A Genetic Linkage Map of Mouse Chromosome 10: Localization of Eighteen Molecular Markers Using a Single Interspecific Backcross

Monica J. Justice,* Linda D. Siracusa,* Debra J. Gilbert,* Nora Heisterkamp,[†] John Groffen,[†] Kiran Chada,[‡] Colleen M. Silan,* Neal G. Copeland* and Nancy A. Jenkins*

Mammalian Genetics Laboratory, ABL-Basic Research Program, NCI-Frederick Cancer Research Facility, Frederick, Maryland 21701, [†]Section of Molecular Diagnosis, Department of Pathology, Childrens Hospital of Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90027, and [‡]Department of Biochemistry, University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey, Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, Piscataway, New Jersey 08854

> Manuscript received January 2, 1990 Accepted for publication April 20, 1990

ABSTRACT

Interspecific mouse backcross analysis was used to generate a molecular genetic linkage map of mouse chromosome 10. The map locations of the Act-2, Ahi-1, Bcr, Braf, Cdc-2a, Col6a-1, Col6a-2, Cos-1, Esr, Fyn, Gli, Ifg, Igf-1, Myb, Pah, pg^{cha}, Ros-1 and S100b loci were determined. These loci extend over 80% of the genetic length of the chromosome, providing molecular access to many regions of chromosome 10 for the first time. The locations of the genes mapped in this study extend the known regions of synteny between mouse chromosome 10 and human chromosomes 6, 10, 12 and 21, and reveal a novel homology segment between mouse chromosome 10 and human chromosome 22. Several loci may lie close to, or correspond to, known mutations. Preferential transmission of Mus spretus-derived alleles was observed for loci mapping to the central region of mouse chromosome 10.

THE development of mouse molecular genetic I linkage maps has proved invaluable for the structural and functional characterization of the mouse genome. First, molecular genetic linkage maps have identified molecular markers that represent previously isolated mouse mutations (CHABOT et al. 1988; GEISSLER, RYAN and HOUSMAN 1988; BALLING, DEUTCH and GRUSS 1988). Second, molecular genetic linkage maps have been utilized to determine whether newly identified genes or viral integration sites are homologous to known genes or mutations (BUCHBERG et al. 1988; MUCENSKI et al. 1988; SOLA et al. 1988; BARTHOLOMEW et al. 1988). Third, molecular genetic linkage maps have been used for comparative mapping between mouse and human (or other) genomes [reviewed by NADEAU (1989) and SEARLE et al. (1989)]. Comparative mapping can ultimately lead to the identification of mouse models of human diseases (BRUE-TON et al. 1988; WINTER 1988; RYDER-COOK et al. 1988; GLASER and HOUSMAN 1989).

One of the most powerful methods for mapping a large number of molecular markers in the mouse is interspecific backcrosses (IBs) between distantly related species of mice [reviewed by GUENET (1986) and AVNER *et al.* (1988)]. The evolutionary divergence between species has resulted in an accumulation of DNA sequence differences (BONHOMME *et al.* 1984) that facilitates the detection of restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) required for mapping molecular markers (FERRIS, SAGE and WILSON 1982; ROBERT *et al.* 1985) [reviewed by GUENET (1986) and AVNER et al. (1988)]. In a laboratory setting, the wild mouse species Mus spretus will interbreed with inbred laboratory mouse strains to produce fertile F_1 females and sterile F_1 males (BONHOMME et al. 1984). The F_1 females can then be backcrossed to generate the N_2 progeny used in mapping studies.

An IB involving the inbred laboratory mouse strain C57BL/6J and M. spretus was used to create a multilocus molecular genetic linkage map of mouse chromosome 10. Mutations previously mapped to mouse chromosome 10 include many loci affecting coat color, hematopoiesis, neural development, behavior, bone development and growth (summarized by GREEN 1989). We were interested in creating a molecular genetic map of chromosome 10 to localize proto-oncogenes, common sites of viral integration, growth factors, growth factor receptors and other genes affecting cell differentiation and growth. Prior to this study, only three molecular markers had been positioned on chromosome 10. The Myb proto-oncogene had been mapped to chromosome 10 by in situ hybridization and mapped relative to Steel (Sl) in intraspecific crosses (SAKAGUCHI et al. 1984; TAYLOR and ROWE 1989). Phenylalanine hydroxylase (Pah) had been mapped to chromosome 10 by IBs and by in situ hybridization analysis (BODE et al. 1988; LEDLEY et al. 1988). The autosomal Zinc finger protein (Zfa) had been mapped relative to Myb and Pah in IBs (MITCHELL et al. 1989). Several other loci had been placed on chromosome 10 by somatic cell hybrid analysis, including Abelson helper virus integration site-1 (Ahi-1), collagen $\alpha 1(VI)$ (Col6a-1), collagen $\alpha 2(VI)$ (Col6a-2), interferon- γ (Ifg), and S100 protein, β subunit (S100b) (POIRIER, KOZAK and JOLICOUER 1988; WEIL et al. 1988; NAYLOR, GRAY and LALLEY 1984). In addition, an anonymous mouse probe identifying the Cos-1 locus had been placed on chromosome 10 by in situ hybridization (G. RADICE, J. LEE and F. COSTANTINI, personal communication). All of these molecular markers except Zfa were mapped in our IB relative to each other and formed the core of reference loci used to localize previously unmapped genes. After the reference loci were placed on mouse chromosome 10 using a single [(C57BL/6] \times M. spretus)F₁ \times C57BL/ 6]] IB, an actin-related locus (Act-2), the breakpoint cluster region gene (Bcr), the Braf transforming gene (Braf), a cell division cycle control protein gene (Cdc-2a), the estrogen receptor (Esr), the Fyn proto-oncogene (Fyn), the glioblastoma proto-oncogene (Gli), the insulinlike growth factor-1 gene (Igf-1), a transgenic integration at the pygmy locus (pg^{cha}), and the Ros-1 protooncogene (Ros-1) were mapped to chromosome 10.

The results of the IB analysis provide an unambiguous orientation of 18 molecular markers that span most of mouse chromosome 10. The map locations of the loci compared with the composite genetic linkage map suggests that several probes may lie close to, or correspond to, known mouse mutations. The results also reveal extensive regions of synteny with human chromosomes 6, 10, 12 and 21, and reveal a novel homology segment with human chromosome 22.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice: The interspecific backcross [(C57BL/6J × M. spretus)F₁ × C57BL/6J] was performed at the NCI-Frederick Cancer Research Facility as described by BUCHBERG et al. (1988, 1989).

Probes: The probe for the Abelson helper virus integration site-1 (Ahi-1) was a mouse PstI-HindIII genomic fragment cloned in pUC18 (p2-1; POIRIER, KOZAK and JOLICOUER 1988) that was a gift from P. JOLICOUER [Clinical Research Institute of Montreal (Montreal, Quebec, Canada)].

The probe for the *actin*-related locus (*Act-2*) was a chicken β -*actin* full-length cDNA cloned in pBR322 (β 2000; CLEVE-LAND *et al.* 1980) that was a gift from S. H. HUGHES [NCI-Frederick Cancer Research Facility (Frederick, Maryland)].

The probes for the breakpoint cluster region gene (Bcr) were: 1) a mouse cDNA EcoRI fragment cloned in pT218 (A. DEKLEIN, unpublished results) that was a gift from A. DEKLEIN [NCI-Frederick Cancer Research Facility (Frederick, Maryland)]; 2) a mouse genomic 1.8-kilobase (kb) EcoRI/HindIII fragment cloned in pBluescript SK+ that is homologous to the human BCR exon 1 (2-21; N. HEISTER-KAMP and J. GROFFEN, unpublished results); and 3) a human cDNA XhoI/BglII fragment from exon 1 of the BCR gene (probe 1; HEISTERKAMP, KNOPPEL and GROFFEN 1988).

The probe for the *Braf transforming* gene (*Braf*) was a human cDNA *Eco*RI-XhoI fragment cloned in pUC25 (pEX; IKAWA *et al.* 1988) that was a gift from T. YAMAMOTO [University of Tokyo (Tokyo, Japan)].

The probe for the *cell division cycle control protein* gene (*Cdc-2a*) was a mouse cDNA *Eco*RI fragment cloned in

pBluescript SK+ (C1-BS; CISEK and CORDEN 1989) that was a gift from J. L. CORDEN [Johns Hopkins School of Medicine (Baltimore, Maryland)].

The probes for collagen $\alpha 1(VI)$ (Col6a-1) (p18; WEIL et al. 1988) and collagen $\alpha 2(VI)$ (Col6a-2) (p1; CHU et al. 1987) were human cDNA EcoRI fragments cloned in pUC19; both probes were gifts from M.-L. CHU [Thomas Jefferson University (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania)].

The anonymous mouse probe (*Cos-1*) was a gel-purified mouse brain cDNA 1.2-kb *Eco*RI fragment (p2351; G. RAD-ICE, J. LEE and F. COSTANTINI, unpublished results) that was a gift from F. COSTANTINI [Columbia University, College of Physicians and Surgeons (New York, New York)].

The probe for the *estrogen receptor* (*Esr*) was a human cDNA *Eco*RI fragment cloned in pBR322 (pOR3; GREEN *et al.* 1986) that was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, Maryland).

The probe for the Fyn proto-oncogene (Fyn) was a human cDNA SacI fragment cloned in pUC18 (KAWAKAMI, PEN-NINGTON and ROBBINS 1986) that was a gift from K. ROBBINS [National Institutes of Health (Bethesda, Maryland)].

The probe for the glioblastoma proto-oncogene (Gli) was a mouse genomic EcoRI/HindIII fragment cloned into pBluescript (pMGLI-RS; K. W. KINZLER, J. M. RUPPERT and B. VOGELSTEIN, unpublished results; KINZLER et al. 1988) that was a gift from B. VOGELSTEIN [The Johns Hopkins Oncology Center (Baltimore, Maryland)].

The probe for *interferon-* γ (*Ifg*) was a mouse cDNA *Bam*HI fragment cloned in pCD (K.-I. ARAI, unpublished results) that was a gift from H. YOUNG [NCI-Frederick Cancer Research Facility (Frederick, Maryland)] with permission from K.-I. ARAI [DNAX (Palo Alto, California)].

The probe for the *insulin-like growth factor-1* gene (*Igf-1*) was a mouse cDNA *Eco*RI fragment cloned in pBR327 (pmigf1-2; BELL *et al.* 1985) that was a gift from G. BELL [Howard Hughes Medical Institute (Chicago, Illinois)].

The probe for the *Myb proto-oncogene* (*Myb*) was a mouse genomic *Xba*I fragment cloned in pUC12 (SHEN-ONG *et al.* 1984) that was a gift from G. SHEN-ONG [National Cancer Institute (Bethesda, Maryland)].

The probe for *phenylalanine hydroxylase* (*Pah*) was synthesized by the polymerase chain reaction amplification (SAIKI *et al.* 1988) of mouse liver cDNA using synthetic oligodeoxynucleotides corresponding to nucleotides 474–493 and the complement of nucleotides 1254–1273 of the rat phenylalanine hydroxylase cDNA sequence (DAHL and MERCER 1986).

The probe for the transgenic integration at the *pygmy* locus (pg^{cha}) was a mouse genomic fragment cloned in pBluescript (XIANG, BENSON and CHADA 1990).

The probe for the Ros-1 proto-oncogene (Ros-1) was a human cDNA SalI fragment cloned in pAT (pSc3.2/23; BIRCHMEIER et al. 1986) that was a gift from C. BIRCHMEIER [Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory (Cold Spring Harbor, New York)].

The probe for the S100 protein, β subunit gene (S100b) was a human genomic EcoRI-HindIII fragment cloned in pBluescript KS+ (pHS 100/2.2; ALLORE et al. 1988) that was a gift from R. DUNN [University of Toronto (Toronto, Canada)].

DNA isolation and Southern blot analysis: High molecular weight genomic DNAs were prepared from frozen mouse tissues as described (JENKINS *et al.* 1982). Restriction endonuclease digestions, agarose gel electrophoresis, Southern transfers and hybridizations were also performed as described (JENKINS *et al.* 1982), except that Zetabind membrane (CUNO, Inc.) was used for Southern transfers. The human S100 protein, β -subunit probe was hybridized using

a low stringency procedure (MANIATIS, FRITSCH and SAM-BROOK 1982) as modified by JUSTICE *et al.* (1990).

Probes were labeled with $[\alpha^{-3^2}P]dCTP$ (Amersham) using a nick translation kit (Amersham) for whole plasmids or a multiprime DNA labeling kit (Amersham) for gel-purified fragments. Southern blot filters hybridized with ³²P-labeled probes were routinely washed three times in 0.5 × SSCP, 0.1% SDS for 30 min/wash at 65° with the following exceptions. Southern blot filters hybridized with the *Bcr*, *Braf*, β -*Actin*, and *Esr* probes were washed three times in 1 × SSCP, 0.1% SDS, 30 min/wash at 65°. Southern blot filters hybridized with the *S100b* probe were washed to a final stringency of 0.2 × SSCP at 42°. Probes were removed from Southern filters as described by JUSTICE *et al.* (1990).

Statistical analysis: Standard errors of the recombination frequencies from the results of the IB study were determined as described by GREEN (1981), using the computer program SPRETUS MADNESS [developed by D. DAVE (Data Management Services, Inc.) and A. M. BUCHBERG (ABL-Basic Research Program) NCI-Frederick Cancer Research Facility]. Gene order was determined by minimizing the number of multiple crossovers along the length of the chromosome ("pedigree analysis"; reviewed by AVNER *et al.* 1988), and confirmed by the maximum likelihood analysis (D. T. BISHOP, 1985). Statistical analysis of transmission ratio distortion was carried out using a G test on partitioned samples (SOKAL and ROHLF 1981).

RESULTS

Eighteen loci were mapped using Southern analysis of DNAs from N₂ progeny of a [(C57BL/6] \times M. *spretus*) $F_1 \times C57BL/6$] backcross. C57BL/6J and M. spretus DNAs were digested with several restriction enzymes and analyzed by Southern hybridization with each of the probes listed in Table 1. At least one informative RFLP was identified for each probe. The segregation of the M. spretus allele(s) detected by each probe was followed in the N₂ progeny by Southern analysis. Each backcross animal appeared to be either homozygous for the C57BL/6J allele or heterozygous for the M. spretus and C57BL/6J alleles at each locus. The order of the 18 loci [(Act-2, Esr), (Myb, Ahi-1), Braf, Fyn, Ros-1, Cos-1, Cdc-2a, Bcr, (Col6a-1, Col6a-2, S100b), Pah, Igf-1, Ifg, pg^{cha} and Gli] was determined by the analysis of 108 N₂ progeny (Figure 1). Note that the S100b locus was typed for a subset of the N₂ progeny shown in Figure 1; no crossovers were observed between the S100b and Col6a-1/Col6a-2 loci in 97 N₂ progeny, giving an upper 95% confidence limit of 3.0 centiMorgans (cM) between S100b and Col6a-1/Col6a-2. Additional N₂ progeny were analyzed in a pairwise combination for the Ahi-1 and Myb loci; no crossovers were detected between the Ahi-1 and Myb loci in 169 N₂ progeny, giving an upper 95% confidence limit of 1.7 cM between Ahi-1 and Myb. Additional N_2 progeny were also analyzed for the *Esr* and Act-2 loci; 3 crossovers were detected in a total of 179 N_2 progeny. Using *Myb* as a third marker, these crossovers placed Act-2 1.7 \pm 1.0 cM proximal of Esr.

The ratios of the total number of mice carrying recombinant chromosomes to the total number of

mice analyzed for each pair of loci and the determined gene order are centromere-Act-2-3/179-Esr-5/108-(Myb-0/169-Ahi-1)-6/108-Braf-1/108-Fyn-6/108-Ros-1-4/108-Cos-1-5/108-Cdc-2a-1/108-Bcr-1/108-(Col6a-1-0/108-Col6a-2-0/97-S100b)-8/108-Pah-1/108-Igf-1-26/108-Ifg-1-1/108- pg^{cha} -1/108-Gli. The map distance \pm the standard error (in cM) between each pair of loci is centromere-Act-2 -1.7 \pm 1.0-Esr-4.6 \pm 2.0-[Myb, Ahi-1]-5.6 \pm 2.2-Braf-0.9 \pm 0.9-Fyn-5.6 \pm 2.2-Ros-1-3.7 \pm 1.8-Cos-1-4.6 \pm 2.0-Cdc-2a-0.9 \pm 0.9-Bcr-0.9 \pm 0.9-[Col6a-1, Col6a-2, (S100b)]-7.4 \pm 2.5-Pah-0.9 \pm 0.9-Igf-1-24.1 \pm 4.1-Ifg-0.9 \pm 0.9- pg^{cha} -0.9 \pm 0.9-Gli.

The Bcr locus was mapped initially using a mouse cDNA probe corresponding to the 3' end of the human BCR gene (A. DEKLEIN, unpublished results). In humans, probes corresponding to the 3' end of the BCR gene detect four distinct loci on chromosome 22 (CROCE et al. 1987; BUDARF, CANAANI and EMANUEL 1988; HEISTERKAMP and GROFFEN 1988). Thus, it was possible that the mouse 3' cDNA probe detected a Bcr-related locus in the mouse rather than the structural gene. We mapped the mouse Bcr cDNA probe using multiple restriction enzymes (data not shown), but all polymorphisms segregated to the same locus on chromosome 10. Probes derived from exon 1 of the human BCR structural gene exhibit no homology with the three BCR-related loci (HEISTERKAMP, KNOP-PEL and GROFFEN 1988). Thus, we mapped a human exon 1 probe (HEISTERKAMP, KNOPPEL and GROFFEN 1988) and observed no crossovers with the mouse Bcr cDNA probe. A mouse genomic probe homologous to the human exon 1 probe was cloned and mapped in the IB, as well. Again, the mouse genomic probe exhibited no crossovers with the first two probes. Since the exon 1 probes detect single copy sequences and do not cross-hybridize with the BCR-related loci in humans, we conclude that we have mapped the mouse homolog of the Bcr structural gene to chromosome 10.

Several probes listed in Table 1 detected additional polymorphisms that did not segregate to mouse chromosome 10. First, the probe for the Braf locus detected a 4.8-kb fragment that segregated independently of a polymorphic 8.2-kb fragment. The 4.8-kb fragment mapped to mouse chromosome 10 as indicated (Table 1, Figure 2). The 8.2-kb polymorphism was mapped to mouse chromosome 6 in 40 N₂ animals analyzed, and was designated Braf-2. The Cos anonymous mouse probe, p2351, detected polymorphic fragments of 4.2 kb and 3.0 kb. The 4.2-kb fragment mapped to mouse chromosome 10 and was designated Cos-1. The 3.0-kb fragment mapped to mouse chromosome 19 and was designated Cos-x. The Cdc-2 probe detected 7.2-kb and 5.2-kb polymorphic fragments that segregated independently of a 5.0-kb pol-

TABLE 1

Loci mapped in interspecific backcross mice

	Gene name	Probe	Enzyme	Restriction frag	gment sizes in kb
Locus				C57BL/6J	Mus spretus
Act-2	Actin-related gene-2	β2000	HindIII	32, 17.5, 14.0, 12.0, 9.5, 8.9, 8.1, 6.8, 6.4,	$28,^{a}$ 17.5, 16.5, 13.0, ^b 11.0, ^c 9.5, 7.7, 7.6,
				5.5, 3.9, 3.6,	$6.8, 5.0,^d 4.7,$
				3.3, 3.0, 2.3,	4.6, 3.9, 3.6,
				2.0, 1.9, 1.7	3.3, 3.0, <u>2.7</u> ,
					2.4, 2.3, 2.0,
Ahi-I	thelene helpen nime	- 9.1		7.1	1.9, 1.4^{a}
	Abelson helper virus integration site-1	p2-1	Taql	7.1	5.8
Bcr	Breakpoint cluster	Mouse cDNA	TaqI	3.0, 2.3, 1.8, 0.3	<u>3.6</u> , 2.6, <u>1.4</u> , <u>0.8</u>
	region gene	Mouse genomic	SphI	8.8	4.8
		Human exon 1	TaqI	2.1	<u>1.1</u>
Braf	Braf transforming gene	pEX	BamHI	$16.5, 13.0, 11.0, \\6.9, 6.2$	$ 16.5, 11.0, 8.2, ^{f} 4.8 $
Cdc-2a	Cell division cycle control protein homolog	C1-BS	EcoRI	23.0, 4.2, 2.2	$\frac{7.2, 5.5}{2.2}, 5.0,$ [#]
₽g ^{rha}	Transgenic integra- tion at the <i>pygmy</i> locus		Pvull	4.2	<u>2.2</u>
Col6a-1	$\alpha 1(VI)$ collagen	p18	PvuII	7.9, 2.2, 1.4	4,2, 2.2, 1.4
Col6a-2	$\alpha 2(VI)$ collagen	pl	PvuII	9.2	$\overline{5.7}, 3.8$
Cos-1	Anonymous mouse probe	p2351	PstI	3.7, 0.5	$\overline{4.2}, \overline{3.0}, {}^{h} 0.5$
Esr	Estrogen receptor	pOR3	Taql	5.6, 3.8, 3.2, 2.5, 2.3	5.6, 3.8, 3.2, 2.5, 2.3, 1.3
Fyn	Fyn proto-oncogene	Human fyn	Bgl1	6.9, 4.0, 3.3	6.9, 5.5, 3.3
Ğli	Glioblastoma oncogene	pMGLI-RS	PstI	4.2	3.6
Ifg	Interferon-y	MγIFN	PvuII	1.4, 0.5	4.2, 0.5
lgf-1	Insulin-like growth factor-1	pmigf1-2	TaqI	5.9, 1.8	<u>3.1</u> , <u>2.7</u> , 1.9
Myb	Myb proto-oncogene	Mouse myb	BamHI	10.1	21.0
Pah	Phenylalanine hydrox- ylase		Bgll	8.6, 7.9, 6.7, 3.0, 2.8, 1.5	$\overline{8.6}, 7.9, 6.7,$ 2.8, 1.7
Ros-1	Ros-1 proto-oncogene	pSc3.2/23	Pvull	8.2, 6.1, 5.3, 4.3, 3.6	<u>9.6</u> , 4. 3 , 3.6
S100b	S100 protein, β subunit	pHS100/2.2	PstI	5.4	<u>3.4</u>

The 18 loci mapped in the IB are shown. The RFLPs used for determining segregation in the backcross progeny are underlined. "These two RFLPs mapped to two distinct loci on chromosome 6.

^b This RFLP mapped to chromosome 5.

' This RFLP mapped to the X chromosome.

^d This RFLP mapped to chromosome 17.

' This RFLP mapped to chromosome 8 (CECI et al. 1990).

^f This RFLP mapped to chromosome 6.

[#] This RFLP mapped to chromosome 17.

^h This RFLP mapped to chromosome 19.

a-d, f-h M. J. JUSTICE, L. D. SIRACUSA, L. F. LOCK, N. G. COPELAND and N. A. JENKINS, unpublished results.

ymorphic fragment. The 7.2-kb and 5.2-kb fragments did not recombine and mapped to chromosome 10, defining the locus designated Cdc-2a (Table 1, Figure 2). The 5.0-kb fragment mapped to chromosome 17, defining a locus we designated Cdc-2b. The Braf-2 and Cos-x RFLPs could be distinguished from the Braf and Cos-1 RFLPs, respectively, by fainter hybridization intensities as well as by washing the filters at a higher stringency (0.1 × SSCP, 0.1% SDS for 1 hr at 65° for Cos; 0.3 × SSCP, 0.1% SDS for 1 hr at 65° for Braf). Under these conditions, the probes were selectively removed from the *Braf-2* and *Cos-x* fragments, but remained bound to the *Braf* and *Cos-1* fragments. The *Braf-2* locus is distinct from the *c-raf* locus on chromosome 6 and may represent a *raf*-related gene or pseudogene. Likewise, the *Cos-x* locus on chromosome 19 may be a *Cos-1*-related gene or pseudogene. The mouse genome may contain multiple *Cdc-2* loci; thus, the *Cdc-2a* and *Cdc-2b* loci may each represent an

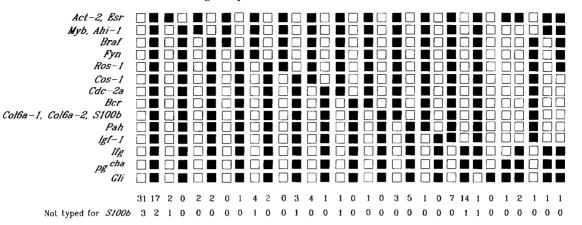


FIGURE 1.—Segregation of alleles in the (C57BL/6J × *M. spretus*) $F_1 × C57BL/6J$ IB progeny. Genes mapped in the analysis are shown on the left. Each column represents the chromosome identified in the N₂ progeny that was inherited from the (C57BL/6J × *M. spretus*) F_1 female parent. The black boxes represent the presence of a C57BL/6J allele, and the open boxes represent the presence of a *M. spretus* allele. The total number of offspring inheriting each type of chromosome is shown at the bottom.

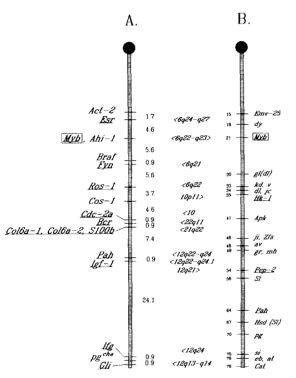


FIGURE 2.—Linkage maps of mouse chromosome 10. The chromosome in A shows the loci mapped in the current study, with distances between loci given in cM. The chromosome in B shows the August 1989 version of the chromosome 10 linkage map compiled by M. T. DAVISSON, T. H. RODERICK, A. L. HILLYARD and D. P. DOOLITTLE as provided from GBASE, a computerized database maintained at The Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, Maine (personal communication). This map is based on a compilation of data from genetic crosses among laboratory mouse strains, recombinant inbred strains, and IBs. The two linkage maps were aligned at the *Myb* locus, highlighted by a box on each map. Mouse genes that have been mapped in humans are underlined. Locations of these genes on human chromosomes are shown in the middle; arrowheads point to the locus that has been mapped in humans.

independent Cdc-2 homolog (J. CORDEN, unpublished results).

The mouse genome contains >20 actin-related loci

(MINTY et al. 1983). The chicken β -actin probe identified numerous RFLPs in HindIII digests that segregated independently (Table 1). The probe is a fulllength cDNA containing conserved sequences that are expected to cross-react with many different actin genes (CLEVELAND et al. 1980). This probe is also expected to detect the β -actin structural locus, which maps to mouse chromosome 5 (CZOSNEK et al. 1983). Seven of the M. spretus-specific RFLPs corresponding to actin-related loci segregated to six chromosomes; two mapped to distinct locations on mouse chromosome 6, and one mapped to each of mouse chromosomes 5, 8, 10, 17 and X (CECI et al. 1990; this manuscript). We have designated the actin-related locus on mouse chromosome 10 Act-2. No actin genes, actin-related structural genes, or actin pseudogenes have previously been mapped to mouse chromosome 10.

The segregation of many alleles on chromosome 10 from the (C57BL/6J × M. spretus)F₁ female parent differed significantly from the 1:1 ratio expected if each allele was transmitted in a normal Mendelian fashion. Using a G test on partitioned samples to test statistical significance (SOKAL and ROHLF 1981), the transmission ratios were significantly different at a 90% confidence level from a 1:1 ratio for all loci except Act-2, Esr, Ifg, pg^{cha} and Gli (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

The molecular genetic linkage map establishes the orientation of 18 loci on mouse chromosome 10 using a single IB. The Act-2, Bcr, Braf, Cdc-2a, Esr, Fyn, Gli, Igf-1 and Ros-1 loci were mapped to mouse chromosome 10 for the first time. The Ahi-1, Col6a-1, Col6a-2, Cos-1, Ifg, Pah and S100b loci were regionally localized. The molecular markers mapped in this study span 63 cM, and thus extend along much of the predicted 78 cM of chromosome 10 (GREEN et al.

TABLE 2

Locus	No. homozygous C57BL/6J	No. heterozygou C57BL/6J /M. spretus	G _p value	P value
Act-2, Esr	48	60	1.34	< 0.250
Myb, Ahi-1	43	65	4.51	< 0.050
Braf	43	65	4.51	< 0.050
Fyn	44	64	3.73	< 0.100
Ros-1	42	66	5.38	< 0.025
Cos-1	44	64	3.73	< 0.100
Cdc-2a	41	67	6.32	< 0.010
Bcr	40	68	7.34	< 0.010
Col6a-1, Col6a-2	39	69	8.44	< 0.005
Pah	41	67	6.32	< 0.025
Igf-1	40	68	7.34	< 0.010
Ifg	50	58	0.59	< 0.500
pg ^{rha}	51	57	0.33	<0.750
Ğli	50	58	0.59	< 0.500

The G_p values shown represent a G test carried out on partitioned samples at each locus on chromosome 10. A G test for homogeneity of samples revealed that the samples were homogeneous across loci (SOKAL and ROHLF 1981).

1972; RODERICK and DAVISSON 1981), allowing molecular access to many regions of chromosome 10. The map provides a framework for (1) mapping additional markers on mouse chromosome 10, (2) revealing linkage relationships between mouse mutations and molecular probes, and (3) extending and refining homologies with human chromosomes.

Comparison with previous mapping results: It is possible to compare our molecular genetic linkage map with the composite genetic linkage map of T. H. RODERICK, M. T. DAVISSON, A. L. HILLYARD and D. P. DOOLITTLE (August 1989, personal communication). Previously, Myb, Pah and pg had been oriented on chromosome 10. Myb was mapped 35.1 ± 5.6 cM proximal to Steel (Sl) in a mouse intraspecific linkage testing stock (TAYLOR and ROWE 1989). Pah mapped 32.0 ± 6.2 cM from *Myb* using IBs, although proximaldistal orientation was not determined (BODE et al. 1988). In addition, Pah had been localized by in situ hybridization analysis to chromosome 10, band C2-D1 (LEDLEY et al. 1988). A translocation breakpoint involving Steel (Sl) had been mapped by in situ hybridization analysis to chromosome 10, band D1-D2 (CACHEIRO and RUSSELL 1975). This suggests that Sl is distal of Pah; however, a different order is given on the composite linkage map (Figure 2B). The order shown on the composite linkage map (Figure 2B) is based on recombination frequencies between Myb, Zfa and Pah in an IB (MITCHELL et al. 1989). At this time, Sl and Pah have not been mapped relative to each other in a multilocus cross; such analysis would resolve this discrepancy. The pg locus was mapped 14.2 ± 4.0 cM from Sl, linked to silver (si), in intraspecific crosses (FALCONER and ISAACSON 1965). The distal location of pg^{cha} on the IB map is in agreement with the distal location of *pg* on the composite genetic linkage map.

Transmission ratio distortion: Analysis of the transmission of alleles from the $(C57BL/6] \times M$. spretus)F₁ parent in the IB revealed a statistically significant deviation from the expected 1:1 Mendelian transmission of alleles at many loci on chromosome 10 (Table 2). This phenomenon is not restricted to our IB since transmission ratio distortions have been previously observed in IBs that involve M. spretus mice (BIDDLE 1987; SELDIN, HOWARD and D'EUSTACHIO 1989; J.-L. GUENET, personal communication), and for regions of chromosome 2 (SIRACUSA et al. 1989) and chromosome 4 (CECI et al. 1990) in our [(C57BL/ $6J \times M.$ spretus)F₁ × C57BL/6J] IB. In our cross, transmission ratio distortion was not significant for the most proximal and distal loci on chromosome 10. Differential survival of neonates can be ruled out as a cause of transmission ratio distortion in this IB since the mortality rate between birth and sacrifice was very low (6%). Thus, the transmission ratio distortion (TRD) on chromosome 10 must be due to effects occurring between meiosis in the heterozygous F_1 female parents and birth. TRD may be due to: (1) differential production or survival of oocytes, (2) differential fertilization efficiencies or (3) differential survival of embryos. The simplest explanation for the transmission ratio distortion on chromosome 10 is differential survival of embryos. It is likely that certain allelic combinations at a locus or at several loci in the central region of the chromosome have an adverse effect on survival of the C57BL/6J homozygotes or that heterozygotes have a selective survival advantage.

Homologies with human chromosomes: Mouse chromosome 10 exhibits four regions of synteny with human chromosomes. First, a 16.7-cM region of mouse chromosome 10 is syntenic with human chromosome 6q (Figure 2). This syntenic group includes ESR, MYB, FYN and ROS1, which map to human chromosome 6q24-q27, 6q22-q23, 6q21 and 6q22, respectively (GOSDEN, MIDDLETON and ROUT 1986; JANSSEN et al. 1986; NAGARAJAN et al. 1986; POPESCU et al. 1987; RABIN et al. 1987). Second, the localization of Cdc-2a near hexokinase-1 (Hk-1) defines a small region of synteny with human chromosome 10 (SPURR et al. 1988; SCHWARTZ et al. 1984). Third, the Col6a-1, Col6a-2 and S100b loci define a small region in the central part of the chromosome that is conserved on human chromosome 21. Each of these loci has been mapped to human chromosome 21q22 (WEIL et al. 1988; ALLORE et al. 1988; MACDONALD et al. 1988). Finally, PAH, IGF1, IFG, GLI, and peptidase B (PEPB; Pep-2 in mice) are conserved in a syntenic group on human chromosome 12q. In humans, PAH maps to 12q22-q24, IGF1 maps to 12q22-q24.1, IFG maps to 12q24, GLI maps to 12q13-q14, and PEPB maps to 12g21 (JONGSMA, HAGEMEIJER and MEERA KAHN 1975; TRENT, OLSON and LAWN 1982; NAYLOR et al. 1983; LIDSKY et al. 1985; MORTON et al. 1986; AR-HEDEN et al. 1989). It is interesting to note that the regions of synteny with human chromosomes delimited by the loci on our molecular genetic linkage map (Figure 2A) combined with loci on the composite genetic linkage map that have been mapped in humans (Figure 2B) minimize interruptions of syntenic groups between mice and humans.

The localization of the mouse homolog of *Bcr* to chromosome 10 identifies the first homology segment with human chromosome 22q on mouse chromosome 10. Genes that map to human chromosome 22q are widely dispersed in the mouse. For example, the *immunoglobulin lambda light chain (IGL; Igl-1* in mice), the *PDGFB/SIS proto-oncogene*, and *BCR* all map to bands q11-q13 of human chromosome 22 (KAPLAN and CARRITT 1987). However, *Igl-1* maps to mouse chromosome 16 (EPSTEIN *et al.* 1986), *Sis* maps to mouse chromosome 15 (HUPPI, DUNCAN and POTTER 1988), and *Bcr* maps to mouse chromosome 10.

Loci affecting tumor incidence: Ahi-1 is a common site of helper virus integration in Abelson murine leukemia virus-induced pre-B-cell lymphomas, and has been proposed by POIRIER, KOZAK and JOLICOUER (1988) to represent a novel locus causally associated with pre-B-cell lymphomas. POIRIER, KOZAK and JOL-ICOUER (1988) mapped Ahi-1 to chromosome 10 using somatic cell hybrids, and compared Ahi-1 to Myb, a proto-oncogene associated with B-cell lymphomas in chickens (KANTER, SMITH and HAYWARD 1988), and with hematopoietic tumors in mice and humans (SHEN-ONG et al. 1984; OHYASHIKI et al. 1988); however, no relationships between Ahi-1 and Myb were established. It is possible that a relationship between the two probes was not detected, since the entire Myb coding region was not used as a probe in these studies (POIRIER, KOZAK and JOLICOUER 1988). We have observed no crossovers in 169 animals between Ahi-1 and Myb, giving an upper 95% confidence limit of 1.7 cM between the two loci. Therefore, Ahi-1 may represent a region within or near the Myb locus, and viral integration in Ahi-1 may alter Myb expression leading to neoplastic disease. Alternatively, Ahi-1 may be closely linked to Myb, but represent a novel protooncogene associated with pre-B-cell lymphomas. The close linkage of Ahi-1 and Myb suggests that further studies are necessary to determine whether Ahi-1 is a novel proto-oncogene or whether viral integrations at Ahi-1 affect Myb expression.

The ESR, MYB, FYN and ROS1 loci all map to human chromosome 6q, a region that is commonly associated with tumor-specific chromosome rearrangements (MITELMAN 1983; BERGER, BLOOM-FIELD and SUTHERLAND 1985). Esr has been implicated in the progression of many breast neoplasias (YOUNG, EHRLICH and EINHORN 1980). Myb is the cellular homolog of the transforming sequence of avian myeloblastosis virus (FRANCHINI et al. 1983; LEPRINCE et al. 1983). Fyn (also called Syn, Slk and Syr) was identified as a human src-related gene with transforming properties (SEMBA et al. 1986; KAWAK-AMI, PENNINGTON and ROBBINS 1986; YOSHIDA et al. 1986). Ros-1 is the mouse cellular homolog of the transforming gene of the avian sarcoma virus, UR2 (BIRCHMEIER et al. 1986). It is likely that Braf, a transforming gene with homologies to c-raf and A-raf (IKAWA et al. 1988), will also map to human chromosome 6q, based on its linkage with Fyn and Ros-1 in mice.

Translocations and deletions associated with human chromosome 6q are associated with numerous malignancies, including teratocarcinomas (Oosterhuis et al. 1985), hematologic neoplasias (MITELMAN 1983; BERGER, BLOOMFIELD and SUTHERLAND 1985), malignant melanomas (BECHER, GIBAS and SANDBERG 1983; PATHAK, DRWINGA and HSU 1983; TRENT, ROSEN-FELD and MEYSKENS 1983), and ovarian carcinomas (WAKE et al. 1980). Human chromosome 6q21 contains a fragile site that may account for some of these chromosomal abnormalities in human neoplasias (Yu-NIS and SORENG 1984; HEIM and MITELMAN 1989; POPESCU et al. 1987). At this time, only the Myb protooncogene has been causally associated with neoplasia in mice (SHEN-ONG et al. 1984). Further studies may reveal the role of genes localized to this region in mouse neoplastic disease.

The breakpoint cluster region gene (BCR) on human chromosome 22 is linked to the ABL oncogene from chromosome 9 in the t(9;22)(q34;q11) translocation that identifies the Philadelphia (Ph) chromosome (NOWELL and HUNGERFORD 1960). The Ph chromosome is the cytogenetic hallmark of chronic myelogenous leukemia, and is also found in acute lymphoblastic leukemias (NOWELL and HUNGERFORD 1960; SAND-BERG et al. 1980; PRIEST et al. 1980; HERMANS et al. 1987). The translocation results in a BCR-ABL fusion protein that is causally associated with human neoplastic disease. To date, the region of mouse chromosome 10 containing Bcr has not been causally implicated in murine neoplastic disease.

Molecular markers that map near mouse mutations: The map locations of several genes suggest that they may be candidates for existing mouse mutations. For example, the *S100b* locus maps in a region that contains the *jittery* (*ji*) mutation. S100 is a calciumbinding protein that is structurally similar in the calcium-binding domains to calmodulin (MOORE 1965; MARSHAK, WATTERSON and VAN ELDIK 1981; PATEL and MARANGOS 1982; DONATO 1985; ZIMMER and VAN ELDIK 1986). It is widely distributed in the nervous system of vertebrates (MOORE 1965; KESSLER,

LEVINE and FASMAN 1968; CALISSANO, MOORE and FRIESEN 1969) and accumulates during the maturation of the mammalian brain (ZUCKERMAN, HERSCH-MAN and LEVINE 1970; CICERO et al. 1972). Homozygous i/i mice exhibit a rapidly progressive neuromuscular incoordination at 10-16 days of age manifested by seizures and tetany, followed by death by 4 weeks of age (DEOME 1945; summarized by GREEN 1989). The basis for the neuromuscular abnormality in ji/ji mice has not been determined. The seizures and tetany exhibited by ii/ji mice are consistent with abnormalities in a calcium-binding neuronal protein. Humans affected by trisomy 21 (Down syndrome) exhibit neuropathological changes associated with the aging brain consisting of neurofibrillary tangles, senile plaques, and neuronal loss. Several genes that may play a role in the neurologic abnormalities characterizing Down syndrome have been assigned to human chromosome 21, including S100b (TANZI et al. 1987; ST. GEORGE-HYSLOP et al. 1987; ALLORE et al. 1988). If ji is homologous to S100b, the ji mutation may be useful for understanding the neuropathological changes of Down syndrome. Note that the region of human chromosome 21 that is trisomic in Down syndrome is dispersed in the mouse. Markers on human chromosome 21 that are trisomic in Down syndrome map to mouse chromosomes 16, 17 and 10 (summarized by NADEAU 1989). If S100b does not represent the homolog of ji, it may be useful for gaining molecular access to the *ji* mutation.

The Fyn or Ros-1 proto-oncogenes may be candidates for the grey-lethal (gl) mutation on chromosome 10. The Fyn and Ros-1 genes are members of the srcrelated family of cellular oncogenes (reviewed by J. M. BISHOP 1985), many of which are involved in the control of cell proliferation and differentiation (DOWNWARD et al. 1984; SHERR et al. 1985; NAGA-RAJAN et al. 1986). Ros-1 is expressed in numerous human hematopoietic tumor cell lines (DE BOTH et al. 1989) and likely encodes a growth factor receptor (RABIN et al. 1987). Fyn-encoded proteins have been found in normal human hematopoietic cells (KAWA-KAMI, FURUE and KAWAKAMI 1989). Mice homozygous for the gl mutation are osteopetrotic because they lack the ability for secondary bone resorption and have an increased rate of bone deposition (GRU-NEBERG 1936; BATEMAN 1954; MARKS and WALKER 1969; summarized by GREEN 1989). The basic defect caused by gl is likely to be in cells derived from bone marrow or spleen that control the activity of osteoclasts (WALKER 1975a,b). Fyn and Ros-1 are potential candidate genes for the gl mutation, based on their expression in hematopoietic cells and their probable role in controlling cell growth and/or differentiation. If neither Fyn nor Ros-1 represents the homolog of gl, they may be useful for gaining molecular access to the gl mutation.

Mouse models of human syndromes: By comparing the mouse and human linkage maps, we can predict the locations of certain loci or syndromes in the human genome. The mouse mutation kidney disease (kd) has been proposed to be a model of the human kidney disease nephronophthisis (LYON and HULSE 1971). Both the human and mouse diseases exhibit a degenerative destruction of the kidneys involving tubules and glomeruli (LYON and HULSE 1971; FANCONI et al. 1951; GISELSON et al. 1970). Nephronophthisis is an autosomal recessive disorder in humans, but has not been mapped to a human chromosome. If nephronophthisis is the human homolog of kd, it should map to either human chromosome 6 or human chromosome 10, based on the location of kd in the mouse. Thus, the Myb, Ros-1, Fyn, Hk-1 (Figure 2B), Cos-1 and Cdc-2a molecular markers may be useful probes to use in linkage studies in families affected by nephronophthisis. Pedigrees of families affected by nephronopthisis can be followed by RFLP analysis using these molecular markers. Identification of close linkage between nephronophthisis and one of the molecular markers may be useful in preliminary diagnosis of this disease in humans.

The mouse pygmy (pg) mutation is a useful model for the human non-growth hormone-deficient syndromes (SINHA et al. 1979; XIANG, BENSON and CHADA 1990), and has been hypothesized to be a model to investigate the biochemical defect of the human African pygmy (RIMOIN and RICHMOND 1972). Mice homozygous for a transgenic integration at pg^{cha} are smaller than normal littermates. After mapping a probe flanking the pg^{cha} transgenic integration in the IB to the distal region of chromosome 10, which contains the pg mutation, subsequent studies revealed that the pg^{cha} mutation was an allele of pg (XIANG, BENSON and CHADA 1990). Human African pygmies and homozygous pg/pg mice fail to respond to exogenous growth hormone (RIMOIN et al. 1969; RIMOIN and RICHMOND 1972; SINHA et al. 1979). In isolated cases, an absence of IGF1 has been associated with the human African pygmy, leading to the proposal that IGF1 may be the principal growth factor lacking in African pygmies (MERIMEE, ZAPF and FROESCH 1981; MERIMEE et al. 1987). However, this proposal has been criticized on the basis of possible nutritional effects on IGF1 in human pygmies (UNDERWOOD et al. 1982). Igf-1 is unlikely to be directly involved in the mouse pygmy syndrome, since pgcha represents an allele of pg, and Igf-1 and pg^{cha} are separated by 25.0 cM in the mouse. The chromosomal location of pg^{cha} within a large region of synteny conserved on human chromosome 12q suggests that the human African pygmy syndrome will map to human chromosome 12q. Further studies of the mouse model may aid in understanding the biochemical basis of the human African pygmy.

We thank P. JOLICOUER for the Ahi-1 probe, S. H. HUGHES for the β -actin probe, A. DEKLEIN for the mouse Bcr cDNA probe, T. YAMAMOTO for the Braf probe, J. L. CORDEN for the Cdc-2 probe, M.-L. CHU for the Col6a-1 and Col6a-2 probes, F. COSTANTINI for the Cos probe, K. ROBBINS for the Fyn probe, K. W. KINZLER, J. M. RUPPERT and B. VOGELSTEIN for the Gli probe, H. YOUNG and K.-I. ARAI for the Ifg probe, G. BELL for the Igf-1 probe, G. SHEN-ONG for the Myb probe, C. BIRCHMEIER for the Ros-1 probe, and R. DUNN for the S100b probe. We also thank D. A. SWING, M. B. CYBULSKI, B. CHO, J. DIETZ, B. EAGLESON and M. BODAMER for providing excellent technical assistance. A. M. BUCHBERG, J. D. CECI, D. M. KINGSLEY, L. F. LOCK and B. R. STANTON are thanked for critically reviewing the manuscript. This research was supported in part by the National Cancer Institute, Department of Health and Human Services, under contract N01-CO-74101 with ABL, by Natonal Institutes of Health (NIH) grant R01-CA-47073 and ACS grant CD-421 to N.H., and by NIH grant GM38731 and New Jersey Commission Cancer Research grant 687-006 to K.C. M.J.J. is the recipient of a National Research Service Award, Postdoctoral Fellowship 1F32CA08853-01. L.D.S. is the recipient of a National Research Service Award, Postdoctoral Fellowship GM12721-01. The NCI-Frederick Cancer Research Facility is fully accredited by the American Association for Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care.

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Communicating editor: R. E. GANSCHOW