# DNA Sequence Analysis of a Mouse  $Pro\alpha(1)$  Procollagen Gene: Evidence for a Mouse Bi Element Within the Gene

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In <sup>a</sup> 3.8-kilobase mouse DNA sequence encoding amino acid sequences for the  $prox1(I)$  chain of type I procollagen, 14 coding sequences were identified which specify a sequence 95% homologous to amino acid residues 568 to 963 of the bovine  $\alpha$ 1(I) chain. All of these coding sequences were flanked by appropriate splice junctions following the GT/AG rule. These observations suggest, but do not prove, that this pro $\alpha$ 1(I) gene is transcriptionally active. Of the 14 coding sequences, 7 were 54 base pairs in length, whereas the remainder were higher multiples of 54 base pairs. Nonrandom utilization of codons pertained throughout all of the coding sequences showing <sup>a</sup> preference (56%) for U in the wobble position. Two of the intervening sequences encoded imperfect vestiges of coding sequences which exhibited a codon preference different from that of the  $prox1(I)$ gene proper and were not flanked by splice junctions. One intervening sequence encoded a member of the mouse Bi family of middle repetitive sequences. It was flanked by 8-base-pair direct repeats and had a truncated A-rich region, suggesting that it may be a mobile element. Within this element were sequences which could function as <sup>a</sup> RNA polymerase III split promoter.

Much of the abiding interest in the collagen gene family stems from the key role that these extracellular structural proteins play in development, where they are primarily responsible for establishing and maintaining tissue architecture. As a prerequisite to studies of developmental gene regulation, considerable attention is being focused on the structures of the genes encoding the constituent polypeptide ( $pro\alpha$ ) chains of type I procollagen. In particular, these are the  $prox(1)$  genes from chickens (54, 55) and sheep  $(45)$  and the pro $\alpha$ 1(I) gene from mice (39). The  $pro\alpha$ 2(I) genes are the largest, most highly interrupted genes yet identified in eucaryotes. For example, the chicken  $prox(1)$  gene may have more than 50 intervening sequences distributed over <sup>38</sup> kilobases (kb) of genomic DNA. The preponderance of 54-base-pair (bp) coding sequences observed in this gene led to the hypothesis that procollagen genes arose by the amplification of a primordial 54-bp unit (55). However, a more compact genomic organization is observed in a pro $\alpha$ 1(I) procollagen gene (39). Therefore, a more complex evolutionary history, involving successive unequal cross overs within coding sequences (CSs) or precise deletions or insertions of intervening sequences or both, has been postulated for procollagen genes (39).

The preponderance of intervening sequences in procollagen genes inevitably raises the issue of their possible function. One possibility is that they serve to stabilize the gene by reducing recombination within the homologous CSs. A more intriguing possibility is that they might encode other gene products. Candidates for such products might be regulators or proteins belonging to an extended family of genes, including those for the post-transcriptional and post-translational processing required for collagen maturation. Therefore, to inquire into these possibilities and to extend the knowledge of collagen CSs, we chose to establish the sequence of a 3.8-kb segment of a  $prox1(I)$  procollagen gene. Here we analyze that nucleotide sequence.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

DNA sequencing. The isolation of the mouse  $prox1(I)$  gene segment analyzed in this paper has been described previously (39). The DNA sequence of the inserts from two subclones, pMPClC and pMPClA, was established essentially by the protocol of Maxam and Gilbert (38). These two inserts span the first 3.8 kb of the MPC1 clone.

Intragenic genomic repetitive sequence. Genomic DNAs other than that from BALB/c mice were gifts from Lou Kunkel. The genomic DNA samples were cleaved with the appropriate restriction endonuclease,

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fractionated by agarose gel electrophoresis, and transferred to nitrocellulose by the Southern procedure (47) after partial depurination (51). The KpnI-BamHI subfragment of MPC1A was  $32P$  labeled with radioactive dCTP in <sup>a</sup> T4 DNA polymerase reaction (39). Hybridizations were performed in 50% formamide- $5 \times$ SSC-<sup>50</sup> mM Tris-hydrochloride (pH 7.4)-i mM EDTA-0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate-lOx Denhardt solution (13) for 18 h at 37°C. Filters were washed three times for 20 min each at 50°C in  $0.1 \times$  SSC-0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate. For the localization of the genomic repetitive sequence within the MPC1A clone, mouse  $(BALB/c)$  genomic DNA was  $32P$  labeled by a modified nick-translation reaction (44), and the hybridization to a Southern blot of MPC1A restriction fragments was performed as described above except that 10% dextran sulfate (51) was included in the reaction.

# RESULTS

DNA sequence. The nucleotide sequence of two subclones representing a segment of a mouse  $prox1(I)$  procollagen gene was completed. The strategy employed to establish this 3.8 kb DNA sequence is sumamrized in Fig. 1. The sequence of each DNA strand was established from a set of overlapping determinations. Data from a previous report (39) are included in Fig. <sup>1</sup> by dashed arrows to illustrate all of the overlaps. The entire 3.8-kb DNA sequence is shown in Fig. 2. Fourteen CSs were identified within this DNA segment in comparison with the known amino acid sequence of the calf  $prox1(I)$  chain (17, 18, 33, 52). A schematic of the genomic organization of these CSs is depicted in Fig. 3A. In addition to the eight reported CSs (39), six new CSs (7-9, 12-14) were identified which encode 198 amino acids. Taken together, the 14 CSs specify residues 568 to 963 of a mouse  $\alpha$ 1(I) chain. In comparison to the corresponding calf sequence, there is 95% homology at the amino acid level. All of the 18 amino acid substitutions can be accounted for by single base changes in the mouse codons. The location of each substitution is indicated in Fig. 2 above the specified mouse sequence.

The 14 CSs exhibit a unique degree of size regularity. All are 54 bp in length or higher multiples of 54. The 162-nucleotide CS7 is the largest CS yet reported for the  $\alpha$ -chain domain. Of the other 13 CSs, 6 are 108 bp, and 7 are 54 bp.

The codon usage for the additional 198 amino acids confirms and extends the nonrandom distribution of codons noted previously (39). For the 396 codon total, there is a marked preference (56%) for U in the wobble position, whereas C, A, and G occur in this position only 24, 14, and 6% of the time, respectively. The most striking bias in codon utilization occurs for alanine, where 35 of 44 codons are GCU. The dominant glycine codon is GGU (80/132), but GGC (31/ 132), GGA (19/132), and GGG (3/132) are also

coQ

FIG.

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- EcoRI  $\mathbf{\Omega}$  $H\overline{h}$ ≌ Psti II Ava 2 Hoe III l l . i Pst<sub>I</sub> Bst Ell LII ິດ<br>ທີ \_Msp <sup>I</sup> Sau 3A t Mbo II -MspI 0<  $\mathbf{v}$ . I p0a -Hinf <sup>I</sup> -Dde <sup>I</sup>  $\begin{matrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix}$  $\mathbf{I}$ -EcoRIlI ö Msp I 'Hind III  $\frac{1}{2}$ Tac I ·Hinf I  $\mathbf{I}$ o Hinf I .<br>ທ **J**rt Communication ទ ដូ Sau 3A Kpn I e<br>Go وي<br>Minfle  $\frac{2}{3}$ -KpnI<sup>I</sup> Acc I 1 , Sau 3A<br>Tac I it is a sh Mbo<sub>II</sub> -Bam Hi k<br>G -Ava <sup>I</sup>  $\mathbf{i}$ -Bst Ell 1 4 Taq I -Hinf <sup>I</sup> ىي -Hinf <sup>I</sup> 0 ö -BgIl  $\mathbf{A}$  final state  $\mathbf{A}$ Dde I Acc I Sau 3A ر ب Acc 1 Ut], Hinf <sup>I</sup> Jr Pst 1 Ava <sup>I</sup> **Ca**<br>Thind III<br>The Hind III

A

GAATTCAGGGGCCTCTTAACCCAGGTTCCACCTGAATCCCCAAGTAGGCCCCTTTAACCCCTGAAAGAACT



 ${\tt CTCATGGTACCCAGGTGGTGGTGGTGAACACCTTTAATCCCAGCACATAAGGAAGCAGGAGGTAAATTC}$ 

FIG. 2. DNA sequence of the first 3.8 kb of MCP1 with a translation of the 14 identified coding sequences. Amino acid residues are numbered from the first glycine of the Gly-X-Y repeating pattern of the corresponding bovine  $\alpha$ 1(I) amino acid sequence. At the 18 position, where amino acid substitutions occur in the mouse<br>sequence, the corresponding bovine  $\alpha$ 1(I) residue is written above the specified mouse amino acid. CTGAGTTCAAGACCAGCCTGGTCTACAGAGCGAGTGCCAGGACAGCCAGAGCTACACAGAGAAACCCTGTC



FIG. 2. Continued

used. Proline codons are nearly evenly distributed between CCU (51/91) and CCC (39/91).

The splice junctions flanking the 14 CSs all follow the AG/GT rule, as shown in Fig. 4. They all exhibit substantial self-homology, as well as homology to similar sequences reported for a variety of other genes (8). In addition, the consensus sequence for these splicing sites shows considerable sequence complementarity to rat U1a RNA, suggesting that a small nuclear RNA resembling U1a may be involved in the processing of the primary transcript as postulated for other genes (37, 43). The degree to which both the encoded sequence and the splice junctions are conserved suggests, but does not prove, that this  $prox1(I)$  gene is transcriptionally active.

Intervening sequences containing CS vestiges. Two vestiges of CSs were identified within intervening sequences. Vestige 1 is located in the second intervening sequence as shown in Fig. 3A. Two apparent insertions of 10 and 2 nucleotides interrupt a pattern of nine Gly-X-Y triplets



FIG. 3. (A) Genomic organization of an internal segment of a mouse proa1(I) gene. CSs are depicted as blackened boxes, and the intervening sequences are designated by cross-hatching. The locations of two vestiges of CSs are indicated by the arrows designated V1 and V2. The location of the KpnI-BamHI fragment which hybridizes as a genomic repetitive sequence is indicated by the bar above the gene. (B) Position and genomic organization of a putative gene identified on the complementary strand of the pro $\alpha$ 1(I) gene. The locations of the imperfect Goldberg-Hogness sequence (ATTAAA), a potential capping site (CAP), and initiating methionyl residue (ATG) are indicated by designated arrows. A possible  $poly(A)$  addition signal site is also illustrated. The direction of transcription is denoted by wavy arrows in (A) and (B).

(Fig. 5). Vestige 2 appears as an inversion within the first intervening sequence as depicted in Fig. 3A. In this DNA segment, an apparent singlebase insertion interrupts six Gly-X-Y repeats (Fig. 5). Vestige 2 is also imperfect by virtue of the fact that it specifies both ocher and stop codons. Neither vestige is flanked by splice junction sequences, and the codon usage for each is unlike that of the  $prox1(I)$  gene proper.

Long, open reading frame on the complementary strand. Based on an analysis of the DNA

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sequence, a long, open reading frame of 594 nucleotides was identified complementary to nucleotides 1,483 to 890 of the  $prox1(I)$  sequence shown in Fig. 2. In searching the sequences upstream from this open reading frame for other gene characteristics, an imperfect (ATTAAA) Goldberg-Hogness box could be identified complementary to nucleotides 2,059 to 2,054 of Fig. 2. A potential capping site is located 31 bases downstream from this, and an ATG, followed by an open reading frame of 167 nucleotides, is located 112 nucleotides downstream from the imperfect Goldberg-Hogness box. By selecting an appropriate splicing regime, a putative gene could be constructed which contains two putative CSs which together yield a 699-nucleotide sequence, encoding 233 amino acids. The genomic organization of such a putative gene relative to the  $prox(1)$  gene is illustrated in Fig. 3B. In such a construction, the putative CSs are complementary to both intervening and CSs within the mouse  $prox1(I)$  gene. A relevant point is that not all of the intervening sequences in the pro $\alpha$ 1(I) gene are multiples of three nucleotides. Consequently, when the complementary strand is read in a single frame, the amino acid sequence does not reflect the Gly-X-Y repeat of the  $prox1(I)$  gene CSs as might otherwise be expected. A search of the Dayhoff computer atlas of protein sequences failed to identify any protein with greater than 22% homology to the 233-amino acid sequence encoded by the two putative CSs described above; no clear polyadenylic acid addition signal corresponding to the AAUAAA observed for several mRNAs (42) could be identified for this putative gene; and there is as yet no evidence that it is transcriptionaly active.

By a similar analysis, a "virtual" gene encoding 246 amino acids has been reported on the

<sup>G</sup> TiTC 1G CA- <sup>G</sup> GGCTCTGCAGGGAAGGCAGGTCCTGCCA**TATGAAGCT**GGTGACCCAGGAAGTTCAAGGGACCAGGAGGGAAGGTGTCATTGGTTCATCT GGTGACCCAGGAAGTTCA GGACCAGGAGGGAAGGAAGGTGTCATTGGTTCATCT GlySerAlaGlyLysAlaGlyProAla GlyAspProGlySerSer GlyProGlyGlyArgGluGlyValIleGlySerSer

# **Vestice 2**

AGTCCCCGGAGAATTGGGTCCAAGGTGGACTTAGGGGTTCATCCGGGGAAATTGG

AGTCCCCGGAGAATTGGGTCCAAG TGGACTTAGGGGTTCATCCGGGGAAATTGG

OP ProGlyArgLeuGlyProGlu GlySerAspGlyLeuLeuGlyArgOC Gly

FIG. 5. Sequences for two vestiges of CSs. The positions of apparent nucleotide insertions are underscored and in bold type. The translation of the nucleotide sequence minus the apparent insertions is also indicated.

strand complementary to the human e-globin gene (11), but the longest open reading frame in this case is 322 nucleotides as compared with the 594-nucleotide open reading frame described above.

Intragenic genomic repetitive sequence. A mouse genomic repetitive sequence was localized within the pro $\alpha$ 1(I) gene. Initially, when the entire cloned insert MPC1 was <sup>32</sup>P labeled and hybridized to a Southern blot of EcoRI-cleaved mouse DNA, a hybridization signal was observed throughout the lane of genomic DNA rather than at the expected 5.5-kb band. When <sup>32</sup>P-labeled inserts from each of three subclones of MPC1 were hybridized to identical blots, only the MPC1A insert exhibited this anomalous hybridization pattern. To further localize this repetitive sequence, a Southern blot of a series of digests of MPC1A was hybridized with BALB/c mouse DNA which had been <sup>32</sup>P labeled by nick translation. The KpnI-BamHI fragment shown in Fig. 3A was identified as the primary site of hybridization. Confirmatory evidence was provided by hybridizing this <sup>32</sup>P-labeled KpnI-BamHI fragment to a Southern blot (Fig. 6) of genomic DNAs isolated from several different species. It hybridized as a genomic repetitive sequence when tested against mouse liver (Fig. 6, lanes A to C) or A9-cell (Fig. 6, lanes D to  $\overline{F}$ ) DNAs or rat (Fig. 6, lane K) and hamster (Fig. 6, lane M) DNAs, but failed to cross-react with genomic repetitive sequences in human (Fig. 6, lanes G to I) or chicken (Fig. 6, lane J) DNAs. Therefore, the KpnI-BamHI fragment contains an apparently rodent-specific genomic repetitive sequence.

An analysis of the DNA sequence within this KpnI-BamHI fragment identified a region homologous to the mouse Bi genomic repetitive sequence (34). This 168-bp homolog is flanked by 8-bp direct repeats and is located between nucleotides 121 and 289 of IVS9, as illustrated in Fig. 7. The sequence extending from base 125 to

256 closely resembles the core consensus sequence for the mouse Bi and type I-CHO, Aluequivalent families of repetitive sequences (27, 34). The <sup>3</sup>' flanking A-rich region is very similar



FIG. 6. Southern blot of cleaved genomic DNAs from several species after hybridization with the 32Plabeled KpnI-BamHI fragment. BALB/c (lanes A to C), A9 cell (lanes D to F), and human (lanes G to I) DNAs were each cleaved with EcoRI, HindIlI, and BamHI, respectively. Chicken (lane J), rat (lane K), and hamster (lane M) DNAs were cleaved with EcoRI before electrophoresis through <sup>a</sup> 0.8% agarose gel. A 5-µg amount of DNA was loaded in each lane. Hybridization conditions were described in the text. Exposure time was 6 h.

DNA IVS 9

60 GTGAGTGTTC TTTCCTCTTG GGGTGTCCAA GAAGAATCAT CTTAGGACTT GAGTACTAGA CACTCACAAG AAAGGAGAAC CCCACAGGTT CTTCTTAGTA GAATCCTGAA CTCATGATCT 120<br>AGGGGCAGGG TAGCAGCAGT GGAGACAAGG AGAGCAAATG TGATAGAAAT GCTCTCATGG TCCCCGTCCC ATCGTCGTCA CCTCTGTTCC TCTCGTTTAC ACTATCTTTA CGAGAGTACC 180 TACCAGGTG GTGGTGGTGA ACACCTTTAA TCCCAGCACT AAGGAAGCAG AGGCAGGTAA ATGGGTCCAC CACCACCACT TGTGGAAATT AGGGTCGTGA TTCCTTCGTC TCCGTCCATT A 240 ATTCCTGAGT TCAAGACCAG CCTGGTCTAC AGAGCGAGTG CCAGGACAGC CAGAGCTACA TAAGGACTCA AGTTCTGGTC GGACCAGATG TCTCGCTCAC GGTCCTGTCG GTCTCGATGT 300 CAGAGAAACC CTGTCTTGAA AACCAAACTA AACAAACACA CAAAAGAAGT CTCATGGCTT GTCTCTTTGG GACAGAACTT TTGGTTTGAT TTGTTTGTGT GTTTTCTTCA GAGTACCGAA 340<br>GAGCCACCAC ATCTGACCTC CAGCCTTACT CTGTTCTTTA G CTCGGTGGTG TAGACTGGAG GTCGGAATGA GACAAGAAAT C

FIG. 7. Ninth intervening sequence (Fig. 2 and 3A), illustrating the encoded mouse Bi genomic repetitive sequence. The direct repeats flanking this repetitive sequence are illustrated by arrows above the sequence. The core sequence is indicated in brackets. The putative Goldberg-Hogness box on the complementary strand is underlined, and one potential capping site is indicated by an arrow. Direct repeats flanking the intervening sequence are indicated by dotted arrows above the sequence.

to that reported for the mouse Blc repeated sequence. The entire unit (121 to 289) is 82% homologous to the mouse B1c sequence, provided that three nucleotides are inserted into the latter sequence. The imperfect Goldberg-Hogness box described in the preceding section is located within this repetitive sequence complementary to nucleotides 146 to 151. All of the reported mouse B1 sequences and the CHO-Alu equivalent clone 49a also contain an imperfect Goldberg-Hogness box at this same position (27, 34). Finally, the significance of the fact that the intervening sequence containing this genomic repetitive sequence is itself flanked by 8-bp direct repeats which overlap the splice junction sequences at positions 6 to 13 and 332 to 339 is unknown.

## DISCUSSION

Evolutionary history of procollagen genes. Based on the DNA sequence analysis of this mouse  $prox1(I)$  gene, the evolution of procollagen genes appears to be more complex than originally thought. All 14 CSs are 54 bp in length or higher multiples of 54 bp. The 162-bp coding unit is the largest yet found encoding the Gly-X-Y repeat in any type <sup>1</sup> collagen gene. Two pathways for the generation of 108-bp CSs starting from 54-bp units have been proposed (39). One pathway involves precise deletions of intervening sequences, and the other involves successive, unequal crossovers within homologous CS. The extension of either proposition could account for the 162-bp CS. However, since four successive, unequal crossovers would be required to generate a 162-bp CS from 54-bp units, this possibility seems unlikely. Thus, the presence of a 162-bp CS, as well as numerous 108-bp CSs, suggests that pro $\alpha$  chain genes may be examples of partially processed genes. The fact that the junctions between the  $\alpha$  chain, telopeptide, and propeptide domains at each end of the  $\alpha$  chain are each fused into a single CS in the chicken  $prox(1)$  gene (54) is also consistent with this view.

The processing mechanism by which intervening sequences might be precisely deleted remains somewhat obscure. However, one possibility is that a pro $\alpha$  gene genomic fragment may have been incorporated into a retrovirus or cellular equivalent, as suggested for the  $\alpha$ - $\psi$ 3 pseudogene (36, 40, 50). The transcription of these proviral sequences into RNA followed by partial RNA processing before reintegration could generate CSs that are higher multiples of 54 bp. Other examples may be the rat insulin <sup>I</sup> gene which has cleanly lost one intervening sequence (3) and certain retrovirus oncogenes which lack the intervening sequences found in their cellular analogs (4, 20, 24). More convincing evidence for this mechanism of dispersal and processing has recently been provided by the discovery of an immunoglobulin pseudogene having both a spliced <sup>J</sup> and C region and a poly(A)-rich tail  $(29)$  and a  $\beta$ -tubulin pseudogene lacking intervening sequences but also containing a poly(A) tail (53). Another possible mechanism might involve processing at the DNA level, but there is as yet no precedent for this in eucaryotes.

The discovery of vestiges of CSs within two of

the intervening sequences (Fig. 5) points to an even more complex evolutionary history for procollagen genes. Whether this is a unique feature of procollagen genes remains to be seen; in most other genes, the amino acid sequence lacks the regularity that would allow evolutionarily related remnants of CSs to be recognized. In this respect, the Gly-X-Y repeat is an unambiguous indication that these two portions of intervening sequences are derived from some collagen-like CSs. Although the origin of these vestiges is unclear, it is noteworthy that both exhibit a codon utilization which is unlike that observed for the  $prox1(I)$  gene proper. Most noticeable is the fact that the glycine codon GGG is used twice in each vestige, whereas it is rarely used in collagen genes in general (21, 39, 54, 55). Thus, it would seem unlikely that these vestiges recently arose from the surrounding, bonafide CSs. The imperfections in these vestiges, including the fact that one is present as an inversion, and the absence of flanking splice junction sequences make it highly improbable that they are expressed. The extent to which the Gly-X-Y pattern is maintained suggests that some selective pressure may be operating on these vestiges.

Function of intervening sequences. The preponderance of intervening sequences within type <sup>I</sup> procollagen genes raises a question as to their function. In general, intervening sequences have been postulated to separate gene sequences encoding different conformational or functional domains, thereby allowing their independent evolution (23). At first glance, type <sup>I</sup> procollagen genes appear to be an exception to this; the bulk of the interruptions occur within the region specifying the large  $\alpha$ -chain domain and the junctions between the  $\alpha$ -chain, telopeptide, and propeptide domains are each fused into a single CS (54). Still, the intervening sequences might divide the  $\alpha$ -chain into functional subdomains. One example of this could be CS8, which encodes amino acids 766 to 801. It specifies both the collagenase cleavage site at the gly-ileu bond (aa 775 to 776) and the fibronectin binding site (aa 766 to 788) (32, 33). Collagen types I, II, and III are all cleaved at the identical site by the same enzyme, but types IV and V are not (7). Moreover, different attachment proteins appear to exist for individual collagen types (32), although the collagen-binding sites for these other proteins have yet to be established. Nonetheless, CS8 could be identified as a subdomain exhibiting significant functional variability between collagen isotypes. Although more subtle examples of such subdomains may be recognized in the future, it does seem unlikely that every CS can be accounted for in this fashion.

A more probably explanation is that the pre-

ponderance of intervening sequences stabilizes type <sup>I</sup> procollagen genes by reducing the frequency of recombination within the repetitious CSs as first suggested for immunoglobulin genes (46). Consistent with this view is the fact that the intervening sequences tend to be less guaninecytosine rich (52%) than the CSs (65%), and they exhibit little self-homology compared with that observed between CSs.

Mouse Bi sequence within an intervening sequence. One of the motivations for establishing the sequence of intervening sequences, as well as CSs, was to inquire into the possibility that other gene products might be encoded within the procollagen gene. The only published example of such a phenomenon in nonviral genes has been the discovery that an intervening sequence within the cytochrome  $b$  gene encodes an RNA maturase which is responsible for the splicing of the cytochrome  $b$  mRNA (35). It is conceivable that this mechanism for establishing an autoregulatory gene may extend to other split genes as well. Given the complexity of the mouse genome, a selective advantage for arrangements which economically utilize the same DNA segment in multiple ways seems unlikely. However, configurations which lead to overlapping genes, genes within genes, or symmetrical transcription of genes may have significant advantages for encoding regulators or gene products which require coexpression or alternating expression. A priori such gene products could be RNA or protein.

Based on hybridization data (Fig. 6) and an analysis of the DNA sequence (Fig. 2), the ninth intervening sequence encodes a member of the mouse B1 family of repetitive sequences (34). The fact that the three previously sequenced members of this family were cloned from the most abundant class of mouse foldback RNA suggests that the present example may also be transcribed in vivo. This view is supported by the presence of sequences characteristic of genes transcribed by RNA polymerase III. For example, the sequence TCCTGAGTTCAAGACC (nucleotides 187 to 198; Fig. 7) is a strong candidate for the <sup>3</sup>' element of <sup>a</sup> RNA polymerase III split promoter (22, 28). This sequence is a perfect match for the putative Alu-family consensus promoter GAGTFCPuAGACC (16). It is also nearly identical to a sequence TCCTGAGTTCAATTCC present in transcriptionally active, type <sup>2</sup> CHO Alu-equivalent genes (clones 49 and 250), but altered in the transcriptionally inactive type <sup>I</sup> CHO Alu-equivalent clones examined (26, 27). Furthermore, a sequence identical to this type <sup>2</sup> CHO sequence is found in the Alu-equivalents located within two rat growth hormone genes (2, 41). A very similar sequence, GAGTTCGAGGCC, is present in the mouse Bi consensus sequence and in mouse and hamster 4.5S RNAs (25, 34). Moreover, this sequence motif is highly conserved in the consensus sequence (GGGTTCGANACC) for Ad VaI and II genes and tRNA genes (19, 22, 28), but less so for 5S RNA (6). A kinship also exists between the <sup>5</sup>' promoter element identified in eucaryotic tRNAs and mouse 4.5S RNA and the sequence located between positions 128 and 140 in Fig. 7 (19, 22, 28). Transcription of Alu or Alu-equivalent sequences is known to proceed beyond the <sup>3</sup>' flanking direct repeat and terminate within the single-copy genomic sequences downstream (14, 16, 26). The efficient termination of transcription by RNA polymerase III is observed when a T cluster is surrounded by guanine-cytosine-rich sequences (5). Therefore, it is conceivable that the postulated transcription could terminate at position 298 or 326, or even more likely, at the end of the ninth intervening sequence (nucleotides 332 to 339). Based on this comparative sequence analysis, it does seem likely that this example of a mouse Bi family of genomic repetitive sequences would be transcribed in vivo by RNA polymerase III. However, this eventuality remains to be demonstrated. Genomic repetitive sequences have been postulated to function in numerous ways (9, 12, 30), but a clear demonstration of function is still lacking.

Mobility of mouse Bi family sequences. The genomic repetitive sequence described above is closely related to the mouse Blc sequence (34), except that it is flanked by 8-bp direct repeats and the A-rich region is truncated. Duplications of target DNA also flank procaryotic and eucaryotic transposable elements (10) and retrovirus proviruses which have been postulated to have originated from cellular movable genetic elements (48). Recently, a model for the generation of truncated snRNA pseudogenes and Alufamily members flanked by direct repeats has been proposed (30, 49). According to this model, <sup>a</sup> self-primed reverse transcript of the RNA beginning within the <sup>3</sup>' A-rich region and extending to the <sup>5</sup>' end of the RNA would be inserted into chromosomal DNA at <sup>a</sup> staggered break, thereby generating a truncated gene flanked by direct repeats. Our findings of the first mouse Bi family member which is flanked by direct repeats and possesses a truncated Arich region is consistent with the extension of this model for mouse Bi sequences and suggests that they may be mobile elements.

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