

Contents

Preface	xvii		
Acknowledgments	xix		
Author	xxi		
1 THE FUNDAMENTALS OF MOLECULAR AND CELLULAR VIROLOGY	1		
1.1 Molecular and cellular virology focuses on the molecular interactions that occur when a virus infects a host cell	2	2.4 The host surface is especially important for attachment, penetration, and uncoating	23
1.2 The discipline of virology can be traced historically to agricultural and medical science	3	2.5 Viral gene expression and genome replication take advantage of host transcription, translation, and replication features	26
1.3 Basic research in virology is critical for molecular biology, both historically and today	6	2.6 The host cytoskeleton and membranes are typically crucial during virus assembly	27
1.4 Viruses, whether understood as living or not, are the most abundant evolving entities known	8	2.7 Host-cell surfaces influence the mechanism of virus release	27
1.5 Viruses can be defined unambiguously by four traits	8	2.8 Viruses can also cause long-term infections	27
1.6 Virions are infectious particles minimally made up of nucleic acids and proteins	10	2.9 Herpesvirus is a model for latent infections	29
1.7 Viruses can be classified according to the ways they synthesize and use mRNA	11	2.10 Research in molecular and cellular virology often focuses on the molecular details of each stage of the replication cycle	29
1.8 Viruses are propagated in the laboratory by mixing them with host cells	12	Essential concepts	30
1.9 Viral sequences are ubiquitous in animal genomes, including the human genome	14	Questions	30
Essential concepts	17	Further reading	31
Questions	17		
Further reading	18	3 ATTACHMENT, PENETRATION, AND UNCOATING	33
2 THE VIRUS REPLICATION CYCLE	19	3.1 Viruses enter the human body through one of six routes	33
2.1 Viruses reproduce through a lytic virus replication cycle	20	3.2 The likelihood of becoming HIV+ depends on the route of transmission and the amount of virus in the infected tissue	34
2.2 Molecular events during each stage of the virus replication cycle	22	3.3 Viruses are selective in their host range and tissue tropism	35
2.3 The influenza virus is a model for replication of an animal virus	23	3.4 The virion is a genome delivery device	36
		3.5 The genomic contents of a virion are irrelevant for attachment, penetration, and uncoating	37
		3.6 Animal viruses attach to specific cells and can spread to multiple tissues	40
		3.7 Noncovalent intermolecular forces are responsible for attaching to host cells	41
		3.8 Most animal virus receptors are glycoproteins	42

3.9	Animal virus receptors can be identified through genetic, biochemical, and immunological approaches	43
3.10	Animal virus receptors can be identified through molecular cloning	43
3.11	Animal virus receptors can be identified through affinity chromatography	44
3.12	Antibodies can be used to identify animal virus receptors	45
3.13	Rhinovirus serves as a model for attachment by animal viruses lacking spikes	47
3.14	Several independent lines of evidence indicate that ICAM-1 is the rhinovirus receptor	50
3.15	Experiments using molecular genetics support the conclusion that ICAM-1 is the rhinovirus receptor	50
3.16	Structural biology experiments support the conclusion that ICAM-1 is the rhinovirus receptor	51
3.17	Bioinformatics comparisons support the conclusion that ICAM-1 is the rhinovirus receptor	51
3.18	Influenza serves as a model for attachment by enveloped viruses	52
3.19	The influenza HA spike protein binds to sialic acids	53
3.20	The second stage of the virus replication cycle includes both penetration and uncoating and, if necessary, transport to the nucleus	55
3.21	Viruses subvert the two major eukaryotic mechanisms for internalizing particles	56
3.22	Many viruses subvert receptor-mediated endocytosis for penetration	56
3.23	Herpesvirus penetrates the cell through phagocytosis	57
3.24	Common methods for determining the mode of viral penetration include use of drugs and RNA interference	58
3.25	The virion is a metastable particle primed for uncoating once irreversible attachment and penetration have occurred	59
3.26	Picornaviruses are naked viruses that release their genomic contents through pore formation	60
3.27	Some enveloped viruses use membrane fusion with the outside surface of the cell for penetration	60
3.28	Vesicle fusion in neuroscience is a model for viral membrane fusion	61
3.29	HIV provides a model of membrane fusion triggered by a cascade of protein-protein interactions	63
3.30	Influenza provides a model for viral envelope fusion triggered by acidification of an endocytic vesicle	64
3.31	The destination for the virus genome may be the cytoplasm or the nucleus	65
3.32	Subversion of the cellular cytoskeleton is critical for uncoating	65
3.33	Viruses that enter an intact nucleus must manipulate gated nuclear pores	66
3.34	Viruses introduce their genomes into the nucleus in a variety of ways	67
3.35	Adenovirus provides a model for uncoating that delivers the viral genome into the nucleus	68
3.36	The unusual uncoating stages of reoviruses and poxviruses leave the virions partially intact in the cytoplasm	69
3.37	Viruses that penetrate plant cells face plant-specific barriers to infection	71
3.38	Plant viruses are often transmitted by biting arthropod vectors	72
	Essential concepts	73
	Questions	74
	Further reading	74
4	GENE EXPRESSION AND GENOME REPLICATION IN MODEL BACTERIOPHAGES	77
4.1	Bacterial host cell transcription is catalyzed by a multisubunit machine that catalyzes initiation, elongation, and termination	78
4.2	Bacterial host cell and bacteriophage mRNA are typically polycistronic	80
4.3	Transcription and translation in bacterial host cells and bacteriophages are nearly simultaneous because of the proximity of ribosomes and chromosomes	81
4.4	Bacterial translation initiation, elongation, and termination are controlled by translation factors	81
4.5	Bacteriophages, like all viruses, encode structural and nonstructural proteins	83

4.6	The T7 bacteriophage has naked, complex virions and a large double-stranded DNA genome	84
4.7	Bacteriophage T7 encodes 55 proteins in genes that are physically grouped together by function	85
4.8	Bacteriophage T7 proteins are expressed in three major waves	85
4.9	The functions of bacteriophage proteins often correlate with the timing of their expression	86
4.10	Bacteriophage T7 gene expression is highly regulated at the level of transcription initiation	87
4.11	Bacterial host chromosome replication is regulated by the DnaA protein and occurs via a θ intermediate	88
4.12	Many bacterial proteins are needed to catalyze chromosome replication	90
4.13	Although many bacteriophages have linear dsDNA genomes, bacterial hosts cannot replicate the ends of linear DNA	92
4.14	T7 bacteriophage genome replication is catalyzed by one of the simplest known replication machines	93
4.15	The λ bacteriophage has naked, complex virions and a large double-stranded DNA genome	96
4.16	Bacteriophage λ can cause lytic or long-term infections	96
4.17	There are three waves of gene expression during lytic λ replication	98
4.18	The λ control region is responsible for early gene expression because of its promoters and the Cro and N proteins it encodes	99
4.19	The λ N antitermination protein controls the onset of delayed-early gene expression	99
4.20	The λ Q antitermination protein and Cro repressor protein control the switch to late gene expression	100
4.21	Bacteriophages T7 and λ both have three waves of gene expression but the molecular mechanisms controlling them differ	100
4.22	Bacteriophage λ genome replication occurs in two stages, through two different intermediates	101
4.23	Lambda genome replication requires phage proteins O and P and many subverted host proteins	102
4.24	The abundance of host DnaA protein relative to the amount of phage DNA controls the switch to rolling-circle replication	102
4.25	There are billions of other bacteriophages that regulate gene expression in various ways	103
4.26	Some bacteriophages have ssDNA, dsDNA, or (+) ssRNA genomes	104
4.27	The replication cycles of ssDNA bacteriophages always include formation of a double-stranded replicative form	104
4.28	Bacteriophage $\phi\chi 174$ is of historical importance	105
4.29	Bacteriophage $\phi\chi 174$ has extremely overlapping protein-coding sequences	105
4.30	Bacteriophage $\phi\chi 174$ proteins are expressed in different amounts	106
4.31	A combination of mRNA levels and differential translation accounts for levels of bacteriophage $\phi\chi 174$ protein expression	107
4.32	Bacteriophage M13 genome replication is catalyzed by host proteins and occurs via a replicative form	108
4.33	Bacteriophage MS2 is a (+) ssRNA virus that encodes four proteins	110
4.34	Bacteriophage MS2 protein abundance is controlled by secondary structure in the genome	111
4.35	Bacteriophage RdRp enzymes subvert abundant host proteins to create an efficient replicase complex	114
4.36	Bacteriophage proteins are common laboratory tools	115
	Essential concepts	121
	Questions	122
	Further reading	123
5	GENE EXPRESSION AND GENOME REPLICATION IN THE POSITIVE-STRAND RNA VIRUSES	125
5.1	Class IV virus replication cycles have common gene expression and genome replication strategies	126
5.2	Terminal features of eukaryotic mRNA are essential for translation	127

5.3	Monopartite Class IV (+) strand RNA viruses express multiple proteins from a single genome	128
5.4	Picornaviruses are models for the simplest (+) strand RNA viruses	128
5.5	Class IV viruses such as poliovirus encode one or more polyproteins	130
5.6	Class IV viruses such as poliovirus use proteolysis to release small proteins from viral polyproteins	132
5.7	Translation of Class IV virus genomes occurs despite the lack of a 5' cap	134
5.8	Class IV virus genome replication occurs inside a virus replication compartment	136
5.9	The picornavirus 3D ^{pol} is an RdRp and synthesizes a protein-based primer	137
5.10	Structural features of the viral genome are essential for replication of Class IV viral genomes	137
5.11	Picornavirus genome replication occurs in four phases	138
5.12	Flaviviruses are models for simple enveloped (+) strand RNA viruses	141
5.13	The linear (+) strand RNA flavivirus genomes have unusual termini	141
5.14	Enveloped HCV encodes 10 proteins including several with transmembrane segments	142
5.15	Togaviruses are small enveloped viruses with replication cycles more complex than those of the flaviviruses	143
5.16	Four different togavirus polyproteins are found inside infected cells	145
5.17	Different molecular events predominate early and late during togavirus infection	146
5.18	Translation of togavirus sgRNA requires use of the downstream hairpin loop	147
5.19	Suppression of translation termination is necessary for production of the nonstructural p1234 Sindbis virus polyprotein	148
5.20	Sindbis virus uses an unusual mechanism to encode the TF protein	149
5.21	A programmed -1 ribosome frameshift is needed to produce the togavirus TF protein	150
5.22	The picornaviruses, flaviviruses, and togaviruses illustrate many common properties among (+) strand RNA viruses	151
5.23	Coronaviruses have long (+) strand RNA genomes and novel mechanisms of gene expression and genome replication	152
5.24	Coronaviruses have enveloped spherical virions and encode conserved and species-specific accessory proteins	152
5.25	Coronaviruses express a nested set of sgRNAs with leader and TRS sequences	153
5.26	Coronaviruses use a discontinuous mechanism for synthesis of replicative forms	155
5.27	Most coronavirus sgRNA is translated into a single protein	156
5.28	Coronaviruses use a leaky scanning mechanism to synthesize proteins from overlapping sequences	156
5.29	Coronaviruses may proofread RNA during synthesis	157
5.30	Plants can also be infected by Class IV RNA viruses	159
5.31	Comparing Class IV viruses reveals common themes with variations	160
	Essential concepts	161
	Questions	161
	Further reading	162
6	GENE EXPRESSION AND GENOME REPLICATION IN THE NEGATIVE-STRAND RNA VIRUSES	163
6.1	Study of two historically infamous Class V viruses, rabies and influenza, were instrumental in the development of molecular and cellular virology	163
6.2	The mononegavirus replication cycle includes primary and secondary transcription catalyzed by the viral RdRp	164
6.3	Rhabdoviruses have linear (-) RNA genomes and encode five proteins	166
6.4	Rhabdoviruses produce five mRNAs with 5' caps and polyadenylated 3' tails through a start-stop mechanism	167
6.5	Rhabdovirus genome replication occurs through the use of a complete antigenome cRNA as a template	169
6.6	The paramyxoviruses are mononegaviruses that use RNA editing for gene expression	170

6.7	Filoviruses are filamentous mononegaviruses that encode seven to nine proteins	173
6.8	The filovirus VP30 protein, not found in other mononegaviruses, is required for transcription	175
6.9	Influenza is an example of an orthomyxovirus	175
6.10	Of the 17 influenza A proteins, 9 are found in the virion	176
6.11	Orthomyxovirus nucleic acid synthesis occurs in the host cell nucleus, not in the cytoplasm	177
6.12	The first step of transcription by influenza virus is cap snatching	178
6.13	An influenza cRNA intermediate is used as the template for genome replication	179
6.14	Arenavirus RNA genomes are ambisense	181
6.15	Expression of the four arenavirus proteins reflects the ambisense nature of the genome	182
	Essential concepts	183
	Questions	184
	Further reading	184
7	GENE EXPRESSION AND GENOME REPLICATION IN THE DOUBLE-STRANDED RNA VIRUSES	185
7.1	The rotavirus replication cycle includes primary transcription, genome replication, and secondary transcription inside partially intact capsids in the host cytoplasm	186
7.2	Rotavirus A has a naked capsid with three protein layers enclosing 11 segments of dsRNA	186
7.3	Rotavirus A encodes 13 proteins	188
7.4	Synthesis of rotavirus nucleic acids occurs in a fenestrated double-layered particle	188
7.5	Translation of rotavirus mRNA requires NSP3 and occurs in viroplasm formed by NSP2 and NSP5	189
7.6	Rotavirus genome replication precedes secondary transcription	191
	Essential concepts	191
	Questions	191
	Further reading	192
8	GENE EXPRESSION AND GENOME REPLICATION IN THE DOUBLE-STRANDED DNA VIRUSES	193
8.1	DNA viruses can cause productive lytic infections, cellular transformation, or latent infections	194
8.2	Most Class I animal viruses rely on host transcription machinery for gene expression	194
8.3	Eukaryotic transcription is affected by the state of the chromatin	195
8.4	Eukaryotic capping, splicing, and polyadenylation occur co-transcriptionally	196
8.5	Polyomaviruses are small DNA viruses with early and late gene expression	199
8.6	The SV40 polyomavirus encodes seven proteins in only 5,243 bp of DNA	200
8.7	The synthesis of mRNA in SV40 is controlled by the noncoding control region	201
8.8	Late SV40 transcription is regulated by both host and viral proteins	202
8.9	Most Baltimore Class I viruses including polyomaviruses manipulate the eukaryotic cell cycle	204
8.10	Most Class I viruses prevent or delay cellular apoptosis	206
8.11	SV40 forces the host cell to express S phase genes and uses large T antigen and host proteins for genome replication	207
8.12	SV40 genome replication requires viral and host proteins to form active DNA replication forks	208
8.13	The papillomavirus replication cycle is tied closely to the differentiation status of its host cell	209
8.14	Human papillomaviruses encode about 13 proteins that are translated from polycistronic mRNA	211
8.15	The long control region of HPV regulates papillomavirus transcription in which pre-mRNA is subjected to alternative splicing	213
8.16	Leaky scanning, internal ribosome entry sites, and translation re-initiation lead to the expression of papillomavirus proteins from polycistronic mRNA	213
8.17	DNA replication in papillomaviruses is linked to host cell differentiation status	215

8.18	Papillomaviruses use early proteins to manipulate the host cell cycle and apoptosis	216	8.34	Poxviruses are extremely large dsDNA viruses that replicate in the host cytoplasm	231
8.19	Comparing the small DNA viruses reveals similar economy in coding capacity but different mechanisms for gene expression, manipulating the host cell cycle, and DNA replication	216	8.35	Many vaccinia virus proteins are associated with the virion itself	233
8.20	Adenoviruses are large dsDNA viruses with three waves of gene expression	217	8.36	Vaccinia RNA polymerase transcribes genes in three waves using different transcription activators	233
8.21	Adenoviruses have large naked spherical capsids with prominent spikes and large linear dsDNA genomes	217	8.37	Vaccinia genome replication requires the unusual ends of the genome sequence	236
8.22	Adenoviruses encode early, delayed-early, and late proteins	218	8.38	The synthetic demands on the host cell make vaccinia a possible anticancer treatment	238
8.23	The large E1A protein is important for regulating the adenovirus cascade of gene expression	220	Essential concepts	238	
8.24	Splicing of pre-mRNA was first discovered through studying adenovirus gene expression	220	Questions	239	
8.25	Both host cells and adenovirus rely on alternative splicing to encode multiple proteins using the same DNA sequence	221	Further reading	240	
8.26	Regulated alternative splicing of a late adenovirus transcript relies on <i>cis</i> -acting regulatory sequences, on the E4-ORF4 viral protein, and on host splicing machinery	222	9 GENE EXPRESSION AND GENOME REPLICATION IN THE SINGLE-STRANDED DNA VIRUSES	241	
8.27	Adenovirus shuts off translation of host mRNA, while ensuring translation of its own late mRNAs through a ribosome-shunting mechanism	224	9.1	The ssDNA viruses express their genes and replicate their genomes in the nucleus	242
8.28	DNA replication in adenovirus requires three viral proteins even though the genome is replicated in the host cell nucleus	225	9.2	Circoviruses are tiny ssDNA viruses with circular genomes	242
8.29	Herpesviruses have very large enveloped virions and large linear dsDNA genomes	228	9.3	Although their genomes are shorter than an average human gene, circoviruses encode at least four proteins	243
8.30	Lytic herpesvirus replication involves a cascade with several waves of gene expression	228	9.4	Both host and viral proteins are needed for circovirus genome replication	244
8.31	Groups of herpes simplex virus 1 proteins have functions relating to the timing of their expression	229	9.5	Parvoviruses are tiny ssDNA viruses with linear genomes having hairpins at both ends	245
8.32	Waves of gene expression in herpesviruses are controlled by transcription activation and chromatin remodeling	230	9.6	The model parvovirus MVM encodes six proteins using alternative splicing	245
8.33	Herpesvirus genome replication results in concatamers	231	9.7	The model parvovirus MVM uses a rolling-hairpin mechanism for genome replication	246
			Essential concepts	248	
			Questions	248	
			Further reading	249	
			10 GENE EXPRESSION AND GENOME REPLICATION IN THE RETROVIRUSES AND HEPADNAVIRUSES	251	
			10.1	Viral reverse transcriptases have polymerase and RNase H activity	254

10.2	Retroviruses are enveloped and have RNA genomes yet express their proteins from dsDNA	254	11 ASSEMBLY, RELEASE, AND MATURATION	277	
10.3	Reverse transcription occurs during transport of the retroviral nucleic acid to the nucleus, through a discontinuous mechanism	255	11.1	The last stages of the virus replication cycle are assembly, release, and maturation	278
10.4	Retroviral integrase inserts the viral cDNA into a chromosome, forming proviral DNA that can be transcribed by host Pol II	256	11.2	Unlike cells, viruses assemble from their constituent parts	278
10.5	All retroviruses express eight essential proteins, whereas some such as HIV encode species-specific accessory proteins	259	11.3	Virions more structurally complex than TMV also reproduce by assembly, not by division	280
10.6	The retroviral LTR sequences interact with host proteins to regulate transcription	259	11.4	Typical sites of assembly in eukaryotic viruses include the cytoplasm, plasma membrane, and nucleus	281
10.7	The compact retroviral genome is used economically to encode many proteins through the use of polyproteins, alternative splicing, and translation of polycistronic mRNA	260	11.5	Eukaryotic virus assembly must take cellular protein localization into account	282
10.8	The HIV-1 accessory protein TAT is essential for viral gene expression	264	11.6	Capsids and nucleocapsids associate with genomes using one of two general strategies	283
10.9	The HIV-1 accessory protein Rev is essential for exporting some viral mRNA from the nucleus	265	11.7	Assembly of some viruses depends on DNA replication to provide the energy to fill the icosahedral heads	283
10.10	Retrovirus genome replication is accomplished by host Pol II	265	11.8	Assembly of some viruses depends on a packaging motor to fill the icosahedral heads	284
10.11	HIV-1 is a candidate gene therapy vector for diseases that involve the immune cells normally targeted by HIV	266	11.9	Negative RNA viruses provide a model for concerted nucleocapsid assembly	286
10.12	Hepadnaviruses are enveloped and have genomes containing both DNA and RNA in an unusual arrangement	267	11.10	To assemble, some viruses require assistance from proteins not found in the virion	287
10.13	Hepadnaviruses use reverse transcription to amplify their genomes	268	11.11	Viruses acquire envelopes through one of two pathways	287
10.14	The cccDNA of HBV is not perfectly identical to the DNA in the infecting virion	269	11.12	The helical vRNPs of influenza virus assemble first, followed by envelope acquisition at the plasma membrane	288
10.15	The tiny HBV genome encodes eight proteins through alternative splicing, overlapping coding sequences, and alternative start codons	269	11.13	Some viruses require maturation reactions during release in order to form infectious virions	290
10.16	HBV genome replication relies upon an elaborate reverse transcriptase mechanism	270	11.14	Assembly of HIV occurs at the plasma membrane	290
Essential concepts	274	11.15	Inhibition of HIV-1 maturation provides a classic example of structure-function research in medicine	291	
Questions	275	11.16	Release from bacterial cells usually occurs by lysis	293	
Further reading	275	11.17	Release from animal cells can occur by lysis	295	
		11.18	Release from animal cells can occur by budding	296	

11.19 Release from plant cells often occurs through biting arthropods	298
Essential concepts	298
Questions	299
Further reading	299
12 VIRUS–HOST INTERACTIONS DURING LYTIC GROWTH	301
12.1 All viruses subvert translation	302
12.2 Bacteriophages subvert translation indirectly	302
12.3 Animal viruses have many strategies to block translation of host mRNA	304
12.4 Animal viruses cause structural changes in host cells referred to as cytopathic effects	306
12.5 Viruses affect host cell apoptosis	306
12.6 Some viruses delay apoptosis in order to complete their replication cycles before the host cell dies	308
12.7 Some viruses subvert apoptosis in order to complete their replication cycles	309
12.8 Viruses use the ubiquitin system to their advantage	309
12.9 Viruses can block or subvert the cellular autophagy system	311
12.10 Viruses subvert or co-opt the misfolded protein response triggered in the endoplasmic reticulum	312
12.11 Viruses modify internal membranes in order to create virus replication compartments	312
Essential concepts	315
Questions	315
Further reading	316
13 PERSISTENT VIRAL INFECTIONS	317
13.1 Some bacteriophages are temperate and can persist as genomes integrated into their hosts' chromosomes	318
13.2 Bacteriophage λ serves as a model for latency	318
13.3 The amount of stable CII protein in the cell determines whether the phage genome becomes a prophage	320
13.4 Activation of P_{per} , P_r , and P_{antiQ} by CII results in lysogeny	320
13.5 Stress triggers an exit from lysogeny	322
13.6 Some lysogens provide their bacterial hosts with virulence genes	323
13.7 Prophages affect the survival of their bacterial hosts	324
13.8 Persistent infections in humans include those with ongoing lytic replication and latent infections	326
13.9 Human immunodeficiency virus causes persistent infections	326
13.10 Human herpesvirus 1 is a model for latent infections	327
13.11 Oncogenic viruses cause cancer through persistent infections	329
13.12 DNA viruses transform cells with oncoproteins that affect the cell cycle and apoptosis	330
13.13 HPV oncoproteins E6 and E7 cause transformation	331
13.14 HPV E6 and E7 overexpression occurs when the virus genome recombines with a host chromosome	332
13.15 Merkel cell polyomavirus is also associated with human cancers	332
13.16 Epstein–Barr virus is an oncogenic herpesvirus	332
13.17 Latency-associated viral proteins are responsible for Epstein–Barr virus-induced oncogenesis	334
13.18 The Kaposi's sarcoma herpesvirus also causes persistent oncogenic infections	335
13.19 Hepatocellular carcinoma is caused by persistent lytic viral infections	336
13.20 Retroviruses have two mechanisms by which they can cause cancer	337
13.21 Viral oncoproteins can be used to immortalize primary cell cultures	339
13.22 The human virome is largely uncharacterized but likely has effects on human physiology	340
Essential concepts	341
Questions	341
Further reading	342
14 VIRAL EVASION OF INNATE HOST DEFENSES	345
14.1 Restriction enzymes are a component of innate immunity to bacteriophages	346
14.2 Bacteriophages have counterdefenses against restriction-modification systems	349

14.3 Human innate immune defenses operate on many levels	349
14.4 The human innate immune system is triggered by pattern recognition	349
14.5 Innate immune responses include cytokine secretion	351
14.6 Interferon causes the antiviral state	351
14.7 Some viruses can evade the interferon response	353
14.8 Neutrophils are active during an innate immune response against viruses	357
14.9 Viruses manipulate immune system communication to evade the net response	357
14.10 Inflammation is the hallmark of an innate immune response	358
14.11 In order to be recognized as healthy, all cells present endogenous antigens in MHC-I molecules	358
14.12 Cells infected by viruses produce and display viral antigens in MHC-I	359
14.13 Viruses have strategies to evade MHC-I presentation of viral antigens	360
14.14 Natural killer cells attack cells with reduced MHC-I display	360
14.15 The complement system targets enveloped viruses and cells infected by them	361
14.16 Some viruses can evade the complement system	362
14.17 Viral evasion strategies depend on the coding capacity of the virus	362
14.18 In vertebrates, if an innate immune reaction does not clear an infection, adaptive immunity comes into play	362
Essential concepts	363
Questions	364
Further reading	364
15 VIRAL EVASION OF ADAPTIVE HOST DEFENSES	365
15.1 CRISPR–Cas is an adaptive immune response found in bacteria	366
15.2 Some bacteriophages can evade or subvert the CRISPR–Cas system	370
15.3 The human adaptive immune response includes cell-mediated and humoral immunity	371
15.4 The human adaptive immune response has specificity because it responds to epitopes	371
15.5 Professional antigen-presenting cells degrade exogenous antigens and display epitopes in MHC-II molecules	372
15.6 Some viruses evade MHC-II presentation	373
15.7 Lymphocytes that control viral infections have many properties in common	375
15.8 CD4+ helper T lymphocytes interact with viral epitopes displayed in MHC-II molecules	375
15.9 Antibodies are soluble B-cell receptors that bind to extracellular antigens such as virions	377
15.10 During an antiviral response, B cells differentiate to produce higher-affinity antibodies	378
15.11 Viruses have strategies to evade or subvert the antibody response	379
15.12 CD8+ cytotoxic T lymphocytes are crucial for controlling viral infections	380
15.13 Some viruses can evade the CTL response	381
15.14 Viruses that cause persistent infections evade immune clearance for a long period of time	382
15.15 The immune response to influenza serves as a comprehensive model for antiviral immune responses in general	383
15.16 Influenza provides a model for how a lytic virus evades both innate and adaptive immunity long enough to replicate	386
Essential concepts	387
Questions	388
Further reading	388
16 MEDICAL APPLICATIONS OF MOLECULAR AND CELLULAR VIROLOGY	389
16.1 Vaccines are critical components of an effective public health system	390
16.2 Attenuated vaccines are highly immunogenic because they can still replicate	391
16.3 Inactivated vaccines are composed of nonreplicating virions	392
16.4 Subunit vaccines are composed of selected antigenic proteins	393
16.5 Although seasonal influenza vaccines are useful, a universal flu vaccine is highly sought after	394

16.6	Preventative HIV vaccines are in development	396	17.4	Transposons and introns are subviral entities	423
16.7	Extreme antigenic variation is a problem for developing an HIV vaccine	398	17.5	Viruses have ancient origins	425
16.8	An effective HIV vaccine may require stimulating a strong CTL response	398	17.6	Viral hallmark proteins can be used to trace evolutionary history	425
16.9	Antiviral drugs target proteins unique to viruses and essential for their replication cycle	399	17.7	Metagenomics will revolutionize evolutionary understanding of viruses	427
16.10	Many antiviral drugs are nucleoside or nucleotide structural analogs that target the active site of viral polymerases	401	17.8	Viral genetic diversity arises through mutation and recombination	429
16.11	Drugs to treat influenza target the uncoating and release stages of viral replication	402	17.9	Genetic diversity among influenza A viruses arises through mutation and recombination	430
16.12	Drugs to treat hepatitis C virus target the viral polymerase	403	17.10	Influenza A spike proteins are particularly diverse	431
16.13	Drugs to treat HIV target many stages of the virus replication cycle	404	17.11	Variations among influenza A viruses reflects genetic drift and natural selection	432
16.14	Viral evolution occurs in response to selective pressure from antiviral drugs	406	17.12	Pandemic influenza A strains have arisen through recombination	433
16.15	It might be possible to develop bacteriophage therapy to treat people with antibiotic-resistant bacterial infections	407	17.13	New pandemic influenza A strains may be able to arise through mutation	435
16.16	Engineered viruses could in principle be used for gene therapy to treat cancer and other conditions	408	17.14	Selective pressures and constraints influence viral evolution	436
16.17	Gene therapy and oncolytic virus treatments currently in use	410	17.15	Some viruses and hosts coevolve	438
16.18	Therapeutic applications of CRISPR-Cas technology	415	17.16	Medically dangerous emerging viruses are zoonotic	440
Essential concepts		416	17.17	HIV exhibits high levels of genetic diversity and transferred from apes to humans on four occasions	442
Questions		417	17.18	HIV-1 has molecular features that reflect adaptation to humans	443
Further reading		418	17.19	Viruses and subviral entities are common in the human genome	444
17 VIRAL DIVERSITY, ORIGINS, AND EVOLUTION	419		17.20	Viruses and subviral entities have strongly affected the evolution of organisms including humans	445
17.1	The viral world is extremely diverse	420	17.21	Virology unites the biosphere	446
17.2	Satellite viruses and nucleic acids require co-infection with a virus to spread	421	Essential concepts		446
17.3	Viroids are infectious RNA molecules found in plants	423	Questions		447
			Further reading		447
			GLOSSARY	449	
			ANSWERS	473	
			INDEX	487	