

does not inhibit HIV-1 replication. It is therefore possible that macaques in which Trim5CypA2 has replaced TRIM5 α might provide useful systems for studies involving HIV-1 growth. However, Trim5CypA2 clearly has restriction activity because it can block infection by HIV-2, simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV)_{AGMtAn}, and feline immunodeficiency virus (FIV) (8, 9). This difference in restriction properties results from a point mutation leading to an H69R change in the CypA domain (Fig. 1B) (9). Like the Trim5CypA1 protein and Trim5 α , the Trim5CypA2 gene product appears to block virus replication before reverse transcription of viral RNA in a proteasome-dependent fashion; as with the other factors, blocking proteasome function with MG132 leads to the nonproductive accumulation of nonintegrated viral DNA (8). Restriction of HIV-2 and SIV_{AGMtAn} by the Trim5CypA2 gene product can be completely inhibited by treatment of cell cultures with the CypA binding drug, cyclosporine A, indicating a direct interaction between the Trim5CypA2 protein and CA (9) (8). By contrast, cyclosporine A only partially reverses Trim5CypA2 inhibition of FIV replication, most likely because the H69R

change increases the affinity for the FIV CA protein.

Random or Predictable Evolution?

The description of the original Trim5CypA fusion was greeted with considerable surprise. Reports of a second case of exon shuffling involving the same gene parents prompt a closer examination of whether twice is just a coincidence or really part of a pattern that will be confirmed by the identification of further hybrids. It may be instructive to consider the example of retroviral vectors designed for gene finding. Basic features include a system for high-frequency insertion into chromosomes, an efficient splice acceptor system to join genes, a polyadenylation signal to stabilize transcripts, and a selectable/visible marker gene to detect gene splicing (16). CypA can provide all of these properties. Database mining reveals that CypA is one of the most common pseudogenes, implying that retrotransposition of this sequence can occur at high frequency (17). In addition, a splice acceptor signal is found just upstream of the CypA ORF, and a polyadenylation signal is found downstream (Fig. 1B). Further, resistance to retroviral infection could clearly provide a strong evolutionary advantage allowing selection of fu-

sion genes incorporating CypA in a fashion leading to retrovirus restriction. Multimerizing CypA moieties by fusion to other Trim genes or the murine Fv1 gene *in vitro* has been shown to generate novel restriction factors (18, 19), so the choice of the upstream partner would appear more flexible. However, fusion to Trim5 may give a more efficient restriction factor perhaps because of proteasome recruitment. Alternatively, Trim5 may be truly dispensable for normal cell physiology, allowing gene fusions at little cost to the organism, unlike other members of the Trim family.

Although we have no way of knowing which retrovirus provided the selective forces in *Aotus* or *Macaca* for Trim5CypA1 or Trim5CypA2, selection certainly seems to have occurred, because all 10 species of owl monkey have Trim5CypA1 (20) and members of three of the major groups (15) of macaques have Trim5CypA2, thereby confirming the protective value of the Trim5CypA chimera. It thus appears abundantly clear that Trim5CypA chimeric proteins can block viral infections, but it remains to be seen what fraction of infections can be resisted in this manner. Might this represent the natural shape of things to come in the battle against AIDS?

1. Bieniasz PD (2004) *Nat Immunol* 5:1109–1115.
2. Stremlau M, Owens CM, Perron MJ, Kiessling M, Autissier P, Sodroski J (2004) *Nature* 427:848–853.
3. Wu X, Anderson JL, Campbell EM, Joseph AM, Hope TJ (2006) *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:7465–7470.
4. Meroni G, Diez-Roux G (2005) *BioEssays* 27:1147–1157.
5. Sayah DM, Sokolskaja E, Berthoux L, Luban J (2004) *Nature* 340:569–573.
6. Nisole S, Lynch C, Stoye JP, Yap MW (2004) *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 101:13324–13328.
7. Lin T-Y, Emerman M (2006) *Retrovirology* 3:70.
8. Wilson SJ, Webb BL, Ylisen LMJ, Verschoor E, Heeney JL, Towers GJ (2008) *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 105:3557–3562.
9. Virgen CA, Kratovac Z, Bieniasz PD, Hatzioannou T (2008) *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 105:3563–3568.
10. Brennan G, Kozyrev Y, Hu S-L (2008) *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 105:3569–3574.
11. Newman RM, Hall L, Kirmaier A, Pozzi L-A, Pery E, Farzan M, O'Neil S, Johnson W (2008) *PLoS Pathogens* 4(2):e1000003.
12. Liao C-H, Kuang Y-Q, Liu H-L, Zheng Y-T, Su B (2007) *AIDS* 21(Suppl 8):S19–S26.
13. Ostertag EM, Kazazian HH, Jr (2001) *Annu Rev Genet* 35:501–538.
14. Newman RM, Hall L, Connole M, Chen GL, Sato S, Yuste E, Diehl W, Hunter E, Kaur A, Miller GM, et al. (2006) *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:19134–19139.
15. Tosi AJ, Morales JC, Melnick DJ (2000) *Mol Phylogenet Evol* 17:133–144.
16. Skarnes WC (1990) *BioTechnology* 8:827–831.
17. Zhang Z, Harrison PM, Liu Y, Gerstein M (2003) *Genome Res* 13:2541–2558.
18. Yap MW, Dodding MP, Stoye JP (2006) *J Virol* 80:4061–4067.
19. Yap MW, Mortuza GB, Taylor IA, Stoye JP (2007) *Virology* 365:302–314.
20. Ribeiro IP, Menezes AN, Moreira MA, Bonvicino CR, Seuanez HN, Soares MA (2005) *J Virol* 79:14998–15003.