Shelagh M.S. Redmond* and Clive Dickson

Imperial Cancer Research Fund Laboratories, London WC2A 3PX, UK

Communicated by L.V. Crawford Received on 29 November 1982

We have determined the DNA sequence of the envelope gene region of the GR strain of mouse mammary tumour virus. The sequence extends for 3012 nucleotides from the single EcoRI site to beyond the PstI site in the 3' long terminal repeat (LTR) of the provirus. There is a major open reading frame from nucleotides 752 to 2818 which encompasses the entire env gene. This reading frame extends through a polypurine tract and into the LTR. There is another open reading frame from the first nucleotide to position 803, presumably corresponding to the end of the pol gene. The splice acceptor site which generates env mRNA has been mapped experimentally to nucleotide 750. The env gene products, gp52 and gp36, have been positioned on the sequence using the directly determined amino acid sequences of the amino terminus of gp52; and both the amino and carboxyl terminini of gp36. The start of gp52 is preceded by a series of 19 uncharged amino acids which could function as a typical signal sequence, but this sequence is only part of a much longer leader peptide. The tetrad Arg-Ala-Lys-Arg is the presumed cleavage site in the gPr73env precursor, and occurs just before the gp36 amino terminus. There are five potential asparagine-linked glycosylation sites which agrees with previous experimental results. The gp36 has two long hydrophobic regions at its amino and carboxy termini, these are suggested to act as a fusion peptide and the trans-membrane anchor, respectively.

Key words: DNA sequence/envelope gene/mouse mammary tumour virus/virus glycoproteins

Introduction

The enveloped viruses have provided useful systems in which to study the synthesis and maturation of cell surface glycoproteins, and the introduction of gene cloning and DNA sequencing now makes it possible to correlate experimental observations with the predictions from the primary sequence. The envelope glycoprotein complex of a virus must perform several functions, such as the recognition of virus core particles during assembly, binding to cell surface molecules and initiating the fusion of cellular and viral membranes. As a result, they will contribute to a large extent to the tissue tropism, host-range and viral interference properties of viruses. Thus the envelope glycoproteins of mouse mammary tumour virus (MMTV) are of particular interest in view of some of the unusual features which distinguish MMTV from other retroviruses.

MMTV is morphologically and morphogenetically different from the majority of retroviruses (C-type) and is defined as the prototype of the B-type retroviruses (see Weiss et al., 1982). Electron microscopy studies show that B-type particles

*To whom reprint requests should be sent.

mature from a distinct intracytoplasmic form, and are characterised by an eccentrically located electron-dense nucleoid surrounded by an envelope with well-defined surface glycoprotein spikes. As in other enveloped viruses, these spikes are composed of two virally-coded glycoproteins. For MMTV these are gp52, which may form the exposed 'knob' and gp36, which is thought to form a supporting trans-membrane 'stalk' (Sarkar et al., 1976). The MMTV envelope glycoproteins may contribute to a unique tissue tropism in that MMTV productively infects, almost exclusively, mammmary epithelial cells in vivo. This suggests that there could be a highly specific cell surface receptor molecule recognised by MMTV virions. Another interesting feature of the MMTV env products is the reported cross-reactivity with antigens associated with human breast carcinomas, especially as there is no cross-reactivity with benign breast tumours or other organ carcinomas (Mesa-Tejada et al., 1979; Ohno et al., 1979; Day et al., 1981).

To gain some understanding of how the MMTV env gene may perform its complex functions we have determined its DNA sequence. Using this, and the derived amino sequence, several features concerning the structure and function of this viral glycoprotein have been illuminated.

Results

The DNA sequence

The nucleotide sequence of a 3-kb region from the ³' half of the MMTV provirus, extending from the single EcoRI site to beyond the PstI site in the long terminal repeat (LTR) (see Figure 1) was determined from fragments cloned into bacteriophage M13 and using Sanger's dideoxynucleotide sequencing method. The strategy used to obtain the complete sequence is shown in Figure ¹ and the complete sequence is presented in Figure 2.

Examination of the sequence reveals one extensive open reading frame from nucleotide 752 to 2818, which corresponds to the expected position of the envelope gene. The open reading frame (orf) contained within the LTR (Donehower et al., 1981; Dickson and Peters, 1981; Fasel et al., 1982) begins at nucleotide 2766 and therefore overlaps with the end of the *env* coding region. Another open reading frame extends from the start of the sequence and terminates at nucleotide 803. This latter open reading frame may be the end of the polymerase gene. Several features deduced from the sequence, especially relevant to the expression of the envelope gene, are described below.

Expression of the envelope gene

Infected cells contain two major MMTV-related mRNAs, one of genomic size (35S), which encodes the gag and gag-pol precursors and ^a subgenomic spliced mRNA (24S) which encodes the env precursor (Sen et al., 1979; Groner et al., 1979; Dickson and Peters, 1981; Robertson and Varmus, 1981; Dudley and Varmus, 1981). The 24S mRNA is believed to contain 200- 300 bases derived from the ⁵' end of the provirus which is spliced to a coding region located in the ³' half of the provirus (Majors, 1982).

 $©$ IRL Press Limited, Oxford, England.

From sequencing eukaryotic genes and the mRNAs they produce, a consensus for splicing signals has been recognised (Breathnach and Chambon, 1978; Mount, 1982). The consensus splice acceptor site consists of a pyrimidine-rich sequence followed by the dinucleotide AG such that cleavage at the intron/exon boundary occurs on the ³' side of the G nucleotide. A computer search of the sequence reveals several possible splice acceptor sites (see Figure 2). One of these, between nucleotides 732 and 750, is very close to the beginning of the presumed *env* coding sequences. To determine whether this potential splice site is authentic, the RNA from viral producing cells and tissues was subjected to SI mapping (Berk and Sharp, 1979). The DNA probe used was the Sau3A fragment from nucleotide 648 to 865, which spans the presumed splice site (see Figure 2). The result of the SI mapping is shown in Figure 3. Using RNA from uninfected M2 cells, or carrier RNA alone, no protection of the single-stranded DNA probe was seen. Using RNA from MMTV-infected cells (MGR-4 and D55) or a virally induced tumour (W8), two bands were observed. One of 217 nucleotides corresponds to protection of the full length DNA probe, the other of ¹¹⁸ nucleotides corresponds to the distance between the labelled 5' end of the probe and the splice site. This position maps exactly to the splice point predicted by the nucleotide sequence.

Several other consensus splice regions are present in the sequence (see Figure 2), one of which (nucleotide $2672 - 2692$) may be used in the production of an mRNA encoding the product of the open reading fraqme in the LTR (Wheeler et al., 1983; van Ooyen, personal communication). There are also several minor RNA species seen on Northern blots of RNA fractionated on denaturing agarose gels (unpublished data; Robertson and Varmus, 1981). The relationship between these RNAs and other putative splice points is at present under investigation.

Amino acid sequence of the envelope gene

The deduced amino acid sequence is shown in Figure 4 and, beginning at the first methionine codon after the splice point, reveals a continuous open reading frame between nucleotides 752 and 2818 which would result in a primary

translation product of 688 amino acids. Since the amino acid sequences of the amino-terminal end of gp52 (Arthur et al., 1982), and both the amino and carboxyl termini of gp3f (Henderson et al., 1983) have been determined, they can be aligned on the derived sequence as illustrated in Figure 4. For gp52, 41 out of 43 amino acids agree with the predicted sequence, and for gp36, 27 out of 27 agree for the amino terminus and five out of five for the carboxyl terminus. The amino terminus of gp52 appears to be many amino acids away from the potential start of the precursor polyprotein, This had been expected from a comparison of the sizes of the in vitro translated precursor and the *in vivo* apoproteir (Dickson and Peters, 1981; Dickson and Atterwill, 1980; Ser et al., 1979; Dudley and Varmus, 1981; Arthur et al., 1982). which suggested the presence of a long leader peptide oi \sim 7000 -9000 daltons. From the predicted amino acid sequence there are three potential methionine starts for the precursor, which would give rise to hypothetical leaders oi 11 000, 7000 and 5700 daltons, respectively (see Figure 4). Most membrane and secreted proteins have a hydrophobic 'signal sequence' which facilitates trans-membrane synthesis (Blobel and Dobberstein, 1975). The signal sequence is usual. ly appended to the amino-terminal end of protein forming part of a leader peptide. Usually this peptide and the signa sequence are synonymous and at a minimum consists of a str ing of \sim 11 hydrophobic amino acids. The potential leade peptides of MMTV are unusually long, (98, ⁶³ or ⁵³ aminc acids depending on which methionine start is used), but al would contain the stretch of 19 uncharged amino acids im mediately adjacent to the amino terminus of gp52 which could act as a signal peptide (see Figure 4). After trans membrane synthesis has been initiated, the leader peptide i, thought to be cleaved from the precursor by a cellular protease, to expose what is to become the amino-terminal end ol gPr73^{env}. A further proteolytic cleavage would then be necessary to liberate gp52 and gp36 from the intracellulai precursor gPr73^{env}. The tetrapeptide Arg-Ala-Lys-Arg occurs just before the amino terminus of gp36 suggesting that ε trypsin-like protease could function here.

Fig. 1. A restriction map of the env region and the strategy used to obtain a complete sequence. A schematic representation of the MMTV provirus showing the approximate position of the structural genes gag, pol and env and the LTRs composed of sequences derived from the 5' and 3' ends of the viral RNA (U5 and U3). The envelope region is expanded below, demonstrating important restriction sites and the strategy of sequencing. The following restriction sites are marked: EcoRi (\bigstar); BamHI (O); PstI (\bullet); Sau3A (1); TaqI (∇); and HaeIII (\blacktriangle). The horizontal arrows below indicate the length and direction of sequences obtained from different M13 clones.

ATAATAACTC TC

Fig. 2. The sequence of the MMTV env region. The dotted underlines indicate the potential splice acceptor sites. Those mentioned in the text extend from nucleotides 732-750, and 2672-2692. The dashed underlines indicate the Sau3A sites used to generate the DNA probe used in S1 mapping the env splice site. The boxes show the initiation codons of the three potential *env* starts, at nucleotides 752, 857 and 887; and for the open reading frame extending into the LTR at nucleotide 2766. The solid overlines point out the termination codons at nucleotide 801 for the presumed pol gene, and at nucleotide 2818 for the env gene.

A study of cellular and viral glycoproteins shows that the primary site of glycosylation occurs on the amino acid residue asparagine, where the sequence is Asn-X-Ser or Asn-X-Thr (Neuberger et al., 1972). The drug tunicamycin inhibits glycosylation at these sites (Leavitt et al., 1977), and ex-

Fig. 3. The position of the env splice site. S1 nuclease analysis of RNA from MMTV-infected cells, and an MMTV-induced tumour. The probe used was the 5' $32P$ -labelled anti-sense strand Sau3A fragment spanning nucleotides 652 to 869 (see Figure 2). Hybridization reactions contained 10 μ g RNA from the following cell lines, M2: a clone of the mink lung cell line (CCL64; MGR ¹ + 2: two different preparations of RNA from mink lung cells chronically infected with GR strain MMTV; W8: RNA from an MMTV-induced tumour in ^a BR6 mouse; D55: rat XC cells infected with C3H strain MMTV. The total amount of RNA in all the tracks was made up to 25 μ g with yeast carrier RNA. Track 0 contained carrier RNA alone. The marker used was 5' 32P-labelled PAT153 cut with HpaII. Marker lengths are given in nucleotides.

periments using a variety of tunicamycin concentrations has suggested that the MMTV envelope precursor (gPr73^{env}) has five asparagine linked sites of glycosylation (Dickson and Atterwill, 1980; Arthur et al., 1982). The predicted amino acid sequence also has five such sites, three in gp52 and two in $gp36 -$ which agrees with the experimental data.

An examination of the amino acid sequence of gp36 shows that it has a very high percentage of a non-charged amino acids (166/208) with two major regions of hydrophobicity at the amino- and carboxyl-terminal ends (see Figure 4). This agrees with the hydrophobic nature of gp36 determined experimentally (Marcus et al., 1978).

Discussion

The organisation of the coding sequence of the ³' half of the MMTV genome is extremely economical. The beginning of the env open reading frame overlaps for 51 nucleotides with the presumed end of the pol coding region. This is similar to the situation in Moloney murine leukaemia virus, where there is an analogous overlap of 63 nucleotides (Shinnick et al., 1981). At the 3' end of the genome the env coding region runs through the polypurine track, thought to have a role in priming positive strand DNA synthesis and overlaps for 53 nucleotides with the beginning of the open reading frame (orf) of the LTR.

There are three possible methionine codons at which the primary product of translation of the env gene could be initiated. All three (at positions 752, 857, 887 in the sequence; see Figures 2 and 4) have the correct 'context' to be possible initiation codons (Kozak, 1981). Circumstantial evidence suggests that the second or third methionine codon is the most likely start. This is partly based on the estimated size of the primary protein products from the three possible initiator methiones, which are 77 132, 73 159 and 71 822 daltons, respectively, in comparison with the size of the in vitro translated product of env mRNA, estimated on SDS-polyacrylamide gels to be 68 000 - 70 000 daltons (Sen et al., 1979; Dudley and Varmus, 1981). This calculation would favour the third methionine. However, treatment of MMTVinfected cells *in vivo* with tunicamycin results in the production of a 60 000 dalton unglycosylated env precursor (Dickson and Atterwill, 1980; Arthur et al., 1982), and comparing this apoprotein with the size of the primary product of translation shows that the leader sequence is 7000 -9000 daltons long. Calculation of the sizes of the three potential leader sequences (from the three possible methionine starts to the amino terminus of gp52) gives values of ¹¹ 000, 7000 and 5700 daltons, respectively, a result which favours the second methionine. Taken together, this evidence suggests that the second or possibly the third methionine will turn out to be the authentic env gene initiator methionine although only direct amino acid sequencing will distinguish between these possibilities. The MMTV env gene appears to be more like the avian sarcoma virus env gene which has an unusually long leader sequence of 64 amino acids, rather than the Moloney murine leukaemia virus (MoMLV) which has a 33 amino acid leader (see Weiss et al., 1982).

Within the long *env* leader sequence there is a stretch of 19 uncharged amino acids (see Figure 4) which could function as the signal sequence for membrane insertion (Blobel and Dobberstein, 1975; Engelman and Steitz, 1981). It is more common for the signal peptide and leader peptide to be the same size, so there may be another role for the $7000 - 9000$

METI						Pro Asn His 61n Ser 61y Ser Pro Thr 61y Ser Ser Asp Leu Leu Leu Ser				18
						Bly Lys Lys Gln Arg Pro His Leu Ala Leu Arg Arg Lys Arg Arg Arg Glu MET				36
						Arg Lys Ile Asn Arg Lys Val Arg Arg MET Asn Leu Ala Pro Ile Lys Glu Lys				54
						Thr Ala Trp Gln His Leu Gln Ala Leu Ile Ser Glu Ala Glu Glu Val Leu Lys				72
						Thr Ser 61n Thr Pro 61n Asn Ser Leu Thr Leu Phe Leu Ala Leu Leu Ser Val				90 lÖ₿
						Leu Gly Pro Pro Pro Val Thr Gly Glu Ser Tyr Trp Ala Tyr Leu Pro Lys Pro				
Pro						Ile Leu His Pro Val Gly Trp Gly Ser Thr Asp Pro Ile Arg Val Leu Thr				126
						Asn Gln Thr MET Tyr Leu Gly Gly Ser Pro Asp Phe His Gly Phe Arg Asn MET				144
						<u>Ser</u> Gly Asn Val His Phe Glu Gly Lys Ser Asp Thr Leu Pro Ile Cys Phe Ser				162
						Phe Ser Phe Ser Thr Pro Thr Gly Cys Phe Gln Val Asp Lys Gln Val Phe				180 Leu
						Ser Asp Thr Pro Thr Val Asp Asn Asn Lys Pro Gly Gly Lys Gly Asp Lys Arg				198
Ara						MET Trp Glu Leu Trp Leu His Thr Leu Gly Asn Ser Gly Ala Asn Thr Lys				216
						Leu Val Pro Ile Lys Lys Lys Leu Pro Pro Lys Tyr Pro His Cys Gln Ile Ala				234
						Phe Lys Lys Asp Ala Phe Trp Glu Gly Asp Glu Ser Ala Pro Pro Arg Trp Leu				252
						Pro Cys Ala Phe Pro Asp Lys Gly Val Ser Phe Ser Pro Lys Gly Ala Leu Gly				270
						Leu Leu Trp Asp Phe Ser Leu Pro Ser Pro Ser Val Asp 61n Ser Asp 61n				288 Ile
						Lys Ser Lys Lys Asp Leu Phe Gly Asn Tyr Thr Pro Pro Val Asn Lys Glu Val				306
						His Arg Trp Tyr Glu Ala Gly Trp Val Glu Pro Thr Trp Phe Trp Glu Asn Ser				324
						Pro Lys Asp Pro Asn Asp Arg Asp Phe Thr Ala Leu Val Pro His Thr Glu Leu				342
						Phe Arg Leu Val Ala Ala Ser Arg His Leu Ile Leu Lys Arg Pro Gly Phe Gln				360 378
						Glu His Glu MET Ile Pro Thr Ser Ala Cys Val Thr Tyr Pro Tyr Ala Ile Leu				
						Leu Gly Leu Pro Gln Leu Ile Asp Ile Glu Lys Arg Gly Ser Thr Phe His				396 Ile 414
						Ser Cys Ser Ser Cys Arg Leu Thr Asn Cys Leu Asp Ser Ser Ala Tyr Asp				Tyr 432
						Ala Ala Ile Ile Val Lys Arg Pro Pro Tyr Val Leu Leu Pro Val Asp Ile				61y 450
						Asp Glu Pro Trp Phe Asp Asp Ser Ala Ile Gln Thr Phe Arg Tyr Ala Thr				Asp 468
						Leu Ile Arg Ala Lys Arg ⁷ Phe Val Ala Ala Ile Ile Leu Bly Ile Ser Ala Leu				486
						Ile Ala Ile Ile Thr Ser Phe Ala Val Ala Thr Thr Ala Leu Val Lys Glu MET				504
						Gln Thr Ala Thr Phe Val Asn Asn Leu His Arg Asn Val		Thr Leu Ala Leu Ser		522
						Glu Gln Arg Ile Ile Asp Leu Lys Leu Glu Ala Arg Leu Asn Ala Leu Glu Glu				540
						Val Val Leu Glu Leu Gly Gln Asp Val Ala Asn Leu Lys Thr Arg MET Ser Thr				558
						Arg Cys His Ala Asn Tyr Asp Phe Ile Cys Val Thr Pro Leu Pro Tyr Asn Ala				576
						Thr Glu Asp Trp Glu Arg Thr Arg Ala His Leu Leu Gly Ile Trp Asn Asp Asn				594
						Glu Ile Ser Tyr Asn Ile Gln Glu Leu Thr Asn Leu Ile Ser Asp MET Ser Lys				612
						Gln His Ile Asp Ala Val Asp Leu Ser Gly Leu Ala Gln Ser Phe Ala Asn Gly				630
						Val Lys Ala Leu Asn Pro Leu Asp Trp Thr Gln Tyr Phe Lle Phe Lle Gly Val				648
						Gly Ala Leu Leu Leu Val. Ile Val Leu MET Ile Phe Pro Ile Val Phe Gin Cys				666
						Leu Ala Lys Ser Leu Asp Gln Val Gln Ser Asp Leu Asn Val Leu Leu Leu Lys				684
						Lys Lys Lys Gly Gly Asn Ala Ala Pro Ala Ala Glu MET Val Glu Leu Pro Arg				
		Val Ser Tyr Thr .								

Fig. 4. The amino acid sequence of the env open reading frame. The three possible methionine starts are boxed. The arrowheads show the amino termini of gp52 and gp36. The solid underlines indicate the five potential carbohydrate addition sites. The dotted underlines draw attention to the hydrophobic signal sequence in the leader peptide of gp52; and the amino- and carboxy

dalton env leader peptide once it has been released from the env precursor. Cleavage occurs just after a Gly residue, which is in accordance with the usual cleavage of leader peptides just after a small amino acid residue.

There are two differences between the derived amino acid sequence presented here and the published amino acid sequence of the amino terminus of gp52 (Arthur et al., 1982). Both arise from single base differences, a G-A change for the Met ATG at position ¹¹³⁹ resulting in an Ile residue, and G-A change for the Ser AGT at position 1103, resulting in an Asn residue. These minor discrepancies probably reflect a strain difference as the amino acid sequence was determined using the C3H strain of MMTV, and the nucleotide sequence using the GR strain. The predicted amino acid sequences for the amino and carboxyl termini of gp36 are in perfect agreement with that derived by protein sequencing (Henderson et al., 1983). The DNA sequence indicates that the amino terminus of gp36 falls just after the tetrapeptide Arg-Ala-Lys-Arg. A similar group of basic amino acids is found just before the site of cleavage in many other virus glycoproteins; for example, Rous sarcoma virus (Arg Arg Lys Arg, Schwartz et al., 1982); MoMLV (Arg His Lys Arg, Shinnick et al., 1981); AK virus (Lys Tyr Lys Arg, Lenz et al., 1982); fowl plague virus HA (Lys Arg Glu Lys Arg, Porter et al., 1979). An enzyme with the specificity of trypsin could perform this cleavage.

gp52 is accessible to labelling by lactoperoxidase, whereas gp36 is not (Witte et al., 1973; Parks et al., 1974). Although this is often taken to mean that gp52 is more exposed on the cell surface than gp36, another reason for the inability to label gp36 is suggested upon examination of the amino acid sequence. This reveals that gp52 has 11 Tyr residues which could be sites for lactoperoxidase catalysed iodination plus two other Tyr residues which are unlikely to be accessible due to their proximity to carbohydrate attachment sites, gp36 has only three Tyr residues, one of which occurs in a likely transmembrane region. Nevertheless, gp52 is thought to be the 'knob' on the MMTV virion, since it can be depleted by protease treatment of virions (Cardiff et al., 1974), and may also be removed from the particle by washing with 0.05 M HCI (Sarkar et al., 1976); properties consistent with a surface location. gp52 is held in close association with the envelope membrane via gp36 (Dion et al., 1979; Racevskis and Sarkar, 1980), but their linkage is not by disulphide bridges as in AK virus, avian leukaemia virus and influenza HA (Pinter and Fleissner, 1977; Leamnson and Halper, 1976; Waterfield et al., 1980). However, the absence of disulphide bonds is not a unique feature, as in some strains of murine leukaemia virus only a minor fraction of gp70 is disulphide-linked to p15(E), and none to p12(E), (Leamnson et al., 1977; Pinter et al., 1978).

The smaller glycoprotein gp36, is thought to be the hydrophobic trans-membrane 'stalk' supporting gp52. Its amino acid sequence reveals that it has two hydrophobic regions of 27 and 30 amino acids at the amino and carboxyl termini, respectively, one or both of which could be trans-membrane regions (Engelman and Steitz, 1981). However, by analogy with other glycoproteins, it seems likely that the hydrophobic region at the carboxyl terminus spans the viral membrane, leaving the NH_2 -terminal portion of the molecule free to interact with gp52. The carboxy-terminal hydrophobic region is flanked by charged Asp and Lys residues which could interact with the polar head groups of the phospholipid bilayer.

There would remain 38 amino acids of the carboxyl terminus exposed on the cytoplasmic side of the membrane, which would be free to interact with virion core particles during virus assembly. These contain the unusual string Lys-Lys-Lys-Lys as a result of translating through the polypurine tract. The hydrophobic amino terminus could be 'concealed' from the aqueous environment by the tertiary structure of gp36 or gp52. In this model, the amino terminus of gp36 could function as a fusion peptide, as seen for the influenza HA, vesicular stomatitis virus and Semliki Forest virus glycoproteins (White et al., 1981). In these viruses low pH in vitro, or presumably in lysosomes in vivo, causes a change in conformation and/or the neutralisation of a few charged amino acids on an otherwise hydrophobic region of the glycoprotein complex. This unveiling of the hydrophobic region causes fusion of viral and cellular membranes. It is easy to extrapolate this to the MMTV env glycoproteins, where the low pH of the lysosomes could remove gp52 from gp36 (by neutralising ionic bonds between them), and consequently allow fusion and release of the virion core into the cytoplasm.

The DNA sequence presented here demonstrates the unusual coding organisation of the MMTV genome. In addition to the unique open reading frame $(or f)$ contained within the LTR; the MMTV envelope gene is unusual in overlapping both with *orf* and with the resumed *pol* coding sequences. The DNA sequence also verifies ^a number of previous experimental observations on the MMTV envelope glycoproteins. It has provided their complete amino acid sequences which allow us to predict the function of various regions of the *env* gene. These predictions are currently under investigation.

Materials and methods

Source of DNA for sequencing

A recombinant plasmid 7-la (kindly provided by J. Majors and H.E. Varmus, University of California, San Francisco), containing a deleted form of unintegrated circular DNA from the GR strain of MMTV, was the source of MMTV DNA. The env region of MMTV is contained mostly within the 0.95-kb EcoRI to PstI and 1.85-kb PstI to PstI fragments located in the 3' half of the provirus (see Figure 1). These fragments had been subcloned into PAT153 (G. Peters and S. Brookes, unpublished results) and were used to prepare DNA, as described by Birnboim and Doly (1979). The sequence extending into the LTR was obtained using a 1.4-kb PstI fragment from unintegrated linear MMTV DNA also cloned into PAT153 (G. Peters, unpublished results). Plasmid DNA was digested with the appropriate restriction enzymes, and the DNA fragments separated on 0.8% agarose gels. The MMTV specific fragments were then electroeluted and concentrated by ethanol precipitation.

M13 cloning and sequencing

The purified MMTV DNA fragments described above were either used directly or further digested with a variety of restriction enzymes such as BamHI, TaqI, HaeIII, Sau3A (all purchased from New England Biolabs Inc.) before being cloned into M13. Digestions were performed in a standard buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6; 50 mM NaCl; 10 mM $Mg(OAc)_2$, 5 mM mercaptoethanol and 100 μ g/ml bovine serum albumin. The DNA was ligated into the double-stranded replicative form (RF) of bacteriophages M13 mp7, 8 or 9 (Messing et al., 1981; Messing and Viera, 1982), which had been cut with the appropriate restriction enzyme(s). M13 mp7 has symmetrically disposed restriction sites within its polylinker cloning site and so was used for the shotgun cloning of small fragments $(100-400$ nucleotides) produced by digestion with Sau3A, TaqI or HaeIII. M13 mp8 and mp9 have asymmetric and oppositely arranged restriction sites and were used to clone fragments with two different restricted ends in one or both orientations, as determined by the vector. M13 mp8 and mp9 RFs were a gift from M. Jones (ICRF). Escherichia coli (JMIOl or JM103) were transformed with the mixture of ligated RF forms of M13 using the calcium chloride method of Winter and Fields (1980).

Recombinant plaques were toothpicked into 1.5 ml of 2 x TY, containing early exponential JMl01, and grown for 5 h at 37°C. The single-stranded

phage DNA was isolated as described by Winter and Fields (1980). A sample of phage DNA was analysed on agarose gels to determine the size of the insert. The presence of MMTV-specific DNA was confirmed by dot-blotting 0.5 μ l of the DNA onto nitrocellulose and hybridising with $32P$ -labelled MMTV cDNA (Kafatos et al., 1979).

The single-stranded phage DNA was sequenced by the dideoxynucleotide method of Sanger et al. (1977). The single-stranded 15 nucleotide 'Universal primer', as described by Messing et al. (1981) (purchased from BRL) was used for most of the sequencing, although the earliest results were obtained using the cloned primer isolated from the plasmid pSP14 (Anderson et al., 1980). The products of the sequencing reaction were run on thin 6% acrylamide/urea gels (Sanger and Coulson, 1978) from 1.5 to 6 h at 1500 V. Gels were routinely fixed in 10% acetic acid for 10 min, rinsed and dried with Kleenex tissues before being covered with Saran Wrap and autoradiographed overnight.

Cell culture

A clone (M2) of the mink lung cell line (CCL64) and the same cells chronically infected with MMTV strain GR (MGR-4) were obtained from G. Peters. A clone (D55) of transformed rat XC cells infected with MMTV strain C3H was a gift from D. Robertson and H.E. Varmus. All the cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium, supplemented with either 5% calf serum and 2% foetal calf serum (M2 and MGR) or with 5% foetal calf serum (D55).

RNA preparation

Subconfluent monolayers of cells were treated with 3×10^{-6} M dexamethasone for 24 h to stimulate MMTV RNA synthesis (Ringold et al., 1975). The RNA was prepared from the treated cell cultures by the guanidinium thiocyanate method of Ullrich et al. (1977). RNA from a virallyinduced mammary tumour (W8), prepared as above was also used in some experiments.

SI mapping

Single-stranded ⁵ ' 32P-labelled probes were prepared as described by Maxam and Gilbert (1980). The probe used here was a 217 base Sau3A fragment, shown in the DNA sequence from nucleotide ⁶⁴⁸ to ⁸⁶⁵ (see Figure 2). All buffers and procedures used were as described by Favaloro et al. (1980). Hybridisation was carried out overnight at 30°C after denaturation at 85°C for 15 min. SI digestion was for 30 min at 37°C with 100 U/ml of S1 nuclease (Sigma). The SI-resistant products were analysed on 6% acrylamide/urea gels (as above), exposed at -70° C to preflashed Fuji film, with intensifying screens.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank John Majors for the generous gift of cloned MMTV DNA, and for communicating recently his unpublished sequence, and to Steven Oroszlan and Gordon Hager for communicating the work of Henderson et al. and Wheeler et al. before publication. Many thanks to Gordon Peters and Sharon Brookes for the gifts of plasmids, and to Mick Jones for RFs and a lot of help with M13 cloning and sequencing. We thank Gordon Peters, Mike Owen and John Arrand for critical reading of the manuscript and Audrey Gibson and Audrey Symons for its preparation.

References

- Anderson, S., Gait, M.J., Mayol, L. and Young, I.G. (1980) Nucleic Acids Res., 8, 1741-1743.
- Arthur,L.O., Copeman,T.D., Oroszlan,S. and Schochetman,G. (1982) J. Virol., 41, 414-422.
- Berk,A.J. and Sharp,P.A. (1977) Cell, 12, 721-732.
- Birnboim,H.C. and Doly,J. (1979) Nucleic Acids Res., 7, 1513-1523.
- Blobel,G. and Dobberstein,B. (1975) J. Cell Biol., 67, 835-851.
- Breathnach, R., Benoist, C., O'Hare, K., Gannon, F. and Chambon, P. (1978) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 75, 4853-4857.
- Cardiff,R.D., Puentes,M.J., Teramoto,Y.A. and Lund,J.K. (1974) J. Virol, 14, 1293-1303.
- Day,N.K., Witkin,S.S., Sarkar,N.H., Kinne,D., Jussawalla,D.J., Levin,A., Hsia,C.C., Geller,N. and Good,R.A. (1981) Proc. Nat!. Acad. Sci. USA, 78, 2483-2487.
- Dickson,C. and Atterwill,M. (1980) J. Virol., 35, 349-361.
- Dickson,C. and Peters,G. (1981) J. Virol., 37, 36-47.
- Dion,A.S., Pomenti,A.A. and Farwell,D.C. (1979) Virology, 96, 249-257.
- Donehower,L., Huang,A. and Hager,G.L. (1981) J. Virol., 37, 226-238.
- Dudley,J.P. and Varmus,H.E. (1981) J. Virol., 39, 207-218.
- Engelman, D.M. and Steitz, T.A. (1981) Cell, 23, 411-422.
- Fasel,N., Pearson,K., Buetti,E. and Diggelmann,H. (1982) EMBO J., 1, 3-7. Favaloro, J.M., Treisman, R.H. and Kamen, R. (1980) in Moldave, K. and

Grossmann,L. (eds.), Methods in Enzymology, Vol. 65, Academic Press, NY, pp. 718-749.

Groner,B., Hynes,N.E. and Diggelmann,H. (1979) J. Virol., 30, 417-420.

- Henderson,L.E., Sowder,R., Smythers,G. and Oroszlan,S. (1983) J. Virol., in press.
- Kafatos,F.C., Jones,C.W. and Efstratiadis,A. (1979) Nucleic Acids Res., 7, 1541-1552.
- Kozak, M. (1981) Nucleic Acids Res., 9, 5233-5252.
- Leamnson,R.N. and Halpern,M.S. (1976) J. Virol., 18, 956-968.
- Leamnson, R.N., Shander, M.H.M. and Halpern, M.S. (1977) Virology, 76, 137-139.
- Leavitt, R., Schlesinger, S. and Kornfield, S. (1977) J. Virol., 21, 375-385.
- Lenz,J., Crowther,R., Straceski,A. and Haseltine,W. (1982) J. Virol., 42, 519-529.
- Majors,J. (1982) in Weiss,R., Teich,N., Varmus,H.E. and Coffin,J. (eds.), The Molecular Biology of Tumour Viruses: RNA Tumour Viruses, 2nd Edn., Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, NY, p.460.
- Marcus,S.L., Smith,S.W., Racevskis,J. and Sarkar,N.H. (1978) Virology, 86, 398-412.
- Maxam,A.M. and Gilbert,W. (1980) in Moldave,K. and Grossmann,L. (eds.), Methods in Enzymology, Vol. 65, Academic Press, NY, pp. 499- 560.
- Mesa-Tejada,R., Keydar,I., Ramanarayanan,M., Bausch,J. and Spiegelman, S. (1979) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci USA, 76, 2460-2464.
- Messing, J., Crea, R. and Seeburg, P.H. (1981) Nucleic Acids Res., 9, 309-321.
- Messing,J. and Viera,J. (1982) Gene, in press.
- Mount,S.M. (1982) Nucleic Acids Res., 10, 459-472.
- Neuberger,A., Gottschalk,A., Marshall,R.D. and Spiro,R.G. (1972) in Gottschalk,A. (ed.), The Glycoproteins, Their Composition, Structure and Function, Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp. 450-490.
- Ohno,T., Mesa-Tejada,R., Keydar,I., Ramanarayanan,M., Bausch,J. and Spiegelman,S. (1979) Proc. Nat!. Acad. Sci. USA, 76, 2460-2464.
- Parks,W.P., Howk,R.S., Scolnick,E.M., Oroszlan,S. and Gilden,R.V. (1974) J. Virol., 13, 1200-1210.
- Pinter,A. and Fleissner,E. (1977) Virology, 83, 417-422.
- Pinter,A., Lieman-Hurwitz,J. and Fleissner,E. (1978) Virology, 91, 345-351.
- Porter,A.G., Barber,C., Carey,N.H., Hallewell,R.A., Threlfall,G. and Emtage,J.S. (1979) Nature, 282, 471-477.
- Racevskis,J. and Sarkar,N.H. (1980) J. Virol., 35, 937-948.
- Ringold,G.M., Yamamoto,K.R., Tomkins,G.M., Bishop,J.M. and Varmus, H.E. (1975) Cell 6, 299-305.
- Robertson,D.L. and Varmus,H.E. (1979) J. Virol., 30, 576-589.
- Robertson,D.L. and Varmus,H.E. (1981) J. Virol., 40, 673-682..
- Sanger, F., Nicklen, S. and Coulson, A.R. (1977) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 74, 5463-5467.
- Sanger, F. and Coulson, A.R. (1978) FEBS Lett., 87, 107-110.
- Sarkar, N.H., Taraschi, N.E., Pomenti, A.A. and Dion, A.S. (1976) Virology, 69, 677-690.
- Schwartz,D., Tizard,R. and Gilbert,W. (1982) in Weiss,R., Teich,N., Varmus, H.E. and Coffin, J. (eds.), The Molecular Biology of Tumour Viruses, RNA Tumour Viruses, 2nd Edn., Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, NY, pp. 1338-1348.
- Sen, G.C., Smith, S.W., Marcus, S.L. and Sarkar, N.H. (1979) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci USA, 76, 1736-1740.
- Shinnick, T.M., Lerner, R.A. and Sutcliffe, J.G. (1981) Nature, 293, 543-548.
- Ullrich,A., Shine,J., Churgurin,J., Pictet,R., Tischer,E., Rutter,W.J. and Goodman,H.M. (1977) Science (Wash.), 196, 1313-1319.
- Waterfield,M.D., Gething,M.-J., Scrace,G. and Skehel,J.J. (1980) in Laver, G. and Air,G. (eds.), Structure and Variation in Influenza Virus, Elsevier, North Holland, pp. 11-20.
- Weiss,R., Teich,N., Varmus,H.E. and Coffin,J. (eds.) (1982), The Molecular Biology of Tumour Viruses: RNA Tumour Viruses, 2nd Edn., published by Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, NY.
- Wheeler,D., Butel,J., Medina,D., Cardiff,R.D. and Hager,G. (1983) J. ViroL, in press.
- White,J., Matlin,K. and Helenius,A. (1981) J. Cell Biol., 89, 674-679.
- Winter,G. and Fields,S. (1980) Nucleic Acids Res., 8, 1965-1974.
- Witte, O.N., Weissmann, I.L. and Kaplan, H.S. (1973) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 70, 36-40.

Note added in proof

During the preparation of this manuscript we received ^a copy of the OH strain MMITV env sequence from J. Majors. Comparison of the two sequences showed that they are virtually identical with only minor single base changes.