

UNIT1:Microbes andFungi

Viruses

Viruses are infectious agents with both living and nonliving characteristics. They can infect animals,plants,andevenothermicroorganisms.Virusesthatinfectonlybacteriaare called**bacteriophages**(*def*)and those that infect onlyfungi aretermed **mycophages**(*def*). There are even some viruses called **virophages** (*def*) that infect other viruses.

The**history of virology**– the scientific study of viruses and the infections they cause – began in the closing years of the 19th century. Although Louis PasteurandEdward Jennerdeveloped the firstvaccinesto protect against viral infections, they did not know that viruses existed. The first evidence of the existence of viruses came from experiments with filters that had pores small enough to retain bacteria. In 1892,Dmitry Ivanovskyyused one of these filters to show that sap from a diseasedtobacco plantremained infectious to healthy tobacco plants despite having been filtered.MartinusBeijerinckcalled the filtered, infectious substance a "virus" and this discoveryis considered to be the beginning of virology. The subsequent discovery and partial characterization ofbacteriophages byFelix d'Herellefurther catalyzed the field, and by the early 20th century many viruses were discovered.

LivingCharacteristicsof Viruses

- a. They**reproduce**at afantasticrate, but onlyin livinghost cells.
- b. Theycan**mutate**.

NonlivingCharacteristicsof Viruses

- a. Theyare**acellular**,that is,theycontainno cytoplasmor cellular organelles.
- b. They**carry out no metabolism on their own and must replicate using the host cell's metabolic machinery**. In other words, viruses don't grow and divide. Instead, new viral components are synthesized and assembled within the infected host cell.
- c. The**vastmajorityofvirusespossess eitherDNAorRNAbut not both**.

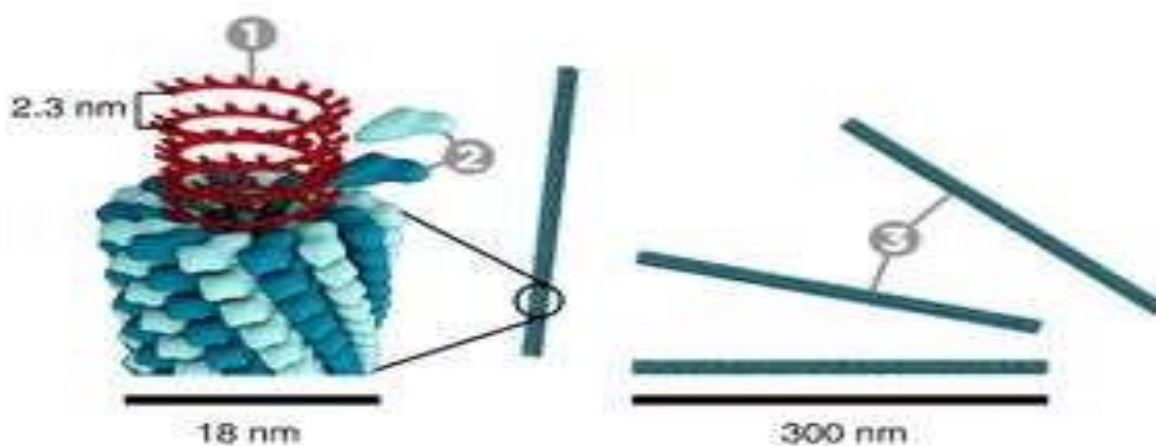
Recently, viruses have been declared as living entities based on the large number of protein folds encoded by viral genomes that are shared with the genomes of cells. This indicates that viruses likely arose from multiple ancient cells.

CriteriaUsedtoDefineaVirus

- a. The vast majorityof viruses contain onlyone type of nucleic acid: DNA or RNA, but not both.

- b. They are totally dependent on a host cell for replication. (They are strict intracellular parasites.)
- c. Viral components must assemble into complete viruses (virions) to go from one host cell to another.

Tobacco mosaic virus:(TMV) is a positive-sense single stranded RNA virus that infects a wide range of plants, especially tobacco and other members of the family Solanaceae. The infection causes characteristic patterns, such as "mosaic"-like mottling and discoloration on the leaves (hence the name). TMV was the first virus ever to be discovered. Although it was known from the late 19th century that an infectious disease was damaging tobacco crops, it was not until 1930 that the infectious agent was determined to be a virus.



Tobacco mosaic virus has a rod-like appearance. Its capsid is made from 2130 molecules of coat protein and one molecule of genomic single strand RNA, 6400 bases long. The coat protein self-assembles into the rod-like helical structure (16.3 proteins per helix turn) around the RNA which forms a hairpin loop structure (see the electron micrograph above). The protein monomer consists of 158 amino acids which are assembled into four main alpha-helices, which are joined by a prominent loop proximal to the axis of the virion. Virions are ~300 nm in length and ~18 nm in diameter.^[12] Negatively stained electron micrographs show a distinct inner channel of ~4 nm. The RNA is located at a radius of ~6 nm and is protected from the action of cellular enzymes by the coat protein. There are three RNA nucleotides per protein monomer. X-ray fiber diffraction structure of the intact virus was studied based on an electron density map at 3.6 Å resolution.

Disease cycle

TMV does not have a distinct overwintering structure. Rather, it will over-winter in infected tobacco stalks and leaves in the soil, on the surface of contaminated seed (TMV can even survive in contaminated tobacco products for many years). With the direct contact with host plants through its vectors (normally insects such as aphids and leafhoppers), TMV will go through the infection process and then the replication process.

Infection

After its multiplication, it enters the neighboring cell through plasmodesmata. For its smooth entry, TMV produces a 30 kDa movement protein called P30 which enlarges the plasmodesmata. TMV most likely moves from cell-to-cell as a complex of the RNA, P30, and replicase proteins. It can also spread through phloem for longer distance movement within the plant. Moreover, TMV can be transmitted from one plant to another by direct contact. Although TMV does not have defined transmission vectors, the virus can be easily transmitted from the infected hosts to the healthy plants, by human handling.

Replication

Following entry into its host via mechanical inoculation, TMV uncoats itself to release its viral [+] RNA strand. As uncoating occurs, the MetHel:Pol gene is translated to make the capping enzyme MetHel and the RNA Polymerase. Then the viral genome will further replicate to produce multiple mRNAs via a [-]RNA intermediate primed by the tRNA^{HIS} at the [+]RNA 3' end. The resulting mRNAs encode several proteins, including the coat protein and an RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp), as well as the movement protein. Thus TMV can replicate its own genome. After the coat protein and RNA genome of TMV have been synthesized, they spontaneously assemble into complete TMV virions in a highly organized process. The protomers come together to form disks or 'lock washers' composed of two layers of protomers arranged in a helix. The helical capsid grows by the addition of protomers to the end of the rod. As the rod lengthens, the RNA passes through a channel in its center and forms a loop at the growing end. In this way the RNA can easily fit as a spiral into the interior of the helical capsid.

Host and Symptoms



Tobacco mosaic virus symptoms on tobacco Tobacco mosaic virus symptoms on orchid

Like other plant pathogenic viruses, TMV has a very wide host range and has different effects depending on the host being infected. The tobacco mosaic virus has been known to cause a production loss for flue cured tobacco of up to two percent in North Carolina. It is known to infect members of nine plant families, and at least 125 individual species, including tobacco, tomato, pepper (all members of the useful Solanaceae), cucumbers, and a number of ornamental flowers. There are many different strains. The first symptom of this virus disease is a light green coloration between the veins of young leaves. This is followed quickly by the development of a "mosaic" or mottled pattern of light and dark green areas in the leaves. Rugosity may also be seen where the infected plant leaves display small localized random wrinkles. These symptoms develop quickly and are more pronounced on younger leaves. Its infection does not result in plant death, but if infection occurs early in the season, plants are stunted. Lower leaves are subjected to "mosaic burn" especially during periods of hot and dry weather. In these cases, large dead areas develop in the leaves. This constitutes one of the most destructive phases of tobacco mosaic virus infection. Infected leaves may be crinkled, puckered, or elongated. However, if TMV infects crops like grape and apple, it is almost symptomless.

Treatment and management

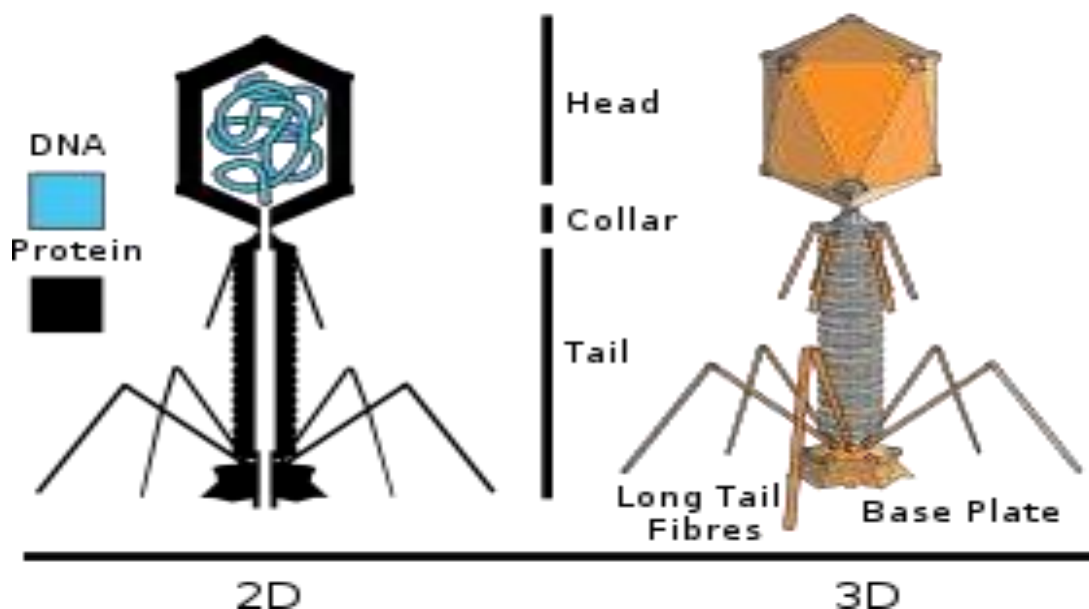
One of the common control methods for TMV is sanitation, which includes removing infected plants, and washing hands in between each planting. Crop rotation should also be employed to avoid infected soil/seed beds for at least two years. As for any plant disease, looking for resistant strains against TMV may also be advised. Furthermore, the cross protection method can be administered, where the stronger strain of TMV infection is inhibited by infecting the host plant with mild strain of TMV, similar to the effect of a vaccine.

In the past ten years, the application of genetic engineering on a host plant genome has been developed to allow the host plant to produce the TMV coat protein within their cells. It was hypothesized that the TMV genome will be re-coated rapidly upon entering the host cell, thus it prevents the initiation of TMV replication. Later it was found that the mechanism that protects the host from viral genome insertion is through gene silencing.

Bacteriophage

Abacteriophage is a virus that infects and replicates within a bacterium. The term is derived from "bacteria" and the Greek: φαγεῖν (*phagein*), "to devour". Bacteriophages are composed of proteins that encapsulate a DNA or RNA genome, and may have relatively simple or elaborate structures. Their genomes may encode as few as four genes, and as many as hundreds of genes. Phages replicate within the bacterium following the injection of their genome into its cytoplasm. Bacteriophages are among the most common and diverse entities in the biosphere.

Phages are widely distributed in locations populated by bacterial hosts, such as soil or the intestines of animals. One of the densest natural sources for phages and other viruses is seawater, where up to 9×10^8 virions per milliliter have been found in microbial mats at the surface, and up to 70% of marine bacteria may be infected by phages. They have been used for over 90 years as an alternative to antibiotics in the former Soviet Union and Central Europe, as well as in France. They are seen as a possible therapy against multi-drug-resistant strains of many bacteria (see phage therapy). Nevertheless, phages of *Inoviridae* have been shown to complicate biofilms involved in pneumonia and cystic fibrosis, shelter the bacteria from drugs meant to eradicate disease and promote persistent infection.



Replication

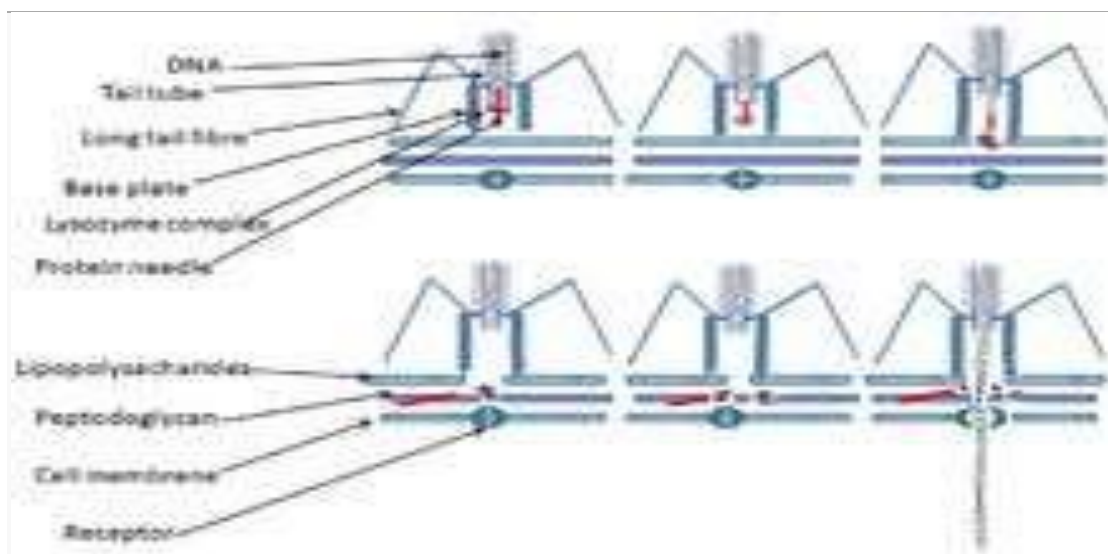


Diagram of the DNA injection process

Bacteriophages may have a lytic cycle or a lysogenic cycle, and a few viruses are capable of carrying out both. With *lytic phages* such as the T4 phage, bacterial cells are broken open (lysed) and destroyed after immediate replication of the virion. As soon as the cell is destroyed, the phage progeny can find new hosts to infect. Lytic phages are more suitable for phage therapy. Some lytic phages undergo a phenomenon known as lysis inhibition, where completed phage progeny will not immediately lyse out of the cell if extracellular phage concentrations are high.

This mechanism is not identical to that of temperate phage going dormant and is usually temporary.

In contrast, the *lysogenic cycle* does not result in immediate lysing of the host cell. Those phages able to undergo lysogeny are known as temperate phages. Their viral genome will integrate with host DNA and replicate along with it relatively harmlessly, or may even become established as a plasmid. The virus remains dormant until host conditions deteriorate, perhaps due to depletion of nutrients; then, endogenous phages (known as prophages) become active. At this point they initiate the reproductive cycle, resulting in lysis of the host cell. As the lysogenic cycle allows the host cell to continue to survive and reproduce, the virus is replicated in all of the cell's offspring. An example of a bacteriophage known to follow the lysogenic cycle and the lytic cycle is the phage lambda of *E. coli*.

Sometimes prophages may provide benefits to the host bacterium while they are dormant by adding new functions to the bacterial genome in a phenomenon called lysogenic conversion. Examples are the conversion of harmless strains of *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* or *Vibrio cholerae* by bacteriophages to highly virulent ones, which cause diphtheria or cholera, respectively. Strategies to combat certain bacterial infections by targeting these toxin-encoding prophages have been proposed.

Attachment and penetration



In this electron micrograph of bacteriophages attached to a bacterial cell, the viruses are the size and shape of coliphage T1.

To enter a host cell, bacteriophages attach to specific receptors on the surface of bacteria, including lipopolysaccharides, teichoic acids, proteins, or even flagella. This specificity means a bacteriophage can infect only certain bacteria bearing receptors to which they can bind, which in turn determines the phage's host range. Host growth conditions also influence the ability of the phage to attach and invade them. As phage virions do not move independently, they must rely on random encounters with the right receptors when in solution (blood, lymphatic circulation, irrigation, soil water, etc.).

Myovirus bacteriophages use a hypodermic syringe-like motion to inject their genetic material into the cell. After making contact with the appropriate receptor, the tail fibers flex to bring the base plate closer to the surface of the cell; this is known as reversible binding. Once attached completely, irreversible binding is initiated and the tail contracts, possibly with the help of ATP present in the tail, injecting genetic material through the bacterial membrane. Podoviruses lack an elongated tail sheath similar to that of a myovirus, so they instead use their small, tooth-like tail fibers enzymatically to degrade a portion of the cell membrane before inserting their genetic material.

Synthesis of proteins and nucleic acid

Within minutes, bacterial ribosomes start translating viral mRNA into protein. For RNA-based phages, RNA replicase is synthesized early in the process. Proteins modify the bacterial RNA polymerase so it preferentially transcribes viral mRNA. The host's normal synthesis of proteins and nucleic acids is disrupted, and it is forced to manufacture viral products instead. These products go on to become part of new virions within the cell, helper proteins that help assemble the new virions, or proteins involved in cell lysis. Walter Fiers (University of Ghent, Belgium) was the first to establish the complete nucleotide sequence of a gene (1972) and of the viral genome of bacteriophage MS2 (1976).

Virion assembly

In the case of the T4 phage, the construction of new virus particles involves the assistance of helper proteins. The base plates are assembled first, with the tails being built upon them afterward. The head capsids, constructed separately, will spontaneously assemble with the tails. The DNA is packed efficiently within the heads. The whole process takes about 15 minutes.

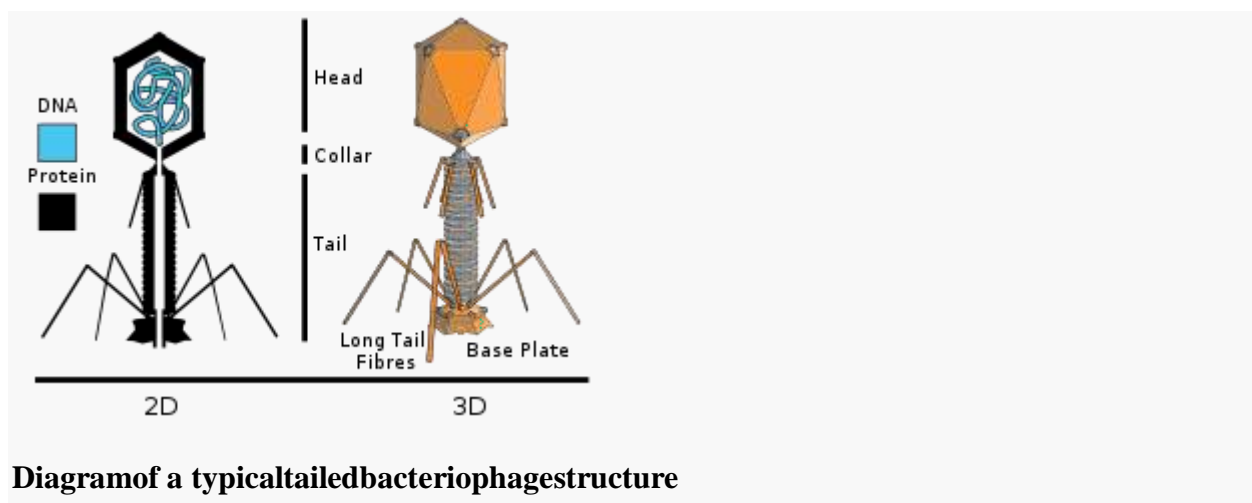


Diagram of a typical tailed bacteriophage structure

Release of virions

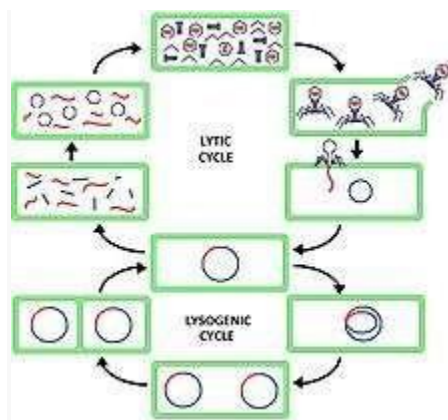
Phages may be released via cell lysis, by extrusion, or, in a few cases, by budding. Lysis, by tailed phages, is achieved by an enzyme called endolysin, which attacks and breaks down the cell wall peptidoglycan. An altogether different phage type, the filamentous phages, make the host cell continually secrete new virus particles. Released virions are described as free, and, unless defective, are capable of infecting a new bacterium. Budding is associated with certain *Mycoplasm* phages. In contrast to virion release, phages displaying a lysogenic cycle do not kill the host but, rather, become long-term residents as prophage.

Genome structure

Given the millions of different phages in the environment, phage genomes come in a variety of forms and sizes. RNA phage such as MS2 have the smallest genomes of only a few kilobases. However, some DNA phages such as T4 may have large genomes with hundreds of genes.

Bacteriophage genomes can be highly mosaic, i.e. the genome of many phage species appear to be composed of numerous individual modules. These modules may be found in other phage species in different arrangements. Mycobacteriophages – bacteriophages with mycobacterial hosts – have provided excellent examples of this mosaicism. In these mycobacteriophages, genetic assortment may be the result of repeated instances of site-specific recombination and illegitimate recombination (the result of phage genome acquisition of bacterial host genetic sequences). It should be noted, however, that evolutionary mechanisms shaping the genomes of bacterial viruses vary between different families and depend on the type of the nucleic acid, characteristics of the virion structure, as well as the mode of the viral life cycle.

Lysogenic cycle



Lysogenic cycle, compared to lytic cycle

Lysogeny, or the **lysogenic cycle**, is one of two cycles of viral reproduction (the lytic cycle is the other). Lysogeny is characterized by integration of the bacteriophage nucleic acid into the host bacterium's genome or formation of a circular replicon in the bacterium's cytoplasm. In this condition the bacterium continues to live and reproduce normally. The genetic material of the bacteriophage, called a prophage, can be transmitted to daughter cells at each subsequent cell division, and at a later event (such as UV radiation or the presence of certain chemicals) can release it, causing proliferation of new phages via the lytic cycle. Lysogenic cycles can also occur in eukaryotes, although the method of DNA incorporation is not fully understood.

The distinction between lysogenic and lytic cycles is that the spread of the viral DNA occurs through the usual prokaryotic reproduction, while the lytic phage is spread through the production of thousands of individual phages capable of surviving and infecting other cells. The key difference between the lytic cycle and the lysogenic cycle is that the lysogenic cycle does not lyse the host cell. Phages that replicate only via the lytic cycle are known as virulent phages while phages that replicate using both lytic and lysogenic cycles are known as temperate phages.

In the lysogenic cycle, the phage DNA first integrates into the bacterial chromosome to produce the prophage. When the bacterium reproduces, the prophage is also copied and is present in each of the daughter cells. The daughter cells can continue to replicate with the prophage present or the prophage can exit the bacterial chromosome to initiate the lytic cycle.

The **lytic cycle** is one of the two cycles of viral reproduction, the other being the lysogenic cycle. The lytic cycle results in the destruction of the infected cell and its membrane. A key difference between the lytic and lysogenic phage cycles is that in the lytic phage, the viral DNA exists as a separate molecule within the bacterial cell, and replicates separately from the host bacterial DNA. The location of viral DNA in the lysogenic phage cycle is within the host DNA, therefore in both cases the virus/phage replicates using the host DNA machinery, but in the lytic phage cycle, the phage is a free floating separate molecule to the host DNA.

Description

Viruses that only use lytic cycle are called virulent viruses (in contrast to temperate viruses). The lytic cycle is a six-stage cycle. In the first stage, called "penetration," the virus injects its own nucleic acid into a host cell. In some viruses this genetic material is circular and mimics a bacterial plasmid. The virus hijacks the cell's replication and translation mechanisms, using them to make more viruses. Once enough virions have accumulated, specialized viral proteins are allowed to dissolve the bacterial cell wall. The cell bursts due to high internal osmotic pressure (water pressure) that can no longer be constrained by the cell wall. This releases progeny virions into the surrounding environment, where they can go on to infect other cells.

Penetrating

To infect a cell, a virus must first enter the cell through the plasma membrane and (if present) the cell wall. Viruses do so by either attaching to a receptor on the cell's surface or by simple mechanical force. The binding is due to electrostatic interactions and is influenced by pH and presence of ions such as Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} . The virus then releases its genetic material (either single- or double-stranded RNA or DNA) into the cell. In doing this, the cell becomes infected and can also be targeted by the immune system.

Biosynthesis

The virus' nucleic acid uses the host cell's metabolic machinery to make large amounts of viral components. In the case of DNA viruses, the DNA transcribes itself into messenger RNA (mRNA) molecules that are then used to direct the cell's ribosomes. One of the first polypeptides to be translated destroys the host's DNA. In retroviruses (which inject an RNA strand), a unique enzyme called reverse transcriptase transcribes the viral RNA into DNA, which is then transcribed again into RNA. Once the viral DNA has taken control it induces the host cell's machinery to synthesize viral DNA, protein and starts multiplying. About 25 minutes after

initial infection, approximately 200 new bacteriophages are formed and the bacterial cell bursts i.e. it has undergone lysis. Newly formed phages are released to infect other bacteria and another lytic cycle begins. The phage which causes lysis of the host is called a lytic or virulent phage. The biosynthesis is (e.g. T4) regulated in three phases of mRNA production followed by a phase of protein production.

Early phase

Enzymes modify the host's DNA replication by RNA polymerase. Amongst other modifications, virus T4 changes the sigma factor of the host by producing an anti-sigma factor so that the host promoters are not recognized any more but now recognize T4 middle proteins. For protein synthesis Shine-Dalgarno subsequence GAGG dominates an early genes translation.

Middle phase

Virus nucleic acid (DNA or RNA depending on virus type).

Late phase

Structural proteins including those for the head and the tail.

Maturation and lysis

After many copies of viral components are made, they are assembled into complete viruses. The phage then directs production of lysozyme, an enzyme that breaks down the bacterial cell wall, which allows extracellular fluid to enter the cell. The cell eventually becomes filled with viruses (typically 100-200) and lyses, or bursts, thus giving the lytic cycle its name. The new viruses are then free to infect other cells.

Lytic cycle without lysis

Some viruses escape the host cell without bursting the cell membrane, but rather bud/extrude off from it by taking a portion of the membrane with them. Because it otherwise is characteristic of the lytic cycle in other steps, it still belongs to this category, although it is sometimes named the Productive Cycle. HIV, influenza and other viruses that infect eukaryotic organisms generally use this method. These group includes all viruses that have a lipid membrane.