# The Murine dilute suppressor Gene Encodes a Cell Autonomous Suppressor

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### ABSTRACT

The murine dilute suppressor gene (dsu) suppresses the coat-color phenotype of three pigment mutations, dilute (d), ashen (ash) and leaden (ln), that each produce adendritic melanocytes. Suppression is due to the ability of dsu to partially restore (ash and ln), or almost completely restore (d), normal melanocyte morphology. While the ash and ln gene products have yet to be identified, the d gene encodes a novel myosin heavy chain (myosin 12), which is speculated to be necessary for the elaboration, maintenance, and/or function of melanocyte cell processes. To begin to discriminate between different models of dsu action, we have produced aggregation chimeras between mice homozygous for dsu and mice homozygous for d to determine if dsu acts cell autonomously or cell nonautonomously. In addition, we have further refined the map location of dsu in order to examine a number of possible dsu candidate genes mapping in the region and to provide a genetic basis for the positional cloning of dsu.

**T**HE murine *dilute suppressor* (*dsu*) gene was first recognized by its ability to suppress the dilute coat color phenotype of mice homozygous for the retrovirally induced dilute-viral  $(d^{v})$  allele (SWEET 1983). Mice homozygous for *dilute* are gray in color due to clumping and inefficient transport of pigment granules resulting from the absence of normal dendrites. Mapping studies showed that dsu is located on chromosome 1 (Sweet 1983), unlinked to d on chromosome 9, indicating that dsu acts in trans to suppress the d phenotype. While dsu was originally reported as being recessive, additional studies showed that dsu acts in a semidominant fashion (MOORE et al. 1988a). Suppression of dilute coat color results from the ability of dsu to restore, to near normal, the adendritic melanocyte morphology of d melanocytes (MOORE et al. 1988b). Mice homozygous for  $d^v$  and dsuare off-black, as opposed to being completely black, and have nearly, but not completely, normal dendritic melanocyte morphology (MOORE et al. 1988b).

Two other recessive coat color mutations, ashen (ash) and leaden (ln), have also been identified that display a dilution of coat color as a consequence of adendritic melanocyte morphology (MARKET and SILVERS 1956; LANE and WOMACK 1979). Interestingly, d and ash are closely linked (~1 cM) on chromosome 9 (MOORE et al. 1988b) while dsu and ln are loosely linked (~9 cM) on chromosome 1 (MOORE et al. 1988b). The significance, if any, of this linkage remains to be determined. By breeding mice homozygous for dsu in addition to ash or ln, MOORE et al. (1988b) showed that dsu can suppress the coat-color phenotype of ash and ln. However, suppression was not nearly as complete as with  $d^v$  and the restoration of normal melanocyte morphology was also not as complete as with  $d^v$ .

While the ash and ln gene products have yet to be identified, the d gene has been shown to encode a novel myosin heavy chain, recently termed myosin 12, Myh12 (ENGLE and KENNET 1994). This information, combined with the knowledge that d melanocytes are adendritic, suggests that d may be required for the normal elaboration, maintenance, and/or function of melanocyte cell processes. In addition to melanocytes, dilute transcripts are also expressed in many other embryonic and adult tissues and are very abundant in neurons of the central nervous system, cephalic ganglia, and spinal ganglia (MERCER et al. 1991). This expression pattern is interesting as most *dilute* mutations (with the rare exception of alleles such as  $d^{v}$ ) produce a severe neurological disorder, characterized by convulsions and opisthotonus, apparent at 8-10 days after birth and continuing until the death of the animal at 2-3 weeks of age. Dilute may therefore play a similar role in neurons as it does in melanocytes. While dsu was originally identified by its ability to suppress the coat-color phenotype of  $d^v$  mice, it does not appear to suppress the neurological defect associated with most d alleles (MOORE et al. 1988a). This result raises the possibility that dsu functions in melanocytes but not in neurons.

In a related series of experiments, the ability of dsu to suppress the coat-color phenotype of 14 additional diluting mutations was assessed (MOORE *et al.* 1990). The diluted coat color of each of these mutants is not a consequence of melanocyte morphology or melanosome transport. Instead, they appear to act in other stages of melanogenesis. In no case was dsu able to suppress the coat color phenotype of these 14 mutations. Unexpectedly, dsu did suppress the ruby eye color of ruby-eye (ru)

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and ruby-eye 2 (ru2) mice, to black (MOORE et al. 1990). The molecular basis for these two mutations has not been determined. Histological examination of the pigmented tissues of the eyes of these mice indicated that dsu suppresses the ruby eye color by increasing the apparent level of pigmentation in the choroid but not the retinal pigmented epithelium. Choroid melanocytes, like those in the skin, are derived from the neural crest while melanocytes in the retinal pigmented epithelium are derived from the optic cup. dsu may thus act specifically on neural crest-derived melanocytes.

While the mechanism(s) by which dsu suppresses these phenotypes is unclear, two models have been proposed (MOORE et al. 1988b). In the first model, dsu would encode an altered protein that can partially compensate for the absence of the d, ash, and ln gene products or, alternatively, that suppression results from the abnormal temporal or developmental expression of an otherwise normal dsu product. In the second model, dsu would be involved in maintenance of the extracellular matrix surrounding normal melanocytes. It has been shown that d and ln melanocytes can extend dendrites when placed into a less compact tissue environment such as the anterior chamber of the eye (MARKET and SILVERS 1956). Mutant dsu protein could alter the normal extracellular matrix to make it less compact thereby allowing for dendrite outgrowth from mutant melanocytes.

Both models make certain testable predictions. The first model predicts that dsu is cell autonomous while the second model predicts that dsu is cell non-autonomous. In experiments described here, we have tested these predictions by making aggregation chime-ras between two stocks of mice, one carrying dsu and one carrying d, and examining the coat-color phenotypes of the resultant chimeras. Concordant with the chimera studies we have also developed an interspecific back-cross segregating dsu in order to refine the genetic map location of dsu, test possible dsu candidate genes mapping in the region, and provide a genetic basis for the positional cloning of dsu.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Mice:** All the mice used in this study are maintained by the Mammalian Genetics Laboratory at the NCI-Frederick Cancer Research and Development Center. The *dilute-viral*  $(d^v)$  allele was used throughout these studies (RINCHIK *et al.* 1986) in order to be able to follow the segregation of *d* by Southern blot analysis.

Aggregation chimeras: Both dsu/dsu,  $c^{2f}/c^{2f}$ ,  $d^v/d^v$  and (DBA/2J × C57BL/6J- $d^vse/d^vse$ )  $F_1$  female mice were superovulated by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of 5 IU of pregnant mare's serum gonadotrophin (PMSg). Approximately 46–48 hr later, these females were injected i.p. with 5 IU of human chorionic gonadotrophin (HCG) and placed with males of the same genotype. Approximately 68–72 hr after the HCG treatment the females were sacrificed and the embryos, now 2 to 2.5 days post-coitum (5–8 cell stage) were flushed from the oviduct. The zona pellucidae were removed using 5 mg/ml proteinase K in Whitten's medium. The embryos were then twice washed in Whitten's medium. The embryos were placed, pairwise, (one of each of the two genotypes) into droplets of Whitten's medium that were overlayed with mediaequilibrated paraffin oil and pushed together. The embryos were then incubated overnight at  $37^{\circ}$  in a humidified chamber containing 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. The following morning those embryo pairs that had undergone compaction were transferred to the uteri of pseudopregnant females.

Interspecific backcross mice: Mice homozygous for dsu and  $d^v$  were crossed to Mus spretus. The resultant F<sub>1</sub> females  $(dsu/+, d^v/+)$  were backcrossed to the dsu, d<sup>v</sup> parent. Fifty percent of the backcross progeny were white-bellied agouti  $(A^{w}/a)$  due to the inheritance of the dominant white-bellied agouti allele from M. spretus. These mice were discarded as dsu cannot easily be typed in agouti animals. Of the remaining backcross animals, which were *non-agouti* (a/a), half were heterozygous for  $d^v$ . These animals can not be typed for dsuin the absence of homozygous  $d^{v}$ . Thirty-six of these mice were saved for DNA analysis to increase the number of informative meioses for markers flanking dsu. The rest of these animals were not included. The remaining 25% of the backcross progeny that were a/a,  $d^v/d^v$  were typed for the presence of 1 or 2 copies of dsu by visual inspection. Those animals carrying two copies of dsu (dsu/dsu, a/a,  $d^{\nu}/d^{\nu}$ ) were off-black while those animals carrying one copy of  $dsu (dsu/+, a/a, d^v/d^v)$  were gray. After typing the animals for dsu, they were euthanized and DNA was made for subsequent linkage analysis.

Southern blot analysis: High molecular weight genomic DNA was extracted from mouse tissues as described (JENKINS et al. 1982). DNAs (5 µg per lane) were digested to completion with various restriction endonucleases (8 units of enzyme/µg DNA), electrophoresed through 0.8% agarose gels and processed as described (JENKINS et al. 1982), except that Zetabind (Cuno) was substituted for nitrocellulose. Hybridization solutions were as described (JENKINS et al. 1982). Hybridization temperature and washing conditions varied with the probe in use. All blots were washed twice with  $2 \times SSCP$ , 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate for 20 min each, then washed 2-3 times in the final wash concentration as described below for 20 min each. For probes to the d, Ctla4, Cryg, Fn1, Tnp1 and Emv17 loci, the hybridization temperature and washing temperature was 65° and the final concentration of the wash solutions was  $0.5 \times$  SSCP, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, except for d, which was  $0.2 \times SSCP$ , 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate. For probes to the Vil, Gpcr16 and Mtap2 loci, the hybridization and washing temperature was 60° and the final wash concentration was  $0.5 \times SSCP$ , 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate. Filters were autoradiographed at -70° with Kodak XAR film and 2 DuPont Lightening Plus intensifying screens for 1-5 days.

Probes: The dilute probe, p0.3 (originally published as the Pst probe (COPELAND et al. 1983), is a unique 2.6-kb cellular DNA sequence located 3' of the Emv3 viral integration site in the  $d^v$  allele (RINCHIK et al. 1986). This probe detects an 18-kb EcoRI fragment in  $d^{v}$  chromosomes and a 9-kb fragment in wild-type chromosomes. The DNA probe, pS1.25, used for the detection of ecotropic murine leukemia provirus 17 (Emv17), is a 1.2-kb PstI-SstI unique sequence fragment derived from cellular sequences located 5' to the Emv17 viral integration site of the RF/J strain of mice. The probe for cytotoxic T lymphocyte associated protein 4 (Ctla4) is a 1.9-kb mouse cDNA cloned in pUC9 and was a gift from P. GOLSTEIN (Centre d'Immunologie Inserm-CNRS de Marseille-Luming, Marseille, France). The pMg4CrL probe for gamma crystallin (Cryg) is a 550-bp mouse cDNA clone in pBR322 and was a gift from J. PIATIGORSKY (National Eye Institute, Bethesda, Maryland). Two probes, pFH1 and pFH6, were used to detect the fibronectin 1 (Fn1) gene; both were gifts from F. C. BARALLE (International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology, Padriciano, Italy). pFH1 is a 2.5-kb human cDNA sequence in

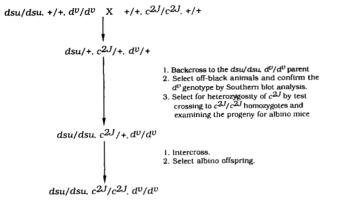


FIGURE 1.—Breeding scheme for the derivation of mice homozygous for dsu,  $c^{2f}$  and  $d^{v}$ .

pAT153 and pFH6 is a 1.2-kb human cDNA sequence in pAT153. The probe used to detect the villin (Vil) gene is a 530-bp human cDNA sequence cloned in psP64. The transition protein 1 (Tnp1) gene, defined by probe pTP1, was detected using a 450-bp mouse cDNA clone that is cloned in Bluescript. It was a gift from N. HECHT (Tufts University, Boston). The pGLC101 probe used to detect the myosin light chain, alkali, fast skeletal muscle (Mylf) gene is a 450-bp mouse cDNA sequence in the vector Bluescript. The p56 probe used to detect the microtubule associated protein 2 (Mtap2) gene is a 1.2-kb mouse cDNA cloned into pUC and was a gift from N. COWAN (New York University Medical Center, New York). The G protein coupled receptor 16 (Gpcr16) gene was detected using a subcloned, polymerase chain reaction-amplified cDNA fragment from mouse spermatogonia, spermatocytes and spermatids (WILKIE et al. 1993).

#### RESULTS

Chimera studies: To distinguish the clonal regions of coat color in chimeras derived from off-black dsu/dsu,  $d^{\nu}/d^{\nu}$  melanocytes and potentially suppressed off-black  $d^{v}/d^{v}$  melanocytes, we marked the parental dsu/dsu,  $d^{\nu}/d^{\nu}$  stock with a cell autonomous coat color marker, albino 2J ( $c^{2J}$ ). This mutation prevents the synthesis of active tyrosinase needed for pigment production but does not alter melanocyte morphology. dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/c^{2J}$ ,  $d^{v}/d^{v}$  mice will be phenotypically white due to the presence of the albino mutation. If dsu acts cell autonomously, the chimeras should have white hairs (from the dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/c^{2J}$ ,  $d^{v}/d^{v}$  parent) and nonsuppressed gray hairs (from the  $d^{\nu}/d^{\nu}$  parent). Alternatively, if dsu acts cell nonautonomously, the chimeras should have white hairs and suppressed off-black hairs, or if suppression is incomplete, white, off-black, and gray hairs.

To produce a stock carrying  $c^{2J}$ , in addition to dsu and  $d^v$ , we crossed mice homozygous for  $c^{2J}$  to mice homozygous for dsu and  $d^v$  (Figure 1). Since dsu cannot be followed through genetic crosses in the absence of  $d^v$  (or another mutation that dsu suppresses), we maintained  $d^v$  in the dsu stock. The F<sub>1</sub> progeny  $(dsu/+, c^{2J}/+, d^v/+)$  were then backcrossed to the dsu/dsu, +/+,  $d^v/d^v$  parent. Backcross progeny that were off-black in color, and presumably dsu/dsu, +/?,  $d^v/d^v$ , were selected. Southern blot analysis was then used to confirm

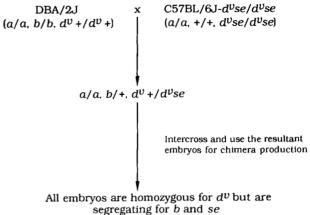


FIGURE 2.—Breeding scheme for the production of  $d^v/d^v$  embryos.

that these animals were homozygous for  $d^v$ . Fifty percent of these off-black mice should be heterozygous for  $c^{2J}$ and 50% should be wild type. These two genotypic classes were distinguished by crossing them to the  $c^{2J}$ homozygous parent. Mice that were confirmed to be dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/+$ ,  $d^v/d^v$  were intercrossed. Twenty-five percent of the mice from this cross should be dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/$  $c^{2J}$ ,  $d^v/d^v$  and phenotypically albino. These mice were used to establish a dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/c^{2J}$ ,  $d^v/d^v$  strain.

In our first attempts at chimera production we used either DBA/2] (which are homozygous for  $d^{\nu}$ ) or C57BL/6J- $d^v/d^v$ , se/se (abbreviated C57BL/6J- $d^v$ se) mice for the  $d^{\nu}$  parent. These early attempts were, however, unsuccessful due to our inability to obtain a large number of healthy embryos from either strain. It has been previously reported that DBA/2J mice produce low numbers of eggs after superovulation. In these experiments we obtained, on average, only 4 embryos per superovulated DBA/2J female. C57BL/6J mice have been reported to produce large numbers of embryos after superovulation (HOGAN et al. 1986). However, we obtained less than 1 healthy embryo per superovulated C57BL/6J- $d^vse$  female. By introducing  $d^vse$  into the C57BL/6J strain, the ability of C57BL/6J mice to be superovulated must have been severely reduced.

To increase the number of healthy  $d^v/d^v$  embryos we crossed DBA/2J to C57BL/6J- $d^vse$  mice to produce  $F_1$  females for superovulation (Figure 2). Although it has been reported that DBA/2J × C57BL/6J  $F_1$  females, like the DBA/2J strain, produce low numbers of embryos, we found that our  $F_1$  hybrid females now averaged 19 healthy embryos/superovulated female. All the embryos from the  $F_1$  females (which were mated to DBA/2J × C57BL/6J- $d^vse$  males) will be homozygous for  $d^v/d^v$  but will be heterozygous for other loci that differed between the two parental stocks including the two visible mutations *short ear* (*se*) and *brown* (*b*).

Nine phenotypically identifiable chimeras were produced from the aggregation of dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/c^{2J}$ ,  $d^{\nu}/d^{\nu}$ and  $d^{\nu}/d^{\nu}$  embryos. All had coat colors that showed a contribution of both non-pigmented (white) hairs from



FIGURE 3.—Chimeric dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/c^{2J}$ ,  $d^{\nu}/d^{\nu} \leftrightarrow d^{\nu}/d^{\nu}$  mouse. The coat color shows white and gray hairs only. Nondilute pigmented hairs were not observed.

the dsu/dsu,  $c^{2J}/c^{2J}$ ,  $d^v/d^v$  embryo, and pigmented hairs from the  $d^v/d^v$  embryo. In each of the nine embryos the regions of pigmented hairs were dilute in color. Six of the nine chimeras had gray and white bands of hair (Figure 3). The remaining three had dilute brown and white bands of hair. The presence of dilute brown rather than gray was due to homozygosity of the *b* allele that was segregating in some  $d^v/d^v$  embryos. The absence of offblack hairs in all chimeric mice suggests that dsu acts in a cell autonomous manner.

Interspecific backcross mapping panel segregating *dsu*: An interspecific backcross mapping panel segregating *dsu* was generated to test possible *dsu* candidate genes and to use as a genetic reagent for positionally cloning *dsu*. These mice were produced by mating homozygous *dsu*,  $d^v$  mice to *M. spretus* and then mating the resultant  $F_1$  progeny back to the *dsu*,  $d^v$  parent (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). In total, 151 backcross progeny segregating *dsu* were produced. DNAs from these backcross mice were then typed for a number of *dsu* candidate genes that were known to map in the *dsu* region (SELDIN *et al.* 1992; WILKIE *et al.* 1993) including genes

as microtubule associated protein 2, Mtap2; myosin light chain, alkali, fast skeletal muscle, Mylf; villin, Vil; and gamma crystallin, Cryg, as well as genes encoding proteins associated with the extracellular matrix such as fibronectin 1, Fn1. A few additional markers were also placed on the genetic map as potential landmarks for future positional cloning of dsu such as cytotoxic T lymphocyte associated protein 4, Ctla4; transition protein 1, Tnp1; G protein coupled receptor 16, Gpcr16; and ecotropic murine leukemia provirus 17, Emv17.

DNAs from the two parental strains were digested with several restriction enzymes and analyzed by Southern blot hybridization for informative restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) using each of the probes listed in Table 1. Recombination distances were calculated as described by GREEN (1981) using the computer program Spretus Madness. Gene order was determined by minimizing the number of recombination events required to explain the allele distribution pattern. Thirtysix additional DNAs from backcross mice, which were not homozygous  $d^{v}$  and could not be typed for dsu, were also included in the analysis to increase the number of informative meioses. Figure 4 shows the segregation

#### dsu Is a Cell Autonomous Suppressor

Locus	Gene name	Probe	Restriction enzyme	Fragment sizes(s) of major bands (kb) <sup>a</sup>		Probe
				dsu, d <sup>v</sup>	M. spretus	reference
Ctla4	Cytotoxic T lymphocyte associated protein 4	M1797	MspI	9.6	<u>3.5</u>	BRUNET et al. (1987)
Cryg	Gamma crystallin	pMg4CrL	PvuII	10, 8.5,	$\overline{10}, 6.0$	SHINOHARA et al. (1982)
		1 0		6.0, 3.4	<u>3.8</u> , 3.4	
Mtap2	Microtubule associated protein 2	p56	BgIII	11	15	Lewis et al. (1986)
Mylf	Myosin light chain alkali, fast skeletal muscle	pGLC101	EcoRI	8.2	<u>1.8</u>	ROBERT et al. (1988)
Fnl	Fibronectin 1	pFH1	HindIII	7.6, 4.5	4.5, <u>3.3</u> ,	KORNBLIHTT et al. (1985
		•		2.5	2.5	
		pFH6	HindIII	8.2, 5.4	5.4, <u>2.8</u> ,	KORNBLIHTT et al. (1985
				2.7, 1.0	2.7, 1.0	
Vil	Villin		BglII	5.0, 1.5	<u>7.4,</u> 1.5	PRINGAULT et al. (1986)
Tnp1	Transition protein 1	pTP1	HindIII	8.1	7.9	YELICK et al. (1991)
Gpcr16	G protein coupled receptor 16	•	PstI	6.0	$\frac{7.9}{6.7}$	WILKIE <i>et al.</i> (1993)
Emv17	Ecotropic murine leukemia provirus 17	pPS1.25	Taq1	8.2, 1.6, 0.5	<u>2.5</u>	BUCHBERG et al. (1986)
			BglII	6.2	<u>9.6</u>	

TABLE 1

Loci symbols, loci names, probes and RFLPs used for interspecific backcross mapping

<sup>a</sup> The RFLPs followed in the backcross animals are underlined.

analysis for the 187 backcross mice analyzed. All N<sub>2</sub> mice were typed for Ctla4, Cryg, Mtap2, Fn1, Vil and Emv17. Mylf was typed only in those animals that were recombinant in the Cryg to Vil interval, which spans the known Mylf map location. Similarly, Gpcr16 was typed only in those animals that were recombinant in the Mtap2 to Emv17 interval and Tnp1 was typed only in those animals that were recombinant in the Mylf to Emv17 interval. Barring the highly improbable event of a double recombination within the interval examined, analyzing only those animals that already had been determined to have a recombination event within the examined interval is as effective as analyzing all N<sub>2</sub> animals.

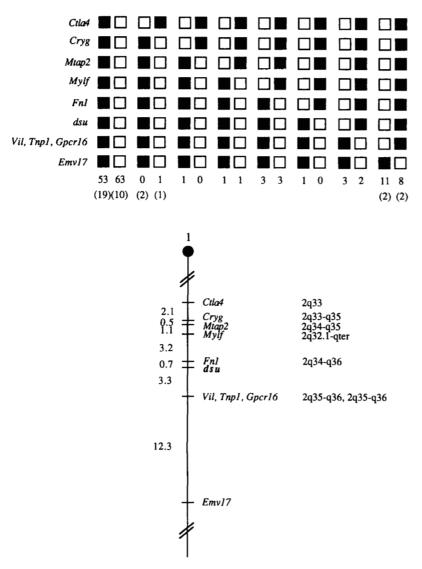
The ratios of the total number of mice carrying recombinant chromosomes to the total number of mice analyzed for each pair of loci and the most likely gene order are: centromere-Ctla4-4/187-Cryg-1/187-Mtap2-2/187-Mylf-6/187-Fn1-1/151-dsu-5/151-Vil, Gpcr16, Tnp1-23/187-Emv17. The recombination frequencies expressed as genetic distance in centiMorgans  $\pm$  the standard errors between each pair of loci are  $Ctla4-2.1 \pm 1.1-Cryg-0.5 \pm 0.5-Mtap2 -1.1 \pm 0.8 Mylf-3.2 \pm 1.3-Fn1-0.7 \pm 0.7-dsu-3.3 \pm 1.5-Vil$ Gpcr16,  $Tnp1-12.3 \pm 2.4-Emv17$ . Barring intragenic recombination, these mapping results exclude any of these loci as candidate genes for dsu. One locus mapping proximal of dsu, Fn1, only had one recombinant with dsu. Two probes for Fn1, one representing the 5' end and one from the 3' end of the gene were mapped relative to dsu to exclude the possibility of an intragenic recombination within Fn1 as being the dsu mutation. Three loci mapping distal of dsu, including Vil, Tnp1, and Gpcr16 had three recombinants with dsu identifying them, and Fn1, as the closest linked flanking genes mapped in this study and potential starting points for the positional cloning of dsu.

## DISCUSSION

The results of our chimera experiments suggest that dsu is a cell autonomous suppressor. This result is inconsistent with the model previously described suggesting that dsu acts within the melanocyte extracellular matrix but would be consistent with a model suggesting that dsu encodes a product that can somehow compensate for a mutant d (or ash and ln) gene product within melanocytes. Experiments demonstrating that dsu can suppress a null allele of the *dilute* locus,  $d^{20j}$  (MOORE *et al.* 1988a), are also consistent with this compensation model.

One attractive notion is that *dsu* encodes a diluterelated protein that is only expressed in mutant *dsu* melanocytes, or alternatively, is increased in expression in *dsu* melanocytes. To date, however, we have been unable to identify any murine *dilute*-related genes by low stringency Southern blot analysis.

It is also possible that dsu encodes a myosin-related protein belonging to a different subclass from dilute. Myosin heavy chains are generally grouped into two distinct classes. Myosin IIs (two-headed myosins) include the conventional myosins that participate in a wide variety of cellular processes including muscle contraction and cytokinesis. Myosin IIs function as dimers and are composed of an N-terminal head region that contains ATP- and actin-binding domains and a C-terminal  $\alpha$ -helical tail that promotes dimerization. Myosin Is (one-headed myosins) contain an N-terminal head region similar to myosin IIs, but unlike myosin IIs, they contain a non- $\alpha$ -helical tail and function as monomers. Myosin Is include the membrane-associated myosin from Acanthamoeba (MIYATA et al. 1989) and the bovine brush border myosin and have been implicated in pseudopod extension and membrane ruffling. Dilute appears to be intermediate between these two classes of



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FIGURE 4.—Interspecific backcross linkage map of the dsu interval. A pedigree analysis of 187  $N_{0}$ progeny from the interspecific backcross segregating dsu is shown in the top panel. The loci followed in the backcross are listed to the left. Each column represents the chromosome identified in the  $N_2$  progeny that was inherited from the (dsu/ dsu,  $d^{v}/d^{v} \times M$ . spretus)  $\mathbf{F}_{1}$  parent. The open squares represent the presence of a M. spretus allele. The black squares represents the presence of a dsu allele. The number of N<sub>2</sub> progeny (among 151 animals segregating dsu), carrying each type of chromosome is listed below the columns. The numbers in parentheses represent an additional 36  $N_2$  animals that were not typed for dsu but which were typed for dsu flanking markers. A partial chromosome 1 linkage map showing the location of dsu in relation to linked genes is shown at the bottom. The genetic distance, in centiMorgans, between each set of markers is shown to the left and the human map positions, where known, are shown to the right (dsu and Gpcr16 are not mapped in humans). References for the human map positions of loci mapped in this study can be obtained from GDB (Genome Data Base), a computerized database of human linkage information maintained by The William H. Welch Medical Library of The Johns Hopkins University (Baltimore, Maryland).

proteins. Like myosin Is and IIs, the dilute protein contains an N-terminal head region but unlike myosin Is and IIs, the dilute C terminus contains both  $\alpha$ -helical and non- $\alpha$ -helical regions (MERCER *et al.* 1991). In spite of this peculiar C-terminal structure, recent experiments utilizing the chicken homolog of dilute (ESPINDOLA *et al.* 1992; ESPREAFICO *et al.* 1992; SANDERS *et al.* 1992) have shown that dilute functions as a dimer similar to myosin IIs (CHENEY *et al.* 1993). In view of the unique nature of the dilute protein it seems unlikely that one of the previously identified myosin Is or IIs could compensate for the absence of the *dilute* gene product.

A gene that shares many of the same structural features as *dilute* is the *MYO2* gene of yeast (JOHNSTON *et al.* 1991). Yeast harboring mutations in *MYO2* fail to complete budding, show a disorganized actin cytoskeleton and an accumulation of vesicles. Surprisingly, the *MYO2* mutant phenotype can be suppressed by the overexpression of a novel member of the kinesin superfamily of microtubule-based motors (LILLIE and BROWN 1992). This raises the interesting possibility that *dsu* also encodes a non-actin-based motor such as kinesin or dy-

nein. In vivo studies using anti-kinesin antibodies, have shown kinesin to be involved in the movement of pigment granules in melanophores of the teleost black tetra (RODIONOV et al. 1991) and with membrane bound organelles within nerve axons (HIROKAWA et al. 1991). Dynein has been shown to be a microtubule associated retrograde translocator (PASCHAL and VALLEE 1987). Both kinesin and dynein are encoded by a large family of genes in mammalian cells and the identification and characterization of these gene families has only just begun (VALE and GOLDSTEIN 1990). None of the current members of these gene families have been shown to map near dsu (N. G. COPELAND and N. A. **JENKINS**, unpublished observations). As new members are identified we can map them in our interspecific backcross segregating dsu to determine if any cosegregate with dsu.

That dsu may encode a non-actin-based motor that is either turned on or overexpressed in dsu melanocytes and can compensate for the absence of d is a very attractive notion. Alternatively, dsu may encode a mutant protein that can compensate for the lack of d. This model could easily account for the fact that suppression of d, ash and ln is not complete, as it is unlikely that a non-actin-based motor could completely compensate for an actin-based motor like dilute.

The true mechanism of dsu suppression will likely only be known once the dsu gene product is cloned. As we have already excluded most preexisting dsu candidate genes, we have initiated a positional cloning approach to dsu. Many recent advances made possible by the mouse genome effort (reviewed in COPELAND *et al.* 1993) now make it feasible to contemplate positionally cloning virtually any mouse mutation. Toward this end we have begun to expand our dsu interspecific backcross and type additional markers that are expected to lie in the dsu region.

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