ON THE ENTRY OF SEMLIKI FOREST VIRUS INTO BHK-21 CELLS

ARI HELENIUS, JÜRGEN KARTENBECK, KAI SIMONS, and ERIK FRIES
From the European Molecular Biology Laboratory, and the Division of Membrane Biology and Biochemistry, Institute of Experimental Pathology, German Cancer Research Center, 6900 Heidelberg, Federal Republic of Germany. Dr. Fries' present address is the Department of Biochemistry, Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305.

ABSTRACT
The pathway by which Semliki Forest virus (SFV), a membrane-containing animal virus, enters BHK-21 cells was studied morphologically and biochemically. After attaching to the cell surface, the majority of viruses was rapidly trapped into coated pits, internalized by endocytosis in coated vesicles, and sequestered into intracellular vacuoles and lysosomes. Direct penetration of viruses through the plasma membrane was never observed.

To assess the possible involvement of lysosomes in the release of the genome into the cytoplasm, the effect of five lysosomotropic agents, known to increase the lysosomal pH, was tested. All of these agents inhibited SFV infectivity and one, chloroquine (the agent studied in most detail), inhibited a very early step in the infection but had no effect on binding, endocytosis, or intracellular distribution of SFV. Thus, the inhibitory effect was concluded to be either on penetration of the nucleocapsid into the cytoplasm or on uncoating of the viral RNA.

Possible mechanisms for the penetration of the genome into the cytoplasm were studied in vitro, using phospholipid-cholesterol liposomes and isolated SFV. When the pH was 6.0 or lower, efficient fusion of the viral membranes and the liposomal membranes occurred, resulting in the transfer of the nucleocapsid into the liposomes. Infection of cells could also be induced by brief low pH treatment of cells with bound SFV under conditions where the normal infection route was blocked.

The results suggest that the penetration of the viral genome into the cytoplasm takes place intracellularly through fusion between the limiting membrane of intracellular vacuoles and the membrane of viruses contained within them. The low pH required for fusion together with the inhibitory effect of lysosomotropic agents implicate lysosomes, or other intracellular vacuoles with sufficiently low pH, as the main sites of penetration.

KEY WORDS coated vesicles • lysosomes • endocytosis • membrane fusion • lysosomotropic agents

To infect a cell, a virus must transfer its genome from the extracellular space to the cytosol. This process requires transport through one or more membrane barriers. For animal viruses the mechanisms involved are poorly understood. Data from electron microscopy suggest that penetration oc-
curs either at the plasma membrane or intracellularly after the virus has been taken up by endocytosis (for reviews see references 8 and 35). Penetration at the cell surface has been demonstrated for paramyxoviruses (for reviews see references 7 and 44); the membranes of these viruses fuse with the host cell plasma membrane, and the nucleocapsid is thereby introduced into the cytoplasm.

Endocytosis, "viropexis," has been observed for most animal viruses and may play an important role in the infection by many viruses (see reference 8). How the viral genome escapes from the endocytic vacuoles into the cytoplasm is not clear.

In this paper we have tried to unravel the pathway of infection used by the Semliki Forest virus (SFV). SFV is a simple membrane-containing animal virus belonging to the alphaviruses. The structural properties, the biosynthesis, and the general features of replication have been well characterized. The virus consists of a spherical nucleocapsid containing a single-stranded RNA and 240 copies of a single protein (5, 18). The nucleocapsid is surrounded by a lipid bilayer membrane with glycoprotein spikes (47). Each of these spikes consists of three glycopolyptides, with apparent mol wt of 48 x 10^3, 51 x 10^3, and 10 x 10^3, respectively (15, 56). The spike proteins are anchored by hydrophobic segments in the lipid bilayer (51). In BHK-21 cells, the cell line used in this study, infection proceeds rapidly (4, 30), penetration occurring within the 1st h after addition of the virus.

The viral RNA synthesis is detectable after 1.5 h, and after 2.5 h the first progeny viruses appear in the medium.

Our results suggest the following stages in the entry of SFV into BHK-21 cells: (a) binding to the cell surface, (b) internalization by adsorptive endocytosis in coated vesicles, (c) entry into larger intracellular vacuoles, and (d) fusion of the viral membrane with the vacular membrane, whereby the nucleocapsid enters the cytoplasmic compartment.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Cells and Virus**

BHK-21 cells were grown as monolayers in MEM Glasgow medium (Orion Diagnostica, Finland) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Grand Island Biological Co., Grand Island, N. Y.), 2 mM glutamine, 250 IE/ml penicillin, and 0.1 mg/ml streptomycin sulfate. Plastic cell culture bottles (75 cm², Falcon Labware, Div. of Becton, Dickinson & Co., Oxnard, Calif.), Petri dishes (6 × 1.5 cm, Falcon Labware), 24-well Linbro plates (Linbro Div., Flow Laboratories, Hamden, Conn.), and glass coverslips (diameter 1.1 cm) in 3-cm diameter petri dishes (Falcon Labware) were used. The cells were passaged twice a week and used on the 3rd d after plating.

A prototype strain of SFV was grown in the BHK-21 cells and purified as described (28). SFV was labeled either with [35S]methionine (Radiochemical Centre, Amersham, England) (0.4 mCi/ml medium), or with [3H]leucine, [14C]leucine, and valine (0.02 mCi of each per ml medium) (29). Viral protein was determined by the Lowry procedure with 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate in the reaction mixture, using bovine serum albumin (BSA) as a standard. In the calculations, we assumed a protein content of 57%, and a viral mol wt of 64 x 10^6 (34). In the P-labeled virus, ~10% of the activity was extractable by chloroform: methanol:water (8:4.3 vol/vol), indicating that ~90% of the label was in the RNA. The nonradioactive virus, the [35S]methionine-labeled virus, and the [3H]-labeled virus were stored at ~80°C in 0.05 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, containing 0.1 M NaCl and 42% wt/wt sucrose. The [3H]-labeled virus was stored at 4°C and used within 3 d.

**Association of [35S]Methionine-labeled SFV to Cells**

Confluent cells on 6 × 1.5 cm Falcon dishes were washed twice with R-medium (RPMI 1640 containing 10 mM 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazine ethane sulfonic acid (HEPES, Serva, Germany), pH 6.8, and 0.1% BSA. The dishes were kept either in a CO2 incubator (37°C) or on ice for 1 h in the presence or absence of 0.1 mM chloroquine. The medium was removed, and 1 ml of [35S]-labeled SFV in R-medium (with or without chloroquine) was added to each dish either at room temperature or in the cold. The cells were then incubated at 37°C or on ice for different periods of time. The medium was removed and the cells were washed twice with 1.0 ml of cold R-medium. The combined medium and washes were centrifuged (5 min, 1,500 rpm, 4°C) and 1.2 ml of the supernate was lyophilized and solubilized in Triton X-100 toluol scintillation fluid. The radioactivity was determined in a Mark III scintillation counter (Searle Analytic Inc., Des Plaines, Ill.). Another 1.2 ml was mixed with an equal volume of 20% TCA. After 1 h at 0°C, the precipitates were collected and assayed for radioactivity. Aliquots of the TCA supernate were dried at 50°C, and radioactivity was determined after solubilization in scintillation fluid.

To synchronize the entry of virus into the cells, the [3H]-labeled virus was allowed to bind in the cold for 1 h as described above. Free and loosely bound virus was removed by two washes with 5 ml of cold R-medium. 1 ml of R-medium was added and the dishes were placed on the water surface of a 37°C waterbath or for incubations longer than 20 min into a 5% CO2 incubator. At various times dishes were removed, cooled, and treated as described above.

**Proteinase K Assay for Internalized SFV**

Cells treated with radioactive SFV in the cold or at 37°C for varying periods were cooled on ice and washed. 0.5 mg proteinase K (Boehringer, Mannheim, Germany) or 0.5 mg of BSA in 1 ml of PBS was added to duplicate dishes. The dishes were rocked...
slowly for 45 min at 4°C. A 1 ml of 1 mM PMSF in PBS, containing 30 mg of BSA, was added. The cells were scraped off, transferred into 15-ml conical glass tubes, vortexed, and diluted to 14 ml with PBS containing 0.2% BSA on ice. After centrifugation (3 min, 2,000 rpm, 4°C) the supernate was discarded, and the cells were washed twice with PBS-BSA. Finally, the cells were dissolved in 10 ml of Triton X-100 toluid scintillation fluid and the radioactivity was measured.

**SFV Fusion with Liposomes**

Liposomes were prepared daily by dissolving 2.5 μmol each of phosphatidylethanolamine (bovine brain type I, Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.), sphingomyelin (bovine brain, Sigma Chemical Co.), and choline (egg yolk, type V, Sigma Chemical Co.), and 3.75 μmol of cholesterol (Merck, Germany, four times crystallized) in 0.5 ml chloroform:methanol (2:1 vol/vol). The mixture was divided in two parts and dried on the walls of glass tubes using a rotary evaporator and then reconstituted twice in diethyl ether. After a few glass beads were added (1 mm Diam), one of the dried lipid films was suspended by vortexing into 0.5 ml of 0.05 M Tris-Cl pH 7.2, containing 0.13 M NaCl and 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgCl₂, and 10 mg/ml pancreatic RNase A (bovine, type IIIA, Sigma Chemical Co.). The other was suspended into 0.02 M HEPES, pH 7.3, containing 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgCl₂, and 0.3% BSA. To remove untrapped enzyme the RNase-containing sample was applied to a 0.7 cm × 20 cm column of Sephadex G-150 (Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden) equilibrated with the HEPES buffer. Fractions (0.3 ml) were collected at room temperature, and the three most opalescent fractions were pooled. To 0.9 ml of this pool, 20 μl of carrier-free [³²P]-SFV was added (5 to 10 × 10⁶ cpm). Control solutions were prepared as follows: (a) 20 μl of [³²P]-SFV was mixed with 0.15 ml of the RNase-free liposomes and 0.75 ml of the HEPES buffer containing 0.1 mg/ml RNase. (b) 20 μl of [³²P]-SFV was mixed with 0.9 ml of HEPES buffer containing 0.1 mg/ml RNase. Aliquots (100 μl) of each solution were placed in the tip of five colloidium thimbles (Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany). The colloidium thimbles were dialyzed at 37°C for 20 min against buffers of different pH. The buffers used were 0.02 M HEPES-HCl, pH 7.3, containing 0.13 M NaCl, 0.02 M 2-(N-morpholino)ethane sulfonic acid (MES) with 0.13 M NaCl, adjusted to pH 6.5, 6.0, and 5.5, respectively, and 0.02 M sodium acetate, pH 5.0, containing 0.13 M NaCl. As additional controls, 100-μl aliquots of each starting solution were made 1% in respect to Triton X-100 and incubated for 20 min at 37°C without dialysis, and [³²P]-SFV (20 μl) was mixed with 0.9 ml of HEPES buffer and kept at 0°C. Immediately after dialysis or incubation, the samples were transferred to 1.5-ml Eppendorf tubes on ice. Aliquots (25 μl) were pipetted onto two 3 MM Whatman paper disks (2.3 cm). One of the disks was allowed to air dry, and the other was immersed in cold 10% TCA. After 1 h at 0°C, it was washed for 15 min with ethanol: diethyl ether (1:1 vol/vol) and for 15 min in diethyl ether. After air drying, both paper disks were placed into scintillation vials and the radioactivity was determined using a toluene-based scintillant. The disks that had not been TCA treated gave the total radioactivity, and the disks that had been TCA treated gave the amount of acid-precipitable radioactivity. Identical results were obtained if TCA precipitation was performed in tubes after inactivation and solubilization with 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate at 56°C.

To determine the distribution of acid-soluble nucleotides between the particulate fraction and the medium, a Beckman airfluge (Beckman Instruments, Inc., Spinc DiV., Palo Alto, Calif.) was used. To 25-μl aliquots of the dialysates, 0.175 ml of 0.02 M HEPES, pH 7.3, containing 0.13 M NaCl and 0.3% BSA was added. Two 25-μl aliquots of these mixtures were assayed for TCA-soluble and total radioactivity as described above, and the rest were centrifuged for 20 min at 10⁴ g at room temperature. From the clear supernate, two 25-μl aliquots were assayed for TCA-soluble and total radioactivity as described above.

**Lysosomotropic Agents**

Stock solutions (10 mM) were prepared daily of chloroquine·HCl (Sigma Chemical Co.) and tributylamine, 100 mM of NH₄Cl and methylamine (Merck-Schuchardt, Hohenbrunn, Germany) and 1 mM of amantadine-HCl (Sigma Chemical Co.) in water. When necessary, the pH was adjusted to neutrality with NaOH or HCl and appropriate dilutions were then made into culture medium. For experiments involving plaque titrations, BHK-21 cells were grown to confluence in Linbro plates with 2.0 cm² wells. They were washed twice with serum-free MEM Glasgow medium and subsequently infected with labeled SFV. Aliquots (0.1 ml) of the supernate was then added to 0.9 ml of PBS containing 0.2% BSA. Duplicate plaque titrations were performed on BHK-21 cell monolayers as previously described (45). For indirect immunofluorescence microscopy, cells were grown on coverslips in the Linbro wells and infected as above.

**Rhodamine and Fluorescein Labeling of SFV and Immunofluorescence Microscopy**

SFV was labeled with tetramethyl rhodaminylisothiocyanate isomer R (TRITC) (BBL Microbiology Systems, Becton, Dickinson & Co., Cockeysville, Md.) in the following way: SFV (1 mg of protein) was mixed with a trace amount of [³⁵S]methionine-labeled SFV to give a specific radioactivity of 200–500 cpm/μg protein. The mixture (0.2 ml) was placed in dialysis tubing (Union Carbide Corp., Crystal Products Dept., San Diego, Calif.) and dialyzed for 10 h against 0.1 M sodium bicarbonate and for another 10 h against 0.1 M sodium bicarbonate containing 0.5 mg/ml of TRITC. For fluorescein labeling, 0.4 mg of SFV in 0.2 ml of 1:1 (vol/vol) PBS and saline was made basic by addition of 20 μl of sodium bicarbonate. 2 μg of dichlororhodaminylfluorescein (DTAF, Research Organics, Ohio) was added, and the sample was incubated for 1 h at room temperature before addition of 40 μl of 0.5 M glycine. Both the rhodamine- and the fluorescein-labeled virus were resolubilized by sedimentation velocity centrifugation in a sucrose gradient (5-20% sucrose wt/wt in 0.05 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, containing 0.1 M NaCl) in the SW50 rotor (Beckman Instruments, Inc., Spinc DiV.) (4°C, 35,000 rpm, 30 min). 40-60% of the radioactivity was found as a colored band at the position of control unlabeled SFV, centrifuged in a parallel gradient, the rest as faster sedimenting aggregates. The virus peak was collected and dialyzed overnight at 4°C against R-medium. To determine whether the virus was still intact, aliquots were subjected to sedimentation velocity and isopycnic sucrose gradient centrifugation with an internal standard of added [³³P]labeled SFV. The fluorescent virus behaved in the same way as [³³P]labeled virus. The virus particles appeared normal after negative-staining electron microscopy, but plaque titration showed that the fluorescent-labeled virus had lost 50% of its infectivity and that the rhodamine-labeled virus was no longer infective. The number of fluorescein and rhodaminyl
groups per virus particle were 200 and 1,000, respectively, as estimated from the absorbances at 495 and 560 nm and the protein content. Both preparations showed the same fluorescence pattern when added to cells, but only the more intensely fluorescent rhodamine-labeled virus could be used for photographic documentation. The fluorescent virus preparations were stable for at least 3 mo at -80°C.

For fluorescence microscopy, cells grown on coverslips were washed with cold medium (RPMI 1640 containing 10 mM MES, pH 6.8 and 0.1% BSA) and incubated with 20 µl of medium containing 0.5 µg of rhodamine or fluorescein-SFV for 1 h on ice. After washing with cold medium, the cells were either fixed for 15 min with 3% paraformaldehyde in PBS or incubated for 1 h at 37°C in medium before fixation.

For indirect immunofluorescence microscopy we used rabbit anti-spike protein serum (55) previously absorbed with 5 × 10⁴ BHK-21 cells/ml serum for 1 h at 37°C, and diluted 1:75 with PBS containing 0.1% BSA. Cells on coverslips treated or infected with virus were washed and fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde at room temperature. After washing with PBS containing 0.1 M glycine and PBS alone, the cells were incubated for 30 min with 20 µl of rabbit anti-spike protein serum, washed for 30 min with PBS, and incubated for 30 min with 10 µg/ml fluorescein-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (Miles, Stoke Poges, England) in PBS. After washing, the cells were mounted in 90% glycerol and PBS alone, the cells were incubated for 30 min with 0.5 µg viral protein/10⁶ cells, which is 10² to 10³ times more than normally used for infection studies. To make the SFV visible in the fluorescence microscope, rhodamine or fluorescein was covalently coupled to it (~10⁶ and 2 × 10⁵ groups, respectively, per virus particle). The fluorescein-labeled virus was not so strongly fluorescent as the rhodamine-labeled virus, but it retained half of its original infectivity. Indirect immunofluorescence with antiserum against the spike proteins and fluorescein-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG was also used.

When SFV was allowed to bind to BHK-21 cells in the cold, the patchy distribution shown in Fig. 1a was seen. The same fluorescence pattern was obtained with rhodamine- and fluorescein-labeled SFV, and with unlabeled SFV stained by indirect immunofluorescence. When the cells coated with rhodamine-SFV in the cold were stained with indirect immunofluorescence using fluorescein-labeled antibodies, full overlap between rhodamine and fluorescein stains was observed, indicating that all the rhodamine-SFV remained on the surface.

Thin-section electron microscopy (Fig. 2) of cells treated with virus in the cold indicated that the viruses bound preferentially to microvilli. A count made of 3 × 10⁵ SFV particles in thin sections of four different samples showed that 70% were associated with the microvilli. There are 2–4 × 10⁵ microvilli/cell, and their surface accounts for <40% of the total cell surface area. In the control cells the microvilli projected out from the cell surface; when associated with viruses, they tended to lie flat along the membrane (Fig. 2b). It is likely that most of the fluorescent patches observed in Fig. 1a correspond to viruses clustered around microvilli.

Many of the viruses that were not associated with microvilli were located in so-called coated pits (5% of all cell surface viruses) (Fig. 3a–c), and some (0.5%) were associated with small, flask-shaped indentations devoid of coat (Fig. 3i). The coated pits are invaginations of the plasma membrane with a characteristic electron-dense bristle coat on the cytoplasmic surface. In BHK-21 cells, the coated pits make up <2% of the total cell surface. Many are localized close to the base of microvilli. Several viruses could be seen in a single coated pit, and virus particles were often located at the edges of the pits. When the pits were highly indented the viruses tended to be close to the neck. Similar observations have been reported for the location of ferritin-labeled low density lipoprotein.
in coated pits of human fibroblasts (2, 41).

The cell surface distribution of viruses bound at 37°C closely resembled that at 4°C. We observed, however, in agreement with Anderson et al. (2), that deeply indented coated pits like those seen in Fig. 3c were relatively scarce at this temperature.

Morphology of SFV Internalization

Coverslips with 10⁶ cells were incubated with virus in the cold for 1 h, washed, transferred to 37°C medium for varying periods of time, and then fixed. The distribution of fluorescence of
rhodamine-labeled SFV after 1 h at 37°C was that shown in Fig. 1b. The fluorescence was concentrated in larger patches in the perinuclear region of the cell, a distribution very similar to that of lysosomes as visualized by acridine orange staining (1 μg/ml) (1). The viruses were intracellular as they were no longer accessible to staining by indirect immunofluorescence without breaking the cell membranes.

For thin-section electron microscopy, the virus-coated cells were only briefly warmed to 37°C to see the earliest stages of the internalization process. When the incubation time at 37°C was 15–30 s, some of the viruses had already entered the cell. They were in coated vesicles (Fig. 3d–h) that were round or ovoid in shape and had an outer diameter of 130–200 nm. As a rule, only one virus was present in each coated vesicle and it usually remained membrane bound. After 1 min or longer at 37°C, viruses could be observed accumulating in larger vacuoles which were either devoid of bristle coat or had just a small coated region on their surface (Fig. 4a and b). Other types of vacuoles became prominent after ~5 min of incubation at 37°C (Fig. 4c-f). These included large vacuoles with a lysosomal appearance. In some of these vacuoles the viruses were bound to the vacuolar membrane, to membranous intravacuolar material, or to each other. Many of the vacuoles could be stained for acid phosphatase activity by the cytochemical reaction of Gomori, confirming their lysosomal nature. The number of viruses at the plasma membrane decreased steadily as the incubation at 37°C proceeded, so that, after 1 h, Figure 2 Thin-section electron microscopy of BHK cells with SFV bound at 4°C. One million cells on a coverslip were treated with 0.8 μg of SFV for 1 h on ice. The majority of viruses are associated with microvilli (a and b). Microvilli covered with virus were often observed to lie parallel along the membrane (b). Occasionally, multiple contacts between virus spikes and cell surface could be observed (see arrows in inset). Bars (a and b) 0.2 μm; inset, 0.1 μm. × 62,000; inset, × 168,000.
FIGURE 3  Virus associated with coated pits and coated vesicles. Virus was allowed to bind to cells in the cold. The cells were either directly fixed (a–c) or warmed to 37°C for 15 s (g and h), 1 min (d), or 5 min (e and f) before fixation. In i, a virus is seen associated with an uncoated membrane invagination. Although more than one virus could be seen per coated pit (b), only in one case (see arrow in d) have we observed more than one virus in a coated vesicle. Bars, 0.1 μm. × 80,000.

only a few external virus particles could be observed. When experiments were performed at 37°C without prior synchronization of uptake by a temperature shift, the same morphology of virus internalization could be observed but with more overlap between the various stages.

For a full morphological description of the process of virus uptake, a quantitative analysis is needed. However, from our qualitative study at high multiplicity we can conclude that SFV is
FIGURE 4  SFV in cytoplasmic vacuoles. Virus was allowed to bind to cells in the cold. The cells were washed and warmed at 37°C for 1 min (a and b), 5 min (c), or 30 min (d-f), respectively, before fixation. Virus-containing vacuoles with very different morphology could be seen: partially coated vacuoles with several viruses suggesting fusion of coated vesicles with uncoated vacuoles (a and b); uncoated vacuoles with viruses loosely distributed throughout the interior (c); vacuoles tightly packed with virus particles (d and e); vacuoles with the morphology of secondary lysosomes (f). Panel g shows secondary lysosomes in chloroquine-treated cells containing viruses (arrows). The cells in g were incubated for 30 min at 37°C with virus as above, except that 0.1 mM chloroquine was present. Bars, 0.2 µm. (a-f) × 80,000; (g) × 60,000.
taken up by adsorptive endocytosis. The uptake occurs almost exclusively by coated vesicles which deliver the virus into intracellular vacuoles, many of which develop into secondary lysosomes.

**Internalization of \[^{35}S\]Methionine-labeled Virus at Low Multiplicity**

To follow the fate of the virus at low multiplicity of infection (0.5–1 plaque-forming unit (PFU)/cell), we used carrier-free \[^{35}S\]methionine-labeled virus (1,200 PFU/cpm). Fig. 5 a and b show the kinetics of virus association with cells at 4°C and 37°C. At 4°C, the amount of acid-precipitable radioactivity associated with cells reached a constant level of 2 x 10^3 cpm (1 PFU per four cells) after 1.5 h. Virtually no acid-soluble radioactivity was found associated with the cells or in the medium. At 37°C, the amount of virus associated with the cells reached its maximum (1.3 x 10^3 cpm) after 1 h and then decreased slowly. After ∼30 min, degraded viral protein became detectable in the medium as acid-soluble radioactivity increasing with a rate of 350 cpm/h at least up to 3 h. Little acid-soluble radioactivity was found associated with the cells at any time point.

**Figure 5** Association of carrier-free \[^{35}S\]SFV with BHK-21 cells at 4°C and 37°C. Cells (8 x 10^6 on 6-cm dishes) were incubated with 4,100 cpm ^35S-SFV (5 x 10^6 PFU) in R-medium. The acid-soluble and acid-precipitable radioactivities in the medium and in the cells were determined after incubation at 4°C or 37°C for different periods of time. Acid-precipitable radioactivity associated with cells in the absence (○) and in the presence (□) of 0.1 mM chloroquine; acid-precipitable radioactivity in the combined medium and cell washes in the absence (▲) and in the presence (●) of chloroquine; acid-soluble activity in the cells in the presence (△) and in the absence (■) of chloroquine; acid-soluble activity in the medium in the absence (□) and presence (○) of chloroquine.

To distinguish between the viruses on the cell surface and those inside the cell, we used proteinase K, a nonspecific protease, which has been previously applied to remove proteins external to membranes (55). Indirect immunofluorescence microscopy showed that virtually all virus particles present on the cell surface could be removed by this enzyme without cell lysis. To determine the extent to which SFV was internalized, a double-label experiment was carried out. [^3H]isoleucine-, leucine-, and valine-labeled SFV (1,400 cpm/plate and 20 PFU/cell) were allowed to associate with 8 x 10^6 cells in Petri dishes for 1 h at 37°C. The plates were cooled on ice and washed. \[^{35}S\]methionine-labeled virus (3,200 cpm/plate corresponding to ∼1 PFU/cell) was then allowed to bind for another hour in the cold. The total amount of \(^3H\) and \(^35S\)-labeled virus associated with the cells was determined from one dish. Another similarly treated dish was treated with proteinase K in the cold. The cells were washed and the remaining radioactivity was determined. Of the \(^35S\)-labeled virus, 94–96% was removed by the protease K treatment; of the \(^3H\)-labeled virus, only 20–25% was digested. If \(^35S\)-SFV was present during the 37°C incubation and if \(^3H\)-SFV was added in the cold, the reverse results were obtained. These data indicated that ∼80% of the viruses present at 37°C were internalized during the 1 h at 37°C. As the nucleocapsids contain less than one-fifth of the total radioactivity of SFV, these values cannot be explained as being due to nucleocapsids alone entering the cell. The data also indicate that few, if any, viruses entered the cell at 4°C.

Using proteinase K treatment, we could get an estimate of the rate of virus internalization. In an unsynchronized low multiplicity infection with 0.6 PFU added per cell, the uptake was linear with time (Fig. 6). In a synchronized infection, where the virus was allowed to bind in the cold, the rate of uptake upon warming was initially more rapid (Fig. 7) and the amount of intracellular radioactivity leveled off after about 30 min. At this time, degradation of virus became detectable as acid-soluble radioactivity in the medium (Fig. 7). After 2 h, all the virus radioactivity originally bound to the cell was either in a proteinase-resistant form inside the cell or in acid-soluble form in the medium.

**Effect of Lysosomotropic Agents**

To test whether lysosomes might be involved in the infective pathway, we studied the effect of
have recently shown (40) that the change in pH occurs very rapidly and can be as high as 1.7 U. When the agents are removed from the medium, the pH rapidly returns to values close to the original.

All five lysosomotropic compounds tested significantly reduced the titer of virus produced during a single cycle infection (Table I). Chloroquine and NH₄Cl were more effective than methylamine, tributylamine, and amantadine. Not only was the production of virus inhibited but there was also a reduction in the number of cells which expressed viral antigens on their surfaces as determined by indirect immunofluorescence (Table I).

For further studies, we used chloroquine as it was the most effective inhibitor. Although 0.05 mM chloroquine was sufficient to reduce the virus yields to 2% of control values, we used routinely a concentration of 0.1 mM. If chloroquine was present 30 min before virus addition but removed when the virus was added to the cells, no reduction in virus titers after a single cycle infection could be observed. Furthermore, only 30% inhibition was observed if chloroquine was added 1 h after the virus. These results indicate that the chloroquine-sensitive step occurred within the 1st h and that later processes such as viral RNA replication, protein synthesis, and morphogenesis proceeded normally in the presence of 0.1 mM chloroquine. When chloroquine was present during the 1-h

| Inhibitor | Inhibitor concn. | PFU/ml x 10⁻⁶ | Cells infected % |
|-----------|------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| None      | --               | 140           | 64              |
| Tributylamine | 1              | 66            | 31              |
| Amantadine | 0.5             | 14            | 19              |
| Methylamine | 10             | 3.6           | 10              |
| Chloroquine | 0.1            | 1.2           | <1              |
| NH₄Cl     | 10               | 0.8           | <1              |

* 1.8 x 10⁶ cells per Linbro well were pretreated for 0.5 h with 0.4 ml of complete medium containing the inhibitors. Virus was added (10 PFU/cell) and allowed to absorb for 1 h. Medium was replaced with 0.5 ml of fresh medium with 0.2% BSA but no serum. After an incubation period of 4.5 h, the cell medium was assayed for virus by plaque titration. In a separate experiment, the fraction of infected cells was determined by indirect immunofluorescence microscopy as described in Materials and Methods. All incubations were carried out at 37°C in 5% CO₂ atmosphere.
period of virus absorption but absent during the rest of the incubation, intermediate titers of virus were obtained. This result suggests that although the infection can be halted by chloroquine, it can proceed with lower efficiency when the inhibitor is removed.

A more exact time point for the chloroquine-sensitive step was obtained by synchronizing the infection by a temperature shift. Viruses were bound to the cell in the cold and allowed to enter by raising the temperature to 37°C. Chloroquine was then added at various times and left in the medium for the rest of the infection. The results in Fig. 8 show that when the inhibitor was added 2.5 min (or earlier) after the temperature shift, the virus yield remained at a low level. Addition at 5 min or later failed to give efficient inhibition. This indicates that in 5 min the first viruses have already proceeded beyond the chloroquine-sensitive phase of the entry pathway.

Chloroquine had no effect on the rate of virus binding to cells or on the rate of endocytosis (Figs. 5 and 6). Furthermore, fluorescence microscopy with rhodamine-labeled virus and thin-section electron microscopy showed that virus was taken up normally into perinuclear vacuoles and lysosomes (Fig. 4 g). This led us to conclude that chloroquine most probably inhibited the release of the viral nucleocapsid into the cytoplasm or the uncoating of the RNA from the nucleocapsid.

A direct effect of chloroquine on the virus is unlikely. Treatment of SFV with 10 mM chloroquine for 15 min at pH 6.7 (37°C) before infecting cells had no effect on the infectivity. Two possible indirect mechanisms were considered. Chloroquine may inhibit a lysosomal hydrolase required for penetration, or inhibition could be caused by the elevation in lysosomal pH. Perhaps, acid pH was required to induce the final penetration of SFV through the membrane of some intracellular vacuoles.

Membrane Fusion

To test the role of pH in virus penetration, we used a liposome system where we tried to stimulate the conditions in lysosomes. Our assay relied on the fact that the viral RNA can be digested by pancreatic RNase A only if the enzyme and the RNA are present within the same membrane compartment. In intact SFV, the viral RNA is protected by the viral membrane against RNase, but in the naked nucleocapsid the RNA is sensitive (29). Liposomes were prepared from phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylethanolamine, sphingomyelin, and cholesterol in the presence of 10 mg RNase/ml. The external RNase was removed by gel filtration. Carrier-free 32P-RNA-labeled SFV was added to the liposomes, and the pH was adjusted by dialysis to values ranging from 4.5 to 7.3. The amount of 32P-RNA hydrolysed by the intraliposomal RNase in each sample was then determined. Fig. 9 shows that when the pH of the
dialysis buffer reached values of 6 or lower, the amount of RNA hydrolysed increased from background level (15%) to 75% of total RNA. If RNase was added to the virus in the absence of liposomes or if it was present in the external solution but lacking inside the liposomes, no increase in digestion occurred. To confirm that the digestion of RNA occurred inside the liposomes incubated at pH 5.5, a reaction mixture was centrifuged in a Beckman airfuge. 90% of the acid-soluble nucleotides were in the pellet.

Negative-staining electron microscopy of dialy- sates containing virus and liposomes devoid of RNase showed that the passage of viral RNA into the liposomes occurred through a process of membrane fusion. After dialysis against pH 5.5 buffer, large liposomal vesicles covered with spikes were seen (Fig. 10a-c). In cases where the stain had penetrated the vesicles, nucleocapsids could be seen. Several could be present in a single vesicle (Fig. 10a). If dialysis was performed at neutral pH, fusion between the viral membrane and the liposomes was not observed (Fig. 10d).

These experiments show that at low pH the viral membrane fuses with liposomes, resulting in the transfer of the viral nucleocapsid into the liposome. The process occurs with high efficiency and without addition of proteins or enzymes.

**DISCUSSION**

**Binding**

We have previously shown that BHK-21 cells at 4°C bind about 5 x 10⁴ SFV particles with half-saturation at 10⁻¹⁰–10⁻¹¹ M virus concentrations (17). Binding of the lower affinity was also detected, but it is probably of little consequence during infection at low or moderate multiplicities. We do not yet know the identity of the receptors on BHK cells. However, using mouse and human cells we have shown that the viral spikes have affinity for the major histocompatibility antigens (the H2K and H2D, and the HLA-A and HLA-B antigens) (25). It is likely that homologous proteins occur on BHK-21 cells.

Although SFV enters the cell by endocytosis through the coated regions of the plasma membrane, the microvilli appear to be the preferential binding sites on BHK cells. Only ~5% of the virus particles bind directly to coated pits. This contrasts with the low density lipoprotein of serum whose receptors have been shown to be concentrated in the coated pits (3). Epidermal growth factor, which is also taken up in coated vesicles, has been reported by one group to bind diffusely over the cell surface (37), and by another group to preferentially bind to coated pits (22). As virtually all the viruses, including those bound to the microvilli, became internalized in coated vesicles, the viruses probably move laterally from the site of binding to sites where coated vesicles are formed. Our previous data on the binding of SFV and its isolated glycoprotein (17) suggest that the viruses may bind to multiple receptors (see also Fig. 2, inset). It is conceivable that clustering of surface receptors is sufficient to cause entrapment in coated pits. Alternatively, the association of virus with its receptor molecules might induce specific binding to components of the coated regions.

**Internalization**

Our morphological and biochemical data at high and low multiplicity indicate that, under normal conditions of infection, SFV enters into the cell by adsorptive endocytosis and not by fusion with the plasma membrane. This conclusion is supported by recent studies of Fan and Sefton (14). They showed that penetration of Sindbis virus (which is closely related to SFV) does not
TABLE II
pH Dependence of SFV Infection in the Presence of Chloroquine*

| pH   | Virus titer | Infected cells |
|------|-------------|----------------|
|      | PFU/ml      | %              |
| 1. No chloroquine | 7.3       | 10 × 10^5      | 53          |
| 2. Chloroquine, 10^-4 M | 7.3       | 0.4 × 10^5     | <3          |
| 3. Chloroquine, 10^-3 M | 6.5       | 0.6 × 10^6     | <3          |
| 4. Chloroquine, 10^-1 M | 5.5       | 8.1 × 10^5     | 63          |

* Virus (14 PFU/cell) was allowed to bind in the cold to cells grown in Linbro plates. The cells were then warmed up by addition of 2 ml (37°C) of serum-free medium containing 0.2% BSA and 10 mM MES adjusted to the indicated pH. After 90 s, the media were removed and replaced with 1 ml of neutral serum-free medium containing 0.2% BSA. In samples 2, 3, and 4, all solutions contained 0.1 mM chloroquine throughout the experiments. After incubation at 37°C for 4.5 h the titer of virus was assayed by plaque titration and the percentage of infected cells by indirect immunofluorescence.

fore, utilizes a complex physiological mechanism which the cell operates for the uptake of macromolecules. The further fate of the endocytosed virus seems very similar to that of low density lipoprotein and most other proteins taken up by this process. After a very short time in the coated vesicles (probably <1 min), the virus is delivered into intracellular vacuoles, part of which then develop into lysosomes. Part of the viral proteins are eventually degraded and released into the medium.

Electron microscope studies with many other viruses have previously shown that endocytosis, "viropexis," is a common phenomenon (8). In some cases, coated vesicles and coated pits containing virus particles have been observed (6, 9, 43, 48). It has been generally accepted that part of the endocytosed virus particles can find their way into lysosomes, but this is usually considered an aberrant pathway leading to the destruction of the virus particles (8, 35). An exception is reovirus, a large naked RNA virus. It is taken up into lysosomes with a rate similar to that of SFV (46). In the lysosomes, part of the reovirus protein coat is digested by the lysosomal hydrolases. Being double-stranded, the RNA remains intact. The time-course of endocytosis, proteolytic digestion of coat proteins, and the release of digestion products in the medium is very similar to what we observe for SFV. How the transfer of the reovirus RNA from the lysosome to the cytoplasm occurs is not known.

Penetration

To determine whether lysosomes might be involved in the SFV infection, we tested five lysosomotropic weak bases; they all inhibited SFV infectivity. The inhibition by chloroquine, the most efficient lysosomotropic agent tested, was shown to occur already within the first 5 min after the virus had entered the cell by endocytosis. Chloroquine had no direct effect on the virus particles nor did it inhibit binding, endocytosis, or uptake of SFV into intracellular vacuoles and lysosomes.

![FIGURE 10 Fusion of SFV with liposomes. (a-c) SFV was mixed with liposomes and the pH was changed to 5.5 by dialysis as in Fig. 9. Extensive fusion between viruses and liposomes had occurred as judged by the spike protein visible on the liposomal membranes. The nucleocapsids (see arrows in a and c) with a diameter of 30-35 nm were visible in some liposomes. Virus particles in the process of fusing with liposomes are indicated by arrowheads in a. In the control (d) which was dialyzed against pH 7.3 buffer, no fusion was observed. Bars, 0.1 μm. (a) × 150,000; (b) × 240,000; (c) × 180,000; (d) × 88,000.](image-url)

---

1 We have repeated the experiments of Fan and Sefton (14) using P815 mastocytoma cells and SFV. In agreement with their results with Sindbis virus, we could not detect fusion at the plasma membrane using complement dependent cytotoxicity.
The lysosomotropic agents we tested, and others similar to them, have been previously reported to inhibit infections by several enveloped viruses including myxovirus, oncorna, rubella, and paramyxo viruses (10, 13, 15, 26, 27, 32, 36, 39, 50, 54). Where studied, the mechanism of action of these agents appears strikingly similar to that of chloroquine on SFV. They cause no direct damage on the virus particles, little or no effect on binding and, in most cases, small if any effects on internalization (12, 15, 32, 33, 39, 50). In the case of amantadine, most investigators seem to agree that the inhibitory effect is on the final release of the nucleocapsids into cytoplasm or on uncoating of the genome.

Although very different in molecular structure, all these agents are lysosomotropic, i.e., they accumulate in the lysosomes. Moreover, they all tend to increase the intralysosomal pH (and presumably in any organelle with low pH within the cell). The concentrations of chloroquine and NH₄Cl we used in these studies are known to increase the pH of lysosomes of mouse peritoneal macrophages from 4.5 to 6.2-6.4 (40). Amantadine, tributylamine, and methylamine raise the pH somewhat less (to about pH 5.5-6.0). Chloroquine and NH₄Cl which exert the greatest effect on intralysosomal pH were more efficient inhibitors of virus infection than amantadine, tributylamine, and methylamine.

To pursue the possibility of a low pH requirement for SFV infectivity, we developed an in vitro system to study virus penetration through membranes. Using liposomes and isolated viruses, we demonstrated that fusion can occur between the viral membrane and a liposomal membrane, resulting in efficient transfer of the viral nucleocapsid into the lysosome. The fusion reaction was strictly pH-dependent; fusion occurred only when the pH was 6 or lower.

The fusogenic activity of SFV (and other Toga viruses) is not limited to our artificial membrane system. Recent data on the interaction of SFV, Sindbis virus, and Rubella virus have shown that they can fuse with erythrocytes from different species. The fusion manifests itself as hemolysis (31, 52, 53) and formation of heterokaryon cells (53). The pH dependence of both hemolysis and cell-cell fusion is identical with that seen in our artificial system. Moreover, Mooney et al. (38) have shown that Sindbis virus binds to liposomes with a pH dependence very similar to that which we observe for SFV fusion with liposomes. Taken together, these data show that, provided the pH is low enough, SFV and related viruses can attach and fuse with bilayer membranes of widely different origin. An indication that such fusion can cause infection of cells was obtained in an experiment in which BHK cells with SFV bound to them were briefly treated with low pH medium. These cells were thereby efficiently infected in spite of the presence of chloroquine at all stages to block the normal pathway of infection. At low pH, viruses localized on the cell surface probably fused with the plasma membrane and thereby infected the cells directly. Further studies are, however, needed to confirm this interpretation.

Judging by the morphological and immunological data described above, and the pH dependence of fusion, it seems unlikely that fusion of SFV with the plasma membrane can occur under normal conditions. In this respect, SFV differs from Sendai virus (and other paramyxo viruses) which can fuse with the plasma membrane of cells and with artificial lipid bilayers at neutral pH (23). If not the plasma membrane, then what is the site where the SFV genome enters the cytoplasm? Several observations point in the direction of lysosomes (or some other intracellular vacuoles with low pH). These are: (a) the low pH requirement for fusion, (b) the inhibition of uncoating by agents known to accumulate in lysosomes and to increase their pH, (c) the morphological evidence that the endocytosed SFV particles are sequestered into lysosomes and other intracellular vacuoles, and (d) the fact demonstrated by Friedman and Sreevalsan (16) that very rapidly (within 20 min) after SFV has entered chick cells, part of the parental RNA is found in a replicative intermediate form in the mitochondrial-lysosomal organelle fraction. If the lysosomes were the site of entry, why would the virus not be destroyed by the lysosomal hydrolases? Judging by the difference in the speed of infection (Fig. 8) and the rate of appearance of acid-soluble degradation products (Figs. 5 and 7), it seems quite possible that the nucleocapsids may escape into the cytoplasm before the lysosomal enzymes have time to degrade the virus particle. The final penetration of the viral genome into the cytoplasm may, in fact, occur immediately when an endocytotic vacuole containing the virus fuses with a primary lysosome and the pH drops to 6 or below.

The pathway of SFV entry into BHK-21 cells, as suggested by our data, is schematically shown in Fig. 11. More information is needed especially to define the mode of attachment of the virus to the cell membrane, the mechanism of entrapment.
in coated pits, the role of intermediate vacuoles and lysosomes, and the mechanism of viral membrane fusion. It will also be of interest to find out to what extent other viruses follow the same pathway. That similarities exist between SFV and other membrane viruses is clear from the available morphological information as well as from the sensitivity to lysosomotropic agents.

We would like to thank Eva Bolzau for technical assistance and electron microscopy; Hilkka Virta for preparing the activity to lysosomotropic agents.

REFERENCES

1. Allison, A. C., and M. R. Young. 1969. Viral staining and florescence of lysosomes. In Lysosomes in Biology and Pathology. Vol. 2. J. T. Dingle and H. F. Bailer, editors. North-Holland Publishing Co., Amsterdam. 699-628.

2. Anderson, R. G. W., M. S. Brown, and J. L. Goldstein. 1977. Role of the coated endocytic vesicle in the uptake of receptor bound low density lipoprotein in human fibroblasts. Cell 10:351-364.

3. Anderson, R. G. W., J. L. Goldstein, and M. S. Brown. 1978. Studies on the coated endocytic vesicle in the uptake of receptor bound low density lipoprotein in human fibroblasts. Nature (Lond.) 270:695-699.

4. Britton, C. J., and S. T. I. Kennedy. 1975. Semliki Forest intracellular RNA: properties of the multi-stranded RNA species and kinetics of positive and negative strand synthesis. J. Gen. Virol. 28:111-127.

5. Cartwright, K. L., and G. D. Burke. 1970. Virus nucleic acids formed in chick embryo cells infected with Semliki Forest virus. J. Gen. Virol. 6:251-288.

6. Chant, J., and D. J. Alexander. 1976. Morphogenesis of avian infectious bronchitis virus on primary chick kidney cells. Arch. Virol. 51:101-111.

7. Choppin, P. W., and R. W. Compans. 1975. Replication of paramyxoviruses. Comprehensive Virology, Vol. 4. H. F. Frenkel-Contet and R. W. Wagner, editors. Plenum Press, New York. 95-178.

8. Dales, S. 1974. Early events in cell-animal virus interactions. Bacteriol. Rev. 37:103-135.

9. Dales, S., and H. Haraszti. 1972. Penetration and intracellular release of the genomes of avian RNA tumor viruses. Virology 50:440-456.

10. Davies, W. L., R. R. Green, R. F. Hay, J. W. McGaugh, E. M. Neumann, M. Paulszteek, J. C. Watkins, T. R. Wood, E. C. Hermann, and C. E. Hoffmann. 1969. Antiviral activity of l-adamantanamine (amantadine). Science (Wash. D.C.) 164:862-863.

11. De Duve, C., T. De Bary, B. Poole, A. Trozet, P. Tulenko, and F. Van Heevel. 1974. Lysosomotropic agents. Biochem. Pharmacol. 23:2495-2531.

12. Dourmishev, R. R., and A. J. Tymrell. 1974. Electron microscopic observations on the entry of influenza virus into susceptible cells. J. Gen. Virol. 26:129-141.

13. Durand, D. P., S. D. Chalagne, and V. Franke. 1971. Effect of chloroquine on myxovirus replication. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 5:105-108.

14. Fain, D. P., and B. M. Sejnow. 1978. The entry into host cells of Sindbis virus. Virological and morphological studies. Virology 95:993-999.

15. Fleming, R. D., J. E. Hirschfield, and M. Forbes. 1969. A common mode of antiviral action for ammonium ions and various amines. Nature (Lond.) 225:446-447.

16. Friedman, N. M., and T. Schreinemakers. 1970. Membrane binding of input receptor nucleic acid: effect of interferon on cycloheximide. J. Virol. 6:169-175.

17. Fries, E., and A. Helenius. 1979. Binding of Semliki Forest virus and its isolated glycoproteins to cells. Eur. J. Biochem. 97:213-220.

18. Garoff, H., K. Simons, and O. Renkonen. 1979. Interaction of the membrane polyproteins of Semliki Forest virus. Virology 91-904.

19. Goldstein, J. L., S. K. Bajaj, G. Y. Brumchick, and M. S. Brown. 1976. Release of low density lipoprotein from its cell surface receptor by sulphated glycosaminoglycans. Cell 3:75-95.

20. Goldstein, J. L., R. W. Anderson, and M. S. Brown. 1979. Coated pits, coated vesicles and receptor meditated endocytosis. Nature (Lond.) 287:685-689.

21. Goldstein, J. L., and M. S. Brown. 1977. The low density lipoprotein pathway and its relation to atherosclerosis. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 46:897-930.

22. Gordon, P. J. L. Carpenter, C. Cohen, and L. Orz. 1978. Epidermal growth factor: morphological demonstration of binding intermediation and lysosomal association in human fibroblasts. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 75:6925-6929.

23. Haywood, A. M. 1974. Fusion of Sendai virus with model membranes. J. Med. Biol. 76:253-266.

24. Helenius, A., E. Fries, and I. Kartenian. 1974. Reconstitution of Semliki Forest virus membrane. J. Cell. Biol. 65:360-360.

25. Helenius, A., B. Morkin, E. Fries, K. Simons, P. Robinson, V. Schermer, C. Terbo, and I. L. E. Strominger. 1978. Human (HLA-A and -B) and mouse (H-2-K and D) histocompatibility antigens are cell surface receptors for Semliki Forest virus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 75:3640-3650.

26. Jensen, E. M., and O. C. Liu. 1961. Studies of inhibitory effect of ammonium ions in several virus-tissue culture systems. Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med. 107:834-838.

27. Jensen, E. M., and O. C. Liu. 1963. Inhibitory effect of simple aliphatic amines on influenza virus in tissue culture Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med. 113:456-459.

28. Kaarainen, L., K. Simons, and C. H. Von Bonndoff. 1969. Studies of Semliki Forest virus subviral components. Ann. Med. Exp. Biol. 38:225-246.

29. Kaarainen, L., H. Soderlund. 1971. Properties of Semliki Forest virus nucleoprotein I. Sensitivity to pancreatic ribonuclease. Virology. 43:291-299.

30. Kaarainen, L., and H. Soderlund. 1974. Structure and replication of alphaviruses. Curr. Top. Microbial. Immunol. 82:1-14.

31. Karabatsos, N. 1965. Further studies on the hemolytic properties of arboviruses. Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med. 118:461-465.

32. Katz, N., and H. C. Eggers. 1969. Inhibition of uncoating of low plaque virus by l-adamantanamine hydrochloride. Virology 37:632-641.

33. Koff, W. C., and V. Knight. 1979. Inhibition of influenza virus uncoating by rimantadine hydrochloride. J. Virol. 31:261-263.

34. Lane, R., H. Soderlund, and O. Renkonen. 1973. Chemical composition of Semliki Forest virus. Intervirology. 8:1-5.

35. Lenoir, H., and I. L. Willmington. 1974. Early interaction between animal virus and cells. Monograf. Virol. 6:1-6.

36. Maatkar, H. F., and K. W. Cochran. 1964. Robust virus. inhibition in vivo by amantine HCl. Science (Wash., D. C.) 145:1443-1444.

37. Mayfield, F. R., J. Schermer, Y. Schreuter, J. Paster, and M. C. Willemings. 1978. Collection of small, EGF and asialoglyco-

38. Neumann, J. J. I., M. Dalempale, L. C. Alvino, and P. K. Russell. 1975. Interaction of Sindbis virus with lipidic model membranes. J. Virol. 15:223-231.

39. Neumann, E. M., R. F. Hay, and C. E. Hoffmann. 1969. Antiviral activity of amantadine hydrochloride in tissue culture and in vivo. Proc.
40. OHKUMA, S., and B. POOLE. 1978. Fluorescence probe measurement of the intralysosomal pH in living cells and the perturbation of pH by varying agents. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 75:327-331.

41. ORCI, L., J. L. CARPENTIER, A. PERRELET, R. G. W. ANDERSON, J. L. GOLDSTEIN, and M. S. BROWN. 1978. Occurrence of low density lipoprotein receptors within large pits on the surface of human fibroblasts as demonstrated by freeze etching. Exp. Cell Res. 113:1-13.

42. PAANOLA, L. G. 1978. The corpus luteum of the guinea pig. III. Cytochemical studies on the Golgi complex and GERL during normal postpartum regression of luteal cells, emphasizing the origin of lysosomes and autophagic vacuoles. J. Cell Biol. 79:59-73.

43. PATHAK, S., H. E. WEBB, S. W. OATEN, and S. BATEMAN. 1976. An electron-microscopic study of the development of virulent and avirulent strains of Semliki Forest virus in mouse brain. J. Cell Biol. 79:67-80.

44. POSTE, G., and C. A. PASTERNAK. 1978. Virus induced cell fusion. In Cell Surface Reviews. Vol. 5. G. Poste and G. L. Nicholson, editors. North-Holland Publishing Co., Amsterdam. 305-367.

45. PORTERFIELD, J. S. 1960. A simple plaque inhibition test for the study of arthropod borne viruses, Bull. W. H. O. 22:373-380.

46. SILVERSTEIN, S. C., and S. DALES. 1968. The penetration of reovirus RNA and initiation of its genetic function in L-strain fibroblasts. J. Cell Biol. 36:197-230.

47. SIMONS, K., H. GAROFF, A. HELENIUS, and A. ZIEMIECKI. 1977. On the mechanism of inhibition of Influenza virus replication by amantadine hydrochloride. J. Gen. Virol. 38:79-110.

48. SIMPSON, R. W., R. E. HAUSER, and S. DALES. 1969. Viropexis of vesicular stomatitis virions by L cells. Virology. 37:285-290.

49. SITEK, J. J., J. A. J. HAY, and J. A. AMSTRONG. 1977. Occurrence of low density lipoprotein receptors within large pits on the surface of human fibroblasts as demonstrated by freeze etching. Exp. Cell Res. 113:1-13.

50. SKEHEL, J. J., A. L. BROWN, and M. S. BROWN. 1978. Subunit composition of the membrane glycoprotein complex of Semliki Forest virus. J. Mol. Biol. 122:59-78.