

## Selection of an Avian Retrovirus Mutant with Extended Receptor Usage

RANDY A. TAPLITZ<sup>1†</sup> AND JOHN M. COFFIN<sup>2\*</sup>

*Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Tufts University/New England Medical Center,<sup>1</sup> and  
Department of Molecular Biology and Microbiology, Tufts University School of Medicine,<sup>2</sup>  
Boston, Massachusetts 02111*

Received 5 March 1997/Accepted 25 June 1997

**Receptor recognition by avian retroviruses is thought to involve the interaction of two regions of the SU protein, *hr1* and *hr2*, with the host cell surface receptor. These regions exhibit considerable variation, concordant with differences in receptor usage among the many avian leukosis virus subgroups. We hypothesize that some retroviruses have altered receptor usage in response to selective pressures imposed by receptor polymorphisms in their hosts. To test this hypothesis, we passaged td-Pr-RSV-B on cocultured permissive chicken (C/E) and nonpermissive quail (QT6/BD) cells. A variant virus with an expanded host range was identified at passage 29 and ultimately shown to be identical in sequence to td-Pr-RSV-B, except for changes at codons 155 and 156 of SU amino acid corresponding to two amino acid changes within *hr1*. Superinfection resistance studies suggest that the variant virus recognizes the subgroup B receptor on chicken cells and the subgroup E receptor on quail cells. These findings indicate that altered receptor usage can be conferred by small changes in *env* and may point to a key region for receptor interaction. Further, they demonstrate the evolutionary potential of retroviral *env* genes to alter receptor usage in response to appropriate selective pressure.**

The *env* gene of avian retroviruses encodes two glycoproteins, SU (gp85), the surface subunit, and TM (gp37), the transmembrane subunit. These proteins are involved in specific recognition and binding of cell surface receptors, as well as penetration of the host cell membrane. Additionally, they induce superinfection resistance by blocking interaction of the virus with cellular receptors (12, 19, 20).

The cell surface receptors for seven retroviruses have been described; these include human immunodeficiency virus (CD4), ecotropic murine leukemia virus (mCAT-1), gibbon ape leukemia virus (hPiT-1), amphotropic murine leukemia virus (RAM-1), bovine leukemia virus, and Rous sarcoma virus (RSV) subgroups A and B (Tva and CAR1) (2–4, 8, 25, 26, 37). Although the structures and natural functions of these receptor proteins are very different from each other, the basic organizational structures of the Env glycoproteins from the different retroviruses recognizing these receptors are grossly similar (5, 22–24). This similarity supports the speculation of similarity in receptor binding among disparate retroviruses.

Avian retroviruses are useful in the study of molecular mechanisms important in host range and receptor recognition because they display a remarkable diversity of receptor utilization within a group of otherwise very closely related viruses. The best studied of these viruses can be divided into five subgroups, A through E, based on (i) the ability to infect genetically defined avian cells, (ii) interference patterns, and (iii) neutralizing antibody cross-reaction. Viruses of five other subgroups, F to J, have been isolated from avian species as well (38).

In chickens, three autosomal loci (Tv-a, Tv-b, and Tv-c) controlling cell susceptibility to infection by viruses of different

subgroups have been defined. Viruses of subgroup A, and most likely those of subgroups B and C, recognize independent receptors that are directly encoded by the corresponding loci (4, 16, 39). Viruses of subgroups B, D, and E recognize closely related, probably allelic receptors (38). B and D viruses are apparently identical in receptor usage, although their SU protein sequences differ somewhat. In chickens, resistance to subgroup B viruses is associated with resistance to subgroup E viruses, and preinfection of chicken cells with subgroup B or D virus prevents superinfection by subgroup E virus. This interference is not reciprocal in chickens, since susceptibility to subgroup E virus is always associated with susceptibility to subgroup B and D viruses. Other avian species do not exhibit patterns of resistance identical to that of chickens; for example, turkey and quail embryo fibroblasts are susceptible to infection by subgroup E virus but resistant to infection by subgroup B and D viruses (12, 21, 36, 38).

The region of the viral genome that determines subgroup specificity was initially determined by T<sub>1</sub> oligonucleotide mapping and nucleotide sequencing to reside in the middle third of the SU protein (15) (Fig. 1A). In this region, several domains with low amino acid identity among the subgroups exist within a highly conserved framework (Fig. 1B). The presence, within the variable regions, of conserved amino acids such as proline, glycine, and cysteine and hydrophobic amino acids, which could play a key role in protein folding, implies similar overall structures of this region in the different subgroups. It is possible that the regions of heterogeneity extend to the surface of the protein and interact with binding sites on the host cell receptor. Analysis of the *env* gene of NTRE-4, a recombinant between subgroup B td-PR-RSV-B and RAV-0, a subgroup E virus that can infect both C/E and T/BD cells, revealed a composite structure, with an *hr1* region derived from the subgroup B virus and *hr2* of subgroup E (15, 34). This organization suggested that two variable regions of different subgroups could interact to recognize both types of receptor. Analysis of rescued virus from molecular clones carrying various combinations of these variable regions from different subgroup vi-

\* Corresponding author. Mailing address: Department of Molecular Biology and Microbiology, Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, MA 02111. Phone: (617) 636-6528. Fax: (617) 636-8086. E-mail: Jcoffin\_par@opal.tufts.edu.

† Present address: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco, CA 94143.



**Nucleotide sequence analysis.** DNA sequence analysis was performed on cloned or genomic DNA by using the dideoxynucleotide chain termination method. Additionally, direct sequencing of purified PCR products was performed by thermal cycle sequencing with Vent<sub>R</sub> (exo-) DNA polymerase (New England BioLabs, Beverly, Mass.).

## RESULTS

**Strategy used to select for a host range variant virus.** Despite the variety of receptor utilization among avian retroviruses, mutations conferring altered receptor usage have not been previously observed, suggesting the necessity for multiple simultaneous changes. We hypothesized that we could select such a rare variant by infecting cells with a virus under moderate selective conditions, avoiding population bottlenecks that would limit diversity (10, 11, 17, 18). With repeated passage under these conditions, a rare mutant that confers a selective advantage should become the predominant virus in the population. Thus, if a virus were passaged on cells under conditions in which it would be advantageous but not essential to have an extended host range, a mutant with an extended host range might be selected. Such selection could be accomplished by serially passaging a virus on mixtures of two types of cells, one permissive for infection and one nonpermissive due to lack of a suitable receptor. A variant virus with an extended host range would be selected on the basis of the greater number of available target cells.

To test this strategy, we established a cocultivation system in which a subgroup B ALV (td-Pr-RSV-B) was passaged on a mixture of susceptible C300 (C/E, *ev*<sup>-</sup>) and resistant (QT6/BD) cells (Fig. 2). To ensure that recombinants with endogenous proviruses providing an extended host range (34) could not occur, we confirmed the absence of ALV-like endogenous proviruses in the C300 cells (data not shown). Undiluted supernatant from infected cultures was passaged repeatedly on fresh cocultures. We anticipated that a variant virus able to infect QT6 cells would eventually appear in the virus population. To test for the presence of such a virus, supernatant was used to infect QT6lac914 cells, which contain an ALV-based *lacZ* vector (32). A virus with an altered host range could then be identified by its ability to rescue the *lacZ* gene into infectious virus, which could be tested for by subsequent infection and staining of C300 or QT6 cells, as well as by RT assays.

We were unable to detect a virus capable of infecting nonpermissive QT6lac914 cells in the early passages on the cell mixture. However, assays of supernatant from QT6lac914 cells infected with undiluted virus from viral passages 28 and 29 revealed an increase in RT activity over the baseline, consistent with the appearance of a variant virus able to infect the previously nonpermissive cells (Fig. 3A). Additionally, the *lacZ* gene was transferred with low efficiency to chicken cells by infection with this supernatant, again suggesting the presence of a variant virus with an altered host range (data not shown). Southern blot analysis of genomic DNA from QT6 cells infected with supernatant from viral passages 1, 28, and 32 revealed the presence of the expected Pr-RSV-B virus-specific bands in the QT6 cells infected with virus from viral passages 28 and 32, but not 1 (data not shown), confirming the newly acquired ability to infect these cells.

To further enrich for virus capable of infecting QT6lac914 cells, we created a new cell line, QT6lac914/PR-B(40), by infecting QT6lac914 cells with supernatant from the cocultivations at viral passage 40 and serially passaging these cells. These cells initially produced only small amounts of virus, but on subsequent passages, the virus from this cell line grew to a high titer (Fig. 3B) and was able to transfer the *lacZ* gene to both C/E and QT6 cells with high efficiency (data not shown).

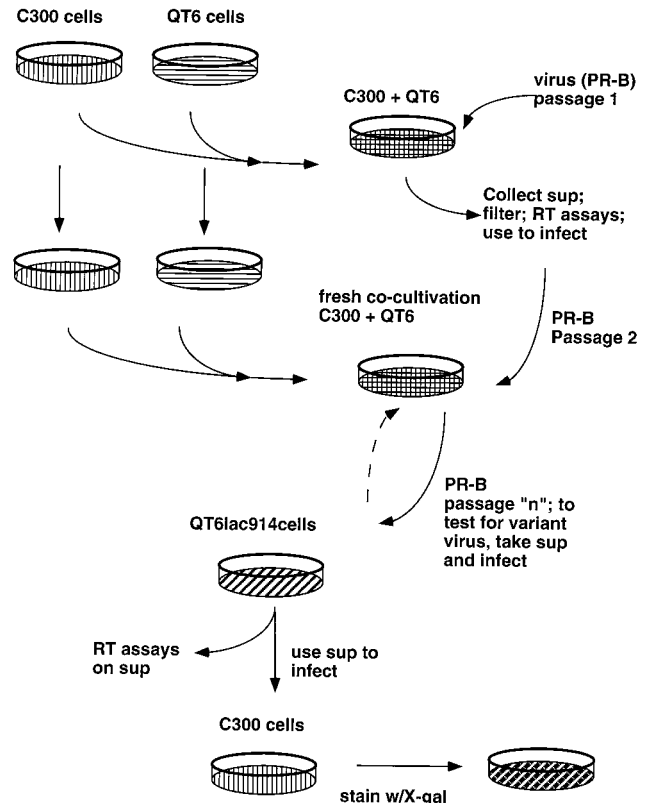


FIG. 2. Experimental scheme showing serial virus (td-PR-RSV-B, Pr-B) passage on cocultures of permissive chicken cells (C300) and nonpermissive quail cells (QT6). At each passage, supernatants (sup) are tested for an extended host range by determining their ability to infect and rescue a *lacZ* vector from QT6 cells.

**Mutations conferring an extended host range.** We considered it most probable that any mutation conferring an extended host range would lie within the central region of SU encompassing *hr1* and *hr2* (Fig. 1). Therefore, a 1.1-kb fragment of the *env* gene including this region was PCR amplified from C300 cells infected with C300/QT6 viral passage 32, from QT6 cells infected with C300/QT6 viral passages 28 and 32, and also from QT6lac914/PR-B(40) cells infected with viral passages 9, 11, and 30. The fragment pattern of these PCR products upon digestion with *EcoRI* and *BamHI* was consistent with subgroup B virus and excluded the possibility of contamination with another ALV strain (data not shown). These amplification products were subsequently cloned and sequenced. The sequences of the viruses from six coculture clones (C300/QT6 viral passage 32 grown on chicken cells and passages 28 and 32 grown on QT6 cells) demonstrated only the wild-type sequence through *hr1* and *hr2*. However, four different clones from the QT6lac914/PR-B(40) cells at passages 9, 11, and 30 showed the same two sequence changes. These changes, at codons 155 and 156 of *env*, result in two amino acid changes in the predicted protein product (Fig. 4).

To determine whether the two mutations were sufficient to confer the extended-host-range phenotype, we exchanged the 1.1-kb fragment from an intact virus containing the mutant *env* gene (S20) into the wild-type molecular clone of td-PR-RSV-B (Fig. 1A). The particular clone used for this subcloning also showed two synonymous nucleotide changes in *env*, at nucleotides 3 and 571 (Fig. 4). The latter change was seen only in



TABLE 1. Receptor usage by the mutant virus

Preinfecting virus	No. of stained cells following superinfecting <i>lac</i> virus (cell type) <sup>a</sup>			
	S20 (C/E)	S20 (QT6/BD)	NTRE-4 (C/E)	RAV1 (C/E)
None	1,280	3,600	2,560	2,448
RAV-1	992	1,120	2,528	<5
td-Pr-RSV-B	16	ND	<5	1,920
Pr-RSV-E	ND	240	ND	ND
NTRE-4	<10	<5	<5	1,590

<sup>a</sup> C/E or QT6 cells were preinfected with the viruses shown and passaged three or four times prior to superinfection; the results reflect the number of stained cells per 60-mm plate 2 days after superinfection. ND, not done.

used by this mutant virus. Infection of QT6 cells by the mutant virus was blocked by preinfection with PR-E or NTRE-4, suggesting that the E receptor on quail cells is utilized. Thus, the extended receptor usage of this virus resembles that of NTRE-4.

## DISCUSSION

Avian and murine retroviruses display considerable variability of receptor usage, despite strong conservation of most of the Env proteins (5, 6, 15, 24). The major host range determinants of avian retroviruses reside in the variable *hr1* and *hr2* regions in the middle third of SU (gp85) (Fig. 1). Previously, several recombinants, generated either in tissue culture or by recombinant DNA techniques, have shown that mixing of certain *hr1* and *hr2* regions from different subgroups can yield a virus that combines the receptor specificity of both parents. One such virus is NTRE-4, a recombinant between td-PR-RSV-B and the endogenous subgroup E virus RAV-0. This virus possesses 200 bases of the RAV-0 sequence, including *hr2* but not *hr1*, within a td-PR-RSV-B framework; it recognizes both subgroup B and E receptors (15). These data have suggested a model in which *hr1* and *hr2* encode two separate segments of protein which together form the receptor binding site. Further, it is likely that only certain combinations of *hr1* and *hr2* can interact correctly with each other and/or the cell surface receptor to initiate infection, since many recombinants carrying novel combinations of variable regions fail to produce infectious virus following transfection (14).

We describe here a variant virus that grew to dominate the viral population under selective pressure for an expanded host range and which has dual specificity for the subgroup B and E receptors. Complete and reciprocal interference with NTRE-4 (Table 1) implies identical receptor usage by these two viruses, despite their different genetic structures. Consistent with this, both viruses were completely blocked by infection of chicken cells with a subgroup B virus. However, the mutant virus was significantly, but not completely, inhibited by preinfection of QT6 cells with Pr-E RSV, raising the possibility that it (and, by extension, NTRE-4) might use additional receptors present on QT6, but not chicken, cells. Further experiments are required to test this speculation.

The variant virus possesses two amino acid changes, both within the *hr1* region. The first, at codon 155, substitutes a polar serine for the nonpolar leucine conserved among subgroup A, B, C, and E viruses. The second change substitutes nonpolar isoleucine for polar threonine at codon 156; it is of note that RAV-0 also possesses an Ile at codon 156, suggesting that the Ile at this position may be critical for subgroup E receptor use. In NTRE-4, which also recognizes the subgroup

B and E receptors, the contribution of subgroup E specificity is encoded by *hr2*. The contrast between the two supports the notion that host range may be determined by the interaction of *hr1* and *hr2* with each other and/or with the cell receptor, in addition to a specific sequence. These findings indicate that altered receptor usage can be conferred by small changes in *env* and may also point to a key region for receptor interaction. Interestingly, it has previously been shown that in subgroup A avian sarcoma-leukosis virus, small, site-directed mutations in *hr2* result in loss of subgroup A specificity whereas *hr1* seems to tolerate small modifications without a change in specificity (35). Taken with our data, these observations may further support a role for *hr1* and *hr2* in conformational changes or envelope folding that may be critical to receptor binding.

A phenotypically variant virus with an extended host range was recognizable in the virus population at viral passage 29. However, when we cloned and sequenced the virus from QT6 cells infected with viral passages 28 and 32, only the wild-type virus was apparent. Failure to observe the mutant virus in the mixed population probably resulted from pseudotype formation of wild-type genomes by variant virus to allow infection of nonpermissive cells. We believe it unlikely that mutations in *env* other than the ones we describe here are responsible for the phenotypic host range alteration, since a cloned virus containing the two amino acid changes within an otherwise wild-type virus revealed the same phenotype as the passage 28 and 32 viruses upon transfection of QT6 cells. To eradicate the pseudotyping, as well as increase the selective pressure, we infected QT6lac914 cells with viral supernatant from viral passage 40 and serially passaged those cells, allowing only the variant to spread through the quail cell cultures. We suspect that the mutant virus, initially present at a low level, spread slowly through the QT6lac914 cells. By passage 9, there was a pronounced increase in RT activity as maximal levels of virus production were achieved. All of the clones analyzed after this passage possessed the two amino acid changes that were subsequently shown to be sufficient for the altered phenotype.

Interestingly, when mutant (S20) constructs were used to transfect chicken and quail cells, the rescued virus grew much more rapidly on chicken cells than on quail cells. This suggests greater fitness of the virus on chicken than on quail cells. Because the virus rescued from chicken and quail cells could subsequently infect both cell types with similar kinetics, it is unlikely that a mutation arose after rescue. It is likely, however, that continued passage of the variant virus on QT6 cells will improve its infectivity.

The extensive genetic diversity of retroviruses and the forces which act upon this variation are two of the important features that are responsible for the quasispecies nature of retroviral populations (11, 18). It seems likely that the ability of retroviruses to evolve rapidly in response to selective pressures imposed by the host (such as the development of genetic resistance) allowed retroviruses to acquire the ability to use different receptors. In our *in vitro* system, appropriately applied selective pressure did, in fact, lead to the appearance and growth of a variant virus with an altered host range. Thus, our data support the supposition that selective pressure imposed by polymorphic host cell receptors may have resulted in variable receptor usage by generally highly conserved envelope proteins. Analysis of the kinetics of appearance of the point mutations should reveal the strength of the selection; preliminary experiments using relatively insensitive methods indicate that the frequency of the mutations is quite low until shortly before the mutant virus becomes detectable. We are currently developing more sensitive techniques to address this issue.

The two mutations we observed were clearly sufficient to

confer the ability to use the quail subgroup E receptor on the subgroup B virus. The relatively long delay in the appearance of these mutations, combined with the reciprocal nature of the amino acid changes, suggests that each may be deleterious to virus replication when present independently. This hypothesis is being tested.

Recent work has suggested that similar residues on otherwise unrelated receptors are important for viral recognition. Specifically, an aromatic residue in the ALV-A receptor, CD4, and the ecotropic murine leukemia virus receptor appear to be critical for retrovirus-receptor interaction (1, 7, 27, 39). It is possible that the altered region of *hr1* in our mutant virus contributes to a receptor recognition motif which recognizes a similar Env recognition region on the subgroup B and E receptors. Recently, the receptor for the subgroup B virus has been cloned and identified as a cell surface protein related to the Fas receptor and unrelated to the subgroup A receptor (8). Future study of wild-type subgroup B virus and our mutant virus in the context of this receptor should elucidate features of the Env-receptor interaction of these retroviruses.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank S. Fenner for technical assistance and M. Bostic-Fitzgerald for administrative assistance.

This work was supported by NIH grants 1 K11 AI01339-01 (to R.A.T.) and R35 CA 44385 (to J.M.C.). J.M.C. is an American Cancer Society Research Professor.

#### REFERENCES

- Albritton, L. M. 1993. Envelope-binding domain in the cationic amino acid transporter determines the host range of ecotropic murine retroviruses. *J. Virol.* **67**:2091–2096.
- Albritton, L. M., L. Tseng, D. Scadden, and J. M. Cunningham. 1989. A putative murine ecotropic retrovirus receptor gene encodes a multiple membrane-spanning protein and confers susceptibility to virus infection. *Cell* **57**:659–666.
- Ban, J., D. Portetelle, C. Altaner, B. Horion, D. Milan, V. Krchnak, A. Burny, and R. Kettmann. 1993. Isolation and characterization of a 2.3-kilobase-pair cDNA fragment encoding the binding domain of the bovine leukemia virus cell receptor. *J. Virol.* **67**:1050–1057.
- Bates, P., J. A. T. Young, and H. E. Varmus. 1993. A receptor for subgroup A Rous sarcoma virus is related to the low density lipoprotein receptor. *Cell* **74**:1043–1051.
- Battini, J., J. Heard, and O. Danos. 1992. Receptor choice determinants in the envelope glycoproteins of amphotropic, xenotropic, and polytropic murine leukemia viruses. *J. Virol.* **66**:1468–1475.
- Bova, C. A., J. C. Olsen, and R. Swanstrom. 1988. The avian retrovirus *env* gene family: molecular analysis of host range and antigenic variants. *J. Virol.* **62**:75–83.
- Brodsky, M. H., M. Warton, R. Myers, and D. Littman. 1990. Analysis of the site in CD4 that binds to the HIV envelope glycoprotein. *J. Immunol.* **144**:3078–3086.
- Brojatsch, J., J. Naughton, M. M. Rolls, K. Zingler, and J. A. T. Young. 1996. CAR1, a TNFR-related protein, is a cellular receptor for cytopathic avian leukosis-sarcoma viruses and mediates apoptosis. *Cell* **87**:845–855.
- Cepko, C. 1992. Preparation of a specific retrovirus producer cell line. *Curr. Protocols Mol. Biol.* **11**(Suppl 17):1–12.
- Clarke, D. K., E. Duarte, A. Moya, S. Elena, E. Domingo, and J. Holland. 1993. Genetic bottlenecks and population passages cause profound fitness differences in RNA viruses. *J. Virol.* **67**:222–228.
- Coffin, J. M. 1992. Genetic diversity and evolution of retroviruses. *Curr. Top. Microbiol. Immunol.* **176**:143–164.
- Coffin, J. M. 1995. Retroviridae and their replication, p. 1437–1500. *In* B. N. Fields, and D. M. Knipe, and R. Chanock (ed.), *Fields virology*, 3rd ed. Raven Press, New York, N.Y.
- Cullen, B. R., A. Skalka, and G. Ju. 1983. Endogenous avian retroviruses contain deficient promoter and leader sequences. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **80**:2946–2950.
- Dorner, A. J., and J. M. Coffin. 1986. Determinants for receptor interaction and cell killing on the avian retrovirus glycoprotein gp85. *Cell* **45**:365–374.
- Dorner, A. J., J. P. Stoye, and J. M. Coffin. 1985. Molecular basis of host range variation in avian retroviruses. *J. Virol.* **53**:34–39.
- Dorner, A. J., J. P. Stoye, and J. M. Coffin. Unpublished data.
- Gilbert, J., P. Bates, H. Varmus, and J. White. 1994. The receptor for the subgroup A avian leukosis-sarcoma viruses binds to subgroup A but not to subgroup C envelope glycoprotein. *J. Virol.* **68**:5263–5268.
- Holland, J. J. (ed.). 1992. Genetic diversity of RNA viruses, vol. 176. Springer-Verlag KG, Berlin, Germany.
- Holland, J. J., J. C. De La Torre, and D. A. Steinhauer. 1992. RNA virus Populations as quasispecies. *Curr. Top. Microbiol. Immunol.* **176**:1–20.
- Hunter, E. 1997. Viral entry and receptors. *In* S. H. Hughes, J. M. Coffin and H. E. Varmus (ed.), *Retroviruses*, in press.
- Hunter, R., and R. Swanstrom. 1990. Retrovirus envelope glycoproteins, p. 187–253. *In* R. Swanstrom and P. K. Vogt (ed.), *Retroviruses. Strategies of replication*. Springer-Verlag, New York, N.Y.
- Ishizaki, R., and P. K. Vogt. 1966. Immunological relationships among envelope antigens of avian tumor viruses. *Virology* **30**:375–387.
- Kristal, B. S., T. A. Reinhart, E. A. Hoover, and J. I. Mullins. 1993. Interference with superinfection and with cell killing and determination of host range and growth kinetics mediated by feline leukemia virus surface glycoproteins. *J. Virol.* **67**:4142–4153.
- Lasky, L. A., G. Nakamura, D. H. Smith, C. Fennie, C. Shimasaki, E. Patzer, P. Berman, T. Gregory, and D. J. Capon. 1987. Delineation of a region of the human immunodeficiency virus type 1 gp120 glycoprotein critical for interaction with the CD4 receptor. *Cell* **50**:975–985.
- MacKrell, A., N. Soong, C. Curtis, and W. F. Anderson. 1996. Identification of a subdomain in the Moloney murine leukemia virus envelope protein involved in receptor binding. *J. Virol.* **70**:1768–1774.
- McDougal, J. S., A. Mawle, S. P. Cort, et al. 1985. Cellular tropism of the human retrovirus HTLV-III/LAV. I. Role of T cell activation and expression of the T4 antigen. *J. Immunol.* **135**:3151–3161.
- Miller, D. G., R. H. Edwards, and A. D. Miller. 1994. Cloning of the cellular receptor for amphotropic murine retroviruses reveals homology to that for gibbon ape leukemia virus. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **91**:78–82.
- Moebius, U., L. Clayton, S. Abraham, S. Harrison, and E. Reinherz. 1992. The human immunodeficiency virus gp120 binding site on CD4: delineation by quantitative equilibrium and kinetic binding studies of mutants in conjunction with a high-resolution CD4 atomic structure. *J. Exp. Med.* **176**:507–517.
- Moscovici, C., M. Moscovici, H. Jimenez, M. M. C. Lai, M. J. Hayman, and P. K. Vogt. 1977. Continuous tissue culture cell lines derived from chemically induced tumors of Japanese quail. *Cell* **11**:95–103.
- Norton, P. A., and J. M. Coffin. 1985. Bacterial  $\beta$ -galactosidase as a marker of Rous sarcoma virus gene expression and replication. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **5**:281–290.
- Schwartz, D. E., R. Tizard, and W. Gilbert. 1983. Nucleotide sequence of Rous sarcoma virus. *Cell* **34**:853–869.
- Sealy, L., M. L. Privalsky, G. Moscovici, C. Moscovici, and J. M. Bishop. 1983. Site-specific mutagenesis of avian erythroblastosis virus: erb-B is required for oncogenicity. *Virology* **130**:155–178.
- Stoker, A. W., and M. J. Bisell. 1988. Development of avian sarcoma and leukosis virus-based vector-packaging cell lines. *J. Virol.* **62**:1008–1015.
- Tsichlis, P. N., and J. M. Coffin. 1980. Recombinants between endogenous and exogenous avian tumor viruses: role of the C region and other portions of the genome in the control of replication and transformation. *J. Virol.* **33**:238–249.
- Tsichlis, P. N., K. F. Conklin, and J. M. Coffin. 1980. Mutant and recombinant avian retroviruses with extended host range. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **77**:536–540.
- Valsesia-Wittmann, S., A. Drynda, G. Deleage, M. Aumailley, J. Heard, O. Danos, G. Verdier, and F. Cosset. 1994. Modifications in the binding domain of avian retrovirus envelope protein to redirect the host range of retroviral vectors. *J. Virol.* **68**:4609–4619.
- Vogt, P. 1977. Genetics of RNA tumor viruses. *Compr. Virol.* **9**:341–455.
- Wang, H., M. P. Kavanaugh, R. A. North, and D. Kabat. 1991. Cell-surface receptor for ecotropic murine retroviruses is a basic amino-acid transporter. *Nature* **352**:729–731.
- Weiss, R. 1993. Cellular receptors and viral glycoproteins involved in retrovirus entry, p. 1–72. *In* J. A. Levy (ed.), *The Retroviridae*. Plenum Press, New York, N.Y.
- Zingler, K., C. Bélanger, R. Peters, D. Agard, and J. A. T. Young. 1995. Identification and characterization of the viral interaction determinant of the subgroup avian leukosis virus receptor. *J. Virol.* **69**:4261–4266.