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Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, Vol. 80, No. 24, [Part 1: Biological Sciences] (Dec. 15, 1983), 7476-7480.

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# Activation of the c-myc gene by translocation: A model for translational control

(cellular oncogene/non-Hodgkin lymphoma/multiple promoters/DNA sequence)

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Communicated by S. E. Luria, September 6, 1983

We have shown that the human cellular oncogene c-myc is composed of three exons and is transcribed from two initiation sites separated by 175-base-pair DNA in HeLa cells. For both resulting mRNA species, exon 1 composes the 5' untranslated region and the initiator methionine is located 16 base pairs downstream from the 5' splice acceptor of exon 2. In a non-Hodgkin lymphoma, Manca, harboring a t(8;14) translocation, c-myc gene is broken within intron 1, and its exons 2 and 3 are translocated to a site between the heavy chain joining region cluster and  $C_{\mu}$ coding DNA segment of the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus. The translocated c-myc gene is transcribed from points within intron 1 but is apparently still translated from the same methionine codon as the mRNA from the unrearranged c-myc gene. The nucleotide sequence of the c-myc gene shows that a region of exon 1 is highly complementary to a region of exon 2. Thus the mRNA from the untranslocated c-myc gene, as opposed to that of the translocated c-myc gene, could form a stable stem-loop structure  $(\Delta G^0 = -90 \text{ kcal/mol}; 1 \text{ cal} = 4.184 \text{ J})$  where the initiator AUG would be located within the loop. In view of the bind-and-scan model for the initiation of eukarvotic translation, we propose that such a secondary structure will severely hinder the translation. We further propose that the c-myc gene is often activated by translocation through the escape from such a translational suppression.

Avian myelocytomatosis virus, MC29, causes a wide range of tumors in chickens and transforms chicken fibroblasts and macrophages *in vitro*. The viral oncogene apparently responsible is v-myc. The v-myc protein is a fusion product of part of the major viral structural protein (gag) sequences and sequences transduced from the chicken genome (1, 2). The transduced sequences are derived from a cellular gene, c-myc (3–5).

Activation of chicken c-myc has been suggested as the means by which the nonacute avian leukosis virus induces neoplastic disease. By integrating close to the c-myc gene, the avian leukosis provirus can lead to enhanced levels of c-myc transcription (6). In addition, in a human cell line (HL60) derived from an acute promyelocytic leukemia, the human c-myc gene is amplified and there is a concomitant amplification of c-myc mRNA (7, 8). Amplification of the c-myc gene has also been observed in a human colon carcinoma cell line (9).

Nonrandom chromosomal translocations have been observed in a wide variety of vertebrate neoplasms (10–12). These observations, together with the demonstration of c-myc activation by avian leukosis virus integration, have led to the suggestion that c-onc genes might be activated by specific translocation events (6, 11, 12). In support of this idea, recent studies have shown that c-myc is translocated in certain lymphoid neo-

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plasms of both mice and humans. In particular, murine c-myc on chromosome 15 is recombined into the heavy chain locus of mouse immunoglobulin genes (on chromosome 12) in BALB/ c plasmacytomas characterized by t(12;15) translocations (13-17). The human c-muc gene has been mapped to a site on chromosome 8 (q24) (16, 17) that corresponds to the break point associated with translocations in Burkitt and other non-Hodgkin lymphomas. In a majority of Burkitt lymphomas characterized by t(8;14) (q24;q32) translocations, the c-myc gene on chromosome 8 is recombined into the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus on chromosome 14 (16, 18, 19). In other Burkitt lymphomas the translocations  $t(8;22)\ (q24;q11)$  and  $t(2;8)\ (p12;q24)$ may recombine the c-myc gene close to the  $\lambda$  and  $\kappa$  immunoglobulin light chain loci, respectively. Do these translocations directly activate the oncogenic potential of the c-myc gene? If so, what is the mechanism for the activation?

In this communication the structure and expression of a normal and a translocated human c-myc gene are compared. This comparison led to the hypothesis that the expression of c-myc gene product is ordinarily suppressed at the level of translation and that this suppression is removed as a result of c-myc translocation.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

The Manca cell line (SK-DHL2A) was derived from a patient with non-Hodgkin lymphoma. The line is pseudodiploid, carrying a single copy of the characteristic t(8;14) translocation (20). Cells were kindly provided by Bayard Clarkson (Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center). The isolation of cosmid clones cU2.3 and cAH1, which contain the translocated and untranslocated versions of the human c-myc gene, respectively, will be discussed elsewhere. Nucleotide sequences were determined according to the method of Maxam and Gilbert (21). Sequence homologies were analyzed by the computer program SEQ (22). Glyoxal RNA gels, blotting of RNA to nitrocellulose filters, hybridization, and removal of the probes from the nitrocellulose filters were done according to Thomas (23). The nuclease S1 protection experiments were done by a slightly modified method of Berk and Sharp (24, 25). A 348-base-pair (bp) Hga I/Sma I fragment and a 171-bp Taq I/Sma I fragment labeled at the 5' ends by T4 polynucleotide kinase were used as probes after strand separations (see Fig. 1).

### **RESULTS**

Human c-myc Gene Consists of Three Exons. A two-exon structure for both the chicken (3–5) and human (26, 27) c-myc genes has been deduced by comparing restriction maps and nucleotide sequences with those of the v-myc gene of MC29 vi-

 $Abbreviations: bp, \ base \ pair(s); \ kb, \ kilobase(s).$ 

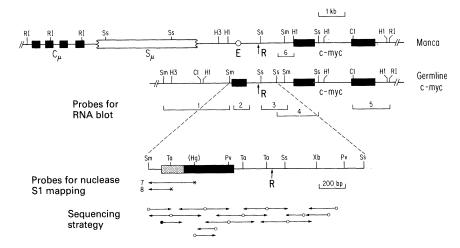


Fig. 1. Restriction maps of the germ-line c-myc gene and the rearranged c-myc gene in a non-Hodgkin lymphoma, Manca. Solid boxes are exons and the hatched box is the switch region  $(S_{\mu})$  of immunoglobulin  $\mu$  heavy chain. The region around the first exon of the c-myc gene is enlarged in the lower panel. The dotted area in exon 1 indicates the sequence expressed only in the longer mRNA. Horizontal arrows in "Sequencing strategy" show the direction and extent of sequencing. Circles at the origins of these arrows indicate 5'-( $\odot$ ) and 3'-( $\odot$ ) end labeling. E, transcription enhancer element; R, rearrangement point in Manca. Restriction sites: Bg, Bgl II; Cl, Cla I; H1, Hpa I; H3, HindIII; Hg, Hga I; Pv, Pvu II; RI, EcoRI; Sm, Sma I; Ss, Sst I; Ta, Taq I; Xb, Xba I. Not all Hga I sites are shown. Probes used for RNA blot hybridizations (Fig. 2) are as follows: 1, 2.5-kb Sma I/Sma I; 2, 550-bp Taq I/Taq I; 3, 1.1-kb HgiAI/HgiAI; 4, 2.2-kb Sst I/Sst I; 5, 1.4-kb Cla I/EcoRI; 6, 600-bp Rsa I/Hpa I. Probes used for nuclease S1 mapping (Fig. 4) are as follows: 7, 348-base [5'- $^{32}$ P)Hga I/Sma I; 8, 171-base [5'- $^{32}$ P)Taq I/Sma I.

rus. However, more recent sequence analysis of a human c-myc cDNA clone (28) suggests the presence of a third exon upstream of these two exons. To establish the exon-intron structure of the human c-muc gene, a series of DNA fragments (Fig. 1, probes 1–5) was dissected from a genomic c-myc gene clone cAH1 (unpublished results) and used as hybridization probes for RNA blotting analysis of the c-myc mRNA from HeLa cells (Fig. 2). Probes 4 and 5, which contain the previously deduced 5' and 3' exons of the c-myc gene, respectively, both hybridized to a mRNA of about 2.3 kilobases (kb). In addition, probe 2, which contains a 550-bp sequence located 1.6 kb upstream of the 5' exon, hybridized to RNA of the same apparent size. Because probe 3 (a 1.1-kb fragment occurring between the probe 2 and the previously defined 5' exon) did not hybridize to the 2.3-kb RNA, the RNA sequence detected by probe 2 must have been transcribed from an additional exon-probably the one suggested by Watt et al. (28).

No additional exon was found in the 2.5-kb region immediately upstream of the area covered by probe 2. These results suggest that the human c-myc gene is composed of three exons. Hereafter, these exons will be called exons 1, 2, and 3 from 5' to 3'.

To confirm that the RNA sequence detected by probe 2 indeed represents a single exon, we determined the DNA sequence of the region covered by this probe and its immediate flanking region, using the strategy indicated in Fig. 1. The sequence is shown in Fig. 3 together with part of the exon 2 sequence previously determined (27). Comparison of the genomic sequence with the cDNA sequence (28) allows the 3' boundary of exon 1 to be assigned to nucleotide 657. In the region upstream of this splice site the entire 5' portion of the cDNA sequence of Watt et al. (28) is accounted for by a continuous stretch of the genomic DNA sequence presented here, except for 3 single bp insertions or deletions. This indicates that no additional introns split the c-myc gene, at least not in the region covered by the cDNA clone. The reasons for the discrepancies between the genomic DNA and cDNA sequences are unknown, but at least some may be attributed to human poly-

Two Major Transcription Initiation Sites in the c-myc Gene. To accurately localize the 5' end of exon 1 on the genomic DNA

sequence we carried out nuclease S1 protection experiments using probes composed of the two genomic DNA fragments thought to span the 5' boundary of exon 1 (Fig. 1, probes 7 and 8). The results (Fig. 4) indicate that two alternative sites define the 5' boundaries of exon 1, one at nucleotide position 104 and the other at position 279 (Fig. 3).

Upstream of each of these sites are "TATA" sequences, characteristic of many eukaryotic promoters (29). No sequence characteristic of splice acceptor sites (30) precedes either of the two boundaries (note that the conserved A-G dinucleotide alone is not a sufficient condition). The sizes of the c-myc mRNAs [2,200 bp and 2,030 bp plus poly(A)] predicted by summing the sizes of the three exons match well with the sizes of the mRNA detected by RNA blotting (2.3 kb). In fact, close inspection of the RNA blot data (Fig. 2) indicates that the 2.3-kb band is a doublet. We thus conclude that the c-myc gene is transcribed from at least two start sites in HeLa cells. The sequences covered by the two probes used in the nuclease S1 protection experiment overlap with the 5' end of the cDNA sequence (28).

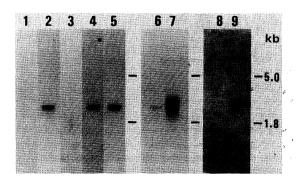


FIG. 2. Lanes 1–5: RNA blot hybridization showing the locations of c-myc exons and introns. Three micrograms of HeLa poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA was transferred to a nitrocellulose filter after electrophoresis through an agarose gel. The same filter was hybridized to probes 1–5 (shown in Fig. 1), one probe at a time and after completely washing off the previous probe. Size markers are 28S and 18S mouse rRNA. Lanes 6–9: RNA blot hybridization of HeLa (lanes 6 and 8) and Manca (lanes 7 and 9) poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA (1  $\mu$ g) to the exon 3 probe (probe 5 in Fig. 1) (lanes 6 and 7) or the intron 1 probe (probe 6 in Fig. 1) (lanes 8 and 9).

SmaI TATA box 100
CCCGGGTTCC CAAAGCAGAG GGCGTGGGGG AAAAGAAAAA AGATCCTCTC TCGCTAATCT CCGCCCACCG GCCCTT <u>TATA AT</u> CCGAGGGT CTGGACGGCT
CAP site 1 TaqI 200  GAGGACCCC GAGCIGIGCT GCTCGCGGCC GCCACCGCCC GGCCCCGGCC GTCCCTGCC CTCGAGAAGG GCAGGCTTC TCAGAGGCTT
TATA box  GCCGGGAAAA AGAACGGAGG GAGGGATCGC GCTGAG <u>TATA AA</u> AGCCGGTT TTCGGGGCTT TATCTAACTC GCTGTAGTAA TT <u>CCACCGAG AGGCAGAGG</u>
400 <u>AGCGAGCOGG CGGCCGGCTA GGGTGGAAGA GCCGGGCGAG CAGAGCTGCG</u> CTGCGGGCGT CCTGGGAAGG GAGATCCGGA GCGAATAGGG GGCTTCGCCT
CTGGCCCAGC COTCCCGCTG ATCCCCCAGC CAGCGGTCCG CAACCCTTGC CGCATCCACG AAACTTTGCC CATAGCAGCG GGCGGCCACT TTGCACTGGA
ACTIACAACA CCCGAGCAAG GACGCGACTC TCCCGACCGC GGGAGGCTAT TCTGCCCATT TGGGGACACT TCCCCGCCGC TGCCAGGACC CGCTTCTCTG $^{600}$
PVUII  AAAGGCTCTC CTTGCAGCTG CTTAGACGCT GGATTTTTTT CCGGTAGTGG AAAACCAGGT AAGCACCGAA GTCCACTTGC CTTTTAATTT ATTTTTTTAT
TaqI 800 CACTTTAATG CTGAGATGAG TCGAATGCCT AAATAGGGTG TCTTTTCTCC CATTCCTGCG CTATTGACAC TTTTCTCAGA GTAGTTATGG TAACTGGGGC
900 TGGGGTGGGG GGTAATCCAG AACTGGATCG GGGTAAAGTG ACTTGTCAAG ATGGGAGAGG AGAAGGCAGA GGGAAAACGG GAATGGTTTT TAAGACTACC Rearrangement point
TaqI in "Manca" 1000 CTT <u>TCGAG</u> AT TTCTGCCTTA TGAATATATT CACGCTGACT CCCGGCCGG <u>T</u> CGGACATTCC TGCTTTATTG TGTTAATTGC TCTCTGGGTT TTCGGGGGCCT
Sst1 1100 GGGGGTTGCT TTGCGGTGGG CAGAAAGCCC CTTGCATCCT GAGCTCCTTG GAGTAGGGAC CGCATATCGC CTGTGTGAGC CAGATCGCC CGCAGTCGCT
1200 GACTTGTCCC CGTCTCCGGG AGGGCATTTA AATTTCGGCT CACCGCATTT CTGACAGCCG GAGACGGACA CTGCGGCGCG TCCCGCCCGC CTGTCCCCCC
Xbai 1300 GGCGATTCCA ACCCGCCCTG ATCCTTTTAA GAAGTTGGCA TTTGGCTTTT TAAAAAGCCA TAATACAAGT TAAAACCTGG GTC <u>TCTAGA</u> G GTGTTAGGAC
1400 CTGCTGTTGG GTAGGCGCAG GCAGGGGAAA AGGGAGGCGA GGATGTGTCC GATTCTCCTG GAATCGTTGA CTTGGAAAAA CCAGGGCGAA TCTCCGCACC
2200 CAGCCCTGAC TCCCCTGCCG CGGCCGCCCT CGGGTAGC TCTGCAAGGG GAGAGGTTCG GGACTGTGGC
♦ Splice site 2297 GCGCACTGCG CGCTGCGCCA GGTTTCCGCA CCAAGACCCC TTTAACTCAA GACTGCCTCC CGCTTTGTGT GCCCCGCTCC AGCAGCCTCC CGCGACG
TaqI 2378
ATG CCC CTC AAC GIT AGC TIC ACC AAC AGG AAC TAT GAC CTC GAC TAC GAC TCG GTG CAG CCG TAT TTC TAC TGC GAC GAG Met Pro Leu Abn Val Ser Phe Thr Abn Arg Abn Tyr Abp Leu Abp Tyr Abp Ser Val Gln Pro Tyr Phe Tyr Cyb Abp Glu
GAG GAG AAC TTC TAC CAG CAG CAG CAG CAG GAG AGC GAG GAG CCC CCG GCG CCC AGC GAG GAT ATC TGG AAG AAA TT <u>C CAG</u> Glu Glu Asn Phe Tyr Gln Gln Gln Gln Gln Ser Glu Leu Gln Pro Pro Ala Pro Ser Glu Asp Ile Trp Lys Lys Phe Glu
2540 <u>CTG CTG CCC ACC CCG CCC CTG TCC CCT AGC CQC CGC TCC GQG CTC TGC TCG CCC TCC TAC GTT GCG G</u> TC ACA CCC TTC TCC  Leu Leu Pro Thr Pro Pro Leu Ser Pro Ser Arg Arg Ser Gly Leu Cys Ser Pro Ser Tyr Val Ala Val Thr Pro Phe Ser
2615 CTT CGG GGA GAC AAC GAC GGC GGT GGC GGG AGC TTC TCC ACG GCC GAC CAG CTG GAG ATG GTG ACC GAG CTG CTG Leu Arg Gly Asp Asn Asp Gly Gly Gly Gly Ser Phe Ser Thr Ala Asp Gln Leu Glu Met Val Thr Glu Leu Lue

Fig. 3. Nucleotide sequence of exon 1 of the human c-myc gene and the flanking region. Also shown is the 5' end of exon 2 whose sequence was determined by Colby et al. (27). The intron and the 5' untranscribed region are indicated by italics. The predicted amino acid sequence is shown under the nucleotide sequence. The upward arrow indicates the break point in the translocation in Manca. Downward arrows indicate the transcription initiation sites or splice sites. The two sequences in exon 1 and exon 2 that are complementary to each other are underlined.

Thus, all the above results indicate that no additional introns split the c-myc gene in the 5' region, confirming that this gene is composed by three exons. Because the cDNA reported by Watt et al. (28) starts at nucleotide 118, the corresponding mRNA is likely to have been transcribed from start site 1.

Exon 1 Does Not Code for Protein. The first exon has no ATG codon in any of the three reading frames, while it has termination codons in all of the three reading frames (Fig. 3). These observations strongly indicate that exon 1 of the human c-myc gene has no protein-coding capacity. The first ATG codon appears in the second exon and is followed by a long coding frame showing a strong homology to the v-myc gene of MC29 virus (27).

The Translocated c-myc Gene Is Often Devoid of Exon 1 and Its Transcription Initiates Within Intron 1. In several Burkitt lymphomas harboring t(8;14) translocations the break points on the side of the c-myc gene have been mapped within 1–2 kb 5' of exon 2 (19). As shown in Fig. 1, and as will be described in detail elsewhere, the break point of the translocated c-myc gene in a non-Hodgkin lymphoma line (Manca) has been mapped to within intron 1 at a point 291 bp downstream of the 3' end of exon 1. Thus this c-myc gene is devoid of the entire exon 1 as well as the associated transcriptional promoters. To define the intron-exon structure of the translocated c-myc gene RNA blot

analyses of the Manca RNA were carried out using exon 3 and intron 1 probes (probes 5 and 6, respectively, in Fig. 1). RNA from HeLa cells was used as a control for the transcription of

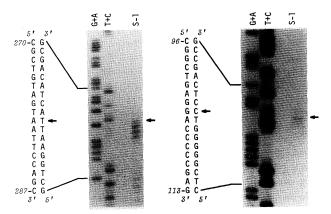


Fig. 4. Nuclease S1 map of the transcription initiation sites of the germ-line c-myc gene. One microgram of HeLa mRNA was hybridized individually to probe 7 (Left) or 8 (Right) (see Fig. 1). The protected sequence was electrophoresed through urea/acrylamide gel. For the size marker, the G+A and T+C sequence ladders of the probes were used. The possible initiation sites are indicated by arrows.

an untranslocated c-myc gene. As shown in Fig. 2 (lanes 6-9), the exon 3 probe detected the 2.3-kb RNA in HeLa cells and the 2.6- and 2.2-kb RNA in Manca cells. As expected, the 2.3kb HeLa RNA was not detectable with the intron 1 probe. By contrast, both the 2.6- and 2.2-kb Manca RNAs hybridized with the intron 1 probe, suggesting that the sequence in this intron is part of an exon in the translocated c-myc gene. That this exonic sequence is in fact contiguous with the exon 2 sequence in the mRNA derived from the translocated c-myc gene has been shown by nucleotide sequence analysis of a cDNA clone isolated from Manca cells (unpublished data). Furthermore, nuclease S1 protection experiments with Manca RNA indicate that new transcription start sites located within intron 1 are used for the transcription of the translocated c-myc gene. Despite the alteration in the mRNA, the translation initiation site is conserved on translocation because no ATG codon is present between the new transcription start sites and the ATG codon located in the 5' region of exon 2 (ref. 27; unpublished results). Similar features of a translocated c-myc gene in the mouse plasmacytoma system were recently described by Stanton et al. (31).

#### **DISCUSSION**

The data presented here indicate that the human c-myc gene comprises three exons, transcribed from two initiation sites separated by 175 bp in HeLa cells. For both resultant mRNA species, exon 1 lacks a methionine codon and is therefore noncoding. Instead, the initiator methionine is located 16 bp downstream from the 5' splice acceptor of exon 2. In a non-Hodgkin lymphoma, Manca, harboring a t(8;14) translocation, the c-myc gene is broken within intron 1, and its exons 2 and 3 are translocated to a site between the  $J_H$  cluster and  $C_\mu$ -coding segments of the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus. This translocated c-myc gene is therefore devoid of exon 1 and is transcribed from points normally located within intron 1 of the c-myc gene. Despite this, the mRNA from the translocated c-myc gene is apparently translated from the same methionine codon as the mRNA from the unrearranged c-myc gene.

Does the lack of expression of exon 1 have an important ef-

fect per se in cells with such c-myc translocations? Examination of the c-myc sequence (Fig. 3) reveals a region of exon 1 (nucleotides 283-350) to have high complementarity to a region of exon 2 (nucleotides 2,456-2,526) (Fig. 5A). A stem-loop secondary structure for the human c-myc RNA may therefore be proposed. The standard free energy change ( $\Delta G^0$ ) of -90 kcal/ mol (1 cal = 4.184 J) predicted for such a structure (32) would be sufficient to maintain it under physiological conditions. The initiator AUG would then be located within the loop (Fig. 5 B and C). According to the "bind-and-scan" model for eukaryotic translation, the 40S ribosome subunit binds the 5'-terminus of mRNA and migrates toward the initiator AUG (33). This binding and migration is severely hindered when secondary structure is introduced into mRNA; reduction of secondary structure has the opposite effect (34). The negative effect of base pairing on the translational efficiency of prokaryotic RNA has also been demonstrated (35, 36). Therefore, the initiator AUG in the human c-myc RNA can be adjudged to be inaccessible to efficient initiation of translation.

By contrast, the lack of exon 1 in the c-myc RNA from the translocated gene means that such a stem-loop structure cannot be formed for this RNA. The transcript from the translocated c-myc gene is therefore quite likely to be translated at a much higher efficiency than the transcript from the unrearranged c-myc gene. The translocation may therefore result directly in overproduction of the myc gene product.

To date, precise sites of c-myc rearrangements have been mapped for only a few Burkitt lymphomas and non-Hodgkin lymphomas (ref. 19; unpublished results; this study). Among these, at least three (Lou, W1, and Manca) have rearrangement sites within exon 1 or intron 1. Similarly, in the three murine plasmacytomas (J558, M167, and M603) for which myc rearrangements have been documented at the nucleotide level, either a complete exon 1 or the normal transcriptional promoter is lost (19, 31). In short, the loss of exon 1 may be a common feature of human Burkitt lymphomas and murine plasmacytomas in which c-myc is rearranged. Therefore, the overproduction of the myc gene product via a translational mechanism may be a common feature for cells harboring these translocations. This

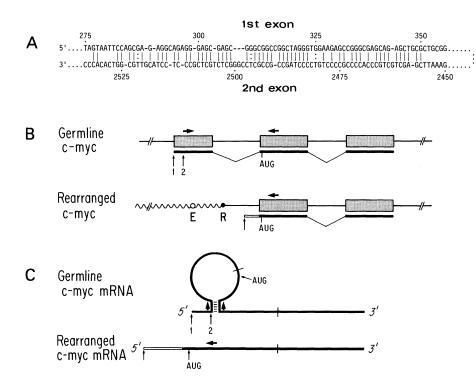


Fig. 5. (A) Internal sequence complementarity seen in exon 1 and exon 2 of the germ-line (untranslocated) c-myc gene. The nucleotide numbers are as in Fig. 3. The hydrogen-bond forming bases are connected by bars. G·T pairs, which in RNA are allowed to make weak hydrogen bonds as G·U pairs, are indicated by dots. Deletions indicated by dashes are included to maximize the complementarity. (B) Schematic representations of the transcription and splicing of the germ-line (untranslocated) and translocated c-myc genes. The germ-line c-myc gene is transcribed from one of the two initiation sites 5' of exon 1; the translocated c-myc gene is transcribed from initiation sites within the intron. Only one of the initiation sites in intron 1 is shown. (C)Possible secondary structures of c-myc RNA. The germ-line c-myc RNA can form a stemloop structure, with the initiation AUG codon within the loop. The c-myc mRNA from the translocated c-myc gene has a different 5' structure and cannot form the stem-loop structure.

mechanism may also play a role in avian leukosis virus-induced B-cell lymphomas. The vast majority of proviral integrations in these tumors is located within a region that would correspond to intron 1 of human c-myc (i.e., 0-1 kb upstream of exon 2 of chicken c-myc) (refs. 5, 37-39; unpublished data). Although the precise boundaries of exon 1 in the chicken c-myc gene have not been defined, sequencing data have revealed a region within the putative exon 1 that would form a stable stem-loop structure with sequence in exon 2 (unpublished data), in a manner analogous to that described here for the human c-muc gene.

There may be cases in which c-myc rearrangements occur at some distance from the c-myc gene (e.g., see ref. 19) and in which it is therefore not easy to apply the model for c-myc overproduction presented here. In these cases, overproduction of c-myc may be due to transcriptional effects (14, 40-42). In the case described here, Manca, the rearranged c-myc gene is brought close to sequences that, like their murine counterparts (43, 44), have profound tissue-specific transcription-enhancing activity. The possible effect of these sequences on the transcription of the altered c-myc gene is being examined. It may be possible to find other such enhancers in the neighborhood of other translocated c-myc genes.

In summary, there clearly exist multiple mechanisms by which the c-myc gene can be activated in cancerous cells. These include its amplification in promyelocytic leukemia and its transcriptional activation by nearby viral elements in avian leukosis virus-induced lymphomas. We wish to add to this list its activation by a translational mechanism that occurs as the result of the disruption of the gene during translocation in both mouse and human.

We thank John McMaster, Lena Angman, and Anne Manwell for excellent technical assistance. A.C.H was supported by a postdoctoral fellowship from the Imperial Cancer Research Fund (London), and K.W. was supported by a European Molecular Biology Organization long-term fellowship. This work was supported by Grants AI-17879 (S.T.) and CA-14051 (a core grant to S. E. Luria) and CA34502 (W.S.H.) from the National Institutes of Health.

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