Nucleotide sequence 5' of the chicken c-myc coding region: Localization of a noncoding exon that is absent from myc transcripts in most avian leukosis virus-induced lymphomas

(DNA sequencing/oncogene/RNA blot analysis/avian leukosis virus integration)

Cheng-Kon Shih*[†], Maxine Linial[‡], Maureen M. Goodenow^{*}, and William S. Hayward^{*}

*Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, 1275 York Avenue, New York, NY 10021; †The Rockefeller University, 1230 York Avenue, New York, NY 10021; and ‡Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, 1124 Columbia Street, Seattle, WA 98104

Communicated by Paul A. Marks, April 12, 1984

ABSTRACT We have determined the nucleotide sequence of the 2.2-kilobase-pair region upstream of the chicken c-myc coding exons. Using RNA blot analysis, we have localized a noncoding exon to a region that is separated from the c-myc coding sequences by an intron of 700–800 base pairs. In most avian leukosis virus-induced lymphomas proviral integration has occurred within, or downstream of, the first exon, thus presumably displacing the regulatory sequences that normally control c-myc expression. More than 70% of the integration sites were clustered in a 250-base-pair region in the first intron, immediately preceding the coding sequences. Sequences from the upstream noncoding exon were absent from the myc transcripts in these lymphomas; RNA transcripts from the normal c-myc allele were not expressed at detectable levels.

Structural alterations of the c-myc locus have been implicated in the induction of a variety of neoplasms, including avian leukosis virus (ALV)-induced B-cell lymphomas in chicken (1-3), murine plasmacytomas (4-6), and human Burkitt lymphomas (5, 7). In ALV-induced lymphomas, c-myc expression is altered by insertion of proviral promoter and regulatory sequences located in the long terminal repeat (LTR) of the integrated provirus. In most cases, integration occurs upstream of the c-myc coding sequences and in the same transcriptional orientation, resulting in synthesis of tumor-specific transcripts containing both c-myc and viral (LTR) sequences (1). Transcription thus apparently initiates on the viral promoter under control of the viral enhancer. In a minority of tumors, the provirus is in the opposite orientation or downstream of c-myc (2). In these tumors, viral enhancer sequences presumably augment transcription from a cellular promoter, because the viral promoter is not appropriately positioned for c-myc transcription.

The coding sequences of the chicken c-myc locus are organized into at least two exons (8-10). The v-myc gene of MC29, which presumably arose by recombination between ALV and cellular myc sequences (11), is comprised of the two c-myc coding exons, plus an additional 13 nucleotides that are not contiguous with the normal chicken c-myc coding sequences (12-14). The coding regions of chicken c-myc and MC29 v-myc differ by only eight bases (14).

The coding exons of the c-myc genes of chicken, mouse, and human are highly conserved (6, 15, 16). An additional exon of approximately 500 base pairs (bp), located 1.6 kilobase pairs (kbp) upstream of the coding exons, has been identified in the c-myc locus of both mouse and human (6, 16, 17). This exon is not translated, as the nucleotide sequence reveals the absence of an ATG codon and the presence of multiple termination codons in all three reading frames. The function of this unusually long untranslated exon is unknown, but it has been postulated that it plays a role in the transcriptional and/or post-transcriptional regulation of c-myc expression (6, 18, 19). The presence of a noncoding exon in the chicken c-myc gene has not been reported previously, although the size of the c-myc transcript indicates that sequences, in addition to the coding exons, must be present in the mature mRNA (10).

To characterize the upstream region of the chicken c-myc gene and to determine the relationship between proviral integration sites and possible c-myc transcriptional control elements, we have determined the nucleotide sequence of the 2.2-kbp region upstream of the c-myc coding exons. We have localized an upstream exon in a region separated from the cmyc coding sequences by an intron of 700-800 bp. Proviral integrations in most ALV-induced lymphomas were mapped within this intron. Sequences from the upstream exon were not detected in the tumor-specific myc transcripts of these lymphomas.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Nucleotide Sequence Analysis. Molecular clones of the chicken c-myc locus were isolated independently in two laboratories (10, 20) from the same chicken genomic library (21) and were subcloned into pBR322 or M13mp10 and -11. The strategies used for sequencing by the Maxam-Gilbert (22) and dideoxy chain-termination methods (23) are illustrated in Fig. 1. Most of the nucleotide sequence was determined by both methods independently. With one possible exception (see legend to Fig. 2), there was complete agreement between the sequences obtained by the two methods.

RNA Blot Analysis. Poly(A)⁺ RNAs were prepared from tissues of uninfected 14- to 25-day old chickens (SPAFAS, Norwich, CT) (24) or from lymphomas induced by RAV-1, RAV-2, or td107A (25). RNA was extracted by the guanidinium isothiocyanate method (26). Glyoxal/agarose gel electrophoresis and RNA blot transfer were carried out according to published procedures (27, 28). Probes indicated in Fig. 3 were nick-translated to a specific activity of $10^8 \text{ dpm}/\mu g$ (29). Glyoxalated end-labeled *Hind*III fragments of phage λ were used as size markers. The sizes assigned to the RNA species in these studies are somewhat lower than those reported previously (1, 25) based on ribosomal RNA size markers.

RESULTS

Nucleotide Sequence of the Region Upstream of the Chicken c-myc Coding Exons. The nucleotide sequence of the 2.2-kbp region upstream of the chicken c-myc coding exons is shown

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "*advertisement*" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. \$1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: ALV, avian leukosis virus; LTR, long terminal repeat; bp and kbp, base pair(s) and kilobase pair(s); kb, kilobase(s).



F10. 1. Strategy for sequencing the 2.2-kbp region upstream of the c-myc coding exon. The hatched boxes indicate the two c-myc exons that are homologous to the v-myc gene. The Pst I-Pst I fragment was subcloned into pBR322 or M13mp10 and -11; the Sac II-Pst I region was subjected to sequence analysis. Arrows indicate the direction and extent of sequences determined by the Maxam-Gilbert (\longrightarrow) or dideoxy chain-termination (---->) methods. Only the relevant restriction endonuclease sites used in sequencing are shown.

in Fig. 2. The 5' boundary of the first coding exon (position 2253) and the initiating AUG codon of the open reading frame (position 2268) were determined by aligning our se-

quence with the published sequence of the chicken c-myc coding region (14). Twelve of the 13 nucleotides at the 5' end of the v-myc

SOCI 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 CCGCGGGGCGCC GGGAGAGGGGC GCGATGGCCC CACGGTAGCG TTGGCCGTGG GAAAGCCGGG CCGCCCCCAG CGCCGGGGAA CCGCAACGGG GGGATGGATG GGGAGGGGGG 130 140 150 160 170 180 190 200 210 220 230 240 TGCGGGGGGTC CTCCCGGCCG GCGATCCOTG TTCCTCCCCC AGCTTCTACG CTTAGAAATG ATACAAATAC TTATAAGTCC GTTTGGTGTGT GCGGGGGGAGGAG GGGGGGGGGAG 370 380 390 400 410 420 430 440 450 GCAGATAGGG GCCGGGGAGA GGGATAGGG AGCGCCCCGT CGGGTCTCGG CTCCCGCGCAC CTCCGGGGAT GGGTAACGGG 460 GAAGGGGTGA 470 480 CCCCGGGGTG GGGAAGGAGG 510 520 530 540 550 AGCGAGCGGG GGGAGGTGCA GAGCCCCCGG GGGTCACCTT GCAGCCGCTC 560 570 580 CCCCCGCAGC CTCCTCCTCC CGTTTAATCC 600 590 490 500 GGGGCTGCGG CGCTGGGTGA TCCGGGATAA CGAAGCAGCG 610 620 630 640 650 660 670 680 690 700 710 ACACGGGCGG GGGTGCGCGA GCTACGGACG CTCCTTTGTG CCGTAGGGT AGCCGCGCAC CGCCCGCCC GCAGCCGCGT TACGGGTGGA CACGGAGCGT GAACCTCCCC 720 TGCCGCCGTC 730 740 750 760 770 780 790 800 810 820 830 Gggggggcagc Ggaggaggg Ggagcggagg Ggagcggagg Anggagggg Gggggaggc Agcgaggagg Gagcggcagc Agcgaggagg Gagcgccct ttc. 840 950 AluI 850 860 870 880 890 900 910 920 930 TTTACTATGT TTACTTCCGA CETETEETTE TAGTAGGAAA AAAAACCAAC CGETGETCCG CATCGCETET CECCGGECCE TETECETCCC 940 TCCCTCCCTC 960 CCGCCCGCCC AGCTCCGGCT 1040 1050 1060 1070 1080 CCCGCGCGGA GCCGGGGGGC AGCGGGAGGG AGATGAAGCG GCGACGCGCA 980 990 GGGGGGGGGGC ACGGAGCCCC 1000 1010 1020 1030 TCGGCCGCCC CCTCGCGGCG CGCCCTCCCC GCTCACGGAG 970 CGCAGTACTC 1170 1200 TATTGTA 1090 1100 1110 1120 1130 1140 1150 1160 CCGCGAGAGC GCGCACTCGC GGGGCCCCGC CGTGCCGCTC GTGCTCCCGC CCCCGCTGCA TCTCCCGCCC GCCCTCGCC 1180 1190 GGCGCTTTAA AGACAGCAAA GCAACTTAAC 1210 1220 1230 1240 1250 1260 1270 1280 CCGGACGGAG CGCGCCGCGC CGCCTTGGAC CGTACAATCT GCCGCACGCC GGGAAGGCGA GCCCTCTCCG CTGTATTTTT 1290 1300 1310 1320 TTTCTCATCG TGGTGGGAGG AAGCGATCTA CGTTCTCCCG 1340 1350 TCCCTTTTTT CCCCCGTCTT 1360 CTCCGGCGGT 1370 1380 1390 TTATCTC CAATTTCCTG AT 1400 TTGTTGT 1410 1420 TCCCCGCACC GCCCGCAATT 1430 1440 ATTGCCTCGC TCCGTCTCGC 1330 GCGTTTTGGC ТСТТТТТАТА Т 1460 1 1470 GGAGGAGC CGTGAGTGG 1480 GGGCTCCG 1490 TACCCAT 1500 CTCGATCC 1510 GCCGCGGTCG 1540 ACCGCCG 1450 1520 CTGACAGC 1530 GCGGGGCCGC GGG 1550 Smál 1560 AGCCGGCGCG GTGCCTCCCG GGGGACGCGG 1580 1590 GGCACGGCGC GCCCCATCCT 1600 CCGTGCT 1610 1620 CTCGGCTTGG ATATATAATT 1640 GAGGGGGGGG 1650 GGGGGGTGGG 1660 GGGCAAG 1670 AAGCATTTGC 1570 1630 1680 CGCTGCTCCG TCCAGCG CTATTTTTG 1690 1700 TACGCACGGC AGGTTATGCT 1710 TATTGCACAT 1720 1730 ATATACGTAT ATATATGTGC 1740 1750 GTGTGTGGGAT ATATATGTAT 1760 1770 ATATGATAAA TTTGGCAAAG 1780 GCCCAGC 1790 TCCGTGCACG 1800 ACCTGGG 1810 1820 GCAGCCCGGC 1830 TCTGCGCTGG 1840 GCTACCGG 1850 1860 GTTCCCG 1870 GTGCCGGAGC 1880 1890 1909 TGCGGG 1910 TGTGCCC 1920 GAGCGGAGCC TGGCTGGGGA TTCTCGC GCACCGG CTGAGCGCGG GA 1970 1980 1990 GGCGCTGACC CCTCGATGGA CGGGGTCGCG 1950 2000 2010 CCCGGTC GCCCGCTGAG 2020 GGGAGGG 1930 1940 1960 2030 2040 CCTCCGGAGA GTCGCGGGGA GAGCGCTCCG GGCGTCCCCG GTGAGGCGG OGGGCTCACG 2050 2070 2080 2100 2110 2120 2130 2140 ATATATATAT ATATATATAT AAATCAATCT GACGGCGCGG GGTGCCGGAG 2050 2060 AGGGGTCGTG CTTTTTATTA 2090 2150 2160 TTATTATTAT TTTATTATTA TTATTAGTTT GAGCGCTGCG TGCCGAGGGT 2170 2180 CGATCTCCCC CGCTATAGGG 2190 GCCGGGGGGGA • 2200 2210 2220 2230 2240 2250 2260 GCGGGCCCCGAG CGCGCCCCCAC CCGCCCCCCC CCTCCCCCCCCC ACCAGAGC 2280 2270 GCC 110 TCAGCG PstI TGCAG 2290 CCAGCCTCCC 2310 2320 2340 2350 2360 2370 2380 2390 TACTTCTACT TCGAGGAGGA GGAGGAGAAC TTCTACCTGG CGGCGCAGCA GCGGGGGCAGC 2330 GGTGCAGCCC

FIG. 2. Nucleotide sequence of the 2.2-kbp region upstream of the chicken c-myc coding exon. The asterisk indicates a possible sequence polymorphism (guanosine or adenosine, position 2195), based on a sequence difference in clones derived independently in two laboratories. Dashed lines indicate sequences homologous to the v-myc gene of MC29 virus (12–14). The coding exon of the c-myc gene starts at position 2253. The boxed ATG triplet in the coding exon specifies the beginning of an open reading frame. A consensus splice acceptor site (______) is located at the 5' boundary of the first coding exon. Potential splice donor sites (_____), showing at least 70% homology with published consensus sequences (30, 31), are indicated throughout the 2.2-kbp sequence. Arrows show the sites of proviral integrations in tumor 7 (position 2001) and tumor 10 (position 1461), localized by aligning the previously published nucleotide sequences of cloned virus-cell junction fragments (10). Restriction endonuclease sites, Alu I and Sma I, denote the boundaries of fragment E, which hybridizes to normal c-myc RNA, but not to tumor myc-related transcripts (see text and Fig. 3).

gene of MC29 virus, which are not contiguous with the cmyc coding sequences (13, 14), were located 458 nucleotides upstream of the 5' boundary of the c-myc coding exons (position 1784–1795). The 12 nucleotides are adjacent to a consensus splice-donor sequence, which may have been used to join these nucleotides with the c-myc coding exons during the generation of MC29 virus. The origin of the 13th nucleotide (located at the extreme 5' boundary of the v-myc gene) is not clear, since it does not match either the cellular c-myc sequence or the published viral gag gene sequence (32). It is likely that the mismatch reflects a polymorphism at this position in the gag gene, since the published sequence of this gene is derived from the Prague strain of Rous sarcoma virus and not from the (unknown) parent of MC29 virus.

Localization of an Upstream Exon of the Chicken c-myc Gene. The 5' noncoding c-myc exon is highly conserved between human and mouse (33). However, we could find no significant sequence homology between the human or mouse first exons and the 2.2-kbp upstream region of chicken c-myc (data not shown). We therefore adopted the following approach to identify the upstream exon.

Six probes from the region upstream of the c-myc coding exons (probes A–F) and one probe from the 3' c-myc coding exon (probe G) were used for RNA blot analysis of $poly(A)^+$ RNA from normal chicken thymus (Fig. 3). Probe G hybridized to an abundant 2.4-kilobase (kb) RNA, as well as to minor transcripts of 4.0, 3.4, and 3.2 kb. The same transcripts were detected in RNA from bursa and spleen (data not shown).

Probe A was derived from the 1-kbp region immediately upstream of the region that was sequenced, and probes B, C, and D were generated from the first 1 kbp of the sequenced region. None of these probes (A–D) hybridized to the chicken c-myc RNAs (Fig. 3).

Probe E (Alu I to Sma I) hybridized to the transcripts detected with probe G (Fig. 3). These results indicate the presence of an additional exon within a 600-nucleotide region (position 951–1547) that is located 700 bp upstream of the c-myc coding exons. Probe F, which includes the 12 nucleotides from the 5' end of the MC29 v-myc gene, did not hybridize to the 2.4-kb c-myc RNA, although it did hybridize to the less abundant 4.0-kb c-myc RNA (Fig. 3). This result suggests that the region included in probe F is part of an intron that is spliced out to generate the 2.4-kb RNA and raises the possibility that the 4.0-kb RNA is the primary transplane.



FIG. 3. Presence or absence of upstream sequences in c-myc mRNA from normal chicken thymus and from ALV-induced B-cell lymphomas. (a) Fragments used as probes and relevant restriction endonuclease sites used in generating these fragments. (b) Approximately 5-7 μ g of poly(A)⁺ RNA of normal or tumor tissues was used in each lane for gel electrophoresis. Early thymus was used as a source of normal c-myc mRNA, because c-myc mRNA is approximately 10-fold more abundant in this tissue than in most normal adult tissues (24). Band intensities do not necessarily reflect mRNA concentrations, as exposure times (up to 3 weeks) were adjusted to give similar levels of sensitivity for each of the RNA samples.

script that serves as precursor to the c-myc mRNA (2.4 kb).

Proviral Integration Sites in the ALV-Induced Lymphomas. In nearly all of the ALV-induced lymphomas that we have examined, proviral sequences were located within the 1- to 1.5-kbp region upstream of the c-myc coding exons (see Fig. 4). A majority of the integrations (\approx 70%) were clustered within the 250-bp region immediately upstream of the coding exons (Fig. 4). With one exception (tumor 11), there were no proviral integrations in the remaining 450-bp intron region in this group of tumors. In five tumors, the proviruses were located either in or close to the upstream exon. Proviruses were integrated in the same transcriptional orientation as



FIG. 4. Sites of proviral integrations in avian B-cell lymphomas. The two c-myc coding exons are designated by hatched boxes; the 12 additional nucleotides present at the 5' end of MC29 v-myc are indicated above the enlarged map at 3.0 kb. The precise boundaries of the first exon have not been firmly established. The cross-hatched box shows the location of the restriction fragment used as probe to detect the first exon. A sequence within the second exon and two upstream regions that demonstrate complementarity to this sequence (positions 437-512, 1435-1544, Fig. 2) are designated by black boxes beneath the upper c-myc map (see Discussion). Computer-assisted calculations (34) indicated that the complementarity was significant (free energy of -150 to -250 kcal/mol; 1 cal = 4.18 J). Positioning of proviral integration sites in different tumors (indicated by arrows) was based on sizes of the *Eco*RI restriction fragments, as described (25). Mapping of proviruses in tumors 7 and 10 by this method was in agreement with the localizations based on sequence analysis (Fig. 2). Scale is indicated in kbp.

that of the c-myc gene, with the exception of tumor 41 (data not shown).

Absence of the Upstream Exon from the Lymphoma-Specific myc RNAs. Although most tumor-specific myc transcripts contain approximately 100 nucleotides derived from the viral LTR, the RNAs are frequently smaller than the normal cmyc mRNA (1). Because integration sites in most ALV-induced lymphomas mapped downstream of the putative first exon, we predicted that the myc mRNAs of these tumors would lack first exon sequences.

To test this prediction, we analyzed $poly(A)^+$ RNA from eight tumors that had proviral integrations in the first intron. The results obtained from two such tumors (34 and 36) are shown in Fig. 3. Major *myc*-related transcripts of about 2.1 kb were identified with probe G (3' coding exon) in both tumors. These RNAs contained viral LTR sequences, as shown previously (1, 25), but were smaller than the normal 2.4-kb c-*myc* transcripts. The first exon probe (E) did not hybridize to the *myc* RNAs in these tumors (Fig. 3). Similar results were obtained with tumors 18, 21, 23, 35, 39, and 45 (data not shown). These observations are consistent with our previous conclusion (1, 10) that transcription of c-*myc* initiates on the viral promoter.

Probe E would be expected to hybridize to transcripts from the normal c-myc allele in ALV-induced lymphomas. The failure to detect such transcripts (Fig. 3) suggests that the normal allele is expressed at low levels (if at all) compared with the allele altered by ALV integration.

DISCUSSION

Structure of the Chicken c-myc Gene. The avian c-myc gene is composed of two coding exons interrupted by an intron of approximately 1000 bases (8-10). We have identified an additional exon included within a 600-bp region (position 951-1547) located 700 bp upstream of the coding exons. Probes derived from sequences further upstream, or immediately downstream, of this region did not hybridize to the 2.4-kb cmyc mRNA, suggesting that there are no other exons. Experiments in which S1 nuclease protection and nuclear runoff transcription assays were used also support this conclusion (35). If transcription initiates near the 5' end of the region including the upstream exon, the primary c-myc transcript would be approximately 4 kb [assuming several hundred nucleotides of poly(A)]. This is in agreement with our observation that the largest detectable c-myc poly(A)⁺ RNA is 4 kb (Fig. 3). Although we cannot rigorously exclude the possibility that additional exons, too small to be detected by any of these methods, may be present in c-myc mRNA, it seems probable that the chicken c-myc gene is composed of three exons and two introns, analogous to the structure of the human and mouse c-myc gene (6, 17, 18).

Two potential initiation sites, located approximately 1 and 2 kb upstream of the coding exons, were identified by in vitro transcription of cloned c-myc DNA (36). Both of these sites correspond to major DNAse I-hypersensitive sites (20). Our localization of the upstream exon suggests that the more proximal initiation site functions in vivo, at least in the tissue examined (normal thymus). This would place the initiation site near potential "CAT" and "TATA" sequences (37, 38), located at positions 1138-1143 (G-C-A-T-C-T) and 1166-1171 (T-T-T-A-A-A) (Fig. 2). There is no ATG codon for nearly 500 bp downstream of this putative promoter region. Furthermore, there are termination codons in all three reading frames, suggesting that the upstream exon of the chicken c-myc gene is noncoding and that protein synthesis initiates in the second exon, at position 2268. A possible splice donor site (30, 31) is located at position 1462–1467. The sequence at this site (G-G-T-G-A-G) is identical to that at the splice donor site that functions to join the two c-myc coding exons (14). If this site is used, the intron separating the noncoding and coding exons would be 790 bp. There are several other candidate splice donor sites in this region (e.g., positions 1540 and 1645), but these show lower homology with the published consensus sequences.

The nucleotide sequences of the first exons of mouse and human c-myc are approximately 70% homologous—a surprisingly high level of conservation for a noncoding region (18). This has led several investigators to propose that the first exon plays some critical role for which there is a strong selective pressure. However, this conservation does not extend to the chicken gene. We could find no significant homology between the noncoding exon of chicken and those of either mouse or human. In fact, no significant homology was found between the human or mouse first exons and the entire 2.2-kbp upstream region of chicken c-myc.

Proviral Integration Sites in ALV-Induced Lymphomas. In nearly all chicken ALV-induced lymphomas, proviral integrations are located within 1–1.5 kbp upstream of the coding sequences (Fig. 4; refs. 2, 3, and 39). [Exceptions include one tumor in which integration was downstream from c-myc (2), two cell lines in which integration was 2–2.5 kbp upstream of the coding exons (40), and several lymphomas with integrations even further upstream (H. L. Robinson, personal communication).]

Proviral-cellular junctions from five different lymphomas have been cloned and sequenced (refs. 10 and 41; R. A. Swift and H.-J. Kung, personal communication). By comparing these sequences with the sequence of the upstream region (Fig. 2), these junctions can be precisely localized to positions 1461, 1740,[§] 1769, 2001, and 2102 (Fig. 2).

Although in two of these cases integration occurred within a sequence of alternating A-T residues, no cellular sequences were common to all five integration sites. This suggests that proviral integration does not involve recognition of a specific nucleotide sequence. However, the distribution of integration sites in the upstream region is not random (Fig. 4). More than two-thirds of the integrations are clustered within a 250-bp region immediately upstream of the coding exons. A remarkable feature of this 250-bp sequence is a stretch of 62 A-T residues (position 2052-2114), interrupted only by a single guanosine residue. This region also corresponds to a DNase I-hypersensitive site (20). Either the low melting A-T sequence or the more open chromatin structure (or both) may make this region more accessible to proviral integrations. There are also a number of palindromic sequences in this region that might play some role in integration.

Alternatively, the nonrandom distribution of integration sites in lymphomas may reflect a selection for integration events that lead to neoplastic growth. For example, integrations distal to the coding sequences might generate functional c-myc mRNA only if they occur upstream of a potential splice donor sequence, which would permit removal of unnecessary (and perhaps inhibitory) intron sequences (10). All of the distal integrations that have been precisely localized (at positions 1461, 1740, 1769, and 2001) are located just upstream of consensus splice donor sequences (Fig. 2).

Altered c-myc Expression in Oncogenesis. In most ALV-induced lymphomas, integration has occurred in or downstream of the first exon. The normal transcriptional control sequences of the c-myc gene, presumably located upstream of the first exon, would thus be displaced by the viral regulatory signals in the LTR. In tumors carrying truncated c-myc mRNA, we could demonstrate that the c-myc allele altered by proviral integration was expressed at levels at least 100-

[§]The inducing virus was chicken syncytial virus, rather than ALV (H.-J. Kung, personal communication).

Several groups have postulated that the 5' noncoding exon plays a regulatory role, controlling c-myc expression at either the transcriptional or post-transcriptional level (6, 18, 19). One model, based on a proposed secondary structure resulting from complementarity between sequences in the first and second exons, suggests a translational control of human c-myc gene expression (19). The corresponding second exon region of the chicken c-myc gene shows significant complementarity to two regions within the 2.2-kbp upstream region (Fig. 4). The significance of the complementarity, however, is unclear. One of the complementary sequences (position 1435-1544) may be partially included in the first exon, but the other (437-512) is located further upstream. Because the tumor-specific myc mRNAs of most ALV-induced lymphomas lack the first exon, they would not be subject to any regulation that might be conferred by the 5' noncoding exon. Loss of the first exon is not an absolute requirement for tumor induction by ALV, however, since tumors with proviruses integrated further upstream retain first exon sequences. Similarly, in the murine plasmacytoma and human Burkitt lymphoma systems, loss of the first exon is often, but not invariably, associated with translocations involving c-*myc* (refs. 18, 35, 42).

The ways in which cellular genes may be altered in oncogenesis vary from gene to gene. In some cases, somatic mutations in the coding sequences of cellular oncogenes may result in the production of variant gene products, for example the c-*ras* gene (43). In contrast, altered regulation of gene expression most likely accounts for the transformed phenotype in other tumors. Disruption of the complex regulation of normal c-*myc* expression—by proviral integration (1–3), chromosomal translocation (4–7), or gene amplification (44– 46)—appears to be the common feature of tumors in which c*myc* has been implicated.

We would like to thank L. O'Connor for help in preparation of this manuscript, E. Prediger for assistance in analysis of nucleic acid secondary structure, N. Goldberg and K. Lewison for technical assistance, and S. Henikoff for invaluable assistance with dideoxy chain-termination sequencing. This work was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health (CA34502), Bristol Meyers, and the Kleberg Foundation (W.S.H.) and by National Institutes of Health Grant CA18282 (M.L.). M.M.G. is the recipient of a postdoctoral fellowship from the Damon Runyon–Walter Winchell Fund.

- 1. Hayward, W. S., Neel, B. G. & Astrin, S. M. (1981) Nature (London) 290, 475-480.
- Payne, G. S., Bishop, J. M. & Varmus, H. E. (1982) Nature (London) 295, 209-214.
- 3. Fung, Y.-K. T., Crittenden, L. B. & Kung, H.-J. (1982) J. Virol. 44, 742-746.
- Shen-Ong, G. L. C., Keath, E. J., Piccoli, S. P. & Cole, M. D. (1982) Cell 31, 443–452.
- Taub, R., Kirsch, I., Morton, C., Lenoir, G., Swan, D., Tronick, S., Aaronson, S. & Leder, P. (1982) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79, 7837-7841.
- Stanton, L. W., Watt, R. & Marcu, K. B. (1983) Nature (London) 303, 401–406.
- Dalla-Favera, R., Bregni, M., Erikson, J., Patterson, D., Gallo, R. C. & Croce, C. M. (1982) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79, 7824–7827.
- Vennstrom, B., Sheiness, D., Zabielski, J. & Bishop, J. M. (1982) J. Virol. 42, 773-779.
- Robins, T., Bister, K., Garon, C., Papas, T. & Duesberg, P. (1982) J. Virol. 41, 635–642.
- Neel, B. G., Gasic, G. P., Rogler, C. E., Skalka, A. M., Ju, G., Hishinuma, F., Papas, T., Astrin, S. M. & Hayward, W. S. (1982) J. Virol. 44, 158-166.
- 11. Sheiness, D. & Bishop, J. M. (1979) J. Virol. 31, 514-521.
- Alitalo, K., Bishop, J. M., Smith, D. H., Chen, E. Y., Colby, W. W. & Levinson, A. D. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 100-104.

- Reddy, E. P., Reynolds, R. K., Watson, D. K., Schultz, R. A., Lautenberger, J. & Papas, T. S. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 2500-2504.
- Watson, D. K., Reddy, E. P., Duesberg, P. H. & Papas, T. S. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 2146–2150.
- Watson, D. K., Psallidopoulos, E. C., Samuel, K. P., Dalla-Favera, R. & Papas, T. S. (1983) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 80, 3642–3645.
- Colby, W. W., Chen, E. Y., Smith, D. H. & Levinson, A. D. (1983) Nature (London) 301, 722-725.
- Watt, R., Nishikura, K., Sorrentino, J., Ar-Rushdi, A., Croce, C. M. & Rovera, G. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 6307-6311.
- Battey, J., Moulding, C., Taub, R., Murphy, W., Stewart, T., Potter, H., Lenoir, G. & Leder, P. (1983) Cell 34, 779-787.
- Saito, H., Hayday, A. C., Wiman, K., Hayward, W. S. & Tonegawa, S. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 7476– 7480.
- 20. Schubach, W. & Groudine, M. (1984) Nature (London), 307, 702-708.
- Dodgson, J. B., Strommer, J. & Engel, J. D. (1979) Cell 17, 879–887.
- 22. Maxam, A. & Gilbert, W. (1980) Methods Enzymol. 65, 499-560.
- 23. Sanger, F., Nicklen, S. & Coulson, A. R. (1977) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74, 5463-5467.
- Hayward, W. S., Shih, C.-K. & Moscovici, C. (1983) in Cetus-UCLA Symposium on Tumor Viruses and Differentiation, eds. Scolnick, E. M. & Levine, A. J. (Liss, New York), pp. 279-287.
- Neel, B. G., Hayward, W. S., Robinson, H. L., Fang, J. & Astrin, S. M. (1981) Cell 23, 323–334.
- Maniatis, T., Fritsch, E. F. & Sambrook, J. (1982) Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY).
- 27. McMaster, G. K. & Carmichael, G. G. (1977) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74, 4835-4838.
- Thomas, P. S. (1980) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 77, 5201– 5205.
- Rigby, P. W. J., Dieckmann, M., Rhodes, C. & Berg, P. (1977) J. Mol. Biol. 113, 237–251.
- Lerner, M. R., Boyle, J. A., Mount, S. M., Wolin, S. L. & Steitz, J. (1980) Nature (London) 283, 220-224.
- 31. Sharp, P. A. (1981) Cell 23, 643-646.
- 32. Schwartz, D. E., Tizard, R. & Gilbert, W. (1983) Cell 32, 853-869.
- 33. Neuberger, M. S. & Calabi, F. (1983) Nature (London) 305, 240-243.
- 34. Zuker, M. & Stiegler, P. (1981) Nucleic Acids Res. 9, 133-148.
- Wiman, K. G., Clarkson, B., Hayday, A. C., Saito, H., Tonegawa, S. & Hayward, W. S. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, in press.
- Neel, B. G. (1982) Dissertation (The Rockefeller University, New York).
- 37. Benoist, C., O'Hare, K., Breathnach, R. & Chambon, P. (1980) Nucleic Acids Res. 8, 127–142.
- Grosveld, G. C., de Boer, E., Shewmaker, C. K. & Flavell, R. A. (1982) Nature (London) 295, 120–126.
- Rovigatti, V., Royler, C., Neel, B., Hayward, W. & Astrin, S. (1982) in *Tumor Cell Heterogeneity*, eds. Owens, A. H., Coffey, D. S. & Baylin, S. B. (Academic, New York), pp. 319– 330.
- Pachl, C., Schuback, W., Eisenman, R. & Linial, M. (1983) Cell 33, 335-344.
- 41. Westaway, D., Payne, G. & Varmus, H. E. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81, 843-847.
- 42. Erikson, J., Finan, J., Nowell, P. & Croce, C. M. (1982) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79, 5611-5615.
- Tabin, C. J., Bradly, S. M., Bargmann, C. I., Weinberg, R. A., Papageorge, A. G., Scolnick, E. M., Dhar, R., Lowy, D. L. & Chang, E. H. (1982) Nature (London) 300, 143-149.
- 44. Dalla-Favera, R., Wong-Staal, F. & Gallo, R. C. (1982) Nature (London) 299, 61-63.
- 45. Collins, S. & Groudine, M. (1982) Nature (London) 298, 679-681.
- Alitalo, K., Schwab, M., Lin, C. C., Varmus, H. E. & Bishop, J. M. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 1707–1711.