.L. (1976) J. Gen. Virol. 32, 383.

Chumakov, K.M. and Agol, V.I. (1976) BBRC 71, 551.

Chlumecka, V., D'Obrenan, P. and Colter, J.S. (1973)
Can. J. Biochem. 51, 1521.

Colby, D.S., Finnerty, V. and Lucas-Lenard, J. (1974) J.
Virol. 13, 858.

Cole, C.N. and Baltimore, D. (1973) J. Mol. Biol. 76,
325.

Colter, J.S., Bird, H.H., Moyer, A.W. and Brown, R.A.
(1957) Nature 179, 859.

Cooper, P.D., Steiner-Pryor, A. and Wright, P.J. (1973)
Intervirol. 1, 1.

Cooper, P.D., Stancek, D. and Summers, D.F. (1970) Virol.
40, 971.

Cooper, P.D. In The Biochemistry of Viruses. H.B. Levy,
ed. p. 177. Marcel Dekker, New York (1969).

Cordell-Stewart, B. and Taylor, M.W. (1973) J. Virol.
11, 232.

Cords, C.E., James, C.G. and McLaren, L.C. (1975) J.
Virol. 15, 244.

Croft, G.F., Hoggan, M.D. and Johnson, F.B. (1974) J.
Virol. 13, 608.

Crowell, R.L. (1966) J. Bact. 91, 198.

Crowell, R.L. and Philipson, L. (1971) J. Virol. 8,
509.

Cuatrecasas, P. and Parikh, I. (1972) Biochem. 11, 291.

Dales, S. (1973) Bact. Rev. 37, 103.

Dalgarno, L. and Martin, E.M. (1965) Virol. 26, 450.

Darnell, J.E., Girard, M., Baltimore, D., Summers, D.F. and
Maizel, J.V. In The Molecular Biology of Viruses.
J.S. Colter and W. Paranchych, eds. p.375. Academic,
New York (1967).

David, G.S. and Reisfield, R.A. (1974) Biochemistry 13,
1014.

Dorsch-Häsler, K., Yogo, Y. and Wimmer, E. (1975) J. Virol.
16, 1512.

De Sena, J. and Mandel, B. (1976) Virol. 70, 470.

De Sena, J. and Mandel, B. (1977) Virol. 78, 554.

Dietzschold, B. and Ahl, R. (1970) J. Gen. Virol. 8, 73.

Dimmock, N.J. (1966) Nature (London) 209, 792.

Dobos, P., Kerr, I.M. and Martin, E.M. (1971) J. Virol. 8, 491.

Dobos, P. and Martin, E.M. (1972) J. Gen. Virol. 17, 197.

Drzeniek, R. and Bilello, P. (1974) J. Gen. Virol. 25, 125.

Dulbecco, R. and Vogt, M. (1954) J. Exp. Med. 98, 167.

Dunker, A.K. and Rueckert, R.R. (1969) J. Biol. Chem. 244, 5074.

Dunker, A.K. and Rueckert, R.R. (1971) J. Mol. Biol. 58, 219.

Eggen, K.L. and Shatkin, A.J. (1972) J. Virol. 9, 636.

Ehrenfeld, E., Maizel, J.V. and Summers, D.F. (1970) Virol. 40, 840.

Ehrenfeld, E. and Hunt, T. (1971) PNAS 68, 1075.

Ellem, K.A.O. and Colter, J.S. (1961) Virol. 15, 340.

Fenner, F., McAuslan, B.R., Mims, C.A., Sambrook, J. and White, D.D. In The Biology of Animal Viruses 2nd ed. Academic Press (1974).

Fenwick, M.L. and Cooper, P.D. (1962) Virol. 18, 212.

Fiala, M. and Saltzman, B. (1969) Appl. Microbiol. 17, 190.

Finch, J.T. and Klug, A. (1959) Nature (London) 183, 1709.

Finch, J.T. and Klug, A. (1966) J. Mol. Biol. 15, 344.

Flanegan, J.B., Pettersson, R.F., Ambros, V., Hewlett, M.J., and Baltimore, D. (1977) PNAS 74, 961.

Flanegan, J.B. and Baltimore, D. (1977) PNAS 74, 3677.

Franklin, R.M., Wecker, E. and Henry, C. (1959) Virol. 7, 220.

Franklin, R.M. and Baltimore, D. (1962) Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 27, 175.

Garfinkle, B.D. and Tershak, D.R. (1972) Nature New Biology 238, 206.

Ghendon, Y., Yakobson, E. and Mikhejeva, A. (1972) J. Virol. 10, 261.

Ghendon, Y. Babushkina, L. and Blagoveshienkaya, O. (1973) Arch. ges. Virusforsch. 40, 47.

Girard, M. (1969) J. Virol. 3, 376.

Girard, M., Baltimore, D. and Darnell, J.R. (1967) J. Mol. Biol. 24, 59.

Goldstein, N.O., Pardoe, I.V. and Burness, A.T.H. (1976) J. Gen. Virol. 31, 271.

Grado, C. Friedlender, B.; Ihl, M. and Contreras, G. (1968) Virol. 35, 339.

Greenberg, J.R. (1972) Nature (London) 240, 102.

Griffith, I.P. (1972) Anal. Biochem. 46, 402.

Hand, R.R., Ensminger, W.D. and Tamm, I. (1971) Virol. 44, 527.

Hand, R.R. and Tamm, I. (1972) Virol. 47, 331.

Hausen, P. and Schäfer, W. (1962) Z. Naturforsch. 17B, 15.

Holland, J.J. and Kiehn, E.D. (1968) PNAS 60, 1015.

Horne, R.W. and Nagington, J. (1959) J. Mol. Biol. 1, 333.

Hruby, D.E. and Roberts, W.K. (1976) J. Virol. 19, 325.

Hruby, D.E. and Roberts, W.K. (1977) J. Virol. 23, 338.

Hruby, D.E. and Roberts, W.K. (1978) J. Virol. 25, 413.

Hummeler, K., Anderson, T.F. and Brown, R.R. (1962) Virol. 16, 84.

Huppert, J. and Sanders, F.K. (1958) Nature 182, 515.

Jacobson, M.F. and Baltimore, D. (1968a) PNAS 61, 77.

Jacobson, M.F. and Baltimore, D. (1968b) J. Mol. Biol. 33, 369.

Jacobson, M.F., Asso, J. and Baltimore, D. (1970) J. Mol. Biol. 49, 657.

Johnson, F.B., Blacklow, N.R. and Hoggan, M.D. (1972) J. Virol. 9, 1017.

Johnston, R. and Bose, H.R. (1972) PNAS 69, 1514.

Joklik, W.K. and Darnell, J.E. (1961) Virol. 13, 439.

Kaempfer, R. and Kaufman, J. (1973) PNAS 70, 1222.

Katagiri, S., Aikawa, S. and Hinuma, Y. (1971) J. Gen. Virol. 13, 101.

Katagiri, S., Hinuma, Y. and Ishida, N. (1968) Virol. 34, 797.

Kay, C.M., Colter, J.S. and Oikawa, K. (1970) Can. J. Biochem. 48, 940.

Kiehn, E.D. and Holland, J.J. (1970) J. Virol. 5, 358.

Klug, A., Finch, J.T. and Franklin, R.M. (1957) BBA 25, 242.

Klug, A., Longley, W. and Leberman, R. (1966) J. Mol. Biol. 15, 315.

Korant, B.D. (1972) J. Virol. 10, 751.

Korant, B.D. (1973) J. Virol. 12, 556.

Korant, B.D., Lonberg-Holm, K., Noble, J. and Stasny, J.T. (1972) Virol. 48, 71.

Korant, B.D., Lonberg-Holm, K., Yin, F.H. and Noble-Harvey, J. (1975) Virol. 63, 384.

Küppers, B. and Sumper, M. (1975) PNAS 72, 2640.

Laporte, J. and Lenoir, G. (1972) Ann. Rech. Vet. 3, 163.

Lawrence, C. and Thach, R.E. (1974) J. Virol. 14, 598.

Lawrence, C. and Thach, R.E. (1975) J. Virol. 15, 918.

Lee, P.W.K., Paucha, E. and Colter, J.S. (1978) Virol. 85, 286.

Lee, Y.F., Nomoto, A. and Wimmer, E. (1976) Prog. Nuc. Acids Res. Mol. Biol. 19, 89.

Levintow, L. In Comprehensive Virology, Vol. 2, p. 109. H. Fraenkel-Conrat and R.R. Wagner, eds. Plenum, New York (1974).

Loesch, W.T. and Arlinghaus, R.B. (1975) Arch. Virol. 47, 201.

Lonberg-Holm, K. and Butterworth, B.E. (1976) Virol. 71, 207.

Lonberg-Holm, K. and Korant, B.D. (1972) J. Virol. 9, 29.

Lonberg-Holm, K. and Philipson, L. In Early Interactions Between Animal Viruses and Cells, Monographs in Virology, Vol. 9, p. 1. J.L. Melnick, ed. S. Karger, Basel.

Lonberg-Holm, K., Crowell, R.L. and Philipson, L. (1976) Nature 259, 679.

Lonberg-Holm, K. and Yin, F.H. (1973) J. Virol. 12, 114.

Lonberg-Holm, K., Gosser, L.B. and Kauer, J.C. (1975) J. Gen. Virol. 27, 329.

Lonberg-Holm, K. and Whiteley, N.M. (1976) J. Virol. 19, 857.

Lonberg-Holm, K., Gosser, L.B. and Shimshick, E.J. (1976) J. Virol. 19, 746.

Lucas-Lenard, J. (1974) J. Virol. 14, 261.

Lund, G.A., Ziola, B.R., Salmi, A. and Scraba, D.G. (1977) Virol. 78, 35.

Lundquist, R.E., Ehrenfeld, E. and Maizel, J.V (1974) PNAS 71, 4773.

MacDonald, J.S.,and Goldberg, I.H. (1970) BBRC 41, 1.

Maizel, J.V. (1963) BBRC 13, 483.

Maizel, J.V. (1964) N.Y. Acad. Symp. on Gel Electrophoresis, 121 382.

Maizel, J.V., Phillips, B.A. and Summers, D.F. (1967) Virol. 32, 692.

Mak, T.W. and Rueckert, R.R. (1975) Intervirol. 4, 129.

Mak, T.W., O'Callaghan, D.J. and Colter, J.S. (1970) Virol. 40, 565.

Mak, T.W., Colter, J.S. and Scraba, D.G. (1974) Virol. 52, 543.

Mak, T.W., O'Callaghan, D.J., Kay, C.M. and Colter, J.S. (1971) Virol. 43, 579.

Mandel, B. (1962) Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 27, 123.

Mandel, B. (1967) Virol. 31, 248.

Mandel, B. (1971) Virol. 44, 554.

Mattern, C.F.T. (1962) Virol. 17, 520.

Mayer, M.M., Rapp, H.J., Roizman, B., Klein, S.W., Cowan, K.M., Lukens, D., Schwerdt, C.E., Schaffer, F.L. and Charney, J. (1957) J. Immun. 78, 435.

Mayor, H.D. (1964) Virol. 22, 156.

McCormick, W. and Penman, S. (1967) Virol. 31, 135.

McDonnell, J.P. and Levintow, L. (1970) Virol. 42, 999.

McGregor, S., Hall, L. and Rueckert, R.R. (1975) J. Virol. 15, 1107.

McGregor, S. and Mayor, H.D. (1971) J. Virol. 7, 41.

McGregor, S. and Rueckert, R.R. (1977) Virol. 21, 548.

McLean, C. and Rueckert, R.R. (1973) J. Virol. 11, 341.

Melnick, J.L. et al. (1974) Intervirol. 4, 303.

Miller, H.I. and Penhoet, E.E. (1972) Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med. 140, 435.

Miller, R.L. and Plagemann, P.G.W. (1972) J. Gen. Virol. 17, 349.

Nair, C.N. and Lonberg-Holm, K. (1971) J. Virol. 7, 278.

Nair, C.N. and Owens, M.J. (1974) J. Virol. 13, 535.

Newman, J.F.E., Rowlands, D.J. and Brown, F. (1973) J. Gen. Virol. 18, 171.

Noble, J. and Lonberg-Holm, K. (1973) Virol. 51, 270.

Nomoto, A., Detjen, B., Pozzatti, R. and Wimmer, E. (1977) Nature 268, 208.

Nomoto, A., Lee, Y.F. and Wimmer, E. (1976) PNAS 73, 375.

Nuss, D.L., Opperman, H. and Koch, G. (1975) PNAS 72, 1258.

Oberg, B. and Shatkin, A.J. (1972) PNAS 69, 3589.

Ouchterlony, O. (1948) Acta. Pathol. Microbiol. Scand. 25, 186.

Paucha, E., Seehafer, J. and Colter, J.S. (1974) Virol. 61, 315.

Pederson, C.E. and Eddy, G.A. (1974) J. Virol. 14, 740.

Penman, S. and Summers, D. (1965) Virol. 27, 614.

Perez-Bercoff, R. and Gander, M. (1977) Virol. 80, 426.

Perlin, M. and Phillips, B.A. (1973) Virol. 53, 107.

Pettersson, R.F., Flanegan, J.B., Rose, J.K. and Baltimore, D. (1977) Nature 268, 270.

Phillips, B.A., Summers, D.F. and Maizel, J.V. (1968) Virol. 35, 216.

Phillips, B.A., Fennel, R. (1973) J. Virol. 12, 291.

Phillips, B.A. (1971) Virol. 44, 307.

Phillips, B.A. (1969) Virol. 39, 811.

Phillips, B.A. (1972) Curr. Top. Microbiol. 58, 156.

Phillips, D.R. and Morrison, M. (1970) BBRC 40, 284.

Plagemann, P.G.W. and Swim, H.E. (1968) J. Mol. Biol. 35, 13.

Polatnick, J., Arlinghaus, R.B., Graves, J.H. and Cowan, K.M. (1967) Virol. 31, 609.

Porter, A., Carey, N. and Fellner, P. (1974) Nature (London) 248, 675.

Reich, E., Franklin, R.M., Shatkin, A.J. and Tatum, E.L. (1962) PNAS 48, 1238.

Rekosh, D.M., Lodish, H.F. and Baltimore, D. (1970) J. Mol. Biol. 54, 327.

Robertson, H.D. and Mathews, M.B. (1973) PNAS 70, 225.

Roesing, T.G., Toselli, P.A. and Crowell, R.L. (1975) J. Virol. 15, 654.

Roizman, B., Mayer, M.M. and Roane, P.R. (1959) J. Immun. 82, 19.

Rosenberg, H., Diskin, B., Oron, L. and Traub, A. (1972) PNAS 69, 3815.

Rowlands, D.J., Harris, T.J.R. and Brown, F. (1978) J. Virol. 26, 335.

Rowlands, D.J., Sanger, D.V. and Brown, F. (1971) J. Gen. Virol. 13, 85.

Rueckert, R.R. In Comparative Virology, p. 255. K. Maromorosch and E. Kurstak, eds. Academic Press, New York (1971).

Rueckert, R.R. (1965) Virol. 26, 324.

Rueckert, R.R. and Duesberg, P.H. (1966) J. Mol. Biol. 17, 490.

Rueckert, R.R. In Comprehensive Virology, 6, p. 131. H. Frankel-Conrat and R.R. Wagner, eds. (1976)

Rueckert, R.R., Dunker, A.K. and Stoltzfus, C.M. (1969) PNAS 62, 912.

Saborio, J.L., Pong, S.S. and Koch, G. (1974) J. Mol. Biol. 85, 195.

Sanford, K.K., Earle, W.R. and Likely, G.D. (1948) J. Nat. Cancer Inst. 9, 229.

Sanger, D.V., Black, D.N., Rowlands, D.J. and Brown, F. (1977) J. Gen. Virol. 35, 281.

Sanger, D.V., Rowlands, D.J., Cavanagh, D. and Brown, F. (1976) J. Gen. Virol. 31, 35.

Sanger, D.V., Rowlands, D.J., Harris, T.J.R. and Brown, F. (1977) Nature 268, 648.

Schaffer, F.L. and Schwerdt, C.E. (1955) PNAS 41, 1020.

Schaffer, F.L. and Schwerdt, C.E. (1959) Adv. Virus Res. 6, 159.

Schmidt, N.J. In Fundamental Techniques in Virology, p. 263.
     K., Habel and N.P. Salzman, Eds. Academic Press, New
     York (1969)

Schwartz, L.B., Lawrence, C., Thach, R.E. and Rodder, R.G.
     (1974) J. Virol. 14, 611.

Scraba, D.G., Kay, C.M. and Colter, J.S. (1967) J. Mol.
     Biol. 26, 67.

Scraba, D.G. and Colter, J.S. (1974) PAABS Rev. 3, 401.

Sever, J.L. (1962) J. Immunol. 88, 320.

Shapiro, A.L., Vinuela, E., and Maizel, J.V. (1967) BBRC
     28, 815.

Smith, A.E. In Control Processes in Virus Multiplication,
     p. 183. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, U.K.
     (1973).

Spector, D.H. and Baltimore, D. (1974) PNAS 71, 2983.

Spector, D.H. and Baltimore, D. (1975a) J. Virol. 16,
     1081.

Spector, F.H. and Baltimore, D. (1975b) J. Virol. 15,
     1418.

Spence, L. (1968) Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med. 103, 425.

Steiner-Pryor, A. and Cooper, P.D. (1973) J. Gen. Virol.
     21, 215.

Study Group on Picornaviridae (1975) Intervirology 4,
     303.

Stumph, W.E., Elgin, S.C. and Hood, L. (1974) J. Immunol.
     113, 1752.

Summers, D.F., Maizel, J.V. and Darnell, J.E. (1965) PNAS
     54, 505.

Summers, D.F. and Maizel, J.V. (1968) PNAS 59, 966.

Summers, D.F., Shaw, E.V., Stewart, M.L. and Maizel, J.V.
     (1972) J. Virol. 10, 880.

Summers, D.F. and Maizel, J.V. (1971) PNAS 68, 2852.

Taber, R., Rekosh, D. and Baltimore, D. (1971) J. Virol.
     8, 395.

Talbot, P., Rowlands, D.J., Burroughs, J.N., Sanger, D.V. and Brown, F. (1973) J. Gen. Virol. 19, 369.

Tannock, G.A., Gibbs, A.J. and Cooper, P.D. (1970) BBRC 28, 298.

Thach, R.E., Lawrence, C. and Golini, F. (1975) Proc. 3rd Int. Congress Virology, p. 100.

Thach, S.S., Dobbertin, D., Lawrence, C., Golini, F. and Thach, R.E. (1974) PNAS 71, 2549.

Traub, A., Diskin, B., Rosenberg, H. and Kalmar, E. (1976) J. Virol. 18, 375.

Tweeten, K.A., Bulla, L.A. and Consigli, R.A. (1978) J. Virol. 26, 702.

Vande Woude, G.F., Ascione, R., Cord, J., Cowan, K.M. and Polatnick, J. (1972) Abstr. Am. Soc. Microbiol. 224, 101.

Wadell, G. (1972) J. Immunol. 108, 622.

Wawrzkiewicz, J., Smale, C.J. and Brown, F. (1968) Arch. ges. Virusforsch. 25, 337.

Weber, K. and Osborn, M. (1969) J. Biol. Chem. 244, 4406.

Wild, T.F. and Brown, F. (1970) J. Gen. Virol. 7, 1.

Willems, M. and Penman, S. (1966) Virol. 30, 355.

Wright, P.J. and Cooper, P.D. (1974) Virol. 59, 1.

Yin, F.H. (1977) Virol. 82, 299.

Yogo, Y. and Wimmer, E. (1972) PNAS 69, 1877.

Zajac, I. and Crowell, R.L. (1965) J. Bacteriol. 89, 574.

Ziola, B.R. and Scraba, D.G. (1974) Virol. 57, 531.

Ziola, B.R. and Scraba, D.G. (1975) Virol. 64, 228.

Ziola, B.R. and Scraba, D.G. (1976) Virol. 71, 111.

Zwillenberg, L.O. and Bücki, F. (1966) Arch ges. Virusforsch. 19, 373.